**Social Studies Text**

**Unit 1**: Age of Exploration

**Unit 2**: Age of Colonization

**Unit 3:** Absolutism/Enlightenment

**Unit 4**: Age of Revolutions

**Unit 5**: Industrialization, Nationalism, and Imperialism

**Student Name\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_**

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**CHAPTER PROLOGUE**

**The Rise of Democratic Ideas**

**Chapter Overview**

The ancient Greeks established the first democracy, while the Romans contributed to the development of democratic law. The Judeo-Christian tradition promoted ideas of social responsibility, individual worth, and equality. The rights of individuals and the power of Parliament increased over time in England. Enlightenment ideas influenced the American and French revolutions. The struggle for democracy continues to this day.

**Section 1: The Legacy of Ancient Greece and Rome**

***KEY IDEA*** *- The first democracy, which was limited, developed in Athens. The Romans developed key principles of law and a written legal code.*

Ancient Greece was made up of city-states. The first democracy developed in the city-state of Athens. At first, Athens had a king. Then, it became an aristocracy, a state ruled by the noble class. In the 6th century BC, the statesman Solon created four new kinds of citizenship. All free adult males were citizens, and all citizens were able to vote in the assembly, or governmental body. Citizens of the three higher classes could also hold public office. Still, democracy in Athens was limited. Officially, only about one-tenth of the population were citizens. Women, slaves, and foreign residents could not be citizens. Slaves made up about one-third of the Athenian population.

About one hundred years after Solon, a leader named Cleisthenes increased the power of the assembly. He allowed all citizens to submit laws for debate and passage. He also created a council consisting of people chosen at random.

During the Golden Age of Greece, Pericles strengthened democracy by increasing the number of paid public officials. This allowed poorer citizens to serve in government. He also introduced the idea of direct democracy, in which citizens participate directly in government rather than by means of people who represent them.

The Golden Age lasted less than 50 years. War and invasion brought the end of democracy. Respect for reason didn’t die, however. The philosophers Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle examined beliefs and set forth new visions of government and society.

As Greece fell, Rome began to rise. By 509 BC Rome was a republic. A republic is a form of government in which citizens have the right to vote and to select their leaders. In Rome, as in Athens, however, citizenship with voting rights belonged only to males who were not born slaves.

Rome’s republican government had separate branches. The legislative branch consisted of a Senate and two assemblies. Although the Senate was aristocratic, the assemblies were more democratic.

Rome’s laws have influenced democracy. Some of the most important laws were:

• All citizens have the right to equal treatment under the law.

• A citizen is considered innocent until proven guilty.

• The burden of proof rests with the accuser rather than the accused.

• A person is punished only for actions, not for thoughts.

• Any law that seemed unreasonable or grossly unfair could be set aside.

In 451 BC, the Romans created the Twelve Tables. It gave all citizens the right to the protection of the law. About 1,000 years later, the extensive Code of Justinian was developed. Its many provisions became a guide on legal matters throughout western Europe. The Code established the idea of “a government of laws, not of men.”

**Section 2: The Judeo-Christian Tradition**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Both Judaism and Christianity emphasized the worth of the individual and social responsibility. The Reformation and Renaissance further promoted ideas of individual worth.*

The Hebrews were the ancient people who developed Judaism. According to the Hebrew holy book, which is the Christian Old Testament, the Hebrews are the children of God. This Hebrew belief and others led to a new emphasis on the worth of the individual.

The Hebrews, also known as the Jews, had a written code of law. It was the Ten Commandments.

God gave these laws to Moses in about 1200 BC. These laws focused more on morality and ethics than they did on politics.

The Hebrews believed in acting responsibly toward others. They believed that the community should help the unfortunate. The prophets of Judaism hoped for a world without poverty or injustice.

Jesus was born in approximately 6 to 4 BC. At age 30, he began preaching Jewish ideas, including the Ten Commandments. He also stressed the importance of people’s love for God, their neighbors, their enemies, and themselves.

In the first century after Jesus’ death, his followers started a new religion based on his messages. It was called Christianity. The apostle Paul spread this faith. He preached a message of equality. Equality of all human beings is an idea central to democracy.

By the Middle Ages, the Roman Catholic Church was the most powerful institution in Europe. During the Renaissance, people began to question the church. This questioning led to the Reformation. The Reformation was a protest movement against the power of the church. It was a call for change.

In Germany, Martin Luther criticized the church for selling pardons for sins. He also contradicted the church teachings that people were saved by grace and good works. Luther said people were saved only through faith in god. Soon, many new Protestant faiths sprang up.

Protestant ideas strengthened the idea of the importance of the individual. In Protestant faiths, the clergy did not have special powers. People could find their own way to God. They could read and interpret the Bible for themselves.

The Reformation broke apart the religious unity of Europe. It challenged the authority of Catholic monarchs and popes. It contributed to the growth of democracy.

**Section 3: Democratic Developments in England**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The Glorious Revolution completed a quest for democracy that began in the 12th century.*

An early democratic development in England was a form of trial by jury. It began in the 12th century.

Another early democratic development in England was “common law. Unlike Roman law, which expressed will of the ruler or lawmaker, common law reflected customs and principles established over time. Common law became the basis of the legal systems in many English-speaking countries, including the United States.

When King John became involved in a conflict with the English nobles in 1215, they presented their demands in the Magna Carta. This document contained important principles that tended to limit the power of the English monarch. One of the Magna Carta’s 63 clauses said taxes could only be raised by the “common consent of our kingdom.” Another clause had to do with the right to a jury trial and the protection of the law. This right is called due process of law.

In 1295, Edward I needed money to pay for a war. He called together all the lords, plus some knights and leading citizens of the towns. They helped Edward make decisions. This gathering was known as the Model Parliament. Parliament increasingly saw itself as a partner of the monarch in governing. Over time, its power also grew. It voted on taxes, passed laws, and advised on royal policies.

In the 16th century, monarchs began claiming greater authority. When they insisted on their divine right, or God-given right to rule, conflicts arose. In particular, Parliament clashed with James I. When James’s son, Charles, became king, Parliament tried to limit royal power by forcing him to accept the Petition of Right. The petition, written in 1628, is a landmark in constitutional history. It demanded an end to:

• Taxing without Parliament’s consent

• Imprisoning citizens illegally

• Housing troops in citizen’s homes

• Military government in peacetime

Although Charles signed the petition, he later ignored the promises he made. The English Civil War broke out between supporters of the king and his opponents. Charles was executed in 1649.

After a brief rule by Oliver Cromwell, a new Parliament restored the monarchy to England. Things had changed, however. The monarch could not tax without Parliament’s consent. In addition, habeas corpus prevented authorities from wrongly or unjustly detaining a person.

A few years later, when Parliament withdrew its support from King James, the Glorious Revolution began. As a result, England became a constitutional monarchy. In a constitutional monarchy, a ruler’s powers are controlled by a constitution and the laws of the country.

In 1689, the king and queen accepted a bill of rights from Parliament. It limited the power of the monarchy. Democratic protections included free speech in Parliament, and no taxation without the consent of Parliament.

**Section 4: The Enlightenment and Democratic Revolutions**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Enlightenment ideas influenced the American and French revolutions. Struggles for democracy continue to this day.*

In the 17th and 18th centuries, an intellectual movement called the Enlightenment developed. Thinkers of this movement built their ideas around the earlier Greek philosophers’ ideas of natural law. They hoped to use reason to discover the natural laws that govern society. They hoped to apply the scientific method to human affairs.

One Enlightenment thinker, Thomas Hobbes, decided the best form of government was absolute monarchy. He said people should form a type of social contract in which they submit to their ruler in order to prevent disorder. John Locke took a different view. He said all people had natural rights to life, liberty, and property. He said people form governments in order to protect these natural rights. He also said people have a right to rebel against a government that does not protect their rights. His ideas about government became the cornerstone of modern democratic thought.

French Enlightenment thinkers included Voltaire, Rousseau, and Montesquieu. Voltaire fought for tolerance, freedom of religion, and free speech. Rousseau called for direct democracy. He said the only legitimate government came from the consent of the governed. Montesquieu said that liberty was best safeguarded by dividing government into three branches: a law-making body, an executive branch, and courts.

Enlightenment ideas and British traditions influenced American colonists. They opposed British efforts to tax them without representation. They issued a Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776. Locke’s ideas strongly influenced this declaration.

Enlightenment ideas also shaped the American Constitution. The Constitution included a representative government and a federal system. In a federal system, powers of government are divided between the federal, or central, and state governments. The Constitution also separated powers, into to three branches, based on Montesquieu’s ideas.

Near the end of the 18th century, revolution also occurred in France. The peasants were hungry and restless, and the middle class was dissatisfied with Louis XVI’s government. In 1789 the commoners formed a National Assembly. It made many reforms. It adopted the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. This document guaranteed the rights of liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression to all people. The Assembly also ended feudalism in France, drafted a constitution that made France a limited monarchy, and made many other reforms.

The work of the Assembly did not last long. A radical legislature took charge, and a reign of terror followed. Napoleon Bonaparte assumed control of France and created a dictatorship. Democracy in France did not develop until much later in the 1800s.

Today, the struggle for democracy goes on in various places around the world. The United Nations promotes this quest. Its Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted in 1948, states the right to life, liberty, and the security of person. It also includes rights to equal protection under law, to freedom of movement, and to freedom to assemble.

Recent struggles for democracy have occurred in Brazil, in the newly created republics of the former Soviet Union, and in South Africa. While democracy may be difficult to achieve and preserve, the desire for it remains constant.

**CHAPTER 1**

**European Renaissance and Reformation, 1300–1600**

**Chapter Overview**

In the 1300s, a renewed interest in classical learning and the arts arose in Italy. Thinkers in northern Europe adopted these ideas as well but with a spiritual focus. The desire for a more satisfying spiritual life led some to revolt against the Catholic Church, as new churches were founded. In response, the Catholic Church undertook some reforms of its own, strengthening the faith.

**Section 1 Italy: Birthplace of the Renaissance**

***KEY IDEA*** *- The European Renaissance, a rebirth of learning and the arts, began in Italy in the 1300s.*

The years 1300 to 1600 saw a rebirth of learning and culture in Europe. Called the Renaissance, it spread north from Italy. It began there for three reasons. First, Italy had several important cities, whereas most of northern Europe was still rural. Second, these cities included a class of merchants and bankers who were becoming wealthy and powerful. Third, Italian artists and scholars were inspired by the ruined buildings and other reminders of classical Rome.

That new interest in the classical past led to an important value in Renaissance culture—humanism. This was a deep interest in what people have already achieved as well as what they could achieve in the future. Scholars did not try to connect classical writings to Christian teaching but tried to understand them on their own terms. Renaissance thinkers stressed the things of the world. In the Middle Ages, the emphasis had been mostly on spiritual values. One way that powerful or wealthy people showed this interest in worldly things was by paying artists, writers, and musicians to create beautiful works of art.

Men tried to show that they could master many fields of study or work. Someone who succeeded in many fields was admired greatly. The artist Leonardo da Vinci was an example of this ideal. He was a painter, a scientist, and an inventor. Men were expected to be charming, witty, well-educated, well-mannered, athletic, and self-controlled. Women were expected not to create art but to inspire artists.

Renaissance artists sometimes used new methods. Sculptors made figures more realistic than those from the Middle Ages. Painters used perspective to create the illusion that their paintings were three-dimensional. The subject of artwork changed also. Art in the Middle Ages was mostly religious, but Renaissance artists reproduced other views of life. Michelangelo showed great skill as an architect, a sculptor, and a painter.

Renaissance writers reached high achievements as well. Several wrote in their native languages, whereas most writing in the Middle Ages had been in Latin. Writers also changed their subject matter. They wrote to express their own thoughts and feelings or to portray in detail an individual. Dante and others wrote poetry, letters, and stories that were self-expressive and more realistic. Niccolò Machiavelli took a new approach to understanding government. He focused on telling rulers how to expand their power, even if that meant taking steps that the Church might view as evil.

**1. Why did the Renaissance arise in Italy?**

**2. Why do you think that a person who is accomplished in many fields is called a “Renaissance” man or woman?**

**Section 2: The Northern Renaissance**

***KEY IDEA*** *- In the 1400s, northern Europeans began to adapt the ideas of the Renaissance.*

By 1450, the bubonic plague had ended in northern Europe and the population was recovering. Also, the Hundred Years’ War between France and England was ending. The suffering caused by these two events was fading, and the new ideas from Italy spread to northern Europe, where they were quickly adopted. The northern Renaissance had a difference, however. While the educated people there became interested in classical learning, they were more likely to combine that with interest in religious ideas.

Major artists appeared in parts of Germany, France, Belgium, and the Netherlands. The use of oil-based paints became popular. Dürer painted religious subjects and realistic landscapes. Holbein, van Eyck, and Bruegel painted lifelike portraits and scenes of peasant life. They revealed much about the times.

The new ideas of Italian art moved to the north, where artists began to use them. Painters in Flanders were deeply interested in showing life in realistic ways. They painted members of the rising merchant class and peasants, revealing much about life of the period. One pioneered in the use of oil-based paints.

Writers of the northern Renaissance combined humanism with deep Christian faith. They urged reforms in the Church and society to try to make people more devoted to God and more just. Thomas More wrote a book about an imaginary ideal society where greed, war, and conflict did not exist.

William Shakespeare is widely viewed as the greatest playwright of all time. His plays showed a brilliant command of the English language and a deep understanding of people and how they interact with one another.

One reason that learning spread so rapidly during the Renaissance was the invention of movable type. The Chinese had invented the process of carving characters onto wooden blocks. They then arranged them in words, inked the blocks, and pressed them against paper to print pages. In 1440, a German, Johann Gutenberg, adopted this practice. He produced his first book—a Bible—in 1455. The technology then spread rapidly. By 1500, presses in Europe had printed nearly 10 million books.

Printing made it easier to make many copies of a book. As a result, written works became available far and wide. Fewer books were printed in Latin, and more books were printed in languages such as English, French, Spanish, Italian, or German. As a result, more people began to read the Bible on their own. Some formed ideas about Christianity that differed from those of the Church.

**3. How did the northern Renaissance differ from the Italian Renaissance?**

**Section 3: Luther Starts the Reformation**

***KEY IDEA*** *- Martin Luther’s protest over abuses in the Catholic Church led to the founding of Protestant churches.*

By 1500, Renaissance values emphasizing the individual and worldly life weakened the influence of the Church. At the same time, many people sharply criticized the Church for some of its practices. Popes seemed more concerned with luxury and political power than with spiritual matters. Critics resented the fact that they paid taxes to support the Church in Rome. The lower clergy had faults. Many local priests lacked education and couldn’t teach people. Others took actions that broke their vows as priests.

In the past, reformers had urged that the Church change its ways to become more spiritual and humble. Christian humanists such as Erasmus and More added their voices to calls for change. In the early 1500s, the calls grew louder.

In 1517, a German monk and professor named Martin Luther protested some actions of a Church official. That person was selling what were called indulgences. By paying money to the Church, people thought they could win salvation. Luther challenged this practice and others. He posted a written protest on the door of a castle church. His words were quickly printed and began to spread throughout Germany. Thus began the Reformation, the movement for reform that led to the founding of new Christian churches.

Soon Luther pushed for broader changes. He said that people could win salvation only through faith, not good works. He said that religious beliefs should be based on the Bible alone and that the pope had no real authority. He said that each person was equal before God. He or she did not need a priest to explain the Bible to them.

The pope punished Luther for his views, but he refused to take them back. The Holy Roman Emperor, a strong Catholic, called Luther an outlaw. His books were to be burned. No one was to shelter him. Meanwhile, many of his ideas were being put into practice. The Lutheran Church was born around 1522.

In 1524, peasants in Germany hoped to use Luther’s ideas to change society. They demanded an end to serfdom—a condition like slavery. When it was not granted, they revolted. Luther disagreed with this revolt, and the German princes killed thousands in putting the revolt down. Some nobles supported Luther because they saw a chance to weaken the emperor’s power. German princes joined forces against Luther. Some princes protested this. War broke out between Catholics and these Protestant forces in Germany. It finally ended in 1555 with the Peace of Augsburg. That treaty granted each prince the right to decide whether his subjects would be Catholic or Protestant.

The Catholic Church faced another challenge to its power in England. Henry VIII, the king, was married to a princess of Spain. She had borne him a daughter, but he wanted a son. This could prevent a civil war erupting when he died. His wife was too old to have another child, but the pope refused to grant him a divorce. In 1534, Henry had the English Parliament pass a number of laws that took England out of the Catholic Church. The laws made the king or queen, not the pope, head of the Church of England. Henry remarried four times, gaining his only son from his third wife.

One of Henry’s daughters, Elizabeth, became queen in 1558 and completed the task of creating a separate English church. New laws gave the new religion some traits that would appeal to both Protestants and Catholics. In this way, Elizabeth hoped to end religious conflict in England.

Elizabeth’s England had to face a threat from Spain, too. In 1588, King Philip II of Spain launched a huge invasion of ships to conquer England. This fleet was defeated by a combination of English fighting skill and a terrible storm. Though England survived, Elizabeth’s reign was marked by constant money problems.

**4. What role did political concerns play in the Reformation?**

**Section 4: The Reformation Continues**

***KEY IDEA*** *- John Calvin and other Reformation leaders began new Protestant churches. The Catholic Church also made reforms.*

Protestantism arose elsewhere in the 1530s under the leadership of John Calvin. Calvin wrote an important book that gave structure to Protestant beliefs. He taught that people are sinful by nature and only those God chooses—“the elect”—will be saved. He said that God knew from the beginning which people would be saved and which would not.

Calvin created a government run by religious leaders in a city in Switzerland. The city had strict rules of behavior that urged people to live deeply religious lives. Anyone who preached different religious ideas might be burned at the stake.

A preacher named John Knox was impressed by Calvin’s high moral ideals. Knox put these ideas into practice in Scotland. This was the beginning of the Presbyterian Church. Others in Switzerland, Holland, and France adopted Calvin’s ideas as well. In France, his followers were called Huguenots. Conflict between them and Catholics often turned to violence. In 1572, mobs killed about 12,000 Huguenots. Another Protestant church that arose was the Anabaptists. They preached that people should be baptized into the faith as adults. They influenced some later groups.

Protestant churches grew, but millions remained true to the Catholic faith. Still, the Catholic Church took steps to reform itself. A Spanish noble named Ignatius founded a new group in the Church based on deep devotion to Jesus. Members started schools across Europe. They tried to convert people to Catholicism who were not Christians. In addition, they tried to stop the spread of Protestant faiths in Europe.

Two popes of the 1500s helped bring about changes in the Church. Paul III took several steps, including calling a great council of church leaders at Trent, in northern Italy. The council, which met in 1545, passed these doctrines:

• the Church’s interpretation of the Bible was final;

• Christians needed good works as well as faith to win salvation;

• the Bible and the Church had equal authority in setting out Christian beliefs; and

• indulgences could be sold.

Paul also put in action a kind of court called the Inquisition. It was charged with finding, trying, and punishing people who broke the rules of the Church. His successor, Paul IV, put these policies into practice. These actions helped revive the Church and allowed it to survive the challenge of the Protestants.

**5. Which leader—Calvin or Luther—do you think had a greater impact? Explain why.**

**CHAPTER 2**

**The Muslim World Expands, 1300–1700**

**Chapter Overview**

A group of Turks called Ottomans set up a new empire in what is now modern Turkey. Farther to the east, the Safavid Empire arose in modern Iran, where rulers embraced a special type of Islam that made them different from their neighbors. Meanwhile, India saw the rise of yet another empire as Muslims created a powerful state there.

**Section 1: The Ottomans Build a Vast Empire**

***KEY IDEA*** *- The Ottomans established a Muslim Empire that combined many cultures and lasted for more than 600 years.*

In 1300, the world of the eastern Mediterranean was seeing changes. The Byzantine Empire was fading. The Seljuk Turk state had been destroyed by the Mongols. Anatolia, the area of modern Turkey, was now inhabited by groups of nomadic Turks. They saw themselves as ghazis (warriors) for Islam. They formed military groups and raided lands where non-Muslims lived.

The most successful ghazi was Osman. Western Europeans took his name to be Othman and called his followers Ottomans. Between 1300 and 1326, Osman built a strong but small kingdom in Anatolia. Leaders after Osman called themselves sultans, or “ones with power.” They extended the kingdom by buying land, forming alliances with other chieftains, and conquering everyone they could. The military success of the Ottomans was aided by gunpowder—especially as used in cannons.

The Ottomans ruled kindly through local officials appointed by the sultan. Muslims had to serve in the army but paid no taxes. Non-Muslims paid the tax but did not have to serve in the army. Many joined Islam simply to avoid the tax. Most people in their empire adjusted quickly to their easy rule.

One warrior did not. Timur the Lame, called Tamerlane in the west, arose in central Asia. He claimed to be descended from Genghis Khan. The claim probably is not true—but he was as fierce as the Mongol conqueror. He conquered Russia and Persia, where he burned the city of Baghdad to the ground. In 1402, he defeated the Ottomans in battle and captured the sultan. Timur died three years later on his way to conquer China.

Back in Anatolia, the four sons of the last sultan fought for control of the empire. Mehmet I won control, and his son and the four following sultans brought the Ottoman Empire to its greatest power. One of them—Mehmet II—took power in 1451 and captured Constantinople. At first, his ships were unable to sail near the city because barriers blocked the way. So he had his soldiers drag the ships over hills so they could be launched on another side of Constantinople. After several weeks of fighting, the Ottoman force was simply too strong for the tiny army left in the city. In 1453, Constantinople finally fell to the Ottomans. Mehmet made the city his capital, which was renamed Istanbul. The famous and beautiful church of the Hagia Sophia became a mosque. The rebuilt city became home to people from all over the Ottoman Empire.

Other emperors used conquest to make the empire grow. After 1514, Selim the Grim took Persia, Syria, and Palestine. He then captured Arabia, took the Muslim holy cities of Medina and Mecca, and gained control of Egypt.

His son, Suleiman I, brought the Ottoman Empire to its greatest size and most impressive achievements. He conquered parts of southeastern Europe by 1525. He won control of the entire eastern Mediterranean Sea and took North Africa as far west as Tripoli. Although he was defeated in a battle for Vienna in 1529, his Ottoman Empire remained huge.

Suleiman ruled his empire with a highly structured government. Serving the royal family and the government were thousands of slaves. Among them was an elite group of soldiers called janissaries. They were Christians taken as children and made slaves with personal loyalty to the sultan. They were trained as soldiers and fought fiercely for the sultan. Other slaves held important government jobs. The empire allowed people to follow their own religion. Jews and Christians were not mistreated by the Ottomans. Suleiman revised the laws of the empire, which won him the name Suleiman the Lawgiver. Suleiman also oversaw an empire that was full of accomplished works of art. Using an excellent architect, he built many fine buildings in his capital.

The empire lasted long after Suleiman but spent the next few hundred years in decline. None of the sultans were as accomplished as he had been, and the Ottoman Empire’s power slipped.

**1. How did the Ottomans treat non-Muslims?**

**2. What was significant about the capture of Constantinople by the Ottomans in 1453?**

**Section 2: Patterns of Change - The Safavid Empire**

***KEY IDEA*** *- Many world cultures incorporate influences from various peoples and traditions.*

Throughout history, different peoples have lived together, and their cultures have influenced one another. Often these people have blended one culture with another. This can be due to trade, conquest, movement of people from one area to another, or conversion to a new religion.

This kind of blending took place in the Safavid Empire of Persia. The Safavids began as members of an Islamic group that claimed to be related to the prophet Muhammad. In the 1400s, they became allied with the Shi’a, a branch of Islam. The major group of Muslims, the Sunnis, persecuted the Shi’a for their views. The Safavids, fearing their strong neighbors who were Sunni Muslims, decided to build a strong army to protect themselves.

In 1499, a 14-year-old leader named Isma’il led this army to conquer Iran. He took the traditional Persian title of shah, or king, and made the new empire a state of Shi’a. He destroyed Baghdad’s Sunni population. Ottoman Turk rulers—who were Sunni Muslims—in turn killed all the Shi’a that they met. This conflict between the two groups of Muslims continues today.

The Safavids reached their height in the late 1500s under Shah Abbas. He reformed the military, making two armies that were loyal to him and him alone. He also gave new weapons to the army to make them better fighters. He reformed the government, getting rid of corrupt officials. He also brought gifted artists to his empire, who helped make his capital and other cities very beautiful. In taking these steps, Shah Abbas drew on good ideas from other cultures. He used Chinese artists and enjoyed good relations with nations of Europe. Through this contact, the demand for Persian rugs increased greatly in Europe. In this period, rug-making, which had simply been a local craft in Persia, was changed into a major industry for the country.

As with the Ottoman Empire, the Safavid Empire began to decline soon after it had reached its greatest height. Shah Abbas had killed or injured his most talented sons—just as Suleiman had done—fearing that they would seize power from him. As a result, a weak and ineffective grandson became shah after him. Under his poor leadership, the empire lost power.

While the empire fell, the blended culture that the Safavid Empire had created continued. The main elements of that culture were the joining together of the Persian tradition of learning and sophistication and the devout faith of the Shi’a. These elements are found in Iran even today.

**3. Despite their brilliant rule, what critical mistake did Suleiman and Shah Abbas make?**

**Section 3: The Mughals Establish an Empire in India**

***KEY IDEA*** *- The Mughal Empire brought Turks, Persians, and Indians together in a vast empire.*

Starting in the 600s, India went through a long period of unsettled life and trouble. After the Gupta Empire fell, nomads from central Asia invaded the area and created many small kingdoms. In the 700s, Muslims arrived on the scene. Their arrival launched a long history of fighting between them and the Hindus who had lived in India for centuries.

The Hindus were able to prevent the Muslims from taking their land for about 300 years. Then a group of Muslim Turks conquered a region around the city of Delhi and set up a new empire there. They treated the Hindus in their area harshly. Their rule ended in 1398, when Timur the Lame totally destroyed Delhi.

A little over a hundred years later, a new power arose. Babur had a small kingdom north of India. He raised an army and began to win large parts of India. Babur had many talents. He was a lover of poetry and gardens and a sensitive man who used his feelings for others to become a superb leader. He was also an excellent general. He once led a force of only 12,000 soldiers to victory over an enemy army of 100,000. His empire was called the Mughal Empire because he was related to the Mongols.

Babur’s grandson, Akbar, was equally talented. His name means “Great One,” and the name seems suitable to the man. He ruled with great wisdom and fairness for almost 40 years.

Akbar was a Muslim, but he believed strongly that people should be allowed to follow the religion they chose. He set an example by letting his wives practice whatever religion they chose. In his government, too, Akbar hired people based on their ability and not their religion. Both Hindus and Muslims gained jobs as government workers.

Akbar ruled fairly. He ended the tax that Hindu pilgrims had to pay. He also ended the tax that all non-Muslims had to pay. To raise money, he imposed a tax based on a percentage of the food grown. This made it easier for peasants to pay the tax. His land policy was less wise. He generously gave land to government officials. However, when they died he took it back and handed it to someone else. As a result, workers did not see any point in caring for the land because they were not preserving it for their children.

He had a strong, well-equipped army that helped him win and maintain control of more lands. His empire held about 100 million people—more than lived in all of Europe at the time.

During Akbar’s reign, many changes in culture took place. His policy of blending different cultures produced two new languages. Hindi blended Persian and local languages; it is still widely spoken in India today. Urdu grew out of a mixture of Arabic, Persian, and Hindi and was spoken by the soldiers in Akbar’s camp. Today it is the official language of Pakistan. The empire became famous for its book illustrations, adapted from the art of Persia. Akbar—who could not read—had a huge library of books and served as a patron to many writers. He also sponsored the building of a new capital and many buildings.

After Akbar’s death in 1605, the empire began to decline. During the reign of Jahangir, the real power was his wife, Nur Jahan. She was an able ruler but had a bitter political battle with one of Jahangir’s sons. Since that son found help from the Sikhs—members of a separate religion—that group became the target of attacks by the government.

Jahangir’s successor was Shah Jahan, and he too chose not to follow Akbar’s policy of religious toleration. Shah Jahan was a great patron of the arts and built many beautiful buildings, including the famous Taj Mahal. It was a tomb for his beloved wife. However, his ambitious building plans required high taxes, and the people suffered under his rule.

His son Aurangzeb ruled for almost 50 years and made the empire grow once again with new conquests. However, his rule brought about new problems. A serious Muslim, the new ruler put harsh new laws in place. He punished Hindus and destroyed their temples, which produced a rebellion that managed to take control of part of his empire. At the same time, the Sikhs had become skilled fighters, and they won control of another part of the empire. To fight these battles, Aurangzeb had to increase taxes. Since he only taxed Hindus, not Muslims, this move only made large numbers of people more angry.

After his death, the empire fell apart, and local leaders took control of small areas. There continued to be a Mughal emperor, but he was only a figurehead, not a ruler with any real power.

**4. What evidence of cultural blending can you find in Akbar’s rule?**

**5. How did Akbar’s successors contribute to the end of the Mughal Empire?**

**CHAPTER 3**

**An Age of Exploration and Isolation, 1400–1800**

**Chapter Overview**

“God, glory, and gold” drove Europeans’ early exploration of Asia. They controlled Asian trade, with Portugal leading the way. Soon, though, nations of northern Europe took over Indian Ocean trade. Two dynasties in China resisted the growing power of Europeans in Asia, limiting Chinese contact with foreigners. In Japan, a new system of government brought peace and isolation.

**Section 1: Europeans Explore the East**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Driven by the desire for wealth and Christian converts, Europeans began an age of exploration.*

For many centuries, Europeans had been largely, though not completely, isolated from contact with people from other lands. That changed in the 1400s. One reason for this change was that Europeans hoped to gain new sources of wealth. By exploring the seas far from Europe, traders hoped to find new, faster routes to Asia—the source of spices and luxury goods. Their goal was to win access to these lands and bypass the Muslims and Italians who currently controlled this trade. Another reason was the desire to spread Christianity to new lands. The Crusades had ended, but bad feelings between Christians and Muslims remained. The Christians of Europe wanted to convert the people of Asia.

Advances in technology made these voyages possible. A new kind of ship, the caravel, was stronger built than earlier ships. It had triangle-shaped sails that allowed it to sail against the wind. Ships could now travel far out into the ocean. The magnetic compass allowed sea captains to better stay on course.

The first nation to develop and use these technologies was Portugal. Prince Henry was deeply committed to the idea of exploring beyond the seas. In 1419, he started a school of navigation where captains, mapmakers, and navigators could meet, learn, and exchange ideas. Over the next few decades, Portuguese captains sailed farther and farther down the west coast of Africa. In 1488, Bartolomeu Dias led the first voyage to reach the southern tip of Africa. Ten years later, Vasco da Gama led a ship 27,000 miles around Africa, to India, and back. The Portuguese had found a sea route to Asia.

The Spanish, meanwhile, had plans of their own. Italian sailor Christopher Columbus convinced the king and queen that he could reach Asia by sailing west. In 1492, instead of landing in Asia, Columbus touched land in the islands of the Americas, land unknown to Europeans. At first, though, people still thought that he had landed in Asia. Spain and Portugal argued over which nation had the rights to the land that Columbus had claimed. In 1494, they signed the Treaty of Tordesillas. It divided the world into two areas. Portugal won the right to control the eastern parts and Spain the western parts— including most of the Americas.

Portugal moved quickly to make the new Indian Ocean route pay off. In 1509, it defeated a Muslim fleet off the coast of India and thus became the master of Indian trade. Soon, it captured cities in India and the Malay Peninsula. Portugal now had power over islands that were so rich in desirable spices that they were called the Spice Islands. Spices now cost Europeans one-fifth of what they had cost before, while still making Portugal very wealthy.

Other European nations joined in this trade. In the 1600s, the English and Dutch entered the East Indies to challenge Portugal. The Dutch fleet— about 20,000 ships—was the largest in the world. These two nations quickly broke Portuguese power in the area. Then both nations set up an East India Company to control Asian trade. These companies were more than businesses. They were like governments, with the power to make money, sign treaties, and raise their own armies. The Dutch managed to drive out the English and grab the Asian trade for themselves.

The Dutch made their trading headquarters on the island of Java in the East Indies. By 1700, the Dutch ruled much of Indonesia. They had trading posts in many other Asian countries and commanded the southern tip of Africa. At the same time, both England and France finally gained footholds in India.

While the Europeans controlled the trade between Asia and Europe, they had little impact on most people living in these areas. From 1500 to 1800, the people of Asia were largely untouched by the European traders.

1. **Why did the Europeans begin to explore overseas, and what technological changes made it possible?**

**Section 2: China Rejects European Outreach**

***KEY IDEA*** *– Advances under the Ming and Qing dynasties left China self-contained and uninterested in European contact.*

Mongol rule in China ended in 1368 when Hongwu led a rebel army that took control of the country. He declared himself the first emperor of the Ming Dynasty, which was to last for almost 300 years. Hongwu began his rule by increasing the amount of food produced, improving irrigation, and raising cotton and sugar cane. He also made changes that improved the government of China. Later he grew suspicious and untrusting. He caused the deaths of many people whom he suspected of plotting against him.

His son Yonglo continued his better policies and also launched a major effort at making contact with other Asian peoples. Beginning in 1405, an admiral named Zheng He led several fleets that journeyed to Southeast Asia, India, Arabia, and Africa. The goal was to impress other people with the power and wealth of China. He also wanted to convince them to pay tribute to China each year. By sending gifts each year, these peoples would recognize that China was superior to them. Gifts did flow to China, but scholar-officials said that the voyages wasted valuable resources. Zheng He’s journeys were stopped after seven years.

China allowed Europeans to trade officially at only three ports. China became isolated. However, illegal trade took place all along the coast. Because Europeans wanted Chinese silk and ceramics, the people began making large amounts of these goods. Europeans paid silver for them. Manufacturing never grew very large in China, however. The Confucian ideas that shaped Chinese thinking said that farming was a better way of life, so manufacturing was heavily taxed. Missionaries entered China at this time, bringing both Christianity and technology, such as the clock.

The power of the Ming Dynasty declined because the government could not solve several problems. Rebels from Manchuria—a land to the north of China—took control of the country in 1644 and started a new dynasty called the Qing. At first, the Chinese people did not accept the new rulers, who were not Chinese. However, the Qing emperors won their support by taking steps to improve conditions in the country and by preserving Chinese traditions.

Two emperors were the most effective. Kangxi ruled from 1661 to 1721 and his grandson Qian-long served from 1736 to 1795. They brought China to its largest size, increased its wealth, and sponsored an increase in artistic production.

Qian-long had to face three problems, however. First was the matter of trade. The Chinese insisted that Europeans had to follow certain rules in order to continue trading with them. The Dutch were willing to do so, and they carried on the largest share of trade with China. The British, though, did not agree to follow these rules. This disagreement later led to conflict that broke up China’s empire.

In China, the production of rice and the long period of peace gave the people better lives. In the 1600s and 1700s, the number of people in China almost doubled, rising to more than 300 million by 1800. The huge majority of these people were farmers. Because of the use of fertilizer and better irrigation, they could grow more food. They also began to grow crops newly found in the Americas such as corn and sweet potatoes. As a result, the level of nutrition improved, which helped produce the growth in population.

Women suffered in this period, however. Sons were valued over daughters. It was felt only sons could carry out family religious duties and tend to the family farm. For that reason, many infant girls were killed, and adult women had few rights.

The invasions by the foreigners from Manchuria and the pressure from European traders bothered the Chinese. Artists created books and paintings that showed traditional Chinese values and ideas. At the same time, a feeling of national pride was rising in Korea. That land had long been dominated by China. Its government used Chinese ideas and practices. Starting in the 1600s, though, Korean artists began to show greater interest in images of Korean life.

**2. Why did the Chinese stop the voyages of Zheng He?**

**3. What factors led to the growth in the Chinese population?**

**Section 3: Japan Limits Western Contacts**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The Tokugawa regime unified Japan and began a 200-year period of isolation, autocracy, and economic growth.*

From 1467 to 1568, Japan entered a long, dark period of civil war. Powerful warriors took control of large areas of land. They were called *daimyo*. They became the most important powers in the country in a feudal system similar to that of Europe’s Middle Ages. The *daimyo* built strong castles. They also had small armies of samurai warriors on horses and soldiers on foot with guns. They fought each other constantly to gain more land for themselves.

In 1568, one of the *daimyo* took control of Kyoto, the site of the emperor’s capital. He was unable to win complete control of Japan, however. Another general, Toyotomi Hideyoshi, continued the work of bringing all of Japan under one rule. Using military conquest and clever diplomacy, he won that goal in 1590. He failed in his effort to capture Korea, however, and died in 1598.

The work of unifying Japan was completed by Tokugawa Ieyasu, who became the *shogun*, or sole ruler. He moved the capital of Japan to a small fishing village named Edo. Later, it grew to become the city of Tokyo. While all of Japan was ruled by Tokugawa, the *daimyo* still held much power in their lands. Tokugawa solved that problem by forcing them to follow his orders. He required them to live every other year in his capital—and leave their families in the capital with him during the other years. As a result, no *daimyo* was able to rebel against his power. Tokugawa died in 1616 and started a family dynasty. All of the *shoguns* to follow him were from his family. They maintained a strong central government in Japan. This system of rule, called the Tokugawa Shogunate, lasted until 1868.

The new government brought about a long period of peace and prosperity mostly. Peasant farmers suffered greatly during this time, however. They worked long and hard on the farms and paid heavy taxes. Many left the countryside to move to the cities. By the mid-1700s, Edo had more than a million people and was perhaps the largest city in the world. Women found more opportunities for work in this and other cities than they had in the country.

A traditional culture thrived. It preferred ceremonial Noh dramas, stories of ancient warriors, and paintings of classical scenes. However, in cities, new styles emerged. Townspeople attended kabuki theater dramas of urban life. They hung woodblock prints of city scenes in their homes.

Europeans began to arrive in Japan. In 1543, the Portuguese were first. They brought such goods as clocks, eyeglasses, and guns. Japanese merchants and the *daimyo* welcomed them at first. They even welcomed the Christian missionaries who came after 1549, hoping to convert the Japanese to Christianity.

Some missionaries scorned traditional Japanese beliefs, though. Tokugawa became worried. In 1612, he banned Christianity from the country. Over the next 20 years or so, Japan managed to rid the country of all Christians. This effort became part of a larger plan to protect the country from European influence. In 1639, leaders sealed Japan’s borders except for one port city. It was open to only the Chinese and the Dutch. The Tokugawa shoguns controlled that port city, so they had tight control over all foreign contact. For the next 200 years, Japan remained closed to virtually all European contact.

**4. What social changes took place in Tokugawa Japan?**

**CHAPTER 4**

**The Atlantic World, 1492–1800**

**Chapter Overview**

Starting in 1492, the Spanish built a large empire in the Americas, but the native peoples suffered. In North America, the Dutch, French, and English fought for control. England finally won. The labor of enslaved persons brought from Africa supported the American colonies. The contact between the Old World and the New produced an exchange of new ideas.

**Section 1: Spanish Conquests in the Americas**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The voyages of Columbus prompted the Spanish to carve out the first European colonies in the Americas.*

In 1492, Christopher Columbus, an Italian sailor, led a voyage on behalf of Spain. He sailed west from Europe intending to reach Asia but instead landed in the Americas. This was land that Europeans had not known existed before. Columbus thought at first that he had reached Asia, or the Indies. He misnamed the natives he met Indians and claimed the land for Spain. The king and queen agreed to let him lead another voyage. This one was an expedition to form colonies, or controlled lands, that Spain would rule.

In 1500, a Portuguese explorer landed in Brazil and claimed that land for his country. In 1501, another Italian sailor on behalf of Spain, Amerigo Vespucci, explored the eastern coast of South America. He said that these lands were not Asia but a new world. Soon after, a mapmaker showed the lands as a separate continent. He named them America after Vespucci.

Other voyages gave Europeans more knowledge about the world. One explorer reached the west coast of Central America and first saw the Pacific Ocean. Another, Ferdinand Magellan, led a bold expedition from Spain that sailed completely around the world. Magellan himself died about halfway around. However, a few members of his crew survived. They returned to Spain after sailing for almost three years.

Spanish conquistadors, or conquerors, also began to explore the lands of the Americas. There they found great riches. In 1519, Hernando Cortés came to Mexico and defeated the powerful Aztec Empire. The Spanish had the advantage of rifles and cannons. They also had the aid of several native groups who were angry over harsh Aztec rule. In addition, the Aztec were seriously weakened by new diseases brought to the Americas with the Spanish. Native peoples had no resistance to measles, mumps, and smallpox, which killed them by the hundreds of thousands.

About 15 years later, another Spanish force, led by Francisco Pizarro, conquered the mighty Inca Empire of South America. Once again, the Spanish gained access to huge amounts of gold and silver. By the mid-1500s, Spain had formed an American empire that stretched from modern-day Mexico to Peru. After 1540, the Spanish looked north of Mexico and explored the future United States. However, one large area of the Americas—Brazil— remained outside the control of Spain. Brazil was the possession of Portugal. Colonists there built huge farms called plantations to grow sugar, which was in demand in Europe.

The Spanish had a pattern of living among the people they conquered. Because few Spanish settlers in the Americas were women, Spanish men married native women. Their children and descendants formed a large mestizo population, people with mixed Spanish and Native American blood. The Spanish also formed large farms and mines that used natives as slave labor. Many landowners treated the native workers harshly. Some Spanish priests criticized this treatment. In 1542, the Spanish stopped making slaves of native peoples. They soon, however, would bring enslaved Africans to the Americas to meet labor demands.

**1. What single factor was most devastating for the native peoples of the Americas and what effect did it have?**

**2. How did settlement patterns in the Spanish colonies lead to a mixing of Spanish and native cultures?**

**Section 2: Competing Claims in North America**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Several European nations fought for control of North America, and England eventually emerged victorious.*

In the early 1500s, the French began to explore North America. Jacques Cartier came across and named the St. Lawrence River. He then followed it inward to reach the site of modern Montreal. In 1608, Samuel de Champlain sailed as far as modern Quebec. In the next 100 years, the French explored and claimed the area around the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River all the way to its mouth at the Gulf of Mexico. The area became known as New France. The main activity in this colony was trade in beaver fur, desired in Europe to make hats.

The English also began to colonize North America. The first permanent settlement came at Jamestown, in modern Virginia, in 1607. The colony struggled at first. Many settlers died from disease, hunger, or war with the native peoples. Soon farmers began to grow tobacco to meet the high demand for it in Europe.

In the 1620s and 1630s, other groups from England began to settle in modern Massachusetts. These settlers were deeply religious people who did not agree with the practices of the Church of England. They wanted to purify the church and were called Puritans. They hoped to build a model community dedicated to God. They succeeded over time in part because many families settled there.

Meanwhile, the Dutch also started a new colony. They settled in the location of modern New York City and called it New Netherland. Like the French, they engaged in the fur trade and set up trading posts along the Hudson River. The colony did not grow very large, but it did attract people from other European countries. New Netherland became known as a home to people of many different religions and cultures. Europeans also took possession of many islands of the Caribbean. There they built tobacco and sugar plantations that used enslaved Africans as workers.

The European powers began to fight for control of North America. First, the English forced the Dutch to give up their colony. New Amsterdam was renamed New York. The English also planted other colonies along the Atlantic coast, from New Hampshire to Georgia. These colonists came in conflict with the French settlers in Canada on many occasions. The final fight started in 1754 and was called the French and Indian War. When it ended in 1763, France was forced to give up all its land in North America to Britain.

The native peoples responded to these events in many different ways. Many worked closely with the French and Dutch, joining in the fur trade and benefiting from it. Those who lived near the English, though, had stormier relations with colonists. More than just trade, the English were interested in acquiring land for settlers’ living and farming. This was land that Native Americans would not be able to use for hunting or growing their own food. This conflict erupted into war several times. Natives, though, could not overcome the settlers’ guns and cannons. As in Spanish lands, the native peoples suffered even more from disease. Thousands upon thousands of natives died from European illnesses, making it impossible for them to resist the growth of the colonies.

**3. Why did the French and Dutch have better relations with the native peoples than the English?**

**Section 3: The Columbian Exchange and Global Trade**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The colonization of the Americas introduced new and different items into the Eastern and Western hemispheres.*

There was constant movement of people from Europe and Africa to the Americas. This large-scale mixing of people and culture was called the Columbian Exchange. Important foods such as corn and potatoes were taken from the Americas, where they originated, to Europe, Africa, and Asia.

Some foods moved from the Old World to the New. Bananas, black-eyed peas, and yams were taken from Africa to the Americas. Cattle, pigs, and horses had never been seen in the Americas until the Europeans brought them. Of course, deadly illnesses also moved to the Americas. They killed a large portion of the Native American population.

The settling of the Americas and the growth of trade led to a new set of business practices still followed today. One was the rise of an economic system called capitalism. It is based on private ownership of property and the right of a business to earn a profit. Another new business idea was the joint-stock company. With this, many investors pooled their money to start a business and share in the profits. European governments began to follow an idea called mercantilism. In this theory, a country’s power depended on its wealth. Getting more gold and silver increased its wealth, as would selling more goods than it bought. Colonies played an important role because they provided goods that could be sold in trade.

With the American colonies, European society saw changes. Merchants grew wealthy and powerful, and towns and cities grew larger. Still, most people lived in the countryside, farmed for a living, and were poor.

**4. What was exchanged in the Columbian Exchange?**

**Section 4: The Atlantic Slave Trade**

***KEY IDEA -*** *To meet their growing labor needs, Europeans enslaved millions of Africans in forced labor in the Americas.*

Slavery has a long history in Africa and in the world. For most of that history in Africa, though, no large numbers of people were enslaved. That changed in the 600s, when Muslim traders started to take large numbers of slaves. Between 650 and 1600, Muslims took about 4.8 million Africans to Southwest Asia. Most worked as servants, and they did have certain rights. Also, the sons and daughters of slaves were considered to be free. The European slave trade that began in the 1500s was larger. Also, the enslaved Africans were treated far more harshly.

In the Americas, Europeans first used Native Americans to work farms and mines. When the natives began dying from disease, the Europeans brought in Africans, for three reasons. Africans had resistance to European diseases, so they would not get sick and die. Also, many Africans knew about large-scale farming so they would be accustomed to the work involved. Third, Africans were strangers to the Americas and would know no places to hide from slavery. From 1500 to 1870, when the slave trade in the Americas finally ended, about 9.5 million Africans had been imported as slaves.

The Spanish first began the practice of bringing Africans to the Americas. However, the Portuguese—looking for workers for sugar plantations in Brazil—increased the demand for slaves. During the 1600s, Brazil received more than 40 percent of all the Africans sent to the Americas. Other European colonies also brought slaves to work on tobacco, sugar, and coffee plantations. Only about 400,000 slaves were brought to the English colonies in North America. Their population increased over time, though, to number about 2 million in 1830.

Many African rulers joined in the slave trade. They moved inland to capture people and brought them to the coast to sell to European traders. This trade was part of a triangular trade that linked Europe, Africa, and the Americas. European ships brought manufactured goods to Africa, trading them for people. They carried Africans across the Atlantic to the Americas, where they were sold into slavery. The traders then bought sugar, coffee, and tobacco, which they carried back to Europe. Another triangle involved ships sailing from the northern English colonies in North America. They carried rum to Africa, people to the West Indies, and sugar and molasses back to the colonies to make more rum.

The part of the voyage that brought people to the Americas was called the middle passage. It was harsh and cruel. People were crammed into ships, beaten, and given little food. Many died, and many others simply jumped overboard trying to escape. About 20 percent of the people on these ships died.

Life on the plantations was harsh as well. People were sold to the highest bidder and then worked from dawn to dusk in the fields of the plantations. They were given little food and clothing and lived in small huts. Africans kept alive their traditional music and beliefs to try to maintain their spirits. Sometimes they arose in rebellion. From North America to Brazil, from 1522 to the 1800s, there were small-scale slave revolts.

**5. Compare and contrast the Muslim slave trade in Africa with the European slave trade that began in the 1500s.**

**CHAPTER 5**

**Absolute Monarchs in Europe, 1500–1800**

**Chapter Overview**

Spain lost territory and money. The Netherlands split from Spain and grew rich from trade. For a time, France was Europe’s most powerful country, where King Louis XIV ruled with total control. Austria’s queen resisted a Prussian land grab. Peter the Great modernized Russia. England’s Parliament struggled with different kings and became the greatest power in the country.

**Section 1: Spain’s Empire and European Absolutism**

***KEY IDEA -*** *During a time of religious and economic instability, Philip II ruled Spain with a strong hand.*

Charles V ruled the Holy Roman Empire and various other European countries. In 1556, he retired from the throne and split his holdings. His brother Ferdinand received Austria and the Holy Roman Empire. His son, Philip II, got Spain and its colonies.

Philip expanded his holdings by taking Portugal and gaining its global territories. When he tried to invade England in 1588, though, he failed. The defeat made Spain weaker. However, Spain still seemed strong because of its wealth—gold and silver—that flowed in from the colonies in the Americas.

This wealth led to some serious problems, however. The prices of goods constantly rose. Also, unfair taxes hit the poor, keeping them from building up any wealth of their own. As prices rose, Spaniards bought more goods from other lands. The silver from the colonies, then, began to flow to Spain’s enemies.

In the middle of these troubles, Spain lost land. Seven provinces of the Spanish Netherlands rose in protest against high taxes. Also, they were Protestant and Spain was strongly Catholic. In 1579, these seven provinces declared their independence from Spain.

In the new Dutch republic, each province had a leader elected by the people. The Dutch also practiced religious tolerance, letting people worship as they wished. Dutch merchants established a trading empire. They had the largest fleet of merchant ships in the world and were the most important bankers in Europe.

Though he lost possessions, Philip held tight control over Spain. He and others who ruled in the same way are called absolute monarchs. They believed in holding all power. The Church’s power had weakened, which helped make this possible. Some absolute rulers increased their power by ending conflict within their countries. That is what happened in France.

1. **Why did Spain weaken in power?**

**Section 2: France’s Ultimate Monarch**

***KEY IDEA -*** *After a century of wars and riots, Louis XIV, the most powerful monarch of his time, ruled France.*

France was torn by eight religious wars between Catholics and Protestants from 1562 to 1598. In 1589, a Protestant prince, Henry of Navarre, became King Henry IV. He changed religions in 1593, becoming a Catholic to please the majority of his people. In 1598, he issued an order called the Edict of Nantes. It gave Huguenots—French Protestants—the right to live in peace and have their own churches in some cities.

Henry rebuilt the French economy and brought peace to the land. He was followed by his son, a weak king. However, that son had a very capable chief minister, Cardinal Richelieu. He ruled the land for him and increased the power of the crown.

The cardinal ordered that Huguenots could not build walls for their cities. He also said nobles had to destroy their castles. As a result, Protestants and nobles could not hide within walls to defy the king’s power. Richelieu used people from the middle class—not nobles—to work in his government. That also cut nobles’ power.

French thinkers had reacted to the religious wars with horror. They developed a new attitude— skepticism. Nothing could be known for certain, they argued. Doubting old ideas was the first step to learning the truth, they said.

In 1643, Louis XIV, age five, became king. Cardinal Mazarin ruled for him until Louis was 23. Louis became a powerful ruler, with total control. Louis determined never to let nobles challenge him. He froze the nobles out of his government. He gave more power to government officials and made sure that they answered only to him. He also worked hard to increase the wealth of France. His chief minister of finance, Jean Baptiste Colbert, tried to build French industry. Colbert aimed to convince French people to buy French-made goods and not those from other countries. He urged people to settle in the new French colony in Canada. The fur trade there brought wealth to France.

Louis enjoyed a life of luxury at his court. He built a huge and beautiful palace at Versailles near Paris. He also made sure that nobles had to depend on his favor in order to advance in society.

Louis made France the most powerful nation in Europe. France had more people and a larger army than any other country. However, Louis made some mistakes that later proved costly. After winning some wars against neighboring countries, he became bolder and tried to seize more land. Other nations joined together to stop France by the late 1680s. The high cost of these wars combined with poor harvests to produce problems at home in France.

The final war fought in Louis’s time lasted from 1700 to 1713. In this War of the Spanish Succession, France and Spain attempted to set up united thrones. The rest of Europe felt threatened and joined in war against them. Both France and Spain were forced to give up some of their American and European colonies to England, the new rising power.

1. **How did Richelieu and Louis XIV increase the power of the French king?**

**Section 3: Russian Czars Increase Power**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Peter the Great made many changes in Russia to try to make it more like western Europe.*

Ivan III had made Moscow the center of a new Russian state with a central government. His son continued that work. His grandson, Ivan IV—called Ivan the Terrible—began as a successful ruler. He added lands to Russia and gave the country a code of laws. After his wife died, however, he ruled harshly. He used secret police to hunt down opponents and kill them. Ivan even killed his own oldest son. A few years after he died, Russian nobles met to name a new ruler. They chose Michael Romanov, the great nephew of Ivan III’s wife. He began a dynasty that ruled Russia for about 300 years.

The Romanovs restored order to Russia. In the late 1600s, Peter I—called Peter the Great — began an intense program of trying to modernize Russia. Peter admired the nations of western Europe. He traveled in Europe to learn about new technology and ways of working. He returned to Russia determined to make his country more advanced. His first steps were to increase the powers of the czar, or ruler, so he could force people to make the changes he wanted. He put the Russian Orthodox church under his own control. He cut the power of nobles. He built up the army and made it better trained.

He took several steps to make Russia more western. He brought potatoes as a new food, began Russia’s first newspaper, gave more social status to women, and told the nobles to adopt western clothes. He promoted education and built a grand new capital city, St. Petersburg, on the shores of the Baltic Sea.

1. **What did Peter the Great do to modernize Russia?**

**Section 4: Parliament Limits the English Monarchy**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Absolute monarchs in England were over thrown, and Parliament gained power.*

When Queen Elizabeth I died, her cousin James, king of Scotland, became king of England. The reign of James began a long series of struggles between king and Parliament for control of the English government. He thought that the king had the god-given right to rule and need answer to no other authority. Parliament disagreed. His religious policies also angered the Puritans in Parliament. They wanted to reform the Church to make it as holy as possible. James was unwilling to make these changes.

His son, Charles I, continued the tension between king and Parliament. Parliament forced him to sign a Petition of Right in 1628. By signing, Charles allowed that the king was answerable to another power. Then he dissolved the Parliament and tried to raise money without it—going directly against the Petition of Right.

Other actions of Charles had caused Scotland to threaten to invade England. To meet the danger, Charles needed some money, and to raise taxes he needed Parliament. When Charles called a new Parliament, it quickly passed laws to limit his power. Charles responded by trying to arrest its leaders. Soon England was plunged into a civil war: Charles and his Royalists against the supporters of Parliament, many of whom were Puritans.

The English Civil War lasted from 1642 to 1649. Under the leadership of Oliver Cromwell, the forces of the Puritans won. They tried and executed Charles for treason—the first time a king had ever been executed in public. Cromwell became a military dictator, ruling until 1658. He crushed a rebellion in Ireland and tried to reform society at home. Soon after his death, though, the government collapsed. The new Parliament asked Charles’s older son to restore the monarchy. Charles II began to rule in 1660.

Charles II’s reign was a period of calm after turmoil. After his death in 1685, his brother became King James II. His pro-Catholic policies angered and worried the English, who feared that he would restore Catholicism. Finally, in 1688, seven members of Parliament contacted James’s older daughter, Mary, and her husband, William of Orange, prince of the Netherlands—both Protestants. They wanted them to replace James II on the throne. The event was called the Glorious Revolution, a bloodless revolution that forced James to flee to France. William and Mary agreed, swearing to rule according to the laws made by Parliament. They agreed to accept the Bill of Rights, which guaranteed English people certain rights. From then on, no king or queen could rule England without the consent of Parliament.

1. **How did England develop away from an absolute monarchy?**

**CHAPTER 6**

**Enlightenment and Revolution, 1550–1789**

**Chapter Overview**

Starting in the 1500s, European thinkers overturned old ideas about the physical world with a new approach to science. Thinkers of the Enlightenment hoped to use reason to make a better society in which people were free.

**Section 1: The Scientific Revolution**

***KEY IDEA -*** *In the mid-1500s, scientists began to question accepted beliefs and make new theories based on experimentation.*

During the Middle Ages, few scholars questioned ideas that had always been accepted. Europeans based ideas about the physical world on what ancient Greeks and Romans believed or what was said in the Bible. Therefore, people still thought that the earth was the center of the universe. To them, the sun, moon, other planets, and stars moved around it.

In the mid-1500s, attitudes changed. Scholars started a scientific revolution drawn from a spirit of curiosity. One factor was the new focus on careful observation. Another was the willingness to question old beliefs. European explorations were a third factor. When they reached new lands, Europeans saw plants and animals never seen by ancient writers. These discoveries led to the opening of new courses of study in universities.

The first challenge came in astronomy. In the early 1500s, Nicolaus Copernicus studied the stars and planets for many years. He concluded that the earth, like the other planets, revolved around the sun, and the moon revolved around the earth. Fearing attack, he did not publish his findings until just before his death. In the early 1600s, Johannes Kepler used mathematics to confirm Copernicus’s basic idea.

An Italian scientist—Galileo Galilei—made several discoveries that undercut ancient ideas. He made one of the first telescopes and used it to study the planets. He found that Jupiter had moons, the sun had spots, and Earth’s moon was rough. These statements went against church teaching, and Galileo was forced to deny their truth. Still, his ideas spread.

Interest in science led to a new approach, the scientific method. With this method, scientists ask a question based on something they have seen in the physical world. They form a hypothesis, or an attempt to answer the question. Then they test the hypothesis by making experiments or checking other facts. Finally, they change the hypothesis if needed. The English writer Francis Bacon helped foster this new approach to knowledge by telling scientists they should base their ideas on what they can see and test in the world. The French mathematician René Descartes also had great influence. His thinking was based on logic and mathematics.

In the mid-1600s, the English scientist Isaac Newton described the law of gravity. Using mathematics, Newton showed that the same force ruled the motion of planets and the action of bodies on the earth.

Scientists made new tools to study the world around them. One invented a microscope to study creatures too small for the naked eye to see. Others invented tools for understanding weather. Doctors also made advances. One made drawings that showed the different parts of the human body. Another learned how the heart pumped blood through the body. In the late 1700s, Edward Jenner first used the process called vaccination to prevent disease. By giving a person the germs from a cattle disease called cowpox, he helped that person avoid getting the more serious human disease of smallpox. Scientists made advances in chemistry as well. One challenged the old idea that things were made of only four elements—earth, air, fire, and water. He and other scientists were able to separate oxygen from air.

1. **Contrast how people in the Middle Ages and people in the scientific revolution looked at the physical world.**

**Section 2: The Enlightenment in Europe**

***KEY IDEA -*** *A revolution in intellectual activity changed Europeans’ view of government and society.*

New ways of thinking arose in other areas. In the intellectual movement called the Enlightenment, thinkers tried to apply reason and scientific method to laws that shaped human actions. They hoped to build a society founded on ideas of the Scientific Revolution.

Two English writers were important to this movement. Thomas Hobbes wrote that without a government, there would be a war of “every man against every man.” As a result, Hobbes said, people formed a social contract—an agreement—in which they gave up their rights so they could secure order and safety. The best government, he said, is that of a strong king who can force people to obey. John Locke believed that all people have the rights to life, liberty, and property. The purpose of government is to protect those rights. When it fails to do so, he said, people have a right to overthrow the government.

A group of French thinkers had wide influence. They had five main beliefs: (1) thinkers can find the truth by using reason; (2) what is natural is good and reasonable, and human actions are shaped by natural laws; (3) acting according to nature can bring happiness; (4) by taking a scientific view, people and society can make progress and advance to a better life; and (5) by using reason, people can gain freedom.

Three French thinkers had great influence. Voltaire wrote against intolerance and criticized the laws and customs of France. The Baron de Montesquieu made a long study of laws and governments. He thought government power should be separated into different branches. Each should be able to check the other branches to prevent them from abusing their power. Jean Jacques Rousseau wrote strongly in favor of human freedom. He wanted a society in which all people were equal. The Italian Cesare Beccaria wrote about crime and justice. Trials should be fair, he said, and punishments should be made to fit the crime.

Many Enlightenment thinkers held traditional views about women’s place in society. They urged equal rights for all men but ignored the fact that women did not enjoy such rights. Some women protested this unfairness. “If all men are born free,” wrote one, “how is it that all women are born slaves?”

Enlightenment ideas had strong influence on the American and French Revolutions, which came at the end of the 1700s. They had three other effects. They helped spread the idea of progress. By using reason, people thought, it is possible to make society better. These ideas also helped make Western society more secular—that is, more worldly and less spiritual. Finally, Enlightenment ideas promoted the notion that the individual person was important.

1. **How is the scientific revolution connected to the Enlightenment?**
2. **What were three major ideas of the Enlightenment?**

**Section 3: The Spread of Enlightenment Ideas**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Enlightenment ideas spread through the Western world, and influenced the arts and government.*

In the 1700s, Paris was the cultural center of Europe. People came there from other countries in Europe and from the Americas to hear the new ideas of the Enlightenment. Writers and artists gathered in the homes of wealthy people to talk about ideas. A woman named Marie-Thérèse Geoffrin became famous for hosting these discussions. She also supplied the money for one of the major projects of the Enlightenment. With her funds, Denis Diderot and other thinkers wrote and published a huge set of books called the Encyclopedia. Their aim was to gather together all that was known about the world. The French government and officials in the Catholic Church did not like many of the ideas that were published in the Encyclopedia. They banned the books at first, but later they revoked the ban.

Through the meetings in homes and works like the Encyclopedia, the ideas of the Enlightenment spread throughout Europe. The ideas also spread to the growing middle class. This group of people was becoming wealthy but had less social status than nobles and had very little political power. Ideas about equality sounded good to them.

Art moved in new directions, inspired by the Enlightenment ideas of order and reason. Artists and architects worked to show balance and elegance. Composers wrote music of great appeal for their creative richness. In this period, the novel became a popular form of literature. This new form told lengthy stories with many twists of plot that explored the thoughts and feelings of characters.

Some Enlightenment thinkers believed that the best form of government was a monarchy. In it, a ruler respected the rights of people. They tried to influence rulers to rule fairly. Rulers followed these ideas in part but were unwilling to give up much power. Frederick the Great made changes in Prussia. He gave his people religious freedom, improved schooling, and reformed the justice system. However, he did nothing to end serfdom, which made peasants slaves to the wealthy landowners. Joseph II of Austria did end serfdom. Once he died, though, the nobles who owned the land were able to undo his reform.

Catherine the Great of Russia was another of the rulers influenced by Enlightenment ideas. She tried to reform Russia’s laws but met resistance. She hoped to end serfdom, but a bloody peasants’ revolt convinced her to change her mind. Instead, she gave the nobles even more power over serfs. Catherine did manage to gain new land for Russia. Russia, Prussia, and Austria agreed to divide Poland among themselves. As a result, Poland disappeared as a separate nation for almost 150 years.

1. **What factors led to the spread of the Enlightenment?**

**CHAPTER 7**

**American and French Revolutions and Napoleon, 1775–1815**

**Chapter Overview**

Enlightenment ideas spread throughout Europe. They had a profound effect in North America, forming the basis of the new government of the United States. France’s lower classes revolted against the king. Thousands died. Napoleon took control of France and created an empire. After his defeat, European leaders restored the rule of monarchs to the continent.

**Section 1: American Revolution: The Birth of a Republic**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Enlightenment ideas help spur the American colonies to create a new nation.*

The British colonies in North America grew in population and wealth during the 1700s. The 13 colonies also enjoyed a kind of self-government. People in the colonies began to see themselves less and less as British subjects. Still, Parliament passed laws that governed the colonies. One set of laws banned trade with any nation other than Britain.

The high cost of the French and Indian War, which ended in 1763, led Parliament to pass laws that put taxes on the colonists. The colonists became very angry. They had never paid taxes directly to the British government before. They said that the taxes violated their rights. Since Parliament had no members from the colonies, they said, Parliament had no right to pass tax laws that affected the colonies. They met the first tax, passed in 1765, with a boycott of British goods. Their refusal to buy British products was very effective and forced Parliament to repeal the law.

Over the next decade, colonists and Britain grew further apart. Some colonists wanted to push the colonies to independence. They took actions that caused Britain to act harshly. These harsh responses, in turn, angered some moderate colonists. Eventually, the conflict led to shooting. Representatives of the colonists met in a congress and formed an army. In July of 1776, they announced that they were independent of Britain. They issued a Declaration of Independence that was based on the ideas of the Enlightenment.

From 1775 to 1781, the colonists and Britain fought a war in North America. The colonists had a poorly equipped army and the British were powerful. However, in the end, they won their independence. The British people grew tired of the cost of the war and pushed Parliament to agree to a peace. The Americans were also helped greatly by aid from France. In 1783, the two sides signed a treaty in which Britain recognized the independent United States.

The 13 states formed a new government that was very weak. It struggled for a few years, but states held all the power and the central government had little. In 1787, many leaders met again and wrote a new framework of government.

The Constitution of the United States drew on many Enlightenment ideas. From Montesquieu, it put in effect the separation of powers into three branches of government. Each branch was able to prevent other branches from abusing their power. From Locke, it put power in the hands of the people. From Voltaire, it protected the rights of people to free speech and freedom of religion. From Beccaria, it set up a fair system of justice. Many of these rights were ensured in a set of additions to the Constitution called the Bill of Rights. Approval of these additions helped win approval of the Constitution as a whole.

**1. How did the government of the United States reflect Enlightenment ideas?**

**Section 2: The French Revolution Begins**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Economic and social inequalities in the Old Regime helped cause the French Revolution.*

In the 1700s, France was the leading country of Europe. It was the center of the new ideas of the Enlightenment. However, beneath the surface there were major problems causing unrest. Soon the nation would be torn by a violent revolution.

One problem was that people were not treated equally in French society. The French were divided into three classes, or estates. The First Estate consisted of the Roman Catholic clergy. The Second Estate was made up of rich nobles. Only about two percent of the people belonged to these two estates. Yet they owned 20 percent of the land and paid little or no taxes. They had easy lives.

Everybody else belonged to the Third Estate. This huge group included three types of people:

• the bourgeoisie—mostly well-off merchants and skilled workers who lacked the status of nobles

• city workers—cooks, servants, and others who were poorly paid and often out of work

• peasants—farm workers, making up more than 80 percent of the French people Members of the Third Estate were angry. They had few rights. They paid up to half of their income in taxes, while the rich paid almost none.

Three factors led to revolution. First, the Enlightenment spread the idea that everyone should be equal. The powerless people in the Third Estate liked that. Second, the French economy was failing. High taxes kept profits low, and food supplies were short. The government owed money. Third, King Louis XVI was a weak, unconcerned leader. His wife, Marie Antoinette, was a big spender and was disliked.

In the 1780s, deeply in debt, France needed money. Louis tried to tax the nobles. Instead, they forced the king to call a meeting of delegates of the three estates to decide tax issues. The meeting began in May 1789 with arguments over how to count votes. In the past, each estate had cast one vote. The top two estates always voted together and got their way. Now the Third Estate delegates wanted to change the system. The Third Estate had as many delegates as the other two estates combined. They wanted each delegate to have a vote. The king and the other estates did not agree to the plan.

The Third Estate then broke with the others and met separately. In June 1789, its delegates voted to rename themselves the National Assembly. They claimed to represent all the people. This was the beginning of representative government for France.

Louis tried to make peace. He ordered the clergy and nobles to join the National Assembly. However, trouble erupted. Rumors flew that Swiss soldiers paid by Louis were going to attack French citizens. On July 14, an angry crowd captured the Bastille, a Paris prison. The mob wanted to get gunpowder for their weapons in order to defend the city.

A wave of violence called the Great Fear swept the country. Peasants broke into and burned nobles’ houses. They tore up documents that forced them to pay fees to the nobles. Late in 1789, a mob of women marched from Paris to the palace at Versailles. They were angry about high bread prices and demanded that the king move to Paris. They hoped he would end hunger in the city. The king and queen left Versailles, never to return.

**2. What factors led to the French Revolution?**

**Section 3: Revolution Brings Reform and Terror**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The revolutionary government of France made reforms but also used terror and violence to retain power.*

In August 1789, the National Assembly took steps to change France. One new law ended all the special privileges that members of the First and Second Estates had enjoyed. Another law gave all French men equal rights. Though women did not get these rights, it was a bold step. Other laws cut the power of the Catholic Church. The government took over church lands, hoping to sell them and raise money.

The new laws about the church divided people who had backed the Revolution. Catholic peasants remained loyal to the church. They were angry that the church would be part of the state. Thereafter, many of them opposed the Revolution’s reforms.

For months the assembly worked on plans for a new government. During this time, Louis was fearful for his safety in France. One night he and his family tried to escape the country. They were caught, brought back to Paris, and lived under guard. After this, the king and queen were even less popular.

In the fall of 1791, the assembly drew up a new constitution that gave the king very little power. The assembly then handed over its power to a new assembly, the Legislative Assembly. After the new assembly began to meet, however, it divided into opposing groups. Some wanted an end to revolutionary changes. Others wanted even more radical changes.

At the same time, France faced serious trouble on its borders. Kings in other countries feared that the French Revolution would spread to their lands. They wanted to use force to restore control of France to Louis XVI. Soon France found itself at war—a war it quickly began to lose. Foreign soldiers were coming near to Paris. Many people thought that the king and queen were ready to help the enemy. Angry French citizens imprisoned them. Many nobles were killed in other mob action.

The government took strong steps to meet the danger from foreign troops. It took away the king’s powers. In 1792, the National Convention—another new government—was formed. It declared Louis a common citizen and then put him to death. It also ordered thousands of French people into the army.

Soon one man, Maximilien Robespierre, began to lead France. He made many changes. He ordered the death of many people who did not agree with him. His rule, which began in 1793, was called the Reign of Terror. It ended in July 1794, when Robespierre himself was put to death.

France got a new, but less revolutionary, plan of government. Tired of the killing and unrest, the French people wanted a return to order.

**3. Trace the fate of Louis XVI during the Revolution.**

**Section 4: Napoleon Forges an Empire**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Napoleon Bonaparte, a military genius, seized power in France and made himself emperor.*

Napoleon Bonaparte became the master of France. In 1795, he led soldiers against French royalists who were attacking the National Convention. For this, he was hailed as the savior of the French republic. Later he invaded Italy to end the threat from Austrian troops located there.

By 1799, the unsettled French government had lost the people’s support. In a bold move, Napoleon used troops to seize control of the government. He then wielded complete power over the country. Other nations feared his power and attacked France again. Napoleon led his armies into battle. In 1802, the three nations fighting him agreed to a peace. Napoleon went back to solve problems at home.

He made several changes that were meant to build on the Revolution’s good ideas:

1. He made tax collection more fair and orderly. As a result, the government could count on a steady supply of money.

2. He removed dishonest government workers.

3. He started new public schools for ordinary citizens.

4. He gave the church back some of its power.

5. He wrote a new set of laws that gave all French citizens the same rights. However, the new laws took away many individual rights won during the Revolution. For example, they limited free speech and restored slavery in French colonies.

Napoleon had hoped to make his empire larger in both Europe and the New World. In 1801, he had sent soldiers to retake the island of present-day Haiti. During a civil war, slaves on the island had seized power. But Napoleon had to give up on his plan. Too many of his soldiers died in battle or from disease. Napoleon eventually abandoned his New World plans. In 1803, he sold the largest part of France’s North American land—the huge Louisiana Territory—to the United States.

Stopped in the Americas, Napoleon moved to add to his power in Europe. In 1804, he made himself emperor of France. He quickly captured country after country. Other nations joined against him. However, after Napoleon won a major battle in Austria in 1805, almost all of his European enemies agreed to a peace treaty. Napoleon’s only loss during this time was to the British navy off the southwest coast of Spain. This loss prevented him from invading and conquering Britain. That failure would be costly.

**4. What did Napoleon do to restore order in France?**

**Section 5: Napoleon’s Empire Collapses**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Napoleon’s conquests aroused nationalistic feelings across Europe and contributed to his downfall.*

Napoleon loved power. He took steps to make his empire larger. However, these steps led to mistakes that brought about his downfall.

Napoleon’s first mistake was caused by his desire to crush Britain. He wanted to hurt the British economy. So in 1806 he tried stopping all trade between Britain and the lands he controlled. The effort failed, for some Europeans secretly brought in British goods. At the same time, the British put their own blockade around Europe. Because their navy was so strong, it worked very well. Soon the French economy, along with others, began to grow weak.

Napoleon’s second mistake was to make his brother king of Spain in 1808. The Spanish people were loyal to their own king. With help from Britain, they fought back against Napoleon for five years. Napoleon lost 300,000 troops.

Napoleon’s third mistake was perhaps his worst. In 1812, he tried to conquer Russia, far to the east.

He entered Russia with more than 400,000 soldiers. He got as far as Moscow, which was deserted and on fire. His soldiers found no food or supplies there. Winter was coming, and Napoleon ordered them to head back to France. As the soldiers marched west, bitter cold, hunger, and attacks by Russian troops killed thousands. Thousands more deserted. By the time the army exited Russian territory, only 10,000 of its men were able to fight.

Other leaders saw that Napoleon was weaker now, and they moved to attack. He was defeated in Germany in 1813. In 1814, Napoleon gave up his throne and was sent away. Nevertheless, in March 1815, he boldly returned to France. He took power and raised another army. By June, though, Napoleon had lost his final battle near a Belgian town called Waterloo. This time he was sent to a far-off island in the southern Atlantic Ocean. He died there in 1821.

**5. Why did Napoleon’s empire collapse?**

**Section 6: The Congress of Vienna**

***KEY IDEA -*** *After exiling Napoleon, European leaders at the Congress of Vienna tried to restore order and reestablish peace.*

After Napoleon’s first defeat, in 1814, leaders of many nations met for months. They tried to draw up a peace plan for Europe that would last many years. They called the meeting the Congress of Vienna. The key person there was the foreign minister of Austria, Klemens von Metternich. He shaped the peace conditions that were accepted.

Metternich insisted on three goals. First, he wanted to make sure that the French would not attack another country again. Second, he wanted a balance of power in which no one nation was too strong. Third, he wanted to put kings back in charge of the countries from which they had been removed. The leaders agreed with Metternich’s ideas. An age of European peace began.

Across Europe, kings and princes reclaimed their thrones. Most of them were conservatives and did not encourage individual liberties. They did not want any calls for equal rights. However, many people still believed in the ideals of the French Revolution. They thought that all people should be equal and share in power. Later they would fight for these rights again.

People in the Americas also felt the desire for freedom. Spanish colonies in the Americas revolted against the restored Spanish king. Many nations won independence from Spain. National feeling grew in many places in Europe, too. Soon people in areas such as Italy, Germany, and Greece would rebel and form new countries. The French Revolution had changed the politics of Europe and beyond.

**6. What were the goals of the Congress of Vienna?**

**CHAPTER 8**

**Nationalist Revolutions Sweep the West, 1789–1900**

**Chapter Overview**

Spurred by the French Revolution, Latin American colonies won independence. In Europe, liberals and radicals pushed for change but conservatives resisted. Nationalism spread throughout Europe, and Germany and Italy formed as nations. Artistic and intellectual movements emphasized nature and feelings, true life, and “impressions” of a subject or moment.

**Section 1: Revolutions Disrupt Europe**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Liberal and nationalist uprisings challenged the old conservative order of Europe.*

In the first half of the 1800s, three forces struggled for power within the countries of Europe. Conservatives supported the kings who had ruled these lands for many centuries. These were nobles and other people who owned large amounts of property. Liberals wanted to give more power to elected legislatures. They were typically middle-class merchants and business people. They wanted to limit voting rights to people who were educated and owned property. Radicals wanted the end of rule by kings and full voting rights for all people, even the poor.

At the same time, another movement arose in Europe—nationalism. This was the belief that a person’s loyalty should go not to the country’s ruler but to the nation itself. Nationalists thought that people with a common language and culture were a nation and had the right to their own government. This idea grew out of the French Revolution.

The first people to win self-rule during this period were the Greeks. For centuries, Greece had been part of the Ottoman Empire. In 1821, Greeks revolted against this Turkish rule. Rulers in Europe did not like the idea of revolts, but the Greek cause was popular. Other nations gave aid to the Greeks, helping to defeat the Ottomans’ forces in 1827. The Greeks won their independence by 1830.

Other revolts broke out. In 1830, the Belgians declared their independence from rule by the Dutch. Nationalists began a long struggle to unify all of Italy, which had been broken into many different states. Poles revolted against Russian rule. Conservatives managed to put down these rebellions. However, new ones broke out again in 1848 among Hungarians and Czechs. Once again, they were put down forcefully.

Events differed in France. Riots in 1830 forced the king to flee and put a new king in his place. A new revolt broke out in 1848 that overthrew the king and established a republic. However, the radicals who had won this victory began arguing over how much France should be changed. Some wanted only political changes. Others wanted social and economic changes that would help the poor. When these forces fought in the streets, the French gave up on the radical program. They introduced a new government, with a legislature and a strong president. The new president was Louis-Napoleon, Napoleon Bonaparte’s nephew. He later named himself emperor of France. He built railroads and promoted the growth of France’s industry. The economy revived and more people had jobs.

Russia in the early 1800s had yet to build an industrial economy. The biggest problem was that serfdom still existed there. Peasants were bound to the nobles whose land they worked. Russia’s rulers did not wish to free the serfs, though. They feared they would lose the support of the nobles. In the 1850s, the Russian army lost a war to take over part of the Ottoman Empire. The new ruler of Russia, Alexander II, decided that Russia’s lack of a modern economy caused the defeat. He decided to begin many reforms.

The first, in 1861, was to free the serfs. Though it seemed bold, Alexander’s move went only part way. Nobles kept half their land and were paid for the half that went to the peasants. The former serfs were not given the land. They had to pay for it, and this debt kept them still tied to the land. The czar’s efforts to make changes ended short when he was assassinated in 1881. Alexander III, his successor, brought back tight control over the country and moved to make the economy more industrial.

1. **Explain how the freeing of Russia’s serfs in 1861 was an example of both liberal and conservative thought.**

**Section 2: Patterns of Change: Nationalism**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The force of nationalism contributed to the formation of two new nations and a new political order in Europe.*

Nationalists thought that many factors linked people to one another. First was nationality, or a common ethnic ancestry. Shared language, culture, history, and religion were also seen as ties that connected people. People sharing these traits were thought to have the right to a land they could call their own. Groups with their own government were called nation-states. Leaders began to see that this feeling could be a powerful force for uniting a people. The French Revolution was a prime example of this.

Some rulers saw it differently. Feelings of nationalism threatened to break apart three aging empires. The Austrian Empire was forced to split in two parts, Austria and Hungary. However, nationalist feeling continued to plague these rulers for 40 years and the kingdoms later broke up into several smaller states. In Russia, harsh rule and a policy of forcing other peoples to adopt Russian ways helped produce a revolution in 1917 that overthrew the czar. The Ottoman Empire, like the other two, broke apart around the time of World War I.

Italians used national feeling to build a nation, not destroy an empire. Large parts of Italy were ruled by the kings of Austria and Spain. Nationalists tried to unite the nation in 1848, but the revolt was beaten down. Hopes rested with the Italian king of the state of Piedmont-Sardinia. His chief minister, Count Cavour, worked to expand the king’s control over other areas of the north. Meanwhile, Giuseppi Garibaldi led an army of patriots that won control of southern areas. He put those areas under control of the king. In 1866, the area around Venice was added to the king’s control. Four years later, the king completed the uniting of Italy. However, the Italian government could not solve Italy’s economic problems.

Germany had also been divided into many different states for many centuries. Since 1815, 39 states had joined in a league called the German Confederation. Prussia and Austria-Hungary controlled this group. Over time, Prussia rose to become more powerful. Leading this move was prime minister Otto von Bismarck. He joined with Austria to gain control of new lands. He then quickly turned against Austria, defeating it in war to gain even more territory. Other German states formed a new confederation that Prussia alone controlled. Bismarck’s next step was to win the loyalty of the remaining German areas in the south. He purposefully angered a weak France so that it would declare war on Prussia. When the Prussian army won, Bismarck reached his goal. The war with France had given the southern German states a nationalistic feeling. They joined the other states in naming the King of Prussia as head of united Germany.

As a result of these events, the balance of power in Europe had changed. Germany and Britain were the strongest powers, followed by France. Austria, Russia, and Italy were all even weaker.

1. **Give one example each of how nationalism was a unifying and a destructive force.**

**Section 3: Revolutions in the Arts**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Artistic and intellectual movements both reflected and fueled changes in Europe in the 1800s.*

In the early 1800s, the Enlightenment was replaced by another movement, called romanticism. This movement in art and ideas showed great interest in nature and in the thoughts and feelings of the individual person. Gone was the idea that reason and order were good things. Romantic thinkers valued feeling, not reason, and nature, not society. Romantic thinkers held idealized views of the past as simpler, better times. They valued the common people. As a result, they enjoyed folk stories, songs, and traditions. They also supported calls for democracy. However, not all romantic artists and thinkers supported these ideas.

Romantic writers had different themes. French writer Victor Hugo—who wrote The Hunchback of Notre Dame—told stories of the poor individual who fights against an unfair society. English poet William Wordsworth celebrated the beauty of nature. Novels such as Mary Shelley’s Frankenstein were horror tales about good and evil.

Romanticism was important in music as well. Composers wrote music that tried to appeal to the hearts and souls of listeners. The German Ludwig van Beethoven was the foremost of these composers.

In the middle 1800s, however, the grim realities of industrial life made the dreams of romanticism seem silly. A new movement arose—realism. Artists and writers tried to show life as it really was. They used their art to protest social conditions that they thought were unfair. French writer Emile Zola’s books revealed harsh working conditions for the poor, which led to new laws aimed at helping those people. In England, Charles Dickens wrote many novels that showed how poor people suffered in the new industrial economy.

A new device, the camera, was developed in this period. Photographers could use it to capture a real moment on film. In the 1860s, Parisian painters reacted against the realistic style. This new art style—

Impressionism—used light and shimmering colors to produce an “impression” of a subject or moment.

1. **How did artistic ideas change in the 1800s?**

**CHAPTER 9**

**The Industrial Revolution, 1700–1900**

**Chapter Overview**

Britain fueled an Industrial Revolution, which changed society. Workers benefited eventually, but at first they suffered bad working and living conditions. Other nations followed Britain’s example and industrialized. Thinkers reacted to these changes by developing new views of society. Reformers pushed for changes to make society better.

**Section 1: The Beginnings of Industrialization**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The Industrial Revolution started in Great Britain and soon spread elsewhere.*

In the early 1700s, large landowners in Britain bought much of the land that had been owned by poorer farmers. They introduced new ways of farming. One technique was to use a seed drill. This machine planted seeds in well-spaced rows. Before this, seeds were scattered by hand over the ground. As a result, more seeds sprouted. Another technique was to rotate crops annually. Those who raised livestock used new methods to increase the size of their animals. As a result of these improvements, farm output increased. More food was available, and people enjoyed healthier diets. The population of Britain grew. The agricultural revolution helped produce the Industrial Revolution.

For several reasons, Britain was the first country to have an economy based on industry. It had 1) coal and water to power machines, 2) iron ore to make machines and tools, 3) rivers to move people and goods, and 4) good harbors for shipping goods to other lands. Britain also had a system of banks that could fund new businesses. Finally, the British government was stable, which gave the country a positive attitude.

The Industrial Revolution began in the textile industry. Several new inventions helped businesses produce cloth and clothing more quickly. Business owners built huge buildings—factories—that housed large machines powered by water.

The invention of the steam engine in 1705 brought in a new source of power. The steam engine used fire to heat water and produce steam, which was used to drive the engine. Eventually steam-driven machines were used to run factories.

At the same time, improvements were being made in transportation. An American invented the first steam-driven boat. This allowed people to send goods more quickly over rivers and canals. The British also built better roads that included layers of stone and rock to prevent wagons from being stuck in the mud.

Starting in the 1820s, steam fueled a new burst of industrial growth. At that time, a British engineer set up the world’s first railroad line. It used a steam-driven locomotive. Soon, railroads were being built all over Britain. The railroad boom helped business owners move their goods to market more quickly. The boom in railroad building created thousands of new jobs in several diff e rent industries. The railroad had a deep effect on British society. For instance, people who lived in the country moved to cities.

**1. Why did the Industrial Revolution begin in Britain?**

**2. What was the impact of the railroad?**

**Section 2: Patterns of Change - Industrialization**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The factory system changed the way people lived and worked, introducing new problems.*

The change to an industrial economy brought many benefits to British people. They used coal to heat their homes, ate better food, and wore better clothing. Many people also suffered, however. Industrialization caused many changes.

One change was a rise in the proportion of people who lived in cities. For centuries, most people in Europe had lived in the country. Now more and more lived in cities. The number of cities with more than 100,000 people doubled between 1800 and 1850. Because they grew quickly, cities were not ideal places to live. People could not find good housing, schools, or police protection. The cities were filthy with garbage, and sickness swept through slum areas. The average life span of a person living in a city was 17 years—compared to 38 years in the countryside.

Working conditions were harsh as well. The average worker spent 14 hours a day on the job, 6 days a week. Factories were dark, and the powerful machines were dangerous. Many workers were killed or seriously injured in accidents. Some rioted against the poor living and working conditions.

Some people improved their lives in the new economy. The middle class—made up of skilled workers, professionals, business people, and wealthy farmers—did well. They enjoyed comfortable lives in pleasant homes. This class began to grow in size, and some people grew wealthier than the nobles who had dominated society for many centuries. Still, nobles looked down on the people who gained their wealth from business. They, in turn, looked down on the poor workers.

Overall, the Industrial Revolution had many good effects. It increased the amount of goods and services a nation could produce and added to its wealth. It created jobs for workers and over time helped them live better lives. It produced better diets, better housing, and cheaper, better clothing. Many of these benefits were far in the future, however.

The English city of Manchester showed how industrialization changed society. Rapid growth made the city crowded and filthy. The factory owners risked their money and worked long hours to make their businesses grow. In return, they enjoyed huge profits and built huge houses. The workers also worked long hours, but had few benefits. Many of these workers were children, some only six years old. Not until 1819 did the British government put limits on using children as workers. With so much industry in one place, Manchester suffered in another way. Coal smoke and cloth dyes polluted the air and water.

**3. What effects did industrialization have on society?**

**Section 3: Industrialization Spreads**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The industrialization that began in Great Britain spread to other parts of the world.*

Other countries followed the example of Britain and began to change their economies to an industrial base. The United States was one of the first. Like Britain, it had water power, sources of coal and iron, and a ready supply of workers. The United States also benefited from conflict with Britain. During the War of 1812, Britain stopped shipping goods to the United States. As a result, American industries had a chance to supply the goods that Americans wanted.

The switch to an industrial economy began in the United States in the textile industry. In 1789, based on memory and a partial design, a British worker brought the secret of Britain’s textile machines to North America. He built a machine to spin thread. In 1813, a group of Massachusetts investors built a complex of factories that made cloth. Just a few years later they built an even larger complex in the town of Lowell. Thousands of workers, mostly young girls, came to these towns to work in the factories.

In the United States, industry grew first in the northeast. In the last decades of the 1800s, a rapid burst of industrial growth took place that was more widespread. This boom was fueled by large supplies of coal, oil, and iron. Helping, too, was the appearance of a number of new inventions, including the electric light. As in Britain, a railroad building was also a big part of this industrial growth.

Businesses needed huge sums of money to take on big projects. To raise money, companies sold shares of ownership, called stock. All those who held stock were part owners of the company. This form of organizing a business is called a corporation.

Industrial growth spread to Europe as well. Belgium was the first to adopt British ways. It was rich in iron and coal and had good waterways. It had the resources needed.

Germany was politically divided until the late 1800s. As a result, it could not develop a wide industrial economy. However, west-central Germany was rich in coal and did become a leading industrial site.

Across Europe, small areas began to change to the new industries. Industrial growth did not occur in France until after 1850. Then the government began to build a large network of railroads. Some countries—such as Austria-Hungary and Spain—had problems that stopped them from building new industries.

The Industrial Revolution changed the world. Countries that had adopted an industrial economy enjoyed more wealth and power than those that had not. The countries of Europe soon began to take advantage of lands in Africa and Asia. They used these lands as sources of raw materials needed for their factories. They saw the people only as markets for the goods they made. They took control of these lands, a practice called imperialism.

**4. How did industrialization spread in the United States?**

**Section 4: An Age of Reforms**

***KEY IDEA -*** *The Industrial Revolution led to economic, social, and political reforms.*

The new industrial economy led to new ways of thinking about society. Some economists thought that the government should leave business owners alone. Their view was called laissez-faire, from a French phrase meaning “let people do as they please.” Adam Smith argued that putting no limits on business or on trade would help a nation’s economy grow the most. He and other writers supported a system called capitalism. In a capitalist economy, people invest their money in businesses to make a profit. Over time, society as a whole would benefit, said Smith and the others. These people warned the government not to make laws trying to protect workers. Such laws would upset the workings of the economy, they said.

Other writers challenged these ideas. One group was called the Utilitarians. They thought that an idea or practice was good only as it proved useful. They thought it was unfair that workers should work so hard for such little pay and live in such poor conditions. They thought the government should do away with great differences in wealth among people.

Some thinkers went farther and urged that businesses should be owned by society as a whole, not by individuals. Then a few people would not grow wealthy at the expense of many. Instead, all would enjoy the benefits of increased production. This view—called socialism—grew out of a belief in progress and a concern for justice and fairness.

A German thinker named Karl Marx wrote about a radical form of socialism called Marxism. He said that factory owners and workers were bound to oppose one another in the struggle for power. Over time, he said, the capitalist system would destroy itself. The great mass of workers would rebel against the wealthy few. Marx wrote The Communist Manifesto in which he described communism, a form of complete socialism in which all production is owned by the people. Private property would not exist. In the early 1900s, these ideas would inspire revolution.

While thinkers discussed these different ideas, workers took action to try to improve their lives. Many formed into unions that tried to bargain with business owners for better pay and better working conditions. When business owners resisted these efforts, the workers went on strike, or refused to work. The struggle to win the right to form unions was long and hard for workers in Britain and the United States. Still, by the late 1800s, workers in both countries had made some progress.

The British Parliament and reformers in the United States also took steps to try to fix some of the worst features of industrialism. Britain passed laws that put limits on how much women and children could work. Groups in the United States pushed for similar laws.

Another major reform movement of the 1800s was the drive to end slavery. The British Parliament took the first step by ending the slave trade in 1807. It abolished slavery completely in 1833. Slavery was finally ended in the United States in 1865, after the Civil War. Spain ended slavery in Puerto Rico in 1873 and in Cuba in 1886. Brazil became the last country to ban slavery, which it did in 1888.

Women were active in these and other reform movements. As they fought for the end of slavery, many women launched an effort to win equal rights for women. The movement for equality began in the United States in 1848. In 1888, women from around the world formed a group dedicated to this cause.

Reformers took on other projects as well. Some pushed for—and won—improved education. Others hoped to improve conditions in prisons.

**5. What reforms were popular in the 1800s?**

**CHAPTER 10**

**An Age of Democracy and Progress, 1815–1914**

**Chapter Overview**

In Britain, reforms gave all men the right to vote. A republic was proclaimed in France, but political conflict continued. Some British colonies won the right to govern themselves, but the struggle for that right was not easy in Ireland. The United States fought a civil war that finally put an end to slavery.

New inventions and scientific advances made life more healthful and enjoyable.

**Section 1: Democratic Reform and Activism**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Spurred by the demands of ordinary people, Great Britain and France underwent democratic reforms.*

Since the 1600s, Britain’s government had been a constitutional monarchy. A king or queen ruled the country, but the elected legislature— Parliament—held the real power. Still, very few people could vote for members of Parliament. Only men who owned property—about six percent of the population—had the right. That changed in the 1800s.

The Reform Bill of 1832 was the first step. Middle-class people across England protested the fact that they could not vote. Worried by revolutions sweeping Europe, Parliament passed the Reform Bill. This law gave the right to vote to many in the middle class. It also gave seats in Parliament to the new industrial cities, which had not had any representatives before. Over time, Parliament made more changes. By 1884, almost all adult males in Britain could vote. Parliament also made votes take place by secret ballot. Another law gave pay to members of Parliament, which in effect opened that body to people who were not wealthy.

By 1890, a number of countries with industrial economies had given all men the right to vote. None, however, gave women that right. During the 1800s, women in the United States and Britain peacefully campaigned for the vote. Beginning in 1903, a group called the Women’s Social and Political Union began a stronger campaign for women’s suffrage in Britain. They held rallies and parades. They also broke up the speeches of government officials and sometimes set fire to buildings. When the leaders were arrested, they went on hunger strikes to gain publicity for their cause. It was not until after World War I, however, that women won the right to vote in both Great Britain and the United States.

The road to democracy in France was more rocky. After France’s defeat at the hands of Prussia in 1870, Napoleon III went to Britain in exile. While the National Assembly met to decide on a new government, a group of radicals took control of Paris. Troops put down the movement in bloody fighting. Finally a new government—the Third Republic—was formed. It lasted over 60 years, but they were years marked by fighting between many political parties.

In the 1890s, French society was divided over the case of an army officer, Alfred Dreyfus, who was accused of being a traitor. The charge was false and was made largely because Dreyfus was a Jew. However, many believed the charge, and he was found guilty. A few years later, new evidence showed that he had been framed. Dreyfus was later declared innocent.

The affair revealed that many in Europe hated Jews. In Eastern Europe, the situation was very bad. The Russian government even allowed organized attacks on Jewish villages. From the 1880s on, many Jews fled to the United States.

**1. Contrast the spread of democracy in Britain with that in France.**

**Section 2: Nineteenth-Century Progress**

*KEY IDEA - Breakthroughs in science and technology transformed daily life and entertainment.*

In the late 1800s, new inventions made major changes in how people lived. Thomas Edison got patents on more than 1,000 inventions. Among them were the electric light bulb and the phonograph. Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone, and Guglielmo Marconi created the first radio.

There were big changes in transportation too. Though someone else invented the car, Henry Ford made it affordable to ordinary people. He had a factory with an assembly line that allowed him to quickly build cheap cars that cost as little as $300. In 1903, the Wright brothers flew the first motor-powered airplane flight. Soon there was an aircraft industry.

In earlier times, art, music, and the theater had been of interest only to the wealthy. With the rise of the middle class, culture became available to more people. One reason was that more people could read, which led to more newspapers, magazines, and books.

Another reason was that working people had more time to enjoy art, music, and recreation. People went to music halls to enjoy singing and dancing. In the early 1900s, they began to watch the first silent movies. People also began to enjoy sporting events, both as participants and as spectators.

Medicine made advances. Until the mid-1800s, no one knew about germs. French scientist Louis Pasteur discovered that microscopic animals that he called bacteria could live in food. Soon he and others realized that bacteria could cause disease. British surgeon Joseph Lister took steps to kill bacteria, which helped more patients survive. Soon his practices became widespread. Public officials began to clean up plumbing and sewage systems. All these steps helped people lead longer and healthier lives.

English scientist Charles Darwin developed a new theory that was hotly debated. He said that all life on earth, even humans, had developed from simpler forms over millions of years. Many did not accept this idea, which they said went against the Bible.

In the mid-1800s, an Austrian monk named Gregor Mendel did some experiments that showed that parents passed on their traits to offspring. His work formed the basis of the science of genetics. Other scientists made new discoveries in chemistry and physics. They found that all matter is made of tiny particles called atoms. They also were able to identify the differences between different elements.

In the late 1800s, some thinkers began the new social science of psychology, which is the study of the mind. A series of experiments led Russian Ivan Pavlov to argue that animals and people responded to certain situations because of how they were trained. By changing the training, he said, one could change the response. Austrian Sigmund Freud argued that powerful forces in the subconscious mind of a person shaped behavior. These views shocked many. They seemed to overturn the idea that people could use their reason to build better lives.

**2. What important inventions were made in the late 1800s and early 1900s? Which one do you think was most important?**

**3. How did new medical and scientific discoveries and ideas from the late 1800s change life?**

**CHAPTER 11**

**The Age of Imperialism, 1850–1914**

**Chapter Overview**

Several factors led Europeans to claim control of almost all of Africa. Some Africans resisted, but most efforts failed. The Ottoman Empire broke apart, and European powers took some of its lands. The British took control of India, where they modernized the economy to benefit themselves. Europeans gained lands in Southeast Asia, and the United States sought colonies.

**Section 1: Imperialists Divide Africa**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Ignoring the claims of African ethnic groups, kingdoms, and city-states, Europeans established colonial claims.*

In the early 1800s, European nations had just a toehold in Africa, holding only areas along the coast. In the mid-1800s, though, Europeans had renewed interest in Africa. This rose, in part, from a desire to create overseas empires, a movement called imperialism. European nations wanted to control lands that had raw materials they needed for their industrial economies. They also wanted to open up markets for the goods they made. Nationalism fed the drive for empires as well. A nation often felt that gaining colonies was a measure of its greatness. Racism was another reason. Europeans thought that they were better than Africans. Finally, Christian missionaries supported imperialism. They thought that European rule would end the slave trade and help them convert native peoples.

As a result of these factors, the nations of Europe began to seize lands in Africa. Technology helped them succeed. Steam engines, railroads, and telegraphs made them able to penetrate deep into Africa and still have contact with the home country. Machine guns gave them a weapon of far greater power than any African peoples possessed. Finally, discovery of quinine gave doctors a weapon against malaria, which struck Europeans. They were also helped by the lack of unity among African peoples.

The events called the European “scramble for Africa” began in the 1880s. The discovery of gold and diamonds in Africa increased European interest in the continent. So that they would not fight over the land, European powers met in Berlin in 1884–85. They agreed that any nation could claim any part of Africa simply by telling the others and by showing that it had control of the area. They then moved quickly to grab land. By 1914, only Liberia and Ethiopia were independent of European control.

The Europeans began to build plantations where they grew peanuts, palm oil, cocoa, and rubber. They also took important minerals. The Congo produced copper and tin. South Africa had gold and diamonds.

In South Africa, three groups struggled over the land. In the early 1800s, the Zulu chief Shaka fought to win more land. Meanwhile, the British won control of the Dutch colony on the southern coast. Many thousands of Dutch settlers, called Boers, moved north to escape the British. They fought the Zulus, whose land they were entering. At the end of the century, Boers fought a vicious war with the British. The Boers lost, and they joined the British-run Union of South Africa.

**1. What led to European imperialism, and why did it succeed?**

**Section 2: Patterns of Change: Imperialism**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Europeans embarked on a new phase of empire-building that affected both Africa and the rest of the world.*

European nations wanted to control more of the life of their conquered peoples. As a result, each colonized region operated under one of these forms:

• colony—governed by a foreign power

• protectorate—allowed its own government but was under the control of a foreign power

• sphere of influence—claimed as the exclusive investment or trading realm of a foreign power

• economic imperialism—controlled by private businesses rather than by a foreign government

The imperialist powers had two main methods of running their colonies. Britain and the United

States used indirect control. In this system, local rulers had power over day-to-day matters. There were also councils of native peoples and government officials. These councils were a first step for native peoples to someday govern themselves.

Britain tried to rule Nigeria through indirect control. Because the area was huge and peopled by many different groups, it was difficult for the British to rule directly. They let local chiefs maintain order over their areas and collect taxes. The system did not always work. Chiefs had not existed before in the east and southwest of Nigeria. Thus, the British were putting a new system in place, and it did not work well.

France and other European nations used the other method—direct control. Feeling that native peoples could not handle the complex business of running a country, the European power governed. The French also had a policy of assimilation. All institutions were patterned after their counterparts in France. They hoped that the native peoples would learn French ways.

Some Africans tried to resist imperialism. People in Algeria fought against the French for almost 50 years. In German East Africa, thousands died when they tried to use spiritual power to fight German machine guns. Only in Ethiopia did resistance succeed. There, Emperor Menelik II cleverly played one European country against another. In 1896, he used European weapons to defeat an invading Italian army. With this victory, Ethiopia stayed independent.

Africans did enjoy some benefits from colonial rule. European governments put an end to ethnic conflict. Colonial powers brought African economies fully into the world market and built railroads, dams, and telephone and telegraph lines.

For the most part, though, imperialism caused damage. Traditional African society was destroyed.

People were forced out of their homes and made to work under horrible conditions. Finally, the political boundaries that Europeans drew had no relation to ethnic divisions in Africa. These boundaries created problems many decades later when the colonies became independent nations.

**2. What happened when Africans tried to resist imperialism?**

**3. Contrast how the British and French ruled their colonies.**

**Section 3: Muslim Lands Fall to Imperialist Demands**

***KEY IDEA -*** *European nations expand their empires by seizing territories from Muslim states.*

The Ottoman Empire, based in modern Turkey, had lasted for hundreds of years. By the 1800s, it was weak. In 1830, Greece won its independence and Serbia won the right to govern itself. European nations eyed what remained of the empire hungrily.

Russia hoped to win control of the Black Sea so it could ship grain across the Mediterranean Sea. It fought a war with the Ottomans in the 1850s, but lost when Britain and France joined against it. Still, the Ottomans later lost almost all of their land in Europe and parts of Africa. By 1914, the empire was much smaller than it had ever been. Muslim leaders, seeing this decline, decided to modernize their countries.

In Egypt, Muhammad Ali broke away from Ottoman control. He put in place reforms to change the army and the economy. He pushed Egypt’s farmers to grow cotton, a cash crop in demand in Europe. However, peasants suffered when they were turned away from growing food. His grandson continued to modernize. He joined with the French in building the Suez Canal, which connected the Mediterranean to the Red Sea. When Egypt had money troubles, Britain took control of the canal— and the country.

In Persia, the Russians and the British competed for control with local powers. Russia wanted to win Persia to have access to the Indian Ocean. Britain wanted some land there as a barrier between Russia and its colony in India. In the early 1900s, oil was discovered in Persia. A British company signed an agreement with Persia’s ruler to develop these oil fields. Persians rebelled against their ruler—who was corrupt—and the growing influence of Europeans. Then Russia and Britain stepped in and took control of the land.

**Section 4: British Imperialism in India**

***KEY IDEA -*** *As the Mughal Empire declined, Britain seized almost the whole subcontinent of India.*

In the early 1700s, the Mughal Empire of India fell into decline. By the middle of the century, the British East India Company was becoming the most important power in India. It held huge amounts of land—almost the entire subcontinent.

British law forced India to supply raw materials such as tea, indigo (a dye), coffee, and cotton. The law also forced Indian manufacturing out of business. India became even more important when the East India Company built rail lines that linked growing regions in the interior with ports on the coast.

India enjoyed some gains from British rule. Its rail system was the third largest in the world and helped make the economy more modern. The British made other improvements, too. They built telephone and telegraph lines, dams, bridges, and canals. They also improved sanitation and public health and built schools. More and more Indians learned to read.

British rule caused problems as well. Many economic benefits flowed out of India to Britain. Indian industry died out because of British trade laws. Many farmers and villages lost their ability to feed themselves because they were made to grow cash crops. Many peoples died when famines struck.

British racist attitudes damaged Indian culture.

By the mid-1800s, many Indians felt growing resentment. When Indian soldiers heard rumors that offended their religious feelings, many rebelled. The East India Company needed a year— and British troops—to put it down. The Indians lost because of their own divisions. Muslims and Hindus did not trust each other. After the revolt, the British government took direct control of British India.

Indians tried other ways of resisting British control. Leaders such as Ram Mohun Roy urged changes in traditional Indian practices to make Indian society more modern. He hoped to free India of foreign control with these changes. Indians resented the fact that they were treated unfairly. They formed two groups—the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League. Both began to push the British to make changes. In the early 1900s, they called for self-government.

**Section 5: Western Powers Rule Southeast Asia**

***KEY IDEA -*** *Demand for Asian products drove Western imperialists to seek possession of Southeast Asian lands.*

European nations also grabbed land in Southeast Asia and the islands on the edge of the Pacific Ocean. They wanted the area for its resources and because it was close to China. The United States joined this quest for colonies.

European powers found that these lands were good for growing such cash crops as sugar, coffee, cocoa, rubber, and fruit. As trade in these items grew, Europeans moved to take more land. The Dutch ran Indonesia, where their settlers remained at the top of society. The British took the port of Singapore plus Malaysia and Burma (modern Myanmar). Needing workers, the British brought many Chinese to Malaysia. France grabbed Indochina (modern Laos, Cambodia, and Vietnam). They made farmers grow rice for export. Because most of the rice was shipped away, the farmers had less to eat even though they were growing more rice than before. One land—Siam (modern Thailand)—stayed independent. King Mongkut and his son modernized Siam without giving up power.

Colonialism brought some features of modern life to these regions. However, economic changes benefited European - run businesses, not local people. The native peoples did benefit from better schooling, health, and cleanliness. Plantation farming brought millions of people from other areas to Southeast Asia. The mix of cultures and religions did not always go smoothly. Even today, some conflict between groups results from this period.

In the late 1800s, the United States also began to seek colonies. In 1898, as a result of the Spanish-

American War, the United States won possession of Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippine Islands.

Filipino nationalists fought Americans for their freedom, just as they had fought the Spaniards before. The United States defeated the rebels and promised to give the Philippines self-rule later. In the meantime, American businesses took advantage of Filipino workers.

Some American businessmen grew wealthy from sugar plantations in Hawaii. In the 1890s, when Queen Liliuokalani tried to regain control of her country, they overthrew her. They declared a republic and asked the United States to annex— take possession of—Hawaii. In 1898, it became a territory of the United States.

**4. How were the effects of imperialism in Southeast Asia typical of those for other regions?**