

## Americas 200 - 1500

### I. Classic-Era Culture and Society in Mesoamerica, 200–900

#### A. Teotihuacan

1. Teotihuacan was a large Mesoamerican city at the height of its power in 450–600 C.E. The city had a population of 125,000 to 150,000 inhabitants and was dominated by religious structures, including pyramids and temples where human sacrifice was carried out.
2. The growth of Teotihuacan was made possible by forced relocation of farm families to the city and by agricultural innovations, including irrigation works and chinampas (“floating gardens”) that increased production and thus supported a larger population.
3. The elite lived in residential compounds separate from the commoners, and controlled the state bureaucracy, tax collection, and commerce.
4. Teotihuacan appears to have been ruled by alliances of wealthy families rather than by kings. The military was used primarily to protect and expand long-distance trade and to ensure that farmers paid taxes or tribute to the elite.
5. Teotihuacan collapsed around 750 C.E. The collapse may have been caused by mismanagement of resources and conflict within the elite, or as a result of invasion.

#### B. The Maya

1. The Maya were a single culture living in modern Guatemala, Honduras, Belize, and southern Mexico, but they never formed a politically unified state. Various Maya kingdoms fought each other for regional dominance.
2. The Maya increased their agricultural productivity by draining swamps, building elevated fields and terraced fields, and by constructing irrigation systems. The Maya also managed forest resources to increase the production of desired products.
3. The largest Maya city-states dominated neighboring city-states and agricultural areas. Large city-states constructed impressive and beautifully decorated buildings and monuments by means of very simple technology—levers and stone tools.
4. The Maya believed that the cosmos consisted of three layers: the heavens, the human world, and the underworld. Temple architecture reflected this cosmology, and the rulers and elites served as priests to communicate with the residents of the two supernatural worlds.
5. Maya military forces fought for captives, not for territory. Elite captives were sacrificed; commoners were enslaved.
6. Maya elite women participated in bloodletting rituals and other ceremonies, but they rarely held political power. Non-elite women probably played an essential role in agricultural and textile production.
7. The most notable Maya technological developments are the Maya calendar, mathematics, and the Maya writing system.
8. Most Maya city-states were abandoned or destroyed between 800 and 900 C.E. Possible reasons for the decline of Maya culture include the disruption of Mesoamerican trade resulting from the fall of Teotihuacan, environmental pressure caused by overpopulation, and increased warfare.

### II. The Postclassic Period in Mesoamerica, 900–1500

#### A. The Toltecs

1. The Toltecs arrived in central Mexico in the tenth century and built a civilization based on the legacy of Teotihuacan. The Toltecs contributed innovations in the areas of politics and war.
2. The Toltec capital at Tula was the center of the first conquest state in the Americas. Dual kings ruled the state—an arrangement that probably caused the internal struggle that undermined the Toltec state around 1150 C.E. The Toltecs were destroyed by invaders around 1175 C.E.

#### B. The Aztecs

1. The Aztecs were originally a northern people with a clan-based social organization. They migrated to the Lake Texcoco area, established the cities of Tenochtitlan and Tlatelolco around 1325, and then developed a monarchical system of government.
2. Gender division of labor was distinct yet complementary. Though warfare increased male power, females maintained control over household and market.
3. The kings increased their wealth and power by means of territorial conquest. As the Aztec Empire increased in size, commoners lost their ability to influence political decisions and inequalities in wealth grew more severe.
4. The Aztecs increased agricultural production in the capital area by undertaking land reclamation projects and constructing irrigated fields and chinampas. Nonetheless, grain and other food tribute met nearly one-quarter of the capital's food requirements.
5. Merchants who were distinct from and subordinate to the political elite controlled long-distance trade. The technology of trade was simple: no wheeled vehicles, draft animals, or money was used. Goods were carried by human porters and exchanged through barter.
6. The Aztecs worshiped a large number of gods, the most important of whom was Huitzilopochtli, the Sun god. Huitzilopochtli required a diet of human hearts, which were supplied by human sacrifice that increased through time.

### III. Northern Peoples

#### A. Southwestern Desert Cultures

1. Irrigation-based agriculture was introduced to Arizona from Mexico around 300 B.C.E. The most notable Mexican-influenced civilization of the area was the Hohokam, who constructed extensive irrigation works in the Salt and Gila valleys around 1000 C.E.
2. The more influential Anasazi developed a maize, rice, and bean economy and constructed underground buildings (kivas) in the Arizona/New Mexico/Colorado/Utah region around 450–750 C.E.
3. The large Anasazi community at Chaco Canyon had a population of about 15,000 people engaged in hunting, trade, and irrigated agriculture. Chaco Canyon people seem to have exerted some sort of political or religious dominance over a large region. The Anasazi civilization declined in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries as a result of drought, overpopulation, and warfare.

#### B. Mound Builders: The Hopewell and Mississippian Cultures

1. The Hopewell culture developed out of the earlier Adena culture around 100 C.E. It was based in the Ohio Valley, but its trade and influence extended as far as Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, New York and Ontario, and south to Florida. The Hopewell economy was based on hunting and gathering and was supplemented by agriculture.
2. The major Hopewell centers were ruled by hereditary chiefs. Chiefs served as priests and managed secular affairs such as long-distance trade. The Hopewell

people built large mounds both as burial sites and as platforms upon which temples and residences of chiefs were constructed.

3. Hopewell sites were abandoned around 400 C.E., but the Hopewell technology and mound-building are linked to the development of the Mississippian culture (700–1500 C.E.). Urbanized Mississippian chiefdoms were made possible by increased agricultural productivity, the bow and arrow, and expanded trade networks.
4. The largest Mississippian center was Cahokia, with a population of about 30,000 around 1200 C.E. Cahokia was abandoned around 1250 perhaps because of climate changes and population pressure.

#### IV. Andean Civilizations, 200–1500

##### A. Cultural Response to Environmental Challenge

1. The harsh environment of the high-altitude Andes, the dry coastal plain, and the tropical headwaters of the Amazon forced the human inhabitants of these areas to organize labor efficiently and thus produce enough food to live.
2. The basic unit of Andean labor organization was the clan (ayllu). Clans held land collectively, and clan members were obligated to assist each other in production and to supply goods and labor to the clan chief.
3. The territorial states organized after 1000 C.E. introduced the institution of the mit'a, which required each ayllu to provide a set number of workers each year to provide labor for religious establishments, the royal court, or the aristocracy.
4. Work was divided along gender lines. Men were responsible for hunting, war, and government; women wove and cared for the crops and the home.
5. The Andean region is divided into four major ecological zones: the coast, mountain valleys, higher elevations, and the Amazonian region. Each region produced different goods, and these goods were exchanged among the various regions through a network of trade routes.

##### B. Moche

1. The Moche culture emerged in the north coastal region of Peru in about 200 C.E. The Moche used forced labor to construct an extensive irrigated agriculture that produced maize, quinoa, beans, and manioc.
2. Moche society was stratified and theocratic. Wealth and power were concentrated in the hands of an elite of priests and military leaders who lived atop large platforms and decorated themselves with magnificent clothing, jewelry, and tall headdresses.
3. Moche artisans were skilled in the production of textiles, portrait vases, and metallurgy. Gold and silver were used for decorative purposes; copper and copper alloy were used for farm tools and weapons.
4. The decline and fall of the Moche civilization may be attributed to a series of natural disasters in the sixth century and to pressure from the warlike Wari people in the eighth century.

##### C. Tiwanaku and Wari

1. The civilization of Tiwanaku, in Bolivia, experienced increased agricultural productivity and urbanization in the years following 200 C.E. Tiwanaku cultivated potatoes and grains on raised fields reclaimed from marshland.
2. Tiwanaku's urban construction included a large terraced pyramid, walled enclosures, and a reservoir. Construction was done with large stones quarried, moved, and laid by thousands of laborers working with simple technology and copper alloy tools.
3. Tiwanaku society was highly stratified, ruled by a hereditary elite.

4. The Wari culture was located near the city of Ayacucho, Peru. Wari had contact with Tiwanaku but was a separate culture; the city was built without central planning, with different techniques, and on a much smaller scale than Tiwanaku. Both Tiwanaku and Wari declined to insignificance by 1000 C.E.

#### D. The Inca

1. The Inca were a small chiefdom in Cuzco until their leaders consolidated political authority and began a program of military expansion in the 1430s. By 1525, the Inca had constructed a huge empire.
2. The key to Inca wealth was their ability to develop a strong military and to use it to broaden and expand the traditional exchange system that had linked the various ecological zones of the Andes region together. The Inca used the mit'a labor system to form their armies; build their capital city; maintain their religious institutions; and provide for the old, the weak, and the ill.
3. The Inca generally left local rulers in place, controlling them by means of military garrisons and by taking their heirs to Cuzco as hostages. At the central level, the Inca created an imperial bureaucracy led by a king. Each king was required to prove himself by conquering new territory.
4. The capital city of Cuzco was laid out in the shape of a puma, and its buildings were constructed of stone laid together without mortar. Cuzco's palaces and richly decorated temples were the scene of rituals; feasts; and sacrifices of textiles, animals, other tribute goods, and the occasional human.
5. The cultural attainments of the Inca Empire include astronomical observation, weaving, copper and bronze metallurgy, and gold and silver working. They did not rely on extensive record-keeping but did keep track of bureaucratic records such as tribute with a system of knotted cords called khipus. The Inca did not introduce new technologies but made more efficient use of existing technology to increase the profits gained by the trade among the ecological zones of the Andean region.
6. Inca domination resulted in increased wealth but also in reduced levels of local autonomy. When the elite fell into civil war in 1525, Inca control over its vast territories was weakened.

#### V. Conclusion

##### A. Political and Economic Comparisons

1. The Aztec and Inca Empires shared similarities in the use of powerful armies, strong economies based on large workforces, and their dependence on organized government and religious practices that connected secular rulers to the gods.
2. Distinctions between the two empires were in their systems of distributing goods and in their management of the empire.
3. The Aztec used local leaders, while the Inca created a strong central government administered by trained bureaucrats.

##### B. Imperial Comparisons

1. Both the Aztec and Inca were the last in a line of successive indigenous populations organized into strong empires from former collapsed civilizations.
2. The arrival of Europeans ended the cycle of crises and adjustment in both regions.

### **Mongols 1200 - 1500**

#### VI. The Rise of the Mongols, 1200-1260

##### A. Nomadism in Central and Inner Asia

1. Nomadic groups depended on scarce water and pasture resources; in times of scarcity, conflicts occurred, resulting in the extermination of smaller groups and in the formation of alliances and out-migration. Around the year 1000, the lands inhabited by the Mongols experienced unusually dry weather, with its attendant effects on the availability of resources and pressures on the nomadic Mongol tribes.
  2. Mongol groups were strongly hierarchical organizations headed by a single leader or khan, but the khans had to ask that their decisions be ratified by a council of the leaders of powerful families. Powerful Mongol groups demanded and received tribute in goods and in slaves from those less powerful. Some groups were able to live almost entirely on tribute.
  3. The various Mongol groups formed complex federations that were often tied together by marriage alliances. Women from prestigious families often played an important role in negotiating these alliances. Wives and mothers of rulers traditionally managed state affairs between the death of a ruler and the selection of a successor, often working to secure a relative to the position.
  4. The seasonal movements of the Mongol tribes brought them into contact with Manicheism, Judaism, Christianity, Buddhism, and Islam. The Mongols accepted religious pluralism. Mongol khans were thought to represent the Sky God, who transcended all cultures and religions; khans were thus conceived of as universal rulers who both transcended and used the various religions of their subjects.
- B. The Mongol Conquests, 1215–1283
1. Between 1206 and 1234, under the leadership of Genghis Khan and his successors, the Mongols conquered all of North China and were threatening the Southern Song. During this period and onward to about 1265, the Mongol realms were united because the khans of the Golden Horde, the Jagadai domains of Central Asia, and the Il-khans all recognized the authority of the Great Khan in Mongolia.
  2. When Khubilai declared himself Great Khan in 1265, the other Mongol khans refused to accept him.
  3. Khubilai founded the Yuan Empire, with its capital at Beijing in 1271; in 1279, he conquered the Southern Song. After 1279, the Yuan attempted to extend its control to Southeast Asia. Annam and Champa were forced to pay tribute to the Yuan, but an expedition to Java ended in failure.
  4. Historians have pointed to a number of factors that may have contributed to the Mongols' ability to conquer such vast territories. These factors include superior horsemanship, better bows, and the technique of following a volley of arrows with a deadly cavalry charge. Other reasons for the Mongols' success include their ability to learn new military techniques, adopt new military technology, and incorporate non-Mongol soldiers into their armies; their reputation for slaughtering all those who would not surrender; and their ability to take advantage of rivalries among their enemies.
- C. Overland Trade and the Plague
1. The Mongol conquests opened overland trade routes and brought about an unprecedented commercial integration of Eurasia. The growth of long-distance trade under the Mongols led to significant transfer of military and scientific knowledge among Europe, the Middle East, China, Iran, and Japan.
  2. Diseases including the bubonic plague also spread over the trade routes of the Mongol Empire. The plague that had lingered in Yunnan (now southwest China) was transferred to central and north China, to Central Asia, to Kaffa, and from there to the Mediterranean world.

## VII. The Mongols and Islam, 1260–1500

### A. Mongol Rivalry

1. In the 1260s, the Il-khan Mongol Empire controlled parts of Armenia and all of Azerbaijan, Mesopotamia, and Iran. Relations between the Buddhist/shamanist Il-khan Mongols and their Muslim subjects were tense because the Mongols had murdered the last Abbasid caliph and because Mongol religious beliefs and customs were contrary to those of Islam.
2. At the same time, Russia was under the domination of the Golden Horde, led by Genghis Khan's grandson Batu, who had converted to Islam and announced his intention to avenge the last caliph. This led to the first conflict between Mongol domains.
3. During this conflict, European leaders attempted to make an alliance with the Il-khans to drive the Muslims out of Syria, Lebanon, and Palestine, while the Il-khans sought European help in driving the Golden Horde out of the Caucasus. These plans for an alliance never came to fruition because the Il-khan ruler Ghazan became a Muslim in 1295.

### B. Islam and the State

1. The goal of the Il-khan State was to collect as much tax revenue as possible, which it did through a tax farming system.
2. In the short term, the tax farming system was able to deliver large amounts of grain, cash, and silk. In the long term, overtaxation led to increases in the price of grain; a shrinking tax base; and, by 1295, a severe economic crisis.
3. Attempts to end the economic crisis through tax reduction programs coupled with the introduction of paper money failed to avert a depression that lasted until 1349. Thus, the Il-khan domains fragmented as Mongol nobles fought each other for diminishing resources and Mongols from the Golden Horde attacked and dismembered the Il-khan Empire.
4. As the Il-khan Empire and the Golden Horde declined in the fourteenth century, Timur, the last Central Asian conqueror, built the Jagadai Khanate in central and western Eurasia. Timur's descendants, the Timurids, ruled the Middle East for several generations.

### C. Culture and Science in Islamic Eurasia

1. In literature, the historian Juvaini wrote the first comprehensive account of the rise of the Mongols under Genghis Khan. Juvaini's work inspired the work of Rashid al-Din, who produced a history of the world that was published in a number of beautifully illustrated editions. Rashid al-Din, a Jew converted to Islam who served as adviser to the Il-khan ruler, was a good example of the cosmopolitanism of the Mongol world. The Timurids also supported notable historians, including the Moroccan Ibn Khaldun (1332–1406).
2. Muslims under Mongol rulership also made great strides in astronomy, calendar making, and the prediction of eclipses. Their innovations included the use of epicycles to explain the movement of the moon around the earth, the invention of more precise astronomical instruments, and the collection of astronomical data from all parts of the Islamic world and China for predicting eclipses with greater accuracy.
3. In mathematics, Muslim scholars adapted the Indian numerical system, devised the method for indicating decimal fractions, and calculated the value of *pi* more accurately than had been done in classical times. Muslim advances in science,

astronomy, and mathematics were passed along to Europe and had a significant effect on the development of European science and mathematics.

## VIII. Regional Responses in Western Eurasia

### A. Russia and Rule from Afar

1. After they defeated the Kievan Rus, the Mongols of the Golden Horde made their capital at the mouth of the Volga, which was also the end of the overland caravan route from Central Asia. From their capital, the Mongols ruled Russia “from afar,” leaving the Orthodox Church in place and using the Russian princes as their agents. As in other Mongol realms, the main goal of the Golden Horde was to extract as much tax revenue as possible from their subjects.
2. Because Prince Alexander of Novgorod had assisted the Mongols in their conquest of Russia, the Mongols favored Novgorod and Moscow (ruled by Prince Alexander’s brother). The favor shown to Novgorod and Moscow combined with the Mongol devastation of the Ukrainian countryside caused the Russian population to shift from Kiev toward Novgorod and Moscow, and Moscow emerged as the new center of the Russian civilization.
3. Some historians believe that Mongol domination had a negative effect on Russia, bringing economic depression and cultural isolation. Other historians argue that the Kievan state was already declining when the Mongols came, the overtaxation of Russians under Mongol rule was the work of the Russian princes, Russia was isolated by the Orthodox church, and the structure of Russian government did not change appreciably under Mongol rule.
4. Ivan III, the prince of Moscow, ended Mongol rule in 1480 and adopted the title of tsar.

### B. New States in Eastern Europe and Anatolia

1. Europe was divided between the political forces of the papacy and those of the Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II. Under these conditions, the states of Eastern Europe—particularly Hungary and Poland—faced the Mongol attacks alone.
2. The Mongol armies that attacked Europe were actually an international force including Mongols, Turks, Chinese, Iranians, and Europeans and led by Mongol generals..
3. After the Mongol withdrawal, Europeans initiated a variety of diplomatic and trade overtures toward the Mongols. Contact between Europeans and Mongols increased through the thirteenth century and brought knowledge of geography, natural resources, commerce, science, technology and mathematics from various parts of the Mongol realms to Europe. At the same time, the Mongol invasions and the bubonic plague caused Europeans to question their accepted customs and religious beliefs.
4. The rise and fall of Mongol domination in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries was accompanied by the rise of stronger centralized states, including Lithuania and the various Balkan kingdoms. Lithuania in particular was able to capitalize on the decline of Mongol power to assert control over its neighbors, particularly Poland.
5. During the period of Mongol domination, Anatolia functioned as a route by which Islamic culture was transferred to Europe via Constantinople. The Ottomans, who established themselves in eastern Anatolia in the 1300s but were kept in check by the Timurids, expanded eastward in the 1400s and conquered Constantinople in 1453.

## IX. Mongol Domination in China, 1271–1368

### A. The Yuan Empire, 1279–1368

1. Khubilai Khan understood and practiced Chinese traditions of government. He constructed a Chinese-style capital at Beijing and a summer capital at Shangdu, where he and his courtiers could practice riding and shooting.
  2. When the Mongols came to China, it was politically fragmented, consisting of three states: the Tanggut, the Jin, and the Southern Song. The Mongols unified these states and restored or preserved the characteristic features of Chinese government.
  3. The Mongols also made some innovations in government. These included tax farming, the use of Western Asian Muslims as officials, and a hierarchical system of legally defined status groups defined in terms of race and function. Under the Yuan hierarchical system, Confucians had a relatively weak role, while the status of merchants and doctors was elevated.
  4. Under Mongol rule, China's cities and ports prospered, trade recovered, and merchants flourished. Merchants organized corporations to pool money and share risks. The flourishing mercantile economy led the Chinese gentry elite to move into the cities, where a lively urban culture of popular entertainment, vernacular literature, and the Mandarin dialect of Chinese developed.
  5. In the rural areas, cotton growing, spinning, and weaving were introduced to mainland China from Hainan Island, and the Mongols encouraged the construction of irrigation systems. In general, however, farmers in the Yuan were overtaxed and brutalized, while dams and dikes were neglected.
  6. During the Yuan period, China's population declined by perhaps as much as 40 percent, with northern China seeing the greatest loss of population; however, the Yangzi Valley actually saw a significant increase. Possible reasons for this pattern include warfare; the flooding of the Yellow River; north-south migration; and the spread of diseases, including the bubonic plague in the 1300s.
- B. The Fall of the Yuan Empire
1. In 1368, the Chinese leader Zhu Yuanzhang brought an end to years of chaos and rebellion when he overthrew the Mongols and established the Ming Empire. The Mongols continued to hold power in Mongolia, Turkestan, and Central Asia, from which they were able to disrupt the overland Eurasian trade and threaten the Ming dynasty.
  2. The Ming Empire was also threatened on its northeastern borders by the Jurchens of Manchuria. The Jurchens, who had been influenced by Mongolian culture, posed a significant threat to the Ming by the late 1400s.
- X. The Early Ming Empire, 1368–1500
- A. Ming China on a Mongol Foundation
1. Former monk, soldier, and bandit, Zhu Yuanzhang established the Ming Empire in 1368. Zhu's regime established its capital in Nanjing and made great efforts to reject the culture of the Mongols, close off trade relations with Central Asia and the Middle East, and reassert the primacy of Confucian ideology.
  2. At a deeper level, the Ming actually continued many institutions and practices that had been introduced during the Yuan. Areas of continuity include the Yuan provincial structure that maintained closer control over local affairs; the use of hereditary professional categories; the Mongol calendar; and, starting with the reign of the Yongle emperor, the use of Beijing as capital.
  3. Between 1405 and 1433, the Ming dispatched a series of expeditions to Southeast Asia and the Indian Ocean under the Muslim eunuch admiral Zheng He. The goals of these missions were to reestablish trade links with the Middle East and bring

Southeast Asian countries and their overseas Chinese populations under Chinese control, or at least under its influence.

4. Zheng He's expeditions retraced routes that were largely known to the Chinese already. The voyages added as many as fifty countries to China's list of tributaries. However, there was no significant increase in long-distance trade and the voyages were, overall, not profitable.
5. Many historians wonder why the voyages ceased and whether or not China could have gone on to become a great mercantile power or acquire an overseas empire. In answering this question, it is useful to remember that the Zheng He voyages did not use new technology, were not profitable, were undertaken as the personal project of the Yongle Emperor, and may have been inspired partly by his need to prove his worth.
6. The end of the Zheng He voyages may also be related to the need to use limited resources for other projects, including coastal defense against Japanese pirates and defense of the northern borders against the Mongols. The end of the Zheng He voyages was not the end of Chinese seafaring; it was only the end of the state's organization and funding of such large-scale expeditions.

#### B. Technology and Population

1. The Ming saw less technological innovation than the Song; in the area of metallurgy, the Chinese lost the knowledge of how to make high-quality bronze and steel. Reasons for the slowdown in technological innovation include the high cost of metals and wood, the revival of a civil service examination system that rewarded scholarship and administration, a labor glut, lack of pressure from technologically sophisticated enemies, and a fear of technology transfer.
2. Korea and Japan moved ahead of China in technological innovation. Korea excelled in firearms, shipbuilding, meteorology, and calendar making, while Japan surpassed China in mining, metallurgy, and novel household goods.

#### C. The Ming Achievement

1. The Ming was a period of great wealth, consumerism, and cultural brilliance.
2. One aspect of Ming popular culture was the development of vernacular novels like *Water Margin* and *Romance of the Three Kingdoms*. The Ming was also known for its porcelain making and for other goods, including furniture, lacquered screens, and silk.

### XI. Centralization and Militarism in East Asia, 1200–1500

#### A. Korea from the Mongols to the Yi, 1231–1500

1. Korea's leaders initially resisted the Mongol invasions but gave up in 1258 when the king of Koryo surrendered and joined his family to the Mongols by marriage. The Koryo kings then fell under the influence of the Mongols, and Korea profited from exchange with the Yuan in which new technologies, including cotton, gunpowder, astronomy, calendar making, and celestial clocks, were introduced.
2. Koryo collapsed shortly after the fall of the Yuan and was replaced by the Yi dynasty. Like the Ming, the Yi reestablished local identity and restored the status of Confucian scholarship while maintaining Mongol administrative practices and institutions.
3. Technological innovations of the Yi period include the use of moveable type in copper frames, meteorological science, a local calendar, the use of fertilizer, and the engineering of reservoirs. The growing of cash crops, particularly cotton, became common during the Yi period.

4. The Koreans were innovators in military technology. Among their innovations were patrol ships with cannon mounted on them, gunpowder arrow-launchers, and armored ships.
- B. Political Transformation in Japan, 1274–1500
1. The first (unsuccessful) Mongol invasion of Japan in 1274 made the decentralized local lords of Kamakura Japan develop a greater sense of unity as the shogun took steps to centralize planning and preparation for the expected second assault.
  2. The second Mongol invasion (1281) was defeated by a combination of Japanese defensive preparations and a typhoon. The Kamakura regime continued to prepare for further invasions. As a result, the warrior elite consolidated their position in Japanese society, and trade and communication within Japan increased, but the Kamakura government found its resources strained by the expense of defense preparations.
  3. The Kamakura shogunate was destroyed in a civil war, and the Ashikaga shogunate was established in 1338. The Ashikaga period was characterized by a relatively weak shogunal state and strong provincial lords who sponsored the development of markets, religious institutions, schools, and increased agricultural production.
  4. The delicate artistry and the simple elegance of architecture and gardens were influenced by the popularity of Zen Buddhism, which emphasizes meditation over ritual.
  5. After the Onin War of 1477, precipitated by conflict over succession upon Yoshimasa's retirement, the shogunate exercised no power and the provinces were controlled by independent regional lords who fought with each other. The regional lords also carried out trade with continental Asia.
- C. The Emergence of Vietnam, 1200–1500
1. The area of Vietnam was divided between two states: the Chinese-influenced Annam in the north and the Indian-influenced Champa in the south. The Mongols extracted tribute from both states, but with the fall of the Yuan Empire, they began to fight with each other.
  2. The Ming ruled Annam through a puppet government for almost thirty years in the early fifteenth century until the Annamese threw off Ming control in 1428. By 1500, Annam had completely conquered Champa and established a Chinese-style government over all of Vietnam.

## XII. Conclusion

- A. Trade between China and Europe received active Mongol stimulation through the protection of routes and encouragement of industrial production.
- B. The Mongols ruled with an unprecedented openness, employing talented people irrespective of their linguistic, ethnic, or religious affiliations, generating an exchange of ideas, techniques, and products across the breadth of Eurasia.
- C. Where Mongol military activity reached its limit of expansion, it stimulated local aspirations for independence.
- D. In China, Korea, Annam, and Japan the threat of Mongol attack and domination encouraged centralization of government, improvement of military techniques, and renewed stress on local cultural identity.

## The Latin West 1200 – 1500

### XIII. Rural Growth and Crisis

#### A. Peasants, Population, and Plague

1. In 1200 C.E., most Europeans were peasants, bound to the land in serfdom and using inefficient agricultural practices. Fifteen to thirty such heavily taxed farming families supported each noble household.
2. Women labored in the fields with men but were subordinate to them.
3. Europe's population more than doubled between 1000 and 1445. Population growth was accompanied by new agricultural technologies in northern Europe, including the three-field system and the cultivation of oats.
4. As population grew, people opened new land for cultivation, including land with poor soil and poor growing conditions. This caused a decline in average crop yields beginning around 1250.
5. The population pressure was eased by the Black Death (bubonic plague), which was brought from Kaffa to Italy and southern France in 1346. The plague ravaged Europe for two years and returned periodically in the late 1300s and 1400s, causing substantial decreases in population.

#### B. Social Rebellion

1. As a result of the plague, labor became more expensive in Western Europe. This gave rise to a series of peasant and worker uprisings, higher wages, and the end of serfdom.
2. Rural living standards improved, the period of apprenticeship for artisans was reduced, and per capita income rose.

#### C. Mines and Mills

1. Between 1200 and 1500, Europeans invented and used a variety of mechanical devices including water wheels and windmills. Mills were expensive to build, but over time they brought great profits to their owners.
2. Industrial enterprises, including mining, ironworking, stone quarrying, and tanning, grew during these centuries. The results included both greater productivity and environmental damage, including water pollution and deforestation.

### XIV. Urban Revival

#### A. Trading Cities

1. Increases in trade and in manufacturing contributed to the growth of cities after 1200. The relationship among trade, manufacturing, and urbanization is demonstrated in the growth of the cities of northern Italy and in the urban areas of Champagne and Flanders.
2. The Venetian capture of Constantinople (1204); the opening of the Central Asian caravan trade under the Mongol Empire; and the post-Mongol development of the Mediterranean galley trade with Constantinople, Beirut, and Alexandria brought profits and growth to Venice. The increase in sea trade also brought profits to Genoa in the Mediterranean and to the cities of the Hanseatic League in the Baltic and the North Sea.
3. Flanders prospered from its woolen textile industries, while the towns of Champagne benefited from their position on the major land route through France and the series of trade fairs sponsored by their nobles.
4. Textile industries also began to develop in England and in Florence. Europeans made extensive use of water wheels and windmills in the textile, paper, and other industries.

#### B. Civic Life

1. Some European cities were city-states, while others enjoyed autonomy from local nobles: they were thus better able to respond to changing market conditions than

Chinese or Islamic cities. European cities also offered their citizens more freedom and social mobility.

2. Most of Europe's Jews lived in the cities. Jews were subject to persecution everywhere but Rome; they were blamed for disasters like the Black Death and expelled from Spain.
3. Guilds regulated the practice of and access to trades. Women were rarely allowed to join guilds, but they did work in unskilled nonguild jobs in the textile industry and in the food and beverage trades.
4. The growth in commerce gave rise to bankers like the Medicis of Florence and the Fuggers of Augsburg, who handled financial transactions for merchants, the church, and the kings and princes of Europe. Because the Church prohibited usury, many moneylenders were Jews; Christian bankers got around the prohibition through such devices as asking for gifts in lieu of interest.

#### C. Gothic Cathedrals

1. Gothic cathedrals are the masterpieces of late medieval architecture and craftsmanship. Their distinctive features include the pointed Gothic arch, flying buttresses, high towers and spires, and large interiors lit by huge windows.
2. The men who designed and built the Gothic cathedrals had no formal training in design and engineering; they learned through their mistakes.

### XV. Learning, Literature, and the Renaissance

#### A. Universities and Scholarship

1. After 1100, Western Europeans got access to Greek and Arabic works on science, philosophy, and medicine. These manuscripts were translated and explicated by Jewish scholars and studied at Christian monasteries, which remained the primary centers of learning.
2. After 1200, colleges and universities emerged as new centers of learning. Some were established by students; most were teaching guilds established by professors to oversee the training, control the membership, and fight for the interests of the profession.
3. Universities generally specialized in a particular branch of learning; Bologna was famous for its law faculty, others for medicine or theology. Theology was the most prominent discipline of the period because theologians sought to synthesize the rational philosophy of the Greeks with the Christian faith of the Latin West in an intellectual movement known as scholasticism.

#### B. Humanists and Printers

1. Dante Alighieri (1265–1321) and Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400) were among the great writers of the later Middle Ages. Dante's *Divine Comedy* tells the story of the author's journey through the nine layers of Hell and his entry into Paradise, while Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* is a rich portrayal of the lives of everyday people in late medieval England.
2. Dante influenced the intellectual movement of the humanists—men such as Petrarch and Boccaccio, who were interested in the humanities and in the classical literature of Greece and Rome. The humanists had a tremendous influence on the reform of secondary education.
3. Some of the humanists wrote in the vernacular. Most of them wrote in Latin; many worked to restore the original texts of Latin and Greek authors and of the Bible through exhaustive comparative analysis of the many various versions that had been produced over the centuries. As a part of this enterprise, Pope Nicholas V

established the Vatican Library, and the Dutch humanist Erasmus produced a critical edition of the New Testament.

4. The influence of the humanist writers was increased by the development of the printing press. Johann Gutenberg perfected the art of printing in 1454; Gutenberg's press and more than two hundred others had produced at least 10 million printed works by 1500.

#### C. Renaissance Artists

1. Fourteenth- and fifteenth-century artists built on the more natural paintings of Giotto as they developed a style of painting that concentrated on the depiction of Greek and Roman gods and of scenes from daily life. The realistic style was also influenced by Jan van Eyck's development of oil paints. Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo were two of the famous artists of this period.
2. Wealthy merchant and clerical patrons like the Medicis of Florence and the church contributed to the development of Renaissance art. The artistic and intellectual developments of the Renaissance did not stop in Europe; the university, printing, and oil painting were later adopted all over the world.

### XVI. Political and Military Transformations

#### A. Monarchs, Nobles, and the Church

1. Thirteenth-century European states were ruled by weak monarchs whose power was limited by their modest treasuries, the regional nobility, the independent towns, and the church.
2. Two changes in weaponry began to undermine the utility—and therefore the economic position—of the noble knights. These two innovations were the armor-piercing crossbow and the development of firearms.
3. King Philip the Fair of France reduced the power of the church when he arrested the pope and had a new (French) one installed at Avignon, but monarchs still faced resistance, particularly from their stronger vassals. In England, the Norman conquest of 1066 had consolidated and centralized royal power, but the kings continued to find their power limited by the pope and by the English nobles, who forced the king to recognize their hereditary rights as defined in the Magna Carta.

#### B. The Hundred Years War

1. The Hundred Years War pitted France against England, whose King Edward III claimed the French throne in 1337. The war was fought with the new military technology: crossbows; longbows; pikes (for pulling knights off their horses); and firearms, including an improved cannon.
2. The French, whose superior cannon destroyed the castles of the English and their allies, finally defeated the English. The war left the French monarchy in a stronger position than before.

#### C. New Monarchies in France and England

1. The new monarchies that emerged after the Hundred Years War had stronger central governments, more stable national boundaries, and stronger representative institutions. Both the English and the French monarchs consolidated their control over their nobles.
2. The advent of new military technology—cannon and hand-held firearms—meant that the castle and the knight were outdated. The new monarchs depended on professional standing armies of bowmen, pikemen, musketeers, and artillery units.
3. The new monarchs had to find new sources of revenue to pay for these standing armies. To raise money, the new monarchs taxed land, merchants, and the church.

4. By the end of the fifteenth century, there had been a shift in power away from the nobility and the church and toward the monarchs. This process was not complete, however, and monarchs were still hemmed in by the nobles, the church, and by new parliamentary institutions: the Parliament in England and the Estates General in France.

D. Iberian Unification

1. Spain and Portugal emerged as strong centralized states through a process of marriage alliances, mergers, warfare, and the reconquest of the Iberian Peninsula from the Muslims. Reconquest offered the nobility large landed estates upon which they could grow rich without having to work.
2. The reconquest took place over a period of several centuries, but it picked up after the Christians put the Muslims on the defensive with a victory in 1212.
3. Portugal became completely established in 1249. In 1415, the Portuguese captured the Moroccan port of Ceuta, which gave them access to the Saharan trade.
4. On the Iberian Peninsula, Castile and Aragon were united in 1469 and the Muslims were driven out of their last Iberian stronghold (Granada) in 1492. Spain then expelled all Jews and Muslims from its territory; Portugal also expelled its Jewish population.

XVII. Conclusion

- A. Ecologically, the peoples of Latin Europe harnessed the power of wind and water and mined and refined their mineral wealth at the cost of pollution and deforestation. A demographic crisis climaxed with the Black Death in the mid-fourteenth century.
- B. Politically, frequent wars caused kingdoms of moderate size to develop exceptional military strength.
- C. Culturally, autonomous universities and printing supported the advance of knowledge while new inventions underlay the new dynamism in commerce, warfare, industry, and navigation.
- D. Many of the tools that the Latin West used to challenge Eastern supremacy originated in the East. From the eleventh century onward, population pressure, religious zeal, economic enterprise, and intellectual curiosity drove expansion of territory and resources.

## **American Colonial Societies 1530 - 1770**

XVIII. The Columbian Exchange

A. Demographic Changes

1. The peoples of the New World lacked immunity to diseases from the Old World. Smallpox, measles, diphtheria, typhus, influenza, malaria, yellow fever, and maybe pulmonary plague caused severe declines in the population of native peoples in the Spanish and Portuguese colonies.
2. Similar patterns of contagion and mortality may be observed in the English and French colonies in North America. Europeans did not use disease as a tool of empire, but the spread of Old World diseases clearly undermined the ability of native peoples to resist settlement and accelerated cultural change.

B. Transfer of Plants and Animals

1. European, Asian, and African food crops were introduced to the Americas, while American crops, including maize, beans, potatoes, manioc, and tobacco, were brought to the Eastern Hemisphere. The introduction of New World food crops is

thought to be one factor contributing to the rapid growth in world population after 1700.

2. The introduction of European livestock such as cattle, pigs, horses, and sheep had a dramatic influence on the environment and on the cultures of the native people of the Americas.
3. Old World livestock destroyed the crops of some Amerindian farmers. Other Amerindians benefited from the introduction of cattle, sheep, and horses.

#### XIX. Spanish America and Brazil

##### A. State and Church

1. The Spanish crown tried to exert direct control over its American colonies but the difficulty of communication between Spain and the New World led to a situation in which the viceroys of New Spain and Peru and their subordinate officials enjoyed a substantial degree of power.
2. After some years of neglect and mismanagement, the Portuguese in 1720 appointed a viceroy to administer Brazil.
3. The governmental institutions established by Spain and Portugal were highly developed, costly bureaucracies that thwarted local economic initiative and political experimentation.
4. The Catholic Church played an important role in transferring European language, culture, and Christian beliefs to the New World. Catholic clergy converted large numbers of Amerindians, although some of them secretly held on to some of their native beliefs and practices.
5. Catholic clergy also acted to protect Amerindians from some of the exploitation and abuse of the Spanish settlers. One example is Bartolome de Las Casas, a former settler turned priest who denounced Spanish policies toward the Amerindians and worked to improve the status of Amerindians through legal reforms such as the New Laws of 1542.
6. Catholic missionaries were frustrated as Amerindian converts blended Christian beliefs with elements of their own cosmology and ritual. In response, the Church redirected its energies toward the colonial cities and towns, where the Church founded universities and secondary schools and played a significant role in the intellectual and economic life of the colonies.

##### B. Colonial Economies

1. The colonial economies of Latin America were dominated by the silver mines of Peru and Mexico and by the sugar plantations of Brazil. This led to a dependence on mineral and agricultural exports.
2. The economy of the Spanish colonies was dominated by the silver mines of Alto Peru (Bolivia) and Peru until 1680, and then by the silver mines of Mexico. Silver mining and processing required a large labor force and led to environmental effects that included deforestation and mercury poisoning.
3. In the agricultural economy that dominated Spanish America up to the 1540s, Spanish settlers used the forced-labor system of *encomienda* to exploit Amerindian labor. With the development of silver-mining economies, new systems of labor exploitation were devised: in Mexico, free-wage labor, and in Peru, the *mita*.
4. Under the *mita* system, one-seventh of adult male Amerindians were drafted for forced labor at less than subsistence wages for two to four months of the year. The *mita* system undermined the traditional agricultural economy, weakened Amerindian village life, and promoted the assimilation of Amerindians into Spanish colonial society.

5. The Portuguese developed the African slave-labor sugar plantation system in the Atlantic islands and then set up similar plantations in Brazil. The Brazilian plantations first used Amerindian slaves and then the more expensive but more productive (and more disease-resistant) African slaves.
6. Sugar and silver played important roles in integrating the American colonial economies into the system of world trade.

C. Society in Colonial Latin America

1. The elite of Spanish America consisted of a relatively small number of Spanish immigrants and a larger number of their American-born descendants (creoles). The Spanish-born dominated the highest levels of government, church, and business, while the creoles controlled agriculture and mining.
2. Under colonial rule, the cultural diversity of Amerindian peoples and the class differentiation within the Amerindian ethnic groups both were eroded.
3. People of African descent played various roles in the history of the Spanish colonies. Slaves and free blacks from the Iberian Peninsula participated in the conquest and settlement of Spanish America; later, the direct slave trade with Africa led both to an increase in the number of blacks and to a decline in the legal status of blacks in the Spanish colonies.
4. At first, people brought from various parts of Africa retained their different cultural identities; but with time, their various traditions blended and mixed with European and Amerindian languages and beliefs to form distinctive local cultures. Slave resistance, including rebellions, was always brought under control, but runaway slaves occasionally formed groups that defended themselves for years.
5. Most slaves were engaged in agricultural labor and were forced to submit to harsh discipline and brutal punishments. The overwhelming preponderance of males made it impossible for slaves to preserve traditional African family and marriage patterns or to adopt those of Europe.
6. In colonial Brazil, Portuguese immigrants controlled politics and the economy, but by the early seventeenth century, Africans and their American-born descendants—both slave and free—were the largest ethnic group.
7. The growing population of individuals of mixed European and Amerindian descent (mestizos), European and African descent (mulattos), and mixed African and Amerindian descent were known collectively as castas.

XX. English and French Colonies in North America

A. Early English Experiments

1. Attempts to establish colonies in the Americas in the late sixteenth century ended in failure.
2. In the seventeenth century, hope that colonies would prove to be profitable investments, combined with the successful colonization of Ireland, led to a new wave of interest in establishing colonies in the New World.

B. The South

1. The Virginia Company established the colony of Jamestown on an unhealthy island in the James River in 1606. After the English Crown took over management of the colony in 1624, Virginia (Chesapeake Bay area) developed as a tobacco plantation economy with a dispersed population and with no city of any significant size.
2. The plantations of the Chesapeake Bay area initially relied on English indentured servants for labor. As life expectancy increased, planters came to prefer to invest in slaves; the slave population of Virginia increased from 950 in 1660 to 120,000 in 1756.

3. Virginia was administered by a Crown-appointed governor and by representatives of towns meeting together as the House of Burgesses. The House of Burgesses developed into a form of democratic representation at the same time as slavery was growing.
  4. Colonists in the Carolinas first prospered in the fur trade with Amerindian deer-hunters. The consequences of the fur trade included environmental damage brought on by overhunting, Amerindian dependency on European goods, ethnic conflicts among Amerindians fighting over hunting grounds, and a series of unsuccessful Amerindian attacks on the English colonists in the early 1700s.
  5. The southern part of the Carolinas was settled by planters from Barbados and developed a slave-labor plantation economy, producing rice and indigo. Enslaved Africans and their descendants formed the majority population and developed their own culture; a slave uprising (the Stono Rebellion) in 1739 led to more repressive policies toward slaves throughout the southern colonies.
  6. Colonial South Carolina was the most hierarchical society in British North America. A wealthy planter class dominated a population of small farmers, merchants, cattle ranchers, artisans, and fur-traders who, in turn, stood above the people of mixed English-Amerindian or English-African background and slaves.
- C. New England
1. The Pilgrims, who wanted to break completely with the Church of England, established the small Plymouth Colony in 1620. The Puritans, who wanted only to reform the Church of England, formed a chartered joint-stock company (the Massachusetts Bay Company) and established the Massachusetts Bay colony in 1630.
  2. The Massachusetts Bay colony had a normal gender balance, saw a rapid increase in population, and was more homogenous and less hierarchical than the southern colonies. The political institutions of the colony were derived from the terms of its charter and included an elected governor and, in 1650, a lower legislative house.
  3. Without the soil or the climate to produce cash crops, the Massachusetts economy evolved from dependence on fur, forest products, and fish to a dependence on commerce and shipping. Massachusetts's merchants engaged in a diversified trade across the Atlantic, which made Boston the largest city in British North America in 1740.
- D. The Middle Atlantic Region
1. Manhattan Island was first colonized by the Dutch and then taken by the English and renamed New York. New York became a commercial and shipping center; it derived particular benefit from its position as an outlet for the export of grain to the Caribbean and southern Europe.
  2. Pennsylvania was first developed as a proprietary colony for Quakers but soon developed into a wealthy grain-exporting colony with Philadelphia as its major commercial city. In contrast to rice-exporting South Carolina's slave agriculture, Pennsylvania's grain was produced by free family farmers, including a substantial number of Germans.
- E. French America
1. Patterns of French settlement closely resembled those of Spain and Portugal; the French were committed to missionary work, and they emphasized the extraction of natural resources—furs. French expansion was driven by the fur trade and resulted in depletion of beaver and deer populations and made Amerindians dependent upon European goods.

2. The fur trade provided Amerindians with firearms, which increased the violence of the wars that they fought over control of hunting grounds.
3. Catholic missionaries, including the Jesuits, attempted to convert the Amerindian population of French America, but, meeting with indigenous resistance, they turned their attention to work in the French settlements. These settlements, dependent on the fur trade, were small and grew slowly. This pattern of settlement allowed Amerindians in French America to preserve a greater degree of independence than they could in the Spanish, Portuguese, or British colonies.
4. The French expanded aggressively to the west and south, establishing a second fur-trading colony in Louisiana in 1699. This expansion led to war with England in which the French, defeated in 1759, were forced to yield Canada to the English and to cede Louisiana to Spain.

## XXI. Colonial Expansion and Conflict

### A. Imperial Reform in Spanish America and Brazil

1. After 1713, Spain's new Bourbon dynasty undertook a series of administrative reforms, including expanded intercolonial trade, new commercial monopolies on certain goods, a stronger navy, and better policing of the trade in contraband goods to the Spanish colonies.
2. Threatened by the independence and power of Jesuit influence, both Portuguese and Spanish monarchies expelled them from their American colonies.
3. The Bourbon policies were detrimental to the interests of the grazing and agricultural export economies, which were increasingly linked to illegitimate trade with the English, French, and Dutch. The new monopolies aroused opposition from creole elites whose only gain from the reforms was their role as leaders of militias that were intended to counter the threat of war with England.
4. The Bourbon policies were also a factor in the Amerindian uprisings, including the uprising led by the Peruvian Amerindian leader José Gabriel Condorcanqui (Tupac Amaru II). The rebellion was suppressed after more than two years and cost the Spanish colonies over 100,000 lives and enormous amounts of property damage.
5. Brazil also underwent a period of economic expansion and administrative reform in the 1700s. Economic expansion fueled by gold, diamonds, coffee, and cotton underwrote the Pombal reforms, paid for the importation of nearly 2 million African slaves, and underwrote a new wave of British imports.

### B. Reform and Reorganization in British America

1. In the latter half of the seventeenth century, the British Crown tried to control colonial trading (smuggling) and manufacture by passing a series of Navigation Acts and by suspending the elected assemblies of the New England colonies. Colonists resisted by overthrowing the governors of New York and Massachusetts and by removing the Catholic proprietor of Maryland, thus setting the stage for future confrontational politics.
2. During the eighteenth century, economic growth and new immigration into the British colonies was accompanied by increased urbanization and a more stratified social structure.

## XXII. Conclusion

### A. Political and Economic Comparisons

1. Amerindians in the colonies of Spain, Portugal, France, and England all experienced European subjugation.
2. Of the Catholic powers of Spain, Portugal, and France, Spain gained the most wealth and developed the most centralized control.

3. British colonial governments were more likely to develop according to local interests than the French, Spanish, and Portuguese colonial governments.
- B. Environmental and Cultural Comparisons
1. The environments in all colonies underwent change from the introduction of European technology, animals, and plants.
  2. All lost natural resources to European markets.
  3. The Catholic nations forced more cultural uniformity on their colonies than Britain did in the more religiously and ethnically diverse British colonies.
  4. The British colonies welcomed a much larger influx of European migrants than did the other New World colonies.

## Northern Eurasia 1500 – 1800

### XXIII. Japanese Reunification

- A. Civil War and the Invasion of Korea, 1500–1603
1. In the twelfth century, with imperial unity dissolved, Japan came under the control of a number of regional warlords called *daimyo*.
  2. Warfare among the *daimyo* was common, and in 1592, the most powerful of these warlords, Hideyoshi, chose to lead an invasion of Korea.
  3. Although the Korean and Japanese languages are closely related, the dominant influence on Yi dynasty Korea was China.
  4. Despite the creative use of technological and military skill, the Koreans and their Chinese allies were defeated by the Japanese.
  5. After Hideyoshi's death in 1598, the Japanese withdrew their forces and, in 1606, made peace with Korea.
  6. The Japanese withdrawal left Korea in disarray and the Manchu in a greatly strengthened position.
- B. The Tokugawa Shogunate, to 1800
1. In the late 1500s, Japan's Ashikaga Shogunate had lost control and the country had fallen into a period of chaotic wars among local lords; a new shogun, Tokugawa Ieyasu, brought all the local lords under the administration of his Tokugawa Shogunate in 1600.
  2. The Tokugawa Shogunate gave loyal regional lords rice lands close to the shogunal capital in central Japan, while those lords who had not been supporters of the Tokugawa were given undeveloped lands at the northern and southern extremes of the islands. The Japanese emperor remained in Kyoto but had no political power. This political structure had an important influence on the subsequent development of the Japanese economy.
  3. The decentralized system of regional lords meant that Japan developed well-spaced urban centers in all regions, while the shogun's requirement that the regional lords visit Edo frequently stimulated the development of the transportation infrastructure and the development of commerce, particularly the development of wholesale rice exchanges.
  4. The samurai became bureaucrats and consumers of luxury goods, spurring the development of an increasingly independent merchant class whose most successful families cultivated alliances with regional lords and with the shogun himself. By the end of the 1700s, the wealthy industrial families were politically influential and held the key to modernization and the development of heavy industry.

### C. Japan and the Europeans

1. Jesuits came to Japan in the late 1500s, and while they had limited success in converting the regional lords, they did make a significant number of converts among the farmers of southern and eastern Japan. A rural rebellion in this area in the 1630s was blamed on Christians. The Tokugawa Shogunate responded with persecutions; a ban on Christianity; and, in 1649, the closing of the country.
2. The closed country policy was intended to prevent the spread of foreign influence but not to exclude knowledge of foreign cultures. A small number of European traders, mainly Dutch, were allowed to reside on a small island near Nagasaki, and Japanese who were interested in the European knowledge that could be gained from European books developed a field known as Dutch studies.
3. Some of the “outer lords” at the northern and southern extremes of Japan relied on overseas trade with Korea, Okinawa, Taiwan, China, and Southeast Asia for their fortunes. These lords ignored the closed country policy, and those in the south, in particular, became wealthy from their control of maritime trade.

### D. Elite Decline and Social Crisis

1. Patterns of population growth and economic growth also contributed to the reversal of fortunes between the inner and outer lords. Population growth in central Japan put a strain on the agricultural economy, but in the outer provinces, economic growth outstripped population growth.
2. The Tokugawa system was also undermined by changes in rice prices and in interest rates, which combined to make both the samurai and the regional lords dependent on the willingness of the merchants to give them credit.
3. The Tokugawa shoguns accepted the Confucian idea that agriculture should be the basis of the state and that merchants should occupy a low social position because they lacked moral virtue, but the decentralized political system made it difficult for the shogunate to regulate merchant activities. In fact, the decentralized system stimulated commerce so that, from 1600 to 1800, the economy grew faster than the population and merchants developed relative freedom, influence, and their own vibrant culture.
4. The ideological and social crisis of Tokugawa Japan’s transformation from a military to a civil society is illustrated in the Forty-seven Ronin incident of 1702. This incident demonstrates the necessity of making the difficult decision to force the military to obey the civil law in the interests of building a centralized, standardized system of law with which the state could protect the interests of the people.

## XXIV. The Later Ming and Early Qing Empires

### A. The Ming Empire, 1500–1644

1. The cultural brilliance and economic achievements of the early Ming continued up to 1600. But at the same time, a number of factors had combined to exhaust the Ming economy, weaken its government, and cause technological stagnation.
2. Some of the problems of the late Ming may be attributed to a drop in annual temperatures between 1645 and 1700, which may have contributed to the agricultural distress, migration, disease, and uprisings of this period. Climate change may also have driven the Mongols and the Manchus to protect their productive lands from Ming control and to take more land along the Ming borders.
3. The flow of New World silver into China in the 1500s and early 1600s caused inflation in prices and taxes that hit the rural population particularly hard.
4. In addition to these global causes of Ming decline, there were also internal factors particular to China. These included disorder and inefficiency in the urban industrial

sector (such as the Jingdezhen ceramics factories), no growth in agricultural productivity, and low population growth.

B. Ming Collapse and the Rise of the Qing

1. The Ming also suffered from increased threats on their borders: to the north and west, there was the threat posed by a newly reunified Mongol confederation, and in Korea the Ming incurred heavy financial losses when it helped the Koreans to defeat a Japanese invasion. Rebellions of native peoples rocked the southwest, and Japanese pirates plagued the southeast coast.
2. Rebel forces led by Li Zicheng overthrew the Ming in 1644, and the Manchu Qing Empire then entered Beijing, restored order, and claimed China for its own.
3. A Manchu imperial family ruled the Qing Empire, but the Manchus were only a small proportion of the population and thus depended on diverse people for assistance in ruling the empire. Chinese made up the overwhelming majority of the people and the officials of the Qing Empire.

C. Trading Companies and Missionaries

1. Europeans were eager to trade with China, but enthusiasm for international trade developed slowly in China, particularly in the imperial court.
2. Over the course of the sixteenth century, the Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch gained limited access to Chinese trade.
3. By the seventeenth century, the Dutch East India Company had become the major European trader in the Indian Ocean.
4. Catholic missionaries accompanied Portuguese and Spanish traders, and the Jesuits had notable success converting Chinese elites. The Jesuit Matteo Ricci (1552–1610) used his mastery of Chinese language and culture to gain access to the imperial court.

D. Emperor Kangxi

1. Kangxi (r. 1662–1722) took formal control over his government in 1669 (at the age of sixteen) by executing his chief regent. Kangxi was an intellectual prodigy and a successful military commander who expanded his territory and gave it a high degree of stability.
2. During the Kangxi period, the Qing were willing to incorporate ideas and technology from Mongolian, Tibetan, Korean, and Chinese sources. The Qing also adapted European knowledge and technology—mapmaking, astronomy, and anatomical and pharmaceutical knowledge—taught by the Jesuits who frequented Kangxi’s court.
3. The Jesuits were also affected by their contact with China. They revised their religious teaching to allow Chinese converts to practice Confucian ancestor worship and they transmitted to Europe Chinese technology, including an early form of inoculation against smallpox and the management techniques of the huge imperial porcelain factories.

E. Chinese Influences on Europe

1. The exchange of ideas and information between the Qing and the Jesuits flowed in both directions.
2. The wealth and power of the Qing led to a tremendous enthusiasm in Europe for Chinese things such as silk, tea, porcelain, other decorative items, and wallpaper. Jesuit descriptions of China also led Europeans such as Voltaire to see the Qing emperors as benevolent despots or philosopher-kings from whom the Europeans could learn.

F. Tea and Diplomacy

1. The Qing were eager to expand trade, but they wanted to control it to be able to tax it more efficiently and to control piracy and smuggling. To do so, the Qing designated a single market point for each foreign sector: the market point for those coming from the South China Sea (including the various European traders) was the city of Canton. This system worked fairly well until the late 1700s.
2. In the late 1700s, the British East India Company and other English traders believed that China's vast market held the potential for unlimited profit and thought that the Qing trade system (the Canton System) stood in the way of opening up new paths for commerce. At the same time, the British Parliament was worried about the flow of British silver into China and convinced that opening the China market would help to bring more English merchants into the trade and bring about the end of the outmoded and nearly bankrupt East India Company.
3. In 1793–1794, the British sent a diplomatic mission led by Lord Macartney to open diplomatic relations with China and revise the trade system. The Macartney mission was a failure, as were similar diplomatic embassies sent by the Dutch, the French, and the Russians.

#### G. Population and Social Stress

1. The peace enforced by the Qing Empire and the temporary revival of agricultural productivity due to the introduction of American and African crops contributed to a population explosion that brought China's total population to between 350 million and 400 million by the late 1700s.
2. Population growth was accompanied by increased environmental stress: deforestation, erosion, silting up of river channels and canals, and flooding. The result was localized misery, migration, increased crime, and local rebellions.
3. While the territory and the population of the Qing Empire grew, the number of officials remained about the same. The Qing depended on local elites to maintain local order but was unable to enforce tax regulations; control standards for entry into government service; or prevent the declining revenue, increased corruption, and increased banditry in the late 1700s.

### XXV. The Russian Empire

#### A. The Drive Across Northern Asia

1. Following the dissolution of Mongol power in Russia, the city of Moscow became the foundation for a new state, Muscovy, which absorbed the territory of the former Kievan state and Novgorod in the west and conquered the khanates of Kazan and Astrakhan. The Muscovite ruler Ivan IV took the title of tsar in 1547.
2. The natural direction for Russian expansion was east; expansion in Siberia was led by armed adventurers who defeated the only political power in the region, the Khanate of Sibir, and took land from the small hunting and fishing groups of native people. Siberia was valued first for its furs and timber and as a penal colony.
3. In the 1650s, the expanding Russian Empire met the expanding Qing Empire in Mongolia, Central Asia, and along the Amur. A treaty between the two powers in 1689 recognized Russian claims west of Mongolia.

#### B. Russian Society and Politics to 1725

1. As the empire expanded, it incorporated a diverse set of peoples, cultures, and religions. This often produced internal tensions.
2. The Cossacks belonged to close-knit bands and made temporary alliances with whoever could pay for their military services.
3. Despite the fact that the Cossacks often performed important services for the Russian Empire, they managed to maintain a high degree of autonomy.

4. Threats and invasions by Sweden and Poland and internal disputes among the Russian aristocracy (*boyars*) in the seventeenth century led to the overthrow of the old line of Muscovite rulers and the enthronement of Mikhail Romanov in 1613. The Romanov rulers combined consolidation of their authority with territorial expansion to the east.
  5. As the power of the Romanov rose, the freedom of Russian peasants fell.
  6. In 1649, Russian peasants were legally transformed into serfs.
- C. Peter the Great
1. Peter the Great (r. 1689–1725) fought the Ottomans in an attempt to gain a warm-water port on the Black Sea and to liberate Constantinople (Istanbul) from Muslim rule, but he did not achieve either goal. Peter was more successful in the Great Northern War, in which he broke Swedish control over the Baltic and established direct contacts between Russia and Europe.
  2. Following his victory in the Great Northern War, Peter built a new capital, St. Petersburg, which was to contribute the westernization of the Russian elites and demonstrate to Europeans the sophistication of Russia. The new capital was also intended to help break the power of the *boyars* by reducing their traditional roles in the government and in the army.
  3. Peter wanted to use European technology and culture to strengthen Russia and to strengthen the autocratic power of his government; he was not interested in political liberalization. As an autocratic ruler, Peter brought the Russian Orthodox Church under his control; built industrial plants to serve the military; and increased the burdens of taxes and labor on the serfs, whom the Russian Empire depended upon for the production of basic foodstuffs.
- D. Consolidation of the Empire
1. Russian expansion in Alaska and the American northwest was driven by the search for furs, which British and American entrepreneurs had also been interested in. Control of the natural resources of Siberia put the Russians in a position to dominate the fur and shipping industries of the North Pacific.
  2. During the reign of Catherine the Great (r. 1762–1796), Russia was the world's largest land empire, built on an economic basis of large territory, agriculture, logging, fishing, and furs.

## XXVI. Conclusion

### A. Political Comparisons

1. Between 1500 and 1800, China and Russia grew dramatically, both in territory controlled and population.
2. Despite being headed by an emperor, Japan's size, homogeneity, and failure to add colonies disqualify it from being called a true empire.
3. Japan and Russia made greater progress in improving their military than did China.
4. Of Japan, Russia, and China, Russia did the most to build up its imperial navy.

### B. Cultural, Social, and Economic Comparisons

1. As they expanded, both China and Russia pursued policies that tolerated diversity while promoting cultural assimilation.
2. While both Russian and Chinese leaders were willing to use foreign ideas and technologies, they tended to see their own culture as superior.
3. Merchants occupied a precarious position in both China and Japan.

## Early Industrial Revolution 1760 – 1851

### XXVII. Causes of the Industrial Revolution

#### A. Population Growth

1. In the eighteenth century, more reliable food supplies, earlier marriage, high birthrates, and more widespread resistance to disease contributed to significant population growth in Europe. England and Wales experienced particularly rapid population growth.
2. Rapid population growth meant that children accounted for a relatively high proportion of the total population. Population growth also contributed to migration of people from the countryside to the cities, from Ireland to England, and from Europe to the Americas.

#### B. The Agricultural Revolution

1. The agricultural revolution began long before the eighteenth century. New food crops, many of them from the Americas, and new forage crops produced more food per acre and allowed farmers to raise more cattle for meat and milk.
2. Only wealthy landowners could afford to invest in new crops and new farming methods. Rich landowners fenced off (enclosed) their own land and common land to apply new scientific farming methods; as they did so, they forced their former tenants to become sharecroppers or landless laborers, or to migrate to the cities.

#### C. Trade and Inventiveness

1. In most of Europe, increasing demand for goods was met with increasing production in traditional ways through the addition of new craftspeople to existing workshops and through the putting-out system.
2. Population growth and increased agricultural productivity were accompanied by a growth in trade and a fascination with technology and innovation.

#### D. Britain and Continental Europe

1. Eighteenth-century Britain had a number of characteristics that help to explain its peculiar role in the Industrial Revolution. These characteristics include economic growth, population growth, people who were willing to put new ideas into practice, strong mining and metal industries, the world's largest merchant marine, and a relatively fluid social structure.
2. Britain also had a good water transportation system, a unified market, and a highly developed commercial sector.
3. The economies of continental Europe experienced a similar dynamic expansion in the eighteenth century, but lack of markets and management skills and the constant warfare from 1789–1815 interrupted trade and weakened the incentive to invest in new technologies. Industrialization took hold in Europe after 1815, first in Belgium and France. European governments played a significant role in fostering industrialization.

### XXVIII. The Technological Revolution

#### A. Mass Production: Pottery

1. Pottery was either imported or handmade for the aristocracy; in either event, ordinary people could not afford it. But the growing taste for tea, cocoa, and coffee created a demand for porcelain that would not spoil the flavor of these beverages.
2. In 1759, Josiah Wedgwood opened a pottery business that used division of labor and molds (rather than the potter's wheel) to mass-produce high quality porcelain at a low cost that made it affordable for everyday use.

#### B. Mechanization: The Cotton Industry

1. There was a strong market for cotton cloth, but the cotton plant did not grow in Europe. Restrictions on the import of cotton cloth led inventors and entrepreneurs to devise cheap mechanical methods for spinning cotton thread and weaving cotton cloth in England.
  2. Beginning in the 1760s, a series of inventions revolutionized the spinning of cotton thread. These included the spinning jenny (1764), the water frame (1769), and the mule (1785). The increased supply of cotton thread and the demand for cotton cloth led to the invention of power looms and other machinery and processes for cotton textile production.
  3. Mechanization of cotton textile production led to much greater efficiency and lower prices. Cotton became America's most valuable crop, produced for export to England and, from the 1820s, for America's own cotton textile industry.
- C. The Iron Industry
1. Iron had been in use in Eurasia and Africa for thousands of years, but iron production was associated with deforestation that increased the price of charcoal and thus reduced the output of iron. Limited wood supplies and the high cost of skilled labor made iron a rare and valuable metal outside China before the eighteenth century.
  2. In the eighteenth century, a series of inventions, including coke and puddling, made it possible for the British to produce large amounts of cheap iron. Increased production and lower cost led people to use iron for numerous applications, including bridge building and the construction of the Crystal Palace.
  3. The idea of interchangeable parts originated in the eighteenth century, but it was widely adopted in the firearms, farm equipment, and sewing machine industries in the nineteenth century. The use of machinery to mass-produce consumer goods with identical parts was known as the American system of manufactures.
- D. The Steam Engine
1. The steam engine was the most revolutionary invention of the Industrial Revolution. Between 1702 and 1712, Thomas Newcomen developed a crude, inefficient steam engine that was used to pump water out of coal mines.
  2. In 1769, James Watt improved the Newcomen engine and began to manufacture engines for sale to manufacturers. Watt's engine provided a source of power that allowed factories to be located where animal, wind, and water power were lacking.
  3. In the 1780s, the steam engine was used to power riverboats in France and America. In the 1830s, the development of more efficient engines made it possible to build ocean-going steamships.
- E. Railroads
1. After 1800, inventors including Richard Trevithick and George Stephenson built lighter, more powerful high-pressure steam engines and used them to power steam locomotives that soon replaced the horses on horse-power railways.
  2. Railway-building mania swept Britain from 1825 to 1845 as the major cities, and then small towns, were linked by a network of railroads. In the United States, railway booms in the 1840s and 1850s linked the country together and opened the Midwest to agricultural development.
  3. In Europe, railways triggered industrialization. Europe's industrial areas were concentrated in the iron- and coal-rich areas of northern France, Belgium, the Ruhr, and Silesia.
- F. Communication over Wires

1. The construction of railroads was accompanied by the development of the electric telegraph. Two systems of telegraphy were invented in 1837: Wheatstone and Cook's five-needle telegraph in England, and Morse's dots and dashes system in the United States.
2. In the 1840s and 1850s, Americans and Europeans had built the beginnings of what would become a global communications network.

## XXIX. The Impact of the Early Industrial Revolution

### A. The New Industrial Cities

1. Industrialization brought about the rapid growth of towns and the development of megalopolises such as Greater London. The wealthy built fine homes, churches, and public buildings; the poor crowded into cheap, shoddy row houses.
2. Sudden population growth, crowding, and lack of municipal services made urban problems more serious than they had been in the past. Inadequate facilities for sewage disposal, air and water pollution, and diseases made urban life unhealthy and contributed to high infant mortality and short life expectancy.
3. Reports of the horrors of slum life led to municipal reforms that began to alleviate the ills of urban life after the mid-nineteenth century.

### B. Rural Environments

1. Almost all the land in Europe had been transformed by human activity before the Industrial Revolution. Americans transformed their environment even faster than Europeans did, clearing land, using it until the soil was depleted, and then moving on.
2. Industrialization relieved pressure on the English environment in some ways; agricultural raw materials were replaced by industrial materials or by imports, while the use of coal and the availability of cheap iron reduced the demand for wood.
3. New transportation systems greatly changed rural life. Toll roads, canals, and then railroads linked isolated districts to the great centers of commerce, industry, and population.

### C. Working Conditions

1. Industrialization offered new, highly paid opportunities for a small number of skilled carpenters, metalworkers, and machinists, but most industrial jobs were unskilled, repetitive, boring, and badly paid, and came with poor working conditions.
2. The separation of work from home had a major impact on women and on family life.
3. Women workers were concentrated in the textile mills and earned much less than men. Husbands and wives worked in separate places. Most of the female work force consisted of young women who took low-paid jobs as domestic servants.
4. Poverty and employers' preference for child workers led to high rates of child labor.
5. In America, the first industrialists offered good wages and decent working conditions to their women workers, but harsh working conditions, long hours, and low pay soon became standard. Protests by American women workers led factory owners to replace them with Irish women, who were willing to accept lower pay and worse conditions.
6. The Industrial Revolution increased the demand for cotton, sugar, and coffee. In doing so, industrialization helped to prolong slavery in the United States and the Caribbean and to extend slavery to the coffee-growing regions of Brazil.

### D. Changes in Society

1. Industrialization increased disparities in income. The wages and standards of living of the workers varied with the fluctuations of the business cycle, but overall, workers' standards of living did not improve until the 1850s.
2. The real beneficiaries of the Industrial Revolution were the middle classes. Rising incomes allowed the middle class to build their own businesses, to keep women at home, and to develop a moral code that stood in contrast to the squalor and drunkenness of the working class.

### XXX. New Economic and Political Ideas

#### A. Laissez Faire and Its Critics

1. Adam Smith was the most famous proponent of the laissez-faire doctrine that government should refrain from interfering in business. Thomas Malthus and David Ricardo argued that the poverty of the working class was the result of overpopulation and that it could best be addressed, not by government action, but by delayed marriage and sexual restraint. Business people welcomed the idea of laissez faire.
2. Critics of laissez faire, such as Jeremy Bentham in England and Freidrich List in Germany, argued that the state should take action to manage the economy and to address social problems.
3. In France, the count of Saint-Simon developed a philosophy called positivism, which argued that the scientific method could solve social as well as technical problems.

#### B. Protests and Reforms

1. Workers initially responded to the harsh working conditions by changing jobs frequently, not reporting for work, doing poor-quality work when not closely watched, and engaging in riots or strikes. Workers gradually moved beyond the stage of individual, unorganized resistance to create organizations for collective action: benevolent societies and trade unions.
2. Mass movements persuaded the British government to investigate the abuses of industrial life and to offer ameliorative legislation that included the Factory Act of 1833, the Mines Act of 1842, and the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846. In Europe, the revolutions of 1848 revealed widespread discontent, but European governments did not seek reform through accommodation.

### XXXI. The Limits of Industrialization Outside the West

#### A. Britain's Effect on Egypt

1. In the early nineteenth century, Egypt's ruler Muhammad Ali undertook a program of industrialization that was funded by the export of wheat and cotton and protected by high tariffs on imported goods.
2. The prospect of a powerful modern Egypt posed a threat to the British, so in 1839, Britain forced Muhammad Ali to eliminate all import duties. Without tariff protection, Egypt's industries could not compete with cheap British products; Egypt became an economic dependency of Britain.

#### B. Britain's Effect on India

1. Cheap machine-made British textiles forced Indian spinners and hand-weavers out of work. Most became landless peasants, and India became an exporter of raw materials and an importer of British industrial goods.
2. Railroads, coal mining, and telegraph lines were introduced to India in the mid-nineteenth century. Some Indian entrepreneurs were able to establish their own textile mills but, overall, India's industrialization proceeded at a very slow pace because the British administration did nothing to encourage Indian industry.

#### C. Britain's Effect on China

1. New military technologies changed the balance of power between Europe and China, allowing Britain to defeat the Chinese quickly and easily.
2. China's conservative elite and growing population of peasants concerned mainly with agriculture kept them from competing with Western technology.

#### XXXII. Conclusion

- A. Industrialization was the most important change since the development of agriculture, with increased mechanical technology driving increased production of goods such as iron and cotton.
- B. The industrial age caused environmental problems and increased stratification of society, with a new and growing middle class. It also generated concern for children working in factories and philosophies relative to the industrial age, such as those of Adam Smith and Jeremy Bentham.
- C. Industrialization of western nations caused a separation between what would be considered wealthy and poor nations.

### **Land Empires and Imperialism 1800 – 1870**

#### XXXIII. The Ottoman Empire

- A. Egypt and the Napoleonic Example
  1. In 1798, Napoleon invaded Egypt and defeated the Mamluk forces he encountered there. Fifteen months later, after a series of military defeats, Napoleon returned to France, seized power, and made himself emperor.
  2. His generals had little hope of holding on to power and, in 1801, agreed to withdraw. Muhammad Ali emerged as the victor in the ensuing power struggle.
  3. Muhammad Ali used many French practices in an effort to build up the new Egyptian state.
  4. He established schools to train modern military officers and built factories to supply his new army.
  5. In the 1830s, his son Ibrahim invaded Syria and started a similar set of reforms there.
  6. European military pressure forced Muhammad Ali to withdraw to the present-day borders of Egypt and Israel.
  7. Muhammad Ali remained Egypt's ruler until 1849, and his family held onto power until 1952.
- B. Ottoman Reform and the European Model, 1807–1853
  1. At the end of the eighteenth century, Sultan Selim III introduced reforms to strengthen the military and the central government and to standardize taxation and land tenure. These reforms aroused the opposition of Janissaries, the nobility, and the ulama.
  2. Tension between the Sultanate and the Janissaries sparked a Janissary revolt in Serbia in 1805. Serbian peasants helped to defeat the Janissary uprising and went on to make Serbia independent of the Ottoman Empire.
  3. Selim suspended his reform program in 1806, too late to prevent a massive military uprising in Istanbul in which Selim was captured and executed before reform forces could retake the capital.
  4. The Greeks gained independence from the Ottoman Empire in 1829. Britain, France, and Russia assisted the Greeks in their struggle for independence and regarded the Greek victory as a triumph of European civilization.

5. Sultan Mahmud II believed that the loss of Greece indicated a profound weakness in Ottoman military and financial organization. Mahmud used popular outrage over the loss of Greece to justify a series of reforms that included the creation of a new army corps, elimination of the Janissaries, and reduction of the political power of the religious elite. Mahmud's secularizing reform program was further articulated in the Tanzimat (restructuring) reforms initiated by his successor Abdul Mejid in 1839.
  6. Military cadets were sent to France and Germany for training, and reform of Ottoman military education became the model for general educational reforms in which foreign subjects were taught, foreign instructors were employed, and French became the preferred language in all advanced scientific and professional training.
  7. Educational reform stimulated growth of the wealth and influence of urban elites. The reforms also brought about unexpected cultural and social effects that ranged from the introduction of European clothing styles to the equal access to the courts for all male subjects, to equalization of taxation.
  8. The public rights and political participation granted during the Tanzimat were explicitly restricted to men. The reforms decreased the influence of women, while at the same time, the development of a cash economy and competitive labor market drove women from the work force.
- C. The Crimean War and Its Aftermath
1. Russia's southward expansion at the expense of the Ottoman Empire led to the Crimean War. An alliance of Britain, France, and the Ottoman Empire defeated Russia and thus blocked Russian expansion into Eastern Europe and the Middle East.
  2. The Crimean War brought significant changes to all combatants. The Russian government was further discredited and forced into making additional reforms, Britain and France carried out extensive propaganda campaigns that emphasized their roles in the war, and the French press promoted a sense of unity between Turkish and French society.
  3. The Crimean War marked the transition from traditional to modern warfare. The percussion caps and breech-loading rifles that were used in the Crimean War were the beginning of a series of subsequent changes in military technology that included the invention of machine guns, the use of railways to transfer weapons and men, and trench warfare.
  4. After the Crimean War, the Ottoman Empire continued to establish secular financial and commercial institutions on the European model. These reforms contributed to a shift of population from rural to urban areas and the development of professional and wage laborer classes, but they did not solve the regime's fiscal problems.
  5. Problems associated with the reforms included the Ottoman state's dependence on foreign loans, a trade deficit, and inflation. In the 1860s and 1870s, discussion of a law that would have permitted all men to vote left Muslims worried that the Ottoman Empire was no longer a Muslim society. This worry may have contributed to Muslim hostilities against Christians in the Ottoman territories in Europe, Armenia, and the Middle East.
  6. The decline of Ottoman power and wealth inspired a group of educated urban men known as the Young Ottomans to band together to work for constitutionalism, liberal reform, and the creation of a Turkish national state in place of the Ottoman Empire. A constitution was granted in 1876, but a coup soon placed a more

conservative ruler on the throne; the Ottoman Empire thus continued its weakened existence under the sponsorship of the Western powers until 1922.

#### XXXIV. The Russian Empire

##### A. Russia and Europe

1. In 1700, only three percent of the Russian population lived in cities, and Russia was slow to acquire a modern infrastructure and modern forms of transportation.
2. While Russia aspired to Western-style economic development, fear of political change prevented real progress.
3. Nonetheless, Russia had more in common with the other European nations than did the Ottoman Empire.
4. Slavophiles and Westernizers debated the proper course for Russian development.
5. The diplomatic inclusion of Russia among the great powers of Europe was countered by a powerful sense of Russophobia in the west.

##### B. Russia and Asia

1. By the end of the eighteenth century, the Russian Empire had reached the Pacific Ocean and the borders of China. In the nineteenth century, Russian expansion continued to the south, bringing Russia into conflict with China, Japan, Iran, and the Ottoman Empire.
2. Britain took steps to halt Russian expansion before Russia gained control of all of Central Asia.

##### C. Cultural Trends

1. Russia had had cultural contact with Europe since the late seventeenth century.
2. The reforms of Alexander I promised more on paper than they delivered in practice.
3. Opposition to reform came from wealthy families who feared reform would bring about imperial despotism, a fear that was realized during the reign of Nicholas I.
4. The Decemberist revolt was carried out by a group of reform-minded military officers upon the death of Alexander I. Their defeat amounted to the defeat of reform for the next three decades.
5. Heavy penalties were imposed on Russia in the treaty that ended the Crimean War. The new tsar, Alexander II, was called upon to institute major reforms.
6. Under Alexander II, reforms and cultural trends begun under his grandfather were encouraged and expanded.
7. The nineteenth century saw numerous Russian scholarly and scientific achievements, as well as the emergence of significant Russian writers and thinkers.

#### XXXV. The Qing Empire

##### A. Economic and Social Disorder

1. When the Qing conquered China in the 1600s, they restored peace and stability and promoted the recovery and expansion of the agricultural economy, thus laying the foundation for the doubling of the Chinese population between 1650 and 1800. By 1800, population pressure was causing environmental damage and contributing to an increasing number of itinerant farmhands, laborers, and merchants.
2. There were numerous sources of discontent in Qing China. Various minority peoples had been driven off their land, and many people regarded the government as being weak, corrupt, and perhaps in collusion with the foreign merchants and missionaries in Canton and Macao. Discontent was manifest in a series of internal rebellions in the nineteenth century, beginning with the White Lotus rebellion (1794–1804).

##### B. The Opium War and Its Aftermath, 1839–1850

1. Believing the Europeans to be a remote and relatively unimportant people, the Qing did not at first pay much attention to trade issues or to the growth in the opium trade. In 1839, when the Qing government realized the harm being done by the opium trade, they decided to ban the use and import of opium and sent Lin Zexu to Canton to deal with the matter.
  2. The attempt to ban the opium trade led to the Opium War (1839–1842), in which the better-armed British naval and ground forces defeated the Qing and forced them to sign the Treaty of Nanking. The Treaty of Nanking and subsequent treaties signed between the Qing and the various Western powers gave Westerners special privileges and resulted in the colonization of small pockets of Qing territory.
- C. The Taiping Rebellion, 1850–1864
1. The Taiping Rebellion broke out in Guangxi province, where poor farmland, endemic poverty, and economic distress were complicated by ethnic divisions that relegated the minority Hakka people to the lowliest trades.
  2. The founder of the Taiping movement was Hong Xiuquan, a man of Hakka background who became familiar with the teachings of Christian missionaries in Canton. Hong declared himself to be the younger brother of Jesus and founded a religious group (the Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace or Taiping movement) to which he recruited followers from among the Hakka people.
  3. The Taiping forces defeated imperial troops in Guangxi, recruited (or forced) villagers into their segregated male and female battalions and work teams, and moved toward eastern and northern China. In 1853, the Taiping forces captured Nanjing and made it the capital of their Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace.
  4. The Qing were finally able to defeat the Taiping with help from military forces organized by provincial governors like Zeng Guofan and with the assistance of British and French forces.
  5. The Taiping Rebellion was one of the world’s bloodiest civil wars and the greatest armed conflict before the twentieth century. The results of the Taiping Rebellion included 20 to 30 million deaths, depopulation and destruction of rich agricultural lands in central and eastern China, and suffering and destruction in the cities and cultural centers of eastern China.
- D. Decentralization at the End of the Qing Empire, 1864–1875
1. After the 1850s, the expenses of wars and the burden of indemnities payable to Western governments made it impossible for the Qing to get out of debt. With the Qing government so deeply in their debt, Britain and France became active participants in the period of recovery known as the Tongzhi Restoration that followed the Taiping Rebellion.
  2. The real work of recovery was managed by provincial governors like Zeng Guofan, who looked to the United States as his model and worked to restore agriculture, reform the military, and industrialize armaments manufacture. The reform programs were supported by a coalition of Qing aristocrats, including the Empress Dowager Cixi, but they were unable to prevent the Qing Empire from disintegrating into a set of large power zones in which provincial governors exercised real authority.

### XXXVI. Conclusion

- A. Similarity of Responses Among the Empires
1. Subjects of the Ottoman, Russian, and Qing Empires did not consider European economic pressure a challenge during the first half of the nineteenth century.

2. By the 1870s, European challenges to the empires had become widely realized—for the Ottoman and Russian Empires during the Crimean War, and for the Qing Empire during the Opium War.
  3. Although historians view economic pressure as the force that weakened the empires, rulers of the Ottoman, Russian, and Qing Empires themselves considered their greatest challenge to be the military superiority of the Europeans.
- B. Distinctions in Response Among the Empires
1. China’s geographic distance protected it from the political tensions between Britain and Russia.
  2. The Ottoman Empire was left out of deliberations among European powers that included Russia mainly because Europe anticipated the eventual demise of the Ottomans.

## **Independence Movements 1900 – 1949**

### XXXVII. The Indian Independence Movement, 1905–1947

- A. The Land and the People
1. Despite periodic famines due to drought, India’s fertile land allowed the Indian population to increase from 250 million in 1900 to 389 million in 1941. Population growth brought environmental pressure, deforestation, and a declining amount of farm land per family.
  2. Indian society was divided into many classes: peasants, wealthy property owners, and urban craftspeople, traders, and workers. The people of India spoke many different languages; English became the common medium of communication of the Western-educated middle class.
  3. The majority of Indians practiced Hinduism. Muslims constituted one-quarter of the people of India and formed a majority in the northwest and in eastern Bengal.
- B. British Rule and Indian Nationalism
1. Colonial India was ruled by a viceroy and administered by the Indian Civil Service. The few thousand members of the Civil Service manipulated the introduction of technology into India to protect the Indian people from the dangers of industrialization, prevent the development of radical politics, and maximize the benefits to Britain and to themselves.
  2. At the turn of the century, the majority of Indians accepted British rule, but the racism and discrimination of the Europeans had inspired a group of Hindus to establish a political organization called the Indian National Congress in 1885. Muslims, fearful of Hindu dominance, founded the All-India Muslim League in 1906, thus giving India not one, but two independence movements.
  3. The British resisted the idea that India could or should industrialize, but Pramatha Nath Bose of the Indian Geological Service and Jamseji Tata, a Bombay textile magnate, established India’s first steel mill in Jamshedpur in 1911. Jamshedpur became a powerful symbol of Indian national pride.
  4. In 1918 and 1919, several incidents contributed to an increase in tensions between the British and the Indian people. These incidents included a too-vague promise of self-government and the incident in which a British general ordered his troops to fire into a crowd of 10,000 demonstrators.
- C. Mahatma Gandhi and Militant Nonviolence

1. Mohandas K. (Mahatma) Gandhi (1869–1948) was an English-educated lawyer who practiced in South Africa before returning to India and joining the Indian National Congress during World War I. Gandhi’s political ideas included *ahimsa* (nonviolence) and *satyagraha* (the search for truth).
2. Gandhi dressed and lived simply; his affinity for the poor, the illiterate, and the outcasts made him able to transform the cause of Indian independence from an elite movement to a mass movement with a quasi-religious aura.
3. Gandhi’s brilliance as a political tactician and master of public relations gestures was demonstrated in acts such as his eighty-mile “Walk to the Sea” to make salt (in violation of the government’s salt monopoly), in his several fasts “unto death,” and in his repeated arrests and prison sentences.

D. India Moves Toward Independence

1. In the 1920s, the British slowly and reluctantly began to give Indians control of areas such as education, the economy, and public works. High tariff barriers were erected behind which Indian entrepreneurs were able to undertake a degree of industrialization; this helped to create a class of wealthy Indian businesspeople who looked to Gandhi’s designated successor in the Indian National Congress—Jawaharlal Nehru (1889–1964)—for leadership.
2. World War II divided the Indian people; Indians contributed heavily to the war effort, but the Indian National Congress opposed the war, and a minority of Indians joined the Japanese side.

E. Partition and Independence

1. In 1940, the Muslim League’s leader Muhammad Ali Jinnah (1876–1948) demanded that Muslims be given a country of their own, to be named Pakistan. When World War II ended, Britain’s new Labour Party government prepared for independence, but mutual animosity between the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League led to the partition of India into two states: India and Pakistan.
2. Partition and independence were accompanied by violence between Muslims and Hindus and by massive flows of refugees as Hindus left predominantly Muslim areas and Muslims left predominantly Hindu areas.

XXXVIII. Sub-Saharan Africa, 1900–1945

A. Colonial Africa: Economic and Social Changes

1. Outside Algeria, Kenya, and South Africa, few Europeans lived in Africa. However, the very small European presence dominated the African economy and developed Africa as an exporter of raw materials that brought benefit to Europeans but to very few Africans.
2. Africans were forced to work in European-owned mines and plantations under harsh conditions for little or no pay. Colonialism provided little modern health care, and many colonial policies worsened public health, undermined the African family, and gave rise to large cities in which Africans experienced racial discrimination.

B. Religious and Political Changes

1. During the colonial period, many Africans turned toward Christianity or Islam. Missionaries introduced Christianity (except in Ethiopia, where it was indigenous). Islam spread through the influence and example of African traders.
2. The contrast between the liberal ideas imparted by Western education and the realities of racial discrimination under colonial rule contributed to the rise of nationalism. Early nationalist leaders and movements such as Blaise Diagne in Senegal, the African National Congress in South Africa, and Pan-Africanists like W. E. B. Dubois and Marcus Garvey from America had little influence until after World War II, when Africans who had served in the Allied war effort came back with new, radical ideas.

XXXIX. Mexico, Argentina, and Brazil, 1900–1949

A. Background to Revolution: Mexico in 1910

1. Upon independence in 1821, Mexican society was deeply divided; a few wealthy families of Spanish origin owned 85 percent of the land, while the majority of Indians and mestizos were poor peasants.
2. Concentration of land ownership increased after independence as wealthy families and American companies used bribery and force to acquire millions of acres of good agricultural land, forcing peasants into wage labor, and debt.
3. In 1910, General Porfirio Diaz (1830–1915) had ruled for thirty-four years. Diaz's policies had made Mexico City a modernized showplace and brought wealth to a small number of businessmen, but his rule was also characterized by discrimination against the nonwhite majority of Mexicans and a decline in the average Mexican's standard of living.

B. Revolution and Civil War in Mexico, 1911–1920

1. The Mexican Revolution was a social revolution and not the work of one party with a well-defined ideology; it developed haphazardly, led by a series of ambitious but limited men, each representing a different segment of Mexican society.
2. Francisco I Madero (1873–1913) overthrew Diaz in 1911, only to be overthrown in turn by General Victoriana Huerta in 1913. The Constitutionalist Venustiano Carranza and Alvaro Obregon emerged as leaders of the disaffected middle class and industrial workers, and they organized armies that overthrew Huerta in 1914.
3. Emiliano Zapata (1879–1919) led a peasant revolt in Morelos, south of Mexico City, while Francisco (Pancho) Villa organized an army in northern Mexico. Neither man was able to rise above his regional and peasant origins to lead a national revolution; Zapata was defeated and killed by the Constitutionalist in 1919, and Villa was assassinated in 1923.
4. The Constitutionalist took over Mexico after years of fighting, an estimated 2 million casualties, and tremendous damage. In the process, the Constitutionalist adopted many of their rivals' agrarian reforms and proposed a number of social programs designed to appeal to workers and the middle class.
5. The Mexican Revolution lost momentum in the 1920s. In 1928, President Obregon's successor, Plutarco Elias Calles, founded the National Revolutionary Party. Calles's successor, President Lazaro Cardenas, removed generals from government, redistributed land, replaced church-run schools with government schools, and expropriated the foreign-owned oil companies that had dominated Mexico's petroleum industry.

6. When Cardenas's term ended in 1940, Mexico was still a land of poor farmers with a small industrial base. Nonetheless, the Mexican Revolution had established a stable political system, tamed the military and the Catholic Church, and laid the foundations for the later industrialization of Mexico. The revolution sparked new creativity in the arts, which reflected and fostered a new sense of national unity.
- C. The Transformation of Argentina
1. At the end of the nineteenth century, the introduction of railroads and refrigerator ships transformed Argentina from an exporter of hides and wool to an exporter of meat. The introduction of Lincoln sheep and Hereford cattle for meat production led Argentine farmers to fence, plow, and cultivate the pampas, transforming the pampas into farmland that, like the North American Midwest, became one of the world's great producers of meat and wheat.
  2. Argentina's government represented the interests of the *oligarquia*, a small group of wealthy landowners. This elite had little interest in anything other than farming; they were content to let foreign companies, mainly British, build the railroads, processing plants, and public utilities. Argentina exported agricultural goods and imported almost all its manufactured goods.
- D. Brazil and Argentina, to 1929
1. Brazil's elite of coffee and cacao planters and rubber exporters resembled the Argentine elite: they used their wealth to support a lavish lifestyle; allowed the British to build railroads, harbors, and other infrastructure; and imported all manufactured goods. Both Argentina and Brazil had small but outspoken middle classes that demanded a share in government and looked to Europe as a model.
  2. The disruption of European industry and world trade in World War I weakened the land-owning classes in Argentina and Brazil so that the urban middle class and the wealthy landowners shared power at the expense of the landless peasants and urban workers.
  3. During the 1920s, peace and high prices for agricultural exports allowed both Argentina and Brazil to industrialize, but the introduction of new technologies left them again dependent on the advanced industrial countries. Aviation and radio communications were introduced to Argentina and Brazil during the 1920s, but European and U.S. companies dominated both sectors.
- E. The Depression and the Vargas Regime in Brazil
1. The Depression hit Latin America very hard and marks a significant turning point for the region. As the value of their exports plummeted and their economies collapsed, Argentina and Brazil, like many European countries, turned to authoritarian regimes that promised to solve their economic problems.
  2. In Brazil, Getulio Vargas (1883–1953) staged a coup and followed a policy that increased import duties and promoted national firms and state-owned enterprises. In the process, industrialization brought all of the usual environmental consequences: mines, urbanization, slums, the conversion of scrubland to pasture, and deforestation.
  3. Vargas instituted reforms that were beneficial to urban workers, but because he did nothing to help the landless peasants, the benefits of the economic recovery were unequally distributed. In 1938, Vargas staged a second coup, abolished the constitution, made Brazil a fascist state, and thus infected not only Brazil but all of South America with the temptations of political violence. He himself was overthrown in a military coup in 1954.
- F. Argentina After 1930

1. Economically, the Depression hurt Argentina almost as badly as it did Brazil, but the political consequences were delayed for years. In 1930, General Jose Uriburu overthrew the popularly elected president and initiated thirteen years of rule by generals and the *oligarquia*.
2. In 1943, Colonel Juan Peron (1895–1974) led another coup and established a government that modeled itself on Germany's Nazi regime. As World War II turned against the Nazis, Peron and his wife Eva Duarte Peron appealed to urban workers to create a new base of support that allowed Peron to win the presidency in 1946 and to establish a populist dictatorship.
3. Peron's government sponsored rapid industrialization and spent lavishly on social welfare projects, depleting capital that Argentina had earned during the war. Peron was unable to create a stable government, and soon after his wife died in 1952, he was overthrown in a military coup.

## XL. Conclusion

### A. Politics and Economics under Imperialism

1. The peoples of sub-Saharan Africa and India remained under colonial rule after the war. Elites in these regions worked toward independence while ordinary people wanted social justice.
2. Though politically independent, Mexico, Argentina, and Brazil were economically tied to industrializing nations. Argentina and Brazil moved toward economic independence but fell victim to social unrest, militarism, and dictatorship in the process.

### B. The Problems of Independence

1. Though India finally gained independence from colonial rule, the country was torn apart by ethnic conflict.
2. The desire for independence did not always unite people against colonial rulers because of the social, ethnic, and religious divisions within their populations.