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CHAPTER 1

The Beginnings of Civilization: 10,000 - 2000 B.C.E.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Culture, Agriculture, and Civilization

Anthropologists define culture as humans’ ability to adapt to their environment and pass their life experiences on to future generations. While each region has a distinct culture, all cultures borrow from their neighbors, thus creating change over time. Culture is distinct from civilization, which is defined as a city-based society in which there are differing occupations and levels of wealth wherein elites exercise economic, political, and religious power.

A. The Food-Producing Revolution

By 6500 B.C.E., humans secured for themselves a dependable food supply by planting crops and domesticating animals. As a result, the human population increased, food surpluses allowed for economic specialization and exchange, and the emergence of civilization was made possible.

B. The First Food-Producing Communities

Archaeological excavations of Neolithic sites in Southwest Asia give evidence of the agricultural revolution leading to forms of political organization and religious observance, as well as long-distance trade.

II. The Birth of Civilization in Southwest Asia

By 6000 B.C.E., settled, expanding communities that relied on farming and herding were widespread in Southwest Asia. Commerce stimulated interaction between these communities and out of that they developed a more uniform culture that set the stage for the emergence of civilization in Southwest Asia.

A. Sumer: A Constellation of Cities in Southern Mesopotamia

About 5300 B.C.E., a dynamic civilization that would last for 3,000 years began to emerge from the villages, and later cities, of Sumer (or southern Mesopotamia). In learning to control the waters of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers in order to irrigate crops, the Sumerians developed the foundation of civilization: the city. By 2500 B.C.E., about 12 cities dominated Sumer. Providing markets and encouraging craft specialists, Sumerian cities were important economic centers, in which centralized authorities directed labor and economic activity. Ultimate power in a Sumerian city lay in the hands of a king, who frequently expended his city’s resources in war against other kings. Long-distance trade, however, fostered diplomacy and increased Sumerians’ knowledge of
foreign peoples. Sumerians envisioned the natural forces of Mesopotamia’s volatile climate as gods who must be appeased, and each city was dominated by temples, especially temples to that city’s patron god or goddess. The Sumerians contributed many cultural innovations but none was more important as their development (around 3200 B.C.E.) of cuneiform, a wedge-shaped system of writing.

B. From Akkad to the Amorite Invasions

With their conquest by the Akkadian king Sargon, the Sumerian cities found themselves part of a new kind of political entity: the multiethnic empire. With such a vast empire, Akkadian kings placed great emphasis on commerce to gain revenue, and this put long-distance trade at the center of foreign policy. The Akkadian kings lost control of their empire, and the kings of Ur reunited the Sumerians under their control. The kings of Ur centralized the government and the economy. The difficulties of bringing diverse languages, cultures, and traditions under one rule led to important developments in politics, economics, and law.

C. New Mesopotamian Kingdoms: Assyria and Babylonia

Invading Mesopotamia around 2000 B.C.E., the Amorites absorbed the culture of those they had conquered and there emerged two new kingdoms: Assyria and Babylonia. Bronze-making may have helped to expand the power of Assyria beginning around 2000 B.C.E., as Assyria controlled much of the metals trade and political power came to be concentrated in the hands of the leading merchants. But by 1762 B.C.E., Assyria had fallen to Babylonia. King Ur-Nammu brought all of Mesopotamia under Babylonia’s control and gave his name to the oldest surviving Mesopotamian law code, which introduced such fundamental legal principles as suiting the punishment to the crime.

III. The Emergence of Egyptian Civilizations

Along the Nile River, ancient Egyptians created and maintained a remarkably stable civilization throughout millennia.

A. United Egypt: the Old Kingdom (ca. 3500 - 2200 B.C.E.)

Having mastered agriculture and herding by 3500 B.C.E., Egyptians saw the development of small towns along the Nile River and markets with roads connecting them. Egypt united politically, and soon after Egyptian kings established themselves as religious, social, and political focal points. Considered to be human incarnations of divinity, Egyptian kings exercised a highly centralized authority through a complex bureaucracy made possible by the development of a writing system, hieroglyphics.

1. Religious Beliefs in the Old Kingdom

Egyptians were polytheistic like the Mesopotamians, and their belief in the idea of life after death is symbolized by the mummification of the dead and the worship of Osiris.
2. The Pyramids

Symbolic entryways to the next life, Egyptian tombs were designed to provide for the deceased materially as well as spiritually, and royal burial customs grew ever more elaborate, especially in the Old Kingdom, culminating in the construction of the pyramids.

B. The Middle Kingdom: 2000 - 1800 B.C.E.

Following 200 years of anarchy, Egyptian kings restored their divine authority but were less despotic and directed many of their efforts to improving their subjects’ lives, a concern that extended to religious life as well.

C. Egyptian Encounters with Other Civilizations

Egypt was concerned with protecting its international trade and was willing to use force if necessary but preferred diplomacy and friendship when possible. The country also welcomed non-Egyptian immigrants.

IV. The Transformation of Europe

A cold climate and heavy forestation made food production more difficult in Europe than in Mesopotamia or Egypt. Farming, which did not dominate there until about 2500 B.C.E., spread slowly but steadily by the migration of food-producing peoples into Europe and the adoption of agriculture and herding by European hunter-gatherers. A variety of cultures arose but without cities or systems of writing.

A. The Linear Pottery Culture

This culture extended from modern day Holland to Russia, developed rudimentary political authority, and built communal stone tombs called megaliths.

B. The Battle Axe Cultures

Between 3500 B.C.E. and 2000 B.C.E., these cultures gradually supplanted the Linear Pottery cultures and probably introduced the ancestor of most modern European languages.

C. Technology and Social Change

Becoming widespread by 2600 B.C.E., the plow caused a dramatic expansion of European agriculture and, as a result, an increase in wealth, trade, and social stratification, laying the foundation of Europe’s aristocracy.

V. Conclusion: Civilization and the West

By 3000 B.C.E., “civilization” had not yet developed in Europe, but had developed in Mesopotamia and Egypt. Europe—the “West”—would eventually claim these Near
Eastern civilizations as remote ancestors, from whom the West inherited such crucial components as systems of writing and the idea of law codes based on abstract principles.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

- Pyramid at Gaza built
- Agriculture spreads through Europe
- Babylonian Empire collapses
- Narmer unifies Upper and Lower Egypt
- Humans settle in Abu Hureya
- Akkadian king Sargon conquers Sumer and other lands
- Development of Jericho

____ 9500 B.C.E.

____ 8500 B.C.E.

____ 7000-2500 B.C.E.

____ 2600 B.C.E.

____ 2340 B.C.E.

____ 1500 B.C.E.

**TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS**

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

- Culture
- Civilization
- Homo sapiens sapiens
- Domestication
- Food production
- Fertile crescent
- Levantine Corridor
- Abu Hureya
- Jericho
- Anatolia
- Cuneiform
- Polytheistic
- Otzi the Ice Man
- Hunter-Gatherer Societies
Catal Hüyük
Uruk
Gilgamesh
Sargon of Akkad
Empire
Ur
King Hammurabi
Hieroglyphs
Osiris
Neolithic
Linear Pottery cultures
Battle Axe cultures
Megalith
Stonehenge

MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

Ugarit  Memphis  Abu Hureya
Nineveh  Thebes  Ur
Akkad  Babylon  Uruk
Sumer  Jericho
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. Why was the agricultural revolution of the Neolithic so important to the development of civilization? How was human society different after the Neolithic revolution?

2. Discuss the political and social organization of Mesopotamia. What kept the Sumerian kings from uniting politically? What role did religion play in Mesopotamian society?

3. Discuss the political and social organization of Egypt. Why did this provide such stability in Egyptian civilization? What caused the downfall of the Egyptian Empire?

4. What roles did the Linear Pottery and the Battle Axe cultures play in the development of early European societies? In the highly stratified societies that evolved there, what role did technology play?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. In “The Clash Between Civilization and Nature: The Taming of Enkidu,” as he becomes civilized he loses some of his former abilities. Is this a common theme in other tales of transformation? Do other cultures’ mythologies repeat this theme?

2. Examine the selection from the hymn of praise to King Sesostris III. What can we imply about the traits valued in a leader of the Middle Kingdom?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. What developments were characteristic of all early civilizations? Can you develop your own definition of civilization based on the common characteristics?

2. Did Egyptian or Mesopotamian civilization reach the imperial stage of development first? How can you account for the difference between the two civilizations?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. In the Paleolithic Age, nomadic hunter-gatherers did not
   A. create works of art.
   B. sow crops.
   C. craft arrowheads.
   D. kill game animals.

2. Gilgamesh was a(n)
   A. Babylonian lawgiver.
   B. king of the Egyptian Middle Kingdom.
   C. Egyptian god of the dead.
   D. legendary king of Uruk in Sumerian tales.

3. The Sumerians marked clay tablets with a wedge-shaped form of writing called
   A. megaliths.
   B. hieroglyphics.
   C. polytheism.
   D. cuneiform.

4. Ur-Nammu, who reunited Sumerian cities, was also known for his
   A. law code.
   B. pyramid.
   C. iron tools.
   D. poetry.

5. The law code of Hammurabi
   A. aimed at rehabilitating the criminal.
   B. established the principle of equality before the law.
   C. recognized that the punishment must suit the crime.
   D. dealt only with issues of birth, death, and inheritance.

6. Which city is correctly matched with its description?
   A. Ashur – site of the Great Pyramids
   B. Babylon – Mesopotamian city
   C. Giza – center of the Akkadian Empire
   D. Abydos – located on the Tigris River
7. The Egyptian sun god was known as
   A. Ra.
   B. Thoth.
   C. Narmer.
   D. Osiris.

8. Egyptian kings
   A. claimed to be divine.
   B. claimed to control the Nile River.
   C. gave offerings to the gods.
   D. All of these

9. An example of a megalithic structure is
   A. a step pyramid.
   B. Stonehenge.
   C. the Ziggurat of Anu.
   D. a potter’s wheel.

10. The Indo-European family of languages is believed to have come from the ancestors of the
    A. Akkadians.
    B. Babylonians.
    C. Egyptians.
    D. Kurgan peoples.
CHAPTER 2

The International Bronze Age and Its Aftermath: Trade, Empire, and Diplomacy, 1600 - 550 B.C.E.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

The international trade in bronze linked the societies of Egypt, Mesopotamia, and the Mediterranean. This interaction produced commercial, technological, and cultural exchanges.

I. The Civilization of the Nile: The Egyptian Empire

Over a period of 500 years after the end of the Middle Kingdom, Egyptians made use of new military technology to create a vast multiethnic empire. Combining military expansion with diplomacy and the encouragement of foreign trade, the pharaohs made Egypt a major international force.

A. From the Hyksos Era to the New Kingdom

Invading Egypt at the end of the Middle Kingdom, the Hyksos linked Egypt to an emerging international network of commerce, technology, and diplomacy. The Hyksos also introduced a new, advanced military technology: horse-drawn. The expulsion of the Hyksos around 1550 B.C.E. marked the beginning of the New Kingdom, a period in which Egypt extended its territories. Taking the title of “pharaoh” for the first time, Egypt’s rulers were now the supreme commanders of a permanent army. Pharaohs’ powers were wide-ranging and absolute, representing the will of the gods, and these powers were exercised through a highly organized bureaucratic administrative system. Temples also played an essential part in the government of Egypt.

B. Military Expansion and Diplomatic Networks: Building an Empire in Canaan and Nubia

Chariot warfare and Egypt’s great wealth allowed the pharaohs to conquer Canaan and Nubia. Egyptians supported the extension of pharaohs power throughout the world, believing it was their responsibility to establish order in the world. Centralized administration allowed Egypt to gain enormous wealth from its empire, especially in Nubia, which fostered economic and cultural exchange. By the end of the New Kingdom, Egyptians had borrowed much from those they had conquered and they viewed non-Egyptians more positively.
C. Pharaohs: Egypt’s Dynamic Leaders

Egypt’s success depended above all on its pharaohs.

1. Hatshepsut the Female Pharaoh and Thutmose III the Conqueror

Hatshepsut carefully adapted to the male images of kingship and pursued policies that brought Egypt great prosperity, while the reign of her successor Thutmose III strengthened Egypt’s control of its territories and brought military glory.

2. The Amarna Period: The Beginning of Diplomacy

Pharaoh Akhenaten’s attempts to impose the monotheistic worship of the sun god Aten as a sole, universal god were resented and did not outlast him. After his death, the people of Egypt resumed their worship of traditional gods.

3. The Battle of Kadesh and the Age of Ramesses

The pharaohs of this dynasty put down revolts and confronted threats on their frontiers. Most importantly, they clashed with the Hittite kingdom, a conflict that eventually gave way to a treaty and almost a century of peace and flourishing commerce.

II. The Civilizations of Anatolia and Mesopotamia: The Hittite, Assyrian, and Babylonian Empires

Other large, highly centralized empires developed during the International Bronze Age.

A. The Growth of Hittite Power: Conquest and Diversity

The Hittites extended their power into Anatolia, Mesopotamia, and Syria through military conquest. This allowed for the establishment of an increasingly multiethnic empire and a flourishing trade network. Ruling in the name of the supreme God of Storms, the Hittite Great King tried to foster unity by becoming the chief priest of all the gods worshiped by the many peoples in the Hittite Empire and worked hard to provide uniform justice as well. To foster unity, the Hittites deliberately incorporated the gods of those they had conquered into their own religious system. The Hittites believed that their gods protected them and punished moral transgressions. They also believed in an afterlife.

B. The Mesopotamian Empires

The two empires emerged in Mesopotamia, Babylonia in the south and Assyria in the north, both of which controlled their subjects’ economic production and maintained diplomatic ties with other empires.
1. The Kingdom of Babylonia

Under Kassite rule, Babylonia enjoyed a golden age as a center of trade, culture, and learning. Ruling fairly and generously gained Babylonia’s kings loyalty and popularity, and the kingdom became especially renowned for its science, medicine, and literature.

2. The Kingdom of Assyria

While the Assyrian kings understood the value of diplomacy, they also knew that Assyria’s power depended on control of natural resources and trade routes and they were willing to use war to safeguard their economic interests.

III. The Civilizations of the Mediterranean: The Minoans and the Mycenaeans

The Minoan civilization on the island of Crete and the Mycenaean civilization on mainland Greece were the first civilizations in Europe. Mediating between these first European civilizations and the Egyptian and Hittite Empires were small coastal states, the most prosperous of which were Ugarit and Troy.

A. Minoan Crete

Becoming highly skilled navigators, the Minoans made Crete a thriving center of long-distance trade. Four major urban administrative centers, called palaces, controlled the Minoan economy, suggesting a highly centralized political authority. These centers gathered in agricultural produce and housed craftsmen and artists, providing the goods that fueled the Minoan merchants’ extensive trade and producing the wealth that allowed the elites to live in great luxury. Despite the array of religious artifacts unearthed by archaeologists, Minoan religion remains a mystery. The sudden collapse of Minoan power and prosperity around 1450 B.C.E. is also not fully understood, nor the possible role in it of the Mycenaean Greeks.

B. Mycenaean Greece

Mycenaean civilization is the term applied to the culture of perhaps six kingdoms on the Greek mainland that existed from around 1600 to 1100 B.C.E. Records indicate by 1400 B.C.E there was a uniform Mycenaean civilization and that the Mycenaeans used an early form of the Greek language. Excavations at the most influential kingdom, located in southern Greece at Mycenae, suggest a highly warlike people, dominated by a wealthy and well-fed elite of kings and aristocratic warriors who greatly valued military prowess. After the fall of Minoan Crete, the Mycenaeans took over and extended the Minoans’ trade routes. To foster this commerce, Mycenaean rulers forged diplomatic ties with Egyptian and Hittite monarchs, but undermined the latter with settlements in Hittite territory.
C. Two Coastal Kingdoms: Ugarit and Troy

In the border regions between empires, independent cities survived by affiliating with one of the empires; the most notable of these were Ugarit and Troy.

1. Ugarit: A Mercantile Kingdom

Canaanite in culture, Ugarit rose to prominence due to its possessing rich natural resources and a fine natural harbor that made the city a hub of international trade, reflected in the Ugarit elite’s literacy in both their own and others’ languages. The city’s independence was maintained by the clever diplomacy of Ugarit’s kings.

2. Troy: A City of Legend

Famous from Homer’s epic poems, Troy prospered from trade, but its greatest days had already been ended with an earthquake by the time Homer’s Trojan War would have taken place.

IV. The End of the International Bronze Age and Its Aftermath

Between 1200 and 1100 B.C.E., the era of prosperity and international interconnection ended as the civilizations of the Bronze Age plunged into a period marked by invasions, migrations, and the collapse of stable governments.

A. The Raiders of the Land and Sea

Mycenaean civilization collapsed from within as overpopulation led to warfare that caused the kingdoms and the economy to collapse. The Greek language and some religious beliefs survived, but crafts, artistic, and architectural traditions did not. Invasion and economic decline triggered the collapse of the Hittite Empire’s government. This economic and political decline, combined with earthquakes, plague, and climate change, spurred migrations of peoples known as “Raiders” to the Egyptians, who destroyed Ugarit and other coastal cities. The Raiders failed to destroy Egypt, but that kingdom slipped into a long economic and military decline. Invasions also severely weakened Assyria and Babylonia.

B. The Phoenicians: Merchants of the Mediterranean

Two hundred years after the International Bronze Age ended, the independent cities of the Phoenicians along the eastern Mediterranean emerged with a vibrant mercantile and seafaring culture. Motivated by the search for metal ores, the Phoenicians, legendary for their navigational and ship-building skills, crisscrossed the Mediterranean and even ventured into the Atlantic in search of trade. They thus became important cultural mediators between the Middle East and the western Mediterranean, symbolized in their chief city in the west, Carthage, which controlled trade between the eastern and western Mediterranean. Showing remarkable continuity through time and across the Mediterranean, Phoenician religion emphasized rebirth and fertility, and often adopted the gods of the other peoples they encountered. The most lasting cultural contribution of the Phoenicians was their alphabet.
C. Mesopotamian Kingdoms: Assyria and Babylon, 1050 - 550 B.C.E.

Although they declined, Assyria and Babylonia survived and began to reassert themselves around 1050 B.C.E.

1. Neo-Assyrian Imperialism

The Neo-Assyrians developed a highly militarized empire with the intent to expand and to make war. They used cruelty and deportation to subdue and keep subdued the peoples they conquered. They did not interfere in those peoples’ traditions or religious practices, although the ruler Ashurbanipal did attempt to create a uniform culture for the empire’s elites.

2. Neo-Babylonian Empire

Seizing and supplanting the Neo-Assyrian Empire, the wealthy Neo-Babylonian Empire consisted of wealthy cities that maintained complex relationships with the king. In addition to loyalty to the king, these cities were bound together by religion, especially the worship of the all-powerful god Marduk. Believing that earth and sky were interrelated, Babylonian religion fostered astronomy and mathematics.

V. Conclusion: The International Bronze Age and the Emergence of the West

During the International Bronze Age, a crucial phase in the formation of Western civilization, an intricate network of political, commercial, and cultural ties among cities and kingdoms created a complex pattern of cultural diffusion over a vast geographic area.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

- Phoenicians begin competing with Greek colonists in Sicily and Italy
- Ramesses II reigns
- Troy VIIa falls: Raiders of the Land and Sea burn Ugarit
- Amenhotep IV (Akhenaten) rules; Amarna period
- Mycenaean control Crete and eastern sea routes

_____ 1375 B.C.E.

_____ 1351-1334 B.C.E.

_____ 1279-1213 B.C.E.
 TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

International Bronze Age
Pharaoh
Hyksos
Battle of Kadesh
Ahmose I
Nubia
Lapis lazuli
Raiders of the Land and Sea
Hatshepsut
Thutmose III
Akhenaten
Ramesses II
Hittites
Great King
Kassites
Ashur-Uballit
Nebuchadnezzar II
Mycenae
Ugarit
Troy
Phoenicians
Ishtar Gate
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

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<tbody>
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<td>Pylos</td>
<td>Byblos</td>
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<tr>
<td>Troy</td>
<td>Canaan</td>
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<tr>
<td>Knossos</td>
<td>Syria</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mycenae</td>
<td>Kadesh</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sidon</td>
<td>Ugarit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tyre</td>
<td>Carthage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. How did Egypt during the New Kingdom take advantage of a technological revolution to expand its imperial system?

2. What enabled the Hittites to rise to power? How did Hittite religion reflect the diversity of their empire?

3. Where did Minoan civilization develop? What variables account for its rise? What role did female divinities play in Minoan religion?

4. Why is Troy referred to as a “city of legend”? What was its chief claim to power and influence in the Mediterranean world? What, according to archeologists, were the causes of its demise?

5. What were the causes of the end of the International Bronze Age? Why is the International Bronze Age considered such a “crucial phase” in the formation of Western civilization?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. In the Millawanda Letter, is the Hittite king negotiating from a position of strength or weakness? Look for evidence in the language he uses.

2. The Hittite warrior purification ritual has very exact requirements. What might each requirement (the person and animals who are sacrificed, the hawthorn, the rope, etc.) symbolize?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. What characteristics did the seafaring states of the Mediterranean have in common? How did this influence the commerce and diplomacy of the region? Why were these states so important to the continuing evolution of Western civilization?

2. What was the impact of Phoenician expansion throughout the Mediterranean region? What does the spread of Phoenician culture tell us about the ways cultural traits, ideas, and beliefs are transmitted from one place to another?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which civilization is correctly matched with its geographical core area?
   A. Hittite – Anatolia
   B. Minoan – Canaan seacoast
   C. Mycenean – African desert
   D. Phoenician – Greek mainland

2. The International Bronze Age (1600-1100 B.C.E.) was characterized by
   A. diplomacy and peace
   B. multiethnic empires.
   C. trade.
   D. All of these

3. The Egyptian whose reign reflected both military triumph and artistic mastery was
   A. Ramesses II.
   B. Ahmose I.
   C. Hatshepsut.
   D. Thutmose III.

4. Which Egyptian promoted a monotheistic religion with a deity expressing both masculine and feminine traits?
   A. Nefertiti
   B. Thutmose III
   C. Akhenaten
   D. Ramesses I

5. The Battle of Kadesh (1274 B.C.E.)
   A. was a major victory for the Egyptians.
   B. resulted in a period of peace and cooperation between the Egyptians and Hittites.
   C. ended the Kassite dynasty.
   D. was fought against pirates on the Mediterranean coast.

6. Archaeologists believe that the Minoans had a prosperous and creative civilization with discoveries such as the
   A. mortuary temple of Ramesses III.
   B. remains of the palace at Knossos.
   C. Lion Gate to Hattushas.
   D. death mask of Agamemnon.
7. Ugarit was a(n)
   A. Egyptian pharaoh.
   B. Minoan mystery religion.
   C. mercantile kingdom.
   D. early form of Greek writing.

8. Which statement does not describe the Phoenicians?
   A. They developed an alphabet.
   B. They founded colonies in North Africa and Spain.
   C. They worshiped Baal and sometimes practiced child sacrifice.
   D. Their economy was based primarily on agriculture.

9. The Neo-Babylonian king who expanded his empire and built the Hanging Gardens of Babylon was
   A. Ashurbanipal.
   B. Nebuchadnezzar II.
   C. Tiglath-Pileser III.
   D. Nabopolassar.

10. Babylonians were noted for
    A. dark red dye for textiles.
    B. perfumed olive oil exports.
    C. monotheism.
    D. contributions to astronomy and mathematics.
CHAPTER 3

Persians, Hebrews, and Greeks: The Foundations of Western Culture, 1100 - 336 B.C.E.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Classical Persia: An Empire on Three Continents

About 300 years before the ancestors of the Hebrews migrated into Canaan, other peoples began to migrate into what is now western Iran. Five hundred years later, these had consolidated into two groups: Medes and Persians. Although at first the Medes dominated, in the sixth century Persia broke away from, and then conquered, the Medes.

A. Cyrus the Great and Persian Expansion

Ascending the throne in 550 B.C.E., Cyrus the Great transformed Persia into a giant, multiethnic empire. His son Cambyses continued the expansion and, with the conquest of Phoenicia, made Persia a naval power.

1. A Government of Tolerance

The highly centralized Persian government, although absolute in power, allowed subject peoples to continue their own religion and tradition as long as they recognized Persian political supremacy.

2. Zoroastrianism: An Imperial Religion

The official religion of Persia was Zoroastrianism, which believes that the universe is dominated by a struggle between the forces of good and the forces of evil. Human beings, by choosing right or wrong, engage in this struggle, giving human existence meaning and laying the foundation for a profound human ethics. Zoroastrianism thus provided an ideological support and guide for the great Persian kings, and also played an important role in shaping Western religious thought, especially the ideas of a final judgment and the combat between good (God) and evil (the Devil).

B. The Achaemenid Dynasty

This dynasty was founded when Darius seized the throne in 522 B.C.E. Darius further expanded the Persian Empire, reorganized it into provinces or satrapies, and brought artists and craftsmen from throughout the empire to construct his new capital, Persepolis. His conquests led to contact and confrontation with the Greeks.
II. Hebrew Civilization and Religion

The Jews, whose civilization has been one of the most influential in the West, originated at the end of the International Bronze Age, when their semi-nomadic, pastoral ancestors began to migrate into Canaan.

A. The Settlement in Canaan

Distinguished by their belief in only one god, the Hebrew tribes believed they were descended from a single ancestor, Abraham, and had been led out of slavery in Egypt by Moses, who had also given them God’s law. The Hebrews’ control over Canaan led them into conflict with other groups, especially the Philistines, which resulted in the Hebrew tribes organizing themselves under a king.

B. The Israelite Kingdoms

Under the kings David and Solomon, Hebrew life was transformed, as these monarchs created governmental, military, and commercial structures such as those found in the empires of Mesopotamia and Egypt. After Solomon’s death in 922 B.C.E., tribal animosities caused the kingdom to split into two: Israel and Judah, both of whom struggled to survive in the shadow of the Assyrian and Babylonian Empires.

1. The Hebrew Prophets

As the gap between rich and poor grew and the poor became more oppressed, social critics known as prophets arose, speaking with what they thought was the authority of God to denounce religious decay, urging moral reform and spiritual consciousness. After Israel fell to the Assyrians in 733 B.C.E., religion in Judah became more centralized in Jerusalem and a more powerful priesthood caused later prophets to challenge their supremacy.

2. The Babylonian Exile

After Judah fell to the Babylonians, thousands of Jews found themselves deported to Babylon, where they struggled to maintain their cultural and religious identity, and further developed their idea of one god as a universal god. When the Babylonians in turn fell to the Persians, the Jews returned to Jerusalem.

3. The Second Temple and Jewish Religious Practice

A second temple was built in Jerusalem and religious leaders such as Ezra began to standardize Jewish religious practice, with a new emphasis placed on knowledge and observation of Jewish law. In the process, women were excluded from some public religious roles they had previously had but gained status as the gender through which Jewish identity descended.
4. The Hebrew Bible

It was in the period following the building of the Second Temple in 515 B.C.E. that the Hebrews began slowly to shape their Bible, in which they recounted their relationship with their one god as it developed through historical events. Nonetheless, the significance of the Hebrew Bible, or Old Testament, lies less in its narration of history than in its religious ideas: its insistence on the presence of God in human lives, its moral vision of human existence, and its understanding of history as the unfolding of a divine plan.

III. Greece Rebuilds: 1100 - 479 B.C.E.

Emerging from the Dark Age, a period of poverty and political instability, Greece’s economic growth and encounters with the Phoenicians and Persians in the Archaic Age set the stage for the period of great cultural achievement known as the Classical Age.

A. The Dark Age, ca. 1100 - 750 B.C.E.

Urban life, literacy, and maritime trade disappeared as both food production and population declined, causing many Greeks to migrate to Ionia.

B. The Archaic Age, ca. 750 - 479 B.C.E.

Between 750 and 650 B.C.E., many economic, cultural, and technological innovations were introduced to the Greeks from their contacts with Middle Eastern peoples, including the Greek adoption of the Phoenician alphabet.

1. Homer’s Epic Poems

Newly literate, the Greeks quickly recorded two of the greatest literary works ever composed, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, both attributed to a poet named Homer but actually drawing on a large and already old oral tradition. The poems recount the Greek victory in the mythical Trojan War. Details from the poems indicate that they were first recited and might be loosely based on events during the International Bronze Age. Homer emphasized certain aspects of human character and emotion to make points about human strengths and weaknesses.

2. The Polis

A new form of social and political life, the polis was a self-governing city-state, which varied in size but contained the same institutions: an assembly, a council of elders, temples, and a marketplace. The polis fostered a strong bond between the citizens and their community.
3. Colonization and the Settlement of New Lands

Due to a population boom, the Greeks turned to colonization throughout the Mediterranean, stimulating commerce and spreading a vibrant Greek culture which often deeply influenced local peoples.

4. Elite Athletic Competition in Greek Poleis

To express a common Greek identity and honor the gods, aristocratic men from as many as 150 city-states competed for glory in athletic games, including the first Olympics.

5. The Hoplite Revolution

With increased wealth, non-aristocratic men could afford war weapons, which led to the development of the hoplite phalanx, infantry fighting in a close-knit manner. Conscious of their military contributions, the hoplites began to challenge the political dominance of the aristocracy, usually led by a populist tyrant. While tyrants enabled the political participation of ordinary citizens, their rule often became oppressive and usually did not last more than two generations.

6. Sparta: A Militarized Society

The hoplites of Sparta achieved political power without the help of a tyrant, but rapid expansion, especially the Spartan conquest of Messenia, caused Sparta to become a highly militarized, authoritarian polis.

7. Athens: Toward Democracy

To avoid war between the peasantry and the aristocrats, in 594 B.C.E. Solon enacted reforms that limited aristocratic authority and increased all citizens’ political participation. Democracy originated from these reforms. Following the rule of the tyrant Peisistratus, Cleisthenes built on Solon’s work, establishing new institutions and ensuring every male citizen had a permanent voice in government. Out of the legacy of Solon and Cleisthenes, Athens developed principles of government that remain to this day.

C. The Persian Wars, 490 - 479 B.C.E.

Athens’ support of the Ionian Greeks’ rebellion against the Persian Empire set the stage for a conflict between Persia and the Greek poleis.

1. The Marathon Campaign

Thanks to well-trained hoplites, and the unity created by Cleisthenes’ democratic reforms, the Athenians were able to defeat the Persians when they landed at Marathon.
2. Athenian Naval Power and the Salamis Campaign

In preparation for Persian revenge, Athens developed a large navy consisting of battleships called triremes, manned by the poorest citizens, who now in addition to hoplites and aristocrats, took an active role in the military defense of Athens. The sacrifices of Athens’ ally Sparta at Thermopylae enabled the Athenians to position their fleet for a stunning victory over the Persian navy.

IV. The Classical Age of Greece, 479 - 336 B.C.E.

Following the defeat of a great empire by a handful of city-states, Greek confidence soared and creativity flourished, nowhere more so than in Athens.

A. The Rise and Fall of the Athenian Empire

After Persia’s defeat, Athens adopted an aggressive foreign policy that rapidly expanded an Athenian Empire but sowed the seeds of the discord that would cause that empire’s collapse.

1. From Defensive Alliance to Athenian Empire

To continue to drive the Persians out of the Aegean area, Athens created the Delian League. After defeating the Persians by 496 B.C.E., the League became a means for Athens to imperialize other Greek poleis.

2. Democracy in the Age of Pericles

Democracy at home and empire abroad reached their peak under Pericles, who dominated the Athenian political arena from 461 B.C.E. until his death in 429 B.C.E. Both empire and increased public business led to an increase in public officials in the bureaucracy, which administered the Delian League. As legal disputes arose, Athens increased the number of courts. Athenians sought to ensure the honesty and curtail the ambitions of public officials by making them accountable to the public and, if necessary, by exiling them – a practice called ostracism. Pericles implemented an unprecedented policy of paying public servants. He also extended the qualifications for citizenship.

3. Conflict with Sparta: The Peloponnesian War

Feeling threatened by Athenian power, Sparta and a few allies began a long conflict in which Spartan land power and Athenian naval power created an effectual stalemate, until a disastrous Athenian expedition in 415 B.C.E. set the stage for Athens’ defeat.

4. The Collapse of Athenian Power

Athens surrendered in 404 B.C.E. after suffering a naval defeat. Within a year, the “Thirty Tyrants” had overthrown the oligarchy imposed on Athens by Sparta and restored democracy. Sparta, over-reaching itself militarily, was unable to
maintain itself as a dominant power. Thereafter, the Greeks either chronically fought each other or served as mercenaries.

B. The Social and Religious Foundations of Classical Greece

The prosperity and vibrant civic life of Greek citizen men sprang from a society that strictly subordinated women and relied on slave labor.

1. Gender Roles

For Greek men, the primary purpose of a wife was to produce legitimate offspring, and so Greek women were married off young, consigned to a life of domestic labor, and kept strictly controlled and secluded by their husbands. Lower-class women were sometimes forced by economic necessity to sell produce or cloth in the marketplace, a few women gained prestige as priestesses, and others were prostitutes, including an elite group of courtesans. In general, Greek men considered women to be intellectually and emotionally inferior to men, and preferred male relationships, including homosexual ones.

2. Slavery: The Source of Greek Prosperity

Greek prosperity depended on the labor of slaves, who made up about a third of the population. Some were enslaved as debtors or war captives, but most were either the children of slaves or purchased in the Aegean slave trade. Slaves, who had no legal or political rights, performed a wide variety of tasks either for the city or, most commonly, for individual households. This allowed Greek citizens the leisure to pursue intellectual and cultural development.

3. Religion and the Gods

Greek life was permeated with religion, which provided a structured way for the Greeks to interact with their gods, whom the Greeks believed were not only powerful but omnipresent and influential in daily life and events. Especially important were the gods that protected the polis. Shared religious ideas on the gods and their worship, like the Greek language, gave the Greeks a common identity.

C. Intellectual Life

Exploring the natural world and the human condition, the Greeks in the Classical Age created an enduring legacy in drama, science, philosophy, and the arts.

1. Greek Drama

The Greeks examined their values and contemporary issues in public dramatic performances, which were both educational and entertaining. The tragedies of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides explored conflicts between passion and reason, between divine and human law, while Aristophanes’ irreverent and lewd
comedies made points about human and social failings with sarcasm and mockery.

2. Scientific Thought in Ionia

About 600 B.C.E., Greek thinkers in Ionia, inspired by their encounter with the Babylonian scientific and mathematical tradition, rejected supernatural explanations for natural events and tried to develop a rational understanding of nature based on careful inquiry and logical deduction.

3. The Origins of Writing History

A similar desire to understand the general causes of things—in this case human events, not natural ones—led to the origin of the Western tradition of writing history with Herodotus, who sought to explain the Persian War in terms of human, not divine, causality. Herodotus extended his inquiries and analysis to foreign cultures as well, raising basic questions about cultural encounters that are still relevant. Thucydides further developed the analysis of the human causes of human events in writing a history of the Peloponnesian War.

4. The Origins of Philosophical Thought

With their inquiring spirit, the Greeks were the first to pose a profound question: Are political and moral standards rooted in nature and do they reflect absolute standards, or are they human inventions, with humans as the measure of all things? In the fifth century B.C.E., teachers named sophists argued for the latter, leading to moral relativism. In response, Socrates and his pupil Plato argued for the validity of absolute standards; Plato, in particular, taught that not only were virtues real, they constituted a higher reality, whose truth was often obscured by the actually less-real physical world. Therefore careful, critical reasoning was required in order to perceive and understand them, a rational quest for absolutes that Plato believed was incumbent upon all but the particular responsibility of philosophers. Plato elevated theory or the abstract over scientific inquiry or the particular, but Plato’s student Aristotle believed that the scientific observation and classification of the particulars of this world allowed us to acquire knowledge of absolute truths.

5. The Arts: Sculpture, Painting, and Architecture

The pursuit of the ideal preoccupied Greek artists as well as philosophers, who sought to balance this idealism with realism, especially in the representation of the human body, which the Greeks believed was both beautiful and worthy of exaltation. Greek architects as well sought to reflect the grace and balance they perceived in the natural world with symmetrical and proportional buildings.

V. Conclusion: Classical Foundations of the West

The Classical Age produced what would be important, lasting legacies for the West: the religious and ethical teachings of the Hebrews, the model of a tolerant and efficient
empire provided by the Persians, and the political, artistic, and philosophical innovations of the Greeks.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

- Cleisthenes’s democratic reforms unify Attica
- Homer composes the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*
- Greeks stop invasion of Greece at Marathon
- Trial and death of Socrates
- David and Solomon rule the Israelite kingdom
- Hoplite armor and tactics develop: Spartans conquer Messenia
- Peloponnesian War; Thucydides writes *History*

______ 1000-922 B.C.E.
______ 750-720 B.C.E.
______ 700-650 B.C.E.
______ 507 B.C.E.
______ 490 B.C.E.
______ 431-404 B.C.E.
______ 399 B.C.E.
TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

Democracy
Monotheism
Babylonian Exile
Zororastrianism
Acropolis
Polis
Hoplites
Panhellenic
Helots
Phalanx
Tyrants
Triremes
Delian League
Ostracism
Oligarchy
Hetairai
Forms
Sophists
Cannan
Judah
Israel
The Second Temple
Philistines
David and Solomon
Prophets
Cyrus the Great
Solon
Peisostatus
Cleisthenes
Pericles
Aeschylus
Herodotus
Thucydides
Plato
Socrates
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sparta</th>
<th>Troy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Miletos</td>
<td>Salamis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delphi</td>
<td>Marathon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thebes</td>
<td>Athens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. Discuss the early political and social organization of the Hebrews. Why did they eventually develop kingship? What was the religious significance of the Hebrews?

2. What is the significance of the Hebrew Bible to historians? What was its meaning to the Hebrews of ancient Israel?

3. What factors contributed to the emergence of Persia as a giant, multiethnic empire that stretched from India to the Mediterranean Sea? How were the many varied ethnic groups in the Persian Empire treated? How did this contribute to Persian unity?
4. What were the two types of political organizations typical of archaic Greece? What were the results of population growth and opposition to aristocratic power in the seventh century B.C.E.?

5. Discuss the hierarchy of gender roles in classical Greek society. How did those roles determine access to public space? What role did slavery play in this society?

**DOCUMENT QUESTIONS**

1. What are the common themes in the excerpts of the three tales of the flood? What about this story would make it appealing to different cultures?

2. In Hippocrates’s evaluation of Europeans and Asians, recklessness and hot-headedness, which contributed to a warlike society, are positive traits. What other societies might have agreed with this assessment?

**PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER**

1. One of the clearest differences between Greek civilization and other civilizations we have considered and will consider is the failure to establish any long-lasting imperial form of government. What factors account for Greek civilization’s inability to maintain imperial government?

2. Compare and contrast the philosophies of Plato and Aristotle. What generated such examination of Athenian culture and political organization?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which statement about Solomon is true?
   A. He formed a monarchy to unite the 12 Hebrew tribes.
   B. He built a temple that became Israel’s center of religious worship.
   C. He lost battles to the Assyrians.
   D. He suspended trade with non-Hebrews.

2. Which city is located farthest to the east?
   A. Persepolis
   B. Corinth
   C. Jerusalem
   D. Sardis

3. Which of the following is not true of Zoroastrianism?
   A. It was the official religion of the Persian Empire.
   B. Ahura Mazda is the creator and the cause of all good things.
   C. The priests recognized the Torah as their holy book.
   D. People are expected to engage in ethical conduct.

4. The Iliad
   A. describes a hero’s adventures returning home after the Trojan War.
   B. depicts military combat in vivid detail, but treats the main characters superficially.
   C. omits mention of gods or religion.
   D. recounts old legends that had been told for many generations.

5. Which of the following terms is incorrectly identified?
   A. Phalanx – government by a few
   B. Ostrakon – pottery shard used to vote to expel a citizen
   C. Trireme – Greek boat
   D. Acropolis – defensible hilltop

6. After winning the Peloponnesian War, the Spartans battled the
   A. Hoplites.
   B. Persians.
   C. Kouros.
   D. Ionians.
7. Under Xerxes I, the Persians invaded Greece after their surprising defeat in which battle?
   A. Marathon  
   B. Aegospotami  
   C. Plataea  
   D. Troy

8. The “Father of History” was
   A. Polyclitus.  
   B. Hippias.  
   C. Alcibiades.  
   D. Herodotus.

9. Which author is correctly matched with his work?
   A. Homer – Politics  
   B. Aristotle – Antigone  
   C. Thucydides – History of the Peloponnesian War  
   D. Sophocles – On the Nature of Things

10. Which statement about Plato is true?
    A. He believed in the reality of absolute unchanging Forms.  
    B. He founded a school called the Lyceum.  
    C. He taught that truth is relative.  
    D. He studied under Aristotle.
CHAPTER 4

The Hellenistic World and the Roman Republic, 336 - 31 B.C.E.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. The Warlike Kingdom of Macedon

Linguistically linked to Classical Age Greece, Macedon was a monarchy whose kings were obliged to wage war continuously in order to retain the support of the Macedonian army.

A. Unity and Expansion under King Philip

After four decades of anarchy, King Philip eliminated his rivals, unified the nobility, reorganized and strengthened the military, and brought Macedon firmly under his control. He then conquered the Greek city-states in 338 B.C.E.

B. The Conquests of Alexander

King Philip’s intention to conquer the Persian Empire as “revenge” for the Persian War was a shrewd linking of Greek civilization with Macedonian might, but it was his son, Alexander who actually conquered not only the Persian Empire but beyond – as far as India. As he conquered, Alexander established cities at key locations, which drew thousands of Greek migrants who became the cities’ elites. Alexander tried to adapt Persian political structures to consolidate and unite his empire. However, resistance from his army and a lack of cooperation between the Persians and the Greeks led to the disintegration of his empire after his death.

C. Successor Kingdoms: Distributing the Spoils

Fighting among themselves, Alexander’s generals eventually created a number of kingdoms, run by all-Greek administrations in which the kings were worshiped as gods but relied on military success, public projects, and good government to ensure the support of their armies and subjects.

II. Hellenistic Society and Culture

Politically disunited, the Hellenistic kingdoms all had the same Greek social institutions and cultural orientation.

A. Cities: The Heart of Hellenistic Life

Hellenistic civilization was defined by its Greek-speaking cities. The people of the Hellenistic cities shared a common identity based on a common language, and the cities continued Greek traditions of learning, art, and architecture. They even continued the
tradition of active public life in an age of absolute monarchical power, as Hellenistic kings tended to allow considerable freedom in local government. Those governments were dominated by the wealthy, who spent lavishly to decorate and enhance their cities, which were becoming more diverse as the Greek concept of exclusive city-citizenship yielded to the reality of common subjectship to the king.

B. New Opportunities for Women

Women in the Hellenistic world were held in more regard than women in the Classical Age. Female infanticide declined, royal women often wielded considerable power, and overall female education improved, although women remained under the supervision of men with fewer rights and opportunities.

C. Hellenistic Literature, Philosophy, and Science

The Hellenistic era saw striking innovations in literature, philosophy, and science.

1. Literature: Poetry and History Writing

Faced with a repressive political climate, playwrights and poets produced frivolous but elegant works, while a few historians resisted the pressure to extol the deeds of the king to produce more thoughtful accounts.

2. Philosophy: The Quest for Peace of Mind

The schools of Plato and Aristotle continued in Athens, but new schools of philosophy arose, some of which shared a common goal of acquiring inner tranquility. Epicureans sought peace by withdrawing from the world and fears, Stoics by acceptance of fate and devotion to duty, and Cynics by rejecting not only all needs and desires but all the customs and conventions of society.

3. Explaining the Natural World: Scientific Investigation

Hellenistic scientists rejected the more speculative approach of classical Greek science in favor of an emphasis on realism, leading to great advances in mathematics, astronomy, and medicine.

D. Encounters with Foreign Peoples

During the Hellenistic Age, Greeks encountered large numbers of foreign peoples with important results for the West.

1. Exploring the Hellenistic World

Convinced of their own superiority to non-Greek “barbarians,” educated people in the Hellenistic world enjoyed learning about foreign peoples, whom the Greeks came into greater contact with as trade and curiosity drove them to explore the fringes of their world.
2. Resistance to Hellenistic Culture

While some of those foreigners conquered by the Greeks tried to learn Greek and assimilate to Hellenistic culture, most remained separated from, and resentful of, their Greek masters, who found they had to deal with Egyptian and Jewish revolts. Meanwhile, Egyptian, Persian, and Babylonian religions began to predict future deliverance at the hands of divinities.

3. Celts on the Fringes of the Hellenistic World

Tribal, warlike, and non-literate, the Celts, ancestors of many modern Europeans, lived just beyond the Hellenistic world but exerted influence on that world through trade and, on occasion, invasion.

III. Rome’s Rise to Power

During the Hellenistic Age, Rome expanded from a city-state into a vast and powerful empire, attempting to incorporate those it conquered into its republican political structure. But trying to govern ever-growing territories with the institutions of a city-state undermined the Roman Republic.

A. Roman Origins and Etruscan Influences

For the first four centuries of its existence, Rome developed its prosperity from trade and its military skills fighting hostile neighbors. Rome was heavily influenced by its neighbors the Etruscans, through whom Rome absorbed much of Greek culture, especially in religion.

B. The Beginnings of the Roman State

Around 500 B.C.E., the Romans overthrew kingship and established a republic, although real power lay in the hands of a relatively small number of influential families. For the next 200 years, Roman political life was a struggle between the wealthy aristocrats (patricians) and the poor commoners (plebeians). This was known as the Struggle of Orders, in which the plebeians slowly but steadily won political and legal rights until they became fully integrated into Roman government. A major reason why the plebeians were able to succeed is that they were the backbone of the Roman army.

C. Roman Territorial Expansion

Conquests caused governmental change in Rome.

1. Winning Control of Italy

By 263 B.C.E., Rome had conquered all of Italy and learned the fundamental lessons of empire-building: the value of political alliances, the uses of careful diplomacy, the tenacity and discipline to endure military reversals, and wisdom of extending Roman citizenship to those Rome conquered.
2. The Struggle with Carthage

In a series of three Punic Wars fought with Carthage from 264 B.C.E. to 146 B.C.E., Rome gained the islands of Sicily, Corsica, and Sardinia, survived a devastating invasion by the Carthaginian king Hannibal, and finally completely destroyed Carthage.

3. Conflict with the Celts

The Romans faced fierce resistance from the Celts in the Iberian Peninsula, whom it took them over a century to conquer. They enjoyed wary but peaceful relations with other Celtic peoples until Julius Caesar’s successful conquest of Gaul right before the end of the Roman Republic.

D. Rome and the Hellenistic World

Although at first reluctant to do so, Rome extended her control to the Hellenistic eastern Mediterranean.

1. The Macedonian Wars

In three wars fought between 215 and 168 B.C.E., Rome conquered Macedon and Greece. Rome imposed harsh restrictions upon subject peoples and relentlessly eliminated resistance to Roman rule.

2. The Encounter Between Greek and Roman Culture

The acquisition of the eastern Mediterranean intensified Hellenism’s influence on Rome. Romans had a love-hate affair with Greek culture, admiring its sophistication but at the same time desiring to preserve their own rugged Roman virtues, which they feared Hellenism threatened. Greek culture had a major impact on Roman literature and drama, and in philosophy, Stoicism had a tremendous appeal for the Romans. Art, architecture, and even religion also showed the pervasive influence of Hellenism.

E. Life in the Roman Republic

Territorial expansion brought prosperity, and while a small number of families dominated political life, they also ensured stability by making sure no one family was too powerful.

1. Patrons and Clients

The influence of the ruling families was extended through political networks built on the Roman custom of patrons and clients, in which a powerful man would exercise influence on behalf of a socially subordinate man in exchange for that man’s public support. Thanks to this system, complex webs of interdependency operated at every level of Roman society.
2. Pyramids of Wealth and Power

A well-defined hierarchy shaped Rome’s social organization as well as its political organization. By the first century B.C.E., Rome was dominated by a leadership elite comprised of old noble and former plebeian families, followed by a business class called the equestrians, and the often-impoverished citizen peasantry of plebeians. At the bottom were about two million slaves, one-third of the population, whose brutal treatment resulted in periodic slave revolts.

3. The Roman Family

This sense of hierarchy was reflected in the Roman family, whose male head, the *paterfamilias*, exercised full authority over not only his wife and unmarried children, but the family’s slaves and dependents as well. Even though they were always legally dependent upon a male relative, Roman aristocratic women usually retained control over their own property and could act with a considerable degree of independence – even influencing political matters behind the scenes.

IV. Beginnings of the Roman Revolution

The wealth of empire exacerbated the existing inequalities of wealth and power in Rome and led to the disintegration of the Republic.

A. The Gracchi

The brothers Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus sought to alleviate some of the worse aspects of these inequalities, especially poorer Romans losing their lands, which threatened recruitment for the Roman army. Both brothers met violent ends in their attempts at reform and unwittingly opened the door for unscrupulous politicians to exploit the poor, especially impoverished soldiers, in order to gain personal power.

B. War in Italy and Abroad

In 90 B.C.E., Rome’s Italian allies revolted, demanding full citizenship. They lost their war against Rome, but gained all of their demands. Shortly thereafter the Roman general Sulla used his army to overturn his political opponents and gain control of Rome. Sulla attempted to restore peace and the power of the Senate, but the precedent of using military might in political contests had been set.

C. The First Triumvirate

In order to gain land for his soldiers, Pompey, a Roman general, formed an alliance with the wealthy Crassus and the ambitious Caesar, which became known as the First Triumvirate. In return for helping his partners, Caesar gained both wealth and the command of the Roman army in Gaul.
D. Julius Caesar and the End of the Republic

In conquering Gaul (modern France and Belgium), Caesar won glory and prestige and when he was politically opposed by Pompey and the Senate, Caesar used his loyal troops to instigate a civil war that he had won by 45 B.C.E., when he returned to Rome. There, one year later, Caesar had himself declared dictator for life but was assassinated by a group of idealistic senators who hoped to restore the Republic. Instead, Rome was plunged into another civil war, which was won in 31 B.C.E. by Caesar’s grandnephew and legal heir, Octavian.

V. Conclusion: Defining the West in the Hellenistic Age

The cultural and geographical boundaries of the West began to take shape during the Hellenistic Age, which saw Hellenistic culture spread and interact with local cultures across the Mediterranean, most significantly leaving a distinctive mark on Roman civilization.

TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

Alexander dies at Babylon
Sulla takes Rome
Tiberius Gracchus initiates reforms
Carthage fights Third Punic War against Rome: end of Carthaginian Empire
Roman Republic is created
Carthage fights First Punic War against Rome
Celts invade Italy and plunder Rome

_____ 509 B.C.E.
_____ 390-386 B.C.E.
_____ 323 B.C.E.
_____ 264-241 B.C.E.
_____ 149-146 B.C.E.
_____ 133 B.C.E.
_____ 88 B.C.E.
The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

Hellenes/Hellenistic/Hellenism
Philip II
Alexander
Koine
Septuagint
Menander of Athens
Theocritus
Callimachus
Epicureans
Stoics
Cynics
Euclid
Archimedes of Syracuse
Heraclides of Pontus
Galen
Pytheas of Marseilles
La Tène Celts
Etruscans
Patricians
Plebians
Struggle of the Orders
The Punic Wars
Hannibal
Polybius
Cicero
Patrons and clients
Equestrians
Paterfamilias
The Gracchi
Sulla
Gaius Marius
The First Triumvirate
The Second Triumvirate
Cleopatra VII
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

Susa
Macedonia
Seleucid Kingdom
Granicus (334)
Babylon (330)
Pharsalus
Persepolis (324)
Ptolemaic Kingdom
Illyria
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What factors permitted the domination of Macedonia over the Greek poleis?

2. What did Alexander hope to accomplish with his enormous territorial conquests? How successful was he in creating a homogeneous culture in his empire?

3. How did Greek architecture come to represent the Hellenistic world view?

4. What factors determined the break between Greek and Roman culture?

5. Discuss the circumstances surrounding Julius Caesar’s assassination. Was this an attempt by the Roman Senate to restore the Republic?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. “The Ruinous Effects of Conquest” details the agricultural system implemented by the Romans. What other societies (throughout history) have implemented similar systems?

2. What rights of citizenship did Arisodama gain in Lamia? What can we infer about the social political structure of Lamia?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. What is the final significance of Greek civilization? How did Greek civilization have a lasting impact on subsequent history?

2. Given what you have learned about the rise of these ancient empires, discuss the factors necessary for imperial greatness. What do they all have in common? What variables came together in all of these cases?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which of the following statements about Alexander the Great is not true?
   A. He came from Macedonia.
   B. He benefited from his father’s reorganization of the infantry into phalanxes.
   C. He envisioned himself as “King of Asia.”
   D. He defeated the Romans.

2. The battle of Gaugamela marked
   A. Philip II’s victory over the Greek poleis.
   B. Pyrrhus’s victory over the Romans.
   C. Hannibal’s victory over the Romans.
   D. Alexander’s victory over the Persians.

3. Which term is correctly matched with its description?
   A. Koine – roofed colonnade
   B. Paterfamilias – Greek translation of the Hebrew Bible
   C. Hellenes – Greeks
   D. Septuagint – standard version of Greek

4. Which statement about the Stoics is not true?
   A. They spurned all normal customs, morals, and conventional standards of behavior.
   B. They believed in a universal cosmic order.
   C. They promoted active involvement in public affairs.
   D. Their views remained influential in both Hellenistic Greece and the Roman Empire.

5. Which man is correctly matched with his achievement?
   A. Archimedes – organized Greek medical knowledge
   B. Euclid – wrote the Elements
   C. Galen – calculated the value of pi
   D. Erastosthenes – wrote plays

6. Which city was located in Africa?
   A. Actium
   B. Carthage
   C. Cannae
   D. Chaeronea
7. Which statement about Hannibal is true?

A. He failed to induce Rome’s allies to fight against Rome.
B. He invaded Rome from Sicily.
C. He won the Macedonian Wars.
D. He suffered a major defeat at Cannae.

8. Cicero was a(n)

A. Roman lawyer and orator who stressed moral behavior.
B. Greek navigator who ventured to India.
C. gladiator from Thrace who led an uprising.
D. Alexandrine astronomer who propounded a geocentric view of the universe.

9. The Gracchi brothers

A. led military campaigns in the Punic Wars.
B. joined Julius Caesar to form the First Triumvirate.
C. wrote plays in Latin that reflected the Hellenistic New Comedy.
D. introduced reforms to limit the power of wealthy landowners and corrupt officials.

10. Which of the following is not true of Julius Caesar?

A. He conquered Gaul.
B. He sought to increase the power of the Senate.
C. He defeated Pompey.
D. He was a patrician.
CHAPTER 5

Enclosing the West: The Early Roman Empire and Its Neighbors, 31 B.C.E. - 235 C.E.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. The Imperial Center

From the ruins of the Roman Republic, a new political system emerged in which the emperor held absolute power for life. Roman culture was now anchored in an imperial system based on force. As the imperial center, Rome itself became a model for the whole empire.

A. Imperial Authority: Augustus and After

While ostensibly restoring Republican Rome, Octavian gained total political mastery of Rome and ruled it absolutely, although he only accepted from the Senate the title of "Augustus." Augustus created an imperial system that long survived him, and his successors later openly took the title of emperor.

1. The Problem of Succession

After Augustus’s death, the succession of his stepson Tiberius established a hereditary monarchy for the empire, which included emperors adopting able successors. The smooth transition of power the hereditary principle was supposed to ensure, however, was occasionally interrupted by the intervention of the army or civil war.

2. The Emperor’s Role: The Nature of Imperial Power

Under the imperial system established by Augustus, the emperor had four main responsibilities: 1) protect and expand imperial territory; 2) administer justice and provide good government throughout the empire; 3) supervise the public worship of the gods; 4) be a symbol of unity in the empire by embodying it. The latter resulted in a cult of the emperor and emperor-worship.

B. The City of Rome

Emperors vied to lavish buildings and monuments on Rome, especially in the Forum, the political and public center of the city that was the hub of the Roman world. Among the gleaming homes and public buildings, however, the impoverished majority of Rome’s inhabitants lived in filthy and dangerous slums.
C. The Agents of Control

Although the emperor stood at the heart of the imperial system, there were other agents of control.

1. The Roman Senate: From Autonomy to Administration

The Senate had a more restricted role in the new imperial system but still functioned, playing a significant administrative role and as it broadened to include non-aristocrats and elites from outside Rome itself and solidifying new networks of power.

2. The Roman Army and the Power of the Emperor

The army not only allowed Rome to gain and hold territory, but also was the most important element in making—or breaking—an individual emperor.

II. Life in the Roman Provinces: Assimilation and Resistance

Beyond the imperial center, Rome encouraged the adoption of Roman ways and even extended Roman citizenship, but the peoples of the empire’s provinces included both those who readily assimilated to a Roman life and those who resisted.

A. The Army: A Romanizing Force

Roman army bases and the settlement of Roman soldiers in the provinces made the Roman army a significant force of Romanization throughout the imperial era. The Roman army mirrored the transformation of the Roman Empire from a collection of conquests to a well-organized state with a common culture, as troops from outside Italy increased in numbers and percentage of the army as a whole.

B. Administration and Commerce

The desire to win glory and demonstrate power led emperors to continually expand the empire’s borders, developing and then extending a well-managed provincial governing system. An effective transportation system facilitated faster troop movement and allowed trade to flourish.

C. The Cities

Cities were the key to maintaining Roman control, linking provinces to the imperial center through well-built roads and allowing the interaction of imperial administrators with local elites.

D. The Countryside

Land was the greatest source of wealth and the economy of the Roman Empire was fundamentally an agricultural one made possible by the toil of peasants in the
countryside, exploited in order to maintain the wealth of their landlords and feed the cities and the army.

E. Revolts Against Rome

After defeat, the adjustment to Roman rule was rarely smooth and often resentment escalated into revolt.

1. Arminius and the Revolt in Germany

In 9 C.E., the too-rapid imposition of economic exploitation and taxation on the Germanic tribe the Cherusci led a Romanized member of that tribe, Arminius, to lead the only successful revolt against Rome. The revolt freed the tribes east of the Rhine River from Roman rule.

2. Boudica’s Revolt in Britain

Angered by Roman abuse of herself and her daughters, the British queen Boudica led several tribes into an open rebellion. Although the Romans put down the revolt, they learned from it that they must treat subject peoples fairly.

3. The Revolt of Julius Civilis in Gaul

Like Arminius, Julius Civilis was a Romanized German tribal, who tried to take advantage of civil war in Rome to lead several Germanic tribes in revolt. Unlike Arminius, Julius Civilis was not successful.

4. Jewish Revolts

Despite repeated defeats, the Jews of Judea continued to rebel against Rome because their strong sense of religious identity, rooted in a set of sacred texts, prevented their full assimilation into Roman society.

F. Law, Citizenship, and Romanization

Roman law all worked as a Romanizing force in the provinces of the empire. Cities served as models of civic life, as Roman architecture and ceremonies connected provincial peoples to Rome. Roman citizenship was continuously extended, but it was the Antonine Decree of 212 C.E. that finally granted it to all free men and women in the Roman Empire. Since Roman citizens were entitled to the rights and benefits of Roman law, the expansion of citizenship led to the dominance of Roman law over other traditions, strengthening unity in the empire and laying the foundation for modern legal systems.

III. The Frontier and Beyond

On the edges of the Roman Empire, boundaries and border areas allowed cultural distinctions to emerge between “civilized” Romans and “barbarian” foreigners, who nonetheless affected the empire to varying degrees. As Rome consolidated her conquests
and fortified her borders, and as Romanization began to affect those within the empire’s boundaries, Romans came to view the borders as marking a cultural divide between civilization and barbarism. The borders themselves, however, remained highly permeable.

A. Rome and the Parthian Empire

Highly structured and enormously powerful, the eastern Parthian Empire was Rome’s one formidable rival and Roman policy towards it shifted from attempted conquest to diplomacy, resulting in a mutually profitable exchange of ideas and technologies.

B. Roman Encounters with Germanic Peoples

Despite their lack of political unity, the tribal peoples living north of the Rhine and Danube Rivers posed the greatest threat to Rome, and defense against them absorbed much of Rome’s military resources. The Germans interacted with the Romans peacefully through trade, and Germanic men were often recruited into the Roman army.

C. Economic Encounters Across Continents

1. Encounters with China

Silk was one of the most demanded commodities in the Roman Empire, but the Chinese monopolized its production and trade. Once Romans mastered traveling through the Indian Ocean and to the coast of India, merchants risked the long and arduous journey for the promise of earning huge profits from trading Western goods for precious silk and spices.

2. Encounters with Africa

For Romans, “Africa” mostly meant only North Africa, and their contacts with sub-Saharan Africa were few. Africa remained a land of myth and fantasy.

IV. Society and Culture in the Imperial Age

Just as the illusion of continuity masked genuine political change, social change also occurred within what appeared to be enduring social and economic norms, and the shift from republic to empire had a profound effect on culture and religious beliefs.

A. The Upper and Lower Classes

New aristocratic families emerged as old lines died out, but aristocrats continued to be only a tiny fraction of the population. Most citizens were the poor but free plebeians, the squalor and precariousness of whose lives were only somewhat allayed by “bread and circuses.”
B. Slaves and Freedmen

A huge percentage of the Roman Empire’s populations consisted of slaves, who were subjected to appalling abuses yet nonetheless managed to forge emotional relationships with each other. Slavery was not necessarily permanent, and a slave could hope for manumission, whereupon he could join the ranks of the freedmen and his children could become citizens.

C. Women in the Roman Empire

Aristocratic Roman women had more freedom than was usual for women in the ancient world. For example, marriages in which husbands controlled wives and their dowries came to an end. Some women exercised this new freedom by becoming more visible in public life. Wealthy women could own property, made investments, and became public benefactors. Higher ranking women enjoyed a liberal educations and a cultivated lifestyle. and at the most elite levels exercised real political power behind the scenes. Less is known about nonaristocratic women.

D. Literature and Empire

The development of imperial autocracy and the expansion of imperial might affected both the work and the lives of Roman writers, as offending the emperor was a dangerous endeavor. The morally conservative Emperor Augustus exiled Ovid for his sexually explicit literature. Praising the emperor and the imperial system, on the other hand, could earn the emperor’s enthusiastic patronage, as evidenced by the successful careers of the poets Virgil and Horace. Even with an autocratic government, public speaking continued to exist. For example, law cases and public praise of the emperor provide opportunities to engage in the art of rhetoric and to reflect on the new aspects of the imperial age. Aristocrats took an avid interest the lives of non-Romans. The geographer Strabo wrote on subjugated people’s experiences under Roman rule and stressed the benefits Roman civilization brought to foreign societies. Scientific writings also proliferated. Ptolemy continued the traditions of Hellenistic science and proposed theories that would become standards in medieval western Europe, including his views on the structure of the universe and cartography.

E. Religious Life

The Roman Empire made no effort to impose uniform religious beliefs, permitting subject peoples to continue their religious traditions. As a result, this era saw important religious changes.

1. Polytheism in the Empire

Roman religious practice was public, and throughout the empire, syncretism, the equating of two gods and the fusing of their cults, was common. Religions that promised salvation and liberation from death, abuse, and pain were popular. Women especially favored the goddess Isis, who symbolized the universal mother. The worship of Mithras promoted physical courage and duty and thus appealed to soldiers and administrators.
2. The Origins of Rabbinic Judaism

The loss of the Temple in Jerusalem in 70 C.E. shifted the focus of Judaism to a community-based religious life in which rabbis replaced the former priests as religious leaders, thus laying the foundation for modern Judaism.

3. The Emergence of Christianity

Christians formed a new community within the Roman Empire, with a new sense of shared identity, new sense of history, and new perception of the Roman system. Originating in the Jewish community and drawing much from Jewish tradition, Christianity differed from Judaism, especially in its regard for the person and work of Jesus.

4. The Spread of Christianity

At first gaining converts primarily from marginalized groups, in the second century C.E., Christianity began to attract adherents educated in Greek philosophy, which they used to elucidate and explain their new faith – laying the foundations of Christian theology. Truly revolutionary in its vision of all humanity united under a single God, and in its distaste to other forms of religious expression, Christianity survived sporadic persecution by the Romans to eventually displace all polytheistic religions in the West.

V. Conclusion: Rome Shapes the West

Its boundaries outlining what would become the West, the Roman Empire—while permitting no dissent—did extend Roman citizenship, Roman law, and the Roman way of life throughout its realm, uniting diverse peoples as “civilized” and influencing even those “barbarians” beyond its borders.

**TIMELINE**

 Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

- Antonine Constitution grants Roman citizenship to all free inhabitants of the empire
- Revolt of Boudica crushed in Britain
- Varus and three legions are defeated; Romans abandon Germany
- Hadrian’s Wall built in Britain
- Octavian defeats Mark Antony and controls Mediterranean world

______ 31 B.C.E.

______ 9 C.E.
63 C.E.
120s C.E.
212 C.E.

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

Pax Romana
Civitas
Romanization
Antonine Decree
Latifundia
Aeneid
Vespasian
Syncretism
Apologists
Paul of Tarsus
Augustus
Nero
Septimius Severus
Praetorian Guard
Trajan
Hadrian
Marcus Aurelius
The Forum
The Colosseum
Hadrian’s Wall
Arminius
Boudica’s Revolt
Mani
Seneca
Horace
Virgil
Livy
Tacitus
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

Pompeii
Alexandria
Antioch
Gades
Ephesus
Marseilles
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. In what way did Augustus modify the republican constitution to create the empire? What religious and social reforms did he impose?

2. What was the religious atmosphere of the Roman Empire? How did the Jews fit into the Roman political scheme? How did Christianity spread beyond Palestine? What was the system of authority within Christianity?

3. What role did the Roman army play in maintaining imperial order?

4. How did Roman writers draw from Hellenistic sources but also create something quite distinctive? Who were the major Roman writers of the Imperial period?

5. What role did law play in extending the forces of Romanization to all parts of this far-flung empire?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. In “Agricola the General,” Tacitus describes the “civilization” of the Britons. But did he view the Britons as truly civilized? What is his real opinion?

2. Based on the selection “Galen the Physician,” what can we determine about the relationship between the peasants and upper classes?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the different ways that the Romans interacted with Germanic, African, and Judaic peoples mirror the genius of the Roman imperial system?

2. Consider the reasons for the collapse of the republic. How did the Roman Empire attempt to overcome these problems? What was different about the empire? What price was paid in order to make the empire successful?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which statement about Octavian is not true?
   A. He defeated Antony and Cleopatra.
   B. He received the title Augustus.
   C. He restored the powers of the Senate, making it more independent.
   D. He was the heir of Julius Caesar.

2. The Colosseum
   A. was constructed by Octavian.
   B. often featured bloody events that ended with the death of animals or men.
   C. was used primarily for chariot racing.
   D. could hold up to 5,000 spectators.

3. Which term is incorrectly matched with its synonym?
   A. Pax Romana – Roman peace
   B. Latifundia – estate, plantation
   C. Princeps – First Citizen
   D. Civitas – emperor

4. Hadrian’s Wall marked the border of the Roman Empire with the land in
   A. northern Britain.
   B. Parthia.
   C. Judaea.
   D. North Africa.

5. A male Roman citizen could
   A. vote in public assemblies.
   B. serve in the legions.
   C. remain free from enslavement.
   D. All of these

6. The German chieftain who destroyed three Roman legions in the Teutoberg Forest was
   A. Lucius Varus.
   B. Boudica.
   C. Arminius.
   D. Simon Bar Kochba.
7. Which statement about slavery in the Roman Empire is true?

A. Roman citizens did not contest the practice of slavery.
B. Slave revolts frequently succeeded.
C. Slaves could never gain freedom.
D. Slaves made up about 10 percent of the Italian population.

8. Which author is incorrectly matched with the literary work?

A. Livy – From the Foundation of the City
B. Virgil – Geography
C. Ptolemy – Almagest
D. Tacitus – Agricola

9. Why was Paul of Tarsus important to the development of Christianity?

A. He wrote down the Gospels.
B. He spread Christianity beyond the Jewish community to non-Jews (gentiles).
C. He rejected Greek philosophy.
D. He was martyred.

10. Which statement is least characteristic of the Roman Empire in the first and second centuries C.E.?

A. Provincial cities were modeled on Roman urban patterns.
B. Roads connected major cities.
C. Land and agriculture were the greatest source of wealth.
D. The emperor tolerated political dissent.
CHAPTER 6

Late Antiquity: The Age of New Boundaries, 250 – 600

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Crisis and Recovery in the Third Century

   Between 235 and 284, civil war and invasion caused economic collapse and the breakdown of imperial administration before a new emperor halted the decline and shored up the empire.

   A. The Breakdown of the Imperial Government

   Following the assassination of Emperor Severus Alexander in 235, military coup followed military coup and emperors and would-be emperors neglected the empire’s borders, allowing invaders to break through. Power fragmented and inflation spun out of control.

   B. The Restoration of Imperial Government

   Diocletian rescued the empire through military, administrative, and economic reforms that fundamentally transformed it.

      1. Diocletian’s Reforms

         Diocletian divided the Roman Empire into two parts, East and West, each with its own emperor, and set up a system to regularize the succession. He enhanced the authority of the emperor and restored Roman military power by reorganizing and limiting the political role of the army. He also reorganized the empire’s administrative system, supported by a new tax system, which placed the greatest burden on the peasants. Diocletian sought cultural unity through religious persecution, trying to destroy Christianity.

      2. Foundations of Late Antiquity, Government, and Society

         While Diocletian’s reforms stabilized and preserved the Roman Empire, they also altered its character through three unintended consequences: 1) power shifted away from the traditional urban aristocracy and civic life itself decayed; 2) decentralization and fragmentation of economic and political power in the western provinces as peasants turned to landowners for protection; 3) the center of gravity within the empire shifted decisively to the east, where the empire’s wealth and political might were increasingly concentrated.
II. Christianizing the Empire

While Diocletian succeeded in strengthening the Roman Empire militarily, administratively, and economically, he failed to stem the growth of Christianity.

A. Constantine: The First Christian Emperor

An ambitious young general, Constantine, overthrew Diocletian’s succession system and reunited the empire under the rule of one man, himself, while keeping the empire divided administratively and in other ways continuing Diocletian’s reforms. But unlike Diocletian, Constantine, convinced his military success was due to the Christian God, became a Christian, paving the way for the eventual Christianization of the empire and transforming Christianity from a persecuted to a favored religion – now yoked to the imperial office. The city Constantine founded, Constantinople, would become not only an administrative center and imperial capital, but a religious center as well.

B. The Spread of Christianity

With imperial support, Christianity spread rapidly throughout the empire in the fourth century.

1. The Rise of the Bishops

The spread of Christianity led to more complexity in that religion’s internal organization, as an early distinction between clergy and laity developed into a hierarchical administrative structure that paralleled Roman imperial administration. This structure linked Christian communities into the Christian Church, and within this structure, bishops emerged as important figures who became not only teachers, defenders, and definers of the faith, but managers of economic resources that they often used to help the poor. With Constantine’s conversion, bishops became incorporated into imperial affairs as well. By 400, the bishop of Rome was claiming primacy over the other western bishops.

2. Christianity and the City of Rome

As Christianity spread, churches, hospitals, and monasteries replaced temples, bathhouses, and circuses in Roman cities, just as Christian festivals and holidays superseded traditional celebrations. Nowhere was this more evident than in Rome itself.

3. Old Gods Under Attack

The exclusivity of a monotheistic religion like Christianity made the diverse range of religious expression of a polytheistic culture intolerable, and Christians attacked “paganism,” both in public practice and private belief.
III. New Christian Communities and Identities

The unity of faith produced by the spread of Christianity was undercut by divisions caused by different interpretations of the faith, as well as differences in languages, that produced distinct communities.

A. The Creation of New Communities

By providing a well-defined set of beliefs and values, Christianity fostered the growth of large-scale communities in which Christian principles had to be integrated with daily life and older ways of thinking.

1. Christian Doctrine and Heresy

The Church insisted on the right to interpret its sacred texts and expected its interpretations to be accepted by all Christians, but Church leaders themselves often conflicted on interpretation, so councils of bishops met in order to resolve doctrinal differences—especially regarding the nature of the Trinity and the nature of Jesus Christ. The decisions of these councils became correct or orthodox belief, and those who continued to hold other views were now guilty of wrong belief or heresy.

2. Communities of Faith and Language

Differences in interpretation combined with differences in language to produce “zones” that cemented different communal and ethnic identities within the Christian world.

3. The Monastic Movement

Near the end of the third century, as the Church grew in wealth and political and religious hierarchies were increasingly connected, a movement known as asceticism called on Christians to subordinate physical needs and temporal desires in a quest for spiritual union with God. The first ascetics lived harsh, solitary lives, but as ascetics joined together to form communities, monasticism was born and monastic communities soon spread throughout the eastern and western provinces. In the western empire, monasteries, especially Benedictine ones, became important in the preservation of classical learning even as the traditional schools of classical learning disappeared.

4. Monasticism, Women, and Sexuality

In monastic communities, some women found independence and exercised an authority and influence that would not have been possible for them otherwise. Monasticism, however, also reinforced negative ideas about women and sexuality.
5. Jews in a Christian World

With the spread of Christianity, Jews were no longer one people among hundreds of different peoples in the Roman Empire, but a distinct, non-Christian group that found itself liable to marginalization and discrimination.

B. Access to Holiness: Christian Pilgrims

The Christian practice of undertaking a religious journey to visit a sacred place, called a pilgrimage, offered a new means to participate in religious culture. Pilgrimages helped foster a shared sense of Christian community.

C. Christian Intellectual Life

Actively participating in the empire’s intellectual life, many Christians examined the meaning of Christian life in the context of classical learning, which was criticized as dangerous by some Christian leaders when Christianity was still a marginalized and persecuted religion.

1. The Reconciliation of Christianity and the Classics

Classical learning, including the values it embodied, had long provided a common cultural bond among aristocratic men. After the conversion of Constantine, church leaders at first grudgingly accepted the practical necessity of classical learning, and influential churchmen soon drew freely from classical texts and methods of discussion. Christian historians such as Eusebius promoted the idea that the development of the Roman Empire was part of God’s plan for the salvation of mankind. The decline of that empire led other Christians, such as Augustine, to formulate a new interpretation of the Roman Empire as only one of many earthly empires that rise and fall in human history, all of which were spiritually insignificant.

2. Neoplatonism and Christianity

A spiritualized version of Plato’s philosophy had a great impact on Christianity, especially Christian thinking about the soul and asceticism.

IV. The Breakup of the Roman Empire

The Roman government lost control of its Latin-speaking western half, while the Greek- and Syriac-speaking eastern half remained under the control of the emperor in Constantinople.

A. The Fall of Rome’s Western Provinces

The causes of the fall of the Western Roman Empire were both complicated and multifaceted.
1. Loss of Imperial Power in the West

The cumulative effect of unwise decisions, weak leadership, and military failure allowed Rome to slowly but surely lose her western provinces.

2. The Empire of Attila

Both sophisticated and brutal, Attila, the ruler of the Huns, briefly established an empire that challenged Rome in the east, but fell apart quickly after his death.

3. Cultural Encounters After the End of Roman Rule

Roman culture did not end with Roman political power but did have to negotiate with new Germanic masters, with varying outcomes in the West.

B. The Survival of Rome’s Eastern Provinces

While the western provinces were transformed, the Roman Empire continued without interruption in the east.

1. Christianity and Law Under Justinian

Justinian asserted the power of the emperor over matters of Christian faith, and attempted to create a Christian society by joining Roman law to military force, in the process both reforming Roman law and suppressing local law.

2. Reconquering the Provinces in the West

Justinian’s determination to retake the western provinces provoked fierce resistance and prolonged fighting in Italy, with devastating consequences for both Italy and Byzantium.

3. The Struggle with Persia

Justinian also fought several brutal wars with the Persian Empire to the east, which was much more dangerous to Byzantium than the western Germanic kingdoms. Accordingly, Justinian devoted more resources to this conflict, which continued under his successors. The drain on Byzantine resources of the Persian conflict ensured that Byzantium would not be able to maintain any lasting control over the Western provinces.

V. Conclusion: The Age of New Boundaries

The collapse of Roman rule in the West and the establishment of Germanic kingdoms there transformed the West as Christian and Roman civilizations merged and continued in Byzantium.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

- Council of Nicaea
- Attila rules the Hunnic Empire
- Reign of Justinian
- Diocletian divides the Roman Empire into two parts
- Constantine wins control of western empire
- Council of Chalcedon
- Romulus Augustulus, last western Roman emperor, deposed

- 286
- 312
- 325
- 434-453
- 451
- 476
- 527-565

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

Tetrarchy
Great Persecution
Papacy
Paganism
Heresies
Orthodox
Arians
Chalcedonians
Monophysites
Asceticism
Monastic movement
Mishnah
Pilgrimage
Talmuds
Corpus of Civil Law
Diocletian
Battle of the Milvian Bridge
Constantine
Life of Antony
Benedict
Council of Nicaea
Visigoths
The Huns
Haghia Sophia
Justinian
Code of Justinian

**MAP EXERCISE**

*The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.*

Hippo
Trier
Ravenna
Milan
Nicaea
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What were the internal and external causes of the third century crisis for the Roman Empire?
2. Through what reforms did Diocletian restore the empire? Were all the reforms effective?
3. What impact did Constantine’s acceptance of Christianity have on the Roman Empire?
4. What was monasticism? Discuss its origins.
5. What Germanic tribes successfully invaded the Roman Empire following the fourth century A.D.? Where did they establish kingdoms? What was their relationship with the local Gallo-Roman elites?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. In “Bring Me the Head of St. Peter,” what religious differences between the Latin West and the Greek East does Pope Gregory the Great discuss? What is his attitude toward the Greek East’s treatment of relics?
2. In “Romans Deserve Their Fate,” what does Salvian cite as reasons why the “barbarians” were able to seize Rome’s western territories?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. Is it accurate to say that the Roman Empire fell? How would it be necessary to modify that statement? What date would you pick for the fall of the Roman Empire?
2. What was the impact of Christianity on the Roman Empire? How did the various theological controversies help to establish Christianity within the system of authority of the Roman Empire? What was the relationship of Christianity to the Germanic tribesmen?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Why did Diocletian reform the empire?
   A. To stop assassinations of emperors and conquer Germany
   B. To make government more efficient
   C. To stop assassinations of emperors
   D. To make government more efficient and stop assassinations of emperors

2. The tetrarchs were
   A. leaders of the Gallic Empire.
   B. rebels from Palmyra.
   C. two senior and two junior emperors.
   D. four provinces in the eastern border region of the Roman Empire.

3. The doctrine of Petrine Succession
   A. claimed the primacy of the pope in Rome over other bishops.
   B. reduced the violence in selecting Roman emperors.
   C. established sees in Rome, Constantinople, Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch.
   D. established a Christian dating system.

4. The first churches in Rome were built to
   A. demonstrate imperial wealth.
   B. surpass the grandeur of pagan temples.
   C. glorify Emperor Constantine.
   D. honor the Christian martyrs of the past.

5. Which statement about Constantine is not true?
   A. He won the Battle of Milvian Bridge.
   B. He abandoned interest in the eastern part of the empire, assuming it lacked wealth and resources.
   C. He claimed Christ’s favor as a factor in a military victory in 312.
   D. He appointed praetorian prefects in each sector of the empire to maintain imperial authority.

6. Which statement about the Council of Nicea is true?
   A. It settled the controversy about the Holy Trinity.
   B. The Nicene Creed was reversed at the Council of Chalcedon.
   C. Pope Leo I called the Council.
   D. It made Arianism the official doctrine of the Christian Church.
7. Which author is correctly matched with his writing?

A. Jerome – Confessions
B. Benedict of Nursia – Enneada
C. Athanasius – Code of Justinian
D. Augustine of Hippo – The City of God

8. The Battle of Adrianople (378) marked the

A. Sack of Rome.
B. defeat of the Huns.
C. major defeat of the Roman army.
D. Visigothic invasion of Africa.

9. Which term is correctly matched with its description?

A. Coloni – head bishop
B. Solidus – false belief
C. Metropolitan – peasants tied to the land
D. Quadrivium – geometry, arithmetic, astronomy, music

10. The Byzantine emperor who compiled Roman law and tried to reconquer land lost in North Africa and Italy was

A. Theodoric.
B. Justinian.
C. Attila.
D. Chosroes I.
CHAPTER 7

Medieval Empires and Borderlands: Byzantium and Islam

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Byzantium: The Survival of the Roman Empire

After the death of Justinian, the Byzantine Empire lost territory and suffered economic setbacks, leading its emperors to militarily reorganize Byzantium. Key Roman institutions continued from late antiquity: the emperor and his bureaucracy, the army, and the Orthodox Church.

A. An Embattled Empire

By 750, a much smaller Byzantine Empire was struggling for survival against many enemies.

1. Out of the Steppes: Borderlands in Eastern Europe

In the Balkans, the Byzantines faced the Avars, Slavs, and Bulgars. The nomadic and fierce Avars created an empire of conquered peoples, among whom were the Slavs. The Bulgars also conquered many Slavic peoples and applied constant pressure on Byzantine lands. In contrast, the Rus sought to encourage and maintain diplomatic, commercial, and religious ties to the Byzantines, whose culture they admired.

2. The Loss of the Western Provinces

On the already semi-autonomous Italian and North African fronts, Byzantine possessions in North Africa fell to the Muslims, while those in Italy fell to the Lombards.

3. The Old Enemy: Persia

The Persians remained a serious threat, as the chronic struggle between the Byzantine and Persian Empires reached a climax in war. Byzantium won, but victory came at such a cost that both it and Persia were vulnerable to the Muslims.

4. The New Enemy: Islam

The armies of Islam seized Egypt, raided deep into Byzantine territory, and laid siege to Constantinople itself. While Byzantium survived, for now, Islamic raiders continued to harass Byzantine lands. Out of these military conflicts emerged legends of great heroes battling the Arabs, such as the Greek poem *Digenes Akritas*. 
B. Byzantine Civilization

These three aspects of Byzantine life did much to enable it to withstand attacks.

1. Imperial Administration and Economy

Absolute in power, the emperor governed through a large, hierarchical bureaucracy, but could not keep the economy from declining as territory and trade routes were lost to the Muslims.

2. The Military System of the Themes

Reorganizing Byzantium into four military districts, the emperor managed to maintain the military strength necessary to prevent the empire from collapsing, while the Byzantine navy successfully used “Greek fire” to keep Arab forces at bay.

3. The Church and Religious Life

The dominant form of Christianity in Byzantium was Orthodox Christianity, led by the Patriarch of Constantinople, who in turn was controlled by the emperor. Among the few who were educated, the Church replaced a classical education with an explicitly Christian one.

4. Icons and the Iconoclastic Controversy

Byzantines believed that icons enabled believers to encounter a holy presence, and Emperor Leo’s attempt to suppress icons was fiercely resisted, and later overturned.

C. The Macedonian Renaissance

The Macedonian dynasty strengthened Byzantium against invaders by pushing back the Muslims, converting the Slavs, Bulgars, and the Rus to Christianity. Religious and linguistic differences increasingly separated the West from the East. The economy thrived and religious dissension ended, resulting in an impressive outpouring of scholarship. The political stability and energetic leadership provided by the Macedonian dynasty began to erode in the eleventh century, leading to governmental stagnation, a deteriorating economy, and military decline. As a result, the Byzantine Empire was not able to fend off the Normans in southern Italy or the Seljuk Turks in Asia Minor.

II. The New World of Islam

Originating in the Arabian peninsula in the early seventh century, Islam quickly spread and its followers had established an Islamic Empire by 750.
A. Arabs Before Islam

Before Islam, Arabs were tribal people linked by a common language who lived in diverse communities, followed different religions, and had no unity.

B. The Rise of Islam

Islam is based on the Qur’an, a book that records the revelations made to the prophet Muhammad. From these revelations and other teachings, Muhammad forged a religious community that drew in the Arab tribes and, by Muhammad’s death in 632, had unified Arabia.

1. Muhammad’s Teachings

A monotheistic religion, Islam holds that Muhammad was the last in a line of prophets of God that began with Abraham. Islam enjoins five principles on its believers: faith in the one God and in Muhammad as his prophet, prayer five times a day, fasting during Ramadan, charity, and a pilgrimage to Mecca. These principles, especially the pilgrimage, helped to create a common Muslim identity.

2. The Succession Crisis after Muhammad: Sunnis and Shi’ites

After his death, Muhammad was succeeded by Abu Bakr as the first caliph. A minority of Muslims would not accept Abu Bakr and eventually they formed the Shi’ite sect of Islam. In preserving the Islamic community in Arabia, Abu Bakr created a highly trained Muslim army. After Abu Bakr’s death in 634, the Muslim armies swept out of Arabia through Persia and across North Africa, their advance halted only by civil war over the caliphate.

C. The Umayyad Caliphate

The Umayyad family won the civil war in 661 and established a dynasty that would last until 750.

1. The “House of War”

The resumption of wars of conquest to spread the faith led Muslim armies into Spain, but they were defeated in France and successfully resisted by the Nubians and the Byzantines. The Muslim armies also advanced across Central Asia and defeated the Chinese, but they decided not to expand.

2. Governing the Islamic Empire

The Umayyads turned the caliphate into a hereditary monarchy and developed a new administrative system that produced a highly centralized and autocratic regime. Arab settlers followed the Muslim armies to the newly conquered lands where the Muslims built new cities and transformed old ones, as the buildings that once supported Greco-Roman culture gave way to Islamic mosques.
3. Becoming Muslims

Understanding themselves as a community of faith, the Muslim conquerors sharply distinguished between Muslims and non-Muslims, and only converts to Islam could gain full participation in the Islamic community. Muslims did not forcibly convert other monotheists but did convert polytheists by the sword.

4. Peoples of the Book

The Umayyad caliphate distinguished its subjects not by ethnicity but by religion and allowed other monotheists—Jews, Christians, and Zoroastrians—to practice their religion freely, although they had less status than Muslims and had to pay extra taxes.

5. Commercial Encounters

The Umayyads fostered long-distance commerce, with both overland camel caravan trade and maritime trade, by maintaining peace within their far-flung borders and creating a new currency. Along with the exchange of goods was an exchange of valuable ideas and scientific knowledge.

6. The Breakup of the Umayyad Caliphate

The Umayyads faced continuous rebellions against their rule, primarily from the Shi’ites and the Abbasid clan. When the Abbasids seized the caliphate from the Umayyads in 750, the political unity of the Islamic world fractured, leading to rival caliphates in Spain and, later, North Africa.

D. The Abbasid Caliphate

Although Arabs, the Abbasids considered all Muslims equal and the distinctive Islamic civilization that emerged under them fused Arabic, Persian, Syrian, and Byzantine elements, and eclecticism reflected in the Arabian Nights stories. Philosophical and scientific studies also thrived. Actual Abbasid political power ceased in 945, although the Abbasid caliphs continued as figureheads for another 300 years.

E. Islamic Civilization in Europe

Muslim raids contributed to the decline of cities on the coastal areas of the Christian Mediterranean, while Sicily and Spain became zones of intense cultural interaction among Christians, Muslims, and Jews. In Spain, the caliphate of Cordoba dominated early in this era, but the Christian kingdoms began to assert themselves and become the dominant power in the eleventh century.

III. Conclusion: Three Cultural Realms

Between 550 and 750, western Europe, the Mediterranean world, and the Middle East were transformed into three distinct realms: the Orthodox Christian Byzantine Empire, the Islamic caliphate, and Latin Christendom, united in Catholicism but, unlike the other
two, politically fragmented. Each realm shared something of the heritage of ancient Rome, as well as ancient religious traditions, especially Judaism, yet each was distinctly different – differences that would come into sharp focus in the ensuing centuries.

TIMELINE

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

Charles Martel defeats Muslims at Poitiers  
Death of Basil II  
Muhammad born in Mecca  
Otto crowned emperor in Rome  
Muslims conquer Spain  
Umayyad dynasty rules from Damascus

_____ ca. 570

_____ 661-750

_____ 711

_____ 732

_____ 962

_____ 1025

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

*The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.*

Avars  
Bulgars  
The Rus  
Vladimir the Great  
Cyril and Methodius  
Themes  
Iconoclasm  
Icons  
Boris I  
Macedonian Renaissance  
Photius  
Seljuk Turks  
Mosque  
Pillars of Islam  
Caliphate  
Exarchates
Iconoclastic Controversy
The Ka’aba
Mecca
Medina
Muhammad
Charles Martel
Spanish Reconquest

MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

Mecca
Poitiers
Carthage
Constantinople
Medina
Anitoch
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What was the administration of the Byzantine Empire?

2. How did the Macedonian dynasty temporarily reverse Byzantium’s weaknesses? When and why did their successes end?

3. What was the nature of social organization in pre-Islamic Arabia? Why was Mecca important?

4. How did the Arabic language aid in the extension of the Umayyad caliphate?

5. What factors determined the dynamism of Islam and its rapid spread throughout Arabia and beyond?

6. What impact did Islam have on southern Europe? How is the complex relationship between Islam and Europe reflected in borderland epics so popular by the twelfth century?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. In “Constantinople and the Avars: A Change in Tactics,” how did Justin II combat the demands of the Avars without the use of violence? Was he successful?


PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. What were the inherent difficulties in maintaining unity in the Byzantine Empire? How did the Byzantines attempt to prevent their empire from collapsing?

2. Did the division of the Islamic world into competing caliphates enhance or detract from the Islamic political and cultural authority? How did these political struggles within the Islamic world impact relations with Europe?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which statement about the Byzantine Empire in the ninth and tenth centuries is not true?
   A. The Pope and Latin Christians supported the expansion of Byzantine influence.
   B. The early Macedonian emperors provided dynamic leadership.
   C. Byzantine missionaries spread Christianity and Greek civilization.
   D. Thriving trade and commerce produced a strong economy.

2. Cyril and Methodius
   A. defeated Bulgars.
   B. made the Donation of Poland.
   C. invented an alphabet for the Slavic language.
   D. reigned in Kievan Rus.

3. Which term is correctly matched with its description?
   A. Greek fire – Christian memento credited with special curative or protective significance
   B. Monophysite – Byzantine military district
   C. Theme – form of napalm used in battle
   D. Exarchates – Byzantine administrative units

4. Emperor Leo III was an iconoclast because he
   A. prohibited the use of images in the Orthodox Church.
   B. venerated images as a part of religious worship.
   C. decorated churches with mosaic images.
   D. cooperated with Muslims regarding images in Syria.

5. Which of the following did not contribute to the growing separation between the East and the West?
   A. Byzantium’s conversion of the Slavs, Bulgars, and Rus to Christianity
   B. The threat of Muslim expansion
   C. The crowning of the Saxon king Otto I as Roman emperor
   D. The iconoclastic controversy

6. Which of the following statements is true concerning Arabs before Islam?
   A. Most Arabs were polytheistic.
   B. Arabs were united into a single state with a strong formal government.
   C. Most Arabs lived a nomadic life.
   D. Arabs rarely engaged in long-distance trade.
7. Which statement about Muhammad is not true?
   A. He was a caravan merchant.
   B. He sometimes served as a mediator.
   C. He founded the Umayyad Caliphate.
   D. He taught a monotheistic religion.

8. Which term associated with Islam is incorrectly matched with its description?
   A. Khadija – Muhammad’s wife
   B. Qu’ran – holy book of Islam
   C. Ka’aba – sacred black stone in Mecca
   D. Jihad – flight from Mecca to Medina

9. The capital of the Umayyad Caliphate was
   A. Mecca.
   B. Damascus.
   C. Medina.
   D. Baghdad.

10. Which ruler is correctly matched with his kingdom/domain?
    A. Harun al-Rashid – Abbasid Empire
    B. Boris I – Kievan Rus
    C. Abd al Rahman – Bulgaria
    D. Vladimir the Great – Macedonia
CHAPTER 8

Medieval Empires and Borderlands: The Latin West

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. The Birth of Latin Christendom

By 750, several new kingdoms emerged in what had been the western part of the Roman Empire. The kingdoms were politically, ethnically, and linguistically diverse, yet shared certain social and religious characteristics.

A. Germanic Kingdoms on Roman Foundations

The Germanic peoples who established these kingdoms maintained their own cultural identity despite borrowing from Roman law. Christianity and the Latin language also provided unifying forces.

1. Anglo-Saxon England

Roman civilization vanished more completely from Britain than anywhere else in Europe and left virtually no mark on the culture of the Germanic Anglo-Saxons who established kingdoms there.

2. The Franks: A Dual Heritage

Following the collapse of imperial authority in Gaul, the Franks, under their ruler Clovis, established a large, powerful kingdom, which later split into the realms that would eventually become France and Germany.

3. Visigoths in Spain

The Visigoth kings of Spain failed to impose their Arianism on the local population, instead converting to Catholicism themselves before being defeated by invading Muslim armies.

4. Lombards in Italy

Lombard rule in Italy suffered from internal division as well as pressure from the Byzantines and Franks, and eventually the Frankish king Charlemagne crushed them in 774.

B. Different Kingdoms, Shared Traditions

With the exception of England, Germanic rulers blended Roman and Germanic traditions in government and law in order to unify their kingdoms, with Christianity also serving as a common bond.
1. Civil Authority: The Roman Legacy

Germanic rulers such as Clovis continued to maintain parts of the Roman administrative system, controlling all appointments to these offices and also adopting the Roman practice of the monarch being the source of all law.

2. War Leaders and Wergild: The Germanic Legacy

The leaders of the Germanic tribes had been war chiefs and the personal loyalty of warriors to their leader continued to be an important element in the Germanic kingdoms, as did the hierarchical networks of clan and kin, which revenged any harm done to one of their own unless appeased by financial compensation for that person’s worth – the wergild.

3. Unity Through Law and Christianity

By 750, most of the western kingdoms had become Catholic, which facilitated the intermarriage of Germanics and Romans and helped give unity to kingdoms. Unity was also enhanced when Romans increasingly chose to live according to Germanic, and not Roman, law.

4. Women and Property

The influence of Roman law on Germanic societies can be seen in the way that Germanic settlers came to accept a woman’s right to inherit land.

C. The Spread of Latin Christianity in the New Kingdoms of Western Europe

Missionary monks played a key role in the spread of Catholic Christianity throughout the new kingdoms.

1. The Growth of the Papacy

Through clever diplomacy and shrewd political maneuvering, the popes were able to build up support in western Europe and eventually make themselves the independent rulers of part of Italy.

2. Converting the Irish

Never part of the Roman Empire, Ireland also never developed any sort of urban living, and so its missionaries, like Patrick, had to adapt the institutional and educational structures of the Church to an overwhelmingly rural environment. They did this by establishing monasteries, which became centers of learning, eventually sending out their own missionary monks to establish monasteries in England, France, and Germany.
3. Converting the Anglo-Saxons

Pope Gregory the Great hoped to create a European Christian community. To achieve this, he advocated the conversion of as many people as possible, the allowance of local variations in worship, and the revision of harmless remnants of pre-Christian worship practices. By 600, Irish missionaries were established in Scotland, England, and parts of continental Europe. Irish monks seeking to convert England found themselves working with missionary monks sent from Rome. The two groups disagreed on several practices, a dispute that was finally resolved in Rome’s favor in 664.

4. Monastic Intellectual Life

The monks sent from Rome were Benedictines, who emphasized religious learning and whose monasteries became centers of learning and intellectual activity. Part of this was the copying of manuscripts, and while most of these were religious, the monks preserved classical texts as well. Monks also wrote books and transported books to new places, as well as operated schools.

5. Jews in a Christian World

A religious minority throughout Latin Christendom, the specific circumstances of Jews’ lives varied, depending upon in which kingdom they resided. While Christian attitudes towards Jews tended to be hostile, actual treatment of the Jews ranged from persecution to protection.

II. The Carolingians

When Pepin the Short deposed the last of the Merovingian kings of the Franks, he inaugurated a new ruling dynasty: the Carolingians. But both suffered from the succession custom of the Franks that caused a king to divide his kingdom among his sons.

A. The Leadership of Charlemagne

Ruthlessly seizing his deceased brother’s kingdom over the rights of his nephews, Charlemagne managed, in a reign of almost constant warfare, to make himself the mightiest ruler in western Europe, heading up an empire that was a dramatic departure from the small, loosely governed kingdoms that had prevailed since the end of the western Roman Empire.

1. Coronation of Charlemagne as Emperor

Ruling all of western Europe except for southern Italy, Spain, and the British Isles, Charlemagne’s coronation as a Roman emperor in 800 exemplified the two most prominent characteristics of the Carolingians: conscious imitation of the ancient Roman Empire and an obligation to protect the pope, in exchange for which the pope sanctioned Carolingian rule.
2. Carolingian Rulership

Lacking a standing army and navy, professional civil servants, properly maintained roads, regular communications, a money economy, and even a permanent capital city, the Carolingian system of government was based on personality, not institutions. Despite the use of capitularies (collections of written decrees) and counties (territorial units in which counts represented royal power), the strongest bond unifying the Carolingian realm was personal loyalty to the emperor. What little administration that did exist, however, depended entirely on the church, which the Carolingians supported and whose monasteries provided what literate administrators the Carolingians had.

3. The Carolingian Renaissance

Under Charlemagne’s patronage, there was a revival of interest in ancient literature and an intensified effort at education, including the establishment of a school staffed by the finest scholars in Europe, which made Charlemagne’s court a lively center of intellectual exchange.

B. The Division of Western Europe

The personal empire created by Charlemagne was not able to be maintained by his less capable successors, as subsequent generations continued to divide up what had been one empire, a fragmentation that increased warfare and violence.

III. Invasions and Recovery in the Latin West

In the ninth and tenth centuries, polytheist tribes raided the Christian heart of Europe, but Christianity not only survived, it eventually converted the invaders.

A. The Polytheist Invaders of the Latin West

Of the pagan raiders that harassed Christian Europe, the two most important were the Magyars, who eventually formed their own kingdom of Hungary and accepted Christianity, and the Vikings, who caused the most havoc in western Europe. By the mid-ninth century, the Vikings, or Northmen, were shifting from raiding to invading and settling, resulting in a lasting impact in France, Britain, and the North Atlantic.

B. The Rulers in the Latin West

The disintegration of the Carolingian order resulted in a shift of power from central, royal authority to local warlords.

1. Lords and Vassals

By the eighth century, the Germanic society of warriors led by chiefs had been formalized into relationships between lords and vassals. Vassals swore loyalty and obedience to their lord, and in return the lord promised to protect his vassal and sometimes granted him land which was called a fief, a system known as
feudalism. In the disorder of the ninth and tenth centuries, lords gained extensive political and legal rights over the communities in their lands. Although in theory feudalism created a hierarchy of authority, in actuality the situation was more complex.

2. The Western European Kingdoms After the Carolingians

Feudalism transformed kings into the lords of other lords, in which maintaining royal authority was difficult. Kings sought to ensure loyalty by granting favors to loyal vassals and by emphasizing the sacred character of kingship, in the process enhancing the idea of kingship and encouraging the perception of the kingdom as more than the king's personal possession. The Saxon dynasty of East Francia, which consisted primarily of German-speaking tribes, promoted Christian missions to the Slavs and Scandinavians. In West Francia, the Capets used their relationship with the church to strengthen their authority and made their crown hereditary, eventually giving the name of their feudal domain, France, to the entire kingdom. England became united under Alfred the Great and his successors, only to be conquered by Duke William of Normandy in 1066.

C. The Conversion of the Last Polytheists

In the frontiers of the Latin West, when a king or chieftain converted to Christianity, his people followed, although the inculcation of Christian principles and forms of worship took more time and effort. To combat the tendencies towards localism, missionaries and Christian rulers established geographical areas known as bishoprics to enforce correct belief and punish immorality. Unlike the Bulgarians and the Kievan Rus, the Poles, Bohemians, Magyars, and Scandinavians favored Latin Christianity. This connection forged closer political and cultural connections with western Europe.

IV. The West in the East: The Crusades

The papacy gave powerful religious sanctions to Christian military expeditions against the Muslims in Palestine, leading to eight major Crusades between 1095 and 1291.

A. The Origins of Holy War

The original call for a crusade came in response to the threat that the Muslims posed to Christians and holy places in the eastern Mediterranean. Crusaders, a new sort of armed pilgrim, sought both spiritual and material rewards as they battled to take Jerusalem, which many identified with Paradise itself.

B. Crusading Warfare

The First Crusade (1095-1099) landed in the Middle East to find Arab states weakened from fighting the Turks and internal theological disputes. Crusaders captured Jerusalem and established Latin principalities in what is today Lebanon, Israel, and Palestine. This was the only really successful crusade. Subsequent crusades either failed or, in the case of the Fourth Crusade, blatantly subverted religious aims to worldly ones.
C. The Significance of the Crusades

The Crusader hold in the Middle East did not last long, nor did the Crusades facilitate the transmission to Europe of Islamic cultural and intellectual influences, which instead came via Sicily and Spain. The Crusades helped destabilize the Byzantine Empire, which made it an easy target for Muslim conquest. Most importantly, the Crusades led to the expansion of European trade, leading to an era of exuberant economic growth.

V. Conclusion: An Emerging Unity in the Latin West

In the Early Middle Ages, the distinction between eastern and western Europe emerged based primarily upon different forms of Christianity, while interaction with Muslim powers and civilization helped define the southern border of Christian Europe. These factors helped develop a tentative unity among western European Christians, based primarily upon Roman Catholicism. By the end of this era, western Europe was also characterized by the system of lordship and vassalage. After recovering from invasions and after strengthening themselves with new political and ecclesiastical institutions, Latin Christian kingdoms attempted to recapture Jerusalem from the Muslims, and thus engaged in aggressive contact outside of the West’s borders.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

- Pepin the Short named king of the Franks
- Charlemagne invades Italy and defeats the Lombards
- William the Conqueror defeats last Anglo-Saxon king
- Charlemagne crowned Holy Roman Emperor
- Clovis overtakes the last Roman stronghold in northern Gaul
- First Crusade
- Capture of Toledo from Muslims
- Lombard king Alboin invades Italy

### 486
### 568
### 774
### 751
### 800
### 1066
### 1085
### 1096-1099

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

- Clans or kin groups
- Wergild
- Gregory the Great
- Scriptorium
- Clovis
- Charlemagne
- Counties
- Marches
- Carolingian Renaissance
- Einhard
- Alcuin of York
- Feudalism
- Fief
The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

The Empire of Charlemagne
Regensburg
Aachen
Kiev
Novgorod
Moscow
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What new kingdoms emerged in what used to constitute the western part of the Roman Empire? Despite their diversity, ethnically and linguistically, what did they have in common?

2. What were the limitations on early kingship?

3. How did Charlemagne construct an empire? How centralized was the government? Why did the empire disintegrate after his death?

4. What was the nature of the Carolingian Renaissance?

5. What were the causes and consequences of the Crusades? How did the goals of these interventions change over time?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. In reality, how voluntary is “An Oath of Voluntary Submission to a Lord” that is excerpted in the text? What does the vassal pledge? What does the lord pledge? Who has the advantage if they want to change the agreement?

2. In “Pope Urban Calls for Crusades,” what has happened in Jerusalem that necessitates Christian aid? What rewards are promised to the Crusaders?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the new kingdoms of Latin Christendom borrow from the heritage of ancient Rome, especially its network of cities? What role did Roman law play in these societies?

2. How would you characterize the political organization of western Europe in the early Middle Ages? Did the creation of the Carolingian Empire actually restore the centralized political structure of the ancient Roman Empire?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which statement about Clovis is not true?
   A. He was a Salian Frank.
   B. He converted to Catholic Christianity.
   C. He defeated the Visigoths at the battle of Vouille.
   D. He was respected for his humane and gentle nature.

2. Mercia, Wessex, and Northumbria were
   A. Anglo-Saxon kingdoms.
   B. Frankish kings.
   C. Visigothic cities.
   D. Lombardi conquests.

3. In Germanic law, compensation was paid for personal injury based on a person’s
   A. palimpsest.
   B. dirham.
   C. wergild.
   D. farsis.

4. What happened in a scriptorium?
   A. Manuscripts were copied.
   B. Women inherited land.
   C. Land disputes were settled.
   D. Warriors swore loyalty to a chieftain.

5. Which of the following statements about Charlemagne is not true?
   A. He appointed a count to oversee each county.
   B. He rebuilt the old Roman Empire, with borders extending from North Africa to northern Britain.
   C. He revitalized existing monasteries and endowed new ones.
   D. He fought frequently, especially to control the borders of the empire.

6. The Carolingian Renaissance flourished at the palace school of
   A. Kiev.
   B. Poitiers.
   C. Rome.
   D. Aachen.
7. Carolingian miniscule is a:

A. royal decree.
B. silver coin.
C. military region.
D. form of writing.

8. What statement is *not* true of both the Vikings *and* the Magyars?

A. They sailed dragon ships.
B. They attacked parts of Europe.
C. They plundered for booty.
D. They eventually settled down by the tenth century.

9. The Wessex king who stopped the Danish invasion and issued a new law code was

A. Hugh.
B. Alfred.
C. Conrad II.
D. Otto I.

10. Which statement about the Crusades is *not* true?

A. Three reigning monarchs participated in the Second Crusade.
B. The Crusades revitalized and strengthened the Byzantine Empire.
C. The Fourth Crusade seized Constantinople.
D. Crusaders held Jerusalem for almost 90 years.
CHAPTER 9

Medieval Civilization: The Rise of Western Europe

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Two Worlds: Manors and Cities

Thanks to agricultural innovations, the population of Europe increased dramatically.

A. The Medieval Agricultural Revolution

1. Technological Innovations

The harnessing of new power sources—wind, water, and animal—combined with a heavier plow and a shift to a three-field system increased Europe’s food supply and produced a pattern of cooperation and collective decision-making among Europe’s peasants.

2. Manors and Peasants

A manor was essentially an agricultural unit, owned by a lord, which also served as a judicial unit. Peasants known as serfs were tied to a specific manor. They were unable to leave and under high levels of obligation to the lord, but possessed some legal rights. Other peasants owned their land outright, others worked lands they had no legal rights to at all, and some were landless, but for all peasants, life consisted of unremitting toil.

3. The Great Migrations and the Hunger for Land

The dramatic population boom meant that less farmland was available to support the people of the manors, and thus people were forced to relocate. Some found jobs in cities or found their own land elsewhere. Some inhabited the “common lands” surrounding the manors or uncultivated forests and mountain slopes. Others invaded other people’s lands. Migrants flocked to three main areas: Germans moved into eastern Slavic lands, Scandinavians into the far north and north Atlantic islands, and Christian Spaniards into former Muslim territories in the south. Population growth and massive migrations brought between 15 and 40 percent more land under cultivation in Europe.
B. The Growth of Cities

Before the eleventh century, cities held very small populations, as most people lived in rural villages, manors, or market towns. The population boom caused cities to grow dramatically.

1. The Challenge of Free Cities

The population growth fueled a revival of cities and increased the wealth of the merchants, leading the newly thriving cities to attempt to gain autonomy from their lords. Communes were established in Italy, while elsewhere townspeople often bought their urban rights.

2. The Economic Boom Years

Building on the foundations of the agricultural and power revolutions of the eleventh century, advances in transportation networks facilitating long-distance trade, the creation of new business techniques needed for long-distance trade, and the development of cities made possible an economic boom.

II. The Consolidation of Roman Catholicism

New religious orders and intellectual creativity marked one of the greatest periods of religious vitality in Roman Catholicism, thanks largely to able popes who gave the Church the most advanced, centralized government in Europe. But the papacy’s intervention in worldly affairs helped undermine its spiritual authority.

A. The Task of Church Reform

The success and growing wealth of the Church led to corruption, even of the papacy. The movement for reform came from the monasteries, especially the monastery of Cluny, which produced morally pure monks and a beautiful, simple, sung liturgy. From the monasteries, reform spread to parish priests and bishops, and generated a desire among some churchmen to redefine the boundaries between secular and spiritual authorities.

1. The Pope Becomes a Monarch

Vitality depends on unity, and unity requires a clearly defined identity. The Church built that identity by insisting on ritual uniformity and obedience to the pope. Medieval popes, however, had to make their authority real. Pope Gregory VII sought to do this by pursuing the intertwined objectives of internal reform in the church and independence of the church from external, secular control. In the process, he not only centralized authority within the church, but also asserted a theory of temporal, as well as spiritual, papal supremacy.

2. How the Popes Ruled

The actual power of the papacy lay in canon law: the sophisticated legal, administrative, and financial systems that succeeding popes built up and
maintained. Excommunication and interdict were also powerful weapons a pope could deploy against monarchs.

3. The Pinnacle of the Medieval Papacy: Pope Innocent III

Possessing a clear concept of papal monarchy, Innocent III provided the papacy with an independent territorial base, the Papal State; expanded the idea of crusading to include war against heretics; successfully asserted papal power over political affairs; and clearly defined both the Church’s liturgical rites and its dogma.

4. The Troubled Legacy of the Papal Monarchy

Innocent’s less capable successors undermined a pope’s spiritual authority as they continued to blatantly and more aggressively interfere in secular politics. That eventually made it conceivable and even acceptable for a monarch like King Philip IV of France to not only accuse Pope Boniface VIII of heresy, but also to send armed men to arrest him, marking the end of papal monarchy.

B. Discovering God in the World

This was an era of unprecedented spiritual awakening, with a reformation of clergy morals, an increase in lay devotion and monastic vocations, and the success of new religious orders.

1. The Patron Saints

Saints—holy persons with a special relationship to the sacred—provided divine protection and interceded with God on behalf of individuals and communities. Material objects associated with the saints, called relics, were in high demand and often helped establish the legitimacy of political authority. Veneration of the Virgin Mary popularized a new, more positive image of women.

2. The New Religious Orders

The desire for a “purer” monasticism led to the founding of the austere but popular Cistercian order in 1098. An entirely new, uncloistered form of monasticism, the friars emerged with the Dominicans and Franciscans, who devoted themselves to teaching, preaching, and ministering in the world.

3. The Flowering of Religious Sensibilities

Religious enthusiasm and experimentation pushed piety in new directions for all Christians. Veneration of the Eucharist provided identification with Christ. Many Christians were drawn to mysticism, the attempt to achieve union of the self with God. Mystics believed the best way to understand God was through asceticism, and so they denied themselves material and bodily comforts. Most Christians tried to connect to God through the sacraments, pilgrimages, or donations to the Church.
C. Creating the Outcasts of Europe

With the rise of religious unity and moral reform was also an increase in the persecution of those who did not fit into the official idea of Christian society.

1. The Heretics: Cathars and Waldensians

The impulse toward a “purer” Christianity led Cathars and Waldensians to deviate from Catholic doctrine, earning them the unremitting hostility of Church authorities, who sought to search out and exterminate the heretics through inquisition and crusade.

2. Systematic Persecution of the Jews

The Crusades fostered hostility and violence against the Jews, who found themselves increasingly marginalized, deprived of legal protections, and subjected to persecution.

3. “The Living Dead”: Lepers

Victims of this feared, disfiguring disease found themselves increasingly segregated from their communities and classified with heretics and Jews as “outcasts.”

4. The Creation of Sexual Crimes

The Church first legislated against homosexual relations in 1179, and male “sodomites” were, like heretics, Jews, and lepers, identified as outcasts and subjected to persecution. Male church authorities, however, appear to have been unable to imagine female homosexuality.

III. Strengthening the Center of the West

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, western Europe reached new heights of political and economic might as kings, especially in England and France, achieved unprecedented power within their kingdoms, and sophisticated merchants bound Europe together in an extensive trading network.

A. The Monarchies of Western Europe

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the monarchs of France and England, in contrast to overextended empires and underdefended city-states, were able to form stable borders, develop permanent, impersonal bureaucracies to manage finance and administration, establish themselves as the ultimate, or sovereign, authority, and make the law the object of their subjects’ fundamental loyalty, in the process laying the foundations of modern nation-states.
1. Expansion of Power: France

The kings of France achieved unity through military conquest and administrative reform, aided by a lucky streak of dynastic continuity.

2. Lord of All Lords: The King of England

Claiming all land in England by right of conquest, William I of England made sure that every bit of it was held, directly or indirectly, as a fief from the king. William’s great-grandson, Henry II, further enhanced royal power by using sheriffs to enforce the king’s will and making the king’s justice available to all, although he was unable to overturn the Church’s legal privileges and immunities. Although Henry’s son John was forced to concede some limitations to royal power in regard to the barons, John’s grandson Edward I increased royal power through legal reforms and the foundation of Parliament.

3. A Divided Regime: The German Empire

Lacking the feudal or legal foundations for building monarchical authority that the kings of England and France had, German emperors had to rely on forceful personality and military skill to make themselves effective. They also faced the ongoing hostility of popes wary of any consolidating of royal power so territorially close to the papacy, and thus Germany and Italy remained disunited.

IV. Medieval Culture: The Search for Understanding

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the West re-engaged with classical Greek philosophy, and theologians tried to reconcile that philosophy’s rational approach with their religious faith. Ancient Roman and Muslim influences, as well, helped bring about a cultural and intellectual flowering.

A. Revival of Learning

A tremendous increase in medieval education emerged from the monasteries and cathedral schools, especially the latter, as Europeans began to embrace large-scale learning, in which the Church was still the dominant force.

1. Scholasticism: A Christian Philosophy

Out of a growing need for training in logic, the cathedral schools began to train their students in methods of critical reasoning, which gave rise to scholasticism. A broad philosophical and theological movement that dominated medieval thought, scholasticism relied on the use of logic as learned from Aristotle to interpret the Bible and early Christian writers. In
their lectures and disputations, scholastics considered all subjects, even sacred ones, open to their rational inquiry.

2. Universities: Organizing Learning

Arising from the schools, medieval universities formulated the basic educational practices still in place today, such as curricula, examinations, and degrees.

3. The Ancients: Renaissance of the Twelfth Century

Between 1140 and 1260 a flood of Latin translations of ancient Greek works brought Christian thinkers into a greater familiarity with the philosophical method of reasoning, and, like Jewish and Muslim thinkers, they were anxious to demonstrate that philosophy did not contradict the truth of their faith. This quest to reconcile philosophy and faith found its most successful resolution in the work of Thomas Aquinas, who distinguished between natural truth and revealed truth, both coming from God, with the latter perfecting and completing the former. Both Aquinas’s work and that of the jurists revealed a new systematic approach to things.

B. Epic Violence and Courtly Love

A remarkable flowering of vernacular literature occurred as orally-transmitted epics were written down, and troubadours created a new literary form, the courtly love poem, which introduced the idea of romantic love and idealized women.

C. The Center of Medieval Culture: The Great Cathedrals

Most European cathedrals were built between 1050 and 1300, symbolizing the soaring ambitions and imaginations of their era, and were centers for all kinds of arts.

1. Architecture: The Romanesque and Gothic Styles

The arched stone roofs of Romanesque cathedrals created an intimate, comforting space, but gave way to the high pointed arches of the Gothic style that evoked feelings of mystical awe.

2. Music and Drama: Reaching God’s Ear and the Christian’s Soul

Whether plainchant or polyphony, liturgical music was a form of enhancing the mystical experience of worship, and liturgical plays, intended for education as well as worship, began the Western dramatic tradition.
V. Conclusion: Asserting Western Culture

For the first time since the Roman Empire, the West looked both inward and outward, measured itself, defined itself, and promoted itself as it matured into its own self-confident identity and extended its power outside of Europe itself. The West cultivated critical methods of thinking that produced an almost limitless capacity for creative renewal and critical self-examination. This is what has most distinguished the West ever since.

TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

- Murder of Thomas Becket
- Magna Carta
- Reign of Gregory VII
- Concordat of Worms
- Albigensian Crusade
- Cistercian Order founded
- Cluny monastery founded

910
1098
1122
1073-1085
1170
1208-1213
1215
TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

Excommunication
Investiture Controversy
Canon law
Curia
Interdict
Mendicant friars
Eucharist
Agricultural revolution
Serfs
Communes
Liturgy
Cluny
Lay investiture
Simony
Transubstantiation
Circuit court
Grand jury
Trial by jury
Magna Carta
Scholasticism
Twelfth-century Renaissance
Thomism
Courtly love
Troubadours
Gothic
Romanesque
Plainchant
Polyphony
Pope Innocent III
Gregory VII
Albigensian Crusade
Philip II Augustus
Louis XIV
William I, the Conqueror
King Henry II
Frederick Barbarossa
Frederick II
Champagne fairs
Thomas Aquinas
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

Vezelay
Clermont
Marseilles
Damascus
Jerusalem
Cairo
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. How did the Roman Catholic Church consolidate its power in Europe? How was the law a mechanism for control in the Catholic world?

2. What sparked the reform movement within the Roman Catholic Church? How was the papacy able to regain prominence as moral reformers by the eleventh century?

3. What issues within the church prompted the founding of the new religious orders?

4. What factors contributed to the economic boom during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries?

5. Discuss scholasticism. What role did it play in the revival of learning in the medieval world?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. In “The Position of Women in the Eyes of the Medieval Church,” what reasons does Gratian give for women’s inferior legal status in canon law?

2. According to “The Church’s Policy Toward the Jews,” how did the Fourth Lateran Council attempt to regulate relations between Christians and Jews?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the consolidation of Roman Catholicism in Europe actually contribute to the creation of a unified European identity? What was the role of the Inquisition in this process?

2. Explore the connections between European economic growth in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries and the cultural renaissance of the same period. What is the significance of where this renaissance takes place?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. The introduction of the heavy plow in northern Europe led to
   A. cooperation among peasants to share plow teams.
   B. long narrow fields.
   C. more nutritious and plentiful food.
   D. All of these

2. The Cluny monastery was famous for
   A. converting the Jews.
   B. sending missionaries to the Slavs.
   C. serving as a partner with local lords in lay investiture.
   D. eliminating corruption and moral laxity.

3. The Investiture Controversy occurred because of Pope Gregory VII’s
determination to
   A. issue dispensations.
   B. adjudicate disputes over inheritance.
   C. control appointments to church offices.
   D. retake the Holy Land.

4. Who founded a mendicant order for men to combat heresy and to preach?
   A. Dominic
   B. Clare of Assisi
   C. Bernard of Clairvaux
   D. Peter the Hermit

5. The French king who helped to centralize the government through the baillis was
   A. Philip II.
   B. Hugh Capet.
   C. Philip I.
   D. Louis VI.
6. Which statement about the Magna Carta is true?
   A. It recognized representatives of the "commons."
   B. It required the king to respect feudal privileges.
   C. It established circuit courts to administer the king's justice.
   D. It reduced the jurisdiction of feudal courts.

7. Thirteenth-century German emperors
   A. could not exercise control over powerful independent-minded German dukes.
   B. intervened in Italy.
   C. belonged to the Hohenstaufen dynasty.
   D. All of these

8. The Iranian philosopher whose commentaries on Aristotle influenced Catholic scholasticism was
   A. Fulcher.
   B. Maimonides.
   C. Avicenna.
   D. Al-Ghazali.

9. Which statement about Thomas Aquinas is not true?
   A. He wrote Summary of Theology.
   B. He differentiated between natural truth and revealed truth.
   C. He engaged in verbal disputations with Peter Abelard.
   D. He tried to reconcile faith and reason.

10. Which is not a characteristic of Romanesque cathedrals?
    A. Flying buttresses
    B. Intimate, dark cozy atmosphere
    C. Rounded arch
    D. Barrel vault
CHAPTER 10

The Medieval West in Crisis

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. A Time of Death

Death by starvation and disease became the fate of millions as Europe’s population plunged from about 74 million in 1300 to just 52 million by the 1340s, with the greatest suffering falling on the poor, the very young, and the old.

A. Mass Starvation

Reaching the limits of its agricultural production, Europe by 1300 could no longer continue to feed a growing population, resulting in widespread malnutrition, starvation, and disease.

B. The Black Death

A savage epidemic, most likely bubonic plague, swept into Europe in 1348 and by 1351 had traveled as far as Russia, leaving in its wake approximately 20 million dead, or about a third of Europe’s population.

II. A Cold Wind from the East

Charging westward out of central Asia, Mongols and Turks put pressure on European kingdoms and redrew the map of the West.

A. The Mongol Invasions

Highly skilled horsemen and warriors, under the leadership of Genghis Khan, the Mongols transformed themselves from disunited tribes into a vast empire, which eventually stretched from Korea to Hungary. Within their empire, the Mongols reestablished the caravan routes that made trans-Eurasian trade possible, but the fracturing of the Mongol empire in the fourteenth century hindered and eventually destroyed this trade.

B. The Rise of the Ottoman Turks

At first mercenaries employed by the Mongols, outside of Mongolia itself the Muslim Turks gradually became dominant, taking over Central Asia. The most successful were the Ottomans, whose dynasty lasted over 600 years, and whose empire continually harassed a weakened Byzantium, overtaking the Balkans and eventually conquering Constantinople in 1453, which was the end of the Byzantine Empire.
III. Economic Depression and Social Turmoil

In the fourteenth century, the economic expansion of the previous two centuries turned into economic depression.

A. The Collapse of International Trade and Banking

Disorder in the Mongol Empire and pressure by the Ottoman Turks on Byzantium led to a virtual collapse of overland luxury trade between East and West. This, in turn, caused the collapse of Europe’s fledgling, and fragile, banking system.

B. Rebellions from Below

Despite a labor shortage created by the Black Death, the collapse of the luxury trade led to a stagnation of urban workers’ wages. Governments made the situation worse by trying to control wages and raise taxes, setting off revolts.

1. An Economy of Monopolies: Guilds

Medieval cities were controlled, politically and economically, by guilds, who protected the interests of their trade or craft and whose regulations governed virtually all aspects of their members’ lives. Their power and monopoly privileges made them the focus of mounting social tension in a time of economic decline.

2. “Long Live the People, Long Live Liberty”

In Italy, the Netherlands, and France, economic pressures caused workers to rebel, demanding political rights and economic reforms. In the countryside, both France and England experienced peasants’ revolts. None of these revolts was successful, and only the English peasants’ revolt in 1381 acted on a clear political vision of a classless society.

IV. An Age of Continuous Warfare

Europe was further weakened when the two largest and previously stable monarchies, France and England, engaged in a prolonged conflict that drained resources and deepened and lengthened the economic depression. The resulting desire to strengthen and control military resources led monarchs to begin to transform feudal states into the beginnings of modern ones.

A. The Fragility of Monarchies

Monarchy depended upon the support of aristocracy, but that aristocracy was protective of its privileges and both weakened and occasionally threatened the monarchy, especially when weak kings combined with a disputed succession.
B. The Hundred Years’ War

The causes of this war sprang from the feudal relationship between the kings of England and the kings of France, as well as differences between English and French royal succession traditions, which resulted in the king of England having, in his view, a claim to the French crown. This was not a continuous conflict but a series of occasional battles, in which the French, numerically superior, usually fell victim to superior English discipline and weaponry.

1. From English Victories to French Salvation

English successes, including the capture of the French king in battle, led to what appeared to be English victory by 1420. Ruling France, however, proved more difficult than conquering it. Beginning in 1429, the French rallied and, led by Joan of Arc, began to turn the tide against the English, leading to eventual French victory in 1453.

2. The Hundred Years’ War in Perspective

Other European areas were occasionally drawn into this Anglo-French conflict, so that at certain times this was a European-wide conflict. The war also prolonged the Great Schism and helped hasten the decline of the economy. It devastated France, adding to the death toll from the plague, and resulted in England becoming more English, as the English aristocracy’s ties to France were broken.

C. The Military Revolution

This refers to the gradual replacement of heavily armored cavalry by disciplined infantry, armed with new weapons, such as the longbow and gunpowder. However, in order for this infantry to be effective, armies became much more complex organizations and were much more expensive, leading royal governments to pursue centralizing policies that lay the foundations for the modern state.

V. A Troubled Church and the Demand for Religious Comfort

During an era of extreme suffering, people turned to religion, but the Church, dangerously weakened in spiritual authority and moral leadership, was unable to provide the solace people craved, leading them to seek alternatives.

A. The Babylonian Captivity of the Church and the Great Schism

Beginning in 1305, the popes voluntarily relocated from Rome to Avignon, known as the Babylonian Captivity of the Church. There, their subservience to the French kings dangerously politicized the papacy and their lack of revenues led them into questionable financial schemes. The determination of Pope Urban VI in 1378 to relocate the papacy in Rome led to the Great Schism, which saw rival popes in Avignon and Rome. An attempt to solve the problem of the Great Schism led to the Conciliar Movement, which argued
that a general council of the Church had greater authority than any pope, and thus was competent to resolve the schism and initiate reform. The Great Schism was ended by the Council of Constance, which met between 1414 and 1417, but further reform by councils was thwarted by popes who disliked any limitation on their authority. The Conciliar Movement did, however, provide a model for how to achieve reform.

B. The Search for Religious Alternatives

The weakened papacy was unable to control those who brought messages of direct experience of God and a return to apostolic purity.

1. Protests Against the Papacy: New Heresies

Medieval religion was primarily sacramental, which emphasized the power of the clergy over the laity. In a time of faulty clerical leadership, some reformers, such as John Wycliffe and Jan Hus, argued for more equality between clergy and laity, leading them to be condemned as heretics.

2. Imitating Christ: The Modern Devotion

Unable to find solace in the institutional Church, some turned to an intense, deeply individual, and internalized piety in a movement known as the Modern Devotion, which mostly managed to avoid heresy, emphasized private prayer, moral introspection, and the spiritual and material welfare of both the community and the Church.

VI. The Culture of Loss

The anxiety produced by the widespread suffering of this era caused Europeans to be preoccupied with death.

A. Reminders of Death

Death became a pervasive cultural theme, reminding people that life was fleeting and death inevitable. Moralists emphasized ethical behavior and repentance, while they and artists graphically depicted death and dying.

B. Illusions of a Noble Life

Seeking an escape from the reality of death, nobles indulged in fantasy worlds, especially an intensified, otherworldly chivalry which was belied by both the lavish, often sensual life-styles of the nobility and the nobles’ exercise of worldly power.

C. Pilgrims of the Imagination

Another form of escape was the pilgrimage, which became a model for creative literature.
1. Dante Alighieri and *The Divine Comedy*

One of the richest, most fantastic of these literary pilgrimages, *The Divine Comedy* imagined a journey through Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise.

2. Giovanni Boccaccio and *The Decameron*

In contrast to the loftiness of Dante Alighieri’s masterpiece, Boccaccio’s collection of tales is a celebration of life in the face of death.

3. Geoffrey Chaucer and *The Canterbury Tales*

Chaucer interwove the worldly and the spiritual in this collection of pilgrims’ tales.

4. Margery Kempe and *The Autobiographical Pilgrimage*

Understanding her own life as a spiritual pilgrimage, Margery Kempe dictated the first autobiography in English to provide guidance to other pilgrims.

5. Christine de Pisan and Early Feminism

Neither escapist nor a spiritual pilgrimage, the works of Christine De Pisan addressed the issues of the day, especially the cause of defending women in a male-dominated society.

D. Defining Cultural Boundaries

During this period, systematic discrimination against certain ethnic and religious groups increased as ever-higher levels of religious uniformity spread intolerance.

1. Spain: Religious Communities in Tension

Once home to thriving communities of Muslims, Jews, and Christians, the Later Middle Ages saw the now-dominant Christian kingdoms becoming increasingly intolerant, eventually outlawing the practice of Islam and forcing Jews to either convert or face expulsion or murder.

2. German and Celtic Borderlands: Ethnic Communities in Tension

In Ireland as well as Bohemia, Poland, and Hungary, ethnic divisions hardened, with laws forbidding intermarriage and restricting citizenship or guild membership.
3. Enemies Within

After the Black Death, vague biases and dislikes towards minorities hardened into systematic persecution and violence, especially against Jews and alleged witches.

VII. Conclusion: Looking Inward

In a catastrophic century, Europeans turned inward, as political and religious frontiers shifted and Europeans sought to reinforce their identity as Christians, as well as becoming more aware of the country in which they lived. Thus people in the West began to think more self CONCIOUSLY in terms of “us” and “them.”

TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

Reign of Mehmed II, “The Conqueror”
Hundred Years’ War
Battle of Agincourt
Reign of Genghis Khan
Life of Joan of Arc
Fall of Constantinople and death of last Byzantine emperor
Reign of Richard II of England

_____ 1206-1227
_____ 1337-1453
_____ 1377-1399
_____ 1412-1431
_____ 1415
_____ 1451-1481
_____ 1453

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

Bubonic plague
Guilds
The Ciompi revolt
Babylonian Captivity of the Church
Great Schism
Indulgences
Conciliar Movement
Hundred Years’ War
Modern Devotion
Black Death
Genghis Khan
Mehmed II, “The Conqueror”
Reminders of Death
Art of Dying
Dante Alighieri
Giovanni Boccaccio
Geoffrey Chaucer
Margery Kempe
Christine de Pisan

MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

Venice
Genoa
Constantinople
Athens
Rome
Naples
Sicily
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What was the Black Death? How did it affect Europe socially and politically?

2. How did the residence of the papacy at Avignon and the Great Schism affect the Church? What was conciliarism?

3. What were the causes of the Hundred Years’ War? Who won? What was the impact on the two nations involved?

4. What role did the Hundred Years’ War play in the evolution of a modern military apparatus in Europe? In what ways could it be said to mirror the transformation of the state in this period?

5. What does the street play, “The Dance of Death,” tell us about the culture of loss that permeated the late Middle Ages?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. In “The Ottoman Conquest of Constantinople,” how does Mehmed II boost his troops’ morale before the siege of Constantinople?

2. In “Dante Describes Hell,” what does his description of the fate of frauds tell us about medieval Christianity?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. To many Europeans living in the post-1350 Middle Ages, the events they witnessed seemed to presage the end of the world. How did the events of the later Middle Ages reflect the four horsemen of the Apocalypse—famine, pestilence, war, and death? Were they right? Was Europe fundamentally different in political and social structure as a result of the catastrophes of the later Middle Ages?

2. How did forces outside Europe, in particular the Mongol and Ottoman Empires, affect conditions in the West? Consider, too, the impact of internal strife on the continent. In what ways did European states adapt to these changing circumstances?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which statement about the Black Death is not true?
   A. It seemed to have no known cause at the time.
   B. It began in Ireland and Britain in 1348 and spread to Italy by 1350.
   C. It occurred after several major famines had already weakened Europe.
   D. It killed one-third of Europe’s population.

2. Which statement about the Mongols is not true?
   A. They overwhelmed enemies with massive armies.
   B. They excelled as horsemen.
   C. They swept across Asia and even into Russia and Hungary.
   D. They maintained peace and order, thereby permitting a revival of trans-Eurasian trade.

3. The Ottomans
   A. tolerated Christian worship.
   B. enjoyed a peaceful relationship with the Byzantine Empire.
   C. practiced monotheistic worship.
   D. shared a common ethnic identity.

4. Which statement about craft guilds is not true?
   A. They provided benefits for widows and injured workers.
   B. They were open to everyone.
   C. They created social tensions in cities.
   D. They set standards for training competence in the craft.

5. During the Babylonian Captivity the pope resided in
   A. Avignon.
   B. Burgundy.
   C. Siena.
   D. Flanders.

6. The Great Schism refers to the
   A. conflict between Church and state.
   B. theoretical difference between power and authority.
   C. period when there were two or more popes.
   D. division between Islam and Christianity.
7. The fifteenth-century best-seller *Imitation of Christ*

A. criticized corruption in monasteries.
B. denounced Pope John XXIII.
C. reflected Modern Devotion’s emphasis on individual piety.
D. described Cathari doctrines.

8. Joan of Arc

A. besieged Orleans.
B. dressed in distinctly feminine flowing robes.
C. fought in the Wars of the Roses.
D. became a symbol of French national pride.

9. A “harquebus” was a

A. communion wafer.
B. pilgrimage.
C. dance of death.
D. gun.

10. Which statement best describes Dante Aligheri’s *Divine Comedy*?

A. It presents an allegorical trip through Hell, Purgatory, and Heaven.
B. It contains over 100 humorous or satirical short stories for entertainment.
C. It is an autobiography about pilgrimages to Jerusalem, Spain, and Germany.
D. It relates the heroism of Joan of Arc.
CHAPTER 11

The Italian Renaissance and Beyond: The Politics of Culture

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. The Cradle of the Renaissance: The Italian City-States

Renaissance Italy was distinguished by the large number and political autonomy of its thriving city-states, the development of which can be divided into two distinct phases: the republicanism phase of the eleventh century and the principality phase of the fourteenth century.

A. The Renaissance Republics: Florence and Venice

In contrast to the majority of the Italian city-states, Florence and Venice held steadfastly to the traditions of republicanism under the *patriciate* system of political and artistic influence by a few great families.

1. Florence Under the Medici

The amazingly wealthy banker Cosimo de' Medici emerged as the greatest of the Renaissance patrons. Seizing Florentine political power in 1434, Cosimo enforced a long period of unprecedented peace in which the arts could flourish. Always at the center of Florence's political affairs, Cosimo nevertheless rarely held formal office and shrewdly preferred to leverage influence behind the scenes.

2. Venice, the Cosmopolitan Republic

Venice, the first European power to control colonies abroad, conquered a number of ports along the Greek coast. The resulting influx of exotic goods transformed Venice into a giant in the economics of the region and cosmopolitan in its social scope. Defined primarily by its social stability, the Venetian city-state became (and still is) the longest surviving republic in history at roughly five hundred years of independent affluence.

B. Princes and Courtiers

The ideals of the Renaissance, though created within the republican city-states, soon spread to the principalities ruled by one man (the prince). Patronage in the principalities was largely confined to the prince and close members of the court. Most Renaissance princes came from local aristocratic families, but some were former soldiers who conquered a city and assumed political control. The overall concern of these rulers was to establish dynasties to ensure the continuation of their power over the city.
1. The Ideal Prince, the Ideal Princess

Federico II da Montefeltro, the Duke of Urbino (1422-1482), is one example of the ideal prince. A paternalistic ruler who showed genuine concern for his subjects, Federico's military prowess and love of learning granted the mountainous duchy of Urbino a cultural importance far greater than its size warranted. A woman of exceptional education and connection, Isabella d'Este Marchioness of Mantua (1474-1539) rose to sole power after the death of her husband. A savvy politician and diplomat, she established fashions that were copied throughout Europe.

2. The Ideal Courtier

A courtier was a man or woman who was invited to live in or regularly visit the palace of a prince. Ideal qualities for aspirants to the court were outlined in Baldassare Castiglione's *The Book of the Courtier* (1528), including refined manners, artistic knowledge, education, and an air of nonchalance and ease.

3. The Papal Prince

The Renaissance popes, in addition to being the head of the Church, were also the ruling princes of the Papal State that included the city of Rome. With the removal of the Holy See to Avignon, France during the Great Schism of 1305-1418 left the Papal State virtually bankrupt and the city of Rome in ruins. After 1418, a succession of Roman popes engaged in squabbles with neighboring city-states as the reputation of the papacy fell.

C. The Contradictions of the Patriarchal Family

Much of what happened in Renaissance Italy was a result of the departure of societal practice from the accepted theories of how families interacted. Although the age-old theory of husband/father rule held firm in the literature of the times, the reality of family life often departed from this premise. Widespread disease and death made the family a tenuous unit. Death came from disease, misadventure, and the wide gap between the ages of husbands and wives. Regardless of the patriarchal theory of family, the patriarchs were often absent or dead.

II. The Influence of Ancient Cultures

In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, artists, scholars, and patrons immersed themselves in the quest to produce art, architecture, sculpture, and writings inspired and in imitation of ancient cultures’ styles and techniques. Their efforts stimulated the development of literary analysis to determine when texts had been written and which were authentic.
A. Petrarch and the Illustrious Ancients

A breakthrough philosophy of the Renaissance was forwarded by Francesco Petrarca (1304-1374), known in English as Petrarch. He posited that the ancients, long admired as founts of eternal wisdom and invention, were mere men much like himself. This was a radical idea at the time and found a wide audience in Renaissance Italy. Petrarch's famous written dialogues with the long-dead Roman orator Cicero underscored how the years can change perceptions of our ancestors. His new critical approach to history led Petrarch to study persuasion and rhetoric and embrace them as devices to motivate people towards moralistic behavior.

B. The Humanists: The Latin Point of View

Following in Petrarch's footsteps were the humanists: linguistic champions who sought to revive the ancient usage of Latin that had been diluted by the Church, law courts, and universities over time. The humanists created a solid niche for themselves in the landscape of the Renaissance as teachers, bureaucrats, historians, and diplomats. Humanists held wide opinions on any given subject; it was their use of the language and ability to draw upon ancient knowledge that was revolutionary. Hallmarks of this movement were intellectual curiosity, diversification across a wide spectrum of study, and a rejection of specialization.

C. Understanding Nature: Moving Beyond the Science of the Ancients

As a natural progression of the humanist movement, intellectuals began revisiting the Ancient texts regarding the sciences and questioning what was found within. Astronomy and anatomy made great progress during this time. Printing and cheap paper, however, were the breakthrough scientific feats that changed the intellectual landscape of the world forever.

III. Antiquity and Nature in the Arts

The most identifiable aspects of the Renaissance are found in the visual arts. Both artists and their patrons favored artistic productions that imitated ancient styles and poses. They also sought to produce artistic works that combined the ideal and the real.

A. Sculpture, Architecture, and Painting: The Natural and the Ideal

Following the ideas of the humanists, Renaissance artists strived to gather and adapt the art of the ancients for their own use. With few models to build upon, artists of the period were forced to invent as much as imitate. The Renaissance style of art that evolved in Florence was based upon the new ideas of linear perspective, the use of illusion via light and line to create a recreation of three dimensions on a flat surface. Sculpture evolved into a more realistic form, striving to create idealized versions of the human form and common myths. Common everyday themes made their way into the arts in a movement called naturalism.
B. Music of the Emotions

The Renaissance-humanist approach to music was problematic: no one alive had ever heard ancient Greek music. An important innovation was the Renaissance madrigal, a song in which the music closely followed a poetic lyric to accentuate the shades of textual meaning. Happy text suggested a higher pitch on the musical scale while negative emotions prompted lower pitches. Agitation or fear suggested an increase in rhythm that would imitate the beating heart. Opera, with its unprecedented ability to create emotions in the listener, was a result of this direction in musical study.

IV. The Early Modern European State System

The age of city-states ended, as the Italian city-states, with the exception of Venice, succumbed to Spanish invasions. The Italian Wars symbolize the emergence of the early modern European state system. Large countries’ kings had centralized their control, which enabled them to establish colonies across the globe and to eventually dominate it.

A. Monarchies: The Foundation of the State System

The early modern European state system was the consequence of five developments. First was the establishment of standing armies by the emerging monarchies. The need to keep these armies modern and strong led to the second development, systematic taxation. Enforcing these taxes by elimination of the traditional exemptions enjoyed by regional assemblies and parliaments was the third development. The fourth development was a general attempt in all emerging monarchies to suppress or constrain the existing aristocracies and the Church. The exchange of formal ambassadors between the emerging monarchies constituted the fifth development.

1. France: Consolidating Power and Cultivating Renaissance Values

Free from the burdens of the Hundred Years' War with England, a succession of French kings created and maintained a new professional army, successfully resisted papal interference in state affairs, and began a tradition of heavy taxation through the *taille*.

2. Spain: Unification by Marriage

In the early fifteenth century, the Iberian Peninsula was a myriad of cultures and peoples. Numerous kingdoms with contrasting laws struggled against each other for dominance. Political unification came with the marriage of Isabella (future Queen of Castile) to Ferdinand (future King of Aragon). Although theirs was an arranged marriage designed to solidify an allegiance between the two regions, Isabella and Ferdinand managed to combine their realms into the Kingdom of Spain.
3. The Holy Roman Empire: The Costs of Decentralization

Members of the Hapsburg family had been elected to the throne of the Holy Roman Empire since the mid-1400s. Unlike other monarchies based on inherited rule, the Holy Roman Emperor was selected by seven electors, who were influential members of the aristocracy. Factional, dissent-ridden, and disorganized, the empire could not compare to the centralized monarchies of Europe or even the Italian city-states.

4. England: From Civil War to Stability Under the Tudors

Defeat in the Hundred Years' War returned thousands of mercenaries back into England where an unfit royal family split into two factions that formed the basis for the English War of the Roses. Decades of bloodshed produced Richard III, whose cruel and scandalous rule was opposed by Henry Tudor. Tudor was supported by many of the English nobles who collectively defeated Richard in battle. Henry Tudor became Henry VII in 1485. Through a series of efficient administrative, judicial, and financial reforms, Henry VII strengthened and centralized his kingdom. His daughter Elizabeth I continued this process.

B. The Origins of Modern Political Thought

The decline of the Italian city-states and the rise of the early modern European states encouraged intellectuals to re-evaluate politics.

1. History: The Search for Causes

During the fifteenth century, there were two kinds of historians. The first kind recorded factual information chronologically but without interpreting the cause, the effects, and the interrelation of events. The second kind of historians included the humanists, who advocated that the past must be reconstructed in its own terms instead of letting the present or Christian teachings influence the interpretation of past events. Humanist historians encouraged morality among their readers by focusing on particularly good or bad past behavior in its historical context and then by comparing it to other cases.

Analyses of the causes of the Italy’s decline led to a new form of history writing. Francesco Guicciardini was one of the first to successfully implement this new kind of history. He proposed that humans, not God, influence historical events and that emotions influence historical events more than rational calculation.

2. Political Thought: Considering the End Result

Political theorist and humanist Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527) worked as a diplomat and military official but had been exiled from Florence for his role in a plot against the Medici family. While exiled, Machiavelli wrote his treatise *The Prince* (1513), which encouraged rulers to understand the underlying principles of
power, especially the need to know when morality is needed and when an immoral decision is in order to protect the interests of the state.

V. Conclusion: The Politics of Culture

The Renaissance began simply as a struggle of the Latin peoples to imitate and absorb the ancient writings and art that constituted their history. Study of the ancients produced a yearning to remodel society on those found ancient structures while criticizing and questioning all that seemed established forever. Most importantly was the application of humanist thought to Christianity, a move that would ultimately cause a fundamental split in the way the West beheld the Creator.

TIMELINE

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

Conquest of Granada; expulsion of the Jews from Spain; voyage of Christopher Columbus
Rule of Cosimo de’ Medici in Florence
Pontificate of Julius II
Filippo Brunelleschi, Florentine sculptor and architect
Leonardo da Vinci, Florentine painter and inventor
Unification of Spain

_____ 1377-1446
_____ 1434-1464
_____ 1452-1519
_____ 1479
_____ 1492
_____ 1503-1513
TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

Renaissance
Republicanism
Humanists
Philology
Rhetoric
Civic humanism
Linear perspective
Pragmatic Sanction of Bourges
Medicean Age
Doge
Courtier
Francesco Petrarch
Nicolaus Copernicus
Michelangelo
Lorenzo Ghiberti
Fillipo Brunelleschi
Masaccio
Leonardo da Vinci
Taille
Francis I
Isabella and Ferdinand
Niccolò Machiavelli
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

Castile
Naples
Aragon
Vienna
Milan
Paris
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What was the political culture of Renaissance Italy? What defined the economy of the Renaissance cities? Define the social structure.

2. Define humanism. What were the humanists’ most important achievements?

3. Discuss the artistic achievement of the Renaissance in the areas of architecture, sculpture, and painting.

4. What five developments resulted in the rise of the early modern European state system?

5. Describe Niccolo Machiavelli’s contribution to political thought. How are his ideas representative of the politics of the Renaissance?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. How does Bracciolini’s recollection in “A Humanist Laments The Ruins of Rome” illustrate the humanists’ admiration for antiquity?

2. According to “The Expulsion of the Jews from Spain,” how did various groups of people react to the displaced Jews? What do you think accounts for their varying reactions?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the peculiar social, political, and economic status of the Italian city-states foster the environment that led to the cultural genius of the Renaissance?

2. Was the Italian Renaissance new, or did it simply restate what was already present in Western civilization? Consider both the political and cultural orientation of the Italian city-states.
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. The great Renaissance patron of the arts in Florence was
   A. Marsilio Ficino.
   B. Cosimo de’Medici.
   C. Andrea Gritti.
   D. Federico da Montefeltro.

2. Florence and Venice were alike in many respects, except Venice
   A. retained republican institutions.
   B. patronized the arts.
   C. engaged in international trade.
   D. conquered some Greek ports.

3. Which term is correctly matched with its description?
   A. Doge – self-governing city-state
   B. Vendetta – great property-owning families
   C. Commune – ruler of Venice
   D. Courtier – person who lived with or visited the palace of a prince

4. Why is Lorenzo Valla considered an important Renaissance figure?
   A. He wrote long poems imitating Cicero.
   B. He founded a neo-Platonic academy.
   C. He applied philological techniques to discover a forged document.
   D. He patronized the arts in Urbino.

5. Which artist is correctly matched with his work?
   A. Ghiberti – Doors of the Florence Baptistery
   B. Donatello – Last Supper
   C. Leonardo da Vinci – David
   D. Brunelleschi – The Tribute Money

6. Which term is correctly matched with its description?
   A. Linear perspective – painting on wet plaster
   B. Relief – type of stance
   C. Fresco – projection of sculpted figures from the background
   D. Chiaroscuro – dramatic use of light and dark
7. Which Renaissance figure is correctly matched with his/her talent?

A. Masaccio – fresco paintings
B. Baldassare Castiglione – sculpture
C. Jan van Eyck – architecture
D. Andreas Vasalius – wrote history

8. Which statement about Ferdinand and Isabella is not true?

A. They arranged for their children to marry into other royal families.
B. They built up an effective bureaucracy.
C. They collected the taille.
D. They forced Muslims and Jews to convert or leave Spain.

9. Henry VII of England

A. was known as the Duke of York before his coronation.
B. called Parliament frequently.
C. used the Court of Star Chamber against rebellious nobles.
D. fought expensive foreign wars.

10. Which statement about Machiavelli is not true?

A. He believed a prince might have to go against accepted morals to protect the state.
B. He preferred despotism rather than republican government.
C. He thought a capable leader could find opportunities to control events before they took control of him.
D. He wanted to find the dynamics behind political events.
CHAPTER 12

The West and the World: The Significance of Global Encounters, 1450 – 1650

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Europeans in Africa

Ancient writers of the Latin world had knowledge of the northern part of the African continent but were completely ignorant of the lands south of the Sahara Desert, which were in actuality a land inhabited by an enlightened people with rich resources and large cities.

A. Sub-Saharan Africa Before the Europeans Arrived

Several kingdoms that resembled those in Europe arose in the sub-Saharan lands of Africa during the Middle Ages. Africa meant gold to the Europeans of the age, gold controlled largely by the king of Mali, known as the Mansa, who controlled the flow and distribution of gold from the continent's interior. Ethiopia, alone in its embrace of Christianity, became an early source of fascination about the region to the Europeans. Internal conflicts weakened the regional kingdoms and allowed a European foothold on the continent during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

B. European Voyages Along the African Coast

Although the sub-Saharan regions remained mysterious to Europeans, merchants from Italy, Spain, and Portugal had long visited the ports of North Africa along the Mediterranean coast. Trade was decidedly lopsided: a multiplicity of luxury goods from Europe in exchange for the gold from Mali. Unable to efficiently use the Saharan Desert as a trading route, the European quest began to round the continent via water and open new trade relations with the African east.

1. New Maritime Technology

To round the southern tip of Africa, a new style of ship emerged that combined features of the Mediterranean and Atlantic vessels then in use. This hybrid ship, a caravel, used the square sails of the Atlantic ships and the triangular "lanteen" sails of the Mediterranean galleys, the combination of which gave the new ship remarkable steering. No less important were the developments of the compass, astrolabe, and *portolanos* sailing directories.

2. New Colonialism

New types of colonial expansion emerged as the Portuguese and Spanish began exploration of the Canary Islands. The first new type, a settler colony, resulted from the issuance of a permit from the monarch for a particular person or
company to seize an island or some part of shoreline. These were usually populated by African slave labor. The second type was a plantation colony, usually run by emigrants from the colonizing country and relying heavily on African slave labor.

3. The Portuguese in Africa

The early explorers of the African coast were the Portuguese. Under Prince Henry the Navigator, the Portuguese mapped most of the western coast of the continent. After Henry's death, the Portuguese royal house set precedence by constructing a permanent fortress at Elmina near the mouth of the Volta River. Rather than establishing new settler or plantation colonies, the Portuguese on the African coast busied themselves with trade in spices, slaves, ivory, and gold.

II. Europeans in the Americas

Like early European explorers along the African coast, early expeditions to the Americas were in search of gold and a quick route to India and China. The need to sail west to reach the Orient was due to the Ottoman Empire blocking easterly paths. Although the Americas stood in the way of reaching these destinations, they were ultimately rich finds for these explorers.

A. The Americas Before the Conquistadores

Prior to European contact, the Americas hosted a wide variety of cultures and peoples, some with extensive empires and sophisticated societies.

1. The Aztec Empire of Mexico

The Aztecs (1325-1522) found safety from regional warfare on an island in Lake Texcoco, now Mexico City. Their empire stretched across much of central Mexico and encompassed many other conquered peoples. The Aztecs valued warfare and integrated it into every facet of their social and religious rituals, especially that of human sacrifice.

2. The Incan Empire of the Andes

As the Aztecs were thriving in Mexico, the Incas were expanding their empire in present-day Peru. Unlike the Aztecs, the Incas were careful to indoctrinate conquered peoples into the Inca way of life, economic organization, culture, and religion. Although widespread, the centralization of the Inca government led to factionalism on the eve of the Spanish Invasion, weakening the empire fatally.

B. The Mission of the European Voyagers

The initial arrival of Europeans in the Americas was a result of the miscalculation in navigation by Christopher Columbus, who sailed west from Spain in hopes of finding a quick passage to China. He mistakenly landed in the Americas, probably in the Bahamas. The Spanish monarchs who had sponsored the voyage applied to Pope Alexander VI for a monopoly to explore the lands of the western Atlantic. The pope
ordered a line of demarcation drawn from North to South, dividing the "explorable" world between Spain and Portugal, negotiated further in the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494). Still, the quest for the Orient continued. The Portuguese continued to—and finally conquered—the southern tip of the African continent in 1487; this led to several tenuous voyages of exploration into Asia. Meanwhile, the Spanish pursued Columbus's proposed route west across the Atlantic. Spanish explorer Ferdinand Magellan finally rounded the tip of South America (ca. 1521) and crossed the Pacific in a voyage lasting three years and costing most of the crew's lives.

C. The Fall of the Aztec and Incan Empires

In the wake of the seafaring Spanish came the conquistadores (Spanish adventurers), seeking fortune and royal recognition through conquests and explorations. The Spanish crown received a "royal fifth" of everything of value found in the "New World." Making war on the indigenous peoples only demanded the reading of the requerimiento to legitimize all actions in the eyes of king and pope.

1. Hernan Cortes and the Conquest of Mexico

Possibly the most successful of the conquistadores was Cortes, who managed to sack the Aztec capital with 450 Spanish troops, 15 horses, and 4,000 disgruntled native allies. Confused that Cortes might have been one of their deities in the flesh, the Emperor Montezuma was slow to mount a defense. Aztec revolt followed, but Cortes eventually won an extended siege of the city and eventually administered more territory in "New Spain" than Old Spain itself.

2. Francisco Pizarro and the Conquest of Peru

Another freelance conquistador, Pizarro, tracked the Incas' emperor to a mountainous city, where a large native army guarded the ruler. In a move of treacherous gamesmanship, Pizarro invited the Incan ruler for a summit conference and then rudely took him captive. Befuddled, the Incas knew not what to do, as the extremely centralized government allowed only the emperor to make important decisions. Pizarro killed the emperor and sacked the capital at Cuzco. The wealth of the Americas was completely at the mercy of Spain.

D. Spanish America: The Transplanting of a European Culture

After the conquest of the Aztec and Inca Empires, the Spanish conversion of the Americas jumped into high gear. Many indigenous peoples died quickly through torture, overwork, and European diseases. The ecomienda system of economic and social control over the natives was originally a royal grant awarded for military or other services that gave the conquistadores (and their lineage) the right to gather "tribute" from the natives within a determined area. By the seventeenth century these royal grants had become great landed estates called haciendas. The Spanish imported many African slaves to the New World for labor in the silver mines and agricultural plantations. The various orders of the Roman Catholic Church, especially the Jesuits, fanned throughout "New Spain" to spread the word of God and advance the agenda of the pope and king.
E. Portuguese Brazil: The Tenuous Colony

Claimed, then ignored for years by the Portuguese, Brazil became a haven for pirates and French castaways in the early 1500s until the Portuguese crown acted. The growing demand for sugar in Europe spurred Portuguese efforts, as the Brazilian climate was perfect for growing the cane. Unwilling to do the backbreaking work of sugar farming, the Portuguese increased their use of African slave labor, thereby increasing their presence on the African continent.

F. North America: The Land of Lesser Interest

European experience in present-day North America consisted of a small number of exploratory missions and failed attempts at colonization. Thousands of Spanish had emigrated to Central and South America in pursuit of silver, yet the only sizeable European settlement in the North was the Spanish garrison at St. Augustine. Any attraction of North America to the early Europeans lay in the cod fisheries off Newfoundland and the continued hope of a Northwest Passage to China and the Indian Ocean. The English were the last of the European powers to begin exploration and colonization of the New World, the first at Roanoke Island, Virginia, and the second at Jamestown.

III. Europeans in Asia

All of this frantic activity in exploration stemmed from the quest to easily reach, and trade with, Indonesia, the Spice Islands, Malaysia, India, and China. As we have seen, various European powers took various routes to try to open up the Orient to trade.

A. Asia Before the European Empires

After the collapse of the Mongol Empire of present-day India, the overland routes to China and the Indian Ocean were blocked to Europeans by plague, political unrest, and Muslim hostility. The greatest rival to European domination of Asian trade was Ming China, a highly advanced society with a seafaring tradition superior to that of Europe. Yet the Chinese were only interested in learning about the world, not extensive trade.

B. The Trading Post Empires

Despite the conquest of the southern tip of Africa and reaching the Indian Ocean, voyages remained prohibitively long, and the number of people who could go was few. As a result, European contact with Asia was slight, at best, for 300 years. In Asia, the Portuguese established factories or trading posts along the coasts of India, China, and the Spice Islands, using force when needed to obtain the most desirable and defendable land. Yet their influence did not spread far beyond the coast. The factories existed mostly on the trade of guns, knives, and various cloths in return for silver, gold, spices, and medicines. Only secondary to the desire to trade was the mission to convert the Asian peoples to Christianity. Missionaries had to learn the languages of the East and immerse themselves in the foreign culture. The Jesuit Order of the Catholic Church had the most
success at this. European influence on Asia was far less than Asia's cultural influence on Europe.

IV. The Beginnings of the Global System

These early voyages of exploration set into place patterns of trade and communication that have sustained into the present. Today's electronic global economy is faster, but it is based on the same ideas of free trade and compensation prevalent during the sixteenth century. Europeans transformed large areas of the Americas into plantations that were worked by African slaves.

A. The Columbian Exchange

The most dramatic changes produced by international connectivity were those produced by the trade of peoples, plants, animals, microbes, and ideas between the Old and New Worlds in a process known as the Columbian Exchange.

1. The Slave Trade

Slavery is as old as civilization. Large-scale transportation of black Africans began during the ninth and tenth centuries when they were exported to lower Iraq. The institution of slavery was well established in Africa before the first European incursions. Muslims had enslaved Sub-Saharan Africans for centuries, and Africans practiced slavery among one another. Slavery as an institution depended on labor-intensive projects such as large-scale agriculture and mining. The transportation of Africans to the New World solved many logistical problems. Foreign-born slaves did not know the landscape and were less likely to escape. Africans endured the European diseases better than the Native American peoples, who died by the millions. The blending of African slaves with different points of origin and different languages added to their confusion.

The demand for labor was supplied happily by African chieftains who would capture a neighboring tribe and sell the hapless victims to the Europeans. As the coastal populations dwindled, these chieftains organized slave-hunting expeditions into the African interior.

Christianity and Islam provided moralistic justification for the enslavement of unbelievers. It was only later that slavery became connected with race.

Europeans made slavery into a big business. Slave ships sailed the "Middle Passage" across the Atlantic, with holds filled beyond capacity with Africans.

2. Biological Exchanges

Most of the deaths inflicted on the peoples of the New World by the Europeans occurred by accident. Diseases long tolerated by the European explorers traveled the oceans with them and ravaged whole societies. Native Americans of both the North and South had virtually zero immunity to the smallpox, measles, typhus, scarlet fever, and chicken pox brought over from the Old World.
3. The Problem of Cultural Diversity

One of the basic problems presented to Europeans upon discovery of the new world was the realization that the ancients did not know half the truth about the world. Jews and Christians alike were faced with challenges to their belief systems upon finding unspoiled cultures who had never heard the Gospels or Torah. If these peoples were not children of God, how could one account for them? Some thinkers suggested these peoples were sub-humans, and unworthy of equal consideration. Some called the natives complete innocents and demanded their care and enlightenment. Another scenario saw the natives as merely "different" and deserving at least of cultural toleration.

B. The Capitalist Global Economy

As stated earlier, the increase in world exploration naturally led to the beginnings of a truly global economy. Agrarian capitalism, the growth of cash crops on a large scale for wide distribution, created the need for slave labor and the creation of settler and plantation colonies. The emerging scope of this global economy made it impossible for one monarchy to control all the factors, so the system thrived as free-market economies often do.

V. Conclusion: The Significance of Global Encounters

The world was changed forever by the voyages of discovery from 1450 to 1650. Their impact lies not in the actual discoveries made, but in the lines of permanent contact established between diverse peoples. Much harm was done and many lives lost, but the earlier semi-isolation of the human race was a thing of the past.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

- English establish colony on Roanoke Island, North Carolina
- Prince Henry the Navigator
- Spanish conquer Mexico
- European slave trade in Africa begins
- Pilgrimage to Mecca by Mansa Musa of Mali
- Da Gama reaches India via Cape of Good Hope

_____ 1324

_____ 1394-1460

_____ ca. 1450

_____ 1497-1499
TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

Mansa Musa
Caravels
Portolanos
Plantation colony
Settler colony
Conquistadores
Requerimiento
Trading posts
Encomienda
Haciendas
Aldeias
Columbian Exchange
Columbian question
Agrarian capitalism
Cultural relativism
Prince Henry the Navigator
Christopher Columbus
Amerigo Vespucci
Hernán Cortés
Francisco Pizzaro
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

St. Augustine
Cape of Good Hope
Gold Coast
Strait of Magellan
Antwerp
Lisbon
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What factors led to European exploration and discovery? What nation led the process? What made the Europeans virtually invincible against the defenses of indigenous peoples? What was the impact of the discoveries on the European concept of self?

2. How did new maritime technologies facilitate European expansion?

3. What motivated Christopher Columbus’s wanderlust? How did his motivations mirror a European sense of mission?

4. What conditions facilitated Hernán Cortés’s conquest of Mexico? How were his adventures to serve as a blueprint for Spanish imperialism throughout the New World?

5. What was the Columbian Exchange? How was this a much more complicated process than the simple transfer of germs from one continent to another?

6. Explain the burgeoning slave trade in the context of capitalist global economics. How could something so ancient form the backbone of something so modern?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. From Pieter de Mareers’s account in “The Kings of West Africa,” what differences can we distinguish between European and Ghanan kings and their respective courts? Were there any similarities?

2. Based on “Columbus’s Christian Mission,” what can we infer about the role of religious belief in this age of exploration?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. By 1500, Europe was in the process of forming more centralized states and of expanding their dominion beyond Europe. How were these two developments related? Is it true that the more centralized states were responsible for exploration and discovery? How did this second episode of colonialism compare to the first (the Crusades)?

2. From the beginning of this text, you have seen cultures coming together, clashing, and melting into one another. What made the European conquest different? What was the impact of this so-called “Columbian Exchange”? How are we wrestling with its consequences today?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which statement about Ethiopia is not true?

   A. It was predominantly Christian.
   B. It had diplomatic relations with the pope.
   C. Its major city was Timbuktu.
   D. Europeans considered it a potential ally against Islam.

2. Prince Henry the Navigator

   A. designed the cog.
   B. sailed to the tip of Africa.
   C. sponsored exploratory voyages along the west coast of Africa.
   D. occupied the Canary Islands.

3. The Inca Empire

   A. extended over 2,000 miles over Mexico.
   B. had a poor transportation system.
   C. denied economic relief to peasants, the elderly, and the sick.
   D. forcefully integrated the cultures of conquered peoples.

4. The Treaty of Tordesillas

   A. established a line of demarcation between Spanish and Portuguese domains.
   B. set up trade between European merchants and Malian agents.
   C. concluded peace between the Spanish and the Incas.
   D. allowed Italian captains to sail for Spain.

5. Which term is correctly matched with its description?

   A. Montezuma – silver mine
   B. Pachacuti – founder of the Inca Empire
   C. Quetzalcoatl – Inca emperor executed by the Spanish
   D. Atahualpa – Aztec ruler

6. Which term is correctly matched with its description?

   A. Hacienda – royal grant to use native labor
   B. Encomienda – area where ocean winds die down
   C. Requerimiento – landed estate
   D. Mestizo – person of mixed Spanish and Indian ancestry
7. Which explorer is correctly matched with his description?

A. Pedro Cabral – claimed Brazil for Portugal
B. Amerigo Vespucci – crossed Panama by land and sighted the Pacific Ocean
C. Francisco Nunez de Balboa – took the Inca Empire
D. Ferdinand Magellan – first used the term "New World" in a book about his voyages

8. Which explorer is correctly matched with his description?

A. Bartholomew Dias – conquered Mexico
B. Vasco de Gama – rounded the tip of South America
C. Giovanni Verrazano – reached the Cape of Good Hope
D. John Cabot – sailed for England and landed in North America in 1497

9. Which statement is true about European trade with Asia?

A. Europeans failed to monopolize trade.
B. Asian products became commonplace items in Europe.
C. Europeans established trading posts.
D. All of these

10. Which items of the Columbian Exchange were native to the Americas?

A. Maize and horse
B. Maize and tobacco
C. Maize and sheep
D. Sheep and tobacco
CHAPTER 13

The Reformation of Religion

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Causes of the Reformation

The Protestant Reformation had been building within the Catholic Church for 200 years. At the forefront was the discrepancy between a Church tasked with a spiritual mission of salvation and a Church of money, power, and influence. Corruption in the Church, from the pope downwards, was damaging the Catholic institution.

A. The Search for Spiritual and Fiscal Freedom

Between 1305 and 1378, a succession of Catholic popes abandoned the traditional seat of Church power in Rome and moved to Avignon, France. Dangerous feuding among the aristocratic families of Italy had initiated the move, and loss of revenue to the Papal State exacerbated the problem. This so-called "Babylonian Captivity" was followed by an equally contentious period between 1378 and 1417 called the Great Schism in which the Church was split into factions supporting both an Italian and French pope (so-called "anti-pope"). The Conciliar Movement was an attempt by a group of affluent bishops to solve the financial and political problems of the Schism and to liberate the Church from the abuse of papal authority. The Schism was corrected and reforms suggested but the moral authority of the Church continued to decline.

In response to this moral degradation, many lay Christians were drawn to new forms of worship such as the Brothers of the Common Life and the Modern Devotion. In an age of drastic change in all areas, people began to question the moral authority of the papacy and the less-than-holy lifestyles of cardinals and bishops.

Secular magistrates, particularly in Germany and the Netherlands, were mandated to stop many of the excesses of the Church and secure fiscal freedom for local laypeople.

B. The Print Revolution

Until the mid-fifteenth century, the only way to communicate ideas in print was to copy texts in longhand script, a process requiring much time, resources, and learned people. A "copy" of an original document never matched it exactly, and every subsequent copy usually changed slightly.

Moveable metal type and the printing press changed the very nature of communications. Books could now be mass-produced with identical content by an average tradesman. The demand for books dramatically increased, and publishers produced what people wanted to read, which was usually religious subject matter. Those belonging to the traditionally literate classes and trades bought books, but the print revolution also included those previously unable to afford books. Literacy rates steadily rose, even if many people still...
could not write. Even in rural areas, where literacy rates remained low, people knew of the content of books, since reading was an oral, public affair. The expansion of the university system encouraged the proliferation of books and the emergence of silent reading, particularly in libraries. Reading in silent allowed readers to learn more quickly and to independently develop their own meanings of the texts. It is hard to imagine the Reformation succeeding without the print revolution.

C. The Northern Renaissance and the Christian Humanists

Humanists were writers devoted to rediscovering the lost knowledge of the ancients and adapting them to a contemporary world. Their work embraced all fields of study, but their examinations of Christianity and the Church raised many questions. These so-called "Christian Humanists" were not interested in degrading the Church or God, but instead were compelled to search for a more primitive means of worship, specifically the practices of Christianity at the time of Jesus and the apostles. Many of the Christian humanists came from northern Italy, near the seat of the Italian Renaissance, and their scrutiny of the foundations of Christianity and the Church reflected the curiosity of the age. More than anyone, Desiderius Erasmus both influenced and epitomized the Christian humanist mission.

II. The Lutheran Reformation

The Protestant Reformation began with Martin Luther and the German secular rejection of Church policy. Local politicians in Germany flew to Luther's message of reform, seeing a fix for their own grievances against the pope. Carefully, Luther made it clear that his reforms were religious only and did not endorse the overthrow of any prince or lord and thereby gained strong secular support throughout Germany and into Scandinavia.

A. Martin Luther and the Break with Rome

Martin Luther, a student of law, suffered a throw from a horse that shocked him into abandoning his professional career. Donning the garb of the monk, Luther pledged obedience to the Augustinian Order, where he continued his education, this time in theology, and went to Wittenberg to teach at the town's university. While there, Luther spent much time wrestling with the Church's dogma on penance, finally concluding that salvation came purely from God's grace, a gift unmerited. In other words, humans were incapable of performing good works alone – they needed the intercession of God. Therefore, the performance of good works was an outward proof of an individual's receipt of God's grace and salvation.

1. The Ninety-Five Theses

Striving to finance the construction of the new St. Peter's Basilica in Rome, Pope Leo X issued a special new indulgence to raise funds. An indulgence was a unique penance whereby a sinner could remove years of suffering in Purgatory from his soul by performing a good work (donating cash) here on earth. Leo's indulgence was audacious as it promised a one-time-only exemption from all previous sins for the payee (or departed relative).
The special indulgence was for sale a few miles from Wittenberg in the domain of the Archbishop Albrecht of Mainz, a clergyman who illegally held three simultaneous Church offices (due to enormous bribes to Pope Leo). The Archbishop’s domain was a sideshow of indulgence hucksterism, the blatant corruption of the Church apparent to all.

Some of Luther's students asked his advice on the indulgence, and in response he prepared in Latin 95 arguments against the practice of indulgences that he was willing to debate in open forum. Luther had a few copies made and supposedly posted one on the doors of the Wittenberg Cathedral. No one showed up to debate Luther, but he had drawn the attention of Rome and began to gather followers. His central argument: salvation could not be bought and sold.

2. The Path of the Diet of Worms

After the debate challenge, Luther began a pamphlet campaign, using the new technology of printing to spread his concerns about the Church. He emphasized a "priesthood of all believers," which reasoned that all those of pure faith were themselves priests, a doctrine that undermined the authority of the Catholic clergy over the laity.

Pope Leo demanded Luther's arrest, but was foiled by the protection of Fredrick the Elector, who craftily refused to arrest Luther without giving the monk a chance to speak at the Imperial Diet (parliament) in the German city of Worms in 1521. Unconvinced, the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V was prepared to turn over Luther to Rome when the monk disappeared, spirited away to the castle of Fredrick the Wise for a year of self-imposed exile while things cooled down.

B. The Lutheran Reformation in the Cities and Principalities

Hidden in the castle of Fredrick, Luther could not lead his followers. The Reformation quickly spread into a vast movement far beyond the control of any one human. Spreading fastest among the educated urban classes, the Reformation won acceptance with both German princes and local magistrates. Seemingly every German had a grievance with the pope, and Emperor Charles, facing a two-front war against France and the Turks, relented and allowed the empire's princes to decide for themselves how to apply this revolution in religious doctrine.

1. The Appeal of the Reformation to Women and Peasants

Luther's "priesthood of all believers" held a special appeal to women of the age who were excluded from virtually all aspects of the religious life of the Church. Women took up the cause and preached the message of the Reformation as a message of women's rights. They were soon disappointed as their involvement threatened the male-dominated status quo and were censored.
2. The German Peasants’ Revolt

The Reformation appealed to the average German peasant, who saw the movement as a way to throw off the bonds of feudalism as well as the pressures of the Church. Wrongly citing Luther's rhetoric, groups of peasants began to rise up against their feudal lords. Luther, a conservative thinker who believed in law and order and was terribly afraid of the lower classes, would have none of it and advocated the slaughter of rebellious peasants. They were butchered by the thousands.

3. Lutheran Success

In 1530, Emperor Charles V recanted his nonchalance and ordered all Lutherans to return to the Catholic fold or face arrest. The Lutherans refused and began to actively unite with the princes of the empire under the guise of the Schmalkaldic League. Renewed troubles with France and the Turks made military confrontation between the league and the emperor impossible for 15 years. In the meantime, Lutherans established a more concrete method of regulating the churches in Germany.

In 1552, Charles finally extricated himself from the French and Turks and turned his army against the Protestants, only to be defeated soundly and forces to relent. The 1555 Peace of Augsburg established the doctrine of "he who rules determines the religion of the land." The legal foundations were now in place for two distinctive religious cultures, Catholic and Protestant.

III. The Diversity of Protestantism

The term "Protestant" eventually came to mean all western European Christians who refused to accept the authority of the pope. The varieties of Protestantism can be divided into two types: Magisterial Reformation churches, which received official government sanction, and Radical Reformation churches.

A. The Reformation in Switzerland

Switzerland met the Reformation as a collection of 13 regions (cantons) bound together under the Swiss Confederation. The majority of the Swiss were peasants, unable to farm the mountainous region. Their main supplement was working as professional soldiers of fortune, often for the pope.

1. Zwingli's Zurich

Ulrich Zwingli had served as chaplain with a detachment of Swiss mercenaries serving the pope. In 1520, Zurich was named the People's Priest of Zurich, a position from which he began to criticize his superior bishop for recruiting young Swiss men to die in the pope's armies. Undaunted by warnings from Rome, Zwingli called for general reformation of the Church, advocating the abolition of the Roman Catholic mass, the marriage of priests, and the closing of monasteries. He emphasized the reading of the Scripture during services rather than the ritual
of the Church and removed all painting and statues from the churches under his jurisdiction, calling them a distraction from God.

Two features distinguish Zwinglian reform from Lutheran reform: one was Zwingli's desire to involve reformed ministers in governmental/secular decisions; the other was Zwingli's understanding of the nature of the Eucharist and the representation of bread as a symbol and not the physical body of Christ.

2. Calvin's Geneva

The generation following Luther and Zwingli saw the Reformation moving to the Swiss city of Geneva under the leadership of John Calvin. Calvinism eventually became the dominant form of Protestantism in France, the Netherlands, Scotland, and New England. Calvin's theology built upon that of Luther and Zwingli to their logical conclusions: the salvation of any individual by the grace of God would be logically predetermined or "predestined." Only the elect could make sense of, and follow, the will of God.

B. The Reformation in Britain

In the sixteenth century, the nation we know today as Britain was a loose collection of Wales, England, and Ireland. Scotland remained its own separate kingdom. The Tudor kings of England imposed the Reformation as policy, but were unable to influence the cultures of Ireland, which remained Catholic. Scotland wholeheartedly accepted the Reformation despite having a Catholic monarch.

1. The Tudors and the English Reformation

In 1527, King Henry VIII of England clashed with the Church of Rome. Finding himself without a male heir, Henry requested that Pope Clement VII annul his marriage to Catherine of Aragon. Henry argued that it had been wrong of him to marry Catherine, his brother’s widow. Pope Clement VII was under the control of Catherine’s nephew, Emperor Charles V. Naturally, Clement refused the requested annulment. The subsequent departure of England from the Catholic Church, however, was largely the work of the crown and a few top agents. Henry seized personal control of the English church, closed the monasteries, and redistributed the monastic lands.

The English Reformation was more about consolidating the power of the Tudor dynasty than any religious reform. As such, the official religion of England changed with each succeeding ruler of the Tudor house. Between 1559 and 1563, Elizabeth I (Henry's daughter, who succeeded Edward and Mary) issued her own set of moderately Protestant laws, which established the Church of England (known as Episcopal in the United States). Some activists suggested that Elizabeth's reforms did not go far enough to reform religion. The most vocal dissidents were the Puritans, who demanded a church free of any remnants of Roman Catholicism.
2. Scotland: The Citadel of Calvinism

Scotland, an independent kingdom at the time, embraced Calvinism with open arms with encouragement from England's Elizabeth. Scotland's monarch, Mary, was an avowed Catholic and wife of the king of France, Francis II. Despite her religious zeal, Mary proved conciliatory towards the new Protestants she now reigned over, but the Scottish Calvinists never trusted her.

John Knox created the official liturgy for the Scottish church in 1564. The most significant difference from the Anglican Church was the Scottish Presbyterian system of organization, which did away with the Episcopal bishops and placed decisions in the hands of pastors and church elders.

C. The Radical Reformation

Magisterial reformers in Germany, Switzerland, England, and Scotland lived somewhat peacefully with official sanctions, usually at the cost of some compromise. Among their numbers were usually radical members who wanted the reforms of religion put in place faster. The number of radicals was low in comparison to all Protestants, but their significance was felt by local authorities continuously answering their arguments. Radicals can be divided into three categories: Anabaptists, Spiritualists, and Unitarians.

1. Anabaptists: The Holy Community

Anabaptism means "to rebaptize," and was a central doctrine to this group of radicals. Anabaptists saw the Bible as a living document for the operation of society as well as the church. They rejected infant baptism, believing only an informed adult could make a choice of accepting salvation. As a result, Anabaptist congregations contained only members that had made a conscientious choice to join the sect. They rejected private property and called for communal wealth within the highly disciplined "holy communities" in which they lived. Attempting to reorganize society along biblical lines drew a violent reaction from other Protestants, and the Anabaptists were forced underground to avoid persecution. The Amish and the Mennonites are their surviving descendant sects.

2. Spiritualists: The Holy Individual

Personal introspection was the capstone of this Radical Reformation sect, which held that personal salvation came only as the result of divine intervention during intense prayer and meditation. The resulting spiritual illumination was referred to as "the inner Word." Spiritualists pursued a physical demeanor devoid of stress and cravings, a "castle of peace."

Quakers are the most prominent sect within Spiritualism, and they believe in an equal distribution of the illumination from God into men and women. At Quaker services, anyone could speak, man, woman, or child.
3. Unitarians: A Rationalist Approach

Christian theology is built upon the supposition that Jesus Christ was in fact God made into human flesh. The idea of the Trinity, the three identities of God, made this deification of Jesus possible for Christians. Unitarians and other smaller sects held that Jesus was a divinely inspired man but no god unto himself. Unitarians used common sense to reject the Trinity. Unitarians tended to be humanists and generally well educated and were viewed with hostility by other Protestants but were unwilling to compromise their beliefs.

D. The Free World of Eastern Europe

During the sixteenth century, Eastern Europe represented a refuge of religious freedom and toleration. This toleration was a function of the relative weakness of many East European monarchs (all Catholic) and the embrace of the Reformation by the aristocrats who dominated the parliaments. Substantial numbers of Anabaptists and Unitarians found refuge in the present-day Czech Republic, and Hungary had an almost universally Protestant population.

The most tolerant kingdom was Transylvania (in modern Romania), whose ruler allowed the establishment of any religion. Poland was also a gigantic proving ground for Protestantism in the sixteenth century.

IV. The Catholic Reformation

The Catholic Reformation was a series of internal efforts to purify the Church, not as a result of the Protestant Reformation, but more of a logical progression of the new Renaissance thinking and late medieval spirituality. New religious orders, like the Jesuits, were products of these purifying efforts.

The Counter Reformation was a Catholic response to the Protestant Reformation, a litany of defensive stances and offensive actions toward Protestants. Important by-products of the Counter Reformation were the creation of the Holy Office of the Inquisition, the Index of Prohibited Books, and the decrees of the Council of Trent.

A. The Religious Orders in the Catholic Reformation

The most evident by-product of the Catholic Reformation was the creation of invigorated religious orders, largely in Italy, away from the influences of Protestantism. The new orders held fast to a very traditional Catholic theology, but their actions were not of the reflective monks of the early medieval age; these new orders set out to the ends of the known word to spread the word of God.

1. Jesuits: The Soldiers of God

The most influential of the new orders was the Society of Jesus (Jesuits), which was headed by Ignatius Loyola, former courtier to King Ferdinand of Aragon.
(Spain) and soldier. As General of the Society, Loyola incorporated the best aspects of the courtier into the distinct character of the Jesuit members: social refinement, loyalty to authority, sense of duty, chivalry, and an appreciation for high education.

The order's early forte was in the realm of ministering to other peoples. Often, Jesuits immersed themselves in a foreign culture, learning the languages and mannerisms, in order to be better persuasive in representing Christ. Later, the order became famous for its commitment to education and establishment of schools. Jesuits became influential members of the courts to all Catholic monarchs.

2. Women’s Orders: In, But Not Of, The World

Women had a difficult time ministering to others. Traditionally, religious orders for women emphasized reclusion behind the cloistered walls of a convent. Reform of traditional convent life included a rational approach to mysticism and potentially harmful acts of contrition, such as extreme fasting. Nuns of the age developed a uniquely female society with the opportunity to cultivate artistic and literary paths closed to secular women.

B. Paul III, the First Reforming Pope

More than 20 years after Luther's first attack on the Church, Pope Paul III finally launched a counterattack against Protestantism. Although seemingly as corrupt as any pope of the age, Paul instinctively understood that adaptation and action was the key to the Church's survival. In 1542, Paul reestablished the ancient Holy Office of the Inquisition, the purpose of which was to uncover heresies (such as the Protestants). While other manifestations of the Holy Office had existed (the Spanish Inquisition), this time the pope himself held the reigns. Paul's other tactic to squelch the Protestant movement was the first Index of Forbidden Books.

C. The Council of Trent

The most significant measure produced by Pope Paul III was to order a council of the Church hierarchy in 1545 in Trent on the German-Italian border. The council remained in session for nearly 18 years and covered the reign of three popes. The ultimate purposes of the council were to reassert the authority of the pope and Church and to launch reforms that would guarantee an honest and well-educated clergy.

V. The Reformation in the Arts

One of the most contentious issues during the Reformation was the role of the arts in the changing landscape of religion. Although the more radical reformers sought to abolish all representational art from houses of worship, the biggest differences between Catholic and Protestant on this issue was a matter of amount and application.
A. Protestant Iconoclasm

Radical Protestants sometimes enacted reform by breaking into churches and destroying artistic images known as icons. This iconoclasm by the Protestants can be explained by three factors: people feared the inherent power of religious images, religious art drained church resources that could be better used elsewhere, and religious art might tend to distract the masses from the word of God.

B. Counter Reformation Art

The Counter Reformation and the Council of Trent recognized the value of religious art, but agreed that liberties had been taken with the subject matter and presentation of some of the Church-sponsored art of the past. Artists were challenged to use their skills in a new approach to religious persuasion through emotional response. During this time, masterpieces of the past were altered for reasons of modesty, "accuracy," or change in dogma.

C. Sacred Music: Praising God

Many reformers, including Luther, recognized the emotional power of music in worship. Luther and others wrote a number of hymns for the Lutheran services, beginning a long tradition of brilliant Protestant religious music. In Switzerland, Zwingli banished all organs from his churches and some radicals banished music altogether.

The Catholic music of the age emphasized the lyrical message of the hymns rather than virtuosity of the musician. Masses were accompanied by a lone organist or choir.

VI. Conclusion: Competing Understandings

The Reformation divided the West into two religious camps: Protestant and Catholic. The unity of religion that had been achieved through centuries of Church effort was obliterated within a generation, changing forever the nature of the relationship between clergy and laity. This division had dire consequences as kingdoms divided over the smallest of religious issues and remained hostile for centuries.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

- Council of Trent
- The Elizabethan Settlement of the Anglican Church
- Luther posts the 95 Theses
- Zwingli declared the People’s Priest in Zürich
- The Religious Peace of Augsburg
- Founding of the Society of Jesus

1517
1520
1540
1545-1563
1555
1559-1563

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

- Christian humanists
- Justification by faith alone
- Priesthood of all believers
- Religious Peace of Augsburg
- Magisterial Reformation
- Radical Reformation
- Calling
- Predestination
- Anabaptism
- Spiritualists
- Unitarians
- Catholic Reformation
- Counter Reformation
- Desiderius Erasmus
- Thomas More
- John Knox
- Martin Luther
- Ulrich Zwingli
- John Calvin
- Henry VIII
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in this chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

Wittenberg
Rome
Trent
Augsburg
Zurich
Geneva
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What was the impact of the print revolution?
2. Define Christian humanism. What did the Christian humanists attempt to accomplish in terms of reform?
3. What initiated the Lutheran reformation? What were the foundations of Luther’s theology? How did Lutheranism spread throughout Europe? How were people attracted to it?
4. Compare and contrast Lutheranism and Calvinism.
5. How was the Protestant Reformation in England imposed from above? Why could we consider it only partially successful?
6. How did the Protestant Reformation open the flood gates to religious radicalism?
7. How did the Catholic Church respond to the Protestant rebellion? How effective was the Council of Trent? What changes were made in the Church?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. In what ways is “Thomas More’s Argument Against Capital Punishment” similar to those made by those who oppose capital punishment today?
2. In “Martin Luther’s Powers of Persuasion,” how might Luther’s words have actually produced the opposite result from the one supposedly intended?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. In what way did the Protestant Reformation reflect the political configuration of Europe? What motives, other than religious, did people have for adopting a form of religion other than Catholicism?
2. How correct were the Catholics when they challenged the early Protestants with the statement “Schism breeds schism”? How homogeneous was the Protestant movement?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. What statement about Desiderius Erasmus is not true?
   
   A. He supported Luther.
   B. He wrote satire to criticize the Church.
   C. He published a Greek version of the New Testament.
   D. He produced manuals on how to develop personal morality.

2. Which statement about Martin Luther is not true?
   
   A. He translated the New Testament into German.
   B. He supported the Peasants’ Revolt.
   C. He believed in justification by faith.
   D. He called on the German princes to reform the Church.

3. The Peace of Augsburg established in the Holy Roman Empire the principle that
   
   A. each prince could choose the religion in his land.
   B. everyone had freedom of religion.
   C. Catholicism was the official religion of the empire.
   D. the father chose the religion of his family.

4. John Calvin
   
   A. rejected predestination.
   B. participated in the Marburg Colloquy.
   C. wrote in defense of the seven sacraments.
   D. synthesized Protestant theology in a logical, systematic doctrine.

5. Henry VIII
   
   A. divorced Anne Boleyn and married Catherine of Aragon.
   B. replaced Catholic liturgy with the Lutheran church service.
   C. appointed Thomas More to serve as Archbishop of Canterbury.
   D. became head of the Church of England through the Act of Supremacy.

6. Which statement is not true about the Jesuits?
   
   A. They served as confessors to kings.
   B. They set up colleges and universities.
   C. They studied the languages and cultures of the people they tried to convert.
   D. Their founder, Ignatius Loyola, wrote the Index of Forbidden Books.
7. Which author is correctly matched with his/her work?

A. St. Theresa of Avila – Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity
B. Ignatius Loyola – Spiritual Exercises
C. John Calvin – Interior Castle
D. Martin Luther – Institutes of the Christian Religion

8. Which church leader is correctly matched with his description?

A. Pope Clement VII – initiated the Council of Trent
B. Pope Paul III – refused to grant Henry VIII’s divorce to Anne Boleyn
C. Pope Leo X – demanded the arrest of Martin Luther
D. Archbishop Carlo Borromeo – issued the Index of Forbidden Books

9. The Council of Trent

A. initiated the Index of Prohibited Books.
B. completed its work in two years.
C. reaffirmed the efficacy of the seven sacraments.
D. sanctioned iconoclasm.

10. Which religious figure is correctly matched with his religious affiliation?

A. Caspar Schwenckfeld – Spiritualist
B. John Knox – Anabaptist
C. Ulrich Zwingli – Unitarian
D. Faustus Socinus – Calvinist
CHAPTER 14

The Age of Confessional Division

CHAPTER OUTLINE

The late sixteenth century and early seventeenth century was a period characterized by anxiety for the European people. Confessional divisions, inflation, and population expansion exacerbated religious and political tensions and provoked civil wars. European states allied themselves with the churches in an attempt to discipline their peoples.

I. The Peoples of Early Modern Europe

From the fourteenth century to the sixteenth century, Europe experienced several crises caused by periodic famine, plagues such as the Black Death, and economic collapse that led to population decline. In the sixteenth century, the population and economic life began to rebound.

A. The Population Recovery

During the lost sixteenth century (ca. 1480-1640) the population of Europe grew from 60.9 million to 77.9 million. The rate of population growth was much higher in northern Europe than in southern Europe, with France having the largest population. The population and economic growth of this period can be explained in part by the change from subsistence to commercial crops, which produced greater availability of food, and fewer children starved.

B. The Prosperous Village

The success of commercial agriculture required the availability of free labor, access of capital investment and markets. Villages like Buia in northeastern Italy made a successful transition from subsistence to commercial crops due to three factors: the end of serfdom allowed people to sell their labor, feudal lords were willing to invest their capital in their villages, and the villages had access to major markets.

C. The Regulated Cities

By the 1480s, cities had begun to grow as the surplus population and crops of the villages flowed to the cities. The cities were unhealthy places with no sewage systems and were cluttered with people, animals, and garbage, which made them vulnerable to epidemics. City governments made up of officials elected by the richer inhabitants attempted to deal with the problem of a growing population. They maintained grain storehouses and regulated the price of bread to ensure that the poor had access to food. They also implemented swift and gruesome punishment for even petty crimes. The cities’ guilds ensured the quality of economic production. As much as a quarter of the cities’ population was destitute. Several public and religious institutions helped provide for the
welfare of the indigent by establishing orphanages, hospitals, and poorhouses. Efforts were also undertaken to distinguish between the “honest” and “dishonest poor.”

D. Price Revolution

The price inflation was one of the major problems of the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries. Inflation was partly the result of the discovery of new sources of gold in Africa and silver in Central Europe and in Potosí (Bolivia). Inflation caused widespread human suffering for the common people whose real wages declined as the cost of living increased substantially. The price inflation severely weakened governments, whose sources of taxes became inadequate to cover the government expenses. As people felt their lives threatened, they looked for explanations, often culminating in witch hunts, violence against the members of other religious confessions, and strict municipal discipline.

II. Disciplining the People

The first generation of Protestant and Catholic reformers dealt with doctrinal disputes. Their successors faced the more formidable task of building institutions that firmly established Catholic and Protestant cultures.

A. Establishing Confessional Identities

Between 1560 and 1650, confessional identities shaped European culture. A confessional consisted of the followers of a particular statement of religious belief. For Lutherans it was the Confession of Augsburg, for Calvinists the Helvetic Confessions, for Anglicans, the Thirty-Nine Articles, and for Catholics the decrees of the Council of Trent. Based on these statements of faith, clergy disciplined the people and promoted a distinct culture and behavior pattern. The princes of each state associated conformity to the particular religious confession with loyalty to the prince. In each state the clergy of the dominant confession became members of the bureaucracy and received government stipends.

B. Regulating the Family

All religious groups viewed the authority of the father over the family as the foundation of society. The father’s authority reflected the authority of the clergy and state over society.

1. Marriage and Sexuality: The Self-Restrained Couple

In the same period, the structure of the family underwent a major transformation. The new family pattern first appeared in northern Europe when couples began to marry in their mid- to late-twenties. Parental approval remained more important than romantic love in choosing a spouse. The new families were also smaller, as families began to space out their children.
2. Children: Naturally Evil?

From the fifteenth century onward, middle-class families began to place greater emphasis on the moral guidance and religious education of their children. Also, great emphasis was placed on strict discipline. The ideal father cultivated both love and fear in his children.

C. Suppressing Popular Culture

Religious reformers placed great emphasis in purifying society by imposing strict regulation of human behavior. They acted to suppress un-Christian practices in popular culture, such as rough sports, card games, drinking, and dressing up in costumes. One of their main targets was the festival of Carnival, which preceded Lent. They also used preaching and instruction to encourage values of thrift, modesty, and chastity.

D. Hunting Witches

The major manifestation of the great anxiety felt by people in the late sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was witch hunting. Thousands of people were accused and tried for practicing witchcraft, either in the form of *maleficia* (doing harm) or *diabolism* (devil worship). In Europe between 1550 and 1650, over 100,000 people were tried for witchcraft and about 50,000 executed.

III. Confessional States

In 1555, the Peace of Augsburg provided the solution to the religious divisions caused by the Protestant Reformation in the principle *cuius regio eius religio* whereby the ruler determined the religion of the land. It was expected that a state would have one king, one faith, and one law, and no religious group—Lutheran, Calvinist, or Catholic—advocated toleration. In states where significant religious minorities existed, there was constant tension and suspicion, which at times led to civil wars.

A. The French Wars of Religion

Before his unexpected death in 1559, Henry II achieved peace at home and abroad. After his death, his widow Catherine de’ Médici and his heirs failed to keep the peace, and France plunged into four decades of civil wars.

1. The Huguenots: The French Calvinist Community

France remained predominantly Catholic. By 1560, however, there were significant communities of French Calvinists called Huguenots, which included large numbers of nobles. The influence of aristocratic women brought many to the Huguenot cause and many of the Huguenot leaders were the sons and grandsons of these female converts. Henry Bourbon led the Huguenot cause during the French Wars of Religion and eventually ended them.
2. The Origins of the Religious Wars

The Religious Wars resulted from a confusing set of intrigues between the royal family, the leading Huguenot nobles led by the Châtillon and Bourbon families, and Catholic nobles led by the Guise family. Each group vied for supreme power during the weak reigns of Catherine de’ Médici’s three sons. During the reign of Francis II, the Guises viciously persecuted the Huguenots. In 1560, a group of Huguenot nobles ambushed the Guises at a royal dwelling, but the Guises surprised them and managed to kill many of the conspirators. In 1562, the Duke of Guise and his men attacked and killed many Huguenot worshippers at Vassy. This massacre prompted nearly 40 years of civil war with neither side able to gain a decisive advantage.

3. Massacre of St. Bartholomew’s Day

In 1572 an attempt was made to end the wars when Henry of Navarre was offered the hand of Henry II’s daughter, Marguerite Valois, in marriage. When Protestants arrived in Paris for the wedding, many were slaughtered by the Guise retainers with the approval of Queen Catherine de’ Medici and King Charles IX in what came to be known as the Saint Bartholomew’s Day Massacre. Many other Huguenots were murdered throughout France, but the leaders escaped.

In the aftermath of this massacre, the religious wars were renewed. The assassination of King Henry III in 1589 left Henry Bourbon, King of Navarre and leader of the Huguenots, as sole successor to the French throne. In order to make his claim acceptable, Henry IV renounced Protestantism and converted to Catholicism. The conversion allowed Henry to claim the support of the papacy and the moderate Catholics. Resistance to the monarchy collapsed. In 1598, Henry conciliated Huguenots by offering them limited toleration in the Edict of Nantes. The passions of religious division were not entirely calmed. After 18 attempts on his life, he was finally assassinated in 1610.

B. Philip II, His Most Catholic Majesty

Charles V abdicated in favor of King Philip II. Spain was the most powerful state in Europe, and Philip’s domain included Naples, Milan, the Netherlands, Portugal, and the colonies of the New World. Philip exercised a personal supervision over the affairs of his far-flung empire from the seclusion of the palace of El Escorial, making him an office-bound bureaucrat. Philip saw himself as the protector of Catholicism and enemy of Muslims and Protestants. Fearful that the Moriscos of Spain would give support to the Ottoman Turks, he banned all vestiges of Muslim culture. He also maintained garrisons in North Africa and joined with Venice in defeating the Turks at the Battle of Lepanto in 1571. Briefly married to Mary I, the Catholic queen of England, Philip hoped to retain England for Catholicism and as a Spanish ally. But Mary’s successor, Elizabeth I, returned to the Protestant Anglican Church and allowed English pirates to attack Spanish
ships. In 1588 Philip amassed a great armada to attempt an amphibious assault on England. The armada was largely destroyed by weather and English ships in 1588.

C. The Dutch Revolt
The Netherlands held some of Europe’s richest cities. In 1548, Charles V had annexed the northern provinces to the southern provinces he had inherited from his father, so they were not subject to the clauses of the Peace of Augsburg, which allowed local provinces to determine the religion of their lands. The consolidation of the region under Spanish rule was very difficult. Philip’s harsh attitudes toward Protestantism and the arrival of French Huguenot refugees increased the fanatical anti-Catholicism of the Calvinists. In 1566, Calvinists attacked Catholic churches and destroyed paintings and statues. In response, Philip introduced the Spanish Inquisition to the Netherlands and dispatched an army under the command of the Duke of Alba to restore order. Alba imposed a martial reign of terror. Protestant nobles and suspected revolutionaries were executed under the authority of the military tribunal, the Council of Blood. Alba’s cruelty backfired and a full-scale civil war between the Spanish and Protestants ensued. The Protestants, led by Prince William the Silent of Orange, controlled the provinces of Holland and Zeeland. Alba’s failure led to his removal, leaving unpaid Spanish troops to loot Brussels, Ghent, and Antwerp, which were loyal to Spain. The seven northern provinces declared independence in 1581 with William the Silent as stadholder, while the 10 southern provinces remained loyal to Spain. The Dutch carried on a sporadic war until they were recognized as independent in 1648.

D. Literature of the Age of Confessional Division
The late sixteenth and early seventeenth century saw the vernacular languages of Europe become literary languages.

1. French Literature During the Religious Turmoil
In France royal decrees in 1520 and 1539 made French the official language. The greatest French writers of the period were François Rabelais (1483-1553) and Michel de Montaigne (1533-1592).

2. Stirrings of the Golden Age in Iberia
The period represented the golden age of letters in the Iberian peninsula. In Portugal, Luis Vas de Camões (1524-1580) wrote the Lusiads (1572), a great epic poem celebrating Vasco da Gama’s discovery of the sea route to India. In Spain, Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra (1547-1616), who participated in the Battle of Lepanto and spent five years in a Turkish prison, wrote Don Quixote.

3. The Elizabethan Renaissance
The reign of Elizabeth I (r. 1558-1603) marks the arrival of the English Renaissance. The major literary figure was the dramatist William Shakespeare (1564-1616), whose writings demonstrate his deep understanding of human nature.
IV. States and Confessions in Eastern Europe

Eastern Europe escaped the religious controversies that disrupted the confessional states of western Europe.

A. The Dream World of Emperor Rudolf

The Holy Roman Empire was made up one emperor, seven electors, and hundreds of small states. The empire faced many challenges caused by the turmoil resulting from the Lutheran reformation and the foreign threat of the French in the West and the Ottoman empire in the East. A further crippling weakness was the lack of leadership of Emperor Rudolf II (r. 1576-1612), who was incapable of governing because of mental illness. Without a strong emperor, the empire was unable to function and religious conflict was allowed to reach a boiling point.

B. The Renaissance of Poland-Lithuania

Late sixteenth- and early seventeenth-century Poland-Lithuania experienced a great cultural revival, inspired by Renaissance Italy. The nobles held real power through their control of the provincial assemblies and the central Parliament, the Sejm. They also had the right to organize armed confederations to resist the power of the king. The rule of the nobles in Poland-Lithuania hurt the peasants by forcing them into serfdom and depriving them of legal rights. During the mid-sixteenth century, Poland-Lithuania held great religious diversity. During the late sixteenth century, Poland-Lithuania reconverted to Catholicism through the work of the Jesuits.

C. The Troubled Legacy of Ivan the Terrible

Russia experienced the strengthening of royal power in the sixteenth century. The grand-dukes of Moscow freed themselves from the control of the Tartars in the fifteenth century. They then increased their authority at the expense of the nobles (boyars) and cities, while allowing nobles to impose serfdom on the peasants. Ivan III, “the Great” (1462-1505), married a Byzantine princess and adopted the title of tsar. Ivan IV, “the Terrible” (1533-1584), carried out a reign of terror against his enemies. He set aside half of the kingdom for his personal domain and used it to finance the army, which successfully fought Poland-Lithuania and Sweden. In the early seventeenth century, Russia experienced great chaos known as the “Time of Troubles” (1604-1613), which concluded with the election of Michael Romanov as tsar.

V. Conclusion: The Divisions of the West

The late sixteenth and seventeenth centuries were filled with economic and demographic pressures. As Europeans struggled to cope with their increasing uneasiness and insecurity, cities implemented strict disciplinary measures on the family, the poor, criminals, and supposed witches. Differing religious confessions resulted in violence, including riots, civil wars, and assassinations. Religion caused divisions in the West, both in international relations and within individual states.
TIMELINE

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1566</td>
<td>Calvinists begin revolt of Netherlands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1572</td>
<td>Moriscos expelled from Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1588</td>
<td>Saint Bartholomew’s Day Massacre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1598</td>
<td>Edict of Nantes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1609</td>
<td>Defeat of the Spanish Armada</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

*The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.*

Catherine de’ Medici, Guise family, Rudolf II
Henry IV of France, Huguenots, Michael Romanov
Saint Bartholomew’s Day Massacre, Edict of Nantes, Ivan “the Terrible”
Poland-Lithuania, Philip II of Spain, Spanish Armada
Revolt of the Netherlands, Duke of Alba, William the Silent
Time of Troubles, François Rabelais, Auto-da-Fé
William Shakespeare, Carnival, Michel de Montaigne
François Hotman, Théodore de Beze, Maleficia
Diabolism, Peace of Augsburg, Price Revolution
Elizabeth I, Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

Locate the following places on the map.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paris</th>
<th>Poland-Lithuania</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venice</td>
<td>Bavaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>England</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What was the price revolution? How did it affect people?

2. In what ways did the family structure change in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries?

3. How did cities attempt to regulate the lives of people living in them?

4. How did religious differences lead to internal violence in France and the Spanish Empire? How were the revolutions different? How were they similar?

5. In what ways did Poland-Lithuania and Russia develop differently in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries?

6. In what ways did the union between church and political authority help discipline the peoples?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. How does the document “How Women came to be accused of Witchcraft” reflect popular fears about the actions of witches?

2. In “Men Are the Source of the Epidemic of Violence,” what are Lucrezia Marinella’s arguments challenging traditional characteristics of male superiority?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did demographic and economic changes affect European society in the period 1480-1640? Describe the impact of population rates, commercial agriculture, urbanization, guilds, banking, and the price revolution.

SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which of the following did not occur during the price revolution?

   A. People blamed supernatural forces for widespread suffering.
   B. The debasement of money was a cause of soaring inflation.
   C. Inelastic demand rose more than elastic demand.
   D. There was a lack of population growth.

2. Magical practices and the belief in witchcraft

   A. were restricted to the poor and illiterate.
   B. were limited to circles of witches and sorcerers.
   C. appealed to people at all levels of society.
   D. were virtually unknown in the sixteenth century.

3. The most common targets of investigation for magical practices were

   A. the insane.
   B. children.
   C. men.
   D. women.

4. Which of the following community activities was strongly attacked by religious reformers?

   A. Perambulation
   B. All Hallows’ Eve
   C. Carnival
   D. Rites of May

5. In the Saint Bartholomew’s Day Massacre

   A. Henry Bourbon was assassinated.
   B. the Guises were assassinated.
   C. there was indiscriminate slaughter of Protestants.
   D. there was indiscriminate slaughter of Catholics.

6. Which of the following was initially a French Huguenot?

   A. Henry Guise
   B. Henry Bourbon of Navarre
   C. Catherine de’ Médici
   D. Henry II
7. Which Russian ruler succeeded in getting rid of the Tartar Yoke?

A. Ivan III, “the Great”
B. Henry II
C. Catherine de’ Médici
D. Ivan IV, “the Terrible”

8. Who was the author who wrote about the meaning of life and death?

A. François Hotman
B. Théodore de Bèze
C. François Rabelais
D. Michel de Montaigne

9. During the reign of Elizabeth I, England

A. engaged in religious wars.
B. became Catholic.
C. endured a reign of terror against the nobility.
D. experienced a Renaissance.

10. During the late sixteenth century, Poland became Catholic through

A. the changing attitudes of the Polish nobles.
B. religious wars.
C. the epic poem, the *Lusiads*.
D. the reign of terror of Ivan IV.
CHAPTER 15

Absolutism and State-Building in Europe, 1618-1715

CHAPTER OUTLINE

As a result of the religious wars in Europe in the sixteenth century and first half of the seventeenth century, the political order virtually collapsed. In light of this political instability and civil wars, Thomas Hobbes wrote his book *Leviathan*. In it, he argued that in the state of nature humans found themselves in constant conflict. Therefore, they agreed with each other to form a political society in which a ruler made laws, administered justice, and maintained order. In the seventeenth century, European kings turned to absolutism to restore order to their chaotic and war-ravaged countries.

I. The Nature of Absolutism

To best understand absolutism we need to differentiate between theoretical definitions as postulated by writers such as Thomas Hobbes and practice as applied by the various monarchs of Europe. Although the term *absolutism* may conjure images of despotic rulers, seventeenth-century kings did not have the resources and power to impose their will on the entire people of their country.

A. The Theory of Absolutism

When seventeenth-century political writers such as Jean Bodin refer to the king as having absolute power, they mean that he did not share the power to make laws with national representative assemblies; in other words he was “sole legislator.” To discourage rebellion, absolute monarchs claimed that they held power by divine right. They also claimed that they were above the law and as the highest judge in the land could not be held accountable for their actions. This meant that they acted for reasons of state, i.e. the benefit of the entire kingdom, and therefore could not be expected to observe the rights and liberties of their subjects.

B. The Practice of Absolutism

In the seventeenth century, European monarchs took several steps to ensure their authority was held supreme within the state. They eliminated or weakened national representative assemblies. They subordinated the nobility to the king and made them dependent on his favor, while excluding them from positions of power. Lastly, the kings established centralized bureaucracies that collected taxes, recruited soldiers, and operated the judiciary.

C. Warfare and the Absolutist State

The growth of European states in the seventeenth century was largely the result of war. Between 1600 and 1721, European powers were constantly at war. By the end of the
Thirty Years’ War in 1648, most European countries had a standing army, which could be used in foreign wars as well as in maintaining internal order. In the seventeenth century and early eighteenth century these armies became larger. They were equipped with new gunpowder technology. The cost of recruiting soldiers, equipping them with arms and uniforms and training them was so high that only the state could afford it. The need to meet the financial cost of the military forced states to improve the bureaucracy and tax collection.

II. The Absolutist State in France and Spain

The two European countries where royal absolutism first became the form of rule were France and Spain. While France under Louis XIV became the model of an absolutist state, which others sought to copy, Spain established forms of absolutist rule, but never matched the achievements of France.

A. The Foundations of French Absolutism

Efforts to establish the absolute monarchy in France began in response to the chaos of the religious wars. The Huguenot Henry IV (r. 1598-1610) converted to Catholicism when he became king of France. He restored internal religious peace by granting toleration to the Huguenots in the Edict of Nantes (1598). His chief minister, the Duke of Sully, promoted the economic recovery of France by giving government support to commercial expansion.

When Henry IV was assassinated, his heir, Louis XIII (r. 1610-1643), was still a child. The aristocracy took advantage of royal weakness to try to build up its power. Louis XIII and his chief minister, Cardinal Richelieu, worked to centralize power in the hands of the French state. Richelieu suppressed rebellions led by nobles and restricted the independence of the regional supreme courts, or parlements. Richelieu improved the administration by establishing a system of professional bureaucrats called intendants to supervise local administration. Richelieu also increased such taxes as the taille and imposed a tax on office holders. When conflict erupted between the Huguenots and the crown, they were defeated and their town fortifications were razed.

After Richelieu died, he was succeeded by Cardinal Mazarin (1601-1661). As chief minister during the early reign of Louis XIV (r. 1643-1715), who also became king at age five, Cardinal Mazarin faced a series of revolts against the crown called the Fronde. The first Fronde was led by the judges of parlement of Paris, who refused to register a royal edict. The royal family fled Paris and used royal troops to blockade the city until a compromise was reached. The second Fronde, led by the Prince of Condé, was also defeated by the crown. Within a decade the French state had recovered from these challenges.

B. Absolutism in the Reign of Louis XIV

After the death of Cardinal Mazarin, Louis XIV personally took over the government of France. Louis XIV acquired a reputation as the most powerful European monarch of the seventeenth century, both through his policies and through the image he conveyed. Art and architecture were used to convey the enormous power of the king. He built a new
royal palace at Versailles in the baroque style, which through its size emphasized the unrivaled power of the king. Paintings, sculptures, and theatre productions always portrayed the symbols of power.

In a more practical manner, Louis curbed the power of the nobility, by requiring members of noble families to live at Versailles for part of the year. At court they participated in the ritual of court life that revolved around the person of the king, but were excluded from the running of the government. The offices of state were filled by bureaucrats recruited from the merchant and professional classes. At the local level, intendants ensured the cooperation of city councils, judges, and parish priests to enforce the royal will. Louis also promoted religious uniformity by revoking the Edict of Nantes, forcing the Huguenots to either convert or leave the country. Large numbers of Huguenots emigrated to the Netherlands.

The government took an active role in the economic life of the country. The controller general, Jean Baptiste Colbert, promoted a set of policies called mercantilism to promote the economic expansion of France by improving the transportation network, promoting industry, and expanding the merchant fleet.

C. Louis XIV and the Culture of Absolutism

Louis XIV attempted to transform French culture by his patronage of cultural institutions. To promote the fine arts, Louis XIV granted royal patronage to the Academy of Fine Arts and established the Academy of Music and the theatre company Comédie Française. He also established the Académie Française, which produced the first French language dictionary. He also founded the Royal Academy of Sciences.

Louis also introduced uniformity to the government. His personal life, the royal bureaucracy, and the army were all organized along rational, orderly principles. The achievements and style of Louis XIV influenced other royal courts, which attempted to copy him in the eighteenth century.

D. The Wars of Louis XIV, 1667-1714

Louis XIV waged four of wars to increase the territory of France at the expense of the German states and Spain. These wars led Great Britain, Spain, Austria, and the Dutch republic to form coalitions to stop French expansion and establish a balance of power among the powers of Europe. Louis XIV’s last war was known as the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713). When Spain’s Charles II died with no heir, he left the crown to Louis XIV’s grandson. The other powers refused to accept this increase of French power. After a decade of war, the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) allowed Louis XIV’s grandson, Philip V, to become king of Spain on the condition that the French and Spanish crowns never be unified. Also, the Spanish territories in Italy and the Netherlands were awarded to the Austrian Habsburgs.

E. Absolutism and State-Building in Spain

In the seventeenth century, Spain faced military defeat, population decline, and economic failure. Spain in the seventeenth century remained a collection of territories with their
own separate institutions unified only by the person of the monarch. In the first half of
the seventeenth century, the Count-Duke of Olivares (1587-1645) attempted to integrate
the various principalities into a more centralized state. He reformed the tax system and
required all territories to contribute to national defense. He also attempted to reduce the
autonomy enjoyed by the different principalities. His policies produced separatist
opposition in the various principalities. Although Spain managed to retain control of Italy
and Catalonia, it lost Portugal. In the end, he failed to reproduce the absolutist state of
France because of military defeat abroad and internal opposition.

The seventeenth century is the Golden Age of Spanish letters and art. However, faced
with decline and defeat, Spanish culture turned toward nostalgia. Writers like Miguel de
Cervantes in his *Don Quixote* wrote of elusive dreams of military victory. The paintings
of Diego De Velázquez reflected the ideals of absolutist culture but avoided the reality of
military and political decline.

III. Absolutism and State-Building in Central and Eastern Europe

The military experiences, which created the absolutist states in France and Spain, also
contributed to the creation of absolutist states in the German lands and eastern Europe.

A. Germany and the Thirty Years’ War, 1618-1648

The German lands were a confederation of kingdoms, principalities, and church
territories known as the Holy Roman Empire. The empire was not a unified, sovereign
state. In 1618, a political incident in Bohemia, known as the Defenestration of Prague,
where Protestant members of the Diet threw two royal officials out of a royal castle
window, triggered the Thirty Years’ War. The war devastated the German lands and
retarded economic growth for more than half a century. The war ended with the Treaty of
Westphalia in 1648, which allowed the German territories to develop as sovereign states
with their own armies and central governments. The two most powerful were the
Austrian Habsburg Monarchy and Brandenburg-Prussia.

B. The Growth of the Prussian State

In 1648 Prussia was made up of a series of territories scattered throughout northern
Germany and almost no state bureaucracy. Under the Great Elector Frederick William (r.
1640-1688), King Frederick I (r. 1688-1713), and King Frederick William I (r. 1713-
1740) Prussia became a powerful state. The Great Elector secured the support of the
Prussian nobles, known as Junkers, by giving them legal power over the serfs on their
estates. Prussian rulers then proceeded to enlarge and centralize the royal bureaucracy in
Berlin, improved tax collection, and expanded the army. By 1740 Prussia had an 80,000-
men army, which was also the best trained army in Europe. Although the Prussian rulers
consulted the local assemblies, they were sole legislators at the national level.

C. The Austrian Habsburg Monarchy

The Habsburg rulers of Austria were less successful in consolidating their state. The
Habsburg territories were made up of several autonomous principalities with their own
institutions and privileges, speaking different languages, and following different religious
practices and creeds. The Habsburgs created the Court Chamber as a unified bureaucratic institution to supervise the collection of taxes and recruit troops. The Habsburgs were most successful in the Austrian and Bohemian lands. Bohemia had been defeated at the Battle of White Mountain (1629) and its Protestant nobility was deprived of power. Hungary was able to resist Habsburg attempts to limit its constitutional autonomy.

D. The Ottoman Empire: Between East and West

The military frontier between the Habsburg and Ottoman lands marked both a political and a cultural boundary. The Ottoman Turks were not considered part of the West, as they were Muslims. The Turkish rulers, known as sultans, were considered by Western writers to be despots who ruled over their subjects as slaves. In practice, their power, like that of Western absolutist monarchs, was limited by the spirit of Muslim law. Also, Ottoman provinces enjoyed much autonomy. While Ottomans and Europeans were frequently at war, contacts between the two included trade. Although most Europeans viewed the Ottoman Empire as “oriental,” it was really a border between East and West.

E. Russia and the West

Russia also was a border state between East and West. Russia was ruled for several centuries by Asian peoples and did not participate in the European cultural experience. It also followed an eastern orthodox form of Christianity. Thus, Westerners saw it as “oriental.” During the reign of Peter I, the Great (r. 1682-1725), Russia began to adopt Western ways. Peter the Great established a standing army, trained in Prussian methods, imposed new taxes, created a centralized bureaucracy, and promoted industry. He also built the new city of St. Petersburg as a “window to Europe.”

IV. Resistance to Absolutism in England and the Dutch Republic

While the absolutist state was being established throughout most of Europe, England and the Dutch Republic successfully resisted centralization of power in the hands of the crown.

A. The English Monarchy

The English had a long tradition of relying on Parliament to make laws and levy taxes. The Stuart kings tried to introduce royal absolutism. James I (r. 1603-1625) was a strong believer in the royal prerogative and argued that the function of Parliament was only to give advice, but made no attempt to legislate without it. When his successor, Charles I (r. 1625-1649), proceeded to impose forced loans on his subjects, Parliament responded with the Petition of Rights, stating the fundamental rights of the people. In response, Charles did not call Parliament from 1629 to 1640. During this period of personal rule, Charles collected taxes on his own authority. At the same time, his chief religious advisor, Archbishop William Laud, proceeded to restore ritual practices that leaned toward Catholicism. When Charles I tried to introduce this new liturgy to Scotland, it produced a civil war. Desperate for money to fight the Scots, Charles recalled Parliament.
B. The English Civil War and Revolution

Tensions between Charles and Parliament brought about the first modern revolution. The Long Parliament met from 1640 to 1649. It impeached royal officials and judges and declared the taxes not passed by Parliament illegal. When the king attempted to arrest several members of Parliament, civil war broke out. Parliament created a new efficient army and defeated the king. When Presbyterian members of Parliament attempted to reach a compromise with the king, the army purged the Presbyterians from Parliament. The remaining members of Parliament, known as the Rump, put the king on trial. He was convicted and executed in January of 1649. The revolution created a Republic, with the House of Commons as supreme legislator. Soon, the popular party known as the Levellers began pushing for a more democratic form of government, including annual Parliaments and universal suffrage. The army again intervened, and its commander-in-chief, Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658), was named Lord Protector of England. When Cromwell died in 1558, the political conflict between the Parliament and the army was renewed. In 1660, the army restored the monarchy.

C. Later Stuart Absolutism and the Glorious Revolution

Charles II (r. 1660-1685) and his successor, James II (r. 1685-1688), both favored absolutism, but neither tried to rule without Parliament. Their policy was to influence Parliament by packing it with their supporters. The major political crisis of Charles II’s reign came between 1679-81 when a group of members of Parliament known as the Whigs attempted to exclude the kings’ brother James from succeeding the English throne on the grounds that he was Catholic. The attempt failed and James succeeded the throne when Charles II died 1685. When James II exempted Catholics from the Test Act of 1673, which excluded them from public office, the country revolted against him. James II fled and Parliament invited his Protestant daughter, Mary, and her husband, William of Orange, to become the new rulers. They were required to accept The Convention, which limited royal power and excluded Catholics from the throne. The center of power shifted from the king to the aristocracy sitting in Parliament. These events are known as the Glorious Revolution, which was justified by John Locke in his Two Treatises of Government. Locke argued that man left the state of nature and established a government to protect its property and avoid chaos. But if the king acted against the interests of the people, they could revolt against him. The English Parliament followed a pattern set by other states in improving the military and expanding the bureaucracy.

D. The Dutch Republic

The Dutch Republic remained a decentralized state. The provinces formed a loose confederation, sending deputies to the States General. The provinces also remained decentralized. Political power lay in the hands of the wealthy merchants and bankers. Like other countries, Holland accumulated a large standing army.

The Dutch Republic played an important role in international trade, serving as the middleman between Europe and the world and among European nations. The Dutch East India Company established trading posts in Asia and the Americas. The Exchange Bank
of Amsterdam facilitated international trade transactions by having a monopoly of exchange in foreign currencies.

One of the more unusual features of the Dutch bourgeoisie was its willingness to allow a large degree of toleration to different religious groups. One of the most important contributions of the Dutch to European culture was in the arts. Dutch artists of the seventeenth century turned to producing realistic portraits of merchants and financiers. Among its most famous painters were Rembrandt van Rijn (1606-1669), Franz Hals (ca. 1580-1666), and Jan Steen (1626-1679). In the early eighteenth century the Dutch Republic lost its economic superiority to the French and English.

V. Conclusion: The Western State in the Age of Absolutism

Three significant political developments redefined the West: the dramatic and unprecedented centralization of the state; the introduction of absolutism into the West; and the expansion, regulation, and professionalization of state armies.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Defenestration of Prague</td>
<td>1618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edict of Nantes revoked</td>
<td>1648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Execution of Charles I</td>
<td>1649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glorious Revolution in England</td>
<td>1685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace of Westphalia</td>
<td>1688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treaty of Utrecht</td>
<td>1713</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS**

*The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>The Fronde</td>
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<tr>
<td>Miguel de Cervantes</td>
<td>William Laud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treaty of Ryswick</td>
<td>Cardinal Mazarin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Parliament</td>
<td>Personal rule</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

Locate the following places on the map.

Amsterdam
Paris
Berlin
Madrid
Brandenburg
Hungary
Bohemia
MAKING CONNECTIONS

*The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.*

1. What was the “divine right of kings”? To what extent was it used by European monarchs?

2. How did warfare affect development of the absolutist state?

3. What was the theory of royal absolutism? How did it work in practice?

4. What were the origins of the royal crises of the seventeenth century? What theories were elaborated that permitted resistance to the monarchy?

5. What factors account for the rebellions in England? What was their result? How did Locke’s political theory justify them?

6. How did Louis XIV complete the creation of absolute government? How successful was it? How did other states attempt to copy it?

7. How did eastern European rulers acquire the support of their nobles to establish absolutism in their states?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. What reasons did Louis XIV give for revoking the Edict of Nantes? What steps did he take to enforce religious conformity of the former Huguenots?

2. Based on Grimmelshausen’s account, how did the troops behave when they attacked a region?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. Compare and contrast absolutism in France and Spain in the seventeenth century. How did monarchs centralize their power? What resistance did they encounter? What economic policies did they pursue? How did the arts convey the values of the period? Which monarchy fared better during the period?

2. Discuss the reign of Peter the Great in Russia. In what ways did he try to Westernize Russia? How did he increase the power of the tsar? Why did he fight wars with the Turks and Swedes? How did St. Petersburg symbolize his reign?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which did not result from the wars of the seventeenth century?

   A. The nobility financed the royal armies.
   B. Royal armies increased in size.
   C. Armies were used to secure domestic stability.
   D. Soldiers were kept under arms year round.

2. The greatest Spanish painter of the seventeenth century was

   A. Diego de Velázquez.
   B. Peter Paul Rubens.
   C. Ben Jonson.
   D. Anthony Van Dyck

3. The author of *Leviathan* was

   A. John Locke.
   B. Miguel de Cervantes.
   C. Thomas Hobbes.
   D. Hugo Grotius.

3. Absolutism meant that the king

   A. was supreme legislator.
   B. could seize his subjects’ property at will.
   C. must consult the Diet frequently.
   D. was a despot.

5. Louis the XIV did all of the following to promote absolutism in France except

   A. deprive the nobles of their role in government.
   B. call the Estates General.
   C. revoke the Edict of Nantes.
   D. appoint professional bureaucrats.

6. The aristocratic rebellion in France against the regency government of Cardinal Mazarin was called the

   A. Fronde.
   B. Catalan rebellion.
   C. Sicilian Vespers.
   D. Jacquerie.
7. Which of the following did NOT result from England’s Glorious Revolution?

A. Parliament became more powerful than the king.
B. Religious toleration became the rule.
C. Royal power over taxation was curtailed.
D. Absolute monarchy became constitutional monarchy.

8. Which of the following states did not develop royal absolutism?

A. Dutch Republic
B. Prussia
C. France
D. Russia

9. Prussian monarchs secured the acceptance of absolutism by their nobles by

A. calling more frequent national Diets.
B. cutting taxes.
C. granting them power over the peasants on their estates.
D. militarily crushing the nobles.

10. The institution that facilitated international commerce by holding a monopoly of foreign exchange was

A. the States General.
B. the Grand pensionary.
C. the Stadholder.
D. the Exchange Bank of Amsterdam.
CHAPTER 16

The Scientific Revolution

CHAPTER OUTLINE

In 1609 the Italian mathematician Galileo Galilei invented the telescope. With the telescope, Galileo discovered the mountains on the moon, the spots on the sun, and four moons of Jupiter. His discoveries provided the evidence to support the theory that the earth and other planets revolved around the sun. Galileo formed part of the basis for developments historians call the Scientific Revolution. It caused controversies in religion, philosophy, and politics, and ended up changing the way Europeans viewed nature.

I. The Discoveries and Achievements of the Scientific Revolution

The Scientific Revolution began in the middle decades of the sixteenth century and continued through the early part of the eighteenth century. It involved gradual developments in astronomy, physics, chemistry, and biology.

A. Astronomy: A New Model of the Universe

The major change in astronomy was that people accepted that the sun rather than the earth was the center of the universe. Until the sixteenth century, Europeans followed the cosmology theory of the Greek astronomer Ptolemy. He believed that the earth was the center of the universe and the sun, the moon, and the other planets revolved around the earth. This theory could be verified by human observation, but it failed to explain the path of the planets. The first challenge to Ptolemy’s cosmology came from Nicolaus Copernicus (1473-1543), who proposed that the sun was the center of the universe. His work was too complicated to gain much acceptance. In the late sixteenth century, the Dutch astronomer Tycho Brahe (1546-1601) agreed that the planets revolved around the sun, but said that the sun revolved around the earth. In the early seventeenth century, Johannes Kepler (1571-1630) used Brahe’s data to confirm that the sun was the center of the universe and the earth and other planets revolved around it. Galileo Galilei used his skills as a writer to popularize the idea of the sun-centered universe. Galileo was eventually tried by the Church court, the Inquisition, for challenging the Bible and was forced to abandon the Copernican model of the universe.

B. Physics: The Laws of Motion and Gravitation

Galileo’s most important scientific contributions were in the field of physics. He formulated the laws governing the motion of material objects. Galileo proposed the theory of inertia, according to which an object moves or rests until something outside of it changes its motion. The most important achievements in physics were those of Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727). Building on the work of Galileo, Hooke, and others, he explained theories of motion and inertia with the force of gravity. Newton also described the composition of light.
C. Chemistry: The Discovery of Elements of Nature

Until the seventeenth century, chemistry was tainted by its connection to alchemy. The Swiss physician Paracelsus (1493-1541) rejected the ancient theory that disease was caused by an imbalance of the four humors (blood, phlegm, black bile, and yellow bile). He began using chemicals to treat patients for diseases. The Englishman Robert Boyle made chemistry respectable by his discovery that the arrangement of atoms determines the characteristics of matter.

D. Biology: The Circulation of the Blood

William Harvey also challenged the philosophies of Galen by accurately demonstrating how blood circulates through the human body.

II. The Search for Scientific Knowledge

Scientists in the sixteenth century began to engage in extensive observation, experimentation, and deductive reasoning to solve scientific problems.

A. Observation and Experimentation

Scientists in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries stopped relying on ancient theories and preconceived notions. Instead, they began using a process of induction, whereby only after extensive observation and experimentation did they publish their theories.

B. Deductive Reasoning

Another feature of sixteenth- and seventeenth-century research was the use of rational deduction. This idea was promoted by René Descartes (1596-1650), who argued that the best way to solve problems was to establish fundamental principles and then deduce more specific ideas.

C. Mathematics and Nature

A third method of scientific research was the application of mathematics to help explain the physical world. Newton explained his theories in mathematical formulas.

D. The Mechanical Philosophy

Much seventeenth-century research assumed that the natural world worked like a machine. The human body was understood as being dualistic; according to Descartes, the body was a machine, but the mind was an immaterial substance. The understanding of nature was called mechanical philosophy and it challenged the earlier view of the Neoplatonists, who viewed the natural world as having a soul.
III. The Causes of the Scientific Revolution

A series of intellectual development dating back to the Middle Ages helped bring about the Scientific Revolution.

A. Developments Within Science

Several causes of the Scientific Revolution came from within scientific research.

1. Late Medieval Science

The Scientific Revolution was partly caused by research on motion done by the scholastic philosophers of the fourteenth century, who began to challenge Aristotle’s theories and began to advocate empirical observation.

2. Renaissance Science

The humanist scholars rediscovered many ancient works on science that stimulated new thinking on scientific issues, including the theories of the sun-centered universe, atoms, and mechanics. Neoplatonism prompted the use of mathematics to study nature, the development of the third law of planetary motion, the discovery of the universal laws of nature, and experiments in alchemy and natural magic.

3. The Collapse of Paradigms

The developments in astronomy and biology occurred because of the collapse of old paradigms, which were proven incorrect. For example, the collapse of Ptolemy’s and Galen’s paradigms led scientists to search for new models.

B. Developments Outside Science

There were also a number of non-scientific developments that encouraged the acceptance of new scientific ideas.

1. Protestantism

Protestants were more open to new scientific ideas because of the idea that God revealed himself in both the Bible and in nature. So nature should be studied because it helped to better understand God.

2. Patronage

Universities, usually dominated by the clergy, offered little support to scientific research, which challenged the scholastic theology and Aristotelian science. Therefore, some scientists relied on funding from wealthy patrons, but these relationships were never
completely secure. The rise of new academies, many of them funded by royalty, also provided support for scholars to do their research.

3. The Printing Press

The printing press provided an easier, more accurate way to share, publicize, and preserve scientific discoveries. Experiments provided a greater impetus for the Scientific Revolution rather than books, but the printing press did enable the non-scientific community to take part in the discussions of the latest scientific discoveries and made science a major part of education.

4. Military and Economic Change

The military’s need for new technology for war and the merchants’ need for better navigational technology encouraged further research to solve scientific problems.

5. Voyages of Exploration

The voyages of discovery disproved ancient beliefs about the southern part of the globe and revealed new continents not previously known, thus challenging established authority.

IV. The Intellectual Effects of the Scientific Revolution

The Scientific Revolution had a great impact on education and religious beliefs.

A. Skepticism and Independent Reasoning

One of the most important effects of the Scientific Revolution was the rise of skepticism. Descartes reached the extreme of skepticism by doubting his own existence. Then, he realized that his own act of thinking proved his own existence. Baruch Spinoza (1632-1677) argued that truth should be based only on solid reason. He also believed that nature followed unchanging laws, which could be made understandable in mathematical terms.

B. Science and Religion

The Scientific Revolution presented several challenges to religion. Among these was the idea that the universe worked like a machine according to natural laws and without the intervention of God. This position was adopted by the deist philosophers in the eighteenth century. Another challenge was the idea that reason should determine the existence of the supernatural. The spread of the new science led to a decline in religious fanaticism.

C. Magic, Demons, and Witchcraft

The new science led to a decline in the belief in natural magic, such as alchemy and demonic magic. By the eighteenth century, the educated classes denied the existence of demons and the power of witchcraft. Balthasar Bekker (1691-1693) went so far as to deny that the devil had any power over the natural world. The skeptical views of the
educated classes were not shared by the common people for whom religion remained important. The result was a divide between learned and popular culture.

V. Humans and the Natural World

The spread of scientific culture led the educated people to reconsider their relationship with nature.

A. The Place of Human Beings in the Universe

By making humans the inhabitants of a tiny planet circling the sun, the Copernican Universe reduced the importance of humanity. It led people to begin to question the place of humanity in creation.

B. The Control of Nature

The Scientific Revolution increased the belief that humans could control nature. Some philosophers argued that by gaining knowledge of the laws of nature, humans could acquire dominion over nature. They began to believe that science and technology could improve human life. This belief in progress became an integral part of Western culture.

C. Women, Men, and Nature

The new scientific ideas challenged the ancient and medieval beliefs about the physical and mental inferiority of women by concluding that both men and women made equal contribution to reproduction. But, despite the theoretical foundation for sexual equality, traditional notions about women continued to dominate.

VI. Conclusion: Science and Western Culture

Religious and cultural traditions allowed Western intellectuals to objectively study nature, which was believed to be a product of both supernatural and non-supernatural forces. The Scientific Revolution gave the West a new identity characterized by Christianity, capitalism, centralized states, large standing armies, and distinct approaches to science. The rise of science and technology often led to Westerners identifying themselves as superior to non-Western societies and peoples. The Scientific Revolution also paved the way for the Enlightenment of the eighteenth century.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

Descartes publishes *Discourse on the Method*
Galileo introduces the telescope
Newton publishes *Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*
Copernicus publishes *On the Revolution of the Heavenly Spheres*
William Harvey demonstrates how blood circulates through the body

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TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

- **Cosmology**
- **Scientific Revolution**
- **Nicolaus Copernicus**
- **Tycho Brahe**
- **Johannes Kepler**
- **Galileo Galilei**
- **Sir Isaac Newton**
- **Paracelsus**
- **Alchemy**
- **Robert Boyle**
- **Claudius Ptolemy**
- **William Harvey**
- **Robert Hooke**
- **Induction**
- **Rene Descartes**
- **Christian Huygens**
- **Deduction**
- **Neoplatonists**
- **William Gilbert**
- **Paradigm**
- **Royal Society of England**
- **Baruch Spinoza**
- **Deists**
- **Blaise Pascal**
- **Demonic magic**
- **Natural magic**
- **Galen**
- **Bernard de Fontenelle**
- **Mechanical Philosophy**
- **Francis Bacon**
- **Balthasar Bekker**
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What were the major astronomical, scientific, and mathematical discoveries?
2. What methods did scientists use to investigate nature?
3. How did the Scientific Revolution influence religious ideas?
4. How did the new mechanical philosophy describe nature?
5. How did scientific research before the sixteenth century contribute to the Scientific Revolution?
6. What factor outside of science contributed to the Scientific Revolution? How?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. According to Copernicus, how did ancient writers and observation influence his theories?
2. How did Elizabeth of Bohemia expose the weakness of Descartes’ dualistic philosophy?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the Scientific Revolution influence the development of philosophical and religious thought in the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries?
2. What was the importance of the "scientific method" as utilized within research?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. The cosmology described by what ancient astronomer was overturned during the Scientific Revolution?
   A. Galen
   B. Plato
   C. Ptolemy
   D. Thales

2. Which of the following statements concerning the astronomical discoveries of the Scientific Revolution is not accurate?
   A. Discoveries were made in virtually all parts of Europe.
   B. William Harvey demonstrated how blood circulates through the human body.
   C. Medieval and Renaissance scientific research made no contributions to the Scientific Revolution.
   D. Galileo provided visual confirmation of the mathematical proofs offered by Johannes Kepler for a heliocentric universe.

3. The Swiss physician Paracelsus
   A. experimented with gas and air.
   B. discovered the secret of the body’s circulatory system.
   C. discovered the law of gravity.
   D. rejected the idea that diseases were caused by an imbalance of the four humors.

4. Newton’s theory of gravity
   A. rejected the notion of dualistic philosophy.
   B. proved that the heart pumped blood by contraction and constriction.
   C. proved that the force that holds objects to the Earth is the same force that maintains planetary orbits.
   D. rejected the concept of materialism.

5. Mechanical philosophy challenged the ideas of a group of philosophers inspired by Plotinus called?
   A. Paracelsus
   B. Neoplatonists
   C. Scholastics
   D. Humanists
6. Which of the following was *not* a cause of the Scientific Revolution?

   A. The acceptance of Deism
   B. The voyages of discovery
   C. Medieval research on motion
   D. Military and economic needs for new technology

7. According to Spinoza,

   A. all truth must be proved by reason.
   B. the universe is made up of two substances, matter and spirit.
   C. the heart pumps blood into the body.
   D. the earth revolves around the sun.

8. The Deists argued that

   A. the statements in the Bible about nature must be taken literally.
   B. demonic spirits could influence events and actions.
   C. diseases are caused by the imbalance of the four humors.
   D. since the universe functioned like a machine, God played very little role in it.

9. The leading advocate for the deductive reasoning method was

   A. Blaise Pascal.
   B. René Descartes.
   C. Francis Bacon.
   D. Isaac Newton.

10. How did the Copernican concept of the universe affect views of humankind?

    A. It made them the greatest of God’s creations.
    B. It questioned their place in creation.
    C. It gave them control over nature.
    D. It made both men and women equal.
## ANSWER KEY FOR SELF-TEST QUESTIONS

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NOTES
STUDY GUIDE

to accompany

Levack/Muir/Veldman/Maas

THE WEST
Encounters and Transformations
Volume Two
Second Edition

Carron Fillingim
Louisiana State University

PEARSON Longman
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CHAPTER 14

The Age of Confessional Division

CHAPTER OUTLINE

The late sixteenth century and early seventeenth century was a period characterized by anxiety for the European people. Confessional divisions, inflation, and population expansion exacerbated religious and political tensions and provoked civil wars. European states allied themselves with the churches in an attempt to discipline their peoples.

I. The Peoples of Early Modern Europe

From the fourteenth century to the sixteenth century, Europe experienced several crises caused by periodic famine, plagues such as the Black Death, and economic collapse that led to population decline. In the sixteenth century, the population and economic life began to rebound.

A. The Population Recovery

During the lost sixteenth century (ca. 1480-1640) the population of Europe grew from 60.9 million to 77.9 million. The rate of population growth was much higher in northern Europe than in southern Europe, with France having the largest population. The population and economic growth of this period can be explained in part by the change from subsistence to commercial crops, which produced greater availability of food, and fewer children starved.

B. The Prosperous Village

The success of commercial agriculture required the availability of free labor, access of capital investment and markets. Villages like Buia in northeastern Italy made a successful transition from subsistence to commercial crops due to three factors: the end of serfdom allowed people to sell their labor, feudal lords were willing to invest their capital in their villages, and the villages had access to major markets.

C. The Regulated Cities

By the 1480s, cities had begun to grow as the surplus population and crops of the villages flowed to the cities. The cities were unhealthy places with no sewage systems and were cluttered with people, animals, and garbage, which made them vulnerable to epidemics. City governments made up of officials elected by the richer inhabitants attempted to deal with the problem of a growing population. They maintained grain storehouses and regulated the price of bread to ensure that the poor had access to food. They also implemented swift and gruesome punishment for even petty crimes. The cities’ guilds ensured the quality of economic production. As much as a quarter of the cities’
population was destitute. Several public and religious institutions helped provide for the welfare of the indigent by establishing orphanages, hospitals, and poorhouses. Efforts were also undertaken to distinguish between the “honest” and “dishonest poor.”

D. Price Revolution

The price inflation was one of the major problems of the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries. Inflation was partly the result of the discovery of new sources of gold in Africa and silver in Central Europe and in Potosí (Bolivia). Inflation caused widespread human suffering for the common people whose real wages declined as the cost of living increased substantially. The price inflation severely weakened governments, whose sources of taxes became inadequate to cover the government expenses. As people felt their lives threatened, they looked for explanations, often culminating in witch hunts, violence against the members of other religious confessions, and strict municipal discipline.

II. Disciplining the People

The first generation of Protestant and Catholic reformers dealt with doctrinal disputes. Their successors faced the more formidable task of building institutions that firmly established Catholic and Protestant cultures.

A. Establishing Confessional Identities

Between 1560 and 1650, confessional identities shaped European culture. A confessional consisted of the followers of a particular statement of religious belief. For Lutherans it was the Confession of Augsburg, for Calvinists the Helvetic Confessions, for Anglicans, the Thirty-Nine Articles, and for Catholics the decrees of the Council of Trent. Based on these statements of faith, clergy disciplined the people and promoted a distinct culture and behavior pattern. The princes of each state associated conformity to the particular religious confession with loyalty to the prince. In each state the clergy of the dominant confession became members of the bureaucracy and received government stipends.

B. Regulating the Family

All religious groups viewed the authority of the father over the family as the foundation of society. The father’s authority reflected the authority of the clergy and state over society.

1. Marriage and Sexuality: The Self-Restrained Couple

In the same period, the structure of the family underwent a major transformation. The new family pattern first appeared in northern Europe when couples began to marry in their mid- to late-twenties. Parental approval remained more important than romantic love in choosing a spouse. The new families were also smaller, as families began to space out their children.
2. Children: Naturally Evil?

From the fifteenth century onward, middle-class families began to place greater emphasis on the moral guidance and religious education of their children. Also, great emphasis was placed on strict discipline. The ideal father cultivated both love and fear in his children.

C. Suppressing Popular Culture

Religious reformers placed great emphasis in purifying society by imposing strict regulation of human behavior. They acted to suppress un-Christian practices in popular culture, such as rough sports, card games, drinking, and dressing up in costumes. One of their main targets was the festival of Carnival, which preceded Lent. They also used preaching and instruction to encourage values of thrift, modesty, and chastity.

D. Hunting Witches

The major manifestation of the great anxiety felt by people in the late sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was witch hunting. Thousands of people were accused and tried for practicing witchcraft, either in the form of maleficia (doing harm) or diabolism (devil worship). In Europe between 1550 and 1650, over 100,000 people were tried for witchcraft and about 50,000 executed.

III. Confessional States

In 1555, the Peace of Augsburg provided the solution to the religious divisions caused by the Protestant Reformation in the principle cuius region eius religio whereby the ruler determined the religion of the land. It was expected that a state would have one king, one faith, and one law, and no religious group—Lutheran, Calvinist, or Catholic—advocated toleration. In states where significant religious minorities existed, there was constant tension and suspicion, which at times led to civil wars.

A. The French Wars of Religion

Before his unexpected death in 1559, Henry II achieved peace at home and abroad. After his death, his widow Catherine de’ Médici and his heirs failed to keep the peace, and France plunged into four decades of civil wars.

1. The Huguenots: The French Calvinist Community

France remained predominantly Catholic. By 1560, however, there were significant communities of French Calvinists called Huguenots, which included large numbers of nobles. The influence of aristocratic women brought many to the Huguenot cause and many of the Huguenot leaders were the sons and grandsons of these female converts. Henry Bourbon led
the Huguenot cause during the French Wars of Religion and eventually ended them.

2. The Origins of the Religious Wars

The Religious Wars resulted from a confusing set of intrigues between the royal family, the leading Huguenot nobles led by the Châtillon and Bourbon families, and Catholic nobles led by the Guise family. Each group vied for supreme power during the weak reigns of Catherine de’ Médici’s three sons. During the reign of Francis II, the Guises viciously persecuted the Huguenots. In 1560, a group of Huguenot nobles ambushed the Guises at a royal dwelling, but the Guises surprised them and managed to kill many of the conspirators. In 1562, the Duke of Guise and his men attacked and killed many Huguenot worshippers at Vassy. This massacre prompted nearly 40 years of civil war with neither side able to gain a decisive advantage.

3. Massacre of St. Bartholomew’s Day

In 1572 an attempt was made to end the wars when Henry of Navarre was offered the hand of Henry II’s daughter, Marguerite Valois, in marriage. When Protestants arrived in Paris for the wedding, many were slaughtered by the Guise retainers with the approval of Queen Catherine de’ Medici and King Charles IX in what came to be known as the Saint Bartholomew’s Day Massacre. Many other Huguenots were murdered throughout France, but the leaders escaped.

In the aftermath of this massacre, the religious wars were renewed. The assassination of King Henry III in 1589 left Henry Bourbon, King of Navarre and leader of the Huguenots, as sole successor to the French throne. In order to make his claim acceptable, Henry IV renounced Protestantism and converted to Catholicism. The conversion allowed Henry to claim the support of the papacy and the moderate Catholics. Resistance to the monarchy collapsed. In 1598, Henry conciliated Huguenots by offering them limited toleration in the Edict of Nantes. The passions of religious division were not entirely calmed. After 18 attempts on his life, he was finally assassinated in 1610.

B. Philip II, His Most Catholic Majesty

Charles V abdicated in favor of King Philip II. Spain was the most powerful state in Europe, and Philip’s domain included Naples, Milan, the Netherlands, Portugal, and the colonies of the New World. Philip exercised a personal supervision over the affairs of his far-flung empire from the seclusion of the palace of El Escorial, making him an office-bound bureaucrat. Philip saw himself as the protector of Catholicism and enemy of Muslims and Protestants. Fearful that the Moriscos of Spain would give support to the Ottoman Turks, he banned all vestiges of Muslim culture. He also maintained garrisons in North Africa and joined with Venice in defeating the Turks at the Battle of Lepanto in
1571. Briefly married to Mary I, the Catholic queen of England, Philip hoped to retain England for Catholicism and as a Spanish ally. But Mary’s successor, Elizabeth I, returned to the Protestant Anglican Church and allowed English pirates to attack Spanish ships. In 1588 Philip amassed a great armada to attempt an amphibious assault on England. The armada was largely destroyed by weather and English ships in 1588.

C. The Dutch Revolt
The Netherlands held some of Europe’s richest cities. In 1548, Charles V had annexed the northern provinces to the southern provinces he had inherited from his father, so they were not subject to the clauses of the Peace of Augsburg, which allowed local provinces to determine the religion of their lands. The consolidation of the region under Spanish rule was very difficult. Philip’s harsh attitudes toward Protestantism and the arrival of French Huguenot refugees increased the fanatical anti-Catholicism of the Calvinists. In 1566, Calvinists attacked Catholic churches and destroyed paintings and statues. In response, Philip introduced the Spanish Inquisition to the Netherlands and dispatched an army under the command of the Duke of Alba to restore order. Alba imposed a martial reign of terror. Protestant nobles and suspected revolutionaries were executed under the authority of the military tribunal, the Council of Blood. Alba’s cruelty backfired and a full-scale civil war between the Spanish and Protestants ensued. The Protestants, led by Prince William the Silent of Orange, controlled the provinces of Holland and Zealand. Alba’s failure led to his removal, leaving unpaid Spanish troops to loot Brussels, Ghent, and Antwerp, which were loyal to Spain. The seven northern provinces declared independence in 1581 with William the Silent as stadholder, while the 10 southern provinces remained loyal to Spain. The Dutch carried on a sporadic war until they were recognized as independent in 1648.

D. Literature of the Age of Confessional Division

The late sixteenth and early seventeenth century saw the vernacular languages of Europe become literary languages.

1. French Literature During the Religious Turmoil

In France royal decrees in 1520 and 1539 made French the official language. The greatest French writers of the period were François Rabelais (1483-1553) and Michel de Montaigne (1533-1592).

2. Stirrings of the Golden Age in Iberia

The period represented the golden age of letters in the Iberian peninsula. In Portugal, Luis Vas de Camões (1524-1580) wrote the Lusiads (1572), a great epic poem celebrating Vasco da Gama’s discovery of the sea route to India. In Spain, Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra (1547-1616), who participated in the Battle of Lepanto and spent five years in a Turkish prison, wrote Don Quixote.
3. The Elizabethan Renaissance

The reign of Elizabeth I (r. 1558-1603) marks the arrival of the English Renaissance. The major literary figure was the dramatist William Shakespeare (1564-1616), whose writings demonstrate his deep understanding of human nature.

IV. States and Confessions in Eastern Europe

Eastern Europe escaped the religious controversies that disrupted the confessional states of western Europe.

A. The Dream World of Emperor Rudolf

The Holy Roman Empire was made up one emperor, seven electors, and hundreds of small states. The empire faced many challenges caused by the turmoil resulting from the Lutheran reformation and the foreign threat of the French in the West and the Ottoman empire in the East. A further crippling weakness was the lack of leadership of Emperor Rudolf II (r. 1576-1612), who was incapable of governing because of mental illness. Without a strong emperor, the empire was unable to function and religious conflict was allowed to reach a boiling point.

B. The Renaissance of Poland-Lithuania

Late sixteenth- and early seventeenth-century Poland-Lithuania experienced a great cultural revival, inspired by Renaissance Italy. The nobles held real power through their control of the provincial assemblies and the central Parliament, the Sejm. They also had the right to organize armed confederations to resist the power of the king. The rule of the nobles in Poland-Lithuania hurt the peasants by forcing them into serfdom and depriving them of legal rights. During the mid-sixteenth century, Poland-Lithuania held great religious diversity. During the late sixteenth century, Poland-Lithuania reconverted to Catholicism through the work of the Jesuits.

C. The Troubled Legacy of Ivan the Terrible

Russia experienced the strengthening of royal power in the sixteenth century. The grand-dukes of Moscow freed themselves from the control of the Tartars in the fifteenth century. They then increased their authority at the expense of the nobles (boyars) and cities, while allowing nobles to impose serfdom on the peasants. Ivan III, “the Great” (1462-1505), married a Byzantine princess and adopted the title of tsar. Ivan IV, “the Terrible” (1533-1584), carried out a reign of terror against his enemies. He set aside half of the kingdom for his personal domain and used it to finance the army, which successfully fought Poland-Lithuania and Sweden. In the early seventeenth century, Russia experienced great chaos known as the “Time of Troubles” (1604-1613), which concluded with the election of Michael Romanov as tsar.
V. Conclusion: The Divisions of the West

The late sixteenth and seventeenth centuries were filled with economic and demographic pressures. As Europeans struggled to cope with their increasing uneasiness and insecurity, cities implemented strict disciplinary measures on the family, the poor, criminals, and supposed witches. Differing religious confessions resulted in violence, including riots, civil wars, and assassinations. Religion caused divisions in the West, both in international relations and within individual states.
TIMELINE

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1566</th>
<th>Calvinists begin revolt of Netherlands</th>
<th>Moriscos expelled from Spain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1572</td>
<td>Saint Bartholomew’s Day Massacre</td>
<td>Edict of Nantes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1588</td>
<td>Defeat of the Spanish Armada</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1598</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1609</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

*The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.*

- Catherine de’ Medici
- Henry IV of France
- Saint Bartholomew’s Day Massacre
- Poland-Lithuania
- Revolt of the Netherlands
- Time of Troubles
- William Shakespeare
- François Hotman
- Diabolism
- Elizabeth I

- Guise family
- Huguenots
- Edict of Nantes
- Philip II of Spain
- Duke of Alba
- François Rabelais
- Carnival
- Théodore de Beze
- Peace of Augsburg
- Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra

- Rudolf II
- Michael Romanov
- Ivan “the Terrible”
- Spanish Armada
- William the Silent
- Auto-da-Fé
- Michel de Montaigne
- Maleficia
- Price Revolution
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

Locate the following places on the map.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paris</th>
<th>Poland-Lithuania</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venice</td>
<td>Bavaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>England</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What was the price revolution? How did it affect people?

2. In what ways did the family structure change in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries?

3. How did cities attempt to regulate the lives of people living in them?

4. How did religious differences lead to internal violence in France and the Spanish Empire? How were the revolutions different? How were they similar?

5. In what ways did Poland-Lithuania and Russia develop differently in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries?

6. In what ways did the union between church and political authority help discipline the peoples?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. How does the document “How Women came to be accused of Witchcraft” reflect popular fears about the actions of witches?

2. In “Men Are the Source of the Epidemic of Violence,” what are Lucrezia Marinella’s arguments challenging traditional characteristics of male superiority?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did demographic and economic changes affect European society in the period 1480-1640? Describe the impact of population rates, commercial agriculture, urbanization, guilds, banking, and the price revolution.

SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which of the following did not occur during the price revolution?
   A. People blamed supernatural forces for widespread suffering.
   B. The debasement of money was a cause of soaring inflation.
   C. Inelastic demand rose more than elastic demand.
   D. There was a lack of population growth.

2. Magical practices and the belief in witchcraft
   A. were restricted to the poor and illiterate.
   B. were limited to circles of witches and sorcerers.
   C. appealed to people at all levels of society.
   D. were virtually unknown in the sixteenth century.

3. The most common targets of investigation for magical practices were
   A. the insane.
   B. children.
   C. men.
   D. women.

4. Which of the following community activities was strongly attacked by religious reformers?
   A. Perambulation
   B. All Hallows’ Eve
   C. Carnival
   D. Rites of May

5. In the Saint Bartholomew’s Day Massacre
   A. Henry Bourbon was assassinated.
   B. the Guises were assassinated.
   C. there was indiscriminate slaughter of Protestants.
   D. there was indiscriminate slaughter of Catholics.

6. Which of the following was initially a French Huguenot?
   A. Henry Guise
   B. Henry Bourbon of Navarre
   C. Catherine de’ Médici
   D. Henry II
7. Which Russian ruler succeeded in getting rid of the Tartar Yoke?
   A. Ivan III, “the Great”
   B. Henry II
   C. Catherine de’ Médici
   D. Ivan IV, “the Terrible”

8. Who was the author who wrote about the meaning of life and death?
   A. François Hotman
   B. Théodore de Bèze
   C. François Rabelais
   D. Michel de Montaigne

9. During the reign of Elizabeth I, England
   A. engaged in religious wars.
   B. became Catholic.
   C. endured a reign of terror against the nobility.
   D. experienced a Renaissance.

10. During the late sixteenth century, Poland became Catholic through
    A. the changing attitudes of the Polish nobles.
    B. religious wars.
    C. the epic poem, the Lusiads.
    D. the reign of terror of Ivan IV.
CHAPTER 15

Absolutism and State-Building in Europe, 1618-1715

CHAPTER OUTLINE

As a result of the religious wars in Europe in the sixteenth century and first half of the seventeenth century, the political order virtually collapsed. In light of this political instability and civil wars, Thomas Hobbes wrote his book *Leviathan*. In it, he argued that in the state of nature humans found themselves in constant conflict. Therefore, they agreed with each other to form a political society in which a ruler made laws, administered justice, and maintained order. In the seventeenth century, European kings turned to absolutism to restore order to their chaotic and war-ravaged countries.

I. The Nature of Absolutism

To best understand absolutism we need to differentiate between theoretical definitions as postulated by writers such as Thomas Hobbes and practice as applied by the various monarchs of Europe. Although the term *absolutism* may conjure images of despotic rulers, seventeenth-century kings did not have the resources and power to impose their will on the entire people of their country.

A. The Theory of Absolutism

When seventeenth-century political writers such as Jean Bodin refer to the king as having absolute power, they mean that he did not share the power to make laws with national representative assemblies; in other words he was “sole legislator.” To discourage rebellion, absolute monarchs claimed that they held power by divine right. They also claimed that they were above the law and as the highest judge in the land could not be held accountable for their actions. This meant that they acted for reasons of state, i.e. the benefit of the entire kingdom, and therefore could not be expected to observe the rights and liberties of their subjects.

B. The Practice of Absolutism

In the seventeenth century, European monarchs took several steps to ensure their authority was held supreme within the state. They eliminated or weakened national representative assemblies. They subordinated the nobility to the king and made them dependent on his favor, while excluding them from positions of power. Lastly, the kings established centralized bureaucracies that collected taxes, recruited soldiers, and operated the judiciary.
C. Warfare and the Absolutist State

The growth of European states in the seventeenth century was largely the result of war. Between 1600 and 1721, European powers were constantly at war. By the end of the Thirty Years’ War in 1648, most European countries had a standing army, which could be used in foreign wars as well as in maintaining internal order. In the seventeenth century and early eighteenth century these armies became larger. They were equipped with new gunpowder technology. The cost of recruiting soldiers, equipping them with arms and uniforms and training them was so high that only the state could afford it. The need to meet the financial cost of the military forced states to improve the bureaucracy and tax collection.

II. The Absolutist State in France and Spain

The two European countries where royal absolutism first became the form of rule were France and Spain. While France under Louis XIV became the model of an absolutist state, which others sought to copy, Spain established forms of absolutist rule, but never matched the achievements of France.

A. The Foundations of French Absolutism

Efforts to establish the absolute monarchy in France began in response to the chaos of the religious wars. The Huguenot Henry IV (r. 1598-1610) converted to Catholicism when he became king of France. He restored internal religious peace by granting toleration to the Huguenots in the Edict of Nantes (1598). His chief minister, the Duke of Sully, promoted the economic recovery of France by giving government support to commercial expansion.

When Henry IV was assassinated, his heir, Louis XIII (r. 1610-1643), was still a child. The aristocracy took advantage of royal weakness to try to build up its power. Louis XIII and his chief minister, Cardinal Richelieu, worked to centralize power in the hands of the French state. Richelieu suppressed rebellions led by nobles and restricted the independence of the regional supreme courts, or parlements. Richelieu improved the administration by establishing a system of professional bureaucrats called intendants to supervise local administration. Richelieu also increased such taxes as the taille and imposed a tax on office holders. When conflict erupted between the Huguenots and the crown, they were defeated and their town fortifications were razed.

After Richelieu died, he was succeeded by Cardinal Mazarin (1601-1661). As chief minister during the early reign of Louis XIV (r. 1643-1715), who also became king at age five, Cardinal Mazarin faced a series of revolts against the crown called the Fronde. The first Fronde was led by the judges of parlement of Paris, who refused to register a royal edict. The royal family fled Paris and used royal troops to blockade the city until a compromise was reached. The second Fronde, led by the Prince of Condé, was also defeated by the crown. Within a decade the French state had recovered from these challenges.
B. Absolutism in the Reign of Louis XIV

After the death of Cardinal Mazarin, Louis XIV personally took over the government of France. Louis XIV acquired a reputation as the most powerful European monarch of the seventeenth century, both through his policies and through the image he conveyed. Art and architecture were used to convey the enormous power of the king. He built a new royal palace at Versailles in the baroque style, which through its size emphasized the unrivaled power of the king. Paintings, sculptures, and theatre productions always portrayed the symbols of power.

In a more practical manner, Louis curbed the power of the nobility, by requiring members of noble families to live at Versailles for part of the year. At court they participated in the ritual of court life that revolved around the person of the king, but were excluded from the running of the government. The offices of state were filled by bureaucrats recruited from the merchant and professional classes. At the local level, intendants ensured the cooperation of city councils, judges, and parish priests to enforce the royal will. Louis also promoted religious uniformity by revoking the Edict of Nantes, forcing the Huguenots to either convert or leave the country. Large numbers of Huguenots emigrated to the Netherlands.

The government took an active role in the economic life of the country. The controller general, Jean Baptiste Colbert, promoted a set of policies called mercantilism to promote the economic expansion of France by improving the transportation network, promoting industry, and expanding the merchant fleet.

C. Louis XIV and the Culture of Absolutism

Louis XIV attempted to transform French culture by his patronage of cultural institutions. To promote the fine arts, Louis XIV granted royal patronage to the Academy of Fine Arts and established the Academy of Music and the theatre company Comédie Française. He also established the Académie Française, which produced the first French language dictionary. He also founded the Royal Academy of Sciences.

Louis also introduced uniformity to the government. His personal life, the royal bureaucracy, and the army were all organized along rational, orderly principles. The achievements and style of Louis XIV influenced other royal courts, which attempted to copy him in the eighteenth century.

D. The Wars of Louis XIV, 1667-1714

Louis XIV waged four of wars to increase the territory of France at the expense of the German states and Spain. These wars led Great Britain, Spain, Austria, and the Dutch republic to form coalitions to stop French expansion and establish a balance of power among the powers of Europe. Louis XIV’s last war was known as the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713). When Spain’s Charles II died with no heir, he left the crown to Louis XIV’s grandson. The other powers refused to accept this increase of French power. After a decade of war, the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) allowed Louis XIV’s grandson, Philip V, to become king of Spain on the condition that the French and Spanish crowns never be
unified. Also, the Spanish territories in Italy and the Netherlands were awarded to the Austrian Habsburgs.

E. Absolutism and State-Building in Spain

In the seventeenth century, Spain faced military defeat, population decline, and economic failure. Spain in the seventeenth century remained a collection of territories with their own separate institutions unified only by the person of the monarch. In the first half of the seventeenth century, the Count-Duke of Olivares (1587-1645) attempted to integrate the various principalities into a more centralized state. He reformed the tax system and required all territories to contribute to national defense. He also attempted to reduce the autonomy enjoyed by the different principalities. His policies produced separatist opposition in the various principalities. Although Spain managed to retain control of Italy and Catalonia, it lost Portugal. In the end, he failed to reproduce the absolutist state of France because of military defeat abroad and internal opposition.

The seventeenth century is the Golden Age of Spanish letters and art. However, faced with decline and defeat, Spanish culture turned toward nostalgia. Writers like Miguel de Cervantes in his *Don Quixote* wrote of elusive dreams of military victory. The paintings of Diego De Velázquez reflected the ideals of absolutist culture but avoided the reality of military and political decline.

III. Absolutism and State-Building in Central and Eastern Europe

The military experiences, which created the absolutist states in France and Spain, also contributed to the creation of absolutist states in the German lands and eastern Europe.

A. Germany and the Thirty Years’ War, 1618-1648

The German lands were a confederation of kingdoms, principalities, and church territories known as the Holy Roman Empire. The empire was not a unified, sovereign state. In 1618, a political incident in Bohemia, known as the Defenestration of Prague, where Protestant members of the Diet threw two royal officials out of a royal castle window, triggered the Thirty Years’ War. The war devastated the German lands and retarded economic growth for more than half a century. The war ended with the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648, which allowed the German territories to develop as sovereign states with their own armies and central governments. The two most powerful were the Austrian Habsburg Monarchy and Brandenburg-Prussia.

B. The Growth of the Prussian State

In 1648 Prussia was made up of a series of territories scattered throughout northern Germany and almost no state bureaucracy. Under the Great Elector Frederick William (r. 1640-1688), King Frederick I (r. 1688-1713), and King Frederick William I (r. 1713-1740) Prussia became a powerful state. The Great Elector secured the support of the Prussian nobles, known as Junkers, by giving them legal power over the serfs on their estates. Prussian rulers then proceeded to enlarge and centralize the royal bureaucracy in Berlin, improved tax collection, and expanded the army. By 1740 Prussia had an 80,000-
men army, which was also the best trained army in Europe. Although the Prussian rulers consulted the local assemblies, they were sole legislators at the national level.

C. The Austrian Habsburg Monarchy

The Habsburg rulers of Austria were less successful in consolidating their state. The Habsburg territories were made up of several autonomous principalities with their own institutions and privileges, speaking different languages, and following different religious practices and creeds. The Habsburgs created the Court Chamber as a unified bureaucratic institution to supervise the collection of taxes and recruit troops. The Habsburgs were most successful in the Austrian and Bohemian lands. Bohemia had been defeated at the Battle of White Mountain (1629) and its Protestant nobility was deprived of power. Hungary was able to resist Habsburg attempts to limit its constitutional autonomy.

D. The Ottoman Empire: Between East and West

The military frontier between the Habsburg and Ottoman lands marked both a political and a cultural boundary. The Ottoman Turks were not considered part of the West, as they were Muslims. The Turkish rulers, known as sultans, were considered by Western writers to be despots who ruled over their subjects as slaves. In practice, their power, like that of Western absolutist monarchs, was limited by the spirit of Muslim law. Also, Ottoman provinces enjoyed much autonomy. While Ottomans and Europeans were frequently at war, contacts between the two included trade. Although most Europeans viewed the Ottoman Empire as “oriental,” it was really a border between East and West.

E. Russia and the West

Russia also was a border state between East and West. Russia was ruled for several centuries by Asian peoples and did not participate in the European cultural experience. It also followed an eastern orthodox form of Christianity. Thus, Westerners saw it as “oriental.” During the reign of Peter I, the Great (r. 1682-1725), Russia began to adopt Western ways. Peter the Great established a standing army, trained in Prussian methods, imposed new taxes, created a centralized bureaucracy, and promoted industry. He also built the new city of St. Petersburg as a “window to Europe.”

IV. Resistance to Absolutism in England and the Dutch Republic

While the absolutist state was being established throughout most of Europe, England and the Dutch Republic successfully resisted centralization of power in the hands of the crown.

A. The English Monarchy

The English had a long tradition of relying on Parliament to make laws and levy taxes. The Stuart kings tried to introduce royal absolutism. James I (r. 1603-1625) was a strong believer in the royal prerogative and argued that the function of Parliament was only to give advice, but made no attempt to legislate without it. When his successor, Charles I (r. 1625-1649), proceeded to impose forced loans on his subjects, Parliament responded with the Petition of Rights, stating the fundamental rights of the people. In response, Charles
did not call Parliament from 1629 to 1640. During this period of personal rule, Charles collected taxes on his own authority. At the same time, his chief religious advisor, Archbishop William Laud, proceeded to restore ritual practices that leaned toward Catholicism. When Charles I tried to introduce this new liturgy to Scotland, it produced a civil war. Desperate for money to fight the Scots, Charles recalled Parliament.

B. The English Civil War and Revolution

Tensions between Charles and Parliament brought about the first modern revolution. The Long Parliament met from 1640 to 1649. It impeached royal officials and judges and declared the taxes not passed by Parliament illegal. When the king attempted to arrest several members of Parliament, civil war broke out. Parliament created a new efficient army and defeated the king. When Presbyterian members of Parliament attempted to reach a compromise with the king, the army purged the Presbyterians from Parliament. The remaining members of Parliament, known as the Rump, put the king on trial. He was convicted and executed in January of 1649. The revolution created a Republic, with the House of Commons as supreme legislator. Soon, the popular party known as the Levellers began pushing for a more democratic form of government, including annual Parliaments and universal suffrage. The army again intervened, and its commander-in-chief, Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658), was named Lord Protector of England. When Cromwell died in 1558, the political conflict between the Parliament and the army was renewed. In 1660, the army restored the monarchy.

C. Later Stuart Absolutism and the Glorious Revolution

Charles II (r. 1660-1685) and his successor, James II (r. 1685-1688), both favored absolutism, but neither tried to rule without Parliament. Their policy was to influence Parliament by packing it with their supporters. The major political crisis of Charles II’s reign came between 1679-81 when a group of members of Parliament known as the Whigs attempted to exclude the kings’ brother James from succeeding the English throne. The attempt failed and James succeeded the throne when Charles II died 1685. When James II exempted Catholics from the Test Act of 1673, which excluded them from public office, the country revolted against him. James II fled and Parliament invited his Protestant daughter, Mary, and her husband, William of Orange, to become the new rulers. They were required to accept The Convention, which limited royal power and excluded Catholics from the throne. The center of power shifted from the king to the aristocracy sitting in Parliament. These events are known as the Glorious Revolution, which was justified by John Locke in his Two Treatises of Government. Locke argued that man left the state of nature and established a government to protect its property and avoid chaos. But if the king acted against the interests of the people, they could revolt against him. The English Parliament followed a pattern set by other states in improving the military and expanding the bureaucracy.

D. The Dutch Republic

The Dutch Republic remained a decentralized state. The provinces formed a loose confederation, sending deputies to the States General. The provinces also remained decentralized. Political power lay in the hands of the wealthy merchants and bankers.
Like other countries, Holland accumulated a large standing army.

The Dutch Republic played an important role in international trade, serving as the middleman between Europe and the world and among European nations. The Dutch East India Company established trading posts in Asia and the Americas. The Exchange Bank of Amsterdam facilitated international trade transactions by having a monopoly of exchange in foreign currencies.

One of the more unusual features of the Dutch bourgeoisie was its willingness to allow a large degree of toleration to different religious groups. One of the most important contributions of the Dutch to European culture was in the arts. Dutch artists of the seventeenth century turned to producing realistic portraits of merchants and financiers. Among its most famous painters were Rembrandt van Rijn (1606-1669), Franz Hals (ca. 1580-1666), and Jan Steen (1626-1679). In the early eighteenth century the Dutch Republic lost its economic superiority to the French and English.

V. Conclusion: The Western State in the Age of Absolutism

Three significant political developments redefined the West: the dramatic and unprecedented centralization of the state; the introduction of absolutism into the West; and the expansion, regulation, and professionalization of state armies.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

- Defenestration of Prague
- Edict of Nantes revoked
- Execution of Charles I
- Glorious Revolution in England
- Peace of Westphalia
- Treaty of Utrecht


TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

- The Fronde
- James I of England
- Protector of England
- Miguel de Cervantes
- Count-Duke Olivares
- William Laud
- Treaty of Ryswick
- Petition of Right
- Cardinal Mazarin
- Long Parliament
- Oliver Cromwell
- Personal rule
- Intendants
- Absolutism
- Glorious Revolution
- Thomas Hobbes
- Treaty of Westphalia
- John Locke
- Leviathan
- Louis XIV of France
- Cardinal Richelieu
- Parlements
- Parliament
- Baroque
- Jean Baptiste Colbert
- Mercantilism
- War of Spanish Succession
- Treaty of Utrecht
- Junker
- Defenestration of Prague
- Versailles
- Prerogative
- Peter the Great
- The Convention
- Rembrandt van Rijn
- Balance of power
- Hugo Grotius
- Diego de Velázquez
- Rump Parliament
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

Locate the following places on the map.

Amsterdam
Paris
Berlin
Madrid
Brandenburg
Hungary
Bohemia
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What was the “divine right of kings”? To what extent was it used by European monarchs?

2. How did warfare affect development of the absolutist state?

3. What was the theory of royal absolutism? How did it work in practice?

4. What were the origins of the royal crises of the seventeenth century? What theories were elaborated that permitted resistance to the monarchy?

5. What factors account for the rebellions in England? What was their result? How did Locke’s political theory justify them?

6. How did Louis XIV complete the creation of absolute government? How successful was it? How did other states attempt to copy it?

7. How did eastern European rulers acquire the support of their nobles to establish absolutism in their states?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. What reasons did Louis XIV give for revoking the Edict of Nantes? What steps did he take to enforce religious conformity of the former Huguenots?

2. Based on Grimmelshausen’s account, how did the troops behave when they attacked a region?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. Compare and contrast absolutism in France and Spain in the seventeenth century. How did monarchs centralize their power? What resistance did they encounter? What economic policies did they pursue? How did the arts convey the values of the period? Which monarchy fared better during the period?

2. Discuss the reign of Peter the Great in Russia. In what ways did he try to Westernize Russia? How did he increase the power of the tsar? Why did he fight wars with the Turks and Swedes? How did St. Petersburg symbolize his reign?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which did not result from the wars of the seventeenth century?
   A. The nobility financed the royal armies.
   B. Royal armies increased in size.
   C. Armies were used to secure domestic stability.
   D. Soldiers were kept under arms year round.

2. The greatest Spanish painter of the seventeenth century was
   A. Diego de Velázquez.
   B. Peter Paul Rubens.
   C. Ben Jonson.
   D. Anthony Van Dyck

3. The author of *Leviathan* was
   A. John Locke.
   B. Miguel de Cervantes.
   C. Thomas Hobbes.
   D. Hugo Grotius.

3. Absolutism meant that the king
   A. was supreme legislator.
   B. could seize his subjects’ property at will.
   C. must consult the Diet frequently.
   D. was a despot.

5. Louis the XIV did all of the following to promote absolutism in France *except*
   A. deprive the nobles of their role in government.
   B. call the Estates General.
   C. revoke the Edict of Nantes.
   D. appoint professional bureaucrats.

6. The aristocratic rebellion in France against the regency government of Cardinal Mazarin was called the
   A. Fronde.
   B. Catalan rebellion.
   C. Sicilian Vespers.
   D. Jacquerie.
7. Which of the following did NOT result from England’s Glorious Revolution?
   A. Parliament became more powerful than the king.
   B. Religious toleration became the rule.
   C. Royal power over taxation was curtailed.
   D. Absolute monarchy became constitutional monarchy.

8. Which of the following states did not develop royal absolutism?
   A. Dutch Republic
   B. Prussia
   C. France
   D. Russia

9. Prussian monarchs secured the acceptance of absolutism by their nobles by
   A. calling more frequent national Diets.
   B. cutting taxes.
   C. granting them power over the peasants on their estates.
   D. militarily crushing the nobles.

10. The institution that facilitated international commerce by holding a monopoly of foreign exchange was
    A. the States General.
    B. the Grand pensionary.
    C. the Stadholder.
    D. the Exchange Bank of Amsterdam.
CHAPTER 16

*The Scientific Revolution*

CHAPTER OUTLINE

In 1609 the Italian mathematician Galileo Galilei invented the telescope. With the telescope, Galileo discovered the mountains on the moon, the spots on the sun, and four moons of Jupiter. His discoveries provided the evidence to support the theory that the earth and other planets revolved around the sun. Galileo formed part of the basis for developments historians call the *Scientific Revolution*. It caused controversies in religion, philosophy, and politics, and ended up changing the way Europeans viewed nature.

I. The Discoveries and Achievements of the Scientific Revolution

The Scientific Revolution began in the middle decades of the sixteenth century and continued through the early part of the eighteenth century. It involved gradual developments in astronomy, physics, chemistry, and biology.

A. Astronomy: A New Model of the Universe

The major change in astronomy was that people accepted that the sun rather than the earth was the center of the universe. Until the sixteenth century, Europeans followed the cosmology theory of the Greek astronomer Ptolemy. He believed that the earth was the center of the universe and the sun, the moon, and the other planets revolved around the earth. This theory could by verified by human observation, but it failed to explain the path of the planets. The first challenge to Ptolemy’s cosmology came from Nicolaus Copernicus (1473-1543), who proposed that the sun was the center of the universe. His work was too complicated to gain much acceptance. In the late sixteenth century, the Dutch astronomer Tycho Brahe (1546-1601) agreed that the planets revolved around the sun, but said that the sun revolved around the earth. In the early seventeenth century, Johannes Kepler (1571-1630) used Brahe’s data to confirm that the sun was the center of the universe and the earth and other planets revolved around it. Galileo Galilei used his skills as a writer to popularize the idea of the sun-centered universe. Galileo was eventually tried by the Church court, the Inquisition, for challenging the Bible and was forced to abandon the Copernican model of the universe.

B. Physics: The Laws of Motion and Gravitation

Galileo’s most important scientific contributions were in the field of physics. He formulated the laws governing the motion of material objects. Galileo proposed the theory of inertia, according to which an object moves or rests until something outside of it changes its motion. The most important achievements in physics were those of Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727). Building on the work of Galileo, Hooke, and others, he
explained theories of motion and inertia with the force of gravity. Newton also described the composition of light.

C. Chemistry: The Discovery of Elements of Nature

Until the seventeenth century, chemistry was tainted by its connection to alchemy. The Swiss physician Paracelsus (1493-1541) rejected the ancient theory that disease was caused by an imbalance of the four humors (blood, phlegm, black bile, and yellow bile). He began using chemicals to treat patients for diseases. The Englishman Robert Boyle made chemistry respectable by his discovery that the arrangement of atoms determines the characteristics of matter.

D. Biology: The Circulation of the Blood

William Harvey also challenged the philosophies of Galen by accurately demonstrating how blood circulates through the human body.

II. The Search for Scientific Knowledge

Scientists in the sixteenth century began to engage in extensive observation, experimentation, and deductive reasoning to solve scientific problems.

A. Observation and Experimentation

Scientists in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries stopped relying on ancient theories and preconceived notions. Instead, they began using a process of induction, whereby only after extensive observation and experimentation did they publish their theories.

B. Deductive Reasoning

Another feature of sixteenth- and seventeenth-century research was the use of rational deduction. This idea was promoted by René Descartes (1596-1650), who argued that the best way to solve problems was to establish fundamental principles and then deduce more specific ideas.

C. Mathematics and Nature

A third method of scientific research was the application of mathematics to help explain the physical world. Newton explained his theories in mathematical formulas.

D. The Mechanical Philosophy

Much seventeenth-century research assumed that the natural world worked like a machine. The human body was understood as being dualistic; according to Descartes, the body was a machine, but the mind was an immaterial substance. The understanding of nature was called mechanical philosophy and it challenged the earlier view of the Neoplatonists, who viewed the natural world as having a soul.
III. The Causes of the Scientific Revolution

A series of intellectual development dating back to the Middle Ages helped bring about the Scientific Revolution.

A. Developments Within Science

Several causes of the Scientific Revolution came from within scientific research.

1. Late Medieval Science

The Scientific Revolution was partly caused by research on motion done by the scholastic philosophers of the fourteenth century, who began to challenge Aristotle’s theories and began to advocate empirical observation.

2. Renaissance Science

The humanist scholars rediscovered many ancient works on science that stimulated new thinking on scientific issues, including the theories of the sun-centered universe, atoms, and mechanics. Neoplatonism prompted the use of mathematics to study nature, the development of the third law of planetary motion, the discovery of the universal laws of nature, and experiments in alchemy and natural magic.

3. The Collapse of Paradigms

The developments in astronomy and biology occurred because of the collapse of old paradigms, which were proven incorrect. For example, the collapse of Ptolemy’s and Galen’s paradigms led scientists to search for new models.

B. Developments Outside Science

There were also a number of non-scientific developments that encouraged the acceptance of new scientific ideas.

1. Protestantism

Protestants were more open to new scientific ideas because of the idea that God revealed himself in both the Bible and in nature. So nature should be studied because it helped to better understand God.

2. Patronage

Universities, usually dominated by the clergy, offered little support to scientific research, which challenged the scholastic theology and Aristotelian science. Therefore, some scientists relied on funding from wealthy patrons, but these relationships were never
completely secure. The rise of new academies, many of them funded by royalty, also provided support for scholars to do their research.

3. The Printing Press

The printing press provided an easier, more accurate way to share, publicize, and preserve scientific discoveries. Experiments provided a greater impetus for the Scientific Revolution rather than books, but the printing press did enable the non-scientific community to take part in the discussions of the latest scientific discoveries and made science a major part of education.

4. Military and Economic Change

The military’s need for new technology for war and the merchants’ need for better navigational technology encouraged further research to solve scientific problems.

5. Voyages of Exploration

The voyages of discovery disproved ancient beliefs about the southern part of the globe and revealed new continents not previously known, thus challenging established authority.

IV. The Intellectual Effects of the Scientific Revolution

The Scientific Revolution had a great impact on education and religious beliefs.

A. Skepticism and Independent Reasoning

One of the most important effects of the Scientific Revolution was the rise of skepticism. Descartes reached the extreme of skepticism by doubting his own existence. Then, he realized that his own act of thinking proved his own existence. Baruch Spinoza (1632-1677) argued that truth should be based only on solid reason. He also believed that nature followed unchanging laws, which could be made understandable in mathematical terms.

B. Science and Religion

The Scientific Revolution presented several challenges to religion. Among these was the idea that the universe worked like a machine according to natural laws and without the intervention of God. This position was adopted by the deist philosophers in the eighteenth century. Another challenge was the idea that reason should determine the existence of the supernatural. The spread of the new science led to a decline in religious fanaticism.

C. Magic, Demons, and Witchcraft

The new science led to a decline in the belief in natural magic, such as alchemy and demonic magic. By the eighteenth century, the educated classes denied the existence of demons and the power of witchcraft. Balthasar Bekker (1691-1693) went so far as to deny that the devil had any power over the natural world. The skeptical views of the
educated classes were not shared by the common people for whom religion remained important. The result was a divide between learned and popular culture.

V. Humans and the Natural World

The spread of scientific culture led the educated people to reconsider their relationship with nature.

A. The Place of Human Beings in the Universe

By making humans the inhabitants of a tiny planet circling the sun, the Copernican Universe reduced the importance of humanity. It led people to begin to question the place of humanity in creation.

B. The Control of Nature

The Scientific Revolution increased the belief that humans could control nature. Some philosophers argued that by gaining knowledge of the laws of nature, humans could acquire dominion over nature. They began to believe that science and technology could improve human life. This belief in progress became an integral part of Western culture.

C. Women, Men, and Nature

The new scientific ideas challenged the ancient and medieval beliefs about the physical and mental inferiority of women by concluding that both men and women made equal contribution to reproduction. But, despite the theoretical foundation for sexual equality, traditional notions about women continued to dominate.

VI. Conclusion: Science and Western Culture

Religious and cultural traditions allowed Western intellectuals to objectively study nature, which was believed to be a product of both supernatural and non-supernatural forces. The Scientific Revolution gave the West a new identity characterized by Christianity, capitalism, centralized states, large standing armies, and distinct approaches to science. The rise of science and technology often led to Westerners identifying themselves as superior to non-Western societies and peoples. The Scientific Revolution also paved the way for the Enlightenment of the eighteenth century.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

Descartes publishes *Discourse on the Method*
Galileo introduces the telescope
Newton publishes *Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*
Copernicus publishes *On the Revolution of the Heavenly Spheres*
William Harvey demonstrates how blood circulates through the body

<table>
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<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Person/Concept</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cosmology</td>
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<td>Nicolaus Copernicus</td>
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<td>Tycho Brahe</td>
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<td>Galileo Galilei</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sir Isaac Newton</td>
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<td>Alchemy</td>
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<td>Robert Boyle</td>
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<td>William Harvey</td>
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<td>Robert Hooke</td>
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<td>Rene Descartes</td>
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<td>Christian Huygens</td>
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<td>Royal Society of England</td>
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<td>Baruch Spinoza</td>
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<td>Blaise Pascal</td>
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<td>Demonic magic</td>
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<td>Galen</td>
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<td>Bernard de Fontenelle</td>
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<td>Francis Bacon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Balthasar Bekker</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What were the major astronomical, scientific, and mathematical discoveries?
2. What methods did scientists use to investigate nature?
3. How did the Scientific Revolution influence religious ideas?
4. How did the new mechanical philosophy describe nature?
5. How did scientific research before the sixteenth century contribute to the Scientific Revolution?
6. What factor outside of science contributed to the Scientific Revolution? How?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. According to Copernicus, how did ancient writers and observation influence his theories?
2. How did Elizabeth of Bohemia expose the weakness of Descartes’ dualistic philosophy?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the Scientific Revolution influence the development of philosophical and religious thought in the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries?
2. What was the importance of the "scientific method" as utilized within research?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. The cosmology described by what ancient astronomer was overturned during the Scientific Revolution?
   
   A. Galen  
   B. Plato  
   C. Ptolemy  
   D. Thales

2. Which of the following statements concerning the astronomical discoveries of the Scientific Revolution is *not* accurate?
   
   A. Discoveries were made in virtually all parts of Europe.  
   B. William Harvey demonstrated how blood circulates through the human body.  
   C. Medieval and Renaissance scientific research made no contributions to the Scientific Revolution.  
   D. Galileo provided visual confirmation of the mathematical proofs offered by Johannes Kepler for a heliocentric universe.

3. The Swiss physician Paracelsus
   
   A. experimented with gas and air.  
   B. discovered the secret of the body’s circulatory system.  
   C. discovered the law of gravity.  
   D. rejected the idea that diseases were caused by an imbalance of the four humors.

4. Newton’s theory of gravity
   
   A. rejected the notion of dualistic philosophy.  
   B. proved that the heart pumped blood by contraction and constriction.  
   C. proved that the force that holds objects to the Earth is the same force that maintains planetary orbits.  
   D. rejected the concept of materialism.

5. Mechanical philosophy challenged the ideas of a group of philosophers inspired by Plotinus called?
   
   A. Paracelsus  
   B. Neoplatonists  
   C. Scholastics  
   D. Humanists
6. Which of the following was not a cause of the Scientific Revolution?

A. The acceptance of Deism  
B. The voyages of discovery  
C. Medieval research on motion  
D. Military and economic needs for new technology

7. According to Spinoza,

A. all truth must be proved by reason.  
B. the universe is made up of two substances, matter and spirit.  
C. the heart pumps blood into the body.  
D. the earth revolves around the sun.

8. The Deists argued that

A. the statements in the Bible about nature must be taken literally.  
B. demonic spirits could influence events and actions.  
C. diseases are caused by the imbalance of the four humors.  
D. since the universe functioned like a machine, God played very little role in it.

9. The leading advocate for the deductive reasoning method was

A. Blaise Pascal.  
B. René Descartes.  
C. Francis Bacon.  
D. Isaac Newton.

10. How did the Copernican concept of the universe affect views of humankind?

A. It made them the greatest of God’s creations.  
B. It questioned their place in creation.  
C. It gave them control over nature.  
D. It made both men and women equal.
CHAPTER 17

The West and the World: Empire, Trade, and War, 1650-1850

CHAPTER OUTLINE

Olaudah Equiano published his autobiography in 1789. In it he gave an account of his capture in Africa and transport in a slave ship to the Caribbean, where he was sold to a master. He described the brutal punishments, terror, insufferable heat and stench of the hulls, the degrading experience of purchase and branding, and the cruelty of separation of family members. The slave trade was part of the experience of empire-building by Europeans in the period from 1650-1850. The empires, commonly referred to as the metropolis, were desired as sources of raw materials and markets that would benefit the economy of the mother country.

I. European Empires in the Americas and Asia

European states of the early modern centuries became more integrated political units. They also sought to form empires, which included other territories in Europe as well as vast expanses of land in the Americas and Asia. In the Americas, Europeans with superior military technology were able to conquer peoples. In Asia, local peoples and empires possessed technology and organization similar to the Europeans’. Therefore, the Europeans limited themselves to commerce. In the seventeenth century, Great Britain, France, and the Dutch Republic partly displaced the Spanish and Portuguese as the new imperial powers.

A. The Rise of the British Empire

Britain had the fastest growing European empire of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. By 1700, it had acquired colonies in North America as well as several islands in the Caribbean and trade posts in Africa and Asia. In North America, the Indian population was quickly pushed westward or died of diseases, leaving the land available for English settlers. Several of the colonies in America were founded as places to exercise religious freedom. Other colonies were founded by those with greater economic motives. In the Caribbean and in North America, several colonies developed a highly profitable commercial economy based on slave labor. Many English people came to America as indentured servants and gained freedom later. In India, the British presence was limited to a few members of the British East India Company who had established trade posts called factories on a few Indian seaports. From these trade posts the British effectively challenged Dutch and Portuguese control of trade with Indonesia. In 1770, the British explorer Captain James Cook (1728-1779) also laid claim to the eastern coast of Australia for the British.

B. The Scattered French Empire

French expansion into India and North America paralleled that of the British. They established colonies in the Caribbean, Canada, and the Mississippi River Valley, and the
French East India Company established trade posts in India. The French colonists in the Caribbean established sugar plantations based on slave labor. A series of defeats in the eighteenth century reduced the French presence in Asia and the Americas. French imperial efforts revived in the nineteenth century with the occupation of North Africa.

C. The Commercial Empire of the Dutch

The Dutch Republic acquired an overseas empire in the early seventeenth century and became the center of a global economy with colonies and trade posts in Africa, Asia, and the Americas. They established trading posts in Asia and West Africa. The Dutch West India Company also seized northern Brazil. When they were forced out of Brazil in 1654, they acquired two small islands in the Caribbean and a part of Surinam. From there, they carried on trade with the colonies of the other empires in the Americas. They also set up a colony in the Hudson River Valley named New Netherland. In 1664 the English took New Netherland and renamed it New York. In Asia, the Dutch East India Company established trade posts in India and Indonesia that allowed them to trade throughout Asia. In the southern tip of Africa, the Dutch established a colony at the Cape of Good Hope, designed to provide support for ships on the Asia trade. Dutch farmers, called Boers, settled there and established agriculture colonies based on slave labor.

D. The Vast Spanish Empire

The Spanish controlled Mexico, Central America, several Caribbean Islands, half of South America, Florida, the area from California to Mexico, and in Asia, the Philippines. The Spanish crown held stronger control over its territories than the British did. The colonies were ruled by officials appointed by the crown. Colonial trade was funneled through the House of Trade in Seville and shipped through the Port of Cadiz. The Bourbon kings implemented reforms to increase the efficiency of the imperial bureaucracy and increase revenue collection. These Bourbon reforms created tensions with the American-born Spaniards, known as Creoles.

E. The Declining Portuguese Empire

The Portuguese had been the earliest European state to expand overseas, and they established colonies in Brazil and trade posts in Africa and Asia. In the seventeenth century, the Portuguese empire began to contract as it lost territory to other Europeans. Brazil remained the most important Portuguese colony because of the wealth from the sugar plantations. The discoveries of gold and diamonds increased its wealth. Brazil remained a major importer of slaves in the first half of the nineteenth century. The reforms implemented by the Marquis of Pombal increased the crown’s control over Brazil and encouraged the growth of colonial trade.

F. The Russian Empire in the Pacific

The Russian empire expanded in the eighteenth and early nineteenth century. It temporarily acquired parts of Poland and the Crimea during the reign of Catherine II (r. 1762-1796). The Russia-America Company was established in 1789 and built a series of trade posts along the Pacific from Alaska to Fort Ross in California.
II. Warfare in Europe, North America, and Asia

The efforts to expand overseas and the conflicts over control of trade and colonies between the European powers expanded the war theatres to distant parts of the globe. As a result, all European powers built large navies.

A. Mercantile Warfare

The theory that inspired the drive for empire was mercantilism, which was a protectionist policy based on the idea that the wealth of a state required having colonies to provide it raw materials to avoid importing them from other countries. Colonies would also serve as market for domestic industry. The major motive for war in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was expansion and protection of trade. In the seventeenth century, the English and Dutch fought several wars over Dutch access to English ports. There were wars over trade between England and Spain in the eighteenth century.

B. Anglo-French Military Rivalry

1. The Wars of Spanish and Austrian Successions, 1701-1748

A major rivalry in the eighteenth century was between Britain and France. During the War of Spanish Succession, Britain opposed the proposed succession of the Spanish crown to the French candidate. The Treaty of Utrecht allowed the Spanish crown to pass to the Bourbon Philip V but maintained the separation of the French and Spanish empires in the Americas. The treaty also granted French territory to Britain and signified its colonial and naval dominance. In the War of Austrian Succession, Britain entered the war as an ally of Austria to keep France from acquiring the Austrian Netherlands.

2. The Seven Years’ War, 1756-1763

The colonial rivalries continued as part of the Seven Years’ War. In what amounted to a “diplomatic revolution,” Bourbon France allied with Habsburg Austria against Prussia and its ally Britain. In addition to fighting in Europe, France and Britain fought each other in America, where the war was known as the French and Indian War. Britain and France sought to gain control of eastern port cities in North America and mercantile influence in Asia. At the war’s end France was forced to surrender all of Canada and the Mississippi Valley to the British as well as its trade posts in Asia.

3. The American and French Revolutionary Wars, 1775-1815

The French and the British faced each other again in the American War of Independence. The French provided aid to the American colonists seeking independence and fought the British at sea in the Caribbean and in India. Another phase of the confrontation between France and Britain took place during the French Revolutionary War, in which both sought imperial gains.
III. The Atlantic World

The empire-building of the European powers moved the center of the West from the European continent to the Atlantic Ocean.

A. The Atlantic Economy

The Atlantic economy was based on a commercial network between the ports of Europe, Africa, and the Americas that exchanged goods and slaves. The colonies in the Americas were a source of agricultural products such as tobacco and coffee. Africa was the source for slaves and Europe for manufactured goods. This Atlantic economy was part of the larger global economy, which included trade with Asia.

B. The Atlantic Slave Trade

The slave trade was key to the Atlantic economy because it provided the labor for plantations. Slaves had the advantage of being easily disciplined and were forced to work longer hours in a difficult work environment. Slavery has been present throughout world history, but the Atlantic slave trade was unique in two respects. First, in terms of size, it involved the transportation of over 11 million people from Africa to the Americas. Only 4 percent of these slaves came to the British colonies in North America. Secondly, slaves were a commercial commodity whose trade involved African chiefs, slave traders, and the planters in the Americas.

The transportation of slaves across the Atlantic was known as “the Middle Passage.” It was a horribly degrading experience for slaves. Once in the Americas, the survival of the slaves depended on the local economy, climate, and population trends. Slaves on sugar plantations died within a few years from overwork and mistreatment. In places where the ratio of black to white people was high, laws regulating slave life were very harsh.

Until the late eighteenth century, most slave traders and owners saw no moral problem between their belief in liberty and the holding of slaves. In the early nineteenth century, opposition to slavery began to grow and the transatlantic slave trade was slowly brought to an end. Slavery was abolished in the Western Hemisphere in the course of the second half of the nineteenth century.

C. Cultural Encounters in the Atlantic World

The presence of many people from different parts of Africa and Europe in the Americas and their interaction with each other and with the native population of the Americas produced very complex societies and cultures, particularly in Latin America. The dominant position of the European element in the societies of the Americas fostered notions of white racial superiority.

D. The Transmission of Ideas

The Atlantic Ocean became a path for the transmission of many different political and religious ideas. European political ideas of liberty, the rights of man, and republican
government as the best form of government became part of the political beliefs of the colonists in the Americas. Religious ideas from Calvinist and Catholic theologies also became part of the colonial world. These theologies, when combined with African religious beliefs, produced new religious ideas and beliefs.

IV. Encounters Between Europeans and Asians

Between 1650 and 1850 European empires in Asia developed along a pattern very different from that of the empires in the Americas. At first, the Europeans did not attempt to conquer territory and rule Asian peoples. When eventually Europeans did attempt conquest, they discovered that conquering Asian peoples was far more difficult than expected.

A. Political Control of India

The Europeans’ first attempts to take over India came in the late eighteenth century. The Europeans had established trade posts in India and competed with each other to build alliances with the provincial governors (nawabs).

1. Military Conflict and Territorial Acquisitions, 1756-1856

In 1756 a conflict erupted in Calcutta because the local nawab was determined not to be dominated by any European’s power. He attacked the British East India Company’s Fort William and forced the company’s high officials to flee while most of those Englishmen taken prisoners died in prison. The following year the British retook Calcutta with a force of British troops and Indian sepoys. Within a few years, the British dominated South Asia and began introducing Western technology, culture, education, and legal systems.

2. The Sepoy Mutiny, 1857-1858

In 1857 resentment over British dominance fueled a large rebellion against British rule. After its defeat, the British government abolished the British East India Company and began to rule India directly.

B. Changing European Attitudes toward Asian Cultures

Europeans had historically displayed a negative view of Middle Eastern culture but generally looked favorably upon Asian culture, particularly during the mid-eighteenth century. Enlightenment writers praised Asian culture in contrast to the negative elements in Western culture. For example, Voltaire saw the Chinese empire as an enlightened monarchy. Asian arts were also praised by Europeans, who prized Chinese porcelain and silks and began to incorporate Chinese motifs called *chinoiserie* into decorating. By the end of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, this positive attitude disappeared as the European presence extended into Asia. Chinese philosophy and religion came to be viewed as irrational. Europeans also began to see themselves as racially superior and to refer to the Chinese as *yellow*.
V. The Crisis of Empire and the Atlantic Revolutions

Between 1780 and 1825 European empires in the Atlantic World experienced a crisis over their ability to maintain the loyalty of their colonists. The Europeans born in the Americas developed their own identity and pushed for independence.

A. The American Revolution, 1775-1783

The first Atlantic Revolution took place in the 13 British colonies in North America. These colonies had developed their own political institutions and enjoyed a large measure of self-government. When the French and Indian War ended, the British government had to station troops on the frontier to maintain the peace and expected the colonists to pay a share of their defense. The government attempted to collect revenue by passing a series of taxation legislation, which led to colonial opposition. Tensions mounted over the years. Finally, on July 4, 1776, the American colonists declared independence. To justify their actions, the colonists drew on the ideas of John Locke and other ancient and Enlightenment writers. After several years of war, the British accepted American independence in the Treaty of Paris in 1783.

B. The Haitian Revolution, 1789-1804

The second successful Atlantic Revolution was in the French colony of Saint Domingue, now known as Haiti. The planters, or colons, of Haiti had little desire for independence, as they feared that a revolution would undermine their control of the slave population. In 1789 the free coloreds revolted under the leadership of Vincent Ogé because the planters refused to allow them representation in the local assemblies. In 1791, the revolt turned into a massive slave rebellion led by Toussaint L’Ouverture, which destroyed the white population. Attempts to subdue Haiti by the British, Spanish, and French failed. In 1804 France recognized the independence of Haiti. The Haitian Revolution proved to be the most radical and egalitarian of the Atlantic Revolutions, with people of color running the government, the abolishment of slavery, the proclamation of racial equality, and the dissolution of the plantation system. After independence, disagreements among the Haitians resulted in years of civil war.

C. The Irish Rebellion, 1798-1799

The British had conquered Ireland in the seventeenth century and settled English Anglicans and Scottish Presbyterians there. British exploitation of Ireland served to build some common interest between Catholic and Protestant residents of Ireland. In 1798 they rebelled against the British. The British put down the rebellion and abolished the political institutions of Ireland, fully uniting Ireland with the United Kingdom.

D. National Revolutions in Spanish America, 1810-1824

Another set of revolutions took place in Spanish America in reaction to the strong political and economic control imposed by the Bourbon reforms. Although Spanish Americans had developed an identity as Americans, they were reluctant to move toward
independence because they feared the threat of a rebellion by the non-Spanish populations they dominated. Napoleon’s invasion of Spain required the colonists to reorganize political order in the colonies. When the Spanish monarchy was restored in 1814, the colonists quickly began to demand autonomy. When the crown refused, they revolted. One of the key figures leading the push to independence in South America was Símon Bolívar. Between 1815 and 1825 most of the Spanish colonies in the Americas gained independence. Spain only retained control of Cuba and Puerto Rico.

VI. Conclusion

Geographic expansion, control of trade, and exploitation of natural resources resulted in western European domination of the world economy. This economic power fostered political control over acquired territories. Some conquered areas culturally became a part of the West, while other areas resisted Western influence and power. Economic and political dominance encouraged western Europeans to view themselves as superior to other peoples of the world.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1652</td>
<td>James Cook explores east coast of Australia</td>
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<tr>
<td>1657</td>
<td>Russia-America Company Established</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1757</td>
<td>Slave revolt in Haiti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1763</td>
<td>Dutch settle Cape of Good Hope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1770</td>
<td>End of Seven Years’ War</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1789</td>
<td>Robert Clive retakes Calcutta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1791</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

- Toussaint L’Ouverture
- Metropolis
- States
- Empires
- Factories
- James Cook
- French East India Company
- Boers
- Creoles
- Charles III
- Russia-America Company
- United Irishmen
- Protectionism
- First Anglo-Dutch War
- Seven Years’ War
- Middle Passage
- Nawabs
- Simon Bolivar
- Sepoys
- Siraj-ud-Daulah
- John Nash
- Chinoiserie
- Colons
- Vicent Ogé
- Nabobs
- Mercantilism
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

Insert the world map.

Cape of Good Hope       Haiti
Calcutta                Portugal
Mexico                  Alaska
Indonesia               Pondicherry
Australia               Angola
Ireland                 Madras
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. Who were the major empires in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? Which empires declined in this period?

2. What role did the slave trade play in the Atlantic Economy? What was it like for the slaves crossing the Atlantic?

3. How did Europeans’ views of Asians change from the mid-eighteenth century to the early nineteenth century?

4. What were the major causes of the revolts in Saint Domingue? Were these different from those of the Independence movement in the English and Spanish colonies?

5. Why were the colons of Saint Domingue and the Creoles of Spanish America reluctant to push for independence?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. According to Quobna Ottobah Cugoano, what was the impact of the slave trade on Africa?

2. Why did John Robinson believe that the Indian provinces should remain under the management of the British East India Company?

3. How did Thomas Paine view the role of Britain in the colonies?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the composition and organization of European empires change during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? What impact did this have on the development of the West?

2. How did cultural encounters between European and Asian peoples during this period change Western attitudes toward others?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. The earliest European empires in the Western Hemisphere were established by the
   a. Germans and Polish.
   b. Portuguese and Spanish.
   c. Dutch and Russians.
   d. English and French.

2. Which of the following was a French factory in India?
   a. Pondicherry
   b. Madras
   c. Calcutta
   d. Bombay

3. The Dutch established a colony in North America called
   a. Jamaica.
   b. Guiana.
   c. San Domingo.
   d. New Netherland.

4. Which monarch brought Spanish America under more direct control of Spain?
   a. Charles III
   b. Philip II
   c. Charles II
   d. Frederick II

5. The most important Portuguese colony in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was
   a. Australia.
   b. India.
   c. Brazil.
   d. the Philippine Islands.

6. The English fought mercantile wars against all of the following European empires EXCEPT
   a. French.
   b. Dutch.
   c. Spanish.
   d. Portuguese.
7. All the following were important commodities of the Atlantic Economy EXCEPT
   a. tobacco.
   b. coffee.
   c. slaves.
   d. pepper.

8. What percentage of the slaves imported to the Americas went to the English colonies in North America?
   a. 4 percent
   b. 30 percent
   c. 38 percent
   d. 75 percent

9. In 1757, which European power fought against Muslim forces in Calcutta?
   a. France
   b. Dutch Republic
   c. Britain
   d. Spain

10. The Haitian free coloreds revolted in 1791 because of the
    a. passage of British parliamentary statutes.
    b. the French reintroduction of slavery.
    c. refusal of the Creoles to grant them representation in the assemblies.
    d. fall of the Spanish monarchy.
CHAPTER 18

Eighteenth-Century Society and Culture

CHAPTER OUTLINE

The aristocracies controlled most of the wealth, state office, Parliament, and judiciary in the countries of Europe in the eighteenth century. They also set the standards of cultural life. Their power came under attack in the eighteenth century by the middle ranks of society demanding political reform and by the intellectuals’ philosophical movement known as the Enlightenment.

I. The Aristocracy

In the eighteenth century the aristocracy included the wealthiest and most powerful people in society. The aristocracy was made up of the nobility and the lower nobility, or gentry. The nobility held hereditary titles and privileges and usually represented no more than 4 percent of the population. The gentry, although it had status, it was much less powerful than the nobility. The aristocracy was not completely closed to outsiders. Commoners with great wealth and land could sometimes gain entrance.

A. The Wealth of the Aristocracy

As the wealthiest social group in European society, the aristocracy lived in luxury and showed off wealth as a sign of social status. Most of their income came from land. Aristocrats owned at least one third of the land. In the eighteenth century their wealth continued to increase. In western Europe their wealth increased through investment in new economic enterprises such as mining, and in eastern Europe through increased numbers of serfs.

B. The Political Power of the Aristocracy

In the mid-eighteenth century the aristocracy was at the height of its power. In England it had taken power in the Glorious Revolution of 1688. In Poland and Hungary it dominated the provincial assemblies. Even in the absolutist monarchies, the aristocracy controlled the provincial assemblies, many offices of the bureaucracy, and the judiciary.

C. The Cultural World of the Aristocracy

The lifestyle of the aristocracy emphasized learning and appreciation of the fine arts. Their homes were built in the neoclassical style and housed large art collections. The aristocracy was also made up of patrons for musicians and artists. Composers such as Franz Joseph Haydn (1732-1809) and Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756-1791) worked primarily for aristocratic audiences.
II. Challenges to Aristocratic Dominance

Beginning in the mid-eighteenth century, the aristocracy’s values and lifestyle came increasingly under attack.

A. Encounters with the Rural Peasantry

One of the groups challenging the aristocracy was the peasants and serfs. The serfs of eastern Europe suffered under oppressive burdens, endured increased taxation, and lacked personal freedom. In western Europe serfdom had given way to tenant farming, but the peasants were also coming under great pressure because of increased taxation and the elimination of common pasture rights. In western Europe, peasants’ resistance appeared in the form of lawsuits against their seigneurs, or landlords, and on occasion in the form of rural violence. In eastern Europe, the decaying economic conditions of the peasants led to large-scale revolts, such as the Pugachev Rebellion in Russia, in which serfs sought to regain lost privileges but did not seek a social revolution.

B. The Social Position of the Bourgeoisie

Another source of challenge to the aristocracy came from the bourgeoisie. The bourgeoisie was made up of the prosperous merchants and professionals of the cities. The bourgeoisie had acquired its own social and cultural identity; it was literate and politically active. In cities and towns, it became the main critic of the aristocracy.

C. The Bourgeoisie Critique of the Aristocracy

The bourgeoisie critique of the aristocracy was centered on three elements: first, the aristocracy’s luxury and idleness; second, sexual immorality and promiscuity; and third, a decadent internationalist culture at the expense of wholesome patriotic values. The bourgeoisie critique received much support from the intellectuals who were part of the movement called the Enlightenment.

III. The Enlightenment

According to the German philosopher Immanuel Kant (1724-1804), the Enlightenment represented intellectual maturity achieved solely through reason and not from the influence of superstition. It had roots in the Scientific Revolution of the seventeenth century and was influenced by the ideas of Sir Isaac Newton and John Locke. The Enlightenment thinkers, philosophes, considered themselves members of an international community of ideas known as the Republic of Letters.

A. Themes of Enlightenment Thought

The philosophes differed in their individual ideas, but several general themes characterize the Enlightenment movement.
1. Reason and the Laws of Nature

First, they had unlimited confidence in human reason. Second, they believed that the universe was governed by natural laws which human reason could discover. Third, they believed that society and human beings were also governed by natural laws. Fourth, they argued for the application of natural law to society. David Hume (1711-1776) proposed a science of the human mind in his *Treatise of Human Nature* (1739-40) and Adam Smith (1723-1790) proposed a set of natural laws of economics.

2. Religion and Morality

The spread of scientific knowledge gave the philosophes a new understanding of the relationship between God and humankind. Most believed that God was the creator and author of natural law, but that he did not intervene in the day-to-day operation of the universe or humanity. This was known as deism. The Enlightenment thinkers disliked superstition and Christianity, and they denied that there was one true religion. They believed that morality did not need to be based on scripture. Rather, humans could use reason to discover what was natural and live accordingly.

3. Progress and Reform

The philosophes were firm believers in progress. Through the use of reason, the political and social order could be reformed to produce more efficient institutions and a better society. Cesare Beccaria called for legal reforms that would use criminal punishment to rehabilitate the individual.

B. Voltaire and the Spirit of the Enlightenment

The most representative of the ideas of the Enlightenment was Francois Marie Arouet (1694-1778) (better known as Voltaire). He attacked religion as irrational and barbaric. He attacked the aristocracy and the government for injustice.

C. Enlightenment Political Theory

Enlightenment thinkers were best known for their political theories and calls for reform of the state. They believed that politics has its own set of natural laws. They rejected the divine right of kings and the incorporation of the Church into state government. Beyond these basic principles, Enlightenment thinkers rarely converged on a shared political ideology. The political theories of Montesquieu, Rousseau, and Paine illustrate this diversity.

1. Baron de Montesquieu: The Separation of Powers

Baron Charles-Louis de Secondat, Baron de Montesquieu (1689-1755) satirized the ways of European governments. In *The Spirit of Laws*, Montesquieu proposed a separation of power as the best constitutional structure.
2. Jean-Jacques Rousseau: The General Will

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) rejected civilization and customs as slavery that corrupted humanity. He disliked aristocracy and monarchy and instead called for sovereignty of the people. He believed that laws should be determined by the General Will, by which he meant not the will of the majority but the consensus of what was in the best interest of the community.

3. Thomas Paine: The Rights of Man

Thomas Paine (1737-1809) advocated for human freedom and equality, arguing in his *The Rights of Man* that people possess natural rights that could never be taken away.

D. Women and the Enlightenment

The Enlightenment thinkers spoke of human beings as being equal, but did not believe that natural law made men and women equal. They believed that men and women belonged to separate spheres. Women belonged in the domestic sphere and were denied civil rights. Only in the 1790s did Enlightenment writers such as the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794), Marie Olympe Aubrey de Gouges (1748-1793), and Mary Wollstonecraft (1759-1797) begin to call for equality of men and women.

E. The Enlightenment and Sexuality

One theme of the enlightenment was the call for greater sexual permissiveness, and this remarkably occurred among all social groups. Many philosophes lived openly with women out of wedlock. Giacomo Casanova (1725-1798) gained fame for seducing thousands of women, while Alphonse Donatien François, Marquis de Sade (1740-1814) became infamous for violent sexual encounters. Pornographic art and erotic literature enjoyed popular success.

IV. The Impact of the Enlightenment

The ideas of the Enlightenment spread among the educated classes of Europe and the Americas.

A. The Spread of the Enlightenment Ideas

The ideas of the Enlightenment spread quickly because printing technology allowed for printing of pamphlets and newspapers in large quantities. The major publication of Enlightenment ideas was the *Encyclopedia*, edited by Denis Diderot and Jean le Rond d’Alembert. Its 17 volumes were filled with articles that advanced the ideas of the Enlightenment. Enlightenment ideas were also spread by library societies and book clubs, which appeared in the major cities and promoted discussion of the latest publications. Another group that advocated the ideas of the Enlightenment was the freemasons. The freemasons called for the creation of a society based on reason and virtue.
B. The Limits of the Enlightenment

There was a limited appeal for the Enlightenment. Most Enlightenment publications did not sell well. People preferred to buy religious books and novels. The illiterate masses remained untouched by the Enlightenment. Popular culture continued to believe in a world dominated by the supernatural.

C. Enlightened Absolutism

Rulers were generally suspicious of the Enlightenment, though a few eastern European rulers did enact reforms based on Enlightenment ideas. These rulers were known as Enlightened despots. The ruler of Prussia, Frederick II “the Great,” introduced religious toleration, codified Prussian law, abolished judicial torture, and introduced compulsory education. In Austria, Empress Maria Theresa enacted a new code of criminal law that abolished judicial torture. Her successor, Joseph II, abolished capital punishment and granted religious toleration. Catherine II “the Great” of Russia implemented some educational and judicial reforms but rejected the abolition of serfdom.

D. The Enlightenment and Revolution

Enlightenment ideas also inspired the reform and revolutionary movements that appeared in Europe and the Americas in the late eighteenth century. The Enlightenment inspired parliamentary reform and expansion of voting rights in Britain. In France many of the leaders of the French Revolution were also influenced by the Enlightenment, especially its attacks on the Old Regime. In the Americas, advocates of independence such as Thomas Jefferson and Simon Bolivar were also influenced by Enlightenment ideas.

V. Conclusion: Enlightenment and Western Identity

Enlightenment ideas influenced Western values, legal tradition, and politics, but have never been fully accepted because of their attack on religion and social order.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

Voltaire’s *Philosophical Letters*  Rousseau’s *The Social Contract*
Montesquieu’s *Spirit of the Laws*  Kant’s *Critique of Pure Reason*
De Gouges’s *On the Rights of Women*  Smith’s *Wealth of Nations*

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<th>Year</th>
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TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>Gentry</td>
<td>Class</td>
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<td>Szlachta</td>
<td>Jean-Jacques Rousseau</td>
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<tr>
<td>Philosophes</td>
<td>Encyclopedia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adam Smith</td>
<td>Cesare Beccaria</td>
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<td>Voltaire</td>
<td>David Hume</td>
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<td>Deism</td>
<td>Neoclassicism</td>
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<td>Progress</td>
<td>Bourgeoisie</td>
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<td>Emelian Pugachev</td>
<td>Catherine II, the Great</td>
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<td>Marquis de Condorcet</td>
<td>Thomas Paine</td>
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<td>Giacomo Casanova</td>
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<td>Aristocracy</td>
<td>Frederick II, the Great</td>
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<td>Separate spheres</td>
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<td>Frans Anton Mesmer</td>
<td>Marquis de Sade</td>
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<td>Immanuel Kant</td>
<td>Montesquieu</td>
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<td>Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart</td>
<td>Seigneurs</td>
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<td>Republic of Letters</td>
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MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

1. Locate the country in which each of the following philosophers worked.

   Diderot  Voltaire  Hume
   Beccaria  Kant  Smith

2. In which countries did monarchs attempt to impose reforms based on the Enlightenment?
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What were the contributions of Voltaire, Hume, and Montesquieu? How did these men reflect the general worldview of the Enlightenment?

2. Why did the thinkers of the Enlightenment believe in progress?

3. What impact did the Enlightenment have on European governments?

4. Define, insofar as possible, the European nobility. In what ways did they differ from country to country?

5. Who were the bourgeoisie? Who was a member in this social class?

6. What was the nature of aristocratic culture?

7. What was the difference between Enlightenment culture and popular mass culture?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. What evidence did Daniel Defoe present for social mobility in eighteenth-century England?

2. According to Rousseau, how does the establishment of the civil state compensate for the loss of natural liberty?

3. What does Montesquieu say about the behavior of aristocratic women in Europe?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the ideas of the Enlightenment spread throughout the West?

2. What were the bases of the aristocracy's political power? How did it perpetuate itself in this period?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which of the following statements concerning the European aristocracy is not true?
   a. Ordinary men and women could join its ranks.
   b. All who were noble were wealthy.
   c. The aristocracy consisted of a minority of the population.
   d. The aristocracy played a role in the cultural life.

2. The collection that attempted to summarize all acquired knowledge was
   b. The Social Contract.
   c. An Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding.
   d. Encyclopedia.

3. In government, Montesquieu advocated
   a. enlightened despotism.
   b. separation of powers.
   c. pure democracy.
   d. atheism.

4. The architectural style preferred by the eighteenth-century aristocracy was
   a. renaissance.
   b. baroque.
   c. neoclassical.
   d. modernist.

5. In the eighteenth century, the European bourgeoisie
   a. was shrinking in size and economic importance.
   b. was made up of merchants, financiers, and other professionals.
   c. often lived in the countryside.
   d. played no political role.

6. Which of the following Enlightenment philosophes argued that criminal punishments should be used to rehabilitate the criminal?
   a. Voltaire
   b. Cesare Beccaria
   c. Denis Diderot
   d. Adam Smith
7. Giacomo Casanova became famous for
   a. writing the *Philosophical Dictionary*.
   b. seducing thousands of women.
   c. his beliefs in natural rights.
   d. Enlightenment reforms in Russia.

8. All the following are true of Jean-Jacques Rousseau EXCEPT
   a. he believed laws should be determined by the will of the majority.
   b. he had a negative view of civilization.
   c. he believed man was uncorrupted in the state of nature.
   d. he distrusted human reason.

9. Which of the following countries attempted to implement Enlightenment-inspired reforms?
   a. Spain and Portugal
   b. France and England
   c. Prussia and Austria
   d. Italy and Germany

10. Which of the following statements concerning the European masses is true?
    a. The European masses were almost entirely illiterate and untouched by Enlightenment ideas.
    b. The masses rejected superstition and belief in magic.
    c. The masses experienced a period of increasing prosperity and rejected violence.
    d. The European masses fully accepted the ideas of the Enlightenment.
CHAPTER 19

The Age of the French Revolution, 1789-1815

CHAPTER OUTLINE

On July 12, 1789, the French journalist named Camille Desmoulins incited the people of Paris to invade the arsenals and arm themselves in fear that King Louis XVI was about to attack the city. Two days later, on July 14, the people of Paris attacked the fortress of the Bastille and murdered its governor and defenders, as well as the city’s magistrates. This violent event was the beginning of fundamental political changes in France and Europe that are known as the French Revolution.

I. The First French Revolution, 1789-1791

The first phase of the French Revolution from 1789-1791 brought about the destruction of royal absolutism. The second phase from 1792-1795 destroyed the monarchy and created the French Republic. The French Revolution had several causes. First was Enlightenment thinkers’ relentless attacks on the government, which undermined its prestige and led to demands for change. The second involved the conflicts between the crown and the nobility over constitutional issues. The third was the conflict between the nobility and the peasants, which fueled demands for restrictions on the privileges of the nobility. The immediate cause was the bankruptcy of the French government, which forced change.

A. The Beginning of the Revolution

In the 1780s, the French government of King Louis XVI could no longer pay the enormous debts France had acquired in the wars it fought with England in the course of the eighteenth century. In 1787, the king called an Assembly of Notables to support a tax on land to be paid by all landowners. Nobles refused to give their support and instead advised the king to call the Estates General, which had not met since 1614. The king refused and attempted to gain support for the new taxes from the parlements, or regional courts. The parlements refused. The worsening financial situation forced the king to call the Estates General. The Estates General consisted of three chambers representing the three social groups, or estates, in French Society: the nobility, the clergy, and the commoners, or Third Estate.

In the months before the Estates General convened, a debate raged about how the Estates General should vote. If they voted by estate, the noble-dominated First and Second Estates would block any action of the chamber of the Third Estate. If they voted by head, the more numerously represented Third Estate would dominate. The question remained unresolved when the Estates General convened on May 5, 1789. When the king said he would support the nobility and clergy, the Third Estate declared itself the National Assembly and asked the other two to join them on the basis of “one man, one vote.” When shortly afterwards the Third Estate was locked out of its meeting hall, the members
moved to an indoor tennis court and took an oath not to disband until a constitution was written. When more nobles and clergymen joined the Third Estate, the king was forced to accept the new situation.

As the summer progressed, the social crisis deepened because of increases in the price of bread. In June, King Louis XVI began massing troops near Paris, and it was feared that the king would move against the National Assembly. The people of Paris responded by forming a National Guard and attacking the Bastille. In the meantime, a crisis known as the “Great Fear” spread through the countryside, as peasants began attacking the homes of their noble landlords and burning the records.

B. The Creation of a New Political Order

In the period between August 1789 and September 1790, the National Assembly reorganized French society. It abolished the privileges of the nobles and clergy, the legal jurisdiction of noblemen, feudal dues, game laws, and the privileges of provinces and towns. In its place, France was now composed of equal citizens. On August 26, 1789, the National Assembly issued the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen. The Declaration was influenced by the Enlightenment and proclaimed the rights to liberty and property, equality before the law, freedom from oppression, and religious toleration to be natural rights. The Assembly also reorganized the church by issuing the Civil Constitution of the Clergy, which made the church a state department, made the clergy swear an oath of loyalty to the nation, and ordered that bishops be elected by laymen. The property of the church was seized. In 1791, the Assembly issued a new constitution, which made France a constitutional monarchy. It also declared all citizens equal before the law, abolished titles of nobility, and made marriage a civil contract.

C. Responses to the First French Revolution

In the countryside, people in villages and towns rose and overthrew the local leaders and replaced them with supporters of the revolution. Considerable opposition also appeared. The clergy refused to take an oath of allegiance to the nation, nobles organized opposition to the new regime, and conflicts erupted between Catholics and Protestants. Rulers in other countries began to worry about the impact of French developments in their countries and took actions to curb dissent.

II. The French Republic, 1792-99

After 1792, France experienced another revolution that replaced the monarchy with a republic.

A. The Establishment of the Republic, 1792

In the first years of the revolution, it appeared that the new French government would be a constitutional monarchy, as support for a republic came only from the radical Jacobins who drew their support from Parisian lower classes called the sans-culottes. King Louis XVI was partly responsible for undermining the monarchy. He never accepted the changes brought by the revolution. In June of 1791 he lost all credibility when he attempted to flee the country. The final blow to the monarchy came from the pressure of
war, as other monarchs became increasingly distressed by French events. Prussia and Austria tried to organize a European alliance to restore the French monarchy. In an attempt to prevent an invasion and to maintain the revolution, the French Legislative Assembly responded by declaring war on Austria. The war went badly for France and produced a mood of fear that enemies within were undermining the revolution. On August 10, 1791, the radical republicans overthrew the Paris city government and set up a new commune. The Legislative Assembly suspended the monarchy and ordered an elected convention to write a new constitution. Military defeats produced hysteria that led a Paris mob to attack prisons and kill 1,200 prisoners, whom they feared would give support to the invaders. A French victory at Valmy on September 20, 1792, saved the revolution. The new National Convention, elected by universal male suffrage, abolished the monarchy and began writing a new constitution.

B. The Jacobins and the Revolution

Several factions were struggling for power in France. After the declaration of the Republic and the election of the National Convention, the main factions were the moderate Girondins and the radical Montagnards, or “the Mountain.” The Mountain, led by people like Maximilien Robespierre (1758-1794), pushed for the centralization of power in Paris, while the Girondins favored federalism. In January 1793, the Convention put the king on trial, convicted him of treason, and he was executed by using the guillotine. The factional splits worsened with new defeats on the battlefield. Robespierre saw internal rebellions as a Girondin plot. The convention ordered a levée en masse, or conscription of troops, of the entire population, which caused federalist revolts within the country.

C. The Reign of Terror

In order to deal with the internal enemies, the convention entrusted executive power to a Committee of Public Safety led by Robespierre and established special courts to prosecute enemies. They implemented a terror campaign to crush opposition. Between October 1793 and June 1794, over 17,000 persons were executed and another 20,000 were imprisoned or killed without trial. Many of the victims were nobles and priests as well as people from the outlying regions of the country that favored federalism. Robespierre justified the Terror by using Enlightenment principles, although some of the Terror’s victims included influential Enlightenment figures. A group of moderate Jacobins retaliated, plotted against Robespierre and his followers, arrested them, and guillotined them in August 1794. Members of the White Terror, Bourbon supporters, retaliated against the Jacobins and executed leaders of revolutionary tribunals. This brought an end to the most violent and radical phase of the revolution.

D. The Directory, 1795-1799

The moderates gained control of the government and abolished the Committee of Public Safety and Paris Commune. They sought to maintain traditional forms of authority, and thus they created the Directory, in which five men governed the country. Moderates also established a two-chamber parliament and limited the franchise to property holders. Soon, opposition arose from the radical Jacobins and sans-culottes over the rising price of
bread. By the end of the decade, the financial situation of France again worsened as the *assignats*, or paper money issued based on the value of confiscated church lands, became worthless. A new coup brought a new government called the Consulate to power. It was dominated by a young general named Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821), who was named First Consul. Napoleon had made a name for himself for his victories in Italy against the Austrians and in Egypt. The government retained its republican form, but in actuality, Napoleon was a military dictator.

III. Cultural Change in France During the Revolution

The French Revolution brought important changes to French culture.

A. The Transformation of Cultural Institutions

The cultural institutions of the old regime were either destroyed or radically changed.

1. Schools

The confiscation of church property and abolition of religious orders had devastated the system of schools and universities run by the church. The government created a system of public primary and secondary or central schools based on free instruction by teachers paid by the state. Lacking sufficient funds to finance the schools, however, education continued to suffer.

2. Academies

The old scientific and artistic academies were abolished and their work taken over by government committees. For example, the Commission of Weights and Measures established the metric system as the new measuring standard. The Popular and Republican Society of the Arts replaced the Royal Academy of Arts and was open to artists of all classes.

3. Libraries

The Royal Library became the National Library and was given the book collections of the abolished monasteries and academies. The government disposed of millions of books with topics such as religion, feudalism, and royalism.

4. Museums and Monuments

The Commission of the Museums created the Louvre museum to house the objects and paintings confiscated from the homes of émigrés and the churches. The revolutionary government also attempted to erase the memory of the old regime by having the tombs of the kings destroyed.
B. The Creation of a New Political Culture

To replace the culture of the Old Regime, the revolutionaries set up a new revolutionary culture that glorified the new regime and the ideal of liberty, equality, and fraternity. The new political doctrine was popular sovereignty, which claimed that the people were the highest political power in the state. The new culture adopted the dress styles of the _sans-culottes_. The new revolutionary culture also attempted to de-Christianize France. Churches were turned into “temples of reason,” and Robespierre introduced the new Cult of the Supreme-Being as a universal religion. The calendar was reformed, with dates starting from September 22, 1792 as the first day of the year. The weeks now had 10 days instead of seven. The new culture was contested from the beginning and much of it was rejected.

C. Cultural Uniformity

The new French culture pushed standardization and equality as appropriate for a society of equal citizens. France was divided into _départements_ of approximate equal size and population. The new schools were given the same curriculum and books. The metric system became the new standardized measuring system.

IV. The Napoleonic Era, 1799-1815

The Consulate introduced a period of authoritarian rule as the republic gave way to a dictatorship.

A. Napoleon’s Rise to Power

Napoleon Bonaparte was born on the island of Corsica and was sent to a French military school for his education. The revolution provided the opportunity for his rise to prominence. During the Terror he led armies against the federalists and royalists. In 1796 he became commander of the army of Italy and won impressive victories. He was authoritarian by nature and always took a pragmatic approach to problems. After leading the coup in 1799, he became First Consul. In 1802 he became Consul for Life, and in 1804 crowned himself emperor of the French.

B. Napoleon and the Revolution

Napoleon used the radical vocabulary of the revolution and presented himself as an ally of the common man and a supporter of equality of opportunity. But as a ruler he was authoritarian, and in reality eligible voters were not free to vote as they chose. He can best be viewed as an heir to the revolution in the sense that he continued to centralize the French state and continued to both expand France and to spread the Revolution to the rest of Europe.
C. Napoleon and the French State

Once in power, Napoleon set out to strengthen the French state by creating an efficient, centralized bureaucracy and a uniform legal system. He also planned to settle the conflict between church and state that had erupted during the Revolution.

1. Concordat with the Papacy

To settle the conflict between church and state, Napoleon signed the Concordat of 1801 with Pope Pius VII (r. 1800-1823). The pope gave up all claims to the property confiscated by the revolution, agreed that the clergy would take an oath of allegiance to the state, and agreed not to appoint bishops without prior approval of the French government. In exchange, Napoleon recognized Catholic Christianity as the religion of the majority of Frenchmen and agreed to pay the salaries of the clergy. A small group of French radicals called Ideologues objected to even the few concessions Napoleon made to the Church. Napoleon regulated the administration of the Church by requiring that the clergy read government decrees from the pulpit and by making the church a state department.

2. The Civil Code

To standardize the legal system, Napoleon promulgated a series of new legal codes. The most important was the Civil Code, or Napoleonic Code. In it he guaranteed the rights to private property, equality before the law, and freedom of religion. He gave men control of the family by denying women the right to inherit, buy, or sell property.

3. Administrative Centralization

Napoleon also centralized the bureaucracy. All power rested in Paris, where the government ministers of the Council of State oversaw a vast bureaucracy. In the departments, prefects appointed by the central government implemented orders from Paris, conscripted soldiers, collected taxes, and supervised public works. The men in the central government were either part of the civil bureaucracy or the army officer corps, both of which were hierarchical, salaried institutions based on talent, not birth.

D. Napoleon, The Empire, and Europe

Napoleon also created a massive European Empire. Between 1797 and 1809, Napoleon earned military victories over Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Spain. By 1809, France controlled the Dutch Republic, the Austrian Netherlands, Italy, Spain, and substantial parts of Germany and Poland. Napoleon owed his victories to the huge citizen army he amassed, which was supplemented with soldiers from conquered regions. He was not without defeats, though. At sea he was defeated by the British at the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805. His attempt in 1808 to take control of Spain by making his brother Joseph Bonaparte king proved to be a blunder. Attempts to close Spanish monasteries and abolish the Inquisition prompted the people to rebel and begin guerilla warfare against
the French. In the meantime, French rule led to the rise of nationalism in Germany and Italy.

E. The Downfall of Napoleon

By 1810, negative reactions to Napoleon became widespread. This only further encouraged him to seek more military victories and territory. In 1812, Napoleon began an invasion of Russia. As the Russian army retreated further inland, Napoleon’s supply lines became overextended. When he reached Moscow, he found it burned and deserted. Facing the Russian winter, he ordered retreat. The retreat was a disaster, with 380,000 men who starved, froze to death, or deserted. The change in fortune prompted the other European powers to form an alliance and defeat Napoleon at the Battle of Leipzig in October 1813. With the further defeats by the Austrians in Italy and the British in Spain, Napoleon abdicated in April of 1814. The French government was turned over to King Louis XVIII, brother of Louis XVI. Louis XVIII restored the Bourbon white flag and recognized Catholic Christianity as the state religion, but left most changes brought by the revolution to the French government unchanged. Despite Louis XVIII’s attempts at conciliation, Napoleon remained very popular. In March 1815, he escaped from exile on the island of Elba, and most Frenchmen rallied for him. The European powers again allied against him and defeated him at the Battle of Waterloo. He was exiled to the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic and died there in 1821. Louis XVIII was restored to the French throne and France was allowed to retain the borders of 1790.

V. The Legacy of the French Revolution

The impact of the French Revolution was felt throughout the Western world. Almost 2,000,000 soldiers were killed in the wars of the French Revolution and Napoleonic Empire.

For many years it was believed that the most important impact of the revolution was that the bourgeoisie replaced the nobility as the dominant political class. This claim has been challenged, but it is clear that men of property, regardless of social background, profited from the revolution. Women, regardless of rank, did not benefit much from the revolution and continued to be limited to the private sphere.

The major legacy of the revolution was in politics. The revolution promoted the doctrine that the people were the highest source of political authority in the state and led to the active participation of the citizens in politics. The revolution brought about an enormous growth of the power of government and gave it greater control over the everyday life of its citizens. The revolution also contributed to the rise of two political ideologies: liberalism and nationalism.

VI. Conclusion: The French Revolution and Western Civilization

The French Revolution proved to be a watershed event in Western history, as the ideals of the revolution influenced and guided other European countries’ governments and societies. Old regimes of Europe fell, political boundaries changed, and people challenged the authority of traditional rulers. Following the ideals of the French Revolution, reforms took place, constitutions were written, and new laws arose. Revolutionary ideas met opposition, and conservatives and reactionaries fought back by working to prevent revolution and to restore
traditional rulers. Even though it seemed that revolution would be reversed, the ideas and the demands of the French Revolution continued to be a major force in the new secular political culture of the nineteenth century.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1787</td>
<td>Napoleon proclaims himself emperor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1789</td>
<td>Battle of Waterloo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1793</td>
<td>Beginning of Reign of Terror</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1799</td>
<td>Third Estate declares itself National Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1804</td>
<td>Napoleon overthrows Directory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1815</td>
<td>Louis XVI convenes an Assembly of Notables</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS**

*The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Olympe de Gouges</td>
<td>Legislative Assembly</td>
<td>Départements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louis XVI</td>
<td>Republic of Virtue</td>
<td>First Consul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oath of the Tennis Court</td>
<td>Estates General</td>
<td>Napoleonic Code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Estate</td>
<td>French Revolution</td>
<td>Louvre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emmanuel Joseph Sieyes</td>
<td>Old Regime</td>
<td>Waterloo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De-Christianization</td>
<td>Bastille</td>
<td><em>Levée en masse</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Convention</td>
<td>National Assembly</td>
<td><em>Marseillaise</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitution of 1791</td>
<td>Montagnards</td>
<td>Federalists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sans-culottes</em></td>
<td>Maximilien Robespierre</td>
<td>Directory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jacobins</td>
<td>Girondins</td>
<td>Napoleon Bonaparte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committee of Public Safety</td>
<td>Cult of the Supreme Being</td>
<td>Universal male suffrage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reign of Terror</td>
<td>Jacques-Pierre Brissot</td>
<td>Pius VII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concordat of 1801</td>
<td>Paris Commune</td>
<td>Louis XVIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitutional Charter</td>
<td>Civil Constitution of the Clergy</td>
<td><em>Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parlements</td>
<td>Assignats</td>
<td>Ideologues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continental System</td>
<td>Battle of Nations</td>
<td>Congress of Vienna</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

Locate the following places on the map.

- Russia
- Spain
- Paris
- England
- Leipzig
- Waterloo
- France
- Portugal
- Moscow
- Grand Duchy of Warsaw
- Austerlitz
- Elba
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What were the causes for the collapse of the French ancien regime?
2. What was the structure of Estates General in 1789?
3. What was the nature of the Constitution of 1791? Why did it fail to achieve permanence?
4. What were the major causes of the Reign of Terror? From which social classes did its victims come?
5. How did Napoleon Bonaparte seize control of the French Revolution? What sort of government did he establish?
6. What led to Napoleon’s downfall?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. How does the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen reflect the ideas of the Enlightenment?
2. What are Edmund Burke’s criticisms of the French Revolution? How has France been “punished”?
3. What are the main reasons the people of France accepted Napoleon as emperor?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. What were the causes of the “Reign of Terror”? How could such violence stem from the ideals of equality and freedom?
2. In what ways did French culture change as a result of the Revolution?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which of the following was the immediate cause of the French Revolution?
   a. The influence of Enlightenment thinkers
   b. The expansion of wealth of the peasant class
   c. Conflicts between the crown and clergy over property ownership
   d. Debts acquired in the wars with Great Britain

2. Prior to 1788, the Estates General of France last met in
   a. 1614.
   b. 1713.
   c. 1688.
   d. 1354.

3. Which of the following statements concerning the storming of the Bastille is MOST accurate?
   a. The successful storming of the royal castle resulted in the seizure of the royal family.
   b. The purpose of the attack was to seize grain to feed the impoverished masses of Paris.
   c. The purpose of the attack was to seize arms in order to prevent the royal army from suppressing the reform movement.
   d. The successful storming of the royal castle resulted in the seizure of the summoning of the Estates General.

4. The Civil Constitution of the Clergy
   a. produced a national political consensus in favor of the revolution.
   b. made the Church a department of the state.
   c. bound the Catholic Church more closely to the process of revolution.
   d. reduced the likelihood of aristocratic counter-revolution.

5. What led to the abolition of the monarchy and the creation of the republic in 1792?
   a. The Legislative Assembly’s decision to go to war with Austria
   b. The Austrian and Prussian invasion of France
   c. The English defeat of the revolutionary army at Toulon
   d. The king’s dismissal of the National Assembly

6. The sans-culottes were
   a. disaffected nobles.
   b. the bourgeoisie.
   c. the lower classes of Paris.
   d. rural peasants.
7. The most radical political faction in France in 1793 was the
   a. Girondins.
   b. clergy.
   c. nobility.
   d. Montagnards.

8. Which of the following was NOT an action of the radical government during the Reign of Terror?
   a. The reinstitution of the monarchy
   b. Almost 40 thousand deaths
   c. The creation of the Committee of Public Safety
   d. The imprisonment of half a million people

9. Napoleon’s most enduring achievement was
   a. his codification of laws.
   b. the establishment of revolutionary democracies throughout Europe.
   c. his defeat of England.
   d. his invasion of Russia.

10. What military campaign brought the final end to Napoleon in 1815?
    a. Austerlitz
    b. Jena
    c. Trafalgar
    d. Waterloo
CHAPTER 20

The Industrial Revolution, 1760-1850

CHAPTER OUTLINE

The Industrial Revolution transformed human life by changing methods of manufacturing, the way people made a living, and the products available to them.

I. The Nature of the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution took place in England in the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. It was made up of four sets of changes: first, the introduction of new technology; second, the use of new mineral sources of energy; third, a concentration of workers in factories; and fourth, new methods of transportation.

A. The New Industrial Technology

The Industrial Revolution introduced machines to textile manufacturing, iron, printing, papermaking, and engineering industries. The most significant machines were steam engines and the machines used to make cloth.

1. Textile Machinery

Until the eighteenth century, the manufacturing of cloth was done by hand. In 1767, James Hargreaves introduced the spinning jenny, which increased the amount of cotton yarn that could be spun. In 1769, Richard Arkwright introduced the water frame, which produced stronger warp yarn. A decade later in 1779, Samuel Crompton combined the jenny and the water frame into one machine called the mule. The mule could produce 300 times as much yarn as a person on a spinning wheel. Because the water frame and mule needed power, production of textiles began to be centralized in large mills near rivers. These machines produced more yarn than weavers could handle until 1787, when Edmund Cartwright invented the power loom. Because of these machines and improvements made to them, English weavers were working 200 times more cotton in 1850 than they had in 1780.

2. The Steam Engine

Another key invention of the Industrial Revolution was the steam engine, invented by James Watt in 1763, to pump water out of mines. Watt teamed up with Matthew Boulton to produce the steam engine and soon it was in widespread use. The steam engine was used to raise minerals from mines, provide heat for smelting iron ore, and drive machines in textile mills.
B. Mineral Sources of Energy

Until the eighteenth century, transportation of goods was powered by humans or animals. Organic sources of fuel were wood, charcoal, or water power. Beginning in the eighteenth century, the Industrial Revolution began to rely on coal to produce the high temperatures needed to smelt iron. Eventually it also became a source of heat for the steam engine.

C. The Growth of Factories

One of the major developments of the Industrial Revolution was the large factory. In the sixteenth century, businessmen began employing families in the countryside to spin and weave. This was known as the domestic system, and all members of the family participated in the production. The businessman provided the materials and was responsible for the marketing. The introduction of machines in the late eighteenth century led to the development of the factory system. The large factory was more cost effective because it allowed the concentration of machines and workers in one place. It also reduced transportation costs and allowed for greater quality control. The factory owner had greater control of the work force and enforced much stricter discipline. It also made possible what the economist Adam Smith called the “division of labor,” whereby each person was responsible for one stage of production, allowing for great increase in total production. The workers needed no special skills to operate the machines.

D. New Methods of Transportation

As industry expanded, so did the transportation network needed to move raw materials and finished products. Thousands of miles of canals and all-weather roads were built in the eighteenth century. The main innovation in transportation of the nineteenth century was the railroad. The railroads were driven by coal-burning, steam-power locomotives and provided quick, cheap transportation to places inaccessible by water. The construction of railroads created a demand for iron and for large numbers of workers and became a large industry in its own right. Unlike manufacturing, railroad networks usually involved a combination of private and public investment.

II. Conditions Favoring Industrial Growth

The presence in England of a large population, capital, and people with scientific knowledge and entrepreneurial skills were among the social and economic factors that helped make the Industrial Revolution possible.

A. Population Growth

The population of England doubled between 1680 and 1820. The population increase provided the large supply of cheap labor needed by the factories. It also provided an increase in demand for manufactured goods.
B. Agricultural Productivity

In the eighteenth century, British agriculture experienced a revolution of its own. The process of enclosure allowed farmers and landlords to fence in their fields and control production. They introduced crop rotations that restored nutrients to the soil, allowing for greater yield. They also began scientific breeding to improve the quality of their herds. The result was an increase in productivity with fewer agricultural workers. This allowed more people to leave the farms to work in the factories while supplying them with cheap food.

C. Capital Formation and Accumulation

The term *capital* refers both to money and to fixed capital (factories and machines). The investment capital needed for the Industrial Revolution came mostly from merchants engaged in domestic and foreign trade, from landowners who profited from their estates in Britain and plantations in the colonies, and from banks.

D. Technological Knowledge and Entrepreneurship

England had been a leading center of the scientific revolution and consequently had plenty of people with the scientific knowledge to mechanize the industry. It also had a merchant capitalist class who organized the domestic system. The combination of these two elements is exemplified by the partnership of James Watt and Matthew Boulton. Watt had the scientific knowledge and Boulton was a leading entrepreneur who was able to assemble the workers with the needed skills to mass produce Watt’s engine.

E. Demand from Consumers and Producers

In addition to the supply of capital, labor, and knowledge, demand for goods also played an important role in fueling the Industrial Revolution. The demand for goods was created by advertising, as well as by the increasing ability of the working class to buy goods as their purchasing power increased.

III. The Spread of Industrialization

The Industrial Revolution spread to the rest of Europe and North America over the course of several decades after it developed in Britain.

A. Great Britain and the Continent

Part of the reason for the delay in the start of the Industrial Revolution in the rest of Europe was the political situation in individual countries. Germany, for example, was politically fragmented into many states, each with its own tariffs and taxes, which hindered the free passages of resources and goods across the country. Local privileges in France also hindered the free economic passage. By contrast, all of Britain was a single market. Another factor in delaying industrialization was protectionism. While it protected the local economy from competition, it also hindered the importation of necessary resources. Another factor in
hindering industrialization was the aristocracy in continental Europe, who drew their wealth from land. They lacked a capitalist spirit and were more cautious about investing in the new enterprises. Finally, parts of the continent lacked the availability of the needed natural resources.

B. Features of Continental Industrialization

After 1830, Belgium, France, Switzerland, and Germany began to imitate the English industrialization process by introducing machinery into the production process, concentrating workers in factories, and beginning to build their transportation network. However, the industrialization process in the European continent differed from the British in a number of ways. First, the governments played a greater role providing capital as active partners in the industrialization process. Governments built railroad systems, which facilitated the beginnings of industrialization. Second, the banks were also major partners in financing industry. Third, the development of the railroad system helped begin industrialization. It helped stimulate other industries to meet its needs by the markets it created.

C. Industrialization in the United States

The Industrial Revolution began in the United States in the 1820s with the textile industry of the Northeast. It then continued with the development of heavy industry in the Pittsburgh and Cleveland regions. U.S. industrialization followed patterns borrowed from England and Europe. Most of the machinery was modeled on that of England. Like England, it also had a vast supply of raw materials. The relatively short supply of labor helped avoid the awful conditions suffered by the English working class. After 1865, U.S. industry began to expand rapidly. The major American contribution to the industrial process was the assembly line.

D. Industrial Regionalism

The industrialization process was regional in character. Different regions of the various countries developed different branches of industry. For example, the French textile industry developed in the Northeast, near the Belgian border, and in the East-Central region around Lyons. In Germany, the iron industry was concentrated in the Ruhr Valley. Some areas of the country remained engaged only in agriculture.

IV. The Effects of Industrialization

Industrialization affected every aspect of human life.

A. Population and Economic Growth

One of the most important changes was the continuous expansion of the population and the economy. Most observers in the eighteenth century did not believe that expansion of the population and the economy could be sustained indefinitely. Thomas Malthus (1766-1834) argued that population naturally grows faster than the food supply, and therefore malnutrition, famine, and disease will correct the imbalance. Malthus’s cycle of
expansion and contraction did not take place. The population had consistently expanded as the greater agricultural productivity permitted maintaining an adequate food supply. The industrial economy had been able to employ large numbers of workers. Despite economic swings, industrialized nations continued to experience an increase in the gross national product and per capita income.

B. Standards of Living

There has been much debate about the impact of industrialization on the working class. The optimists have pointed to the long-term effects of industrialization, which have helped to avoid Malthus’s predictions, such as the rise of individual income. Pessimists have emphasized the fact that improvements did not appear for several decades after the beginning of industrialization. Pessimists blame the system of industrial capitalism for the laboring population’s hardships. In an effort to reduce costs and maximize profits, employers kept wages low and utilized labor-saving devices. Contemporary social critics such as Friedrich Engels accused industrial capitalists of robbing the workers of their just wages. Social philosopher Karl Marx used Engels’ critique to call for workers to revolt and seize control of the means of production. Pessimists also point to the early decades of industrialization, when people were forced to live in decrepit housing around the factories. The monotonous, demeaning, and exhausting nature of factory work adds to the pessimists’ argument against the positive effects of the Industrial Revolution. Industrialization and urbanization also took their toll on the environment, as evidenced by pollution.

C. Women, Children, and Industry

During the early Industrial Revolution, large numbers of women and children were part of the workforce. They were willing to accept lower wages and were more easily disciplined. The factory system changed family life. In the early years of the Industrial Revolution many families worked together in the factories and mines. As mothers found it impossible to care for their small children while working, they began to leave the factory. The British Factory Act of 1833 enforced restrictions against child labor. Eventually, the trend was that the man earned a living outside of the home while the woman stayed home to care for their children. Therefore, those women who did work were usually young and unmarried. The Industrial Revolution did not improve the status of women. Their pay was too little to give them financial independence or prestige, and they frequently were under the control of the male workers or foremen.

D. Class and Class Consciousness

Writers began to describe industrial society as divided into three classes based on the type of property they owned. The aristocracy owned land. The bourgeoisie owned capital enterprises and gained their wealth from profits. The working class owned only their labor and received wages. There is great debate over the extent to which the people of the nineteenth century were conscious of their class status. Marxist historians argue that worker exploitation and conflicts between capital and labor over wages led to the formation of class identity. Others argue that workers were more conscious of their trade, ethnic, or local identity than they were of their class identity. Factory owners, capitalists,
and shopkeepers also lacked a clear sense of being part of a single class identity. Overall, the working class was reluctant to use violence against their employers or to join working-class organizations. There were a few exceptions, such as the British Luddites, led by Ned Ludd, who smashed new textile machinery in 1812. Class consciousness gradually emerged as tensions between labor and industrial capitalists mounted and the reluctance of politicians to grant workers the right to vote became apparent.

E. Industrial Landscape

The Industrial Revolution changed the landscape. Small towns grew into huge cities. In the countryside, bridges, viaducts, railroad lines, and canals were built to improve transportation. The destruction of the natural beauty of the landscape triggered a nostalgic reaction that led to the romantic movement in art and literature. Some of the new industrial architecture, such as the new bridges, were romanticized and thought to be architectural marvels.

V. Industry, Trade, and Empire

By the middle of the nineteenth century, Britain produced 66 percent of the world’s coal, 50 percent of the cotton cloth and iron, and 40 percent of the hardware. In the search for raw materials and markets, the interests of industry, trade, and empire worked closely together.

A. East Asia: The Opium War, 1839-1842

For three centuries after the arrival of the Europeans, China maintained a tight control over trade with Europeans. In the 1830s conflict broke out between China and the British over the trade of opium, which was causing severe problems in Chinese society. When the Chinese authorities began seizing and destroying chests of opium, the English declared war. The British, with their superior technology, attacked and defeated China. In the aftermath, the Chinese were forced to open several ports to English merchants and allow the ports to be governed by British consuls who were not subject to Chinese law.

B. India: Annexation and Trade

In the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, Britain gained control of India. Political control of India served British merchants’ interests. British merchants controlled the trade between India and the rest of Asia. India became a market for British textile goods, which destroyed India’s own textile industry. India also became a major source of revenue for the British government.

C. Latin America: An Empire of Trade

In Latin America, Britain was an ardent supporter of the movements to gain independence from Spain and Portugal. Once independent, these countries became markets for British goods and capital. While these countries remained politically separate from Britain, they became economically dependent on the British in the same way India had become. Latin America’s village artisan economies were destroyed and Latin America became a market for British finished goods.
D. Ireland: The Internal Colony

Although Ireland became a part of Great Britain in 1801, Britain continued to treat Ireland as a colonial possession. As opposed to Britain, industrialization and its employment opportunities were virtually nonexistent, and Ireland retained an agricultural economy. Ireland provided Britain with large quantities of grain, although British legislation prevented the Irish from being able to afford it. The Irish depended on the potato for survival, and the potato famine of 1845 proved disastrous, with one million dying and one million forced to emigrate. Ireland’s tragedy demonstrated that Britain’s determination to protect domestic industry and to import imperial resources overshadowed the interests and needs of its subjugated countries.

VI. Conclusion: Industrialization and the West

Like the French Revolution, the Industrial Revolution was a watershed event in history, and it altered the very definition of the West. The Industrial Revolution dramatically affected employment, family life, politics, the environment, cities, and values. Instead of Christianity or Enlightenment ideas, industrialization and capitalism became dominant characteristics of the West. Industrialization created yet another divide between the West and the non-Western world. In the late nineteenth century, countries outside of the West began to industrialize, or Westernize, which often led to internal conflicts between Western and non-Western values. While industrialization became a factor in defining the West, not every country that industrializes is readily admitted. Industrialization demonstrates the ever-changing and often ambiguous boundaries of the West.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1763</td>
<td>Watt’s steam engine invented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1767</td>
<td>Hargreaves’s spinning jenny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1769</td>
<td>Publication of The Wealth of Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1776</td>
<td>Howe’s sewing machine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1842</td>
<td>Opium War</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1846</td>
<td>Arkwright’s water frame introduced</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matthew Boulton</td>
<td>Domestic system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adam Smith</td>
<td>Enclosure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James Hargreaves</td>
<td>Richard Arkwright</td>
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<td>Capital</td>
<td>Supply</td>
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<td>Industrial capitalism</td>
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<td>Mule</td>
<td>Zollverein</td>
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<td>Edmund Cartwright</td>
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<td>Karl Marx</td>
<td>Friedrich Engels</td>
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<td>Josiah Wedgwood</td>
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<td>William Blake</td>
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<td></td>
<td>James Watt</td>
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<td>Division of labor</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Water frame</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Spinning jenny</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Demand</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Elias Howe</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Thomas Malthus</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Peterloo Massacre</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Luddites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>David Ricardo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What were the changes in agriculture in the eighteenth century? How did they affect the Industrial Revolution?

2. What were the major technological innovations that brought about a revolution in textile production?

3. How did the steam engine affect mining and textile production?

4. What was the transport revolution? Why was it necessary?

5. What nations of continental Europe became industrialized? How did their industrialization process differ from that of Britain?

6. What were the social effects of industrialization on individual workers? What were the effects on women?

7. How did the interest of industry and trade support the interests of empire-building?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. According to Adam Smith, how did the division of labor change the process of making pins? What was the effect of the division of labor?

2. What positive characteristics does Barthélemy Faujas de Saint-Fond attribute to the industrial development in Birmingham, England?

3. According to Engels, what were the problems created by the employment of women in the factories?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. What factors led to industrialization and what social and economic changes made industrialization possible?

2. How was Great Britain able to rise as the first industrialized nation?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. The inventor of the spinning jenny was
   a. Richard Arkwright.
   b. Matthew Boulton.
   c. Edmund Cartwright.
   d. James Hargreaves.

2. The spinning mule
   a. made possible the production of stronger warp.
   b. could spin three hundred times more yarn than a spinning wheel.
   c. was used to pump water out of mines.
   d. made transporting goods easier.

3. The manufacturing system whereby the entrepreneur distributes raw materials among rural workers is called the
   a. factory system.
   b. guild system.
   c. workshop system.
   d. domestic system.

4. One of the major features of the agricultural revolution was the
   a. division of labor.
   b. domestic system.
   c. enclosure process.
   d. sugar plantations.

5. All the following conditions favored the Industrial Revolution EXCEPT
   a. population growth.
   b. agricultural revolution.
   c. accumulation of capital.
   d. Malthusian trap.

6. The Luddites
   a. were responsible for the development of new processes for producing ceramics.
   b. were machine-breaking rioters in the 1810s.
   c. introduced the first efficient steam engine for railroads.
   d. invented the power loom.
7. Continental European industrialization differed from the English Industrial Revolution in all of the following EXCEPT

   a. the greater involvement of government.
   b. the role of textile production.
   c. the role played by banks.
   d. the role of railroads in fueling industrial development.

8. Which of the following statements is NOT true concerning women in the industrial workforce?

   a. Women worked long hours and received low wages.
   b. Women were forced to subordinate to male authority.
   c. Women enjoyed greater financial independence and prestige.
   d. Women provided unskilled labor.

9. Most workers in the early Industrial Revolution identified themselves

   a. as members of an exploited working class struggling to control the means of production.
   b. primarily by trade or as an ethnic minority.
   c. as ready to start revolts and rebellions.
   d. as eagerly joining labor organizations to seek better pay.

10. The British established a dependent economic relationship without direct political dominance in

    a. India.
    b. China.
    c. the United States.
    d. Latin America.
CHAPTER 21

Ideological Conflicts and National Unification, 1815-1871

CHAPTER OUTLINE

In March 1871, the president of the French government ordered two detachments of troops to take control of the National Guard artillery in Paris. The Parisians, bitter over the government’s signing of the armistice with Prussia, surrounded the detachment commanders and executed them. The French government laid siege to the city to crush the radical municipal government of the Paris Commune. After a few weeks, French troops took the city with street-by-street fighting. The government killed 25,000 Communards, while the Commune executed many hostages, including the archbishop of Paris. The events of the Paris Commune exemplify the ideological conflicts in Europe in the period from 1815-1871.

I. New Ideologies in the Early Nineteenth Century

Four new ideologies influenced European politics in the nineteenth century. They were liberalism, conservatism, socialism, and nationalism.

   A. Liberalism: The Protection of Individual Freedom

   The ideology of liberalism is centered on the principle of political, social, and economic freedom. The political agenda of the liberals consisted of three aims. First, liberals aimed to establish and protect civil liberties. Second, they worked for the extension of the right to vote to the middle class. They rejected giving the vote to people without property. Third, they promoted free trade. Their wealth backed their claim to a share in political power. Liberals followed the ideas of Adam Smith, who argued that government should allow the economic interests complete freedom of action (commonly called laissez-faire). For Smith, the only function of government was to protect property and maintain public order. Most liberals favored a limited monarchy. Liberalism drew most of its supporters from the urban middle-class professionals, merchants, and manufacturers. Liberal ideas had their roots in the works of leading nineteenth-century advocates, and in utilitarian philosophers Jeremy Bentham and David Ricardo. They argued that social and economic policies should follow the principle of providing the greatest good for the greatest number of people.

   B. Conservatism: Preserving the Established Order

   The reaction to the excesses of the Enlightenment and the French Revolution produced the ideology of conservatism. Its leading theorist was Edmund Burke. Burke viewed the social order as a partnership between past, present, and future. He rejected the notion of equality or natural rights. He argued that rights were inherited from the past. Burke and other conservatives believed monarchy was the form of government most capable of protecting peoples’ rights. Conservatives differed from reactionaries in that they accepted
gradual change. The leading conservative governments of Europe in 1815 formed the Concert of Europe to maintain the peace settlement of 1815 and avoid another revolution.

C. Socialism

The reaction to the rise of industrial capitalism and liberalism and the justification of the awful conditions in which the working class found itself was socialism. Socialists advocated ownership of the means of production by the community. The earliest socialists were the Utopian socialists, such as Robert Owen. Owen turned his factory in New Lanark, Scotland into a model community where the workers were well housed and the children received education. The second generation of socialists included people such as Louis Blanc, who advocated using the power of the state to guarantee the workers’ wages. The most radical form of socialism was the communism ideology developed by Karl Marx. Friedrich Engels and Karl Marx concluded that history advances through a process they called the *dialectic*. The idea had been borrowed from Friedrich Hegel, who believed that history advances because of a class of ideas. Marx argued that historical change was the result of economic factors, so his theory was known as *dialectical materialism*. According to Marx, history had advanced to a new stage when the bourgeoisie took power from the aristocracy. A new stage of advancement would result from conflict between the bourgeoisie and the working class (proletariat). Communism calls for a workers’ revolution and complete economic equality.

D. Nationalism

Another new ideology was nationalism. Nationalism first appeared during the French Revolution. A nation refers to a large community of people who share a homeland and cultural identity. Nationalists argued that nationalities have a right to national self-determination, and their main aim was to establish nation-states. Although nationalists spoke of the antiquity of their nation, most people who were identified in the nineteenth century with a particular land shared little cultural unity. For example, the French spoke many different dialects and the Swiss spoke several different languages. In addition, establishing the ideal nation-state was almost impossible, as patterns of settlement meant that a minority lived within the geographical borders of another nation. Some states such as the United Kingdom and the Habsburg Empire were made up of many different peoples. One of the ironies of nationalism was that acquiring colonies and controlling other peoples strengthened nationalist sentiment among the people at home. In the early nineteenth century, nationalism was identified with liberalism, since both shared a belief in representative government. Later in the nineteenth century, nationalism identified more with conservatism.

E. Culture and Ideology

The nineteenth-century ideologies were influenced by two opposing traditions: scientific rationalism and romanticism.
1. Scientific Rationalism

Scientific rationalism had its origins in the Scientific Revolution. It is an effort to create a science of human nature. One form of scientific rationalism developed by Auguste Comte (1798-1857) is positivism, which states that science is the highest form of knowledge and will inevitably lead to human progress. Comte argued that the highest stage of human development was the positive stage, in which scientific or positive knowledge would allow people to discover the laws of human behavior and use them to improve society.

2. Romanticism

Romanticism rejected many of the ideas of the positivists. Romantics recognized the limits of human reason to comprehend reality and be objective. They also rejected the order and rationalism of the eighteenth-century artistic style called classicism. Many romantic writers explored the exotic, strange, mysterious, and satanic aspects of human nature. Much of their literature was set in the Middle Ages, a period which they associated with religion and order in politics and society. Romantic operas incorporated folk music and myths. Romanticism appealed to liberals, who agreed with its emphasis on individual liberty and a rejection of the established order. Romanticism also appealed to conservatives with its idealization of the traditional social and political order of the Middle Ages and of its elevation of the societal importance of religion. The works of Johann Gottfried von Herder (1744-1803), who emphasized the cultural traditions of Germany, were identified with the nationalist cause.

II. Ideological Encounters in Europe, 1815-1848

The confrontation of ideologies of the nineteenth century frequently led to violent political conflict. In the years after the Congress of Vienna, conservatives led by Austrian Chancellor Metternich were determined to suppress any signs of revolution.

A. Liberal and Nationalist Revolts, 1820-1825

A series of revolts in Europe in the early 1820s revealed the influence of liberalism and nationalism.

1. The Liberal Revolts of 1820 in Spain and Portugal

After the fall of Napoleon, King Ferdinand VII returned to power in Spain. He refused to accept the liberal constitution written by the Spanish cortes (parliament) in 1812. In 1820 a group of military officers seized power. Then, an army of the Holy Alliance invaded Spain and restored Ferdinand to the throne, signaling a liberal defeat. Liberalism regained power in 1833 when Ferdinand died and was succeeded by his liberal-minded daughter Isabel I. Civil Wars and instability prevented liberals from making further gains. In Portugal, a revolt in 1820 established a liberal regime and forced King John VI to return to Portugal.
from Brazil. The liberal forces lost influence after his return. His successor, Maria II, restored the liberals to power.

2. The Nationalist Revolt of 1821 in Greece

Nationalism had its earliest success in Greece. In 1821 the Greeks revolted against the Ottoman Empire. The Greeks’ attack received support from liberals and conservatives alike. However, western Europeans intervened, as they identified the Greeks with the foundation of western civilization and the conflict as a struggle between Christianity and Islam. In 1833, the Turks were forced to accept Greek independence.

3. The Decembrist Revolt of 1825 in Russia

The liberal revolt in Russia in December of 1825 failed. A group of army officers who had served in France led a revolt against Tsar Nicholas I (r. 1825-1855). The Decembrists, as the rebels became known, were suppressed. They failed to influence any change in the regime of Nicholas I.

B. Liberal and Nationalist Revolts, 1830

A second group of liberal and nationalist revolts erupted in the early 1830s.

1. The French Revolution: The Success of Liberalism

The most important revolution took place in France. The ultra-conservative King Charles X took steps to undermine even the mild concessions made by his predecessor, Louis XVIII. When Charles X dissolved the Chamber of Deputies and restricted the franchise, violence erupted in the streets of Paris. Charles X abdicated, and the liberals placed Louis-Philippe, Duke of Orleans, on the throne. Louis-Philippe served the interests of the liberal bourgeoisie by extending the franchise slightly and by declaring that Roman Catholicism was no longer the state religion.

2. The Belgian Revolution: The Success of Nationalism

The liberal revolution in France triggered a nationalist revolution in Belgium. Belgians resented the control of the Netherlands. When they heard of the revolution in Paris, they too took to the streets to demand autonomy. When the Dutch government refused, Britain called a conference of European powers to resolve the situation. The conference recognized Belgium independence.

3. The Polish Rebellion: The Failure of Nationalism

The revolution in France also triggered a revolution in the kingdom of Poland. In 1815, Poland had been made a separate kingdom under the Russia tsar, Alexander I. In 1830, the Poles revolted against Russian control. Both liberals and nationalists joined the revolt. The members of the National Assembly, though,
refused to rally the peasants behind the cause of Polish nationalism for fear they would rebel against their landlords. Western European powers refused to intervene on their behalf, and thus the Russians easily crushed the Polish revolt.

C. Liberal Reform in Britain, 1815-1848

The situation in Britain was different from that of the continent, as the British had long enjoyed many rights that other Europeans were still fighting for. British liberals demanded a series of reforms to the British political system: parliamentary reform, expansion of the franchise, repeal of restrictions denying Catholics and Protestant non-conformists the right to serve in Parliament, free trade, and repeal of the agricultural protectionist legislation called the Corn Law of 1815. The Great Reform Bill of 1832 expanded the franchise to include the urban middle class. In 1828, Parliament granted emancipation to the non-conformists, and one year later to the Catholics. Repeal of the Corn Law took longer, as the landed interests held considerable power in Parliament. The start of the Great Famine in Ireland (1845-1848) finally pushed the British Parliament to repeal the Corn Law. The Chartist Movement undertook a push for more democratization of the political system in the 1830s and 1840s, but it failed to produce results.

D. The Revolutions of 1848

A third set of liberal and nationalist revolutions exploded in 1848. They were fueled by the bad harvests of 1845 and 1846 and the economic recession of 1847.

1. The French Revolutions of 1848

The first revolution in 1848 took place in Paris. The economic decline led the workers to start demonstrations calling for the right to vote and government assistance. When the troops of Louis-Philippe killed several demonstrators, barricades went up in the streets. Louis-Philippe abdicated, and the revolutionaries created the Second French Republic. The provisional government implemented universal manhood suffrage and established national workshops to provide work for the unemployed. The appeal of the revolution and of the socialist reforms did not last long, and the conservatives gained control in the election of April 1848. In June of 1848, the conservative-dominated National Assembly closed the workshops, and riots exploded again. This time they were crushed. In December 1848, Napoleon’s nephew, Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte (1808-1873), was elected president. He had support from conservatives, liberals, and moderate republicans. In 1851, he proclaimed himself Emperor Napoleon III.

2. The Revolutions of 1848 in Germany, Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia

News of the revolution in France triggered revolutions in the German states, Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia. German revolutionaries wanted both liberal constitutional reforms and national unification. The explosion of revolutions forced the German princes to grant the constitutional changes. In Austria, demonstrators demanded conservative minister Clements von Metternich’s
resignation, and the emperor summoned a constitutional assembly and implemented a moderate government. In Bohemia, Czech nationalists called for autonomy. In Hungary, nationalists led by Lajos Kossuth (1802-1894) pushed for liberal reforms and autonomy. A Pan-Slav Congress was held in Prague and called for unity of the Slavs within the empire. In the meantime, an assembly of German representatives was meeting at Frankfurt and writing a constitution for a united Germany. By the middle of 1849 the conservative forces were regaining the upper hand in central Europe. In Germany, Austria voted against the plan for unification and the king of Prussia refused to accept the crown of a unified Germany. With the failure of its agenda, the Frankfurt Parliament disbanded. The revolutions in Austria, Bohemia, and Hungary were crushed by the Austrian army.

3. The Revolutions of 1848 in Italy

Italy also experienced a series of revolutions. The revolutionaries’ success in Milan inspired similar developments in other Italian regions. In the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, King Ferdinand II was forced to grant a constitution. In northern Italy, the Austrian troops were driven off. Italian nationalist leader Giuseppe Mazzini founded secret organizations to promote Italian unification. He hoped to create a unified, liberal Italian republic. However, it was King Charles Albert of Piedmont who assumed leadership of the Italian nationalist cause. He alienated republicans and rulers of other Italian states with his desire to achieve personal gain. His failure to defeat the Austrian army signaled a failure of the revolution.

4. The Failure of the Revolutions of 1848

Liberals, nationalists, and socialists were defeated in the revolutions of 1848. The conservatives soon were once again firmly in control. Divisions among the revolutionaries help to explain their defeat. The liberal leaders who formed the goals of the revolutions felt little connection with the lower-class participants. The ideologies of national self-determination and individual freedom often clashed. The revolutions’ failures did lead to the demise of the ideologies of liberalism, nationalism, and socialism. They continued to gain strength and even influenced the policies of conservative leaders and governments.

III. National Unification in Europe and America, 1848-1871

Prior to 1848, nationalism had only been successful in Greece and Belgium. Nationalist efforts in 1848 had failed to unify the states of Germany and Italy. The situation changed between 1848 and 1871, and nationalist efforts succeeded in Italy, Germany, and the United States. In the Habsburg Empire, unity was achieved, although nationalism did not prevail.

A. Italian Unification: Building a Fragile Nation-State

Italian unification faced several problems: first, the opposition of Austria, which controlled northern Italy; second, the strong tradition of local autonomy; third, the
presence of the church states in central Italy, which, if attacked, might prompt other powers to intervene on behalf of the papacy; and fourth, the question of who would provide leadership. After the failure of 1848, Piedmont-Sardinia remained the strongest Italian state. Prime Minister Camillo di Cavour (1810-1861) of Piedmont-Sardinia favored unification as a federation of states under the leadership of the Piedmontese monarchy. The antithesis to this vision was Mazzini, who favored unification under a democratic republic. In 1859, an alliance of France and Piedmont-Sardinia defeated Austria and forced it to give up Lombardy. By 1860, most of northern and central Italy unified.

In the meantime, a force of volunteers known as the Red Shirts, led by Giuseppe Garibaldi, attacked the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies and took Naples. Shortly afterward, the Two Sicilies and most of the Papal States joined Piedmont-Sardinia. In 1866, Austria gave up Venetia to Italy and in 1870 Italy annexed the rest of the Papal States, creating a unified Italian state. Unity remained fragile. Northern Italy was economically much more developed than southern Italy. The underdevelopment of the South led to the rise of banditry and the Mafia.

B. German Unification: Conservative Nation-Building

In 1848, German efforts at national unification had failed. The leadership for German unification in the 1860s came from the conservative chancellor of Prussia, Otto von Bismarck (1815-1898). He was primarily interested in strengthening Prussia, but was willing to embrace the nationalist cause to achieve his main goal. In 1866, Prussia defeated Austria and left Austria out of unification plans. Bismarck then created a union of 22 states, the North German Confederation. In 1870-71, the Germans defeated France in the Franco-Prussian War, which began when Napoleon III objected to a Prussian effort to place a member of its royal family on the Spanish throne. In the aftermath of the French defeat, the newly formed German Empire proclaimed the king of Prussia as its emperor. Although the empire officially remained a federation of states, power was autocratic and centralized. The liberal middle class was not a part of the political power of the empire, but the government won its support by supporting free trade policies.

C. Unification in the United States: Creating a Nation of Nations

The United States engaged in a long process of unification after it won independence from Britain. The Constitution of 1787 tried to preserve a balance between the state and federal government, but in the early years Americans felt more loyalty to their own states than to the nation. The primary source of division was created by the addition of new territories, resulting from U.S. victories against Mexico and the Native Americans. These new territories and the influx of immigrants increased cultural diversity, hindered the assimilation of new peoples, and prevented Americans from feeling they had a common identity with people in other areas of the U.S. When 11 southern states left the union over the issue of preserving slavery, the U.S. fought a bitter civil war to preserve the union. With the defeat of the South, slavery was abolished and the union was preserved.
D. Nationalism in Eastern Europe: Preserving Multinational Empires

Nationalism remained a major challenge to the Habsburg Empire, which was made up of many ethnic groups. In 1867, the *Ausgleich*, or Settlement, created a dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. Equality among ethnic groups was proclaimed, but only the largest ethnic group—Germans in Austria, Magyar in Hungary—was allowed to dominate its state at the expense of the other ethnic groups. Unity was preserved in the person of the ruler, who was emperor of Austria and king of Hungary. The ideology of nationalism continued to threaten the Habsburg Empire.

IV. Ideology, Empire, and the Balance of Power

A. Britain, the United States, and the Monroe Doctrine of 1823

In North America, the United States became fearful that the conservative powers of Europe might intervene to restore the Spanish Empire. The U.S. allied itself with Britain in supporting Latin American independence. In 1823, U.S. President Monroe issued the Monroe Doctrine, which declared that the U.S. viewed any attempt to colonize in America as a hostile act. The British Navy enforced the doctrine.

B. Russia, the Ottoman Empire, and the Crimean War, 1853-1856

Russia also represented a multinational empire, and imperial ventures added even more nationalities to its empire. In the Crimean War, Russia moved into Moldavia and Wallachia to gain access to the Mediterranean Sea. To disguise this motive, Russians claimed they were protecting Eastern Orthodox Christianity from the threat of Turkish Muslims. They also claimed to promote Pan-Slavism, although it was actually a form of extreme imperialism that ignored the nationalism of individual Slavic nationalities. Britain, France, and Turkey intervened and defeated the Russians. Defeat forced the conservative regime of Alexander II to reluctantly give into liberal reforms, including the emancipation of the serfs in 1861.

C. The German Empire and the Paris Commune, 1870-1871

Another challenge to the Balance of Power came from Prussia’s drive to unify Germany. Prussia defeated Austria and France and became a major military power. The defeat of France ended the imperial regime of Napoleon III, but Paris only surrendered after a long siege. In January 1871 Adolph Thiers was appointed head of the provisional government. He hoped to restore the monarchy. The provisional government asserted its control over France and crushed the Paris Commune. The crushing of the Commune marked the defeat of French socialism and radicalism. The regime that emerged in France was the conservative nationalism known as the Third Republic.

V. Conclusion: The Ideological Transformation of the West

The ideologies of liberalism, conservatism, socialism, and nationalism influenced and directed encounters, such as political movements and revolutions that significantly altered the political
culture of the West. Western governments, no matter which ideology they favored, found themselves under pressure to incorporate reforms of opposing ideologies, often leading to a redefinition of their political objectives.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

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<th>1821</th>
<th>Kingdom of Italy proclaimed</th>
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<tr>
<td>1825</td>
<td>End of Crimean War</td>
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<td>1830</td>
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**TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS**

*The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.*

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<td>Conservatism</td>
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<td>Edmund Burke</td>
<td>Concert of Europe</td>
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<td>Charles Albert</td>
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<td>Positivism</td>
<td>Romanticism</td>
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<td>Ferdinand VII</td>
<td>Decembrists</td>
<td>Clemens von Metternich</td>
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<td>Lajos Kossuth</td>
<td>Giuseppe Mazzini</td>
<td>Dialectical materialism</td>
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<tr>
<td>National self-determination</td>
<td>Communism</td>
<td>Mafia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Utilitarians</td>
<td>Joseph de Maistre</td>
<td>Adolphe Thiers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert Owen</td>
<td>“iron law of wages”</td>
<td>Louis Blanc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

Locate the following places on the map.

- Britain
- Poland
- Russia
- Greece
- Belgium
- France
- Germany
- Austria-Hungary
- Italy
- Spain
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. Compare and contrast the unifications of Germany and Italy. Consider the leaders of unification, the methods used, the role of warfare, and the role of France.

2. Compare and contrast the Revolts of 1820-21 and 1830.

3. Discuss the differences between Conservatism and Liberalism.

4. How did Karl Marx’s theory of historical advancement differ from that of Hegel? What course of action did Marx suggest to the working class?

5. How did the success of the nationalist movements affect international relations?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. What unrestricted personal liberties did John Stuart Mill advocate should belong to all persons of the state?

2. What course of action did Marx advocate for the working class to establish control of the means of production?

3. What measures did the Carlsbad Decrees enforce against liberals and nationalists?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. What were the main platforms of the four political ideologies addressed in the chapter? Do we use these terms and ideologies in the same ways today?

2. Is there an inherent conflict between scientific rationalism and the romantic arts movement? If so, how did the conflict manifest itself?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Liberals advocated
   a. democratically sharing power and wealth with all classes.
   b. rejecting religion and romanticism.
   c. extension of the franchise to the middle class and free trade.
   d. government regulation and returning to divine right monarchy.

2. The mechanism established to preserve order in Europe after 1815 was
   a. *laissez-faire*.
   b. national self-determination.
   c. positivism.
   d. the Concert of Europe.

3. The secular philosophy propounded by Auguste Comte was
   a. liberalism.
   b. romanticism.
   c. conservatism.
   d. positivism.

4. Which of the following politicians does NOT belong in the group of national state builders?
   a. Louis Napoleon
   b. Camillo Benso di Cavour
   c. Clemens von Metternich
   d. Otto von Bismarck

5. Bismarck completed the unification of Germany by launching a war against which of the following nations?
   a. Italy
   b. Spain
   c. France
   d. Russia

6. Which of the following was *not* an obstacle to Italian unification?
   a. The long tradition of local autonomy among Italian regions
   b. Significant economic differences between the North and the South
   c. The question of who would lead unification
   d. The threat of German invasion
7. Which of the following was a liberal reform in England?
   a. Passage of the Great Reform Bill
   b. Establishing national workshops
   c. Emancipation of the serfs
   d. The creation of a dual monarchy

8. The reform implemented by Tsar Alexander II after the defeat in the Crimean War was the
   a. creation of a democratic national legislature.
   b. abolition of serfdom.
   c. passage of a national workshops act.
   d. introduction of the secret ballot.

9. Which of the following statements about the *Ausgleich* of 1867 is NOT true?
   a. It created a dual monarchy.
   b. It granted greater autonomy to Hungary.
   c. It gave equal political power to all the nationalities.
   d. It allowed schooling in all the local languages.

10. Which event signaled the end of the French Revolution of 1848?
    a. The closing of national workshops
    b. The election of Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte as president
    c. The abdication of Louis-Philippe
    d. The conservative monarchists’ victory in the April 1848 elections
CHAPTER 22

The Coming of Mass Politics: Industrialization, Emancipation, and Instability, 1870-1914

CHAPTER OUTLINE

Ideological competition among conservatism, liberalism, socialism, and nationalism directed the Western political culture. After 1870, economic developments further heightened tensions. More and more individuals demanded the right to political participation. Economic improvements and the emergence of mass politics failed to ensure complete democratic success. Conflicts between those who demanded a voice in government and those who wanted to prevent their accession into politics proliferated during this time period.

I. Economic Transformation

Europe’s political life in the period from 1870-1914 was transformed by several economic developments, including technological advancements in industrialization and the globalization of production, trade, and consumption. These developments affected Europe’s demographics and further aggravated social tensions.

A. Economic Depression

The Great Depression in Trade and Agriculture lasted from 1873 until the 1890s in Europe. Despite continual rise in production and investment, the falling of interest rates, prices, and profits occurred. The depression was caused by cheaper transportation costs and the expansion of the railroad network. The agricultural sector was the hardest hit. Business was also hit hard with as much as a 50-percent decline in prices for finished goods, while labor costs remained high.

B. Industrial Expansion

The start of the economic depression was closely linked to expansion of industrialization to new regions. While in 1870 many people in the periphery of Europe continued to live barely touched by industrialization, by 1914 their isolation was disappearing because of the expansion of the railroad network. For example, in the 1890s Russia underwent rapid industrialization under the leadership of Sergei Witte, who doubled the size of the railroad network. By 1914, Russia supplied 50 percent of the world’s oil and was ranked the fourth industrial power in the world.

C. The Second Industrial Revolution

The 1870s also witnessed the introduction of new techniques and technologies, which historians label the “Second Industrial Revolution.” New innovations in steel production
ensured that inexpensive, high-quality steel was widely available to expand the railroad networks. In construction, the introduction of steel, cement, plate glass, and the mechanical crane permitted the building of the first skyscrapers. The development of electric power and the light bulb created a new energy-producing industry to provide power to shops and homes.

A number of new features distinguish the Second Industrial Revolution from the first. In the Second Industrial Revolution, the state played a greater role in developing and operating the railroad networks and providing financial assistance and tariff protection to industry. Another innovation was the much larger business organizations. The new technique of vertical integration allowed owners to buy up the companies that produced the raw materials and those who distributed the finished products. Another business method was horizontal integration, which linked up companies in the same industry to control prices. Another new change was the introduction of the department store, which began replacing the small retailer as the distributor of goods.

D. On the Move: Emigration and Urbanization

As the depression hit agricultural regions hard, it increased immigration from the village to the industrialized city. In the 1890s, most of the immigrants came from the surrounding countryside and eventually returned to the village. By 1910, large percentages of immigrants were coming from the industrially underdeveloped regions of Europe to the more developed ones, and many were leaving Europe altogether, heading to North and South America.

E. Growing Social Unrest

The rapid economic changes brought by the depression and urbanization increased social tensions. As business owners attempted to protect their profits by cutting labor costs, the workers became increasingly hostile. Lower prices and profit declines encouraged middle-class hostility to workers’ demands. The new lower middle class found it harder to maintain their class status and also became hostile to the working class. The dramatic increase in population through immigration also increased social and ethnic tensions.

II. Defining the Political Nation

The hostile encounters between rival social groups changed the nature of European politics. The period saw the introduction of mass politics as men from outside the upper and middle class sought to participate in the political process.

A. Nation Making

While political leaders acknowledged the necessity of making ordinary Europeans feel like a part of political life, they also sought to maintain their dominant position in society and politics and to divert the growing challenge socialism posed to their authority.
1. Franchise Expansion

One method to staying in power was to share power. Britain provides the best example of this. In the first half of the nineteenth century, aristocrats allowed the middle class more political influence. Aristocrats continued to be leading forces in the Liberal and the Conservative parties, but both parties pushed for industrialization and policies that favored the middle class. By the last third of the nineteenth century, British politics included working-class men. Gradual franchise extensions convinced working-class men that they played an active role in politics. Similar patterns occurred across Europe, as political elites saw that franchise extension was a way to prevent socialist revolution. They also realized that the extension of the franchise did not necessarily mean radical change. In Germany, for example, all adult males could elect representatives to the Reichstag, but real power remained in the hands of the emperor and the chancellor. Still, the extension of the franchise was an integral part in the creation of mass politics, as more and more politicians realized the necessity of having to appeal to new voters.

2. Social Reform

Political parties initiated social welfare measures to attract new voters, to ensure working-class loyalty, and to weaken socialism’s appeal. In the 1880s, Germany’s chancellor, Bismarck, enacted some of Europe’s most progressive social welfare legislation including sickness benefits, accident insurance, and old age pensions. Bismarck outlawed the German Socialist Party (SPD) in 1878, which helped attract the support conservative landlords, Roman Catholics, and liberal businessmen. Bismarck ran the risk, however, of alienating the urban working class. Instead, Bismarck encouraged working-class support and weakened the appeal of the SPD by implementing social welfare legislation. In the 1870s in Britain, Conservative prime minister Benjamin Disraeli led the government’s increase of trade union rights, initiation of a public housing program, expansion of programs that investigated factories, and involvement in regulating food and drug sales. Britain’s most dramatic welfare reforms occurred between 1906 and 1912 under a Liberal government. These included school lunches, old age pensions, and sickness and unemployment benefits. In Italy, the liberal leader Giovanni Giolitti legalized trade unions, nationalized the railroads, created public health and life insurance programs, restricted child labor, and began the six-day workweek.

3. Schooling the Nation

After the 1870s most European governments concluded that they needed to create a sense of national identity to overcome regional, social, and political divisions. One of the key institutions in creating this new identity was the school system. Schools taught the children to read and write in the national language and taught history lessons that increased the sense of national superiority. Schools also
ensured that the children participated in nationalistic rituals, many based on newly invented traditions that celebrated the greatness of the country.

4. Inventing Traditions

School children were not the only participants of the newly created traditions. Policymakers created national holidays intended to inspire feelings of nationalism and loyalty to the nation. Parades, flag raisings, special services, and emphasis on the head of the state characterized the celebrations, all designed to link the masses together and to their ruler.

B. Crisis, Revolution, and Civil War: The Examples of France, Russia, and Ireland

Following Germany’s example of unification and industrialization, other European countries realized the importance of domestic unity to build a strong nation and to prevent revolution. The examples of France, Russia, and Ireland demonstrate the necessity and complexity of nation making.

1. France: A Crisis of Legitimacy

Although France had been unified for centuries, the Third Republic lacked legitimacy because it was born out of defeat. The revolutions of the nineteenth century made a unified political consensus impossible, as each faction had a different vision of the type of France it wanted. The split became most visible in the Dreyfus Affair. Captain Dreyfus was convicted of treason based on hearsay evidence. The Pro-Dreyfusards supported a vision of a secular, egalitarian France. The Anti-Dreyfusards favored a traditional, Catholic identity for France. In 1906, Dreyfus was declared not guilty. To counterattack the strength of anti-republicanism, the republican-supported government placed the army under civilian control and removed the political and educational significance of the Catholic Church. The Radical Party came to dominate politics and drew its support from the lower middle class of rural areas and small towns and so failed to establish social welfare programs to benefit the working class, which increasingly turned to violence.

2. Russia: Revolution and Reaction

In Russia, the tsarist regime continued absolutism and failed to develop a national identity to build a sense of loyalty to it. In the late nineteenth century, Russia underwent rapid industrialization, and social tensions increased as the growing middle class began to demand some participation in the political process. The government responded to their demands with repression but could not stop the social unrest. Rapid industrialization measures failed to have a strong foundation, and in the factories the workers endured terrible conditions. In 1905, tensions turned into a revolution when over 100,000 workers demanded economic and political rights from the tsar. Government troops responded by killing 70 people and wounded 240 more. Horrified, Russians across the empire continued the struggle, went on strike, revolted against tsarist rule, and middle-class liberals
demanded representational government. Tsar Nicholas II relinquished under pressure and introduced limited representative government. By 1910, the tsar had recovered from the Revolution of 1905 and refused to carry out many of the promised reforms.

3. The Irish Identity Conflict

In Ireland, two forms of national identity emerged and nearly led to civil war. Poverty and Catholics’ grievances against their religious and political repression encouraged revolutionary sentiment against British rule. In 1867, the Fenian movement tried to overthrow the British government but failed. Britain responded with martial law but also tried to accommodate peasants’ demands. These efforts were not enough to stop Irish nationalism. In 1898, the Sinn Fein movement appeared and grew rapidly. By 1914, it commanded a force of 180,000 fighters and showed that Irish Catholics formed their own national identity. Irish Protestants, who were the minority in Ireland but the majority in the northernmost province of Ulster, remained fiercely loyal to Britain. By 1914, Ulster “Unionists” set up their own paramilitary organizations to prevent Irish independence from succeeding. The outbreak of World War I temporarily prevented civil war.

III. Broadening the Political Nation

At the end of the nineteenth century, many European states gave the working class the right to vote. Mass communication and the extension of the franchise combined to create the era of mass politics, which represented the rise of socialist parties on the left and racist, radical nationalist parties on the right.

A. The Politics of the Working Class

1. The Workers’ City

The period that extended the vote to the working class saw an increase in class conflict and an expansion of the socialist parties. The new technologies such as the electric tram allowed the middle class to move to the suburbs. The result was that the classes became increasingly separated and hostile towards each other. The economic crisis and industrial expansion created large working-class communities in the cities. These communities were structured by strict gender relations in which the woman stayed at home with the children and managed the family life and income. To escape from the confining atmospheres of their jobs and homes, men participated in working-class institutions, such as corner pubs, music halls, and football clubs. These places of leisure helped create a cohesive male working-class identity.

2. Working-Class Socialism and the Revolutionary Problem

Marxist theories and the responses of the owners to the depression assured workers that they were engaged in a struggle against their boss. The workers
turned to the socialist parties in large numbers. The German SPD became the largest socialist party in Europe and the model for other socialist parties. The introduction of social welfare legislation produced a debate within the socialist parties. On the one hand were those who favored revolutionary action and on the other the socialist revisionists who advocated working within the existing political system to bring benefits to the working classes. Although the revisionist position was condemned by the party congresses, the socialists’ parliamentary leadership focused its efforts in making the political system more responsive to the needs of the working class.

3. Radical Trade Unions and the Anarchist Threat

Many workers at the end of the nineteenth century turned to radical trade unions that unionized industrial workers and not just the skilled as earlier unions had done. The radical trade unions used large-scale strike and violence. Frequently, governments responded to their activities with violence. Another movement that attracted workers was syndicalism. It sought to overturn the existing social and political order by using general strikes and violent revolutionary means. Syndicalism was based on the ideas of Mikhail Bakunin (1814-1876) and influenced by anarchism. The anarchists sought to destroy the entire state.

B. The Politics of Race and Nation

The rise of the socialist parties and the radical labor movement fostered fear in the middle and upper classes. In response, right wing movements emerged that used nationalism, racism, and anti-Semitism to attract the lower classes.

1. Nationalism in the Ottoman Empire and Austria-Hungary: The Politics of Division

The Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian Empires were multiethnic, religiously diverse, and industrially underdeveloped, which hindered the creation of a cohesive national identity. By the 1870s, nationalism tore apart the Ottoman Empire’s eastern territories, but the Ottoman sultan attempted to hold on to what was left of his European territories. In 1875 and 1876, he fiercely suppressed nationalist uprisings in Bosnia-Herzegovina and Bulgaria. Russia came to the Slavs’ aid in the Balkans in the Russo-Turkish War (1877-1878), and Montenegro, Romania, and Serbia achieved independence. Bulgaria achieved independence in 1908. Ottoman defeats seemed to strengthen Austria-Hungary, but a stagnant economy and various ethnic groups competing for political power hindered stability. The franchise was extended in the 1880s and 1890s, and the competing parties focused on ethnic identity and language rather than economics. The dominant German and Magyar nationalism ignited conflicts over national language, as both pushed the use of their language at the expense of the languages of the minority ethnic groups. Nationalist struggles prevented any party from gaining a majority. The growth of the Jewish population provided politicians
with a common enemy that could overcome societal divisions and secure election victories.

2. Anti-Semitism in Mass Politics

Anti-Semitism played a major role in nationalist politics. Nationalists saw race as determining who belonged in the state. The nationalistic climate caused “Jewishness” to be seen as a race, and consequently Jews came to be seen as outsiders. The Jews had been emancipated in the early nineteenth century and began to move into the new economic areas, professions, and regions. In Germany, Jews owned almost all of the department stores. Jews were seen as part of economic modernity and thus seen as a threat by small business owners and artisans. Although Jews were equated with corporate capitalism, they were also equated with socialism. Many newly enfranchised voters blamed economic misfortunes upon Jews.

3. Zionism: Jewish Mass Politics

As a reaction to the growing anti-Semitism, Jews under the leadership of Theodor Herzl developed their own brand of nationalism called Zionism. The movement called for establishing a Jewish state in Palestine.

IV. Outside the Political Nation? The Experience of Women

The extension of voting rights to the working classes led middle-class women to demand voting rights. The feminist movement also demanded that they be allowed to enter the public sphere and that many of the distinctions between the public and private spheres be obliterated.

A. Changes in the Position of Middle-Class Women

The role of middle-class women became more public in the late nineteenth century. Middle-class women began to raise smaller families. Unmarried middle-class women found work in local bureaucracies, voted in local elections, and served in local office positions. They also gained new opportunities in retail jobs and as telephone/telegraph operators and typists, as a result of the Second Industrial Revolution. They assumed government roles in the areas of social reform, particularly in poorhouses, running schools, and serving on school and welfare boards. By the 1880s, an international middle-class women’s movement worked through organizations, printed materials, and correspondence networks to challenge the concept of separate spheres and to alter private and public relations between men and women. The movement consisted of four main aims: the legal restrictions of married women, employment and education opportunities of women, the double standards of sexual conduct, and national women’s suffrage.

B. Women and the Law

Law codes in the early nineteenth century made the wife and children dependent on the husband. In the second half of the nineteenth century, the feminist movement sought to
improve the legal position of women. In the 1880s, English women won the right to own property and control their income.

C. Finding a Place: Employment and Education

The feminist movement also worked to improve the education of women. The push to educate women struggled against the popular notion that women’s brains were too delicate to withstand the strain of an intellectual education. France introduced state-funded secondary education for girls in the 1880s. But only a few women were allowed to enter French universities. In 1906, Marie Curie became the first woman to hold a university faculty position in France. Women were allowed to enter German universities in 1901. In the U.S., women accounted for one-third of university students in the 1880s.

D. Moral Reform

The campaign to win women’s rights and expand opportunities helped women move into the public sphere. However, ending the double standard of sexual conduct proved much harder. Attempts to eradicate the double standard took several forms. One attack on the double standard was to attack legislation regulating prostitution. By 1914, regulations on prostitution had been abolished in most western countries. Another attack on the double standard was to push for legislation attacking the problem of heavy male drinking. In the U.S. prohibition was enforced from 1919 to 1933.

E. The Fight for Women’s Suffrage

The slow progress in attaining change in the social and moral position of women convinced feminists that they needed the right to vote. In Britain, the National Society for Women’s Suffrage was founded in 1867. Before 1914 only Finland and Norway gave women the right to vote. The dramatic changes caused by World War I brought the right to vote for women in Britain, the Netherlands, Russia, the U.S., Germany, and Austria. French and Italian women had to wait until after World War II. In eastern Europe, economic underdevelopment meant that the middle-class base of feminism was too small. In Catholic countries, women found more possibilities for emotional expression and intellectual satisfaction with Catholicism’s veneration of the Virgin Mary and female saints, exaltation of family, and opportunities for religious vocation as nuns. In contrast to these examples stood Britain, which had a large middle class and as a result developed the strongest women’s suffrage movement in Europe. However, slow results led British feminists to begin using radical tactics. Suffragettes interrupted political meetings, chained themselves to the steps of parliament, broke windows, and burned churches. Once in jail, they engaged in hunger strikes.

V. Conclusion: The West in an Age of Mass Politics

The Age of Mass Politics involved many violent reactions by those seeking a share in political power and by those who tried to prevent such gains. The expansion of industrialization and urbanization served as catalysts for many of these conflicts. Out of these conflicts emerged questions about the definition of “the West.” Geographically, where did it begin and end? Did skin color affect membership? Is “the West” democratic, and if so, who should get to vote? The
introduction of emotional nationalist politics challenged Western faith in human rationality, while industrial and technological developments reinforced the idea of rational progress. The concept of “the West” had grown even more complex.

**TIMELINE**

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event 1</th>
<th>Event 2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sinn Fein movement formed</td>
<td>Assassination of Tsar Alexander II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Republic established in France</td>
<td>Great Depression in Trade and Agriculture begins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of Dreyfus trial</td>
<td>Formation of suffragette movement</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
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**TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS**

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

- Anarchism
- Mikhail Bakunin
- Fenian “Rising”
- Second Industrial Revolution
- Russian Revolution of 1905
- Dreyfus Affair
- Anti-Semitism
- Radical Party
- Theodor Herzl
- Gustave Eiffel
- Zionism
- Vertical integration
- Horizontal integration
- Alexander II
- Suffragettes
- Transformation
- Karl Lueger
- Giovanni Giolitti
- Sinn Fein
- Socialist revisionism
- Syndicalism
- Feminist movement
- German Social Democratic Party
- Great Depression in Trade and Agriculture
- George Sorel
- William II
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

Locate the following places on the map.

Austria-Hungary  Italy  German Empire
Ireland  Russia  Netherlands
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. How did the Great Depression in Trade and Agriculture change Europe?
2. What was the relationship between nationalism and mass politics? In what ways did mass politics affect Britain, Germany, Austria, and France?
3. Define Zionism. What were its aims? How did it advance during the nineteenth century?
4. What was syndicalism? What were its goals?
5. What was anarchism? What were its aims?
6. What were the goals of the feminist movement? What gains were made during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. Women were vital participants in the retail revolution. How does Emile Zola reinforce their role?
2. What were the elements of the socialist agenda as expressed in Ernst Klaar’s song?
3. According to the suffragette pamphlet, why should women be given the right to vote?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the ruling classes of the Western European powers respond to the new threats and opportunities provided by mass political participation?
2. Why did so many people turn to anti-Semitism in Europe during the late nineteenth century?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. During the Great Depression in Trade and Agriculture all of the following economic trends were present EXCEPT
   a. decline in prices and profits.
   b. landowners and laborers found it difficult to remain on the land.
   c. rise in production and introduction of new technologies.
   d. decline in the levels of investment and production.

2. During the period from 1871-1914, Europe witnessed tremendous growth in
   a. agricultural development.
   b. industrial profits and workers’ salaries.
   c. cultural and economic isolation.
   d. heavy industry and urbanization of European populations.

3. Which of the following was NOT a characteristic of the Second Industrial Revolution?
   a. Introduction of the department stores
   b. New organizational forms in business
   c. Complete government absence from economic life
   d. Introduction of cheaper steel and electricity

4. Which European power experienced conflict over the question of the national language?
   a. France
   b. Russia
   c. Britain
   d. Austria-Hungary

5. What political faction did German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck outlaw in 1878?
   a. Conservatives
   b. Socialists
   c. Liberals
   d. Anarchists

6. The Dreyfus Affair illustrated
   a. the need for social legislation in France.
   b. the greater efficiency of democracy in France.
   c. the failure of the French to achieve a consensus on a national identity.
   d. the innate tendency of the French government toward militarism.
7. Which group opposed Irish Home Rule?
   a. Sinn Fein
   b. Ulster Protestants
   c. The Liberal Party
   d. The Syndicalists

8. The founder of Zionism in its political form was
   a. Theodor Herzl.
   b. Karl Lueger.
   c. Mikhail Bakunin.
   d. George Sorel.

9. Anarchists called for
   a. gradual evolution to gain benefits for the working class.
   b. unionization of industrial workers and general strikes.
   c. direct violent action to destroy the state.
   d. working through government to force change.

10. Which of the following people was a British suffragette?
    a. Emmeline Pankhurst
    b. Marie Curie
    c. Sofia Perovskaia
    d. Josephine Butler
Chapter 23

*The West and the World: Cultural Crisis and the New Imperialism, 1870-1914*

**CHAPTER OUTLINE**

In the fall of 1898, British troops invaded the Sudan. The British Camel Corps faced the 40,000-men-strong Sudanese army (the dervishes). The British were equipped with repeating rifles and Maxim guns. At the five-hour-long Battle of Omdurman, the British lost 40 men, and the Sudanese dervishes lost 11,000. The battle marked the beginning of the age of new imperialism in which the Western world came to dominate Africa and Asia.

I. Scientific Transformations

In the last third of the nineteenth century, new scientific discoveries made people more aware of the relationship between the human body and nature, and helped improve people’s health. Scientific discoveries produced a sense of confidence in Western superiority and in progress. These discoveries also produced cultural anxiety.

A. Medicine and Microbes

Beginning in the 1860s, scientists began tracking the transmission of diseases and developing ways to control their spread. The French chemist Louis Pasteur discovered that bacteria were the source of contagion in epidemic diseases and then developed vaccines for several diseases. Robert Koch isolated the tuberculosis bacillus and the cholera bacteria. The result was a 60-percent drop in the number of people who died from infectious diseases. The development of antiseptic and anesthetics improved the survival rate from operations. These medical advances convinced Europeans that they could conquer nature through science. They also produced anxiety, as Europeans feared being constantly surrounded by invisible germs.

B. The Triumph of Evolutionary Theory

Discoveries in biology led to the development of evolutionary theories that provided a basis to justify the social and economic superiority of Europeans. The key figure was Charles Darwin. He combined his observations of different species of plant and animal life on isolated islands with the theories of geologist Charles Lyell to produce his own theory. Darwin concluded that species produce more offspring than can survive and concluded that life is a struggle for survival. Individual species that are better adapted to the environment survive and pass on their traits. For Darwin the universe was not ordered by God into a harmonious system, but rather it was a place of brutal struggle for survival. Many Christians were appalled by the implications of Darwin’s ideas.
C. Social Darwinism and Racial Hierarchies

Darwin’s scientific theories of biological relationships were applied to society by Herbert Spencer, who argued that human society reflected the same trends as plant and animal life. The theory of social Darwinism applied the idea of individual competition and survival of the fittest to the social hierarchy and races. Spencer concluded that the lower classes and the non-white races had lost in the struggle for survival. This belief in white Europeans’ biological superiority justified white rule and the dominance of Western civilization. The theory also placed women in a lower position to men on the evolutionary scale. Jean Baptiste Lamarck’s theory that acquired characteristics were inherited produced great distress by implying that progress was not inevitable and therefore regression was possible. This theory led some people to argue that the conditions of the urban working class were producing characteristics of physical weakness, sexual promiscuity, and criminality in the lower classes that were being passed to the next generation.

D. Social Thought: The Revolt Against Positivism

Positivists believed that applying scientific methods to the study of human affairs would guarantee progress. The scientific discoveries and the new disciplines of the social sciences began to emphasize the role of non-rational forces in human behavior. Gustave LeBon studied the collective psychology of the crowd to show that individuals respond more to emotion than to rational arguments. Max Weber studied the role of bureaucracies in modern life and concluded that bureaucratization could crush human ideals and initiatives. Sigmund Freud explored the role of the subconscious in shaping the individual. Freudian psychology convinced many people that the irrational unconscious was in control.

E. The Revolution in Physics

Between 1880 and 1910, a series of discoveries in physics challenged how humans viewed the universe. The discovery of X-ray changed the assumption about the solidity of matter. Marie Curie discovered radium, which emitted subatomic particles. Max Planck theorized that heated bodies radiate energy. Finally, Albert Einstein introduced the theory of relativity, which produced a revolution in perspective. He argued that time and space shift in relation to the position of the observer. Therefore, the universe is four-dimensional: height, width, depth, and time. These discoveries presented a vision of the universe in which what you see is the product of subjective perception.

II. Cultural Crisis and the Birth of Modernism

The fin-de-siècle cultural crisis was characterized by a fear of evolutionary regression and a sense of degeneration and decline. At the same time, the sense that the old answers were no longer sufficient produced the modernist movement, which celebrated the release from the constraints of middle-class culture.
A. Fin-de-Siècle Anxieties

The sense of degeneration resulting from the increasing urban social problems was reflected in the literature of the fin-de-siècle. Émile Zola chronicled in his novels the decline of a family to embody the perceived decay of France. For example, in *Nana*, he used the title character, a prostitute, as a symbol of France. The novels *Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde* and *Dracula* showed the primitive irrational beast lurking beneath the civilized exterior. Friedrich Nietzsche viewed people as enfeebled by social constraint, Christianity, and rationalism to the point that they had been deprived of the emotional and instinctive aspects of human nature. He proclaimed to the world that God was dead and therefore there were no more restraints on human behavior. His ideas became popular in Germany and Austria in the 1890s and early 1900s.

B. Tightening Gender Boundaries

The fear of degeneration increased the efforts to define appropriate male and female behavior. Antifeminists argued that women who chose public activity produced physically and morally degenerate children. Homosexuals were singled out not just for immoral behavior, but also as abnormal and dangerous. Scientists claimed that homosexuality was a disease that could spread to others. As homosexual subcultures became more common in the urban cities, the legal codes made homosexual acts illegal. At the same time, the new science of sexuality made important discoveries about the sexual physiology of humans, including the process of human reproduction. The German scientist Richard von Krafft-Ebing labeled homosexuality a pathology. The concern over appropriate sexual boundaries also appeared in the arts, where the female was depicted as dangerous.

C. The Birth of Modernism

Several artistic, literary, and intellectual trends of the early twentieth century are collectively referred to as modernism. These movements centered on the notion of rejecting established authority. Modernists rejected the notion that art should be an instrument of moral uplift, and instead argued it should be a value in itself. Modernists also emphasized the sense of discontinuity with the past in modern society. New musical styles such as ragtime and the works of Igor Stravinsky and Arnold Schoenberg used unexpected rhythms and rapid tempo changes. In art, painters such as Pablo Picasso juxtaposed different perspectives in the style they called Cubism. Cubism revealed the complexities of individual perception. The Expressionist painters argued that art should express the artist’s interior vision. Wassily Kandinsky produced the first abstract paintings in Western art. Most middle-class people rejected these new forms of art.

D. Popular Religion and Secularization

Religious beliefs and practices remained a powerful force in the late nineteenth century. Sunday worship remained a central part of people’s lives. People continued to connect revolution and anarchy with unbelief. In Europe, popular Catholicism emphasized devotion to the Virgin Mary and the shrines dedicated to the Virgin Mary, such as Lourdes, attracted hundreds of thousands of pilgrims. Several factors contributed to the
preservation of popular religiosity. First, new immigrants looked to the local church to provide them with a sense of spiritual and social support. Second, several nationalist movements identified their national identity with Roman Catholicism. Last, Christianity was interwoven with imperialism in the missionary activities.

Christianity in late nineteenth-century Europe was also challenged from several sources. Among these were intellectual challenges derived from the scientific discoveries. Sociologists such as Emile Durkheim lumped Christianity with forms of primitive religion. Another challenge came from the increasingly anticlerical political currents. A more significant challenge came from the rise of department stores and spectator entertainment that competed with religion for time and served to cement community identity through elaborate rituals.

III. New Imperialism

After 1870, Europe entered an era of imperialist expansion that coincided with economic, scientific, and cultural developments. The conquest of other peoples was justified by Social Darwinism.

A. Understanding the New Imperialism

The third phase of imperialism was characterized by a much more aggressive expansion into non-Western regions. Over the course of 30 years, new imperialist ventures resulted in European domination of 85 percent of the globe. Part of the reason for the new expansion was to protect acquisitions from the previous phase of imperial expansion in the eighteenth century. Britain, for example, annexed Burma and Kashmir to protect its hold on India. But other factors existed that drove this new wave of imperialism.

1. Technology, Economics, and Politics

The technologies of the Second Industrial Revolution depended on raw materials that were available only in Asia, Africa, or South America. The need for new markets in the face of the Great Depression of 1873 pushed expansionism. After the end of the Depression in the 1890s, global investing expanded. Political pressure in the age of mass politics also contributed to imperialist expansion. Last, the drive for colonies by the new nations of Germany and Italy led to competition among European nations to acquire new colonies.

2. The Imperial Idea

The new imperialism was not just a policy of the elite; it also had great support among the lower classes. The key to this culture of imperialism was the sense of superiority of white Europeans. For some people, this sense of superiority was tied to the Christian religion, and they saw Christianizing the conquered peoples as key to their imperial mission. Others saw their imperial ideas in more secular terms. Following Social Darwinian thinking, some Europeans spoke of their biologically ordained imperial destiny. They saw their imperial mission as a duty to bring the benefits of civilization to the natives. Others, such as Rudyard
Kipling, saw it as a “white man’s burden.” Some Europeans rejected the imperialist mission. For example, J. A. Hobson argued that imperialism benefited only the rich capitalists and distracted people from problems at home.

B. The Scramble for Africa

New imperialism is best exemplified by the Europeans’ massive conquest of Africa, known as the Scramble for Africa. In 1875, Europeans held 11 percent of Africa; by 1905 they held 90 percent of Africa.

1. Overcoming Obstacles

For centuries, Europeans had traded with Africa for gold and slaves, but had not attempted to conquer it. Until the late nineteenth century, Africa was known as “the white men’s grave” because Europeans lacked resistance to diseases such as malaria and sleeping sickness. Even with these dangers, they continued to push through Africa and their increased knowledge of Africa coincided with several changes that made Africa vulnerable to conquest. First, the suppression of the slave trade severely weakened West African states. Second, the development of the steamship made it possible for Europeans to navigate the shallow rivers of Africa. Third, in the 1850s Europeans discovered that quinine helped fight malaria. Last, new weapons such as the repeating rifle gave them technological superiority over the Africans.

2. Slicing the Cake: The Conquest of Africa

After 1870, Europeans began to carve up Africa in the belief that these colonies would ensure economic prosperity. The claims of King Leopold of Belgium to the Congo raised controversy in Europe. The Berlin Conference in 1884 agreed to Leopold’s claims and established the terms for others to make their claims based on the principle of effective occupation. Leopold ruled the Congo as his own private territory. He deprived villages of grazing and hunting grounds and forced the men to deliver large quotas of rubber. To ensure delivery, their families’ failure was punished by severe mutilation. In 1908, international outcry against the abuses forced the Belgium government to take control of the Congo. Another example of abuses was German Southwest Africa. When the Herero tribe rebelled, every member was forced into the desert to die of thirst.

3. African Resistance

Africans frequently resisted European encroachment. But only Ethiopia was successful with its defeat of the Italians at the Battle of Adowa in 1896. While African leaders were able to obtain modern weaponry, they did not adopt new tactics to take advantage of their new technology. Even strong leaders, like Samori Turé of West Africa, who had acquired modern weapons and adopted new tactics, were eventually overwhelmed by the weight of French imperialism.
C. Asian Encounters

Unlike Africa, many Asian states were already part of the European economic network by 1870. Once again, increased industrialization accelerated the new imperialism in Asia. The Dutch controlled most of the Indonesian archipelago, while the British controlled India. The U.S. and European powers desired to use the Pacific islands as coal stations for merchant and naval fleets. The decline of China produced a scramble effect as each power attempted to protect trade routes to China. This led France to acquire Indonesia.

1. Expanding the West: The United States and Australia

The U.S. by the middle of the nineteenth century was also fully engaged in imperial expansion. In 1846 it took northern Mexico and from the 1860s-1890s, it deprived the Native Americans of their lands. In 1853, the U.S. became an imperial power in Asia when Commodore Perry forced the Japanese to open their ports to American ships. Afterward, the U.S. was involved in imperialist ventures in China. By 1900, the U.S. acquired the Philippines, Guam, Cuba, and Puerto Rico. It also annexed Hawaii and parts of Samoa.

Imperialist expansion also included the takeover of Australia. Britain had originally used Australia as a dumping ground for criminals. But the expansion of the textile industry attracted large numbers of settlers to Australia. Settlers came to view Australia as a part of the “West” and thus Australia should be “white.” Prior to the arrival of the English, the native peoples, or Aborigines, had followed a nomadic way of life. British settlers perceived the Aborigines as a threat, and violently attacked them. In the 1820s, British missions were established to assimilate the Aborigines. Aboriginal children were removed from their parents and educated according to British ways, then were placed as apprentices and servants. At the end of the nineteenth century the new policy of “protection” made the Aborigines wards of the state. In 1901, Australia became a self-governing commonwealth under white rule. The Aborigines were only given citizenship in 1967. The Australians also severely restricted Chinese immigration.

2. The Continued Expansion of the Russian Empire

The Russians had since the seventeenth century been expanding eastward across Siberia. The Russians treated the Siberian peoples brutally, trading them as slaves. Russian immigrants introduced European diseases that decimated the local populations and Russian demands for furs depleted their animal herds. By the 1860s, Russia was pushing against the Chinese border and into Central Asia. Conflict between Russian and Japanese imperialist interests in Manchuria led to war in 1904. The Japanese victory shocked the Russians, who thought Asians to be racially inferior. Domestic tensions erupted into revolution, which showed that imperialism could be a risky venture.
3. Japanese Industrial and Imperial Expansion

Japan had remained closed to the West until 1853. This isolation angered Americans, who wanted to use its ports to supply their ships. The opening of Japan undermined the military government of the Shogun. After a civil war, the emperor was restored to power. Japan began modernizing along western lines. It developed a modern political system and began industrializing. It entered the imperial race by defeating China in 1895 and Russia in 1905. In the process, it acquired Korea and Taiwan. Japan was just as brutal as any Western power in dealing with conquered peoples.

4. Scrambling in China

China proved less successful than Japan in dealing with Western pressure. Western powers implemented the principles of “extraterritoriality,” which exempted foreign nationals from being subject to Chinese laws. The defeat in the Sino-Japanese War severely weakened the Chinese government and began a drive by the Western powers to create spheres of influence in China. In 1899, the Europeans and the U.S. agreed to follow the American “open door” policy. Opposition to Western dominance produced the Boxer Rebellion in 1900. The West sent a joint military force to crush the rebellion, and China was required to pay a large indemnity.

D. A Glimpse of Things to Come: The Boer War

At the end of the nineteenth century, the British found themselves involved in a bloody war that challenged the vision and self-confidence of the imperialists. The Boer War was the culmination of a century of conflict between the British and the Dutch settlers in South Africa. The British in the Cape Colony became fearful that the Boers would work with the Germans in Southwest Africa to limit British expansion. When gold and diamonds were discovered in the Boer Republic of Transvaal, British investors pressed the government to put the Boer republics under British rule. When war broke out in 1899, the Boers proved to be skilled guerilla fighters. By 1901 the war had stalemated. The British then began burning Boer farms to the ground and confining Boer women, children, and servants to concentration camps. Disease decimated the Boers and blacks in the camps. The British defeated the Boers in 1902. In 1910 the British granted self-rule to South Africa, and the Boers as the dominant white group created a society based on segregation.

The military and humanitarian reputation of the British was tarnished by their actions in the Boer Wars. The opposition to the war at home showed that support for imperialism could erode quickly. The Boer War was an ominous opening for the twentieth century, during which the use of concentration camps for civilians became common.

IV. Conclusion: Reshaping the West: Fragmentation and Expansion

During the latter half of the nineteenth century, the West underwent dramatic changes in its societies, in science, and in religion. These changes created both confidence and anxiety about
the state of Western society. The aggressive expansion of the West also forced non-Western
societies, particularly in Africa and Asia, to undergo major political and cultural changes.
Europeans justified their domination over subjugated peoples with the principles of Christianity
and Social Darwinism. The outbreak of World War I in 1914 would ultimately challenge the
values and purpose of Western society, illustrating the ever-shifting foundation of the West.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important
historical events chronologically.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discovery of the X-ray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Einstein publishes the theory of relativity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan opened by Commodore Perry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Darwin publishes <em>The Origin of Species</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan’s Meiji Restoration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berlin Conference establishes ground rules for colonialism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1853</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1859</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1868</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1884</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS**

*The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter.
Define each one.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Louis Pasteur</td>
<td>Albert Einstein</td>
<td>Sigmund Freud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jean Baptiste Lamarck</td>
<td>Charles Darwin</td>
<td>New imperialism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Darwinism</td>
<td>Herbert Spencer</td>
<td>Fin-de-siècle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modernism</td>
<td>Emile Zola</td>
<td>Friedrich Nietzsche</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressionism</td>
<td>Cubism</td>
<td>Fauves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gustave Le Bon</td>
<td>Max Weber</td>
<td>Igor Stravinsky</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scramble for Africa</td>
<td>William Gladstone</td>
<td>Repeating rifle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxer Rebellion</td>
<td>Berlin Conference of 1884</td>
<td>Leopold II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. A. Hobson</td>
<td>Samori Turé</td>
<td>Battle of Adowa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sino-Japanese War</td>
<td>Russo-Japanese War</td>
<td>Aborigines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matthew Perry</td>
<td>Rudyard Kipling</td>
<td>Extraterritoriality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anticlericalism</td>
<td>Boer War</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

Locate the following places on the map.

- Ethiopia
- China
- Transvaal
- Philippines
- French Indochina
- West Africa
- Guam
- Australia
- Japan
- Congo
- Zimbabwe
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. How did new scientific discoveries of the late nineteenth century lead to improvements in people’s health?

2. How did new scientific discoveries of the late nineteenth century lead to greater pessimism about human progress?

3. How did modernism challenge liberal middle-class ideologies and standards?

4. What were the motives behind imperialism? How did Darwinism contribute to the new imperialism?

5. In what way was the “new imperialism” an outgrowth of the Second Industrial Revolution? How did new medical advances make the new imperialism possible?

6. How did the “Scramble for Africa” begin?

7. What forms of imperialism were imposed on China? What non-European nation was involved in Asian imperialism?

8. How did African peoples react to the European imperialist takeover of their homeland? How effective were they? How did Japan react to Western encroachment?

DOCUMENT QUESTION

1. How did Darwin’s *Descent of Man* affirm white prejudices about other races?

2. The middle class initially rejected modernism. What aspects to Guillaume Apollinaire’s description of Cubism would probably have alienated a middle-class audience?

3. What fears does Tachibana Mituomi reveal in his dream? Were these fears justified by events in other parts of the world?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. Define *fin-de-siecle* and discuss what factors led many Europeans in this period to believe they were living in a time of cultural crisis.

2. What factors kept religion as a vital force in the decades after the 1870s—an age of scientific discovery?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which of the following statements about “new imperialism” is NOT accurate?
   a. The new imperialism was partly made possible by the inventions of the Second Industrial Revolution.
   b. Christian missionaries promoted the new imperialism.
   c. None of the European nations that had held colonies prior to 1870 participated.
   d. The new imperialism was influenced by the ideas of Social Darwinism.

2. Which of the following people discovered that bacteria was a cause of disease?
   a. Louis Pasteur
   b. Robert Koch
   c. Marie Curie
   d. Max Planck

3. Which of the following statements was NOT a motivation for European imperialism?
   a. The depression that began in 1873 accelerated the drive to acquire new markets.
   b. Europeans wanted to catch up with Asia’s imperial strength.
   c. European statesmen used imperialism as a means of appealing to new voters.
   d. Newly formed nations wanted to gain prestige.

4. The theory put forward by Charles Darwin to account for the development of the natural world was
   a. relativity.
   b. modernism.
   c. evolution.
   d. Cubism.

5. Which of the following statements is NOT accurate about modernism?
   a. Modernism rejected the idea of art as a moral instrument.
   b. Modernism rejected established authority.
   c. Modernists rejected human emotion.
   d. Modernists rejected the belief in the power of human reason.

6. What African nation most successfully resisted European imperialism at the end of the nineteenth century?
   a. Ethiopia
   b. Zimbabwe
   c. Libya
   d. South Africa
7. The new ideas of Le Bon, Nietzsche, and Freud led many people to think
   
   a. you could produce a totally rational human being.
   b. emotions had no influence in human behavior.
   c. the irrational was in control.
   d. positively about the future.

8. All of the following posed a serious challenge to Christianity except for
   
   a. Darwinism.
   b. discoveries in biology and physics.
   c. high rates of immigration.
   d. the growth of spectator entertainment.

9. The conflict that occurred as a result of Asian resentment towards Western encroachment was the
   
   b. Boxer Rebellion.
   c. Sino-Japanese War.
   d. Herero Rebellion.

10. Which of the following statements best summarizes J. A. Hobson’s critique of European imperialism?
    
    a. Unregulated capitalism leads inevitably to imperialism.
    b. Europeans have a burden or responsibility to spread Western civilization to the non-white peoples.
    c. Europeans had a right to conquer the rest of the world.
    d. Europeans must bring Christianity to the non-Western world.
Chapter 24

The First World War

CHAPTER OUTLINE

On the morning of July 1, 1916 the British soldiers in northern France began the first attack of the Battle of the Somme. By the end of the day, 20,000 British soldiers were dead and 40,000 were wounded. By the time the battle ended on November 18, 1916, 420,000 British soldiers and 200,000 French soldiers were dead or wounded. On the German side there were 450,000 casualties. At the battle of Verdun, the French and Germans suffered 750,000 casualties, and at the Battle of Gallipoli, the Australian and New Zealand forces experienced a casualty rate of 65 percent. Between 1914 and 1918, 37 million men were casualties—killed, wounded, and missing—in the battles of World War I. These massive numbers were the product of the Industrial Revolution, which provided the killing instruments of the machine gun, artillery, and poison gas.

I. The Origins of the First World War

The trigger that started World War I was the assassination of the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, on June 28, 1914 by a Serbian terrorist. A month later, Austria declared war on Serbia, and in a week Europe was engulfed in a world war.

A. Nationalism in Eastern Europe: Austria-Hungary and the Problem of Serbia

One of the main causes of World War I was nationalism in eastern Europe. In eastern Europe, nationalism was defined by ethnic, linguistic, and religious identities that did not coincide with political citizenship. In the Austro-Hungarian Empire, over 27 million citizens did not identify themselves as either Austrian or Hungarian. The success of nationalism required the break-up of the empire. Therefore, the Habsburg officials viewed the nationalistic aspirations of seven million Serbians living in Austria-Hungary as a threat to the existence of the Habsburg Empire. The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand provided the Habsburg Empire the opportunity to crush the Serbian threat once and for all. On July 23, Austria issued an ultimatum, and when Serbia failed to meet all of the provisions, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia.

B. International Competition and Rival Alliance Systems

The war between Serbia and Austria-Hungary turned into a European-wide war largely because of the alliance systems established in the previous decades. The unification of Germany in 1871 created an economic and military power in the center of Europe. As a new nation, Chancellor Bismarck sought alliances to protect its national security and to ensure its influence. In 1879, Bismarck established the Dual Alliance with Austria-Hungary, and this became the Triple Alliance when Italy joined in 1882. In 1887, Bismarck signed the Reinsurance Treaty with Russia, whereby both countries agreed to
remain neutral when either was at war. After Bismarck’s dismissal in 1890, Kaiser Wilhelm II led the treaty to lapse, which made possible a Franco-Russian Alliance in 1894, resulting in the threat of a two-front war for Germany. In 1898, Germany began constructing a navy, which Britain saw as a threat to its security. Britain began making economic, imperial, and military agreements with France and Russia. These agreements resulted in the formation of the Triple Entente. These agreements did not require Britain to join a war. By the beginning of the twentieth century, Europe was divided into two opposing camps. When the threat of war appeared, Germany gave Austria-Hungary full support (commonly known as a “blank check”). Although Austria-Hungary and Germany saw Russia as the protector of the Slavs, neither believed Russia was strong enough to risk war.

C. Mobilization Plans and the Industrialized Military

Part of the reason for the start of World War I was the gap that had developed between diplomacy and the needs of a military in the age of industrialization. In the preceding decade, military planning had fully incorporated the railroad as a tool of mobilization. By using the railroads, troops could be mobilized and put in place very quickly. Once a nation mobilized, the momentum toward war was dictated by the needs of the military plans. In the case of Germany, the Schlieffen Plan was devised to meet the needs of a war on two fronts. It required fast mobilization against France and an attack through Belgium in order to defeat France and then turn around to face the Russian forces in the east. Russia was expected to mobilize slowly because of its underdevelopment. When the Russian government ordered mobilization, Germany declared war. Germany proceeded to invade Belgium and attack France. The invasion of Belgium brought Britain into the war as the guarantor of Belgium neutrality.

D. The Will to War

Another key factor in the road to war was the pressure of public opinion. The popular press had involved the masses in foreign affairs, and new technologies in communication made news even more accessible. Mass nationalism influenced public opinion, and the masses supported the war as a “we vs. them” nationalistic competition. Only a minority in each country opposed the war. In every country, socialist parties, which had been committed against war, now voted for war credits. For those who feared racial degeneration, war was seen as a chance to reassert male virility. For political leaders facing aggressive unions and socialist movements, war was seen as unifying the population. Most people expected the war to be short and that the soldiers would be home by Christmas.

II. The Experience of War

The French expected a German attack through Alsace and Lorraine and sent their best troops to these provinces. The officers rode into battle wearing their red and blue parade dress, gloves, and plumed hats. All this color made them easy targets for the German machine guns. Their broken remains shattered expectations and signified the beginning of a war that would be fought on several fronts in Europe and around the world.
A. The Western Front: Stalemate in the Trenches

Following a modified version of the Schleifen Plan, the German troops advanced into France and seemed poised to take Paris by the first week of September. French and British forces stopped the German advance at the Battle of the Marne, saving Paris, but were unable to push the Germans out of France. For the next four years, Germans faced the British and French troops along miles of trenches stretching from the Swiss border to the Belgium coast.

1. The Troglodyte War

Both sides found themselves confined to underground dwellings. For four years, men stood in muddy ditches 3-4-feet wide and 7-8-feet deep, reinforced by sandbags and barbed wire. The trenches zigzagged at sharp angles to limit the range of fire, which also ensured that everywhere a soldier looked he saw mud. Between the lines was no-man’s land, pocketed by deep craters from the shelling and littered with the decomposing corpses of the dead. In 1915, a new deadly weapon, poison gas, was introduced, which blinded, blistered skin, and caused death by asphyxiation. During 1915, an average of 300 British men became casualties every day.

2. The Offensives

Throughout the war, the offense remained the main strategy on both sides. Each offensive began with a massive artillery bombardment followed by the advancement of men against the no-man’s land to enemy lines only to be mowed down by the enemy’s machine guns. The casualties mounted and neither side gained any ground.

3. A Modernist War

On both the home and military front, men and women experienced a new reality that confirmed perceptions of the world presented by the modernist artists before the war. Artists abandoned the notion that art carried no message and began to use the canvas to convey the horrors of war. The war itself seemed at times to embody the characteristics of a modernist painting. Like the modernist painters, the soldiers learned to mistrust the power of human reason. The mechanical nature of the war turned soldiers into interchangeable parts in the war machine.

B. The War in Eastern Europe

Only in Italy did events in the Eastern Front match those of the Western Front. The war in eastern Europe was one of movement, as Russian troops made surprising advances into Germany and Austria and were then chased deep into Russian territory.
1. The Eastern Front: A War of Movement

In 1914, the Russians mobilized faster than expected and advanced into eastern Germany and Austria. At the Battle of Tannenberg, the Germans, under the command of Generals Hindenberg and Ludendorff, stopped the Russians, advanced, and then pushed them back deep into Russian territory. For the next two years, the pattern of Russian advance and retreat continued, revealing the inability of the Russian government and economy to supply its troops. Defeated and demoralized, the Russian soldiers started deserting in mass. As the pressure mounted on the Russian economy, revolution occurred in March 1917, and the tsar was forced to abdicate. In November, a small group of socialist revolutionaries called the Bolsheviks overthrew the provisional government and withdrew Russia from the war and in March of 1918 with the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. Because of the large numbers of troops needed to hold these territories, Germany did not benefit as much as expected.

2. The Forgotten Front: The Balkans

While war raged in western and eastern Europe, the Balkan fronts were almost forgotten. For the Balkans, World War I was the third war in three years. The first was fought to push the Ottoman Empire out of the Balkans and the second over the border settlements. In the first year of the war, Austria-Hungary fought Serbia with little success. When in 1915 the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria joined Austria-Hungary on a joint invasion, Serbia was defeated and occupied. The brutal occupation cost the lives of 25 percent of the Serbian citizens. Romania joined the Allies in 1916 and was quickly crushed by the troops of Germany and Austria-Hungary.

C. The World At War

Because of the imperialist expansion of the late nineteenth century, the war became a world war. The British colonies and dependencies supplied at least 40 percent of British troops. Japan wanted Germany’s colonies in China. Portugal joined the war to expand its holdings in Africa. Because of British needs to protect its access to India, the Middle East became an important battleground. The British gained the aid of the Arabs with promises of postwar independence. Arab nationalists pushed the Ottoman forces out of the Arabian Peninsula and the British captured the Sinai Peninsula and Jerusalem by 1917.

1. The War at Sea and the Entry of the United States

At sea, the British Navy had blockaded Germany and its allies, and the consequent food shortages were causing riots in Germany. After the German sinking of the Lusitania in 1915, they restricted submarine attacks because of U.S. protest. Desperate for a quick win, Germany renewed unrestricted submarine warfare. This action, the interception of the Zimmerman telegram (the exposure of a German plan to convince Mexico to invade the U.S.), and the tight economic link between the U.S. and the Allies, led to the U.S. declaration of war in April of
1917. Although American troops did not arrive in France until 1918, American entrance into the war provided a psychological boost.

2. Back in Motion: The Western Front in 1918

In March of 1918, the Germans quickly broke through the lines in surprise attacks and reached within 50 miles of Paris. The Allies, reinforced with American troops, followed suit with similar tactics and began pushing the Germans back, particularly with the new, advanced technology of the tank. The Germans’ rapid advance overextended their manpower and supply lines. The armies of the Ottoman and Austrian Empires and Bulgaria collapsed in October, and Germany signed an armistice on November 11, 1918.

III. The Home Fronts

Four years of war transformed the societies involved. The term “home front” was coined to highlight the role played by the civilians in the war effort.

A. Industrial War

The war required that economy be mobilized in order to supply the machine guns, poison gas, canned food, and uniforms needed by the troops. At first the governments did not realize the role played by industry and labor. The failure of the industries of Austria-Hungary and Russia to meet these needs undermined their troops’ morale.

1. The Expansion of State

By 1915, governments on both sides began assuming power to requisition supplies, limit profits, and dictate wages. In Germany the policy was called “war socialism.” German industry worked with the military to supply the war effort and the Auxiliary Service Law of 1916 drafted all men age 17-60 for war work. Even in liberal Britain, the government restricted individual freedom by imposing the draft, controlling the economy, and restricting many social institutions.

2. The Politics of Total War

In 1915, France and Britain introduced coalition governments that included the socialist parties. The governments acted in favor of the basic needs of the workers, and the labor unions made a no-strike pledge. Despite these pledges, the number of strikes did increase in 1916 and 1917. The military and big industry seized control of the economy. While the industrialists made enormous profits, the workers were ground down by food shortages and inflation.

B. The World Turned Upside Down

The war caused great change in class and gender relationships. Workers realized their power and became more radical. Women’s entrance into the workforce for the war effort challenged gender roles.
1. The War’s Impact on Social Relations

Men from all classes found themselves side by side in the trenches and in battle. On the home front inflation eroded the savings of the middle class and left them desperate to maintain their economic position. For the working class, government brought higher wages and benefits. The result was hostility between the working class pushing for a bigger share of the economic pie and the middle class trying to preserve their share.

2. The War’s Impact on Gender Relations

One of the most important changes of the war was in the role of women. With the men at the front, women were employed in the munitions factories and as ambulance drivers at the front. The war smashed many of the boundaries that had confined women. In a rather ironic turn of events, the men who had gone to war to be heroes were rendered immobile in the trenches while women were transporting wounded and ferrying supplies. These gains for women were reversed with the end of the war.

C. Identifying the Enemy: From Propaganda to Genocide

To ensure loyalty to the war effort, national leaders used propaganda and restricted the transmission of ideas. Those who opposed the war were imprisoned or executed. Governments created ideas to promote the war effort. Censorship and doctoring of photographs reinforced positive images of war. Posters were used to rally support and to conjure up extremely negative images of the enemy. In eastern Europe, hatred was also directed at enemies within the state, usually minorities. In the Ottoman Empire, this hatred culminated in the form of mass deportation and slaughter of Armenians in the Ottoman Empire.

IV. War and Revolution

Total war tore apart the social and political fabric of Europe and gave the opportunity to socialist and nationalist revolutionaries to attempt to create a new Europe.

A. The Russian Revolutions

In Russia, Tsar Nicholas II assumed command of the army at the front. Nicholas left political affairs in the hands of Empress Alexandra and her spiritual advisor, Grigori Rasputin, which quickly destabilized the Russian government.

1. The March Revolution

In March of 1917, the Tsarist regime was overthrown. Two centers of power emerged in its place. One was the provisional government led by liberals in the Russian Duma. The second was the Soviets, or councils of workers and soldiers. With the return of the Russian socialists from exile, they assumed leading roles in
the Petrograd Soviet. The Russian people demanded land, bread, and peace. The Provisional Government could not satisfy these demands. With German armies deep in Russian territory, peace seemed impossible. The Provisional Government was committed to liberal principles of respect for property, so it could only offer a gradual redistribution of royal and monastic lands. Consequently, the Provisional Government grew unpopular and weaker; the soldiers deserted in mass, and the peasants began taking over the lands they wanted.

2. The November Revolution

In November of 1917, a second revolution led by the Bolsheviks overthrew the provisional government. The Bolsheviks were led by Vladimir Lenin. He argued that a group of professional revolutionaries could bring about a working-class revolution in Russia. The Bolsheviks proclaimed a policy of land partition without compensation to the estates’ owners. In March of 1918 they signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, which brought peace by giving Germany the western territories of Russia. For the next two years, the Bolsheviks fought a brutal civil war to hold on to power.

3. The Spreading Revolution

The victory of the Bolsheviks inspired other socialist revolutions in Europe. There were strikes in support of the Bolsheviks in France and Britain. There was a short-lived communist takeover in Vienna, Austria. A communist government led by Bela Kun ruled in Hungary during the spring of 1919. In Germany, the refusal of U.S. President Wilson to negotiate peace with the kaiser’s government brought a revolution from above that gave power to the socialist party (SPD). Simultaneously, a revolution from below led by the Spartacists attempted to follow the Russian example. When the kaiser abdicated on November 9, the SPD leaders proclaimed Germany a parliamentary democracy and Spartacist leader Karl Liebknecht proclaimed Germany a revolutionary communist state. Over the course of the winter of 1919, the communists were defeated in a civil war.

B. The Failure of Wilson’s Revolution

As the representatives of the powers gathered in Paris to write the five peace treaties ending the war, U.S. President Woodrow Wilson offered a vision for the future based on national self-determination and open peace covenants. The new world order was to be organized around a League of Nations to oversee implementation of the treaties and resolve disputes. The peace settlements, however, contributed to the undermining of the international political and economic stability in the postwar years.

1. The Treaty of Versailles and German Democracy

Wilson’s vision of a democratic Germany clashed with French Premier Clemenceau’s experience of two German invasions. British Prime Minister David Lloyd George agreed with France but feared a harsh peace settlement would feed German resentment. Germany perceived the Versailles Treaty as
unjustly punitive. Germany lost 13 percent of its territory and all of its colonies. It also lost 10 percent of its population. The Rhineland was demilitarized and the Saar region ceded to France for 15 years. The treaty also declared that Germany had caused the war and imposed 132 billion marks in reparation payments to the Allies.

2. The Failure of National Self-Determination

In eastern Europe, self-determination failed. The old empires were replaced by new nation-states. Poland and Czechoslovakia became independent, and Romania, Greece, Italy, and Serbia expanded. Austria, Hungary, and Turkey shrunk. Because of the settlement patterns, 30 million people remained as minorities in the eastern European states. Self-determination, rather than satisfying nationalist ambitions, produced an uneasy mixture of ethnic groups.

3. The Limits of the League

The League of Nations proved a failure because three of the major powers were not members: Germany, the Soviet Union, and the U.S. In addition, the League had no military power to enforce its decisions. More importantly, the will to make the league work was lacking. European leaders used the League of Nations to pursue their more traditional foreign policy of enforcing the provisions of the Versailles Treaty on Germany.

D. The Making of the Modern Middle East

Instead of Middle Eastern nationalists’ dreams of independence being realized, the Allies controlled the newly created states. Three factors prevented peace. First, the diplomatic mapmakers ignored promises made to local groups during the war, which fostered a lasting mistrust of the West. Second, the new states were the creation of the West and ignored the wishes of the local populations. Third, Western control brought Western ideas and practices that destabilized local economic and social structures.

The history of Iraq illustrates these factors. In the 1915 “McMayhon-Husayn Correspondence,” the British made promises to Arab nationalists in exchange for military support. The victorious Allies divided up the promised regions into new states, including Iraq. In Iraq, diverse ethnic and religious groups were thrown together, and tensions mounted. The British presence in Iraq threatened to destroy local customs. Revolution occurred in Iraq and other regions after WWI.

In the 1917 Balfour Declaration, the British made promises to both Jewish Zionists and Arab nationalists for an independent state of Palestine. In 1920, Palestine became a United Nations mandate committed by the terms of the Balfour Declaration. Muslim and Christian Arabs living in Palestine threatened to expel the Jews and resented this action as a form of European imperialism. When violence erupted in 1922, the British slowed Jewish immigration into Palestine. This failed to resolve the conflict, and both Arabs and Jewish nationalists demanded British support.
Throughout the Middle East, the decades after World War I were marked by violence and instability.

V. Conclusion: The War and the West

World War I altered the idea of “the West.” With the American entry into the war, the United States became a force in Western culture. The globalization of the war introduced new nations to the affairs of the West, such as India and Australia. The aftermath of the war produced a conflict between two ideologies: U.S.-dominated capitalism and Soviet-dominated communism. The war ultimately challenged the liberal faith in scientific progress, as millions of men, women, and children were killed or wounded as the result of technological developments in weaponry. At the same time, the war produced a positive belief that the war would prevent any future wars. Many Westerners were determined to construct a better world, but this task proved to be a daunting one.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gallipoli Offensive</th>
<th>Assassination of Archduke Ferdinand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treaty of Versailles signed</td>
<td>English offensive at the Somme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia signs Treaty of Brest-Litovsk</td>
<td>Bolsheviks seize control of Russian government</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 1914 | |
| 1915 | |
| 1916 | |
| 1917 | |
| 1918 | |
| 1919 | |
TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Term</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schlieffen Plan</td>
<td>Triple Entente</td>
<td>Triple Alliance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archduke Franz Ferdinand</td>
<td>Allies</td>
<td>Central Powers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trench warfare</td>
<td>Petrograd Soviet</td>
<td>Unrestricted submarine warfare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolsheviks</td>
<td>Battle of Tannenberg</td>
<td>David Lloyd George</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisional Government</td>
<td>The Somme</td>
<td>Total war</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No-man’s land</td>
<td>Paul von Hindenburg</td>
<td>Erich von Ludendorff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balfour Declaration</td>
<td>Treaty of Brest-Litovsk</td>
<td>Zimmermann telegram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. E. Lawrence</td>
<td>Home Front</td>
<td>Mohandas Gandhi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>League of Nations</td>
<td>Nicholas II</td>
<td>Versailles Treaty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reparations</td>
<td>Woodrow Wilson</td>
<td>Vladimir Lenin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georges Clemenceau</td>
<td>Soviets</td>
<td>War Socialism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bela Kun</td>
<td>Reparations</td>
<td>Grigori Rasputin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

1. Locate the following places on the map.

   The Western Front
   The Allies
   Rhineland

   The Eastern Front
   The Central Powers

2. Identify all those nations created as a result of the treaties ending World War I.
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. How did the system of alliances at the beginning of the twentieth century actually contribute to the outbreak of World War I?

2. How did the war affect gender roles?

3. Define “total war.” How did governments organize to handle the concept of total war? How did the “home front” form part of the “total war”?

4. What caused the United States to enter World War I? What impact did the entry of the United States have on the outcome of the war?

5. What were the terms of the Treaty of Versailles? Why did the peace treaties fail to bring about a stable world order?

6. What led to the tsar’s abdication? What centers of authority existed in the absence of authoritarian tsarist rule? Why did the Provisional Government fail?

7. What were the main differences between the Western and Eastern Fronts?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. What examples of national unity did Felix Klein see after the start of the war in August of 1914?

2. How does the vision of Rupert Brooke at the start of the war contrast with the reality of war expressed by Wilfred Owen?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did industrial change make World War I unlike previous wars?

2. Discuss the “will to war” that European diplomats faced at the outbreak of World War I. Did industrialization influence the role of the diplomat?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. All of the following contributed to the outbreak of World War I in 1914 EXCEPT

   a. the needs of industrialized militaries.
   b. the alliance systems.
   c. eastern European nationalism.
   d. U.S. demand for Germany to end submarine warfare.

2. The German plan intended to bring World War I to a swift conclusion was

   a. the Schlieffen Plan.
   b. the Triple Alliance.
   c. the Reinsurance Treaty.
   d. Kaiser William II’s “world policy.”

3. Which of the following best describes the military activity on the Russian or Eastern Front?

   a. The tsarist forces fought with enthusiasm and tenacity against the Germans.
   b. Russian soldiers were well supplied and provided with state-of-the-art weapons.
   c. After initial success, the Russian armies were pushed back by the German advance.
   d. The Eastern Front was immobile for most of the war, with the soldiers spending most of their time in trenches.

4. Which of the following best describes military activity in the Western Front during World War I?

   a. The soldiers spent most of the time in the trenches with periodic attempts to break through no-man’s land.
   b. War in the Western Front was characterized by constant advance of the troops.
   c. The troops spent most of their time in air battles.
   d. It followed strict military plans calling for defensive action.

5. Which of the following was NOT true of the home front?

   a. War was brought directly to civilians by occupation and aerial bombardment.
   b. The blockades failed to prevent the adequate supplying of food for the civilian population.
   c. Women played an important role as workers in the munitions industry.
   d. Civil liberties were curtailed and dissenters were prosecuted.

6. Which of the following was NOT an effect of the war on women?

   a. Women made the decisions of the households.
   b. Women exceeded prewar earnings.
   c. Women’s clothing changed.
   d. Women continued to be a major source of skilled labor in factories.
7. Which of the following nations took over German colonies in the Pacific?
   a. France
   b. Austria-Hungary
   c. Soviet Russia
   d. Japan

8. V. I. Lenin was
   a. the leader of the Russian government at the beginning of World War I.
   b. committed to the principle that a cadre of professional revolutionaries could lead a
      working-class revolution.
   c. committed to continuation of Russian participation in World War I.
   d. committed to gradual distribution of monastic and royal lands to the peasants.

9. Which of the following was NOT part of Wilson’s postwar peace proposals?
   a. German war reparations
   b. The preservation of multiethnic empires
   c. National self-determination
   d. Military occupation of German lands

10. Which of the following states did not benefit from the peace treaties signed in 1919?
    a. Poland
    b. Serbia
    c. Czechoslovakia
    d. Ottoman Empire
Chapter 25

Reconstruction, Reaction, and Continuing Revolution: The 1920s and 1930s

CHAPTER OUTLINE

On September 14, 1927, Isadora Duncan was killed when her long scarf became entangled in the wheel of her car and strangled her. Isadora was a symbol of the new woman of the 1920s, known for her free-flowing clothing and new style of ballet, which symbolized her determination to free women physically and artistically. The car, likewise, was a symbol of modernity, which brought people the promise of greater mobility and freedom.

I. Cultural Despair and Desire

To many Europeans, World War I seemed to have irreparably destroyed European culture and society. World War I redrew the map of Europe, raised social expectations, and turned gender roles upside down.

A. The Wasteland

Much of European culture after the war focused on mass destruction. The sense of loss and despair appeared in poetry, art, religion, and philosophy. This emphasis on death was reflected in the war memorials that were built in France and Britain. Rather than remembering the victories, they focused on the dead soldiers. The poetry of T. S. Eliot and others expressed a sense of loss and despair. Theologian Karl Barth emphasized human sin and the need to increase one’s faith in God in order to connect with him. That same despair was at the core of existentialist philosophy. Philosopher Martin Heidegger believed that life is full of anxiety and alienation. Jean-Paul Sartre argued that the key to existence is that man is condemned to be free in a universe devoid of meaning. Christian existentialist theologians like Lutheran Rudolf Bultmann viewed the Gospels as based on folk tales, but Christian myths allow us to find spiritual truth and the way out of anxiety by submission to God. The anger of the period is evidenced in modernist art, like that of Otto Dix, who painted horrific scenes of the war-torn landscape.

B. Building Something Better

Many Europeans viewed the devastation inflicted during the war as a chance for renewal, and represented near-utopianism. In Germany, for example, the Bauhaus architectural school sought to physically restructure civilization.

1. Machinery and Movement

Much of this near-utopian culture focused on technology. In Soviet Russia, industrial motifs became central to art. For example, Shostakovich’s Second Symphony began with a factory whistle. Faith in technology and machinery is
also evidenced in the buildings of the period, in which architects, such as Le Corbusier, deliberately exposed essential machineries and materials. Celebration of movement and speed was another important motif of 1920s culture. The car became a middle-class necessity, and the airplane began to link European cities.

2. Scientific Possibilities

Germany and Britain remained leaders of the global scientific community. Einstein’s more complex theories replaced those of Isaac Newton as explanations of the universe. Some of the world’s most brilliant minds flocked to British and German universities and laboratories to study physics and to create a new understanding of the universe. Einstein’s concept of “frozen energy” perplexed many scientists who set out to prove his theory. In 1932, James Chadwick demonstrated that this energy could be released when he discovered neutrons and their power to split an atom’s nucleus. In 1938, a major breakthrough occurred when scientists Otto Hahn and Fritz Strassmann used Chadwick’s findings on nuclear fission to open the uranium atom. These discoveries would fuel the creation of an atom bomb.

II. Out of the Trenches: Reconstructing National and Gender Politics in the 1920s

World War I redrew the map of Europe, raised social expectations, and turned gender roles upside down. Nevertheless, there was great continuity between the pre-war and post-war periods.

A. The Reconstruction of Russia: From Tsar to Commissar

The Bolshevik state, like its tsarist predecessor, was characterized by authoritarian rule, centralization, large bureaucracy, elite living conditions, and violent coercion. In 1919, the Bolsheviks faced local and international opposition in a bitter civil war. The Bolsheviks also faced attempts by non-Russian ethnic groups to get rid of Russian rule. Entire villages were destroyed and their populations were either killed or sent to prison camps. The Russian economy soon collapsed. The Bolsheviks implemented “war communism” and requisitioned food from the peasants. The Bolsheviks turned to terror to defeat their enemies and impose order. The Cheka (Bolshevik secret police) executed 200,000 people.

Marxist theory proposed that workers’ revolutions would happen in industrialized states, but Russia was a peasant society. Lenin argued that an elite of professional revolutionaries could bring about the workers’ revolution. Ideological debate challenged Lenin’s thesis, so in 1921 the Tenth Communist Party Congress imposed a ban on political factions, and decisions were put in the hands of the party bureaucracy. Tsarist rule was replaced by rule of the party commissar. War Communism produced famine and economic failure, so the government introduced the New Economic Policy (NEP), which gave the peasants an incentive to produce by allowing them to sell their produce for profit. Small private businesses and farms were allowed to exist, and the government remained in control of heavy industry.
B. The Reconstruction of National Politics in Eastern and Central Europe

President Wilson’s goals for a world based on democracy failed. Pre-1914 social, economic, and political tensions continued and quickly undermined democracy in eastern Europe, Germany, and Russia.

1. The Defeat of Democracy in Eastern Europe

The new, small independent nations of eastern Europe were plagued by serious problems. The idea of self-determination did not work in practice as it was impossible to establish ethnically homogenous states. Consequently, ethnic struggles continued to plague inter-war politics. Eastern Europe remained a world of peasants and aristocratic landlords. There was too little industry and few cities to attract the excess rural population. The combination of economic pressure and ethnic conflicts undermined democracy across eastern Europe. By the early 1930s, right-wing regimes had displaced democracy in almost every country of eastern Europe. The exception was Czechoslovakia.

2. The Weakness of the Weimar Republic

The postwar changes in Germany masked important continuities. The kaiser’s empire was replaced by the Weimar Republic, with a democratically elected parliamentary government. However, to survive the struggle with the communist Spartacists, the SPD leaders made an alliance with the old bureaucracy, the military, and the Free Corps (volunteer paramilitary units made up of demobilized soldiers). The communists were crushed, but the SPD lost the chance to remove the bureaucrats and the military officers whose loyalty remained with the kaiser. The disaffected Free Corpsmen joined in several coup attempts against the Weimar Republic, including the Beer Hall Putsch, led by Adolf Hitler. Although they failed, the antidemocratic forces remained strong and were able to feed off the resentment created by the severity of the Versailles Treaty.

The shaky foundations of German democracy were further tarnished by hyperinflation. In 1922, the German government halted reparations payments. The French responded by occupying the Ruhr Valley and seizing coal as payment. The German coal miners responded by refusing to work. The German government continued to pay their salaries and raised the funds by printing money. As a result, the exchange rate of the German mark plummeted and the currency became worthless. In 1924, the French accepted defeat and pulled out of the Ruhr Valley. The savings of years of work could not even buy a loaf of bread. In 1924, the Dawes Plan stabilized the German economy, but the damage had been done. For Germans, democracy meant disorder, revolution, and poverty. Many Germans longed for the stability of the kaiser’s empire.

C. Reconstruction of Gender

World War I brought great upheaval to gender roles. The demands of total war resulted in the entrance of women into economic arenas traditionally dominated by men. It
seemed that dramatic alterations had occurred. Although women’s expectations had changed, the existence of traditional gender roles quickly returned.

1. The New Woman

The 1920s was a decade of profound change for women. Women’s clothing became much less confined, much like the “New Woman.” The middle-class woman had stepped out of the confines of the family and was now working, living, sexually active, and traveling on her own. She had also gained the right to vote in many countries. For working-class women, one of the major changes was the limiting of family size.

2. The Reconstruction of Traditional Gender Roles

Despite the perceptions of change, there was also a strong reaction against the gender upheaval. The drop in family size provoked fear about population decline. Governments began introducing social welfare benefits to promote having more children. Several countries outlawed birth control, especially abortion. Despite calls for women to remain at home, many women continued to work. They were barred from management positions and paid less than men.

3. Women and the Bolshevik Revolution

In Bolshevik Russia, the early years saw important changes for women. The Bolshevik regime declared women equal to men, allowed civil marriages, legalized divorce, abolished the distinction between legitimate and illegitimate children, as well as introduced communal daycare centers, laundry facilities, and dining rooms. By the early 1920s, the revolutionary policies began to be reversed. Abortion was outlawed and the communal dining halls were closed, as were half of the communal daycare centers.

III. The Rise of the Radical Right

The fascist revolution introduced to Europe the politics of the radical right. While fascism and Nazism dismissed the equality of socialism, they were not conservative movements. Rather, they sought to mobilize the masses around programs of violent nationalism.

A. The Fascist Alternative

Born out of the post-war despair, fascism offered an alternative to existing ideologies.

1. Mussolini’s Rise to Power

Fascism originated with Benito Mussolini during the debate over the entrance of Italy into World War I. Many Italians believed that violence would strengthen Italian society. Mussolini left the Socialist Party when it refused to support the war. When the war ended, he created fascism as a new political form that embodied the camaraderie of the trenches and the exhilaration of violence.
Mussolini believed that fascism, with a strong leader and violence, would crush social and economic barriers and make the people powerful. The fascist movement was organized in 1919 among war veterans who were willing to throw aside the standards of conventional politics. Over the next three years, the fascists helped the landowners and the middle class crush strikes and land seizures. By 1922, the fascists had become a powerful political force. King Victor Emmanuel III named Mussolini prime minister.

2. The Fascist Revolution in Italy

For the next four years, Mussolini used violence to eliminate his opponents. As an economic foundation, he introduced corporatism to replace capitalist and class competition with committees of owners, workers, and the state. In practice, workers’ rights disappeared. Mussolini also gave the ordinary people the illusion of power by giving them opportunity to participate in national social activities. Allegiance to Mussolini was reinforced through a cult of the person of the leader, the Duce.

B. The Great Depression and the Spread of Fascism After 1929

As the Great Depression spread through Europe, fascist movements appeared in almost every country. The Depression began with the New York stock market crash in 1929. The U.S. became the financial center of the world during World War I. After the war, U.S. loans make it possible for Germany to pay reparations to France and Britain, which in turn allowed them to pay their U.S. loans. With the crash, American investors stopped making loans to Germany, which started a domino effect, bringing the other economies down. The Great Depression increased the appeal of fascist movements with their promises of stability, order, and national strength.

C. The Nazi Revolution

The German version of fascism is called Nazism and was founded by Adolf Hitler. To understand the success of Nazism one must understand the rise of Hitler.

1. Hitler’s Rise to Power

Hitler was born in Austria and spent his youth in Vienna. During World War I he fought in the German army. After the war, he settled in Munich and helped establish the Nazi Party. The party rejected socialism as well as democracy. He believed that all of history was a struggle between the racially pure Aryans and the Jewish race. To the defeated and demoralized Germans, he offered the vision of Germany destined to become a powerful empire in Central Europe by defeating Judeo-Communism. In 1923, Hitler failed to gain power in the Beer Hall Putsch. The party remained small until the Great Depression. With millions unemployed, the Nazis and communists gained large followings. By 1932, the Nazi Party was the largest party in the parliament. In January of 1933, President Hindenburg appointed Hitler chancellor of Germany. Hitler used the burning of the parliament to justify the arrests of his political opponents. At the end of March 1933, the
parliament passed the Enabling Act, giving Hitler legislative power without consulting parliament.

2. National Recovery

The Nazi finance minister Hjalmar Schacht was able to engineer an economic recovery by deficit spending. By 1938, Germany had reached full employment. Hitler ignored the restrictions of the Versailles Treaty and began rearming Germany. Germans quickly came to see Hitler as a national savior. Hitler’s power was reinforced by a cult of the leader—the Führer was created partly through the use of radio and film to allow the people to see and hear their Führer.

3. Campaigns of Repression and Terror

Hitler used persecution and terror to deal with his enemies. More severe measures were used to deal with those the Nazis believed were biologically inferior. The Gypsies, mentally ill, and physically handicapped were sterilized. The Jews were beaten, dismissed from the bureaucracy, their shops boycotted, and their homes attacked.

D. Women and the Radical Right

As part of restoring order to society, the fascist and Nazi movements also enforced traditional gender roles and relations. Economic incentives were introduced to encourage women to remain at home and to reproduce. Also, opportunities for women were limited. The Nazi regime dismissed women from the civil service and women physicians could only work in their husbands’ practices. Birth control was made illegal.

IV. The Polarization of Politics in the 1930s

Fascism provided one alternative to the inability of the democracies to deal with the Great Depression. Communism provided another alternative.

A. The Soviet Union Under Stalin: Revolution Reconstructed, Terror Extended

1. Stalin’s Rise to Power

Lenin died in 1924. Over the course of the next four years, the colorless figure of Joseph Stalin emerged as the new leader. As party secretary, Stalin controlled the party promotion system and was able to build up a large cadre of supporters who owed their positions to him. During the same years an ideological struggle over the NEP and the need to industrialize the country was taking place at the highest levels of the party. On one side was Leon Trotsky, who wanted to generate the capital needed for industrialization by high taxes and confiscation of crops. On the other was Nikolai Bukharin, who wanted to encourage the peasants to make profits and invest in industry. Stalin eventually pushed both men out of the party and personally seized control.
2. The “Revolution from Above”:Collectivization and Industrialization, 1928–1934

Revolution from above was imposed on the country. The party forced collectivization of the land. When the peasants resisted, nearly five to seven million peasants were killed, and ten million were deported. While collectivization was underway in the countryside, industrialization was taking place in the cities. Following “Five-Year Plans,” 80 percent of investment went into heavy industry, so consumer goods remained scarce. Much of the labor was provided by peasants, political opponents, religious dissidents, and ethnic minorities deported to prison labor camps. The Stalin revolution from above built an industrial society, but failed to catch up to the West.


In the second half of the 1930s, Stalin completed the consolidation of his power. In 1934, the 17th Party Congress celebrated the successes of industrialization and collectivization. Most of the delegates would, in the course of the next few years, be arrested and shot. Stalin used the Great Purge to remove and execute his political opponents. The Purge swept through the Communist Party, government bureaucracy, and the military, eliminating thousands of people. Some were subject to show trials, where they admitted to charges of conspiracy and sabotage. When the Purge ended in 1939, Stalin’s hold on the Soviet Union was complete.

4. Stalin and the Nation

A cult of Stalin identified him with the nation. Stalin revived the emphasis on Russian nationalism at the expense of the ethnic minorities. He also promoted the family by outlawing abortion and making divorce difficult.

B. The Response of Democracies

The apparent economic success of communism in Russia, and Nazism and fascism in Germany and Italy, left the democracies in search of a third way to meet the challenges of the Depression.

1. A Third Way? The Social Democratic Alternative

Democracies found their alternative in social democracy and in the economic ideas of John Maynard Keynes. Keynes argued that during a depression, government must engage in deficit spending to stimulate economic growth. In the democracies, government began to assume responsibility for ensuring a decent standard of living by regulating the economy and introducing social welfare measures. In the U.S., President Roosevelt’s New Deal introduced agricultural subsidies, public works projects, and social security. However, Roosevelt’s commitment to a balanced budget failed to solve unemployment. In Sweden, the Social Democratic Party took office in 1932 and was able to revive the economy
by 1937. Other western European governments were more reluctant to follow Keynes, but they did begin to actively intervene in the economy.

2. The Popular Front

The Great Depression hit France particularly hard, and social unrest increased. The fascist Popular Front used social tensions to form a coalition of radicals, socialists, and communists, which won the 1936 election. The coalition government increased workers’ benefits and nationalized critical industries. Dissatisfied with such developments, global investors pulled capital out of France, resulting in economic crisis. The government was forced to pull money out of its social and economic reforms. The working-class constituency revolted, and the Popular Front ended.

3. The Spanish Civil War

In Spain, the struggle between the political ideologies turned into a civil war when right-wing army officers revolted against the Popular Front government. The Soviet Union supported the left-wing Popular Front forces, while Germany and Italy supported the right-wing army officers. The democracies remained neutral. The right-wing forces led by Francisco Franco were victorious in March of 1939.

V. The West and the World: Imperialism in the Interwar Era

The First World War produced new forces that strengthened western European powers’ determination to maintain and even to extend their imperial possessions and influence. At the end of the war, the Allies divided up the German colonies and the Middle East among themselves. During the interwar decades, each of the colonial powers promoted the necessity of economic development and investment in their colonies.

A. The Irish Revolution

New forces also accelerated the formation of colonial nationalist movements that challenged European control. In Ireland, revolutionaries viewed World War I as an opportunity to revolt. Although the “Easter Rising” of 1916 failed, executed leaders became martyrs and the revolt symbolized the Irish nationalist struggle. After two years of guerilla warfare by the Irish Republican Army (IRA), the British offered independence to Ireland in 1921. However, Ireland remained part of the British Empire and the six northern counties, known as Ulster, remained part of Britain. Many Irish nationalists rejected these terms, and two years of civil war ensued. At the end of the 1930s, Ireland severed all constitutional ties to Britain, and Ulster continued to be part of Britain.

B. Changing Power Equations: Ideology and Economics

Communism helped strengthen the forces of anti-imperialism, as Lenin declared that anti-capitalism and anti-imperialism naturally went together. Lenin offered assistance to all subjugated countries. Changing economic relationships also led to formation of nationalist movements. Europe’s imperial powers fully utilized the resources of their
colonies during World War I. Out of this emerged unwelcome social changes, in the form of labor migration, growth of urban centers, and brought isolated villages into the global system. The Great Depression worsened the situation since many colonial regions were now solely based on exporting cash crops. Imperial powers found ways to cut their expenses by removing funds to colonial schools, public services, and health care. The result was the further growth of nationalist movements.

C. Postwar Nationalism, Westernization, and the Islamic Challenge

Nationalist movements often fostered anti-Western sentiments, often in the form of religion. For example, many African regions embraced Islam as an alternative to Western, Christian culture. The Ottoman Empire may have been weak, but it possessed a loyal, unified following of Muslims. Its collapse after World War I signified political and economic changes in the Islamic community. Some followed the secular Western models of ethnic nationalism. Others joined revival movements that sought to unify Muslims under an Islamic ruler and Islamic law.

1. The Emergence of Pan-Arabism

In the Middle East, pan-Arabism proliferated and promoted the creation of a single Arab state. Three factors led to its development: the collapse of the Ottoman Empire and its traditional loyalties, resentment towards the creation of new Middle Eastern states and a lack of unity within them, and the forced Western implementation of a revised form of imperialism in the new states.

2. Nationalism on the Western Model

Pan-Arabism did not take hold in all Arab regions. Some states’ nationalists focused on ethnic identity. In Egypt, the nationalist political party, Wafd, called for national freedom and resented Egypt’s exclusion from the peace conferences of World War I. Britain backed Egyptian independence, and Wafd reformed the nation, following Westernization and modernization models. Events in Turkey had inspired Wafd actions. In Turkey, Mustafa Kemal Pasha led the revolt against attempts to partition Turkey among the victors of World War I. In the 1920s, he introduced a program of modernization and Westernization. He outlawed polygamy, gave women equal rights, replaced the Arabic script with the Latin alphabet, and ordered Turks to wear Western clothes and to take surnames. He even changed his name to Kemal Ataturk. He did not introduce democracy and continued the Ottoman tradition of oppressing Armenians. Other Middle Eastern nationalists followed Kemal Ataturk’s example.

3. The Islamic Challenge

Many people of the newly created Arab states disagreed with the secularism of the nationalists. Central Arabia’s militant Wahhabi religious revival of the 1920s and 1930s and Egypt’s Muslim Brotherhood helped shape political movements of the 1940s. Wahhabism emerged in the eighteenth century and promoted a return to strict adherence to Islamic law and inspired revolts on the Arabian peninsula, in
India, in Algeria, and in Daghistan. The revolts failed, but Wahhabism’s appeal continued to grow among Muslims, particularly after World War I. Egypt’s Islamic Brotherhood sought to reassert the universal rule of Islamic law in all areas of life. They rejected Western traditions as the ideologies of infidels. The movement spread to the Middle East in the 1930s.

D. Moral Revolution in India

In India, Mohandas Gandhi promoted Indian nationalism by appealing to Indian customs and religious identity. He promoted a national struggle centering on nonviolence. Gandhi refused to equate “Indian” with “Hindu” and tried to incorporate the Muslims into the Indian community. He also pushed for the rights of the “untouchables.” He was not opposed to modernization, but he rejected the necessity of Westernization. The British dealt with Ghandi by sometimes negotiating and at other times imprisoning him. The British governments passed a series of measures granting partial self-government to India, but Ghandi and the Indian National Congress continued to push for full independence. Britain retained control of India, but Gandhi’s efforts loosened its dominance.

E. The Power of the Primitive

After World War I, some Europeans questioned the superiority of European civilization. Oswald Spengler argued that European civilization was on the path of decline. Developments in psychology also questioned the idea of Western superiority. Sigmund Freud argued that human nature is fundamentally aggressive. Carl Jung stressed the link between the primitive and the modern in mankind. Leopold Senghor and the Négritude movement condemned European culture as weak and corrupt and called on blacks to create a separate culture.

VI. Conclusion: The Kingdom of Corpses

The aftermath of World War I was one of re-evaluation of Western politics and culture. Political parties each claimed to have the best plan for the reconstruction of the postwar world. The clash between opposing ideologies and the failure to resolve the conflicts of World War I would bring another devastating world war.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

Mussolini becomes prime minister of Italy
Hitler becomes chancellor of Germany
Spanish Civil War begins

Stalin becomes uncontested leader of the party
Social Democratic Party takes office in Sweden
Lenin introduces New Economic Policy

1921
1922
1928
1932
1933
1936

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

Fascism  Existentialism  Jean-Paul Sartre
Benito Mussolini  Martin Heidegger  Nikolai Bukharin
Adolf Hitler  Ruhr Valley  Great Depression
Social democracy  Leon Trotsky  Joseph Stalin
Carl Jung  New Economic Policy (NEP)  First Five-Year Plan
Beer Hall Putsch  Collectivization  Hyperinflation
Bauhaus  Weimar Republic  Karl Barth
Hjalmar Schacht  Nazism
Collectivization  John Maynard Keynes  Popular Front in France
Otto Dix  Spanish Civil War  “New Woman”
Kemal Ataturk  T. S. Eliot  Mohandas Gandhi
Négritude  Rudolf Bultmann
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

1. Locate the following places on the map.
   
   Identify the fascist states of Europe.
   Identify the countries with Popular Front governments.
   Identify the countries with Social Democratic governments.
   Identify the countries with communist governments.
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. How did World War I affect post-war culture? What is existentialism?

2. What were the causes of the economic crisis in Europe? What were the effects of the Great Depression in Germany?

3. What were the problems leading to political instability in eastern Europe after World War I?

4. How did Benito Mussolini achieve power? How did he gain and preserve popular support?

5. What were the major failings of the German leaders after World War I? Why did the Weimar Republic fail?

6. How did Adolf Hitler achieve power? What sort of state did Hitler establish? How did he use modern technology to enhance his ties to the masses?

7. What was the New Economic Policy? What was it designed to achieve? How did Trotsky and Bukharin differ in their attitudes toward industrialization?

8. How did Stalin achieve power? How did Stalin change the economy of the Soviet Union? How did Stalin use the Great Purges? What was the position of women within the Soviet social and economic system under Stalin?

9. How did the governments of France, Britain, Sweden, and Spain deal with the effects of the Great Depression?

10. How did the Great Depression affect the ability of European empires to control their colonies?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS


2. What popular but negative characteristics of the New Woman does the French law student address?

3. How does the “cult of the leader” take on a religious dimension?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the interaction between Europe and the world outside change after World War I?

2. How did the roles and lives of women change in the period between the wars?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which of the following was NOT an impact of World War I on European culture?
   a. A sense of rebirth and renewal
   b. Rise of existentialism with its belief that the universe is devoid of meaning
   c. The rise of neo-utopian belief in the transforming power of technology
   d. The rise of the conclusion that the end product of human reason and science is mass destruction

2. Which of the following was NOT a factor in the political destabilization among the new nations of eastern and central Europe?
   a. Ethnic diversity within the new borders
   b. High unemployment rates
   c. The stipulations of the Treaty of Versailles
   d. Rapid economic development

3. The French invaded the Ruhr Valley to
   a. prevent a potential German invasion.
   b. seize coal in lieu of German reparation payments.
   c. defend the Weimar Republic.
   d. aid in a German communist coup.

4. Who won the power struggle over the New Economy Policy after Lenin died?
   a. Leon Trotsky
   b. Nikolai Bukharin
   c. Baron Franz von Papen
   d. Joseph Stalin

5. Which of the following statements about Stalin’s Five-Year Plans is most accurate?
   a. They resulted in a freer marketplace for Soviet products.
   b. They caused scarcities and starvation.
   c. They handed direction of the Soviet economy over to the peasants.
   d. They deferred the process of collectivization to a later period.

6. Which of the following statements concerning fascism is NOT accurate?
   a. Fascism appealed to war veterans and tried to recreate the camaraderie of the front.
   b. Fascism was nationalist and the use of force was central to its appeal.
   c. Fascists supported liberal political institutions and values.
   d. Fascists condemned socialists.
7. Which statement is most accurate about the Nazi regime of the 1930s?
   a. The Nazis only persecuted the Jews.
   b. The Nazi government completed the required war reparation payments.
   c. Massive economic and industrial recovery occurred.
   d. The Nazis rejected the use of tradition and myths in their propaganda.

8. Hitler became chancellor of Germany
   a. as a result of the Beer Hall Putsch.
   b. by conducting a military overthrow of the Weimar Republic.
   c. as a result of the Kapp Putsch.
   d. when the president of the republic appointed him chancellor.

9. John Maynard Keynes advocated
   a. government deficit spending to promote economic growth.
   b. an increase in colonial investments to make the country self-sufficient.
   c. tightening of credit and balanced budgets.
   d. collectivization of agriculture and rapid industrialization.

10. All of the following was a result of the depression in the colonies EXCEPT
    a. reduced expenditures and cuts in social welfare programs.
    b. spread of mass nationalism and weakening the hold of the imperial powers.
    c. expansion of investment in the colonies and growing prosperity.
    d. decline in prices of raw materials and colonial products.
Chapter 26

World War II

CHAPTER OUTLINE

The end of World War II shocked the war-torn world with evidence of mass death brought by the Holocaust and the dropping of the atomic bombs. In the last weeks of the war in Europe, allied soldiers began opening the concentration camps at Mauthausen in Austria, Bergen-Belsen in Germany, and in other parts of occupied Europe. The extermination of six million Jews and five million Poles, Russians, Gypsies, homosexuals, and political opponents of the Nazi regime had taken place in these camps. A few weeks later, the war in Asia was ended with the dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, causing the deaths of tens of thousands of people within seconds.

I. The Coming of War

Twenty years after the end of World War I, Europe and the world were again engulfed in total war. The immediate cause was Hitler’s desire for a German empire in eastern Europe.

A. An Uneasy Peace

The origins of the Second World War are tied to the settlements of the First World War. The treaties signed in 1919 created a fragile peace for several reasons. The redrawing of the map of Europe created as much territorial resentment as it settled. Germany resented the loss of territory to Poland, and Hungary resented the loss of territory to Czechoslovakia, Romania, and Yugoslavia. The League of Nations was too weak to be the basis of the new international order. This was partly because it lacked both the power to enforce its decisions and the membership of several major powers. Lastly, the settlements failed to satisfy several of the victors. Italy and Japan felt they were not compensated for their participation in the war. Also, Japan saw the 1921 Washington Conference’s guarantee of China’s territorial integrity as a threat to Japan.

B. The 1930s: Prelude to World War II

The Great Depression increased international instability. First, the various countries used tariff barriers to protect their economies. Second, several leaders saw territorial expansion as a solution to their economic problems. In 1931, the Japanese seized Manchuria, and in 1937 invaded China. In 1935, Italy invaded Ethiopia. In each case the League of Nations did little against the invaders. In 1933, Hitler withdrew from the League of Nations and began re-arming in violation of the restrictions imposed by the Versailles Treaty. In 1936, Hitler signed an alliance with Italy (Rome-Berlin Axis). Hitler violated the Versailles Treaty in 1936 by sending troops into the Rhineland, and in 1938 by joining Germany and Austria, the Anschluss. In each case, France and England did not act against Germany. By September of 1938, Europe was on the brink of war because Hitler
demanded the German-inhabited Sudetenland of Czechoslovakia. France and the Soviet Union pledged to protect Czechoslovakia. War was averted by British Prime Minister Chamberlain’s negotiation of the Munich Agreement, giving Hitler the Sudentenland. Peace lasted only one year. On August 23, Hitler and Stalin agreed to the Nazi-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact, keeping the Soviet Union neutral in exchange for half of Poland and the Baltic States. On September 1, 1939, Germany invaded Poland. The British and French declared war against Germany.

C. Evaluating Appeasement

Since World War II there has been much debate on the issue of appeasing versus stopping Hitler. Appeasement was not a policy of cowardice, but rather a reaction to the loss of human life in World War I. The Great Depression had left the Western power weakened. Many people felt that anything to avoid another horrendous war was worth the price. Also, many people felt that a strong Germany could neutralize the threat of communist Russia.

II. Europe at War, 1939-1941

Germany invaded Poland on September 1, 1939. By the autumn of 1941, almost the entire continent was either allied or occupied by Nazi Germany.

A. A New Kind of Warfare

Early German victories were the result of advanced, industrialized military technology. German victories, and even their defeat in the Battle of Britain, symbolized the importance of industrial production in waging war.

1. The Conquest of Poland

Germany invaded Poland using a new offensive strategy commonly known as blitzkrieg warfare. It used aerial bombardment to destroy the enemy defenses, and tanks to push through the enemy lines. Poland quickly surrendered.

2. Blitzkrieg in Western Europe

Western Europe experienced the blitzkrieg in the spring of 1940 when the German army invaded Denmark, Norway, Belgium, the Netherlands, and France. British and French forces were quickly trapped at Dunkirk. The British navy and civilian boats were only able to rescue them because the Royal Airforce held off the German Luftwaffe. On June 14, the German troops entered Paris and the French parliament turned power over to Marshal Philippe Pétain, who set up a French government at Vichy and formerly surrendered to the Germans on June 22, 1940.
3. The Battle of Britain

In England, the discredited Chamberlain was replaced by Winston Churchill as the head of a coalition government. Churchill refused to negotiate with Hitler. On July 10, German bombers began the Battle of Britain to destroy the RAF in preparation for a cross-channel invasion. Fortunately for the British, they had begun building up the RAF and the aerial defenses in 1935 and were capable of withstanding the German attacks. In September of 1940, Hitler postponed the invasion of Britain indefinitely.

B. The Invasion of the Soviet Union

Hitler’s plan for a German empire in Europe involved the destruction of the Soviet Union. He viewed the Soviets’ agricultural and industrial resources as vital to the creation of the “Third Reich,” and he also wanted to crush the threat of communism. Many Jews resided in the Soviet Union, and their elimination was crucial to the establishment of his dream of a racially pure German empire.

1. A Crucial Postponement

In July 1940, Hitler ordered the military to plan for an invasion of the Soviet Union in April of 1941. The invasion was delayed, because Mussolini’s invasion of Greece and attack on the English colonies in North Africa failed. The Balkans were the major supplier for Germany’s oil and other materials needed for the war effort. Fearing that Mussolini’s failure would leave the Balkans vulnerable to British attack, Hitler invaded Yugoslavia and Greece in April 1941 and sent German troops to North Africa.

2. Early Success

The invasion of Russia took place on June 22, 1941. The German army smashed through the Russian defenses and by October was within 80 miles of Moscow. The Soviet Union was caught unprepared because Stalin refused to believe that Hitler would break the Nazi-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact or to believe the intelligence warnings of the attack. Also helpful to the Germans was that the peoples of the western territories had suffered greatly under Stalin and welcomed the Germans.

3. The Fatal Winter

Several factors halted the German advance. First, the Germans had a difficult time supplying their over-stretched lines. Second, the Russian winter made the road impassable and the subzero temperatures killed men and froze machines. Third, German ravaging of the occupied zones stiffened resistance against the Germans. Despite the early losses, the Soviet war effort was saved because they were able to dismantle much of its industrial plants and ship them to Siberia, where they were re-assembled and began out-producing Germany by 1943.
III. The World at War, 1941-1945

In December 1941, Japan attacked the United States and the European colonies in southeast Asia, turning the war into a global conflict. Over the next four years as casualty numbers grew on both sides, the Allies proved to have the greater advantage by industrially outperforming the Axis powers.

A. The Globalization of the War

World War II involved people outside of Europe from the beginning. Britain relied on materials and manpower from the colonies and dominions. Although the U.S. was officially neutral until December of 1941, it had been supplying goods to the British since March under the Lend-Lease Act. On December 7, 1941, Japan attacked the U.S. Pacific Fleet at Pearl Harbor and over the next few days attacked the American, British, and Dutch colonies in Southeast Asia. On December 11, 1941, Germany also declared war on the U.S.

B. From Allied Defeat to Allied Victory

Until the second half of 1942, the Allies remained on the defensive against Germany and Japan. The road to victory, however, was paved with intense suffering by both troops and civilians.

1. The Turning Point: Midway, El Alamein, and Stalingrad

The turning point on the Pacific came at the Battle of Midway on June 4, 1942, where the U.S. destroyed four Japanese carriers and the Japanese First Air Fleet. In Europe, the turning point was at the Battle of Stalingrad (August 1942-January 1943). In their drive to take control of Caucasus oil fields, Hitler decided to attack Stalingrad, which controlled the main waterway for transporting oil and food to the rest of the Soviet Union. The German and Soviet forces fought each other house by house, but by November the Russians surrounded the Germans. Hitler refused to allow General von Paulus to surrender. By the time von Paulus surrendered, his army had been decimated. The Germans never recovered from the defeat.

2. The Allies on the Offensive

Now the Allies went on the offensive. The RAF brought the war to German cities. In North Africa, British defeated the Germans, under General Rommel, in the Battle of El Alamein in October 1942, and a joint landing of British and American troops in French North Africa was able to defeat Rommel’s forces in the spring of 1943. In July 1943, the Allies invaded Italy. Although Mussolini was overthrown, the Germans took control of Italy and the allied campaign got bogged down until 1944. Meanwhile, the Russians pushed the Germans to the Polish border by the spring of 1944, and by August they pushed into Romania and Hungary. These
advances owed their success to Soviets adopting blitzkrieg tactics and increasing industrial production.

3. The Fall of Germany

On June 6, 1944, the English and American forces began the invasion of France. For the next ten months, the Allies engaged in difficult but victorious battles. By March 1945, the Russians approached Berlin and the Anglo-American forces were at the Rhine. On May 2, Berlin surrendered to the Russians. Two days earlier, Hitler had committed suicide. Germany formally surrendered to the allies on May 7, 1945.

C. The Air War, the Atom Bomb, and the Fall of Japan

In the Pacific, the Americans pushed the Japanese back, island by island. Meanwhile, the British, Indians, and Australians prevented Japanese invasions and also pushed them back. By February 1945, a major Allied victory on Iwo Jima sealed the Allied victory. Japan’s factories simply could not keep up with that of the Allies, especially the United States. Both sides suffered tens of thousands of casualties. At Okinawa, 110,000 Japanese soldiers were killed and 50,000 Americans were killed.

1. The Air War

The U.S. used German air tactics to defeat Japanese forces in the Pacific. For many Europeans, war was brought home by the bombing raids against cities undertaken by both sides. In Britain, civilians endured 76 days of consecutive German bombing, known as the “Blitz.” In May 1942, the British destroyed Cologne and in July 1943, Hamburg.

2. The Manhattan Project

After Hitler came to power, Jewish scientists were dismissed from their posts and many immigrated to Britain and the U.S. They warned about the possibility that the Germans were building an atomic bomb. Little was done in response to the warning until the summer of 1941 when the British and U.S. government agreed to pool their resources for the Manhattan Project. On July 16, 1945, the first atomic explosion was detonated in the New Mexico desert.

By the time the first atom bomb was tested in New Mexico, Germany had surrendered. By August 1945, Japan was suffering the effects of naval blockade and nightly bombardment. Although the war was clearly lost and some members of the Japanese government wanted to negotiate peace, many Japanese military leaders were determined to fight to the end. Given these circumstances, the decision to drop the bomb was controversial from the beginning. President Truman’s decision was primarily based on the estimation that an invasion of Japan would result in high casualties and the bomb would bring a quick end and save American lives.
3. A Light Brighter Than a Thousand Suns

On August 6, 1945, the first atomic bomb was dropped on Hiroshima. It signaled the end of World War II and the beginning of the Cold War. The atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima caused greater damage than its creators had predicted. Temperature at the site of the explosion reached 5,400 degrees Fahrenheit. By the end of 1945, 140,000 people had died as a result of dropping the bomb and another 60,000 died in the next five years. The second bomb was dropped at Nagasaki on August 8, 1945. It killed 70,000 people, and another 70,000 died over the next five years. On August 10, the emperor met with the military leaders and insisted that the time had come to surrender. On August 15, peace was announced.

IV. The War Against the Jews

After the war’s conclusion, the world learned of yet another wartime atrocity: Hitler’s war against the Jews. Hitler’s worldview and the Nazi ideology centered on anti-Semitism, but hatred alone cannot fully explain the Holocaust.

A. From Emigration to Extermination: The Evolution of Genocide

The war brought about the radicalization of the Jewish policy. The Nazi vision for Germany demanded German expansion into eastern Europe to create space for the superior race. The Slavic peoples were defined as biologically inferior and were to serve as a slave labor force. The Jews were to be eliminated. The Poles, in the areas of Poland directly annexed by Germany, were deported. The Nazis proceeded to close Polish universities and cultural institutions and kill the intellectuals and professionals. The Polish Jews were expelled from their homes and confined to ghettos. By the time of the invasion of Russia, 30,000 ghetto Jews had either been murdered or died from starvation or disease. The invasion of the Soviet Union led to the adoption of the “Final Solution” policy to murder the Jews.

At first, special SS squads, called Einsatzgruppen, with the aid of the local populations, undertook the war against the Jews. In the first months after the invasion of the Soviet Union, tens of thousands of Jews were rounded up, marched into the woods, stripped of their clothes, lined up along ditches, and then shot and covered with a layer of dirt. Einsatzgruppen killed between 1.5 and two million Jews this way.

B. The Death Camps: Murder by Assembly Line

On January 20, 1942, a group of German officials met at Wannsee and formulated a systematic plan to destroy the Jews. The plan evolved by combining the experience of the 1939 euthanasia campaign, deportations, and ghettoization implemented against Poles and Jews and the existing concentration camp system. The first concentration camps were set up in 1933 to intern enemies of the regime, communists, and the Roma. Once war began, the camps’ network was dramatically expanded. The camps became part of the German economy, with major German firms, such as I.G. Farben Chemicals, establishing factories in the camps.
All across Europe, concentration camp victims died from torture, labor, starvation, and disease. In Poland, the Nazis built death camps, which marked the end of the assembly line of murder. During the clearing of ghettos, some victims were chosen for “work camps,” but most were chosen for extermination. In early 1942, cattle cars filled with thousands of victims from the ghettos arrived continuously at the death camps. Upon arrival, a few of the stronger were chosen as slave laborers. The rest were sent to a facility, the “shower room,” which was in actuality a gas chamber. They were then gassed with a pesticide, Zyklon-B. Their bodies were then burned in the crematoria. The Nazis had literally constructed a machine of death. The Holocaust claimed six million Jews, between 200-600,000 Gypsies, and 10,000 homosexuals. The Holocaust also killed three million Polish Christians.

C. The Allies’ Response

The Allied governments had access to accurate information about the Holocaust and it quickly become available through the media to the ordinary citizens. But most officials and ordinary people could not comprehend the scale of the atrocities. In December 1942, the allied government issued a declaration condemning the Nazi regime for exterminating the Jews, but took no military action to stop it. Many historians have credited anti-Semitism in British and American society for this failure. Others have argued that the only feasible military option was winning the war as quickly as possible.

V. The Home Fronts: The Other Wars

A. Limits of Resistance

Individuals and groups engaged in heroic, open resistance against the Nazi regime. In some cases, such as the Warsaw ghetto and the camps, there were violent uprisings. But they were mercilessly crushed. In occupied Europe, the willingness of Nazis to use brutal force against civilians and the presence of German concentration camps served as a deterrent against civilians’ involvement in resistance activities. Still, resistance movements made up of both men and women continued to disrupt transportation systems and deliver information to the Allies. In France, once General De Gaulle established the Free French provisional government, the French began more active participation in the resistance. In many areas, resistance fighters unified not only to defeat the enemy but also to help build the foundations of a better world.

B. Civil War in Yugoslavia

In Yugoslavia, the struggle to free the country turned into a political and ethnic civil war. In Croatia, the fascist regime engaged in a savage campaign of ethnic homogenization against Serbs, Muslims, and Jews. In other parts of Yugoslavia, the royalist Chetnik resistance fought the Germans, engaged in slaughter of Muslims and Jews, and fought the communist Partisan Resistance led by Tito.
C. Under Occupation

In occupied Europe, Nazi racial ideology determined the treatment of POWs and civilians. The Slavs were deemed by the Germans as racially inferior. In eastern Europe, particularly in the Soviet Union, the Germans killed, starved, or overworked the civilian populations. In western Europe, the population was considered of “Germanic stock” and most POWs survived the war. Because of the need for German men at the front and Hitler’s unwillingness to mobilize women for the war effort, the Germans imported workers from eastern Europe to provide the needed labor for industry. These laborers were severely overworked and underpaid.

D. The Women’s War

The obliteration of the distinction between home front and front lines meant that women participated in the war to an unprecedented degree. British women were fully mobilized for the war effort and worked in both war industries and in civilian defense. In the Soviet Union, women made up 80 percent of the agricultural labor and 50 percent of the industrial labor. By 1944, there were 246,000 Soviet women as soldiers in the front lines. In Germany, the use of foreign labor took the place of the mobilization of women. In the last year of the war, German women were mobilized for the labor force. The U.S. never fully mobilized its economy. The distinction between soldier and civilian was maintained. In the U.S. 70 percent of adult women remained outside of the labor force. U.S. cities also did not experience bombardment.

E. What Are We Fighting For?

All nations involved used propaganda campaigns, especially myth making, to maintain the morale of both their combatants and their civilians and to validate the war effort.

1. Myth Making and Morale Building

Governments understood the necessity of institutionalizing propaganda during World War II, a time of total war. In Britain, the government created the Ministry of Information (MOI), which was in charge of boosting public morale. Often, the MOI engaged in using posters and pamphlets essentially designed to regulate people’s activities. Prime Minister Winston Churchill’s speeches proved far more effective, as his romantic portrayals of Britain incited greater support for the war and belief in Allied victory. In Germany, the government increased its censorship of art and entertainment so as to meet only the needs of the state. The arts, entertainers, and mass media were recruited for morale building. The movie industry played an important role in creating myths of national unity.

2. Planning for Reconstruction

Part of the propaganda involved the planning for reconstruction of a new Europe. In England, the Beveridge Report called for the government to ensure public welfare and social justice. After the war the Beveridge Report became the basis for social welfare programs across Europe. The radical reorientation of Europe to
social democracy was caused by several factors. First, Europeans demanded that their war suffering be worthwhile. Second, the war discredited the political right and the Great Depression discredited the liberal free-market ideal. Third, the role of communists and socialists in the resistance enhanced their respectability. The end result was that Europeans concluded that they should use the power of the state to improve the lives of their citizens.

VI. Conclusion: The New West: After Auschwitz and the Atom Bomb

As in the First World War, the Second World War reshaped the definition of “the West.” In contrast to Hitler’s beliefs in racism and authoritarianism, “the West” emerged committed to democracy. To defeat Hitler, Western democracies had to ally with the communist Soviet Union. The war’s end marked the arrival of the Soviet Union as the dominant power in eastern European politics. The need to expand and protect their respective ideologies would ultimately lead to a clash between democratic and communist powers during the Cold War. The war’s end also marked the beginnings of the end of European imperial control over non-Europeans and of the escalating tensions between the “North” and the “South.” Finally, the West’s claim to moral and material superiority came under attack as the Holocaust and the atomic bombings exposed the darker, more destructive side to scientific and technological developments.

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

Munich Conference held
Wannsee Conference
Japan attacks Pearl Harbor
Atomic bombs dropped on Japan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>Munich Conference held</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1938</td>
<td>Germany attacks Poland, initiates World War II</td>
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<tr>
<td>1939</td>
<td>Wannsee Conference</td>
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<tr>
<td>1941</td>
<td>Allied forces land in Normandy</td>
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<tr>
<td>1942</td>
<td>Japan attacks Pearl Harbor</td>
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<tr>
<td>1944</td>
<td>Italy invades Ethiopia</td>
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<tr>
<td>1945</td>
<td>Atomic bombs dropped on Japan</td>
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</table>
TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Person/Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appeasement</td>
<td>Neville Chamberlain</td>
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<tr>
<td>Blitzkrieg</td>
<td>Rome-Berlin Axis</td>
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<td>Vichy regime</td>
<td>Non-Aggression Pact of 1939</td>
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<td>Nuremberg Trials</td>
<td>Stalingrad</td>
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<td>Lend-Lease Act</td>
<td>Battle of Midway</td>
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<tr>
<td>Battle of Britain</td>
<td>Josip Broz (Tito)</td>
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<td>Holocaust</td>
<td>Partisans</td>
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<td>Concentration camps</td>
<td>Nagasaki</td>
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<td>Battle of Stalingrad</td>
<td>“Final Solution”</td>
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<td>Ernest Bevin</td>
<td>Battle of El Alamein</td>
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<td>Dimitri Shostakovich</td>
<td>Social democracy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Munich Agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Winston Churchill</td>
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<td>Charles De Gaulle</td>
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<td>Chetniks</td>
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<td>Hiroshima</td>
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<td>Death camps</td>
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<td>Manhattan Project</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Einsatzgruppen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Partisans</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

1. Locate the following places on the map.

Norway                Belgium
Denmark               Italy
Hamburg               Sudetenland
Munich                Yugoslavia
Rhineland             Warsaw
Cologne               Paris
Berlin                Poland
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What was the policy of appeasement? Why was it popular?

2. What aggressive steps did Italy, Germany, and Japan take prior to 1939?

3. What new style of warfare did Hitler use that allowed his forces to sweep across Europe so swiftly?

4. In what ways was the home front involved in the war? What role did women play in the economic mobilization of Germany and the allied countries?

5. How did the Germans treat the conquered populations? What role did resistance movements play in the occupied countries of Europe?

6. How did Hitler’s policies of racial ideas affect the treatment of civilians and POWs in eastern and western Europe?

7. What were the major turning points of the war in Europe, North Africa, and Asia?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. Although the introduction of the tanks ended the horrors of a stalemate in the trenches, what new horrors faced soldiers experiencing tank combat?

2. After reading the civilian accounts of aerial bombardments, how does being a civilian in the Second World War compare to being a civilian in the First World War?

3. How does the “Jager Report” help explain why the Nazis replaced the use of the Einsatzgruppen with the death camp system?

PUTTING TOGETHER LARGER CONCEPTS

1. Discuss the expectations concerning war in the 1920s and 1930s. How did these attitudes lead to war in both Europe and Asia?

2. How did the war contribute to the political reorientation of Europe?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. The League of Nations was unable to serve as a basis for a stable international order because
   a. it had never been intended as a source of post-war stability.
   b. it was boycotted by France and Britain.
   c. it did not include several of the major powers and lacked a military force to enforce its policies.
   d. it was dominated by the Soviet Union and the United States.

2. What was the policy adopted by France and Britain in the face of Hitler’s violations of the Versailles Treaty?
   a. Detente
   b. Rapprochement
   c. Appeasement
   d. Utilitarianism

3. The Munich Agreement
   a. divided Poland between Germany and the Soviet Union.
   b. gave the Sudetenland to Germany.
   c. allowed Italy to take Ethiopia and Greece.
   d. divided Germany into two separate states.

4. Which of the following statements is NOT accurate about blitzkrieg warfare?
   a. Blitzkrieg avoided the stalemate of trench warfare.
   b. Blitzkrieg combined aerial bombardment with fast-moving motorized divisions.
   c. Blitzkrieg failed to be an effective offensive strategy.
   d. Blitzkrieg allowed the Germans to quickly defeat Poland and France.

5. What event was a cause of the United States’ entrance into World War II?
   a. The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor
   b. The German assault on Stalingrad
   c. The Italian invasion of Ethiopia
   d. Britain’s appeal for help in the Battle of Britain

6. Which of the following countries did not mobilize women for the war effort until the last year of the war?
   a. France
   b. The United States
   c. Germany
   d. Soviet Union
7. Violent uprisings by Jews against the Germans took place in
b. Kiev.
c. Prague.
d. Warsaw.

8. Which of the following statements concerning the Holocaust is MOST accurate?
   a. Much of the blame for the Holocaust rests with the Jews themselves, who failed to resist the Germans.
   b. During the war, Europeans had a hard time believing the atrocities were true.
   c. The concentration camps were not known to Germans and the Allies during the war.
   d. The United States actively bombed the concentration camps to bring the mass executions to a halt.

9. High German military and Nazi Party officials were tried for crimes against humanity
   a. at the Nuremberg Trials in 1945-1946.
   b. in Jerusalem in 1961.
   c. at the Wannsee Conference of 1942.
   d. At the Washington Conference of 1921-1922.

10. The two countries involved in the Manhattan Project were
    a. Germany and Italy.
    b. Britain and the United States.
    c. France and Russia.
    d. Britain and France.
Chapter 27

Redefining the West After World War II

CHAPTER OUTLINE

On August 13, 1961, East German workers built a barbed-wire fence dividing East and West Berlin. In some cases, the dividing line ran right through apartment buildings. For several weeks, the windows of these buildings provided a view between East and West Berlin though which people tried to escape the communist world. Like the people jumping through these windows to the West, Europeans found themselves caught between the influence of the United States and the Soviet Union in the decades of the Cold War.

I. A Dubious Peace, 1945-1949

At the end of the war, much of Europe was a rubble heap. Post-war purges and deportations continued after 1945.

A. Devastation, Death, and Continuing War

By the end of the war, an estimated 55 million had been killed. The death toll continued as the victors inflicted vengeance on the defeated. Over 11 million Germans were deported from eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. Poland was given part of eastern Germany and expelled the Germans living there. Czechoslovakia, Romania, Yugoslavia, and Hungary also expelled Germans living in their territories. As many as two million Germans died in the forced deportation. In eastern Europe, to relieve ethnic divisions, governments deported ethnic minorities. Forced deportation, guerrilla warfare, and civil wars all demonstrated the continuation of the fighting of the Second World War.

B. From Hot to Cold War

The Cold War served as the most serious threat to the post-war peace. Even before Germany and Japan’s defeat, tension among the Allies became apparent. After the war, those tensions quickly turned openly hostile.

1. Fraying Seams, 1943-1945

The major conflict of the post-war years was the Cold War between the U.S. and the Soviet Union. Stalin’s chief post-war concern was to secure the Soviet Union’s western boundary by establishing friendly regimes in eastern Europe. Churchill wanted to maintain the British Empire, and feared a defeated Germany would leave a European power vacuum, one that the Soviets would try to fill. President Roosevelt favored establishing democracies based on liberal free market principles. The question of post-war Europe also included the issue of German reparations, and problematic compromises were reached at the Teheran and Yalta
Conferences. The Soviet army occupied eastern Europe, and this weakened British and American negotiating power. They agreed to the establishment of pro-Soviet regimes in eastern Europe. They also agreed to partition Germany and the city of Berlin among themselves, including France. Roosevelt’s and Churchill’s successors, Truman and Attlee, continued the negotiations. The successful atomic test drop convinced them they no longer needed to accommodate the Soviets. The Allies tried to prevent open hostility. Truman reduced the U.S. military presence in Europe while Stalin realized the necessity of reducing military expenditures to aid Soviet economic recovery. Britain’s foreign secretary Ernest Bevin, who felt Stalinism threatened British imperialism, pushed the U.S. to stand up to the Soviet Union.

2. Torn in Two, 1946-1949

The issue of Germany led to the collapse of the wartime alliances. The British and Americans decided to give priority to German economic recovery. They joined their zones into a single economic unit and stopped reparations payment to the Soviet Union. In 1947, the United States began the policy of containment to resist communist expansion with the introduction of the Truman Doctrine and Marshall Plan. The Truman Doctrine promised to provide aid to the countries resisting subjugation. The Marshall Plan provided aid for the economic recovery of Europe. The Soviet Union refused to participate in the Marshall Plan and forced other eastern European countries to decline aid. In 1949, the U.S. and nine west European nations formed NATO as a military alliance to block Soviet expansion. In 1949, the Soviet Union tested its first nuclear bomb and in 1955 the Soviet Union and the east European countries formed the Warsaw Pact. Europe was once again divided among hostile military blocs, now armed with nuclear weapons.

II. The West and the World: Decolonization and the Cold War

In the 1950s and 1960s, the Soviet Union and the United States used economic and military aid and covert action to draw the newly independent states into their camp.

A. The End of the Age of European Empires

World War II strengthened the nationalist movements in the colonies while eroding the economic and military resources needed by the European governments to hold their colonies. The European empires were not committed to decolonization and hoped to use their colonies to enhance their power in the new international order. In Indonesia, the nationalist resistance movement succeeded in forcing the Dutch out in 1949. The war hindered Britain’s economic and military ability to hold onto its colonial possessions. The British government of Clement Attlee relinquished India, Burma, and Palestine. In Palestine, ethnic conflict continued to devastate the region through several Arab-Israeli wars. In India, the Muslim nationalists refused to be part of a Hindu-dominated state. Partition of India between Muslim and Hindu states led to mass slaughter.

France also resisted decolonization. In 1954, the French were defeated at Dien Bien Phu in North Vietnam, but continued to resist the nationalist movement in Algeria. The brutal
Franco-Algerian War divided France and nearly plunged the country into civil war. Algeria finally became independent in 1962, only after 200,000 Algerians had been killed or imprisoned. World War II also sparked violent revolt in the colonies as the imperial powers tried to regain control. In Indochina, Ho Chi Minh fought for years against the French and American attempts to gain control of the region.

B. The Imperialist Legacy

Decolonization influenced the American civil rights movement whose leaders could compare their struggle for rights with the struggle for colonial independence in Africa. Even after decolonization, the legacy of imperialism lingered on. In Rhodesia and South Africa, the white settlers remained in control. In 1948 the Afrikaner National Party came to power in South Africa and imposed policies of apartheid, which denied black South Africans basic civil rights. The economic legacy of imperialism is known as neo-colonialism. Although the Europeans’ imperial powers left, the economies of the former colonies continued to be involved in a dependent relationship with the West. The former colonies continued to produce raw materials for export, while they became dependent on the importation of manufactured goods. Democratic forms of government failed to take root in the former colonies. Within a few years, military governments came to power in most former colonies.

C. The Globalization of the Cold War

Initially, it seemed that the Cold War would turn hot in Berlin, but instead fighting broke out in developing nations across the globe.

1. The Korean War, 1950-1963

The Korean War globalized the Cold War. In 1950, North Korea invaded South Korea. North Korea was supplied by Soviet arms and Chinese communist soldiers. South Korea was assisted by a UN-sponsored force made up mostly of American troops. The conflict convinced Truman to aid the French in their struggles against Ho Chi Minh and the communist nationalists in Indochina. The Korean War brought Japan into alliance with western powers. Fearful that the Korean War was the first step in Soviet aggression, European leaders pushed for the transformation of NATO into a coordinated fighting force. In addition, West Germany rearmed with NATO aid.

2. Changing Temperatures in the Cold War, 1953-1970

In 1953, the Eisenhower administration committed the U.S. to roll back communism and threatened nuclear retaliation against communist aggression. For his part, Khrushchev convinced allies and foes of the Soviet nuclear superiority. The realization by Eisenhower and Khrushchev that nuclear war made total war unwinnable, led both sides to find alternative ways to combat the Cold War. This realization led to a period of thawed tensions followed by renewed hostilities from 1954 until 1964. For example, the first summit of the Cold War was held in Geneva to negotiate, but this bridge-building between East and West was
interrupted in 1956 by the Soviet invasion of Hungary, and in 1957 with the Soviets’ successful launch of the satellite Sputnik. In 1958, the Soviets voluntarily agreed to suspend nuclear testing.

3. On the Brink: The Berlin Wall and the Cuban Missile Crisis

Tensions flared again in 1960 when the Soviets shot down an American spy plane, and this event brought the East and West dangerously close to war. Both sides increased military spending. Most people expected the city of Berlin to be the starting point for a nuclear war. In 1961, the Soviet Union and East Germany decided to stop the crossings and build the Berlin Wall around the western zone.

While Western governments increased defense spending, war did not break out. The next danger point was the Cuban Missile Crisis in the fall of 1962. In 1959, Fidel Castro had liberated Cuba and sided with the Soviets. In 1962, the U.S. found evidence that the Soviet Union was building nuclear bases in Cuba. Secret diplomatic negotiations reached a compromise between the two superpowers. The Soviet Union withdrew its missiles from Cuba, and the U.S. guaranteed that it would not invade Cuba and removed its missiles from Turkey. The Cuban Missile Crisis marked a turning point in Cold War politics. Both superpowers agreed to an aboveground Nuclear Test Band Treaty and a communications “hotline” to encourage personal consultation in future crises. Relations between the superpowers remained tense, as the events of the Vietnam War illustrate. The Soviets and Chinese aided North Vietnam, while the U.S. provided aid to South Vietnam.

4. Cold War Arenas: Vietnam and the Middle East

Both superpowers played a role in the conflicts that broke out in the former colonies. In Vietnam the U.S. intervened directly in the war between the communist North and the anti-communist South. By 1966, 429,000 American soldiers were fighting in Vietnam. The Soviet Union and the United States used military and economic aid and covert action to foster friendly governments in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. In the Middle East, the superpowers replaced France and England as the regional powerbrokers, and Middle Eastern states were either forced to choose sides or to play the superpowers against one another. The Six-Day War of June 1967 resulted in foreign policy shifts with the U.S. supporting Israel and Egypt, Syria, Iraq, Sudan, and Libya siding with the Soviet Union.

5. The Third World

Many of the new nations tried to remain outside the orbit of either superpower. They came to be collectively known as the Third World. In 1955 the first conference of non-aligned nations was held in Indonesia. None of these non-aligned nations was able to hold much power.
III. The Soviet Union and Eastern Europe in the 1950s and 1960s

The post-World War II world for eastern Europeans was not one of peace, as it generally was for western Europeans. Eastern Europe was filled with terror, economic turmoil, and political discontent.

A. From Stalinist Terror to De-Stalinization

When the Red Armies moved into eastern Europe in the last years of World War II, few saw it as a form of liberation. Stalin accused various ethnic groups of conspiring with the Nazis, and the Soviets deported thousands of civilians, many of whom starved or froze during their journey or stay in the East. Stalin’s paranoia over Western conspiracies to divide the Soviet bloc and the loss of Yugoslavia resulted in a campaign to torture, imprison, or murder any potential threats to his complete control over eastern Europe.

The persecutions ended when Stalin died in 1953. His successor, Nikita Khrushchev, was determined to set communism on a new course. His de-Stalinization campaign brought greater openness to communist countries, including greater freedom of speech and publication. De-Stalinization also allowed for the loosening of economic controls. Dissent and debate reappeared. But the continuations of Stalinist repression lingered. Political and cultural repression still existed, and in 1959 there were still at least a million prisoners in the Gulag. Religious persecution worsened under Khrushchev. De-Stalinization failed to resolve the economic weaknesses of the Soviet Union. Projects to increase agricultural production through greater mechanization, use of chemical fertilizers, and irrigation produced environmental disasters.

B. Re-Stalinization and Stagnation: The Brezhnev Era

Khrushchev’s reforms unsettled many high-ranking officials and, as a result, in 1964 Khrushchev was forced out of office. His successor, Leonid Brezhnev, failed to improve the economy, and stagnation occurred. He retained Khrushchev’s policies of free higher education, improving living standards, and greater availability of consumer goods. Growth in industrial production and labor productivity declined in the 1960s and stagnated in the 1970s. Brezhnev returned to rigid censorship and repression of dissenters. However, dissenters continued to make their voices heard through reviving “self-publishing” (samizdat) and circulating copies made by hand or duplicated on typewriters. Nationalism among non-Russians continued as a source of discontent, and they increasingly equated Russia with oppressive colonialism rather than with communist solidarity.

C. Diversity and Dissent in Eastern Europe

1. 1956 and After

In eastern Europe, various states developed along different parts despite the uniformity imposed by Soviet-style communist regimes. In Poland, protests in 1956 brought back to power Wladislaw Gomulka, who had been purged in 1951.
He abandoned collectivization, but kept Poland in the Warsaw Pact. The de-Stalinization reforms in Hungary under Imre Nagy slowed down collectivization and industrialization. When Hungary attempted to leave the Warsaw Pact, however, Soviet troops invaded and crushed all resistance. Nagy’s successor, Janos Kadar, who had been purged by Stalin, allowed greater economic freedom and initiative than other eastern European countries. Romania experienced one-person dictatorships under Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej and Nicolae Ceausescu. Except in Romania, the standard of living improved, there was greater availability of consumer goods, and educational opportunities increased.

2. The Prague Spring

During the 1960s, reform efforts emerged within the Czechoslovakian Communist Party. In 1968, these efforts merged with popular protest to produce a revolution within the party that brought to power Alexander Dubcek. He began to expand basic freedoms and decentralize the economy. The result was the “Prague Spring.” As Czech reform ideas began to produce calls for reform in surrounding countries, including the Soviet Union, the other members of the Warsaw Pact and the Soviet Union invaded Czechoslovakia and crushed the Prague Spring. Brezhnev proclaimed the Brezhnev Doctrine, stipulating that the Red Army would be used to stomp out revolution in any eastern European country. Although eastern Europeans continued their opposition, the events of 1968 proved to them that the political systems were out of reform’s reach, and so they retreated to the private worlds of family and friends.

IV. The West: Consensus, Consumption, and Culture

Cold War concerns helped shape postwar society in western Europe. Material prosperity returned to western European economy.

A. The Triumph of Democracy

Western governments agreed on the necessity of parliamentary democracy. Protection of individual rights, women’s suffrage, and the guarantee of a decent standard of living were all put into place. To ensure a decent standard of living to all citizens, governments got more involved in the economy and even began the construction of welfare systems. The postwar period was clearly dominated by social democratic politics.

1. Postwar Political Consensus

In western Europe and the U.S., the Cold War constricted political debate, and radical politics were marginalized. Christian Democrats on the right and Social Democrats on the left refused to allow communists to participate in government. In France and Italy, the Communist Party drew 20-30 percent of the vote, but remained out of power. The discrediting of the extreme right by World War II, led the Christian Democratic Parties to abandon authoritarianism. The result was that the Social Democratic Party and Christian Democratic Party agreed on the viability of parliamentary democracy and the need to use the power of
government to improve the lives of the people. Post-war governments guaranteed adequate income and medical care to their citizens.

B. Prosperity in the West

These political events coincided with an age of economic prosperity.

1. Economic Integration

The idea of a European union first appeared during World War II as people looked for ways to ensure peace. After the war, two events occurred that pushed the idea of greater European unity. First, was the common opposition to Stalin. Second, was the Marshall Plan that required recipients to develop transnational institutions to oversee the distribution of American aid. Both Socialists and Christian Democrats promoted the idea of European economic unity. In 1952, France, Germany, Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Italy created the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC), joining together their coal and steel industries. Their success led them to form the European Economic Community (EEC), or Common Market, in 1957. The rapid expansion of trade among the members produced a flourishing economy. By contrast, Britain stayed out to preserve its preferential ties to the former colonies and struggled to compete.

2. The Age of Affluence

After years of depression and wartime rationing, the political consensus and economic expansion gave Europeans economic security, which led to a spending spree. Many people were now able to buy homes and furnish them with the latest appliances.

C. Western Culture and Thought in the Age of Consumption

The new affluence brought Europeans new possibilities, as well as fear that materialism could restrict opportunities. Several cultural currents responded to the need to make sense of the new materialism.

1. Finding Meaning in the Age of Auschwitz and the Atom Bomb

Existentialism reflected the despair of the 1930s and the mass destruction of World War II. Jean-Paul Sartre argued that the key to existence is man’s condemnation to be free in a world devoid of meaning. Alberto Giacometti’s fragile sculptures represented people on the verge of breaking apart from the agony of existence. Artists found they could not adequately portray the force of the atomic age, and this reinforced the reliance upon abstract art. Abstract expressionism emerged with an emphasis on spontaneity. The average person confronted nuclear fears in films and fiction, with giant creatures attacking the Western world. William Golding’s *Lord of the Flies* illustrates fears about the moral deterioration of Western, civilized society.
2. Culture and Ideas in the World of Plenty

Postwar culture continued many of the trends of the prewar years. Existentialist concerns about man living in a world without meaning, requiring him to create his own meaning, prevailed through the 1950s in the literature and the arts. The 1960s brought a postmodernist retreat from dealing with the horrors of World War II and the concerns of the Cold War. In its place appeared a concern with the effects of consumer abundance. This was shown in pop art, which reflected the material rather than the spiritual. In social thought, the existentialist concerns about creating meaning were replaced by structuralism. The leading figure in the new movement was Claude Levi-Strauss. He argued that the myths of all cultures had the same “deep structures” and repeated patterns that give order to culture. Structuralists were interested in the web or structure that dictates how people understand the world.

3. Science and Religion in the Age of Affluence

The discovery of DNA structure brought debates of the possibilities of cloning and genetic manipulation, as well as concerns about individual freedom. The development of penicillin, new vaccines, and organ transplants made a long, healthy life appear more possible. The Cold War inspired a space race to put a man on the moon in 1969, freeing man for the first time from the physical confines of the earth. In religion, the first decade and a half after the war saw an increase in participation in religious life. The 1960s saw a reversal and dramatic decline in religious activities. For the Catholic Church, the Second Vatican Council introduced important changes in religious practice, including the use of vernacular languages in the worship services. Vatican II reaffirmed traditional church doctrines on clerical celibacy. Following the council, the pope reaffirmed church teaching on contraception.

D. Social Encounters in the Age of Affluence

With increased prosperity came new encounters between differing social and cultural groups. More and more U.S. goods entered the global market. The demand for labor meant an increase in immigration and female employment. Prosperity also enabled more people to enter college. The encounters and developments forced the West to make sense of this Age of Affluence.

1. Americanization, Coca-Colonization, and the Gaullist Protest

One of the most important cultural trends of postwar Europe was the Americanization of European culture. The U.S. dominated scientific research. It also dominated popular culture. American films and programs dominated the film and television industry. American music took over the airwaves. Europeans grew alarmed over “coca-colonization,” which they equated with a degradation of their
own culture as well as a loss of intellectuals flocking to American universities. France’s president Charles De Gaulle was an ardent anti-communist and who revered French culture. To him, the threat of “coco-colonization” was a greater enemy to France than communism because the importation of American culture threatened French culture. He vowed to reduce America’s influence and restore France’s grandeur in France by acting independently in diplomatic and military situations. However, adoption of American culture also meant transforming it to match European countries’ identities, not just one-way Americanization. For example, the Beatles adopted American rock and roll and mixed it with their own styles to transform popular music in Europe and America.

2. Immigration and Ethnic Diversity

A second cultural trend was the growing presence of peoples in the periphery of southern Europe and the former colonies in European industrialized countries. They provided the labor for the most dangerous and dirtiest jobs. At first they had come as single men who returned to their native countries. By the 1960s, they were coming as families. Europe was becoming increasingly multiethnic, and this complicated domestic politics and raised troublesome questions about national and ethnic identity.

3. The Second Sex?

In 1949, Simone de Beauvoir published The Second Sex as a critique of gender division of society. Changes in the postwar years reinforced domesticity. In the postwar years women began marrying younger, as well as having fewer children. Religious cultures of the 1950s, in particular the devolution to Mary, reinforced the maternal identity of women. The maternal image of women was reinforced also by the popular culture in television programming, which portrayed women as staying at home and presiding over an array of new machines that made their lives easier. However, over the two postwar decades, the new prosperity also pushed women into higher education and the labor force. In part, the expanding list of household necessities required women to work to pay for them. Women’s salaries remained substantially lower than men’s, and traditional legal inequalities remained.

4. The Protest Era

The 1960s saw challenges to established norms in both eastern and western Europe. For example, in France, the “Paris ’68,” a strike of eight million people, represents the political and social dissatisfaction of many Westerners, particularly the youth. New Left thinkers began warning about the expansion of the state that threatened the individuality of the ordinary citizen. They rejected both Soviet communism and U.S. capitalism. New Left thinkers demanded the right for ordinary people to participate in the structures that determined their lives. Discussions on liberation coincided with a sexual revolution in which people engaged in behavior traditionally labeled as immoral. Protestors even challenged
the Cold War. They often drew inspiration from colonial independence movements.

V. Conclusion: New Definitions, New Divisions

The Cold War’s two sides both claimed to be “democratic.” The Soviet tanks rolling through eastern Europe, crushing dissent, prevented democracy from existing. In western Europe, on the other hand, democracy lasted. By the late 1960s, however, protestors began to challenge the link between democracy and “the West.” They pointed to the absence of ordinary people in decision-making. To many, “the West” simply meant “anti-Soviet.”

**TIMELINE**

*Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.*

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<td>Cuban Missile Crisis</td>
<td>Second Vatican Council convened</td>
<td>Khrushchev begins De-Stalinization</td>
<td>EEC formed</td>
<td>The Second Sex published</td>
<td>Prague Spring</td>
<td>Berlin Wall built</td>
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**TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS**

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marshall Plan</td>
<td>Wladislaw Gomulka</td>
<td>Existentialism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prague Spring</td>
<td>Nikita Khrushchev</td>
<td>Brezhnev Doctrine</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>Sputnik</em></td>
<td>Imre Nagy</td>
<td>Berlin Wall</td>
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<tr>
<td>Truman Doctrine</td>
<td>Simone de Beauvoir</td>
<td>Leonid Brezhnev</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clement Attlee</td>
<td>Warsaw Pact</td>
<td>De-stalinization</td>
</tr>
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<td>OEEC</td>
<td>Pope Pius XII</td>
<td>Claude Levi-Strauss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big Three</td>
<td>European Economic Community</td>
<td>Christian Democratic Parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pop art</td>
<td>Third World</td>
<td>Yalta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coca-Colonization</td>
<td>Alexander Dubcek</td>
<td>NATO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potsdam</td>
<td>New Left</td>
<td>Ho Chi Minh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vatican II</td>
<td>Cuban Missile Crisis</td>
<td>Korean War</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konrad Adenaur</td>
<td>Apartheid</td>
<td><em>Samizdat</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaullism</td>
<td>Structuralism</td>
<td>Neo-colonialism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

1. Locate the following places on the map.

   The six countries that were the original members of the EEC in 1957
   Hungary
   Czechoslovakia
   Poland
   Romania
   Algeria
   Ukraine
   Greece
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What steps were taken by the U.S. and the Soviet Union to divide Europe into two armed camps?

2. How was the Cold War globalized?

3. How did Britain, France, and the Dutch react to colonial independence movements? What contributed to the eventual loss of their colonial territories?

4. Why did tensions between the U.S. and the Soviet Union fluctuate between 1953 and 1970?

5. How did de-Stalinization affect eastern Europe and Russia?

6. How did American culture impact European culture after World War II? How did the growing affluence change European behavior?

7. Did traditional gender identities change during the postwar period? Why or why not?

DOCUMENT QUESTIONS

1. How does Zhdanov view the division of Europe into two camps? How does Zhdanov’s view differ from that of Churchill?

2. According to Frantz Fanon, how did colonizing capitalists behave toward the colonized peoples?

3. How does the standard of living enjoyed by the character Arthur and his family compare with their life before the war?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How and why did the end of World War II lead so quickly to the beginning of the Cold War?

2. Compare and contrast the western European political consensus of the immediate postwar period with that of the growing dissent of the 1960s. What explains this transformation?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. The purpose of NATO was to
   a. ship food to Europe.
   b. eliminate trade barriers.
   c. prevent a Soviet invasion of Europe.
   d. form an anti-Western military alliance.

2. Why did Britain relinquish control of its colonies?
   a. Britain sympathized with the colonial nationalists.
   b. Britain was defeated militarily by colonial nationalists.
   c. The UN forced Britain to grant independence to its colonies.
   d. Britain could no longer afford its colonies.

3. Which of the following events represents the globalization of the Cold War in the early 1950s?
   a. Hungarian Revolution
   b. Korean War
   c. Prague Spring
   d. Cuban Missile Crisis

4. In the Brezhnev Doctrine, the Soviet Union
   a. accepted the nuclear dominance of the United States and promised to lessen nuclear tension.
   b. promised to permit political deviation from communism in nations of the Warsaw Pact.
   c. vowed to use the Red Army to stomp out communist countries of eastern Europe.
   d. offered to end the Cold War.

5. Which of the following leaders led Czechoslovakia during the Prague Spring?
   a. Wladislaw Gomulka
   b. Alexander Dubcek
   c. Imre Nagy
   d. Nikolai Ceaușescu

6. Which of the following was NOT a characteristic of the Social Democratic and Christian Democratic Parties?
   a. They prohibited communists from participating in coalition governments.
   b. They believed in the nationalization of key industries.
   c. They favored ideologies of the extremist right.
   d. They were committed to building welfare systems.
7. Which of the following promoted economic unity by joining the economies of six European countries into a free trade zone?

a. Marshall Plan  
b. The Warsaw Pact  
c. European Economic Community  
d. Truman Doctrine

8. Which of the following was NOT a feature of postwar Europe culture?

a. Americanization of popular culture  
b. A concern with the structures that define the world  
c. Mass consumption  
d. Emphasis on thrift and saving

9. Which of the following was NOT a result of the Second Vatican Council?

a. The approval of clerical marriages  
b. The implementation of vernacular liturgies  
c. More shared power between the pope and local, regional councils  
d. Priests now faced the congregation from behind the altar

10. Which of the following was true about the status of women during the 1950s and 1960s?

a. Legal inequalities no longer existed.  
b. Affluence and popular culture reinforced women’s domestic roles.  
c. Affluence released most women from having to gain employment.  
d. Traditional gender roles underwent dramatic change.
Chapter 28

The West in the Contemporary Era: New Encounters and Transformations

CHAPTER OUTLINE

On the evening of November 9, 1989, a crowd of East Germans began streaming through the Berlin Wall. In the previous 28 years, over 200 people had been shot trying to cross it. A few days later, people began dismantling the wall. The sudden opening of the wall signaled the collapse of communist regimes in eastern Europe and the end of the Cold War.


The 1970s were marked by an easing of Cold War tensions and an ending to the postwar affluence.

A. The 1970s: A More Uncertain Era

The 1970s signaled an easing of Cold War tensions as well as the end of postwar affluence.

1. The Era of Detente

Western European leaders opened diplomatic and economic relations with the Soviet Union and its satellites. After 1969, the new West German Chancellor, Willy Brandt, initiated a new Ostpolitik with the East. In 1972, East and West Germany recognized each other’s legitimacy, and in 1973 both joined the UN. Growing economic problems in both superpowers led them to embrace détente as an effort to stabilize superpower relations. They agreed in 1972 to the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT), freezing the weapons at the current balance. The same period witnessed the division of the communist world. China and the Soviet Union were at odds over Mao Zedong’s industrialization programs. In 1960, Khrushchev suspended economic aid to China, but one year later China exploded its own nuclear bomb in 1964. By the end of the 1960s, China and the Soviet Union faced each other across an armed border. In 1971, the U.S. took advantage of these Sin-Soviet hostilities to improve relations with China. U.S. President Richard Nixon lifted travel and trade restrictions with China and announced that he would visit China. The “East versus West” dichotomy no longer seemed as clear.

2. Economic Crisis in the West

Before the 1970s, inflation and unemployment seemed mutually exclusive, but the 1970s saw an unprecedented combination of high unemployment and high
inflation, commonly labeled *stagflation*. There were several causes of the economic crisis. American support for Israel in the 1973 Arab-Israeli war provoked the OPEC oil producers to retaliate by cutting oil supplies and increasing prices. Further price increases came in 1979 with the revolution in Iran. Secondly, U.S. president Richard Nixon decided to allow the dollar to “float,” which let the market determine the dollar’s value against other currencies. This undermined the Bretton Woods agreements and led to worldwide banking crises. Third, older industrial economies of the U.S. and Europe struggled to compete with the emerging economies of Asia and the Third World.

3. Consequences of the Crisis

The result of the economic crisis was an increase in social tensions as workers struggled to maintain their share of the economic pie. The struggle heightened racial tensions as the unemployed began to wrongly blame the immigrant labor for unemployment. The result was violence against immigrants and the rise of anti-immigrant political parties such as the Front National, led by Jean-Marie Le Pen in France.

B. The 1980s: The End of Political Consensus in the West

The economic crisis challenged the postwar political assumption that the government should own key industries and take responsibility for full employment and provide welfare services.

1. The New Conservatives

New answers appeared under the label of New Conservatives such as Ronald Reagan, Helmut Kohl, and Margaret Thatcher. They rejected the emphasis on social improvement of the community. In its place, they emphasized the individual competing in a world governed by market forces. They linked the economic crisis to the increase in spending on social services. They implemented privatization of public-owned industries and cut social services. Thatcher and Reagan controlled inflation by imposing high interest rates, but this also dramatically increased unemployment rates. In the 1980s, the falling of oil prices and Reagan’s military spending spree allowed western economies to begin growing, but unemployment rates remained above five percent. The leftist parties, such as socialists and social democrats, in power were also forced by the economic crisis to cut social spending and reverse nationalization programs.

2. New Challenges and New Identities: New Feminism

The economic crisis and the renewal of the Cold War also increased the activism of the feminist and radical environmental movements. Female activists, frustrated by the failures of the 1960s, increasingly challenged female stereotypes by seeking to change legal codes. More women worked outside of the home, marriage ages rose, and birth rates continued to fall. Women were also more visible in government, parliaments, and cabinets. Women demanded equal pay for
equal work and greater opportunities in education and employment. In Western universities, feminists helped redefine the curriculum and challenged traditional historical representations of women.

3. New Challenges and New Identities: Environmentalism

Environmentalism also affected political dialogue of the 1970s. Green parties challenged the structure of the industrial economies and protested nuclear power. In the 1980s, environmental concern led to the rise of Green parties throughout Europe. Feminism influenced environmental ideologies, and both challenged the use of physical power and those who refused to eliminate traditional hierarchical structures.

4. From Detente to Renewed Cold War

The detente policies of the early 1970s were reversed in the late 1970s, and Cold War tensions returned. Detente’s triumph came in 1975 when the U.S., Canada, and European nations signed the Helsinki Accords, recognizing the existing borders and promising to safeguard human rights. Soon, Soviet dissidents published reports of human rights abuses in the Soviet Union. Human rights issues weakened U.S.-Soviet relations. The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 undermined detente. Immediately, U.S. President Jimmy Carter cut economic and cultural links with the Soviet Union and increased military spending. The New Conservatives in the early 1980s increased the Cold War tensions by increasing the arms build-up and deciding to deploy nuclear weapons in European countries. The renewal of the Cold War and NATO’s deployment of nuclear weapons caused protests to fill the streets of many European cities.

II. Revolution in the East

Revolutions took place across eastern Europe between 1989 and 1991. The reforms of the Soviet Union’s leader, Mikhail Gorbachev, opened the door for the end of Soviet dominance in eastern Europe, the end of the Cold War, and the disintegration of the Soviet Union itself.

A. Crisis of Legitimacy in the East

Eastern Europe was shaken by the changes in the global economy after 1973. Although the Soviet Union continued to have record-breaking production figures, it experienced less prosperity. The overly centralized economic planning emphasized fulfillment of quotas without regard to quality or marketability. Soviet industry did not keep pace with global economic change and became outdated. The Soviet satellites in eastern Europe experienced severe economic crisis. During the 1970s, eastern European countries borrowed heavily from western banks to improve the availability of consumer goods. The loans did not solve the economic problems at home. In the early 1980s as the economic crisis worsened, governments restricted the flow of consumer goods and imposed higher prices. The result was growing discontent.
1. The Moment of Solidarity, the Moment of Punk

In Poland, discontent turned revolutionary with the rise of the Solidarity movement in 1980. Solidarity not only demanded economic improvements, but also the right to form independent trade unions and basic freedoms. Fearful of Soviet intervention, the Polish government declared martial law in December 1981. However, Solidarity survived and continued to be active in the underground. The economic crisis continued, food shortages became common, and unemployment rates increased. Solidarity continued to build strength, and in 1989 paved the way for democracy in Poland. Although no other country in eastern Europe experienced a protest movement as strong as Solidarity, the gap between the authorities and the people widened. Punk music became a form of cultural protest against the system.

2. Nature and the Nation

Another current of dissatisfaction was the rise of environmental movements in eastern Europe. By the 1980s, decades of industrialization and economic production without regard for the environment had produced an environmental catastrophe in many parts of Eastern Europe and Russia. Environmentalism was one of the few topics allowed free discussion, and dissidents successfully used it as an alternative way to protest against the Soviet Union.

B. Gorbachev and Radical Reform

In 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev became general secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. He had grown up experiencing the policies of Stalin, Khruschev, and Brezhnev. He was a faithful follower of communism, but he hoped to reform the Soviet system and reverse its economic decline.

1. Glasnost and Perestroika

Once in power, he introduced the policy of glasnost, or openness, to abandon the deception and apathy that characterized the Soviet system. In April 1986, the Chernobyl nuclear power plant accident symbolized the first major test of glasnost. Another policy introduced by Gorbachev was perestroika, or the restructuring of the Soviet system. This reconstruction included a limited market, decentralization, and modernization. In May 1989, Soviet voters were allowed a choice of candidates. By 1990, voters had a choice of candidates from multiple parties.

2. Ending the Cold War

Gorbachev concluded that the Soviet Union could not afford the arms race of the Cold War. Between 1987-1991, he signed a series of agreements, limiting and reducing nuclear and conventional forces, including the INF (Intermediate Nuclear Forces) Treaty and the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START I). He also pulled Soviet troops out of Afghanistan and Mongolia.
C. Revolutions of 1989 in Eastern Europe

Even more surprising, Gorbachev informed eastern European leaders that the Red Army would not be used to crush rebellions in their countries. In 1988, he declared in a UN speech that eastern Europe was free to choose its own path. Immediately, Hungary and Poland began to eliminate the communist system. In East Germany, the Berlin Wall fell in November of 1989 and the Christian Democrats took power in March of 1990. In Czechoslovakia a revolution toppled the communist regime, and dissident playwright Vaclav Havel became president. In Bulgaria a group of reform-minded communists replaced the government of Todor Zhivkov. Only in Romania did the communist dictator use its troops to retain power. Romanians retaliated by overthrowing and then executing Nicolai Ceausescu.

D. The Disintegration of the Soviet Union

By 1990, Gorbachev had ended the Cold War and brought about change in eastern Europe with little bloodshed, but he had not succeeded in bringing prosperity to the Soviet Union. Food and other goods remained scarce and productivity had fallen. He was facing severe opposition from hard-line communists opposed to his reforms and from liberal reforms that felt his policies were not going far enough. In August 1991, the hard-liners attempted to overthrow him. Russian president Boris Yeltsin led the resistance that defeated the coup. By the end of 1991, the rising tide of nationalism among the ethnic groups undermined the Soviet Union and the country broke apart. On December 25, 1991, Gorbachev resigned as president of a country that no longer existed.

III. In the Wake of Revolution

Nationalism replaced the capitalist-communist struggle, and many of the conflicts that led to World War I violently resurfaced. Eastern Europe simultaneously experienced revolution, inflation, unemployment, and economic instability. Minority groups demanded national recognition, and civil wars upset various countries.

A. Crisis Throughout the Former Soviet Union

In Russia, President Yeltsin applied shock therapy to the economy but it continued to get worse. In 1998, Russia went bankrupt. While managers of state industries became rich when these industries were privatized, the majority of Russians experienced poverty. In many of the former Soviet republics, the end of Soviet subsidies undermined their economy. Russia and several of the other Soviet republics experienced civil wars. In Russia, the Chechens demanded independence. Presidents Yeltsin and Putin kept Chechnya in the Russian federation but only by fighting bloody wars.

B. Eastern Europe: Stumbling Toward Democracy

In eastern Europe, the return to freedom brought change to a capitalist economy. Poland, Hungary, the Czech Republic, and the Baltic countries experienced economic hardship but the transition was fairly rapid. In Romania, Bulgaria, and Albania, economic
instability continued. In the mid-1990s, many ex-communists were returning to power but continued the liberal economic reforms in a more gradual form. Nationalism also became a problem again. In 1993, Czechoslovakia ceased to exist and was replaced by the separate states of Slovakia and the Czech Republic. Politicians once again used anti-Semitism in their political platforms.

C. The “German Problem”?

Eastern Germans enthusiastically entered the more prosperous West Germany after the fall of the Berlin Wall. Helmut Kohl brought about the political unification of the new German state in 1990 and became its first chancellor. Unification produced economic troubles, as the former West Germany struggled to revive the former East Germany’s weak economy. Many former East Germans experienced economic dislocations as their factories were closed. They also experienced culture shock when they encountered the former West Germany’s more conventional concepts of gender roles and of sexual morality. High unemployment led to racial and ethnic antagonism.

D. The Breakup of Yugoslavia

The collapse of communism had horrific results in Yugoslavia. The country was a federation of six ethnic groups with a long history of bloody clashes. The communist guerilla leader Tito had used federalism to prevent any one group from dominating the others and communism as a way of unifying ideology. Tito died in 1980. That same year, riots exploded in Kosovo between Serbs and Albanians. During the 1980s, Yugoslavia experienced economic problems. As the 1989 revolutions swept through eastern Europe, ethnic nationalism surfaced in Yugoslavia. Slobodan Milosevic used an aggressive Serbian nationalism and the Yugoslav army to retain Serbian dominance. When Croatia declared independence in 1991, civil war erupted and spread to Bosnia in 1992. All sides used ethnic cleansing to enforce their claims to territory, although the Serbs initiated the practice and used it most extensively. The results were horrific, as villages were attacked. Women were sent to camps where they endured continuous rape. In 1994, NATO intervened and bombarded Serbian positions. The Dayton Accords in 1995 provided a tense, temporary peace. When another wave of fighting and ethnic cleansing erupted in Kosovo, NATO again intervened. After NATO bombardment of Serbia, Russian and NATO troops moved into Kosovo. In 2001, Milosevic was placed on trial for genocide.

IV. Rethinking the West

At the start of the 1990s, the feeling of triumph resulting from the collapse of the Soviet Union characterized Western culture. Soon, new enemies made their appearance that required the redefinition of Western identity.

A. The European Union

Changes in Europe limited American hegemony. During the 1970s and 1980s, European nations worked toward greater unity. The Common Market was enlarged by the addition of Britain, Denmark, and Ireland (1973), Greece (1981), Spain, and Portugal (1986); Austria, Finland, and Sweden joined in the 1990s. In 1979, the first European Parliament
was elected. By the 1980s, the EC was one of the leading markets in the world and a
strong economic competitor to the U.S. The Single European Act in 1985 and Maastricht
Agreements of 1991 replaced the EC with the European Union. In the 1990s, an EU
passport replaced the national passports. In 2003, a single currency, the euro, replaced
the national currencies. The process of unification was filled with controversy. The end
of the Cold War raised the question of admitting new members from eastern Europe.
Rigorous economic qualifications were imposed as part of the admission process. Small
producers were hurt by the stream of regulations resulting in the process of integration. In
2003, the EU parliament added Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, the Czech
Republic, Slovenia, Cyprus, and Malta to the European Union.

B. Islam, Terrorism, and European Identity

In 2004 the EU declined the inclusion of Turkey, largely because its repressive penal
system, its refusal to recognize the independence of Cyprus, its poverty, and its Muslim
identity. This struggle represents Europeans’ attempt to reconcile European identity with
an ever-growing Islamic presence within Europe.

1. Muslim Communities in Europe

As opposed to eastern Europe, most Muslims in western Europe were immigrants
or the descendants of immigrants, who came looking for job opportunities.
Muslims’ experiences in Europe varied. Some countries granted citizenship to
them, some did not. Many Muslims thrived in Europe, but their standard of living
stood behind that of non-Muslims. As Muslim minarets were built across Europe,
Europeans felt their culture was being threatened.

2. Terrorism, the West, and the Middle East

By the mid-1990s, U.S. President Bill Clinton was identifying terrorism as the
new enemy of the West. Terrorism grew out of nineteenth-century anarchism.
Unable to achieve their goals through the normal political process, terrorists
proceeded to destabilize the societies through acts of terror. Some groups,
dissillusioned with the results of 1968, turned to terror in the 1970s. In Spain, the
Basque separatist group ETA, and in Northern Ireland, the IRA, used terror in their
struggle to gain independence. By the 1980s, terrorism was seen as a threat to the
West. More significantly, terrorism became primarily associated with “Islam”—
fanatical, violent, and anti-democratic. The Palestinian-Israeli conflict illustrates
this. In the Middle East, the failure to implement the UN resolution promising a
Palestinian state led to the formation of the Palestinian Liberation Organization
(PLO). The occupation of all Palestinian territory by Israel in 1967 led the PLO to
turn to terrorism. The conflict in Israel and U.S. support for unpopular
governments in the Middle East fueled anti-Western sentiment.

3. Islamism and the West

The development of Islamism reinforced the West’s linking Islam and terrorism
together. Islamism views the West (particularly the U.S.) as a threat to Islamic
identity and views violence as an acceptable means to eradicate Western enemies. In Europe, many Muslim immigrants found Islamism as an answer to deal with the dislocation, discrimination, and lack of power they endured. During the 1990s, hostility increased as a result of the First Gulf War in 1991. The war freed Kuwait from the Iraqi invaders. After the war, American forces remained in bases in Saudi Arabia. The wars in Bosnia and Chechnya involved the deaths of Muslims, which angered Islamists, who resented the passivity of Western powers. Islamists resented Russia, especially with its history of oppressing Muslims and fighting against Afghanistan. Eventually, the Taliban, a revolutionary Islamist group, took control of Afghanistan.

Islamist anti-Western sentiment abruptly erupted on September 11, 2001 with their terrorist attack on New York City’s World Trade Center and the Pentagon. U.S. and European official linked the attacks to Al Qaeda, an Islamic terrorist organization run by Osama bin Laden. A “war against terror” was declared, as quickly demonstrated by the U.S. attack of Afghanistan in 2001 and of Iraq in 2003.

4. Euro-Islam

Since 9/11, Western identity has become even more complex. On July 7, 2005, bombings rocked London, killing over 50 people and injuring over 700 more. This action illustrated the potency of Islamism in the West. Islamic history in the West has been reduced to a “Them” versus “Us” concept. Despite negative relations between Islam and the West, most European Muslims rejected Islamism. Instead, the descendants of immigrants saw themselves as part of Euro-Islam. They saw themselves as both Muslim and European, and they argued that no contradiction exists between these two identities. Euro-Islam advocated that respect for democracy, individual differences, and civil liberties characterize both Europe and Islam. Women have played a significant role in this movement, with their protests against female circumcision and forced marriages.

C. Into the Postmodern Era

After the end of the Cold War, intellectual and artistic trends known as postmodernism challenged Western values. Postmodernism rejected the supremacy of Western culture, or more precisely, it challenged the notion that Western science and rationality represent a single, universally applicable standard.

1. The Making of the Postmodern

In architecture, postmodernists insisted that architecture should connect with ordinary people and opposed modernism’s rejection of traditional forms. Postmodernists advocated a return to recreating past regional and local styles, and they denied the existence of universal forms that should represent all individuals and societies. In art, postmodernists rejected the “avant-garde,” and artists insisted that art must convey a message about the world around it. Feminism affected new art forms, as women challenged men’s dominance over women and
the exclusion of women from art galleries. Postmodernism coincided with the poststructuralist movement, which rejected the notion of a fixed or single truth. Poststructuralists like Jacques Derrida explored communication, and he came to the conclusion that there are far too many meanings and interpretations of words and their references for there to be universal meanings and truths. Poststructuralists also opposed the ways in which authorities use and manipulate knowledge to retain power and the ways that Western powers guide global culture for their own benefit by misrepresenting the cultures of non-Western or minority groups. In essence, both movements were attempts to question any center of authority or interpretation.

2. Postmodern Cultures and Postindustrial Technologies

Postmodernism coincided with the rise of the postindustrial society. The industrial age was defined by production. The postindustrial age is more interested in information and marketing than in manufacturing things. The home computer has given people access to unprecedented amounts of information, which governments find impossible to control. Similarly, developments in medical breakthroughs, such as test-tube babies and the discovery of the human genome, have provided many new opportunities but have also raised important ethical questions.

3. Religion in the Postmodern Era

Postmodernism also had profound impact on religious life. Christianity no longer served as a common characteristic between Westerners, as evidenced by the growth of Islam. In Europe no more than five percent of the population attended religious services regularly. Religious faith had become a private concern, which rejected the centers of authority. Pope John Paul II experienced unprecedented popularity, but despite his uncompromising stand on the church teaching on sexual morality, he was unable to bring into line his rebellious flock in Europe and the U.S., who even rejected church teaching on birth control.

D. The Global Challenge

1. The Global Economy

Economic and environmental developments raised important challenges about Western society. The emergence of new technologies forced firms to be more flexible in rapidly changing markets by relying on outsourcing, subcontracting, or downsizing. These changes have left the worker vulnerable. Central authority has largely moved out of the hands of governments and into those of individuals and institutions. At times, their decisions can be devastating for countries. In the 1990s, the actions of currency speculators forced currencies and stock markets to collapse in Thailand, Indonesia, South Korea, the Philippines, and Malaysia. The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) are two examples of institutions exercising more control that governments. Another challenge is the
growing divide between North and South, which coincides with the divide between rich and poor.

2. The Environmental Crisis

Yet another challenge has been environmental. Various forms of environmental protection have been in effect, including forest and wetlands conservation, restrictions on endangered species, and regulations on fossil fuels. Environmental degradation, however, has continued. The burning of fossil fuels and the cutting of the rain forests has resulted in rising temperatures. Global warming threatens international economic stability. The U.S. has refused to implement Kyoto agreements to cut “greenhouse” gas emissions. U.S. actions in regards to the environment and in the 2003 Gulf War have raised concerns about the U.S. as a superpower out of control.

V. Conclusion: Where is the West Now?

The definition of “the West” is more complicated than ever. Many regions all over the world fulfill the economic, cultural, political, and technological characteristics of what it means to be Western. Aspects of “the West” still remain that make it quite distinct, and boundaries continue to exist between “East” and “West.” There are even boundaries between “North” and “South.” How these boundaries can be crossed or even erased is a question that has yet to be answered.
TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>Solidarity established in Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>Soviet Union dissolved</td>
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<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Helsinki Accords</td>
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<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>The creation of the euro</td>
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<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Mikhail Gorbachev comes to power in the Soviet Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>NATO bombs Serbia and begins its first ever combat operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Gorbachev and Reagan sign the Intermediate Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Serbian and Albanian fighting begins in Kosovo</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one.

| Boris Yeltsin | Postmodernism | Solidarity |
| Margaret Thatcher | Nicolae Ceaucescu | Chernobyl |
| François Mitterand | Slobodan Milosevic | Ethnic cleansing |
| Ronald Reagan | Vladimir Putin | Poststructuralism |
| Dayton Accords | Kosovo | Euro |
| Helmut Kohl | Glasnost | Terrorism |
| Perestroika | Vaclav Havel | Mikhail Gorbachev |
| Stagflation | Jean-Marie Le Pen | Islamism |
| New Conservatism | Ayatollah Khomeini | Jimmy Carter |
| New feminism | Ostpolitik | John Paul II |
| Postindustrial society | SALT | Palestinian Liberation Organization |
| Mao Zedong | Detente | Green politics |
| European Union (EU) | Euro-Islam | Helsinki Accords |
| Intermediate Nuclear Force (INF) Treaty | International Monetary Fund | |
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter.

1. Locate the following places on the map.

Identify all of the states created in the aftermath of the collapse of the Soviet Union.
Identify new states in eastern Europe created out of the former Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia.
MAKING CONNECTIONS

The following questions are intended to emphasize important ideas within the chapter.

1. What changes characterized the era of detente?

2. What were the causes of the economic crisis of the 1970s? How did the economic crisis affect the Western world? Consider economics, politics, and race relations.

3. How did the New Conservatives change the political culture?

4. What reforms did Mikhail Gorbachev implement in his attempt to improve the Soviet Union?

5. What was Solidarity? How did the development of Solidarity challenge communism in Poland?

6. What were the stages in the creation of a unified European Union?

7. How did postmodernism challenge Western culture?

8. How has terrorism become primarily linked to Islam?

DOCUMENTS QUESTIONS

1. According to Bill Buford’s essay, what issues did racist parties use to recruit new members?

2. In “How’s the Family,” how does the friendly telephone conversation between the enemy commanders actually reveal the horrors of the civil war in Yugoslavia?

3. What does David Landes think the issues are that are causing a divide between North and South? How is environmental deterioration part of the gap between North and South?

PUTTING LARGER CONCEPTS TOGETHER

1. How did the decline of Soviet power and then the disintegration of the Soviet Union simultaneously liberate eastern Europe and continue political and economic instability?

2. How has Islam affected Western identity and culture?
SELF-TEST OF FACTUAL INFORMATION

1. Which of the following did NOT contribute to the economic crises of the 1970s?

   a. Global competition
   b. The Helsinki Accords
   c. OPEC’s embargo on U.S. oil
   d. The 1979 revolution in Iran

2. Which of the following was NOT a New Conservatives’ policy?

   a. High interest rates to bring inflation under control
   b. Increased military spending
   c. Increased spending on social services
   d. Privatization of national industries

3. Which of the following was NOT a policy implemented by Gorbachev?

   a. Glasnost
   b. Perestroika
   c. Ethnic cleansing
   d. Ending the arms race

4. Within the eastern European nations, non-violent revolution occurred in all of the following EXCEPT

   a. Hungary.
   b. Czechoslovakia.
   c. East Germany.
   d. Romania.

5. In 1994, Russia committed itself to war against which secessionist region?

   a. Chechnya
   b. Ukraine
   c. Estonia
   d. Belarus

6. Which of the following statements is true regarding the disintegration of the Soviet Union?

   a. Gorbachev did not approve of the break-up of the Soviet Union.
   b. Former states enjoyed economic prosperity.
   c. Ethnic tensions subsided in former states.
   d. Yeltsin refused to use force to combat nationalist movements.
7. In the 1990s, ex-communists returned to power in all of the following countries EXCEPT
   a. Lithuania.
   b. West Germany.
   c. Hungary.
   d. Poland.

8. Which of the following leaders was associated with ethnic cleansing?
   a. Helmut Kohl
   b. Haclav Havel
   c. Slobodan Milosevic
   d. Boris Yeltsin

9. The European Community process for unification of western Europe included all the following EXCEPT
   a. a European Parliament.
   b. a common currency.
   c. a common European defense system.
   d. the absolute exclusion of eastern European nations from the Community.

10. Which of the following statements is TRUE regarding postmodernism?
    a. Postmodernists denied the reality of universal forms of art, architecture, and literature.
    b. Postmodernists advocated the concept of “art for art’s sake.”
    c. Postmodernists believed in the ability to develop universal meanings in communication.
    d. Postmodernists rejected the revival of architecture based on distinct local and regional forms.
## Answers to Chapter Self-Tests of Factual Information

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