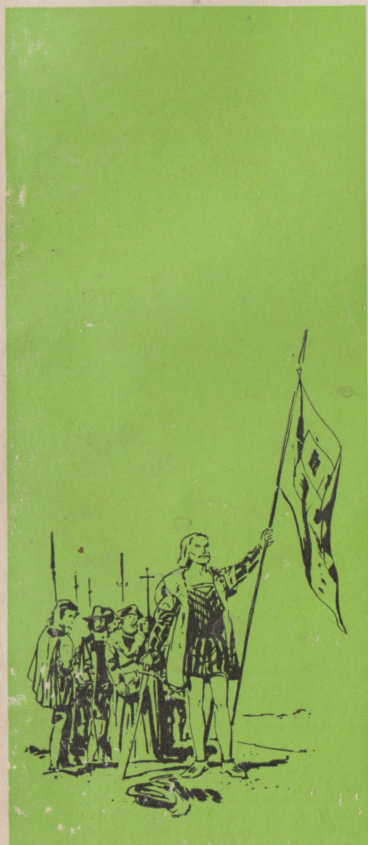




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# PICTURE HISTORY OF THE MODERN WORLD FROM THE AGE OF EXPLORATION TO THE AGE OF SPACE



BY MICHAEL RHETA MARTIN AND CHARLES CROWE  
INTRODUCTION BY PROFESSOR GEOFFREY BRUUN

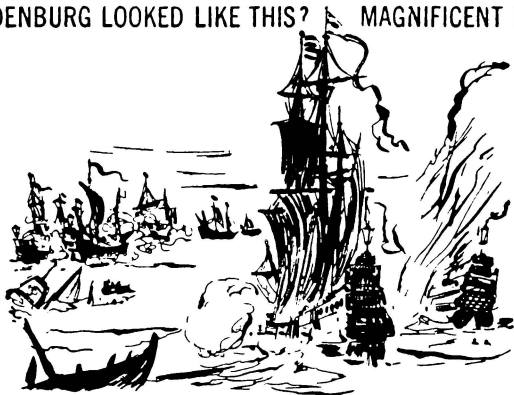
# THE NEW WAY TO TELL HISTORY IN OUR TIME— WORDS AND PICTURES!



DID YOU KNOW THAT VON  
HINDENBURG LOOKED LIKE THIS?



SULEIMAN THE  
MAGNIFICENT LIKE THIS?



AND THAT NOT ONLY THE ENGLISH BUT ALSO THE  
DUTCH FOUGHT OFF THE SPANISH ARMADA LIKE THIS?

graphic, compact, revealing — the  
**HISTORY OF THE MODERN WORLD**  
—at a glance!

A  
NOTE  
ON

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**PICTURE HISTORY OF  
THE MODERN WORLD  
FROM THE AGE OF EXPLORATION  
TO THE AGE OF SPACE ■ ■ ■ ■**

**by Michael Rheta Martin  
and  
Charles Crowe  
Illustrated by Carl Pfeuffer  
Introduction by Geoffrey Bruun**



**BANTAM BOOKS**

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**PICTURE HISTORY OF THE MODERN WORLD**

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**To**  
**JOYCE CROWE**  
**and**  
**GEOFFREY WARREN MARTIN**

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## Introduction

This history opens with the fifteenth century, the century in which Columbus reached America in his tiny caravel and Da Gama felt his way around Africa to India. Before the story closes man has visited both poles, climbed Everest, plunged to the ocean floor and orbited the Earth in a space ship. The five centuries of achievement summed up here, the period of modern history, are the centuries that brought the most astonishing progress in the long record of mankind.

When we view this period in outline it is easy to see that it was shaped by two outstanding and world-wide developments. (1) The Europeans, by conquering the oceans, and by perfecting new instruments of increasing power and precision, extended their influence over the entire globe. (2) At the same time, by changing the oceans from a barrier to a bridge, they drew Earth's scattered peoples and cultures into closer and closer contact. By the twentieth century all nations, willingly or not, had become neighbors. For the first time, the far-flung activities of mankind became fused into a single drama with the globe as its stage.

Modern history is world history, which means that all continents and races come into the picture. Yet it is difficult to see the whole picture because most standard histories present it bit by bit. There are countless volumes on the growth of individual nations, individual civilizations. But the reader who wants a short crisp summary that will suggest how the *world* picture changed in the modern period cannot readily find one. This is what the authors and the artist have sought to provide.

They do not confine themselves to the activities of the Europeans at home and abroad, although they recognize the paramount importance of those activities. In other words, they do not describe the empire of Charles V while ignoring that of Suleiman the Magnificent, nor forget what Akbar was doing in India while the English repelled the Spanish Armada. Nor do they limit their story to politics and wars. The conquests of the mind outweigh the conquests of the sword, and that does not mean only the conquests of the European mind. The Taj Mahal as well as the Escorial Palace, the plays of Shakespeare and of Chikamatsu, the "Shakespeare of Japan,"



were all equally products of man's creative mind. The progress and spread of science and technology, of machine production and medical knowledge, changed the prospects of mankind more than the march of armies. All find a place in this evolving drama.

The illustrations provided by Carl Pfeuffer enhance the text and help a reader to grasp the varieties and contrasts of a many-sided story. Glimpses of the strangeness of new lands when first seen with "the eyes of discovery," some idea of the clashes between conflicting cultures, of the expansion of European enterprise, of the impact of European methods and machines on non-European peoples—all these are touched upon in the narrative and heightened by the illustrations.

When modern history is viewed on a panoramic scale it becomes an epic that excites the imagination. The rapidity, the audacity with which mankind has advanced in the last five hundred years are breath-taking. The authors have felt this quality in their subject. Together with the artist, the map-maker, and a cooperative publishing staff, they have faced their task as an adventure, a challenge. No reader, surveying the same broad prospect, can escape a touch of the same excitement.

Ithaca, N. Y., 1961

GEOFFREY BRUUN

COLUMBUS LANDS IN THE NEW WORLD



## Age of Exploration and Discovery

Christopher Columbus was not the first European to reach America. When in 1492 he landed in the "New World" on a small island he called San Salvador (the natives called it Guanahani), it was nearly five hundred years after the Norseman, Eric the Red, had established a colony on Greenland. In about 1000 Leif Ericson, his son, reached Vinland and explored the coast of what is now New England. Thorfinn Karlsevni, Icelandic trader, explored the mainland (1010-13) and may have sailed into Hudson's Bay.

The discovery of a new "earth" was predicted by the Greek scientist and mapmaker Eratosthenes in the third century B.C. when he said, "If the extent of the Atlantic was not an obstacle, we might easily sail from Iberia to India on the same parallel . . . it is quite possible that within the same temperate zone there may be two or even more inhabited earths."

The Portuguese, under the able leadership of Prince Henry the Navigator, had reached the Azores (1427-31) and the Cape Verde Islands (1445). As these islands are but a few weeks' sailing time from the mainland of South America, it is possible that the Portuguese also reached the mainland before Columbus. An early Venetian mapmaker, Andrea Bianco, left a collection of hydrographical charts dated 1436 which show two islands west of the Azores named Antilla and De Iaman Sata-naxio. When Prince John learned that Columbus had claimed the land he had discovered on his first voyage for Spain, he protested to Pope Alexander VI. To settle the dispute the pope issued the Bull of May 4, 1493, known as the "Partition of the World," which established the Line of Demarcation granting to Spain all non-Christian lands west of a line drawn down the middle of the Atlantic Ocean from the North to the South Pole, 100° west of the Azores and Cape Verde Islands; and to Portugal, all non-Christian lands east of the line. Although the Portuguese accepted this demarcation, the following year before signing the Treaty of Tordesillas, they insisted that the line be moved 270 leagues (810 geographical miles) to the west. This change placed under their control the territory reached by Portuguese commander Pedro Alvares Cabral in 1500 and subsequently known as Brazil. (Brazil is the only



PIZARRO



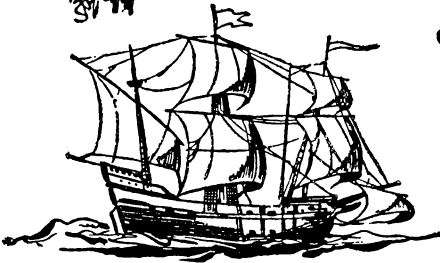
PRINCE HENRY  
THE NAVIGATOR



DE SOTO



CORTES



RISE OF CAPITALISM



VENETIAN SHIPS



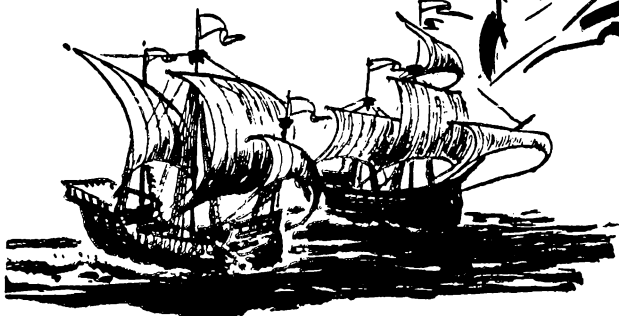
JACQUES COEUR



JACOB FUGGER



HANSEATIC SHIPS



Portuguese-speaking nation of South America today.) Whether or not Columbus was the first to reach America, it was his voyage that stimulated further exploration and it was his establishment of a colony on Hispaniola that led to the eventual colonization of the Western Hemisphere.

The "Age of Exploration and Discovery" was made possible not only by advances in science and technology, but also by the financial investments of farsighted rulers and enterprising merchants. Europe's population, wealth, knowledge, trade, and colonization had expanded rapidly. Commerce had become an important factor in economic life and, though the majority of the people still made their living farming, wealth came to be measured in terms of capital rather than in terms of agricultural production. Early in the fourteenth century the coinage of money, establishment of a credit system and the development of new business methods, including the use of double-entry bookkeeping, introduced the new capitalist concept of business enterprise that was to become important to Western civilization and to the world. The rise of commerce, based on the private resources of the individual rather than communal interdependence, hastened the end of feudal society in Western Europe.

Although the Papacy was still the largest financial institution in Europe, the expansion of a money economy saw the rise of great banking and commercial houses run by such prominent families as the Medici of Florence, Coeurs of France, and Fuggers and Welsers of Germany. The Welsers, for example, invested in the Portuguese voyage of 1505 to the East Indies and financed an expedition to Venezuela in 1527. These were the men whose vision and capital made possible the great voyages of discovery.

Eastern trade in the Mediterranean had been given added impetus by the Crusades. The Venetians, with superior sea power, created what amounted to a monopoly of trade with the Levant. Important Italian, Spanish, and French trading cities captured Mediterranean commerce and remained centers of European trade until the main lines of commerce shifted to the Atlantic.

The Hanseatic League (Teutonic Hanse) which began as an alliance of the leading trading cities of the Baltic seaboard competed with emerging national states for the northern trade.

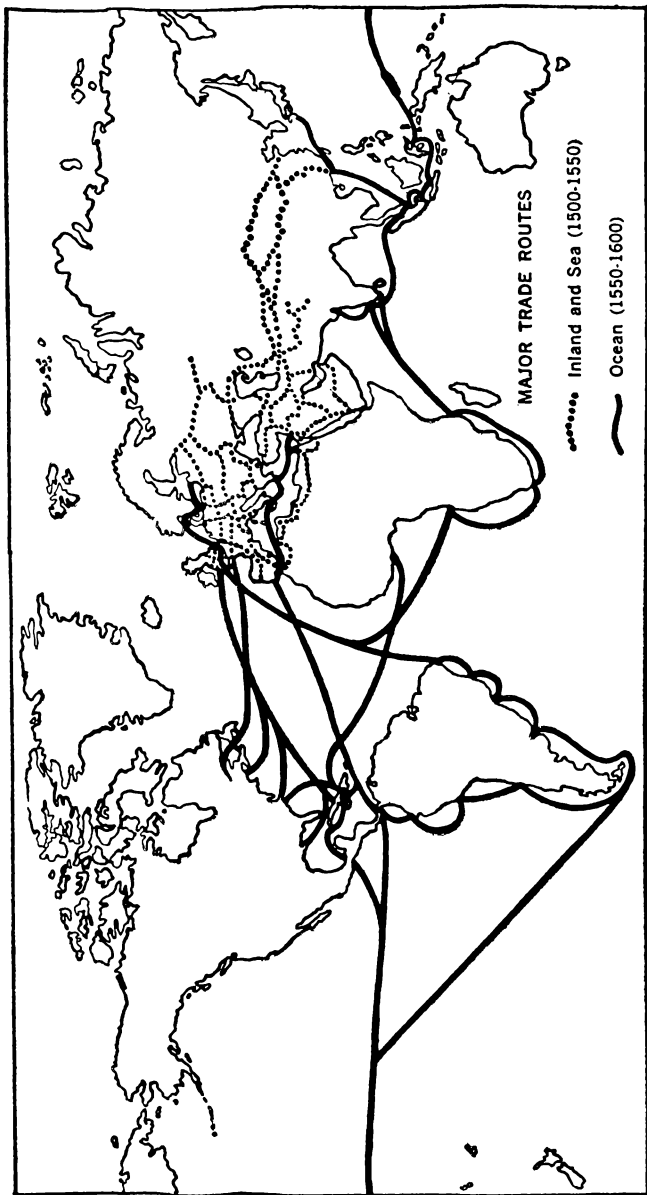
The Portuguese, under Prince Henry, realizing that the only trade routes open to the East lay along and around the coast of Africa, made the first important long voyages in that direc-

tion. Henry gathered about him at Sagres, in southern Portugal, a group of geographers, mathematicians, mapmakers, and sea captains who pooled their knowledge and charted the seas.

By the fifteenth century ships had sternpost rudders and sails that permitted them to tack against the wind. These new vessels not only were larger, but could be managed by smaller crews and carry food and water for long voyages. Italian navigators used the magnetic compass early in the thirteenth century and the first "modern" maps were included in portolani, books which described the coasts, harbors and ports of the Mediterranean. Improved instruments, better nautical almanacs and the trigonometric tables supplied by Regiomontanus (Johannes Müller), German mathematician and astronomer, and by Zacuto of Salamanca, professor of astronomy, helped navigators determine latitude by "shooting the sun" with the astrolabe when out of sight of land. Gunpowder, first introduced into Europe in 1320, protected them from attack and aided them in conquest. Martin Beheim, German traveler and mapmaker, had completed a terrestrial globe in 1492 but, though scientists and navigators (including Columbus who used the world maps prepared by Toscanelli) realized the earth was round, their idea of the distance between continents and of the size of the oceans was shown by later discoveries to be wrong. It might be well to note that the Chinese between 1405 and 1435 had sailed their fleets to the Indian Ocean, the Persian Gulf, and the east coast of Africa, using instruments that were relatively new to the West, but had been used for centuries by the Chinese. But the Chinese did not follow through on their explorations or conquests and lost out to the more enterprising Europeans.

Henry's expeditions, composed of several ships so that at least one ship might return, went down the west coast of Africa seeking a sea route to India. But they were not first. It is possible that Phoenician seamen sailed around Africa in the sixth century B.C., and we know that in about 1291 Genoese sailors made an unsuccessful attempt. The Portuguese rediscovered the Madeira Islands (1420), Cape Bojador was reached by 1435, and Cape Blanco by 1441. In 1445, Cape Verde was rounded and the coast of Guinea opened to trade.

For years Columbus had implored the rulers of Portugal and Spain to finance an expedition to prove his contention that he could reach the East by sailing west. Portugal, with a monopoly on eastern and African trade routes, was not interested. But, in Spain, time and events worked in favor of the Italian seafarer. Ferdinand of Aragon married Isabella of Castile in 1469, join-



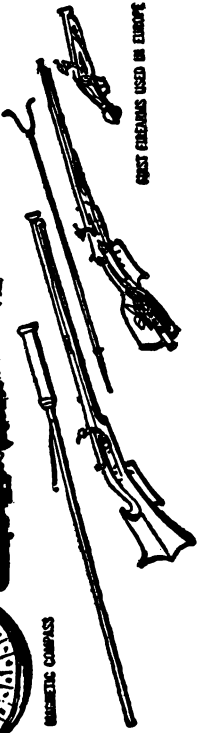


COLUMBUS APPEALS TO QUEEN ISABELLA FOR AID



ASTROLABE

MAGNETIC COMPASS



FIRST FIREARMS USED IN EUROPE

ing two powerful Spanish states, and in January of 1492 Granada, the last Moslem stronghold, was captured and the Moors, who had dominated the area since 711, were defeated. The crusading zeal that had expelled the Moors now found an outlet in overseas conquest. In an attempt to build a strong Catholic nation their pious majesties intensified the efforts of the Inquisition, and the Jews, possibly numbering two hundred thousand and including leading bankers and merchants, were expelled from Spain. The Moors, who had constituted a large segment of the industrial class and were one of the most progressive, enlightened middle-class groups in Europe, were also dispersed. This move made for greater racial and religious unity in the country but, despite the gains accruing from the confiscation of Jewish and Moorish property, the expulsion of these peoples proved a damaging blow to the industry and commerce of the country. Thus Spanish colonization became strictly royalist and Catholic in contrast to the mercantile enterprise that stimulated Dutch and English ventures.

In April, 1492, when Columbus again appealed to the Spanish throne, Queen Isabella, desirous of building a wealthier, more powerful Spain, and interested in continuing her crusade for the Church, agreed to help finance the projected expedition. With further aid from the Pinzón brothers (Martín commanded the *Pinta*, Vicente the *Nina*, while Columbus was at the helm of the flagship *Santa Maria*) the expedition set sail from Palos on the third of August with a crew of ninety men. On October 12 they landed on San Salvador or Watling's Island in the island group now known as the Bahamas. Columbus made four voyages in all. On the first voyage he discovered Cuba and Hispaniola, where he established the fort La Navidad. On his second voyage (1493) he reached Dominica (Windward Islands), Puerto Rico, and other islands of the Antilles and Jamaica. On his third voyage (1498) he found Trinidad and discovered the mouth of the Orinoco in Venezuela (later the colony of New Granada). On his fourth and last journey (1502), he reached Honduras and Panama in Central America. Much has been written of his ability as a navigator and the courage and daring he displayed in sailing west into the unknown but, though given the title "Admiral of the Ocean Sea," Columbus died in poverty and neglect, still believing he had reached India and had found a western route to the East.

Inspired by the exploits of Columbus, John Cabot (Giovanni Caboto), a wealthy Italian merchant living in Bristol,

England, persuaded Henry VII that he could find new territories for the crown. Granted a patent by the Tudor monarch, he set forth and with his son, Sebastian, in June, 1497, landed in the vicinity of Newfoundland or Cape Breton. Cabot received the munificent sum of ten pounds (about \$50.) from Henry for discovering Canada! A second voyage in 1498 carried him south, presumably to Delaware or Chesapeake Bay.

Amerigo Vespucci, Alonso de Ojeda, and Juan de la Cosa, all sailing in the interest of Spain (1499-1501), made successful voyages to the Caribbean and mainland of South America. They discovered the mouth of the Amazon, French Guiana, and Cape San Roque. In 1501, on his second voyage, Vespucci sailed along the Brazilian coast. He was certain he had found a "New World" and it was named America in his honor by the German geographer, Martin Waldseemüller, in 1507.

In 1497, Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope and, in 1498, landed in Calicut, India. He returned to Portugal, having exchanged his cargo for one worth sixty times its value, and within a year, Portugal dispatched thirteen ships to lay the foundation for the first European overseas trade and colonial empire.

Spain sent Vasco Núñez de Balboa on a fateful westward voyage in 1513. He succeeded in crossing the Isthmus of Panama and discovering the Pacific Ocean. Magellan (Fernão de Magalhães) in 1519 was sent to find a strait to the Moluccas. He reached the Brazilian coast, explored the estuary of the Rio de la Plata, and entered the South Sea. Proceeding northwest, he reached the Philippines, where he was killed by the natives. One of his vessels, the *Victoria*, under Juan Sebastián del Cano, continued westward and reached Spain in 1522 with only eighteen survivors of a large crew. This was the first circumnavigation of the globe. The Spaniards claimed and colonized the Philippines, though technically the Line of Demarcation extending round the globe would entitle Portugal to claim this area.

## ■ New World

The ancestors of the American Indians came from Asia via the Bering Strait twenty-five thousand or more years ago. It is probable that successive groups drifted to America by the same route and settled the land from Alaska to Patagonia. Many of the Indian tribes passed from a hunting to an agri-

# AGE OF EXPLORATION



VESPUCCI



MAGELLAN



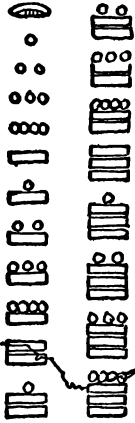
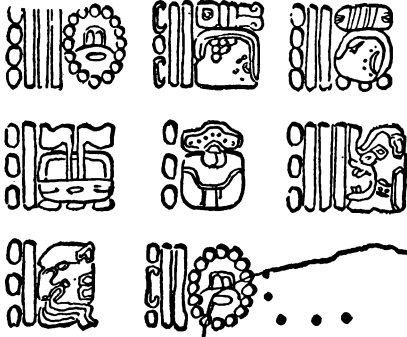
DA GAMA



BALBOA

# MAYAN CIVILIZATION

CALENDAR



NUMBERS



cultural economy, increased in numbers, and in the case of the Mayas, Aztecs, and Incas, developed remarkably original civilizations. In 1492 the estimated population of the Americas amounted to roughly fifteen million.

**The Maya**, sometimes called the "Greeks of the New World," devised their own highly accurate calendar and a system of hieroglyphic writing. They made significant advances in mathematics, including the invention of a sign for zero and the use of the principal of position in the writing of numbers. These essential elements of higher mathematics were known by the Maya centuries before the Western world applied them. The Maya had two calendars. One, the *haab*, had a 365-day year recurring in 52-year cycles. The other was the *tzolkin*, based on the sacred or ceremonial year with 260 days and 13 months of 20 days each. The Maya thus developed very accurate time computation. But Mayan civilization, seen in the magnificent stone cities like Chichén Itzá with pyramid temples decorated with expertly carved architectural sculpture in what are the jungles of Guatemala and Yucatán, had attained its height in the twelfth century and was already declining when the Europeans reached American shores.

**The Toltecs**, and subsequently the *Aztecs*, became the dominant ruling groups in the highlands of Mexico. The Aztec capital at Tenochtitlán (now Mexico City), leading center of Central America on the eve of the Spanish Conquest, had been founded in 1325. The Aztec population may have totaled five million when the European invasion began. To the south, in the Andean regions of South America, the Incas, with their capital at Cuzco, numbered approximately eight million, reaching their maximum growth under Huayna Capac (ruled 1487-1525). They did not evolve a system of picture writing nor develop their mathematics beyond the use of the *quipas*. All Indian peoples displayed artistic skill in their architecture, sculpture, and weaving and in the making of pottery and jewelry. Among their contributions to European civilization, the most valuable were the introduction of agricultural products, such as corn or maize, white and sweet potatoes, tomatoes, tobacco, cocoa, and several other crops.

## ■ European Politics

**Spain**, through exploration and conquest was on its way to becoming a world power.

**Portugal**, a nation of between one and two million people, was soon to become a leading European country with an empire extending to three continents.

**France**, having been welded by Louis XI (ruled 1461-83) into one of the strongest and best organized states in Europe, was soon involved in a long series of wars with Spain. These conflicts were caused in large measure by the invasion of Italy (1494-96) by Louis' son, Charles VIII (ruled 1483-98), who succeeded him as king. This action by Charles marked the beginning of European "power politics."

**England**, the dominant state of the British Isles, which had a total population of about five million, had become a centralized monarchical state with the rise of Henry VII (ruled 1485-1509) as the first Tudor king. Parliament had confirmed his claim to the throne upon the death at Bosworth of Richard III, last of the York kings. This occurred at the end of the devastating War of the Roses (thirty-year civil war between the houses of York and Lancaster for control of England 1455-85).

While France, Spain, Portugal, and England emerged as strong centralized territorial states, Italy and the Germanies remained a conglomeration of city-states or political fragments of one kind or another. Italy, with a population of twelve million, and the Holy Roman Empire with a population of sixteen million by 1500, should have dominated Europe, but neither had sufficient central authority to bring about a union of its independent states. Frederick III (ruled 1440-93) had laid the foundation of the Hapsburg Empire. He was the last emperor crowned by the pope at Rome (1452). His son, Maximilian I (ruled 1493-1519) assumed the title "Roman Emperor Elect." The emperor was elected by seven electors (each a virtual sovereign) of Brandenburg, Saxony, Trier, Mainz, Cologne, Rhine, and Bohemia. There was also a Diet composed of three houses, and a constant lack of harmony among the emperor, the electors, and the Diet prevented national unity. An attempt to consolidate Germany into a working whole had been made at the Diet of Worms in 1495, but this had failed just as all attempts at political unification of Germany had failed for centuries.

**Italy**. Though the center of the Renaissance, Italy was destined for the next four generations to suffer the penalty of

RICHARD III



WAR OF THE ROSES



FRANCISCO SFORZA

LORENZO DE MEDICI

CESARE BORGIA

PALACE OF THE DOGE, VENICE



political disunity by becoming the victim or battleground over which rival armies would fight for supremacy. The most civilized country of Europe, Italy was coveted by rising monarchs to the north and east. Venice had gained wealth and power through her development of a lucrative Eastern trade, her possession of bases in the Adriatic, Aegean, and Ionian seas, and her control of the neighboring mainland. The basis of political power in Venice rested with the Great Council drawn from members of the leading families. The Doge, ceremonial head of the state, was elected for life. Venetian ambassadors, the most astute of the period, left records that remain a superior source of historical information. Venetian decline and eventual defeat (1509) resulted from the opposition of a combination of powerful states in the League of Cambrai. Milan, ruled by the Visconti family for 170 years (1277-1447) was acquired (1450) by the Sforzas, each of whom assumed the title of Duke of Milan. Milan, commanding the rich valley of the Po River, was eventually annexed by Charles V of the Holy Roman Empire (1535).

The temporal or political power of the pope increased considerably during the Renaissance. The Borgia pope, Alexander VI, furthered his dynastic ambitions and those of his son Cesare, by conquering the Romagna (1500). Upon Alexander's death (1503), Cesare was too ill to take over, and Julius II (Della Rovere) became pope.

Naples, the Kingdom of Southern Italy usually united with Sicily, was ruled by a branch of the Aragonese house. The Kingdom was deeply involved in the Near East. Two French kings tried to conquer Naples between 1495 and 1502 when it was finally acquired through devious means by Ferdinand of Spain.

Florence, most civilized, progressive city of Europe, was the chief early center of the Renaissance. This was largely due to the efforts of one remarkable family, the Medici. Cosimo de Medici and his grandson, Lorenzo, were highly successful rulers of Florence because they realized the importance of making the city, as well as themselves, wealthy and politically powerful. Lorenzo de Medici, called Lorenzo the Magnificent, was a versatile genius. Not only a poet and patron of the arts, he was also a clever statesman and was able by the use of unusual diplomatic skill to keep Florence relatively peaceful during his lifetime. When he died, his heir, Piero, was unable to continue in the strong Medici tradition, and two years later the French invaded the city.

When there are neighboring cities of wealth and power there is bound to be rivalry and a resultant lack of unity. A fairly successful balance of power had existed among the five great Italian states with Milan, Florence, and Naples forming a loose alliance against Venice and the Papal States. When Lorenzo de Medici died in 1492, Naples and Milan, formerly allied, split, and Naples formed a secret alliance with Florence against Milan. Lodovico Sforza, called the "Moor" (ruled Milan, 1481-99), faced with the prospect of fighting the new alliance formed by Alfonso II of Naples and Piero de Medici of Florence, was forced to ask Charles VIII of France for aid. Eager to share in the riches of Italy, Charles readily agreed to aid Sforza, and the two invaded Florence in 1494. Florence was forced to give up Pisa and other towns. Charles advanced on Rome (1495) and Naples. Alfonso II fled to Sicily, leaving Naples to his son, Ferrante, who in turn was driven out by a revolt as Charles approached the city. A coalition against Charles was formed by the papacy, Milan, Venice, Spain, and the Holy Roman Empire, forcing him to retreat to the north. In 1499 Venice and France invaded Milan. Lodovico Sforza fled to Germany, but returned the following year with an army of German mercenaries to drive out the French. The French returned, however, in great force and captured Lodovico who died their prisoner. By the Treaty of Granada (1500) Ferdinand of Aragon agreed to support Louis XII's claim to Naples on the condition that the state be divided between France and Spain.

## ■ Contemporary World Politics

**The Jagellon empire**, adjoining the eastern border of the Holy Roman Empire, covered an area that extended from the Baltic to the Black Sea and from the Danube to the Dnieper east of the Oder River (Poland-Lithuania). The Jagellon empire lacked a strong central government, and demonstrated its weakness by waging a foolhardy war on Moldavia (1497-98). A Turkish invasion followed and by 1500 the Turks had gained control of the Balkan peninsula and were soon to conquer Hungary.

**Russia.** Northern Russia was divided into a number of principalities. The largest and most important of these was Muscovy where Ivan III, the Great (ruled 1462-1505), slowly succeeded in establishing a united nation. In 1478, he conquered and annexed the republic of Novgorod which added



IVAN THE GREAT OF RUSSIA



"GOLDEN HORDES" OF THE MONGOL EMPIRE



KUBLAI KHAN



GENGHIS KHAN

the whole of northern Russia from Lapland to the Urals to the Muscovite domain. The flat Russian plains made expansion easy.

Ivan's marriage as much as his military conquests helped him achieve power and establish Russia's eminence among nations. In 1472 he married Zoë (Sophia), niece of Constantine XI, last Byzantine emperor (ruled 1448-53), who had died fighting the Turks. The fall of Constantinople marked the end of the Byzantine empire, last remaining citadel of Orthodox Christianity in the East. Ivan adopted the double-headed imperial eagle of Byzantium as his coat of arms, and the mantle of the Roman emperor (or Caesar, hence the title Tsar) fell on his shoulders. The doctrine of the Third Rome, based on the statement by Philotheus, monk of Pskov, that "Two Romes have fallen, but the third is standing, and there shall be no fourth," gave Russia a place in the mainstream of European history and a claim to the territory and ambitions of the Byzantine Christian Church. When in 1480 Ivan refused to pay tribute to the Mongol or Tartar Grand Khan, thus breaking the "Tartar Yoke," he had welded together a mighty empire.

Ivan III had fewer problems in gaining control of his empire than the kings of the West. He succeeded in overcoming the usual resistance to a ruler presented by nobles and the Church. He had learned from the Mongols that the ruler was supreme and immediately cut the power of the nobles and established a feudal system based on serfdom. This was a new development in Russia, because serfdom as it existed in Western Europe was unknown in the Kievan period in Russia. For purposes of comparison it must be mentioned that while the peasants of Germany were beginning to rise in revolt (1525) their counterparts in Russia were firmly tied to the soil. Ivan faced no opposition from the Russian Orthodox Church, as it had inherited from the Byzantine Church the tradition that secular power ranks over spiritual guidance.

It is interesting to note at this point that the "Golden Horde" of the great Mongol Empire ruled over Russia until approximately 1480. This empire, established by a teen-age prince named Temuchin (or as he is known to history, Genghis Khan), was extended by descendants until, by 1243, they dominated the territory which today includes China, areas of the Asian mainland, and most of the area now controlled by the Soviet Union and her satellites. At the farthest push, the Mongol armies held a north-south line through Germany not too far from the present-day East-West dividing line. It is evident

that the Mongol Empire, encompassing one of the largest empires of all time, extending nearly ten million square miles (equal to  $1/6$ th of the land surface of the earth), is now under the influence or control of the Communist nations.

**The Ottoman or Osman Turks** overran the Near East, most of North Africa, and sections of Eastern Europe. Under the rule of the great Turkish sultan, Mohammed II (ruled 1451-81), Constantinople was successfully besieged (February-May, 1453), and the Venetians were defeated in the wars of 1463 to 1479. Mohammed had died when the siege of Rhodes, last Christian outpost in the eastern Mediterranean, was completed (1481). His successor, Bajazet (or Bajazid) II (ruled 1481-1512), was a weak sultan. However, the Turks, with a powerful fleet under the command of Kemal Re'is, again defeated the Venetians in a series of wars (1499-1503). Under Selim I (ruled 1512-20) Syria and Egypt were captured in 1517. But it was under Suleiman the Magnificent that the Moslems ruled both the Byzantine Empire and the Islamic Empire of the Near East and North Africa.

In **Persia** the reign of the Timurids (descendants of Timur or Tamerlane) lasted until 1500. The death of the last ruler, Rustam Shah (ruled 1492-97), was followed by dynastic conflict which ended with the founding of the new Safavid dynasty under Shah Ismail (ruled 1500-24).

**India** had been invaded by Moslems from Afghanistan and several areas had fallen under their control. However, it was the last Moslem invader, Baber (Tiger) who successfully established the Mogul (meaning Mongol, known in India as Moghal, in England as Mughal) Empire that gained control of most of Hindustan. Baber (Zahir ud-Din Mohammed) claimed descent from Tamerlane and Genghis Khan. He succeeded to the throne of Fergana (Ferghana) 1495, and after conquering Kashgar, Junduz, Kanadahar, and Kabul became the ruler of Afghanistan. In 1525, leading twelve thousand men, he invaded India. He took Delhi and with the Victory on the Gogra, 1529, completed conquest of the kingdom to the border of Bengal.

Ahmadabad, founded by Gujarat Sultan Ahmad Shah I in 1411, with nearly one million inhabitants, became one of the largest, most cultured cities of the world at that time. The famous Jain temple there, Jami Masjid, was built in the sixteenth century as the city prospered under the Moguls.

During the period of the Mogul Empire, only one Hindu kingdom was able to hold out for any length of time. This was



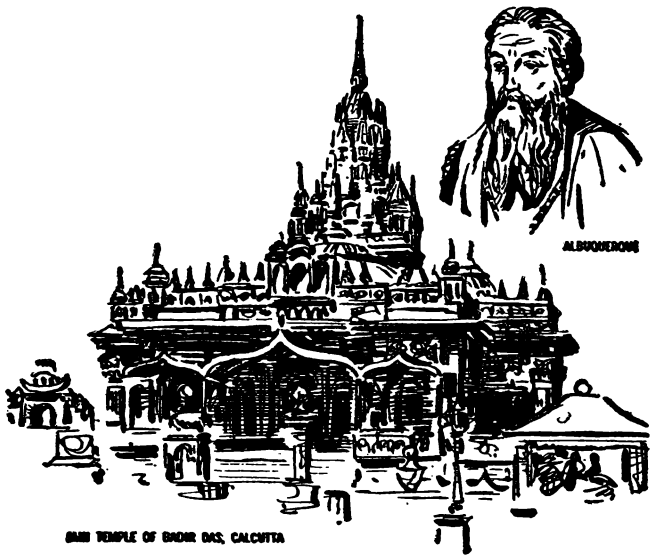
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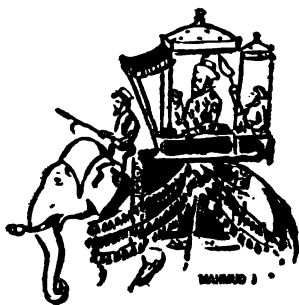
MOHAMMED

MOGHITY MOGOLISH FLEET





SHRI TEMPLE OF BADR DAS, CALCUTTA



VAISHNO J



HINDU TEMPLE, KASHMIR

Vijayanagar, south of the Kistna River, which included Mysore, Travancore, and the whole of the present Madras territory. Vijayanagar was ruled by the outstanding leader, Krishnadeva Raya, from 1509 to 1530. However, after his death, the state declined and was eventually engulfed by the Moguls.

In northwestern India, the Kingdom of Delhi was ruled by Mahmud I, called Begarha (Two Forts) from 1458 to 1511. He became famous for his magnificent mosques and palaces. A Moslem regime established in Kashmir (1346-1589) and Gujarat was successfully ruled by a Moslem-Rajput dynasty (1396-1572).

Vasco da Gama reached Calicut on the Malibar coast in 1498. In 1505, the Portuguese appointed Francisco de Almeida as the first governor of the territory in India. This was an impressive title, but actually the Portuguese never went very far inland. Their control remained coastal and was exercised for the purposes of trade rather than colonization. Almeida established forts at Calicut, Cananor, and Cochin on the Malabar coast. He succeeded in destroying the Moslem fleet in the battle of Diu, 1509, and thereby establishing Portuguese control of Indian waters. It was, however, under the able but cruel governorship of Affonso de Albuquerque (1509-15) that the Portuguese set up an eastern empire and gained control of the spice trade. Granted the title "Viceroy of the East," Albuquerque conquered Ormuz on the Persian Gulf in 1507. Three years later he established Goa in the Byapur State as the capital of possessions still under Portuguese domination, and in 1511 took control of Malacca to control the strait of that name (*see* Map). He also succeeded in establishing trade relations with China, the Moluccas and Siam.

**China** at the end of the fifteenth century was far ahead of Europe in wealth, industry, and culture. The period of the Ming (which means bright) dynasty (1368-1644) was one of great artistic creativity, but was undistinguished politically.

**Japan.** Hosokawa Masamoto drove the shogun Yoshitane (ruled 1490-94, 1508-21) out of Kyoto and established a puppet shogunate in 1494. The constant shifting of power among the *daimyo* or territorial lords gave this Ashikaga or Muromachi period (1336-1568) the name "Epoch of a Warring Country."

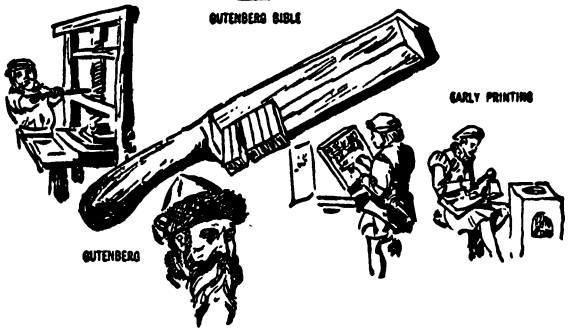
## Renaissance

In Europe the period from approximately 1450 to 1600 is referred to as the Renaissance. The word itself means rebirth and refers to a revival of interest in learning, primarily classical. Though a renewed interest was shown when, following the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, many Greek scholars fled to Italy and taught Greek at the universities, actually classical study had been revived in Europe hundreds of years earlier. The period preceding the Renaissance was known as the "Dark Ages" (medieval period) until scholars protested that one can scarcely consider a period that produced Gothic cathedrals, Giotto, Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, Chaucer, Wyclif, Buridan, and many great universities, a "Dark Age."

### ■ Development of Printing

If further evidence was needed that the Renaissance accounted for tremendous cultural progress, it would be found in the development of printing, which revolutionized the intellectual life of Renaissance man. Printing from movable type rather than hand-carved wooden blocks made possible the production of a full page of type in one impression. This great advance, along with the use of a cheaper paper introduced into Europe through Spain from the Moslem world, made possible the reproduction of manuscripts in quantity and at low cost. The collection of manuscripts had become an exclusively aristocratic enterprise (although originally the best old manuscripts belonged to artisans); now it became possible for more people to read and even to own important works. It is estimated that between eight and nine million books had been printed by 1500. Professor Preserved Smith wrote: "The importance of printing cannot be overestimated. There are few events like it in the history of the world. The whole gigantic swing to modern democracy and of the scientific spirit was released by it."

The development of printing, however, was a gradual process. Although metal type had been used for printing in Korea as early as 1403, Johann Gutenberg, best remembered for his



RENAISSANCE ART

MICHELANGELO'S DAVID



BOTTICELLI



MICHELANGELO



TITIAN



BOTTICELLI'S VENUS



RAPHAEL



ADORATION OF THE MAGI

beautiful *Vulgate Bible* (ca. 1454), better known as the *Mazarin Bible* because it was found in Mazarin's collection in the seventeenth century, is believed to have been the first European to print from movable type cast in molds. In 1455, Johann Fust, a former partner of Gutenberg, and Peter Schoeffer established the first printing company in Germany and were responsible for many technical innovations. The first dated book to be printed was the *Mayence Psalter* of 1457. When Adolph of Nassau pillaged Mainz in 1462, he drove the printers out of the city and scattered them throughout Europe. The art of printing spread, and a press established in a German monastery in the Sabine Mountains of Italy in 1465 moved to Rome in 1467. Other plants were established in Paris and Vienna in 1469 and introduced into Switzerland in 1470, Holland and Belgium in 1473, and Spain in 1474. William Caxton, an English woolen merchant, learned the printing trade in Bruges and returned to England to set up his famous press in 1477. Caxton published many books including Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* and *The Golden Legend of the Saints*. Aldus Manutius founded the Aldine Press in Venice in about 1490 and published translations from the great Latin and Greek classics.

Rather than a "rebirth," the Renaissance might more accurately be referred to as a change from an authoritarian, religious domination of thought and action to a secular, humanistic attitude and a reassertion, not so much of classical scholarship as of individualism. This individualism was made possible by economic and political activity which developed the resourcefulness and individualism of wealthy merchants and bankers who became the great patrons of the arts, primarily in the Italian city-states. Italy, with the wealthiest, most urban population of the time in Europe, became the center of the Renaissance.

The Medici family of Florence were outstanding leaders and patrons. Cosimo established the San Marco and Medici libraries to hold his fine manuscript collections. He sponsored the translations of Plato by Marsilio Ficino and founded the Platonic Academy. His grandson, Lorenzo, was not only a clever politician and diplomat but a distinguished writer of verse in the vernacular. Lorenzo attracted to his court and commissioned the great artists of the period, including Botticelli, Brunelleschi, Donatello, and Ghiberti; the writers, Ficino, Machiavelli, and Pulci; and the musician Antoni Squarcialupi. Under his guidance (1453-92) the *Sacra Rappresentazione* was performed in celebration of St. John, patron saint of Florence. Lorenzo

and the poet, Politian- (Poliziano) spent many months preparing these spectacles which included a mixture of Greek legend, biblical pageantry, and masque-like musical interludes. Famous artists designed the sets and outstanding actors and musicians performed. These presentations were the early beginnings of modern opera.

One of the greatest creative geniuses of all time, Leonardo da Vinci, painter, sculptor, architect, engineer, musician, and scientist, is probably the best example of the exceptional "Renaissance man." While working for Lodovico Sforza in Milan (1482-99), he painted the "Virgin or Madonna of the Rocks" and "The Last Supper," both works of great emotional religious impact. He also painted the famed "Mona Lisa" and produced many sketches which showed his intense preoccupation with science, nature, and secular subjects. Knowing the possible consequences of the Church's attitude toward his scientific discoveries, particularly his concept that the earth was a star like other stars, he wrote over seven thousand pages of notes in purposely illegible mirror script in order to conceal his findings. Only a few of his contemporaries were aware of the extent of his scientific experimentation and knowledge and of his conviction that "there is no certainty where you cannot apply one of the mathematical sciences." He filled his notebooks, which were not transcribed until the nineteenth century, with studies in mechanics, ballistics, hydraulics, optics, and his mathematical, anatomical and botanical observations. He designed flying machines, including a practical helicopter. Leonardo exemplifies the contention that "the great originality of the Renaissance lay in its mathematics rather than its humanism."

## ■ Italian Art

Leonardo was only one of an incredible number of great artists of the Italian Renaissance. Michelangelo Buonarroti was another Florentine genius whose magnificent sculpture and paintings inspired and had a profound influence on the artists of later periods. His most famous works include the extraordinary paintings on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, the famous statues of "David" and "Moses" and the figures at the tomb of Pope Julius II. Venice, best represented by the landscape paintings of Giorgione, and the art of Jacopo Sansovino, soon rivaled Florence and Rome as a center of artistic

THE WORLD OF LEONARDO DA VINCI







activity. The great Titian, Raphael, Il Perugino, Correggio, Cellini, Piero della Francesca the Umbrian, and Mantegna the Paduan were other important contemporary Italian artists.

### ■ Contemporary World Art

The Renaissance traveled north to Germany with the work of Albrecht Dürer. Although Dürer had worked and studied in Italy his art, particularly his woodcuts, was individual and predominantly Germanic. Mathias Grünewald, last great representative of German Gothic, and Dürer were exceptionally fine graphic artists. Hans Holbein, the Elder, famous for his silverpoint portraits, produced altarpieces and stained glass windows of great beauty. Hans Holbein, the Younger, became court painter to Henry VIII and gained fame for his portraits of the king, Erasmus, and Sir Thomas More. The founder of the fifteenth century French school of painting was Jean Fouquet, while the French town of Limoges gained renown for the delicate, colorful painted enamels produced there. The Persian artist Bihzad created lavish illustrations for Nizami's *Khamsa*. In Japan, the outstanding artists were Kano Masanobu and Kano Motonobu who established a new school of painting. The Tamil artists of southern India worked in metal, designing dancing Sivas and royal figures of exceptional quality.

### ■ Literature and Philosophy

The scholasticism of the Middle Ages gave way to humanism. Humanism, an attitude of mind and spirit, placed emphasis on individual worth and secular independence of thought. Stress on individualism, intellectual curiosity, and self-expression was the great contribution of the humanists. Use of the vernacular as a means of literary expression, introduced into Italian literature by Dante and supported by Lorenzo de Medici, gave added impetus to secular interests. The humanist scholars were primarily concerned with the translations and interpretations of the classics and did not develop an original philosophy. Pietro Pomponazzi was one of the first to question the dogma of scholasticism and in *De immortalitate animae*, written in 1516, attacked Thomas Aquinas' interpretation of Aristotle. Conte Baldassare Castiglione wrote an influential treatise on social problems, and in describing intellectual accomplishments and social graces in *The Courtier* (1518), provided an excellent picture of Italian court life. But by far the most important writer of the Italian

Renaissance was Niccoló Machiavelli. His political philosophy perfectly expressed the "temper of the times." He boldly asserted his belief that "the end justifies the means," a contention familiar to most moderns living under dictatorships. In view of the times in which he lived, it was remarkable that Machiavelli was permitted to state his views. Both the *Discourses* and *The Prince* should be read in order to do justice to Machiavelli, because he not only showed the workings of power politics and the plans of a successful ruling prince, as exemplified by Cesare Borgia, but also expressed a sincere interest in the unification of Italy. For the failure of this dream of unity, he placed the blame largely on the Church.

### ■ Contemporary World Literature

As the Renaissance moved to the north it lost some of its brilliance, but became more substantial in widening the spread of knowledge. The central figure of the "Northern Renaissance" was Desiderius Erasmus (original name Gerhard Gersards) Dutch humanist and scholar. His works became the first modern "best-sellers" with the publication in 1508 of his *Adages* by the Aldine Press in Venice. Publishers bid for his work but *Praise of Folly*, his most famous book, although written by Erasmus in 1511, was not published until 1532. *Praise of Folly*, anti-ecclesiastical in its attack on the monastic orders, was a Christian satire on the injustices and inconsistencies of man. Erasmus, in what he called the "philosophy of Christ," was anxious to reform the Church from within and opposed the fanaticism of Luther and the Reformation. He was rejected by both camps, by the Protestants and by the Church. As a liberal, he was much like those liberals of our own time in various parts of the world, who remain apart and are often rejected if they are unwilling to make a choice between rival orthodoxies.

Erasmus was a friend of Sir Thomas More, the great lord chancellor of England and author of the famed *Utopia* (1516) which, though it presented the classical concept of the ideal state or society, contained many startling ideas, including, the liberal argument against the death penalty for theft, and the recognition of the liberation of other peoples from tyranny and the seizure of uncultivated land for the purpose of making it more productive, as a "just cause" of war.

The leading figure of the German Renaissance, Ulrich von Hutten, exerted great influence in support of the Reformation.

In France, Guillaume Budé founded the College de France,



MORE

ERASMUS



RABELAIS

which fostered the study of Greek, the library of Fontainebleau, and established the discipline of philology. François Rabelais, France's first great modern writer, contributed one of the world's masterpieces of ribald satire with his *Gargantua and Pantagruel* (published in five volumes, 1532-62). In this allegorical comedy, based on the thesis that "man is essentially good," which urged the reader to "Do Thou What Thou Wilt," Rabelais expressed the revolutionary spirit of "freedom of will" and a faith in the human capacity to achieve a good life that best characterized the Renaissance. Rabelais was a master of technique and of language and his use of a variety of styles in a single work greatly influenced modern writers.

Throughout the Moslem world, the many pamphlets on literature and science written by Jalal-al-Din al-Suyuti were read by all literate persons. The most distinguished philosopher and essayist of the period in Asia was the Buddhist Wang Yang-ming (Wang Shou- jen). Highly esteemed in both China and Japan, Wang's philosophy, based on intuitive knowledge (in Chinese, *liang chih*) emphasized the importance of conscience (the inner self) as the source of all information.

## ■ Poetry

The last great classic poet of Persia was the mystic Jami whose lyric and romantic verse expressed his profound interest in Sufi philosophy. The leading Ottoman Turkish poet, Hamd-Allah Celebi Hamdi, is best remembered for his romantic *mathnawis* (couplets).

Kabir, the greatest lyric poet of fifteenth century India, was also an outstanding religious leader who tried to unite Hinduism and Islam. Sur Das, the blind poet of Agra, wrote seventy-five thousand verses on the life and adventures of Krishna.

In Italy, Ludovico Ariosto carried on the poetic tradition established by Dante and Petrarch with his epic poem, *Orlando Furioso*, based on the story (or legend) of Roland. Clement Marot was the first to use the sonnet form in France, while in Spain, Garcilasco de la Vega and Juan Boscán Almogáver adapted Italian verse forms to Spanish poetry and wrote sonnets, odes, and elegies. The first English sonnets and love poetry were written by Sir Thomas Wyatt, while Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, was the first to introduce blank verse (unrhymed iambic pentameter) when he translated the second and fourth books of Vergil's *Aeneid* in this form.

## ■ Music

The printing of music developed at the end of the fifteenth century. In 1476, in Rome Ulrich Han (Hahn) printed the first complete missal using a double-printing system. Han used red for the lines (staves) in printing the first impression and black for the notes in the second impression. At Bologna, in 1487, Ugo de Rugeriis, using wooden blocks, printed the earliest known complete part-composition. Ottaviano dei Petrucci, for many years regarded as the actual inventor of the art of printing from movable type, received his letters patent in Italy in 1498 and printed the first complete volume of part-music. He published the *Harmonice musices Odhecaton* which contained ninety-six compositions of the leading French-Flemish composers. In 1495, the first music was printed in England at Westminster.

Josquin des Prés, the most important composer of the sixteenth century, succeeded in blending the expertly balanced contrapuntal style of the Flemish school with the expressive lyricism of the Italians. His independent spirit and his constant refusal to write to order without concern for the quality of his work, bore a striking resemblance to the attitude expressed by his contemporary, the great Italian artist, Michelangelo.

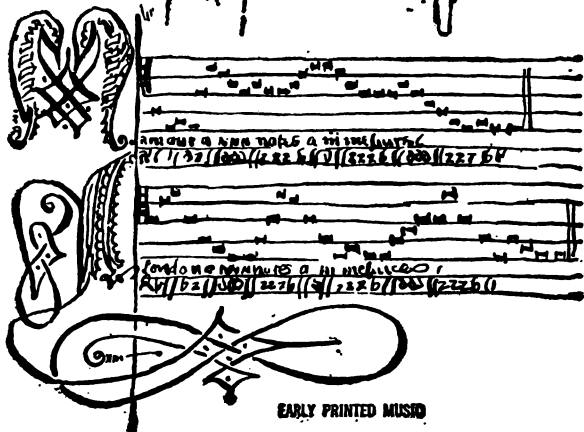
The brilliant freedom of expression and love of color that characterized the great Venetian art of the period was reflected in the compositions of Adrian Willaert, founder of the Venetian school of music. Best known for his fine madrigals, Willaert, who held the highest musical position in Venice as choir-master at St. Mark's, gained additional fame as the prolific composer of masses and motets.

Clement Jannequin of France wrote *chansons* in three or four part form. These *chansons*, known as "tone poems," foreshadowed the program music of a much later period.

Protestant hymns were written in Germany by Johann Walther and Martin Luther. Walther, who helped Luther frame the German mass in 1524, wrote the first Protestant song book.

The Spanish composer, Cristobal Morales, upheld the tradition of Palestrina and Victoria with his exceptionally fine religious compositions.

STROLLING PLAYERS







NŌ THEATER OF JAPAN



## ■ Theater

The most important dramatic productions of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries were those of the Nō theater of Japan. The Japanese Nō or Sarugaku no Nō lyrical dance melodrama was developed by the addition of spoken dialogue to the dance and music of the Kagura. At first the Nō were purely religious performances intended to please the chief deities of the Shintō religion and were acted exclusively at Shintō shrines. Later they were written especially for the nobility and were much too sophisticated and difficult for any but the highly educated to understand. At the end of the fourteenth century, Kwannami Kiyotsugu, manager of the Nō theaters at Nara, was taken into the service of the ruling shōgun. Many of the Nō dramas written by Kwannami and Zeami Motokiyo, leading Nō dramatist of the fifteenth century, are still performed in Japan. The libretti for these plays usually were written by Buddhist monks, as almost all literary men of the period belonged to this group, but the music and pantomimic dances were created by Kwannami and Zeami.

In 1492, in Spain, the first nativity or religious pastoral was written by Juan de Encina. Lope de Rueda created the National Theater of Spain with the development of the dramatic genre known as *pasos*. Using the language and lives of the peasant or country people as the control theme, his plays had an earthy, rich quality. Gil Vicente of Portugal, considered by many the most important figure of the Iberian Renaissance, influenced later Spanish and Portuguese theater.

The first true modern comedy, *The Casket*, was written by Ludovico Ariosto of Italy in 1508. His satires, renowned for excellent characterization and an understanding of contemporary society, provided the plots for several works by Shakespeare and others.

# The Reformation

The sixteenth century is usually referred to as the period of the Protestant Reformation (by Protestants) or the Protestant Revolt or Revolution (by Catholics). However, by whatever name, the Reformation was not purely a religious movement. As in other great historical movements there were many factors involved and the religious changes, though of tremendous importance, were but a means toward attaining political and economic ends.

James Harvey Robinson in the *Encyclopedia Britannica* (11th edition) suggested that the Reformation was essentially a stage in the transition from the medieval, international ecclesiastical state of the Catholic Church to the modern national state.

The Roman Catholic Church had acquired strength during the ninth and tenth centuries and reached the height of its power under Innocent III (pope, 1198-1216). The early thirteenth century saw the founding of the famed monastic orders of the Cistercians, Franciscans, and Dominicans. St. Francis of Assisi founded the Franciscan Order and urged poverty, charity, and a personal communion with God upon his followers. St. Dominic de Guzman founded the Dominican Order which was entrusted with control of education and the conduct of the Inquisition (1233). The Inquisition revealed a growing opposition to the Church represented by the Waldensians, Albigensians, Fraticelli, Wyclif and the Lollards, and the followers of John Hus.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the rise of national monarchies, growth of an increasingly influential merchant class, and emphasis on individualism and independence of thought stimulated by the humanists, added to the objections to the moral decline seen in the papacy during the Italian Renaissance, and led to a growing dissatisfaction with the Church.

Economically the Church enjoyed tremendous advantages and had accumulated great wealth. It not only owned vast areas of land, but held market rights and collected tithes and tolls. These taxes imposed an added burden upon the common people of Western Europe. The ambitious nobles and monarchs



THE CRUSADES

THE CHURCH AT THE HEIGHT OF POWER



WYCLIF

resented not only the divided allegiance of their subjects, but the loss of the handsome revenue which was finding its way into the coffers of the Church and to which they were forced to contribute a large share. The German princes, for example, had fought the political and economic power of the pope and the Holy Roman Emperor for many years. Germany, therefore, presented an ideal "climate" for the religious revolt set off by Martin Luther in 1517.

**Luther.** Martin Luther, Augustinian monk and professor of theology at the University of Wittenberg, Saxony, nailed his *Ninety-five Theses* to the door of the court church at Wittenberg on October 31, 1517. This was Luther's way of protesting against the abuses in the sale of indulgences (purchase of absolution from sin that would excuse the buyer from part of his scheduled punishment in after life) by the Dominican monk Johann Tetzel. Just as Chaucer's Pardoner sold forgiveness for sins, so Tetzel made it possible—for the right amount of money, of course—to buy absolution.

At first, because the *Theses* was written in Latin, not too many people were concerned and Pope Leo X disregarded Luther's action. However, when sometime later the *Theses* was translated into German and printed and distributed in large quantities in several countries, they caused a sensation. Many people took up Luther's protests against the commercialism of the Church. This time Pope Leo could not ignore Luther, nor the currents of protest being generated in Germany, and in the summer of 1519 sent the eminent theologian, Johann Eck, to Leipzig to debate points of disagreement with Luther. Eck, much better informed and a brilliant orator, not only was able to put Luther into a position of conceding errors but forced him to admit that his views agreed with those of John Hus, an earlier reformer of Prague who had been burned at the stake for heresy. However, Eck was unable to change Luther's strongly held opinions and the pope excommunicated Luther for refusing to renounce or recant his views.

In 1520, Luther issued three powerful pamphlets of denunciation of the Church on both political and theological issues. Many German princes, seeing in Lutheranism an opportunity to increase their own power and a chance to seize the rich Church lands, gave Luther their wholehearted support. Emperor Charles V (Holy Roman Emperor) summoned Luther to appear before the Diet of Worms in 1521, where he was given an opportunity to recant his opposition to the papacy, monasticism, and his rejection of some of the sacraments of the

Church, but again he refused. Luther was hidden away by friends and during the period of his confinement translated the *Bible* into German. His use of the vernacular (instead of Latin) gave the Germans a common language and helped in the spread not only of Lutheranism but nationalism.

Luther contended that salvation could be gained by faith alone, making priests an unnecessary intermediary between the individual and God. He was, however, not a liberal, but a conservative thinker and, though he took away the authority of the priest by granting to each Christian the right to deal directly with God, he denied him any claims upon God that could be earned by his own good works. He condemned rational beliefs and became increasingly dogmatic in his authoritarian views.

Luther gave his support to the absolute authority of princes as ordained by God, and was horrified at the Peasant Revolt in Swabia and Franconia (1524-25) which his ideas had helped to generate. He was convinced that serfdom was the necessary foundation of society and obedience to secular authority essential. This, needless to say, pleased the princes, if not the peasants, who were confused. The religious changes effected by the Reformation did not bring political and social changes. These came later.

By the Diet of Speyer (1529) Lutheranism was condemned as heresy. A legal protest made by the Lutheran princes created the name "Protestant" for the group. The *Confession of Augsburg* (1530) was written to establish the Lutheran Creed. The Peace of Augsburg (1555) granted Protestant princes the right to keep Church property acquired before 1522 and to decide the religion of their subjects, although Lutheranism was the only form of Protestantism permitted in Germany. Following the lead of Northern Germany, Frederick I of Denmark and Norway (reigned 1523-33) and Gustavus Vasa of Sweden (ruled 1523-60) established Lutheranism in the Scandinavian countries.

**Melanchthon.** The author of the first important Protestant treatise on dogmatic theology, *Loci Communes* (1521), was Melanchthon (Philipp Schwarzert), the most articulate, powerful spirit behind Lutheranism. Melanchthon, German scholar, reformer, and collaborator with Luther, drafted the Augsburg Confession, and sought, but failed to attain, Christian unity by effecting a reconciliation between the various Protestant groups and Protestantism with Catholicism.

**Zwingli.** Luther's break with Catholicism was not an isolated incident. Huldreich Zwingli established a new church in



LUTHER NAILING THE THESES TO THE DOOR OF WITTENBERG CHURCH



**PROTESTANT REFORMATION**



**CALVIN**



**ZWINGLI**

Zurich, Switzerland. Combining the humanistic ideas of Erasmus with the protests against the Church propounded by Luther, Zwingli stopped celebrating the mass and substituted a simple communion service. Luther opposed the humanism of Zwingli and disagreed with him on his interpretation of the Eucharist.

**Calvin.** An outstanding Protestant leader, often referred to as the "Protestant Pope" because of his tremendous religious and political power, John Calvin was a Frenchman who settled in Geneva. Succeeding Zwingli (who had been killed in battle in 1531), he gained control of the Protestant movement in Switzerland. Calvin created a theocracy by organizing the social and political structure of the city on the basis of his theological ideas. The government of Geneva was placed in the hands of the clergy who were formed into a Supreme Council or Congregation. This group of pastors and elders was extremely strict and far more severe in its punishments than the Church of Rome.

Calvin wrote *The Institutes of the Christian Religion* (1536) which gained a similar position among Protestants that the *Summa* of Thomas Aquinas has among Catholics. Unable to agree with Luther on the subject of predestination, Calvin failed to unite the Protestants.

Calvinism gained in popularity with the citizens of the independent towns. By placing emphasis on industry, honesty, and frugality, Calvin appealed to employers and, though not in so many words, condoned the "profit-seeking motive" in man which favored the merchant and industrial class of society.

Calvin established schools and increased the literacy of the people. However, he taught them only the word of God as he interpreted it, he did not encourage, rather he condemned and punished, independence of thought. The Calvinist congregations believed they were the chosen people of God and, to prove it, persecuted the people who disagreed with them. For example, they burned Michael Servetus at the stake (1553) for questioning the doctrine of the Trinity.

Calvin disagreed with Luther on another important point. He refused to recognize the subordination of state to church. It is true that he wished to Christianize the state in accordance with his own plans, but his basic emphasis on free political will and the responsibility of citizens as individuals laid the foundation for civil liberty and self-government which led eventually to a democratic separation of power and to democracy in government.

Calvinism spread rapidly and was adopted in France (Huguenots). John Knox introduced Calvinism into Scotland (Presbyterianism) while in Poland, Calvinism gained popularity along with the beliefs of the Anabaptists and the Unitarians or Socinians who denied the Trinity.

## ■ Anglicanism in England

The Protestant movement in England was primarily political in nature. As Hugh Trevor-Roper commented: "The English Protestant revolution was still a revolution, even if, unlike later revolutions, it did not devour its own children." Henry VIII had broken with the Roman Church before adopting the ideas of Protestantism. In 1534, he issued the Act of Supremacy declaring that the English king was the "Protector and Only Supreme Head of the Church and Clergy of England." The Anglican Church, like the Lutheran churches in the Germanies and the Scandinavian countries, became a state church where the ruling prince or sovereign replaced the pope as head of the church and where religious policies were subordinated to political considerations.

Henry closed the monasteries of England, seized the lands owned by the Catholic Church, and granted these lands to an aristocracy which remained firm Tudor supporters. Although he suppressed Catholic rebellion (1536), he issued the *Six Articles of Faith* (1539) which was Catholic in all doctrine except the reliance upon the papacy. Though Henry was greatly influenced by his desire to divorce Catherine of Aragon and marry Anne Boleyn in order to insure a male heir to the throne, this was not his only reason for embracing Protestantism. He wanted even more to assume the temporal power of the pope and gain economically as well as politically from the change. Upon Henry's death in 1547, Protestantism came to the fore under Edward VI. Miles Coverdale was the first to translate the whole *Bible* into English. He wrote the *Great Bible* (1539) which was published as *Cranmer's Bible* (1540). *The Book of Common Prayer* was issued by Thomas Cranmer in 1549.

Upon Edward's death in 1553, Mary, daughter of Catherine of Aragon, and a devout Catholic, attempted to re-Catholicize England. She earned the name "Bloody Mary" when, during her reign (1553-58), hundreds of people were burned at the stake as heretics. Her marriage to Philip II of Spain did not add to her popularity, for not only was Philip a militant Catholic, but a hated political rival.

HENRY VIII OF ENGLAND



CATHERINE PARR



ANNE BOLEYN

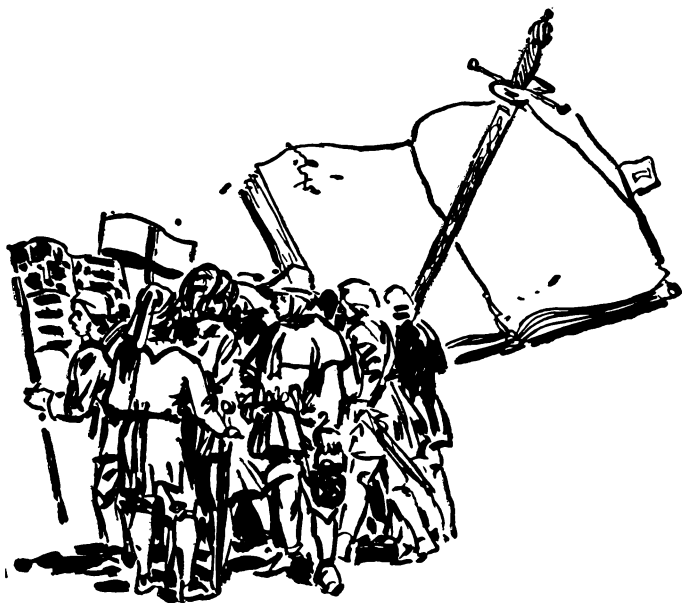


EDWARD VI OF ENGLAND

The Church of England became the permanent Protestant state church under Elizabeth I (1558-1603).

### ■ Minor Sects

A major point of departure was established by the Protestant leaders when they granted each individual the right to interpret the *Bible* for himself or, as Preserved Smith said, "each man became his own doctor of divinity." The natural consequence of such freedom of thought was innumerable and diverse interpretations of the *Bible* and the growth of many smaller groups or sects.



## Catholic Reformation or Counter Reformation

Many Catholics had been disturbed by the corruption and inconsistencies within the Church long before Luther attacked the papacy in 1517. The conciliar movement of the fifteenth century, defeated by the popes, was evidence of this attempt at reform.

The Fifth Lateran Council at Rome (1512) was called by Pope Julius II to institute reforms. It was, however, attended only by Italian prelates and very little was accomplished. An attempt made by Julius at "purification," resulted in the rejection of "pagan art" and the painting over of some of Michelangelo's work. The artist commented, "It is easier to reform a painting than the world."

Following the Lutheran upheaval more drastic action was called for and Pope Paul III (1534-49) ended the practice of nepotism (bestowing offices and special favors on relatives) which had been a sore point and a constant source of criticism.

The most important work of the Catholic Reformation, that of setting the papal house in order and strengthening the spiritual quality of the Church, took place at the reform Council of Trent (1545-63) where the destiny of modern Catholicism was definitely shaped. Many abuses, including the sale of church offices, issuance of indulgences for money, and the worldly pursuits of the bishops, were abolished. Doctrinal disputes were settled, a new catechism issued, and an Index, listing the dangerous and heretical books which Catholics were forbidden to read, was prepared. (A censorship of printed matter had been introduced in 1543.) The Inquisition was re-established to punish heretics, a militant missionary order (Jesuits) organized, and a new crusade against the Moslems advocated to distract attention from internal affairs.

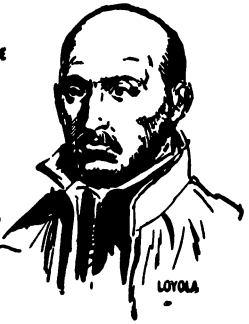
**Loyola.** The most powerful missionary organization the Church ever produced was the Society of Jesus, or Jesuits, as they are more popularly known, founded by the Spanish nobleman, Don Iñigo Lopez de Recalde de Loyola (St. Ignatius Loyola). The Society was founded for the purpose of employing itself "in defense of the holy Catholic faith," and was primarily concerned with the founding of foreign missions, the development of leaders through education and an imitation of



SECTION OF CEILING OF SISTINE CHAPEL (MICHELANGELO)



CATHERINE DE MEDICI OF FRANCE



ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY



HENRY IV OF FRANCE

the life of Christ. Loyola, through his remarkable leadership, and the work of his followers and co-organizers—Xavier, Francisco Suarez, Luis Molina, Diego Lainez and, most important of all, St. Francis Borgia—developed the Jesuits into one of the most influential and successful Catholic organizations with far-reaching influence.

The sternly disciplined and carefully trained Jesuits differed from other Catholic orders. They did not dwell in monasteries nor did they wear special garb, but lived and worked directly with the people. It was their objective to convert or reconvert people to the Catholic faith. The Jesuits succeeded in returning Poland and Bohemia to the fold and in establishing missions in Asia and America (first missions in South America, 1549). The Catholic countries of Italy, Spain, Portugal, Austria, and Ireland remained faithful to Catholicism, and though Protestantism gained popularity in France, it never became the dominant religion.

**France.** Gaspard de Coligny was the Huguenot (Protestant) leader. Adviser to Henry of Navarre (later Henry IV), he was hated by Catherine de Medici and became the first victim of the treacherous massacre of the Huguenots on St. Bartholomew's Eve, 1572. By the Edict of Nantes (1598) the Protestants of France gained political, but not complete religious freedom.

## ■ Wars of Religion (religious differences)

The animosity which existed between the two Christian religions was expressed in many harsh, sarcastic, bitter polemics. The best Catholic apologist was Cardinal Bellarmine who wrote learned, unemotional works in defense of his position. An admirer of Galileo, he had nothing to do with his condemnation, though he was a prominent figure in the "so-called" Counter Reformation. The best Protestant polemic was the *Catholic Confession* (1634-37) written by Johann Gerhard. The bitter war of words was followed by terrible wars of weapons. From the Schmalkaldic War in Germany (1546) to the end of the Thirty Years' War (1648) countless lives were lost and countries devastated in the name of religion. Europe was a "sea of blood" as a result of both international and civil wars fought over religious differences, but with heavy political and economic undertones.

## ■ Contemporary World Religion

**India.** Nanak, a member of the Khatri caste, founded the Sikh religion and became its first *Guru* (Hindustani meaning teacher) or leader. He revolted against the tyranny of the priesthood and a religion overladen with ceremonial and social restriction. Nanak taught the doctrine of one God and emphasized that his God was not Allah or Rama, nor any special God of any special faith, but a universal God who protected and was concerned with all religions, all mankind. He rejected the idols and reincarnation of the Hindus and, on the basis of his belief in the equality of all men of the world, opposed the caste system of India. Sikhism was Nanak's attempt to unite Hinduism and Islam. In 1539, he was succeeded by Angad who committed Nanak's ideas to writing and added his own concepts in the religious work known as the *Granth* (or Sikh Bible). The *Guru*, Ram Das, founded the Golden Temple of Amritsar (1571), the center of Sikh religious worship.

**Japan.** St. Francis Xavier, famed Jesuit missionary, landed at Kagoshima on August 15, 1549. The Japanese, thinking his mission primarily economic, received him with courtesy. Buddhism, being an eclectic rather than an exclusive religion, had always been a tolerant faith. When Xavier started to preach Christianity and displayed all the intolerance and bigotry of his time, the Buddhist priests were shocked. Xavier's militant propaganda alienated the Buddhists and resulted in the issuance of an edict making it a capital offense for the vassals of that area to embrace Christianity. Through bitter experience Xavier learned he would have to change his tactics, and as he moved to other cities he worked with the directors of trade who were primarily concerned with overseas commerce and earned the co-operation of the feudal chiefs. After winning many converts and establishing a basis for further missionary work in Japan, Xavier returned to Goa, India, where he spent most of his life.

It is estimated that three hundred thousand converts had been won by the Jesuits before they were expelled from Japan in 1597.

**Islam.** 'Abd-al-Wahhab al-Sha'rani, last great mystic of Islam, wrote the *Tabaqat al-Kubra* (*Comprehensive Record of Classes*), the leading biographical work on the Sufis. Sufism developed in the eighth century as a mystic sect of Islam and, through its use of an elaborate symbolism, became popular with the poets of Persia.



GURU RAM DAS, SIKH LEADER



ST. FRANCIS XAVIER, MISSIONARY TO JAPAN



MARY OF BURGUNDY



FRANCIS I OF FRANCE



CHARLES V, HOLY ROMAN EMPEROR



FERDINAND I, HAPSBURG RULER

PHILIP II OF SPAIN



## ■ European Politics

In 1500, Charles of Hapsburg was born. The son of Philip (son of Maximilian, Holy Roman Emperor) and Joanna (daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella) of Spain, he inherited both the Spanish and Austrian empires including Spain's overseas possessions and the Netherlands, and in addition gained half of Italy (Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, and Milan) and Burgundy through his paternal grandmother, Mary of Burgundy. Charles was elected emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in 1519. Both Francis I of France and Henry VIII of England had conspired to gain this title, but Charles, able to borrow sufficient gold from the Fuggers of Augsburg, succeeded in winning the election. The rise of capitalism and the resultant influence of the leading capitalist upon the throne remained a decisive factor in power politics.

Charles attempted to control his vast empire, the largest in Europe since ancient times, but was faced with problems too difficult to overcome. The Moors in Africa and the Moors and Turks in the Mediterranean were a constant threat, and Charles was forced into repeated battles against the French. The rise of Protestantism in Germany and elsewhere, coupled with the opposition of the nobility of his own countries, forced him to resign in 1556.

Having failed to unify his large empire (a task no European ruler ever succeeded in accomplishing), Charles bequeathed Spain, the Spanish overseas possessions, Sicily, Naples, and Milan in Italy, the Netherlands and Franche-Comté to his son Philip. To his brother Ferdinand, Charles gave the Hapsburg domains in central Europe and the crown of Bohemia and Hungary. Though this split the Hapsburg dynasty in half, the branches of the family remained loyal to each other and Spain and Austria remained allies for the next fifty years.

As Charles dominated Europe during the first half of the sixteenth century, Philip became the central figure throughout the second half of the century. His army was the finest in Europe and, for a century, almost invincible. However, Philip failed. This was largely due to his lack of foresight, his stubborn fanaticism, and his inability to realize that he was squandering his country's resources as well as his manpower.

**Revolt of the Netherlands against Spain.** The Netherlanders, with a population about one-third that of Spain, hated Philip. They not only resented his religious fanaticism and his attempt to extend the Inquisition into the Low Countries, but they

were violently opposed to having his soldiers and officials stationed in their country and they protested against the heavy taxation imposed upon them by a foreign prince. Philip ignored their many petitions, and when the Dutch began to destroy Catholic property as a means of protest, Philip sent the Duke of Alva with an army of ten thousand men to suppress the unrest. The Duke issued harsh laws, increased taxation and, over a period of six years, is believed to have put six thousand people to death on charges of treason. William of Orange (known as "the Silent") was able to escape and organize the opposition. The spirit of the proud Dutch could not be extinguished. When the town of Leyden was besieged, for example, the people cut the dikes to flood their fields rather than give them to their enemies. In reprisal, the Spaniards sacked Antwerp and slew eight thousand people. The English and the Huguenots of France aided William. However, it was Dutch superiority at sea which was the decisive factor in their eventual victory.

Philip, in 1579, sent the clever Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma, to the Netherlands in an attempt to achieve by the use of skillful diplomacy what the force of arms had failed to accomplish. The Duke succeeded by the Treaty of Arras in guaranteeing the protection of the Catholic religion in the Southern Provinces. The Spanish crown retained the area equal roughly to modern Belgium. The Union of Utrecht, signed by the Protestant Dutch of the Northern Provinces, was a declaration of continued resistance to Spain. The Dutch declared their independence in the Act of Abjuration in 1581. Spain, however, failed to recognize Dutch independence until the signing of the Treaty of Westphalia at the close of the Thirty Years' War in 1648.



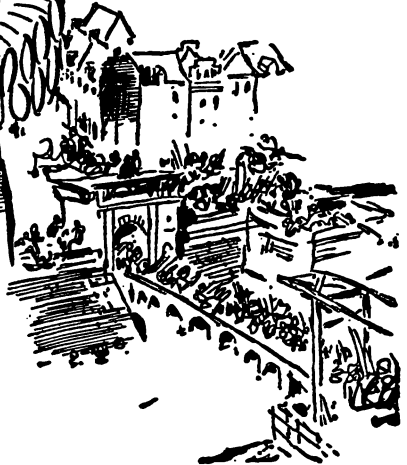


DUKE OF ALVA

FARNESE, DUKE OF PARMA



WILLIAM THE SILENT







**ELIZABETH I OF ENGLAND**

**SIR FRANCIS DRAKE**



**MARY STUART,  
QUEEN OF SCOTLAND**

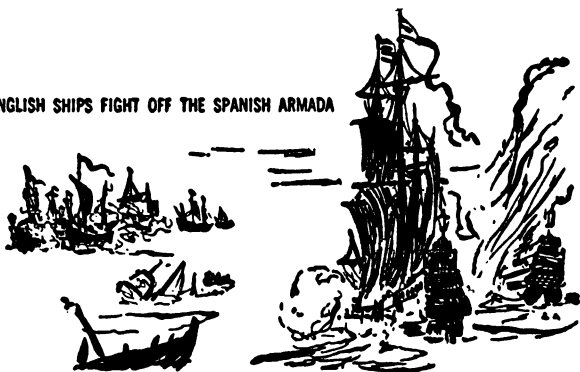


**MARY TUDOR OF ENGLAND**

**England vs. Spain.** Philip married Mary Tudor, Queen of England, in 1554. He encouraged Mary's policy for the re-establishment of Roman Catholicism in England. However, with the accession of Elizabeth I (1558), Philip's influence in England came to an abrupt end. Philip proposed marriage to Elizabeth, but was refused. He made many and varied attempts to overthrow Elizabeth but only succeeded in strengthening her position. Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland, had been a useful and willing tool of Philip's and when she was finally beheaded in 1587, he used this event as an excuse for armed intervention. The great Spanish Armada of over one hundred ships and thirty thousand men sailed from Lisbon against the British in 1588. English seamen, led by the famed sea dogs, Sir Francis Drake, Hawkins, Howard, and others, and aided by the Dutch and the great storms off the Hebrides, doomed the Armada to disaster. The English ships, more numerous and easier to handle, were more than a match for the galleons and transports of the Spanish and only fifty-three badly damaged Spanish vessels returned to their own harbors.

This defeat of his "invincible" armada was a turning point for Philip and Spain. Philip died ten years later, and Spain began to decline. Dutch and English ships made daring raids against Spanish shipping. As Philip had assumed the Portuguese crown in 1580, the Portuguese ships and colonies were also attacked. Spain gradually lost her commercial supremacy to England and to the Dutch. The Dutch East Indies Company was organized in 1602, and the Dutch sailed around the Cape of Good Hope and attacked the Portuguese ports in the East Indies.

DUTCH AND ENGLISH SHIPS FIGHT OFF THE SPANISH ARMADA



**France.** Henry II (ruled 1547-59), who succeeded Francis I on the French throne, attempted to hold a tight rein on his subjects and persecuted the Huguenots. The Guises, who championed the Catholic Church, and the Bourbons, who allied themselves with the Huguenots, were the two powerful, rival ducal families who hoped to gain control through their influence on the crown. When Henry II died, his widow, Catherine de Medici, became the power behind the throne throughout the reign of her weak son, Charles IX (ruled 1560-74). It was during his reign in 1572 that the infamous massacre of the Huguenots on St. Bartholomew's Eve occurred. Upon the death of the last of Catherine's sons, Henry III (ruled 1574-89) and following the "War of the Three Henrys," the Bourbon prince, Henry of Navarre, succeeded to the throne (ruled as Henry IV, 1589-1610). Facing strong opposition from the Guise party, Henry was forced in 1593 to accept Catholicism, and his coronation in 1594 ended the religious wars in France.

The Edict of Nantes, issued by Henry in 1598, granted religious and limited political equality to the Huguenots. He was assassinated in 1610.

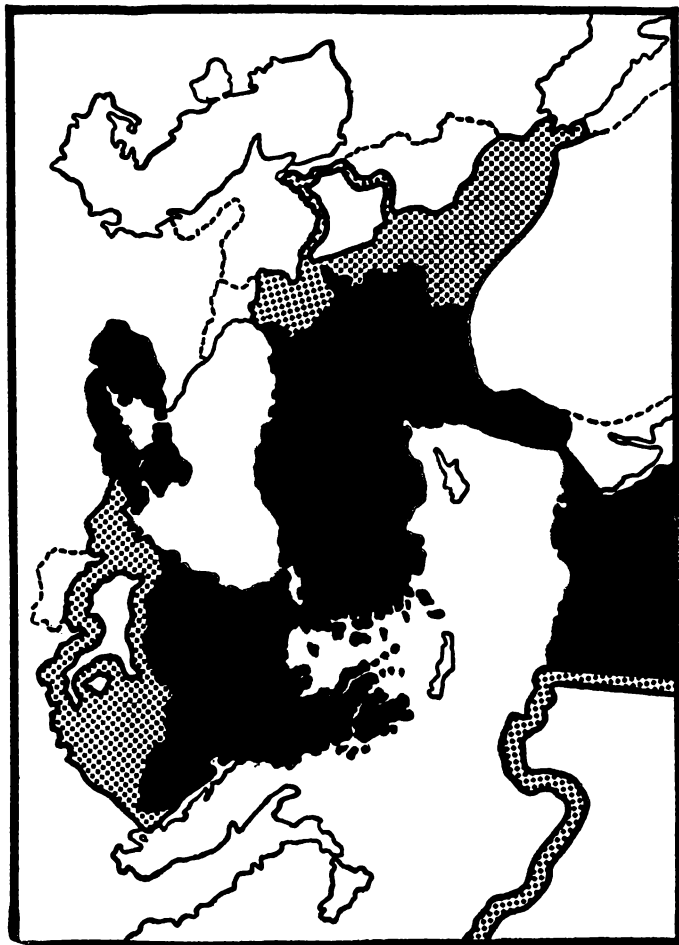


**SULEIMAN'S EMPIRE**

Ottoman conquests  
up to 1520



Under Suleiman  
the Magnificent  
(1520-1566)



## ■ Contemporary World Politics

**Ottoman Empire.** The Ottoman Turks reached the height of power under the leadership of Suleiman the Magnificent (ruled 1520-66), an intelligent, strong and cultured ruler. It is not often realized that his vast empire, reaching from the Nile to the Danube, exceeded that of his contemporary Charles V. Suleiman succeeded his father, Selim I (reigned 1512-20). He captured Belgrade, Hungary (1521) and overwhelmed an army of twenty thousand at Mohacs (1526). He almost reached Vienna in 1529 but was forced to retreat to fight the Persians. By 1534, he had driven the Persians back to Tabriz and captured Baghdad and Mesopotamia.

Following the death of Suleiman and under the rule of Selim II (1566-74) the power of the Ottoman Turks began to decline. They were defeated at the Battle of Lepanto by a combined fleet of Spanish, Papal, and Venetian ships (1571). In one of the greatest naval battles in history two hundred Turkish galleys were badly beaten off the western shores of Greece. Despite this defeat, the Turks continued to attack the coasts of the western Mediterranean for the rest of the century.

**India.** The great Mogul emperor Akbar (ruled 1562-1605) was able to restore and consolidate the empire throughout northern India. Akbar conquered Gujarat (1572-73), which gave him access to the sea, and Bengal from the Afghans (1576). He married a Rajput princess and instituted a policy of cooperation and impartiality by abolishing the *jizya*, a tax imposed on non-Moslems. Upon his death, his son Jahangir assumed the throne.



AKBAR, MOGUL EMPEROR IN INDIA



SULEIMAN THE MAGNIFICENT



BATTLE OF LEPANTO



COPERNICUS

GRAHE IN HIS OBSERVATORY



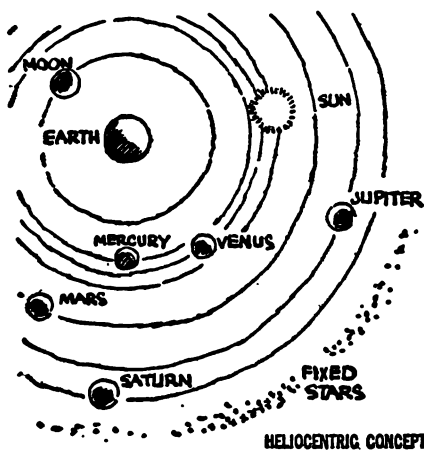
COLUMBUS



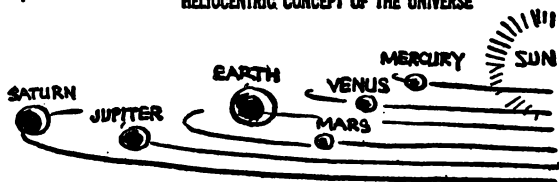
VESALIUS

## ■ Science in the Sixteenth Century

Nicolaus Copernicus, famed Polish theoretical astronomer, established the heliocentric concept of the universe which revolutionized not only scientific but religious and philosophic thought. Copernicus discovered in the writings of the ancient Greek Pythagoreans and the astronomical speculations of Aristarchus of Samos the notions that the earth moved in an oblique orbit about the sun and turned on its axis like a wheel. This theory had been rejected by medieval scholars in favor of the Ptolemaic geocentric concept that the earth was the center of the cosmos. In his famous work, *On the Revolution of the Heavenly Bodies* (1543), Copernicus established the sun as the center of the solar system and the earth as one of the planets revolving about it. He also stated that the earth revolved daily on its axis, made an annual orbit about the sun, and further noted that the gyration of the earth's axis of spin accounted for the procession of the equinox. Proof of the Copernican theory came in the seventeenth century with the development of more powerful telescopes and the work of Kepler and Galileo.

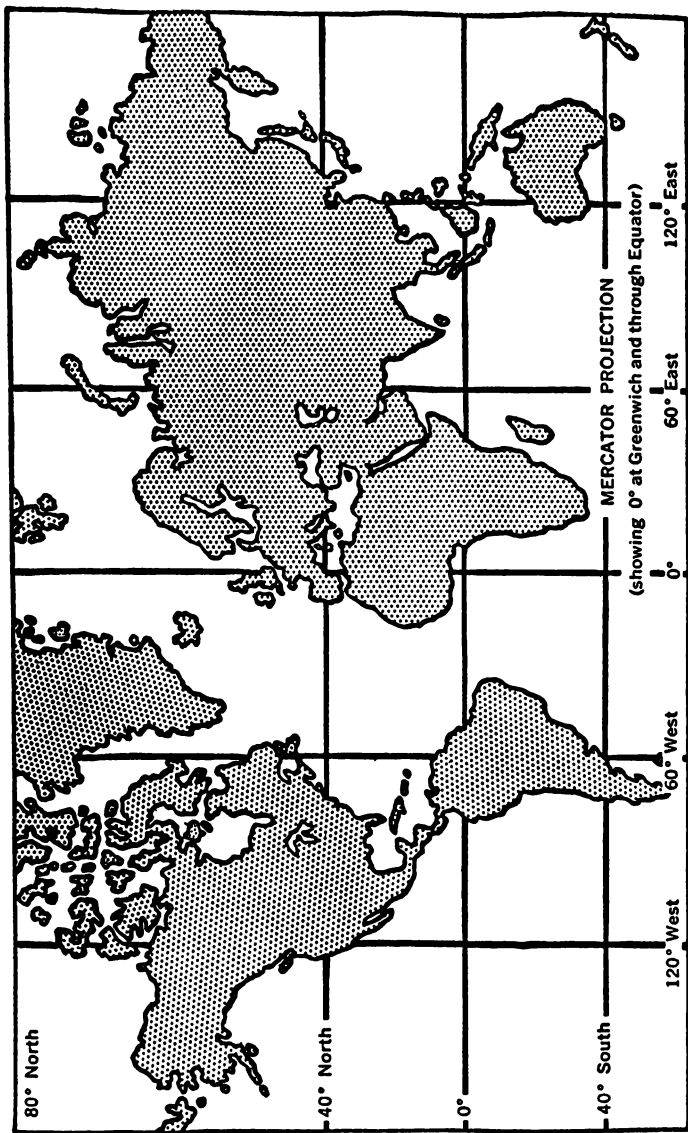


PTOLEMAIC CONCEPT  
OF THE UNIVERSE



HELIOCENTRIC CONCEPT OF THE UNIVERSE





**Denmark.** The astronomer, Tycho Brahe, built large instruments and equipped an observatory at Uraniborg, on the island of Hveen in Copenhagen Sound. He made many important observations and, by his more accurate fixing of the position of the planets and the stars, paved the way for future discoveries.

**Italy.** Andreas Vesalius, great anatomist at the University of Padua, published (1543) his notable illustrated work, *On the Structure of the Human Body*. Vesalius based his studies on direct observation made through dissection. Thus, two great contributions to science—one by Copernicus and the other by Vesalius—appeared in the same year, 1543.

Geronimo Cardano, in *The Great Art* (1545), carried algebra to its highest point in the mathematics of the time. Pope Gregory XIII (1572-85) adopted the Gregorian Calendar in 1582. It was immediately accepted in all Catholic countries and later adopted by other nations.

**Germany.** George Agricola known as the "father of mineralogy," pioneered in physical geology. Valerius Cordus and Hieronymus Bock made notable advances in systematic botany.

**England.** The most important scientist of the second half of the sixteenth century was William Gilbert, whose brilliant work *On Magnetism* (published 1600) was the first clear treatment of electrical and magnetic phenomena. Gilbert believed the earth to be a great magnet and attributed the earth's rotation to its magnetic character. He showed that the lodestone was merely iron which had been subjected to magnetic force. Gilbert is also remembered for having suggested the word "electricity."

**France.** The mathematician, François Viète, became the founder of modern algebra by introducing letters as symbols and correlating algebra with geometry and trigonometry.

**Belgium.** The Flemish geographer, Gerardus Mercator, aided navigation by devising the "Mercator projection" (1569), a guide more widely used by oceanic explorers than any other.

**Netherlands.** Zacharias Janssen is credited with the invention of the compound microscope (ca. 1590).

**China.** Li Shih-chen published (1596) the monumental *Pên Tshao Kang Mu* which described the pharmaceutical value of one thousand plants and one thousand animals. This remarkable, well-illustrated work also detailed eight thousand prescriptions and discussed smallpox inoculation as well as distillation.

## ■ Elizabethan Dramatists

The great Elizabethan Age of English literature was named for that courageous, energetic queen, Elizabeth I, even though she had reigned for thirty years before it really got under way. Most of the important achievements in drama, poetry, and prose were accomplished during the reign of Elizabeth's successor, James I, but it was the spirit of the "rise to greatness" engendered by the queen that inspired the productivity of England's creative writers.

John Lyly introduced high comedy into England, and Christopher Marlowe, outstanding figure of Elizabethan drama before William Shakespeare, established blank verse as an eloquent dramatic form. Marlowe's best known plays included *Tamburlaine the Great*, *The Jew of Malta*, and *Dr. Faustus*. Thomas Kyd was the leading representative of the "tragedy of blood" drama. His *Spanish Tragedy* may have inspired Shakespeare's use of the ghost and play-within-a-play in *Hamlet*.

Thousands of volumes have been written about Shakespeare, the most important dramatist of the Elizabethan period. Most of his plays, both comedies and tragedies, create a distinct atmosphere due largely to his subtle, amazing imagery and profound artistry. It is acknowledged that he also wrote poor plays. This is attributed to the fact that Shakespeare was a "working" man of the theater and his plays often were produced "to order" and at such speed that he could not possibly have given his best nor reached heights of perfection in every play. His best and most popular works include the comedies *Twelfth Night*, *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, *As You Like It*, and *Taming of the Shrew*; and the tragedies *Hamlet*, *Macbeth*, *King Lear*, *Othello*, and *Julius Caesar*.

Ben Jonson, noted for the comedies *Volpone* (1606) and the *Alchemist* (1610); Thomas Dekker, known for *The Shoemaker's Holiday* (1600); and Beaumont and Fletcher, who collaborated in the writing of *The Knight of the Burning Pestle* (1616), were other Elizabethan dramatists of note.

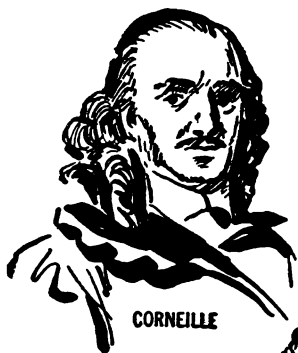
The famed Globe Theater, where many of the plays were presented, opened in 1599.



GLOBE THEATER



ELIZABETHAN PLAYERS



**CORNEILLE**



**MONTAIGNE**



**SPENSER**



**CELLINI**



**LOPE DE VEGA**

## ■ Contemporary Dramatists

The founder of the national drama of Spain and one of the great figures in Spanish literature was Lope Félix de Vega Carpio, better known as Lope de Vega. He was one of the most prolific writers of all time, being responsible for two thousand plays, numerous collections of lyric poetry, and short tales or stories. Lope de Vega created the often imitated comic character, "El Gracioso." The last great figure of the Spanish golden age was Pedro Calderon de la Barca. Calderon has been ranked the most powerful dramatist of Spain but his works have a very definite national, rather than universal, character.

Pierre Corneille, ranked with Racine (late seventeenth century dramatist) as a master of French classical tragedy, wrote *Médee* (1635) and *Le Cid* (1637), while the Dutch poet, Joost van den Vondel, produced classical tragedies based on biblical themes.

## ■ Poets of Elizabethan England

The first real English sonnet sequence, *Astrophel and Stella*, was written by Sir Philip Sidney. William Shakespeare, probably the greatest writer in the English language, is believed to have written his sonnets between 1593 and 1596 giving his name to the form previously introduced by Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey. The Shakespearean sonnet was an Elizabethan variation on the Italian form—it had three quatrains with alternate rhymes and a concluding couplet. Edmund Spenser, known as the "poet's poet," gained renown with his pastoral *The Shepherd's Calendar* (1579) and the allegorical romance of chivalry, *The Faerie Queene* (1590-96).

## ■ Contemporary World Literature

The *Essays* of Michel de Montaigne, published in three volumes, 1571-88, exemplified the wit, wisdom, and urbanity of the French. In *The Six Books Concerning a Commonwealth* (1576) Jean Bodin attempted to formulate a modern and scientific philosophy of history. French poetry was dominated by Pierre de Ronsard, often called the "prince of French poets," who became the leader of the group known as the Pleiad (La Pléiade). These poets revived the Alexandrine rhymed couplet and popularized the sonnet.

In Spain, Gongorism, the style which paralleled the English style known as Euphuism in its elaborate artificiality, was created by Luis de Góngora y Argote, the last great lyric poet of the golden age of Spanish poetry. Luiz Camões, outstanding epic poet of Portugal, wrote his masterpiece *Os Lutadas* (1572). In Italy the epic poet, Torquato Tasso, completed *Jerusalem Delivered* (1575), and Benvenuto Cellini published his frank, highly entertaining autobiography.

In India, the renowned Hindi poet, Tulsi Das, produced one of the great works of devotional literature, *Rama Charit Manas* (*Sea of Wanderings of Rama*). The magical fantasy *Hsi Yu Ki* (*Travels to the West*) was written in China by Wu Ch'eng-en and has been translated into English by Arthur Waley as *Monkey*.

Early life in the New World was described by Agustín Davila y Padilla (1596), known as the "Chronicler of the Indies," in his history of Mexico.

## ■ Art of the Late Sixteenth Century

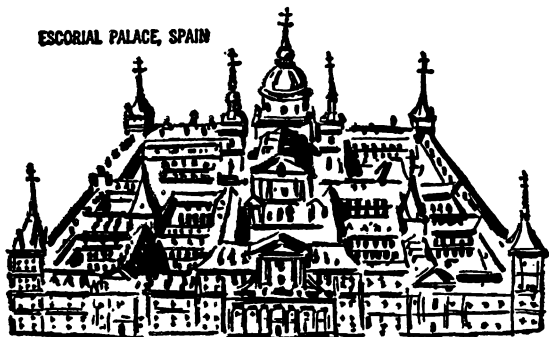
The artist considered one of the greatest of this period was a Greek who made his home in Spain, then the most powerful country in Europe. El Greco (Domenicos Theotocopoulos) is believed to have studied in Venice with Titian and worked in Rome. Though strongly influenced by Tintoretto in his early works, his greatest paintings were done in Toledo where he made his home. His work is characterized by his use of elongated figures and expressive dramatic motion which add an intense emotional quality to his religious paintings.

Philip II commissioned the architect Juan Herrera to design the vast Escorial Palace near Madrid (1563-84), and commissioned Titian, master Italian artist, to paint a mythological cycle. The last works of Titian's fabulous, long career showed an increased luminosity of color and included the magnificent "Pietà."

The early Baroque period in Italy also included the great Venetian masters Tintoretto (Jacopo Robusti), who introduced the use of strong diagonals to achieve motion and chiaroscuro to emphasize values, and Veronese, whose monumental compositions created an atmosphere of grandeur quite different from the brilliant but shallow technique of the Mannerist painters of the period. The work of the architect Palladio was imitated by Inigo Jones, who introduced Palladio's style into England in the early seventeenth century.

# ARTS OF THE LATE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

ESCORIAL PALACE, SPAIN



TINTORETTO, VENETIAN

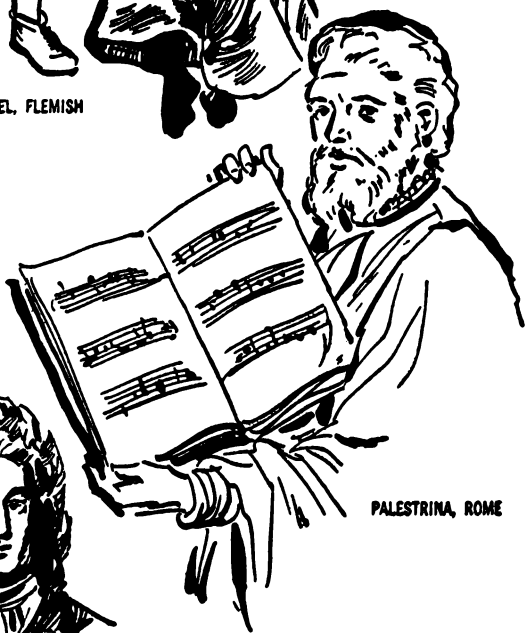


TITIAN, VENETIAN





BRUEGHEL, FLEMISH



PALESTRINA, ROME



BYRD

The Flemish master Pieter Brueghel, the Elder, is known for the powerful realism seen in his colorful "Country Wedding" and the startling "Massacre of the Innocents."

The great masters of the late Muromachi period in Japan included Sesson, Kano Eitoku, and Hasegawa Tohaku. In China, Hsu Wei, whose tragic life resembles that of the Dutch painter of the nineteenth century, Vincent Van Gogh, gained recognition for his great originality and powerful brush strokes.

Only a few years separate the building of the Escorial Palace for Philip II in Spain and the building of the magnificent mosque Sulaymānīyah for Suleiman in Constantinople, Turkey. The greatest Islamic architect, Sinān, designed the Sulaymānīyah (1550-57), which is higher than the Hagia Sophia and has exquisite tile decorating the mihrāb and rear wall.

In Persia the art of illuminated manuscript remained the prominent art form, but Muhammadi of Herat gained popularity with the individual paintings he sold to the wealthy nobility.

## ■ Music in the Late Sixteenth Century

The period of the Counter Reformation is best represented by the works of Palestrina, whose *Improperia* have been sung in the Sistine Chapel, Rome, every Good Friday since 1560. Palestrina is considered the first great "modern" musician of the Catholic Church, and is known for his *Missa Papae Marcelli* (*Song of Songs*, 1584). Giovanni Gabrieli, whose work foreshadowed modern orchestration, was the leading Venetian composer of the period and, with Tomás Luis de Victoria of Spain, ranks with Palestrina. Victoria was the first to set all the hymns of the liturgic year to music and his masterpiece, the *Requiem Mass* (1603), exemplifies passionate Spanish mysticism in musical terms.

The great master of the Flemish school was Orlandus Lassus, who studied in Italy, and whose work became the bridge between the Flemish composers and the seventeenth century composer, Claudio Monteverdi. Lassus is known for his dramatic madrigals. The first English madrigals were written by William Byrd, who also wrote some of the earliest and most important works for the keyboard.

## Exploration and Colonization

Spain and Portugal were the first nations to explore, conquer and settle territory in the New World. Spain divided her possessions into four viceroyalties, with a viceroy representing the king as governor of each kingdom or territory. The oldest viceroyalty "New Spain" was established (1535) in what is now Mexico. Peru (1542) included a good part of the western coast of South America. It wasn't until 1718 that New Granada, the area including the northern port cities of South America, was established; and finally, in 1776, Buenos Aires, comprising the lands in the region of the La Plata River, was settled.

**Cortés and Pizarro.** Hernando Cortés opened the treasures of Mexico to Spanish conquest by his defeat of Montezuma and the Aztec Indians. Francisco Pizarro sailed from Panama to Peru, scaled the Andes mountains and conquered the rich Inca empire. The conquests of these famous *conquistadores* and the gold and silver from the mines of Mexico and Peru, carried by the great "plate fleets" of galleons, attracted many adventurers to the New World.

Panfilo de Narváez landed near Tampa Bay, Florida (1527), Hernando de Soto crossed the Mississippi River (1541) south of Memphis, and Francisco de Coronado led a force into New Mexico (1540). Juan Cabrillo sailed up the California coast to Drake's Bay (1542) and claimed the area for Spain.

By the beginning of the seventeenth century, 250,000 Spaniards and Portuguese had crossed the Atlantic and colonized a large part of Central and South America. By the middle of the century all of the larger cities of the New World belonged to Spain or Portugal. The Bolivian town of Potosí, which possessed the richest silver mine in the world of that time, had 150,000 inhabitants; Mexico City, Lima, Bogota, Buenos Aires, Santiago, even St. Augustine in Florida, were large towns or cities.

The languages, cultures and religion (Roman Catholic) brought by the Spaniards and Portuguese to their American subjects remain the dominant influence in Latin America today.

**Portugal.** Preoccupied with Far Eastern exploits, Portugal did little to settle colonies in Brazil following its initial discovery. In 1530, the king of Portugal appointed Admiral Mar-



**IBERIAN HOLDINGS IN THE AMERICAS**

 Spanish

 Portuguese

HENRY VII OF ENGLAND

CABOT



FROBISHER

RALEIGH



GILBERT



SMITH



tim Afonso de Sousa governor of Brazil, and the first permanent colony (São Vicente on São Paulo coast) was settled (1532). With the successful production of a sugar crop, Brazil attracted more colonists. The need for cheap labor to raise the sugar cane led to the importation of Negro slaves from Africa. The white settlers would not engage in menial labor and the Indians were either too wild and unmanageable or not interested in, nor particularly suited to, such labor. In 1567, governor Mem de Sá, succeeded in ousting the French from Rio de Janeiro Bay. Brazil was annexed by Spain when Portugal was joined to Spain under Philip II (1580). By the middle of the seventeenth century the population of Brazil was to approach one million, about one-tenth the size of Spanish America.

Following the defeat of Philip's Armada (1588), the Protestant nations protested the right of Spain and Portugal to a monopoly of colonial conquest and intensified their attack upon the territories of these nations. The Dutch, for example, attacked and occupied coastal portions of Brazil, but by 1640 Portugal regained its independence from Spain and succeeded (by 1654) in ousting the Dutch from most of its Brazilian territory.

**England.** Though Henry VII had sent Cabot to explore and claim territory in the New World, and Martin Frobisher, searching for a "northwest passage" to Asia had taken possession of "Frobisher's Land" (1577), the English did not attempt colonization until the end of the sixteenth century. Sir Humphrey Gilbert made two unsuccessful attempts to establish colonies in Newfoundland (1578, 1583) and Sir Walter Raleigh failed to colonize Roanoke Island (1584). The first permanent settlement was finally established by the English at Jamestown, Virginia (1607). This colony faced many hardships, including fighting off hostile Indians, disease and starvation. Finally, the courage of their indomitable leader, Captain John Smith, the arrival of new settlers to bolster their forces, and the successful raising of tobacco crops which they sold to the English market, enabled the colonists to survive and prosper. By 1619 over 50,000 pounds of the "blacke stinking" weed, made famous by Raleigh, had been grown and exported by the 2,000 inhabitants of the colony. However, the colony's troubles were by no means over. The Indians were still hostile, many colonists died of disease, and financial difficulties resulting from the mismanagement of the colony's funds in London added to their problems. The colony's charter was re-

voked in 1624, and Virginia was established as the first royal colony under the control of the crown.

The settlement of Virginia was primarily a commercial venture, backed by the crown, but the colony of Plymouth, Massachusetts, was established by humble citizens for religious reasons. The Pilgrims, a group of Separatists who had rebelled against and feared persecution by the Church of England and had fled to Leyden, Holland, obtained a patent (1620) from the London Company for land in America. The Pilgrims sailed from Plymouth, England, on one of the most famous voyages in American history, with John Carver as governor and Captain Miles Standish (not a Pilgrim) as their military leader. On November 11, the *Mayflower* landed at Cape Cod. When the Pilgrims realized that they had landed at a point outside the jurisdiction of the London Company, they drew up the *Mayflower Compact* which established a government responsible to the colonists rather than the Crown.

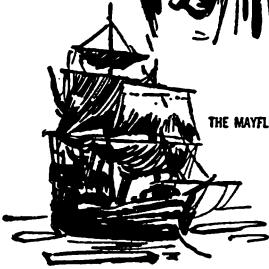
Plymouth was selected as the best site and, although the Indians of New England were less hostile than those met by the settlers of Virginia, the living conditions were more rugged and the Pilgrims faced equal hardships in founding a colony. The soil proved fertile, the fishing excellent, and the colony survived. The leaders at Plymouth (Bradford, who succeeded Carver as governor, 1621, and Brewster) were able men and the group prospered and lasted as a strong colony until absorbed into Massachusetts (1691).

Other nearby colonies were quickly established: Massachusetts Bay Colony (Endicott, 1628, Winthrop, 1630), Rhode Island (Roger Williams, 1636), Connecticut (Winslow, 1632, Winthrop Jr. 1636, Hooker, *Fundamental Orders*, 1639), Maine and New Hampshire (Mason, Gorges, 1622-31, Wheelwright, 1639). Maryland was settled by English Catholics under the proprietorship of George Calvert, Lord Baltimore (1634-40).

**France.** Francis I bitterly resented the pope's issuance of the Line of Demarcation dividing the world for exploration between Spain and Portugal, but had made no effort to enter the competition. It wasn't until Giovanni da Verrazano, an Italian seaman, had sailed in a French ship along the North American coast from Georgia to Labrador (1524) and reported his findings to Francis, that the king was able to stake his claim. Francis sent Jacques Cartier on a voyage of exploration (1534) resulting in the discovery of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the mouth of the St. Lawrence River. The first suc-



MAYFLOWER COMPACT



THE MAYFLOWER



THE MAYFLOWER DEPARTS FOR HOME



BRADFORD



BRADFORD



BRADFORD



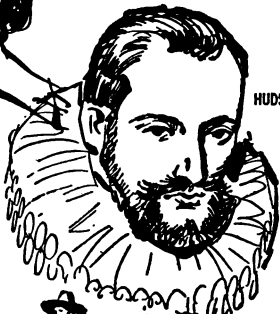
BRADFORD



CHAMPLAIN



HUDSON



CARTIER



MINUIT BUYS MANHATTAN ISLAND

STUYVESANT



JAMES I OF ENGLAND



CHARLES I OF ENGLAND

cessful French colonies were founded by Samuel de Champlain at Acadia (1604) and Quebec (1608).

**Dutch and Swedish Settlers.** The United East India Company of Holland employed Henry Hudson, an Englishman, to search for a "northwest passage" to Asia (1609). Hudson sighted land at Newfoundland, explored the New England coast and the Hudson River as far as Albany. A Dutch fur trading post was established on Manhattan Island (1613). The New Netherland Company was formed and granted a monopoly of trade and exploration (1614). The Dutch West India Company was chartered (1621) and given a trade monopoly in both America and Africa.

Peter Minuit, director general of the company (1626), purchased Manhattan Island from the Indians for the equivalent of twenty-four dollars and settled the colony of New Amsterdam. In return for bringing a certain number of settlers over to New Amsterdam, colonists, known as patroons, were given large grants of land.

The New Sweden Company was organized (1637) and two Swedish vessels arrived on the Delaware River (1638). The Dutch under the leadership of Peter Stuyvesant occupied the settlement at Fort Christina (New Sweden, 1655).

## ■ 17th Century European Politics

**England.** The Tudors had ruled sixteenth century England; the Stuarts ruled during the seventeenth century. Upon the succession of James VI of Scotland (or James I of England) to the throne (1603), a long struggle began between Parliament and the Crown. James I was known as "the wisest fool in Christendom." One of the most learned men in Europe, he was a completely inept ruler. James alienated Parliament by insisting upon religious conformity, by emphasizing his "divine right," and collecting taxes without obtaining a grant from Parliament. Adding to his unpopularity was his beheading of Sir Walter Raleigh to satisfy the Spaniards. His pro-Spanish sympathies in foreign affairs alienated his subjects.

James I was succeeded (1625) by his handsome, but even less capable son, Charles I. Money was the cause of Charles' troubles. He resented having money doled out to him by Parliament (in small amounts, at that) and he levied illegal taxes on his own. Charles was able to "blackmail" his more affluent subjects into sending him money. In 1628, he was forced to sign the *Petition of Right* in which he agreed to govern ac-

ording to the law, cease levying taxes without the consent of Parliament, and stop extorting "forced" loans from his more wealthy citizens. Charles I dissolved his fourth Parliament when they complained about his not keeping his word (1629) and ruled for eleven years without calling another.

In Scotland, Charles attempted to interfere with the powerful Presbyterians, and the people overthrew the king's bishops and revolted. Charles was unable to put down the rebellion and was forced to call Parliament in 1640. When Parliament failed to grant him the funds he requested, he dissolved it (Short Parliament). His problems with Scotland remaining unresolved, he was forced to recall it. The Long Parliament (1640-60) proved that a king could not rule without the aid of Parliament, and the principle of "divine right," giving the king complete control of the country's destiny, came to an end in England. The Court of the Star Chamber, an administrative court of the crown which ruthlessly imprisoned subjects, often on the basis of rumor rather than evidence, tried cases (without a jury) and meted out unjust punishment, was abolished and, with it, imprisonment without a fair trial.

### ■ English Civil War (1642-48)

The Great Rebellion was a revolt of a depressed gentry against the Court, of the capital city against the provinces in a time of economic depression. The followers of Charles I were mostly country squires, the nobility and the Catholics living primarily in the northern and eastern part of the country. Parliament controlled the navy and gained support from the Puritans, farmers and the middle class shopkeepers of the major towns, particularly London. The followers of Charles, with their elegant flowing ringlets ("love locks") were called "Cavaliers," and the Puritans, who clipped their hair short, were known as "Roundheads." The Roundheads, led by Oliver Cromwell, who organized a strong fighting force known as "The Ironsides," gained the support of the Scots and succeeded in routing the Royalist cavalry at Marston Moor (1644). After a further defeat of the Cavalier forces at Naseby (1645), Charles surrendered to the Scots who turned him over to Parliament (for back pay of 400,000 pounds) in 1647.

A leading group in Parliament wanted the Church of England to be made Presbyterian, while the Puritans wanted no state church at all, but religious toleration for those with "liberty of conscience."

The New Model Army of Roundheads refused to disband.

CAVALIER



ROUNDHEAD



CHARLES I BEING LED TO HIS EXECUTION

CROMWELL

GATES



JAMES II OF ENGLAND



LONDON PLAGUE AND FIRE

They were ready to restore Charles if he would give certain guarantees, including assurance that the army would be under the control of Parliament and not the king. However, Charles escaped and fled to the Isle of Wight. Gambling on gaining enough support to defeat Cromwell and the Puritans, he promised to make England Presbyterian, thereby gaining the support of the Scots. To the amazement of all, the Puritans were able to defeat this combination of rivals and gain control of England.

A "Rump Parliament" tried and beheaded Charles I for treason. The House of Lords was abolished and religious toleration established for all but Catholics and members of the Church of England. After nominating a new Parliament and Council, Cromwell assumed the title Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland, thus becoming the first commoner in Europe to raise himself to the rank of a ruler. The office of king was abolished. The puritanical opinions of the period were reflected in the closing of the theaters and the prohibitions established against bearbaiting and other popular forms of entertainment. The period, though severely moral, more economically sound and politically stable, was exceedingly colorless. Following the death of Cromwell (1658) the surviving members of the Long Parliament were called (1660) and a majority of them voted to place Charles II (son of Charles I) on the throne.

## ■ Restoration Period in England

Under Charles II (1660-85) the Anglican Church regained its power. Persecution of the Puritans, Quakers and other "dissenters" caused many of them to flee to America. Following the famed "Popish Plot" revealed by Titus Oates, Charles turned on the Catholics. Several were put to death although Charles did not believe Oates' perjured testimony.

Two tragic disasters occurred in London during the Restoration Period. London was struck by plague in 1665 and by fire in 1666.

The Whig party was formed by the Duke of Shaftesbury in opposition to Charles while the Tories supported him, thus establishing opposing parties as a standard political device. James II, a devout Catholic, succeeded his brother to the throne in 1685. The English people were willing to accept James, despite his Catholic convictions, because his two daughters were being raised as Protestants. James, however, seemed

determined to alienate the people of England. He repealed the Habeas Corpus Act and the Test Act, which had barred Roman Catholics from holding office. He insisted upon maintaining a permanent standing army. Catholics were granted commissions in the army, admitted to the privy council, and appointed to high offices in the universities and even in the Anglican Church. In 1687, James issued a declaration of indulgence which established free exercise of religion to all subjects.

The High Church Tories who had supported James were antagonized by his actions. A second declaration of indulgence was issued in 1688, and when seven bishops of the Anglican Church drew up a petition against it, James had them tried for libel and sedition. They were acquitted, and the people rejoiced. When in the same year James' second wife gave birth to a son who was baptized as a Catholic, the English people finally determined to oust James from the throne.

The leaders of the Whig and Tory parties invited William of Orange, husband of Mary, James' daughter, to come and take the throne of England. The "Glorious Revolution of 1688" became an accomplished fact when William was received with enthusiasm by the English people as he landed on their shores on November 5.

James was allowed by his son-in-law to escape to France. His flight was used as an official pretext to grant the throne to William and Mary. However, the British people had learned not to put too much faith in a ruling sovereign, and the Bill of Rights (1689), which curbed the power of the monarch and granted additional responsibility to Parliament, became the law of the land. The subjects were granted the right to petition the king without fear of reprisal, trial by jury became mandatory, and cruel and unusual punishment for crimes was prohibited. The Catholics and Unitarians were the only religious groups not granted freedom of worship by the Toleration Act of 1689.

### ■ Thirty Years' War

The last and greatest of the religious wars devastated Germany and involved nearly every state in Europe. It was divided into four periods: The Bohemian Period (1618-25) ended in victory for Emperor Ferdinand II (1619-37), leader of the Catholic faction, and exile for the Protestant king of Bohemia, Frederick V (1610-23). The Danish Period (1625-29) saw Christian IV of Denmark come to the aid of the German Prot-

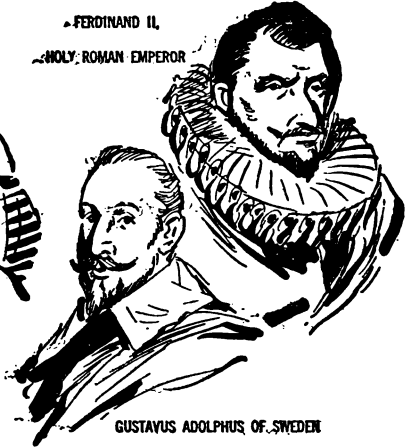
WILLIAM AND MARY OF ENGLAND



ALBERT OF WALLENSTEIN



FERDINAND II,  
HOLY ROMAN EMPEROR



GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS OF SWEDEN



PEACE OF WESTPHALIA



MARIE DE MEDICI, FRANCE



CARDINAL RICHELIEU



LOUIS XIII OF FRANCE



LOUIS XIV OF FRANCE



GOLBERT



MAZARIN



estants, but in the end the Catholics were still dominant. The Swedish Period (1630-35) resulted in the defeat of the Imperialist Catholic forces under Albert of Wallenstein at Lützen (1632) by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, and the death of the Swedish king on the field. The French Period (1635-48) was primarily a Hapsburg-Bourbon dynastic struggle. The Peace of Westphalia (1648), the work of the first great European peace conference, left the states of the Holy Roman Empire virtually independent; France and Sweden gained territory; the Hapsburgs, who had repeatedly declined to do so, were forced to recognize the Swiss and Dutch republics as sovereign states. The Thirty Years' War left Europe divided between Catholic and Protestant camps. The millions of lives lost and great areas of territory wasted had failed to heal the great religious schism that divided the Western Christian world. However, the wars that followed were not religious, but dynastic and national, fought for economic and territorial gain.

**France.** Louis XIII (1610-43), son of Henry IV, was dominated at first by his mother, Marie de Medici, and later by his clever cardinal-minister, Richelieu, whose aim was to make Louis the most powerful monarch of the most powerful state in Europe. Richelieu reduced the power of the Huguenots by abolishing their right to fortify towns and by taking La Rochelle, the strongest Huguenot city, by force. By appointing *intendants* to administer the provinces and refusing to call the Estates General (after 1614), he succeeded in destroying the power of the nobles who were fighting for independence from complete royal domination. Industries flourished and trading companies sent ships to Madagascar and the West Indies. Clever in his handling of foreign affairs as well, Richelieu built a strong army and, by entering the final phase of the Thirty Years' War, gained added territory for France. The naval ports of Brest and Le Havre were developed and ships of war built for the French Navy. Upon the death of Richelieu, Cardinal Mazarin became minister to the young Louis XIV (1643-1715). Mazarin continued Richelieu's policies and pursued the war with Spain until 1659 (Peace of the Pyrenees by which France made frontier gains in Flanders and the Pyrenees).

## ■ Age of Louis XIV

The reign of this Grand Monarch (1643-1715), absolute ruler of the most powerful country in Europe during the second half of the seventeenth century, was long, remarkable for its

cultural achievements, and marred by four destructive wars. Louis was extremely fortunate in his choice of a minister of finance. Jean Baptiste Colbert, probably the greatest financial administrator in the history of France, introduced a budget system, attempted to correct abuses of tax-collecting, and instituted a system of indirect taxation. "Mercantilism" or "Colbertism" measured the wealth of a nation in terms of its gold and silver. Colbert asserted that an independent political state must make itself economically self-sufficient by exporting more than it imported and by receiving payment for the difference in money. He fostered manufacture within France and erected high tariffs against foreign commodities to protect the new industries he established. Colbert urged strong colonial possession, overseas trade, and the development of naval strength. He doubled the revenues of France during his administration, making it possible for Louis to build his famed palaces and support his luxurious court. However, it was impossible even for Colbert to seek commercial supremacy on the seas in competition with other nations, strengthen the domestic economy of France and, at the same time, provide funds to support Louis' ruinous policy of military supremacy in Europe. Colbert's program failed because Louis, encouraged by Louvois, his minister of war, adopted a policy of aggression. The War of Devolution (1667-68), the Dutch War (1672-78), the War of the League of Augsburg (1689-97) and the fourth and most devastating of his conflicts, the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-13) finally left France exhausted.

Throughout his reign Louis retained absolute power, but as the years passed, his judgment weakened, corrupted by the constant flattery and adoration of his court. For example, when he revoked the Edict of Nantes (1685), which had protected the Huguenots within his domain, 200,000 industrious and enterprising citizens went into exile where they helped to develop competitive industries in several Protestant countries. Louis also persecuted the Jansenists, an unorthodox Roman Catholic group, and quarreled with Pope Innocent XI. When he died, France was still a great nation, but exhausted and impoverished by constant wars, she no longer threatened to dominate Europe.

## ■ Contemporary World Politics

**Germany.** Prussia, under the leadership of its Hohenzollern rulers who were aided by the *Junkers* (nobles) of East



COURT OF LOUIS XIV



FREDERICK WILLIAM, GREAT ELECTOR OF BRANDENBURG.



SOBIESKI, POLAND

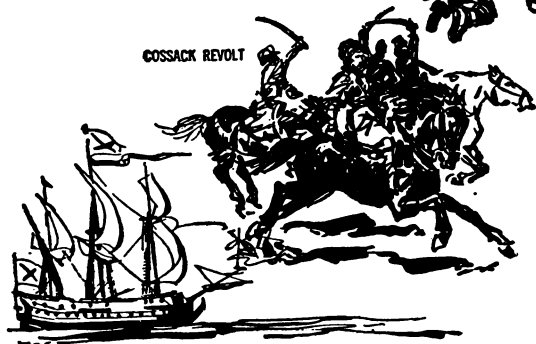
PETER THE GREAT OF RUSSIA



PETER ATTEMPTS TO EUROPEANIZE THE RUSSIANS



COSSACK REVOLT



RUSSIA'S FIRST FLEET

Prussia, developed into the most powerful of the German states by the seventeenth century.

Frederick William the Great Elector of Brandenburg (1640-88) annexed smaller surrounding states to Brandenburg-Prussia and established a capital at Berlin. A powerful, militaristic bureaucratic and autocratic Prussian government was established which continued to gain territory and power through the rule of Frederick the Great (1740-1786).

Despite the irresolute rule of Leopold I, Holy Roman Emperor (1658-1705), Austria managed to survive the buffeting it took in the Thirty Years' War (1618-48) largely because of the aid of its allies. For example, when the Turks besieged Vienna (1683), they were repulsed by an army led by John Sobieski, King of Poland. By 1700, the Hapsburgs had regained most of Hungary.

**Russia.** Following the death of Boris Godunov (1598-1605), Russia entered a troubled period, which was followed by the rule of the first Romanov tsar. During Michael Romanov's mediocre rule (1613-45), though territory was ceded to Sweden and Poland, the Russians continued to advance through Siberia until they reached the Pacific Ocean.

Under the second Romanov, Alexis (1645-76), the eastern Ukraine was taken from Poland, and under Theodore III (1676-82), the southern Ukraine was conquered from the Turks. During Alexis' rule the Don Cossacks, proud, independent horsemen of the steppes, under Stephen Razin, staged a revolt in southeastern Russia (1670-71), which was suppressed with difficulty. The Russians lost in their battle with the Chinese in Manchuria and were forced to relinquish territory by the Treaty of Nerchinsk (1689). Peter I, the Great, ruled with his half-brother Ivan (1682-96) until 1696 when Ivan died and Peter became sole tsar. In the same year the capture of Azov from the Turks gave the tsar a taste of conquest and a desire for more land. However, Peter the Great did not become known for his successful battles, but for his determination to Europeanize his backward nation.

Peter personally clipped the beards of his nobles, forced them to shorten their long robes, and attempted to introduce European fashions. Although he was not successful in introducing women to court (they were not accustomed to social freedom), he did succeed in introducing the Western system of enumeration, establishing schools, hospitals and printing presses, and founding the Russian Academy of Sciences staffed by foreign experts. Trade agreements with other nations were

fostered and young Russians were sent abroad to study. Peter's sole purpose was to strengthen Russia by whatever means he deemed necessary, and though he was ruthless, even barbaric, he created a powerful standing army and built Russia's first fleet, gaining for his country a new prestige in Europe.

**Netherlands.** The Dutch federation of provinces became a republic called "The United Provinces of the Netherlands," following their declaration of independence (1581) recognized in the Peace of Westphalia of 1648. The Dutch reached the height of their commercial and colonial power in the seventeenth century. The city of Amsterdam, with approximately 100,000 people, was the commercial center of Europe. The bourse in this city became the focal point of European banking. The Dutch commercial success was derived from North Sea fishing, the exploitation of the European coastal trade from Archangel to Constantinople, and overseas commerce and colonies. Dutch bankers held a controlling interest in many English companies.

Holland, most important and wealthiest of the Dutch provinces, provided many of the leaders of the Netherlands. Although most of their conquests in the Americas were lost to the Dutch by the end of the seventeenth century, their trade continued to prosper, and their empire in the East Indies supplied them with cinnamon and other spices, textiles and coffee.

**Spain and Portugal.** Spain went into a rapid decline in the seventeenth century. Its six million inhabitants, a decrease of one million from the previous century, were plagued with poverty. Ruled by weak monarchs and torn by constant revolts in the provinces, Spain finally lost Portugal which Philip II had annexed in 1580.

The Portuguese started their successful fight for independence in the reign of Philip IV in 1637. In this effort Portugal, a small nation with two million inhabitants, was forced to seek aid from foreign countries and, as the price of this aid came high, Portugal was placed in the position of having to accept commercial domination by England. While the power of the throne, the nobility and the Church increased from 1648 to 1715, the poverty of the lower classes became oppressive. Gold deposits discovered in Brazil toward the end of the century however, increased the revenues of the royal treasury.

**Italy.** Lacking a strong centralized government and weakened by economic depression and exploitation by other countries, Italy remained feeble and divided. In the seventeenth

SUCCESSFUL DUTCH MERCHANTS



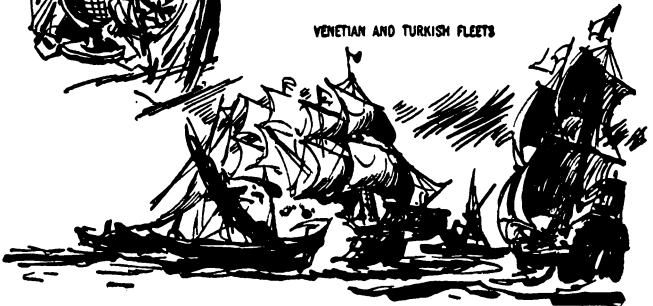
WEIGHING GOLD



DUTCH MERCHANT SHIP



VENETIAN AND TURKISH FLEETS







MOGUL EMPIRE IN INDIA



EXPLORATION OF AFRICA

century it had an estimated population of eleven million. Venice in 1648 was still an independent city controlling a population of approximately two million in the city itself and in surrounding provinces. The once powerful Venetian fleet, patrolling the Adriatic, was defeated by the Turks (1645-69). Crete was also lost to the Turks (1669), but a foothold in Greece was regained in 1699.

**India.** The early seventeenth century saw a decline in the power of the Mogul Empire in India during the reigns of Jahangir (1605-27), Shah Jahan (1628-58) and Aurangzeb (1659-1707). The English gained Bombay (1661) and Calcutta (1690) and increased their influence in India. The French gained trade concessions upon the founding of the French East India Company (1664) and the establishment of the first French trading station in India (1668). The Maratha leader, Sivaji, rebelled and created an independent kingdom (1674).

**China.** The Manchus in 1636 proclaimed an imperial Ta Ch'ing dynasty at Mukden. There followed constant wars between the Manchus and the followers of the Ming dynasty. With the reign of Emperor K'ang Hsi (1662-1722), China saw a period of expansion and unsurpassed cultural achievement. All Chinese ports were opened to foreign trade in 1685.

**Ottoman Empire.** It was extremely fortunate for Christian Europe that the Moslem Turks, though extraordinary conquerors, were exceedingly weak administrators. They were able to gain territory, but not to hold it. With the death of Suleiman the Magnificent, Turkish power went into decline. Despite the able leadership of the Köprülü family (1655-83) and the capture of Crete from the Venetians, the tide turned against the Turks at the siege of Vienna (1683). With an army of 150,000 the Turks besieged Vienna for two months, but were defeated by an army of reinforcements led by John Sobieski (King of Poland, 1674-96). The Treaty of Karlowitz (1699) granted territory to Austria, Poland and Russia, all at Turkish expense.

**Africa.** One of the first recorded explorations of the interior of Africa by a European was made by the Portuguese Gaspar Boccaro (1616), who journeyed from the upper Zambezi to Kilwa on the coast. The Dutch took Arguin, Goree (1621) and Elmina (1637) from the Portuguese, founded Capetown under Jan van Riebeeck (1652), and purchased Swedish colonies on the Gold Coast (1664-67). The first French settlements on Madagascar were made in 1626 and in 1686 when Louis XIV claimed the territory for France. French

Huguenots settled the Cape of Good Hope (1687-89). The English acquired Tangier (1662) and Gambia (1664). The Royal African Company, founded in 1672, was merged with the English Guinea Company and granted a monopoly of the African slave trade until 1698 when African trade was opened to all British subjects.

## ■ Science in the 17th Century

Two great names, Galileo and Newton, dominate the science of this century. Galileo, an Italian, called the "father of modern physics," established the science of dynamics, emphasized the importance of speculation and the use of mathematical theory as well as experimentation and investigation in science. He is best known for the experiment which demonstrated that bodies of different weights fall with the same velocity, and for his support of the Copernican system, for which he was condemned for heresy. By improving the telescope, he verified that the moon shines by reflected light and that the Milky Way is made up of countless stars. Newton, an Englishman, considered one of the greatest scientists of all times, developed Galileo's inductive method of scientific investigation. He was most concerned with the "how" as well as the "why" of physical phenomena. The Newtonian concept that the entire universe is governed by natural laws that can be stated in mathematical terms was revolutionary, and profoundly affected not only scientific but philosophical and religious thought for centuries. Newton was persuaded by his friend, the astronomer Edmund Halley, to publish his *Principia* (1687) which contained his laws of motion and the law of universal gravitation.

**England.** William Harvey, noted physiologist, demonstrated the pumping of the heart and explored the human circulatory system. Jeremiah Horrocks, able astronomer, made the first observation of the transit of Venus. The Scottish mathematician, John Napier, invented logarithms, and William Oughtred invented the slide rule.

In the second half of the century, Robert Hooke, considered an outstanding experimental scientist of his age, formulated the theory of planetary movements as a mechanical problem and invented many important mechanical devices, including a spiral spring for watches and the first screw-divided quadrant. Robert Boyle, called the "father of chemistry," was the first to distinguish between a chemical element and a compound and

NEWTON



GALILEO

MALLEY



BOYLE



HARVEY

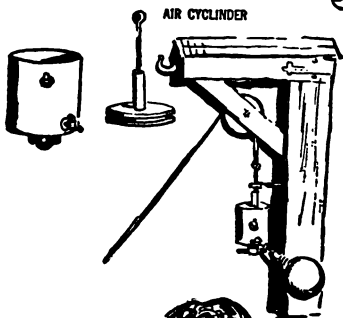




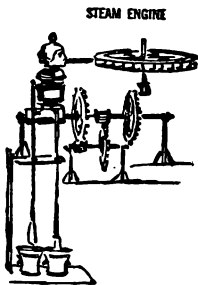
DESCARTES



KEPLER



AIR CYLINDER



STEAM ENGINE



LEEUVENHOEK

clearly define the nature of chemical reaction and analysis. "Halley's Comet" was named for the astronomer Halley, who calculated the orbit of the great comet of 1682.

The Royal Society was founded in 1662 and numbered Newton, Boyle, and Halley among its early members.

**France.** René Descartes, founder of analytical geometry and a proponent of the deductive method of scientific investigation, was another "giant" of seventeenth-century science. His outstanding work, *Discourse on Method* (1637), exerted a great influence on future mathematical science. Blaise Pascal, famed theologian, was also an experimental physicist and mathematician. He invented the mathematical triangle (Pascal's Triangle) and is credited with the founding of the modern theory of probabilities. Probability plays an important part in science and social statistics as well as in games of chance. In his youth, Pascal constructed the first computing machine.

The theory of the steam engine and a pioneer work on steam power were published as early as 1615 by Salomon de Caus. A founder of the Paris Observatory, the astronomer Jean Picard was the first to apply the telescope to the measurement of angles. He was thus able to establish figures in longitude and latitude which aided Newton in his calculations of gravitation.

**Italy.** The successor to Galileo at Florence, Evangelista Torricelli, invented the first barometer which was called the "Torricelli tube." In the second half of the century, Marcello Malpighi, pioneer in the use of the microscope, proved Harvey's theory of blood circulation and, in addition, was able to observe, with the use of more powerful microscopes, the movement of the blood through the capillaries.

**Germany.** Johannes Kepler, Germany's leading astronomer, was influential in furthering the Copernican theory of the universe. Otto von Guericke constructed a machine to generate electricity and devised the first air pump (1650). The Academy of Sciences at Berlin was founded in 1700 by the philosopher Baron Gottfried von Leibniz, who was also a renowned mathematician.

**Netherlands.** The best known scientist of the period in the Netherlands was Antoni van Leeuwenhoek, the biologist, who gave a complete description of the red blood cells of the body and was the first to see protozoa and bacteria through the more powerful microscopes he constructed. In 1655, Christian Huygens' improved telescopic lenses enabled him to discover a satellite and the additional rings of the planet Saturn. A physician, Cornelis van Drebbel, invented a practical thermome-

ter and is credited with the building of the first navigable submarine (1620).

**Asia.** In China, outstanding works were written in acoustics and agriculture, and a Flemish Jesuit priest, Ferdinand Verbiest, became the head of the imperial astronomical bureau in Peking (1669). In Japan, Seki Kowa established Japanese algebra and was referred to as the "Newton of Japan."

## ■ Religion in the 17th Century

A period of intolerance, prejudice and persecution in Europe and in other parts of the world, the seventeenth century saw the unity of Christianity symbolized by one universal Church, upset by the establishment of many new Protestant sects.

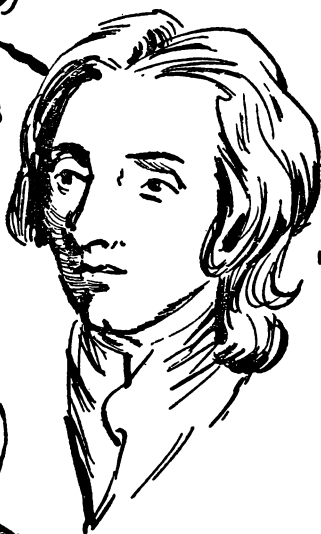
**England.** Under Cromwell, the Anglican clergy were forbidden to preach or to teach, Catholic priests were ordered out of the kingdom, and George Fox founded the Society of Friends (Quakers, c. 1650). The reign of James II saw the issuance of a Declaration of Liberty of Conscience (1687), granting freedom to all denominations. A concept unique in an age of prejudice was John Locke's "Reasonableness of Christianity" advocating toleration of every man's beliefs.

**France.** The Roman Catholic leader of the early seventeenth century in France was St. Francis de Sales. He attempted to substitute belief in a loving God for the concept of a punishing or vengeful God of fear. Jean Duvergier de Hauranne founded Jansenism in France, based on the ideas of the Flemish bishop, Cornelis Jansen, whose purpose was to reform Christian life along the line of St. Augustine and who advocated predestination in an extreme form. The Jansenists not only attacked the Jesuits, causing Duvergier de Hauranne to be imprisoned by Richelieu, but the Calvinists and all free-thinkers as well. As was mentioned earlier, Louis XIV made the mistake of revoking the Edict of Nantes (1685) which intensified religious persecution through the "dragonnades," who were groups of dragoons assigned to this unworthy task. Thousands of Huguenots were converted to escape persecution. In Bordeaux, sixty thousand recanted their Protestant faith in a period of three weeks.

**Italy.** Pope Gregory XV co-ordinated the missionary activities of the Church. An outstanding pope, Innocent XI, reorganized the financial structure of the papacy, financed Austrian campaigns against the Turks, protested the expulsion of the Huguenots from France and quarreled with Louis XIV over church *vs.* state supremacy.



FOX



LOCKE



ST. FRANCIS DE SALES





JOHN COTTON

ROGER WILLIAMS GREETED BY INDIANS



COTTON MATHER



ANNE HUTCHINSON



JOHN ELIOT

**North American Colonies.** Roger Williams, leader of the Rhode Island Colony, having established the colony to assure freedom of religious worship, saw to it that the first such law in the American colonies was passed in Rhode Island (1647). Although it was later repealed and the Church of England firmly established, Maryland passed a Toleration Act (1649). John Cotton, a founder of the Congregational Church in the Massachusetts Bay Colony, was largely responsible for the banishment of Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson from the colony for daring to dispute matters of doctrine or belief. The Cambridge Platform (1648) was a declaration of the principles of church government and discipline, having little to do with doctrine or belief. However, the Puritan colonies were theocracies, so that the form of constitution for the Congregational Churches was tantamount to colonial governmental law. The Mathers, Increase and Cotton, were the best known Puritans in Massachusetts. Increase Mather established the theocracy of that colony, and Cotton Mather, who led the revolt against Sir Edmund Andros, is probably best remembered for his part in the Salem witchcraft trials (1692). John Eliot, an English missionary to the Indians, translated the *Bible* into the Algonquin tongue. This work, *Natick* (1661-63), was the first bible printed in America.

**China.** Matteo Ricci, an Italian Jesuit missionary, gained wide influence, though few converts, in China in the late sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Ricci learned the language of the country, became the court mathematician and astronomer at Peking and, probably most important of all, sent carefully prepared details of Chinese civilization to Europe.

**India.** The practice of the Hindu religion was prohibited (1669) during the first purely religious persecution in centuries under Moslem rule in India. Govind Singh, powerful *guru* (leader) of the Sikhs, extended his rule over the whole of northwestern India. He initiated baptism by the sword and demanded zealous devotion to the Sikh cause as a national movement. In later periods this nationalist attitude of the Sikhs caused the British governors of India considerable trouble.

## ■ Literature in the 17th Century

**Spain.** No greater compliment can be paid a great literary masterpiece than to have its title become a part of an accepted word in the language. Such a word is *quixotic* which, according to Webster, means "characteristic of Don Quixote, especially in conceiving and attempting to realize lofty schemes; visionary; idealistic but unpractical." The book, *Don Quixote*, by Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra (1547-1616), though essentially a satire on chivalry and the chivalric romances of the time, is a penetrating study of the paradoxes in human nature. The madness, love of fantasy and soul-searching gentleness of the idealistic, deluded Don is contrasted with the realistic earthiness of Sancho Panza, his squire. George Santayana, twentieth century Spanish philosopher, suggested the moral of *Don Quixote* to be that "the force of idealism is wasted when it does not recognize the reality of things."

*Don Quixote*, written during the Golden Age of Spanish literature, has remained a classic of all times, and Cervantes, the greatest figure in Spanish literature, has been acclaimed one of the most influential writers of world literature.

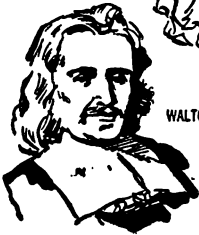
**France.** The Académie Française (the French Royal Academy), founded by Richelieu (granted letters patent by Louis XIII in 1635), gave a new dignity and prestige to men of letters, but was a decided restraining influence on their creative efforts. An attempt to "give definite rules to the language, to purify it and make it eloquent" resulted in a search for perfection in form and conformity in expression. Among the best known writings of the period were the brilliant, bitter and satiric *Maxims* of the master stylist, Duc de La Rochefoucauld (1665); the sophisticated, satiric *Fables* of Jean de la Fontaine, produced between 1668 and 1694; the letters of the Marquise de Sévigné; and *Telémaque* (1699), a satire on kings by François Fénelon.

**England.** This great period in English literature produced the metaphysical poetry of John Donne, the epic *Paradise Lost* (pub. 1667) by the Puritan poet John Milton, the verse of Robert Herrick and the Cavalier poets, the works of John Dryden and Restoration Drama. The rich variety of the time was further apparent in Samuel Pepys' famed *Diary* (1660-69), John Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* (1678) and Izaak Walton's *Compleat Angler* (1653).

CERVANTES



WALTON



BUNYAN



PEPYS



MILTON



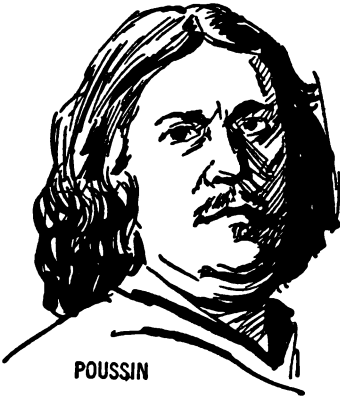
**Netherlands.** Baruch Spinoza, the lens grinder of Amsterdam, has been called "the noblest and most lovable of the great philosophers" by Lord Bertrand Russell. Spinoza was primarily concerned with ethics and attempted to arrive at an understanding of God through a study of ethics mathematically demonstrated. Often referred to as "the philosopher's philosopher," he exerted great influence on subsequent philosophical thought.

The great figure in Dutch literary history was Joost van den Vondel, who gained renown through his patriotic and religious poetry and his satiric verse which involved him in many religious controversies. His masterpiece, *Lucifer*, was a lyrical drama with magnificent choruses written in the best Dutch poetry ever produced.

**Japan.** The great poet Matsuo Basho wrote subtle, delightful *haiku* (17-syllable, 3-line poems) in a light vein. The novel, *The Man Who Spent His Life at Love-Making* by Ibara Saikaku, was representative of the romantic interest that characterized the literature of this period in Japan.

## ■ Art in the 17th Century

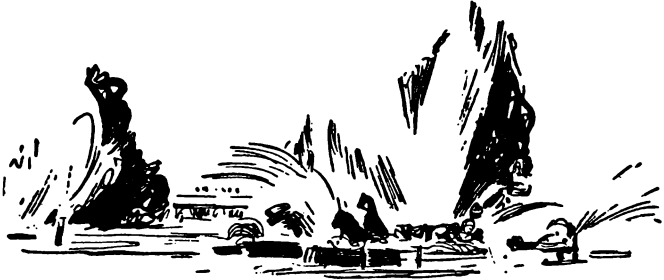
The rich, lavish elegance of the art of the Baroque period in France was designed to enhance the prestige of the king and the court. Just as Louis XIV was able to control all social and governmental institutions, so all artistic expression was controlled by the academies. The Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture, founded in 1648, made it possible for Charles Lebrun to dictate the visual arts of the period, while Jean Baptiste Lully wielded almost absolute power in the world of music. No artist was able to get a commission except through court (official) channels. The Louvre Palace was completed under the supervision of Claude Perrault. Jules Hardouin Mansart, nephew of the famed architect François Mansart, designed the two wings of the Versailles Palace which extended the building to a width of over a quarter of a mile. Lebrun directed the making of the great Gobelin tapestries (1663) and decorated the famous Hall of Mirrors at Versailles. The gardens of Versailles, laid out by André Le Nôtre, were part of a carefully planned grand design making use of all available space. Lorenzo Bernini, an outstanding Italian sculptor of the period, also worked for Louis XIV, but his best work was done in Italy



POUSSIN



SPINOZA



BASIN OF NEPTUNE, VERSAILLES

where he was responsible for many of the famed fountains of Rome. Two prominent French painters of the period, Nicolas Poussin and Claude Lorraine, spent most of their creative life in Italy. Poussin's classical allegories and serene landscapes influenced painters of his own and later periods.

**Netherlands.** The seventeenth century was the great period of Dutch art. A dramatic use of light and a "golden tone" distinguished the work of Rembrandt van Rijn, one of the great masters of art history, whose penetrating portrait studies expressed a profound understanding of people. His remarkable ability to evoke form and character with a few brush strokes can be seen in his many drawings and etchings. The lavishness of the Baroque style was exemplified in the work of the Flemish master, Peter Paul Rubens, who combined the rich color of Titian with the dramatic intensity of Tintoretto. Cool, intellectual objectivity, a superb use of color, and a subtle use of light marked the work of Jan Vermeer. The most celebrated of the many outstanding Dutch landscape artists of the period was Jacob van Ruisdael. The genre painters, Pieter de Hooch, Gerard Ter Borch and Jan Steen among others, like the Japanese artists of the period, portrayed the interests of the "middle class" of society.

**Spain.** The most celebrated master of the Spanish school, Diego Velasquez, gained fame for his magnificent portraits, paintings of the royal family, and sympathetic studies of dwarfs and buffoons. The paintings of José Ribera, Francisco Zurbarán and Bartolomé Murillo combined mysticism and realism in religious works of great emotional power.

**Japan.** Moronobu, master print-maker, was the real founder, though not inventor, of the ukiyo-e school of Japan. The ukiyo-e prints, called "pictures of the floating world" or "pictures of the passing scene," portrayed subjects from everyday life and, though scorned by the aristocracy, were bought by the prosperous merchants and rising middle class of the country. Ogata Korin, noted for his paintings of birds, revolutionized the art of lacquer work.

**China.** Ts'ang Ying-hsuan, supervisor of the imperial kilns at Ching-te-chen (1682), was largely responsible for the exquisite pottery which highlighted the Ch'ing period.



REMBRANDT



RUBENS



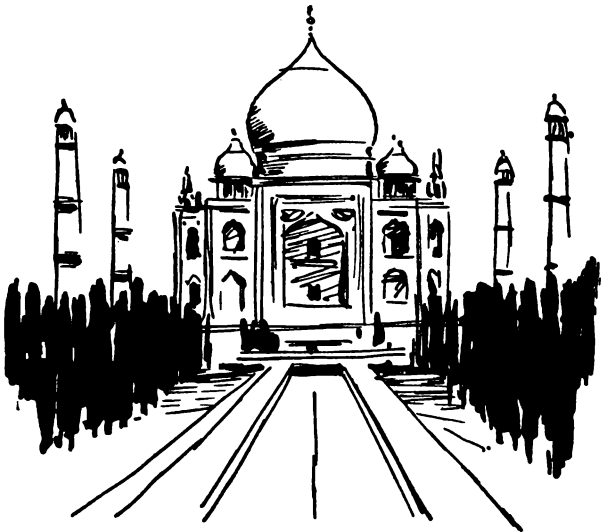
VELASQUEZ



## ■ Contemporary Architecture

The architect, Inigo Jones, introduced a severely classic style into England, marking the starting point of the Baroque and Georgian periods. Sir Christopher Wren, leading figure of the Restoration Period, designed many buildings in London in a "limited" Baroque style.

The polychromatic sculpture and architecture of Spain and Spanish America contrasted sharply with the serene majesty of the Taj Mahal in India and the stately brilliance of the Mosque at Isfahan in Persia.



TAJ MAHAL, INDIA

## ■ Music in the 17th Century

**France.** Jean Baptiste Lully established the form and language of the lyric tragedy or French opera which dominated the French operatic stage for a century. Lully, best known for *Alceste* (1674), introduced the French overture and wrote music for Molière's comedies and ballets. Jacques Chambonnières, considered a founder of the French harpsichord school, has been called the "father" of descriptive or programmatic music.

**Italy.** The first "modern" opera, introducing the *aria da capo* and making music and orchestra more important than drama, was written by Claudio Monteverdi and performed at the first public opera house in Venice (1637). Modern Italian opera really begins with Alessandro Scarlatti, founder of the Neapolitan School and creator of the typical form of Italian opera which spread throughout Europe. It was Scarlatti who developed the form of the Italian overture which rivaled the French overture of Lully.

The theater-going public played an important part in the development of opera. They were a noisy, demanding audience, and woe to the singer who didn't meet their high standards! The fruit vendors "sold out" their merchandise on such occasions. But though the opera public could be devastatingly critical, it also idolized its favorites and avidly read the newly introduced printed libretti. Because the unruly audience was so boisterous and wandered about the theater, the overture was created to seat and silence the public while drawing attention to the stage.

Arcangelo Corelli composed important instrumental music and outstanding sonatas for the violin. The concerto form made its appearance with the *concertos da camera* for two violins and bass (1686) by Giuseppi Torelli.

**England.** The composer and organist at Westminster Abbey, Henry Purcell, the most versatile musician of the period in England, wrote fifty-four works for the stage, including the opera *Dido and Aeneas* (1689). Purcell adapted several of Shakespeare's plays for the musical stage and wrote anthems, instrumental music, and secular songs of unusual quality.

**Germany.** The opera was introduced into Germany with the performance of *Dafne* by Heinrich Schütz, leading creator of North German music.

## ■ Theater in the 17th Century

**France.** Jean Racine, great tragic dramatist, said to be the "most French of French writers," contributed *Andromaque* (1667) and many other works in faultless Alexandrine verse to the French repertory. Penetrating characterization, emphasis on man's losing battle against fate as a theme, and love as a motivating force in life were the unique qualities of Racine's plays. He shared the spotlight with Molière (Jean Baptiste Poquelin), noted for his skillful, merciless dissection of human weaknesses, and probably the outstanding French writer of satiric comedy. Molière's best known comedies included *Le Misanthrope* (1666), *Tartufe* (1669) and *Le Bourgeoise Gentilhomme* (1670).

**England.** The period known as the Restoration began with the return of Charles II to the throne of England (1660). The King's Theatre opened in London (1674) under royal sponsorship and Charles, as a patron of the theater, played an important role in the development of Restoration drama exemplified in the works of John Dryden and William Congreve.

**Japan.** The golden age of modern Japanese theater was dominated by Monzaemon Chikamatsu, often referred to as the "Japanese Shakespeare." Chikamatsu, who introduced the romantic play into the Japanese repertory, wrote primarily for the puppet (Takemoto za) and Kabuki theaters. The great actor of the period, Ichikawa Danjuro I of Yedo, introduced the symbolic technique of acting called *aragoto*, which later developed into the style known as *mie*. The three-stringed *samisen*, used to accompany the important narrative and recitative, was the key instrument of theater music.



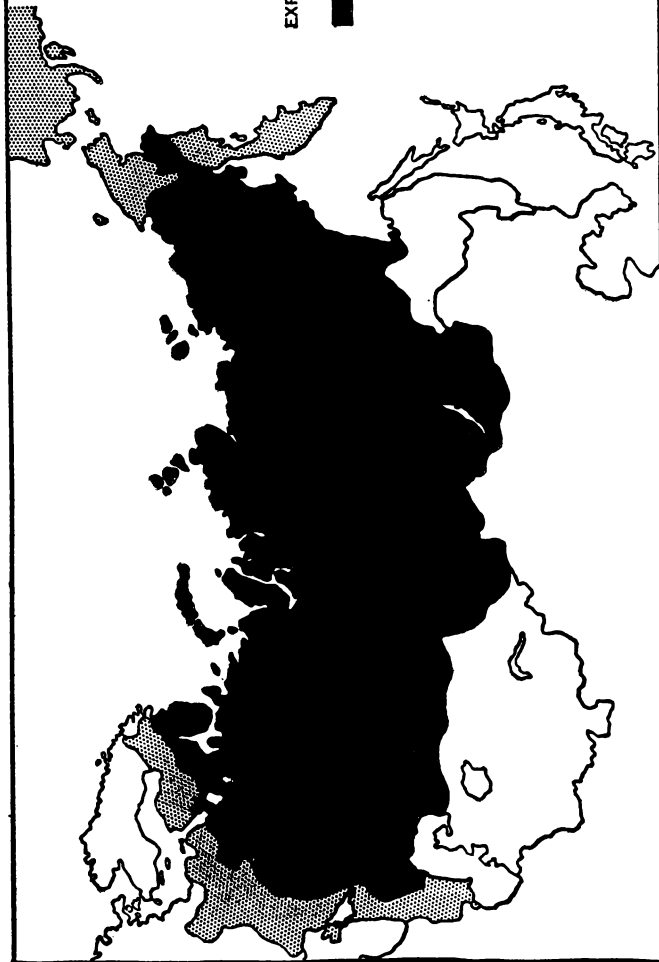


JAPANESE KABUKI THEATER



# EXPANSION OF RUSSIA

Territory held  
at the time of  
Peter the Great  
Acquired by 1815



# Europe in the 18th Century

## ■ Russian Expansion

From the fifteenth century to the present, the most striking characteristic of Russian history has been the steady territorial growth of the nation. The distant predecessors of Peter the Great transformed the Duchy of Moscovy into the Russian Empire, which grew until it embraced a vast expanse from the Polish border to the Pacific Ocean. Peter (1689-1725) was determined to acquire new land at the expense of Eastern Europe and the Ottoman Turkish Empire. This tsar, who admired European institutions, attempted to transform primitive Russia into a modern state with an efficient administration and an army and navy capable of defeating European powers. Peter's despotic power over state, Orthodox Church, and the illiterate, superstitious peasant masses was unlimited. He even subdued the arrogant aristocrats.

Theoretically, everything belonged to the tsar who granted land in exchange for the assumption of military and civic duties, but, after the death of Peter, the aristocrats obtained one exemption after another from undesirable tasks while acquiring more land, privileges and serfs. Although the nobles avoided military obligations, they gladly occupied lucrative administrative offices (only one tax ruble out of three actually reached the tsar). The growth of aristocratic power, the widening economic gap between classes and masses, and the common use of French and German by educated people produced two Russian worlds—an aristocratic society and a peasant culture.

## ■ Russian Politics

Aristocratic irresponsibility was stimulated by palace revolutions and weak tsars. Peter's son died after torture, and Peter's wife, Catherine I (1725-27), a shrewd Lithuanian of peasant origin, struggled as tsarina to continue the modernization program, but after her death reactionary nobles sabotaged Peter's projects. Anna (1730-40), surrounded by a widely hated clique of foreign advisors, established a brutal, inefficient administration which ignored aristocratic rapaciousness at home while

pursuing aggressive diplomatic and military policies abroad. After Anna's death, court nobles deposed Ivan VI and crowned the lazy, irresponsible, uneducated Elizabeth (1741-62) who allowed the arrogant nobles free rein in the seizure of property and privileges. The next monarch, Peter III (1762), was hardly an improvement. This weak, erratic man astonished Europe by changing sides in the Seven Years' War at a moment when invading Russian, French and Austrian troops threatened to destroy the Prussian enemy. The Tsarina Catherine led a successful court conspiracy to murder Peter and establish herself as ruler of Russia.

Catherine the Great (1762-96) was an intelligent, perceptive woman who understood the ideas of Peter the Great and did not allow her emotional involvements to interfere with her major political projects. Catherine corresponded with French philosophers and based her plans for social reform upon their ideas. She knew, however, the limits of her power and did not persist when adverse circumstances or aristocratic intervention made action difficult. Few of her good intentions were translated effectively into action. On the contrary, the miserable living conditions of the serfs worsened until Yemelyan Pugachev, pretending to be the murdered Peter III, led a revolution against the oppressors of the peasants and gained control of south and central Russia (1773). After defeating Pugachev, Catherine chose to reorganize the state bureaucracy for protection against future revolts rather than to alleviate the conditions which created the rebellion of 1773. Catherine the Great left tsarist power intact for her successors: the insane Paul I (1796-1801) who exercised royal authority more effectively than most of his sane predecessors, and Alexander I (1801-25) who, like his grandmother, sentimentalized about reform but died a despot.

**Russia and Sweden.** Internal weaknesses never halted Russian progress toward a greater empire. Russia did not have two consecutive years of real peace during the entire eighteenth century as Imperial armies fought tribes and nations from the Arctic to the Black Sea and from the Baltic to the Pacific Ocean. The most important conflicts, however, were with Sweden, Turkey and Poland.

Before fighting Russia, Swedish kings had struggled for a century to make the monarchy supreme at home and throughout northern Europe. With a small population and modest resources, the Swedes had been surprisingly successful until Peter the Great infringed on Swedish power in the Baltic.

**RISE OF RUSSIA**

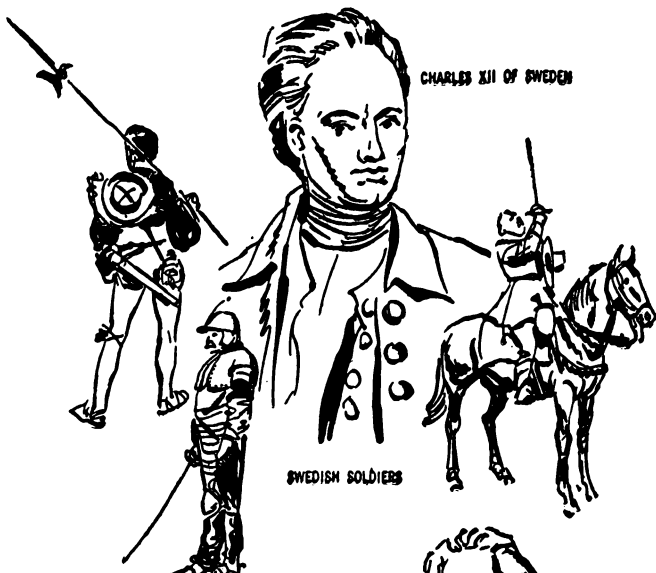
**CATHERINE THE GREAT OF RUSSIA**



**PEASANT REVOLT**







CHARLES XII OF SWEDEN

SWEDISH SOLDIERS



KOSCIUSKO, POLISH PATRIOT



FREDERICK AUGUSTUS III, POLAND



Charles XII, a 17-year-old military genius of extraordinary daring, won victories against Russia, Denmark-Norway, Poland and Saxony during the Great Northern War. At Poltava (1709) he was, however, defeated (as were Napoleon and Hitler in later centuries) by Russian winters, distance and numbers. Exhausted Sweden lost her great power status and landlocked Russia won a foothold in the Baltic area. Sweden fought two more eighteenth-century wars against Russia, and after 1815, having lost Finland, retired from power politics by adopting a policy of permanent neutrality.

**Russia and Turkey.** The Russians wanted the Balkans and the north shore of the Black Sea even more than the Baltic lands. Sweden with a population of 800,000 was defeated only with great difficulty, and the great Ottoman Turkish Empire which controlled the southern lands provided an even more formidable enemy. The Turkish society and state were organized for war under an absolute ruler (the Sultan) assisted by a special corps trained from childhood for war and government (the Janissaries). The Sultan ruled provinces from the Atlantic Ocean to the Persian Gulf. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, however, this once invincible empire steadily declined. A government disorganized by harem intrigues and palace revolutions was no longer able to fight aggressively in Africa, Asia and Europe, and the Russians defeated the Turks during three major eighteenth-century wars. The third Russo-Turkish War (1792-96) enabled the Russians to win complete control of the northern shore of the Black Sea and a foothold in the Balkans.

**Russia and Poland.** The most important Russian acquisitions were won from Poland. At the beginning of the eighteenth century the Polish kingdom extended from the Baltic to the Ukraine, but by 1795 the nation had disappeared from the maps of Europe. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Polish population, towns and agricultural prosperity declined as foreign invaders marched repeatedly across the country, and the arrogant, irresponsible aristocrats savagely exploited the peasants. The nation was governed by an elected king who ruled with the aid of the Diet (an aristocratic, feudal assembly). The Diet did little, since each member possessed a veto on every action, and the choice of a king was usually decided by the foreign leader who bought the largest number of noble votes. Aided by these circumstances, Russia, Prussia and Austria divided the country among themselves (the three partitions of Poland: 1772, 1793 and 1795).




## ■ Rise of Prussia and Austria

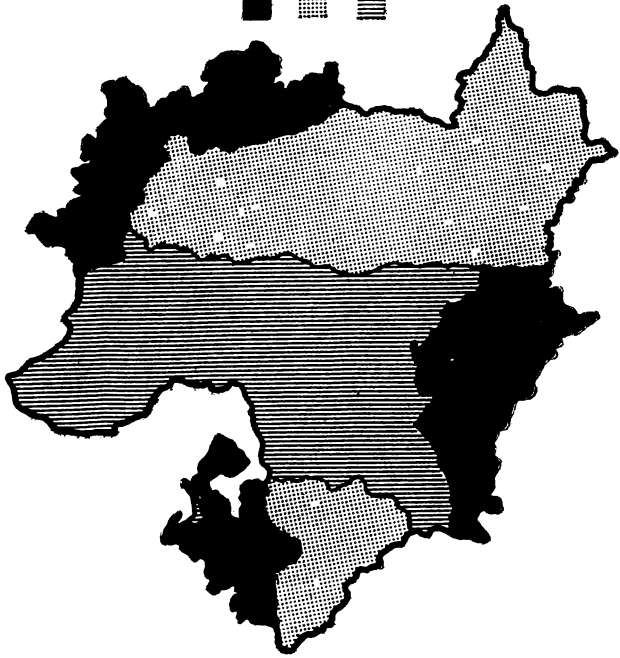
**Austria.** Russia's neighbor and rival for territory in Poland and the Balkans, the Austrian Empire, was a collection of central European provinces governed by the Hapsburg family, rather than a national state with a common culture, such as England or France. In the sixteenth century the Hapsburgs had also ruled Spain, southern Italy, the Netherlands and Latin America; but Anglo-Dutch sea power, the Thirty Years' War, and the conquests of Louis XIV destroyed Hapsburg predominance. During the eighteenth century, the Hapsburg family recovered a measure of its former power by making effective use of its hereditary possessions (Austria, Bohemia and Hungary) and by acquiring new provinces in Poland, the Balkans and elsewhere. Prince Eugene's brilliant victories over French and Turkish armies between 1705 and 1718 enabled the Hapsburgs to gain the Austrian Netherlands (modern Belgium), north Italian districts and several Balkan provinces. Political affairs proceeded smoothly for the Empire until Charles VI died without a male heir (1740). Although the emperor, long before his death, had obtained from Imperial nobles and European rulers recognition of his daughter's legal right to inherit his titles and lands, Frederick II of Prussia brushed aside Maria Theresa's claims and led a coalition of states in a war to plunder the Hapsburg holdings.

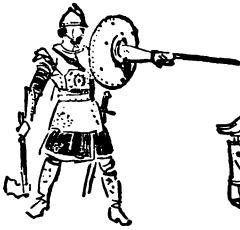
## ■ Austro-Prussian Conflicts

**Prussia** had only a fraction of Austria's resources, and prior to 1713 had played an insignificant role in international politics. Frederick William I (1713-40) used every device at his command to form an army of 80,000 troops from a small state whose only resources were a disciplined population, a warlike and loyal aristocracy (Junkers) and an efficient bureaucracy. After a lifetime of carefully nurturing his sparse resources, the harsh, despotic old king left his domain to his son whom he despised as a poet, a dreamer and a weakling. Frederick II, the Great, did differ greatly from his father: he abhorred the "drill-sergeant" mentality of the Junkers; thought the German language fit only for his boorish subjects; and preferred to spend his leisure time writing French poetry, corresponding with the French *philosophes*, formulating political theories or performing as a polished musician. All of these accomplishments might have been predicted by Frederick's scorn-

**PARTITIONS OF POLAND**

-  1772—Russia, Prussia, and Austria
-  1793—Russia and Prussia
-  1795—Russia, Prussia, and Austria





**RUSSIAN ARMOR PIECE AND SHIELD,  
MIDDLE 17 CENTURY**



**RUSSIAN HORSEMAN, 1600**

**RUSSIAN SOLDIERS IN WINTER**



**RUSSIAN HELMETS  
OF WADDLED CLOTH,  
14-17 CENTURY**



**PRUSSIAN ARMY IN ACTION**

ful father, but he had not recognized in his son a potential political and military genius who was to press the last measure of energy, obedience and efficiency from bureaucrats, Junker officers and common soldiers in order to 'defeat half a dozen nations and make Prussia into a great power.

Frederick started the War of the Austrian Succession (1740-48) by seizing Silesia and urging his French, Spanish, Bavarian and Saxon allies to take what they pleased. Maria Theresa's subjects gallantly rallied around the young queen, and only Frederick's military brilliance enabled Prussian forces to cope with the wealthy and powerful Austrian Empire. France was kept from using all her forces in the European war by the distractions of maritime and colonial fighting with England; nor were Prussia's other allies as effective as Frederick had hoped. When Maria Theresa grudgingly surrendered Silesia, she began at once to plot revenge with Prussia's former allies. The French Bourbons and the Austrian Hapsburgs had been feuding for centuries, but now Maria Theresa with the help of the French king's reigning mistress, Madame de Pompadour, created a "Diplomatic Revolution" by negotiating a Franco-Austrian agreement and inviting Elizabeth of Russia to join this anti-Prussian coalition (Frederick referred to his vengeful feminine enemies as "the three furies"). Faced with a hostile population of 3,500,000, ten times as great as Prussia's, Frederick boldly marched into Saxony to seize the grain crops and to conscript troops. The Seven Years' War that followed (1756-63) gave the Prussian king every opportunity to display his military genius. Frederick defeated the Russians near Prague, marched two hundred miles in twelve days to block the French, and then turned south to face the Austrians in Silesia. The energy of the Prussian officers, the discipline of the men, and the audacity of the king were incredible, but by 1761 an iron ring of invading Russian, French and Austrian troops threatened to destroy the state. At that fateful moment the Tsarina Elizabeth died, and her unpredictable successor, Peter III, withdrew the Russian armies and made an alliance with Prussia! The coalition disintegrated and Frederick kept his domains intact. The Prussian monarch at once began to rebuild the war-shattered nation and strengthen it by encouraging the growth of new industries, the expansion of commerce, the development of more efficient agricultural methods, and the immigration of foreigners to settle unoccupied farm lands. In the remaining years of his reign, the despotic Frederick gave his subjects uniform justice and religious toleration while extracting from them complete

obedience and unusually high taxes to support the Prussian war machine. Unfortunately for the king's policies, neither of his successors, Frederick William II (1786-97) and Frederick William III (1797-1840), possessed Frederick's ability, and it was not until the 1860's that Prussia again played as powerful a role in international politics.

### ■ Enlightened Despotism in Austria

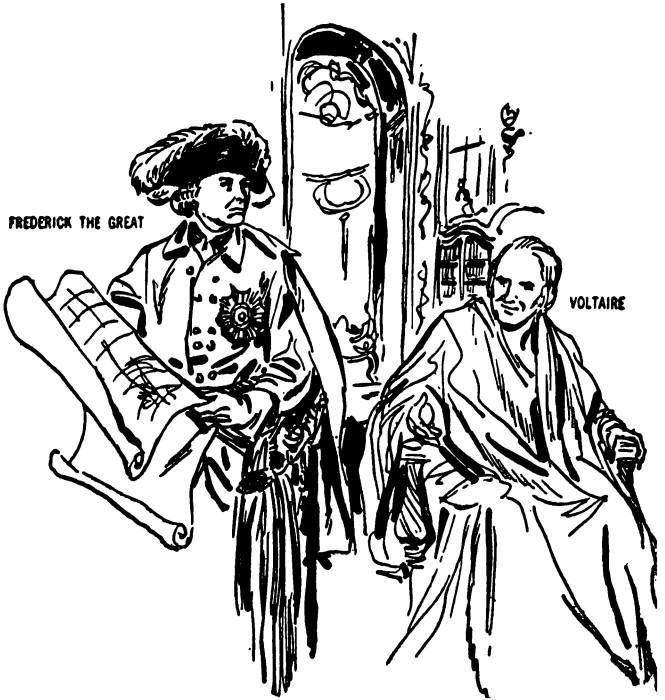
Frederick the Great was not the only monarch who wanted to build a modern, just and efficient state. As criticism of archaic institutions and badly administered governments grew, almost every European nation produced at least one "enlightened despot" who wished to reform the state without relinquishing royal power. Catherine the Great of Russia and Charles III of Spain were also attracted by the new reform ideas. Even Maria Theresa, a devout Catholic who disliked Frederick's religious skepticism and Catherine's immorality, saw the need for a more efficient administration in her scattered domains. When Joseph II (1780-90) inherited the Austrian crown from Maria Theresa, he undertook a variety of radical reforms: the liberation of the serfs, the distribution of the tax burden among all classes and the introduction of a rigidly centralized administration in Imperial possessions from the Netherlands to Hungary. Joseph's successor, Leopold II (1790-92), abandoned Joseph's reform approach, and Francis I (1792-1835) in later years strongly opposed virtually all political change.



MARIA THERESA OF AUSTRIA

FREDERICK THE GREAT

VOLTAIRE







LOUIS XV OF FRANCE



MARQUISE DE POMPADOUR



COMTESSE DU BARRY



FRENCH SALON

# Anglo-French Conflicts

## ■ French and English Resources

The Austro-Prussian wars were also world conflicts between England and France, for these two great Atlantic nations acquired territory in America and Asia as Austria, Prussia and Russia expanded in Central and Eastern Europe. The Anglo-French struggle for colonies and trade began during the era of Louis XIV and continued until the defeat of Napoleon (1815). In the seventeenth century France seemed destined to win the international conflict, but Louis XIV concentrated on the domination of Europe while the British tended to emphasize the navy and international commerce. Even in the eighteenth century France appeared to be the superior power with a larger population, a prosperous peasantry and extensive fertile farm lands. (Both nations enjoyed expanding commerce.) However, the British population rose sharply, improved agricultural methods produced larger harvests, and toward the end of the century the industrial revolution began to create new sources of power. While Great Britain developed a stable and effective government, a constitutional monarchy, France struggled with the problems produced by a decaying absolutism.

**France.** Louis XIV, who achieved great power and prestige through his early wars, brought devastation and near-bankruptcy to France by waging the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-13). The Grand Monarch's passing was mourned neither by the common people who hated the high taxes and heavy war casualties, nor by the nobles who resented the severe, almost prudish moral tone imposed on the court by the King's last mistress, Madame de Maintenon. The Duke of Orléans, Regent for the five-year-old Louis XV, abandoned the hollow piety of Louis XIV's last years in favor of gambling, gaiety and boudoir gallantry. The Duke in his own careless fashion also attempted to restore the nation's prosperity. A friend of increased trade and colonization, Orléans granted control of royal finance to John Law, a Scottish adventurer who formed the Mississippi Company for colonial trade. Company shares rose astronomically in France's first modern economic boom until the "Mississippi Bubble" burst (1720) (in the same year

the collapse of the "South Sea Bubble" in England caused financial panic). Orléans died in 1723 and power was entrusted to the aging Cardinal André de Fleury who brought sanity to royal finances, prosperity to the economy, and peace to France. The War of the Polish Succession (1733-35) required only modest forces and funds, and the price of the War of the Austrian Succession was kept at a minimum until Fleury's death (1743).

Louis XV, who preferred to be his own prime minister, returned to bold policies, extravagant finances and careless administration. The intelligent but irresolute king erred badly when he allowed decisions to be made by court favorites and mistresses—especially Madame de Pompadour. The French economy prospered and aristocratic life was rich with gaiety and charming people who made both an art and a science of pleasure. France suffered serious international setbacks as the institution of the monarchy continued to decline. Louis XV, cynically dismissing the future, neglected so many tasks that the bureaucracy and especially the courts threatened to escape from royal control.

In 1774, 19-year-old Louis XVI inherited an ineffectual administrative machine and a state close to bankruptcy. The well-meaning young king, vaguely aware of the need for reform, appointed the famous political philosopher, Turgot, as controller-general of finances. Turgot wished to free commerce from outdated restrictions as well as make the upper classes assume a share of the tax burden, but court nobles and the frivolous Queen Marie Antoinette complained of the new reforms until the king dismissed Turgot. The philosopher, however, had the last word: "Remember, Sire, that weakness put the head of Charles I on the block." The Swiss financier, Jacques Necker, was called in to miraculously finance the government without seriously disturbing the upper classes. Extensive French assistance to the American Revolution drove the state deeper into debt, and Necker maintained the flow of funds to the king by negotiating huge loans. But by 1786, when half the national income went to service the debt, emergency measures were essential to avoid the financial collapse of the state and prevent radical action by discontented social classes.

**Great Britain.** As France lost colonial possessions, Britain expanded her Empire, and as the French state moved closer to ruin the British government found more effective political machinery for commanding the loyalty of its subjects. After the Glorious Revolution (1688) the center of power shifted

NECKER



DUKE OF ORLEANS



FRENCH PEOPLE BURDENED WITH HEAVY TAXATION



**GEORGE I OF ENGLAND**



**GEORGE II OF ENGLAND**



**LOUIS XVI OF FRANCE**

**MARIE ANTOINETTE**



from the king to the House of Commons, but Parliament did not know how to exercise that power. When Queen Anne died without heirs (1714), Parliament asked the ruler of Hanover (who had had a Stuart ancestor) to serve as king of Great Britain. The first two monarchs, George I (1714-27) and George II (1727-60), were German-speaking princes preoccupied with safeguarding their German possessions, and the absence of a firm royal hand encouraged legislators as well as royal ministers to assume additional power.

The beginnings of the two-party system can be traced to the reign of James II (1685-89) when the House of Commons split into Tory (royalist) and Whig (opposition) factions, but the modern pattern of parliamentary government crystallized under Horace Walpole (1721-42), Britain's "first Prime Minister." George I could not and did not wish to follow the complicated political conversations of the ministers at the Cabinet meetings, so Walpole became both the leader and the spokesman for the Cabinet. The prime minister insisted that the ministers act as a unit once a decision had been made and resign together if a majority in the House of Commons voted against major decisions of the government. While Walpole often relied on patronage and bribery to keep the support of Parliament (a policy his successors followed avidly) he respected majority rule, and when more than half of the legislators voted against a policy, he resigned after twenty-one years as prime minister. Thus by the middle of the eighteenth-century, Britain had become a constitutional monarchy with a powerful parliament and a lasting political system. Although George III (1760-1820) attempted to rule personally as "the Patriot King" above politics, he based his government on a majority in the House of Commons, and after the loss of the American colonies in 1783 he abandoned his power to William Pitt the Younger, who guided British destinies through the stormy years of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic period until his death in 1806. From Walpole to Pitt, the prime minister's power rested on parliaments dominated by prosperous British landowners and their commercial allies. The government was certainly not a democracy, but every powerful interest had a political voice and, on the whole, British society was the most tolerant and the least oppressive in Europe.

## ■ European Powers and Latin America

Among all the British economic groups none was more carefully protected in foreign affairs than the commercial interests. The most attractive markets for future exploitation were in Latin America, and British leaders (as well as French officials) frequently attempted to secure more trading privileges in that area. The Spanish and Portuguese governments wished to maintain a closed commercial system between mother countries and the colonies, but neither nation was a great power in the eighteenth century. Spanish population, wealth and intellectual life had been declining for over a century, and the partial reforms of the Bourbon rulers, Philip V (1700-46) and his sons, Ferdinand VI (1746-58) and Charles III (1758-88), affected only superficial aspects of the stagnant Spanish society. Portugal, a small state with a vast empire in Brazil, Africa and Asia, changed even less despite the frantic efforts of the Marquis of Pombal, first minister to Joseph I (1750-77).

Latin American provincials fared better than their European masters. While Spain reserved the highest posts, particularly the much sought-after offices of Viceroy in Mexico and Peru and the powerful position of Intendant in all areas for native-born Spaniards, the Creoles (Americans of Spanish descent) occupied many of the local administrative positions and exploited their power over the masses of Indians and Negro slaves. The Latin American ruling class had benefited from the establishment by the crown of the renowned universities in Mexico City and Lima and had produced a flourishing provincial culture.

Income for imports came from the export of gold and silver (diamonds in Brazil), coffee and tobacco. Although the king of Spain theoretically had absolute power over the Colonials, much power slipped into Creole hands; bans and indexes of the Spanish Inquisition were often ignored by educated men who read the books of the major European reformers as a matter of course; and Spain had neither the factories nor the facilities to supply the goods, services and ships the colonies needed. The Latin Americans, impatient with waiting for the yearly arrival of a fleet too small to serve their needs, often welcomed the ships of other nations.

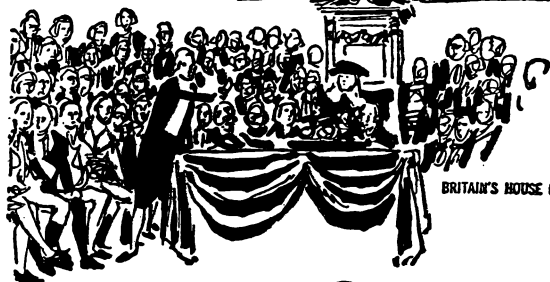


**EUROPEAN COLONIES IN LATIN AMERICA**  
(about 1790)

-  Spain
-  Great Britain
-  The Netherlands
-  France
-  Portugal



GEORGE III OF ENGLAND



BRITAIN'S HOUSE OF COMMONS



PITT



WALPOLE

# World War I and Its Aftermath

## ■ Causes of the War

Competition for trade and colonies in the Afro-Asian world helped to create an armaments race among the great European powers. Although politicians and social thinkers stressed the absence of general wars since 1815 and insisted that mankind was gradually outgrowing such "barbarism," European peoples were divided by strong antagonisms which threatened the peace: Englishmen disliked the new German economic competition and naval rivalry; patriotic Germans complained that the richest colonies usually went to France or England; the French still felt the bitter sting of defeat at the hands of Germany in 1871 and longed for the return of Alsace-Lorraine; and the Italians wished to secure "unredeemed" Italian provinces from Austria. The most crucial area was the Balkans where a half-dozen small nations struggled for survival and expansion, while the neighboring great powers, Austria and Russia, sought political domination. When the Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand was assassinated on June 28, 1914 during a visit to a Slavic province of the empire, an international crisis developed. The assassin was a Bosnian, an agent of the terrorist Serbian Society, the Union of Death (or the Black Hand). Austrian leaders, certain of German support, decided to crush Serbia and thus eliminate one source of dangerous nationalist agitation. Tsar Nicholas II, who wished to check Austrian aggression against his Serbian ally, was urged by President Poincaré of France to take a strong stand. When Nicholas ordered a general mobilization of troops, Kaiser Wilhelm II threatened war unless the Russians stopped their military preparations, and the French provided guarantees of neutrality. Both nations rejected these demands, and on August 3, 1914 World War I began. The British hesitated, but when German troops entered Belgium on their way to France, the House of Commons voted to enter the struggle against Germany. While Turkey joined the Central Powers (Germany and Austria-Hungary) in 1914 (Bulgaria joined in 1915), Italy refused to fight with its old German ally and eventually (1915) entered the war on the side of the Western Allies—Russia, France,

then failed to take Madras (December, 1758-February, 1759), French claims in India were practically destroyed.

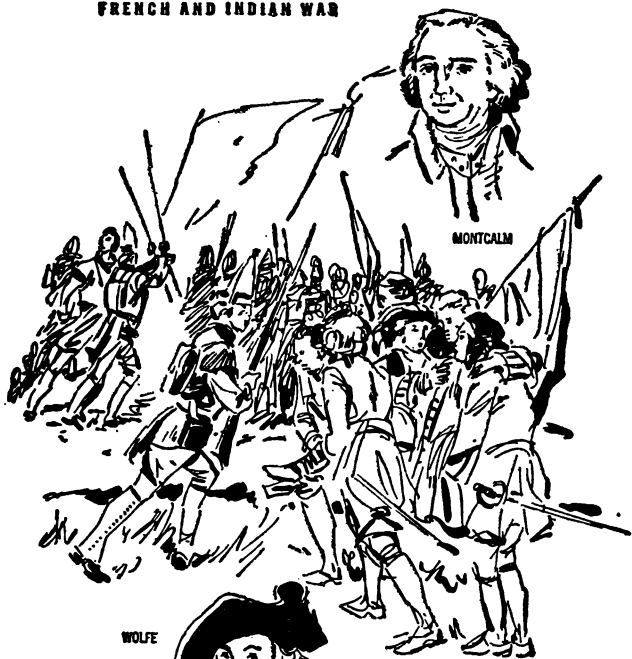
The North American campaigns were even more successful as the chain of French and Indian posts in the Great Lakes was broken. The "invincible" fortress of Quebec was conquered in the dramatic battle of the Plains of Abraham that took the lives of two gallant opponents, the British General James Wolfe and the French General Louis Montcalm (1759). At the Peace Conference in Paris (1763) the French surrendered Canada, and the British emerged victorious from a century-long conflict for a continent.

### ■ British Colonies in North America

The British did not realize the value of their American empire, and after twelve short years of ownership, following the French and Indian War, the colonies rebelled against British rule. In 1700, British North America had been no more than a few scattered, small settlements along the Atlantic shore, but by 1763 two and a half million persons occupied the eastern coast from Newfoundland to Georgia. Virginia planters sent tobacco to all of Europe; New England prospered on the celebrated triangular trade of slaves, molasses and rum between Africa, the West Indies and North America; and the middle colonies provided foodstuffs for the prosperous, densely populated West Indian islands. A sense of social identity gradually developed, and as early as 1754 Benjamin Franklin at the Albany Convention suggested a plan of union. During the 1760's, the American colonies were fast approaching a level of economic and political maturity which would inevitably create demands for independence.

However, in 1763 neither colonists nor British officials advocated independence. When British ministers set out to reorganize sprawling territories around the world, they failed to consider American political growth and were surprised by the strong opposition from colonists who thought in terms of the province rather than the empire. George Grenville's closure of the lands beyond the Appalachian mountains to settlement was meant as a temporary measure which would be repealed when rational political plans for the West had been made. The colonists could only see that dreams of homes and speculative riches had been destroyed, and they were even more alarmed when the Quebec Act (1774), extending the boundaries of that province to the Ohio River, seemed to turn the West over to

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR





COLONIALISM



SAMUEL ADAMS



BOSTON TEA PARTY



PATRICK HENRY



the Catholic French-speaking Canadians. Nor could the colonists agree with the British on the need for ten thousand troops to protect them from Indian raids and Spanish or French invasion.

To a large extent, the Americans had been left to govern themselves, and they were unhappy with British schemes to administer the Empire more thoroughly and efficiently. The British were annoyed with the apparent unwillingness of the colonists to pay a share of the expenses for their own defense, and royal officials regarded American protests as unacceptable by any political standards. The fact that smuggling had become a habit did not diminish British irritation when the Molasses Act of 1764 (lowering the duties on sugar goods essential to the celebrated New England rum) produced a great clamor by providing for the actual enforcement of customs duties. While the Stamp Act of 1764 which taxed newspapers, documents and all paper goods had a British counterpart, it still offended every articulate colonist. Patrick Henry made a fiery appeal to the Virginia Legislature, Samuel Adams' aroused Bostonians, the "Sons of Liberty," organized to stop the sale of the tax stamps, and a Stamp Act Congress in 1765 demanded the repeal of the bill.

A new government in Great Britain did drop the measure, but parliament asserted its power to legislate for the colonies by passing the Townshend Acts which reorganized the colonial courts and provided for duties on paper, paint, glass, lead and other goods imported into the colonies. The Townshend Acts faced a violent reception in America as the colonists wrote defenses of their natural rights and organized non-importation agreements against British goods. Violence flared in Boston during 1770 when British soldiers and a Boston mob clashed. The tension did not subside until all of the Townshend duties except the tax on tea were repealed. Although Colonial radicals such as Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams and Thomas Jefferson used the celebrated "committees of correspondence" to keep the controversy alive, for a few years it seemed that the colonies and the home country might resolve their differences.

# Asia and Africa in the 18th Century

## ■ European Empires

While Great Britain struggled with the problem of imperial organization, the French and the Spaniards rebuilt their navies and waited for a chance to renew the struggle. Spain lost only minor possessions in 1763 and France retained slave-trading posts in Africa, prosperous West Indian sugar islands and some possessions in India. Although the other two major imperial states, Portugal and the Netherlands, lost influence in European affairs, they retained their empires by associating themselves with Great Britain. Portugal ceased to be a great power as early as the sixteenth century, but the Netherlands fought three wars against the British and withstood the French onslaught for forty years.

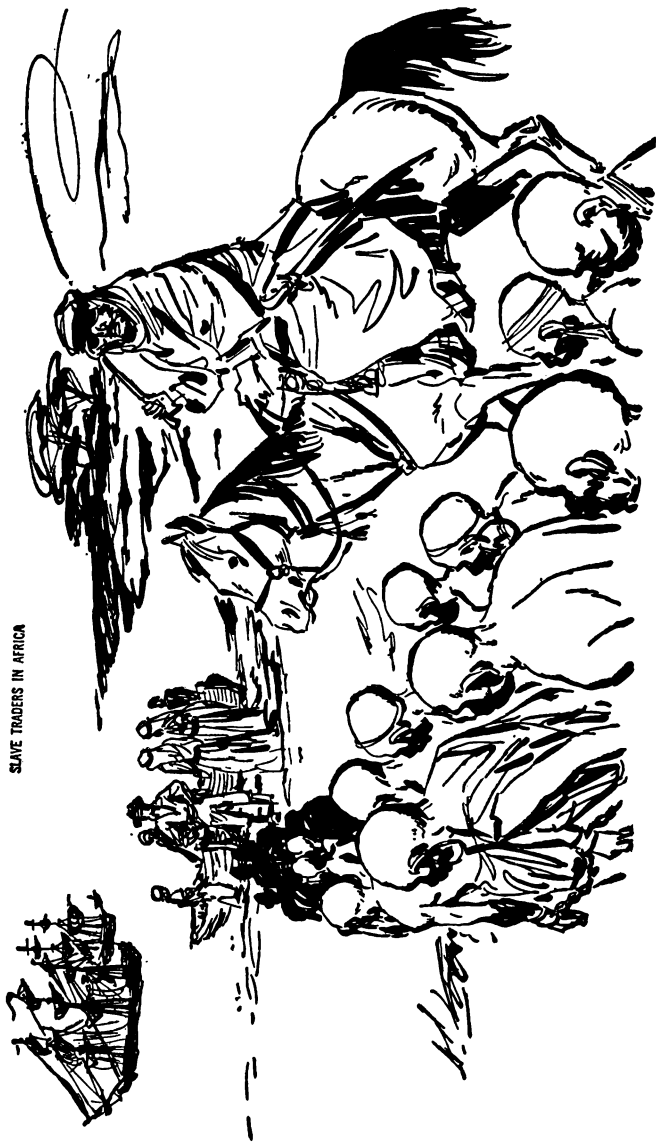
From 1689 to 1702 the Netherlands and England were ruled by a common monarch, William of Orange, and after 1702 the lengthy Dutch internal conflict between republicans and supporters of William's descendants did not disrupt the alliance with Britain.

During the second half of the century the demands of a minority for closer association with France were usually ignored by the dominant Dutch merchants who realized that the retention of their profitable empire depended on British friendship.

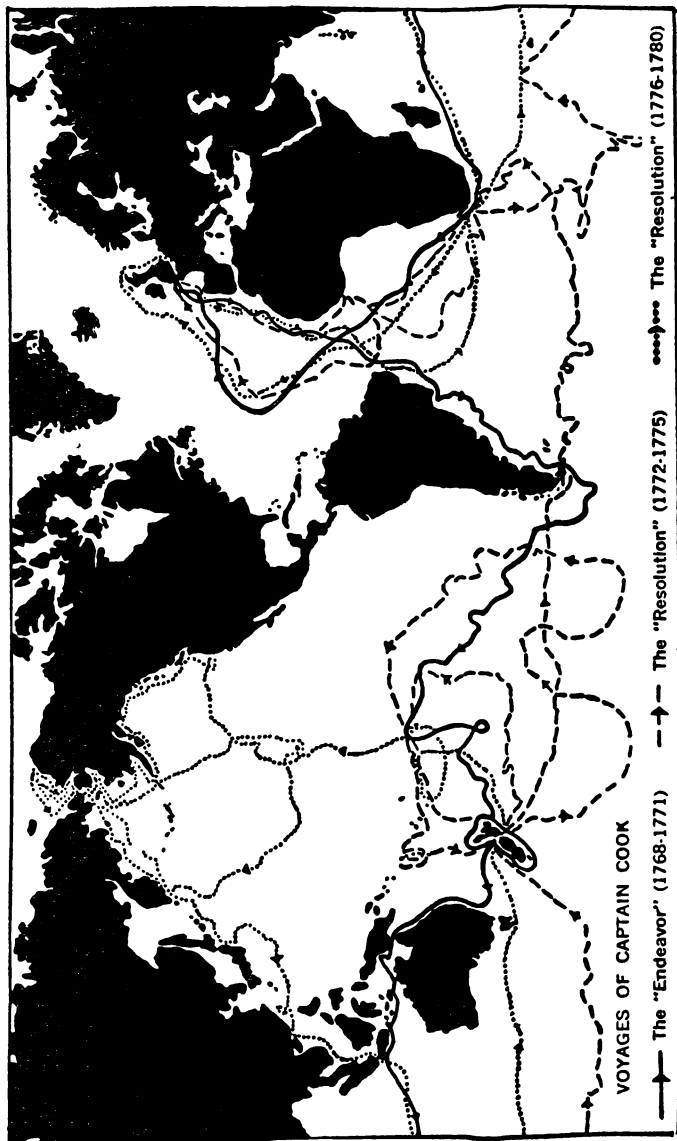
## ■ Africa

The Netherlands, Great Britain, Spain, France and Portugal all participated in the lucrative slave trade. Portugal maintained a chain of bases on the east and west coasts of Africa, and the other powers had scattered trading stations. During the eighteenth century, millions of slaves were purchased from warring Negro tribesmen, Arab slavers or European colonists and transported to the Americas under conditions so terrible that often more than half perished before reaching West Indian or Virginia plantations. While the slaves came from many regions of the Continent, the west coast between Senegal and the Congo provided the largest numbers. Except as a source of

SLAVE TRADERS IN AFRICA







slaves and luxury goods, the Europeans were not really interested in Africa. The "Boers" (Dutch) had a settlement in the extreme south, and the Moslem Arabs lived on the Mediterranean coast north of the Sahara Desert; but between these two geographical extremes lay a teeming continent of diverse cultures and tribes almost unknown to Europeans.

## ■ Asia

The large islands of the Pacific were far more extensively colonized by Europeans than the African coastal areas. The Dutch East India Company continued to rule the vast empire extending from the Malay peninsula to New Guinea and from Ceylon to the Celebes. The Dutch company used efficient business methods and effectively exploited native labor to acquire large quantities of spices, tea and other luxury goods to sell in Europe. The empire of the Netherlands might have been even larger if its great power status had lasted long enough for political exploitation of pioneer Dutch voyages to Australia, New Zealand and Tasmania. As it turned out, the explorations and claims of Captain James Cook laid the foundations for the first British settlements in Australia (1788) and nearby islands.

**Japan.** Since the Spaniards had colonized and Christianized the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands, the only remaining island group open to lucrative commercial or political exploitation was Japan, a nation which had resisted European traders and adventurers. Although Japan's earliest written records (historically accurate from about the 5th century A. D.) make the nation seem a newcomer in comparison to its Asiatic neighbors, and though much of Japanese culture was derived from the Chinese, Japanese civilization merits comparison with the great civilizations of the world.

All classes of Japanese society, and particularly the commoners, were oriented toward obedience, tradition and respect for authority. The lower classes believed the state to be under the domination of an emperor (mikado) who was to have held absolute power, but the actual task of government usually fell to a military chief (the shogun) aided by a powerful warrior aristocracy (the samurai). Japan escaped conquest by the Europeans, despite the fact that the oriental habit of obedience to a despotic state and society made it easier for small groups of Europeans with superior technology and military tactics to seize power at the top and gain almost automatic submission from the docile masses in other major Eastern civilizations.

Although the shogun granted limited commercial concessions to European nations in the sixteenth century, an exclusion edict of 1636 eliminated all commerce except for two Dutch ships a year; until the arrival of Commodore Perry's American ships in 1854, the Japanese lived in proud isolation.

**China.** Having been a highly developed civilization when the ancestors of George III and Louis XV were mere primitive tribesmen, China maintained an attitude of lofty condescension toward "barbarian" Europe. In the eighteenth century the Chinese Empire was ruled very effectively by the Manchus, who had emerged from the north in earlier years to conquer the emperor and the ruling class. K'ang-hsi (1662-1722) and Ch'ien-lung (1736-95) crushed revolts in Formosa and Tibet, established vassal states in distant areas like Burma and Mongolia, and brought public order to China, making possible a rapid growth of prosperity and population (one hundred fifty million by mid-century). While commerce with Japan, India, the Philippines, Arab lands and European traders increased, foreigners who wished to trade in China were limited to the city of Canton and placed under strict supervision.

Because China was already a land of many religions—Taoism, Buddhism and Confucianism—Christian missionaries were allowed relatively free rein in the country, and the Jesuits were often encouraged by emperors, who regarded them as the most tolerant of the missionary groups. Confucianism, which stressed ethics, tradition, respect for family and the intellectual life, continued to be the most influential religion.

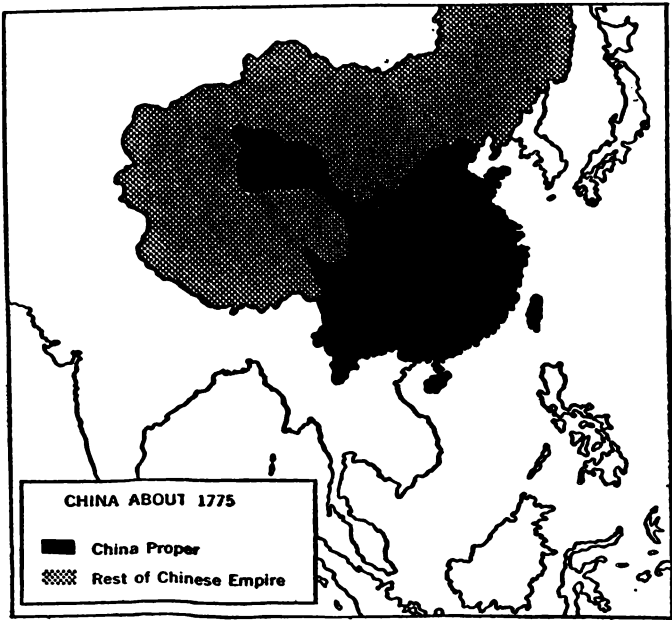
**India.** As the Manchus serenely ruled their "celestial empire" the Indians struggled through a chaotic time. The Mogul Empire, founded in India during the early sixteenth century by Moslems from the outer fringes of the Ottoman Turkish Empire, disintegrated after the death of Emperor Aurangzeb in 1707. The English, Portuguese, Dutch and French had established trading posts long before 1707, and during the eighteenth century the British and French gradually increased their power, first in the south and later in the northeast. Indian political, religious and social divisions made foreign conquest an easier task. The largest religious group, the Hindus, divided all men into rigidly separated castes and all but denied membership in the human race to the lowest caste, the "untouchables." Conflicts between Hindus, Moslems, Buddhists and other religions added to India's difficulties. As religious groups and native states quarreled, Joseph Dupleix, having captured Madras (1746), attempted to bring southern India under French

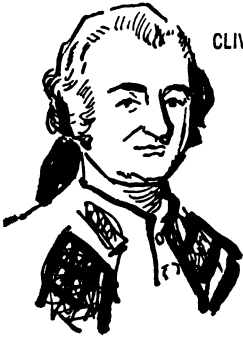


TEMPLE OF HEAVEN, PEKING

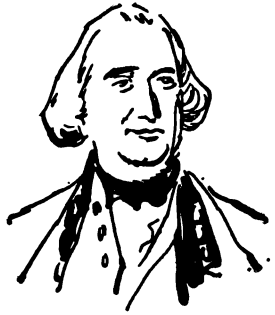


CONFUCIUS





CLIVE OF INDIA



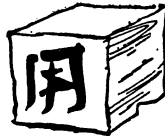
CORNWALLIS



HASTINGS



COMPASS



WOOD BLOCK PRINTING



GUNPOWDER,

control and had almost succeeded when Robert Clive of the British West India Company defeated the French at Arcot (1751). Dupleix was recalled in 1754 and Clive's famed successor, Warren Hastings, completed the subjugation of Bengal as well as the southern provinces, and defeated several inland states. While Clive and Hastings created prestige and wealth for the Company and for Great Britain, they brought new wars and economic dislocation to India. The British Parliament passed the India Bill of 1782 to limit the Company's excessive power and to arrange for a governor-general of India—a post which Lord Charles Cornwallis filled with distinction (1786-93).

**Persia.** To the west of India the neighboring states of Afghanistan and Persia were able to maintain their independence against the European powers. In the seventeenth century Persia had enjoyed a political and cultural revival which persisted into the eighteenth. Despite the successful wars of Nadir Shah (1736-39) in India and Afghanistan, the state declined during the second half of this century. Persia had enjoyed several thousand years of turbulent history, which included periods of great creativity in religion, art and literature; but the great days were over, and the nation was hard pressed to fend off the European nations in the nineteenth century.

## ■ Art and Science in Asia

The Eastern civilizations made few contributions to science and technology during the eighteenth century, although the Chinese had been familiar with technological devices from printing to gunpowder for many centuries. Chinese customs stressed intellectual life and allotted virtually all positions of power to scholars; but the Chinese and their oriental neighbors never exploited these advantages to create the dynamic scientific and social conditions which made Europe powerful. The Chinese had a conservative society which respected tradition, cultivated inherited possessions and did not encourage quests for unknown seas, physical laws or new machines. Although Yoshimune, shogun of Japan (1716-45), allowed the entry of European scientific books and all of the encyclopedias and commentaries produced by the scholars of Asia (particularly Chinese), the Asians continued their traditional ways during an age when Europe was being transformed by new intellectual and technological discoveries.

The Mogul rulers of India and their predecessors established

great traditions in architecture, painting (especially miniatures), and calligraphy (elaborate artistic writing), but political chaos in a declining age discouraged monumental building and painting deteriorated appreciably as artists contented themselves with inferior imitations of older themes and methods. In China, the Emperor K'ang-hsi preserved much that was valuable to painting by ordering the compilation of the ambitious *Imperial Encyclopedia of Calligraphy and Painting* (1705). Kao Ch'i-P'ei (a Manchu from Mukden) painted fragile landscapes using a "finger-painting" technique on silk, while the impressionistic ink-wash method of Chou Shang-kuan produced portraits that combined delicacy and strength. However, a substantial number of Chinese artists and scholars, expressing a dislike of Manchu rule, migrated to Japan.

The diversity of Japanese art in the eighteenth century can be seen in the magnificent lacquer work of Ritsuō Ogawa, the multicolor wood block prints introduced by Harunobu (1765), the outstanding prints of Utamaro (among the first known in Europe) and the oil paintings of Shiba Kōkan. It was also a flourishing age for the Kabuki Theater which was characterized by dramatic ritual gestures, flamboyant make-up and themes of heroic deeds and domestic crises.

In Japan, China and India a great many fine craftsmen worked in the decorative arts. Chinese porcelain vases, silk screens and carved chests became popular in Europe.

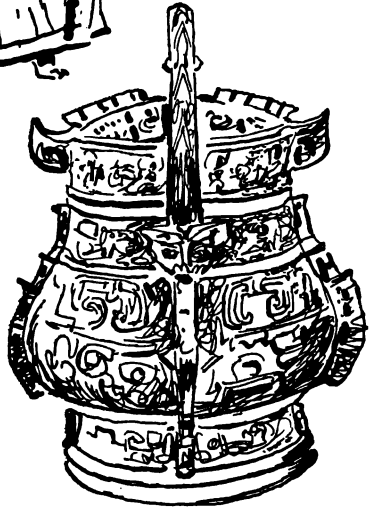
The scholarly Chinese were just as productive in literature as in the arts, and wrote innumerable biographies, ethical treatises, encyclopedias, poetry and works of fiction. Tsao Hsueh-chin wrote eighty chapters of *Dream of the Red Chamber* (completed by Kao Ou who added forty chapters); published in 1792, it has been translated into many languages. It became China's most famous novel. The period was also rich in Buddhist ethical tracts which have been translated into many European languages in recent years.

## ■ European Art and Literature

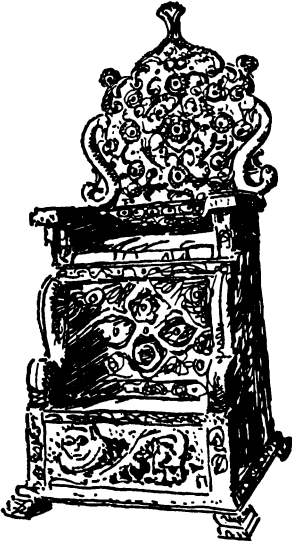
At the beginning of the eighteenth century European art and letters had an aristocratic and classical orientation. Educated men studied the accomplishments of Greek and Roman classical letters and found in them a devotion to reason, high standards and proper expression which provided guiding principles



INDIAN DANCERS



CHINESE CEREMONIAL VESSEL 12 BC



PEACOCK THRONE, DELHI, INDIA, (1628-35)



POPE



ADDISON



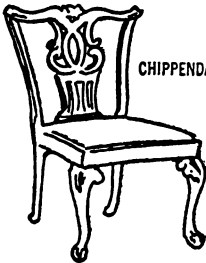
JOHNSON



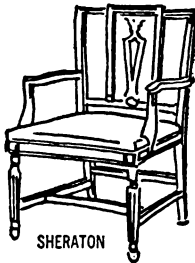
STEELE



CHIPPENDALE



SHERATON



WEDGWOOD POTTERY



for the "neo-classical" writers. The French Academy continued its efforts to preserve rational patterns of fluent expression in the French language. Throughout the century changing tastes and social attitudes were brought about by the rising political power of the commercial middle class and by scientific and industrial developments. Satire was used as a potent weapon and the artist reflected the importance of the individual in a free society.

**England.** In literature, Alexander Pope's poetry and Jonathan Swift's prose satirized intellectual, emotional and social excesses of every kind; the essays of Joseph Addison and Richard Steele provided models of decorum and good taste for rising members of the middle classes; and Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary* attempted to present the English language in forms suitable to an age of reason. The modern novel became an established form with the publication in England of works by Daniel Defoe, Samuel Richardson, Laurence Sterne and Tobias Smollett. Henry Fielding contributed the excellent satire, *Tom Jones* (1749), while the poet and dramatist Oliver Goldsmith produced a masterpiece of "domestic" literature in his *Vicar of Wakefield* (1766). The poet Samuel Taylor Coleridge, considered the father of modern Shakespearean studies, published his noted *Rime of the Ancient Mariner* in *Lyrical Ballads* (1798).

The architects James Gibbs and Sir John Vanbrugh adapted the Rococo style prevalent in France to Georgian buildings which reflected dignified modifications of classical architectural principles. Beautifully landscaped gardens followed the patterns established by the carefully planned gardens of Louis XIV's Versailles palace grounds, and restrained "good taste" found application in the interior designs of Robert and James Adams, the furniture of Thomas Chippendale, George Hepplewhite and Thomas Sheraton and the pottery designs of Josiah Wedgwood. The first great "native" artist and the true founder of the English school was William Hogarth, regarded as one of the first social critics in modern art and a superb social satirist. This period produced the great English portrait painters—Thomas Gainsborough, Joshua Reynolds and Massachusetts-born Benjamin West.

**France.** The master Rococo artist of the period was Antoine Watteau, renowned for his paintings of Italian comedy players. The elegance and gay lyrical quality of his works influenced his contemporaries, though he gained little recognition during his lifetime. Two other prominent Rococo artists were François

Boucher and Jean Fragonard. In rebellion against the frivolity and shallow elegance of the period, Jean Chardin, best known for his still-life studies which influenced nineteenth-century artists, portrayed the life of the middle class.

In literature, Jean Jacques Rousseau's sentimental, emotional novel, *The New Héloïse*, hastened the advent of romanticism.

**Spain.** The versatile genius of Francisco José de Goya y Lucientes made him one of the most important artists of the eighteenth century. His portraits were penetrating characterizations and his use of jewel-like colors enhanced their uniqueness. Goya, however, showed his great individuality in the powerful political and social satire of his etchings, lithographs and wash drawings.

**Italy.** Architectural design as the subject for paintings was popular in the Italy of the eighteenth century, as evidenced in the work of Canaletto (Antonio Canale), Francesco Guardi and Giovanni Piranesi. The Venetian artist, Giovanni Tiepolo, gained wide acclaim for his magnificent pen and wash drawings which influenced many artists, including Goya.

**Germany.** Considered the greatest writer in German literature, Wolfgang von Goethe was the leader (although Johann Herder has been called the founder) of the *Sturm und Drang* (Storm and Stress) movement which attempted through a renaissance in literature to reform the political and social life of Germany. Goethe's novels, *The Sorrows of Werther* (1774) and *Wilhelm Meister* (1796), were not as successful as his dramas. His *Faust* (completed and published, 1832) and *Wilhelm Tell* by Friedrich von Schiller are considered the great masterpieces of the German theater.



GOETHE



SCHILLER



HOGARTH (GIN LANE)



GAINSBOROUGH



REYNOLDS



GOYA



BACH



SCARLATTI



HANDEL



HAYDN



MOZART

## ■ Music in 18th Century Europe

This century, which can be divided into the "Age of Bach and Handel" and the "Age of Mozart and Haydn," marked the beginning of German supremacy in the world of music. Johann Sebastian Bach, last master of instrumental polyphony and the greatest master of the fugue, composed church, vocal and instrumental music. World-renowned for his *B Minor Mass*, *St. Matthew* and *St. John Passions*, Bach, one of the master creators in musical history, was rescued from oblivion by Mendelssohn and others in the nineteenth century. An epic oratorio, the *Messiah*, composed by George Friedrich Handel was presented in Dublin (1742). A great part of Handel's life was spent in England where his operas were very well received. The first great master of the symphony, Joseph ("Papa") Haydn, gave concrete form to the sonata, the string quartet and the symphony orchestra. Haydn (Beethoven's teacher) composed one hundred and four symphonies, the oratorio *The Creation* (founded on or inspired by Milton's *Paradise Lost*), operas, piano sonatas and chamber music. The other master of the classical school of Vienna, Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, composed over one thousand works, including the famed operas *The Marriage of Figaro*, based on Beaumarchais' comedy (1786), *Don Giovanni* (1787) and *The Magic Flute* (1791). Mozart was a child prodigy who during his short life developed the concerto form and composed chamber music, symphonies and instrumental music. Also important among Austrian composers was Christoph Gluck, "father of modern opera," who had studied in Italy and with Handel in London. His masterpiece, *Alceste* (1767), was one of the most important dramatic works written for the operatic stage. The leading Italian composers of the period were Niccola Piccini (Gluck's rival) who wrote French operas; and Domenico Scarlatti, the "father of modern piano playing," who (with Antonio Vivaldi) was the most distinguished master of late Baroque music. Jean Rameau and François (le Grand) Couperin were the French master composers of the period.

## ■ Science and Technology in the 18th Century

All social classes in Western Europe from French aristocrats to London slum dwellers were affected by eighteenth-century scientific and technical progress. The seventeenth century has been called the century of genius, but the great discoveries of Newton and Galileo were not thoroughly demonstrated, applied and accepted by educated men until the next century's "age of reason." Voltaire's defense of Newton silenced many opponents of the new science, and the mathematician Jean d'Alembert used Newton's work as a basis for new discoveries in mechanics. Public interest in "natural philosophy" (science) increased when Benjamin Franklin used the famous kite experiment to demonstrate the identity of electricity and lightning. After experimenting with this mysterious force, Joseph Priestley and Henry Cavendish revealed basic similarities between electricity and magnetism, and suggested that gravity might bear a family resemblance to both forces. Joseph Black and Priestley investigated the nature of combustion, a process which was finally explained by Antoine Lavoisier.

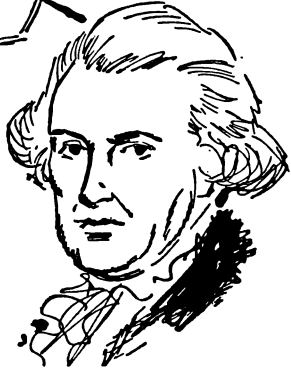
Comparable explanations for life processes were not found, but Carolus Linnaeus (Swedish) and George de Buffon (French) laid the foundations of modern biology by discovering and systematically classifying the entire world of living creatures.

The practical brethren of Buffon, Lavoisier and Newton wished to apply the new scientific learning to the betterment of man's life. A procession of novel methods in almost every field of human endeavor from medicine to mechanics increased comfort, health and wealth. Largely through the efforts of the Boston minister Cotton Mather, inoculation was used in Massachusetts (1721) to fight a smallpox epidemic. This method of fighting the dread disease gradually gained favor throughout Europe until replaced by vaccination, which was first successfully used in London (1796) by Edward Jenner. Captain James Cook demonstrated the effectiveness of lime or lemon juice in fighting scurvy, the major scourge of sailors.

The rapid growth of world commerce encouraged voyages of exploration and led to the discovery of better navigation techniques, including new ways of calculating latitude and longitude and the use of the improved quadrants of John Hadley (London) and Thomas Godfrey (Philadelphia). Even more



HERSCHEL, AMERICAN ASTRONOMER



WATTS DISCOVERED PLANET URANUS, 1781



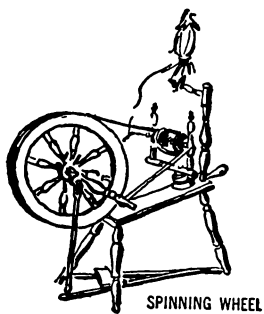
WHITNEY INVENTED THE COTTON GIN, 1793



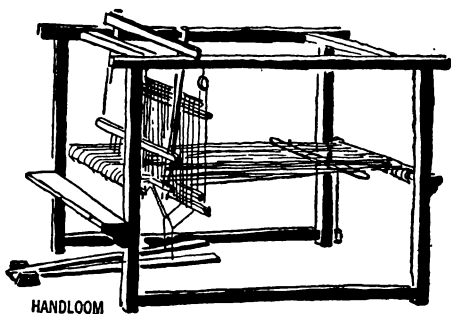
WATT INVENTED MODERN CONDENSING STEAM ENGINE, 1765



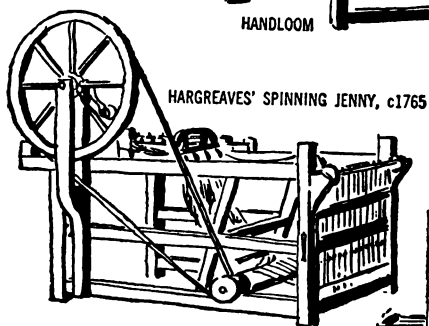
## DEVELOPMENT OF TEXTILE INDUSTRY



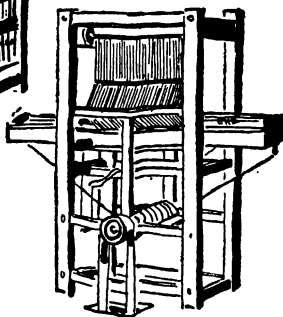
SPINNING WHEEL



HANDLOOM



HARGREAVES' SPINNING JENNY, c1765



CARTWRIGHT'S POWER LOOM, 1785

important to commercial classes than medical or navigational discoveries was the development of the steam engine (pat. 1769) by James Watt, and its application to manufacturing as a substitute for human labor. The invention of machines for the textile industry, John Kay's "flying shuttle" for weaving cloth, and Richard Arkwright's cotton-spinning devices, made possible the large scale production of cloth in new factories. By the end of the century a few advanced thinkers were predicting that machines and factories would revolutionize almost every aspect of human existence.

### ■ The Enlightenment

Technology and science gained prestige among the *philosophes*, a band of radical thinkers who wished to apply "scientific" methods to society. John Locke had proclaimed the existence of natural laws and rights that governed society as firmly as Newton's law of gravity ruled the physical world, and the *philosophes* sought the reasonable and the natural in politics, religion and ethics. All over Europe, and especially in France, they inquired about every belief and institution, "Is it rational?". Denis Diderot set out to collect and summarize the new information and ideas in the *L'Encyclopédie* (1751-72) and, despite the hostility of church and state, militant reformers, writers, scientists and inventors of every type and description contributed. (Even the Marquise de Pompadour, the king's mistress, secretly submitted an article on cosmetics.)

François Quesnay in France and Adam Smith in England attacked mercantilism, the traditional set of beliefs that allowed the government to regulate economic life in order to increase the amount of gold and silver in the country. These two economic reformers insisted that the decaying mass of regulations by king, aristocracy, guilds and provinces ought to be destroyed so that a free enterprise system would prevail. Quesnay and his disciples (e.g. Thomas Jefferson) argued that land was the basic source of all wealth, while Smith stressed the importance of commercial and industrial activities; but all agreed that society would prosper if each individual were allowed to pursue his personal gain.

More individualism also was demanded in religion, and many approaches to "rational" religion were offered. Catholic and Protestant reformers wished to cast aside "superstition" but retain essential dogmas; some *philosophes* stressed the importance of social toleration of all religions (Frederick the Great remarked that he would build mosques to attract useful Moslem immigrants); a few extreme radicals such as the Baron de Holbach denounced all religion and championed atheism; most of the *philosophes* were Deists, abandoning orthodox Christianity while retaining a belief in the existence of God as the Creator or First Cause.

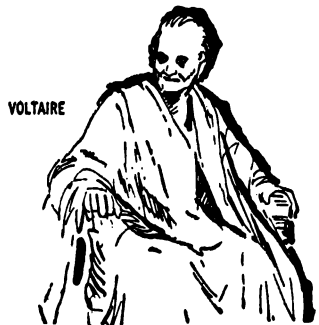
Voltaire (Françoise Marie Arouet), the leading French Deist, was persecuted for his religious and social beliefs and waged a life-long campaign against religious bigotry with the angry slogan, "Destroy the infamous thing." Thus, in religion, economics and politics, the *philosophes* attacked the existing order of things as unnatural. Jean Jacques Rousseau thought that human nature was basically reasonable and good and that unjust, irrational societies corrupted man. In his novel, *Emile*, (1762) Rousseau advocated as a solution for social problems a "natural" education, which would allow the free development of the child's virtuous impulses and true thoughts. Following in the footsteps of John Locke, Rousseau argued that government should be based on popular consent and natural law; on



ROUSSEAU



ADAM SMITH



VOLTAIRE

a social contract among the members of a society. Montesquieu's *On the Spirit of Laws* (1748) listed the factors that determined the nature of government and explored methods of establishing rational government. Montesquieu was not a democrat (few of the *philosophes* were), but he believed in a just and efficient state. He thought that a people might avoid the evils of both irresponsible tyranny and mob rule by separating the various powers of government and assigning the proper functions to executive departments, legislatures and courts. Montesquieu's ideas on the machinery of government, as well as the theories of Locke and Rousseau on liberty and social contract, were later applied in the New World.



MONTESQUIEU

ON THE SPIRIT OF LAWS, 1748



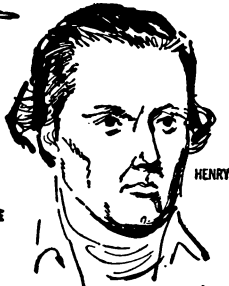


PLANNING CONTINENTAL CONGRESS, RALEIGH TAVERN

WASHINGTON



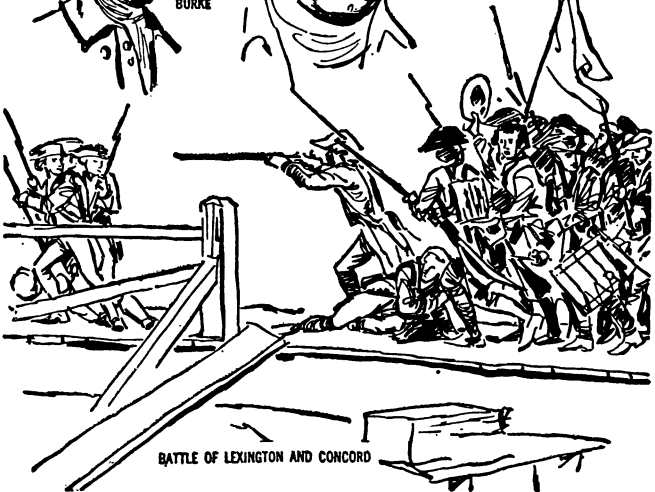
BURKE



HENRY



PAINÉ



BATTLE OF LEXINGTON AND CONCORD

# Revolutionary and Napoleonic Eras

## ■ British North America

**The Birth of a Nation.** In 1773 disgruntled political leaders in British North America knew their Locke and Montesquieu by heart. Moreover, the colonists had governed themselves through the provincial assemblies for generations and resented British efforts to establish more effective imperial control after 1763. The particular episode which led to armed conflict was the Boston "Tea Party." When the British government allowed the East India Company to dump tea on the American market at prices lower than local merchants could offer, the commercial classes were indignant, and radical leaders such as Samuel Adams denounced the British for "bribing" colonials to give up their rights. On December 16, 1773 Bostonians disguised as Indians tossed hundreds of tea chests into the harbor while waterfront crowds cheered. The English were alarmed. Even Edmund Burke, Charles James Fox and other members of Parliament who usually sympathized with the Americans could not sanction the "wanton" destruction of property. George III and his Prime Minister, Lord Frederick North, regarded the "Tea Party" as rebellious violence and responded by closing the port of Boston to commerce and suspending the Massachusetts legislature (the "Intolerable Acts"). A wave of sympathy for Bostonians swept the Colonies, and the First Continental Congress denounced North's actions. Massachusetts men secretly began to arm themselves and prepare for a fight. It came on April 18, 1775 when General Thomas Gage's troops, on the way to seize illegal collections of military supplies, clashed with a company of militia at Lexington and Concord.

Many delegates to the Second Continental Congress (1775) regarded themselves as loyal Englishmen, and wished to avoid war, but the radical orator, Patrick Henry, declaimed "the war is already upon us" and brushed aside the arguments of the moderates. Congress appointed George Washington as Commander of Colonial forces, and the Bostonians drove British troops from fortified positions on Bunker (Breed's) Hill. By 1776, the conflict had become a war for liberty and independence. Thomas Paine's dramatic pamphlets identified the Amer-



SIGNING OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

ican revolt with the general cause of human liberty, and in the Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776) Thomas Jefferson formulated his version of the ideas championed by English and French philosophers, namely, that "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" are self-evident and self-justifying human goals. The colonists had once been united under George III by mutual consent in the form of a social contract which the British had dissolved by withdrawing natural rights and violating the terms of the agreement. The Americans proposed to use their newly-gained freedom from obligation to Great Britain by creating a separate American nation.

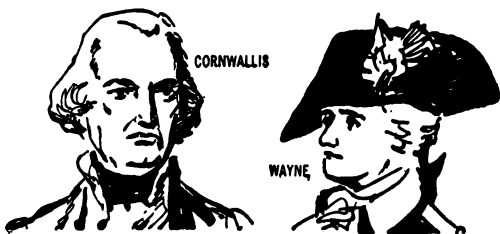
Independence proclaimed, however, was not independence won. The colonies were divided by religion, geography, class position and political loyalties. Thousands of Americans fought for the mother country and a majority of the total population quietly refused to give energetic assistance either to patriots or loyalists. The war was waged with difficulty, for Washington had trouble holding an army together, and the British controlled large portions of the middle colonies. Flagging patriot hopes were revived when the British attempt to drive a wedge between New England and the other colonies was thwarted by the capture of General John Burgoyne's army at Saratoga, New York. General Horatio Gates' victory at Saratoga convinced the French that the Americans could win, and troops, ships and funds were soon made available to Washington. The next major British move was an invasion of South Carolina and a campaign to the North. After several major battles were won by Lord Cornwallis, his troops were forced into a vulnerable position at Yorktown, Virginia, and captured by a Franco-American army under Washington (1781). Lord North left the government, George III resigned himself to reigning instead of ruling, and American, British and French delegates signed the Peace of Paris (1783) which granted the American rebels independence and territory from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River.

Creating a nation or even holding together thirteen virtually independent states was a difficult task for the weak national Congress, and the Articles of Confederation (1781) did not seriously strengthen the government. Economic depression and violent social conflicts after 1783 stimulated demands for a vigorous central government. George Washington, Benjamin Franklin and political leaders from every region of the country lent their prestige to the Constitutional Convention of 1787 at Philadelphia. The Founding Fathers were for the most part

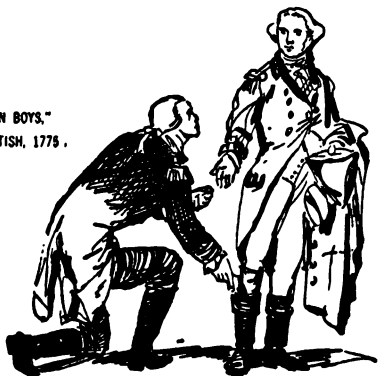


prosperous, public-spirited citizens who attempted to secure national independence and property rights. James Madison, the principal architect of the Constitution, wished to avert both tyranny and absolute democracy by constructing a political machine that could not be completely controlled by any majority or minority political faction. Once again the theories of a French *philosophe* were useful, and Montesquieu's basic idea about the separation of powers among executive, legislative and judicial branches of the government became a part of the American Constitution. Reform leaders such as Patrick Henry feared that the Constitution transferred too many powers from the states to the central government, threatened the liberties of individuals and might even lead to tyranny. After a hard electoral fight the "Federalist" friends of the Constitution won the elections and afterward placated their opponents by passing the first ten amendments, the Bill of Rights, which guaranteed freedom of speech, press, assembly and other basic rights.

The new government had only a precarious hold on the loyalties of its citizens, and Washington's willingness to serve as President (1789-97) was invaluable to the Republic. The President wished to remain aloof from political factions, but as time passed he tended to support the nationalist views of his Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton, who wanted to strengthen the power of the Federal government and give the commercial classes a firm economic stake in the survival of the nation. The Secretary of State, Thomas Jefferson, felt that Hamilton's program was hostile to the nation's agricultural majority as well as a potential threat to the liberties of all citizens, and he resigned to form an Anti-Federalist opposition party (later called the Jeffersonian Republicans or Democrats). European wars complicated American politics, for the Jeffer-



ETHAN ALLEN ORGANIZED "GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS,"  
CAPTURED FORT TICONDEROGA FROM THE BRITISH, 1775.



ARNOLD AND ANDRE CONSPIRE TO BETRAY  
THE AMERICAN FORCES AT WEST POINT



VALLEY FORGE



ARNOLD



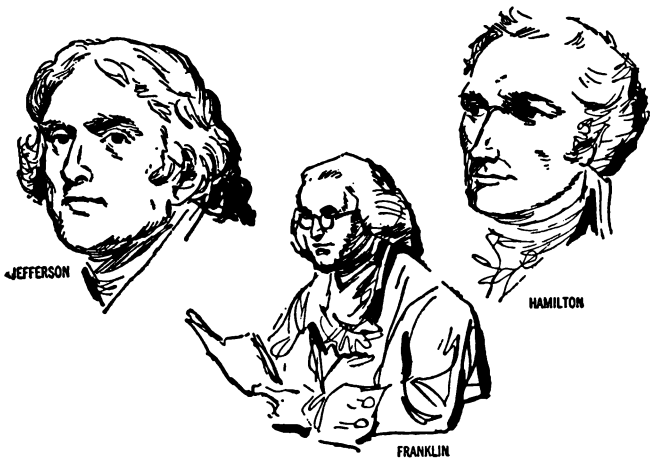
BURR



BURGOYNE SURRENDERS TO WASHINGTON

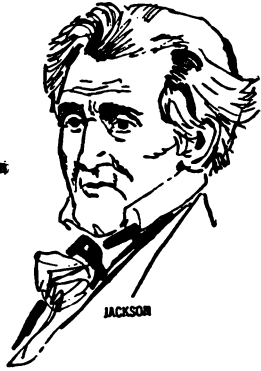
sonians tended to be sympathetic toward the revolutionary French government while the Federalists sided with the more conservative British. John Adams, a Federalist, won the election of 1796 and later tried to suppress his most vocal critics. Federalist leaders who did not believe in political party systems, regarded opponents of Adams' administration as traitors to the nation and predicted social anarchy, atheism and economic ruin if Jefferson were elected President in 1800. Jefferson (1801-09) however, surprised the Federalists with his moderation. The President bought the Louisiana Territory (1803) and worked to keep the infant Republic out of the Napoleonic Wars, a policy his successor, James Madison (1809-17), followed until British violation of American maritime rights and American land hunger for Canadian territory plunged the nation into the War of 1812.

Except for Andrew Jackson's victory at New Orleans and the brilliant naval exploits of Oliver Hazard Perry and others, the war was waged ineffectually. The British, preoccupied in Europe, did not give it their full attention, and some Englishmen believed that the United States would collapse and provide an even better example of the impracticality of republicanism than the failure of the French Revolution.

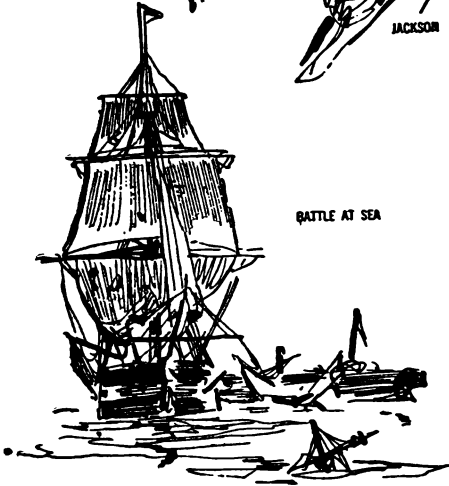




WASHINGTON



JACKSON



BATTLE AT SEA



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS

# The French Revolution

## ■ National Assembly (1789-91)

The entire French social order was on the brink of collapse in 1789. The peasants were less oppressed than the lower classes in other European countries, but they lived in poverty, performed menial services for their haughty superiors, and paid heavy taxes to state, nobles and church, while the upper classes almost completely escaped the burden of supporting the government. Middle class professional and commercial people (the *bourgeoisie*) gained great wealth in the eighteenth century, but they felt frustrated by a tangled thousand-year growth of feudal regulations which hampered the development of commerce and reserved the highest social and political positions for the aristocrats. Hundreds of intellectuals and a generation of political criticism had created much skepticism among all classes toward the existing social order.

The well-meaning but ineffectual Louis XVI was unaware of the widespread discontent in 1789 when he called into session for the first time in more than a century and a half the Estates General, a feudal assembly which represented the three estates or classes—the clergy, the nobility and the commoners. The king expected nothing more than a docile Assembly which would obligingly grant the new taxes needed to save the state from bankruptcy but, instead, the delegates of the third estate began to criticize the government and, with the aid of sympathetic nobles and priests soon transformed the archaic Estates General into a National Assembly for the creation of a modern constitution. Support for constitutional reform came from Parisians who suffered from famine and unemployment. The king, alarmed by a rising tide of resentment against him and heeding the advice of his misguided courtiers, ordered an extra twenty thousand troops to Versailles and dismissed several reform ministers from the government. Revolutionary mobs formed in Paris, and on July 14, 1789 stormed the Bastille (a prison), murdered the guards, and destroyed this hated symbol of royal oppression. Violence broke out in other towns, and as a “great fear” of aristocratic plots swept the countryside, peas-

## FRENCH REVOLUTION



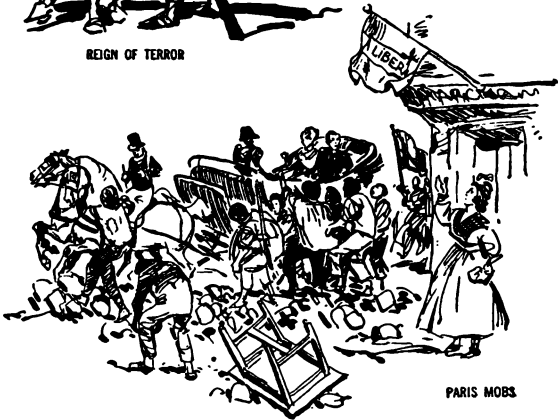
THE PEASANT'S BURDEN



STORMING OF THE BASTILLE



REIGN OF TERROR



PARIS MOBS



REVOLUTIONARY TRIBUNAL



GUILLOTINE

ants attacked thousands of country homes, burned feudal land deeds and killed many nobles.

In a single evening (August 4) the National Assembly abolished hundreds of ancient laws, and deputies from the various classes fervently competed in renouncing their special privileges. All men, they vowed, would share the burden of taxation; class barriers to high political and military offices were to be abolished; and every man was to be equal before the law. "Liberty, equality, fraternity" became the great revolutionary slogan, and the Assembly issued the Declaration of the Rights of Man which listed and defended the natural rights of all citizens.

The revolution was nonetheless a moderate one. With the assistance of such sympathetic deputies as the Comte de Mirabeau in the National Assembly, the king attempted to preserve as much power as possible. The dashing young Marquis de Lafayette, who had won fame in the American Revolution, headed the National Guard, a citizens' militia, established to preserve order and to defend moderate revolutionary gains. The Crown suffered a great loss of prestige in October, 1789, when the king, accompanied by a Parisian mob, moved from Versailles to Paris. Only a shadow of regal authority was left when Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette failed in their attempt to flee the country (April, 1791). With the monarchy disintegrating, the Assembly was called upon to rule and to write a constitution for France. The enormous landed wealth of the Catholic Church was seized in an attempt to save the state from bankruptcy and to provide security for a new currency. (The state assumed the obligation of paying the salaries of priests and bishops.) The actions of Louis XVI raised serious questions for the National Assembly, but a constitutional monarchy must have a king, and peace was made between contending factions before the delegates adjourned for the last time.

France now had a constitution, election arrangements had been made for the new "Legislative Assembly," and the rest was left to time and fortune.

## ■ Constitutional Monarchy, 1791-92

Almost immediately the Legislative Assembly was faced with a struggle for power among the Jacobins (supported by the radical Parisian mobs), the Girondists (a republican faction with widespread support in the provinces) and the monarchists. International conflict with Austria, Prussia and Great Britain, and an invasion of France by enemy forces in the spring of



1792, complicated the political struggle and strengthened the hand of the radicals. War hysteria increased when the enemy commander, the Duke of Brunswick, threatened to destroy Paris if the king were harmed. On the night of August 9-10 republican extremists, by storming the palace and killing the Swiss Guards, seized the city government and forced the king to take refuge with the Legislative Assembly. The king was suspended from office and elections were held for a National Convention which would write a republican constitution. During September, organized bands entered the prisons and "executed" over a thousand "enemies of the Revolution."

### ■ National Convention, 1792-95

The most pressing problem for the Convention was the organization of the nation to stave off military defeat and to suppress royalist insurrections. With the very existence of the republic at stake the Convention tried and convicted the "traitorous" king. On January 21, 1793 Louis XVI, now "Citizen Capet," died bravely; Marie Antoinette soon followed her husband to the guillotine; and aristocratic Europe from Britain to Russia was stunned.

There was no turning back now for the Convention delegates who created a much needed executive force by granting enormous power to radical politicians on the Committee of Public Safety. The leading member, Jacques Danton, held before the French people the goal of "a nation in arms" and to revolutionary soldiers the slogan "Audacity, more audacity, and still more audacity." Danton was an effective war leader, but control of the Committee on Public Safety during July, 1793, fell into the more extreme and idealistic hands of Maximilien Robespierre, who exercised vast power for more than a year. The "incorruptible" Robespierre, a disciple of Rousseau, wished to create a "Republic of Virtue" without the inequalities and injustices of the past; a society in which human goodness could flourish. His radical Jacobin followers organized a religion of civic virtue, inaugurated a system of mass education, began to count time anew from 1792 (the year 1), and marched down a variety of other paths toward a republican heaven. Unfortunately, foreign and civil war made extreme measures essential, and those who would have been virtuous ended by resorting to the guillotine. During the "Reign of Terror" from March, 1793 to July, 1794 a steady procession of nobles, priests, moderate republicans and miscellaneous enemies of those in power filled the prisons and kept the executioners busy until the fever pitch



LAFAYETTE



MIRABEAU



DANTON



ROBESPIERRE



MARAT



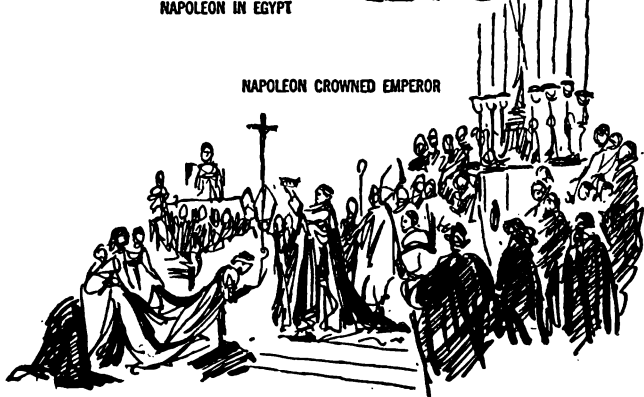
MURDER OF SWISS GUARDS.

NAPOLEON AND ALEXANDER I MEET ON A RAFT



NAPOLEON IN EGYPT

NAPOLEON CROWNED EMPEROR



of idealism subsided and the nation grew weary of the mass slayings.

On the 9th of Thermidor (July 27, 1794) moderates, opposition terrorists and war profiteers combined to drive Robespierre from office and sent "the incorruptible one" and his closest disciples to the guillotine. A conservative ("Thermidorian") reaction set in as the attempt to create the Republic of Virtue was abandoned. The National Convention, purged by the execution of extreme radicals and changed by the return of moderates from exile, drew up a conservative Republican Constitution which provided for a plural executive (the Directory) and a bicameral legislature (with seats virtually guaranteed for two-thirds of the Convention delegates).

### ■ The Directory, 1795-99

They acted forcefully against both royalists and Jacobins, and advanced the interests of the prosperous commercial groups. Political corruption was widespread and the Directors ruled without majority consent. Executives and Legislature bickered with each other and many Frenchmen criticized national war policies despite the victories of the energetic French soldiers over the mercenaries of Prussia and Austria. Great Britain, the most dangerous enemy, persisted in the war after her allies made peace. A young general, Napoleon Bonaparte, who had blazed across the military horizon with the meteoric brilliance of victory against incredible odds in Italy, wished to strike at British power by invading Egypt and marching across the Middle East toward India.

Napoleon, already an idol of the masses, dreamed of following in the footsteps of Alexander the Great. French forces landed in Egypt and, almost in the shadow of the pyramids, defeated the Moslem Army, but Lord Horatio Nelson destroyed the value of Napoleon's victories by winning the Battle of the Nile against the French fleet. When Napoleon returned to France his services were badly needed, his popularity never greater, and his personal opportunity golden. The arch enemy of revolutionary France, Prime Minister William Pitt of Great Britain had created a second coalition with Austria and Prussia and had won victories in Italy, Switzerland and Germany. Popular dissatisfaction with the discredited Directory was at a peak, and in November, 1799, Napoleon joined with other plotters in a coup d'etat (seizure of power at the highest level) which destroyed the Directory and made him master of France.

# Napoleon

## ■ Napoleon as First Consul and Emperor

For almost five years Bonaparte ruled as the "First Consul" of the Republic and concealed his growing power with complicated constitutions. To French followers and foreign admirers he was the soldier of the revolution, the arch enemy of aristocratic injustice. Napoleon did serve France, and even after 1805 when all pretense was cast aside and the Consul became Emperor Napoleon I with a court and a new nobility, the Empire was more than a return to the days of Louis XVI. Many republican liberties were lost when Napoleon became a despot, but the idea of legal equality remained and France had an efficient, energetic state which contrasted favorably with the extremely complicated, cumbersome political machinery of the old regime. Napoleon created golden opportunities for able men and made it possible for former corporals and clerks to become generals and ministers. The old aristocratic laws were replaced in 1804 with the Napoleonic Code, a comprehensive system of laws which influenced European legal development for generations to come. Important gains were made in higher education and in the logical, precise division of France into efficiently administered departments and communes.

All of these accomplishments served Napoleon's personal goals: the Napoleonic Code was very authoritarian; the educational system required teachers and professors to stress obedience to the head of state, and fields of knowledge useful in war (*e.g.* engineering) were emphasized at the expense of the sciences and humanities; and the prefects, who were personally responsible to Napoleon, dominated the departments and kept the whole administrative machinery subservient to the ruler's every command. Even in civil affairs, Napoleon's prime object was to strengthen the nation for war.

## ■ Napoleonic Wars

The Revolutionary tradition of citizen-soldiers fighting aristocrats and mercenaries for "liberty, equality and fraternity" was an important source of strength for Napoleon in 1799. But he also inherited the enemies of the Revolution and their ani-



AUSTRIANS STRUGGLE AGAINST NAPOLEON



REPUBLICAN SOLDIER






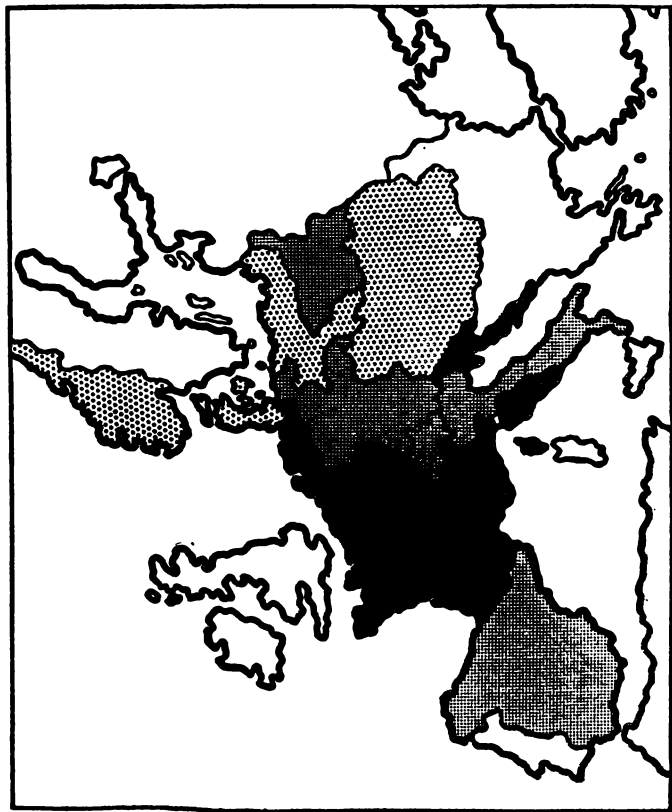
FIGHTING ON THE STREETS OF ESSLING



NAPOLEON OF FRANCE

# NAPOLEONIC EMPIRE IN 1812

-  French Empire
-  States under Napoleonic control
-  States allied with Napoleon







BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR



TALLEYRAND



NEY



PITT

mosity. William Pitt and other European leaders thought of the war as a struggle for aristocratic authority, a decently ordered society and a religious revival against the blood-thirsty Jacobins and ruthless republican adventurers. Pitt organized the first coalition against France in 1792-93, and when his alliance was destroyed by the revolutionary victories of 1796-97, he used all the resources at his command to bring a second coalition into existence (1798). Napoleon's diplomats were able to persuade Paul I of Russia to quit the war; and French victories in Austria and Italy during 1800-1 forced the Austrians to make peace again. In 1802, with the relentless Pitt out of office and his nation's economy badly dislocated by a decade of war, the British signed a treaty with the French at Amiens. Inept British diplomats returned all of the conquered French colonies, and Napoleon began at once to pursue imperial ambitions in America and Asia.

With the resumption of war in 1805, the French abandoned imperial plans to concentrate on an invasion of England. Control of the English Channel was essential, and the French naval commander, Admiral Pierre de Villeneuve, succeeded in drawing British forces into the Atlantic, but failed to return soon enough to provide a naval shield for French invasion barges. Lord Nelson overtook the Franco-Spanish fleet near Cape Trafalgar (Spain) and almost destroyed the enemy forces in his last and greatest battle, which cost him his life. Great Britain, supreme on the high seas, seized French, Dutch and Spanish colonies around the world. The implacable Pitt, once again in office as prime minister, formed a third coalition with Austria and Russia which Prussia soon joined. Napoleon's position was precarious, but he acted with great audacity to retrieve his fortunes. The French army marched from the Channel coast to Austria with amazing speed. (Napoleon dictated a battle plan hundreds of miles away from the future battlefield.) At Austerlitz the effective execution of Napoleon's strategy crushed Austria so thoroughly that Francis I was again forced to withdraw from the struggle. The Prussians, fighting for the first time in a decade, fared even worse and at Jena and Auerstädt (1806) lost a proud reputation earned in the days of Frederick the Great. The French did not linger in Berlin but marched eastward to defeat the Russians at Friedland (1807). While the Russians were still capable of waging war, they had been defeated too often by the French and were willing to make peace.

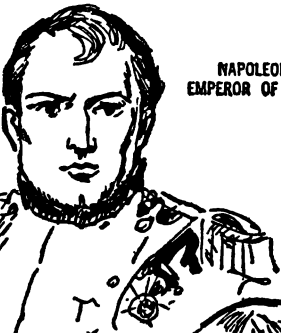
## ■ Napoleonic Empire

Napoleon met Alexander I, the Russian tsar, on a raft in the River Neman near Tilsit, Poland, and persuaded him to accept friendly association and a peace settlement that gave France greater power than she had possessed in her entire history. The borders of France proper now extended from the Pyrenees to Denmark, and Napoleon further strengthened his position by completely reorganizing central and southern Europe. Italy, a declining area since the great days of the Renaissance, came completely under French control. The ancient Venetian Republic with its eight centuries of maritime and artistic glory was destroyed; the Papal States, Tuscany and Genoa became parts of France; a new kingdom of (northern) Italy provided another throne for the Bonaparte clan; and the old Bourbon kingdom of Naples (southern Italy) was assigned to a Napoleonic supporter. With Joseph Bonaparte as King of Spain, Switzerland a puppet state, Denmark-Norway a willing supporter, and Prussia and Austria reluctant allies, Europe lay at Napoleon's feet. England fought on, but Napoleon was determined to bring this "nation of shopkeepers" to terms.

Napoleon now began to think in dynastic terms, and since his marriage with Josephine Beauharnais had produced no heirs, he divorced her and married Marie Louise, a proud Hapsburg archduchess. When a son was born to the royal couple, he was promptly proclaimed King of Rome with great ceremony.

## ■ Decline and Fall of the Empire

Even when Napoleon stood at the pinnacle of his power, forces were at work beneath the surface which would eventually destroy his empire. For the peoples of Europe, France no longer symbolized social justice; and Napoleonic rule brought higher taxes, frequent wars and French arrogance. The nationalism that had made French morale so high during earlier years now began to affect other nations and inspire patriotic demands for the expulsion of Napoleon. Spanish guerilla warfare against the hated foreigners gave the French a sample of a new kind of fighting which could not be won by the open battle of massed divisions. A war of attrition with endless "hit and run" blows became even more serious for the French when the British army commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley (later the Duke of Wellington) began the Peninsular Campaign in Portugal. A national revival took place in Prussia under the leadership of an

A black and white line drawing of Napoleon I, Emperor of France. He is shown from the chest up, wearing a military-style coat with epaulettes and a high collar. He has a serious expression and is looking slightly to the right.

**NAPOLEON I  
EMPEROR OF FRANCE**

A black and white line drawing of a young boy, the King of Rome. He has short, dark hair and is wearing a simple, light-colored garment with a ruffled collar. He is looking directly at the viewer.

**KING OF ROME,  
SON OF  
NAPOLEON  
AND EMPRESS  
MARIE LOUISE**

A black and white line drawing of Empress Josephine. She is wearing an ornate crown or tiara with a large diamond or gemstone. She has a necklace with a large pendant and is wearing a dress with a ruffled collar. She is looking slightly to the right.

**EMPRESS JOSEPHINE**



**PENINSULAR WAR, MADRID**



BLÜCHER



WELLINGTON



BARON VON STEIN, PRUSSIA



BATTLE OF WATERLOO

enlightened aristocrat, Baron von Stein, who drastically re-organized state and civil service and persuaded the king to eliminate serfdom and other abuses of the old order.

The much hated "Continental System" (Napoleon's blockade of British trade) aroused opposition all over Europe, and even French officials purchased goods from England. The Russian tsar, disillusioned with Napoleon, eventually refused to enforce the "Continental System," and Napoleon decided to crush the Russians (1812). The Grand Army of Invasion with half a million troops was the largest military force ever organized in Europe, and Napoleon confidently expected victory. But his loosely organized, poorly supplied and unenthusiastic army of conscripts from half a dozen nations was not the equal of the eager French revolutionists of 1792 or the seasoned veterans of 1800. Nevertheless, the Russians had little chance of defeating the invaders in open battle. The tsar's generals retreated time after time leaving behind them burning fields and towns that were useless to the enemy. Napoleon reached Moscow and waited in the burning, deserted city until late October for peace emissaries who never came. The delay was fatal, for the worst winter in decades caught Napoleon's troops as they retreated across Russia, and the ill-clad, starving army disintegrated. Less than one-quarter of the Grand Army survived, and Napoleon's fiasco encouraged old enemies to re-enter the war. Anglo-Spanish troops under Wellington drove the French toward the border as a new coalition of powers organized imposing forces in Central Europe. Napoleon with magnificent energy and daring organized a new army of 400,000 men and marched against his enemies. In October, 1813, at Leipzig the French bravely fought a superior force to a bloody draw, but afterward the proud grenadiers were forced to retreat toward France, fighting almost every mile of the way. Despite the brilliance with which the emperor led his retreating forces, coalition troops reached Paris in April, 1814, and Napoleon was forced to surrender his throne to a Bourbon king, Louis XVIII, brother of the monarch beheaded by revolutionists in 1793. Exiled to the island of Elba, Napoleon once again astonished the world by escaping, seizing power in France and, during "the hundred days," threatening the peace of Europe. He took the offensive at once, and led a hastily assembled army into Belgium. On the gently rolling hills near Brussels, the "Iron" Duke of Wellington and General Gebhard von Blücher's Prussians defeated Napoleon. Waterloo put an end forever to Napoleon's imperial dreams.

## ■ Congress of Vienna, 1815

With Napoleon imprisoned on the remote island of St. Helena, the diplomats continued the task of remaking the map of Europe. The gay receptions and elaborate ceremonies of the Vienna Congress threatened to bankrupt the Austrian government; aristocratic Europe once again seemed to have come into its own as emperors danced at masked balls, Beethoven conducted court concerts, and diplomats settled the fate of nations around the whist table. "Legitimacy," the idea of restoring kings and kingdoms to their pre-1789 status, was formulated by the agent of the French Bourbon family, the indestructible Talleyrand who had served and survived Louis XVI, revolutionists, and Napoleon. The requests of patriotic groups for unified and independent nations in Italy, Poland and Germany were rejected. While Metternich did not try to undo Napoleon's work by reviving the ancient Holy Roman Empire, he replaced it with a loosely organized German confederation under the domination of Austria and Prussia.

Another important idea at the Congress was "the principle of compensation," or more plainly, the usual demands of the victors for the spoils. The vague idealism of the Russian tsar, Alexander I, and his Holy Alliance for Christian action by brotherly monarchs, did not prevent the Russian seizure of the larger part of Poland. The theory of Legitimacy was modified to provide some safeguard against future Napoleons. Newly gained provinces brought Prussian power to the Rhine River, and the kingdom of the Netherlands was given the Austrian Netherlands (modern Belgium) while Austria took additional provinces in Italy. An enlarged Switzerland and an expanded Piedmont in northwestern Italy made the ring of containing states around France complete.

Metternich, a realistic and energetic diplomat, accepted every necessary compromise, but clung to the basic idea of restoring the old order with peasants and serfs at the base of the social pyramid, kings and aristocrats at the apex, and business and professional groups in their proper middle position. In the eyes of Viennese diplomats, civilization had been and would be endangered by ruthless adventurers such as Napoleon and by "the presumptuous," the half-educated and falsely ambitious reformers who were disloyal to the accumulated wisdom of centuries. "Anarchistic" republicans would have to be taught that society was a living growth which hasty action could easily destroy.

ALEXANDER I OF RUSSIA



I VE B A



NAPOLEON ON ST. HELENA



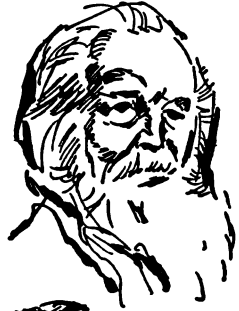


THOREAU



EMERSON

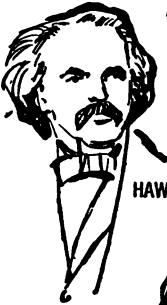
WHITMAN



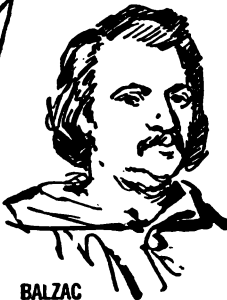
THACKERAY



MELVILLE



HAWTHORNE



BALZAC



SHELLEY

## ■ Romanticism and Political Reaction

While early romantic poets such as Robert Burns (Scotch) and William Wordsworth (English) in their attacks on formal art and aristocratic values sympathized with popular causes, the literary mood in 1815 was a conservative one and many writers joined Metternich's battle against social change. Eighteenth-century philosophers used reason to question every sacred tradition, but following the revolutionary and Napoleonic upheavals, men wished to cling to established institutions.

In France, Chateaubriand rediscovered the "Genius of Christianity" while Joseph de Maistre wrote devoutly in favor of "Throne and Altar," the union of kings and church officials to fight social change. The renowned German philosopher, Immanuel Kant, stressed duty and loyalty and his countryman, Georg Wilhelm Hegel, theorized about a *Zeitgeist* behind all historical events, a "World Spirit," which, he proposed, had produced its greatest creation in the authoritarian Prussian state.

## ■ Romanticism in Literature

There were many writers who disagreed with both Metternich and the radical ideas he opposed. The French revolutionists had regarded history as a prison from which they wished to escape, while Metternich thought of the past merely as the parent of present institutions. The Romantics loved the distant past for its own sake. Poets and novelists such as Sir Walter Scott (Scotch) and Victor Hugo (French) found mystery, romance and beauty in the Middle Ages and made many an ancient church and crumbling castle a shrine for the literary imagination.

On other issues, Romanticism was an attack against the ideals of the eighteenth century. For example, the Romantic abandoned the elegant, geometrically planned French garden for a nature of turbulent waterfalls, majestic mountains and melancholy landscapes. The world was a source of utility, beauty and goodness. Wordsworth found the "vernal woods" a better preacher of morals than all the ethical tracts. The cold formality and elegant affections of aristocratic society, which had emphasized precise standards, refined taste and polished manners could no longer satisfy poetic souls in search of exalted emotions and profound experiences. The American writers Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry Thoreau stressed the need

for each individual to listen to his own intuitive inner voice, and Walt Whitman's *Leaves of Grass* expressed a joyful, emotional acceptance of all that existed. Reason and science, the intellectual gods of the eighteenth century, were attacked for breeding a coldly analytical approach to life. Goethe (German) in his masterpiece, *Faust*, had his hero denounce a long scholarly life of reason: "Grey is all theory. Golden is the tree of life."

A bridge between romantic ideas and the realistic literature of the late nineteenth century was provided by the novelists. Honoré de Balzac (French) combined realistic social description with the psychology used by the romantic poets. During this middle period, novelists experimented with a variety of approaches to the novel. William Thackeray (English) relied upon realistic social satire, while Stendhal (Henri Beyle—French) and Herman Melville and Nathaniel Hawthorne (Americans) ventured into the unexplored extremes of exaltation and despair in the human mind.

## ■ Romanticism in the Arts

The concern of romantic novelists with the inner self and its emotions had a counterpart in early nineteenth-century German painters whose "soul infused" landscapes suggested a brooding melancholy. Painters could personalize nature even more effectively than poets. The English artists, John Constable and William Turner, and Thomas Cole and John James Audubon in the United States, found in nature moods which ranged from turbulence to serenity and grandeur. However, nature did not occupy the attention of all the artists of the period. The Spaniard Francisco Goya's portraits and savagely realistic etchings suggested different human and artistic values. In France, Jacques David, founder of the Neoclassical school and leader of the French school during the Convention and throughout Napoleon's reign, continued to paint classical themes in the "academic" style popular in the eighteenth century. Eugene Delacroix, a leading artist of the Romantic period, expressed individual freedom with a dramatic use of color to evoke emotional response. A revival of interest in the Gothic dominated the sculpture and architecture of the period.

The Romantic period saw the development of program music, virtuosi pieces for solo instruments and a new orchestra introduced by Hector Berlioz (French). Composers developed radically different techniques and were intensely concerned

CONSTABLE



GOYA



BEETHOVEN



AUDUBON



TURNER



BERLIOZ



CHOPIN



LISZT



BRAHMS



SCHUBERT



SCHUMANN

WAGNER



VERDI



with novel expressions of emotions and ideas. Ludwig van Beethoven (German), considered by many the greatest musical genius of all time, expressed the contemporary struggle of man for liberty in his brilliant *Third (Eroica) Symphony*, and the stormy inner life of the romantic hero in his "Emperor" piano concerto. Frédéric Chopin (Polish) and Franz Liszt (Hungarian) composed patriotic, as well as uniquely individual works for the piano; Johannes Brahms (German) suggested the serenity that follows intense struggle; and Franz Schubert (Austrian) and Robert Schumann (German) gave free expression to lyrical emotions in their famed "lied" or art songs. Richard Wagner (German) created the music drama, and perfected the use of the *lietmotiv* symphonically. Wagner became the idol of German nationalists when he used folk themes in his operas. His masterpieces include *The Ring Cycle* (1854-74), *Tristan and Isolde* (1859) and *Die Meistersinger* (1867). His greatest rival was the Italian composer of operas of power, passion and dramatic intensity such as *Rigoletto* (1851), *Il Trovatore* and *La Traviata* (1853)—Giuseppe Verdi.

## ■ Romanticism, Nationalism and Republicanism

Some composers, poets and philosophers were ardent nationalists working for independence and freedom of expression for their peoples: the philosopher Johann Fichte's *Address to the German Nation* became the bible of German nationalism; Lord Byron, British poet, stirred sympathy for Greek independence among educated men all over Europe; and Ralph Waldo Emerson, American philosopher and essayist, suggested that nations should strive for cultural independence as well as political freedom. Patriotic beliefs provided a threat for aristocratic Europe which was already menaced by demands for constitutional monarchies and republics. A score of writers urged kings and aristocrats to grant a measure of civil liberty, and even at the peak of post-Napoleonic political reaction a few radical democrats attacked the conservative alliance of "throne and altar." The English poet, Percy Shelley, wrote in defense of atheism and against the inhuman treatment of the poorer classes by the British government.








# The Western Hemisphere After 1815

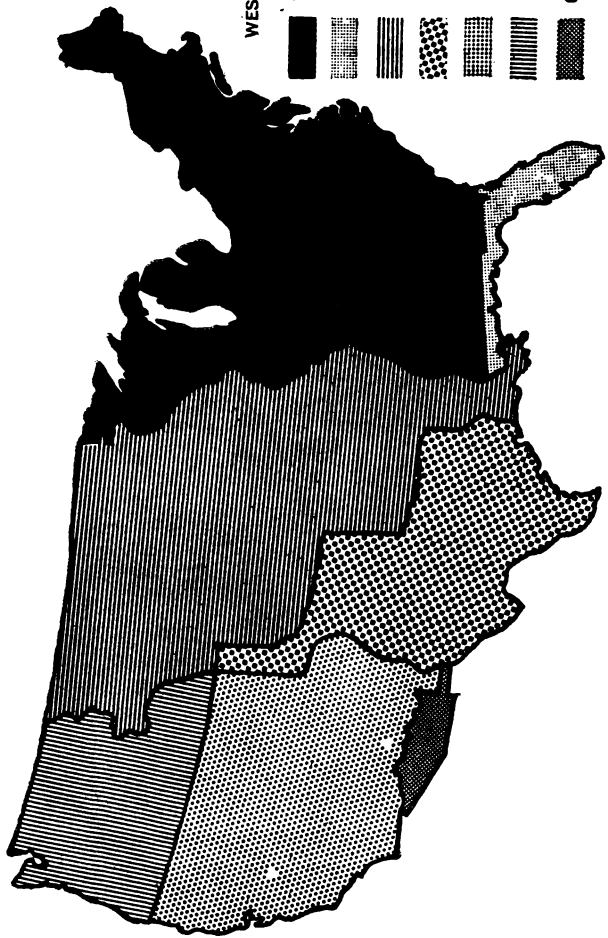
## ■ United States

Romantic rebels often looked to the New World where the causes of republican progress and nationalism seemed more likely to succeed. The political independence of the United States had been achieved in 1783 and the Constitution of 1787 had proudly announced the existence of "We, the people of the United States," but only time would prove whether an enduring nation could be created from a small population scattered across a vast territory and divided by sectional loyalties. The ancient customs and common symbols that tended to unify the European peoples were in relatively short supply among Americans. Aaron Burr plotted to seize the West from insecure federal hands; New England merchants talked of creating a separate state when the War of 1812 threatened to destroy foreign commerce; and the congressional debates of 1819 over slavery in the territories aroused powerful hatreds between North and South. With perseverance and good fortune, the nation ultimately weathered all of these storms. Political fantasies about Western independence faded as settlers poured into the Mississippi Valley; the prosperity brought by the textile mill and clipper ship helped to make New England a source of patriotism rather than a center of discontent; and the Missouri Compromise (1820) provided a temporary solution for the slavery issue by admitting Missouri to the Union as a slave state, and prohibiting slavery to the north and west of Missouri.

Nationalist Presidents did much during these years to strengthen the federal government. James Monroe (1817-25) continued the line of great Virginia gentlemen in the White House who steered a middle course between provincialism and fanatical nationalism. John Quincy Adams (1825-29), of Massachusetts, lacking the political grace of his predecessors, often presented a harsh self-righteous face to the public, but his was a capable administration which advanced and strengthened the young nation. Under men such as Monroe and Adams, the steady growth of American nationalism dissolved old political issues. The Federal party collapsed, and the Republican-Democratic party had no rivals during Monroe's "Era of Good Feelings."

**UNITED STATES  
WESTWARD EXPANSION**

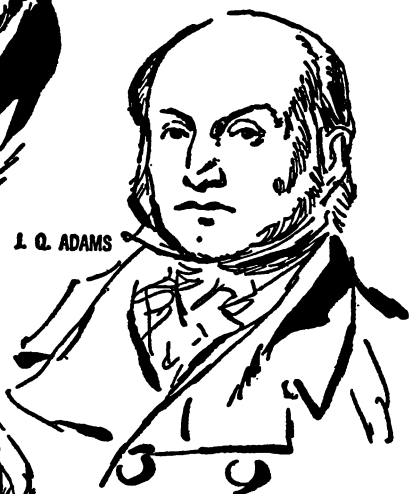
-  The United States in 1783
-  Ceded by Spain in 1819
-  Louisiana Purchase in 1803
-  Texas Annexation in 1845
-  Mexican Cession in 1848
-  Oregon Country in 1846
-  Gadsden Purchase in 1853



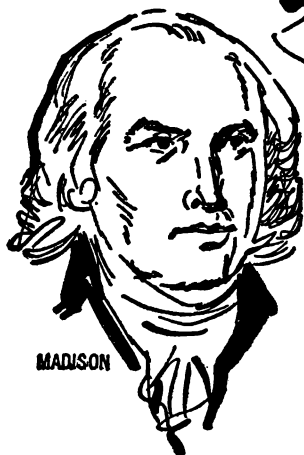




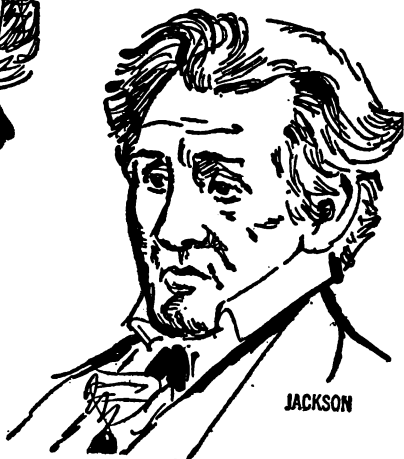
MONROE



J. Q. ADAMS



MADISON

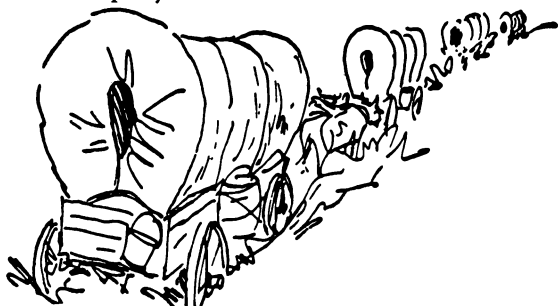


JACKSON

## ■ Jacksonian Democracy

With national existence no longer in question, democratic problems claimed a larger share of public attention. Although Americans did not have a ruling class comparable to European aristocracies, the upper classes held a disproportionate share of political power. When men of wealth and position were challenged, they argued that those who possessed a larger "stake in society" deserved more power. Such answers were no longer acceptable in 1820 and for decades a variety of reformers moved across the American scene demanding universal manhood suffrage, renunciation of war, humane treatment of prisoners, more education for the common man, a socialist reorganization of society, and freedom for the slave. Some of these demands had no enduring consequences, but others created democratic patterns which persisted into the twentieth century.

The Founding Fathers had not intended to establish a "pure" democracy and the Constitution was filled with checks and balances to curb the "intemperate" and "hasty" assertion of the popular will. The subsequent pattern of popular presidential elections, political conventions, and modern political parties came into being during the presidency of Andrew Jackson (1829-37) a democrat and a nationalist. His victory at New Orleans against the British in 1815 made Jackson a patriotic hero, and his reputation was sustained when, as President, he threatened in 1832 to use force against South Carolinians if they made the ultimate protest against a despised tariff by seceding from the Union. Jackson, a Westerner, appealed to men seeking greater political and social equality. This Tennessee politician, as a master in the new rhetoric of the common man, was an extremely important figure in the formation of the Democratic party from a multitude of local and sectional



groups. The Whig party, led by Senators Henry Clay and Daniel Webster, consisted largely of those who opposed the national administration. Despite Jackson's attack on vested interests, his celebrated war on the "monopolistic" Bank of the United States, and the widespread support which he attracted among reformers, he was not a radical. Though he wanted to discontinue the granting of favors to the rich, his concept of the state allowed little more for the poor than equality of opportunity—the right of each man to become rich—if he could. While Martin Van Buren (1837-41) leaned a little more toward the radical groups in the party, his attitude was similar to Jackson's. Van Buren, however, lacked the popularity of "Old Hickory" and his administration was discredited by the panic of 1837. In 1840, the Whigs, who nominated William Henry Harrison and John Tyler, revealed an ingenious talent for democratic rhetoric. Without a platform or concrete issues they sought the support of all voters, and rested their case on log cabins, torchlight parades, and portraits of Van Buren as a decadent aristocrat, a sad contrast to their honest homespun frontier candidate. In reality, Harrison came from an aristocratic Virginia family, while Van Buren was a self-made man. Nonetheless, the Whigs won the election and taught political conservatives a lesson which they have never forgotten.

Thus in the 1840's democratic patterns had been established, firm ties of national loyalty bound Americans together, and the United States entered an era of great territorial expansion under John Tyler (Whig, 1844-45), James K. Polk (Democrat, 1845-49), and Zachary Taylor (Whig, 1849-50). Settlement leaped from the Mississippi Valley into Texas and California, which were acquired after the Mexican War (1848). President Polk settled an old quarrel with England, and the United States gained the Oregon territory by occupation and treaty arrangements. Militant patriots believed that it was the "Manifest Destiny" of the United States to bring the benefits of democratic institutions to still larger areas.



TYLER



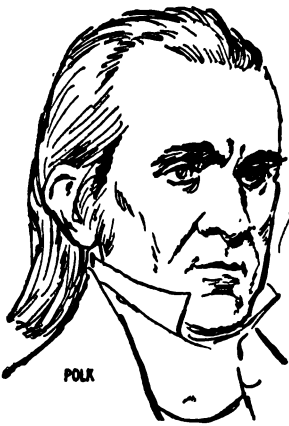
VAN BUREN



HARRISON



POLK



TAYLOR



# REVOLUTION IN LATIN AMERICA



FERDINAND VII OF SPAIN



SAN MARTIN



BOLIVAR

## ■ Latin-American Wars of Independence

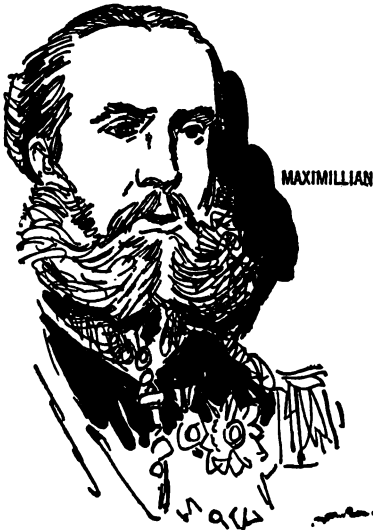
To the south of the United States, the cause of independence won victory after victory. Revolts against Spanish rule were usually launched by the Creoles, a wealthy class of Spanish descent, who resented exclusion from the highest offices and objected to the fact that the colonies were usually ruled for the benefit of Spain. In Argentina and Paraguay an unsuccessful invasion attempt by the British during the Napoleonic era proved the opportunity for patriots to begin a war for independence (1809-13). Mexican revolutionists placed armies in the field of battle (1810) and a Venezuelan Congress under the leadership of Francisco Miranda and Simón Bolívar attempted to bring another new nation into existence (1811). After these events, a wave of uprisings swept South America. The seizure of the Spanish crown by Napoleon (1808) left the legitimate monarch without the means or the time to suppress American rebellions, but the royal officials were often powerful, especially in Mexico and Peru, and after Napoleon's final defeat, Ferdinand VII was free to send more troops against the revolutionists.

The viceroy of Peru was defeated by an Argentine patriot, José de San Martín, who made a dramatic crossing of the Andes to free Chile (1818) and Peru (1820). A revolt in Spain delayed the reinforcement of royalist armies and made it easier for Bolívar to win decisive victories in Venezuela and Colombia (1819-21). Metternich and other conservative European leaders wished to send European armies against the rebels, but the British navy and the Monroe Doctrine of the United States made the recovery of either Spanish or Portuguese territories impossible.

When Dom Pedro, the Portuguese regent of Brazil, opposed tighter controls from the home country, the revolutionists made Brazil an independent nation with Dom Pedro as its first emperor (1822). In the same year the armies of the two great Spanish colonial leaders, Bolívar and San Martín, having won independence for the greater part of South America, met in Ecuador. San Martín unselfishly went into voluntary exile, leaving Bolívar to defeat the remaining scattered royalist troops and to work toward a federation of the new republics. When Mexico and other central American provinces established their own governments, all of the Western Hemisphere was free of European domination except Canada (English), Cuba, Puerto Rico (Spanish), the Guianas in South America, and some of the Caribbean islands.

## ■ Latin-American Problems

Independence was more easily won than prosperity, democracy or federation. Although South America in 1815 had wealth and population comparable to that in North America, social stagnation was the fate of the southern countries for generations while their northern neighbors prospered. Latin-American peoples were divided by geographical features such as the Andes mountain chain and the great tropical jungles of the Amazon River, as well as by race and class distinctions among Creoles, mulattoes, Negroes and Indians. A substantial majority of Brazilians had Negro ancestors, Mexico was largely populated by Indians, and almost everywhere the brown, black, and mixed peoples were numerous, illiterate, and poverty-stricken in contrast to the wealthy Creoles who ruled through authoritarian governments and the powerful Catholic Church. To make matters worse, there were few connections with the outside world, and Latin-American poverty, pride, and suspicion of foreigners became proverbial. An almost constant parade of revolutions, unstable democracies, and ruthless dictators created great social turmoil. The seizure of Mexican territory in 1845 by the United States made the Spanish peoples suspicious of the



MAXIMILLIAN, EMPEROR OF MEXICO

Yankee colossus to the north, and the unsuccessful efforts of Napoleon III to establish Maximilian as Emperor of Mexico aroused widespread resentment. When foreigners lent badly needed capital, South American nations often defaulted and European governments used force in the collection of debts.

Even foreign threats did not bring continental unity or prevent a series of bloody wars. In the worst of these wars the brutal dictator of Paraguay, Francisco Solano López, fought Brazil and Argentina, until seven-tenths of his subjects had been killed (1862-70). Not as devastating, but more consequential, was the War of the Pacific (1879-84) in which Peru and Bolivia failed in an attempt to prevent Chile from seizing extensive nitrate deposits. Chilean victory embittered the Peruvians, made Bolivia a landlocked state, and increased the wealth of the dominant Chilean merchants and landowners. During the latter part of the century, international economic contacts increased as several Latin-American countries became major sources of raw materials for the rich industrial nations of the world. Argentina supplied agricultural products and Brazil sent large quantities of rubber and coffee. European immigration lessened suspicion of the foreigner to some extent, but other evils persisted—foreign interventions continued to threaten national sovereignty, and all efforts to establish a secure, stable democracy failed.







LOUIS XIII OF FRANCE



CHARLES X OF FRANCE



METTERNICH

# The Age of Metternich, 1815-50

## ■ European Conservatives in Power

The South American rebels won and kept their independence against Metternich's will, but the Austrian diplomat was more formidable in Europe. For a generation, he defended kings and aristocracies from revolution. When patriotic German students organized for "honor, liberty, and fatherland," Metternich firmly silenced professors and editors, as well as students, with the oppressive Carlsbad Decrees (1819). Rebellions in Spain, Portugal, and southern Italy against tyrannical kings, and in support of constitutional monarchy, presented a more serious problem for guardians of the status quo. Although the English objected to the use of French troops in Spain, armed forces were dispatched to the three countries and the rebels defeated.

In 1820, the old order still held firm from France to Russia. After some hesitation, Tsar Alexander I agreed with Metternich that "liberty was a malady of human nature which we must cure," and refused to give subjugated Poles the political privileges promised them at the Congress of Vienna. With a vast, illiterate mass of peasants, an insignificant middle class, and a nobility loyal to the autocratic tsar, the Russians were a people for whom the word liberty had little meaning. Repression was never so complete in England and France as in Russia, but English Tories were determined to keep radical ideas out of the country, and vengeful French reactionaries organized a "White Terror" (1814-15) against Republicans and Bonapartists. While Louis XVIII was a more cautious man and gave a passing nod to constitutional ideas by granting a conservative "charter" to the French, Charles X (1824-30) believed in the divine right of kings to rule without restrictions of any kind.

Metternich faced a more serious challenge in the Greek War for independence. When Lord Byron declared "We are all Greeks," he reflected the sentiment of educated men in every European country. The situation was complicated by Russian designs against Turkish territory and by English opposition to Russian expansion. Metternich used every stratagem to keep

European powers out of the Balkans, and for a time the Greeks seemed capable of defeating the Turks without foreign assistance, but the intervention of the Turkish ruler's powerful vassal, Mehemet Ali of Egypt, almost destroyed the Greek revolution. Finally in 1829, England, France, and Russia forced the Turks to acknowledge Greek independence. The episode was not a total defeat for Metternich, since the great powers made a conservative German prince, Otto I, king and allowed the Turks to keep several Greek provinces.

## ■ Revolution of 1830

At a moment when Metternich's system seemed most secure, events in France threatened the old order. French opposition to Charles X, which had been growing since 1824, was increased when the king appointed as first minister the Prince de Polignac, a reactionary aristocrat. Intellectuals such as Adolphe Thiers and François Guizot demanded constitutional reform, while wealthy businessmen complained about government subsidies to nobles at their expense (interest on government bonds was cut from 5 to 3 per cent). The king replied to all critics by ordering new repression, and the July Ordinances (1830) threatened to destroy other liberties. Parisians rebelled, barricades suddenly appeared in the streets, the masses were armed, and important royalist regiments defected to the rebels. Charles X fled to England, but the Parisian radicals failed to establish a republic. A new monarchy was created when Louis Philippe outmaneuvered inexperienced republicans, and their hero, the aging and gullible Lafayette. In the new state the center of power shifted from the nobility to the upper bourgeoisie (rich middle-class businessmen) as Louis Philippe abandoned traditional Bourbon splendor for the drab black suit and the sober prudent habits of the businessmen whose causes he so ardently championed.

French republicans were not the only Europeans to bring about a revolution from which other political factions profited. When Belgian students and French radical agents encouraged the impoverished workers of Brussels to rebel against the King of the Netherlands, the revolution was soon captured by middle-class leaders less concerned with republican ideas than with the tendency of William I to play the tyrant and impose commercial, Protestant, Dutch ways on the industrial, Catholic, French-speaking majority in Belgium. The republicans gained little, but the middle-class nationalists achieved

LOUIS PHILIPPE OF FRANCE



THIERS



GUIZOT



PARIS STREET REBELS

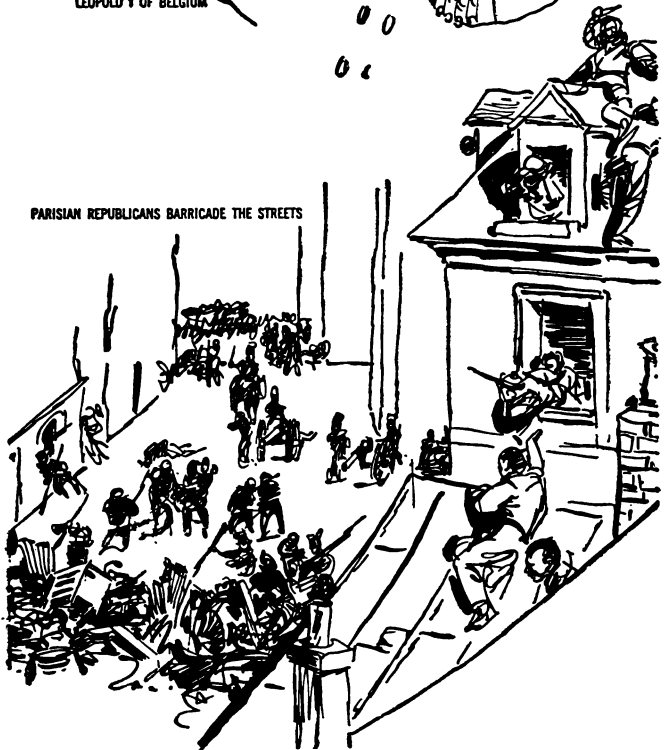


LEOPOLD I OF BELGIUM

NICHOLAS I OF RUSSIA



PARISIAN REPUBLICANS BARRICADE THE STREETS



their goal—an independent Belgian monarchy under Leopold I as well as diplomatic guarantees from the Great Powers. While the Belgians were still fighting, another war for independence began in Poland. The Polish insurrection went badly, for the nobles quarreled with the petty aristocrats, the middle classes were too weak to play a significant role, and the indifferent peasants regarded all upper class groups as sources of oppression. The rebels were beaten by the Russian Tsar, Nicholas I, who jailed thousands of men, closed the universities and put the country under military rule. A feeble attempt by German students to capture the city of Frankfort failed, and an uprising of the Italian secret society, the *Carbonari*, was easily put down. Thus in almost every instance the revolutions of 1830 failed, and except for minor defeats in France and Belgium, Metternich's system held firm for another eighteen years.

## ■ Revolutions of 1848

While European leaders continued to rule as their ancestors had done for centuries, discontent seethed beneath the surface, and Metternich in January, 1848, expressed privately the fear that "the world is very sick." His intuition was correct and one month later the revolutionary "plague" erupted again in France for the third time in sixty years. Under Louis Philippe industry had expanded rapidly and created a new discontented class of factory workers (the proletariat), for whom the state did almost nothing. Prime Minister Guizot's arbitrary, unconstitutional acts alienated middle-class leaders, and the government's extremely cautious foreign policy brought sharp criticism from all those who recalled with nostalgia the greatness of the Napoleonic years. Demands for constitutional reform and Guizot's resignation were voiced at a series of political banquets in 1847, and reformers scheduled a great banquet in Paris for February 22, 1848 as a climax to the campaign. When the event was prohibited by Guizot the Parisian workers, already embittered by prolonged unemployment, rebelled against the government. Louis Philippe fled to England, and the revolutionists formed a provisional government to rule the country and arrange for national elections.

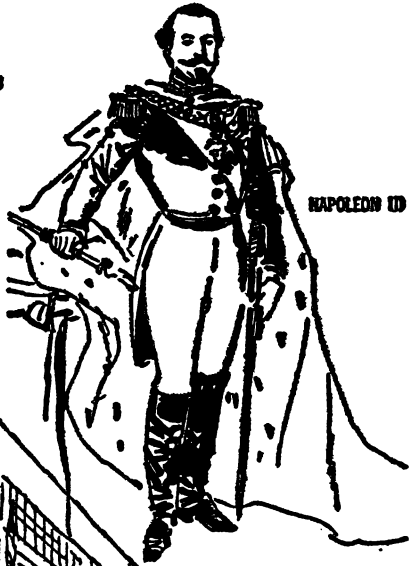
First, however, the government had to placate the Parisian workers, many of whom belonged to a new and very radical faction—the socialists. Louis Blanc, a socialist leader, wanted the state to lend money to labor unions for the purchase and operation of factories, but the most he could achieve was a pub-

lic dole for the unemployed, and even that was taken away when the newly-elected National Assembly met in June. The workers launched a second rebellion. The National Assembly replied by appointing General Cavaignac temporary dictator, and thousands of Parisians were killed in four days of bloody street fighting. After the suppression of the uprising, the provincial majority, fearful of the radical Parisians and the possibility of class war, created a powerful executive office to which Louis Napoleon, a nephew of Napoleon I, was elected in December, 1848. The new president acted with increasing boldness against the Republic, until he had transformed it into the "Second Empire" and made himself Emperor Napoleon III (1851-70). Both peasants and bourgeoisie were pleased with the assurance of public order, and the prosperity which came to France with the Second Empire. Napoleon III recognized the need for a more ambitious foreign policy, and undertook a number of dubious adventures, such as the ill-fated attempt to establish Maximilian as emperor of Mexico and the costly Crimean War, (an Anglo-French attempt to block the Russian seizure of Turkish territory). Italy provided a particularly tempting theater of operations, but it was difficult to delineate a foreign policy which would please French liberals (by aiding the cause of Italian unity) without alienating French Catholics, who preferred to see the Pope continue as ruler of central Italy. As the foreign policy of Napoleon III suggested, the destruction of the republic in 1848 had not eliminated the need to consider public opinion.

The French pattern of revolutionary upheaval and ultimate monarchist victory was repeated in Austria and Prussia during and after 1848. Although the Prussian king, Frederick William IV, was a firm believer in absolute monarchy, he reluctantly allowed a national assembly to meet in 1847. When to the king's surprise the delegates dared to oppose the royal will, he dissolved the assembly abruptly. The reformers held their peace until news of the French Revolution encouraged them to launch violent demonstrations in Berlin and other cities. Despite the loyalty of his army, the frightened monarch capitulated and promised far-reaching reforms. As a wave of revolution swept the Austrian Empire and the small German states, it seemed that all of Central Europe might be transformed politically. In March, 1848, eight hundred delegates met in the Frankfort Assembly to write a constitution for a new German state. Unfortunately the delegates found it difficult to agree among themselves as to how radical or conserv-



BLAINE



NAPOLEON III

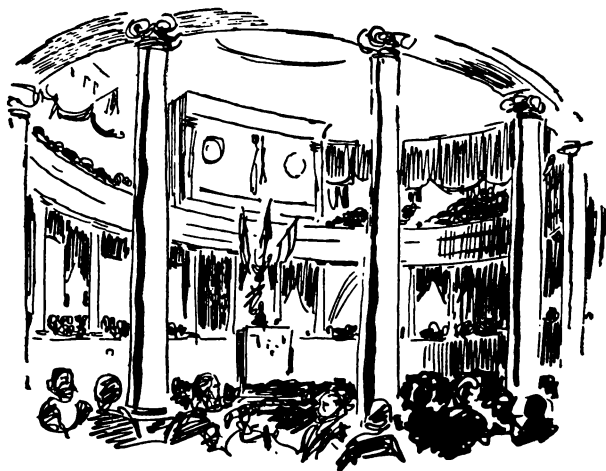


CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES MOBBED IN PARIS.





INSURRECTION IN BRUSSELS



FRANKFORT PARLIAMENT

ative the constitution should be; whether the Prussian or Austrian monarch should be king; and whether the Poles of Prussia, the Bohemians of Austria, and other non-Germanic peoples should be taken into the new state. When the constitution was finally completed, the historical moment had passed. Four minor German kings rejected the document, the Austrian delegates withdrew, and the Prussian king refused the crown when it was offered to him "from the gutter." Within Prussia, William IV, now resolute, dissolved the parliament and turned royalist troops loose against the rebels. All over Germany, aristocrats and armies had beaten the efforts of idealistic professors, lawyers and businessmen to create a free Germany.

In the Austrian Empire, Ferdinand I did not have a loyal, disciplined army comparable to Prussian troops, and the rebellions in Austria, Bohemia, Hungary and Italy during 1848 presented far more serious problems. The emperor was forced to grant almost every request, including constitutional reforms to Austrians and Bohemians and a measure of independence to Hungary. The Italians would accept nothing less than independence and seemed quite capable of driving the Austrians out of Italy. For a time the imperial state faced the possibility of annihilation. Metternich fled to England, and the emperor abdicated in favor of his nephew, Franz Joseph. However, astute servants of the monarchy exploited rebel weaknesses, foreign troops aided royalist forces, and the government gradually recovered its position. A second revolt in Bohemia over the failure of the government to grant promised reforms was suppressed by imperial troops; several months later an Italian army lost a major battle at Custoza; another Viennese uprising failed; and when Slavic minorities revolted against the Hungarians, the imperial government sent troops to aid the Slavs. The Hungarians under the leadership of Louis Kossuth defeated Austrian and Slav troops in 1849, and only the intervention of Russian troops saved the situation for the empire.

After a long struggle the Austrian emperor triumphed throughout his Italian possessions. When violence first arose in 1848, Italian patriots agreed that Austria was the common enemy, but remained divided on other issues. A priest named Gioberti called for a federation of Italian states under the presidency of Pope Pius IX, who already ruled central Italy as his predecessors had for centuries. Giuseppe Mazzini's fiery nationalists insisted upon a republic. A larger number looked to Charles Albert, king of the small northern state of Piedmont-

Sardinia, for leadership. Charles Albert refused help from French republicans, and sent the allied Italian troops into Austrian territory. All went well until his allies withdrew their troops: Papal regiments were recalled to Rome because Pius IX feared that the revolution would lead to radical excesses; and petty Italian tyrants, no longer feeling compelled to appease reformers and nationalists, retired from the war. The result was an Austrian victory over Charles Albert in July. The Roman Republic, which Mazzini had established in December, 1848, could not hold out against both Papal opposition and French troops. Piedmont-Sardinia was defeated a second time in 1849, and by the end of the year virtually all revolutionary gains were lost. Both monarchists and republicans failed, and it seemed that only foreign help would break Austrian power in Italy.

After two years of revolutionary defeats and disillusioned dreams, a Europe still dominated by arbitrary kings offered reformers little cause for optimism. Nevertheless, there was to be a slow but definite progress toward constitutional monarchy and republicanism. By 1880, every major state in Europe except Russia had provided for some degree of constitutional liberty.



POPE PIUS IX

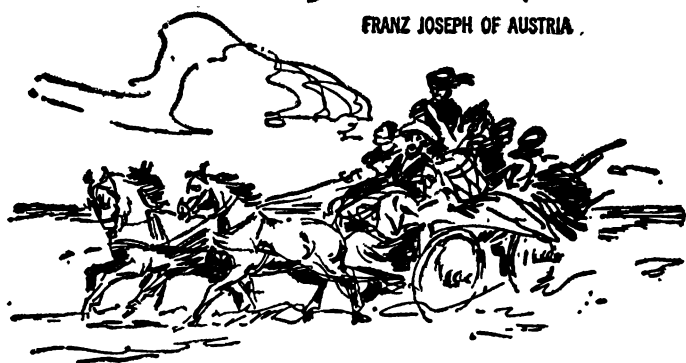




KOSSUTH



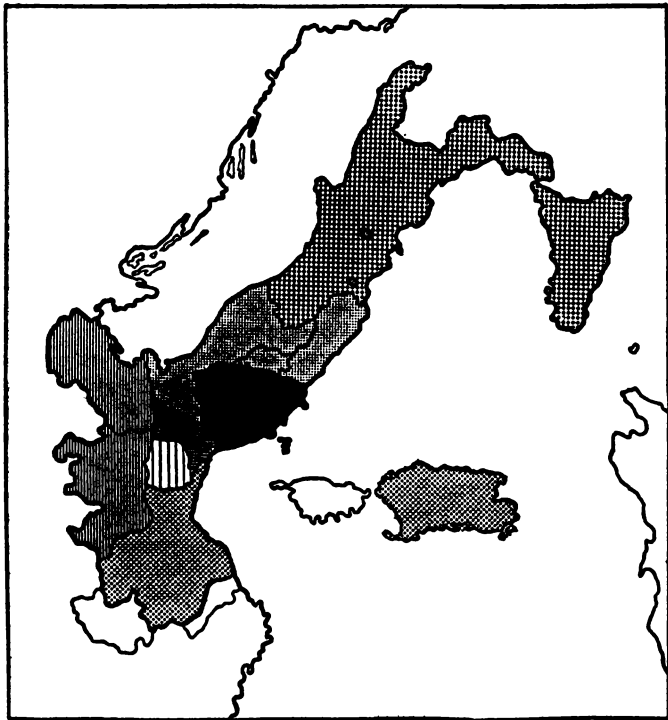
FRANZ JOSEPH OF AUSTRIA



HUNGARIAN VOLUNTEERS UNDER KOSSUTH

# UNIFICATION OF ITALY

- Tuscany (1860)
- Lombardy (1859) and Venetia (1866)
- Kingdom of Sardinia
- Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (1860)
- Parma (1860)
- Modena (1860)
- Papal States (1860-1870)



## Nationalist Victories, 1850-70

### ■ Unification of Italy

The defeats of 1848-49 led Charles Albert to resign his throne, but his successor, King Victor Emmanuel of Piedmont-Sardinia, still commanded the loyalty of Italian patriots. The king had no serious rivals among Italian rulers, and his decision to preserve the constitution of 1848 in Piedmont-Sardinia won great popular favor. He was also fortunate enough to have as first minister the ablest politician of the decade, Count Camillo di Cavour. Cavour's newspaper *Il Risorgimento* (the resurgence) was closely identified with the national cause, and the minister's knowledge of agricultural and financial affairs coupled with an extraordinary skill in politics and diplomacy made him an ideal instrument for his historical task.

While Cavour did his best to make Piedmont a modern, prosperous state, he recognized the need for foreign assistance, and the logical choice was Napoleon III, at the time the most powerful ruler in Europe. After years of diplomatic maneuvering, Cavour obtained French support in the secret treaty of Plombières (1859) for the expulsion of the Austrians and the expansion of Piedmont-Sardinia in northern Italy. The French emperor made the most of the situation by demanding Nice and Savoy as a reward. Cavour provoked a war with Austria, and the Franco-Sardinian armies quickly won two major battles. Napoleon III, however, repelled by the sight of bloody battlefields and alarmed by Prussian mobilization on the Rhine, had no desire to continue a war which might end by driving the pope from Rome and alienating French Catholics. The French withdrew from the war, but in the end Napoleon III was forced to accept Cavour's annexation of extensive districts in northern and central Italy (1860).

The next step was taken by Giuseppe Garibaldi, a popular republican hero who was willing to accept a constitutional monarchy if nothing better could be had. When the Sicilians revolted in 1860, Garibaldi promptly landed with one thousand of his volunteer "Red Shirts" and gained control of the island against enormous odds. With an enlarged army to support him, he then proceeded to liberate Naples. When Victor

Emmanuel's troops marched to meet him, Garibaldi turned his conquered territories over to the king. Every major part of



VICTOR EMMANUEL OF PIEDMONT-SARDINIA

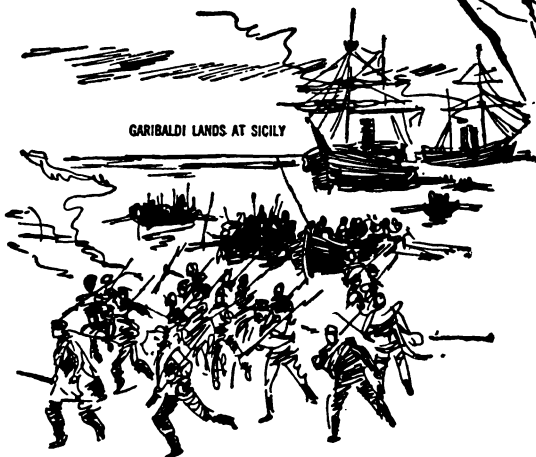
CAYOUR



GARIBALDI

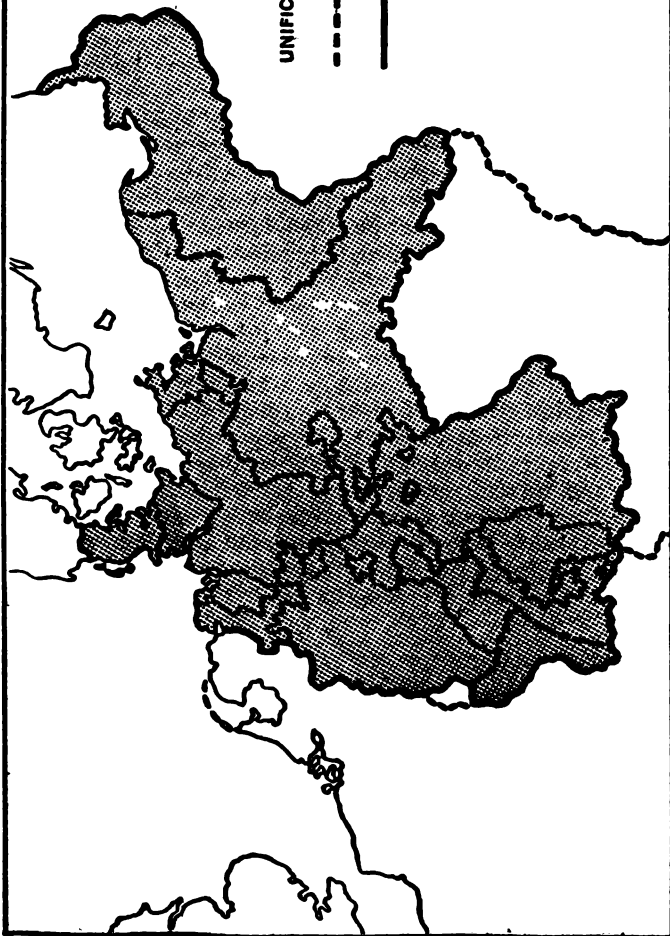


GARIBALDI LANDS AT SICILY



**UNIFICATION OF GERMANY**

-  Boundary of German Confederacy of 1815
-  Boundary of German Empire (1871-1918)





Italy was brought into the new kingdom by 1861 except Venetia, which was in Austrian hands, and the city of Rome, which was kept under Papal control with the support of French troops. During the Austro-Prussian War (1866), Italian troops seized Venetia, and four years later, when the French troops left to fight in the Franco-Prussian War, they marched into Rome. The Austrian monarch continued to rule several small Italian border provinces, including Trentino and Trieste and this unredeemed part of the nation, "Italia Irredenta," was regarded by patriots as an insult to national honor.

## ■ Unification of Germany

Unlike the Italians, the Germans created a national state without foreign help. For centuries the Holy Roman Empire, a venerable but feeble institution, had stood in the way of the formation of a German state, and after 1815 the German Confederation played a similar role. Only Prussia and Austria had the power to bring a united Germany into being, and the fact that an overwhelming majority of the population in the Austrian Empire were Slavs threatened to disqualify Austria. In 1848 it looked as if a German state might be established by reformers, but after the collapse of the revolutionary movement the Prussian position was stronger than ever. Still, internal opposition from reformers and the inadequacy of the army prevented Prussia from exploiting her opportunity. William I (1861-88), with the aid of an able war minister, Albrecht von Roon, and brilliant generals such as Helmuth von Moltke, launched an ambitious military program. When a hostile legislature refused to vote an increase in military appropriations, the king considered abdicating before he turned to a Junker diplomat, Otto von Bismarck, for help. The new chancellor



PRUSSIAN MILITARY CHARGE

WILLIAM I OF GERMANY (PRUSSIA)



VON ROON



VON MOLTKE



VON BISMARCK



FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

MARSHAL BAZAINE COMMANDED FRENCH FORCES



PROCLAMATION OF EMPIRE, WILLIAM I OF GERMANY

was a realistic and ruthless man who made his basic beliefs quite clear: "Not by speeches and majority resolutions are the great questions of the day to be decided—but by blood and iron." The rebuilding of the army continued without the consent of the legislature, while Bismarck waited for the chance to prove that his methods were needed. The opportunity came in 1864 with the attempt of the Danish king to bring the provinces of Schleswig-Holstein into closer union with the central government. On the pretext that ancient feudal rules had been violated in an area which was partly German, Bismarck persuaded Austria to join Prussia in seizing Schleswig-Holstein, and then provoked a war over the spoils. After an easy victory over the Austrians, the Prussians annexed a number of states and established the North German Confederation under Prussian domination.

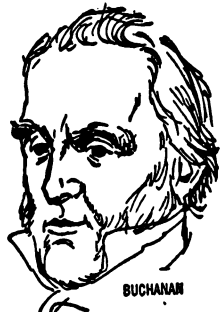
Napoleon III issued a public protest against Prussian aggression, but it was too late and Bismarck even went so far as to embarrass the French by revealing their secret demands for territorial compensation. The Austro-Prussian War which followed French diplomatic defeats in Italy, Mexico, and Poland, forced Napoleon III into a more militant diplomatic position. When the throne of Spain was offered to a relative of the Prussian king, Napoleon III insisted that King William I reject all present and future Hohenzollern rights to the Spanish crown. Bismarck's carefully edited version of this demand, the Ems Dispatch, aroused public indignation in France as well as in Germany, and in the war which followed (1870) the South German states joined Prussia. An efficient state system and disciplined, well-equipped troops gave the Prussians a decisive advantage over the French who were ill-prepared for war. After a succession of disastrous defeats during which Napoleon III was captured, a French provisional government, hastily formed under the leadership of Leon Gambetta, aroused the people to heroic efforts. The city of Paris held out until starvation forced a surrender. While a monarchist dominated assembly negotiated a treaty with the Prussians, republican Parisians rebelled in an unsuccessful attempt to set up an independent commune. Thus the bitter aftermath of civil war was added to the burden of a government which already had been compelled to accept the humiliating peace terms set forth by Bismarck—the loss of Alsace-Lorraine, an indemnity of five billion francs, and Prussian occupation. Since the monarchists could not agree upon a candidate, they reluctantly established the Third Republic (1870-1940).

The war, which meant humiliation for the French, made possible the creation of a new German Empire (1871) by the triumphant Prussians. The proclamation was made by William I at Versailles, a place closely associated with French predominance and the golden age of Louis XIV. While Bismarck overcame all obstacles and Germany joined Italy among the family of new nations, vast numbers of Europeans in Alsace-Lorraine, "unredeemed Italy," Poland, and the Czech-Hungarian-Slavic sections of the Austrian Empire continued to experience a sense of frustrated patriotism.

## ■ American Civil War

While Italy and Germany were achieving political unification, the United States had to fight a sustained and bitter war to preserve a precariously established national unity. From 1845 to 1860 each additional territorial and economic gain produced new tensions between North and South. Industrial growth in the North failed to shake Southern faith in a slave and cotton economy, but it stimulated demands for a greater share of national wealth; railroads which united North and West usually did not run North and South; and the settlement of each new territory provoked a slavery controversy.

The conquest of the Southwest in the Mexican War caused a particularly serious crisis. Fortunately, President Zachary Taylor (1849-50), a Louisiana planter with strong national loyalties, took a firm position toward Southern radicals who threatened to secede if slavery were excluded from the new ac-

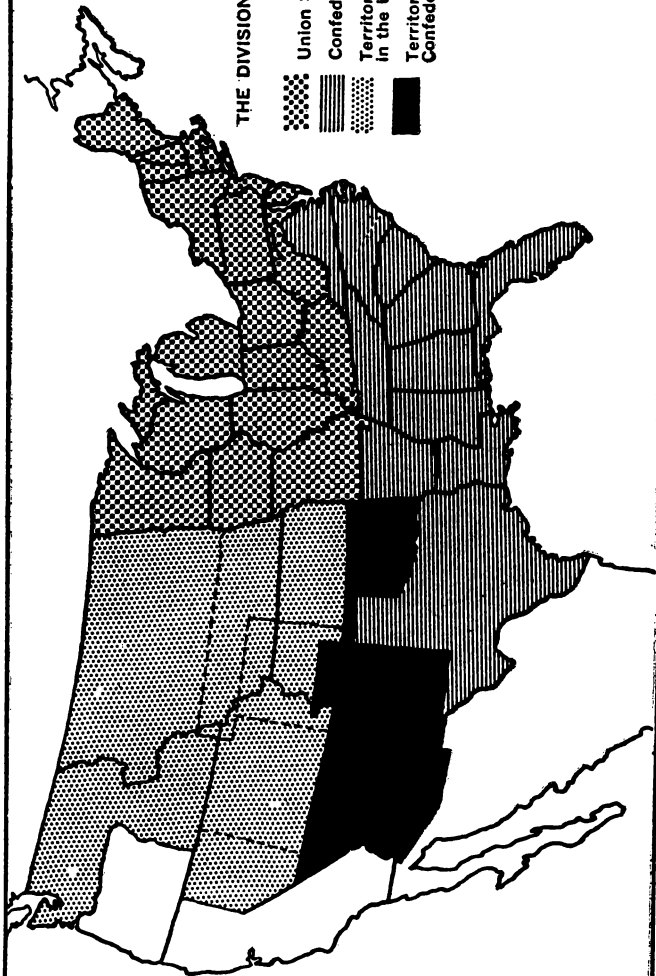


THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR



# THE DIVISION OF STATES

- Union States
- Confederate States
- Territories Remaining in the Union
- Territories Joining the Confederacy



quisitions. Congressional leaders such as Daniel Webster and Henry Clay worked out the Compromise of 1850, which admitted California as a free state and allowed the organization of the New Mexico and Utah territories without reference to slavery. Southern interests were protected by a series of Presidents, Millard Fillmore (1850-53), Franklin Pierce (1853-57), and James Buchanan (1857-60), who sympathized with the South or, more frequently, attempted to avoid issues which aroused sectional bitterness.

The slavery issue could not be buried. Senator Stephen Douglas of Illinois pushed through Congress a bill embodying the principle of "popular sovereignty" (the inhabitants of a territory should be allowed to decide the issue of slavery), and a miniature civil war broke out in "bleeding Kansas." In 1858 Abraham Lincoln, campaigning as the candidate of the new Republican party against Douglas for a seat in the Senate insisted that the expansion of slavery was a threat to free labor. These ideas irritated Southerners, and John Brown's raid in Virginia to free the slaves (1859) changed the dominant mood to anger. All of the old conflicts between the commercial North and the rural South came to the surface as men in both sections discussed openly the possibility of a Southern nation. Although Lincoln promised to protect slavery in the states where it existed, South Carolina seceded after the Republicans won a plurality of votes in the presidential election of 1860. Three months later states of the lower South formed a new nation, the Confederate States of America, under the presidency of Jefferson Davis. Lincoln hesitated before using troops, but for him the Union was the object of an almost religious devotion, and when Southerners forced the surrender of federal troops at Fort Sumter, South Carolina, the Union President issued a call for 75,000 volunteers. Eleven border states, including Virginia, joined the Confederacy.





Many Southerners felt that they were fighting only to defend themselves. Robert E. Lee, who respected the Union, rejected the opportunity to command Northern armies because of an unwillingness to "raise my hand against my native state, my relatives, my children, and my home." The loss of generals such as Lee was a heavy blow, and for several years Union victory seemed impossible, in spite of an impressive superiority in manpower and wealth.

Diplomatic recognition by England and France might have made the dream of Confederate independence a reality. Twice Lee invaded Northern territory with foreign aid as an almost certain reward for a decisive military victory, but both expeditions ended in failure. At Antietam (1862), Confederate troops retreated after a bloody draw, and after the battle of Gettysburg (1863), Lee was fortunate to escape Northern encirclement. Still the South won victory after victory in Virginia as an increasing number of Northerners grew tired of war. In 1864, Ulysses S. Grant hammered away at Lee's lines in Virginia, while General William T. Sherman invaded Georgia and South Carolina with astonishing success. In the West, the capture of Vicksburg (July, 1865) by Grant completed Union control of the Mississippi River and split the Confederacy. Resistance became increasingly difficult, and in April, 1865, General Lee surrendered his hungry, ill-clothed troops to Grant's superior forces at Appomattox.

Union victory did not solve the Negro problem. For the next few years radical Republican congressmen, overriding the protests of President Andrew Johnson (1865-69), attempted to give the newly-freed Negro political equality through constitutional amendments and military occupation of the South. Despite the co-operation of President Ulysses S. Grant (1869-77), Republican "reconstruction" failed, and Rutherford B. Hayes (1877-81), shortly after his inauguration, ordered the withdrawal of the last Union troops of occupation. Eventually the Supreme Court tacitly accepted the fact of white supremacy by ruling that the Southern formula of "separate but equal" facilities did not violate the new constitutional liberties of the Negro. The second-class status of the Negro continued to be a problem for the democratic conscience. Though bitterness over the war lingered in the South for decades, nevertheless a common nationality had been re-established which has not again been challenged. If the cost of the war was high, at least the United States was not plagued by an "unredeemed Italy" or an Alsace-Lorraine.

GRANT



LEE



BATTLE OF ANTIETAM



SURRENDER AT APPOMATTOX



ASSASSINATION OF LINCOLN

ROCKEFELLER



HILL



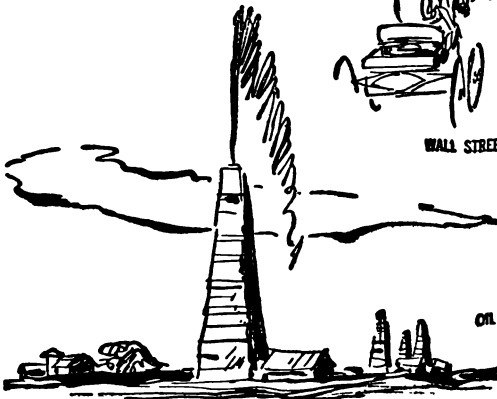
CARNEGIE



BESSEMER'S STEEL PROCESS

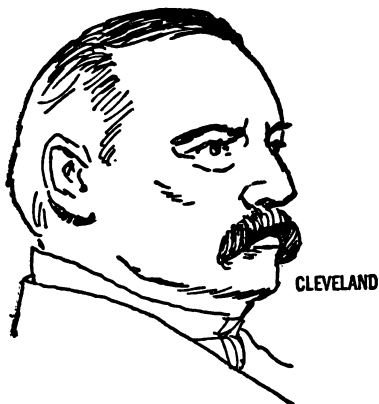


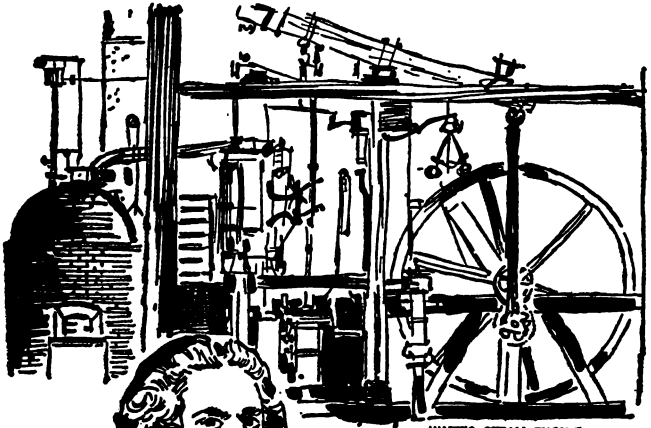
WALL STREET, NEW YORK CITY



OIL WELLS

The Civil War provided great political impetus for industrial growth by breaking the national power of the agricultural South and placing the government in the hands of Northern politicians who championed industry and commerce. After the war, public interest focused upon factories, railroads, the settlement of the Great Plains, and the evolution of farming toward a mechanized, commercial occupation. Political parties favored either benevolent neutrality or active assistance toward dominant business groups. Corrupt connections between business and government aroused some reform criticism, and the assassination of President James A. Garfield by a disappointed office seeker led to the establishment of the Federal Civil Service during the administration of Chester A. Arthur (1881-85), but most Americans found economic affairs more important than political issues. The rise to power and wealth of such energetic industrial barons as John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, and James Hill, who built economic empires in oil, steel, and railroads respectively, overshadowed the prominence of Presidents Benjamin Harrison (1889-93) and Grover Cleveland (1885-89, 1893-97).





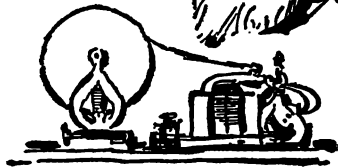
WATT'S STEAM ENGINE



WATT



MORSE



MORSE'S TELEGRAPH



STEPHENSON

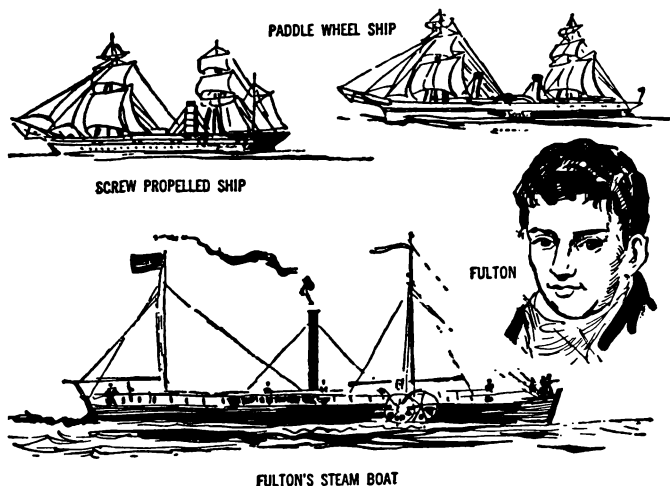


STEAM RAILROADS

# Technology, Science and Industrial Society

## ■ Technological Revolution

The economic forces that transformed Europe and the United States in the nineteenth century first appeared in England during the latter part of the eighteenth century, and were based upon new inventions and novel approaches to manufacturing. The use of James Watts' (English) steam engine in trains, mine pumps, factories, railroads, and steamships made possible cheap production and transportation. New machines in the textile industry eliminated slow hand work, while the organization of related processes under one factory roof rather than in dozens of private homes and shops meant an enormous gain in efficiency. Samuel F. B. Morse's (American) telegraph, George Stephenson's (English) steam railroads, and Robert Fulton's (American) steam boat became part of a vast communications network, and each decade brought new mechanical marvels as well as a mounting flood of industrial goods which made basic adjustments necessary in every aspect of human life.



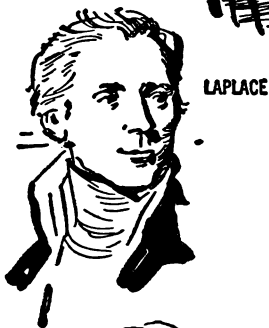
## ■ Pure and Applied Science

Although some of the new machines came from the practical hands of the worker at his bench, others sprang from the unexpected application of the most abstract scientific generalizations. Although the great Pierre Laplace, who developed Newton's physics and formulated an impressive theory of the origin of the solar system, was not interested in the practicality of his work, Nathaniel Bowditch, an American, used the Frenchman's theories to solve navigation problems for the world's rapidly expanding sea commerce. Excepting Benjamin Franklin's lightning rod, early public interest in electricity had no important technological consequences for two generations, and it was largely disinterested curiosity which prompted pioneer scientists to work with electromagnetism. Yet, the theories of Alessandro Volta led to the development of the electric battery, and Michael Faraday's discovery of electromagnetic induction made possible not only the invention of the telegraph, but the many developments in industrial machinery.

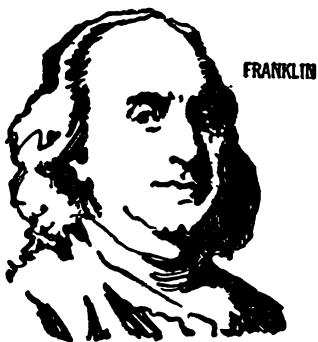
While the practical applications of science caught the imagination of millions of people, many scientists were primarily concerned with extending the frontiers of knowledge. In the nineteenth century a more complete and certain knowledge of the physical world seemed to be within the grasp of modern man. James Clerk Maxwell formulated a theory which connected and explained electricity, magnetism, and light as three forms of energy, waves of different length traveling through a weightless, formless "ether." Half a century before Maxwell's time, John Dalton had asserted that matter consisted of small, indivisible particles or atoms. Each of the basic elements of nature was composed of a different type of atom. Dmitri Mendeleev described the qualities and relationships of these elements, and worked them into a "Periodic Table." Scientists gradually discovered the ways in which these elements combined to form compounds, and were able to identify an increasingly large number of them in the laboratory. While chemists and physicists looked forward to centuries of progress in applied science, they believed that the basic secrets of physical nature had been discovered.



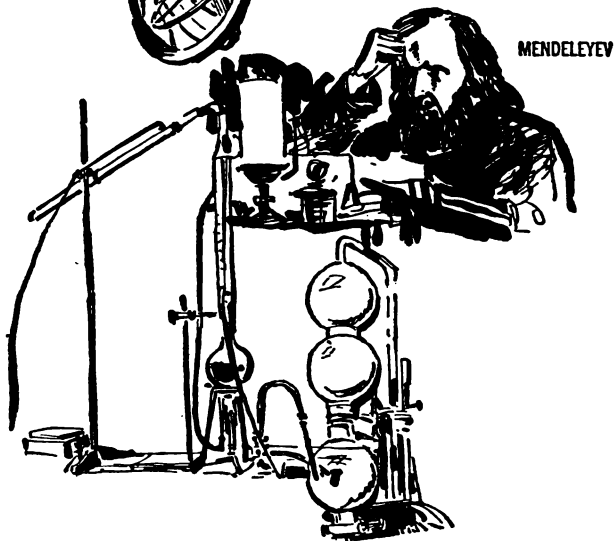
FARADAY



LAPLACE



FRANKLIN

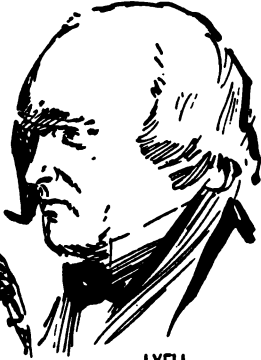


MENDELEYEV





DARWIN



LYELL

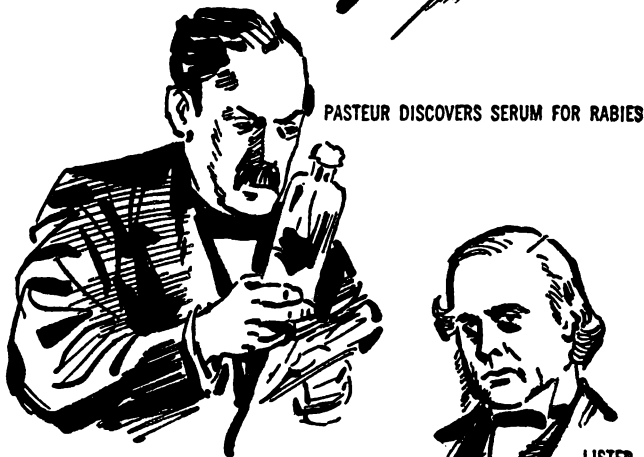


New concepts in geology and biology brought about a radical change in the popular conceptions of man and the world. Before 1800, the account of man and nature given in Genesis was accepted literally, and theologians calculated that the world was about six thousand years old. The "Vulcanists" believed that great volcanic disturbances had distorted the globe, while the "Neptunists" found in the Mosaic flood an explanation which agreed with both Scripture and science. Charles Lyell in *The Principles of Geology* provided extensive evidence to show that natural forces such as wind, rain, frost, and tides had changed the physical world over hundreds of thousands of years.

The problem of fossils remained, and as the science of biology advanced, men began to search for a natural process which would explain the incredible variety of species as well as the fact that some species survived while others became extinct. A "definitive" explanation, in part based on "natural selection," was provided by Charles Darwin in *On the Origin of Species* (1859). Living creatures tended to reproduce their kind in large numbers, and minor variations constantly appeared. In the struggle for the limited food supply available, the species most able to feed and protect themselves survived, while those organisms unable to adapt to their surroundings perished. Orthodox Christians were offended by the new scientific ideas which made man a part of nature and seemed to deny the biblical account of creation. For decades men spoke of the "war between science and theology," but gradually concepts were advanced which appeared to reconcile Darwinian evolution with religious conviction.

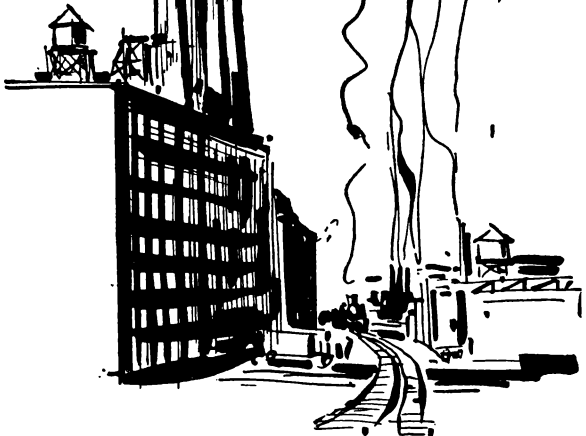
As Darwin charted the grand process of biological evolution, scientists such as Theodor Schwann discovered the smallest unit of living matter—the cell. Of special interest to biologists were bacteria, destructive one-celled creatures mysteriously linked with growth and decay and health and disease. The germ theory of disease led scientists to believe that many diseases were caused by a specific kind of bacteria, and that life itself had first evolved on earth in extremely simple one-celled creatures.

While the debate over the ultimate meaning of the new discoveries continued, scientists searched for practical applications of the newly-acquired knowledge. Louis Pasteur, after proving that bacteria caused milk to sour, developed the process of pasteurization to destroy disease-bearing germs. Joseph Lister demonstrated the importance of sterilization in surgical operations. Ignatz Semmelweiss' discovery that physicians often carried childbed fever from one patient to another made possible a cut in the mortality rate in childbirth.



# THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION





## ■ Impact of Industry on Society

The increase in scientific knowledge and the steady growth of industrial production made the average middle-class citizen optimistic about the future of the human race, but there were pessimists in the nineteenth century who argued that "progress" created more problems than it solved. As cities and factories multiplied, slums and social demoralization frequently increased. Since the operation of the new machines required little training, the men who traditionally spent years learning a craft were often replaced by unskilled men, women and children. Long hours of labor for low pay prevailed in the large impersonal factory where the old employer-employee relationship had been destroyed. Stockholders in comfortable London homes did not ask if their prosperity came from eight-year-old children used as dray animals in the mines or from exhausted men working a 15-hour day under tyrannical supervisors.

Economists of the early nineteenth century began to doubt the optimistic beliefs of Adam Smith in the achievement of general happiness through free enterprise, and the pursuit of private gain by all without interference from the state. Thomas Malthus emphasized the tendency of the population to increase faster than the food supply, a situation which required the elimination of a human "surplus" by war, disease, famine, and poverty. Since the lower classes were not likely to regulate rationally their sexual impulses, higher wages to workers would mean more children and a new threat to the limited quantity of food. From these ideas David Ricardo formulated the "iron law of wages" which stated that the income of workers inevitably approximate the minimum amount necessary for the maintenance and continuation of human life.



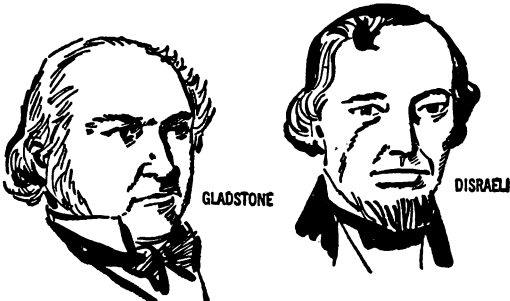
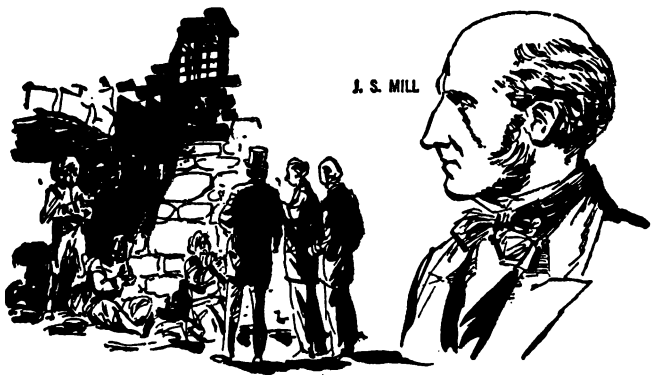
## ■ Industry and English Politics

If the conclusions of Malthus and Ricardo were grim, social conditions in England after 1815 provided ample justification for pessimism. Twenty-three years of war (1792-1815) had provided a powerful stimulus for industry, and now goods from overflowing warehouses were emptied at cheap prices around the world. When sales declined factory owners dismissed surplus workmen, who joined the jobless former soldiers in the ranks of the unemployed. The Tory aristocrats, who had ruled England since 1784, intended to suppress all serious opposition, especially if it originated among radical "agitators." Stern repressive measures were used against the textile workers (Luddites) for destroying the widely hated machines, and several peaceful assemblies of workers were attacked by royal troops.

For a time the interests of the workers and factory owners seemed to merge in common demands that the dominant landed aristocrats grant political reforms. Politicians borrowed arguments from the reform philosophy of "Utilitarianism." James Mill, Jeremy Bentham, and John Stuart Mill insisted that men were motivated either by the pursuit of pleasure or the avoidance of pain, and that the task of the state was to promote the greatest happiness of the greatest number of people. English laws were checked for disagreement with the principle of utility. While most Englishmen failed to accept the new philosophy, Utilitarianism did help to bring about such reforms as the granting of further civil rights to Catholics and the softening of savage criminal laws, brutal prison management, and the almost unrestrained authority of the "hanging judges." Although new industrial cities such as Birmingham and Manchester were not represented in Parliament before 1832, delegates came from "Old Sarum," a green mound; "Gatton," a ruined wall; and Dunwich, which was completely submerged by the sea. The Reform Bill of 1832 extended voting rights to middle-class voters and redistributed a number of "rotten borough" seats in Parliament.



Millions of workers who had gained nothing from the reforms of 1832 joined the Chartist movement between 1838 and 1848 by signing "The People's Charter," a list of demands for the extension of suffrage and the reform of Parliament. Businessmen joined factory workers in the successful drive (1846) to repeal the Corn (grain) Laws, which protected aristocratic landowners at the expense of other classes by making the importation of cheap, foreign grain impossible. William Gladstone, the leader of the Liberal party, championed the cause of electoral reform, but the Second Reform Bill (1867) which gave the vote to the more prosperous workers and redistributed parliamentary seats was actually steered through the House of Commons by the Conservative Prime Minister, Benjamin Disraeli, who advanced the idea of "Tory Democracy" (an alliance of the upper and lower classes against middle-class Liberals). Gradually, Parliament extended the suffrage and passed laws designed to protect the health, safety and welfare of the worker.

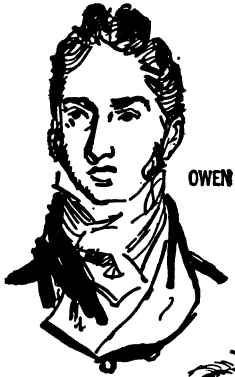




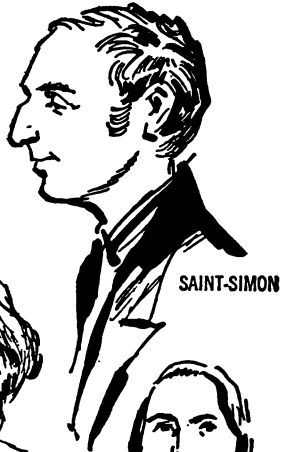
## ■ Socialism

For a growing number of intellectuals and workers, political reform and inadequate, badly-enforced factory laws were not enough. Early in the nineteenth century, English and French socialists such as Robert Owen, Henri Saint-Simon, and Charles Fourier demanded a radical reorganization of society to provide social security, education, and reasonable leisure for all men. These early socialists wished to replace sprawling cities and isolated farms with communities which emphasized new patterns of communal living. Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels dismissed these pioneers as "Utopian Socialists," and advanced a "realistic" analysis of society. "The history of all hitherto existing society is the history of class struggles." Social classes were based on "the means of production" (farming, craftsmanship, factory labor), and class membership determined the individual's wealth, religion, politics, and ethics. Changing economic conditions always produced a new class to challenge the ruling class: poverty-stricken Roman plebians struggled against rich patricians; serfs opposed feudal lords; and apprentices in the Middle Ages fought their masters, the shop owners. In the nineteenth century, the bourgeoisie (the manufacturers) dominated society and exploited the proletariat (the factory workers). Like Roman imperialism or European feudalism, capitalism contained the seeds of its own destruction. Inevitably, businessmen would produce an increasingly large quantity of goods, but the impoverished masses would not be able to buy them. Eventually the workers would seize power from the greedy few, and after a brief period of lower-class domination (dictatorship of the proletariat), during which the remaining capitalists should be re-educated, a classless society would be established. Without classes, the state, which was only an instrument of class rule, would gradually "wither away," and men might enter a new era of brotherhood, co-operation, and economic abundance.

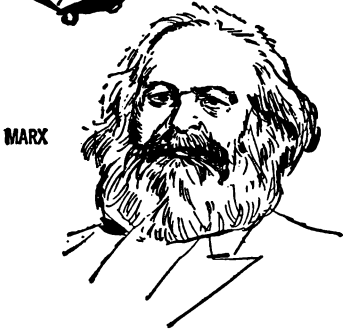
*The Communist Manifesto* (1848), in which Marx and Engels proclaimed these ideas attracted little attention at first, but Marx formed the radical International Workingmen's Association ("The First International") in 1864, and in time communism became a mass movement.



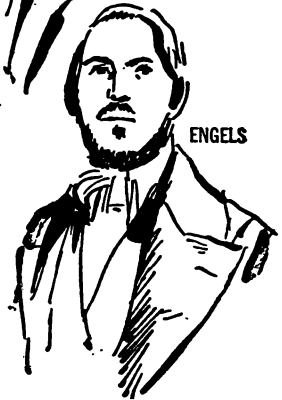
OWEN



SAINT-SIMON



MARX



ENGELS

QUEEN VICTORIA OF GREAT BRITAIN



LLOYD GEORGE

## Socialists, Republicans, and Monarchists, 1870-1914

**England.** Despite the agitation of Marxist radicals, most English workers based their hopes for a better life on trade unions and the Liberal party. William Gladstone, the Liberal Prime Minister, did not approve of hasty government "interference" with industry in behalf of labor, but he did use the full power of his office to promote political reforms—the secret ballot, a fairer distribution of parliamentary seats, and the extension of the suffrage. (By 1884, four out of five Englishmen were eligible to vote.) These measures were not enough for radical trade union leaders and socialist intellectuals, who demanded that the government take drastic steps to protect the worker from the evils of industrial society. Gradually a new Labor party gained a political following and elected representatives to Parliament. While Labor delegates occupied only 29 seats in the House of Commons out of 670, they secured a place in the Liberal government of 1906 and won approval for a series of social welfare measures, including a workman's compensation act, an unemployment insurance bill, and an old age pension act. Serious opposition to "welfare state" measures developed in 1909 when the Conservative House of Lords rejected the budget proposed by David Lloyd George. The House of Lords lost this battle as well as most of its legislative powers, and the Liberal-Labor coalition continued with its program. However, the reform pace was slackened by Conservative opposition and by the violent demands of the Irish for Home Rule.

**United States.** The British drive for new political rights and social legislation did not have an American counterpart. The United States Senate was, in many respects, an imperfect instrument of popular representation, and Southerners constantly violated basic civil rights of the Negro citizens; yet few politicians wished to undertake the massive tasks of rewriting the Constitution and changing Southern attitudes. It was not until the "New Deal" era (1933-38) that legislation comparable to the British Liberal-Labor reforms (1906-14) was passed in the United States.

Nineteenth-century America had its share of industrial evils, but they were partially disguised by a fantastic national growth: the population rose from 40,000,000 to 100,000,000 in 44 years;

the Great Plains, an area half the size of Europe, was settled in a few decades; an agricultural society became the richest industrial nation in the world. It should be remembered that the factory worker of 1850 often became a prosperous member of the middle class by 1870, and was unaware of, or indifferent to, the fate of his immigrant successor in the disease-ridden slum of the tyrannical factory, who was now more than likely his employee. Under these circumstances it is not surprising that in the United States few demands were made for social legislation, and only limited enthusiasm expressed for labor unions.

American farmers did however voice serious social protests. Rising costs of farm machinery, falling farm prices, and political exploitation by powerful railroad interests led to the formation of the Populist party (1892), which stood for farm and labor reforms such as national ownership of the railroads and the eight-hour day for the industrial worker. The Populists captured control in several farm states, virtually took over the Democratic party in 1896, and forced the nomination of William Jennings Bryan. Bryan, however, subordinated the Populist program to a single panacea, the demand for currency inflation through the free coinage of silver. The radical position of the farmer did not attract enough urban voters to prevent the election of the conservative Republican candidate, William McKinley; and higher farm prices as well as an easy victory in a "splendid little war" against Spain over Cuba (1898) gave McKinley an even wider margin of votes in 1900.

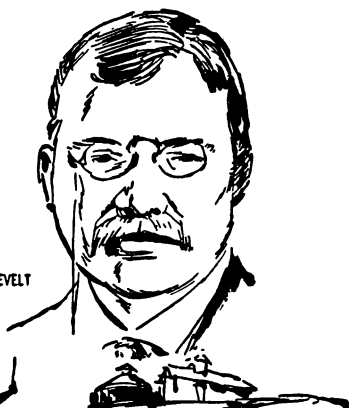
Despite military success abroad and economic expansion at home, middle-class Americans after 1900 slowly began to realize that their democratic society was ravaged by a score of industrial diseases. "Muckraking" journalists wrote books and articles by the hundreds exposing the concentration of wealth in a few giant trusts, the corrupt connections between business and politics, the growing slums, and the common disregard for the health and welfare of the factory worker. When McKinley was assassinated by an anarchist in 1901, the new chief executive, Theodore Roosevelt, made himself a national hero by "trust busting," or breaking up the giant trusts. President William Howard Taft (1909-13), disregarded most of Roosevelt's policies and ended by allying himself with the conservative "Old Guard" wing of the Republican party. The outraged Roosevelt formed the Progressive party as a vehicle for the growing list of social reforms which he advocated. Woodrow Wilson, the Democratic candidate in 1912, won the election by



WILSON



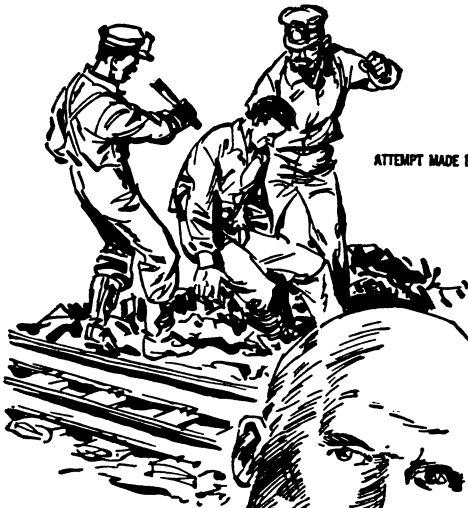
TAFT



T. ROOSEVELT



"ROUGH RIDERS," SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR



ATTEMPT MADE BY LABOR TO ORGANIZE



DEBS



SOCIALISTS

exploiting the split in the Republican ranks. Wilson (1913-21) lowered tariffs, passed currency and banking laws, and tried to stop the growth of the trusts, but he did not seriously attempt to improve the living conditions of the workers.

Wilson's reforms meant little to an increasing number of Americans who found industrial society intolerable and sought the reorganization of society through radical political parties or revolutionary violence. Armed conflict between the private armies of big corporations and desperate strikers had broken out periodically since the Civil War. In the coal mines the Molly McGuires sometimes resorted to assassination, and the "Wobblies," the International Workers of the World, followed a program of revolutionary violence. The Socialist party, under the leadership of Eugene Debs, proposed to capture the government through peaceful evolutionary political growth, and in 1912 Debs polled one million presidential votes. However, only a minority turned toward the socialists, the anarchists, and the "Wobblies." Most Americans were convinced that Wilson's "New Freedom" legislation would correct the flaws in a generally benevolent social system which promised eventually to provide all Americans with a good and prosperous life.

(SYMBOL OF TAMMANY HALL)





**France.** While French labor was enthusiastically socialist in its sympathies long before 1914, industry developed more slowly than in the United States, England, or Germany, and the factory workers constituted a smaller percentage of the population in France. The French economy was characterized by the family factory, the small shop, and the peasant landowners. While France remained somewhat backward in terms of modern industrial efficiency, it was by traditional standards economically sound with a large measure of self-sufficiency and a balanced agricultural-craft-manufacturing economy. French peasants and shopkeepers, who had conservative values in politics as well as in economics, favored a monarchy in 1871, but legislators could not agree upon a candidate for the throne and unenthusiastically established the Third Republic. The first truly republican president was not elected until 1879, and the monarchists continued to control the army officer corps, the state bureaucracy, and the Catholic Church. The desire for revenge against Germany created a political situation which became an open invitation for a military adventurer to destroy the republic by provoking a foreign war. The opportunity was seized by General George Boulanger, a potential dictator, who appeared on the political scene in the 1880's and threatened to overthrow the government. Fortunately for France the vastly overrated general fled to Belgium when a crisis developed in 1889.

Five years later a serious situation was provoked by the conviction of a Jewish officer, Captain Alfred Dreyfus, for the treasonable sale of military secrets to Germany. When the newspapers learned that the conviction had been secured by forged documents, the Dreyfus affair became a stormy controversy that shook the very foundations of the state. Socialists and republicans supported Dreyfus, while many officers, monarchists, and church officials insisted on his guilt. "Dreyfusards" obtained a pardon for the celebrated prisoner in 1901, and exploited the victory by replacing monarchists with republicans in the upper ranks of the army and the civil service.

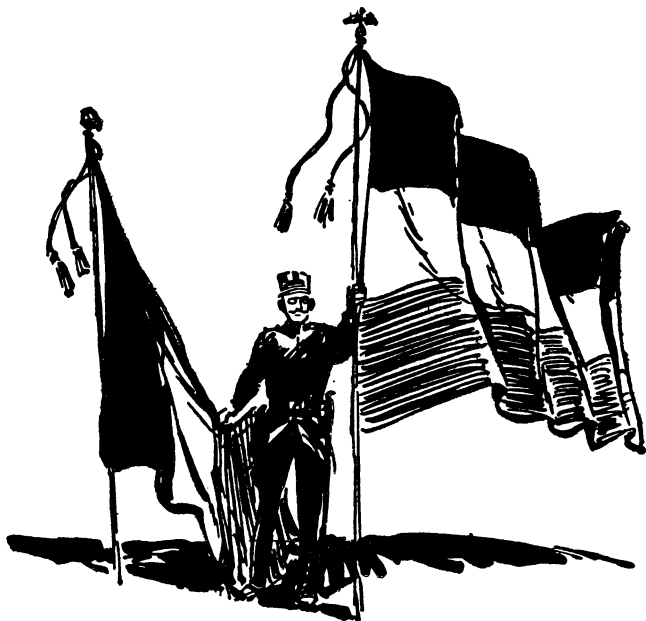
In 1905, the Radical Socialist party (which was not actually socialist but drew its strongest support from militantly anti-clerical members of the middle class) launched an attack on the power of the Catholic Church. Napoleon's Concordat (agreement), which had governed relations between church and state in France for a century, was revoked. The government

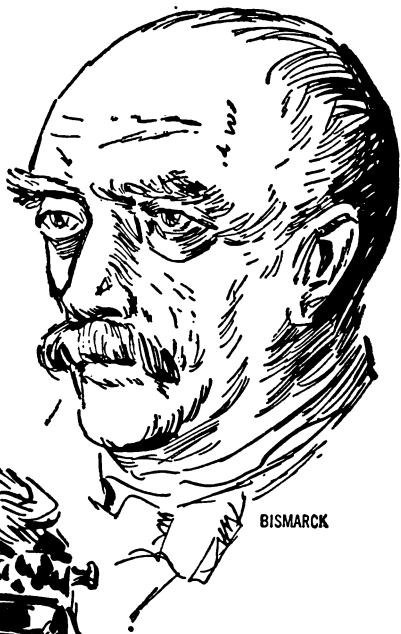


DREYFUS



ZOLA





BISMARCK



WILHELM I OF GERMANY

stopped paying the salaries of priests and turned the churches over to the congregations. When a large number of Catholics refused to accept this plan for the separation of church and state, another persistent and bitter quarrel was added to French political life. Yet despite the distrust which existed between the socialist factory workers and conservative businessmen, between monarchists and republicans, and between the Catholics and the anti-clerical enemies of the Church, the French state commanded a surprising loyalty from most of its citizens.

**Germany.** In Central Europe both socialists and republicans were in a minority. From the year of its creation the new German Empire was ruled by Chancellor Otto von Bismarck with the silent approval of Emperor William I. The chancellor was not a dictator and Germany had a federal legislature with several important political parties, but Bismarck, by skillfully manipulating these parties, retained control of the state. During the 1870's he used the aristocratic Conservatives and the businessmen's National Liberal party to wage a political war (*Kulturkampf*) against the Catholic Center party, church schools, and religious orders. When the anti-Catholic war failed, the shrewd chancellor by a reversal of political tactics recruited Center votes for a campaign against a common menace, the (Marxist) Social Democratic party. Bismarck hoped to compete successfully with the socialists for working-class loyalties by passing sickness and old age insurance bills, but the workers were not convinced. The new Emperor, William II, (1888-1919) disliked many of the chancellor's economic policies. Finally in 1890, Bismarck retired from politics, and William II began to exercise the royal power personally.

Between 1870 and 1914 an incredible industrial expansion made Germany the most productive nation in Europe. Unfortunately the growth of the working class, which enabled the Social Democrats to occupy the largest bloc of seats in the legislature did not drastically strengthen representative institutions. The aristocratic officer corps despised democracy, and the great industrial barons ruled their factories like officers commanding their companies or Junker bureaucrats dictating to their subordinates. The old habit of obedience to superiors seemed best for the average citizen who remembered that all of the great national gains in unity, empire, industry, and pride, had been accomplished under an authoritarian government. Still the Social Democratic party made serious inroads on mon-

archist political strength until World War I demonstrated the willingness of the party to surrender both democracy and socialism to crown and army, when aroused by a patriotic cause.

**Austrian Empire.** Unlike Germany, the ancient, unwieldy Austrian Empire, which contained a dozen different nationalities, was threatened more by the passionate political demands of patriotic groups than by republicans or socialists. Franz Joseph (1848-1916) began his reign with the vigorous repression of both nationalists and republicans, but the open disloyalty of many subjects during the unhappy wars with France and Italy (1859) and Prussia (1866) convinced the emperor that compromise and conciliation were essential. In 1867, the Austrian Empire became the Dual Monarchy of Austria and Hungary, and the Hungarians were granted home rule. This arrangement created new problems when the Hungarians took this opportunity to persecute the Slavic and German minorities in the southern part of their country. The emperor attempted the impossible task of satisfying the often contradictory demands of German, Hungarian, Czech, Slavic and Polish patriots.

Nationalists caused more trouble than constitutional reformers, and Franz Joseph, who became increasingly liberal with the passing of years, won the affection of subjects throughout the realm by granting universal manhood suffrage in 1907. Still, politicians often privately observed that the empire would not outlast Franz Joseph, and there were a few farsighted leaders of patriotic groups who wondered if half a dozen small, quarreling states would really be an improvement over the tottering and inefficient old state.

**Russia.** The spirit of compromise shown by Franz Joseph was not to be found in Russia. This nation which had escaped every major movement in Western European history—the Renaissance, the Reformation, the Enlightenment, and the Industrial Revolution—resembled an oriental despotism more than a European state. With the near collapse of the cumbersome state bureaucracy and the defeat of an inefficient army during the Crimean War (1855), Alexander II established the zemstvos (local assemblies), expanded the universities, and liberated the serfs (1861). However, these were half-measures which did not radically transform Russian society. Showing a lack of foresight, the tsar reverted to a rigid conservatism before the reforms were carried out. Former serfs were not adequately provided with land, and the universities produced a



ALEXANDER II



ALEXANDER III



FRANZ JOSEPH OF AUSTRIA



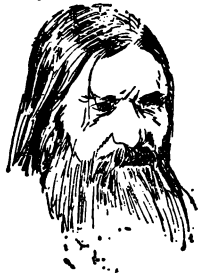
NICHOLAS II



ALEXANDRA



LENIN



RASPUTIN



TROTSKY

growing number of graduates for whom there was neither enough economic reward, nor any semblance of intellectual freedom. A student might be imprisoned for owning a copy of Ralph Waldo Emerson's essay on *Nature*; the peasants could expect little from the government but repression; and an army of secret police spies swarmed over the nation. Faced with conditions such as these, many intellectuals embraced European ideas and bitterly turned against Russian society. Some became nihilists (from the Latin *nihil*, meaning nothing) and insisted that widespread violence and destruction should be used against a totally corrupt culture so that a better society could be built upon the ruins of the old order. After the assassination of Alexander II by a nihilist, (1881), a vengeful Alexander III enacted more repressive measures, particularly aimed against intellectuals, Jews, and Poles.

Industry began to develop very slowly in Russia toward the end of the nineteenth century, and incredibly poor factory conditions alienated still another social group. Although intellectuals and workers formed the Marxist Social Democratic party in 1898, government hostility made party political action almost impossible, and many important leaders, including Nicolai Lenin, fled the country. The tsar continued to rule with an iron hand the growing minority of factory workers as well as the vast peasant majority. Once again, in 1905, military defeat gave way to a grave crisis and, this time, the revolution which followed the Russo-Japanese War almost destroyed the state. Great public demonstrations in Moscow were followed by the revolutionary seizure of St. Petersburg by a mob under the leadership of the Marxist agitator, Leon Trotsky, and others. Tsar Nicholas II (1894-1917) promised reforms and called a national assembly, the Duma. When the revolutionary wave receded, however, the tsar repeatedly dismissed recalcitrant Dumas and changed the franchise until he had obtained a subservient legislature.

Unfortunately, economic and educational growth, which increased between 1906 and 1914, did not produce strong representative government nor secure civil liberties for the people of Russia. The rule of the tsar became more intolerable when Nicholas II and Tsarina Alexandra fell under the hypnotic influence of Rasputin, whose political caprice interfered with the orderly operation of the government. All of these conditions weakened the monarchy and, following World War I, this ancient institution headed for destruction.

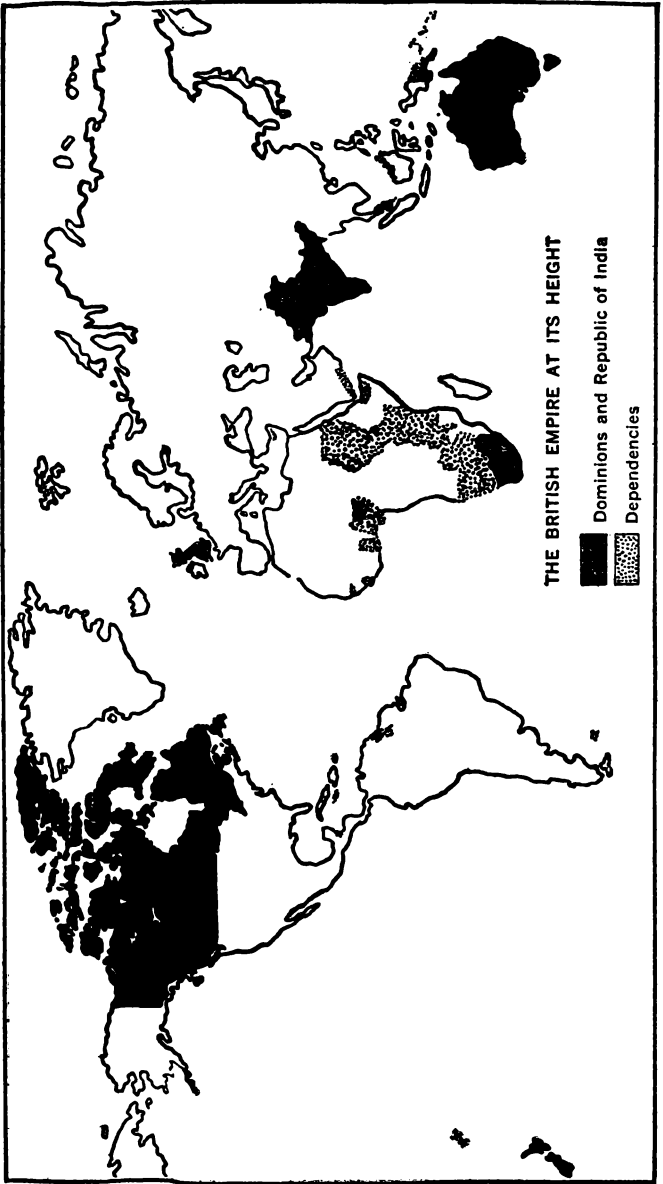


# Africa and Asia in the 19th Century

## ■ Imperialism

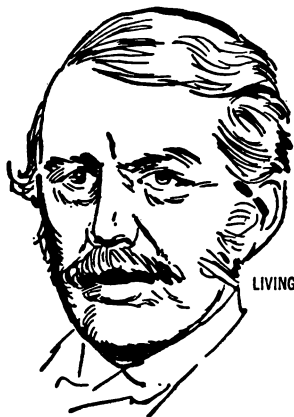
The decay of the monarchy did not hamper Russian expansion, and all through the century new areas in the Caucasus and Central Asia were occupied. A similar movement extended American settlements from the Ohio Valley to the Pacific Coast. The growth of Russia and the United States was simply another stage in the incredible expansion of European peoples that began during the Renaissance and reached a climax in the nineteenth century. Britain, France, Germany, Italy, the United States, Russia, Belgium, and Portugal created new empires or expanded old ones. Historians have spoken of the generation of greatest activity (1870-1914) as the age of the "new imperialism" and the number of Western acquisitions in Asia and Africa suggests that powerful new forces were at work. The Industrial Revolution created a need for raw materials from Africa and Asia and required outlets for surplus capital and manufactured goods. The development of European nationalism, which caused millions of people to take pride in their countries' imperial successes, stimulated the competition for new colonies.





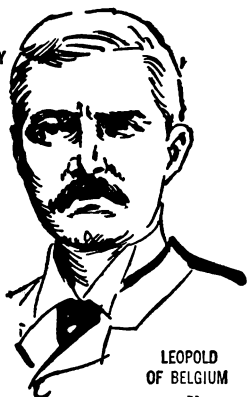
**THE BRITISH EMPIRE AT ITS HEIGHT**

■ Dominions and Republic of India  
▨ Dependencies



LIVINGSTONE

STANLEY



LEOPOLD  
OF BELGIUM

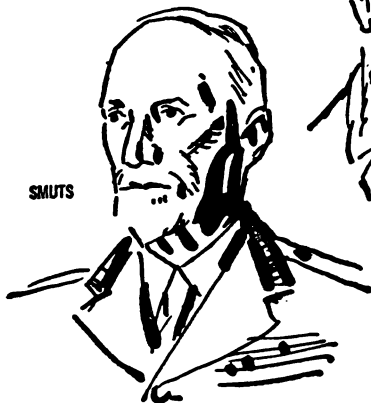
CETEWAYO, ZULU KING



WILHELM II OF GERMANY



RHODES



SMUTS

## ■ Africa

The British and the French were both interested in the Arab lands of the Middle East, which were slipping away from the feeble Ottoman Turkish Empire, and in Arab North Africa. Egypt had a vigorous government under Mehemet Ali (1805-47), but the state declined rapidly after 1847. France exerted influence in Algeria as early as 1830, helped Egypt build the Suez Canal in the 1860's and, under the leadership of the aggressive Jules Ferry (1881-85), established a Tunisian "protectorate." Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli of Great Britain, determined to maintain his country's position as the leading colonial power, acquired controlling stocks in the Suez Canal (1875) and gradually increased British power over the inept Egyptian government. Britain and France almost went to war over the Sudan in 1898 (Fashoda Incident), but the French withdrew and mutually advantageous African agreements were signed. A few years later the French, with British diplomatic support, secured control of Morocco despite the energetic protests of Kaiser William II of Germany (Morocco crises, 1905, 1909, 1911).

South of the Moslem countries of North Africa and the vast Sahara Desert lay an unexplored continent teeming with a great variety of Negro tribes and cultures. Distant East Africa was occupied by a multitude of small, weak, disorganized Bantu tribes, but in Central Africa (the Congo) the Bantu organized kingdoms and possessed more highly developed cultures. West Africa was the most advanced section, for it contained societies and political empires like the Ashanti state that fought energetically against the British during the Ashanti War (1824-27), and for decades afterward. Few Europeans entered the interior regions of the continent until the attention of the world was captured by Henry M. Stanley's expedition (1871) to find the lost missionary, David Livingstone. Later Stanley expeditions, financed by King Leopold of Belgium, led to the acquisition of the Belgian Congo with its million square miles of land. The British, realizing that they had overlooked a golden opportunity, seized unclaimed districts on the west coast as consolation prizes. The French extended their control from Algeria southward toward the British and Belgian colonies by forming French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa. Only the thinly-populated deserts of Libya in North

Africa were left for the Italians (1912). The Germans also entered the race relatively late, but they were able to gain three blocks of African territory totaling three-fourths of a million square miles.

In the extreme south both the Boers (descendants of Dutch settlers) and the British increased their numbers and their land. When the British emigrated to the Capetown area in substantial numbers, sent numerous missionaries to convert the natives and abolish slavery, the Boers moved northward in the "Great Trek" (1835-37) and established the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. The discovery of gold, diamonds, and other valuable products encouraged British immigration to Boer lands, and imperialist leaders (Cecil Rhodes) dreamed of making all of South Africa a link in a chain of British colonies which would eventually span the entire continent from Capetown to Cairo. The raids of Leander Jameson and other English adventurers increased hostile feeling and led to the Boer War (1899-1902). British victory brought grudging acceptance by the Boers under General Jan Christian Smuts and General Lewis Botha of the organization of South Africa as a part of the British Empire.

Taking note of the rapid growth of British and German colonies, the Portuguese extended their control of (south) East Africa into the interior, and the French consolidated their power in the nearby island of Madagascar. By 1914, the relentless European imperialists had seized all of Africa except the ancient Christian kingdom of Ethiopia and the republic of Liberia (established in 1822 by the United States as a residence for emancipated American slaves).

COOMASSIE, GOLD COAST



**EUROPEAN ADVANCES  
IN ASIA BEFORE  
THE SURGE  
OF INDEPENDENCE**

**Russian**



**French**



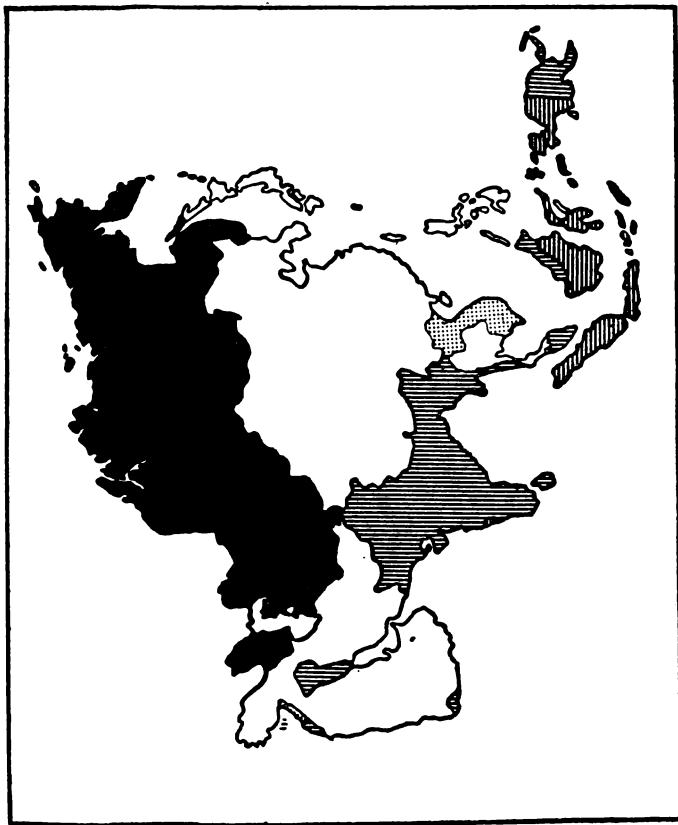
**British**



**Dutch**



**Portuguese**



VICTORIA



YAKUB KAHN OF AFGHANISTAN



AFGHAN WARRIOR



## ■ British Pacific Dominions

Although much of Africa was not suitable for European settlement, regions of Australia and New Zealand had a temperate climate and fertile land areas defended only by small bands of aborigines. By 1900, Australia had nearly four million settlers (most of them in the southeast), and the following year the scattered colonies became the Confederation of Australian States as well as a British Dominion with a great deal of political control over internal affairs. Settlement proceeded more slowly in the smaller islands of New Zealand where the native Maoris refused to submit to the British until 1871, but New Zealand also eventually became a Dominion. This international relationship between mother country and semi-autonomous Dominions was first formulated in the British North American Act (1867) for Canada, the wealthiest and most populous of the Dominions.

## ■ Asia

Unlike thinly-populated Australia or primitive Africa, Asia contained ancient empires with vast populations, and most Europeans came to Asia as traders, missionaries, and civil administrators rather than as permanent settlers. In Asia Britain, Holland, France, and Russia got the lion's share of the spoils. Jules Ferry established French Indo-China while British imperialists, using northwest India as a base, gradually took over Burma province. After building a base at Singapore the British slowly moved up the Malay Peninsula. The British and French did not clash, but Anglo-Russian conflicts occurred repeatedly in Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet until 1907 when the Russians agreed to accept the northern half of Persia as a sphere of influence (while the British took the southern half) and promised to stay out of the other disputed lands.



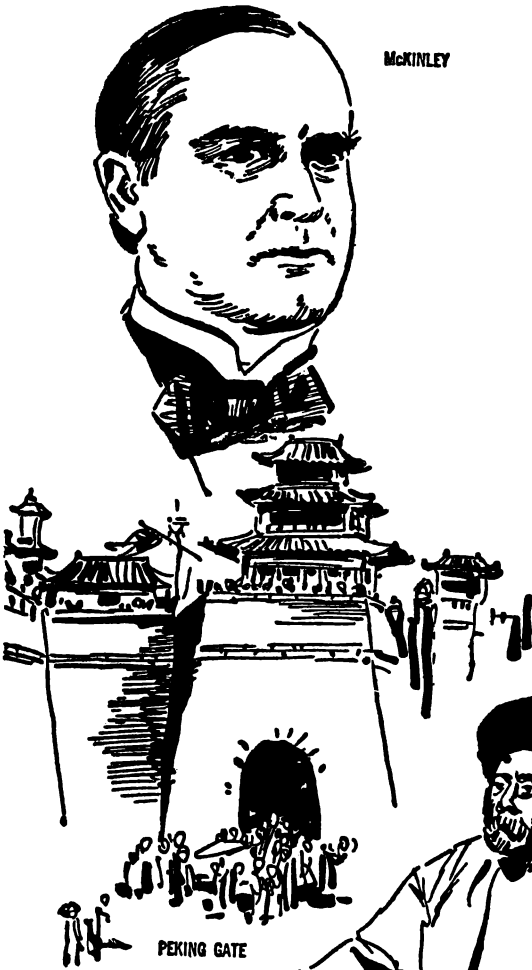
BRAHMINS OF BENGAL



The United States under President William McKinley's leadership entered the imperial competition by annexing Hawaii, seizing the Philippines from Spain during the Spanish-American War (1898), and exerting influence in Chinese affairs. China appeared to be on the brink of collapse, and among the major nations of the Far East, only Japan and Siam were able to maintain real independence. Siam (later Thailand) remained independent because of its value as a buffer state between British and French territories, and because the ruler, Rama V, copied Western ideas in a vigorously instituted reform program (1873).

**India.** The most fabulous of all the Asiatic colonial prizes, India, lost vast territories to British adventurers of the East India Company during the eighteenth century as the wealth of the sub-continent poured into England. The open looting of native treasuries by company officials was stopped by British civil servants who gradually took over the company's political functions (1784-1858); but parliamentary legislation wreaked economic havoc by attempting to make India little more than a buyer of manufactured goods and a supplier of raw materials. India was one of the leading manufacturing nations in the world before discriminatory legislation and cheap machine-produced goods from England ruined native craftsmen. British methods of extending their power angered the Indian upper classes, especially when Lord Dalhousie (1848-56) instituted the "law of lapse" which gave the British control over a state when the ruler did not have a son to inherit his domains. The disastrous deployment of Indian troops by the British in the Afghan War (1838-42) made the Indians question the military infallibility of their masters. Christian missionaries and British social arrogance made more enemies, and discontent reached a climax in the Sepoy Rebellion of Indian troops (1857), during which both sides murdered and tortured with reckless abandon. After the suppression of the revolt all power was taken from the East India Company and given to a reorganized British-Indian administration. Two-fifths of the nation still belonged to native rulers, but a "resident advisor" was assigned to each prince and British laws were often applied to the Indian states. The British viceroy ruled the other three-fifths of India with the aid of an executive council (later a legislative council), provincial governors, and district officers. Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India in 1876, and

**MCKINLEY**



**PEKING GATE**



**MANDARIN LEADER**



FU PING REBELTOR

the viceroy's court was conducted with pomp and magnificence.

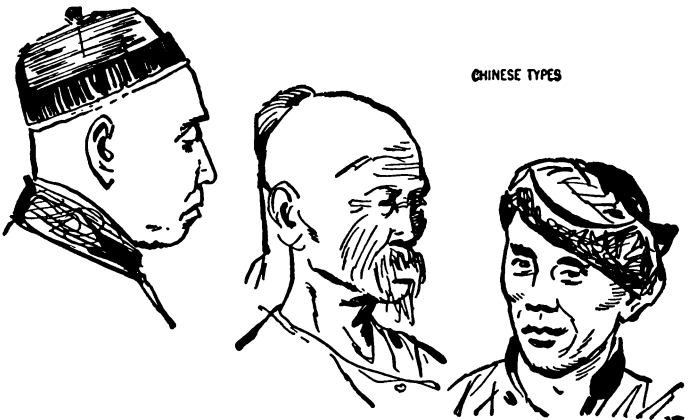
While most of the better civil service jobs were reserved for Englishmen, toward the end of the century Indians occupied an increasingly large number of offices. The British did bring public order, political efficiency, improved transportation and communications, and more national unity than India had known for centuries. The Hindus and, to a lesser extent, the Moslems experienced a cultural revival. An Indian National Congress met in 1886, universities were established, and in 1909 the "Morley-Minto" Reforms set up provincial assemblies and gave a sizable minority of seats on the national council to Indians. Despite the extensive Indian agitation for home rule, the nation made very important contributions to British victory in World War I.

**China.** British traders and colonial adventurers threatened China in the nineteenth century with intervention similar to that which had brought India under British control in the eighteenth century. The most powerful British economic interest in the Cantonese trade was the sale of opium, and Chinese efforts to stop this destructive commerce led to two "Opium Wars" (1841-42, 1858-60). Easy Western victories forced an almost endless chain of concessions from the declining Manchu government: five ports were opened to British commerce (1842); by the Treaties of Tien-tsin (1858) between China and Great Britain, France, the United States, and Russia, eleven more ports were opened; trade and Christian missions were permitted in the interior, and legations were established at Peking. During the reigns of Tao Kuang (1821-50) and Kuang Hsü (1875-1908) centralized authority disintegrated; inflation, prices, and aristocratic exploitation of the peasants increased—in effect the entire society seemed to be falling apart. Provinces established their military forces and millions of people joined secret societies (clans) for mutual aid and protection.

The decline of ancient Confucian social ethics and customs, the problem of assimilating the Western ideas introduced by Christian missionaries, and the chaos spread by foreign invaders and civil war hastened the impending collapse of the old order. During the weak reign of Hsien Feng (1851-61) agrarian unrest, aggravated by the problem of absentee landlordism, led to the T'ai P'ing Rebellion (1850-64) which devastated China. The rebels, influenced by Protestant doctrine, advocated public order, social justice, and a brotherhood of mutual aid. With the help of regional war lords the revolt was finally suppressed, but imperial control of the nation continued

to decrease. In the War of 1894-95 Japan exploited the situation by seizing Formosa, and might have appropriated even larger territories if the Chinese government had not secured Russian aid. Unfortunately, the Russians had to be paid with an authorization to build a railroad across Manchuria, a concession which aroused a host of aggressive demands from other European nations. An anti-foreign Chinese group, the Boxers ("The Righteous Harmonious Fists") rose in revolt, and the possibility of partition threatened China when foreign troops succeeded in repressing the rebellion. However, the European powers sought economic exploitation without the responsibility of political control, and John Hay (Theodore Roosevelt's Secretary of State) won approval for an "Open Door" policy of Chinese trade with all nations.

The Empress Dowager Tzu Hsi, a colorful former concubine, tried to hold the empire together, but in 1911 Dr. Sun Yat-sen ("the father of modern China") led his followers among the intellectuals and the port city businessmen into open revolt. The strongest of the war lords, Yüan Shih-kai seized power by defeating imperial forces and attempted (until his death in 1916) to unify China under his authority. Although Sun Yat-sen and the Kuomintang (Kuo Min Tang, Nationalist party) worked diligently to establish a democratic state, they could neither bring all of the nation under their power nor create a strong government. China, torn by civil strife and disunity, stood halfway between the old Confucian aristocratic society and the new ways of European civilization.



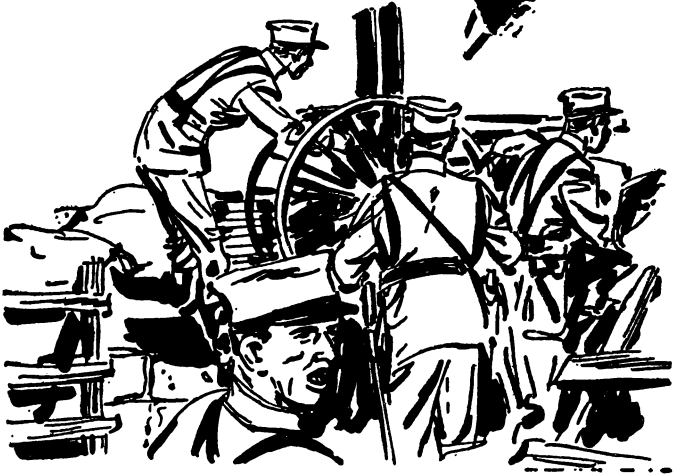
CHINESE TYPES



YÜAN SHIH-K'AI



SUN YAT-SEN



BOXER REBELLION

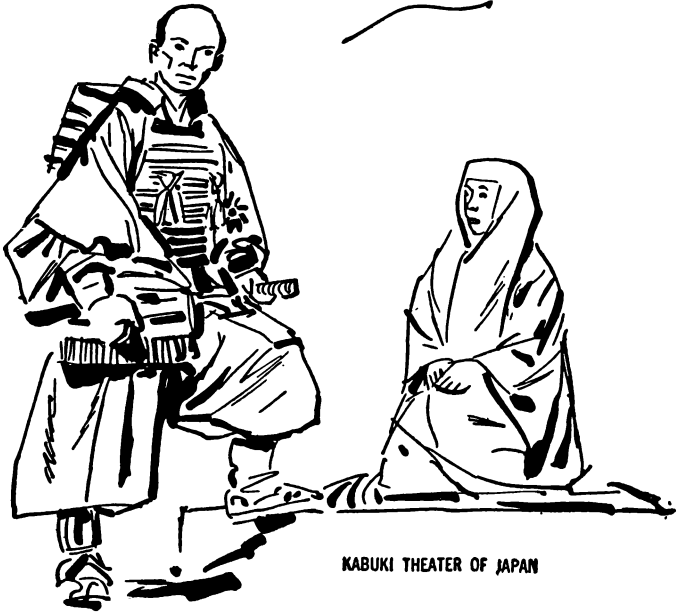
**Japan.** As the divided and confused Chinese people groped blindly for solutions to new problems, Japan managed an orderly and successful transition from feudal to modern conditions. Until the American Commodore Matthew C. Perry and U. S. Consul-General Townsend Harris, through a judicious display of naval force and astute diplomacy, opened Japan to Western trade (1853) the land-hungry Japanese peasants, crowded together on a few small islands, lived in respectful obedience to their social superiors and to time-honored customs. Even the upper classes lived by a code that stressed authority, self-discipline, and the careful use of modest resources. Many of these social characteristics persisted long after the westernization of Japan.

Foreign commerce disorganized Japanese economic life and imperialists stood ready to extend their influence, but the government made a conscious, carefully-planned effort to preserve old ways and at the same time to adopt industrial, military, and political techniques that would permit survival in the modern world. During the reign of Mutsuhito (1867-1912), Prince Ito, aided by a court clique and young samurai (aristocratic warriors), abolished the office of shogun and revived the state religion, Shintoism, with particular emphasis on reverence for the mikado (emperor). The power of the great nobles who lived at the imperial court was broken. This "Meiji Restoration" abolished many feudal regulations, freed the peasants from serfdom and allowed them to enter the army, built new industrial plants, and (after consulting Bismarck) adopted a constitution (1889). The Restoration, however, did not proceed without serious difficulties: the Satsuma (samurai) Rebellion, under the leadership of Saigo (1877), to restore lost aristocratic privileges, almost succeeded; inflation plagued the economy; and the government lacked adequate tax revenue to sustain its industrial programs. Meiji leaders reluctantly sold industries and a few far-sighted businessmen, like those of the Mitsui family, laid the foundations of industrial empires by purchasing government plants. While there were soon thousands of small plants with five or six employees, in the twentieth century the Zaibatsu (financial oligarchies or trusts—Mitsui and Mitsubishi companies) dominated a large part of the economy.

ANCIENT JAPANESE ARMOR







KABUKI THEATER OF JAPAN

The appearance of Western ways in Japan from ballroom dancing and derby hats to Christian religious services brought protests from social conservatives who believed that change was coming too fast. The Meiji reformers, however, were confident that the old patterns of authoritarian family life and the new state-controlled mass education system (which inculcated habits of loyalty and obedience) would assure the success of the Japanese experiment. The court rulers even imitated the West by encouraging a system of political parties. The Liberal party, with a conservative rural outlook, and the Progressive party, with a leaning toward urban intellectuals and businessmen, were formed in 1881-82, but had little power until about 1900 when the court oligarchs began to acquire parliamentary majorities through bribery and patronage. The political parties gradually developed into responsible groups that dominated Japanese politics until the 1930's. If the Japanese had difficulty with the new political system, they were extremely successful in handling other problems. In one generation they made Japan an industrial power with a series of surprising victories to its credit. The Chinese War (1895) was easily won, and the Japanese stunned the world by defeating a great European power in the Russo-Japanese War (1905). Japanese entry into World War I on the side of the victorious allies brought added prestige and territory.

## ■ Art and Literature in the 19th Century

**Asia.** Japan was almost unique in Asia for great artistic creativity both at the beginning and the end of the century. Hokusai (Katsushika), brilliant painter, draftsman, and master color print-maker, influenced both Asiatic and European artists. As the foremost figure of the ukiyo-e school, he created the renowned series, *Hundred Views of Mount Fuji*. Rain, snow, mist, and moonlight permeated the unique landscape color prints of Hiroshige (Ando), who also succeeded in introducing people into his landscapes while combining modern realistic techniques with ancient scroll painting. At the turn of the century, Yamamoto Kanae, who had worked in Europe, became the pioneer in the new school of creative print-makers known as the *hanga* artists. With Hakutei Ishii and others, he published the magazine *Hosun* (1907) which introduced Western artistic ideas to Japan.

Western plays were produced in Japan, but the flamboyant highly-styled Kabuki theater continued to flourish with performances of plays by the prolific Namboku Tsuruya IV, Mo-kuami Kawatake, and Tsubouchi Shoyo, who injected realism into the traditional Kabuki play. The Meiji revival of Shintoism encouraged the presentation of religious ideas in fiction and history.

In India and China, Western imperialism often disrupted artistic traditions. The Mogul emperors of India had been great patrons of the arts but, after the British conquest, the diminishing number of artists tended, while catering to a greater public, to produce mediocre imitations of the creative works of earlier generations. In literature however, the Hindu and Moslem revivals produced historical fiction, poetry, and theological works. As early as 1816, David Hare and Ram Mohun Roy founded the Hindu College at Calcutta. Similar colleges were established elsewhere in India during the century.

Although the invasion of Western intellectual and artistic ideas stimulated works written in defense of Confucian tradition, the artistic creativity of China was diminished by the presence of warring cultures. A number of novels and tracts attempted to combine elements of East and West.



JAPANESE WOOD BLOCK PRINT

## ■ Western Literature and Thought Before 1914

As Asiatic writers struggled to understand the fabric of their changing societies European writers faced similar tasks, for the West was also undergoing drastic alterations. The most important creation of nineteenth century literature was the panoramic novel with its richness of detail, variety of characters, and its intense efforts to capture the general social pattern. Honoré de Balzac's novels had shown the way. Charles Dickens (*Oliver Twist*, 1837-39, *David Copperfield*, 1849-50), wrote with great gusto of foppish nobles and clever cockneys, orphaned children and arrogant old men, sentimental women and savage criminals, English fog and plum puddings, as well as the great chain of circumstance that surrounds man. Leo Tolstoy in *War and Peace* (1865-69) attempted to present all of Russian society under the sweeping impact of the Napoleonic Wars. The compassionate Fyodor Dostoyevsky used his genius as a literary psychologist to portray a world torn by conflicting ideologies and peopled by friends, lovers, relatives, criminals, saints, and madmen (*Crime and Punishment*, 1866, *The Brothers Karamazov*, 1879-80).



The "realists" and "naturalists" of England, France, and America were willing to describe all aspects of life, and created an ideology to answer their shocked critics. Émile Zola (*Nana*, 1880) thought of himself as a literary surgeon dispassionately dissecting emotions and actions; Guy de Maupassant's stories were graphic snapshots of patriotic prostitutes, smug businessmen, and shrewd Norman peasants; Mark Twain's novels described life on the Mississippi River and in the West with an eye to realistic detail but with humor and a poetic appreciation of individual freedom. The American, Henry James (*The American*, 1877, *Portrait of a Lady*, 1881), and the German writers Gerhart Hauptmann, a playwright, and Artur Schnitzler preferred a psychological "realism" which dwelt on motives and personal relationships.

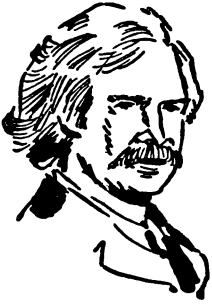
Many novelists, poets, and philosophers of the nineteenth century were pessimists. In England, the poet Robert Browning could proclaim that "God's in his heaven, all's right with the world" (*Pippa Passes*), and Alfred Lord Tennyson (*In Memoriam*) could resolve his problems with a hesitant optimism, but John Ruskin thought that the new machines had destroyed the joys of work, and Matthew Arnold (*Dover Beach*) placed man on "a darkling plain swept by confused alarms of struggle and flight/where ignorant armies clash by night."



TOLSTOI



DOSTOYEVSKY



TWAIN



DREISER



H. JAMES

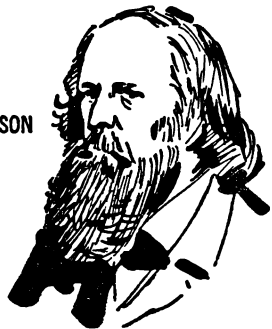


ARNOLD



BROWNING

TENNYSON

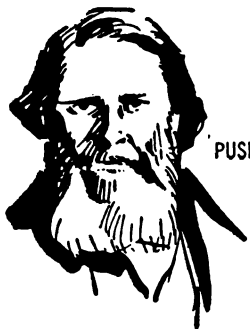


The Norwegian playwright Henrik Ibsen (*A Doll's House*, 1879, *The Master Builder*, 1892) depicted modern man as ridden with hypocrisy, cant, and corrosive pride. While George Bernard Shaw's (Irish) urbane, witty plays (*Caesar and Cleopatra*, 1899, *Man and Superman*, 1903) found folly and malice in human nature, he felt that the basic problems could be solved through socialism.

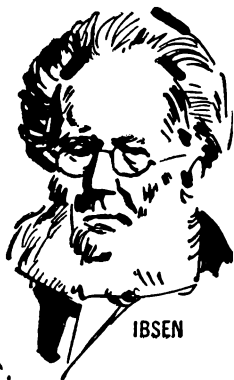
Artur Schopenhauer (German) (*The World as Will and Idea*, 1819), who had based a pessimistic philosophy on his belief that the basic reality was a blind, overriding, insatiable urge to live, exerted a great influence on Friedrich Nietzsche (German) who began with Schopenhauer's position and formulated a social philosophy which praised the urgent will, the truly strong superior man. Nietzsche (*Thus Spake Zarathustra*, 1883-85) denounced Christianity, democracy, and socialism as slave moralities by which weak and inferior men attempted to destroy their superiors. The American, William James, a brother of novelist Henry, (*Principles of Psychology*, 1890, *The Will to Believe*, 1897, and *Pragmatism*, 1907) also traced action to emotion and reasons to biological need, but James was a humane, optimistic American philosopher who believed that human problems might be solved if man would take from experience those ideas and methods that actually worked, rather than attempt to impose abstract preconceptions on experience.

Political theorists also placed reason in the background. Emile Durkheim (French) and Vilfredo Pareto (Italian) insisted that the emotional needs and desires which controlled political life were translated into action by myths, slogans, and symbols instead of by constitutions and reasoned codes.

The great founder of psychoanalysis, Sigmund Freud (Austrian), perceived beneath the level of conscious thinking a subconscious mind from which primarily sexual impulses often emerged to drive men into irrational actions. Freud's emphasis on the parent-child relationship, self-awareness, and hidden motivation resulted in new attempts by writers to portray the inner emotional recesses of the mind. These attempts accounted for the creation of new poetic techniques that produced the symbolist movement. Freud's tremendous influence was also felt in prose literature and the arts as well as in the establishment by social scientists of a new approach to an understanding of man in society.



PUSHKIN



IBSEN



HAUPTMANN



NIETZSCHE



SCHOPENHAUER



W. JAMES



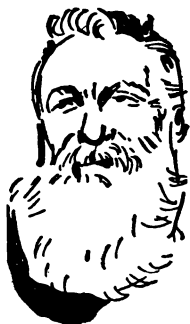
MONET



CÉZANNE



RENOIR



RODIN



WHISTLER

Stéphane Mallarmé's poetic search for perfection of form and depth of emotion rejected both literary realism and the corrupt industrial society which produced it. Rainer Maria Rilke (German) and William Butler Yeats (Irish) were other leaders in the search for "pure poetry," an attempt to find the perfect word, phrase, or line with the maximum emotional reverberation.

## ■ The Visual Arts Before 1914

Even more than their literary counterparts the experimental painters sought new modes of expression. Some artists argued that the invention of the camera had made the painting of graphic images obsolete, and many demanded that painters re-examine the world of vision to see how objects really struck the eye of a sensitive observer. Edouard Manet (French), pioneer impressionist and *plein-air* painter, influenced Cézanne when he created planes by juxtaposing small flat areas of pure color applied directly to the canvas. Following the lead of Manet, Claude Monet (French) became the leading Impressionist landscape artist. By painting the same scene under different conditions of light and eliminating black and brown from his palette, Monet's subjects practically dissolved in sunlight. Georges Seurat (French Neo-impressionist) created Pointillism (breaking up color into dots or points) and his interest in a scientific and mathematical approach to form in art greatly influenced twentieth-century artists. The brilliant color and highly emotional impact of the heavily painted works of Vincent Van Gogh (Dutch) and the flat, colorful, decorative design and symbolic implications of the work of Paul Gauguin (French, worked in Tahiti) ushered in Expressionism. Edgar Degas and Henri Toulouse-Lautrec were the important Linear Impressionists of the period while Pierre Renoir (French Impressionist) gained recognition for his brilliant figure compositions and studies of the nude.

The founder of modern art, Paul Cézanne (French) was the great master of Post-Impressionism and the forerunner of Cubism and abstract form. Cézanne believed that all nature could be divided into the basic forms of the cube, the cone, and the cylinder (which led to Cubism). The master sculptor of the period, Auguste Rodin (French) developed Expressive Realism. In the United States, James McNeill Whistler, Thomas

Eakins, Albert Ryder, John Singer Sargent, and Winslow Homer represented the diversity and richness of the period in American art.

The turn of the century saw the development of several revolutionary schools of art. Vasily Kandinsky (Russian abstract artist) developed German Expressionism as a member of the *Blaue Reiter* (Blue Rider) school and (after 1922), as a teacher at the Bauhaus, initiated abstract art by expressing the opinion that art should reflect the abstract quality of absolute music. In France, Pablo Picasso (Spanish) and Georges Braque (French) stimulated by the work of Cézanne, took geometrical patterns from nature and rearranged the constituent parts to create a new "reality" on canvas thereby creating Cubism. Marcel Duchamps (French Dadaist) in *Nude Descending the Staircase* introduced abstract motion by painting a series of overlapping figures.

Despite the revolutionary innovations of Symbolist poets and Cubist painters, popular tastes ran in old channels and a wide chasm separated pioneer artists from their potential public. The New York Armory Show of 1913, which introduced the modern art of Europe to America, produced a violent reaction, and the production in Paris of Igor Stravinsky's (Russian) ballet, *The Rites of Spring*, with its savage rhythms and dissonances that struck the ear so powerfully, actually created a riot in the theater.

Pessimistic writers and optimistic populations were miles apart in literary ideas. Usually unaware and sometimes indifferent to the grim analyses of intellectuals, Americans read the older "classics" or welcomed Horatio Alger's novels about office boys who became corporation presidents, while Englishmen affectionately placed in their libraries Samuel Smiles' *Self-Help* with its assurances that an energetic upright life would surely lead to prosperity and happiness.

Men had seen European power spread around the world, and had watched the new machines produce a vast and growing stream of industrial goods. If all classes did not share wealth equitably, millions of men clung to the belief that the problem would be solved by circumstances or the proper social action—by time, social evolution, greater production, trade unions, or socialism. The masses of men were pleased with their tastes and confident in their optimism, but the pessimists served as sensitive weather vanes for the blood bath which was to begin in 1914 and the disasters which were destined to shatter twentieth-century life.



STRAVINSKY

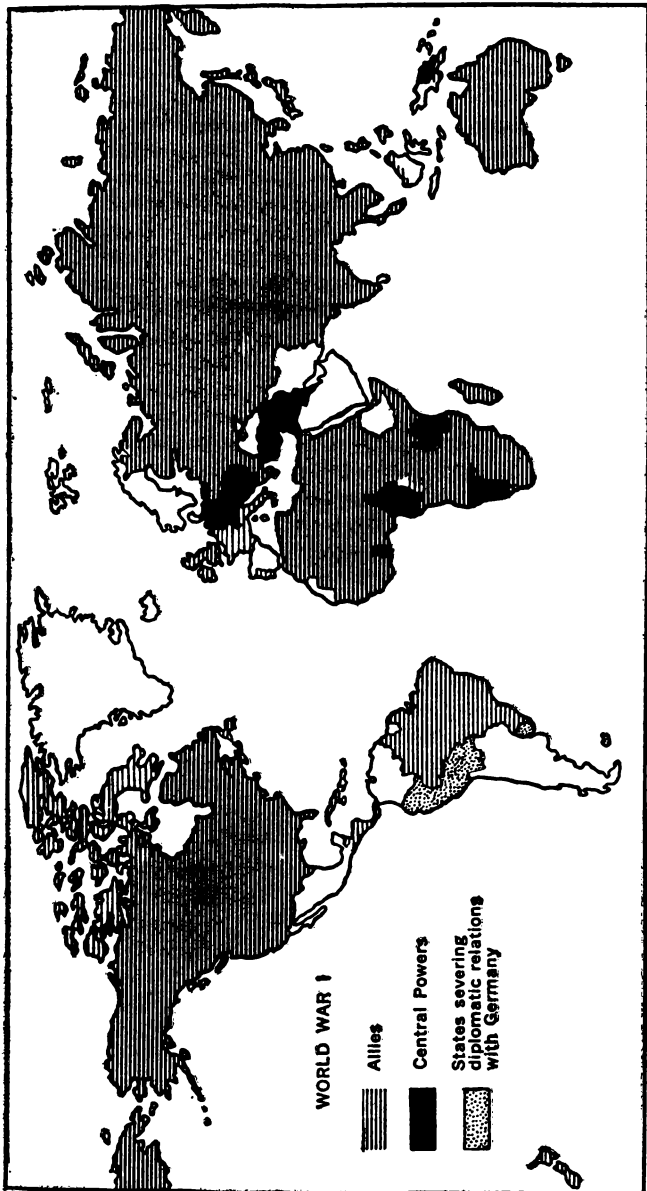


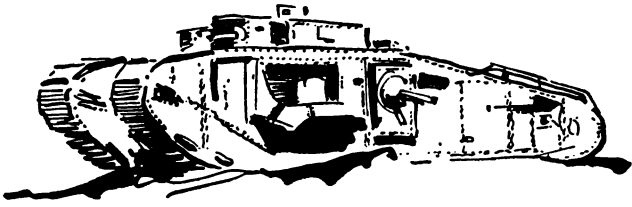
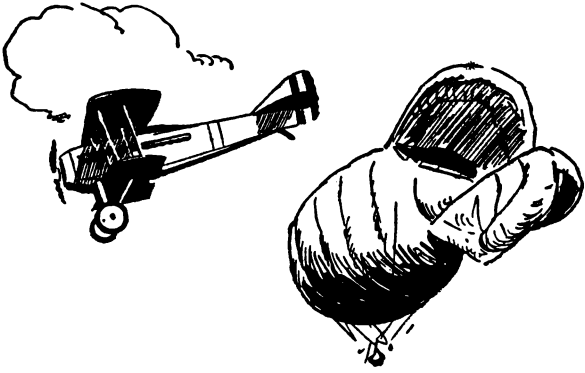
PICASSO

## ■ Colonial Wars

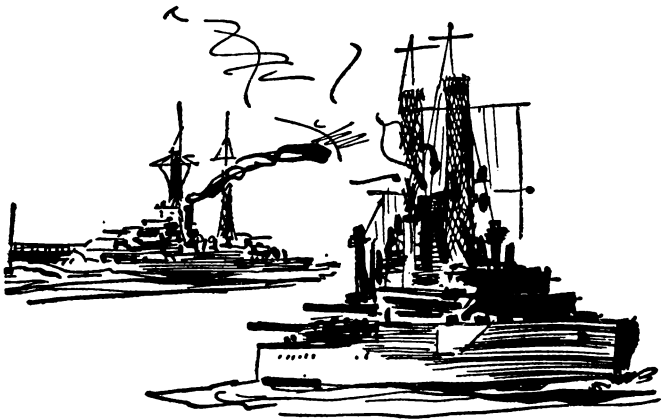
Creole economic needs and Spanish political weakness provided opportunities too tempting for British merchants to resist. Limited legal trading opportunities granted to England in 1713 soon represented only a fraction of the actual commerce carried on by the British. Spanish efforts to stop this illegal trade led to an Anglo-Spanish War in 1739. The French watched the growth of British influence with concern, for the government wanted trade with Latin America, powerful nobles and merchants wanted more of the rich West Indian sugar islands, and the Marquis Joseph Duplex dreamed of a great empire in North America. During the year 1740, France attacked the British in the West Indies as her ally, Prussia, invaded Austrian territory, and the War of the Austrian Succession began. The conflict, known in North America as King George's War (just as the earlier War of the Spanish Succession earned the American designation Queen Anne's War), caught the British Navy unprepared, and enabled the French to win victories in the West Indies and, on the far side of the world, to capture the key city of Madras in India. The British held their own in other regions, however, when for example New Englanders seized the French Canadian fortress city of Louisbourg (1745). The peace of 1748, which was hardly more than a truce, restored pre-war conditions and boundaries.

The Seven Years' War between 1756 and 1763 (French and Indian War to North Americans) was a more serious struggle in which the British gained enormous advantages in India and North America. During the early stages of the conflict British forces met with one disaster after another: Minorca fell, 123 British prisoners of an Indian ruler died in the infamous "Black Hole of Calcutta," and General Edward Braddock's British forces (with colonial militia under young George Washington) were almost destroyed in an ill-fated attempt to capture French Ohio outposts. As often happened in British history, in a time of crisis a brilliant statesman, in this instance, William Pitt, became prime minister and was able to completely turn the tide. French slave-trading posts in Africa and French bases in the West Indies were taken. Robert Clive's British forces in India retook Calcutta (1757), seized Chandernagor (destroyed 1759) and routed the French and her allies in the battle of Plassey (June 22, 1757). When a French expedition under Count Thomas Lally arrived too late to reverse the tide, and





ARMS USED DURING WORLD WAR I



Britain. (Japan joined the Allies in 1914 and the United States in 1917.)

## ■ Western Front

The German plan provided for a limited holding operation against Russia while the major armies made a rapid thrust across Belgium into central France. When the Germans were only thirty miles from Paris, the Allies staged a desperate counterattack along the Marne River, driving the Germans back to the Aisne River. The Germans turned and raced for the Channel ports, but Anglo-French forces stopped them and soon millions of disciplined, well-armed troops occupied military positions from the Atlantic Ocean to the Swiss border. Rows of trenches, barriers of barbed wire, and concrete forts were quickly constructed. Generals on both sides hoped that heavy artillery bombardments followed by massive infantry attacks might break the stalemate, but ample reserve troops and the depth of defense fortifications made the gain of more than a few miles impossible. The use of poison gas by the Germans in 1915 and tanks by the British in 1917 did not change the situation. Battles were fought which involved millions of troops and the Western Front became one vast blood bath for four years. In 1916, the French dug in at Verdun and vowed with Marshal Petain that "they shall not pass." The Franco-German death toll was over a half-million men and a British offensive on the Somme River during the same year cost one million casualties. The Italian Front also created a national torment. While early offensives against Austria were moderately successful, the Italians suffered a disastrous defeat at Caporetto in 1917. However, this blow to the Allied cause was more than offset by the promise of American soldiers and supplies. The United States entered the war following devastating German submarine attacks against all ships (including neutral vessels) carrying food, raw materials, and manufactured goods to England and France. Anglo-American naval forces gradually subdued the dangerous enemy submarine fleet, while the arrival of American troops strengthened the Western Front.

## ■ Eastern Front

Russia had vast armies but lacked the industry essential for modern fighting. When the war began in 1914, German industrial and military superiority enabled General von Hinden-



burg to drive the invading Russians back, until the German offensive was stalled by the severe winter and the need to aid Austrian forces against the common enemy. Under-equipped and badly supplied Russian armies stayed in the field only by sacrificing vast numbers of troops. A year of disaster was 1915, and in June, 1916, the Russians launched their last serious offensive against the Germans at terrible cost to themselves. Winston Churchill's plans for an English invasion of Turkey (Gallipoli, 1915) failed to open desperately needed supply lines for the Russians.

## ■ Russian Revolution

In March, 1917, the Russian army was no longer capable of fighting and the state was disintegrating. A democratic revolution forced the tsar to abdicate, but the provisional government would not make peace and could not solve the incredibly difficult economic problems which demoralized the nation. The Communists, under the leadership of Nicolai Lenin, seized power in November, 1917, on the strength of the slogan "peace, land, and bread." A peace treaty was signed with the Germans, and Communist revolutions in western nations were eagerly anticipated by Russian leaders. The revolutions did not come, and the "Red" armies, commanded by Leon Trotsky, had to fight a bitter Civil War (1918-21) against anti-Communist "White" forces who received some support from Allied troops.

## ■ Victory of the Allies

The collapse of Russia made possible the transfer of German troops to the Western Front for major offensives in the spring and summer of 1918. These drives failed and the Allies, strengthened by fresh American troops, took the offensive during July. The Austrian Empire disintegrated; Turkey left the war; and President Woodrow Wilson promised a just peace for all nations under his celebrated Fourteen Points. Exhausted by war and encouraged by Wilson's conciliatory program, the Germans revolted. After William II fled to Holland, the provisional government signed an armistice on November 11, ending a bloody war which had mobilized 65 million men, over 8 million of whom had died, and 30 million were listed as wounded. A postwar influenza epidemic in Europe took 10 million more lives. It seemed to pessimistic observers that Western civilization itself may have been the greatest victim of the war.

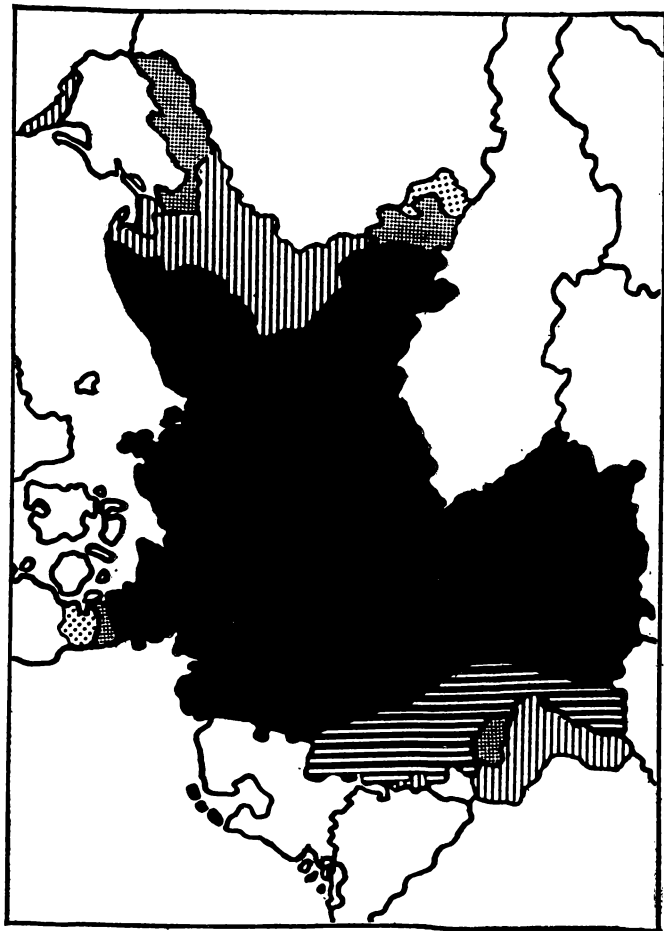
VON HINDENBURG



BOLSHEVITS REVOLUTION

# GERMANY AFTER THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

- Territory lost without plebiscite
- Territory lost after plebiscite
- Territory retained after plebiscite
- Demilitarized zone



## ■ Versailles Settlement

Although thirty Allied nations came to the Versailles Conference in January, 1919, the major decisions were made by three statesmen: the fierce old war leader, Georges Clemenceau, who represented the French determination to impose severe terms on the defeated nations; Lloyd George, who had just won an English election on the strength of a promise to "make Germany pay"; and Woodrow Wilson, who enjoyed world-wide popularity because of his celebrated peace program. Wilson's idealism was sometimes conveniently vague and often had to be modified to meet the demands of France and England for compensation for four years of death and destruction. France reclaimed Alsace-Lorraine and forced a heavy indemnity on her enemy. The Germans disliked the "Versailles Diktat" with its "war-guilt clause," the loss of territory to the new Polish state, and the surrender of naval vessels to England and France, but a resumption of the war was impossible. The old Hapsburg Austro-Hungarian Empire was completely destroyed, the new Austrian Republic retained only one-tenth of imperial territory, Hungary became a separate state with a smaller domain, and the new states of Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia were established. While the Ottoman Turkish Empire, torn by defeat and internal revolution, lost much territory, Turkey experienced a national revival which led to a drive for modernization during the 1920's under the able leadership of Mustapha Kemal Pasha (Kemal Atatürk).

## ■ Postwar Problems

Despite the legacy of fears and hatred left by the Versailles Treaty, Woodrow Wilson hoped that peace could be attained through his great political dream, the League of Nations. Unfortunately, Wilson could not persuade the United States Senate to accept the international organization and it rejected the treaty, which included the League Covenant. Communist Russia and defeated Germany were not admitted to membership in the League until years later. The League won only minor victories, for it resembled a diplomatic congress more than an international government capable of putting an end to major wars. The preservation of peace actually depended on the ability of the great powers to co-operate in liquidating problems left by the war. Limits were placed on the building of warships by the United States, Britain, France, Italy, and

Japan at the Washington Naval Conference (1922), but most disarmament efforts failed.

High tariffs, war and reconstruction costs, and wartime dislocations presented problems which were aggravated by the question of war debts and reparations. The Germans, who resented being compelled to make reparations when their own economy was insecure, defaulted on payments in 1923.

The Ruhr Valley region was seized by France and the efforts of the German government to finance a campaign of passive resistance led to inflation and a collapse of the currency.

Britain and France were particularly eager to collect reparations because they owed large payments to the United States in war loans. The plan advanced by Charles G. Dawes of the United States provided for a loan to Germany, a reduction of the reparations bill, and a resumption of payments by Germany. While this arrangement (1923) eased the situation, the conference in 1929 which adopted the Young plan was forced to reduce reparations again. All payments of reparations and debts ended during the Great Depression, leaving ill feeling among the peoples of the major powers. The Depression also endangered policies of co-operation which developed among the great powers during the 1920's through agreements such as the Locarno Pact (1925) and the Kellogg-Briand Pact (1928) for the renunciation of war.

## ■ Russian Communism

When the capitalist nations did not collapse as the Communists had hoped they would, Russia was faced with the problem of surviving among hostile powers. After seven years of foreign war, revolution and civil war, the country was reduced to economic and social chaos. Communist party leaders decided to allow a partial return to free enterprise and private property (New Economic Program, 1921-27) as a breathing spell before continuing the socialist reorganization of society.

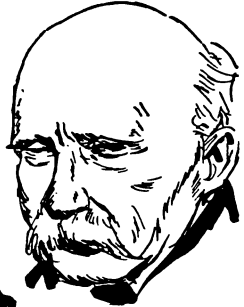
The Communist state was theoretically ruled by a legislature and a cabinet of ministers, but the real source of power was the small, tightly-organized Communist party, supported by the army and the secret police. The party itself was rigidly controlled by a Political Bureau which Lenin dominated with the aid of Trotsky, Stalin, and two other associates. A paralytic stroke (1922) diminished Lenin's role, and after his death (1924), Trotsky and Stalin engaged in a fierce struggle for power. Trotsky, brilliant, persuasive and scholarly, failed to use



WILSON



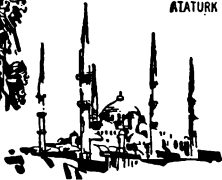
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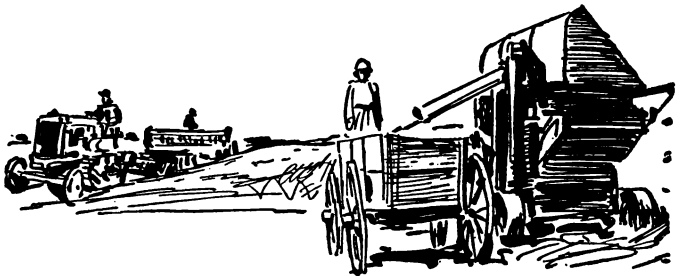
ATATÜRK





STALIN

DEVELOPMENT OF SOVIET INDUSTRY



his fame and his position as Minister of War to seize power. Stalin overlooked no opportunity in his effort to win control of the Communist party. As Minister of Nationalities he gained power through the support of millions of non-Russian people in the Soviet state, as he carefully cultivated the right friends and arranged for the removal of his enemies. Trotsky, who emphasized the Russian Revolution as only one act in the drama of world revolution, opposed Stalin's plan to build and maintain "socialism in one country" at the expense of all other goals. After forcing Trotsky to flee Russia in 1927, Stalin made himself a more absolute ruler than Ivan the Terrible.

In 1928 Stalin introduced the first of three five-year plans which were calculated to transform Russia from a backward, agricultural society into the greatest industrial power in Europe. The New Economic Program was abandoned as Stalin eliminated the kulaks (prosperous independent farmers) and forced millions of peasant landholders into large state-owned farms where land and machines were owned collectively. The suffering was appalling. When many peasants destroyed their crops and livestock in protest, Stalin was forced to proceed with collectivization at a slower pace. Urban programs were more successful, and giant strides in heavy industry enabled Russia to join the first rank of industrial nations. However, the cost was high. Executions, police spying, terror, and regimentation were the order of the day. Stalin terrorized the party as repeated "purges" were carried out in which heroes of the Revolution, were "persuaded" to confess to implausible crimes.

As time went on Stalin seemed to be subordinating the goals of the Revolution to the race for industrialization. Every possible step was taken to increase production. The despised capitalist system of pay for piece-work became commonplace. Highly productive workers, technicians, administrators, and party leaders were paid greater salaries, as the old socialist ideal of "From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs," was abandoned. Gradually Stalin re-established relations with the Western nations and negotiated several non-aggression pacts. Most Western radicals defended Stalin's policy of co-operation with the hated capitalist nations as the necessary purchase of time to prepare for an inevitable future war, but a number of intellectuals rejected actions which they regarded as a cynical betrayal of Communist ideals. Disregarding all criticism, Stalin followed his course—relentlessly pursuing industrial goals, colonizing Siberia and the Asiatic provinces, and trumpeting the rapid increase in Russian industry.



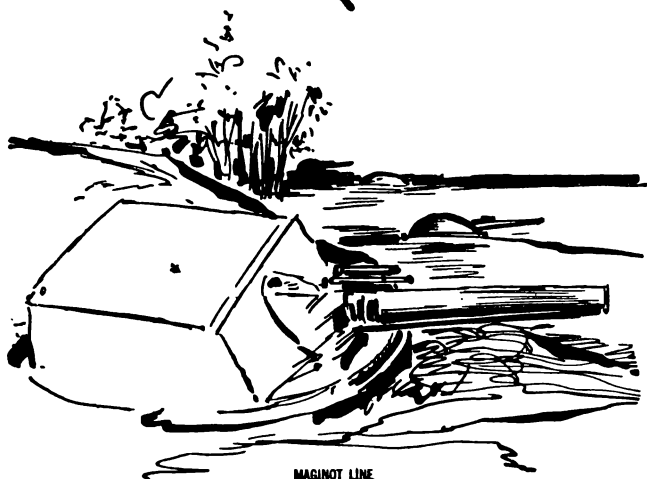
## Western Nations Between the Wars

**France.** With the single exception of Russia, France had suffered most from World War I. Northern France was devastated and the total cost of war and reconstruction almost equaled the total private wealth of the entire French population in 1914. Recovery was hampered by the French failure to introduce more mass production techniques and to abandon obsolete agricultural methods. Available capital was often sent out of the country or put into government bonds rather than invested in industry. The same cautiousness led the French to rely on the Maginot Line of fortifications along the Franco-German frontier despite the fact that enemy forces in 1914 had chosen the invasion route through Belgium.

Bitter social divisions and a bewildering variety of political parties led to the collapse of one French cabinet after another. Politics reflected the fundamental schism between those who owned property and those who did not. Though millions of small farmers and shopowners earned less than urban factory workers, they usually identified themselves with the interests of wealthy property owners and opposed the demands of workers for social welfare measures and national ownership of large industries. In 1924, the government was dominated by a left wing coalition of party leaders who proposed to pass social welfare measures and adopt a more conciliatory line toward Germany. Inflation threatened the currency and many investors refused to buy bonds from a left wing government. Raymond Poincaré and the conservatives formed a ministry (1926) to "save the franc," but four years later economic depression again brought into power left wing politicians who finally granted the accident, sickness and old age benefits that citizens of England and Germany had enjoyed for years. French conservatives bitterly opposed the new legislation while labor leaders demanded more substantial gains. In 1936, Leon Blum established a "Popular Front" government of all radical parties, including Socialists and Communists. When Blum introduced the 40-hour week and tried to nationalize the munitions industry as well as the powerful Bank of France, investors refused to lend money and the conservative Senate forced the Popular Front ministers to resign. As the workers attempted to defend



POINCAIRE



MAGINOT LINE



ADOLF HITLER, 1933

their interests by strikes and political action, right wing parties under Edouard Daladier formed a government which took harsh measures against the strikers. In 1939, the French government once again reached a deadlock, and a divided society defended only by an archaic and poorly led army, watched the growing German menace across the Rhine.

**Germany Under the Weimar Republic.** When William II fled to Holland in 1918, the new German Republic was organized by Social Democrats and their political allies amid a general reaction against the old order. Although a majority of Germans gave their support to the Weimar Constitution, the republic, constantly plagued by the terms of the Versailles "Diktat" and hampered by a political system which bred a confusing variety of political parties and chronically unstable governments led a precarious existence. The Constitution, which contained an "emergency" clause enabling the President to rule by decree, was used to destroy the republic in 1933.

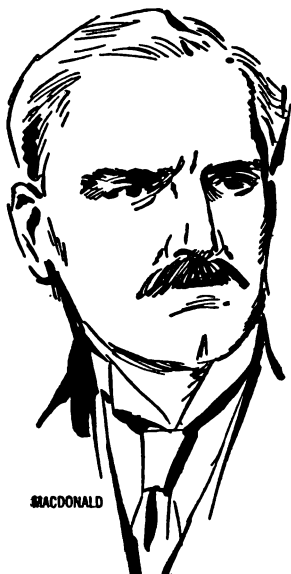
The earliest years in the history of the new government were violent ones. In 1919, the dominant Social Democrats had to use an old enemy, the army, to crush the revolutionary wing of the party (the Spartacus group) which had attempted to establish a dictatorship of the proletariat modeled on the Russian Communist experiment. The following year an effort to set up a Communist government in Bavaria failed, and the Kapp Putsch (revolt) of the conservatives was thwarted by a general strike. In 1923, Marshal Erich von Ludendorff and an eloquent rabble rouser, Adolf Hitler, tried to seize power in Munich, but failed completely. Public disorders followed. These included the assassination of Kurt Eisner, the socialist politician who expressed belief in Germany's war guilt, by patriotic terrorists. When a disastrous currency inflation (1923) destroyed the life savings, insurance, and incomes of millions, the government experienced great difficulty in resolving its domestic and foreign problems, even with the help provided by a substantial American loan. However, the currency was stabilized, a new war payment plan was drawn up, and the French army withdrew from the Ruhr Valley region which they had seized a few months earlier as ransom for reparations. The years from 1924 to 1929 were more stable and prosperous for the German people. The nation continued to have the most productive economy in Europe; industry expanded even during the great inflation; and foreign capital more than offset the limited reparations payments that were actually made. International developments were also increasingly favorable. The

foreign minister, Gustav Stresemann, who followed a policy of reconciliation, signed several pacts renouncing war.

Nevertheless, the humiliation of Versailles and the memory of past glories left their mark on German political thought. The most renowned general of World War I, Marshal Paul von Hindenburg, was elected President by German voters in whom a resentment against the victorious powers still lingered. Following the Great Depression of 1929, millions of Germans gave their support to the Communists or to the National Socialists (Nazis). The Nazi party leader, Adolf Hitler, denounced the Versailles Treaty as well as the democrats, socialists, pacifists, and Jews, whom the frenzied orator accused of betraying the German army in 1918. To the workers and the lower middle class the Nazis promised economic security and to all classes, revenge and national glory. President von Hindenburg allowed Hitler to form a Nazi government (1933). When the aged President died in 1934, Hitler abolished the offices of chancellor and president in order to rule simply as Der Führer (the leader), and began the systematic destruction of all centers of opposition.

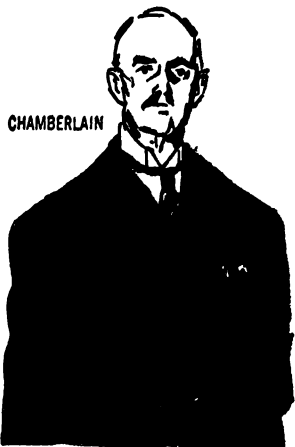


**Great Britain.** In some respects Germany and France had suffered more than Britain from World War I. The British enjoyed an economic boom during 1919 and 1920, but soon encountered economic difficulties. Overseas trade competition from rival industrial nations such as the United States and Germany had threatened British prosperity even before the war. Prior to 1914, income from large investments around the world had closed the gap between lagging international sales of manufactured goods and the insatiable need for imports of food and raw materials. Since the war forced the liquidation of many foreign investments, Britain had to fight constantly during the 1920's to avoid an unfavorable balance of trade. Failure to capture additional international markets led to a chronic unemployment problem so serious that 10 per cent of the labor force lacked jobs, and almost one-sixth of the population relied upon government subsidies. Under economic conditions such as these, the Labor party grew as the Liberal party declined. The two parties continued to co-operate against the common Conservative opponent, but the Conservative party managed to retain power except for a brief period in 1924 when a Liberal-Labor coalition under Ramsay MacDonald ruled.

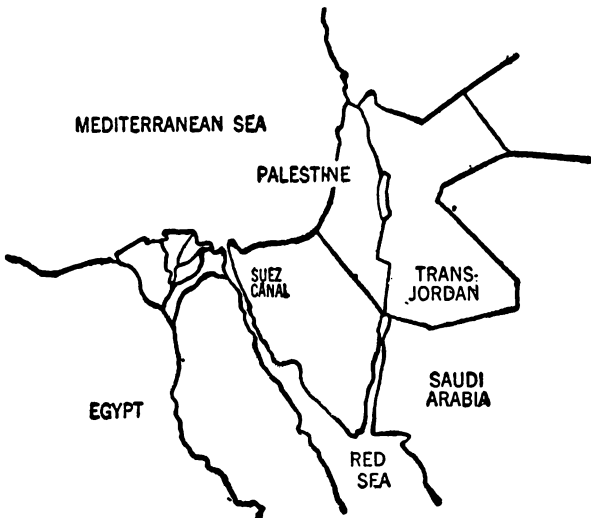


Stanley Baldwin, the Conservative prime minister, aroused the sharpest controversy of the decade by cutting government subsidies to industry, a policy which decreased employment. Mine and transport workers left their jobs, and Britain experienced its first general strike. While a swing to the left brought MacDonald back to power in 1929, the world Depression made economic conditions even worse, and Labor-Liberal leaders could not agree on a common policy for dealing with the crisis. MacDonald abandoned his party and, with the help of the Conservatives, formed a coalition ministry (1931-35) which adopted higher tariffs, stressed military rearmament, and attempted to cut government expenditures. The nation supported MacDonald in the election of 1931, and the coalition government remained in power for 14 years. Under Stanley Baldwin (1935-37) and Neville Chamberlain (1937-39), public attention gradually turned toward foreign affairs as Hitler Germany repeatedly threatened the peace.

Despite war threats and economic crises Great Britain continued to rule a vast empire and control the seas. Former colonies, such as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, and South Africa, were transformed into self-governing Dominions, but close political and economic ties with the mother country were retained. Only the Irish and the South African Boers were dissatisfied with the Dominion system. After centuries



of bitter conflict, the Irish through armed rebellion secured home rule in 1922, and became an independent republic in 1937. While the Boers accepted Dominion status, they continued to look upon the British minority in South Africa with suspicion. Aside from association with the Dominions, Britain continued to maintain colonial rule over such far-flung territories as India, the Malay States, and a large portion of Africa. A larger measure of independence was granted to Egypt, but Britain retained complete control of the Suez Canal zone. The British position in the Middle East was strengthened when the League of Nations granted temporary control (mandate) over the former Turkish provinces of Iraq, Palestine, and Trans-jordan (France got Syria and Lebanon). A mandate was replaced by a treaty in Iraq, but the Iraqi were too divided among themselves for effective self-rule, and British influence continued to prevail. Jews, who immigrated to Palestine in substantial numbers between the wars, worked for the establishment of a national homeland in Palestine. The hesitant British did not wish to make enemies among the hundred million Moslems in the empire, and Palestine became a battleground for a political struggle between rival Arab (Moslem) and Jewish factions. Still, in the Middle East, as in Africa and Asia, British power remained the dominant force.





## ■ Fascism

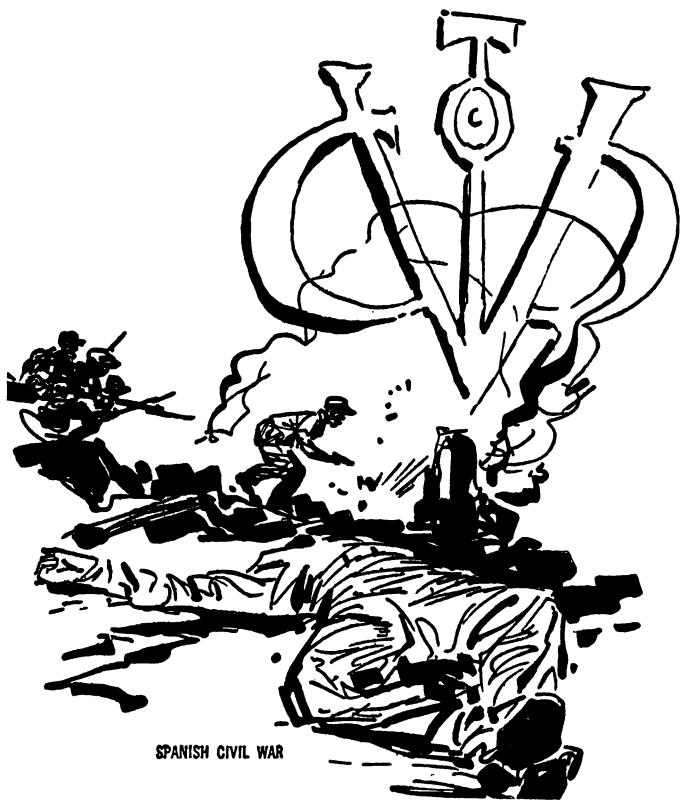
**Italy.** While Japanese militarism brought war to the Orient, Fascism threatened European civilization. Italy was the first nation to be swept by the totalitarian political tide. The Italians, who had sacrificed much during World War I, did not acquire all of the territory promised by Allied secret agreements. After 1918, patriots were bitter with the government for its failure to conduct the war more effectively and to collect the rewards afterwards. The factory workers supported the socialists, but the socialist movement lacked unity as well as effective leadership. Moreover, all of the radical factions lost strength to the new Fascist party which was strong enough by 1922 to force the appointment of party leader Benito Mussolini as prime minister.

Before 1914, Mussolini was a Socialist, but with the advent of war he sacrificed Socialist internationalism to patriotic feelings, and enthusiastically supported the war. After 1918, he realized that extreme patriotism coupled with radical slogans had great popular appeal, so he began to denounce the "Bolshevik traitors" as well as the "corrupt parliamentarians" and the "selfish materialists." Mussolini proposed to subordinate all national energies to the revival of the ancient imperial glories of Rome. The Fascists organized a private army and began a campaign of violence and intimidation which swept the arrogant Mussolini into power. Gradually the new prime minister became a dictator. He governed by decree, silenced all opposition, destroyed the labor unions, and regimented every aspect of Italian life. The "Corporate State" subordinated the interest of both labor and capital, and demanded unquestioning obedience and devotion from the masses. King and legislature continued to exist, but only the Grand Council of the Fascist party had any significant power, and it was completely subservient to Mussolini.

While the Fascists made genuine economic improvements by reorganizing transportation and communications, draining marshes for new farm lands, and encouraging industrial expansion, Italy was basically a poor country, almost devoid of coal, iron, and oil. After a decade of economic programs which achieved only limited success, Mussolini turned most of his attention to foreign adventure. He demanded territory in

Tunisia (French) and Egypt (dominated by Britain), reduced Albania to satellite status, defied the League of Nations in the conquest of Ethiopia, and in 1936 intervened to help Fascist rebels in their attempt to overthrow the Spanish Republic.





SPANISH CIVIL WAR

## ■ Civil War in Spain

Poverty-stricken and bitterly divided Spain overthrew a monarchy in 1931, and established a republic. Republican, Socialist and anarchist parties were dominant at first, but their plans to aid peasants and workers alarmed many Spaniards and enabled conservative parties to win the election of 1933. Gradually, however, public opinion swung back to the left, and a "Popular Front" ticket of all the republican and radical parties won a major victory at the polls in 1936. Conservatives, the clergy, the landowners, the factory owners and leaders of the new Falangist party (which was similar to Mussolini's Fascist party and Hitler's Nazi party) conspired to destroy the republic. An armed rebellion under the leadership of generals such as Francisco Franco launched a savage Civil War that lasted until 1939 and devastated Spain. Although private citizens from many countries volunteered to fight for democracy and against dictatorship, cautious leaders of the Western democracies who remembered the horrors of World War I refused to intervene. Russia gave aid to the Loyalist government, but exploited the situation to pay off old scores against non-Communist radicals. Germany and Italy sent more men and larger quantities of materials to Franco, which made the rebel victory possible. The triumphant Franco, however, hesitated before forming a firm alliance with the other European dictators.



## ■ Nazi Germany

Much more dangerous to Western democracy than Spain or Italy was Germany. After the death of President von Hindenburg in 1934, Hitler pressed the transformation of the German Federal Republic into a highly centralized dictatorship in which every agency or institution was directly obedient to his personal will. No opposition was tolerated, and when radicals in the Nazi party began to complain that Hitler favored the rich and had not granted promised benefits to workers and peasants, the dictator launched the "Blood Purge." Hundreds of party members, from the high ranking Ernst Roehm to the lowest officials, were assassinated. Sometimes the Nazis murdered men by mistake and many old scores were settled with non-party members. (An insignificant Munich policeman who had participated in the arrest of Hitler in 1933 was hacked to pieces with a pick axe.) After 1934, every major social group was gradually subordinated to Hitler until the army, the industrial corporations, and the labor unions belonged to Der Führer as clearly as did the Nazi party. Hitler preached an hysterical patriotism that was racist and violently anti-Jewish. Germans, he said, must guard their precious blood and soil by means of systematic anti-Semitism at home and bold action abroad.

National Socialism was a mood of violence, a tangled web of powerful emotions rather than a rational political philosophy. Hitler provided an object of blind devotion and obedience for the doubting, defeated masses, the uprooted and lonely crowd. Many Germans chose to ignore the most savage aspects of National Socialism, and stressed the return to full employment as well as the resumption of great power status by Germany. For enemies of the regime who could not remain silent there were the secret police, torture, and extermination.





VON HINDENBURG



HITLER





HOOVER



U.S.A. 1929



## ■ Western Hemisphere

**United States.** While European nations struggled with problems of empire and peace, the United States withdrew from wartime commitments and concentrated on a postwar economic boom. The Senate rejection of the League of Nations was followed by the election of a conservative, pro-business Republican presidential candidate, Warren G. Harding, who believed that people simply wanted to get back to "normalcy." Woodrow Wilson's aspirations for economic justice and lasting world peace were almost forgotten as a fascinated public watched mass production techniques create vast quantities of consumer goods and saw giant industrial corporations grow by leaps and bounds. Major political scandals in the Harding cabinet did not seriously damage the Republican party. After Harding's death (1923), the cautious, unimaginative, but honest Vice President, Calvin Coolidge, provided the kind of chief executive that most Americans wanted. Again in 1924 the Republicans won a smashing national victory at the polls. Although a complacent majority dominated the era, discontented critics of American government and society made themselves heard. A substantial minority voted for Senator Robert LaFollette's Progressive party in 1924, and all through the decade artists and intellectuals attacked what they felt was a business society, hostile to art, thought and culture. Europeans criticized the United States for refusing to collect war reparations from Germany while insisting on the payment of war loans from former allies. Moreover, the Americans constantly raised tariff barriers against foreign goods, thus making it difficult for European nations to earn money for the repayment of loans through exports to the United States.

Most Americans were conscious of a rising standard of living, and simply ignored intellectuals, prohibition, gang wars, and political corruption. In 1928, the Republican presidential candidate, Herbert Hoover, thought that the United States might soon solve the problem of poverty through the abundance of its economy and the virtues of its free enterprise system. Hoover's words soon seemed a bitter mockery to millions of Americans. Six months after "the great engineer's" inauguration, the stock market collapsed and millions of investors lost 40 billion dollars in paper values. Industries were already plagued by bulging warehouses because production had grown faster than mass purchasing power, while money that might have been spent for goods and services went into wild stock



market speculations. After the crash of 1929 unemployment grew and farm markets shrank until 10,000,000 persons were unemployed and the farm mortgage foreclosure rate grew at an alarming rate. President Hoover, a believer in "rugged individualism," thought that the economy would correct itself and refused to sanction radical measures. He did, however, accept certain programs such as the Reconstruction Finance Corporation for loans to business.

By 1932, the national income had been cut in half, the unemployed numbered 12,000,000, and the situation threatened to become even more serious. The Democratic nominee for president, Franklin D. Roosevelt, promised effective political action, and was rewarded with a landslide majority. From 1933 to 1938, Congress passed one piece of social legislation after another. Critics attacked the "New Deal" as revolutionary, but most of Roosevelt's reform bills simply brought to the United States programs which had been established in England or Germany decades earlier.

Banking and investment were regulated by national commissions. The Works Progress Administration put millions of unemployed men to work on public projects while the Civilian Conservation Corps gave young men jobs in the conservation of national resources. The Tennessee Valley Authority, which alleviated the poverty of an entire region, served as an experiment of interest to the whole country. Social Security provided some protection against the economic evils of unemployment and old age, and legislation such as the Minimum Wage Act was passed to help the factory worker.

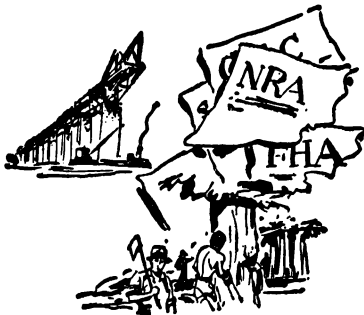
With a sympathetic national administration in power, the American labor movement, which had always been weaker in the United States than in western European countries, experienced a dramatic revival. Despite union activity and exten-

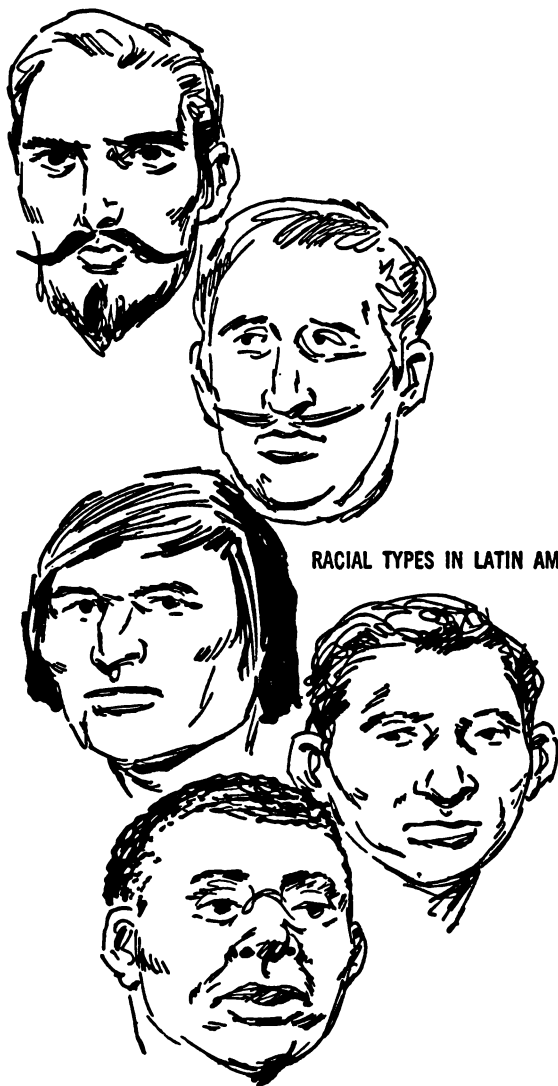


F. D. ROOSEVELT

sive federal legislation, however, the problem of unemployment persisted.

Farm relief also proved to be an extremely difficult problem. The Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1933 attempted to raise farm income by paying farmers to decrease the size of their crops and thus reduce a surplus for which there was no market. The United States Supreme Court ruled that this program and many other New Deal measures were unconstitutional. Roosevelt, after his greatest election victory in 1936, proposed to change the opinions of the court by appointing additional justices. For the first time since the President's first inauguration, Congress refused to follow Roosevelt's leadership, and the crisis was resolved only by a gradual change in the personnel and opinions of the court. Nevertheless, the reform pace slackened visibly, and few major bills were passed after 1938. Roosevelt himself tended to become increasingly absorbed with foreign affairs as Germany, Italy, and Japan demonstrated their aggressive intentions. For years Americans had clung to a policy of neutrality, including an embargo on the shipment of goods to warring nations, which hurt the Western democracies far more than the aggressor nations. While millions of Americans were hostile toward the idea of European involvements, at least as many were willing to sanction closer ties with nations of the Western Hemisphere. Roosevelt's "good neighbor" policy toward Latin America, which earned so much enthusiastic support, came none too soon. Americans had often intervened aggressively in Latin-American internal affairs by sending troops or applying diplomatic pressures. Now Roosevelt wished to encourage better relations among all nations in the Western Hemisphere through trade treaties and Pan-American congresses.





**RACIAL TYPES IN LATIN AMERICA**

## ■ Latin America

The Yankee colossus to the north symbolized stability and prosperity as well as power for Latin American nations which lacked all three conditions. Nineteenth century problems persisted in these lands where most of the population consisted of landless peasants or the urban poor who were economically, socially, politically, and educationally subordinate to a small aristocracy. Latin American nations usually supplied raw materials for wealthy industrial nations such as the United States, Britain, or Germany, and many states relied on a single commodity—sugar, coffee, nitrates—for a precarious national income that varied according to the violent fluctuations of world prices. Economic diversification, particularly the expansion of industry, was a possible solution, but the old difficulties in attracting foreign investors continued. When foreign capital was invested it usually added little to the general prosperity of a country, and in some instances it became the excuse for a more systematic exploitation of the recipient nation.

Three major states—Mexico, Argentina, and Brazil—provide good illustrations of both the progress and problems of Latin America. After 1911, Mexico found itself in a particularly difficult situation: foreign debts were huge and 97 per cent of its rich national mining properties were in the hands of aliens. Despite frequent revolutions and almost incessant social turmoil, Mexico made genuine progress during the 1920's and 1930's toward a solution of its most pressing problems. Some foreign debts were settled and others repudiated; mines and oil concessions were nationalized; and the lower classes made concrete economic gains.

Economic progress was much faster in Argentina which became the wealthiest of the Latin American states with a flourishing industry and extensive export markets for agricultural products. Unfortunately, economic growth brought bitter conflict between property owners and the growing class of workers.

Brazil, the largest and most populous of the Latin American states, had a relatively prosperous coastal population and a magnificent capital city, Rio de Janeiro. However, the urban poor on the coast and the vast majority of workers on the coffee, cocoa, cotton and rubber plantations in the interior lived in desperate poverty.

# Africa and Asia Between the World Wars

## ■ Africa

The Afro-Asian areas shared with Latin America the problems of overpopulation and economic exploitation by the industrial nations, but the Latin-Americans had at least established their political independence. In the years between wars Asians by the millions clamored for freedom, and a few Negro intellectuals hoped for ultimate independence. Africa had not yet been caught in the sweep of Western ideas, and the European exploitation of the continent as a source of raw materials continued. There were signs of a growing dissatisfaction in North Africa: the unsuccessful Moroccan revolt of 1937 against the French, the nationalistic activities of the Arab League of North Africa, and Egyptian insistence that British troops be withdrawn from all of Egypt except the Suez Canal Zone. The British and the French, however, continued to dominate Africa. The Negro majority in South Africa lost new lands and rights to the ruling Boers and Englishmen. German territories were given to Britain and France by the League of Nations as "mandates" and presumably would be freed in the future. The general African trend was toward more European domination and, when Mussolini seized Ethiopia, only the small poverty-ridden Liberian Republic existed as an independent state.



AZANDE-SUDAN



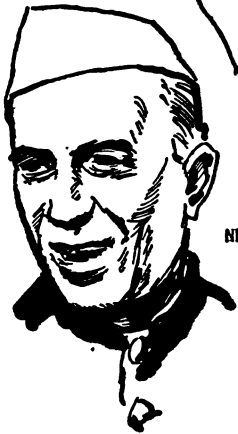
LIBYA



BANTU



GANDHI



NEHRU



## ■ Asia

Europeans acquired additional territories in the Middle East after the collapse of the Ottoman Turkish Empire (1918) when the League of Nations granted Iraq, Palestine, and Trans-Jordan to Britain and Lebanon and Syria to France as mandates. The oil of Iran (Persia) attracted more businessmen and brought more Western interference. Except for scattered river valleys the Middle East consisted of desert and arid lands, and some of the largely illiterate, backward population still lived as desert nomads. In the more complex and highly developed Far Eastern nations a different pattern prevailed. In some colonies industries were built, and all over Asia roads, communications, and educational systems were improved. A number of Javanese were educated either in Christian schools of the East Indies or in Europe, but they returned to a homeland in which the Dutch held a monopoly on the most desirable political and economic positions. After 1918, larger segments of the population began to resent colonial rule—a wave of strikes by native workers broke out in 1925 and open rebellion flared the following year. The situation was complicated in India, Burma, and other countries by exploitation at the hands of other Asiatics—the Chinese dominated commerce in Indonesia, and Indian money lenders were common in Burma (and South Africa). During the 1920's and 1930's economic life depended largely on the sale of a few basic raw materials at world prices over which Asians had little or no control. Western economic control, political domination, racial prejudices and condescension toward native customs aroused widespread resentment and demands for independence. Thus, when Japanese invaders landed on their shores in 1942, many Asians welcomed them as a relief from Western exploitation.

**India.** In 1919, Indian leaders expected home rule as a reward for their war services and as recognition of their growing political maturity. The British Parliament passed the Chelmsford Reforms in 1919, granting some of the Indian requests; but when the news reached India the viceroy's government was conducting a campaign of repression (at Amritsar, General Reginald Dyer's troops fired on peaceful demonstrators, an action in which 1,500 Indians were killed or injured). The dominant political and religious leader, Mohandas K. Gandhi, insisted



upon fighting with "passive resistance" rather than violence. Gandhi stressed love, patience and non-co-operation. Economic boycotts spread, students emptied classrooms, workers quietly left their jobs, some zealous disciples stopped trains by sitting on tracks before oncoming locomotives, and Gandhi and thousands of his followers were jailed. As Indian nationalism developed during the 1920's the movement attracted new leaders (*e.g.* Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru) who were more Westernized than Gandhi and more interested in the industrialization of their country.

Although bitter conflicts arose between the Hindu majority and the Moslem minority (led by Mohammed Ali Jinnah) during the 1930's, both groups continued to work for self-government. The British India Act of 1935 established responsible representative governments in the provinces and provided for a federal legislature (a proposal which was rejected by the native princes). Moslems and Hindus unenthusiastically co-operated with the British until 1939 when the Indians suddenly found themselves at war (World War II) without their consent. Indian leaders left the government and refused to work with the British.

**China.** While the Chinese did not have to struggle for independence they had enormous difficulty in establishing national unity. In 1923, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, with the aid of Russian Communist advisors (including Borodin), tried a new approach in the drive to build a democratic state strong enough to control all of China, including the war lords and the border districts. The Kuomintang, under the leadership of Sun Yat-sen, was to be transformed into a disciplined organization with a rigid chain of command and a new three-point program: (1) the subordination of all China to the state (by the Nationalist army under General Chiang Kai-shek); (2) mass education during a period of authoritarian one-party rule; and (3) a constitution and a democratic legislature. Before this program could be translated into action, Sun Yat-sen died (1925) and the Kuomintang split into two factions—the conservatives who became Chiang Kai-shek's Nationalist party, and the Communists who eventually came under the leadership of Mao Tse-tung. The Nationalists occupied most of China and the Communists abandoned the southern provinces to make a heroic 2,000-mile "long march" across mountainous terrain to northern China. (1934).

Chiang's government encouraged industry, obtained favorable treaties with the Western powers, built roads, created an



CHIANG KAI-SHEK



MAO TSE-TUNG

improved postal system, and established a Western elementary school system for the privileged few (1928). The Nationalists also attempted to win the ideological contest with the Communists for the loyalty of the impoverished masses. The land-hungry peasants were exploited systematically by landlords and merchants, many of whom were no longer bound by old customs and Confucian ethical requirements of social responsibility. Chiang Kai-shek attempted unsuccessfully to fill the ideological vacuum with the "new life" movement, a combination of Confucian ethics and Western technology. Still, the Nationalists might have won had it not been for Chiang's failure to pass agrarian reform legislation to satisfy the land-starved peasant followers of Mao Tse-tung, and the Japanese invasion (1937) which depleted Nationalist resources for eight years. In 1937, the Communists and Nationalists agreed to cooperate against the common enemy.

**Japan.** Until the 1930's when the militarists became the dominant group, Japan seemed to be moving toward a Western parliamentary state with the acquiescence of Emperors Yoshihito (1912-26) and Hirohito (1926-.) World War I left the nation prosperous, and the political parties grew stronger despite the persistence of widespread corruption. The Depression of 1929 and prohibitive Western tariff barriers destroyed many Japanese markets, particularly in the United States. Military leaders, who had encouraged the premier, General Giichi Tanaka, to send troops into China during 1927-28 to "protect" Japanese interests, grew bolder during the 1930's and exploited discontent among soldiers and civilians. The army was composed largely of peasants who believed devoutly in the emperor and in Japanese superiority. Unemployment increased and an expanding educational system produced many specialists for whom there was no place. A growing number of intellectuals denounced the Western capitalist democracies and stressed the successes of Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany. One of the most popular books of the era, Ikki Kita's *A Reconstruction Program for Japan* portrayed the possibilities of a powerful "revolutionary" Japan which would combine the best of East and West, and unite around the emperor to make the nation dominant in a new "Asian League." Taking advantage of the results of economic depression, intellectual unrest, and the declining prestige of the political parties, army leaders provoked a series of incidents which led to a major war in China (1937) and ultimately to World War II.



HIROHITO OF JAPAN

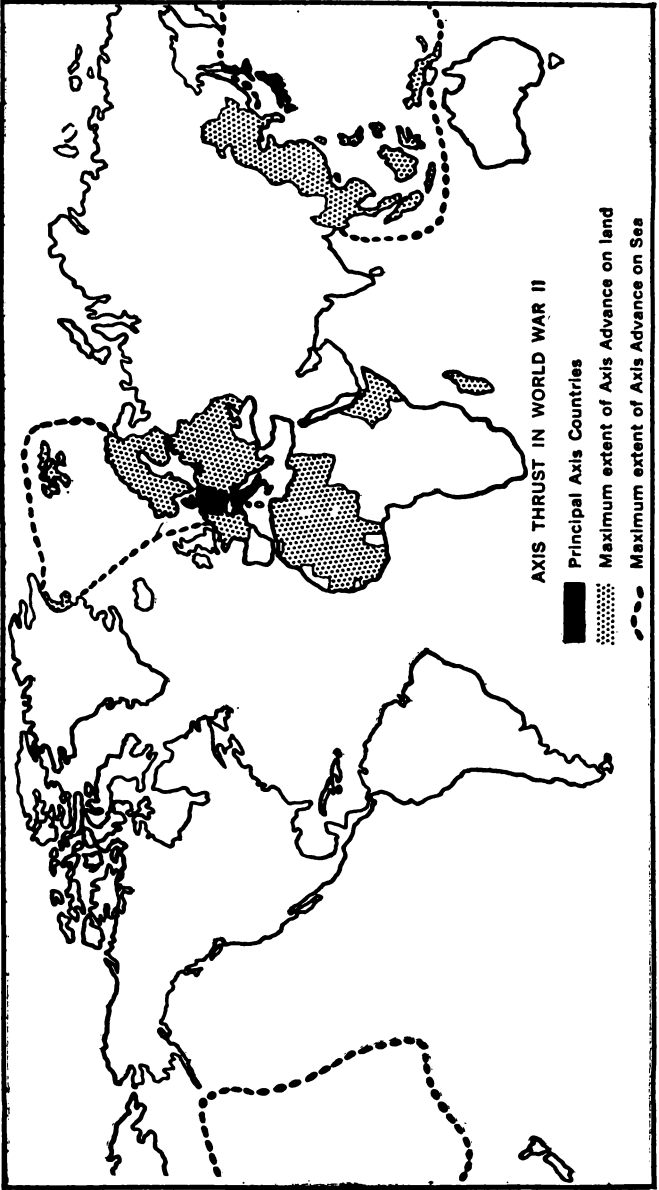
# World War II

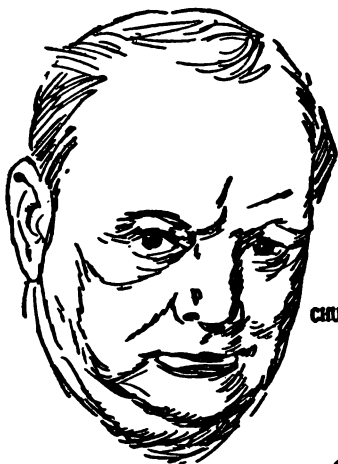
## ■ Nazi Aggression

At first Hitler proceeded cautiously in foreign affairs. The Saar region was reclaimed after a popular vote in accordance with the provisions of the Versailles Treaty, and later (1936) while the English and the French were absorbed in their attempts to block Mussolini's conquest of Ethiopia, German troops marched into the demilitarized Rhineland. The ineffectuality of Western protests encouraged Hitler to take bolder steps. Aid was sent to the Spanish rebels, and preparations were made for the seizure of Austria. An Austrian Nazi party clamored for annexation to Germany, the cabinet was terrorized, and Hitler made angry threats from Berlin. For several years Italian diplomatic pressure had thwarted German ambitions for Austrian territory, but during 1938 Mussolini's Mediterranean campaigns claimed most of his attention. In March, 1938, German troops invaded Austria.

Western leaders, who hoped that Hitler's ambitions were limited ones, continued to follow a policy of appeasement. When Hitler demanded that Czechoslovakia surrender the Sudetenland (German-speaking provinces) and with it the crucial mountain fortifications, Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain made three humiliating trips to Germany in an effort to resolve the crisis. Eventually, Chamberlain and Premier Edouard Daladier of France not only agreed to Hitler's terms but virtually demanded that the Czechs accept the settlement. Czechoslovakia, betrayed by her allies and faced with hopeless odds, allowed the entry of German troops into the western provinces. Chamberlain returned to England with assurances of "peace for our time," and cheering thousands greeted Daladier with unrestrained enthusiasm on his return to Paris. Five months later Hitler seized the rest of Czechoslovakia.

At this point, international developments took a surprising turn. Russia, whom the West had not consulted about the Czech crisis, turned to her arch enemy, Hitler, and signed a non-aggression pact with secret clauses for the territorial expansion of both nations in northeast Europe. On September 1, 1939, Nazi troops poured into Poland and Western leaders ex-





CHURCHILL



changed their illusions for a declaration of war on Germany; but Hitler's Blitzkrieg (lightning war) brought the Poles to their knees before the Allies could send effective aid. Soon afterward the Russians, acting according to the secret clauses of the Nazi-Soviet treaty, seized Eastern Poland, the small Baltic countries, a Rumanian province, and—despite heroic resistance—some segments of Finland.

Throughout the winter of 1939-40 (the "phony war") French and German troops faced each other across the Maginot Line. The lull was broken by Hitler's seizure of Denmark and Norway in April, 1940, and his all-out attack on France and the Low Countries during May. The Dutch were quickly eliminated from the war as highly mechanized troops poured across the plains of Belgium into France. The Anglo-French forces failed to hold their positions in western Belgium, and were cut in half by the German "panzer" (armored) divisions. The British, abandoning all equipment, evacuated their troops at Dunkirk just before the arrival of superior German forces. Outnumbered, demoralized, and badly led, the French lacked the planes and tanks for effective defense, but they fought on for a few weeks and some leaders hoped to fight on from North Africa. However, on June 22, a new French government under the leadership of Marshal Henri Pétain signed an armistice which turned most of France over to the Nazis.

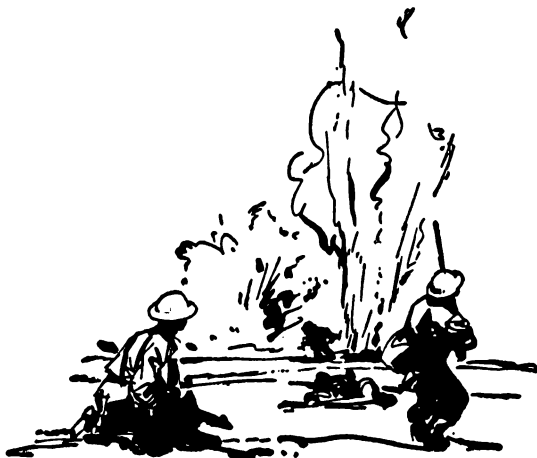
Now England stood alone, and the eloquent Prime Minister Winston Churchill rallied the British people for their greatest ordeal. Huge fleets of Nazi bombers made nightly raids over British cities, while German submarines took a terrible toll of the merchant fleet upon which England's very existence depended. The British refused to consider surrender, and a significant victory in the Mediterranean area helped to sustain morale. When the Italian forces, who joined the Nazis during June, 1940, sent an army of invasion into Egypt toward the Suez Canal, the British drove them back into Libya. An Italian invasion of Greece was so dismal a failure that Hitler was compelled to send his own troops to accomplish the conquest of Greece and Yugoslavia (1941).



With Europe from Norway to Greece in Nazi hands, Hitler put aside plans for an invasion of England and on June 22, 1941, launched his most ambitious campaign, an attack on the Soviet Union. German troops raced across western Russia until they reached the outskirts of Leningrad and Moscow, but the coldest Russian weather in twenty years stalled an army which was unprepared for winter war. Hitler was forced to admit that victory over the Soviets would have to be postponed until the spring of 1942.

### ■ Japanese Aggression

As Germany expanded in Europe, Japan made her power felt in the Orient. Japanese generals provoked an incident in Manchuria which provided an excuse for seizing the entire province (1931). Encouraged by an easy victory, the military leaders struggled for control of the Japanese government in order to initiate more ambitious ventures. In 1937, they created another incident in China which led to war, and within two years the invading troops had conquered the coastal areas. As the war dragged on, Japanese military conspirators began to formulate plans for the seizure of French Indo-China and neighboring territories, while the European powers were pre-occupied with Hitler's aggressive activities. The United States, however, had no European commitments, and American officials watched with alarm the growth of Japanese power.





PEARL HARBOR



MACARTHUR

AMERICAN MARINES

## ■ United States Enters the War

When the Japanese attacked China, Mussolini invaded Ethiopia, the European dictators aided Franco's rebels in Spain, and Hitler seized Czechoslovakia, the American response was neutrality legislation to keep the nation out of wars which presumably did not concern American citizens. Still, the Nazi conquest of Poland and France alarmed a militant minority, and England's ordeal in 1940 won widespread sympathy. Through the exchange of old destroyers for British military bases and through a Lend-Lease program, modest but valuable aid was given Britain. President Roosevelt regarded both Germany and Japan as potential menaces to American interests. When the Japanese began to infiltrate French Indo-China, the United States threatened to stop the flow of vitally needed materials to Japan unless troops were withdrawn from China and Indo-China. The Japanese answer was a carefully mounted surprise attack against United States bases at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii on December 7, 1941. With the United States Navy crippled and the nation unprepared for war, the Japanese marched from victory to victory in the Pacific—Malaya, Burma, the Dutch East Indies, the great British bases at Hong Kong and Singapore, and the Philippine Islands. When the American-Philippine garrison on Corregidor Island surrendered on May 6, 1942 after withstanding a bitter siege for four months, the Pacific area north of Australia and west of Hawaii was largely in Japanese hands.

The Australians feared invasion but Anglo-American naval forces checked an enemy foray into the Coral Sea (May, 1942), and a month later an attack on the American base at Midway Island was repulsed. While the Chinese dug in, India took precautions against invasion, and the Allies assumed the offensive in July, 1942, by landing troops on Guadalcanal Island. General Douglas MacArthur, the Supreme Commander, seized key island bases on the outer perimeter of the Japanese Empire so that each invasion brought Anglo-American troops closer to Japan by way of the Solomon Islands, northern New Guinea (1943), the Marshalls, the Marianas, and the Philippines (1944).

## ■ European War Operations

The major American war effort was concentrated in Europe against the more formidable enemy. The Germans made substantial gains in a Russian offensive (spring, 1942) while a more modest North African drive under General Erwin Rommel threatened the Suez Canal. During October, 1942, the British Eighth Army under Lieutenant General (later Field Marshal Sir Bernard) Montgomery staged a brilliant counter-attack that drove General Rommel's Italo-German troops back into Libya. A month later an Anglo-American invasion force under General Dwight D. Eisenhower landed in Morocco and Algeria. The Germans occupied southern France, but were frustrated in an attempt to seize the French fleet when the crews scuttled sixty-one warships. The decision of French North African officials to co-operate with Eisenhower, coupled with Montgomery's victorious march across Libya, forced the Germans back into Tunisia. Acting on Hitler's orders, the Afrika Korps held out until May, 1943, when the last 150,000 troops were forced to surrender. (Soon afterward North Africa was turned over to General Charles de Gaulle's Free French government.) A few months later, Allied forces landed in Sicily and Italy. When the Italians overthrew Mussolini and attempted to make peace with the Allies, the Germans occupied the country. Mountainous terrain and stubborn German resistance soon stalled the Allied advance in southern Italy.

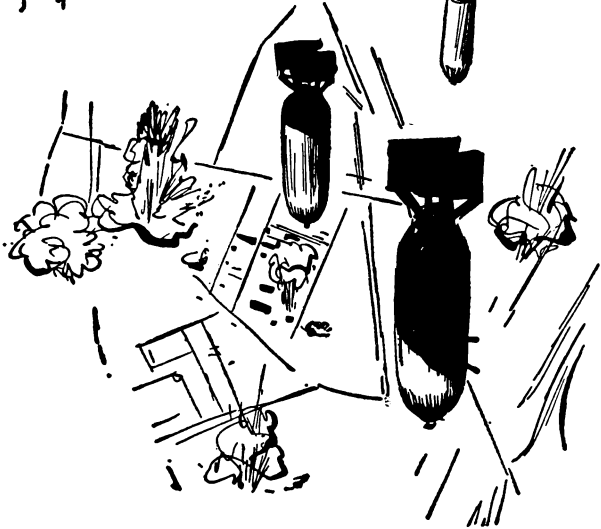
Nazi losses on the Russian front were far more serious. German troops attacking Stalingrad were wiped out; Moscow and Leningrad were relieved from danger. In November, 1943, Russian troops took the offensive from the Baltic to the Black Sea, and in December Stalin, Churchill, and Roosevelt met at Teheran to plan the destruction of Nazi power in Europe. British and American leaders promised an invasion of Western Europe in 1944 to help the Russians and to hasten Hitler's defeat. A "second front" was out of the question before 1943 because German submarines sank Allied ships faster than their replacements could be built. A desperate situation was relieved by an incredibly productive American industry which poured out planes and tanks as well as ships. Air superiority made possible systematic and devastating raids on German cities by the American Air Force and the Royal Air Force, during 1943 and 1944.



DE GAULLE



CONFERENCE AT TEHRAN



The long anticipated invasion of France was launched on June 6, 1944, under the Supreme Command of General Dwight D. Eisenhower. The Germans put up a stubborn defense but the Normandy attack had been a surprise, and within a week Anglo-American armies occupied a beachhead sixty miles in length. A few weeks later the Americans broke through the German lines in Normandy; Free French forces captured Paris on August 25; and Allied forces reached the German border in December. The Nazis fought on as the destructive Allied air raids continued, and German death camps exterminated thousands of prisoners every day. Hitler launched a counterattack against the thinly-defended Luxembourg section of the Allied lines. The Battle of the Bulge was the last German victory, and Anglo-American troops soon pushed into western Germany. The Russians also threatened German soil with a vast offensive that swept across Finland, Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Yugoslavia late in 1944. The final assault planned by the "Big Three" leaders at the Yalta Conference (February, 1945), took place the following month. American and Russian troops met in central Germany during April. A few days later, while the Russians were entering Berlin, Hitler killed himself. The Germans signed the unconditional surrender agreement on May 8, leaving the Allied armies in complete possession of a nation in ruins.



JOOL SIGNING SURRENDER, V-E DAY

## ■ War Ends

MacArthur's forces in the Pacific liberated the Philippines (1944-45), defeated the enemy fleet, and began systematic air attacks on Japanese cities. A bloody struggle for Iwo Jima in March, 1945, gave the Americans an important airfield for bomber raids, and the conquest of Okinawa provided a base for the invasion of Japan. The Japanese Navy was no longer able to defend its homeland from the invasion threat posed by the United States and the Soviet Union. Large armies, however, stood ready to defend the Japanese mainland and the invasion promised to be a difficult and costly undertaking. President Harry S. Truman and his advisers decided to end the conflict by the use of a terrible new weapon. One atomic bomb dropped on the city of Hiroshima during the night of April 7 left a ruined city and 100,000 casualties. On August 9, Nagasaki was leveled, and five days later the Japanese accepted Allied surrender terms. World War II left a terrible wake of economic disorganization, social chaos, and human suffering, particularly in Europe. Demolished cities dotted the Continent, and at least 20,000,000 persons had been killed in a nightmare of war and mass murder.



HIROSHIMA



# Postwar Diplomacy, 1945-53

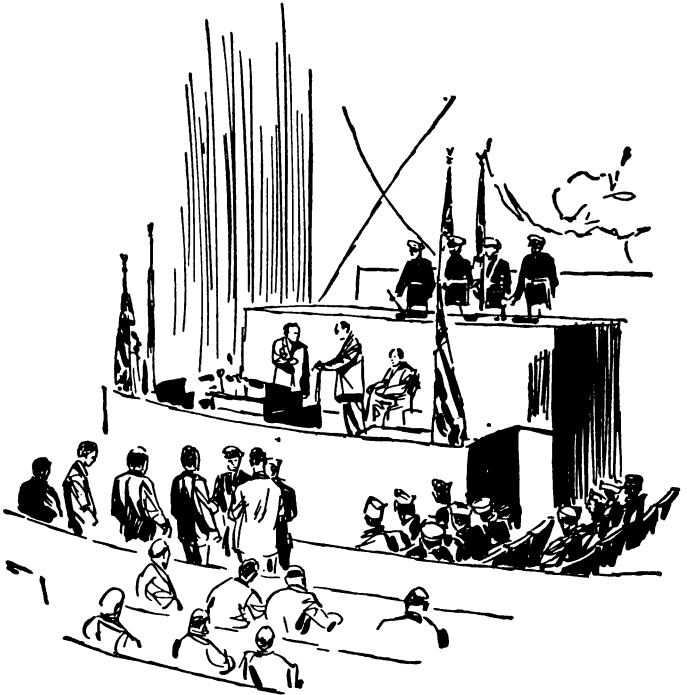
## ■ United Nations

Reconstruction and a means of guaranteeing a lasting peace were the two great needs of the world in 1945. The strongest nations would necessarily play the leading roles in the postwar drama, and the cast was a small one. Defeat eliminated the Axis countries (Germany, Italy, Japan); France appeared unlikely to regain her pre-war influence; Chiang Kai-shek's weak and disorganized Nationalist government, which paid less attention to international affairs than to the problem of survival in a civil conflict with the Chinese Communists, was granted major power status merely as a polite diplomatic gesture, and was assigned a permanent place in the Security Council. Decisive influence lay in the hands of the United States, the Soviet Union, and Great Britain.

Few statesmen, however, were willing to rest their hopes for an enduring peace on the uncertain ability of two or three powers to co-operate. Postwar recovery and plans for the settlement of future international disputes were discussed at conferences from August, 1941, when Winston Churchill and Franklin D. Roosevelt issued the Atlantic Charter of basic freedoms, to June, 1945, when the United Nations Organization was finally established. The United Nations was the product of numerous meetings such as the Bretton Woods Conference for postwar co-operation in international finance, the Teheran Conference which called for a "World family of democratic nations," and the Dumbarton Oaks meeting which arranged for the San Francisco congress of nations to devise permanent political machinery for keeping the peace. Although the three great powers exercised a dominant influence at San Francisco in 1945, delegates from a majority of the nations in the world were present, and each had a voice. One of the most important accomplishments of the conference was the appointment of a special group, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, which sent immense quantities of food to starving peoples throughout the world.

All states represented at San Francisco were given a vote in the central organ of the United Nations, the General Assembly,

UNITED NATIONS



which chose members for subordinate bodies such as the Economic and Social Council, the World Health Organization, the Trustee Council (to prepare colonial peoples for self-government), and the Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. Specifically charged with the task of acting against threats to international peace was the Security Council, which consisted of five permanent members (the United States, the Soviet Union, Great Britain, France, and China) and six members elected by the General Assembly. A veto power granted permanent members of the Council, as well as the failure of the founding statesmen to give the United Nations a standing army and a measure of direct power over citizens of member nations, severely restricted the organization's operations. While the UN dealt successfully with several postwar crises, it could resolve disputes between great powers only by persuasion. Diplomatic co-operation between East (Russia) and West (United States, Great Britain, France) was essential to peace, but even before the end of the war friction had developed over Russian demands for special privileges in Eastern Europe.

### ■ Peace Treaties

Despite the Soviet Union's aggressive attitude and the failure of the great powers to agree on many basic issues at the Potsdam Conference just after the war, the Western leaders—Harry S. Truman, Clement Attlee, and Charles de Gaulle—hoped that peace treaties might be signed and international relations return to a normal basis. Negotiations were turned over to a Council of Foreign Ministers, which accomplished little at its first meeting (December, 1945). The Soviet Union adopted an openly hostile attitude at the second Council meeting in Paris (July, 1946), but the powers managed to agree on treaties for Italy and the minor Axis nations. Italy was compelled to surrender her African possessions and several small Mediterranean islands, while several border provinces were given to Yugoslavia. The Trieste district became a "free city." (The Trieste issue was not resolved until 1954 when Italy annexed the city and Yugoslavia took portions of the district nearest her own borders.) Finland, as an ally of Germany, was required to give the Soviet Union extensive territory, and Rumania granted provinces to both the Soviet Union and Bulgaria. A Japanese treaty was not negotiated until 1951 (the Russian delegate refused to sign the treaty); an Austrian pact could not be agreed upon until 1955; and 15 years after the war, East and West

were still in sharp disagreement over a treaty for all of Germany. The Soviet Union's aggressive policies in Germany and Eastern Europe brought the world dangerously close to a Russo-American war more than once.

## ■ Stalinism

Russian hostility toward the West was partly the product of war and postwar tensions within the country. The Red army fought well against the Nazis but millions of people, particularly in the Ukraine, displayed signs of hatred for the Communist party and friendliness toward the German invaders. To inspire the people to greater resistance, Stalin encouraged patriotic sentiment and pride in the Russian past—even to the point of making national heroes of such barbarous oppressive tsars as Ivan the Terrible. (Marx, who despised nationalism, had insisted that “the proletariat has no fatherland.”) An arrogantly patriotic campaign was continued after the war as the Russian people were assured of their national genius by a fantastic and constantly expanding list of great Russian inventions, discoveries, and accomplishments in the arts and sciences.

The war had taken over 7,000,000 lives (it is possible another 7,000,000 civilians were lost), 20,000,000 persons were homeless, and almost half of the nation's industry was in ruins. Although public apathy toward Communist goals was widespread and the desire for consumer goods strong, Stalin was determined to rebuild heavy industry, march onward to ambitious new industrial goals, and exploit on behalf of international communism the opportunities presented by the presence of Red armies in Eastern and Central Europe. The Communist party used crisis diplomacy and the threat of “encirclement” by hostile capitalist nations to persuade the people that they must work with dedication for industrial strength while sacrificing consumer goods, time, and personal comfort. Stalin relied more than ever on police spies, ruthless punishment of inefficiency, executions, and slave labor camps. The cost was terrible, but when the Communist leader died in 1953, the Soviet Union had the second most productive economy in the world, and Communist governments had been established in all countries occupied by the Russians during 1944-45.

## ■ Communist Power in Eastern Europe

When Stalin, Roosevelt, and Churchill met at Yalta in February, 1945, the presence of victorious Red troops in nations from the Baltic to the Adriatic Sea assured the Russians of a dominant influence. Stalin would not accept the Anglo-American argument that the pre-war leaders of Eastern Europe should be restored to power; and all circumstances favored the Russian position. Marshal Tito's communist forces in Yugoslavia had offered extremely effective resistance against the Nazis; a Russian-sponsored Polish government began functioning before the pre-war leaders could return; and pro-Russian regimes existed in other Eastern European nations. Roosevelt and Churchill had to be content with rather general promises for coalition governments with representatives from the major political parties and free elections to determine the ultimate fate of these nations. While the question of final boundaries was left to the future, Anglo-American delegates allowed the Soviet Union to annex Prussian and Polish territory (the Poles found territorial compensation in Germany).

When the war ended, Yugoslav and Albanian Communist leaders controlled their nations, but the pattern was different elsewhere in Eastern Europe where Communists formed "United Front" governments with Socialists, Agrarians, and other political factions. Non-Communist parties were gradually reduced to subservience, discredited, or expelled from the government by tightly-disciplined Communist minorities under such militant leaders as Dimitrov in Bulgaria, Bierut in Poland, Pauker in Rumania, and Rakosi in Hungary. By June, 1947, every nation in Eastern Europe except Czechoslovakia had a



Communist government with ambitious programs for industrial growth and farm collectivization. A majority of citizens were land-hungry peasants who resisted drives to herd them into collective farms as agricultural laborers. War damage, lack of adequate capital, and shortage of skilled labor hampered industrialization. As in the Soviet Union, dictatorial weapons—secret police, destruction of civil liberties, and war scares—were used to drive unwilling peoples toward Soviet goals. President Eduard Beneš and Foreign Minister Jan Masaryk wished to preserve Czechoslovakia as the last “bridge” between East and West, but in 1948 Klement Gottwald, supported by a powerful Communist party, seized power. Between Eastern Europe and the rest of the world an “iron curtain” descended which destroyed economic, political, and cultural connections as an international atmosphere of threats, denunciations, and ultimatums created a Cold War. With the Communists in power from the Baltic to the Adriatic, the political storm center shifted to Germany.



POLISH STRIKERS

## ■ Cold War

In 1945, Russians and Westerners shared a sense of outrage toward Nazi genocide (the systematic extermination of a people), and the terrible devastation which Hitler's aggressions had wreaked upon Europe. Occupation zones for the victorious powers were quickly established, four-power Allied Control Councils created for Berlin and Vienna, and programs inaugurated for the trial of war criminals and the elimination of Nazis from all areas of German life. The Allies experienced great difficulty, however, in making a permanent German settlement. Western statesmen could not even agree among themselves. Some American officials wished to transform Germany from a great industrial nation into a decentralized, agricultural state incapable of waging further wars, but far-sighted political thinkers opposed this impractical plan. While the Russians considered several long range plans, they exploited the opportunity to seize machines, factories, and vehicles from the half-ruined economy as war reparations.

Toward the end of 1946, the Soviet Union and the Western nations began to quarrel over the German question and other issues such as the reluctance of Russian troops to withdraw from Iran. In 1947, the Truman Doctrine provided for military aid to Greece, Turkey and, by implication, other nations that might need protection against aggression. Stalin denounced his former allies, and Molotov, the Russian Foreign Minister, created turbulent scenes at sessions of the United Nations and in international conferences by the use of vetoes, displays of sullen hostility and savage attacks upon the United States and its allies. The exposure of Communist spy rings did much to dissipate the remainder of Western good will. Serious efforts toward a German settlement were abandoned and both sides began to intensify their power in East and West Germany. The Americans, the British, and the French consolidated their zones in 1947, and during 1948 the Americans initiated a currency reform as a first step toward the creation of a West German government. The Soviet Union responded by organizing an East German state and closing all land routes to West Berlin, which became a Western island in a Communist sea. When the Allied Control Commission for the city ceased to function and the Berlin blockade became effective, the Western powers organized an airlift to fly in all supplies from food to coal for Berliners and Allied troops.

The Russian termination of the blockade (May, 1949) did not ease Cold War tensions. Fearful of possible Soviet aggression, the United States and most of the nations of Western Europe formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) for the defense of Europe. The Russians countered with the Warsaw Pact which co-ordinated the military forces of Eastern Europe, and the two armed camps seemed to be drifting dangerously toward war. When the Soviet Union, like the United States, constructed atomic weapons (1949), the threat of an incredibly destructive Russo-American conflict alarmed people all over the world. The United States brought before the United Nations (1946) a plan for the international control of atomic weapons, but the U.S.S.R. refused to accept the American idea that disarmament agreements must be enforced by international inspection teams. By 1953, both major powers possessed a far more menacing weapon, the hydrogen bomb. While the thought of an atomic war repelled men on both sides of the Iron Curtain, the Russians were driven by their belief in the inevitable hostility of capitalist nations, and Western leaders were determined to avoid world conquest by totalitarian Communist dictators.



NUREMBERG TRIALS



## ■ European Unity

Leading statesmen insisted that Europe must unite for survival in the face of the Russian threat and the need to repair war-shattered economies. In 1939, European nations had dominated most of the world, but the war changed the face of world politics. Germany lay in ruins; Italy had revealed the extent of her economic and military weaknesses; France, cut down in the debacle of 1940, was slow to recover from occupation and the war; Great Britain, almost bankrupt after six years of fighting, could still play a major role, but had difficulty holding her own with two "super powers," the Soviet Union and the United States. However, a united Western Europe with a larger base population and a greater internal market than either the United States or Russia had an enormous potential. The American government encouraged European leaders to undertake a variety of co-operative programs: the Benelux countries (Belgium, Netherlands, and Luxembourg) created a customs union to expedite the flow of trade; these countries were joined by Britain and France in the Brussels Treaty Organization (1948) for economic collaboration; and a Franco-Italian treaty drastically reduced customs duties between the two nations. Far more important, however, was the Schuman Plan, which established a coal, iron, and steel pool among the Benelux countries, France, Italy, and West Germany. The Schuman venture was later reorganized (1951) as the European Coal and Steel Community with a legislature, an executive branch, and international power over the production and distribution of coal, iron, and steel. Between 1951 and 1956 European iron and steel production increased by 145 per cent, and this striking success encouraged the pooling of resources in other areas (the peaceful use of atomic energy, for example).

The American-sponsored Marshall Plan (1948-51) provided more than 12 billion dollars for economic recovery and industrial modernization. By 1952, the Marshall Plan nations were producing 40 per cent more than they had during 1938, and from 1952 to 1960 the rate of industrial growth was greater in several European nations than in the United States. (West Germany experienced the greatest economic boom.) After the Korean War began (1950), American funds were diverted to



ATLEE



MARSHALL



TRUMAN



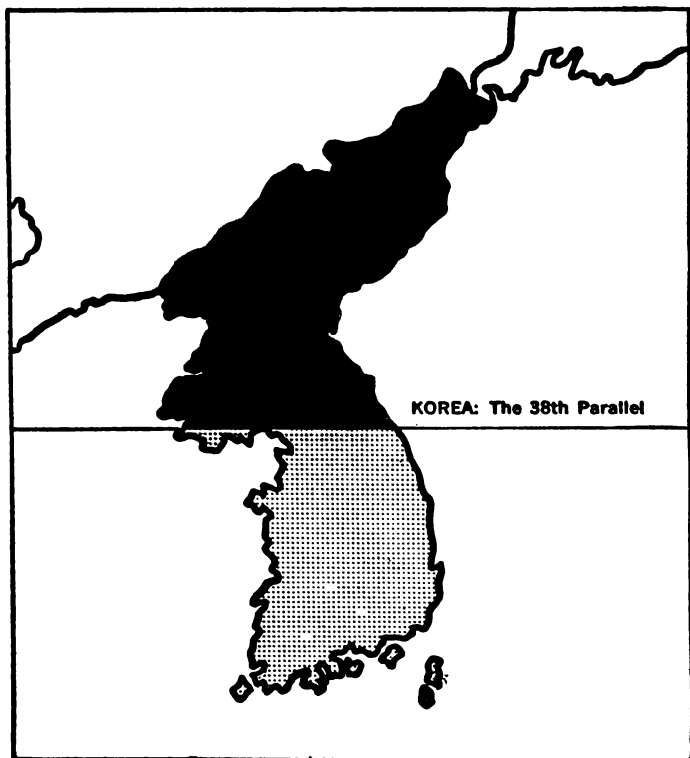
make the North Atlantic Treaty Organization an effective "shield" against Soviet aggression and a powerful "sword" for possible offensive action. The unwillingness of the United States to place part of its major weapon, the Strategic Air Command, under the direct control of the NATO commander (an American) hampered NATO's effectiveness. The withdrawal of French forces for fighting in Indo-China and Algeria weakened the ground forces, and French rejection of the European Defense Community made the complete integration of military forces impossible. West Germany, however, provided an important potential reservoir of troops, and the persistence of the Soviet threat held the organization together.

After the Korean War, European leaders once again concentrated on economic co-operation and growth. In 1957, France, Italy, West Germany, and the Benelux countries established the European Economic Community and arranged for the gradual reduction of all trade barriers. By 1960, the Community was almost a reality despite the insistence of General de Gaulle on retaining some freedom of action for France. The British, who wished to preserve economic ties with associated Commonwealth countries such as Australia and New Zealand, refused to join the European Community and organized (with six small nations of Europe) a rival bloc of free trade states. Although the cause of political unification lagged far behind economic co-operation, many European leaders continued to hope that their goal would eventually be realized.

## ■ Cold War in Asia

As Europe, with American aid, rebuilt war-damaged economies, worked toward economic unity, and blocked Russian expansion, communism gained steadily among the poverty-stricken Asian masses. In the northern provinces of French Indo-China, communist forces under Ho Chi Minh took the field against the French and their native supporters (December, 1946). As this long, bitter conflict continued, Mao Tse-tung's Communists in the neighboring state of China waged war so successfully that Chiang Kai-shek's Nationalist government was forced to surrender the Chinese mainland and flee to the island of Formosa (1949). The conquest of the most populous nation in the world brought greater strength to increasingly confident Communist leaders who soon began to plan the seizure of Korean territory.

Korea, for centuries a Chinese dependency, was ruled by Japan from 1905 until 1945 when, following World War II, American troops occupied the southern half and Russian troops the northern portion of the country. The Russians established a Korean People's Republic and evacuated their troops in 1948, while a year later the American forces left a rival state, the Republic of Korea, to its own resources. On June 25, 1950, to the astonishment of Western leaders who had paid little attention to this remote country, North Korean troops crossed the border (the 38th parallel) and quickly cap-



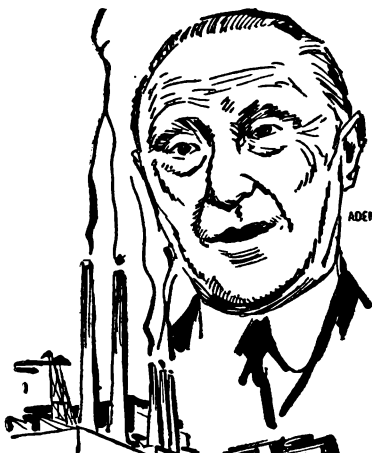
tured the South Korean capital at Seoul. President Truman, realizing that without military aid South Korea could not survive, appealed to the United Nations Security Council which voted to assist the United States in opposing the invading forces. The Russians were not present to veto the action because their delegates had angrily stalked out of the Security Council several months earlier. When American troops landed, the South Koreans commanded only the southeast corner of the country, but General Douglas MacArthur's forces held out until the arrival of reinforcements made possible a counter-offensive which pushed the invaders back to the 38th parallel. As United Nations leaders debated the wisdom of carrying the offensive into enemy territory, General MacArthur, interpreting his instructions liberally, continued the offensive until his troops approached the Yalu River and the Chinese border. At this point 200,000 Chinese "volunteers" poured across the border and drove the defeated United Nations forces into South Korea. General MacArthur, though he gradually recovered the initiative found it difficult to advance his forces beyond the 38th parallel and wished to break the stalemate by bombing bases in China. Western leaders feared that such a move would transform a limited "police action" into a general war, and President Truman removed MacArthur from command (April, 1951). The struggle continued as a limited war in which neither side was able to gain a decided advantage. Two years later the opposing forces initiated peace negotiations at Panmunjon, but the talks were held in an atmosphere of bitter wrangling and repeated threats to end the conference. In the spring of 1953, eight years after the end of World War II, the Cold War continued, and the prospects for permanent peace seemed more remote than ever.





HO CHI MINH

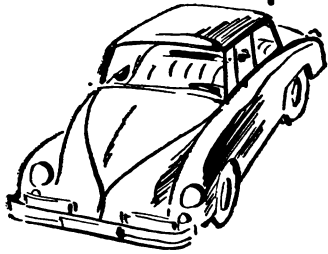
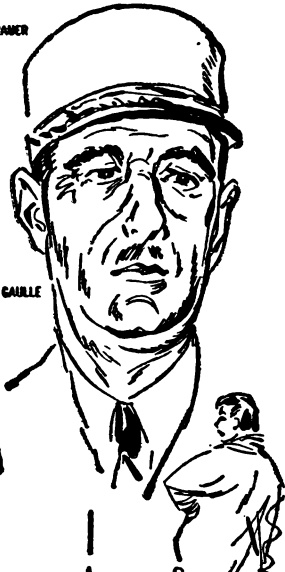




ADENAUER



DE GAULLE



WEST GERMAN PROSPERITY



THE LOUVRE

## Internal Affairs of the Western Nations, 1945-60

**Germany.** The Federal Republic in West Germany (as well as the rival Democratic Republic in Communist East Germany) was essentially a product of the Cold War. The fear of Russian aggression overcame old suspicions of Germany in the minds of Western statesmen who allowed the establishment of the new state under the leadership of the Christian Democrat, Konrad Adenauer. At first Allied High Commissioners retained extensive powers. Not until 1951 was a Foreign Office established, and full sovereignty was not granted until 1955 when all of the Western nations, including the reluctant French, overcame their fears of future German aggression and signed peace treaties. The Federal Republic (West Germany) won support from the democratic world by repudiating the Nazi past, stimulating an amazing industrial boom, and establishing a stable political pattern which resembled the two-party system of Great Britain and the United States. The Social Democrats drew widespread support from the workers, but the Christian Democrats dominated German politics, and Adenauer, who became Chancellor after the elections of 1949, commanded increasing electoral strength in 1954 and 1959. Adenauer's prestige and authority were so great that foreign critics wondered what would happen after his death, and suggested that the German people might be more devoted to "Der Alte" (the wise old statesman) than to democracy.

Economic growth more than matched political progress. With the aid of an American-sponsored currency reform as well as large American grants, economic recovery began in 1948-49 and proceeded at a rapid pace until the Germans could speak with pride of their "economic miracle," and of the Volkswagens, cameras, sewing machines, and other industrial goods which flowed into new markets around the world. By 1960, West German industrial production surpassed the greatest economic accomplishments of the whole German state under Hitler. The Germans attained one of the highest per capita incomes among the nations of the world while rebuilding a war-torn country and absorbing a vast flow of refugees from East Germany. It seemed that Germany might solve all of her



problems—except the central one, the unification of East and West Germany.

The Russians, bitterly opposed to the rise of a unified anti-Communist Germany, created an East German state in 1949 with the help of Walter Ulbricht and Otto Grotewohl of the Social Unity party (S.E.D., Communist). Economic recovery came very slowly and the new state was hampered by a constant flow of immigration into West Germany. Factory workers rebelled in 1953, while West Germany's freedom and prosperity continued to draw hundreds of thousands of immigrants each year.

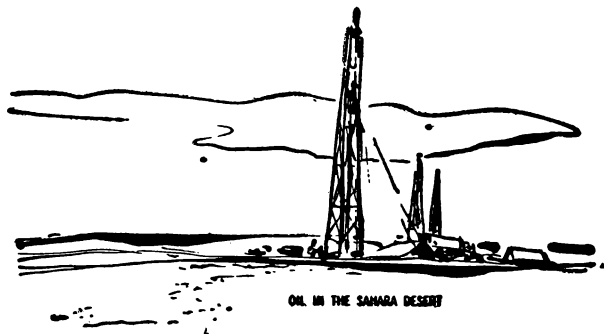
**France.** As a devastated Germany quickly progressed from rags to riches, France struggled to overcome the consequences of five years of war, defeat, and occupation. The military collapse in 1940 had wounded national pride, but Frenchmen found emotional compensation in the underground Resistance Movement and the exploits of General Charles de Gaulle's Free French forces. After the war, France gained a voice in great power councils as well as an occupation zone in Germany, and for a time bright hopes generated by the Resistance Movement and liberation made possible a national unity which embraced even the Communists. Leading collaborators were tried, reconstruction plans initiated, and a majority in de Gaulle's provisional government agreed on the national ownership of mines, gas, electricity, and some heavy industry (businesses owned largely by war-time collaborators with the Germans). By making constitutional provisions for a powerful head of state, de Gaulle hoped to avoid the political instability and the frequent political changes which had characterized the Third Republic. De Gaulle found it impossible however, to work with the factions in his provisional government and resigned before a constitution could be created. The focus of political power passed to the three largest parties: the Socialists, the Communists, and the M.R.P. (Popular Republican Movement, a Catholic party for social reform). The first constitution was rejected at the polls, but the Socialists and M.R.P. delegates buried their religious quarrel and supported a revised second constitution which was accepted by the voters. Once again a legislature divided into many warring factions dominated the state. The number of major parties increased as the Radical Socialists and other conservative groups discredited during the war regained old supporters. The Communists and the extreme conservatives refused to join any government, and all cabinets were based on the support of moderate parties. A political



FRENCH CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES



FIGHTING IN ALGIERS



OIL IN THE SAMARA DESERT

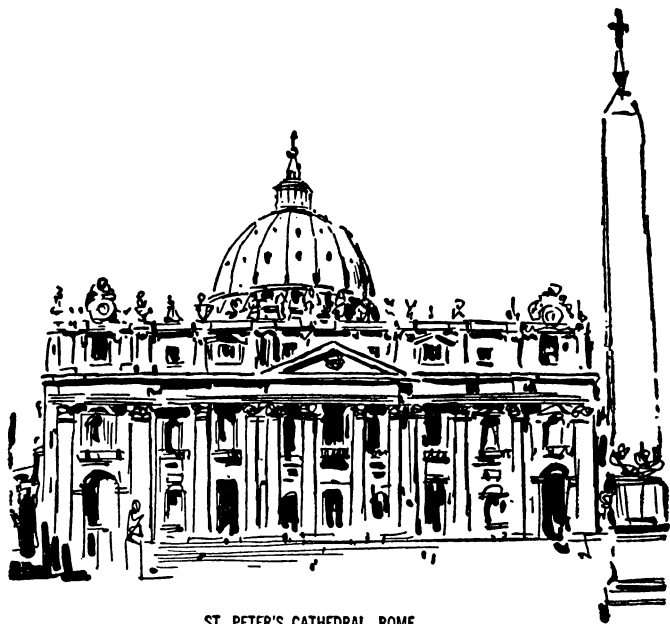
action which alienated one small faction might destroy the ruling majority in the legislature and force a resignation of all ministers. The old pattern of slender majorities, cabinet crises, and one unstable administration after another, characterized the new Fourth Republic. De Gaulle's Rally of the French People, a "national unity" party was formed to break the political stalemate, but the group gradually became just another conservative party, declined in strength, lost de Gaulle's approval, and eventually passed from the political scene. Political instability was increased by currency inflation, the slowness of reconstruction, rising living costs, and bitter strikes, but Marshall Plan funds made economic recovery and industrial expansion possible.

The disintegration of the French Empire provided another source of national problems. Shortly after World War II the French army reluctantly withdrew from Syria and Lebanon; and in 1946 it began an eight-year Indo-Chinese struggle against communist rebels that was to end in defeat. During 1956, Tunisia and Morocco left the French Union. Algerian nationalists incited an armed rebellion to free their country, but the French government would not—indeed, could not—for a variety of reasons satisfy the rebel demands. One million *colons* (French settlers) demanded protection; army leaders did not wish to add one more defeat to a demoralizing record; and the discovery of vast oil deposits in the Sahara created new demands for the retention of Algeria. Serious efforts to solve the Algerian problem inevitably caused the fall of a cabinet, which in turn heightened military dissatisfaction. Finally, a group of officers took matters into their own hands by seizing power in Algeria, thus raising the specter of a French civil war (May, 1958). General de Gaulle, called to power by the National Assembly, established the Fifth French Republic under a new constitution. The shift of power from the legislature to the executive in the new state aroused fears of dictatorship, but de Gaulle used his powers responsibly. National authority was re-established in Algeria, France became an atomic power (1960) and de Gaulle's role in "summit" diplomacy during 1959 and 1960 brought new prestige to France. The state also alleviated France's chronic problems of currency inflation, inequitable taxation, and obsolete industry. The Algerian problem, however, continued to haunt the French mind and conscience as the Moslem rebels fought on for "liberty, equality, fraternity," while the *colons* feared abandonment.

**Italy.** Parliamentary instability plagued Italy as well as France during the postwar years. Extremist parties made responsible democratic government difficult. As the memory of Mussolini's excesses faded, the Fascist politicians returned to political activity; a Monarchist party flourished despite the abolition of the monarchy in 1946; and the Italian Communist party, the largest in Western Europe, was not seriously damaged by the Cold War. The most powerful party was Alcide de Gaspari's Christian Democrats, a moderate Catholic faction which had the complete approval of the pope. De Gaspari served as the chief executive under the provisional government (1945-47), and after the withdrawal of Allied occupation forces he became the first premier of the new Italian Republic. The 1948 election was crucial. The Christian Democrats defeated the Communists and used Marshall Plan funds to rebuild the Italian economy. In 1953, the collapse of de Gaspari's slender legislative majority initiated a long period of unstable, frequently changing governments. While the moderate parties retained power and even gained legislative seats at the expense of Fascists and Monarchists during the election of 1958, the parade of new governments continued with no end in sight.

The Italians followed a policy of co-operation with the United States and European nations in ventures such as the Marshall Plan, NATO, and the Common Market, which helped to bring prosperity to the industrial north. Unfortunately, in southern Italy and Sicily, the ancient problems of rural poverty and overpopulation persisted, and threatened to become more serious in the future. While two generations of emigrants had relieved Italian population pressures and created new sources of income (money sent back to the "old country"), the United States and other nations were no longer willing to accept large numbers of immigrants.

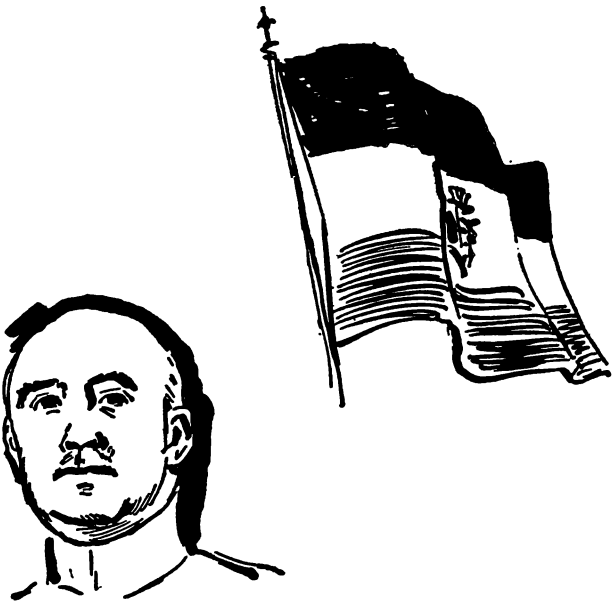




ST. PETER'S CATHEDRAL, ROME



COLOSSEUM, ROME

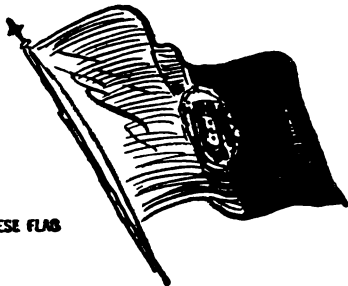


FRANCO



**Spain and Portugal.** An impoverished agriculture, a feeble industry, and the lack of natural resources made the Iberian states of Portugal and Spain the poorest countries in Europe. Spain never quite recovered from Civil War devastation (1936-39), and the collapse of important economic ties in 1944-45 among Falangist Spain, Nazi Germany, and Fascist Italy made the Spanish economic situation even worse. Millions of Spaniards resented Franco's dictatorship which favored the Falangist party, the great landowners, the merchants, and the Catholic Church. The United Nations resolved to permanently exclude Spain from membership, and the governments of Great Britain and France were openly hostile. Only Juan Peron, dictator of Argentina, extended aid. The Cold War, however, gradually changed Franco's status. In 1953, the United States began a program of economic and military aid which rescued Franco from his most serious economic difficulties. American air bases were built in Spain, membership in the United Nations was secured, and exploratory efforts were made during 1960 to bring Spain into a closer relationship with NATO. Unfortunately, none of these measures relieved the poverty in which most Spaniards lived, and foreign observers believed that violent revolution rather than a peaceful restoration of the pre-1931 monarchy would follow Franco's death.

Across the border Antonio Salazar, dictator of Portugal since 1932, faced almost insoluble economic problems. Portugal, even during the war, had retained traditional ties with Great Britain and other Western nations. Salazar did not resort to the terrorism, violence, and concentration camps that had made Mussolini, Franco, and Hitler so infamous, but his government allowed its citizens few political liberties and failed to rescue them from widespread poverty and illiteracy (40 per cent of the population could not read or write).



PORTUGUESE FLAG

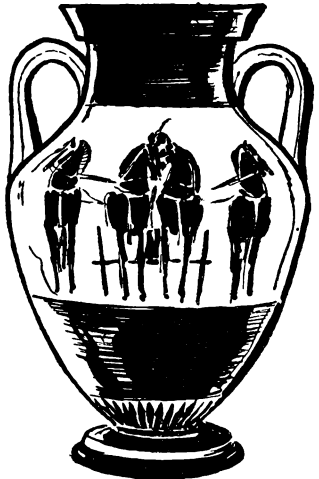


**Greece.** Like Portugal and Spain, Greece was a "have not" nation with few natural resources, a low standard of living, and bitter political divisions. German occupation (1941-44) created additional difficulties. When British troops came in 1944 to liberate Greece, they were joined by resistance fighters in the EAM (National Liberation Front) who wished to establish a republic to replace the monarchy which had ruled pre-war Greece under the ruthless General John Metaxas (1936-41). A provisional government was formed, but in February, 1945, EAM troops fled to the mountains rather than surrender their arms. By this time, the Communists clearly controlled the EAM, and many Greeks left the organization. Civil war raged for several years despite free, internationally supervised elections which gave a popular mandate to the constitutional monarchists. In 1947, President Truman asked the U. S. Congress to appropriate \$400,000,000 for aid to Greece and Turkey as part of a plan to combat communism in that area (Truman Doctrine). The Greek government crushed the rebels and made remarkable economic gains in industry (100 per cent increase). In 1958, however, a political party sponsored by the Communists won a quarter of the seats in the legislature.

**Austria.** Hungry and disorganized after the war, Austria suffered further from Soviet seizure of her major industries and the demand of the victors that she pay the costs of military occupation. These events placed heavy burdens on a state which had been forced to struggle for economic survival since the collapse of the old Austrian Empire in 1918. Despite the presence of troops and occupation zones, one Austrian government functioned throughout the entire country within the limits of power set by Russian and Western military officials. Complete independence was eventually gained at the price of permanent neutrality in the Cold War. In 1955, Russian and Western troops evacuated the country, and the great powers signed a peace treaty with Austria. Postwar Austria was ruled by a curious combination of two evenly-matched parties that chose to form a government together rather than compete. This cabinet of Socialists and conservative Catholic People's party delegates overcame traditional economic difficulties as well as those imposed by the loss of trade with the "iron curtain" countries. The Austrians in 1960, like the Germans, enjoyed a more prosperous standard of living than they had ever known.



GREECE





SWITZERLAND

**Switzerland.** The Swiss successfully followed a policy of neutrality in every major international conflict from the Napoleonic struggles to the Cold War. Both foreign policy and domestic affairs in Switzerland were characterized by moderation and stability. After World War II, Swiss politics changed little except for the growth of the Social Democratic party (the largest group in a multi-party system), an increase in state social welfare services, and an expansion of federal power in a traditionally decentralized government. Switzerland continued to be a prosperous industrial and commercial nation, undisturbed by the dramatic conflicts of its neighbors.

**Benelux Countries** (Belgium, Netherlands, and Luxembourg). These three small states shared the common fate of German conquest and occupation between 1940 and 1945. When the Germans invaded these countries, national leaders of the Netherlands and Luxembourg established governments-in-exile on British soil and remained there until the end of the war. In 1945, the Benelux countries faced common postwar problems: the restoration of traditional governments, the trial of Nazi collaborators, reconstruction, recovery of world markets and, for Belgium and the Netherlands, the retention of colonial empires. Dutch prestige and economic life suffered when the rebellious natives of the Dutch East Indies established the republic of Indonesia. Belgium was more fortunate in that her rule of the vast Belgian Congo was not seriously questioned until 1958, and in 1960 the Belgians accepted the idea of an independent Congo state.

Many Belgians thought that Leopold III had surrendered too quickly to the Nazis and they bitterly opposed his return to the throne. The problem was solved with some satisfaction to all parties when Leopold abdicated in favor of his son, Baudouin. Belgian industrial life recovered very quickly, and the only major disturbance in postwar politics was the persistent quarrel between the Socialist and Catholic parties over state subsidies to private schools.

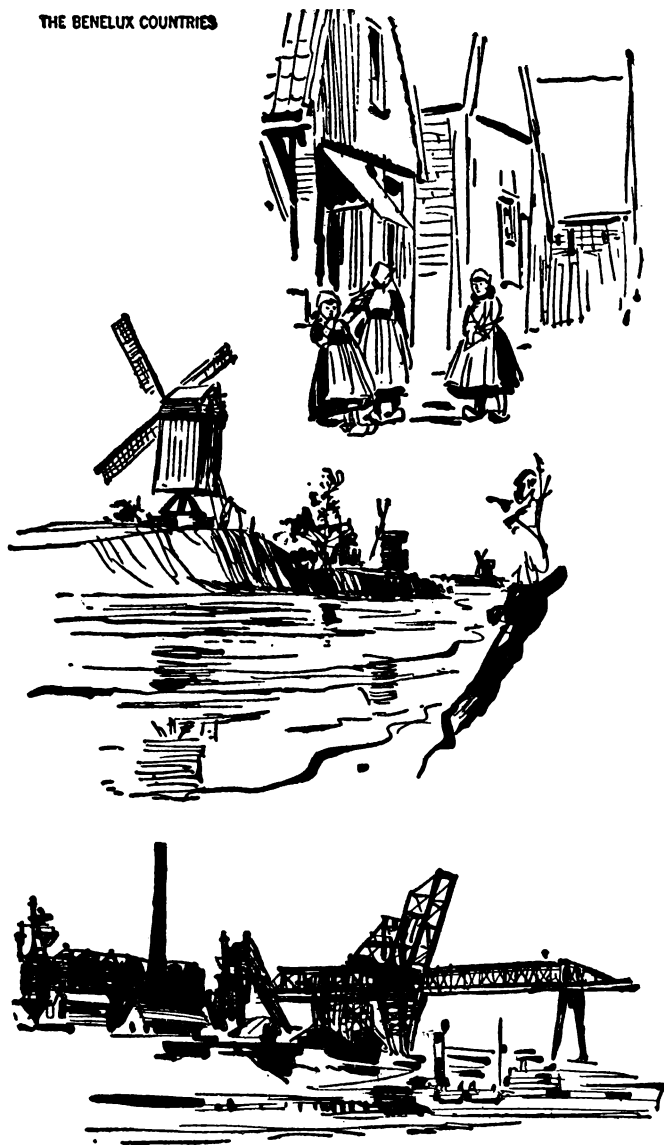
Dutch internal politics were more stable and the return of Queen Wilhelmina in 1945, as well as the accession to the throne of her daughter, Queen Juliana, in 1948 were accepted without serious opposition. The Netherlands, primarily Protestant, had no serious dispute about religious education, but war damage was more extensive than in Belgium and postwar recovery slower. With American aid, the Dutch government rebuilt and extended her vital inland water transportation system.

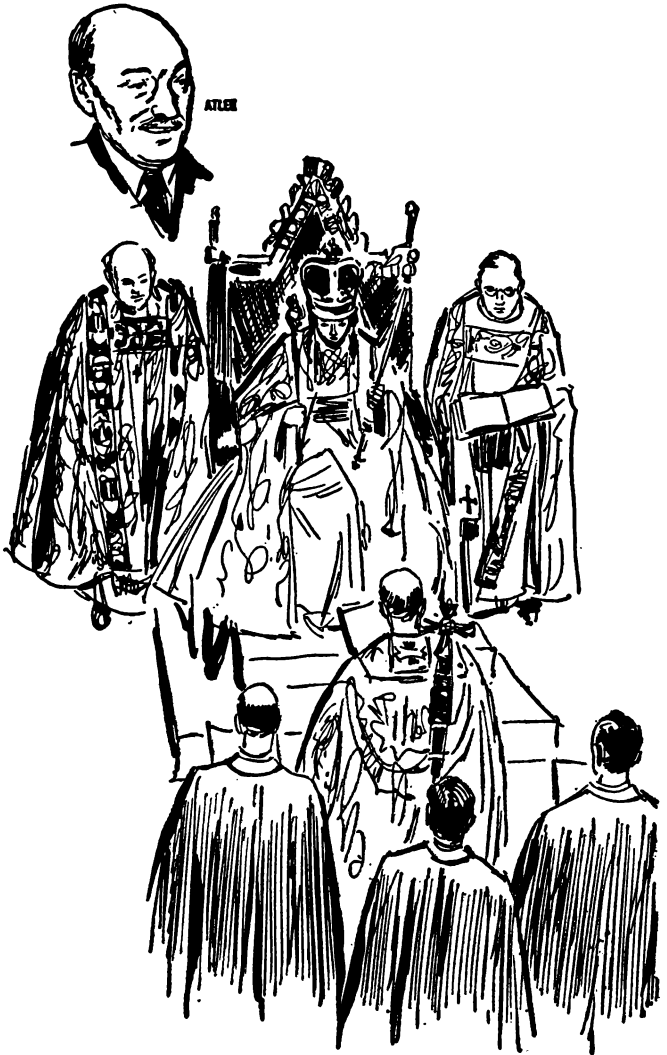
**Scandinavian Countries** (Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Finland). Unlike the Benelux nations, the Baltic states did not share a common destiny during and after World War II. Sweden, like Switzerland, clung to a policy of neutrality established in 1815; the Finns, remembering the Russian aggression of 1940, took the lesser of two evil choices by siding with Nazi Germany; conquered Denmark was not harshly treated by the Nazis until the closing stages of the war; but Norway suffered severely from war and occupation. It lost half of its merchant fleet, vital to the national economy. The Norwegians had a prouder record of resistance to the Nazis than the Danes, but they had a more vicious group of collaborators, including the notorious Vidkun Quisling.

The four nations responded in very different ways to the Cold War. Denmark and Norway joined NATO; Sweden sympathized with the West, but maintained an official policy of neutrality; and the Finns were compelled by the proximity of Russia to avoid ties with the West and to make some unwanted agreements with the East. Nevertheless, the Baltic countries had much in common. With the exception of Finland, they were constitutional monarchies in which kings commanded a great deal of popular respect, but little power. (Reigning in 1960 were Olav V in Norway, Frederick IX in Denmark, and Gustav VI in Sweden.) All four countries had multi-party systems with powerful Socialist and Agrarian parties. In 1958, Socialist parties captured almost half of the seats in the Swedish Parliament, about 40 per cent in the Danish legislature, and a clear majority in the Norwegian Assembly. Only Finland had a powerful Communist party, and the Finnish government successfully resisted both the domestic and foreign Communist threat.

The Baltic countries provided an example to the world of model democracies in which civil liberties were well protected and an astonishingly high percentage of the most literate people in the world voted. Unusually productive economies and high standards of living on all social levels characterized societies which provided national economic protection for every citizen from birth to death.

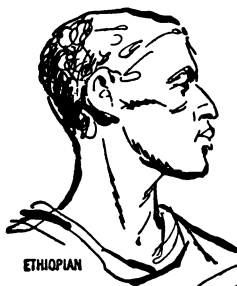
THE BENELUX COUNTRIES





CORONATION OF ELIZABETH II OF GREAT BRITAIN

Even more valuable to Britain than Commonwealth support was the Anglo-American alliance against the Russian menace. On most Cold War issues these two powerful Western nations co-operated closely. In a few instances, however, British and American interests conflicted and British leaders pursued an independent course of action. Britain's recognition of Red China aroused criticism in Washington, and the alliance was seriously threatened by the Anglo-French military occupation of the Suez Canal Zone after the Egyptian seizure of the Canal (1956). Prime Minister Anthony Eden did not consult President Eisenhower before acting against the aggressive designs of Colonel Gamal Abdel Nasser's Egyptian government, and a curious temporary Russo-American *rapprochement* in the United Nations forced the withdrawal of Anglo-French troops. Harold Macmillan, who replaced the ailing and discredited Eden as prime minister, soon restored the pattern of close Anglo-American co-operation and earned a world-wide reputation as a tenacious worker for "summit" conferences of world leaders to resolve major differences between the Soviet Union and the West.







**MARSHALL**



**ACHESON**



**STEVENS**

## ■ United States, 1945-60

Relations with Russia deeply troubled Americans but the economic situation was a great deal better in the United States than in the rest of the world. While World War II devastated Europe and Russia, it served as a stimulus to American industry, which had lagged far behind its potential productivity during the Depression years of the 1930's. In 1945, the United States with a population of 150 million (it reached 180 million by 1960) had one-half of the world's machinery, one-third of the global income, and two-thirds of the world's automobiles. Although pockets of poverty persisted among Negroes, Mexicans, tenant farmers, and urban slum dwellers, the New Deal and the war brought high incomes to millions of Americans who began their lives under marginal economic circumstances. Labor unions grew during and after the war until 15 million workers held union cards. (Advances beyond this number were difficult because the number of factory workers remained constant while white collar classes experienced a surprising numerical growth.) A majority of farmers shared in the national prosperity, although many marginal farmers left agricultural life, and the federal government was compelled to purchase surplus farm products in order to maintain prices.

Conservative trends in virtually every aspect of life characterized postwar society. Even though Harry Truman was generally considered a more conservative leader than Franklin Roosevelt had been, Republican politicians attacked the "radical" Democratic administration for fostering "creeping socialism," excessive red tape, and extravagant federal expenditures, as well as for a failure to end war-time economic controls. Faced with a Republican majority in both houses of Congress after the 1946 elections and an uncertain destiny for the Democratic party under Truman's leadership, American radicals, led by Henry Wallace, organized the Progressive party which stood for co-operation with Russia and sweeping social reforms. The insignificant Progressive vote in the election of 1948 marked the postwar death of organized radicalism in America. Truman, not as conservative as his critics had assumed, formulated his own moderate version of the New Deal and asked for extensive public housing, national health insurance ("socialized medicine" in the vocabulary of its critics), and direct subsidies to the farmer (the Brannan Plan) as a substitute for government buying to maintain agricultural prices. All of these proposals were

defeated or replaced with more moderate programs by the Republican congressional leaders, who passed several bills such as the Taft-Hartley Act (to restrict labor unions) over presidential vetoes.

The political future apparently belonged to the Republicans, but, to the surprise of almost everyone except Truman, both the presidency and congress were captured by the Democrats in 1948. The President's "Fair Deal" made little progress between 1949 and 1953 despite his victory at the polls. Truman's congressional majority existed only on paper, for the national legislature was actually governed by an informal coalition of Republicans and conservative Southern Democrats who opposed extensive social reforms during a prosperous era.

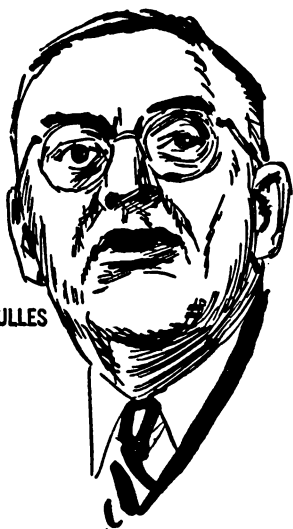
The cause of reform lost ground as the Cold War absorbed an increasingly large amount of American energy and attention after 1947. Truman and his secretaries of state, George Marshall and Dean Acheson, devised one program after another to meet the Communist threat: the Truman Plan for aid to Greece and Turkey (1947), the Marshall Plan for European Economic Recovery (1948), the Berlin airlift to fight the Russian blockade of Berlin (1948), the unprecedented establishment of a permanent alliance with European nations (NATO, 1949), and the Korean War (1950-53).

Cold War tensions also set the tone for domestic politics. The nation was fascinated by the trial and conviction of Alger Hiss, a former State Department official, for having falsely testified that he had not given secret material to Communist agents during the 1930's. The discovery of several Russian spy rings added to the furor, and President Truman established a special board to search for evidence of disloyalty among federal employees. Senator Joseph McCarthy, who made a profession of discovering implausibly sinister Communist influences in high places, earned world-wide infamy for an almost constant barrage of irresponsible accusations, insinuations, and overt attacks on diplomats, intellectuals, politicians, and generals.

During the elections of 1952, the Republicans exploited popular fears of Communist influence in the government as well as public irritation with high taxes, the Korean War, and political scandals. The Democrats were defeated in the 1952 presidential race by 6,000,000 votes (9,000,000 votes in 1956), and lost control of Congress by a narrow margin. The urbane wit and penetrating intelligence of the Democratic nominee, Adlai Stevenson, were inadequate political weapons against the enor-



**EISENHOWER**



**DULLES**



THE SUPREME COURT DECISION OF 1955

mous popularity of General Dwight D. Eisenhower in 1952 and 1956. Despite campaign sniping at New Deal projects and promises of drastic cuts in taxes and federal spending, it was soon obvious that President Eisenhower could not and did not wish to undertake a massive assault on New Deal programs. Many Democrats disliked the President's tendency to staff agencies with men who were not sympathetic toward the goals of the agencies; farmers attacked the Secretary of Agriculture, Ezra Taft Benson, for reducing farm benefits; and many politicians criticized the administration for failure to act promptly and effectively to end the recession of 1957-58.

The Congressional Democrats (who won a majority in 1956) did not seriously challenge the administration, and the Eisenhower years were relatively serene in domestic affairs except for controversies over the constitutional rights of Negroes and political dissenters. Senator McCarthy continued to intimidate several departments of the government until his death. President Eisenhower initiated a more rigorous loyalty program for government employees as the search for Communists, ex-Communists, and miscellaneous dissenters extended to the universities, the entertainment world, and even into industry. Most Americans accepted new restrictions on individual liberty with equanimity, and gradually the anti-Communist campaigns lost some of their force.

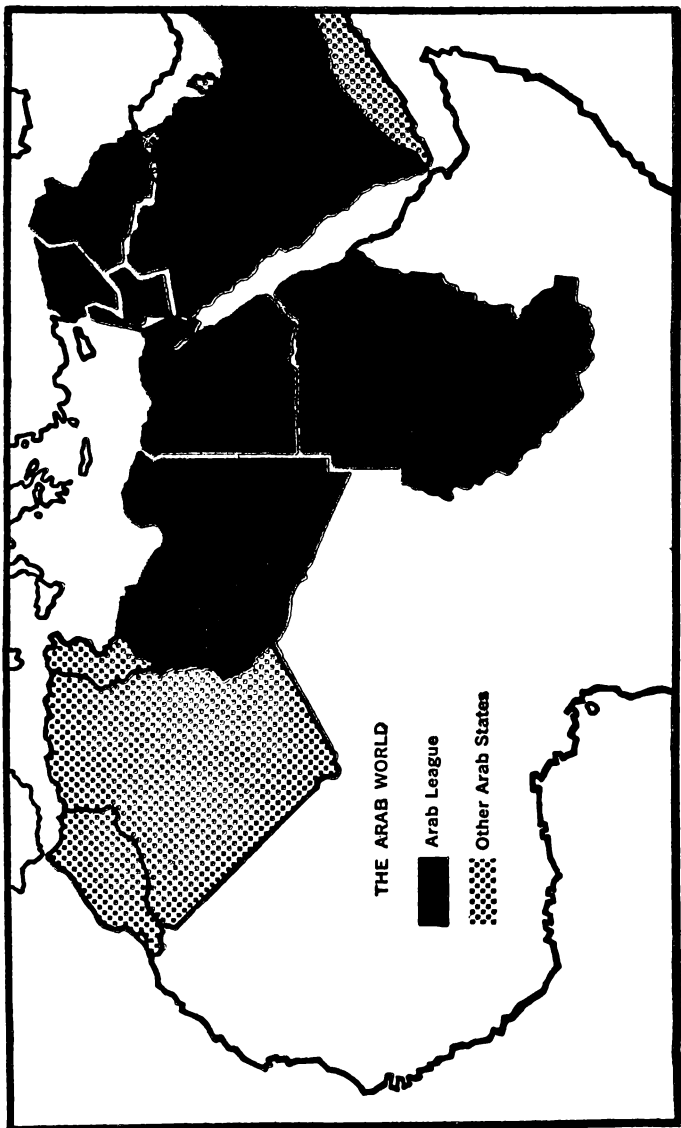
The question of racial equality was more persistent and difficult. The Negro lived as a "second class citizen" all over the country, particularly in the South where every social institution assigned him an inferior status. In the historic decision of 1955, the Supreme Court ruled that southern state laws requiring segregation in the schools violated the equal rights clause of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. A slow, painful process of school integration (often attended by violence) proceeded in scattered communities from Maryland to Oklahoma, but a tier of southern states in the deep South refused to compromise. Although federal courts continued to press the issue by ruling against segregation in other sectors of public life, reformers were impatient with the widening gap between court rulings and their enforcement. In 1960, southern Negro (and some white) students tried a new approach by launching non-violent demonstrations against segregation in public libraries and at the luncheon counters of stores where both Negroes and whites purchased goods.

## ■ United States and World Diplomacy

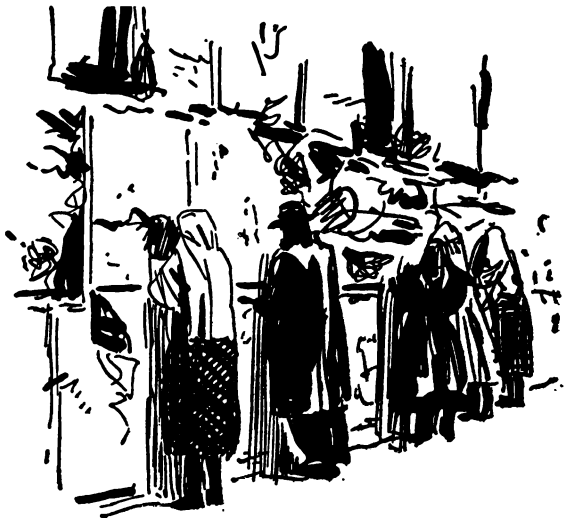
Integration crises flared from time to time, but the issue which captured continuous public attention and produced executive action was the Cold War. The Korean truce in 1953 did not bring a significant lessening of international tensions, and Eisenhower considered entering the fight against the Communist rebels in French Indo-China during 1954. Because the Russian threat persisted, the President and his Secretary of State, John Foster Dulles, continued the "containment" policy of Truman and Acheson. The NATO principle of arming anti-Communist states near Russian borders or in crisis areas was applied in the formation of the South East Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO). The United States supported the British-sponsored Baghdad Pact of Middle Eastern Nations. Thus, from Germany to South Korea, an almost continuous chain of anti-Communist states and Western military bases encircled the Soviet bloc.

The weakest link in the chain of Western alliances was the Baghdad Pact, and the Middle East produced a number of serious international crises. Arab nationalism in this poverty-stricken area revolutionized the political order: Colonel Nasser's army clique destroyed Farouk's corrupt Egyptian monarchy (1953); Syrian military conspirators seized the government and joined Egypt in the United Arab Republic; Colonel Karim el Kassem overthrew the regime of Faisal II in Iraq









WAILING WALL



NASSER



BEN-GURION

(1958); and King Hussein's Jordanian government barely weathered the revolutionary storm of 1958 with Anglo-American funds and troops. Even Ibn Saud's primitive tribal state in Saudi Arabia and the rulers of the incredibly oil-rich sheikdoms of the Persian Gulf were alarmed by the possibility of revolt. Eisenhower and Dulles, who felt that the whole region was endangered by irresponsible nationalism and the possibility of Communist intervention, dispatched American troops to Lebanon, while British paratroopers came to the assistance of the Jordanian government. The Arabs distrusted the United States because Americans supported the state of Israel. This new nation, founded in 1948 by Chaim Weizmann and David Ben-Gurion as a refuge for the survivors of the Nazi holocaust and as a fulfillment of the old dream of a Jewish homeland, defeated Arab armies in 1948 and again in 1956.

After the revolutions of 1958, Iraq left the Baghdad Pact (rechristened the Middle Eastern Treaty Organization, METO), and it became apparent that none of the Arab states could be numbered among America's allies. However, Turkey and Iran, the Middle Eastern states closest to Russia, maintained ties with the West. The Shah of Iran ruled a nation with a proud history and an ancient civilization, but if the nation was to escape the revolutionary turmoil of its neighbors, it would have to modernize at a faster pace and meet the needs of its growing population. Turkey, the first Asian nation after Japan to become Westernized, stood firmly in the anti-Communist camp, and the revolutionists who overthrew Prime Minister Menderes in 1960 continued traditional policies. Pakistan, the distant Eastern member of METO also supported American policies. Primitive Afghanistan, sandwiched between Iran and Pakistan, refused to take sides in the Cold War and accepted aid from both the United States and Russia.

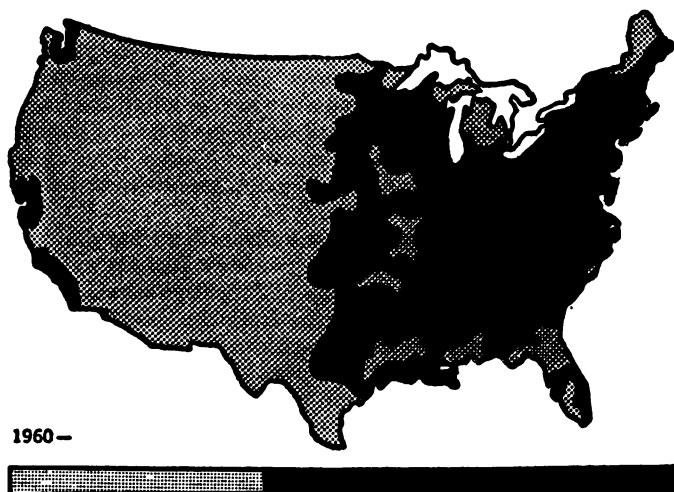
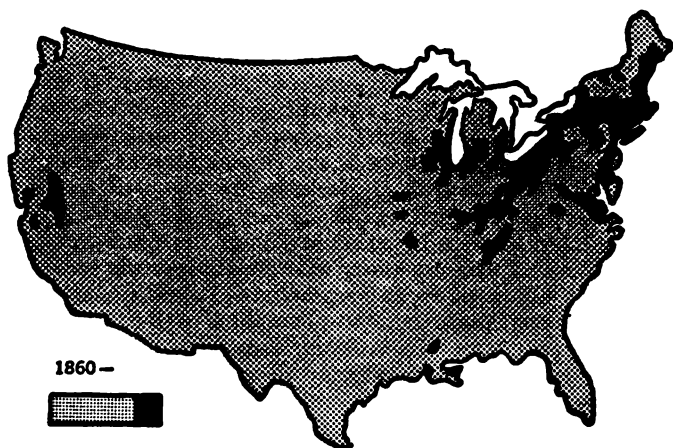
Cold War diplomacy virtually committed the United States to the preservation of the status quo around the world, and Eisenhower and Dulles supported ruling classes from the aristocratic native cliques of Jordan, Saudi Arabia, and other oil-rich sheikdoms of the Persian Gulf to European colonial governments. Arab peoples of North Africa with newly-gained political independence from European powers—Libya (1951), Tunisia (1954), Morocco (1954), and Sudan (1957)—often suspected American motives because the United States was allied with their former political overlords. The Algerian rebellion

presented a particularly difficult situation. The United States could not please both the Algerian nationalists who demanded support against French "imperialism" and the French leaders who insisted that the United States refrain from aiding rebels against the legitimate government of a close ally. The Moroccan government compelled the United States to make plans for the future evacuation of air bases, and experts predicted that all of North Africa might soon be excluded from the Western defense system.

Moreover, the value of the chain of bases and allies was at least open to question after 1955 when the Cold War conflict began to manifest itself in new ways, such as in the competition to win the friendship of Asian and African states through economic aid programs. When atomic missiles with a range of four or five thousand miles became the major weapons, the importance of bomber bases and standing armies decreased.

At a time when international conflict and the missile race required greater expenditure, the recession of 1957-58 decreased federal income and increased domestic spending. The dramatic launching of Sputnik I, the first Russian space satellite, inaugurated a race for the conquest of space. In a variety of endeavors Soviet Russia threatened American supremacy. Even in Latin America, which the United States had long taken for granted, several nations displayed hostility toward the "colossus of the north" and a new friendliness for the Russians. Fidel Castro, the leader of the Cuban Revolution (1958), attacked Eisenhower's "imperialist" policies, and South American mobs demonstrated violently against Vice President Nixon during his 1959 tour.





### THE CHANGING AMERICAN POPULATION

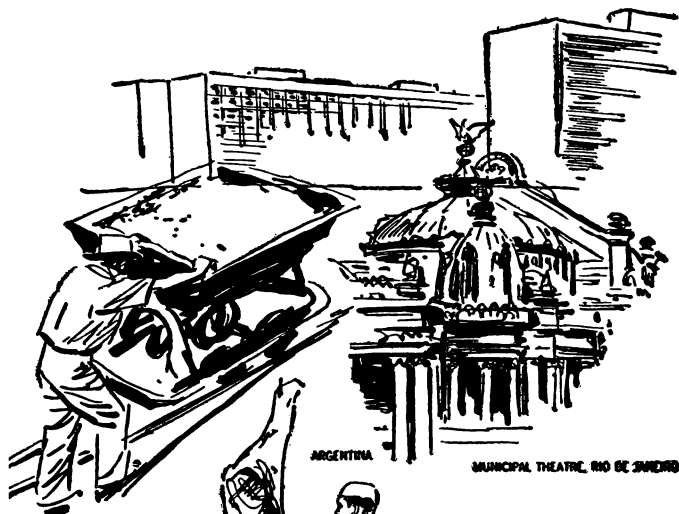
1860— 25,226,000 Rural  
6,216,000 Urban

1960— 68,717,000 Rural  
104,990,000 Urban

## ■ Latin America

Castro's criticisms and the attacks on Nixon were but manifestations of old hostilities which the "good neighbor" policies of Roosevelt, Truman, and Eisenhower had not erased, and which were beyond the scope of the Organization of American States (OAS, diplomatic organization for the settlement of inter-American disputes). Political actions of the Rocky Mountain tin lobby in Washington could damage the entire Bolivian economy, and Cuban prosperity was vulnerable to the pressures exerted by Louisiana sugar beet farmers. To the proud, agrarian, largely Spanish, Catholic population of the south, the primarily Protestant, Anglo-Saxon, industrial Yankees often seemed arrogant and indifferent toward the welfare of a poverty-stricken region dotted with economic satellites of the United States. As vast sums of foreign aid flowed to Europe and Asia, Latin American nations neither asked for nor were offered any comparable assistance. Economic problems increased as world consumption habits changed, and the development of synthetic products destroyed markets for a number of raw materials. Consequently, national income often decreased at a time when Latin America had the highest rate of population growth in the world. To the dismay of United States diplomats, communism made substantial gains, especially in Guatemala, Cuba, Chile, and Argentina.

Democracy made a few precarious advances during the post-war years. The Argentine Fascist dictator, Juan Peron, was driven from power and the citizens of Argentina regained civil liberties, but the economy suffered from the gradual loss of World War II markets. While Brazil fared a little better, the terrible poverty of the interior persisted, and many critics feared that the construction of the new capital, "Brasilia" (1960), would further undermine the financial position of the government. A series of revolutions which overthrew Marcos Perez Jiménez of Venezuela and other Latin American dictators, had little effect on the Caribbean area where men such as Rafael Trujillo Molina of the Dominican Republic continued to maintain authoritarian states. Of the Latin American countries only Mexico seemed to have coped successfully with her basic problems. Among other things, Mexican prosperity stimulated the development of a cultural renaissance in which Aztec, Spanish, colonial, and modern European influences combined to produce such world-famous artists as Diego Rivera, José Orozco, and David Siqueiros. The nation enjoyed an expand-



ARGENTINA

MUNICIPAL THEATRE, RIO DE JANEIRO

LATIN AMERICA



VENEZUELA



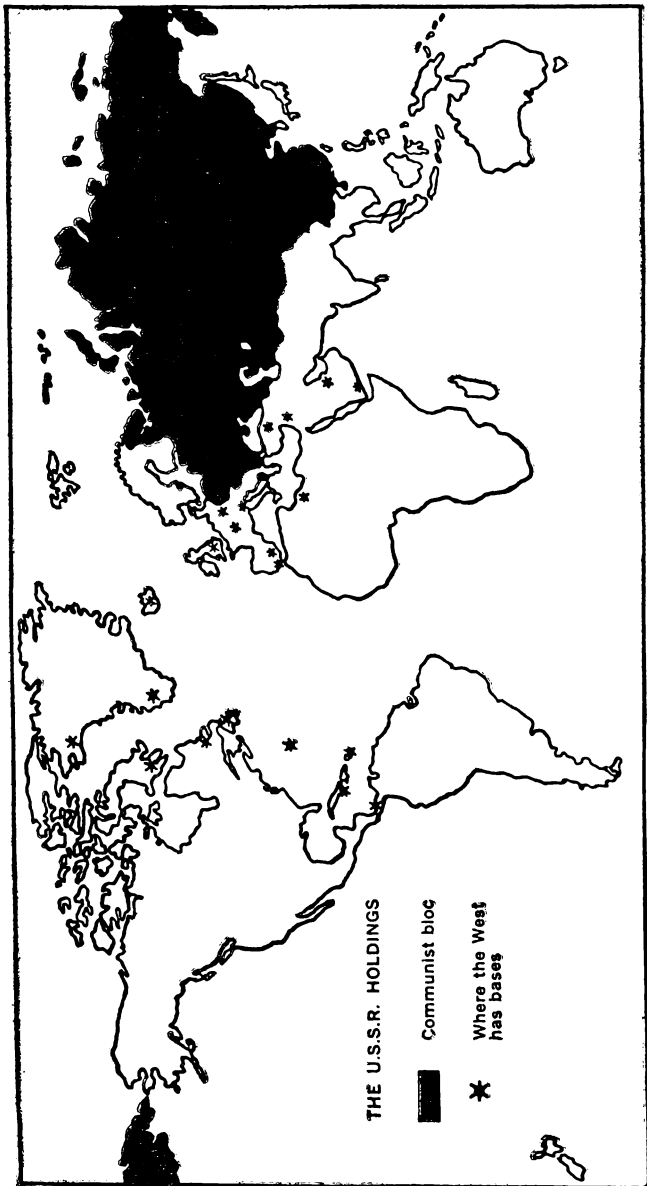
MEXICO



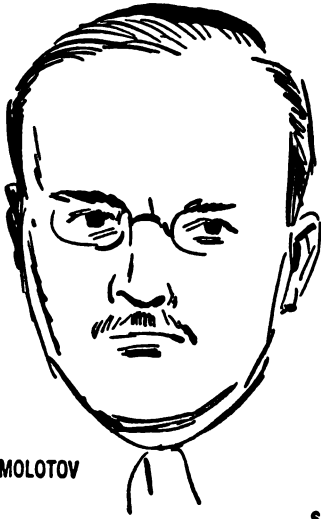
ing industrial system, a stable democracy, and a rising standard of living. The Mexican economy seemed to have reached a point where its growth could be sustained without much self-sacrifice or huge sums of outside capital.

Elsewhere in Latin America, leaders who wished to modernize their countries had only two choices: they could squeeze capital for expansion from the already poverty-stricken masses or they could ask for foreign aid. By the Act of Bogota, September, 1960, an economic and social improvement program was established to which the United States pledged an initial \$600,000,000.





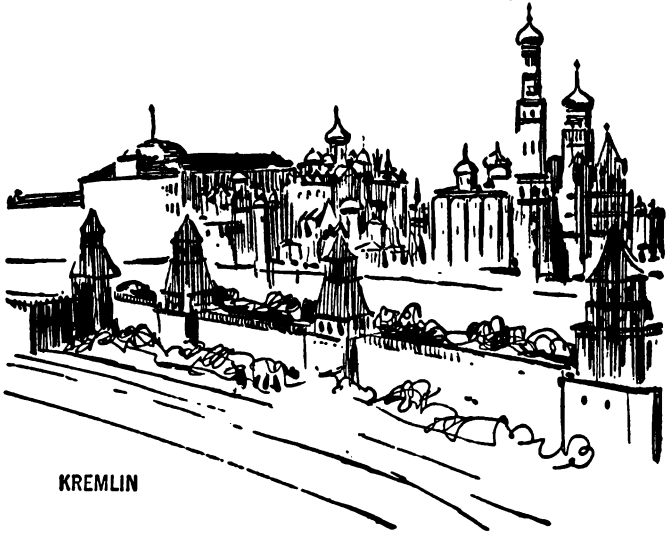




MOLOTOV



STALIN



KREMLIN

## ■ Soviet Union, 1953-60

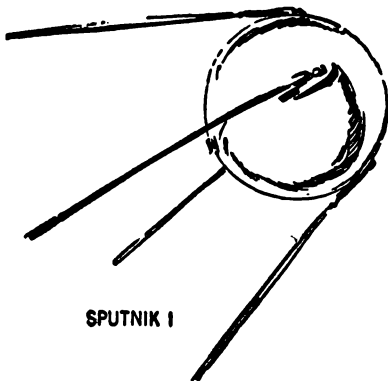
On March 4, 1953 the Soviet government announced that "the heart of the . . . wise leader and teacher of the Communist party and the Soviet people has stopped beating." All the world speculated about Stalin's successor as the dictator's chief assistants vied for position: Georgi Malenkov became Prime Minister; Lavrenti Beria continued to rule the dreaded secret police; and political circumstances seemed to require that a major role be given to Foreign Minister Vyacheslav Molotov, one of the few surviving "old Bolsheviks" who had led the revolution of 1917. Beria fell from power in July, and the ruling officials of the Presidium (the executive arm of the Communist party's Central Committee) were freed from constant police spying. Malenkov used milder words in his criticisms of the West, Moscow controls over Eastern Europe were relaxed somewhat, and the government promised more consumer goods for the Russian people. Premier Malenkov was not able to hold his own in the silent struggle for power (masked by the theory of "collective leadership"), and after two years he was replaced by Marshal Nikolai Bulganin, a political general who had held a variety of high offices under Stalin. By 1955, Nikita Khrushchev, Secretary of the Communist party, dominated the Party Presidium. Khrushchev sprang from worker-peasant stock (the best family tree in the Soviet Union), and earned recognition from Stalin as a capable agricultural expert and a tough party boss in the Ukraine. He possessed the endurance, cunning, and decisiveness essential for the survival of a Communist leader. In 1955, Khrushchev, accompanied by Bulganin, began a series of international trips which made him a familiar figure to millions of people. During the following year, he made his now famous speech to the Twentieth Party Congress, denouncing Stalin's ruthless methods and "the cult of personality." Every year the Secretary's power increased: in 1957 Molotov, Malenkov, and other major leaders were dropped from the Presidium; and in 1958, for the first time since Stalin's death, one man assumed the office of both national Premier and Secretary of the Party. Yet, it seemed unlikely that either Khrushchev or any of his associates would inherit Stalin's despotic power.

The Soviet Union under Khrushchev became a more tolerable place in which to live. While the government did not propose to abandon programs for the rapid growth of heavy industry, a substantial quantity of consumer goods began to reach the eager Russian public and increased government attention was given to the desperate housing shortage. The favored classes—Party bureaucrats, state officials, factory managers, scientists, intellectuals, and artists—fared particularly well. The vast network of slave labor camps was largely dismantled and the role of the secret police greatly diminished. Open discussions in the Party Presidium took place for the first time since the 1920's, although an official who championed a failing cause ran the risk of "reassignment" to Siberia or Outer Mongolia. The bloody purges of the Party leaders and the mass extinction of recalcitrant social groups ceased as existence became a little more secure for both common citizens and Party officials. Limited contacts with the Western world were allowed for a select few, and a substantial number of European and American tourists made visits to Russia after 1958. In 1960 it was even possible for an American to drive alone through most parts of European Russia. The Communist state relaxed its iron censorship of the arts. World famous composers, such as Dmitri Shostakovich and Aram Khatchaturian (Sergei Prokofiev had died in 1953) were no longer lectured as severely on the dangers of "Western decadence" and the need to compose according to "the principles of socialist realism." While the flow of dreary official novels about heroic socialist labor in the factory or life on the collective farm continued, a number of mildly critical writers escaped the once omnipotent censor. Vladimir Dudintsev's *Not By Bread Alone* won wide attention for its acid criticism of bureaucratic vices.



KHRUSHCHEV

However, the existence of very definite limits was demonstrated in the case of Boris Pasternak, the Nobel Prize winner in literature for 1957. For writing *Doctor Zhivago*, a defense of the solitary individual against the all-devouring state, Pasternak was denounced as a "Judas" and forced to plead with Khrushchev to escape exile. Most citizens did not have to be reminded that the Soviet Union was still an authoritarian state in which the government controlled almost every aspect of life from the content of the newspapers to the nature of the consumer goods which Russians were allowed to buy. The Party elite kept a watchful eye on factory workers, students, and peasants—and each other. The state subordinated individual needs to Khrushchev's goal of surpassing American production in the basic areas of heavy industry: coal, steel, iron, electricity, aluminum, machine tools, and locomotives. Within a generation the Soviet Union had developed from an agricultural state, populated largely by illiterate peasants, into the second industrial power of the world, with mass education, abundant labor skills, and the world's largest corps of scientists and engineers. Sputnik I, the first artificial earth satellite, was launched in 1957, and the production victory over the United States in the missile race during 1959 and 1960 increased Russian prestige and morale. Most Russians probably shared Khrushchev's confident belief that within a decade or two the Soviet Union would surpass the United States in the production of consumer goods as well as in heavy industry, and that victorious world communism would ultimately "bury" capitalist society.



SPUTNIK I



REVOLT IN HUNGARY

## ■ Soviet Union and the Cold War, 1953-60

The death of Stalin and the rise of Khrushchev had far-reaching consequences in foreign policy as well as in domestic affairs. The Korean War ended soon after Stalin's death, and in 1955 the conflict in Indo-China was brought to a conclusion by a compromise peace. In both countries Communist regimes controlled northern sectors and pro-Western states were dominant in the south. Khrushchev made his peace with Marshal Tito, the errant Communist ruler of Yugoslavia, by admitting that there might be "different roads to socialism." An Austrian pact was finally signed with the understanding that the country would remain permanently neutral in the conflict between East and West. The Soviet Union inaugurated foreign aid programs for countries such as India, Indonesia, Afghanistan, and Egypt, and Khrushchev began to talk about replacing the Cold War with "peaceful co-existence" and non-military competition. Khrushchev, Bulganin, Eisenhower, Faure, and Eden met at the Geneva Conference of 1955 to discuss means of settling East-West disputes. Little concrete progress was made toward the solution of such basic problems as disarmament and German unification, but the conference undoubtedly relaxed Cold War tensions.

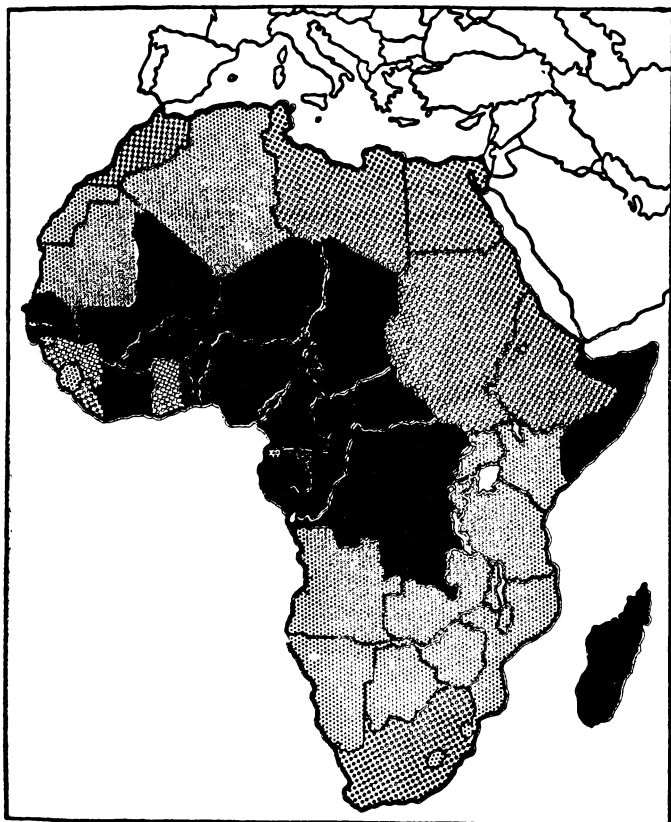
Less than fifteen months later both Khrushchev's regime and the prospects of Soviet-American conflict were badly shaken by uprisings in Eastern Europe against Communist dictatorships. After the iron despotism of Stalin the power of the Communist rulers of Eastern Europe was weakened by discussions about "collective leadership," Khrushchev's speech against "Stalinist" methods, and the theory of "many roads to socialism." (East German workers had rioted as early as 1953.) In October, 1956, Hungarian students and workers led a valiant and temporarily successful revolution against the diehard Communist government, but Soviet troops demonstrated the bankruptcy of Communist idealism by ruthlessly suppressing the revolt. Riots by Polish factory workers at Poznan and a wave of criticism by intellectuals forced Communist leaders to resign in favor of the popular Oskar Gomulka, who slowed down the collective farm program, promised an increase in wages and consumer goods, and allowed a limited freedom of discussion. For a time the threat of Soviet intervention hung over Poland, but Gomulka

made it clear that he wanted only a measure of independence from the Soviet Union and the right to follow his own "road to socialism." Poland continued to be a Communist state closely allied with the Soviet Union. Although some concessions were made throughout Eastern Europe and particularly in East Germany, Western leaders surrendered hopes of defeating communism in this region.




If the Americans had intervened in Hungary the result almost certainly would have been World War III. Fortunately for the Soviet Union, the United States government did not seriously consider intervention, and the Western camp was divided during the crisis by the Anglo-French invasion of the Suez Canal Zone.

With the growth of hydrogen bomb arsenals and the development of intercontinental missiles, the problem of peace became even more urgent. Disarmament meetings in London and Geneva failed to produce agreements. The peace issue was complicated by the militant attitude of Chinese Communist leaders who exploited foreign crises to spur the masses toward greater efforts in the incredibly difficult task of industrializing this enormous rural nation. In the long run an effective disarmament pact would require Chinese support, but Western leaders thrust this aspect of the peace problem into the background.

By 1959, prosperity seemed to have diminished ideological fervor in the Soviet Union and made the government more receptive to serious diplomatic negotiation. Harold Macmillan's visit to the Soviet Union during the spring of 1959 set off a chain of visits and negotiations that promised to produce worthwhile diplomatic results. For a year the world watched the procession of political tours: Khrushchev to the United States and France, Eisenhower to France and Great Britain, de Gaulle to Great Britain, Canada and the United States, and Macmillan to all countries involved. The climax of these state visits was a summit conference in Paris during May, 1960. A few days before the meeting the Russians shot down an American spy plane over central Russia, and when the heads of state met in Paris Khrushchev refused to proceed with the meeting unless Eisenhower made an apology. After Eisenhower's refusal, the Soviet leader stormed out of the conference, leaving behind a barrage of insults and threats. However, neither Khrushchev nor Eisenhower wished to return to the conditions which had prevailed during the worst years of the Cold War.



### AFRICA TODAY

-  Nations Independent before 1960
-  Nations that gained independence in 1960
-  Territories and dependencies



TOURE, GUINEA



MBOYA, KENYA



NKRUMAH, GHANA



LUMUMBA, CONGO

# Africa and Asia in Recent Years

## ■ Africa

Like Latin America, Africa supplied huge quantities of raw material to the industrial nations. The uranium deposits in the Belgian Congo and the oil deposits of Algeria and Libya made the continent important to the West. Political domination was comparatively easy since most Africans were relatively indifferent to nationalism until the 1950's. Conditions changed drastically in 1956, a year in which the Moroccans cast off French domination, Tunisia under Habib Bourguiba's leadership became a new nation, and Gamal Abdel Nasser of Egypt secured the withdrawal of British troops from the Suez Canal Zone. Premier Kwame Nkrumah, in 1957 gained world renown in the successful struggle for the independence of Ghana. After 1958, the tides of nationalism swept across Africa and the European nations were neither willing nor able to defend their positions as vigorously as they had a generation earlier. The British sponsored elections in 1960 to choose native political leaders for a free Nigeria, and later in the year initial steps were taken toward an independent Central African Federation. Guinea withdrew from the French union (1959), and arrangements were made the following year for self-government in a number of French colonies: the Mali Federation, Madagascar, Dahomey, the Ivory Coast and others. Even the Belgian Congo,

ABUBAKAR, NIGERIA



which had been virtually free of native agitation before 1958, won its freedom in 1960. (Tribal riots and anti-Belgian, anti-white action necessitated United Nations intervention.) In three sections of Africa the presence of substantial numbers of European settlers made Western withdrawal more difficult. Kenya settlers who had ridden out the storm of Mau Mau rebellion were determined to prevent Jomo Kenyatta and his native followers from gaining power. The fanatical desire of French settlers to "keep Algeria French" created many difficulties for the negotiations which began in 1960 between representatives of the rebel National Liberation Front and the government of General Charles de Gaulle. In South Africa, Henrik Voerward's (Afrikaans) government vigorously enforced apartheid (segregation) policies and ruthlessly suppressed dissent (the "Sharpsville massacre" of 1960 took a heavy toll of native casualties) until it seemed that the natives' only path to political freedom was through a bloody and sustained fight.



TUNISIAN



SUDANESE



INDIAN



SWEDISH



PAKISTANI



U.N. TROOPS

LIBERIAN



HO CHI MINH



U NU



SUKARNO

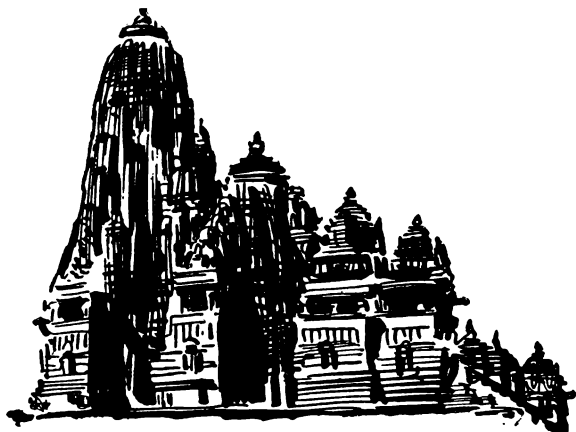
## ■ Asia

Africa, Asia, and Latin America were victims of the "population explosion." More public order and better medical care had cut infant mortality rate drastically, and population even in the poorest countries increased alarmingly. Asians were faced with the problem of obtaining capital for industrial expansion when resources remained constant, per capita income was \$60 to \$100 a year, and the population threatened to double in a generation. Few Asians concerned themselves with economic problems during the postwar years, but millions of people wanted freedom from European domination. In French Indo-China war raged for eight years before the French withdrew in 1955, leaving behind them the independent states of Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, and (Communist) Vietminh.

The transition to self-government was orderly in the Philippines and American authority lapsed in 1946 except in military bases to which the republic had acquired title in 1956. A corrupt Philippine government, millions of landless peasants, and the decay of the educational system led the Huks (a group originally formed as an underground resistance corps against the Japanese) to open revolt (1950). The rebellion almost succeeded, but tough, energetic Ramon Magsaysay reorganized the army and, after winning the presidential election of 1954, instituted sweeping land reforms. Burma experienced a similar problem after winning her freedom from the British in 1948. In a single year peasant rebels gained control of the entire country except the Rangoon district; but an able leader, Premier U Nu, inaugurated widespread economic and social reforms that enabled the government to regain control of the country. The Indonesians also struggled for both independence and territorial unity. In 1945, returning Dutch soldiers and nationalists came close to conflict, and in 1947-48 European forces instigated a "police action" against patriotic natives. In 1949, the Dutch were forced to recognize the Indonesian Republic. The struggle left a heritage of hate so powerful that the Indonesians expelled Dutch merchants, technicians, and administrators despite the fact that this move would cripple their economy. Difficulties in instituting a democratic government led President Achmed Sukarno (Soekarno) to restrict political liberties ("guided democracy") which aroused an armed revolt (1957) that was suppressed only with great difficulty.

**Japan.** The proud nation that had dominated Indonesia, Burma, the Philippines, Indo-China, and other countries from 1942 to 1945 faced serious problems during the postwar years. In 1942, many Asians had welcomed the "Co-Prosperity Sphere," but the loss of European and American markets and clumsy Japanese policies left hostile memories which Japan had to overcome after 1945 in order to sell her manufactured goods in these markets. Military defeat came as a shock to the Japanese people who had believed so fervently in the emperor, the army, and the nation. Allied occupation officials under the command of General Douglas MacArthur set out to help build a society which would be permanently devoted to peace, military neutrality, and democracy. Emperor Hirohito was retained as a symbol of state, but political power passed to the Diet (legislature). The occupation authorities discontinued Shintôism because it encouraged the military virtues. They dismantled some of the great industrial firms, established village councils for local self-government, and initiated a reform program which gave land to poor farmers. A democratic constitution was promulgated in 1947 and the new government functioned smoothly with a premier who was a servant of the Diet rather than its master. While the occupation ended in 1951, the peace treaty provided for American bases in Japan. Public riots in 1960 against Japanese involvement in the Cold War and in protest against a new military treaty with the United States, prevented a state visit from President Dwight Eisenhower, forced the resignation of Premier Kishi, and caused concern over future Japanese-American relations.

**India.** When independence had been achieved, democratic government prospered in India as well as in Japan. During World War II, Gandhi, Nehru and their supporters opposed co-operation with the British, and the war period was filled with riots, passive resistance campaigns, and severe famines. Independence was promised in 1945 by British leaders who evacuated troops and officials (1945-47) and left behind three states: the island republic of Ceylon, Mohammed Ali Jinnah's Pakistan (Moslem), and India (Hindu). The massacres and hatreds produced by the partition of the subcontinent between Moslems and Hindus caused Gandhi great suffering (the great Mahatma was killed in 1948 by a demented religious fanatic).

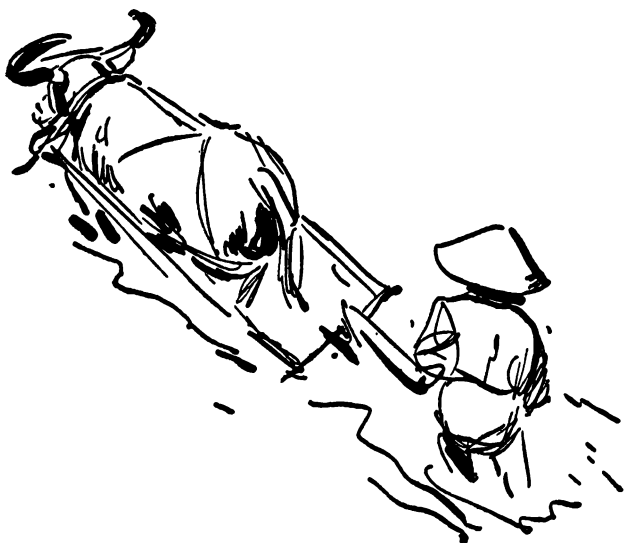


HINDU TEMPLE, KHAJRAHO



FAMINE IN INDIA





An Indian Constitution was finally adopted in 1949, New Delhi was designated as the capital city, and Nehru became the first Prime Minister of the Indian Republic. The first general elections held in 1951-52 (among largely illiterate voters who identified their party only by recognizing its symbol on the ballot) gave Nehru's Congress party a majority, but the Communist party obtained a substantial number of seats. The administration did an excellent job in establishing the new government, putting chaotic national finances in order, and fighting threats of famine with the help of American wheat loans. Two five-year plans for industrial expansion (1951, 1956) were launched with financial support from Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union. After the elections of 1956 Nehru, with a popular vote of confidence, continued to execute established domestic and foreign policies. Many Westerners were annoyed with Nehru's neutrality in the Cold War, but most observers agreed that by providing a democratic means to industrialization, India furnished a favorable contrast with Chinese Communist methods of growth through harsh totalitarian policies.

**China.** When World War II ended, the Chinese Communists raced to seize territory occupied by the defeated Japanese. The United States organized airlifts to fly Chiang Kai-shek's troops to key points, and the Nationalists occupied most of the coastal cities. Stalin, who had promised that Russian troops would cooperate with Chiang, turned Manchurian cities over to the Nationalists, but the Communists obtained Japanese equipment and with the help of their peasant supporters exercised much power in the countryside. After eight years of war, both factions hesitated before plunging the country into civil conflict, and General George Marshall of the United States helped to arrange truce terms (1946) which worked with indifferent success until 1947.

During eight years in the interior the Nationalists had lost touch with intellectuals, businessmen, and workers in the port cities occupied by the Japanese. The lean years at Chungking had created a bureaucracy which proceeded to act with reckless corruption; police raids on the universities (1947) angered the intellectuals; rigged postwar elections which gave Chiang power destroyed his popularity; and, most serious of all, the Nationalists failed to establish an effective land reform program. Peasant support was the key to Mao Tse-tung's victory when the war resumed in Manchuria (1949). Cities which were like islands in a sea of peasants sympathetic to the Communists could not be held. The Red armies soon conquered Manchuria

and broke into North China. As the Communists swept southward Chiang Kai-shek retired from office and went into seclusion on Formosa (Taiwan). By September, 1949, the Communists with a new state in Peking controlled the entire country, while Nationalist leaders had to be content with a government in exile on Formosa (later headed by Chiang).

The Agrarian Act of 1950 turned large tracts of land over to collective farms, and in 1951 a savage hate campaign (highlighted by public "trials" at which hundreds or even thousands of peasants screamed the inevitable verdict of guilty), was launched against the old landlord class. During the same year the government began an extensive campaign against the businessmen and against the Americans (whom the Chinese were fighting in Korea)—a campaign which transferred most of industry into Communist hands. The universities were brought under rigid control and even that most venerable of all Chinese institutions, the family, was attacked by officials who urged each individual to sacrifice all to the good of the party and the state. Special awards were given to patriotic children who denounced "counter-revolutionary" parents to the police. The first five-year plan for industrialization was begun in 1951, and a second one was launched in 1956.

Mao Tse-tung, assisted by Chou En-lai and other party leaders, was determined to drive China relentlessly toward goals even more ambitious than those set by Stalin for the Soviet Union in the 1930's. Since Mao (like Stalin) had difficulty increasing agricultural production through the collective farms, he created the commune. With enforced patterns of common working, eating, and recreation, state nurseries, and the breakdown of family ties, the communes represented a more radical step than the Russians had ever taken. In foreign policy Mao worked well with the Russians against the "capitalist aggressors" of the United States who blocked the Communist acquisition of Formosa (Quemoy crises, 1953, 1958). Mao posed as an anti-imperialist champion, particularly at the Bandung Conference of Afro-Asian nations (1955). However, the seizure of Tibet in 1958 and a border dispute with India in 1960 created many Asian critics of Chinese policies.





CHINESE PAGODA



RURAL CHINA

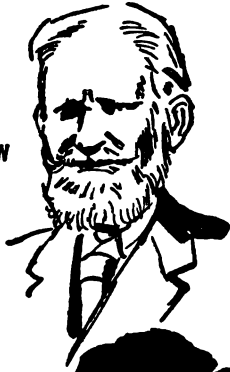


## 20th Century Western Culture

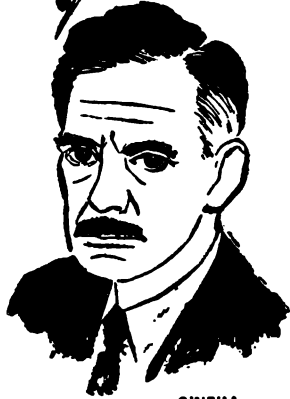
The possibility of a Soviet-American atomic war struck many intellectuals as the culmination of catastrophic situations in a century which had already produced Nazi barbarism, Communist totalitarianism, and two World Wars. Nineteenth-century thinkers (Karl Marx and Friedrich Nietzsche) were extremely critical of modern industrial civilization, but the slaughter of men and values in World War I produced a generation of intellectuals and artists marked by a spirit of pessimism. In *The Decline of the West* (1918-22) the German historian, Oswald Spengler, advanced the theory that civilizations, like living creatures, have a life cycle (with stages of youth, maturity, decay and death), and placed Western civilization in an age of collapse. Ernest Hemingway (American), a spokesman for the "lost generation" of "sad young men," presented in *The Sun Also Rises* (1926), a protagonist whose loss of sexual potency through war wounds seemed to symbolize the creative frustrations of all aspects of life after four years of bloodletting. George Grosz (German) reminded men of old nightmares with paintings and drawings of mangled soldiers stretched across barbed wire. The "Dada" painters of the 1920's attacked current notions of goodness, beauty, and truth with a savage glee, and *The Threepenny Opera* (1928) by the Germans Bertolt Brecht and Kurt Weill satirized with destructive gusto the malice, violence, and meaninglessness of industrial society. In England, the poems of T. S. Eliot described a *Wasteland* (1922) without solace or salvation; Franz Kafka's fiction (*The Castle*, 1926, *The Trial*, 1937) provided German readers with parables on their frustrated, anonymous lives; and William Faulkner (*The Sound and the Fury*, 1929, *As I Lay Dying*, 1930) found tortured Southerners on the fringes of American culture with "leftover lives" to dissipate.

Many writers and artists turned from the terrible face of society to the inner self. James Joyce's *Ulysses* (1922) recorded the sometimes random incoherent thoughts and emotions of an urban, middle-class Irishman during twenty-four hours. Novelists in several countries linked a concern for the inner self with a desire to place the individual in a specific social context. Marcel Proust (French, *Remembrance of Things Past*, 1913-28)

SHAW



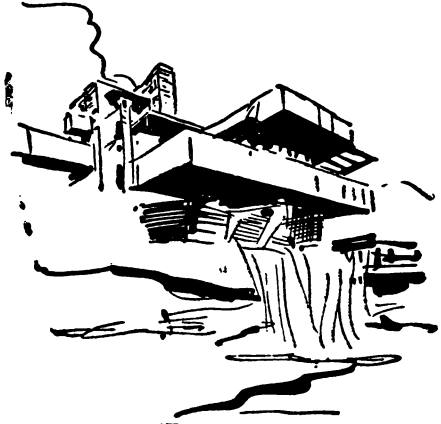
HEMINGWAY



O'NEILL



WRIGHT





depicted the declining French aristocracy, and Thomas Mann (German, *Buddenbrooks*, 1901, *The Magic Mountain*, 1924) portrayed life among the wealthy old North German commercial families.

The Depression of 1929 brought a widespread awareness of social injustice and the hope that society could be reconstructed. Bertolt Brecht placed his poetic talents at the service of the Communist party; André Malraux (French, *Man's Fate*, 1933) wrote of his experiences among revolutionists in China; and John Steinbeck produced a powerful portrait of uprooted "dust bowl Okies" in flight to California (*The Grapes of Wrath*, 1939). This sense of social purpose was lost during and after World War II. The English poet, W. H. Auden, described the period as an Age of Anxiety. Most professional philosophers in Europe and America gave up the attempt to find and interpret the "large" questions about existence and human destiny. Advocates of "logical positivism" (born during the 1930's in the Vienna circle of Ludwig Wittgenstein and his associates) proposed to apply the method of physics to philosophy by discarding as unanswerable all statements of belief that could not be precisely formulated and used as a basis for specific predictions of future results. In Germany, Karl Jaspers and Martin Heidegger, finding modern "scientific" philosophies irrelevant to man's tragic estate, devised an "existentialist" approach which brushed aside the abstract, the ideological, in order to concentrate on the problem which sprang from the human existence of the individual. The French writers, Jean-Paul Sartre (*The Age of Reason*, 1947, *The Flies*, 1948) and Albert Camus (*The Plague*, 1948, *The Rebel*, 1951) applied the existentialist approach to the writing of novels and plays. Although Sartre and Camus began with a pessimistic point of view, they wished to go beyond despair to find meaning in human existence. The outlook of Jaspers and Heidegger, Sartre and Camus has been reflected in the religious thought of the last generation. Gabriel Marcel (Catholic), Nicholas Berdyaev (Russian Orthodox), and Reinhold Niebuhr (Protestant) all stressed the tragic circumstances of life and the potentialities of human nature for evil and violence.

The pessimism of the intellectuals was not shared by the majority of men and women who usually preferred the happy ending and the optimistic approach. For example, millions of American Protestants and others sought in Norman Vincent Peale's "power of positive thinking" a solution for basic problems. Yet, many elements of popular culture suggested an un-

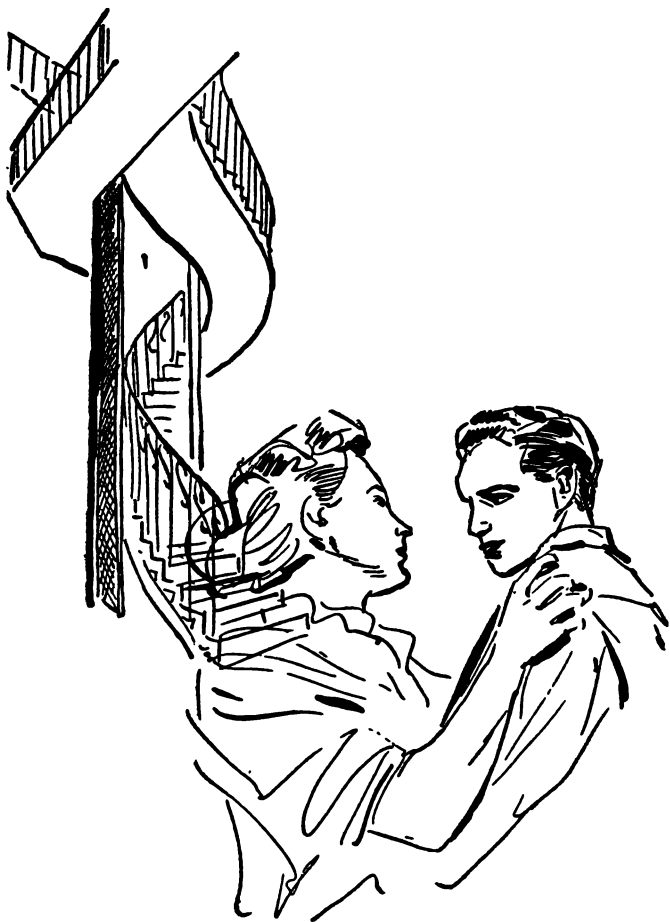


dercurrent of dissatisfaction. Popular books and entertainment reflected a preoccupation with violence, and the brutality, insanity, decadence, and cannibalism in the plays and movies of Tennessee Williams had a powerful effect on people on all educational levels. Perhaps the leading folk hero of the postwar years was the brutal, explosive, and inarticulate Stanley Kowalski in Williams' *A Streetcar Named Desire* (1947).

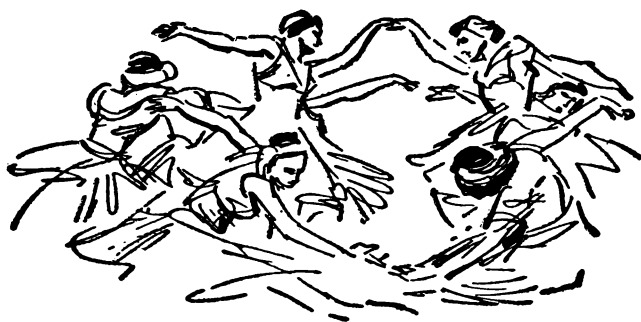
During the 1950's a very small minority of Americans, "beatniks," "rebels without a cause," sought escape from a society they despised in drugs, sexual escapades, speed, and oriental cults (Zen Buddhism). Jack Kerouac's novel, *On The Road*, won recognition for the author and made him a spokesman for the "Beat" group. England also reared a generation of cultured rebels. The welfare state and new educational opportunities were not enough for the "angry young men" who attacked remaining social injustices and denounced the triviality of modern life. In John Osborne's play, *Look Back in Anger* (1956), Jimmy Porter complained of the bankruptcy of the present age, a time when "all the good causes" were "dead."

## ■ Art and Music

Artists also destroyed established traditions and values, but they did not always share the pessimism of the intellectuals. Twentieth century artists experienced the joys of casting aside trite, outworn techniques and the pleasures of discovering new art forms. Versatility was characteristic of the major artists. Pablo Picasso helped to develop half a dozen painting styles. Cubism continued to interest Picasso, Braque, Juan Gris, and Fernand Léger, who brought the sharp precision of the machine to his canvasses. Henri Matisse and the "Fauves" ("wild beasts" according to their opponents) brought powerful lines and brilliant flat areas of color from the Orient into Western painting. Georges Rouault developed a personal style using religious themes and brilliant color outlined in black which was reminiscent of the stained glass windows of the Middle Ages. Piet Mondrian (Dutch, Neoplasticism) completely left the visual world of the ordinary man to concentrate on balancing lines and color areas. The German expressionists, Emil Nolde and Max Beckmann, wished paintings to be "subjective" expressions of the artist's feelings about objects, persons, and scenes. The Surrealists (Salvador Dali) wished to probe the world of dreams and fantasies by arranging "realistically" painted objects in "unrealistic" contexts that were strangely



A STREETCAR NAMED DESIRE



THE DANCE

disturbing. After World War II, "abstract expressionism," the attempt to express personal meanings and emotions through abstract techniques, became the dominant school. Jackson Pollock was the foremost American abstract expressionist.

In sculpture, Jacob Epstein and Aristide Maillol used new techniques but were closer than the painters to traditional approaches. An Englishman, Henry Moore, demonstrated the possibilities for sculpture in the new ideas by concentrating on mass, design, and surface, and an American, Alexander Calder, produced abstract "mobiles" of pipe, wire, and metal. Pioneer "modern" architects wished to use the new shapes and materials to build structures appropriate to life in the twentieth century. Young Le Corbusier declared that a house was a "machine for living"; Walter Gropius and the Bauhaus Group wished to coordinate architecture and all the decorative arts; and Frank Lloyd Wright adapted buildings in every part of the United States to the particular mountain, desert, lakeside, or seashore location.

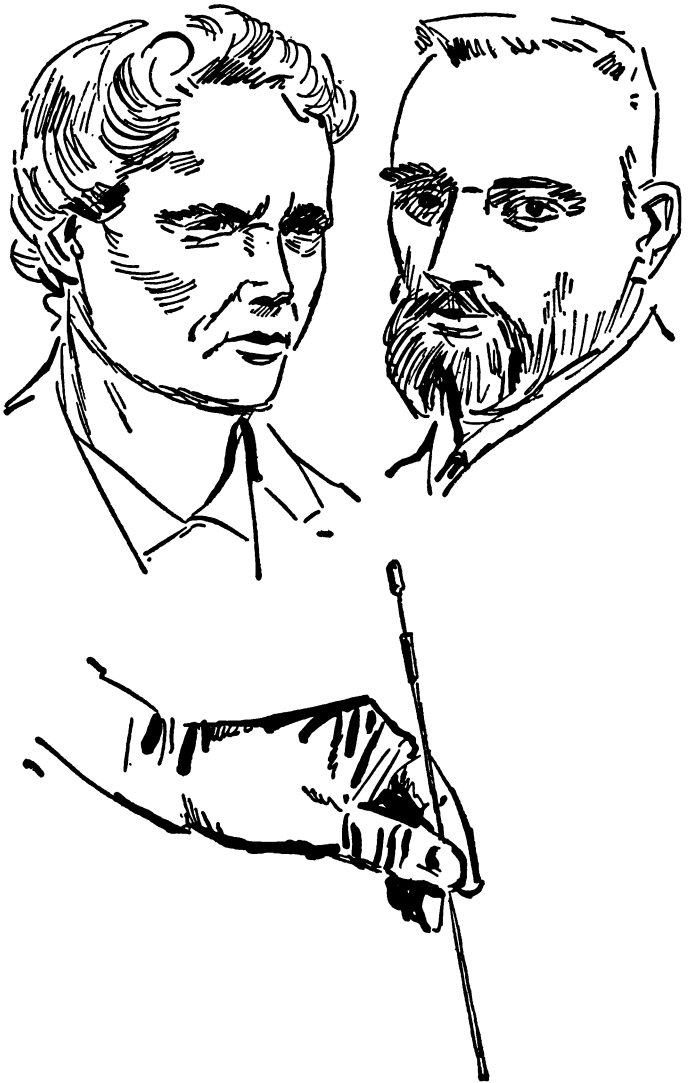
No architect or painter experimented more daringly with novel forms than the Viennese composer, Arnold Schoenberg, and his disciple, Alban Berg, who abandoned accepted patterns of melody and tonality for "atonality" (the constant use of twelve tones in arbitrary patterns). Igor Stravinsky experimented with intricate rhythms of an insistent savage intensity. Some composers (Prokofiev) called themselves "neoclassicists" and wished to return to principles of composition which had been used in the eighteenth century. Béla Bartók (Hungary) exploited folk themes, nineteenth century forms and the most daring of the new musical techniques. Paul Hindemith (Germany) and Darius Milhaud (France) experimented with brilliant new musical ideas as well as with jazz, folk music, and street songs.

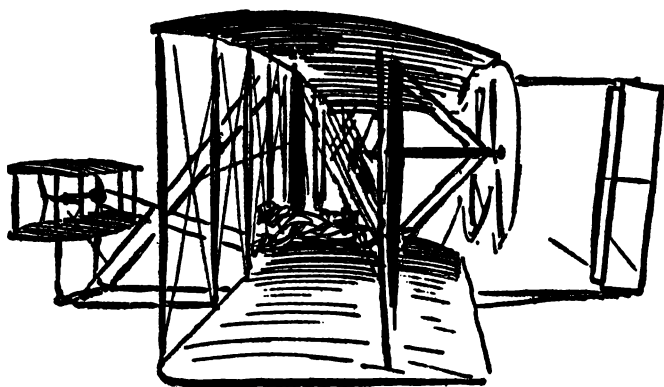
## ■ Science and Technology

Revolutionary changes came not only to art and letters, but also to physics, which was commonly regarded as the most certain and reliable field of knowledge. Matter, energy, gravity—so many forces of nature had been explained that optimistic scientists believed man's knowledge of basic physical principles to be almost complete. However, at least one troublesome problem remained, the question of how energy (light, electricity, magnetism) traveled through a vacuum. The dominant explanation asserted that matter and energy existed in an all

pervasive "ether" which occupied space between atoms. In 1887, Albert A. Michelson and Edward W. Morley (Americans) ran extremely thorough experiments on the earth's passage through the ether without finding any evidences of the existence of this mysterious ether. Wilhelm Röntgen raised more problems for accepted notions of matter and energy when he discovered that "X-rays" passed through objects which could not be penetrated by light. Joseph J. Thompson (English) answered one question and raised a hundred new problems by describing X-rays as streams of electrons, particles smaller than the atom (hitherto regarded by scientists as the smallest unit of matter). Pierre Curie and his Polish wife, Marie Skłodowska Curie, discovered new radioactive elements such as radium which emitted energy rays in the slow process of "breaking down" and becoming simpler elements. Scientists who had relied upon the laws of the conservation of matter and energy (matter and energy could neither be created nor destroyed) were astonished to learn that it was possible to transform matter into energy and one element into another element. Max Planck's "Quantum" theory (light traveled in uneven spurts or quanta rather than in a continuous stream) suggested the failure of Newton's natural forces to operate as uniformly and universally as had been supposed. Scientists encountered the microscopic world of sub-atomic particles. Ernest Rutherford (English) suggested that each atom contained a nucleus with protons and other central particles surrounded by distant electrons (similar to a solar system of a central sun and its peripheral planets). Eventually, Werner Heisenberg ("principle of indeterminacy") discovered that the more precisely the investigator measured the speed of an electron, the less certain was his determination of the particle's position. Although the precise nature of matter and energy was still unknown, Albert Einstein provided an answer as early as 1905 and 1916 to several important questions in the "special theory of relativity" which held that space and time were relative rather than absolute entities. Matter traveling at a greater rate of speed would become "heavier," and an object moving at the speed of light would be transformed into "pure" energy (this was the central meaning of Einstein's celebrated formula,  $E=MC^2$ ). The implications of the new discoveries were almost beyond the imagination, for an ounce of matter properly converted into energy could produce more power than thousands of tons of coal. The basic laboratory problem was the way to "split" or "smash" unstable atoms in order to begin

THE CURIES





**THE WRIGHT BROTHERS' PLANE**



**ORVILLE WRIGHT**



**WILBUR WRIGHT**

the process of converting matter into energy. E. O. Lawrence (American) invented a cyclotron or atom smasher; Otto Hahn split the uranium atom; and in the 1930's physicists gradually worked out a solution for the problem. Scientists from all over the world, including many European refugees from Hitler's tyranny, were organized during World War II by the American government. The results, ranging from the macabre to the miraculous, included the destruction of Hiroshima (city with a population over 300,000, of whom about 80,000 were killed), in August, 1945; the postwar threat of atomic destruction; and the promise that man's future might be brightened with the incredible new source of industrial power.

In biology as in physics, the modern era has been a great age of discovery. The pioneer nineteenth-century work of Gregor Mendel (Austrian) in genetics and Theodor Schwann's (German) investigations of the basic unit of living matter, the cell, was followed by an impressive series of discoveries. Thomas H. Morgan (American) demonstrated with many generations of short-lived fruit flies the ways in which biological characteristics were inherited; and a number of brilliant geneticists explained the nature of chromosomes and their component genes, the carriers of heredity in the living cell. The same set of genes is usually passed from generation to generation but sometimes altered genes appear ("chance mutations"), and Herman J. Muller (American) suggested the possibility of controlling heredity by causing mutations. In recent years farmers, stock breeders, and biologists have made thousands of practical applications of the new theories. Even more astonishing progress has been made in medicine. The "microbe hunter," Robert Koch (German), has been followed by hundreds of men in the search for specific germs which caused specific diseases and for means of combating each type of germ. Alexander Fleming (British) discovered penicillin, and his successors during the 1930's and 1940's discovered a host of antibiotic "wonder drugs" for the cure of general infections. Hormones, important chemical agents in the body, and vitamins essential to human health were produced artificially and applied to the cure and prevention of disease. Insulin for diabetics and cortisone for arthritis made life less painful for millions of people.

Industrial technology transformed the very conditions of human life. Inventors at the turn of the century such as Wilbur and Orville Wright with their airplane flights at Kitty Hawk, organizers of mass production such as Henry Ford with his De-



troit assembly lines, and all of the inventors and industrial organizers in England, Germany, France, and the United States before 1914 were prophets of the industrial world that has developed during recent decades. The mass production of automobiles, radios, trains, planes, and television sets has covered the Western world with a vast transportation and communication network. Chemists have created synthetic and plastic substitutes for cotton, wool, silk, glass, wood, metals, and a hundred other substances as well as materials bearing a strength, resilience, or plasticity never known in natural products. During and after World War II, machines were devised which aided or actually performed the work of men in surprising new ways. Some of the new instruments and methods were radar, electronic detectors, weather recording instruments, calculating machines, and electronic brains. The possibilities of automation and atomic energy were explored during the 1950's, and the decades of the 1960's and 1970's promise dazzling technical advances.

## ■ East and West

Western machines, scientific discoveries and political ideas profoundly influenced the oriental world in the twentieth century. Foreign influences came to each Asiatic area in a different way. Religions and cultural ideas were not so easily absorbed. After centuries of effort Christians had made only modest gains, and in many Eastern nations the old religions held their own. Social ideas had a greater impact—in China the secular religion of communism threatened to destroy the old beliefs completely, and in India millions abandoned some age-old Hindu practices. Many Asians wished to combine native traditions and foreign ideas in syntheses that could be presented to the world. The Indian themes of Sir Rabindranath Tagore in plays, novels, and poems won Western audiences and a Nobel Prize (1913) for Tagore. Hu Shih, a Chinese disciple of John Dewey, created and used effectively a new written language based on popular speech and rejected the old complex, extremely expressive system of characters which had made writing and government the monopoly of an aristocratic few. Japanese artists tempered their rich traditions with Western ideas—the brilliant prints of Onchi Koshira, for example, reflected the influence of Kandinsky. Some Asians tried to combine Eastern and Western ideas for the millions in the fashion of the Indo-Chinese Cao Dai leaders who blended Christian and

3000 Million

2500 Million

2000 Million

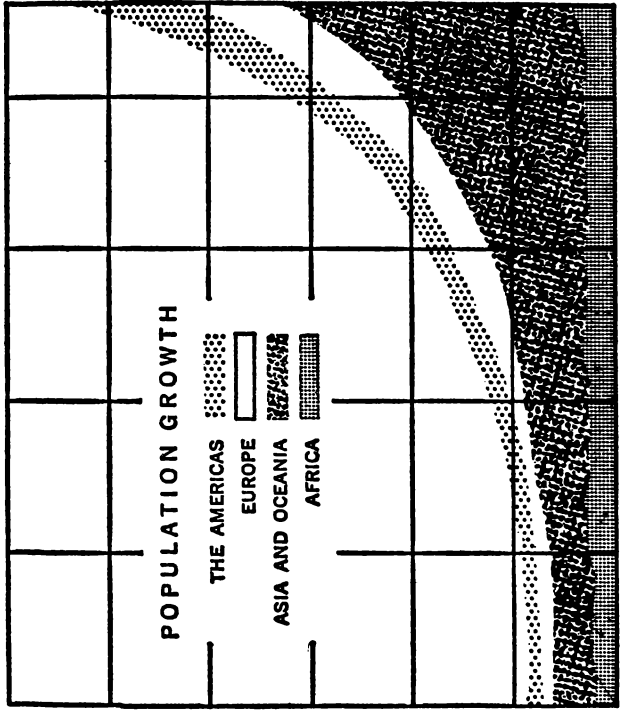
1500 Million

1000 Million

500 Million

### POPULATION GROWTH

- THE AMERICAS 
- EUROPE 
- ASIA AND OCEANIA 
- AFRICA 



1500 1600 1700 1800 1900 1958



THE PEOPLES OF THE WORLD

Buddhist ideas to create a new mass movement. Asian intellectuals hoped to retain older ethical and cultural ideas while absorbing the science and technology of the West. A score of brilliant twentieth-century scientists were Orientals. Hideki Yukawa (Japan) won a Nobel Prize (1949) for predicting the existence of an undiscovered subatomic particle (meson); Sir Jagadis Chandra Bose (India) invented an important instrument for measuring plant growth; and Chinese scientists made many important contributions to world science.

In general, the peoples of the world drew closer to each other in the twentieth century; hundreds of international conferences provided for the exchange of views between physicists from India and Great Britain, Japan and America, or Indonesia and the Soviet Union; during the 1950's Japanese intellectuals read the novels of William Faulkner and Albert Camus; and Chinese and Japanese prints became a part of the intellectual heritage of many Westerners. A world culture which was primarily Western seemed to be in the making, especially on the popular level. American mass culture with its movies, television productions, comics, popular music, inexpensive picture magazines, and its variety of consumer goods spread across Europe, mixed with European elements and penetrated to the far corners of Asia. Desert nomads in Saudi Arabia watched the passing of King Ibn Saud's cream-colored Cadillacs; Indonesians curiously noted the clothes and style of Marilyn Monroe on the movie screens; African Bantu tribesmen listened to American rock and roll records blaring from radios; upper class Indians wore fashionable English suits; and Middle Eastern native officials purchased Volkswagens from Germany.

The Western world, and particularly the United States, possessed economies which made possible a level of consumption beyond the wildest dreams of all the social prophets of the past. However, the West could not continue to enjoy its material abundance unless it averted the dangers of an atomic war and helped Afro-Asian nations to attain a measure of prosperity. At a time when the illiterate "backward" masses were awakening to new desires for medicine, education, and consumer goods, governments found it difficult to cope with the population explosion and maintain decent levels of life for populations which increased so rapidly. China with Soviet aid ruthlessly drove its people toward the construction of an industrial society to make the attainment of these goals possible, while Americans and Russians aided the Indians to industrialize by peaceful democratic means.



## ■ JFK and the New Frontier

Senator John F. Kennedy, candidate of the Democratic party, won the election for the presidency of the United States in 1960 by a narrow margin, and became the youngest man (43 years of age) ever elected to that office in the country's history. In his inaugural address he pledged support to the United Nations, continued loyalty to our allies and aid to the underdeveloped nations. Kennedy called on all citizens to join in the efforts of his administration. "Ask not what your country can do for you," the President urged. "Ask what you can do for your country."

President Kennedy served notice to the world that the United States was anxious to form a "grand and global alliance" to fight tyranny, disease, poverty and war in the world, but was also willing "to pay any price, bear any burden, meet any hardship, support any friend, oppose any foe to assure the survival and the success of liberty."

President Kennedy and his administration will be faced with many grave and challenging problems in the 1960's. Although numerous domestic situations require immediate attention the United States, as the leading power in the West, will be expected to help close the gap between the living standards of the prosperous and self-sufficient nations and those of the poorer countries of the world.

In April, 1961, the Russians orbited the world's first satellite space ship with a man aboard. Major Yuri Gagarin in the space ship Vostov (East) circled the globe in 108 minutes and was successfully returned to earth. The United States continued its efforts in the exploration of space, and reaffirmed its determination to find ways to control the destructive uses of nuclear power.

## IMPORTANT HISTORICAL FIGURES AND THEIR DATES

Abd-al-Wahhab al-Sha'ranl.....	Mystic of Islam, Sufi.....	d. 1565
Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, Sir..	Political Leader, Nigeria.....	1912-
Acheson, Dean .....	U. S. Secretary of State.....	1893-
Adam, James .....	English architect.....	1730-94
Adam, Robert .....	English architect .....	1728-92
Adams, John .....	President, United States .....	1735-1826
Adams, John Quincy.....	President, United States.....	1767-1848
Adams, Samuel .....	American Revolutionary patriot.....	1722-1803
Addison, Joseph .....	English essayist .....	1672-1719
Adenauer, Konrad .....	German chancellor .....	1876-
Agriicola, Georgius (George Bauer) .....	German mineralogist .....	1494-1555
Akbar the Great.....	Emperor of Hindustan.....	1542-1605
Albuquerque, Afonso de.....	Portuguese colonial administrator.....	1453-1515
Alembert, Jean d'.....	French mathematician .....	c1717-83
Alexander VI (Rodrigo Borgia) .....	Pope .....	c1431-1503
Alexander I .....	Tsar of Russia.....	1777-1825
Alexander II .....	Tsar of Russia.....	1818-81
Alexander III .....	Tsar of Russia.....	1845-94
Alexander the Great.....	King of Macedon.....	356-23 B.C.
Alexandra .....	Tsarina of Russia.....	1872-1918
Allen, Ethan .....	American Revolutionary patriot.....	1738-89
Almeida, Francisco de.....	Portuguese naval commander.....	c1450-1510
Alva, Duke of (Fernando Alvarez de Toledo)	Spanish general .....	1508-82
André, John .....	English officer, spy.....	1751-80
Andros, Sir Edmund.....	English colonial governor.....	1637-1714
Anna Ivanovna .....	Empress of Russia.....	1693-1704
Anne .....	Queen of Great Britain.....	1665-1714
Aquinas, Thomas .....	Italian theologian .....	1225-74
Ariosto, Lodovico .....	Italian writer, dramatist.....	1474-1532
Aristarchus of Samos.....	Greek astronomer .....	c3d c.B.C.
Aristotle .....	Greek philosopher .....	383-22 B.C.
Arkwright, Richard .....	English inventor .....	1732-92
Arnold, Benedict .....	American general, spy.....	1741-1801
Arnold, Matthew .....	English writer .....	1822-88
Arthur, Chester Alan.....	President, United States.....	1830-96
Attlee, Clement .....	British Prime Minister .....	1883-
Auden, Wystan Hugh.....	American (English-born) poet.....	1907-
Audubon, John James.....	American ornithologist, painter....	1785-1851
Aurangzeb .....	Emperor of Hindustan.....	1618-1707
Baber (Zahir ud-Din Mohammed)....	Mogul emperor .....	1483-1530
Bach, Johann Sebastian.....	German composer .....	1685-1750
Bajazet II .....	Turkish sultan .....	1447-1512
Balboa, Vasco Núñez de.....	Spanish conquistador .....	c1475-1519
Baldwin, Stanley .....	British Prime Minister.....	1867-1947
Balzac, Honoré de.....	French writer .....	1799-1850
Bartók, Béla .....	Hungarian composer .....	1881-1945
Basho, Matsuo .....	Japanese writer .....	1643-94
Bazaine, Achille .....	French army commander.....	1811-88
Beauharnais, Josephine de.....	Empress of France.....	1763-1814
Beaumont, Francis .....	English dramatist .....	1584-1616
Beckmann, Max .....	German artist .....	1884-1950
Beethoven, Ludwig van.....	German composer .....	1770-1827
Behelm, Martin .....	German mapmaker .....	c1436-1506
Bellarmino, Robert .....	Italian cardinal, writer.....	1542-1621

Benes, Eduard .....	President, Czechoslovakia .....	1884-1948
Ben-Gurion, David .....	Prime Minister, Israel.....	1886-
Bentham, Jeremy .....	English philosopher, political theorist .....	1748-1832
Berdyaev, Nicholas .....	Russian philosopher .....	1874-1948
Berg, Alban .....	Austrian composer .....	1885-1936
Berlia, Laurenti .....	Russian political leader.....	1899-1953
Berlioz, Hector .....	French composer .....	1803-69
Bernini, Giovanni .....	Italian artist .....	1598-1680
Bierut, Boleslaw .....	President, Poland .....	1892-
Bihzad .....	Persian artist .....	c1450-1536
Bismarck, Otto von .....	Prussian statesman .....	1815-98
Black, Joseph .....	Scottish chemist .....	1728-99
Blanc, Louis .....	French author, politician.....	1811-82
Blanco, Andrea .....	Italian mapmaker .....	fl. 15-16th c.
Blücher, Gebhardt von.....	Prussian field marshal.....	1742-1819
Blum, Léon .....	French socialist, statesman.....	1872-1950
Boccaccio, Giovanni .....	Italian writer .....	1313-75
Boccardo, Girolamo .....	Italian political economist.....	1829-1904
Bock, Hieronymus (Tragus).....	German botanist .....	1494-1554
Bodin, Jean .....	French political theorist.....	1530-96
Boerhaave, Hermann .....	Dutch physician .....	1668-1738
Bolívar, Simón .....	Venezuelan; South American liberator.....	1783-1830
Boleyn, Anne .....	English queen .....	c1507-36
Bonaparte, Napoleon (Buonaparte) .....	see Napoleon	
Borgia, Cesare .....	Italian cardinal; military, political leader.....	c1476-1507
Boscán Almogaver, Juan.....	Spanish poet .....	c1493-1542
Bose, Sir Jagadis Chandra.....	Indian scientist .....	1858-1937
Botha, Louis .....	South African soldier, politician.....	1862-1919
Botticelli, Sandro .....	Italian artist .....	c1440-1510
Boucher, François .....	French artist .....	1703-70
Boulanger, Georges .....	French general .....	1837-91
Bourguiba, Habib Ben Ali.....	President, Tunisia .....	1904-
Bowditch, Nathaniel .....	American scientist .....	1773-1838
Boyle, Robert .....	British scientist .....	1627-91
Braddock, Edward .....	British general .....	1695-1755
Bradford, William .....	Governor, Plymouth Colony.....	1595-1657
Brahe, Tycho .....	Danish astronomer .....	1546-1601
Brahms, Johannes .....	German composer .....	1833-97
Braque, Georges .....	French artist .....	1882-
Brecht, Bertolt .....	German playwright, poet.....	1898-1956
Brewster, William .....	Religious leader, Plymouth Colony.....	1567-1644
Brown, John .....	American abolitionist .....	1800-59
Browning, Robert .....	English poet .....	1812-89
Brueghel, Pieter the Elder.....	Flemish artist .....	c1520-69
Brunelleschi, Filippo .....	Italian architect .....	1337-1446
Bryan, William Jennings.....	American political leader.....	1860-1925
Buchanan, James .....	President, United States.....	1791-1868
Budé, Guillaume .....	French scholar .....	1468-1540
Buffon, Georges .....	French naturalist .....	1707-88
Bulgankin, Nikolai .....	Russian political leader.....	1896-
Bunyan, John .....	English writer .....	1628-88
Burgoyne, John .....	British general .....	1722-92
Buridan, Jean .....	French scholar .....	d. after 1358
Burke, Edmund .....	British statesman, orator, writer.....	1729-97
Burns, Robert .....	Scottish poet .....	1759-96
Burr, Aaron .....	American political leader.....	1756-1836
Byrd, William .....	English composer .....	c1540-1623
Byron, Lord George Gordon.....	English poet .....	1788-1824
Cabot, John .....	Italian navigator .....	1450-98
Cabot, Sebastian .....	Italian navigator .....	c1476-1557
Cabral, Pedro .....	Portuguese navigator .....	c1460-c1526
Cabrillo, Juan .....	Portuguese navigator.....	d. 1543
Calder, Alexander .....	American sculptor .....	1898-
Calderón, Pedro de la Barca....	Spanish dramatist, poet.....	1600-81
Calvert, George (Lord Baltimore) .....	English founder of Maryland Colony .....	c1580-1632
Calvin, John .....	French Protestant reformer.....	1509-64

Camões, Luis de.....	Portuguese poet .....	1524-80
Camus, Albert .....	French writer .....	1913-60
Canaletto, Antonio .....	Italian artist .....	1697-1768
Cano, Juan Sebastián del.....	Spanish navigator .....	c1460-1526
Cardano, Geronimo .....	Italian mathematician .....	1501-76
Carnegie, Andrew .....	American industrialist .....	1835-1919
Cartier, Jacques .....	French explorer .....	1491-1557
Cartwright, Edmund .....	English inventor .....	1743-1823
Carver, John .....	Governor, Plymouth Colony.....	c1576-1621
Castiglione, Baldassare, Conte.....	Italian courtier, writer.....	1478-1529
Castro, Fidel .....	Cuban revolutionary leader.....	1926-
Catherine of Aragon .....	English queen .....	1485-1536
Catherine I .....	Russian queen .....	c1684-1727
Catherine II, the Great.....	Russian empress .....	1729-96
Catherine de Medici .....	French queen .....	1519-89
Caus, Salomon de.....	French physicist .....	c1576-1626
Cavendish, Henry .....	English chemist .....	1731-1810
Cavignac, Louis .....	French general .....	1802-57
Gavour, Camillo di.....	Italian statesman .....	1810-61
Caxton, William .....	English printer .....	c1422-91
Cellini, Benvenuto .....	Italian artist, writer.....	1500-71
Cervantes, Miguel de Saavedra.....	Spanish writer .....	1547-1616
Cetewayo .....	Zulu king .....	d. 1884
Cézanne, Paul .....	French artist .....	1839-1906
Chambonnieres, Jacques de.....	French harpsichordist, composer.....	1602-c72
Chamberlain, Neville .....	English statesman .....	1869-1940
Champlain, Samuel de.....	French explorer .....	c1567-1635
Chardin, Jean .....	French artist .....	1699-1779
Charles I (Stuart).....	King of England.....	1606-49
Charles II (Stuart).....	King of England.....	1630-85
Charles VIII .....	King of France .....	1470-98
Charles IX .....	King of France.....	1550-74
Charles X .....	King of France.....	1757-1836
Charles V .....	Holy Roman Emperor.....	1500-58
Charles VI .....	Holy Roman Emperor.....	1685-1740
Charles III .....	King of Spain.....	1716-88
Charles IV .....	King of Spain.....	1748-1819
Charles XII .....	King of Sweden.....	1682-1718
Chateaubriand, François .....	French writer .....	1768-1848
Chaucer, Geoffrey .....	English poet .....	c1340-1400
Chiang, Kai-shek .....	Chinese general, statesman.....	1886-
Ch'ien Lung .....	Emperor of China.....	1711-99
Chikamatsu, Monzaemon .....	Japanese dramatist .....	c1653-1724
Chippendale, Thomas .....	English cabinetmaker .....	c1718-79
Chopin, Frédéric .....	Polish-French composer .....	1810-49
Chou En-lai .....	Chinese political leader.....	1898-
Chou Shang-kuan .....	Chinese artist .....	1664-1752
Christian III .....	King of Denmark.....	1503-59
Christian IV .....	King of Denmark.....	1577-1648
Churchill, Sir Winston.....	Prime Minister, Great Britain.....	1874-
Claude Lorrain (Gellée).....	French artist .....	1600-82
Clay, Henry .....	American political leader.....	1777-1852
Clemenceau, Georges .....	Premier, France .....	1841-1929
Cleveland, Grover .....	President, United States.....	1837-1908
Clive, Robert .....	British general, empire bullder.....	1725-74
Coeur, Jacques .....	French banker, merchant.....	c1395-1456
Colbert, Jean .....	French financier .....	1619-83
Cole, Thomas .....	American artist .....	1801-48
Coleridge, Samuel Taylor.....	English writer .....	1772-1834
Coligny, Gaspard .....	French Huguenot .....	1519-72
Columbus, Christopher .....	Italian navigator; discoverer of America.....	c1446-1506
Confucius .....	Chinese philosopher .....	c550-478 B.C.
Congreve, William .....	English dramatist .....	1670-1729
Constable, John .....	English artist .....	1776-1837
Constantine XI .....	Byzantine emperor .....	1394-1453
Cook, Captain James.....	English explorer .....	1728-79
Coolidge, Calvin .....	President, United States.....	1872-1933
Copernicus, Nicolaus .....	Polish astronomer .....	1473-1543
Cordus, Valerius .....	Italian botanist .....	1515-44
Corelli, Arcangelo .....	Italian composer .....	1653-1713
Cornellie, Pierre .....	French dramatist .....	1606-84



Cornwallis, Charles	English soldier, statesman	1738-1805
Coronado, Francisco de	Spanish explorer	1510-54
Correggio, Antonio	Italian artist	1494-1534
Cortés, Hernando	Spanish conquistador	1485-1547
Cosa, Juan de la	Spanish navigator	c1460-1510
Cotten, John	Puritan theologian, administrator	1584-1652
Couperin, François	French composer	1668-1733
Coverdale, Miles	English biblical scholar	c1488-1569
Cranmer, Thomas	English reformer	1489-1556
Cromwell, Oliver	English revolutionary leader	1599-1658
Curie, Marie Skłodowska	Polish-French physicist, chemist	1867-1934
Curie, Pierre	French physicist	1859-1906
Daladier, Édouard	Premier, France	1884-
Dalhousie, Lord (James A. Ramsay)	British colonial administrator	1812-60
Dali, Salvador	Spanish painter	1904-
Dalton, John	English chemist	1766-1844
Dante, Alighieri	Italian poet	1265-1321
Danton, Georges Jacques	French political leader	1759-94
Darwin, Charles	English scientist	1809-82
David, Jacques	French artist	1748-1825
Dávila y Padilla, Agustín	Mexican historian	1562-1604
Davis, Jefferson	President, Confederate States of America	1803-89
Dawes, Charles G.	American financier, diplomat	1865-1951
Debs, Eugene V.	American labor leader	1855-1926
Defoe, Daniel	English writer	c1660-1731
Degas, Edgar	French artist	1834-1917
De Gaulle, Charles	French general, premier	1890-
Dekker, Thomas	English dramatist	c1572-c1632
Delacroix, Eugène	French artist	1799-1863
Descartes, René	French philosopher, mathematician	1596-1650
De Soto, Hernando	Spanish explorer	c1500-42
Dewey, John	American philosopher, educator	1859-1952
Dickens, Charles	English writer	1812-70
Diderot, Denis	French encyclopedist, philosopher	1713-84
Dimitrov, Georgi	Bulgarian political leader	1903-
Disraeli, Benjamin	Prime Minister, Great Britain	1804-81
Dominic, Saint	Founder of Dominican Order	1170-1221
Donatello	Italian sculptor	c1386-1466
Donne, John	English poet	1573-1631
Dostoyevski, Feodor	Russian writer	1821-81
Douglas, Stephen	American political leader	1813-61
Drake, Sir Francis	English navigator, admiral	c1540-96
Drebbel, Cornelis van	Dutch scientist	1572-1634
Dreiser, Theodore	American writer	1871-1945
Dreyfus, Alfred	French army officer	1859-1935
Dryden, John	English poet, dramatist	1631-1700
Du Barry, Comtesse (Marie Bécu)	Mistress of Louis XV, France	1746-93
Duchamp, Marcel	French artist	1887-
Dudintsev, Vladimir	Russian writer	1918-
Dulles, John Foster	U.S. Secretary of State	1888-1959
Dupleix, Joseph	French colonial administrator	1697-1763
Dürer, Albrecht	German artist	1471-1528
Durkheim, Émile	French sociologist	1858-1917
Duvergier de Hauranne, Jean	French theologian	1581-1643
Dyer, Reginald	English general	1864-1927
Eakins, Thomas	American artist	1844-1916
Eck, Johann	German theologian	1486-1543
Eden, Sir Anthony	Prime Minister, Great Britain	1897-
Edward VI	King of England	1537-53
Einstein, Albert	German-American physicist	1879-1955
Eisenhower, Dwight D.	President, United States	1890-
Elsner, Kurt	German political leader	1867-1919
Eliot, John	American clergyman, lexicographer	1604-90
Eliot, Thomas Stearns	American-British poet	1888-
Elizabeth I	Queen of England	1533-1603
Elizabeth II	Queen of Great Britain	1926-
Elizabeth I	Empress of Russia	1709-62
Emerson, Ralph Waldo	American philosopher, writer	1803-82

Encina, Juan del	Spanish poet, dramatist	c1469-1533/4
Endicott, John	Colonial governor, Massachusetts	c1589-1665
Engels, Friedrich	German political, social philosopher	1820-95
Epstein, Jacob	American-British sculptor	1880-1959
Erasmus, Desideri	Dutch scholar, humanist	1469-1536
Ericson, Leif	Norse explorer	c. 1000
Eugene, Prince of Savoy	Austrian general	1663-1736
Fahrenheit, Gabriel	German physicist	1686-1736
Faisal II	King of Iraq	1935-60
Faraday, Michael	British scientist	1791-1867
Farnese, Alexander	Italian general (for Spain)	1545-92
Farouk	King of Egypt	1920-
Faulkner, William	American writer	1897-
Fauré, Gabriel	French composer	1845-1925
Fénelon, François	French writer	1651-1715
Ferdinand I of Austria	Holy Roman Emperor	1503-64
Ferdinand II	Holy Roman Emperor	1587-1637
Ferdinand V	King of Spain	1474-1516
Ferdinand VI	King of Spain	1712-59
Ferdinand VII	King of Spain	1784-1833
Ferry, Jules	French colonial administrator	1832-93
Fichte, Johann	German philosopher	1762-1814
Ficino, Marsilio	Italian philosopher	1433-99
Fielding, Henry	English writer	1707-54
Fillmore, Millard	President, United States	1800-74
Fleming, Sir Alexander	British scientist	1881-1960
Fletcher, John	English dramatist	1579-1625
Fiery, André de	French cardinal, statesman	1653-1743
Fontaine, Jean de la	see La Fontaine	
Ford, Henry	American industrialist	1863-1947
Fouquet, Jean	French artist	c1416-80
Fourier, Charles	French social philosopher	1772-1837
Fox, Charles	British statesman	1749-1806
Fox, George	Founder of the Quakers	1624-91
Fragonard, Jean	French artist	1732-1806
Francis I	King of France	1494-1547
Francis II	Holy Roman Emperor and Emperor of Austria as Francis I	1768-1835
Francis, Saint, of Assisi	Founder of Franciscan Order	1182-1226
Francis Borgia, Saint (Francesco)	Spanish Jesuit	c1510-72
Francis de Sales, Saint	French theologian	1567-1622
Franco, Francisco	Spanish dictator	1892-
Franklin, Benjamin	American statesman, scientist, writer	1706-90
Franz Ferdinand	Austrian Archduke	1863-1914
Franz Joseph	Emperor of Austria	1830-1916
Frederick II, the Great	King of Prussia	1712-86
Frederick III	King of Prussia	1688-1740
Frederick I	King of Denmark, Norway	c1471-1533
Frederick IX	King of Denmark	1899-
Frederick V	Elector of the Palatinate	1596-1632
Frederick William II	King of Prussia	1744-97
Frederick William III	King of Prussia	1770-1840
Frederick William IV	King of Prussia	1795-1861
Frederick William of Brandenburg	The Great Elector	1620-88
Freud, Sigmund	Austrian psychoanalyst	1859-1939
Frobisher, Martin	English explorer	c1535-94
Fugger, Jacob	Swabian banker, merchant	1459-1525
Fulton, Robert	American inventor	1765-1815
Fust, Johann	German printer	c1400-66
Gabriele, Giovanni	Italian composer	1557-c1612
Gage, Thomas	British general	1721-87
Gainsborough, Thomas	English artist	1727-88
Galileo	Italian scientist	1564-1642
Galvani, Luigi	Italian scientist	1737-98
Gama, Vasco da	Portuguese navigator	c1469-1524
Gambetta, Leon	French statesman	1832-82
Gandhi, Mohandas	Hindu nationalist leader (Mahatma)	1869-1948

Garciلاسco de la Vega	Peruvian soldier, historian	1501-36
Garfield, James Abram	President, United States	1831-81
Garibaldi, Giuseppe	Italian patriot	1807-82
Gaspari, Alcide de	Italian statesman	1881-
Gates, Horatio	American general	c1728-1806
Gauguin, Paul	French artist	1848-1903
Genét, Edmund	French diplomat	1763-1834
Genghis Khan	Mongol emperor	1162-1227
George I	King of Great Britain and Ireland	1660-1727
George II	King of Great Britain and Ireland	1683-1760
George III	King of Great Britain and Ireland	1738-1820
George, David Lloyd	see Lloyd George	
Gerhard, Johann	German theologian	1582-1637
Ghiberti, Lorenzo	Italian sculptor	c1378-1455
Gibbs, James	English architect	1682-1754
Gilbert, Humphrey	English navigator, explorer	c1539-83
Gilbert, William	English physicist	1540-1603
Globerti, Vincenzo	Italian philosopher, political leader	1801-52
Giorgione (Barbarelli)	Italian artist	c1478-1510
Glotto di Bondone	Italian artist	c1276-1337
Gladstone, William	Prime Minister, Great Britain	1809-98
Gluck, Christoph	German composer	1714-87
Godfrey, Thomas	American mathematician	1704-49
Godunov, Boris	Tsar of Russia	c1551-1605
Goethe, Johann Wolfgang von	German writer, scientist	1749-1832
Goldsmith, Oliver	English writer	1728-74
Gomułka, Oskar Wladyslaw	Polish political leader	c1908-
Gongora, Luis	Spanish poet	1561-1627
Gorges, Sir Ferdinando	English colonial proprietor	c1566-1647
Gottwald, Klement	President, Czechoslovakia	1896-1953
Govind Singh	Sikh leader	1666-1708
Goya y Lucientes, Francisco de	Spanish artist	1746-1828
Grant, Ulysses Simpson	President, United States	1822-85
Greco, El (Domenicos Theotocopoulos)	Greek-Spanish artist	c1541-1614
Gregory XIII	Pope; introduced Gregorian calendar	1502-85
Gregory XV	Pope	1554-1623
Greenville, George	English statesman	1712-70
Gris, Juan	Spanish artist	1887-1927
Gropius, Walter	German-American architect	1883-
Grosz, George	German artist	1893-1959
Grotewohl, Otto	German political leader	1894-
Grünwald, Mathias	German artist	c1480-1530
Guardi, Francesco	Italian artist	1712-93
Guizot, François	French historian, statesman	1787-1874
Gustav VI	King of Sweden	1882-
Gustavus Adolphus	King of Sweden	1594-1632
Gustavus Vasa	King of Sweden	1496-1560
Gutenberg, Johann	German printer	c1400-c1468
Hadley, John	English inventor	1682-1744
Hahn, Otto	German physicist	1879-
Hakutell Ishii	Japanese printmaker	1882-
Halley, Edmund	English astronomer	1656-1742
Hamdi, Hamd-Allah	Turkish poet	1448-1509
Hamilton, Alexander	American statesman	1757-1804
Han, Ulrich	German printer of music	f. 15th c.
Handel, George Friedrich	German-English composer	1685-1759
Harding, Warren Gamaliel	President, United States	1865-1923
Hargreaves, James	English inventor	d. 1778
Harris, Townsend	American diplomat	1804-78
Harrison, Benjamin	President, United States	1833-1901
Harrison, William Henry	President, United States	1773-1841
Harunobu, Suzuki	Japanese printmaker, artist	c1720-70
Harvey, William	English scientist	1578-1657
Hasegawa, Tohaku	Japanese artist	1539-1610
Haukebee, Francis	British colonial administrator	1732-1818
Hauptmann, Gerhart	English scientist	d. c1713
Hauptmann, Gerhart	German dramatist	1862-1946
Hawthorne, Nathaniel	American writer	1806-64
Hay, John	American diplomat	1838-1905
Haydn, Joseph	Austrian composer	1732-1809

Hayes, Rutherford Birchard	President, United States	1822-93
Hegel, Georg	German philosopher	1770-1831
Heidegger, Martin	German philosopher	1889-
Helsenberg, Werner	German physicist	1901-
Hemingway, Ernest	American writer	1898-
Henry VII	King of England	1457-1509
Henry VIII	King of England	1491-1547
Henry II	King of France	1519-59
Henry III	King of France	1551-89
Henry IV (of Navarre)	King of France	1553-1610
Henry the Navigator	Prince of Portugal	c1392-1460
Henry, Patrick	American revolutionary leader	1736-99
Hepplewhite, George	English cabinetmaker	d. 1786
Herder, Johann von	German writer	1744-1803
Herrera, Juan	Spanish architect	d. 1597
Herrick, Robert	English poet	1591-1674
Herschel, Sir William	English astronomer	1738-1822
Hill, James	American industrialist	1838-1916
Hindemith, Paul	German composer	1895-
Hindenburg, Paul von	German general, president	1847-1934
Hirohito	Emperor of Japan	1901-
Hireshige, Ando	Japanese printmaker, artist	1797-1858
Hiss, Alger	American public official	1904-
Hitler, Adolf	German Nazi dictator	1889-1945
Ho Chi Minh	Indochinese political leader (Viet-Nam)	c1892-
Hogarth, William	English artist	1697-1764
Hokusai, Katsushika	Japanese printmaker, artist	1760-1849
Holbein, Hans the Elder	German artist	c1460-1524
Holbein, Hans the Younger	German artist	1497-1543
Homer, Winslow	American artist	1836-1910
Hooch, Pieter de	Dutch artist	c1629-c81
Hooke, Robert	English physicist	1635-1703
Hooker, Thomas	Founder of Connecticut Colony	c1586-1647
Hoover, Herbert	President, United States	1874-
Horrocks, Jeremiah	English astronomer	c1617-41
Howard, Charles (Earl of Nottingham)	English seaman, courtier	1536-1624
Howard, Henry (Earl of Surrey)	English poet	c1517-47
Hsien Feng (Wen Tsung Hsien)	Emperor of China	d. 1861
Hsu Wei	Chinese artist	1521-93
Huayna Capac	Inca ruler of Peru	c1450-1525
Hudson, Henry	English navigator, explorer	d. after 1611
Hugo, Victor	French writer	1802-85
Hus, John	Czech theologian	c1369-1415
Hu Shih	Chinese diplomat, scholar	1891-
Hussein I	King of Jordan	1935-
Hutchinson, Anne	English colonist in America	1591-1643
Hutten, Ulrich von	German humanist	1488-1523
Huygens, Christian	Dutch scientist	1629-95
Ibn-Saud, Abdul-Aziz I	King of Saudi Arabia	c1880-1953
Ibsen, Henrik	Norwegian dramatist	1828-1906
Ichikawa Danjuro I	Japanese actor	1660-1704
Innocent III	Pope	1161-1218
Innocent XI	Pope	1611-89
Isabella	Queen of Spain	1451-1504
Ito, Hirobumi, Prince	Premier, Japan	1841-1909
Ivan III, the Great	Tsar of Russia	d. 1505
Ivan V	Tsar of Russia	1666-96
Ivan VI	Tsar of Russia	1740-64
Jackson, Andrew	President, United States	1767-1845
Jahangir	Mogul emperor	1605-27
James I (James VI of Scotland)	King of England, Scotland, Ireland	1566-1625
James II	King of England, Scotland, Ireland	1633-1701
James, Henry	American writer	1843-1916
James, William	American philosopher, psychologist	1842-1910
Jameson, Leander	Scottish physician	1853-1917
Jami	Persian poet	1414-92
Jannequin, Clément	French composer	1485-1560
Jansen, Cornelia	Dutch theologian	1585-1638
Janssen, Zacharias	Dutch inventor	f. c1590

Jaspers, Karl	German psychiatrist, philosopher	1883-
Jefferson, Thomas	President, United States	1743-1826
Jenner, Edward	English physician	1749-1823
Jiménez, Marcos Pérez	see Pérez Jiménez, Marcos	
Jinnah, Mohammed Ali	Governor General of Pakistan	1876-1948
Jodl, Alfred	German general	c1892-1946
Johnson, Andrew	President, United States	1808-75
Johnson, Samuel	English lexicographer, writer	1709-84
Jones, Inigo	English architect	1573-1652
Jonson, Ben	English dramatist, poet	c1573-1637
Joseph II of Austria	Holy Roman Emperor	1741-90
Joseph I	King of Portugal	1715-77
Josquin des Prés	Flemish composer	c1445-1521
Joyce, James	Irish writer	1882-1941
Juliana	Queen of the Netherlands	1909-
Julius II	Pope	1487-1555
Kabir	Hindu religious reformer	1440-1518
Kafka, Franz	Austrian writer	1883-1924
Kandinsky, Vasili	Russian artist	1866-1944
K'ang-hsi (Sheng Tsu)	Emperor of China	1654-1722
Kano Eitoku	Japanese artist	1543-90
Kano Masanobu	Japanese artist	c1453-c1550
Kano Motonobu	Japanese artist	1476-1559
Kant, Immanuel	German philosopher	1724-1804
Kao Ch'i-P'ei	Chinese artist	1672-1734
Kao Ou	Chinese writer	f. 18th c.
Karl	Duke of Brunswick	1804-73
Karlsevn, Thorfinn	Norse explorer	f. early 11th c.
Kassim, Abdul Karim	General, political leader, Iraq	1914-
Kay, John	English inventor	1704-after 1764
Kemal Atatürk (Mustapha Kemal Pasha)	President, Turkey	1881-1938
Kennedy, John F.	President, United States	1917-
Kepler, Johann	German astronomer, mathematician	1571-1630
Kerouac, Jack	American writer	1922-
Khachaturian, Aram	Armenian-Soviet composer	1903-
Khrushchev, Nikita	Premier, Soviet Union	1893-
Kishi, Nobusuke	Premier, Japan	1896-
Koch, Robert	German bacteriologist	1843-1910
Kokan Shiba (Harushige)	Japanese artist	1747-1818
Korin Ogata	Japanese artist	1658-1716
Kossuth, Louis	Hungarian patriot	1802-94
Knox, John	Scottish reformer	c1513-72
Kosciusko, Thaddeus	Polish patriot, general	1746-1817
Kuang Hsü (Te Tsung)	Emperor of China	1871-1908
Kublai Khan	Mongol emperor	c1216-94
Kwannami, Kiyotsugu	Japanese dramatist	f. 15th c.
Kyd, Thomas	English dramatist	1558-94
Lafayette, Marie Joseph Marquis de	French general, statesman	1757-1834
La Follette, Robert	American political reformer	1855-1925
La Fontaine, Jean de	French writer	1621-95
Lally, Thomas, Comte de	French general	1702-66
Laplace, Pierre	French mathematician, astronomer	1749-1827
La Rochefoucauld, François, Duc de	French writer	1613-80
Lassus, Orlandus	Flemish composer	c1530-94
Lavoisier, Antoine Laurent	French chemist	1743-94
Law, John	English financier	1671-1729
Lawrence, Ernest Orlando	American physicist	1901-
Lebrun, Charles	French artist	1619-90
Le Corbusier (Charles Jeanneret)	Swiss architect	1887-
Lee, Robert Edward	Confederate general	1807-70
Leeuwenhoek, Antonius von	Dutch microscopist	1632-1723
Léger, Fernand	French artist	1881-1955
Leibniz, Gottfried Baron von	German philosopher, mathematician	1646-1716
Lenin, Nikolai (Vladimir Ilych)	Russian revolutionary leader	1870-1924

Le Nôtre, André.....	French architect, landscape gardener .....	1613-1700
Leo X (Giovanni de Medici).....	Pope .....	1475-1521
Leopold I .....	King of Belgium.....	1790-1865
Leopold II .....	King of Belgium.....	1835-1909
Leopold I .....	Holy Roman Emperor.....	1640-1705
Leopold II .....	Holy Roman Emperor.....	1747-92
Li Shih-chen .....	Chinese scientist .....	f. 1578
Lincoln, Abraham .....	President, United States.....	1809-65
Linnaeus, Carolus .....	Swedish naturalist, botanist.....	1707-78
Lister, Joseph .....	English surgeon .....	1827-1912
Liszt, Franz .....	Hungarian composer .....	1811-86
Livingstone, David .....	Scottish African explorer.....	1813-73
Lloyd George, David.....	Prime Minister, Great Britain.....	1863-1945
Locke, John .....	English philosopher .....	1632-1704
López, Francisco Solano.....	Paraguayan dictator .....	c1826-70
Lorrain, Claude .....	see Claude Lorrain	
Louis XI .....	King of France.....	1423-83
Louis XII .....	King of France.....	1462-1515
Louis XIII .....	King of France.....	1601-43
Louis XIV, the Great.....	King of France.....	1638-1715
Louis XV .....	King of France.....	1710-74
Louis XVI .....	King of France.....	1754-93
Louis XVIII .....	King of France.....	1755-1824
Louis Napoleon .....	see Napoleon III	
Louis Philippe .....	King of France.....	1773-1850
Louvois, François, Marquis de.....	French minister .....	1641-91
Loyola, Saint Ignatius of.....	Founder of Society of Jesus (Jesuits) .....	1491-1556
Ludendorff, Erich von.....	German general .....	1865-1937
Lully, Jean Baptiste.....	Italian-French composer .....	c1633-87
Lumumba, Patrice .....	Political leader, Congo.....	1926-61
Luther, Martin .....	German religious reformer.....	1483-1546
Lyell, Sir Charles.....	British geologist .....	1797-1875
Lyly, John .....	English dramatist .....	c1554-1606
MacArthur, Douglas .....	American general .....	1880-
MacDonald, Ramsay .....	Prime Minister, Great Britain.....	1866-1937
Machiavelli, Niccolò .....	Italian writer .....	1469-1527
Macmillan, Harold .....	Prime Minister, Great Britain.....	1894-
Madison, James .....	President, United States.....	1751-1836
Magellan, Ferdinand .....	Portuguese navigator, explorer.....	c1480-1521
Magsaysay, Ramon .....	President, Philippine Islands.....	1907-57
Mahmud I .....	Sultan of Turkey.....	1785-1839
Maillois, Aristide .....	French sculptor .....	1861-1944
Maintenon, Madame de.....	French queen .....	1635-1719
Maistre, Joseph, Comte de.....	French philosopher, writer, statesman .....	1754-1821
Malenkov, Georgi .....	Premier, Soviet Union .....	1902-
Mallarmé, Stéphane .....	French poet .....	1842-98
Malpighi, Marcello .....	Italian anatomist .....	1628-94
Malraux, André .....	French writer, political leader.....	1901-
Malthus, Thomas .....	English political economist.....	1766-1834
Manet, Édouard .....	French artist .....	1833-83
Mann, Thomas .....	German writer .....	1875-1960
Mansart, François .....	French architect .....	1598-1666
Mansart, Jules Hardouin.....	French architect .....	1645-1708
Mantegna, Andrea .....	Italian artist .....	1431-1506
Manutius, Aldus .....	Italian scholar, printer.....	c1450-1515
Mao Tse-tung .....	Chinese revolutionary leader.....	1893-
Marat, Jean Paul .....	French revolutionary leader.....	1744-93
Marcel, Gabriel .....	French philosopher, dramatist.....	1887-
María Theresa .....	Archduchess, Austria; Queen, Hungary, Bohemia .....	1717-80
Marie Antoinette .....	Queen of France.....	1755-93
Marie de Medici .....	Queen consort, regent of France.....	1573-1642
Marie Louise .....	Empress of France.....	1791-1847
Marlowe, Christopher .....	English dramatist, poet.....	1564-93
Marot, Clément .....	French poet .....	1497-1544
Marshall, George .....	American general, statesman.....	1880-1959
Marx, Karl .....	German political, social, economic philosopher .....	1818-83

Mary I (Tudor)	Queen of England and Ireland	1516-58
Mary II (with William)	Queen of England, Scotland, Ireland	1662-94
Mary of Burgundy	Duchess, wife of Maximilian I	1457-82
Mary Stuart	Queen of Scotland	1542-87
Masaryk, Jan	Czechoslovakian statesman	1886-1948
Mason, John	Founder of New Hampshire	1586-1635
Mather, Cotton	American clergyman, writer	c1662-c1727
Mather, Increase	American clergyman	1639-1723
Matisse, Henri	French artist	1869-1954
Maupaussant, Guy de	French writer	1850-93
Maximilian I	Holy Roman Emperor	1459-1519
Maximilian	Emperor of Mexico	1832-67
Maxwell, James C.	Scottish physicist	1831-79
Mazarin, Jules	Italian-French statesman	1602-61
Mazzini, Giuseppe	Italian revolutionary patriot	c1805-72
Mboya, Tom	Political leader, Kenya	1930-
McCarthy, Joseph	American senator	1908-57
McKinley, William	President, United States	1843-1901
Medici, Cosimo de	Florentine banker, statesman	1389-1464
Medici, Lorenzo de (the Magnificent)	Florentine statesman, poet	c1449-92
Mehemet Ali	Viceroy of Egypt	c1769-1849
Melanchthon, Philipp	German religious reformer	1496-1560
Melville, Herman	American writer	1819-91
Mendel, Gregor	Austrian botanist	1822-84
Mendeleev, Dmitri	Russian chemist	1834-1907
Menderes, Adnan	Turkish political leader	1899-
Mercator, Gerardus	Flemish geographer, mapmaker	1512-94
Metaxas, John	Greek general, dictator	1871-1941
Metternich, Prince Klemens von	Austrian statesman	1773-1859
Michelangelo Buonarroti	Italian artist	1475-1564
Michelson, Albert	American physicist	1852-1931
Milhaud, Darius	French composer	1892-
Mill, James	English utilitarian philosopher	1773-1836
Mill, John Stuart	English social philosopher, economist	1806-73
Milton, John	English poet	1608-74
Minuit, Peter	Dutch colonial administrator	1580-1638
Mirabeau, Honoré, Comte de	French revolutionary statesman	1749-91
Miranda, Francisco	Spanish-American patriot	c1750-1816
Mohammed II	Sultan of Turkey	c1430-81
Mokuami, Kawatake	Japanese dramatist	1816-93
Molière, Jean (Poquelin)	French dramatist	1622-73
Molina, Luis	Spanish theologian	1535-1600
Molotov, Vyacheslav (Skriabin)	Soviet political leader, diplomat	1890-
Moltke, Count Helmuth von	Prussian field marshal	1800-91
Mondrian, Piet	Dutch artist	1872-1944
Monet, Claude	French artist	1840-1926
Monroe, James	President, United States	1758-1831
Montaigne, Michel de	French essayist, philosopher	1533-92
Montcalm, Marquis Louis de	French general	1712-59
Montesquieu, Charles de	French political philosopher, writer	1689-1755
Monteverdi, Claudio	Italian composer	1567-1643
Montezuma II	Aztec "emperor" of Mexico	c1477-1520
Montgomery, Sir Bernard	British general	1887-
Moore, Henry	English sculptor	1898-
Morales, Cristóbal	Spanish composer	1485-1560
More, Sir Thomas	English statesman, writer	1478-1535
Morgan, John Pierpont	American financier	1837-1913
Morgan, Thomas Hunt	American zoölogist	1866-1945
Morley, Edward	American chemist	1838-1923
Moronobu, Hishikawa	Japanese artist	1618-94
Morse, Samuel F. B.	American inventor, artist	1791-1872
Mossadegh, Mohammed	Iranian statesman	1880-1956
Mozart, Wolfgang Amadeus	Austrian composer	1756-91
Muhammadi of Herat	Persian artist	fl. 16th. c.
Muller, Hermann J.	American geneticist	1890-
Murillo, Bartolomé	Spanish artist	1618-82
Mussolini, Benito	Italian Fascist dictator	1883-1945
Mutsuhito	Emperor of Japan	1852-1912

Nadir Shah (Tahmasp Kull Khan)	Shah of Persia	c1688-1747
Namboku Tsuruya IV	Japanese dramatist	1755-1829
Nanak	Founder of the Sikhs	1469-1538
Napier, John	Scottish mathematician, inventor	1550-1617
Napoleon I (Bonaparte)	Emperor of France	1769-1821
Napoleon III (Louis)	Emperor of France	1808-73
Narváez, Pánfilo de	Spanish conquistador	c1478-1528
Nasser, Gamel Abdel	Premier, Egypt; leader, UAR	1918-
Nast, Thomas	American caricaturist	1840-1902
Necker, Jacques	French statesman, financier	1732-1804
Nehru, Jawaharlal Pandit	Prime Minister, India	1889-
Newton, Horatio (Viscount)	English admiral	1758-1805
Newcomb, Simon	American astronomer	1835-1909
Newcomen, Thomas	English inventor	1663-1729
Newton, Sir Isaac	English mathematician, natural philosopher	1642-1727
Ney, Michel	French marshal	1769-1815
Nicholas I	Tsar of Russia	1796-1855
Nicholas II	Tsar of Russia	1868-1918
Niebuhr, Reinhold	American theologian	1892-
Nietzsche, Friedrich	German philosopher	1844-1900
Nixon, Richard M.	Vice-president, United States	1913-
Nkrumah, Kwame	President, Ghana	1905-
Nolde, Emil	German artist	1867-1956
North, Lord Frederick	English statesman	1732-92
Oates, Titus	English impostor	1649-1705
Oda Nobunaga	Japanese political leader	1537-82
Ojeda, Alonso de	Spanish adventurer	c1468-1514/15
Olav V (Olaf)	King of Norway	1903-
Onchi, Koshiro	Japanese artist, printmaker	1891-1955
O'Neill, Eugene	American dramatist	1888-1953
Orleans, Louis Philippe, Duc d'	French political leader	1747-93
Orozco, José	Mexican artist	1883-1949
Osborne, John	English dramatist	1929-
Otto	King of Bavaria	1848-1926
Otto I	German King of Greece	1815-67
Oughtred, William	English mathematician	1574-1660
Owen, Robert	British Socialist, educator	1771-1858
Paine, Thomas	American Revolutionary writer	1737-1809
Palestrina, Giovanni Pierluigi da	Italian composer	c1524-94
Palladio, Andrea	Italian architect	1518-80
Pareto, Vilfredo	Italian economist, sociologist	1848-1923
Parr, Catherine	Queen of England	c1512-48
Pascal, Blaise	French mathematician, philosopher	1623-62
Pasternak, Boris	Russian poet, novelist	1890-1960
Pasteur, Louis	French bacteriologist	1822-95
Pauker, Ana	Communist leader, Rumanian	1890-
Paul I	Tsar of Russia	1754-1801
Paul III	Pope	1468-1549
Pedro I, Dom	Emperor of Brazil	1798-1834
Pedro II, Dom	Emperor of Brazil	1825-91
Pepys, Samuel	English diarist	1633-1703
Pérez Jiménez, Marcos	Dictator, Venezuela	1914-
Pergolesi, Giovanni	Italian composer	1710-36
Perón, Juan	Dictator, Argentina	1895-
Perrault, Claude	French architect	1613-88
Perry, Commodore Matthew	American naval officer	1794-1858
Perry, Captain Oliver H.	American naval officer	1785-1819
Perugini, Il (Pietro Vannucci)	Italian artist	1446-1524
Pétain, Henri Philippe	French army commander, political leader	1856-1951
Peter I, the Great	Tsar of Russia	1672-1725
Peter III	Tsar of Russia	1728-62
Petrarch, Francesco	Italian poet	1304-74
Petrucchi, Ottaviano del	Italian printer of music	1466-1529
Philip II	King of Spain, Naples, Sicily, Portugal	1527-98
Philip IV	King of Spain	1605-65
Philip V	King of Spain	1683-1746
Picard, Jean	French astronomer	1620-82



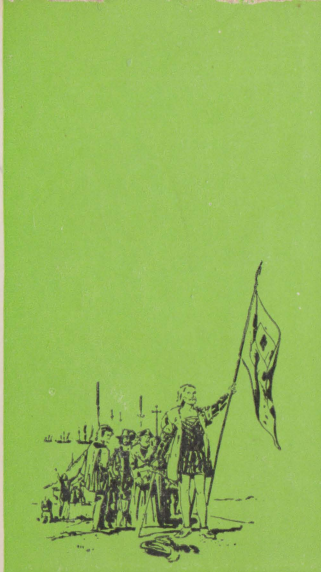
Picasso, Pablo	Spanish-French artist	1881-
Picini, Niccolò	Italian composer	1728-1800
Pierce, Franklin	President, United States	1804-69
Piero della Francesca	Italian artist	c1420-92
Pinzón, Francisco	Spanish navigator	c1440-93
Pinzón Martín	Spanish navigator	c1441-92
Pinzón, Vicente	Spanish navigator	c1460-c1524
Piranesi, Giovanni	Italian artist	1720-78
Pitt, William	English statesman	1708-78
Pitt, William the Younger	Prime Minister, Great Britain	1759-1806
Plus IX	Pope	1792-1878
Pizarro, Francisco	Spanish conquistador	c1471-1541
Planck, Max	German physicist	1858-1947
Polncaré, Raymond	French statesman	1860-1934
Polignac, Jules, Duc de	French political leader, diplomat	1780-1847
Politian (Angelo Poliziano)	Florentine poet, humanist	1454-94
Polk, James	President, United States	1795-1849
Pollock, Jackson	American artist	1912-56
Pombal, Sebastião, Marquis de	Portuguese statesman	1699-1782
Pompador, Marquise de (Jeanne d'Étalles)	Mistress of Louis XV, France	1721-64
Pompanazzi, Pietro	Italian philosopher, writer	1462-1525
Pope, Alexander	English poet	1688-1744
Poussin, Nicolas	French artist	1594-1665
Priestly, Joseph	English natural philosopher, clergyman	1733-1804
Prokofiev, Sergel	Russian composer	1891-1953
Proust, Marcel	French writer	1871-1922
Pugatchev, Yemelyan	Russian peasant leader	1726-75
Pulci, Luigi	Italian poet	1432-84
Purcell, Henry	English composer	c1658-95
Pushkin, Alexander	Russian poet, novelist	1799-1837
Quesnay, François	French political, economic philosopher	1694-1774
Quisling, Vidkun	Norwegian army officer, traitor	1887-1945
Rabelais, François	French writer	c1494-c1553
Racine, Jean	French dramatist, poet	1639-99
Rákosi, Mátyás	Communist leader, Hungary	1892-
Raleigh, Sir Walter	English courtier, colonizer, writer	c1552-1618
Rama V	King of Siam	1853-1910
Ram Das	Sikh leader	f. 1574-81
Rameau, Jean	French composer	1683-1764
Raphael (Sanzio)	Italian artist	1483-1520
Razin, Stephen	Russian Cossack leader	f. 1670-71
Regiomontanus (Johann Müller)	German mathematician, astronomer	1436-76
Rembrandt (Harmenszoon van Rijn)	Dutch artist	1607-69
Renoir, Pierre	French artist	1840-1919
Reynolds, Sir Joshua	English artist	1723-92
Rhodes, Cecil	English colonial administrator	1853-1902
Ribera, José	Spanish artist	1588-1656
Ricardo, David	English political economist	1772-1823
Ricci, Matteo	Italian Jesuit missionary	1552-1610
Richard III	King of England	1452-85
Richardson, Samuel	English writer	1689-1761
Richelieu, Armand, Duc de	French cardinal, statesman	1585-1642
Rilke, Rainer Maria	Austrian poet	1875-1926
Ritsuo, Ogawa	Japanese artist	d. 1747
Rivera, Diego	Mexican artist	1886-1957
Robespierre, Maximilien	French revolutionary leader	1758-94
Robinson, James Harvey	American historian	1863-1936
Rockefeller, John D.	American industrialist	1839-1937
Rodin, Auguste	French artist	1840-1917
Roehm, Ernst	German Nazi leader	1887-1934
Roentgen, Wilhelm	German scientist	1845-1923
Rommel, Erwin	German general	1891-1944
Ronsard, Pierre de	French poet	1524-85
Roon, Albrecht von	Prussian general, statesman	1803-79
Roosevelt, Franklin Delano	President, United States	1882-1945
Roosevelt, Theodore	President, United States	1858-1919
Rouault, Georges	French artist	1871-1957

Rochefoucauld, François,	see La Rochefoucauld, François, Duc de	
Rousseau, Jean Jacques	French writer, social philosopher	1712-78
Roy, Ram Mohun	Indian theologian, educator	c1774-1833
Rubens, Peter Paul	Flemish artist	1577-1640
Rueda, Lope de	Spanish dramatist	c1510-65
Ruisdael, Jacob van	Dutch artist	c1625-82
Ruskin, John	English writer	1819-1900
Russell, Lord Bertrand	English philosopher, mathematician	1872-
Rustam, Shah	Persian ruler	d. 1497
Rutherford, Ernest	British physicist	1871-1937
Ryder, Albert	American artist	1847-1917
Sá, Mem de	Portuguese colonial administrator	c1500-72
Saigo, Takamori	Japanese general, political leader	c1825-77
Saikaku, Ibara	Japanese writer	1642-93
Saint-Just, Louis	French revolutionary leader	1767-94
Saint-Simon, Claude, Comte de	French philosopher	1760-1825
Salazar, Antonio de Oliveira	Dictator, Portugal	1889-
San Martín, José Francisco de	Latin American general revolutionary leader	1778-1850
Sansovino, Jacopo (Tatti)	Italian artist	1479-1570
Santayana, George	Spanish-American philosopher, educator	1863-1952
Sargent, John Singer	American artist	1856-1925
Sarte, Jean Paul	French philosopher, writer	1905-
Scarlatti, Alessandro	Italian composer	1659-1725
Scarlatti, Domenico	Italian composer	1685-1757
Schiller, Johann von	German poet, dramatist	1759-1805
Schnitzler, Arthur	Austrian writer	1882-1931
Schoeffer, Peter	German printer	d. c1502
Schoenberg, Arnold	Austrian composer	1874-1951
Schopenhauer, Arthur	German philosopher	1788-1860
Schubert, Franz	Austrian composer	1797-1828
Schumann, Robert	German composer	1810-56
Schütz, Heinrich	German composer	1585-1672
Schwann, Theodor	German physiologist	1810-82
Scott, Sir Walter	Scottish writer	1771-1832
Seki Kowa	Japanese mathematician	1642-1708
Selim I	Sultan of Turkey	1467-1520
Selim II	Sultan of Turkey	1524-74
Semmelweis, Ignaz	Hungarian physician	1818-65
Servetus, Michael	Spanish physician, religious rebel	1511-53
Sesson	Japanese artist	c1504-89
Seurat, Georges	French artist	1859-91
Sévilgné, Marquis Marie de	French writer	1626-96
Sforza, Francesco	Italian condottiere	1401-66
Sforza, Lodovico	Duke of Milan	1451-1508
Shaftesbury, Lord (Anthony A. Cooper)	English statesman	1621-83
Shah Ismail I	Persian ruler; founder, Safavid dynasty	ruled 1500-24
Shah Jahan	Mogul emperor	d. 1666
Shakespeare, William	English poet, dramatist	1564-1616
Shaw, George Bernard	Irish-English dramatist, critic	1856-1950
Shelley, Percy Bysshe	English poet	1792-1822
Sheraton, Thomas	English furniture designer	1751-1806
Sherman, William T.	American general	1820-91
Shostakovich, Dmitri	Russian composer	1906-
Sidney, Sir Philip	English poet, statesman	1554-86
Sinán	Turkish architect	c1489-c1578
Siqueiros, David A.	Mexican artist	1898-
Smith, Adam	Scottish political economist, writer	1723-90
Smith, John	English colonial leader	1580-1631
Smith, Preserved	American historian	1880-1941
Smollett, Tobias	Scottish writer	1721-71
Smuts, Jan Christiaan	South African statesman, general	1870-1950
Sobleski, John	King of Poland (John III)	1624-96
Sousa, Martim Affonso de	Portuguese admiral, colonial administrator	c1500-64
Spengler, Oswald	German historian	1880-1936
Spenser, Edmund	English poet	c1552-99

Spinoza, Baruch .....	Dutch philosopher .....	1632-77
Squarcialupi, Antonio .....	Italian musician .....	1416-80
Stalin, Joseph (Djugashvili).....	Russian revolutionary leader, dictator .....	1879-1953
Standish, Miles .....	American colonist .....	c1584-1656
Stanley, Henry Morton.....	English journalist; African explorer .....	1841-1904
Steele, Sir Richard.....	British essayist .....	1672-1729
Steen, Jan .....	Dutch artist .....	c1626-79
Stein, Baron Heinrich vom und zum.....	Prussian statesman .....	1757-1831
Steinbeck, John .....	American writer .....	1902-
Stendhal (Henri Bayle).....	French writer .....	1783-1842
Stephenson, George .....	English inventor .....	1781-1848
Sterne, Laurence .....	British writer .....	1713-68
Stevenson, Adlai E.....	American political leader.....	1900-
Stravinsky, Igor .....	Russian composer .....	1882-
Stresemann, Gustav .....	German statesman .....	1878-1929
Stuyvesant, Peter .....	Dutch colonial governor.....	1592-1672
Suárez, Francisco .....	Spanish theologian .....	1548-1617
Sukarno, Achmed .....	President, Indonesia .....	1901-
Suleiman I, the Magnificent.....	Sultan of Turkey.....	c1490-1566
Sun Yat-sen .....	President, China .....	1866-1925
Sur Das .....	Indian poet .....	1483-1563
Swift, Jonathan .....	English writer .....	1667-1745
Taft, William Howard.....	President, United States.....	1857-1930
Tagore, Sir Rabindranath.....	Hindu poet, philosopher.....	1861-1941
Talleyrand, Charles de (Perigord) .....	French statesman, diplomat.....	1754-1838
Tamerlane .....	Mongol conqueror .....	c1336-1405
Tanaka, Baron Giichi.....	Japanese general, political leader.....	1863-1929
Tao Kuang (Hsuan Tsung).....	Emperor of China.....	d. 1850
Tasso, Torquato .....	Italian poet .....	1544-95
Taylor, Zachary .....	President, United States.....	1784-1850
Tennyson, Alfred, Lord.....	English poet .....	1809-92
Ter Borch, Gerard.....	Dutch artist .....	c1608-81
Tetzel, Johann .....	German monk .....	c1465-1519
Thackeray, William Makepeace.....	English writer .....	1811-63
Thiers, Louis Adolphe.....	French statesman, historian.....	1797-1877
Thompson, Joseph .....	American physicist .....	1863-
Thoreau, Henry David.....	American writer .....	1817-62
Tiepolo, Giovanni .....	Italian artist .....	1693-c1769
Tintoretto (Jacopo Robusti).....	Italian artist .....	1518-94
Titian .....	Italian artist .....	1477-1576
Tito, Marshal (Josip Broz).....	Dictator, Yugoslavia .....	1892-
Tokugawa Ieyasu .....	Japanese shogun .....	1542-1616
Tokugawa Iemitsu .....	Japanese shogun .....	1603-51
Tolstoy, Count Leo.....	Russian writer .....	1828-1910
Torelli, Giuseppe .....	Italian composer .....	c1650-c1708
Torricelli, Evangelista .....	Italian physicist, mathematician.....	1608-47
Toulouse-Lautrec, Henri de.....	French artist .....	1864-1901
Touré, Sékou .....	President, Guinea .....	1914-
Trotsky, Leon .....	Russian revolutionary leader.....	1879-1940
Trujillo Molina, Rafael L.....	Dictator, Dominican Republic.....	1891-1961
Truman, Harry S.....	President, United States.....	1884-
Ts'ang Ying-hsuan .....	Chinese ceramist .....	f. 17th c.
Tsao Hsueh-chin .....	Chinese writer .....	1719-66
Tsubouchi Shoyo .....	Japanese dramatist .....	1859-1935
Tulsî Das .....	Hindu poet, religious leader.....	c1532-1623
Turgot, Anne Robert (Baron de L'Aulne).....	French statesman, political economist .....	1727-81
Turner Joseph William.....	English artist .....	1775-1851
Twain, Mark (Samuel Clemens).....	American writer .....	1835-1910
Tyler, John .....	President, United States.....	1790-1861
Tzu Hsi .....	Empress of China.....	1834-1908
U Nu .....	Premier, Burma .....	1907-
Ulbricht, Walter .....	Communist leader, East Germany.....	1893-
Utamaro, Kitagawa .....	Japanese artist .....	1753-1806

Vanbrugh, Sir John	English architect, dramatist	1664-1726
Van Buren, Martin	President, United States	1782-1862
Van Gogh, Vincent	Dutch artist	1853-90
Vega, Lope de (Carpio)	Spanish dramatist, poet	1562-1635
Velasquez, Diego	Spanish artist	1599-1660
Verblest, Ferdinand	Flemish missionary, scientist	1623-88
Verdi, Giuseppe	Italian composer	1813-1901
Vergil	Roman poet	70-19 B.C.
Vermeer, Jan	Dutch artist	1632-75
Veronese, Paolo	Italian artist	1528-88
Verrazano, Giovanni da	Italian navigator, explorer	c1480-c1527
Verwoerd, Henrik	Prime Minister, South Africa	1901-
Vesalius, Andreas	Belgian anatomist	1514-64
Vespucci, Amerigo	Italian navigator	1451-1512
Vicente, Gil	Portuguese dramatist	1470-1536
Victor Emmanuel III	King of Italy	1869-1946
Victoria	Queen of Great Britain, Ireland; Empress of India	1819-1901
Victoria, Tomás Luis de	Spanish composer	c1540-1611
Vlète, François	French mathematician	1540-1603
Villeneuve, Pierre de	French admiral	1763-1806
Vinci, Leonardo da	Italian artist, scientist, musician	1452-1519
Vivaldi, Antonio	Italian composer	c1675-1743
Volta, Count Alessandro	Italian physicist	1745-1827
Voltaire (François Arouet)	French writer	1694-1778
Vondel, Joost van den	Dutch dramatist, poet	1587-1679
Wagner, Richard	German composer	1813-83
Waldseemüller, Martin	German geographer	c1470-c1522
Wallenstein, Albert of	Austrian general	1583-1634
Walpole, Horace	English writer	1717-97
Walpole, Sir Robert	English statesman	1676-1745
Walther, Johann	German composer	1496-1570
Waite, Izaak	English writer	1593-1683
Washington, George	President, United States	1732-99
Watt, James	English inventor	1736-1819
Watteau, Jean	French artist	1684-1721
Wayne, Anthony	American Revolutionary general	1745-96
Webster, Daniel	American statesman	1782-1852
Wedgwood, Josiah	English ceramist	1730-95
Weill, Kurt	German-American composer	1900-50
Weizmann, Chaim	President, Israel	1874-1952
Wellington, Duke of (Arthur Wellesley)	British general, statesman	1769-1852
Welser, Bartholomeus	German banker	d. c1559
West, Benjamin	American artist	1738-1820
Wheelwright, John	American colonial clergyman	c1592-1679
Whistler, James McNeill	American-English artist	1834-1903
Whitman, Walt	American poet	1819-92
Whitney, Eli	American inventor	1765-1825
Wilhelmina	Queen of the Netherlands	1880-
Williaert, Adrian	Flemish composer	c1480-1562
William III	King of England (with Mary)	1650-1702
William I (Wilhelm)	Emperor of Germany	1797-1888
William II (Wilhelm)	Emperor of Germany	1859-1941
William I	King of the Netherlands	1772-1843
William I	Prince of Orange	1533-84
Williams, Roger	American colonist; founder, Rhode Island	c1603-83
Williams, Tennessee	American dramatist	1914-
Wilson, Woodrow	President, United States	1856-1924
Winthrop, John	Colonial governor, Massachusetts	1588-1649
Winthrop, John Jr.	Colonial governor; founder Connecticut	1606-76
Wittgenstein, Prince Ludwig	Russian field marshal	1769-1843
Wolfe, James	English general	1727-59
Wordsworth, William	English poet	1770-1850
Wren, Christopher	English architect	1632-1723
Wright, Frank Lloyd	American architect	1869-1959
Wright, Orville	American inventor	1871-1948
Wright, Wilbur	American inventor	1867-1912
Wu Ch'eng-en	Chinese writer	c1500-80

Wyatt, Sir Thomas .....	English poet, diplomat.....	1503-44
Wyclif, John .....	English religious reformer.....	1324-84
Xavier, St. Francis.....	Spanish Jesuit missionary.....	1506-52
Yakub Khan .....	King of Afghanistan.....	1849-1923
Yamamoto Kanae .....	Japanese printmaker, artist.....	1882-1946
Yeats, William Butler.....	Irish poet, dramatist.....	1865-1939
Yoshihito .....	Emperor of Japan.....	1879-1925
Yoshimune .....	Japanese shogun .....	d. 1751
Yoshitane .....	Japanese shogun .....	f. 1490-1521
Yüan Shih-kai .....	Chinese political leader.....	1859-1919
Yukawa, Hideki .....	Japanese physicist .....	1907-
Zeami Motokiyo .....	Japanese dramatist .....	1364-1443
Zola, Émile .....	French writer .....	1840-1902
Zurbarán, Francisco .....	Spanish artist .....	1598-1662
Zwingli, Huldreich .....	Swiss religious reformer.....	1484-1531



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