

Issues in the Contemporary World

Document-Based Investigation

CASE STUDY 1

Civic Participation

The United Kingdom and South Africa

CASE STUDY 2

Developing Societies

Brazil and Mexico

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Building Economic Powerhouses

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The Role of the United Nations

Themes

ECONOMIC SYSTEMS

Globalization is transforming the world's economic landscape.

GOVERNMENT AND CITIZENSHIP

Democracies are struggling to increase citizen participation. Meanwhile, nations are trying to define the role of the United Nations.

SOCIETY

Changes in political structures, economic systems, and belief systems are fundamentally reshaping societies.

Issues of world peace and security are debated in the United Nations Security Council.



CASE STUDIES: Issues in the Contemporary World

THE BIG PICTURE

The world today is a rapidly changing place. New technologies are reshaping the way economies operate and people interact. But how people and nations react to change is often rooted in the past. That's why studying the past can give you the tools you need to understand the present. The following case studies look at some key issues facing the world today. Use what you have learned to form opinions about these key issues.

Voters in Cape Town line up in the early morning hours to vote in a South Africa election ►



History's Impact video program

Watch the video to learn more about the role of the United Nations.



Case Study 1 Civic Participation

What challenges do old and new democracies face in promoting civic participation?

Case Study 2 Developing Societies

How are developing nations such as Brazil and Mexico trying to meet the needs of their peoples?

Case Study 3 Building Economic Powerhouses

How are the giant emerging economies of India and China affecting the world?

Case Study 4 Women in Society

How do political and social trends affect the roles of women?

Case Study 5 The Role of the United Nations

What should the role of the United Nations be in international affairs?

Document-Based Investigation

Civic Participation

The United Kingdom and South Africa

FOCUSING ON THE ISSUE



What challenges do old and new democracies face in promoting civic participation?

KEY TERMS

devolution

In a 2005 survey, “Voice of the People,” about two-thirds of the respondents in 68 countries said they were generally satisfied with democracy. Yet only one-third said that their own countries were ruled by the will of the people. Citizens may respect the idea of rule by the people, but many do not see it as a reality in their countries.

When people feel they have little voice in their government or that their votes do not count, they may become discouraged about participating in their democratic institutions. In recent years, voter turnout has declined in many countries. Some observers fear that this decline suggests a more general disinterest in civic participation.

Civic participation involves more than voting, of course. There is a range of political activities aimed at influencing government policies, structures, laws, and the use of public resources.

Contacting elected representatives, staging protests, and building coalitions to have a louder voice on issues—these are just some of the ways people participate. In addition, factors such as fair elections, honest government, a lively opposition, and free speech help keep citizens engaged.

Participation in a democracy extends beyond politics as well. Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have a strong role in many countries, tackling issues from hunger to election monitoring. Local charities and other volunteer organizations also provide crucial support for communities.

The United Kingdom has over a century of democratic tradition. South Africa began its great experiment in rule by the people in 1994, with its first-ever multiethnic elections. Yet both countries are undergoing political changes that will affect the future of their democracies.



South African president Thabo Mbeki greets enthusiastic residents of Manelodi during his successful reelection campaign in 2004.

EXPLORING THE ISSUE

Old and new democracies each have their own advantages and problems. The United Kingdom has a stable society, respect for long-established laws and democratic institutions, and a healthy culture of civic volunteerism. In recent years, however, it has been troubled by a declining level of voter turnout in elections. South Africa's young democracy has seen its initially high level of voter turnout drop rapidly. It is struggling to create trustworthy institutions amid social and political unrest. Increasingly, South Africans are participating in civic life through informal organizations.

Democracy in the UK The United Kingdom's parliamentary traditions stretch back at least 700 years. Over the centuries, political change has come slowly. It was not until the twentieth century that the country became fully democratic, extending voting rights to all adult citizens.

Since it was elected in 1997, Britain's Labor government has sought to reform the country's democratic institutions. In part, these efforts are a response to declining voter participation, especially among poor and young voters. "The turnout freefall has triggered a national debate about the public's loss of interest in politics and what to do about it," one university study noted.

One of the Labor government's key reforms has been **devolution**. Devolution is the redistribution of power from the central government to local governments. Devolution of authority to the UK countries of Wales and Scotland took place in the late 1990s. At the time, devolution was hailed as a victory for democratic reform. However, it has not fulfilled the hopes of some of its proponents. They are disappointed because major areas of power remain in the hands of the central government.

Democracy in South Africa In the 2005 "Voice of the People" survey, South Africa topped the charts for optimism. Nearly two-thirds of South Africans said their country was governed by the will of the people—the highest ranking of any country.

In the first few years of independence, South Africans demonstrated their support for democracy by going to the polls in impressive



UK Conservative Party leader David Cameron faces a group of reporters at his party's conference in April 2006.

numbers. High voter turnout in 1994 brought President Nelson Mandela to power. Since then, however, election turnout among the voting-age population has begun to drop sharply.

The main beneficiary of voter participation in South Africa has been the ruling African National Congress (ANC). The ANC has seen its majorities rise in each of the three national elections since the end of apartheid. Voters continue to reward the party for its role in the anti-apartheid struggle. But without an opposition party to challenge and monitor it, the ANC has been troubled by corruption and inefficiency.

Despite a lack of reliable institutions of governance, South Africans' commitment to civic participation remains strong. Membership in informal institutions, such as anti-crime organizations, women's organizations, and trade unions, has soared. Social scientists believe that societies that have a dense network of informal institutions are healthier ones.

Informal institutions strengthen a society. They offer flexible, creative options for solving a society's problems. Albert Oupamoloto is a resident of Soweto, one of South Africa's poorest cities yet one known for its vibrant political life. He describes the optimism that drives much civic participation in South Africa: "Many people think their lives are better because they are free citizens," Oupamoloto says, "and I agree with them."

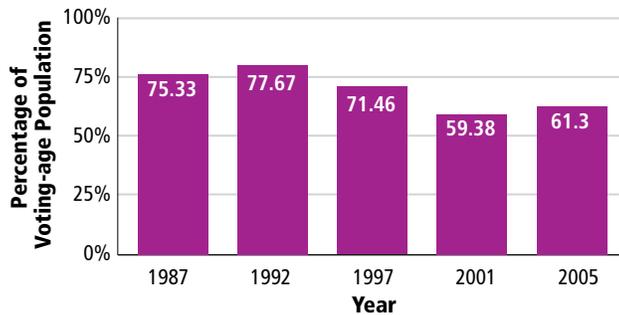
INVESTIGATING THE ISSUE

Democracy in the United Kingdom and in South Africa presents strong comparisons and contrasts. The documents that follow explore these issues by presenting different points of view and arguments. Examine the documents, keeping in mind what you have read about these democracies, and answer the questions that follow.

DOCUMENT 1

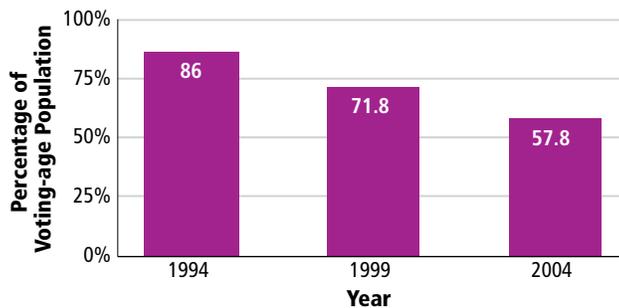
The United Kingdom and South Africa—an old democracy and a new one—both have experienced declines in voter turnout in recent years. Both are trying to identify possible causes for the decline and to inspire citizens to participate in the democratic process. This graph shows the election trends in the two countries.

ELECTION TURNOUT, UNITED KINGDOM



Source: <http://www.election.demon.co.uk>

ELECTION TURNOUT, SOUTH AFRICA



Source: <http://www.ccc.nps.navy.mil/si/2004/may/piomboMay04.asp>

Analyzing the Document

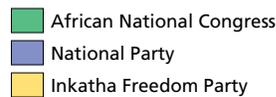
Describe the changes in voter turnout in the two countries during the time period shown here. Compare and contrast the two countries' turnout results. Which country experienced the sharpest decline?

DOCUMENT 2

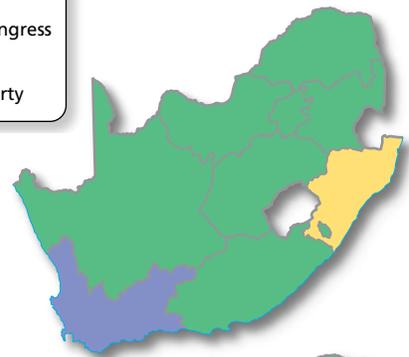
This series of maps shows the results of South African national elections from 1994, when apartheid ended and the country held its first multiethnic vote.

SOUTH AFRICAN ELECTIONS, 1994–2004

Election results by province



1994



1997



2004



Analyzing the Document

What political change does this series of maps show? What are some possible consequences of this change?

DOCUMENT 3

In 2006 the British government released a study of declining voter turnout. A British magazine examined the report.

"The real problem . . . lies not with the political system at all, but with changes in society itself. As [the report] observes, two contrasting groups have emerged to whom conventional politics has little appeal.

On one hand there are the relatively well-educated, relatively well-informed, relatively young who expect to make their own decisions, find self-expression in buying what they want when they want it, and see themselves as individuals free of geographic, institutional or social bonds.

On the other are the casualties of de-industrialisation who suffer from persistent poverty and social exclusion. The former are cynical about political leaders and irritated that voting is not more like shopping, while the latter feel bullied and let down by the institutions they rely on for their survival.

Constitutional reform . . . is well worth doing for its own sake. But whether it will make much difference to people who are already profoundly detached from the habits and modes of representative democracy is another matter."

—*The Economist*, March 4, 2006

Analyzing the Document

What two groups does the report describe?

DOCUMENT 4

Analyzing the factors underlying the decline in voter turnout has been a source of heated debate in South Africa. This writer remains hopeful that the trend signals a "normalizing" of politics in South Africa.

"[T]he fact that the major worries of political leaders and analysts was about potential apathy, rather than electoral violence, signifies the politics are becoming increasingly routine, a sign of the institutionalization of democracy in South Africa. . . .

The election process and results demonstrated that politics are normalizing in South Africa, while at the same time pointing to areas that need to be monitored. For now, democracy is stable, institutionalizing itself and performing well. If the country can avoid the pitfalls of permanent party dominance and the slow erosion of democratic freedoms (as occurred in neighboring Zimbabwe after 1980), the second ten years of democracy will be worth celebrating."

—Jessica Piombo, "Politics in a Stabilizing Democracy: South Africa's 2004 Elections," *Strategic Insights*, May 2004

Analyzing the Document

Why does this writer think dropping voter turnout signals a "normalizing" of South African politics? What does she believe needs to be monitored if democracy in South Africa is to grow stronger?

ANALYZING THE ISSUE

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Research Online

SD7 Case Study

1. Review the documents presented on this issue. What similarities and what differences do they reveal about the challenges to democratic participation in the United Kingdom and in South Africa? What effect, if any, does the age of these democracies have on citizen participation?
2. Review the graph showing South African voter turnout and the map showing election results. What possible connection is there between declining voter turnout and the increased election success of the ANC?
3. Do library or online research to learn more about another democratic reform proposed in the United Kingdom—the elimination of hereditary lordships in Parliament's House of Lords. What effect might the change have on democracy and representation in the United Kingdom?
4. What sort of informal organizations are there in your community? in the United States? Do research to learn about one such organization. Write a one-page paper describing the organization, including its purpose, goals, and membership.

Document-Based Investigation

Developing Societies

Brazil and Mexico

FOCUSING ON THE ISSUE



How are developing nations such as Brazil and Mexico trying to meet the needs of their peoples?

KEY TERMS

megacity, maquiladora

In order to become more prosperous, developing countries strive to create political, economic, and social stability. The three elements are interconnected. Political stability is one factor that helps businesses take root and thrive. It attracts much-needed foreign investment that strengthens the economy. A strong economy creates jobs, wealth, and consumer markets, helping to build a middle class—the backbone of a stable society. Finally, a contented, stable society promotes political order and helps democracy take root.

Like many developing regions, Latin America has had its share of instability in all three categories. For more than a century, political revolutions have stemmed in part from severe economic gaps between rich and poor. Economically, a reliance on exporting cash crops has kept the region trapped in boom-and-bust cycles; a drop in world prices for commodities can send developing economies into a tailspin. Socially, large migrations have unsettled societies in recent decades, as poor and landless peoples move to urban areas seeking work. Further upheaval has come from the efforts of indigenous peoples in Mexico and elsewhere to gain recognition and equality.

In recent years, however, the region's two most populous countries, Brazil and Mexico, have undergone remarkable political transformations. Brazil emerged from a string of repressive military dictatorships in the 1960s and 1970s to form a modern democracy. In 2000 Mexico set aside more than seven decades of one-party rule and held its first true two-party election.

Economic security, however, has proved more difficult to achieve. Globalization is pitting the two countries against new economic competitors such as India and China. Still, leaders in both countries are seeking dynamic solutions to produce long-term stability and make use of one of their greatest assets: the enormous human resources they possess in their large populations.



Maquiladora factories, like the one shown above, have fueled much of Mexico's growth but are vulnerable to swings in the world economy.

EXPLORING THE ISSUE

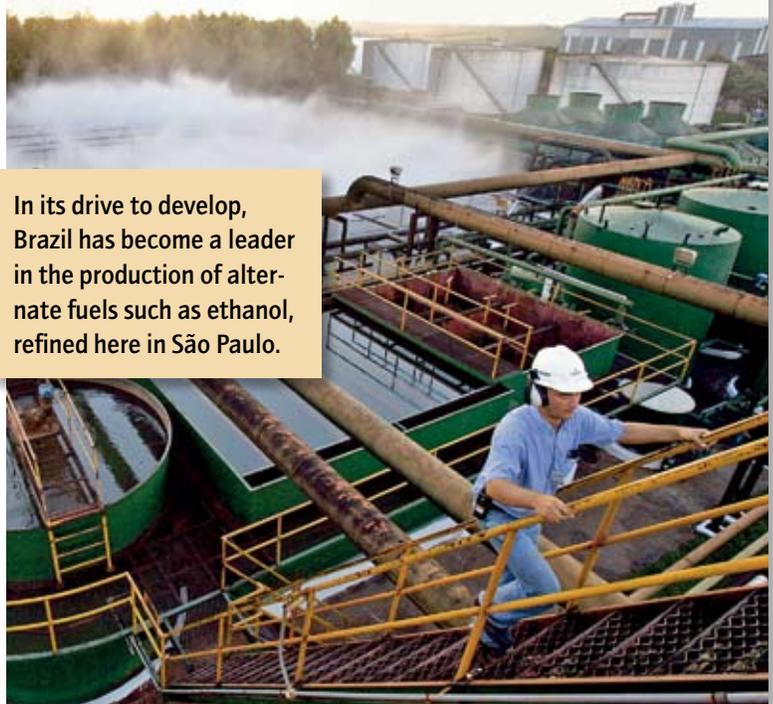
Economically and socially, Brazil and Mexico face many of the same challenges. Both are attempting to broaden their economic bases by expanding their sources of trade and foreign investment. Both are also seeking new solutions to the chronic problem of poverty and inequity in society.

Progress and Problems in Brazil Latin America's largest country, Brazil also has the region's largest economy. The nation made considerable economic progress starting in the mid-1990s despite some severe downturns. It expanded its presence in global markets for agricultural, mining, and manufactured goods. Exports surged, the economy grew, infant mortality dropped, and school enrollment increased. Laws requiring better management of government finances have been praised.

Yet Brazil also has some of the world's most desperate poverty, especially in the **megacities** of São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro. Megacities are those with populations of 10 million or more. Most of Brazil's urban poor live on the fringes of its two megacities. In Rio the *favelas*, or shantytowns, that climb the hillsides are so dangerous the police won't go there. São Paulo is one of the world's most murderous cities, wracked by gang violence. The streets are so dangerous that many wealthy people travel by helicopter, hopping among the city's 240 heliports.

To ease the population pressure on the cities, since the 1970s Brazil has turned to one of its most valuable resources: space. Brazil opened up its vast interior for resettlement and large-scale development. The resulting destruction of rain forests, however, has produced an international outcry and spurred calls for Brazil to limit rural overdevelopment.

Mexico Seeks Solutions Mexico has the second-largest economy in Latin America, now exceeding a trillion dollars. It has large petroleum reserves and a thriving tourism industry. Its location next to the United States has made it possible to expand trade under the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). Mexico benefits from its **maquiladoras**, the large industrial assembly plants throughout its border towns that produce finished goods for export to the United States.



In its drive to develop, Brazil has become a leader in the production of alternate fuels such as ethanol, refined here in São Paulo.

Mexicans enjoy the highest per-capita income in Latin America. But such averages mask the huge gaps between rich and poor. In 2005 the richest 10 percent of Mexicans earned 25 times what the poorest 10 percent earned—just as they had two decades before. The government estimated extreme poverty at 17.3 percent in 2004.

Efforts to address rural poverty are limited by the fact that only 15 percent of Mexico's large, dry land mass is arable. The lack of land continues to draw peasants from the countryside to the nation's megacity, Mexico City, where nearly one-fifth of the nation's population lives. Not surprisingly, Mexican government policies now focus on urban poverty, because of the massive spinoff problems it creates: violence, political instability, and environmental destruction.

Despite protests from some U.S. leaders, the Mexican government encourages migration to the United States. Migrants, legal and illegal, send much-needed dollars back home to support their families.

Meanwhile, Mexico is focusing on creating a more highly educated work force, a priority in the era of globalization. The government pays parents to keep their children in school instead of pulling them out to work in the fields and family businesses.

INVESTIGATING THE ISSUE

Over the years Brazil and Mexico have adopted a number of strategies to boost economic development—and to lessen its potential negative effects. The documents that follow explore the issue of development in Brazil and Mexico. Examine the documents, keeping in mind what you have just read about economic development efforts in the two countries.

DOCUMENT 1

Brazil has taken a lead in forming regional trade agreements in Latin America and trade ties outside the region, as a way of broadening and stabilizing its economy. President Luiz Ignácio Lula da Silva explained the philosophy behind this course of action.

"I think Latin America is going through an important moment in its history. . . . [O]ur way forward is to consolidate the process of integration, . . . physical integration, with infrastructure, with roads, with railways, with communications, with energy. Based on this Brazil has decided to make some investments in other countries. Brazil today has some \$3bn of investments in other South American countries, so that we can give South America more infrastructure.

We believe that it is necessary to do much more, because only infrastructure is going to make more circulation possible. Not just goods but people as well. And we have had some results in the period in which we have been in government. Today, Latin America is Brazil's biggest market. We export almost \$28bn to the rest of Latin America. . . . With the European Union we have \$27bn and with the US \$23bn. This is an extremely important thing. We are showing that it is possible through partnership and with seriousness, that we can help each other, we can help ourselves to grow. . . .

—Brazilian President Luiz Ignácio Lula da Silva, interview, *Financial Times*, July 2006

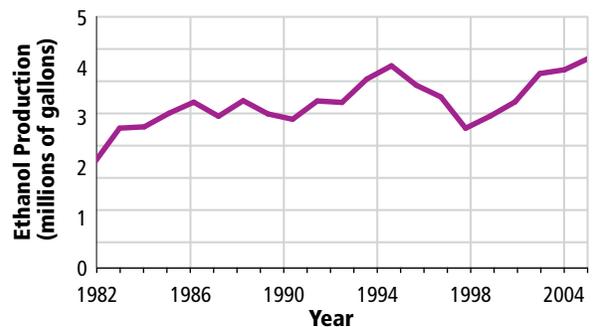
Analyzing the Document

Why, according to Lula da Silva, does it make sense for Brazil to invest money in other countries in the region?

DOCUMENT 2

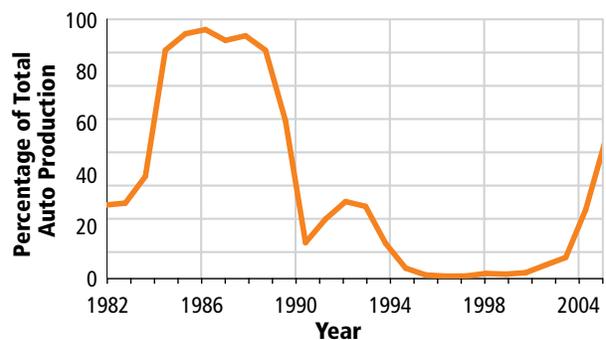
In 1979 Brazil launched a national program to develop alternate fuels. Ethanol, a type of alcohol produced from refined sugar cane, is the leading alternate fuel. Today, 34,000 gas stations in Brazil have at least one pump dedicated to alternate fuel. The program has drastically reduced Brazil's need for oil and has cut down on auto pollution. But the vast acreage devoted to sugar cane production is causing worry among environmentalists, who fear a loss of biodiversity.

BRAZILIAN ETHANOL PRODUCTION



Source: Earth Policy Institute; Unica

BRAZILIAN ALTERNATE FUEL VEHICLES



Source: Unica

Analyzing the Document

What is the trend in ethanol production? How does the trend correspond to trends in auto manufacturing?

DOCUMENT 3

About a third of the people in the Mexican state of Chiapas are descended from the Maya, or “people of the corn,” as they call themselves. Since 1994 the indigenous people of Chiapas have waged a battle to end political and cultural repression by the government and bring decent living conditions to the extremely impoverished region. The woman in this photograph participated in a protest by the Zapatista rebels of Chiapas that was held in Mexico City. Such demonstrations drew worldwide support to their cause.

Analyzing the Document

What does this photograph suggest about the cultural identity of the people of Chiapas?



DOCUMENT 4

There were 14 megacities worldwide in 1995. By 2015 there will be 21. Mexico and Brazil have some of the world’s largest megacities. These statistics provide a snapshot of population growth in some of the world’s megacities.

Analyzing the Document

Compare and contrast the statistics for the Mexican and Brazilian cities listed in the table. Which city has a higher percentage of its country’s population? Which city is projected to grow the fastest?

MEGACITIES

City/Metropolitan Areas (rank)	Population* (2000)	Percentage of Population (2000)	Projected Population Growth (2000–2015)
Tokyo, Japan (1)	34,450	27.1%	5.1%
Mexico City, Mexico (2)	18,066	18.3%	14.3%
New York City, USA (3)	17,846	6.3%	10.5%
São Paulo, Brazil (4)	17,099	10.0%	16.7%
Mumbai, India (5)	16,086	1.6%	40.8%
Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (14)	10,803	6.3%	14.4%

*All population figures in thousands.

Source: World Almanac Book of Facts, 2005

ANALYZING THE ISSUE

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Research Online
SD7 Case Study

- Review the documents presented on this issue. What evidence do they present to suggest that development in Brazil and Mexico is a complex challenge?
- What goals do Brazil and Mexico share in terms of economic development? What are some problems unique to each country?
- Do online research to learn more about life in the Chiapas region of Mexico. How has life there changed, or not changed, since the Zapatista rebellion in 1994? Why did the rebellion evoke sympathy throughout Mexico and the world? Do you think economic development in Mexico would benefit Chiapas? Why or why not?
- Research Brazil’s policy of alternative fuel development. Compare the positive and negative effects. Do you think the government is justified in pursuing this policy? Explain your reasoning.

Document-Based Investigation

Building Economic Powerhouses

China and India

FOCUSING ON THE ISSUE



How are the giant emerging economies of India and China affecting the world?

KEY TERMS

offshoring, privatization, joint ventures

To many observers the question is not whether India and China will bump the United States from its position as the world's largest economy. The question is when, and which country will get there first.

The world's two most populous nations have embarked on ambitious programs to move from failed planned or semi-planned economies to vibrant market economies. Their pathways to success have differed, and each faces challenges that could derail them. China is still a one-party Communist dictatorship, and India's thriving democracy struggles to contain explosive religious conflict. Yet few experts dispute that the changes underway in these two countries are shaking up the world's economies.

The economic successes of India and China are no accident. China began limited economic reforms in the late 1970s and then threw open its doors to private enterprise 20 years later, determined to become

the manufacturing capital of the world. India opened its economy later, in the 1990s, but quickly seized the opportunities of the telecommunications revolution. High-speed Internet connections opened up sudden opportunities for these countries to connect their large labor pools with potential employers and customers around the globe.

The vigorous moves of India and China onto the world stage are affecting economic planning, markets, and wages in other countries. No one is quite sure how this scenario will play out either for India and China—

potential competitors who also happen to share a disputed border—or for the Western and Asian industrial giants of the twentieth century. One thing is for certain: the twenty-first century is truly a new era of global economic interdependence.



China's heavy industry manufacturers, like this tractor factory in the city of Luoyang, have grown increasingly competitive in world markets.

EXPLORING THE ISSUE

The rise of Asian economies began in the 1960s, when Japan, South Korea, and the other so-called “Asian tigers” began to industrialize at a breathtaking rate. These countries developed efficient, streamlined manufacturing processes that flooded the global market with inexpensive export goods.

Today’s “Asian tigers,” India and China, may not yet match Japan’s GDP, but their rapid economic growth makes for a promising future. Up until now, China has emphasized traditional manufacturing industries. India has focused on new service industries provided via the Internet, from tax preparation to computer technical support.

China’s Communist Economy Under Maoist Communism, China’s government tightly controlled all aspects of the nation’s economy. Communist leaders tried to move the ancient agricultural society into the modern age. But massive industrialization efforts eventually stalled. The government allowed virtually no private enterprise. The lack of free-market incentives produced low productivity and inefficiency. While Japan and other “Asian tigers” were roaring, China’s living standards remained relatively low.

Chinese Capitalism Takes Hold With the rise to power of Deng Xiaoping in 1978, China cautiously started down a new economic path. Since then, agricultural, industrial, and market reforms have come slowly but steadily.

In the agricultural sector, the government began to allow farmers to sell some of their crops on the free market. Centralized economic planning was relaxed. That allowed regional officials to make free-market decisions on some issues, including trade.

The government also began to encourage foreign investment, although not on the scale that India later embraced. Initially, economic liberalization was confined to the creation of a few “special economic zones,” such as the



Factories, like this textile plant in Hubei province, have sprouted up in China's interior.

city of Shenzhen. These areas served as testing grounds for China’s limited capitalism.

The results were impressive. Farm output doubled during the 1980s. Industrial growth and investment in the special economic zones blossomed. Another round of market reforms was launched in the 1990s, creating what the government called “a socialist market economy.” At the same time, China placed strict curbs on its population growth, holding it to a rate of about 13 per 1,000 people. This helped to ease poverty, but it created controversy at home and abroad.

Economic growth surged. By 2005 China had become the second-largest economy in the world, although still far behind the United States in terms of production. Since 1980 China has doubled its share of world trade every five years. It now supplies one-fifth of the world’s clothing and one-third of all mobile phones.

In 2001 China entered the World Trade Organization (WTO). In joining the WTO, China agreed to follow its laws and standards of competitive business and trade practices. The move made China an even more attractive place for foreign investment and for **offshoring**. Unlike outsourcing, which involves moving a part of a business operation, like computer tech support, to another country, the offshoring involves moving an entire factory or other business enterprise abroad.



High-tech business parks (left) are sprouting up around Bangalore and other Indian cities. The Internet allows Indian software engineers (right) to serve world customers.

China has struggled to decide how far and how fast to implement reforms. Corruption and slow government decision-making hamper progress. The easing of restrictions on business has produced a rise in economic crimes, widespread inequality, and worrisome levels of pollution. Nevertheless, China is clearly on a path from which it does not intend to turn back.

India's Closed Economy Since it achieved independence from Great Britain in 1948, India has struggled to overcome desperate, grinding poverty. Inspired by the philosophy of independence leader Mohandas K. Gandhi, India adopted a socialist economy. It strove for economic self-sufficiency, with limits on imports and foreign investment. For more than four decades, India's economy was largely closed.

The government embarked on large-scale industrialization in order to meet its own needs and to limit dependence on foreign investment and imports. However, heavy government regulation resulted in decades of inefficiency, over-regulation, poor output, and quality goods.

India Opens Its Doors In the 1990s a democratic India embraced capitalism and began to move to a market economy. The government allowed increasing **privatization**, the private ownership of industries as opposed to government control. It opened the door to limited private investment in some industries. Over time, more and more foreign companies were allowed to operate in India. At first they formed **joint ventures**—business partnerships and co-ownership—with Indian companies.

In the early 2000s, direct foreign investment in India, particularly in telecommunications, took hold. In 2006 the American computer giant IBM announced that it would triple its investment in India over the following three years, to \$6 billion.

Government efforts to revamp India's ways of doing business have helped the economy grow at an impressive rate of 7 percent a year since 1991. In addition to a more open business climate, two factors have contributed to making India a world leader in providing high-tech services to businesses worldwide. An emphasis on higher education over the last fifteen years has given India a large pool of highly skilled workers. There are also a large number of English speakers—the legacy of British colonial rule. Looking to the future, many observers believe India's democratic government will give it the flexibility it needs to meet the challenges ahead.

Barriers to Success India still faces formidable obstacles to economic success. High import tariffs and restrictions on direct foreign investment have remained, sparking a national debate on how far to liberalize, or open up, the economy. India's huge population, most of whom still work on farms and in small, traditional businesses, can be an economic asset. Already home to one-sixth of the world's people, the country is expected to become the most populous nation within the 50 years. But the rapid creation of vast wealth has further highlighted the "two Indias": one largely rural and poor; the other urban and prosperous.

INVESTIGATING THE ISSUE

Today, university graduates in cities like Bangalore, India, are preparing the tax returns of millions of Americans—overnight, half a world away, via the Internet—for far lower wages than tax preparers get in the United States. China is promoting a balance of high-technology “knowledge jobs” as well, while also boosting manufacturing to become a giant exporter. The opening of these economies poses both challenges and opportunities for the rest of the world.

DOCUMENT 1

In his influential book *The World Is Flat*, Thomas Friedman argued that India and China are leveling, or flattening, the economic playing field. Western industrialized countries are losing their advantages, and other developing countries risk falling farther behind.

“Kenichi Ohmae, the Japanese business consultant, estimates in his book *The United States of China* that in the Zhu Jiang Delta area alone, north of Hong Kong, there are fifty thousand Chinese electronics component suppliers.

‘China is a threat, China is a customer, and China is an opportunity,’ Ohmae remarked to me one day in Tokyo. ‘You have to internalize China to succeed. You cannot ignore it.’ Instead of competing with China as an enemy, argues Ohmae, you break down your business and think about which part of the business you would like to do in China, which part you would like to sell to China, and which part you want to buy from China.

Here we get to the real flattening aspect of China’s opening to the world market. The more attractive China makes itself as a base for offshoring, the more attractive other developed and developing countries competing with it, like Malaysia, Thailand, Ireland, Mexico, Brazil, and Vietnam, have to make themselves. They all look at what is going on in China and the jobs moving there and say to themselves, “Holy catfish, we had better start offering these same incentives.” This has created a process of competitive flattening, in which countries scramble to see who can give companies the best tax breaks, education incentives, and subsidies, on top of their cheap labor, to encourage offshoring to their shores.”

—Thomas Friedman, *The World Is Flat*, 2005

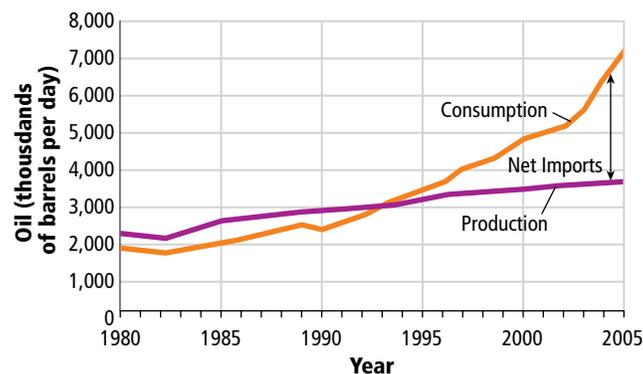
Analyzing the Document

Why, according to Friedman, does China pose a problem for developing countries like Mexico and Brazil?

DOCUMENT 2

As China industrializes and modernizes, its demand for energy is soaring, as shown in this graph. The increasing need causes concern about the possible effect on global energy prices and supplies.

CHINA’S OIL CONSUMPTION, 1980–2005



Source: Congressional Budget Office, April 2006

Analyzing the Document

By roughly how much did China’s energy consumption increase between 1980 and 2005? Explain the gap between the two lines since about 1995. What effect could that have on the rest of the world?

DOCUMENT 3

For decades, the United States has promoted free trade and capitalism around the world. It continues to do so today. In the early years of the twenty-first century, however, the United States ran up large budget and trade deficits.

MORIN/The Miami Herald



Analyzing the Document

Who are the characters in this cartoon? What are they concerned about? How does the cartoonist depict China, and why?

DOCUMENT 4

Economic change is transforming India and China. In this article, the writer describes some of the changes that have affected Bangalore, India, as a result of the city's growing technology industry.

"One visible byproduct of the flood of technology jobs into Bangalore has been the rapid Westernization in the city.

Young, comparatively well-paid technology workers dress in the latest American and European clothing, speak in Western-accented English, drive foreign cars and shop in the ritzy malls dotting the city. They live in high-rises or gated enclaves, removed from the realities of everyday Bangalore.

Home prices are shooting up, and local newspapers advertise apartments and villas costing over \$1 million. But the salaries of many of Bangalore's citizens working in jobs outside of the high-growth sectors have not been keeping up. Many government workers still take home about 4,500 rupees, or \$100, a month. For the majority, such homes remain distant and extravagant dreams . . .

The pace of urban change in Bangalore has indeed been torrid, said Tejaswini Niranjana, the director of the Center for the Study of Culture and Society, a research institute based in the city. 'Everybody's life has been transformed but not all are keeping pace with the swift changes,' said Niranjana, adding that there was simmering resentment among those who were not sharing in the wealth created by the new jobs."

—Saritha Rai, "A City Whose Global Name Turns East,"
International Herald Tribune, November 1, 2006

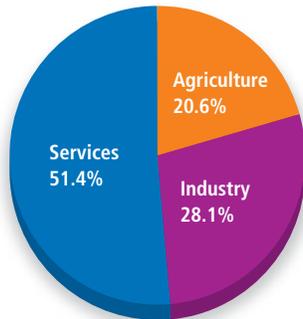
Analyzing the Document

What kinds of changes does the writer identify? How are these changes having uneven effects on Bangalore's people?

DOCUMENT 5

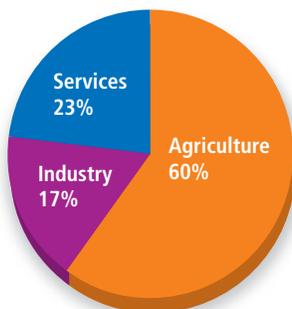
Today, a relatively small segment of India's labor force generates the largest share of its income, as measured in gross domestic product (GDP). These pie graphs illustrate that fact.

INDIA'S GDP BY SECTOR, 2005



Source: CIA World Factbook 2006

INDIA'S LABOR FORCE BY SECTOR, 1999



Source: CIA World Factbook 2006

Analyzing the Document

What proportion of India's labor force produces the largest share of its wealth, as measured in GDP? What do you think accounts for this fact?

DOCUMENT 6

The writer is a former governor of Hong Kong and former European Commissioner for External Relations. He notes the high stakes in the India-China competition.

"India now trains a million engineering graduates a year (against 100,000 each in America and Europe) and stands third in technical and scientific capacity—behind America and Japan but ahead of China. Now when we play the geopolitical game of who will dominate the century to come, we add India to the stand-off between America and China.

... I recognise the growing interest in whether we should—businessmen and politicians—place our bets on China's authoritarian model of development or India's democratic approach. The question is given more edge if you accept (which I don't) the old Chinese adage, "No mountain can accommodate two tigers."

—Chris Patten, "Mystery Candidate," *Financial Times*, August 4, 2006

Analyzing the Document

According to Patten, in what way is the competition more than an economic one? Rewrite the last sentence in your own words. What is Patten's view of the issue?

ANALYZING THE ISSUE

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SD7 Case Study

1. Review the documents presented on this issue. What are some ways the economic rise of India and China are affecting the world?
2. What do the documents suggest about the advantages and disadvantages India and China each possess in their effort to become the world's biggest economic power?
3. Read excerpts and reviews of Thomas Friedman's book, *The World is Flat*. What does the title of his book mean? What effect does he think India and China are having on the world economy?
4. What steps do you think the United States could take to meet the challenge of global competition? Consider possibilities relating to education and business growth.

Document-Based Investigation

Women in Society Ireland and Turkey

FOCUSING ON THE ISSUE



How do historical and cultural trends affect the status of women?

KEY TERMS

secular

Global studies of women in recent years have painted a bleak picture of the status of women around the world. For example, a 1999 survey revealed that women did about 66 percent of the work, earned 10 percent of the income, and owned 1 percent of the land. Moreover, women held only about 16 percent of the seats in the world's parliaments. A United Nations report noted in 2005, "Gender is one of the world's strongest markers for disadvantage."

The world's governments have pledged themselves to improve conditions for women. The United Nations Millennium Development Goals set a timetable of 2015 for increasing standards for women. It calls for improvements in the areas of educational opportunities, literacy, employment in non-farm jobs, and participation in national parliaments.

Globalization has helped produce a gradual shift in attitudes in some societies. Globalization emphasizes that countries need to value women as a human resource in order to become economically competitive. Studies show that countries that hold women back from participating in society consistently lag behind in development. In addition, as globalization helps women throughout the world gain greater access to new role models, information, and opportunities, their expectations grow.

Yet as governments try to improve the lives of women, they often must struggle to balance competing demands. Empowerment for women can clash with traditional cultural and religious beliefs. Even some women wonder if too much is lost in the rush for change. Ireland and Turkey are two nations that have faced and continue to face these challenges. The paths they have followed have taken some surprising twists.



Tansu Ciller (left) of Turkey and Mary McAleese (right) of Ireland have risen to the top ranks of government in their respective countries in recent years.

EXPLORING THE ISSUE

Ireland is a predominantly Roman Catholic country, and Turkey is a predominantly Muslim country. In each, religious tradition and, in some cases, religious doctrine, have played a role in shaping the roles of women in society.

Ireland in Transition As recently as the 1970s, an Irish woman who got married could be forced to quit her job. In a largely Roman Catholic country opposed to abortion and birth control, the majority of women stayed home and raised families.

Starting in the 1970s, however, and gathering force in the 1990s, a number of changes began to reshape Irish society. In 1973, Ireland joined the European Economic Community, forerunner to the European Union (EU). As a member of the EU, Ireland has gradually conformed to EU standards on the treatment of women. Also, EU membership has opened Ireland to the world, helping to change attitudes on a number of social issues.

While EU influence has grown, the influence of the Roman Catholic Church has begun to diminish. In 1972 a clause recognizing the “special position” of the Catholic Church in Irish society was removed from the constitution. Since then, the Church has continued to play a large role in politics, but not always successfully. So far, it has convinced Irish voters to uphold restrictions on abortion, but it failed in its efforts to keep divorce illegal.

Social, political, economic, and cultural changes have combined to open up opportunities for women. After a long struggle, the right of married women to work outside the home was guaranteed. The employment of women has risen steadily, from roughly 36 percent of the workforce in 1994 to about 47 percent in 2004. Much of that increase came during the 1990s, when an Irish economic boom produced a need for more workers.

Yet women in Ireland still face inequities. Men earn more than women do, and they have greater access both to living-wage jobs and to high-paying management jobs. Despite success at the top of the political ranks, overall participation of women in public office is low. Ireland ranks 77th out of 188 nations in terms of the proportion of women members of Parliament.



Modern Turkish women express themselves in different ways. Some adopt Western dress and others wear traditional headscarves.

Diverging Trends in Turkey When the modern nation of Turkey was founded in 1923, its leaders built a **secular**, or nonreligious, state in which government and religion are strictly separated by law. Women’s rights were written into laws regarding property ownership, inheritance, and suffrage.

Turkey is trying to join the European Union. To further that effort, it has taken numerous steps to bring its laws closer in line with EU requirements and to promote women’s rights generally. Yet the reality of equal opportunity has been more difficult to achieve. Women have trouble rising to managerial levels in the workplace. Although Turkish law mandates equal pay, estimates of inequities between women and men range from 10 percent to 40 percent. (In the United States, pay inequities range from 8 to 25 percent.)

In 2002 Turkey took what many saw as a turn away from secular politics. That year, they elected a party with Islamic ties. Commentators were quick to point out, however, that the shift was partly a reaction to corruption in the secular governments of the 1990s.

Recently, a generational divide has opened up among some Turkish women. To older generations, being a “modern” woman meant being secular—seeing yourself as a Turkish citizen first and as a Muslim second. Among the new generation, however, some women seek to redefine women’s rights and feminism in accordance with their religious beliefs.

INVESTIGATING THE ISSUE

The changing role of women in societies around the world raises many questions. The documents that follow present data and opinions about how two countries—Ireland and Turkey—are addressing some of these questions. Examine the documents, keeping in mind what you have read about how women’s roles are changing in each country. Then answer the questions that follow.

DOCUMENT 1

This chart compares key facts about the populations of Ireland and Turkey. Note that while both countries have had female heads of state, neither is a leader when it comes to electing women to the national legislature.

IRELAND AND TURKEY COMPARISON, 2005

	IRELAND	TURKEY
Population	4.1 million	70.5 million
Religion	88.4% Roman Catholic	99.8% Muslim
Adult Literacy Rate	Men 99%, Women 99%	Men 94.3%, Women 78.7%
Women in Parliament, world ranking*	Ranked 77 out of 188	Ranked 126 out of 188

*USA Ranking = 66 out of 188

Source: CIA; International Parliamentary Union

Analyzing the Document

In what way are Ireland and Turkey fairly similar, according to this data? How are they different?

DOCUMENT 2

The election of Ireland’s first woman president, Mary Robertson, focused more attention on women’s issues. In this speech, Robertson called for new thinking about roles for women in Irish society.

“If the imbalances of the past came, and I believe they did, not simply from legislative and economic inequality but from profound resistances and failures of perception, then it follows that to right that balance we must do more than review our legislation and re-state our economic structures. We must also fundamentally re-appraise our view of who and what is valuable in our society. We must look with fresh and unprejudiced eyes at the work of women, the views of women, their way of organising and their interpretation of social priorities. To achieve this, we must, I believe, begin at the beginning and alter our way of thinking.”

—Speech by Mary Robinson,
president of Ireland, 1992

Analyzing the Document

According to Robinson, what combination of factors produced inequalities in Irish society?

DOCUMENT 3

Like many countries, Turkey is struggling to live up to its promises of gender equality. This table shows the education gender gap.

EDUCATION RATES IN TURKEY, 2004			
	GIRLS	BOYS	GENDER GAP
Primary school	93	100	7.8
Secondary school	57.2	74.3	17.1
College	18.7	24.3	8.3
Adult literacy	78.5	94.4	15.9
Adult literacy, rural	69.2	91	21.8
Adult literacy, urban	83.4	96.1	12.7

Analyzing the Document

Where is the gender gap greatest? Where is it lowest? What do you think accounts for the differences in urban and rural literacy rates?

DOCUMENT 4

The controversy over the Muslim head scarf symbolizes the current tensions in Turkey over the role of women. This writer, a Turkish professor of sociology, has studied the attitudes of young Turkish women who are rebelling against secularism and wearing the head scarf.

"What really distinguishes the contemporary Islamic movement [in Turkey] is this presence of women in these movements, so they are the motor of change. . . .

But what happens is that each time these Muslim girls—or women, now—go to public life, pursue their professional career, for instance, they go from home to outside, from private to public life. Each time there is a tension within the [Islamic] movement and, therefore, there is a kind of debate among Islamic women who want to go even more public and Islamic men who remind them that, first of all, they have to be wives and mothers—their sacred roles. . . .

. . . [A]lthough we are in a country where the majority of the population is Muslim, nevertheless we define the republic as a secular republic. And secularism meant this neutral space where you are not allowed to bring your religious, ethnic, particularistic [individual] identities. So there is this debate now ongoing to what extent we are going to enlarge democratic rights to include this kind of new demands of difference."

—Nilufer Gole, online interview, *Frontline*, PBS, June 2001

Analyzing the Document

How are attitudes toward women's participation in Turkish society changing?

ANALYZING THE ISSUE

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Research Online

SD7 Case Study

1. How has religious tradition played a role in shaping women's roles in Ireland and in Turkey? What similarities and differences exist between the two countries on this issue?
2. In what ways is there a gap between the laws and the realities of life for women in both countries? Provide specific examples.
3. Research the role of the president in Ireland. Do you think the function of that position made it easier for women to reach that post? Why or why not?
4. Do research to create a time line of major events in the history of women's rights in Ireland, Turkey, and the United States from the 1900s to the present.

Document-Based Investigation

The Role of the United Nations

FOCUSING ON THE ISSUE

What should the role of the United Nations be in international affairs?

KEY TERMS

charter, General Assembly, Security Council, Secretariat, peacekeeping

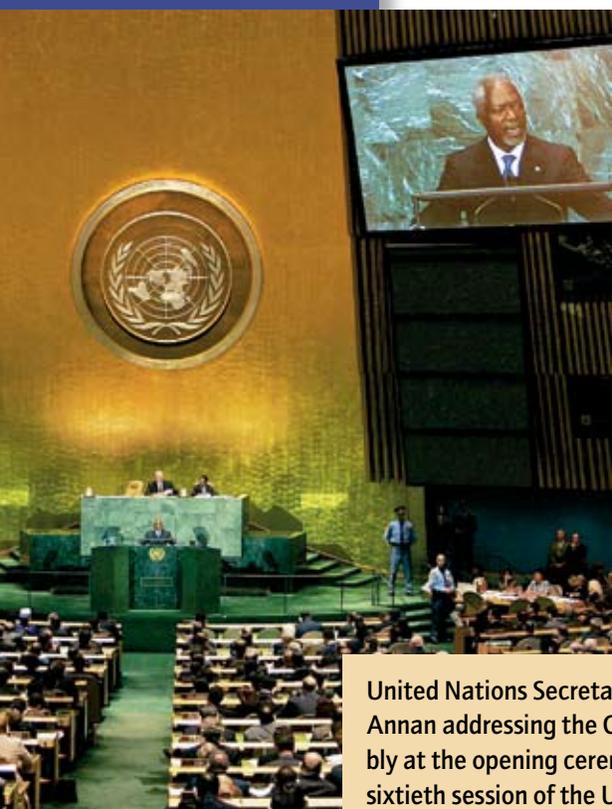
It was an ambitious idea: Create an organization to settle disputes among nations and solve tough global problems. Since its founding in 1945—the outcome of efforts by the United States and its World War II allies—the United Nations has struggled to live up to those high ideals.

The United Nations **charter**, the document that created the organization, lays out four major goals. It aims “to maintain international peace and security; to develop friendly relations among nations; to cooperate in solving international problems and in promoting respect for human rights; and to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations.” Security, human rights, economic development, healthcare, disaster relief, and refugee aid are among its top concerns today.

From the start, the UN’s mission was a delicate balancing act. The charter establishes the principle of equality among nations; yet it assigns an unequal role to the world’s powerful nations in maintaining global security—often to the frustration of smaller countries. The United Nations consists of a diversity of shifting alliances, values, voices, interests, and goals. Even within the host country itself, the United States, debate over the very existence of the UN has raged for years.

Since 1945 UN membership has grown from 51 to 191 nations. As the organization has grown, so has its mission. Indeed, the modern-day rise of globalization, terrorism, and nuclear proliferation has challenged the UN in ways its founders never could have imagined. With expansion have come problems: waste, corruption, scandals. Failures to prevent or resolve wars and genocides in various parts of the world during the 1990s and beyond further damaged the UN’s image and credibility.

Starting around 2005, the UN launched reforms aimed at dealing with these acknowledged problems. Leaders vowed to retool the organization to effectively meet twenty-first century needs. Critics remained skeptical about whether the UN could succeed in reforming itself.



United Nations Secretary-General Kofi Annan addressing the General Assembly at the opening ceremonies of the sixtieth session of the UN in 2005.

EXPLORING THE ISSUE

The UN consists of six main entities: the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Secretariat, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, and the International Court of Justice. The court is held at The Hague, in the Netherlands, while the rest of the operations are based at the UN's global headquarters in New York City.

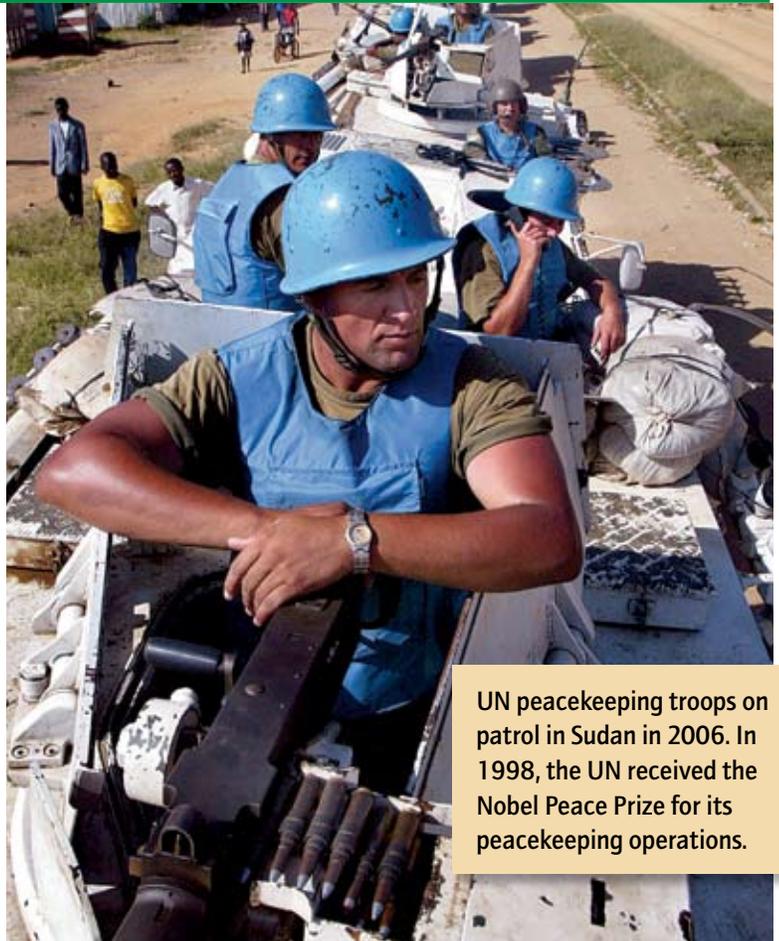
The **General Assembly** includes all the member nations, and each nation gets one vote on matters before the assembly. The votes are not binding, but they carry weight as a statement of world opinion.

The role of the **Security Council** is to be the guardian of peace. It sends armies to trouble spots to keep the peace, arranges cease-fires, and brokers peace agreements. If countries violate agreements, the Council may impose sanctions. It can even order military action against the offenders. Of the 15 Security Council members, five are permanent—China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The others serve two-year terms. Each of the permanent members has veto power over Security Council decisions. This arrangement guarantees that the interests of the powerful nations are protected. Recently, there have been discussions about expanding the Security Council to include other powerful nations, such as Japan and Germany.

The **Secretariat** carries out the administrative tasks of the UN, from conducting studies to providing services around the globe. The head of the UN, the secretary-general, is elected for up to two five-year terms.

An Expanding Role Since the end of the Cold War, the UN's mission has expanded. UN workers are now dispersed throughout the world. More than half of the UN's 30,000 non-military employees serve in the field. Civilian field operations include humanitarian relief operations, human rights monitoring, election monitoring, and efforts to combat the drug trade and other global criminal activity.

The major field operation of the UN is **peacekeeping**, or sending multinational forces into countries to enforce ceasefires or truces among warring countries or warring groups within a single country. In 2006, approximately 80,000 troops from member nations served in



UN peacekeeping troops on patrol in Sudan in 2006. In 1998, the UN received the Nobel Peace Prize for its peacekeeping operations.

UN peacekeeping forces around the globe. In 2006 roughly 70 percent of the UN's budget was dedicated to field operations, up from 50 percent 10 years earlier.

Criticism and Scandal Critics of the UN fault it for reacting slowly to the ethnic genocides in Rwanda and Bosnia in the 1990s. They say the UN is ineffective in combating terrorism and in preventing the spread of nuclear technology to countries such as Iran and North Korea. Some fault the UN for not taking stronger action against the dictatorship of Saddam Hussein in Iraq prior to the U.S. invasion of the country in 2003.

The worst blow to the UN's image in recent times was the Oil-for-Food scandal that broke in 2004. The UN Oil for Food program allowed Iraq to sell its oil to buy humanitarian supplies for its people. Instead of using the oil money to buy food and medicine for suffering Iraqis, Saddam Hussein skimmed billions from the program. UN officials were implicated in profiting from the theft as well.

INVESTIGATING THE ISSUE

Controversy continues to rage around the United Nations. The documents that follow explore these issues by presenting different points of view and arguments. Examine the documents, keeping in mind what you have read about the organization's history, mission, and challenges.

DOCUMENT 1

Reflecting the scope of the UN's mission, in 2005 all 191 UN member countries pledged to achieve the following list of ambitious goals, called the Millennium Development Goals, by 2015.

UN MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
2. Achieve universal primary education
3. Promote gender equality and empower women
4. Reduce child mortality
5. Improve maternal health
6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
7. Ensure environmental sustainability
8. Develop a global partnership for development

Analyzing the Document

How would you characterize the type of goals listed here? Do you think the goals are realistic in the time frame established? Why or why not?

DOCUMENT 3

The UN's expenses have grown as its mission has expanded. The budget for peacekeeping alone in 2004-2005 was greater than the UN's entire budget in 1996-1997.

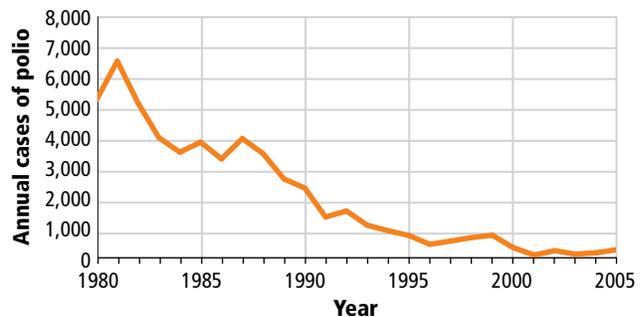
Analyzing the Document

During the decade shown here, what portion of UN expenses grew the most? What do you think accounts for that dramatic increase?

DOCUMENT 2

The World Health Organization, a branch of the UN, has spearheaded efforts to combat disease worldwide. With funding from member states and private groups, the WHO coordinates disease-prevention efforts, such as the drive to eliminate smallpox, which achieved success in 1977. Currently, the WHO is conducting a drive to wipe out polio. The graph below shows the progress of the effort.

WORLD CASES OF POLIO, 1980-2005

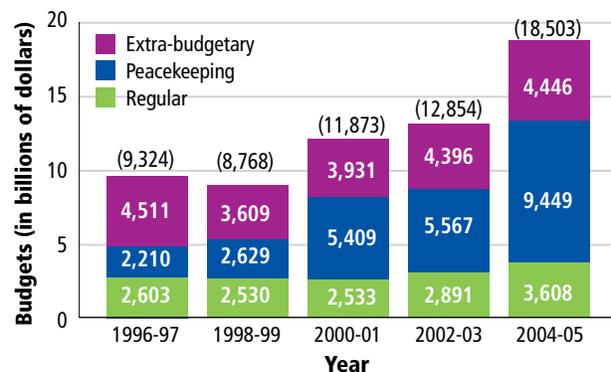


Source: World Health Organization

Analyzing the Document

What is the trend in world cases of polio? What happened between 2000 and 2005?

UN BUDGETS, 1996-2005



Source: UN Fact Sheet, March 2006

DOCUMENT 4

American conservatives have been particularly critical of the United Nations over the years. At times they have called for the United States to withdraw from the UN, and they have successfully worked to withhold US funding from the UN.

In this piece from *Commentary* magazine, one of the leading conservative journals in the United States, the writer finds fault with the very structure of the UN. As UN responsibilities grow, the writer argues, so do opportunities for inefficiencies and corruption.

Analyzing the Document

From what you read, do you believe that Rosett believes the United Nations can ever be reformed?

"Since its founding, the institution has added untold numbers of agencies, funds, commissions, programs, "ad-hoc bodies," and "other entities," to the point where most of the UN's own personnel do not know who reports to whom, or how. . . .

There is almost no way to hold the UN accountable for most of what goes on in this growing empire. . . . In fact, there is no procedure at the UN for impeaching or firing the Secretary-General. . . .

The founding purpose of the UN was to bring peace and prosperity to the globe. As to the former, the UN in the age of terror has been in most ways useless and in some ways positively dangerous. The lesson that Saddam Hussein quickly grasped was that the UN lends itself to money-laundering [illegally hiding the transfer of funds]. . . .

Like the Soviet Union of old, the UN is unwieldy, gross, inefficient, and incompetent. . . ."

—"How Corrupt Is the United Nations?"
Claudia Rosett, *Commentary* magazine, April 2006

DOCUMENT 5

As of late 2006, the United Nations had sponsored 59 peacekeeping operations since its founding. Sixteen were ongoing. UN peacekeeping has had some notable successes, such as El Salvador and Mozambique in the early 1990s and East Timor in the early 2000s.

In the case of the Arab-Israeli conflict, success has been more elusive. Indeed, over the years there have been seven separate UN peacekeeping missions triggered by the Arab-Israeli conflict. UN peacekeepers have successfully monitored truces or agreements between Israel and its neighbors Syria and Egypt. But a lasting regional peace has remained out of reach. A UN monitoring force in Lebanon since 1978 has been powerless to stop repeated attacks against Israel or two full-scale invasions of Lebanon by Israel. The cartoonist, a supporter of Israel, reflects the frustration that many felt during the Israel-Lebanon War of 2006.

Analyzing the Document

How does the cartoonist characterize the UN's response to Middle East conflict?



Ann Florini is an analyst for the Brookings Institution, a nonpartisan think tank that often takes positions perceived as liberal. Like Claudia Rosett, she believes that the UN as currently organized is fundamentally flawed. Still, she believes the UN can be reformed.

"But all this [UN] activity depends on a fundamentally unsound institutional base. The UN's fifteen-country Security Council, the only UN body with teeth, gives lopsided power to the victors of World War II. The General Assembly, where all 191 nations theoretically have equal voice, has degenerated [fallen] into a . . . mess of largely pointless debates on a mind-numbing agenda covering every conceivable issue. The fifty-three-member Economic and Social Council is essentially worthless. The Secretariat suffers from a deadwood-ridden staff, extreme micro-management by member states, and an inadequate oversight system that allows plenty of waste, fraud, and abuse . . .

Step one [in reform] is to assign responsibility where it belongs: overwhelmingly with the member countries. . . .

The member countries have never invested the financial and human resources needed to make the UN work well. . . . A few hard-core opponents of reform—insiders point to Syria, Pakistan, Venezuela, Cuba, Egypt, and Iran—actively subvert [undermine] attempts to make

the UN function efficiently and effectively. The U.S., where Congress goes into periodic fits of rage over revelations of misdeeds such as the oil-for-food scandal, has only fitfully invested in the long-term, patient diplomacy needed to build consensus [agreement] for meaningful change, and has sometimes shot itself in the foot with bullying tactics like withholding of dues. . . .

The small reforms agreed upon to date may still prove the spark for a real UN renaissance—if a whole lot of people act quickly. . . .

[The United States] must engage effectively but, given the realities of anti-Americanism, quietly with pro-reform forces in New York. . . . And the member states need to regain control of their own delegations in New York, who too often serve personal interests at the expense of national ones.

If all this is done, the UN may be reborn.

—Ann Florini, "The UN at 60: Senescence or Renaissance?"
The Brookings Institution, 2005

Analyzing the Document

Does the writer support the existence of the United Nations? What does she see as the key challenges to its success? Use passages from the excerpt to support your answers.

ANALYZING THE ISSUE

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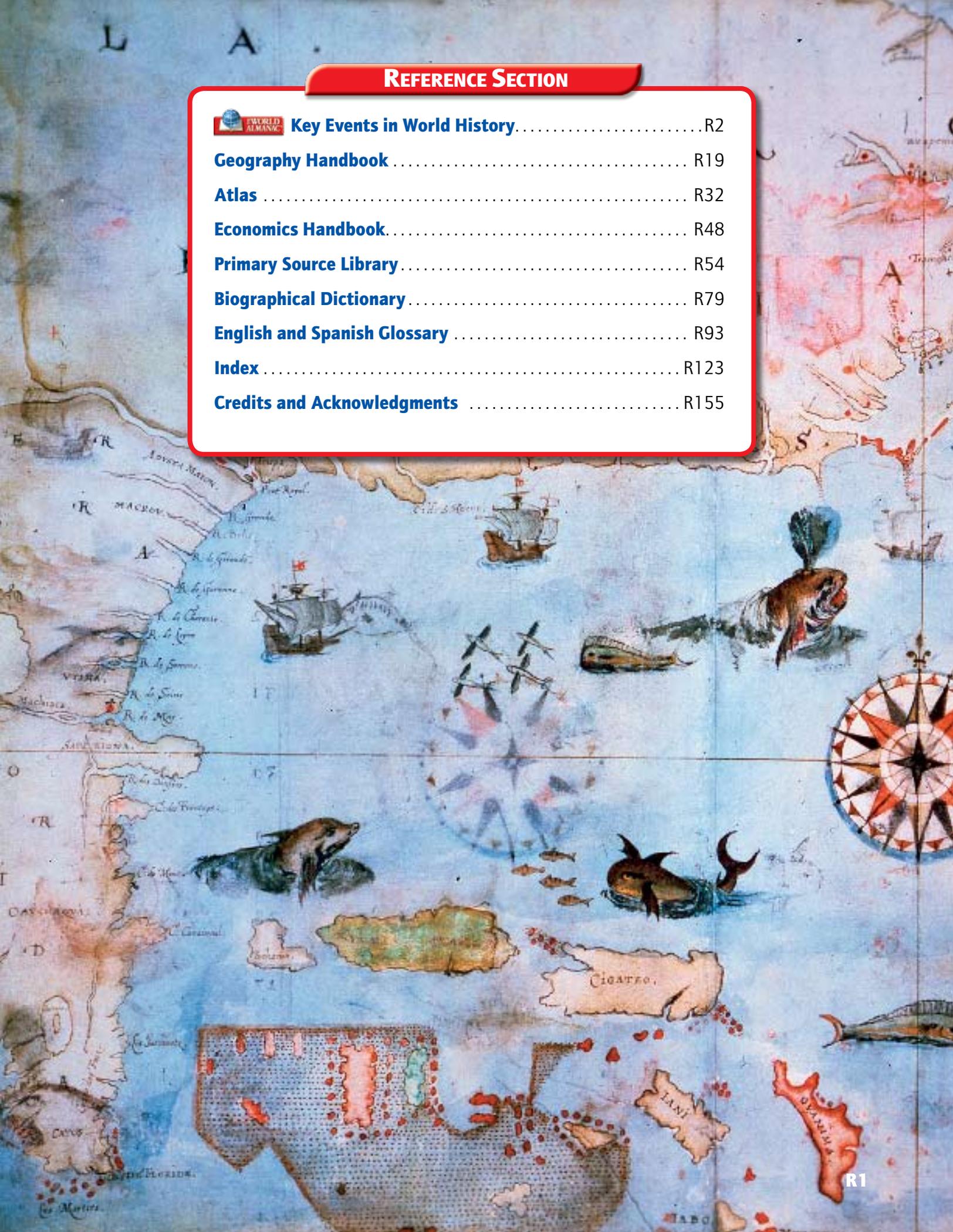
SD7 Case Study

1. Review the documents presented on this issue. What do they tell you about the difficulties of carrying out the UN's mission?
2. Review the descriptions of the authors of the passages excerpted here. How might their backgrounds affect their point of view about the UN?
3. Research viewpoints about the UN Human Rights Commission. What controversies have surrounded its membership? Why has the United States objected to some of its activities?
4. Considering all the challenges involved in getting UN members to agree on actions and respond quickly to crises, do you think the UN has outlived its usefulness? Do you think it should be strengthened? Do you have another viewpoint? Write a letter to the editor explaining your position and offering reasons to support it.

REFERENCE SECTION



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Economics Handbook	R48
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Biographical Dictionary	R79
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Key Events in World History

The World Almanac Key Events in World History is a brief summary of important turning points in world history. It provides capsule descriptions of events or movements along with brief accounts of their significance. Use this section to review the content in *Human Legacy*.

Millions of years ago **First Hominids**

About 5–7 million years ago several species of “hominids,” or upright walking, human-like primates, were roaming the African continent. By about 2–3 million years ago, early hominids lived in groups, made tools, and gathered food.

Significance These first hominids are the most distant ancestors of modern humans. Fossil records are gradually filling in a still murky picture of these early hominid ancestors.

200,000–100,000 years ago **First Modern Humans**

Homo sapiens, the species to which all modern humans belong, first lived in East Africa about 200,000 years ago. By 100,000 years ago humans had reached Southwest Asia, and by 35,000 years ago they had reached Europe.

Significance *H. sapiens* spread and thrived. They soon became the sole hominid species, supplanting Neanderthals among others.

14,000 years ago **End of the Last Ice Age**

Approximately 2 million years ago Earth’s atmosphere cooled. Large sheets of ice formed and eventually covered vast portions of the planet’s surface. This period, which lasted until about 12,000 BC, is called the Pleistocene epoch, or the last Ice Age. The end of the Pleistocene was marked by a gradual increase in Earth’s temperatures. Land that had been covered by ice for millennia gradually became exposed to the sun once again.

Significance As the ice sheets receded, Earth became a more hospitable place. New plant and animal species developed. The Bering Land Bridge, which had connected Asia and the Americas, receded under the ocean, isolating the Americas and their inhabitants.

12,000–10,000 years ago **Invention of Agriculture**

For thousands of years humans had survived by hunting wild animals and gathering wild plants. Around 10,000 BC, with the climate warmer and

drier, some humans discovered that animals and plants could be domesticated, or made to serve their needs directly. Domestication is one of the signs of the transition to the Neolithic Era, or New Stone Age. This happened around the same time in many parts of the world.

Significance Agriculture freed humans from the need to migrate in search of animals and plants for food. This allowed for permanent settlements, labor specialization and, eventually, civilization.

c. 4000 BC **Rise of Mesopotamian Cultures**

The Sumerians, a people who lived in the area between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in what is now Iraq, developed what many consider the world’s first civilization. Sumerian society was centered on large cities that were supported by irrigated farms in the countryside. Sumerians made use of the first known system of writing, which developed into the wedge-shaped script called cuneiform.

Significance As the world’s first civilization, with the first developed system of writing, the Sumerians stand at the beginning of recorded history.

c. 4000–3500 BC **Invention of the Wheel**

Evidence suggests that people in the Mesopotamian cultures of the Near East had invented wheeled vehicles by as early as the fourth millennium BC. The concept spread rapidly to other civilizations. Remains of an early wooden disk wheel dating to around 3500 BC have been found at a site in what is now the Netherlands.

Significance The wheel was a milestone technological achievement. It made many tasks, from transporting people and goods to making pottery, far easier to accomplish.

c. 3100 BC **Upper and Lower Egypt Unite**

In ancient times the abundance of the Nile River valley gave rise to the two kingdoms of Upper and Lower Egypt. Around 3100 BC, according to tradition, Menes, an Upper Egyptian king, marched his army north to invade Lower Egypt. His efforts resulted



in unification of the civilizations along the Nile into one Egypt. Menes established Egypt's first dynasty, and is considered to be Egypt's first pharaoh.

Significance The unification of Egypt by Menes represents the beginning of a great ancient civilization that lasted nearly 3,000 years.

3000–1500 BC Indus Valley Civilization

Around 3000 BC the Indus Valley civilization developed along the Indus River, in the northwest of the Indian subcontinent. Ruins from the cities of Harappa and Mohenjo Daro show that the Indus Valley civilization possessed strong governments and an economy based on agriculture. The Indus Valley civilization also developed a written language.

Significance The story of civilization in one of the world's most historically rich regions, the Indian subcontinent, began with this first Indus River valley culture.

c. 2700–2300 BC Egyptian Pyramids Built

Egyptians began constructing pyramids to serve as tombs for their pharaohs during the Old Kingdom, in the 2700s BC. The largest of the pyramids, the Great Pyramid of Khufu near Giza, was built during this time. The pyramids are evidence of the Egyptian belief in an afterlife and in the godly stature of their pharaohs.

Significance With nearly 80 pyramids still standing along the west bank of the Nile, the pyramids of Egypt serve as a testament to the strength, material wealth, and ability to mobilize vast resources characteristic of ancient Egypt under the pharaohs.

c. 1750 BC Code of Hammurabi

The Babylonian king Hammurabi rose to power around 1792 BC. By the end of his reign the Babylonian Empire extended through much of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley—a testament to his prowess as a military leader. But Hammurabi is best known for the code of written laws that survives from his reign. The laws, which were written down for all to see, dealt with matters ranging from trade and business to crimes and personal injuries.

Significance The Code of Hammurabi is the earliest known collection of written laws. Combining Sumerian and Semitic traditions, the code represented an advance beyond tribal codes.

c. 1700 BC Hyksos Invasion of Egypt

As the Middle Kingdom in Egypt weakened, a people known as the Hyksos migrated into Egypt from the east. With superior military technology, such as the horse-drawn chariot and the compound bow,

the Hyksos were eventually able to establish their power. They ruled Egypt for more than a century, extending the kingdom's boundaries as far as Syria and Palestine, and maintaining peace and prosperity throughout their lands.

Significance The Hyksos kings ushered in a new phase in ancient Egyptian history. They introduced the horse-drawn chariot, which pharaohs of the New Kingdom period would use to build strong armies and expand their territory.

c. 1540–1075 BC New Kingdom in Egypt

Around 1540 BC an Egyptian named Ahmose declared himself pharaoh and drove the Hyksos from Egypt. This was the beginning of the New Kingdom, the period that would see Egypt rise to the peak of its power and glory. Fearful of invasion, future Egyptian pharaohs succeeded in establishing control over possible invasion routes. In the process, they overtook foreign lands and established an empire. Military conquests also expanded Egyptian trade and made the kingdom wealthy. The most famous New Kingdom pharaoh is Ramses II (died c. 1235 BC), who left behind numerous monuments.

Significance The New Kingdom period was the last great flourish of Egyptian power and culture before the empire's long, slow decline.

c. 1500 BC India's Vedic Period Begins

By around 1500 BC a new element became apparent in the Indus Valley region. Many scholars believe that a nomadic people known as the Aryans, originating from the area near the Black Sea, entered the Indus Valley in search of pastureland for their livestock. The synthesis between these new peoples and the indigenous population produced a rich culture, which we can glimpse today through the *Vedas*, one of the great religious texts of Hinduism.

Significance The languages of classical Sanskrit, in which the *Vedas* are written, and modern Bengali and Hindi derive from the Indo-Aryan language.

c. 1766–1100 BC Shang Dynasty in China

The Shang dynasty, the first Chinese dynasty for which solid historical evidence exists, created the first strong state in China, in the Huang River valley. Far-flung irrigation and flood-control systems spurred the Shang to develop a complex bureaucracy. Over time, the Shang expanded their lands. They are known for their outstanding bronzework.

Significance The Shang bureaucracy became a model for later Chinese dynasties. The earliest Chinese system of writing dates from the Shang period.

1200 BC Olmec Civilization in Mexico

Settlements dating from around 1500 BC along the southern Gulf of Mexico coast developed into the Olmec civilization by around 1200 BC. Remains of ceremonial cities that included temples and large stone statues date from this time. Olmec society was supported primarily by agriculture. The Olmec developed a calendar and a writing system. They worshipped a jaguar-like god.

Significance The Olmec developed the first historically known civilization in the Americas. Elements of Olmec civilization can be seen in many later Mesoamerican cultures.

c. 1200 BC Phoenicians Dominate Trade in the Mediterranean Sea

Having settled along the eastern Mediterranean coast by around 2800 BC, the Phoenicians developed a loose union of city-states supported by sea trade with the other Mediterranean cultures of Egypt and Greece. By 1200 BC the Phoenicians were the leading Mediterranean trading power. They established colonies throughout the Mediterranean, including Carthage in North Africa.

Significance As a trading people, the Phoenicians mingled the cultures of Egypt, Mesopotamia, and Greece. Their alphabet was adopted, with some modifications, by the Greeks and later the Romans, becoming the basis of our own.

960 BC Solomon Builds the Temple

King Solomon built the Temple to God in Jerusalem, the center of Israelite worship, in which the Ark of the Covenant containing the Ten Commandments was kept. Religion was the foundation upon which the Israelites, and later the Jews, based their society. Belief in one God and a strong code of ethics are central beliefs of Judaism. The standards of fairness, justice, and righteousness central to Judaism have sustained the Jewish people and their religion for more than 3,000 years. Even though the Temple was destroyed in 586 BC, rebuilt, and destroyed again in AD 70, the Jewish religion and people still thrive.

Significance One of the earliest monotheistic faiths, Judaism has had a major influence on Western society and is one of the world's major religions. The Jewish ethical tradition was later carried forward into Christianity and became known as Judeo-Christian ethics.

c. 700 BC Kushite Dynasty Rules Egypt

As neighbors in the Nile River valley, Kush and Egypt had a long history of relations, including a

500-year period of Egyptian rule of Kush. Following the decline of the New Kingdom in Egypt, Kushite kings launched military attacks against Egypt. Around 716 BC a Kushite king named Piankhi rose to power and declared himself pharaoh. This marked the beginning of the Kushite dynasty in Egypt.

Significance Kushite rulers of Egypt sought to restore Egyptian cultural traditions. They built new temples and pyramids and made efforts to preserve Egyptian writings.

509 BC Founding of the Roman Republic

According to tradition, Rome was founded in 753 BC and ruled by a succession of kings. The last of these was overthrown by nobles in 509 BC, and the Roman Republic was born. Over the next 500 years the Republic greatly expanded in size and power and evolved politically to include democratic elements.

Significance As the Republic expanded, it proved unable to reconcile rule of vast territories with the traditions of self-governance conceived for a city-state. Its example—good, bad, and idealized—nonetheless inspired the efforts of later ages to found republican governments.

500 BC Confucius in China

A Chinese philosopher who lived from 551 to 479 BC during the Zhou dynasty, Confucius urged a system of morality that stressed the importance of family, respect for elders, reverence for ancestors, and honest and just government. His teachings were compiled by his followers in the *Analects*.

Significance The body of thought derived from Confucius's teachings, Confucianism, exerted a profound influence on China and other East Asian culture.

500 BC Buddhism Develops in India

Siddhartha Gautama of India lived from around 563 to 483 BC. Revered for having found true wisdom, he came to be called the Buddha, or Enlightened One. For the remainder of his life the Buddha taught others the way to achieve an enlightened state.

Significance From the Buddha's life and experience arose one of the world's great religions, Buddhism. In the centuries following the Buddha's death, his teachings gained wide acceptance in Asia, shaping the cultural life of the region. In recent times Buddhism's influence has spread to non-Asian cultures.

500 BC Persian Empire under Darius

The largest empire to date at that time, stretching from Asia Minor and Egypt to India, the Persian Empire reached its peak under the emperor Darius,

who ruled from 522 to 486 BC. Darius reorganized the administration of the empire and recognized a diversity of religions. His efforts to extend Persian rule to Greece, however, met with defeat.

Significance Darius's reforms helped solidify the power of his dynasty, the Achaemenids. Despite defeat in Greece, the Persian Empire remained the dominant power in the Near East for more than a century.

c. 500–479 BC Persian Wars

When Athens aided Greek city-states in Asia Minor in rebelling against the Persian Empire, a conflict began that became known as the Persian Wars. The Persian leader Darius, and later his son Xerxes, sought to punish Athens by launching invasions of Greece. The Persians captured and burned Athens, but in the end the Greek forces, though fewer in number, defeated the Persians in a great sea battle at Salamis and saved their homeland.

Significance Victory in the Persian Wars led to an expansion of Greek power in the eastern Mediterranean and a flowering of ancient Greek culture and artistic achievement.

c. 480–404 BC Golden Age of Athens

Athens reached the peak of its cultural development during the time of the statesman Pericles (around 460–429 BC) and after. Thanks to the reforms of Pericles, Athenian democracy was at its strongest. Greek art, architecture, poetry, drama, and philosophy flourished at this time.

Significance The cultural legacy of Athens is one of the great sources of Western civilization, serving to influence later art, governments, and philosophy.

431–404 BC Peloponnesian War

Following the Persian Wars, Athens transformed a mutual defense league into an empire, earning enemies and starting it on a collision course with Sparta, its rival for dominance in the Greek world. In 31 BC the rivalry between Athens and Sparta erupted into war, which lasted for 27 years. Ultimately Sparta, with assistance from Persia, was able to cut off food supplies to Athens. This forced Athens to surrender to Sparta in 404 BC.

Significance The Peloponnesian War was the watershed moment in the struggle for power in ancient Greece. Weakened, the Greek city-states declined and were eventually conquered by Philip II of Macedon.

330 BC Alexander the Great's Conquests

After inheriting a united Greece following the assassination in 336 BC of his father, Philip II of Mace-

don, Alexander set out to conquer the known world. By 331 BC Alexander and his armies had conquered Asia Minor, Syria, Egypt, Mesopotamia, and all of the lands of the Persian Empire east to the Indus River. For his political and military successes he was called Alexander the Great. He ruled over his vast empire until his death in 323 BC.

Significance Alexander's conquests spread Greek culture from the Mediterranean Sea to India. This Hellenistic, or Greek-like, culture thrived between the time of Alexander's death and the Roman conquest of Greece in 146 BC.

218–201 BC Second Punic War

Rome's expanding borders and increased influence in the western Mediterranean brought the Republic into conflict with Carthage, a powerful commercial city in North Africa. In 218 BC the second of three major wars between the two powers began when the Carthaginian general Hannibal invaded Roman territory. Rome countered by invading North Africa and forcing Hannibal to return to his city. In 202 BC the Romans, led by Scipio, defeated Hannibal and his army at Zama, near Carthage.

Significance The Second Punic War established Rome as the most powerful force in the western Mediterranean. Within 100 years Rome brought the rest of the Mediterranean region under its control.

27 BC Augustus Becomes Rome's Emperor

When the Roman leader Julius Caesar was assassinated in 44 BC, Octavian, his grandnephew and chosen heir, struggled initially to consolidate his own rule. By 31 BC Octavian had quelled unrest in the Roman territories and defeated both his rivals for power. In 27 BC the Roman Senate officially conferred on him the title Augustus, which means "the revered one." Under Augustus the Roman Republic became the Roman Empire.

Significance The roughly 200-year period of political stability in the Roman Empire known as the Pax Romana began with the reign of Augustus.

c. AD 30 Jesus of Nazareth Preaches

Around AD 30, in the Roman province of Judea, Jesus of Nazareth, a Jewish teacher and prophet, began attracting followers. According to the Gospels of the New Testament, he preached a message of repentance and love of God and neighbor. A few years after he began teaching, Jesus was put to death by the Romans.

Significance The story of Jesus and his teachings are the basis for one of the world's great religions. Today over 2 billion people are Christians.

c. AD 47–62 Paul Spreads Christianity

Saul, a Jewish religious official from Tarsus in Asia Minor, at first opposed the spread of Christian beliefs. Better known by his Greek name Paul, he converted to Christianity and devoted his life to preaching and helped establish Christian churches throughout the eastern Mediterranean. Paul also wrote many of the letters that are part of the New Testament. He was imprisoned, and likely executed, by the Romans around 62.

Significance Through his journeys and writings, Paul played a key role in the development of Christian thought and the spread of Christianity in parts of the Roman empire.

250–900 Maya Classic Age

Early Maya villages on the Yucatán Peninsula of Mesoamerica gave rise, though increased trade, to larger towns and cities. During the Maya Classic Age, which lasted from 250 to 900, there were as many as 40 Maya cities with 5,000 to 50,000 inhabitants each. The cities had stone pyramids, temples, palaces, and plazas for public gatherings. Canals controlled the flow of water. Mayans developed systems of astronomy and mathematics to aid in their religious practices. By 900, for uncertain reasons, the Maya civilization rapidly declined.

Significance The Maya were one of the great ancient civilizations of the Western Hemisphere. Today their descendants in Mexico, Belize, and Guatemala still speak variants of the Maya language.

312 Constantine Converts to Christianity

In 284 the Roman Empire was divided in two. Following the death of his father in 306, Constantine became emperor of the Western Roman Empire. The eastern emperor, however, refused to recognize his status and he was forced to contend with a series of rivals. Constantine met one such rival in battle in 312. Before the battle he is said to have had a vision that would later lead him to convert to Christianity. He triumphed and the following year issued the Edict of Milan declaring Christianity to be a legal religion within the empire.

Significance With legal status and support in Rome, the Christian religion, once persecuted and suppressed, was able to grow and flourish. By the end of the fourth century it was the official religion of the Roman Empire.

476 Fall of the Western Roman Empire

Nearly a century of invasions by peoples expanding their territory left the Western Roman Empire in a severely weakened state. In 410 a Germanic people

known as the Visigoths captured the city of Rome. The Western Empire continued to be plagued by invaders through 476. In that year a Germanic commander overthrew Romulus Augustulus, the last Roman emperor in the West.

Significance The fall of the Western Roman Empire fractured the unity of the Roman world and marked the beginning of a period in Europe when there were no strong central governments.

529–535 Justinian Preserves Roman Laws

The Eastern Roman Empire, called the Byzantine Empire, carried on after the fall of the Western Roman Empire. Its leaders sought to preserve the power and glory of Rome in the east. In about 529 the emperor Justinian had his scholars begin compiling the laws of the Roman Empire. The result was Justinian's Code. The collection of older laws was issued in Latin; newer ones were issued in Greek, the language of the Byzantines. Central to the code was the idea that established laws prevent people from being subject to the whims of their leaders.

Significance By establishing a clear reference for judicial decisions, Justinian's Code enhanced the stability of the Byzantine Empire. It later influenced legal systems throughout Europe.

622 Muhammad Leaves Mecca

According to Islamic tradition, around 610 an Arab merchant named Muhammad received a calling from God. He began preaching a monotheistic faith to the people of his home city of Mecca, on the Arabian Peninsula. The pagan rulers of Mecca were not receptive to his teachings and harassed Muhammad and his followers, who were called Muslims. In 622 Muhammad left Mecca for the town of Medina, where Islam gained a larger following.

Significance The journey of Muhammad from Mecca to Medina is known as the *hegira*. Later, Muslims marked the year in which the *hegira* took place as the first year of the Islamic calendar.

634–711 Spread of Islam

Following Muhammad's death, his successors, known as caliphs, led Arab armies in a rapid conquest of much of the Byzantine Empire, including North Africa, and the Persian Empire. The new Muslim empire stretched as far east as India and as far west as the Atlantic Ocean. In 711 Muslim forces conquered Spain, leading to the development of Muslim civilization in southern Europe.

Significance As Arabic language and Muslim patterns of life became prominent, the conquered peoples slowly converted to Islam. In many of those

lands, Islam remains the majority religion today and provides a basis for shared cultural identity.

c. 661–680 **Sunni-Shia Split**

Disputes over the succession as caliph eventually led to the division of Muslims into several groups. Sunni Muslims accepted the legitimacy of the first four caliphs; Shia Muslims, who considered only Ali a rightful leader, did not. The deaths of Ali (661) and his son Husayn (680) widened the rift. Differing opinions among early Muslims regarding proper theological and religious ideas solidified the differences between Sunni and Shia groups.

Significance Today Sunnis and Shias continue to be the main groups of Muslims, with Sunni Muslims accounting for about 90 percent of Muslims. Shia Muslims live mainly in Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, the Arabian Peninsula, India, and Pakistan.

750–1258 **Abbasid Caliphate**

The first dynasty of caliphs, the Umayyads, oversaw the initial expansion of the caliphate. In 747 a competing family, the Abbasids, with the support of the Shia, began a rebellion against the Umayyads. By 750 the head of the Abbasid family had become caliph over the Muslim empire, with the Umayyads surviving only in Spain. The Abbasids moved the capital of the caliphate from Damascus to the new city of Baghdad. The Abbasids remained in power, which progressively diminished, until 1258, when Baghdad was overrun by Mongol invaders.

Significance The Abbasid Caliphate ushered in a golden age for the Muslim Empire. Art, literature, music, and scholarship thrived in the caliphate.

800 **Charlemagne Crowned Emperor**

Charlemagne inherited the Frankish throne from his father in 768. After gaining greater power upon his brother's death, he sought to carry out his vision of building a new Rome. He conquered the Lombards, Saxons, and Avars before finally being repelled by the Moors in Spain. In 799 a new pope, Leo III, asked Charlemagne for help in fighting off opposition to his papacy. Charlemagne obliged, the next year the pope crowned him Emperor of the Romans.

Significance Charlemagne's coronation by the pope granted legitimacy to his conquests and solidified his rule. Charlemagne's realm was the basis of what became known as the Holy Roman Empire, which lasted in various guises until 1806.

c. 800–1591 **West African Trading States**

In West Africa, along the gold-rich banks of the Niger River, a succession of three powerful kingdoms

arose: Ghana, Mali, and Songhai. Control of trans-Saharan trade gave all three their power. Ghana reached its peak under Tunka Manin in about 1067. Early in the 13th century Ghana was overtaken by Mali's empire; its greatest ruler was Mansa Musa, who made a notable pilgrimage to Mecca. In 1468 Mali gave way to Songhai after Sonni Ali captured the important commercial city of Timbuktu. Songhai controlled the trade routes of West Africa until 1591, when a Moroccan force defeated the empire.

Significance Links between West African and Arab traders helped bring Islam into sub-Saharan Africa. The West African trading states developed a rich oral history.

850–1150 **Viking Invasions**

The Vikings were Scandinavian warriors who, beginning about 850, began a series of invasions of Europe. Many Viking raids were hit-and-run attacks, but sometimes Vikings settled where they raided, as in England and Normandy, France. A Viking leader named Rurik and his clan, the Rus, took control of a town in Eastern Europe. The Rus remained and expanded their domain. From these invasions, the history of Russia began.

Significance The Viking raids destabilized Europe for 200 years. Where the Vikings settled, however, they melded with the local population, contributing customs and language.

850–1250 **Manorial and Feudal Systems in Europe**

Two related systems governed social relations in medieval Europe. The feudal system, or feudalism, began as a means of mutual defense in the chaos of invasions by Vikings, Magyars, and Muslims. Lords enlisted trained warriors known as knights to defend their lands in return for a fief, a portion of those lands. Lords and vassals, those who accepted fiefs, owed each other service and protection. The manorial system was an economic arrangement that tied serfs, or peasants, to a lord's land. The serfs farmed the lord's land in return for a plot of the lord's land to farm for themselves, the lord's protection, and other services.

Significance The feudal and manorial systems provided the social, economic, and political structures for European society for about 400 years.

c. 1000 **Toltecs Dominate Central Mexico**

A semi-nomadic people, the Toltec settled in the region around present-day Mexico City around 900. By about 1000 they dominated the region and had spread southward, into the lands of the Maya.

Fierce warriors, the Toltec established three military orders—the Coyote, the Jaguar, and the Eagle—and incorporated military imagery into their art and architecture. They were the dominant power in the region until the mid-1200s.

Significance The Toltec's militaristic culture influenced the late Maya and the emergent Aztec, who eventually established themselves as the dominant power in Mesoamerica in the early 1400s.

1066 Norman Conquest of England

When Edward the Confessor, the king of England, died in 1066 without leaving an heir, Duke William of Normandy, France, a distant relative of Edward's, claimed the English throne. The English selected another man to be their king and William launched an invasion of the island. Backed by a powerful force of Norman knights, he was victorious in the Battle of Hastings in 1066. Shortly thereafter he was crowned King William I of England.

Significance The Norman Conquest ended Anglo-Saxon rule in England. William introduced military feudalism. Over time, a blending of Anglo-Saxon and Norman laws, customs, and language occurred.

1071 Seljuk Turks Conquer Asia Minor

Around 1000 the Seljuk Turks, a Muslim people from Central Asia, began conquering territory in the Middle East. In 1055 they conquered Baghdad, and from there, under the nominal authority of the Abbasid caliph, they ruled Iran, Iraq, and Syria. In 1071 the Seljuk Turks conquered most of the Byzantine territory in Asia Minor. When their power receded elsewhere, Asia Minor, today called Turkey, became the last Seljuk stronghold.

Significance The Seljuks established a system of Islamic schools (called the madrasa) throughout their domain. In Persia their rule led to a revival of Persian as a literary language. Their defeat of the Byzantines was one factor that led to the Crusades.

1095–1291 Crusades

A series of military expeditions from Europe to the Holy Land between 1095 and 1291, the Crusades began when the hard-pressed Byzantine emperor turned to his fellow Christians in Western Europe for help in fending off the Muslim Seljuks. In 1095 Pope Urban II called on Europe's feudal lords to supply soldiers for a war to defend the Byzantine Empire and to take Jerusalem and the area around it, known as the Holy Land, from the Muslims. The First Crusade (1096–1099) succeeded in taking Antioch and Jerusalem. Over the next 200 years at

least ten expeditions were undertaken, with varied leadership and diverse purposes. The Crusades ended in 1291, when Muslims captured the city of Acre, the last Christian stronghold in the Holy Land.

Significance The Crusades led to increased trade between Europe and the East. They also spurred political change in Europe, as nobles gained power at the expense of kings.

c. 1200–1294 Mongol Invasions

The Mongol invasions began in the early 1200s, when Genghis Khan and his army began taking territory in China. From there they conquered Central Asia and most of Persia. Other Mongol armies, led by relatives of Genghis Khan, continued the conquests. Kublai Khan finished conquering China, and also captured Tibet and parts of Southeast Asia. Meanwhile Batu, another relative, invaded Europe. He succeeded in bringing Kievan Russia and parts of Poland and Hungary into the Mongol Empire.

Significance By 1294 the Mongols controlled the largest land empire in history. In China, Kublai Khan founded the Yuan dynasty. Kievan Russia remained under Mongol control for nearly 200 years.

c. 1200 Rise of European Trading Cities

Trade in Europe, which had declined following the collapse of the Roman Empire, began to revive following the Crusades. Merchants in Italian city-states like Venice and Genoa controlled the transfer of goods from ships to overland routes; as a result they grew wealthy from trade. In northern Europe, German cities along the Baltic and North Seas created the Hanseatic League to regulate and profit from trade in their region. At its peak the Hanseatic League had 100 member cities.

Significance The revival of trade increased European wealth and power, and brought Europeans into closer contact with the world.

1215 Magna Carta

Frustrated by the demands of King John II, English nobles forced him in 1215 to consent to the provisions in the document known as Magna Carta. The original charter contained 63 clauses, many of which were intended to ensure the feudal rights of nobles. Other clauses, though, sought to protect the rights of all the king's subjects.

Significance In time Magna Carta came to be seen as the foundation of constitutional government in England. The document established that everyone, including monarchs, was subject to the rule of law.

1347–1351 Black Death

Increased trade between Europe and Asia had unintended consequences. One such consequence was the ease with which diseases could spread. The Black Death probably traveled to Europe from China along sea and overland trade routes. The outbreak of this epidemic in the mid-1300s decimated the populations of both continents.

Significance The Black Death severed some of the bonds that held the manorial system together. The shortage of labor gave peasants more bargaining power. Europe's population did not completely rebound until the 1500s.

1350–1600 Renaissance

Literally “rebirth,” the Renaissance was a period of cultural renewal starting first in Italy and spreading to all of Europe. Based on the rediscovery of Greek and Roman writings and new appreciation for secular culture and individual achievement, or humanism, the Renaissance inspired advances in the arts and sciences.

Significance The Renaissance profoundly changed how Europeans viewed themselves and their world. The movement's onset represents the close of the Middle Ages, a term invented during the Renaissance to mark its separation from the earlier time.

1400–1500 Inca Empire Flourishes

Having begun as an isolated tribe near Cuzco, in what is now Peru, the Inca, through conquest of neighboring tribes, rose to become a mighty empire. By the mid-1400s the Inca presided over a territory that stretched nearly 2,000 miles along the Andes Mountains from present-day Ecuador to Chile. The Inca are known in history for the strength of their central government, the complexity of their system of roads, and their building skills, shown most dramatically at Machu Picchu.

Significance The Inca Empire ruled 12 million people at its peak, which occurred at the brink of European contact. Ironically, their sophisticated road system sped the Spaniards along on their conquest.

c. 1415–1650 Age of Exploration

Seeking new ways to trade with the civilizations of the Far East, Europeans at the beginning of the 1400s began exploring possible sea routes to Asia. On his 1486–1487 voyage Bartolomeu Dias rounded Africa's southern tip. Later missions led Europeans to America, and ultimately, with Ferdinand Magellan's 1519–1522 voyage, around the world. The Age of Exploration continued through the 1600s with

the search for a Northwest Passage that led to the opening of the interior of North America.

Significance The Age of Exploration expanded knowledge of the world and made possible the European colonization of Asia, Africa, and the Americas.

1453 Ottoman Turks Take Constantinople

Toward the end of the 1200s, a new power, the Ottoman Turks, arose in Asia Minor. In the 1300s the Ottomans began to threaten the remaining territory of the Byzantine Empire. They conquered the Balkans and took Adrianople, a Byzantine city, in 1361. In 1453 the Ottomans succeeded in capturing Constantinople, which they renamed Istanbul and made the capital of their empire.

Significance The fall of Constantinople marked the end of the Byzantine Empire. The Ottoman Turks would build a vast empire embracing Egypt, Syria, and much of North Africa that lasted until 1922.

1455 Gutenberg's Printing Press

Though the Chinese developed a printing process in the 100s, printing in Europe exploded after Johannes Gutenberg pioneered the use of movable type in the mid-1400s. Using metal block letters individually laid onto a plate that was then rolled with ink and pressed over paper, Gutenberg began printing copies of the Bible around 1455. The new technology spread quickly. By 1475 printing presses were operating in nations throughout Europe.

Significance The printing press helped make literacy common, spread the ideas of the Renaissance, and introduced a new method of mass communication.

1492 Spanish Unification and Expansion

Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile married in 1469 and joined their kingdoms in 1479 to form a united Spain. They used the Inquisition, an investigative body of the Roman Catholic Church, to enforce religious conformity. In 1492 they conquered Granada, the last remaining Muslim kingdom on the Iberian Peninsula. In that year they ordered all Jews and Muslims (whom they called Moors) to become Christians or leave Spain and sponsored Christopher Columbus's voyage across the Atlantic.

Significance United Spain became Europe's dominant power for 100 years. Columbus's voyage led to a Spanish empire in the Americas. The expulsion of non-Christians, however, robbed Spain of much of its commercial and intellectual talent.

1494 Treaty of Tordesillas

Voyages of exploration created conflict as Spain and Portugal staked competing claims over newly

discovered lands. In 1493 Pope Alexander VI sought to resolve the disputes by drawing an imaginary line through the Atlantic Ocean. Spain was given rights to all non-Christian lands claimed west of the line, while Portugal was given rights to new claims in the east. The following year, Spain and Portugal agreed to the Treaty of Tordesillas, which moved the demarcation line farther west.

Significance Other European powers largely ignored the line. However, because of the agreement, Portugal was able to establish a colony in Brazil, which is why today Brazilians speak Portuguese, while the rest of Latin America speaks Spanish.

c. 1500–1865 **Atlantic Slave Trade**

The economies of the European colonies in the Americas were based on plantation agriculture and the extraction of raw materials. Such labor-intensive enterprises required large numbers of workers. To meet these labor needs the colonial powers began transporting Africans across the Atlantic to serve as slaves. In time the slave trade solidified into a system of triangular trade. The journey of Africans from their homelands to the Americas was called the Middle Passage. Conditions for Africans on the journey were brutal, and many died along the way. By the time the slave trade ended in the mid-1800s, some 10 million Africans had been transported to slavery in the Americas.

Significance The slave trade devastated the lives of those who were enslaved and ravaged the countries from which they were taken. In the Americas, slavery contributed to economic development but left lingering social scars.

1502–1722 **Persia's Safavid Dynasty**

As the 1500s began, a Muslim religious leader named Ismail rose to power over the Safavids, a Shia Muslim clan that had lived in Persia for generations. By 1512 Ismail had succeeded in establishing a Safavid dynasty in Persia. Most Persians were Sunni Muslims, but Ismail proclaimed Shi'ism the empire's official religion. Under Abbas the Great, who reigned from 1578 to 1629, the Safavid Empire reached its peak, with successful wars against the Ottoman Turks. Following Abbas's death in 1629 the empire began a slow decline.

Significance Safavid culture represented a blending of Arab, Persian, and Chinese styles. Safavid adherence to Shia Islam made Persia distinct among Muslim states.

1517 **Luther's Ninety-Five Theses**

In 1517 Martin Luther, then a 34-year-old Catholic clergyman, posted a list of 95 theses, or statements,

critical of the Roman Catholic Church's practice of selling letters of forgiveness, called indulgences. Luther's intent in posting these statements was to spark reform within the church. By 1521, however, Luther's ideas had led to his expulsion from the Roman Catholic Church and sparked the Protestant Reformation. With the break from Rome official, Luther went on to establish a religious movement that became known as the Lutheran Church. Other Protestant movements quickly developed.

Significance With its emphasis on a personal interpretation of scripture, the Protestant Reformation contributed to the growth of individualism. The passions it aroused, however, sparked religious wars that roiled Europe for the next century and a half.

1519–1533 **Spanish Conquests in the Americas**

In less than fifteen years, Spain overthrew the two most powerful empires in the Americas, the Aztec and the Inca, and established an empire of their own. In 1519 Hernán Cortés landed in Mexico with 600 men. Within two years Cortés succeeded in capturing and destroying the Aztec capital of Tenochtitlán. In 1530 Francisco Pizarro led an expedition to conquer the Inca of South America. By 1533 Pizarro had won the Inca territories from present-day Ecuador to Chile for Spain. Superior weapons, Native American allies, and European diseases that weakened the Indians contributed to Spanish victory.

Significance Wealth from Spain's empire in the Americas fueled Spain's military and political efforts in Europe for 100 years. Disease and exploitation decimated native populations. Over time, a new culture, mixing Spanish and native elements, developed in Central and much of South America.

1526 **Mughal Empires of India**

Muslim armies entered the Indus River valley as early as the 700s. By the early 1200s the Delhi sultanate extended Muslim rule into the Ganges River valley. In 1526 a Muslim chieftain named Babur led a combined Turk and Mongol army into India from the north. Babur defeated the Delhi sultanate and established the Mughal Empire. Babur's grandson Akbar, greatest of the Mughal rulers, expanded the empire, sponsored inter-religious discussions, and encouraged a blending of Hindu and Muslim cultures. By the early 1700s the Mughals controlled most of the Indian subcontinent, but England's increasing economic and military power was already undermining their rule.

Significance At its height the Mughal Empire ruled as many as 100 million people, making it one of the

world's most powerful states. Art, architecture, and literature flourished under the Mughals.

c. 1540–1725 Scientific Revolution

A movement in Europe during the 1500s and 1600s, the Scientific Revolution rejected medieval scholasticism in favor of direct observation of nature and a program of hypothesis tested by experiment (i.e., the scientific method). In 1543 Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543) published *On the Revolution of Celestial Spheres*, in which he argued that the sun rather than the Earth was the center of the universe, marking the symbolic birth of the Scientific Revolution. Other notable contributors included Galileo Galilei (1564–1642), who developed the telescope and used experiments to test theories; and Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1727), who invented calculus and codified the laws of motion and gravity.

Significance The Scientific Revolution transformed Europeans' view of the universe, weakened the authority of religion, and, by establishing the scientific method, started an ongoing expansion of human knowledge and technological innovation.

1545–1563 Council of Trent

The Roman Catholic Church responded to the Protestant Reformation with its own reforms. The Catholic, or Counter-, Reformation began under Pope Paul III, who convened the Council of Trent in 1545. The Council acted to correct some of the abuses most criticized by Protestants, such as the sale of indulgences. At the same time, the Council reaffirmed other church doctrines and traditions.

Significance The Council of Trent largely satisfied Catholics' demand for reform. A newly reinvigorated church began to reassert its power.

1588 Defeat of the Spanish Armada

King Philip II of Spain saw himself as Roman Catholicism's defender. Hoping to depose Queen Elizabeth I, a Protestant, from the English throne, Philip assembled a fleet of 130 ships known as the Spanish Armada. In August 1588 the English fleet attacked the Armada, causing severe damage. Less than half the Armada returned home to Spain.

Significance The Armada's defeat spared England from invasion, aided its ally, the Netherlands, which was at war with Spain, and began to shift the balance of power in the Atlantic from Spain to England.

1600–1800 Absolute Monarchs in Europe

In the 1600s, as the feudal structure broke down, European monarchs began to assert their right to rule absolutely, without consulting nobles, common

people, or their representative bodies. The archetype of an absolute monarch was Louis XIV of France who once famously uttered, "I am the state." Other notable absolute monarchs included Peter the Great (1672–1725) and Catherine the Great (1729–1796), who "westernized" Russia.

Significance By consolidating fiefs into larger kingdoms, breaking down the feudal system, and centralizing authority, absolute monarchs hastened the development of European nation-states.

1603–1868 Japan's Tokugawa Shogunate

In the Japanese feudal system, the shogun was the emperor's military commander and the actual ruler of the country. From the late 1400s, however, no shogun was able to assert authority over rival, warring factions. In 1603 Tokugawa Ieyasu won a struggle for supremacy and declared himself shogun. He introduced changes to the feudal system that tied peasants to the land, outlawed social mobility, and centralized power in his hands.

Significance The Tokugawa shoguns brought Japan about 200 years of relative calm. However, in the 1630s, fearing destabilization that Christian missionaries might cause, they also closed the country to the outside world.

1618–1648 Thirty Years' War

Tensions between Roman Catholics and Protestants frequently erupted into warfare. When Ferdinand II, King of Bohemia and later Holy Roman Emperor, attempted to impose Catholicism on his subjects, Protestants rebelled. Religion was used to further territorial ambitions, as other European nations, including Denmark, Sweden, and France, involved themselves in the fighting. In the ensuing years a series of devastating wars were fought, mainly on German territory. The fighting came to end with the signing of the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648.

Significance The Thirty Years' War devastated the German territories. The power of the Holy Roman Empire was greatly reduced. Its territories were granted sovereignty, forming the foundation for the modern system of European nation-states.

1688 England's Glorious Revolution

During the 1600s the Stuart monarchs of England tried to assert absolute authority over Parliament. The efforts of Charles I triggered the English Civil War (1641–1649), which resulted in his execution. Oliver Cromwell ruled England as a Commonwealth for eleven years, until the Stuarts were restored in 1660. Conflict between king and Parliament erupted anew in 1685 when James II became



king of England. Though most English were Protestant, James was Roman Catholic. Fearing a line of Catholic kings, Parliament asked James to surrender the throne and invited his daughter Mary and her husband William to serve as joint rulers. James fled to exile in France, and William and Mary were crowned after signing the English Bill of Rights.

Significance The bloodless transfer of power, known as the Glorious Revolution, ratified Parliament's power over the monarch.

1700–1800 Age of Enlightenment

A period in European history in which belief in rationalism, natural law and natural rights, secularism, and progress held sway, the Enlightenment is also known as the Age of Reason. Enlightenment thinkers, known in France as *philosophes*, included John Locke, Baron de Montesquieu, and Voltaire.

Significance Enlightenment thinkers advocated reforms in government. The influence of these ideas can be seen in the American and French revolutions and in the governments they produced.

c. 1750–1850 Industrial Revolution

An era in Europe and the United States that saw a rapid expansion of industry and machine-driven production of goods at the expense of farming and handicraft production, the Industrial Revolution began first in Great Britain. New technologies such as the steam engine and iron smelting led to advances in textile manufacturing and transportation (railroads and steamboats).

Significance The Industrial Revolution transformed nations like few events before it. Cities grew quickly, and became crowded and unhealthy, as workers relocated in search of factory jobs. Goods became cheaper for a swelling middle class, but workers suffered terrible exploitation.

1754–1763 Seven Years' War and French and Indian War

The rivalry between Great Britain and France for status as colonial powers and the struggle between Austria and Prussia for dominance over the German states erupted into nine years of warfare. In the French and Indian War, which lasted from 1754 to 1763, France and Great Britain fought for control of North America. In Europe the two nations were also involved in the Seven Years' War. Between 1756 and 1763 a British-Prussian alliance fought a French-Austrian alliance for control of the German states of Saxony and Silesia.

Significance In Europe, no clear victor emerged from the Seven Years' War. Prussia held onto the

region of Silesia, but Austria made gains elsewhere. However, Great Britain's victory in the French and Indian War brought it control of France's North American territory.

1775–1781 American Revolution

The American Revolution began in April 1775 with the battles of Lexington and Concord. Initially the Americans' undermanned and poorly equipped Continental Army faced numerous setbacks and almost certain defeat. The first official call for American independence came in 1775, leading to the adoption of the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776. An American military victory at Saratoga in 1777 proved a turning point, as it convinced the French to enter the war on the American side. Britain's decision to challenge the Americans in the South ultimately proved fatal. It led to the defeat of the British army at Yorktown, Virginia, in 1781.

Significance The American Revolution was the first successful struggle of a colony for independence from its ruler. The United States of America was established as a democratic republic.

1789 United States Constitution Adopted

Seeking to address some of the problems it faced under the Articles of Confederation, the United States drafted a new Constitution in 1787. Ratified in 1788 and officially adopted in 1789, the United States Constitution established a federal system of shared power between the national and state governments. It created a system of three branches of federal government, with the power of each countered by checks and balances. The Bill of Rights, added in 1791, guaranteed key rights.

Significance The United States Constitution ushered in a new era of constitutional democracy. However, this democracy was incomplete. Most white males and all white females could not vote, and slavery was still legal.

1789 French Revolution Begins

French society evolved through the 1700s, but its political institutions remained static. By 1789 the situation proved unsustainable. At the meeting called by King Louis XVI of the Estates General, France's parliament, representatives of the Third Estate rebelled, declaring themselves to be the National Assembly. In July the citizens of Paris looted and destroyed the Bastille prison. In August, the National Assembly adopted The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, which expressed the revolutionary principles of liberty, equality, and fraternity. A series of constitutions transformed

France into a republic. In 1793 the King was executed, and a Reign of Terror against internal opponents of the revolution began.

Significance The French Revolution completely transformed French government and society. Its successes served as a beacon and its excesses as a caution for later revolutionary movements.

1791–1824 Independence Movements in the Americas

From the atmosphere of liberty inspired by the American and French revolutions arose the Latin American independence movements. The first blow came on the island of Santo Domingo, where Toussaint L'Ouverture led a revolt of African slaves that eventually established an independent Haiti. Mexico achieved independence from Spain in 1821, following a ten-year struggle. In South America, charismatic leaders Simón Bolívar and José de San Martín helped push the Spanish entirely off the continent by 1824. Brazil declared its independence from Portugal in 1822.

Significance Latin American independence brought to an end 300 years of colonial rule in the region.

1796–1815 Napoleonic Wars

Out of the chaos of the French Revolution arose the dramatic personality of General Napoleon Bonaparte. Napoleon used his popularity as a military leader to establish political authority in France in 1799. As emperor, Napoleon reorganized the French state and launched a series of wars to gain control of Europe. Great Britain remained his implacable foe, checking his ambitions at sea and supporting a shifting coalition of allies in Europe. The failure of Napoleon's invasion of Russia in 1812 assured his fall. He made one last bid for power in 1815 but met defeat in the Battle of Waterloo.

Significance The Napoleonic Wars hastened the growth of nationalism and of mass armies, as well as the spread of democratic ideals. The Congress of Vienna, a meeting of European Powers in 1815 to establish a balance of power, ushered in a period of peace and political reaction.

1828–1832 Growth of Democracy in the United States and Great Britain

In the United States the elimination of property ownership requirements for voting increased political participation and ushered in the era of Jacksonian Democracy. The period is named after Andrew Jackson, whose election to the presidency in 1828 symbolized the shift in political power in the United States from the elite to the common citizen. In Great

Britain, years of agitation led to the passage of the Reform Bill of 1832, which redistributed seats in the House of Commons to provide more balanced representation for the country's urban districts. Expansion of the right to vote in Great Britain came later, in stages, starting in 1867.

Significance While full democracy in Great Britain and the United States would have to wait until the 20th century, the period from 1828 to 1832 represented a shift to more representative governments.

1845–1849 Irish Potato Famine

From 1845 to 1849 a fungus devastated Ireland's potato crop. With much of the Irish population living in poverty and dependent on potatoes as a main food source, a severe famine resulted. Great Britain, of which Ireland was a part at that time, did little to provide assistance to the Irish people. Other food products grown in Ireland were not affected by the fungus but were exported because the Irish people could not afford them.

Significance Of the 8.4 million Irish before the famine, 1.1 million are believed to have died of starvation and malnutrition, while another 1.5 million emigrated to the United States or Great Britain.

1848 Revolutions Sweep Europe

In 1848 the monarchies restored by the Congress of Vienna in 1815 began to unravel. Beginning with the February Revolution in France, a series of republican revolutions swept through Europe. One by one, governments fell and monarchs fled. In Paris, Berlin, and Vienna, the urban poor turned radical. Moderates drew back from social revolution. By August of 1849 most of the old governments had been restored. Austria defeated nationalist uprisings in Italy and Hungary, though it was forced to grant Hungary autonomy and abolish serfdom.

Significance Following the failure of the revolutions, many liberals felt disillusioned. Tens of thousands of people from German lands emigrated to the United States to escape political repression at home. Karl Marx's *Communist Manifesto*, published in February of 1848, foretold a new round of more radical revolutions to come.

1859–1871 German and Italian Unification

In the German states and the Italian states—38 and 9 of them respectively—the revolutions of 1848 had been as much about national unification as democratic change. Through warfare, an uprising led by Giuseppe Garibaldi in the south, and by direct vote, a unified Italian kingdom with its capital in

Rome was established by 1870. German unification was accomplished largely through warfare. Led by Otto von Bismarck, Prussia fought the Danish War (1863–64), the Austro-Prussian War (1866), and the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71). Out of these wars arose a united German Empire in 1871 with its capital in Berlin.

Significance Italian and German unification showed the power of nationalism in the late 1900s. A united Germany became the most powerful country in Europe, triggering rivalries that ultimately led to the outbreak of World War I in the 20th century.

1850–1864 Taiping Rebellion in China

By the 1840s China's Qing dynasty, which began in 1644, had grown weak and corrupt. European powers were able to extract valuable trade concessions, which only made the Qing's weakness more apparent. A large increase in population and poverty produced social unrest. In 1850 a Christian convert who believed himself the brother of Jesus of Nazareth started a rebellion that soon gathered wide-spread support. Fearing the loss of trade that the collapse of the Qing dynasty might bring, Western powers eventually stepped in and helped put down the rebellion in 1864.

Significance The Taiping Rebellion lasted for 14 years, caused terrible destruction, and cost millions of lives. The Qing dynasty never recovered control of the country. Western influence grew. Some of the ideas of the Taiping rebels—for instance, common ownership of property—inspired the Chinese Communists in the 20th century.

1854 End of Japanese Isolation

In 1853 United States president Millard Fillmore dispatched Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan with the intention of opening the country to foreign trade. Fearing the use of force, the Japanese reluctantly agreed to the Treaty of Kanagawa in 1854, which opened two Japanese ports to American vessels for obtaining fuel, shelter, and supplies.

Significance The opening of the two ports allowed trade between Japan and the United States. Within two years Japan signed similar treaties with Great Britain, the Netherlands, and Russia. Japan's isolationism was effectively ended.

1861–1865 American Civil War

The election of Abraham Lincoln as United States president in 1860 led to secession of the slaveholding southern states and the formation of the Confederacy. The Civil War began in April 1861 with the Confederate attack on Fort Sumter. The Confederacy

won key early battles, thanks largely to the superior military skill of its general. Northern victories at Vicksburg and Gettysburg in 1863 helped turn the tide of the war. Fighting ended in April 1865, with the surrender of Confederate commander Robert E. Lee to Union commander Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox Court House in Virginia.

Significance More than 600,000 Americans died in the Civil War, making it the nation's costliest war. Northern victory ensured the preservation of the United States and led to the end of slavery.

1868 Meiji Restoration in Japan

Believing the shogun had failed to stand up to the Western powers, a group of samurai forced the shogun to step down and restore authority to the emperor in 1868. The leaders of the Meiji Restoration wanted to make Japan powerful enough to rival the West. They encouraged the Meiji emperor to implement policies that would enrich the country and strengthen the military.

Significance The Meiji Restoration triggered a rapid transformation of Japanese society. The feudal system ended, educational opportunities improved, and the country industrialized. By the turn of the 20th century Japan had become a world power.

1880–1920 Age of Imperialism

Heightened nationalism, a desire for raw materials and new markets, and a paternalistic missionary zeal all contributed to the rise of Western imperialism. By 1914 the major European powers had divided nearly all of Africa among themselves. Parts of Asia were similarly divided, though many countries, including China, managed to maintain their independence. The United States also became involved in the imperial age by acquiring territories in the Pacific and the Caribbean.

Significance Imperialism drew Africa and Asia into a world economic system whose hubs were Europe and the United States. The relationship between colonizer and colonized, however, was often exploitative and dehumanizing.

1903 Wright Brothers Flight

Orville and Wilbur Wright, two bicycle mechanics from Dayton, Ohio, built the first successful powered airplane. On December 17, 1903, at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, the Wright brothers made four successful tests of their design.

Significance The Wright brothers and others soon began manufacturing airplanes. Improved designs revolutionized transportation, increased demand for oil, and affected the conduct of warfare.

1914–1918 World War I

Increasingly intense rivalries in Europe, along with heightened feelings of nationalism and a system of military alliances, led to the start of World War I in 1914. The primary opponents were the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey) and the Allied Powers (Great Britain, France, and Russia). New technologies such as machine guns and four years of stalemated trench warfare made World War I the deadliest war—14 million killed—the world had seen to that point. The U.S. entry into the war in 1917 helped the Allies win.

Significance World War I led to the end of monarchies in Russia, Austria-Hungary, Germany, and Turkey. The horrific number of casualties produced widespread disillusionment. The Treaty of Versailles imposed harsh penalties on Germany, contributing to the outbreak of World War II.

1917 Russian Revolution

Defeats and high casualties in World War I led to revolution in Russia. In the February Revolution of 1917 Czar Nicholas II was forced from power. An interim government was established, but it was ineffectual. In the October Revolution of 1917 the Bolsheviks, a Communist revolutionary group led by Vladimir Lenin, overthrew the interim government and established power. In 1918 a civil war broke out, in which the Bolsheviks prevailed. Collectively the two 1917 revolutions and the years of civil war that followed are known as the Russian Revolution.

Significance The Russian Revolution led to the establishment of the Soviet Union in 1922. The Soviets eventually succeeded in creating a world power, but at a steep cost for some Soviet citizens.

1914–1939 Women Win Voting Rights

As early as 1792, British writer Mary Wollstonecraft called for women's voting rights in *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*. In the United States, the Seneca Falls Convention of 1848 issued a similar call for United States women. However, the first country to grant women voting rights was New Zealand, then still a British colony, in 1893. Between 1914 and 1939, however, 28 nations, including the United States (1920), granted women voting rights.

Significance The extension of voting rights to women placed many societies on a firmer democratic footing. In 1952 the United Nations adopted a resolution calling on all member states to grant women the right to vote on an equal basis with men. Not every nation has complied.

1929–1939 Great Depression

A variety of factors, including reckless investments in stocks, an overreliance by consumers on credit, and a radically uneven distribution of wealth, contributed to the collapse of the United States economy in 1929. The U.S. downturn soon affected other countries, and protectionist trade policies made the situation worse. Countries experienced crushing unemployment and sharply reduced economic output. World trade fell by more than two thirds. For its unprecedented duration and severity, the event came to be called the Great Depression.

Significance In addition to its economic effects, the Great Depression caused political instability in Europe. In Germany, it was one factor in the rise of Nazism and Adolf Hitler. In the United States, the New Deal of President Franklin Roosevelt helped the country avoid serious unrest.

1933–1945 Holocaust

Soon after gaining power in Germany in 1933, Adolf Hitler and his Nazi Party began using the power of the government to persecute German Jews. German conquests early in World War II brought nearly all of Europe's 9 million Jews under Nazi control. In the largest genocide in world history the Nazis attempted to exterminate the entire Jewish population of Europe. This became known as the Holocaust.

Significance The Nazis murdered 6 million Jews in the Holocaust, decimating the Jewish population of Europe. Nazis also killed about 5 million other people from groups they considered undesirable. After the war, many Nazi leaders were convicted of war crimes by an international court.

1939–1945 World War II

Aggressive, militaristic regimes in Italy, Germany, and Japan threatened the uneasy peace that followed World War I. With the German invasion of Poland on September 1, 1939, World War II began. The main participants in the war were the Axis Powers (Germany, Italy and Japan), and the Allied Powers (Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union). After the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, the United States entered the war on the Allied side. Initial Axis gains began to erode by 1943. The Allied invasion of France on D-Day (June 6, 1944) and the simultaneous push from the Soviet Union in the east led to victory in Europe in May of 1945. The United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan, in August 1945, bringing an end to the Pacific war in September.

Significance With the deaths of 40 to 50 million soldiers and civilians, World War II was by far the most

destructive conflict in world history. The United States and the Soviet Union emerged as the world's two superpowers, but competing political systems soon made enemies of the former allies.

1939–1945 **Manhattan Project**

The Manhattan Project was a top-secret U.S. government program to develop an atomic bomb during World War II. It was motivated by the danger that Germany might be the first to develop atomic weapons. Manhattan Project scientists worked in Los Alamos, New Mexico. They successfully tested the first atomic bomb near Alamogordo, New Mexico, on July 16, 1945.

Significance The creation of the atomic bomb began the age of nuclear weapons. During the Cold War that followed World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union competed in a nuclear-arms race.

1945 **United Nations Founded**

The failure of the League of Nations to prevent World War II led to calls for a new, stronger international organization. All countries that had declared war on the Axis Powers by March 1, 1945, were invited to the founding conference of the new organization, which was held in San Francisco from April to June of 1945. Conference members drafted a charter declaring the new organization's goals: to maintain international peace and security, promote cordial relations among countries, and develop systems of cooperation for solving a wide range of international problems. The charter was ratified on October 24, 1945, marking the official founding of the United Nations (UN).

Significance The development of Cold War tensions between the United States and Soviet Union meant that the UN never quite functioned as it was intended to. Despite this, the organization has played, and continues to play, a major role in international affairs.

1947–1975 **Asia and Africa Decolonized**

Following World War II, the economically strained and war-weary European countries had little ability to resist independence movements in their colonies. A wave of decolonization began. British India was one of the first to be decolonized, with its partition into the independent countries of India and Pakistan in 1947. Independence for other Asian nations soon followed. The French were slower to withdraw, fighting losing battles in Vietnam, Algeria, and elsewhere. Decolonization also occurred throughout Africa. By the mid-1960s, most of the continent had achieved independence.

Significance The large number of newly independent countries changed the face of international organizations like the UN. The legacy of colonialism, however, often left the newly formed nations economically dependent and politically ill-prepared for self-government. Violent ethnic disputes and dictatorships were the result.

1947–1989 **Cold War**

Efforts by the Soviet Union to extend its influence in Eastern Europe and elsewhere led U.S. president Harry Truman to declare the spread of communism a threat to democracy that the United States would resist (the Truman Doctrine, 1947). He also endorsed the Marshall Plan for rebuilding the economies of Europe. The ensuing Cold War was a decades-long rivalry of the United States and its democratic allies against the Soviet Union and its Communist allies. The Cold War led to the formation of new political and military alliances. In April 1949, Western nations formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). The Soviet Union and its allies formed the Warsaw Pact in May 1955.

Significance The Cold War shaped international affairs for decades. The creation of NATO checked Soviet expansion in Europe. The main antagonists avoided a direct confrontation elsewhere, but numerous wars were fought in developing countries as a direct result of the Cold War rivalry.

1948–Present **Arab-Israeli Conflicts**

Faced with mounting opposition and unrest in Palestine, Great Britain gave up its mandate over the region in 1947. Later that year, the UN voted to partition Palestine into separate Jewish and Arab states. In May 1948 Israel declared itself an independent country. Arab states refused to recognize the new nation. In a series of wars, Israel prevailed over neighboring Arab countries and gained more territory. Large numbers of Palestinian Arabs and Jewish refugees from Arab countries were displaced by the wars. Alternating periods of open warfare and tense quiet have continued to the present day.

Significance Despite peace treaties between Israel and two of its neighbors, Egypt and Jordan, as well as various peace proposals, the region remains unstable. The unsettled matter of Palestinian statehood, the Israeli presence in the West Bank, Palestinian attacks, and hostility from many of Israel's neighbors contribute to the situation's volatility.

1949 **Communists Seize Control of China**

During World War II, Chinese Nationalists and Chinese Communists ceased their civil war in order

to combat Japanese aggression. With the defeat of Japan in 1945, the civil war resumed. In 1949 the Communists under the leadership of Mao Zedong finally succeeded in driving the Nationalists from power. Nationalist leaders and their supporters fled to Taiwan. On the Chinese mainland Mao Zedong's Communists formed the People's Republic of China on October 1, 1949.

Significance Nearly 1 million people died in the Communist takeover of China. Communist efforts to modernize China caused millions more deaths through famine and political persecution. Taiwan grew a vibrant economy but only slowly embraced democracy. The emergence of another Communist state further heightened Cold War tensions.

1950–1953 Korean War

The conflict between the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea) and the Republic of Korea (South Korea) began when North Korean forces invaded the South. A UN force, made up mostly of U.S. troops, entered the war to block the North Korean invasion. Chinese troops fought alongside the North Koreans. The war ended with North and South Korea divided along almost the same border as before the war. At least 2.5 million people lost their lives in the war.

Significance The Korean War was the first “shooting war” in the Cold War between Communists and U.S. forces. The United States defended South Korea to show that it would protect nations from Communist attack. Following the war, South Korea built a strong economy and a democratic political structure. North Korea remains a Communist dictatorship whose people are impoverished.

1954–1975 Vietnam War

When French colonial rule ended in Vietnam in 1954, the country was divided into North and South Vietnam. The North's government was Communist, while the South's government allied with the West. When South Vietnam's president cancelled elections in 1956 that would have benefited Communists allied with the North, a civil war began. South Vietnam sought and was granted assistance from the United States. U.S. troops began arriving in 1961. By 1968, some 500,000 U.S. troops were on the ground. With victory nowhere in sight and public opinion turning against the war, the United States began withdrawing troops. The last U.S. soldiers left in 1973. Vietnam unified as a Communist state in 1975.

Significance More than 3 million Vietnamese and 58,000 Americans died in the Vietnam War, which also spilled into the neighboring countries of Laos

and Cambodia, resulting in the deaths of at least 1 million more people. Vietnam remains a Communist country, but in the late 1980s it began to introduce free market elements into its economy.

1957 European Economic Community Founded

In 1957 Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and West Germany established the European Economic Community (EEC). The six members sought economic growth through common policies on tariffs and production quotas. The organization has expanded in scope and ambition over the years. In 1993 it became the European Union (EU), a block of 25 nations with a common currency and common citizenship rights.

Significance The formation of the EEC signaled the beginning of a new era of cooperation among the nations of Europe. As the predecessor to the EU of today, the EEC was important to the formation of modern Europe.

1978–Present Capitalist Reforms in China

Under leader Deng Xiaoping, China began to move toward a market economy by implementing a reform plan called the Four Modernizations. The goal of the plan was to improve agriculture, industry, science and technology, and national defense. Pursuit of these goals led Deng Xiaoping to seek closer ties with the West, including the United States.

Significance China's embrace of market reforms has powered an impressive economic rise, increasing its stature on the world stage. A parallel movement for political reform, however, was cut short by a government crackdown (the Tiananmen Square Massacre) in 1989.

1989–1991 Fall of Communism in Europe

In the 1980s Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev attempted to reform the Soviet economy and political system (perestroika and glasnost). The move led to calls for greater freedom in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe. Under pressure from their people, Communist governments in Eastern Europe began collapsing in 1989. Gorbachev refused to prop them up. The Berlin Wall, one of the most potent symbols of Communist oppression, was dismantled in late 1989. In 1991 the Soviet Union collapsed, as former Soviet republics declared their independence.

Significance The fall of the Soviet Union marked the end of the Cold War. Millions of people in Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union gained freedom from Communist dictatorships. The United States was left as the world's only superpower.

1994 Genocide in Rwanda

One legacy of European colonial rule in Africa was the establishment of national borders that did not reflect the divisions of African ethnic groups. As a result, ethnically based warfare has been common in postcolonial Africa. The worst case occurred in 1994, when long-simmering hostilities between Hutus and Tutsis in Rwanda erupted. Between 500,000 and 1 million people, mostly Tutsis and moderate Hutus, were killed before the violence ended. Another 2 million people fled the country as refugees.

Significance Civil strife continues to plague Rwanda and its neighbors. The lack of an effective international response to the Rwandan genocide led many to criticize the UN and the major world powers.

1994 Apartheid Ends in South Africa

Apartheid, or legalized racial segregation, became official South African government policy in 1948. A series of laws culminating in the Bantu Homelands Citizenship Act (1970), which stripped black South Africans of voting rights, extended the reach of apartheid into virtually every area of South African life. Opponents of apartheid were treated harshly. Nelson Mandela, leader of the African National Congress, spent 28 years in prison. From 1990 to 1991, South African president F. W. de Klerk's government repealed most apartheid laws. In 1994 Nelson Mandela became president after South Africa's first multiracial election.

Significance The end of apartheid removed the last vestige of white European rule in Africa. The relatively nonviolent transition provided a hopeful sign that other long-standing disputes might one day be resolved peacefully.

1995 World Trade Organization Created

Globalization—the process by which trade and culture link the nations of the world—has been an increasingly prominent part of the post–World War II world. In 1947, efforts to promote free trade and to regulate international trade resulted in the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). The GATT was replaced in 1995 by the World Trade Organization (WTO). The WTO's mandate includes monitoring national trading policies, mediating trade disputes, and enforcing the GATT's provisions.

Significance Globalization is transforming the world, making nations more interdependent and standardizing cultures, and the WTO is a powerful contributor to the process. Critics, however, charge that the WTO provides inadequate protections for labor and the environment and that globalization erodes national sovereignty.

1999 World Population Exceeds 6 Billion

World population has been growing at a startling rate in modern times. It took over 120 years to grow from 1 to 2 billion, but only 33 years to add another billion. In 40 years, from 1959 to 1999, world population doubled to 6 billion—and it continues to grow.

Significance The rate at which world population is increasing has raised concerns about our ability to feed such a large population and the negative effects humans are having on the earth's environment.

2001 Terrorist Attacks of 9/11

On September 11, 2001, terrorists hijacked four American commercial passenger planes. Two planes were crashed into the towers of the World Trade Center in New York City. Another plane was crashed into the Pentagon, near Washington, D.C. The fourth plane went down in a field in Pennsylvania after passengers attempted to take back the aircraft from the terrorists. Approximately 3,000 people, mostly from the United States but from numerous other countries as well, were killed in the attacks.

Significance After the attacks, U.S. president George W. Bush declared a “war on terror.” The hijackers were identified as members of al Qaeda, an Islamist terrorist group led by Osama bin Laden and based at the time in Afghanistan. In October 2001, U.S. forces invaded Afghanistan after its government refused to turn over bin Laden and other al Qaeda figures. The invasion toppled the government but failed to capture bin Laden.

2003–Present Iraq War

In 1991 the United States had led an international military coalition that ousted an Iraqi occupying force from Kuwait. A decade later, with Iraq still under UN sanctions for failing to comply with demands to disarm, U.S. president George W. Bush accused Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein of building weapons of mass destruction that could be used against the United States or its allies. Saddam insisted that Iraq had no such weapons but failed to cooperate fully with UN weapons inspectors. Although many nations argued against going to war, the United States insisted that the Iraqi threat be countered. With the support of Great Britain and other allies, U.S. forces invaded Iraq in 2003 and quickly toppled Saddam's government. No weapons of mass destruction were found.

Significance In June 2004, the United States handed control over to an Iraqi government. Over 130,000 U.S. troops remained in Iraq, though, as violence continued. Insurgents carried out frequent attacks against U.S. troops and Iraqi civilians. By 2006, the threat loomed of a prolonged Iraqi civil war.

Using Maps to Understand History

by Dr. Peter Stearns



History is most obviously about time—about when things happen and how change occurs over time. But history makes no sense without place as well as time, since events happen in place as well as in

time. This is where maps come in. Maps make place—geographic locations—visible and visual.

Maps are essential in the study of history. They can be used to show specific events, such as battles or wars. They can trace routes of trade, migration, or the diffusion of culture or diseases. They can show change in political alignments, territories, and boundaries. Maps show spatial relationships—where things are in relation to other things. If you want to know if one society is likely to be influenced by another, like Mexico by the United States, look at a map. Much of world history revolves around patterns of connection among regions, and maps help both to illustrate and explain these patterns.

A study of maps can also suggest the possibilities for development that a society might have. Is a region well supplied with easily navigable rivers? Its history will surely be different from a region with fewer or less open rivers. Some geographers argue, in fact, that much of the character of a given society is determined by its geography—whether it will be rich or poor, populous or sparse, centralized or localized. Figuring how far geography defines a region, and for how long in its history, is a key analytical challenge for the historian, and it starts with maps.

Indeed, take a risk, particularly early in your study of world history: try to predict what a society will be like from looking at its features on a map. See how well your effort at geographic determinism works, as you learn about the region's actual history. When you study more recent periods, see if major regions have been able to break through their geographic limits by new forms of technology and organization—or whether, in fact, their patterns can still be pretty well read from their maps.

In the following pages, you will find a refresher on some map and geography basics. Review these concepts. They will help you understand maps—and understand history.

Comparing maps of Europe at two different times can reveal how boundaries shift over time, in this case as a result of World War I.



Mapping the Earth

Using Latitude and Longitude

A **globe** is a scale model of the earth. It is useful for showing the entire earth or studying large areas of the earth's surface.

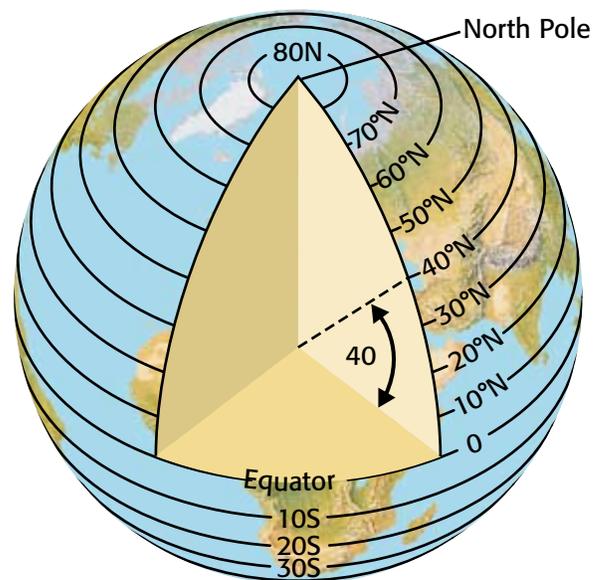
A pattern of lines circles the globe in east-west and north-south directions. It is called a **grid**. The intersection of these imaginary lines helps us find places on the earth.

The east-west lines in the grid are lines of **latitude**. Lines of latitude are called **parallels** because they are always parallel to each other. These imaginary lines measure distance north and south of the **equator**. The equator is an imaginary line that circles the globe halfway between the North and South Poles. Parallels measure distance from the equator in **degrees**. The symbol for degrees is $^{\circ}$. Degrees are further divided into **minutes**. The symbol for minutes is $'$. There are 60 minutes in a degree. Parallels north of the equator are labeled with an N. Those south of the equator are labeled with an S.

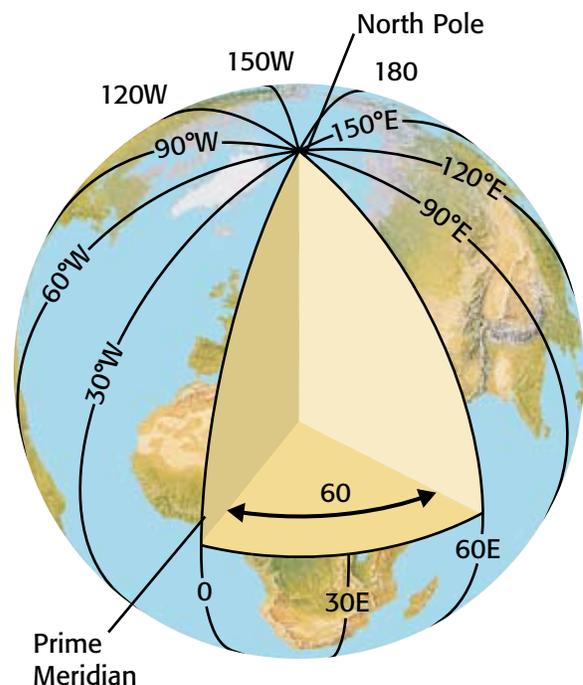
The north-south lines are lines of **longitude**. Lines of longitude are called **meridians**. These imaginary lines pass through the Poles. They measure distance east and west of the **prime meridian**. The prime meridian is an imaginary line that runs through Greenwich, England. It represents 0° longitude.

Lines of latitude range from 0° , for locations on the equator, to 90°N or 90°S , for locations at the Poles. Lines of longitude range from 0° on the prime meridian to 180° on a meridian in the mid-Pacific Ocean. Meridians west of the prime meridian to 180° are labeled with a W. Those east of the prime meridian to 180° are labeled with an E.

Lines of Latitude



Lines of Longitude

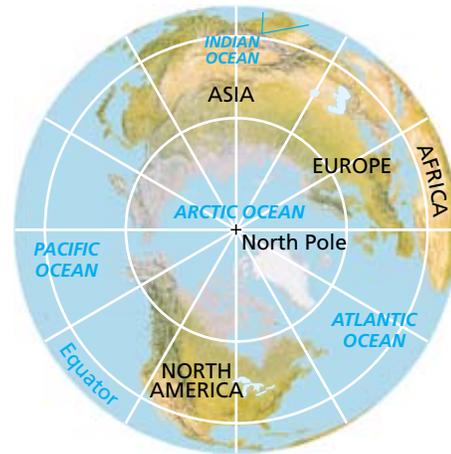


The equator divides the globe into two halves, called **hemispheres**. The half north of the equator is the Northern Hemisphere. The southern half is the Southern Hemisphere. The prime meridian and the 180° meridian divide the world into the Eastern Hemisphere and the Western Hemisphere. However, the prime meridian runs right through Europe and Africa. To avoid dividing these continents between two hemispheres, some mapmakers divide the Eastern and Western hemispheres at 20°W. This places all of Europe and Africa in the Eastern Hemisphere.

Our planet's land surface is divided into seven large landmasses, called **continents**. They are identified in the maps on this page. Landmasses smaller than continents and completely surrounded by water are called **islands**.

Geographers also organize Earth's water surface into parts. The largest is the world ocean. Geographers divide the world ocean into the Pacific Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, the Indian Ocean, and the Arctic Ocean. Lakes and seas are smaller bodies of water.

Northern Hemisphere



Southern Hemisphere



Western Hemisphere



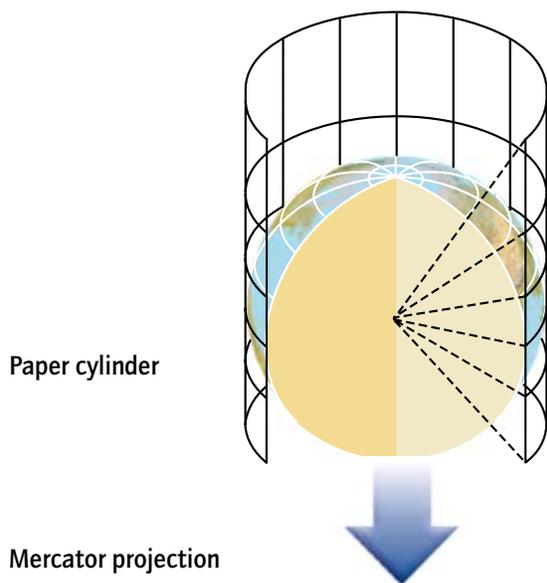
Eastern Hemisphere



Mapmaking

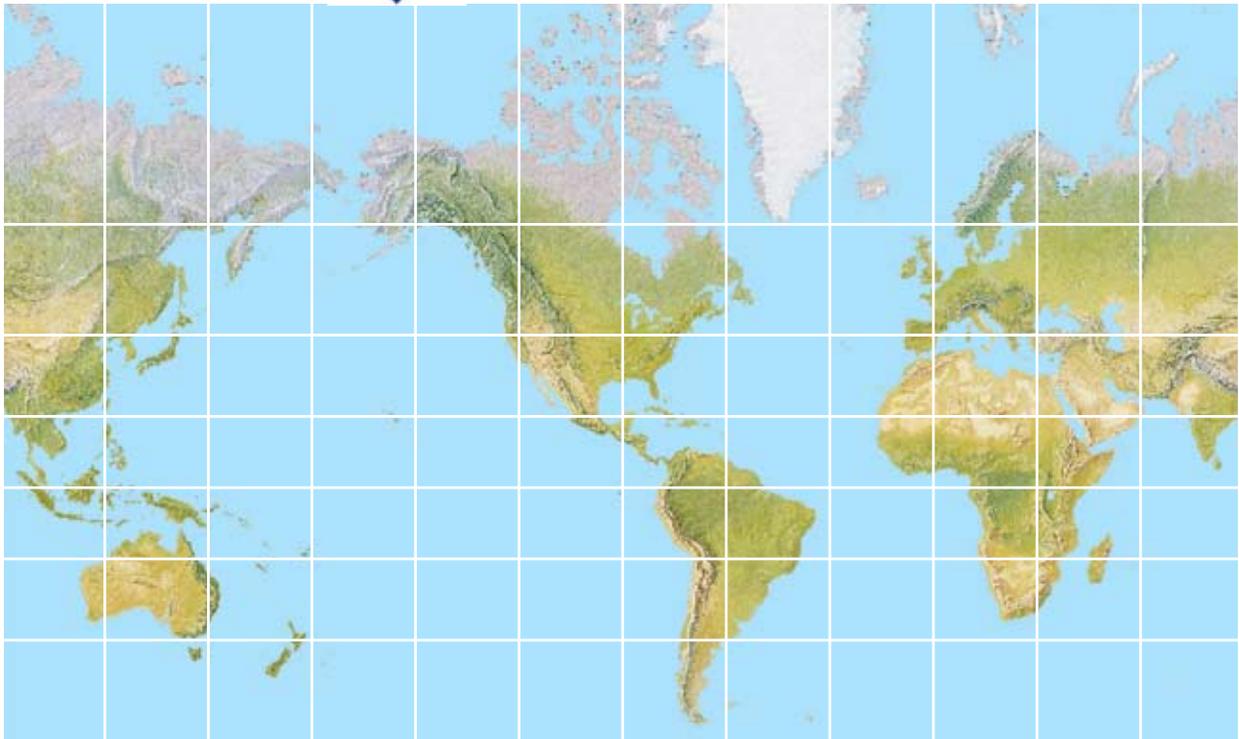
Understanding Map Projections

A **map** is a flat diagram of all or part of the earth's surface. Mapmakers have created different ways of showing our round planet on flat maps. These different ways are called **map projections**. Because the earth is round, there is no way to show it accurately in a flat map. All flat maps are distorted in some way. Mapmakers must choose the type of map projection that is best for their purposes. Many map projections are one of three kinds: cylindrical, conic, or flat-plane.



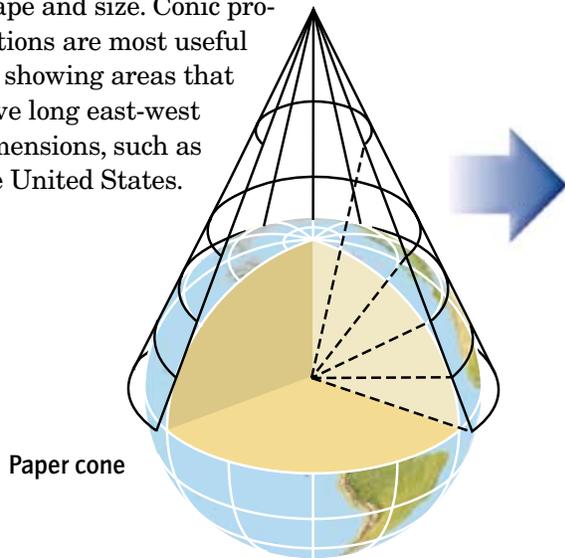
Cylindrical Projections

Cylindrical projections are based on a cylinder wrapped around the globe. The cylinder touches the globe only at the equator. The meridians are pulled apart and run parallel to each other instead of meeting at the Poles. This causes landmasses near the Poles to appear larger than they really are. The map below is a Mercator projection, one type of cylindrical projection. Navigators use the Mercator projection because it shows true direction and shape. However, it distorts the size of land areas near the Poles.



Conic Projections

Conic projections are based on a cone placed over the globe. A conic projection is most accurate along the lines of latitude where it touches the globe. It retains almost true shape and size. Conic projections are most useful for showing areas that have long east-west dimensions, such as the United States.

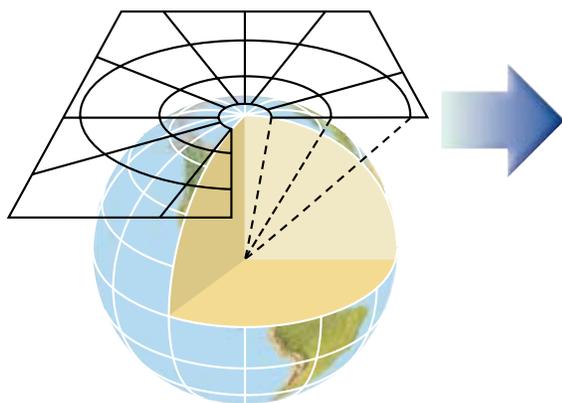


Conic projection

Flat-plane Projections

Flat-plane projections are based on a plane touching the globe at one point, such as at the North Pole or South Pole. A flat-plane projection is useful for showing true direction for airplane pilots and ship navigators. It also shows true area. However, it distorts the true shapes of landmasses.

Flat plane



Flat-plane projection



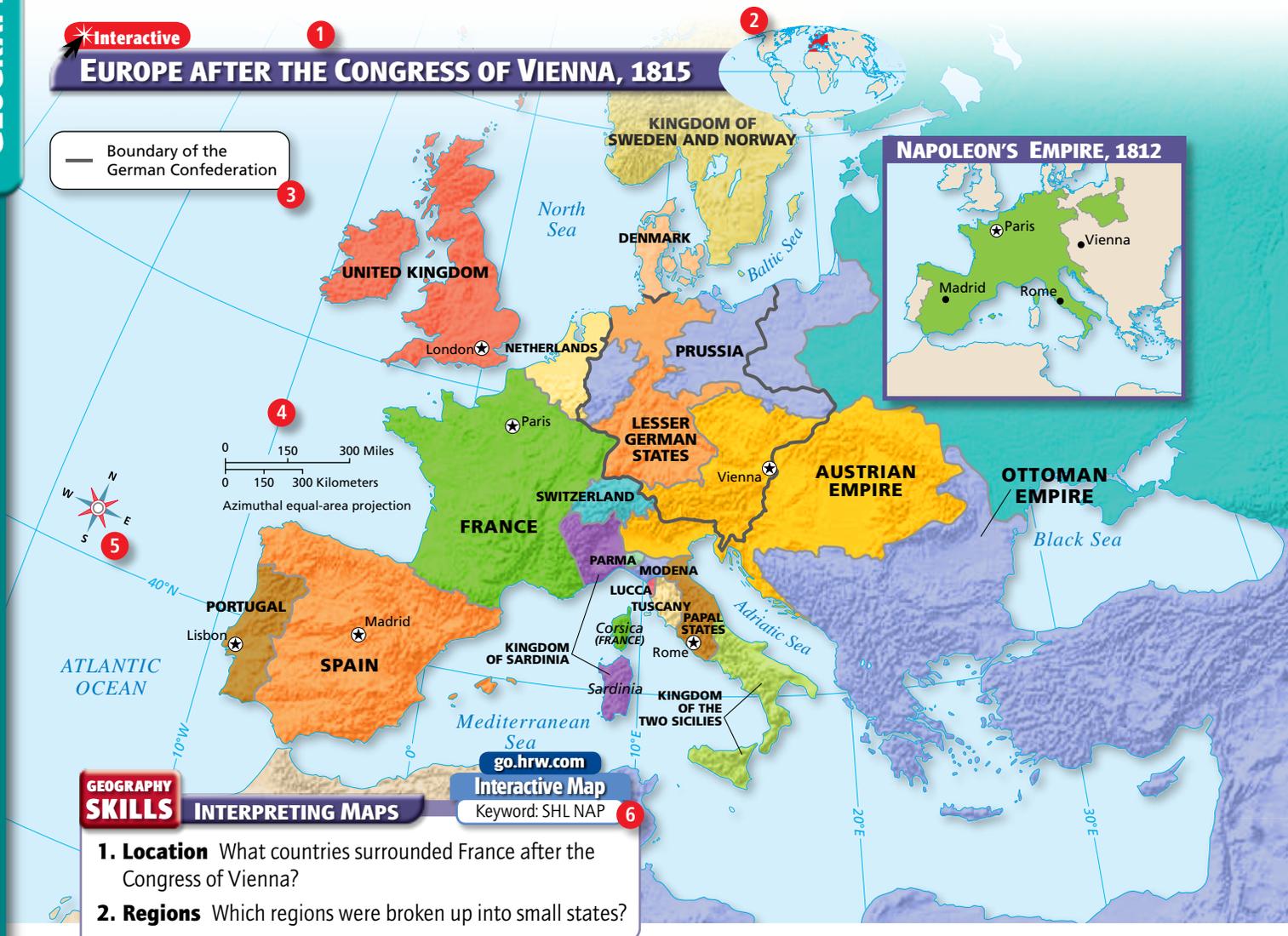
Map Essentials

How to Read a Map

Maps are like messages sent out in code. Mapmakers provide certain elements that help us translate these codes. These elements help us understand the message they are presenting about a particular part of the world. Of these elements, almost all maps have titles, directional indicators, scales, and legends. The map below has all four of these elements, plus two more—a locator map and an interactive keyword.

1 Title

A map's **title** shows what the subject of the map is. The map title is usually the first thing you should look at when studying a map, because it tells you what the map is trying to show.



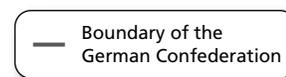
2 Locator Map

A **locator** map shows where in the world the area on the map is located. The area shown on the main map is shown in red on the locator map. The locator map also shows surrounding areas so the map reader can see how the information on the map relates to neighboring lands.



3 Legend

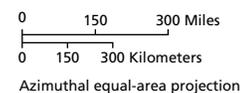
The **legend**, or key, explains what the symbols on the map represent. Point symbols are used to specify the location of things, such as cities, that do not take up much space on the map. Some legends show colors that represent elevations. Other maps might have legends with symbols or colors that represent things such as roads, the movement of military forces and battles. Legends can also show political divisions, economic resources, land use, population density, and climate.



4 Scale

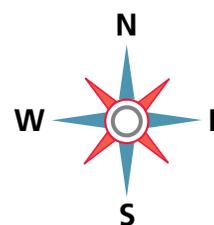
Mapmakers use scales to represent the distances between points on a map. Scales may appear on maps in several different forms. The maps in this textbook provide a bar **scale**. Scales give distances in miles and kilometers. The scale is often found in the legend. In this textbook, the type of projection used to make the map is shown below the scale bar.

To find the distance between two points on the map, place a piece of paper so that the edge connects the two points. Mark the location of each point on the paper with a line or dot. Then compare the distance between the two dots with the map's bar scale. Because distances on a scale are given in large intervals, you may have to approximate the actual distance.



5 Compass Rose

A directional indicator shows which way north, south, east, and west lie on the map. Some mapmakers use a “north arrow,” which points toward the North Pole. Remember, “north” is not always at the top of a map. The way a map is drawn and the location of directions on that map depend on the perspective of the mapmaker. Most maps in this textbook indicate direction by using a compass rose. A **compass rose** has arrows that point to all four principal directions, as shown.



6 Interactive Keyword

Some maps in this textbook are interactive. If you go online to the Holt website and type in the map's keyword, you can learn more about the places and events shown on the map.



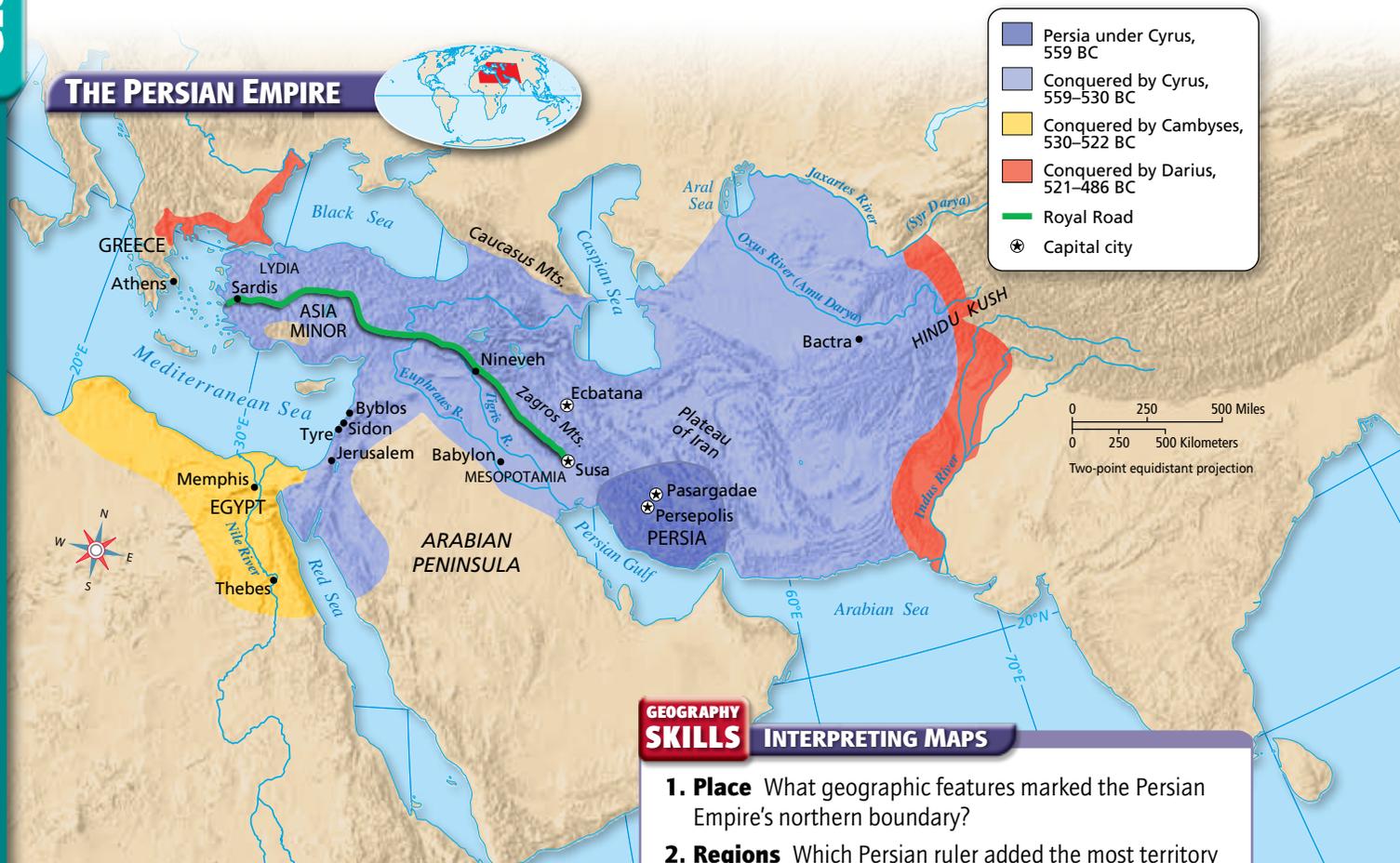
Working with Maps

Using Different Kinds of Maps

The Atlas in this textbook includes both physical and political maps. **Physical maps** show the major physical features in a region. These features include things like mountain ranges, rivers, oceans, islands, deserts, and plains. **Political maps** show the major political features of a region, such as countries and their borders, capitals, and other important cities.

Historical Map

In this textbook most of the maps you will study are historical maps. Historical maps, such as the one below, show information about the past. This information might include which lands a country controlled, where a certain group of people lived, what large cities were located in a region, or how a place changed over time. Often colors are used to indicate the different things on the map. Be sure to look at the map title and map legend first to see what the map is showing. What does this map show?



THE SILK ROADS



GEOGRAPHY SKILLS

INTERPRETING MAPS

- 1. Place** Why do you think the Silk Roads divided to the west of China?
- 2. Movement** What goods moved west from China over the Silk Roads?

Route Map

One special type of historical map is called a route map. A route map, like the one above, shows the route, or path, that someone or something followed. Route maps can show things like trade routes, invasion routes, or the journeys and travels of people. The routes on the map are usually shown with an arrow. If more than one route is shown, several arrows of different colors may be used. What does this route map show?

The maps in this textbook will help you study and understand history. By working with these maps, you will see where important events happened, where empires rose and fell, and where people moved. In studying these maps, you will learn how geography has influenced history.

Geographic Dictionary

OCEAN
a large body of water

CORAL REEF
an ocean ridge made up of skeletal remains of tiny sea animals

GULF
a large part of the ocean that extends into land

PENINSULA
an area of land that sticks out into a lake or ocean

ISTHMUS
a narrow piece of land connecting two larger land areas

BAY
part of a large body of water that is smaller than a gulf

ISLAND
an area of land surrounded entirely by water

DELTA
an area where a river deposits soil into the ocean

STRAIT
a narrow body of water connecting two larger bodies of water

WETLAND
an area of land covered by shallow water

RIVER
a natural flow of water that runs through the land

SINKHOLE
a circular depression formed when the roof of a cave collapses

LAKE
an inland body of water

FOREST
an area of densely wooded land

COAST
an area of land near the ocean

MOUNTAIN
an area of rugged land that generally rises higher than 2,000 feet

VALLEY
an area of low land between hills or mountains

GLACIER
a large area of slow-moving ice

VOLCANO
an opening in Earth's crust where lava, ash, and gases erupt

CANYON
a deep, narrow valley with steep walls

HILL
a rounded, elevated area of land smaller than a mountain

PLAIN
a nearly flat area

DUNE
a hill of sand shaped by wind

OASIS
an area in the desert with a water source

DESERT
an extremely dry area with little water and few plants

PLATEAU
a large, flat, elevated area of land

Themes and Essential Elements of Geography

by Dr. Christopher L. Salter

To study the world, geographers have identified 5 key themes, 6 essential elements, and 18 geography standards.

“How should we teach and learn about geography?” Professional geographers have worked hard over the years to answer this important question.

In 1984 a group of geographers identified the 5 Themes of Geography. These themes did a wonderful job of laying the groundwork for good classroom geography instruction. Teachers used the 5 Themes in classrooms, and geographers taught workshops on how to apply the 5 themes in everyday life.

By the early 1990s, however, some geographers felt the 5 Themes were too broad. They created the 18 Geography Standards and the 6 Essential Elements. The 18 Geography Standards include more detailed information about what geography is, and the 6 Essential Elements are like a bridge between the 5 Themes and 18 Standards.

Look at the chart to the right. It shows how each of the 5 Themes connects to the 6 Essential Elements and 18 Geography Standards. For example, the theme of Location is related to The World in Spatial Terms and, through it, to the first three Standards. Study the chart carefully to see how the other Themes, Elements, and Standards are related.

The last Essential Element and the last two Standards cover The Uses of Geography. These key parts of geography were not covered by the 5 Themes. They emphasize how geographical knowledge can be applied to the study of history and current events and also be used to plan for the future.

5 Themes of Geography



Location The theme of location describes where something is.



Place Place describes the features that make a site unique.



Regions Regions are areas that share common characteristics.



Movement This theme looks at how and why people and things move.



Human-Environment Interaction People interact with their environment in many ways.

6 Essential Elements

I. The World in Spatial Terms

II. Places and Regions

III. Physical Systems

IV. Human Systems

V. Environment and Society

VI. The Uses of Geography

18 Geography Standards

1. How to use maps and other tools
2. How to use mental maps to organize information
3. How to analyze the spatial organization of people, places, and environments

4. The physical and human characteristics of places
5. How people create regions to interpret Earth
6. How culture and experience influence people's perceptions of places and regions

7. The physical processes that shape Earth's surface
8. The distribution of ecosystems on Earth

9. The characteristics, distribution, and migration of human populations
10. The complexity of Earth's cultural mosaics
11. The patterns and networks of economic interdependence on Earth
12. The patterns of human settlement
13. The forces of cooperation and conflict

14. How human actions modify the physical environment
15. How physical systems affect human systems
16. The distribution and meaning of resources

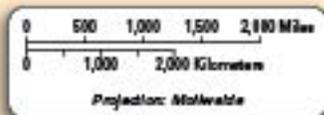
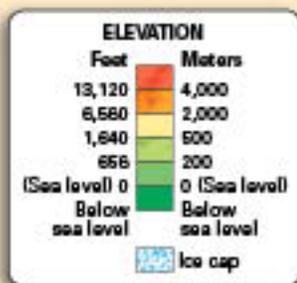
17. How to apply geography to interpret the past
18. How to apply geography to interpret the present and plan for the future



COUNTRY	CAPITAL
1 Antigua and Barbuda	St. John's
2 St. Kitts and Nevis	Basseterre
3 Dominica	Roseau
4 St. Lucia	Castries
5 St. Vincent and the Grenadines	Kingstown
6 Barbados	Bridgetown
7 Grenada	St. George's

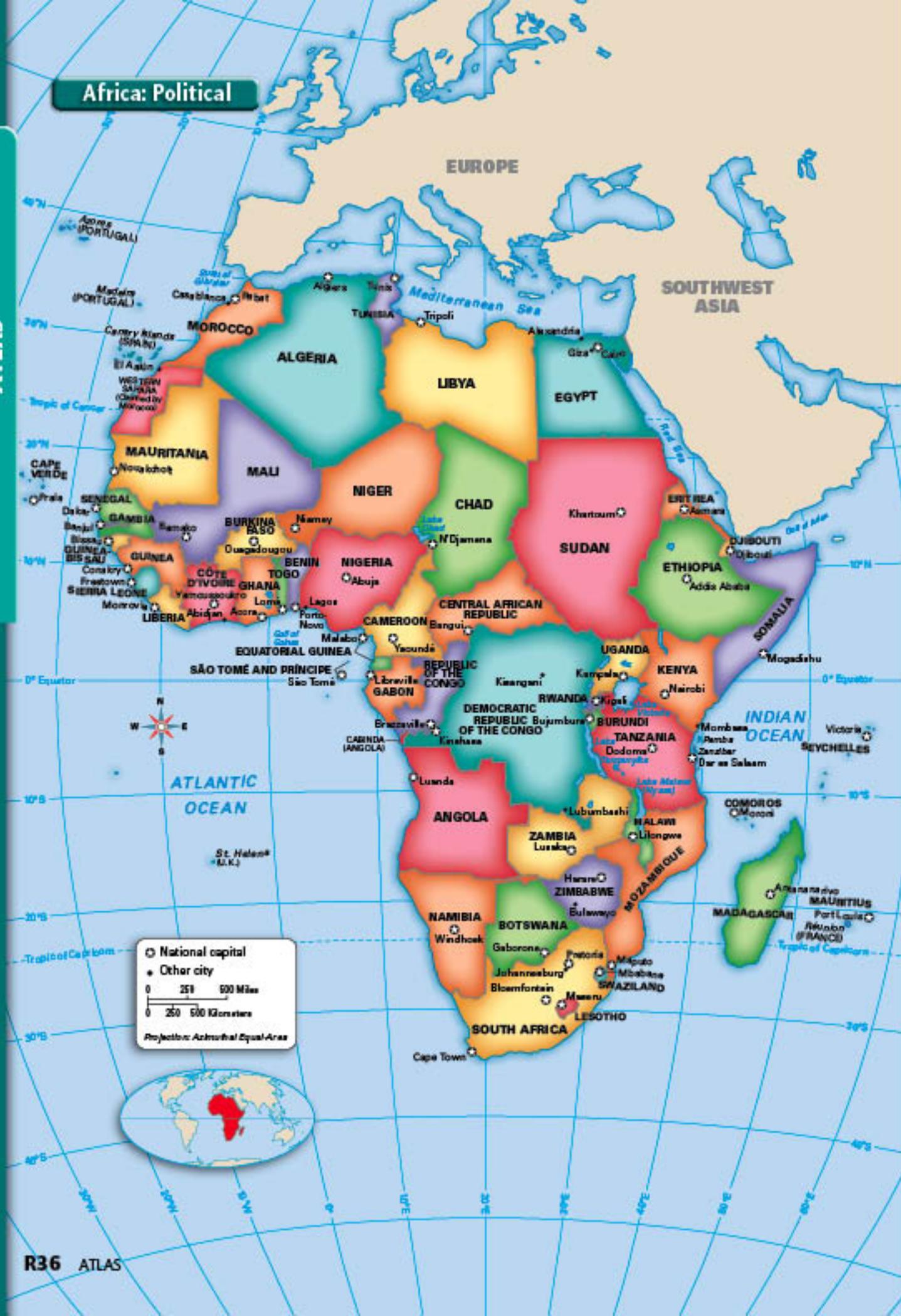


COUNTRY	CAPITAL
1 Czech Republic	Prague
2 Slovakia	Bratislava
3 Slovenia	Ljubljana
4 Croatia	Zagreb
5 Bosnia and Herzegovina	Sarajevo
6 Macedonia	Skopje
7 Serbia	Belgrade
8 Montenegro	Podgorica
9 Lithuania	Vilnius
10 Latvia	Riga
11 Estonia	Tallin





Africa: Political



○ National capital
● Other city

0 250 500 Miles
0 250 500 Kilometers

Projection: Azimuthal Equal-Area

Africa: Physical



ELEVATION

Feet	Meters
13,120	4,000
6,560	2,000
1,640	500
666	200
0 (Sea level)	0 (Sea level)
Below sea level	Below sea level

0 250 500 Miles
 0 250 500 Kilometers

Projection: Azimuthal Equal-Area

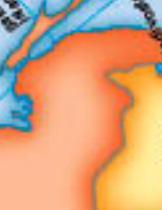


Asia: Political

○ National capitals
● Other cities

0 250 500 750 Miles
0 250 500 750 Kilometers

Projection: True-Point Equal-Area

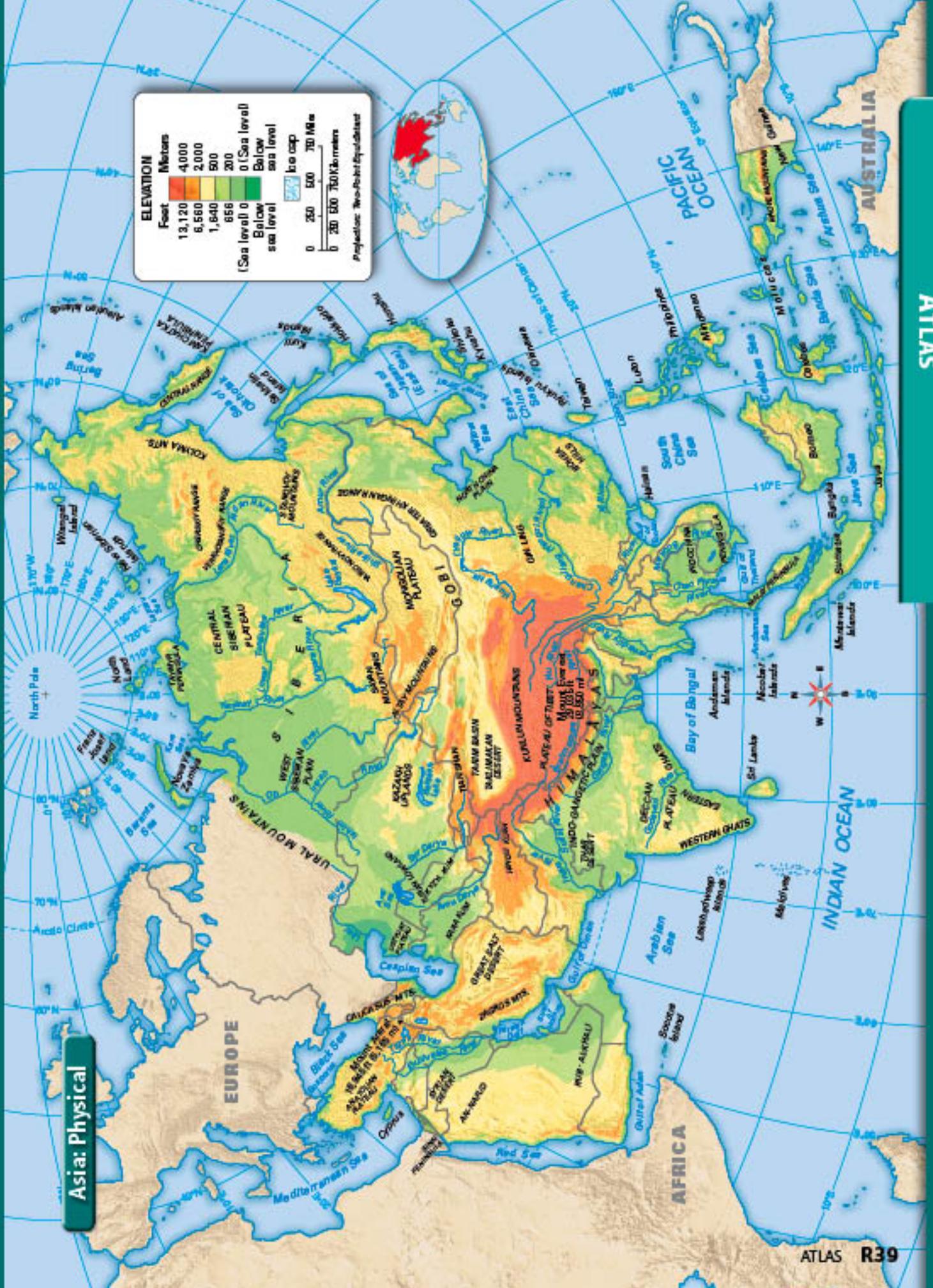


Asia: Physical

ELEVATION

Feet	Meters
13,120	4,000
8,580	2,600
1,640	500
656	200
0 (Sea level)	0 (Sea level)
Below sea level	Below sea level

 Ice cap
 0 250 500 750 Miles
 0 250 500 750 Kilometers
 Projection: Two-Point Equal-Area





Europe: Physical

ELEVATION	
19,120	4,000
6,560	2,000
1,640	500
656	200
(Sea level) 0	0 (Sea level)
Below sea level	Below sea level
	Ice cap

0	150	300 Miles
0	150	300 Kilometers

Projection: AuthaGraph Equal Area



North America: Political



○ National capital
• Other city

0 300 600 Miles
0 300 600 Kilometers

Projection: Azimuthal Equal-Area



North America: Physical



ELEVATION

Foot	Meters
13,120	4,000
6,560	2,000
1,640	500
656	200
0 (Sea level)	0 (Sea level)
Below sea level	Below sea level

Ice cap

Scale: 0 300 600 Miles / 0 300 600 Kilometers

Projection: Azimuthal Equal Area



South America: Political



○ National capital
+ Other city

0 250 500 Miles
0 250 500 Kilometers

Projection: Azimuthal Equal-Area



South America: Physical



ELEVATION

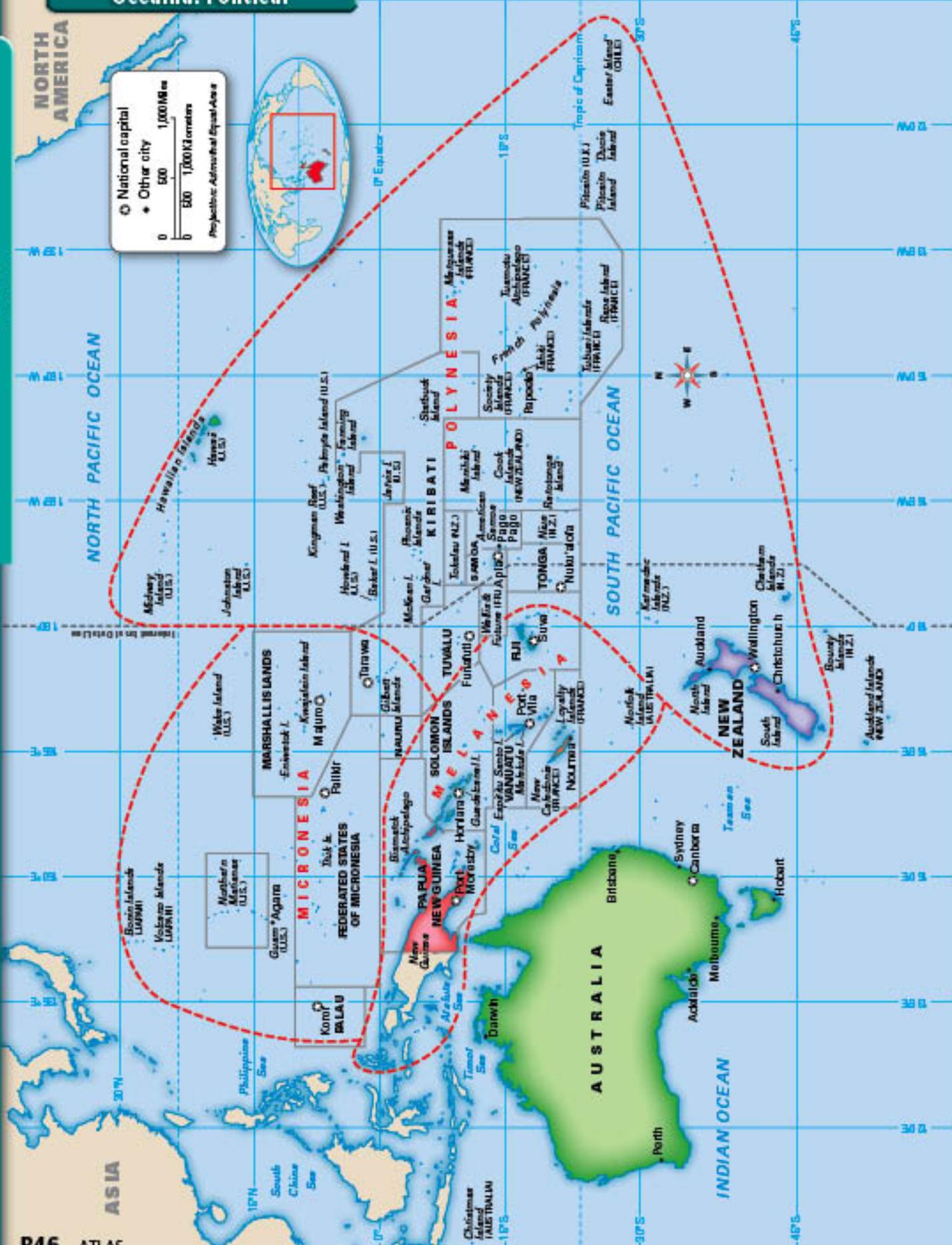
Foot	Meters
13,120	4,000
6,560	2,000
1,640	500
656	200
0 (Sea level)	0 (Sea level)
Below sea level	Below sea level

0 250 500 Miles
0 250 500 Kilometers

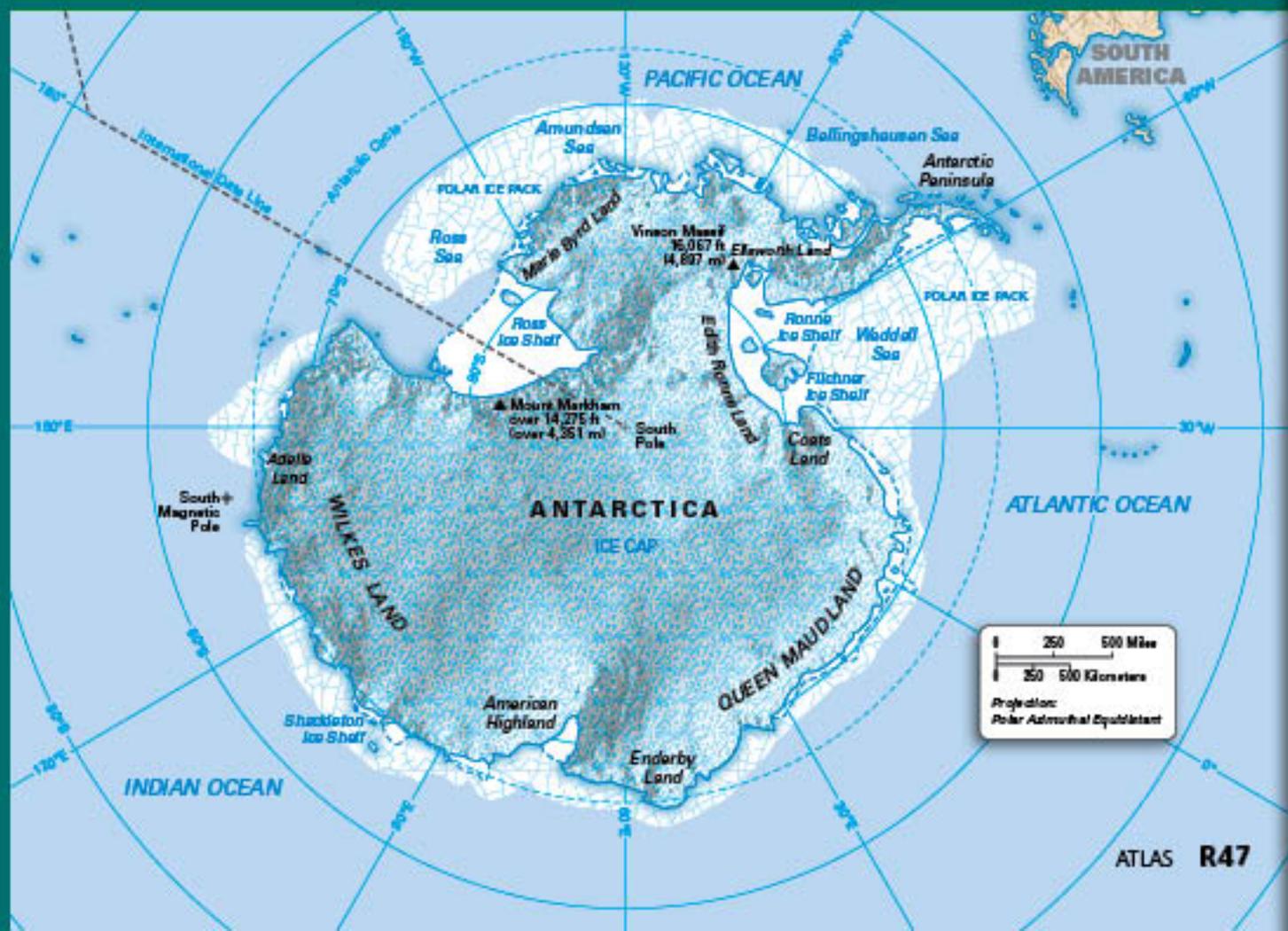
Projection: Adm. Equal Area

Oceania: Political

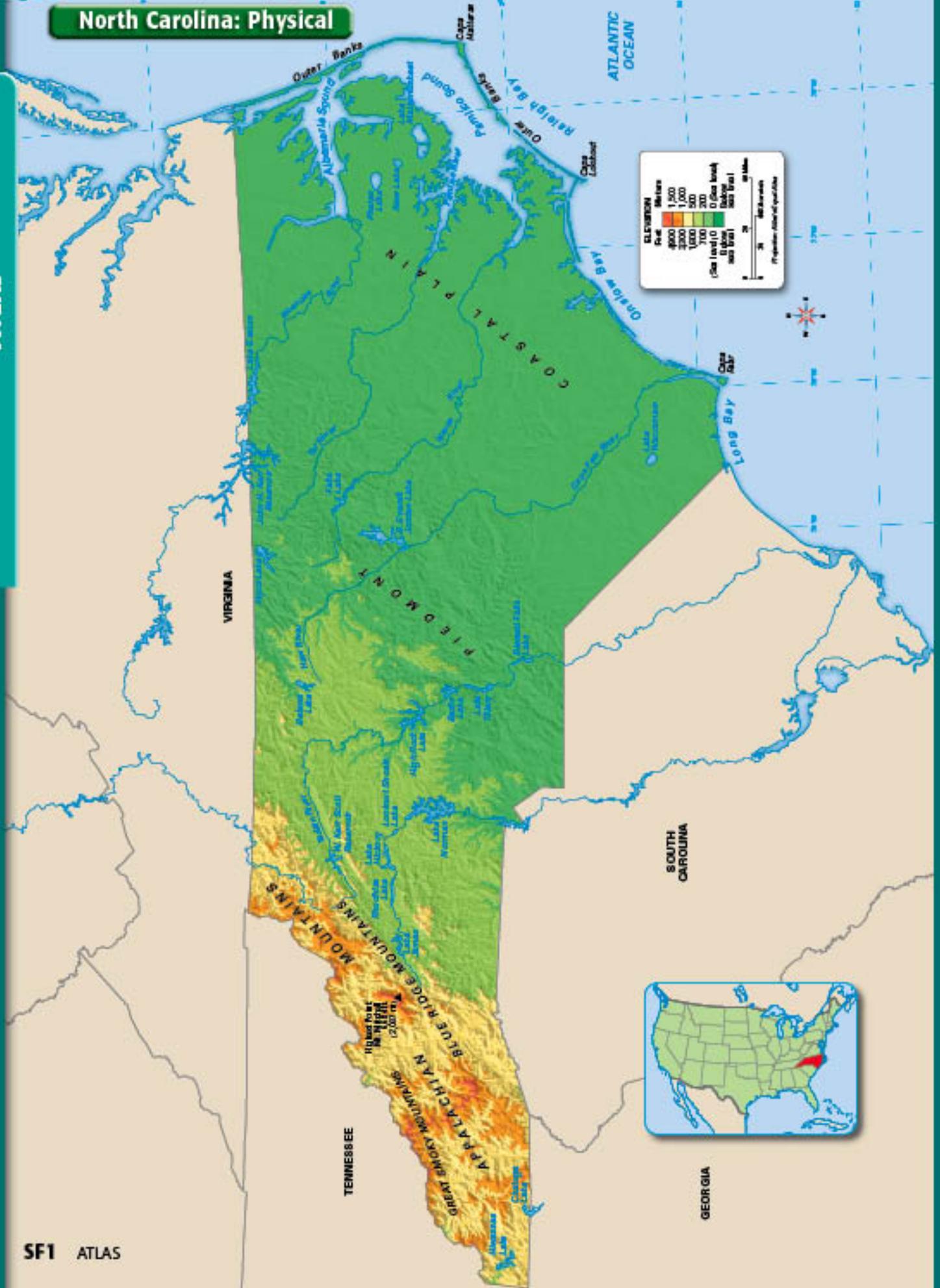
○ National capital
 ● Other city
 0 500 1,000 Miles
 0 500 1,000 Kilometers
 Projection: Authentic Equal-Area



Polar Regions



North Carolina: Physical



Governors of the State of North Carolina

Richard Caswell (1776–1780)
 Abner Nash (1780–1781)
 Thomas Burke (1781–1782)
 Alexander Martin (1782–1785)
 Richard Caswell (1784–1787)
 Samuel Johnston (1787–1789)
 Alexander Martin (1789–1792)
 Richard Dobbs Spaight, Sr. (1792–1795)
 Samuel Ashe (1795–1798)
 William Richardson Davie (1798–1799)
 Benjamin Williams (1799–1802)
 James Turner (1802–1805)
 Nathaniel Alexander (1805–1807)
 Benjamin Williams (1807–1808)
 David Stone (1808–1810)
 Benjamin Smith (1810–1811)
 William Hawkins (1811–1814)
 William Miller (1814–1817)
 John Branch (1817–1820)
 Jesse Franklin (1820–1821)
 Gabriel Holmes (1821–1824)
 Hutchins Gordon Burton (1824–1827)
 James Iredell, Jr. (1827–1828)
 John Owen (1828–1830)
 Montford Stokes (1830–1832)

David Lowry Swain (1832–1835)
 Richard Dobbs Spaight, Jr. (1835–1836)
 Edward Bishop Dudley (1836–1841)
 John Motley Morehead (1841–1845)
 William Alexander Graham (1845–1849)
 Charles Manly (1849–1850)
 David Settle Reid (1851–1854)
 Warren Winslow (1854–1855)
 Thomas Bragg (1855–1859)
 John Willis Ellis (1859–1861)
 Henry Toole Clark (1861–1862)
 Zebulon Baird Vance (1862–1865)
 William Woods Holden (1865)
 Jonathan Worth (1865–1868)
 William Woods Holden (1868–1870)
 Tod Robinson Caldwell (1870–1874)
 Curtis Hooks Brogden (1874–1877)
 Zebulon Baird Vance (1877–1879)
 Thomas Jordan Jarvis (1879–1885)
 Alfred Moore Scales (1885–1889)
 Daniel Gould Fowle (1889–1891)
 Thomas Michael Holt (1891–1893)
 Elias Carr (1893–1897)
 Daniel Lindsay Russell (1897–1901)
 Charles Brantley Aycock (1901–1905)

Robert Broadnax Glenn (1905–1909)
 William Walton Kitchin (1909–1913)
 Locke Craig (1913–1917)
 Thomas Walter Bickett (1917–1921)
 Cameron Morrison (1921–1925)
 Angus Wilton McLean (1925–1929)
 Oliver Max Gardner (1929–1933)
 John Christoph Blucher Ehringhaus (1933–1937)
 Clyde Roark Hoey (1937–1941)
 Joseph Melville Broughton (1941–1945)
 Robert Gregg Cherry (1945–1949)
 William Kerr Scott (1949–1953)
 William Bradley Umstead (1953–1954)
 Luther Hartwell Hodges (1954–1961)
 Terry Sanford (1961–1965)
 Dan Killian Moore (1965–1969)
 Robert Walter Scott (1969–1973)
 James Eubert Holshouser, Jr. (1973–1977)
 James Baxter Hunt, Jr. (1977–1985)
 James Grubbs Martin (1985–1993)
 James Baxter Hunt, Jr. (1993–2001)
 Michael F. Easley (2001–Present)

North Carolina Government

Executive Branch

Carries out the laws and policies of state government

Governor

- Elected by voters to a four-year term
- Limited to two terms
- Appoints cabinet and some judges
- Chairs the Council of State

Lieutenant Governor

- Elected by voters to a four-year term
- Holds various responsibilities, including replacing the governor should he or she leave office

Cabinet

- Consists of officials appointed by governor
- Offers advice to governor on specific areas of knowledge

Legislative Branch

Makes state laws

Bicameral System

- General Assembly has two houses—Senate and House of Representatives
- Both houses take part in presenting and passing laws
- General Assembly can override the governor’s veto with a three-fifths vote in both houses

State Senate

- 50 members
- Elected to two-year terms
- No term limits

State House of Representatives

- 120 members
- Elected to two-year terms
- No term limits

Judicial Branch

Decides conflicts and questions about the law

Trial Courts

- Hear civil and criminal cases

Appellate Courts

- North Carolina Court of Appeals is only intermediate appellate court in the state
- Consists of fifteen judges who rule in rotating panels of three

Supreme Court of North Carolina

- Highest appellate court in the state
- Determines statewide principles of law in deciding specific lawsuits
- Consists of seven justices
- Justices elected by voters to eight-year terms
- No term limits

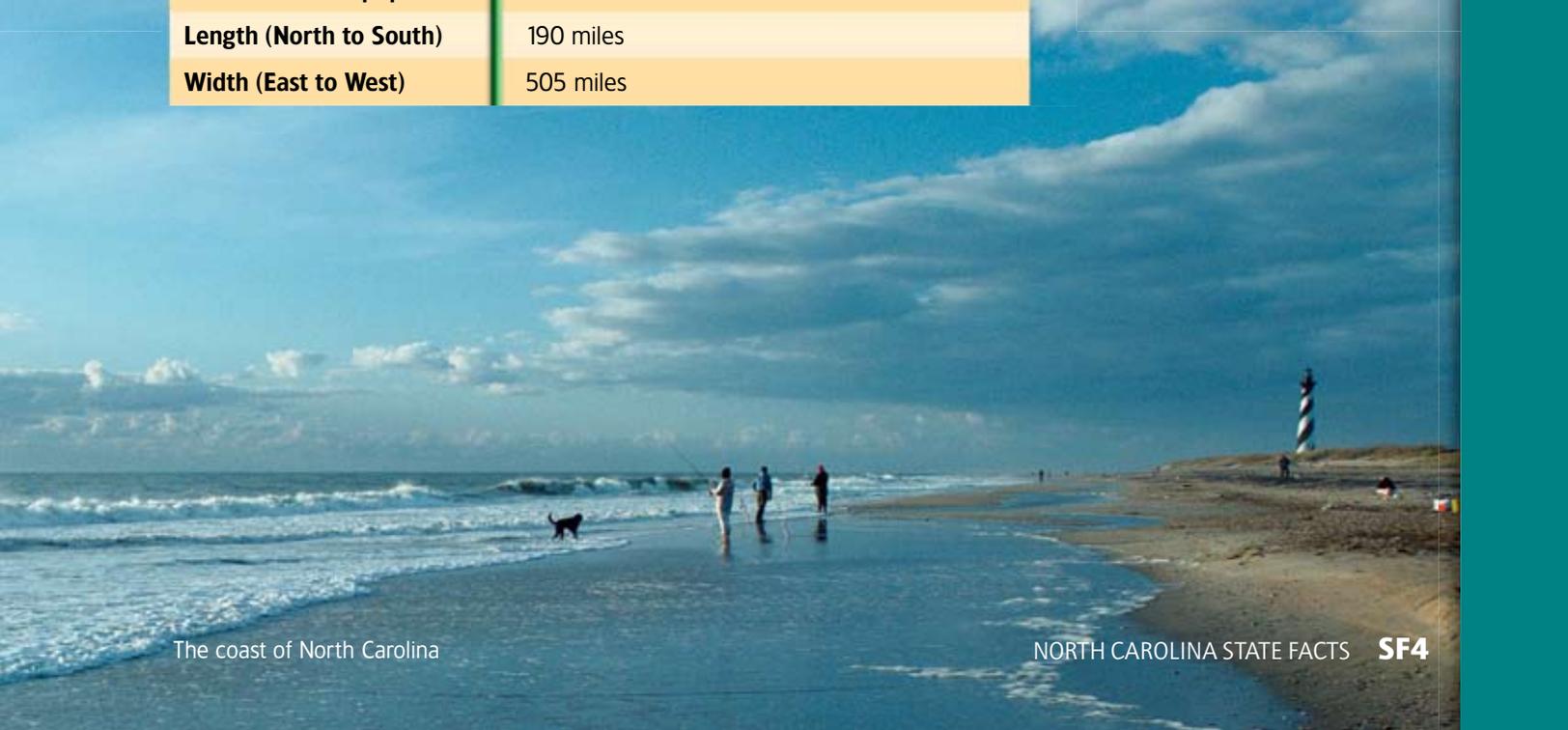
North Carolina Facts



State tree	Pine
State bird	Cardinal
State reptile	Eastern box turtle
State mammal	Gray squirrel
State fish	Channel bass
State shell	Scotch bonnet
State flower	Dogwood
State vegetable	Sweet potato
Capital	Raleigh
Year of Statehood	1789 (12th state)
Nickname	The Old North State, Tar Heel State
Motto	Esse Quam Videri (To be rather than to seem)
Song	"The Old North State"
Highest Elevation	Mt. Mitchell, 6,684 feet above sea level
Lowest Elevation	Sea level
Total area	53,819 square miles
National rank in total area	28
Total Coastline	301 miles
Largest city	Charlotte
Largest lake	Mattamuskeet
Number of counties	100
Population	8,683,242 (as of 2005)
National rank in population	11
Length (North to South)	190 miles
Width (East to West)	505 miles



The cardinal is the North Carolina state bird.

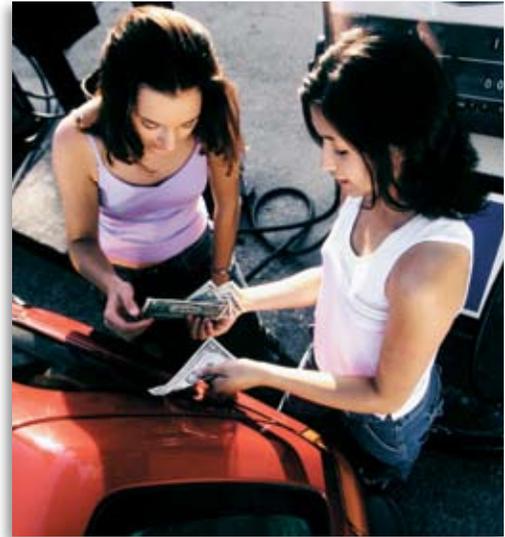


Economics Handbook

What Is Economics?

We can think of economics as a study of the choices people make to satisfy their needs or their wants. Which pair of shoes do you buy—the ones on sale or the ones you really like? Economics may sound dull, but it touches almost every part of your life.

Economics is also one of the major forces in world history. Societies with healthy economies tend to perform better than those with weaker economies. When a civilization decays, a weakened economy is often a leading factor. Learning a little about economics can help in your study of world history.



Glossary of Economic Terms

Here are some of the terms we use to talk about economics:

ECONOMIC SYSTEMS

Countries have developed different economic systems to help them make choices, such as what goods and services to produce, how to produce them, and for whom to produce them. The most common economic systems in the world today are market economies and mixed economies. Market economies generally perform better in terms of worker productivity and consumer choice.

capitalism See market economy.

command economy an economic system in which the central government makes all economic decisions; in theory, the means of production—industrial and

agricultural—are “owned” by the people, but since the government makes all economic decisions, it is the true owner; also known as “centrally planned”; the countries of Cuba and North Korea are examples of command economies

communism a political system in which the government owns all property and runs a command economy

free enterprise a system in which businesses operate with little government involvement, such as in a country with a market economy

market economy an economic system based on private ownership, free trade, and competition; the government has little to say about what, how, or

Economic Systems	What to Produce	How to Produce	For Whom to Produce	Examples
Traditional	determined by tradition; economic roles often passed from generation to generation	determined by custom	usually centered around traditional family and social units such as a tribe	Prehistoric hunter-gatherers Aborigines of Australia
Command	determined by government officials	determined by government officials	determined by government officials	Old Kingdom Egypt Middle Ages in Europe Zhou Dynasty in China
Market	determined by individuals	determined by individuals	determined by individuals	United States Canada Australia

for whom goods and services are produced; these decisions are made by individual buyers and sellers in the marketplace; examples include Germany and the United States

mixed economy an economy that is a combination of command, market, and traditional economies; private ownership is allowed

scarcity a condition of limited resources and unlimited wants by people; a fundamental concept in economics

traditional economy an economy in which production is based on customs and tradition, and in which people often grow their own food, make their own goods, and use barter to trade

THE ECONOMY AND MONEY

People, businesses, and countries obtain the items they need and want through economic activities such as producing, selling, and buying goods or services. Countries differ in the amount of economic activity that they have and in the strength of their economies.

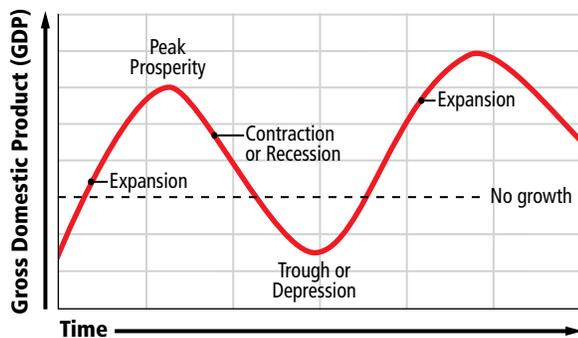
balance of payments the accounting record of what a nation owes to and is owed by foreign countries and international organizations

boom and bust a period of rapid economic growth followed by rapid economic contraction; see business cycle

business any commercial enterprise or establishment

business cycle the periodic fluctuation in economic activity, usually reflected in levels of employment, prices, and production or gross domestic product (GDP); there are four phases: expansion, peak, contraction, trough

THE BUSINESS CYCLE



consumer a person who buys goods or services for personal use

consumer good a finished product sold to consumers for personal or home use

corporation a business in which a group of owners share in the profits and losses; as a legal entity separate from its owners, a corporation provides some protection to its owners, who are liable for the corporation's debts and losses only to the extent of their ownership investment in that corporation

currency paper or coins that a country uses for its money supply

demand the amount of goods and services that consumers are willing and able to buy at a given time; see supply and demand

devaluation a reduction in the value of a nation's currency

depression a severe drop, or contraction, in overall business activity over a long period of time; the most severe depression in modern history occurred between 1929–1939, affected nearly every country on Earth, and is known as the Great Depression

developed countries nations with strong economies and a high quality of life; often have high per capita GDPs and high levels of industrialization and technology

developing countries nations with less productive economies and a lower quality of life; often have less industrialization and technology

economic development the level of a country's economic activity, growth, and quality of life

economy the structure of economic life in a country; the total of all economic activity in a given country

entrepreneur someone who undertakes and develops a new business or develops a new product, risking failure or loss for the possibility of financial gain

foreign exchange rate the rate at which one nation's currency can get exchanged for another's

goods objects or materials that humans can purchase to satisfy their wants and needs

gross domestic product (GDP) total market value of all goods and services produced in a country in a given year; *per capita GDP* is the average value of goods and services produced per person in a country in a given year

industrialization the process of using machinery for all major forms of production

inflation an increase in overall prices

investment the purchase of something with the expectation that it will gain in value; usually property, stocks, etc.

leading indicators a set of economic factors, such as GDP and new housing construction starts, that economists use to predict a new phase of the business cycle

money any item, usually coins or paper currency, that is used in payment for goods or services

private property property that is owned by individuals and businesses, rather than the government

producer a person or group that makes goods or provides services to satisfy consumers' wants and needs

productivity the amount of goods or services that a worker or workers can produce within a given amount of time

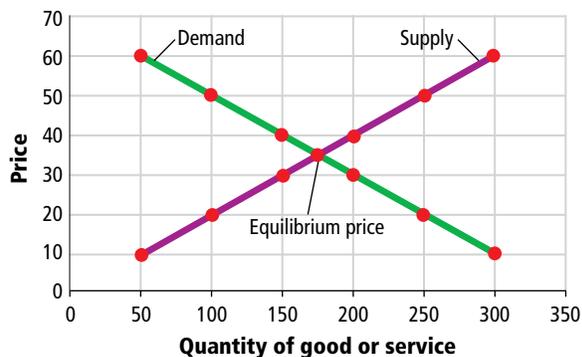
profit the gain or excess made by selling goods or services over their costs

profit motive the desire to make profits

purchasing power the amount of income that people have available to spend on goods and services

- recession** a period in which economic activity drops a moderate amount; technically defined as two consecutive quarters of negative growth in GDP
- scarcity** a condition of limited resources and unlimited wants by people; a fundamental concept in economics
- services** any activities that are performed for a fee
- specie** coined money
- standard of living** how well people are living; determined by the amount of goods and services they can afford
- stock** a share of ownership in a corporation
- stock market** an organized market for the sale, purchase, or exchange of shares or stocks in corporations; also known as a “stock exchange;” the origins of stock exchanges date to the Middle Ages
- supply** the amount of goods and services that are available at a given time; see supply and demand
- supply and demand** a theory describing how prices vary according to the supply of an item available and the demand for that item: when supply exceeds demand, prices drop; when demand exceeds supply, prices rise.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND



INTERNATIONAL TRADE

Countries trade with each other to obtain resources, goods, and services. Networks of trade in the ancient world, for instance, linked the Roman Empire and China. Beginning in the Age of Exploration, growing global trade led to the development of a global economy.

- absolute advantage** the ability of a nation, region, or company to produce a certain good or service more efficiently and cheaply than any other nation, region, or company
- balance of payments** the difference between the value of a country's exports and imports
- balance of trade** the difference between the value of a country's exports and imports
- barter** the exchange of one good or service for another
- black market** the illegal buying and selling of goods, often at high prices
- commodity** a product that is the same no matter who produces it

- comparative advantage** the ability of a company or country to produce something at a lower cost than other companies or countries
- competition** rivalry between businesses selling similar goods or services; a condition that often leads to lower prices or improved products
- e-commerce** the electronic trading of goods and services, such as over the Internet
- exports** goods or services that a country sells and sends to other countries
- fair trade** trade between a company in a developed nation and producers in less-developed nations that aims to make sure that producers receive fair prices for their goods
- free trade** trade among nations that is not affected by financial or legal barriers; trade without barriers
- globalization** the process of rapid economic integration among countries, characterized by the free flow of capital, goods, services, and labor
- imports** goods or services that a country brings in or purchases from another country
- interdependence** a relationship between countries in which they rely on one another for resources, goods, or services
- market** the free exchange of goods and services; also called the market place
- market clearing price** the price of a good or service at which supply equals demand
- mercantilism** an economic theory that defined a nation's power in terms of specie; used to direct most European economies from 1500 to 1800
- multinational corporation** a business that is based in one nation but operates divisions or subsidiaries in other nations
- one-crop economy** an economy that is dominated by the production of a single product
- opportunity cost** the value of the next-best alternative that is sacrificed when choosing to consume or produce another good or service
- outsourcing** the practice of using workers from outside of a company
- protectionism** the use of trade barriers to protect a nation's industries against foreign competition
- specialization** a focus on only one or two aspects of production in order to produce a product more quickly and cheaply; for example, one worker washes the wheels of the car, another cleans the interior, and another washes the body
- tariff** a tax charged by a government on imported goods, usually designed to make the imported goods more expensive relative to domestic goods
- trade barriers** financial or legal limitations to trade; prevention of free trade; see also tariff
- trade deficit** a condition in international trade in which the value of a nation's imports from another country exceeds the value of its exports to that country

trade-offs the goods or services sacrificed in order to consume or produce another good or service

trade surplus a condition in international trade in which the value of a nation's exports to a particular country exceeds the value of its imports from that country

underground economy illegal economic activities and unreported legal economic activities

PERSONAL ECONOMICS

Individuals make personal choices in how they manage and use their money to satisfy their needs and desires. Individuals have the choice to spend, save, or invest their money.

asset anything of value that is owned by an individual

budget a plan listing the expenses and income of an individual or organization

bankruptcy a legal process in which an individual or business whose debts exceed the value of their assets is forgiven those debts in excess of their assets

credit a system that allows consumers to pay for goods and services over time

credit bureau a company that collects and reports to its clients information about a person's financial condition and past record in meeting his or her financial obligations

credit rating an evaluation of a person's or a company's financial condition and reliability, especially concerning its record of meeting financial obligations

debt an amount of money that is owed

disposable income money that remains after all taxes have been paid

financial institutions businesses that keep and invest people's money and loan money to people; include banks or credit unions

income a gain of money that comes typically from labor or capital

interest the money that a borrower pays to a lender in return for a loan

investment the purchase of something of value with the expectation that over time it will increase in value and produce a profit

loan money given on the condition that it will be paid back, often with interest

need an economic good or service that is basic to survival, such as food, clothing, and shelter

purchasing power the amount of income that people have available to spend on goods and services

savings money or income that is not used to purchase goods or services

stock a share of ownership in a corporation

tax a required payment to a local, state, or national government; different kinds of taxes include sales taxes, income taxes, and property taxes

wage the payment a worker receives for his or her labor

want a desire for goods and services, not necessarily accompanied by the power to satisfy them

value the worth of a good or service for the purposes of exchange, usually expressed as the amount of money a consumer is willing to pay for that good or service

RESOURCES

People and businesses need resources—such as land, labor, and money—to produce goods and services.

capital generally refers to wealth, in particular wealth that can be used to finance the production of goods or services

human capital sometimes used to refer to human skills and education that affect the production of goods and services in a company or country

labor force all people who are legally old enough to work and are either working or looking for work

natural resource any material in nature that people use and value

nonrenewable resource a resource that cannot be replaced naturally, such as coal or petroleum

raw material a natural resource used to make a product or good

renewable resource a resource that Earth replaces naturally, such as water, soil, and trees

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND TRADE AGREEMENTS

Countries have formed many organizations to promote economic cooperation, growth, and trade. These organizations are important in today's global economy.

European Union (EU) an organization that promotes political and economic cooperation in Europe

International Monetary Fund (IMF) a UN agency that promotes cooperation in international trade and that works to maintain stability in the exchange of countries' currencies

North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) a 1993 agreement in which Canada, Mexico, and the United States became one large free-trade zone, meaning that most products could be sold across borders without any sort of tariffs or trade barriers

Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) an organization of countries that promotes democracy and market economies

Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) an organization that coordinates the petroleum policies of major oil producing countries

United Nations (UN) an organization of countries that promotes peace and security around the globe

World Bank a UN agency that provides loans to countries for development and recovery

World Trade Organization (WTO) an international organization dealing with trade between nations

Economic Handbook Review

REVIEWING VOCABULARY AND TERMS

On a separate sheet of paper, fill in the blanks in the following sentences:

ECONOMIC SYSTEMS

1. **A.** Businesses are able to operate with little government involvement in a _____ system.
- B.** In a _____, a central government makes all economic decisions.
- C.** _____ is a political system in which the government owns all property and runs a command economy.
- D.** Economies that combine parts of command, market, or traditional economies are called _____.
- E.** _____ is another name for a market economy, which is based on private ownership, free trade, and competition.

THE ECONOMY AND MONEY

2. **A.** _____ are objects or materials that people can buy to satisfy their needs and wants.
- B.** A _____ is any activity that is performed for a fee.
- C.** A person who buys goods or services is a _____, and a person or group that makes goods or provides services is a _____.
- D.** The amount of goods and services that consumers are willing and able to buy at any given time is known as _____.
- E.** The total value of all the goods and services produced in the United States in one year is its _____.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE

3. **A.** If we have an unlimited demand for a natural resource, such as oil, and there is only so much oil in the ground, we have a condition called _____.
- B.** The practice of using workers from outside of a company is called _____.
- C.** The process of rapid economic integration among countries is called _____.
- D.** If a country is able to produce a good or service at a lower cost than other countries, it is said to have a _____.
- E.** Trade among nations that is not limited by legal or economic barriers is called _____.

PERSONAL ECONOMICS

4. **A.** A _____ is a required payment to a local, state, or national government that is used to support public services such as education, road construction, and government aid.
- B.** The money we do not spend on goods or services is our _____.
- C.** You can use _____ to pay for goods and services over time.
- D.** The payment that a worker receives for his or her labor is called a _____.
- E.** The amount of income that people have available to spend on goods and services is known as their _____.

RESOURCES

5. **A.** Diamonds and gold are examples of _____, which are any materials in nature that people use and value.
- B.** The _____ consists of all people who are legally able to work and are working or looking for work.
- C.** Wealth that can be used to finance the production of goods and services is called _____.
- D.** Oil is an example of a _____, which is a resource that cannot be replaced naturally.
- E.** Water and trees are examples of _____, resources that Earth replaces naturally.

ORGANIZATIONS

6. **A.** Many European countries have joined the _____ to help promote political and economic cooperation across Europe.
- B.** The _____ consists of many agencies that promote peace and security around the world.
- C.** The _____ is a UN agency that provides loans to countries to help them develop their economies.
- D.** The _____ is a UN agency that helps protect the stability of countries' currencies.
- E.** Many democratic countries promote market economies through the _____.

Activities

- With a partner, compare prices in two grocery stores. Create a chart showing the price of five items in the two stores. Also, figure the average price of the items in each store. How do you think the fact that the stores are near each other affects prices? How might prices be different if one store went out of business? How might the prices be different or similar if the United States had a command economy?
- With a group, choose four countries from the last unit of your textbook to research. Use your library or the Internet to find out what kind of economic system each country currently has—traditional, command, or market. Do library or Internet research to find the per capita GDP, life expectancy rate, literacy rate, and the number of TVs per 1,000 people for each country. Organize this information in a five-column table. Study the information to see if you can find any patterns. Do countries with higher per capita GDPs have higher life expectancy rates, for example?
- Work with a partner to identify some of the many types of currency used in either Latin America, Africa, Europe, or Asia. Then imagine that you are the owners of a business in the United States. You have created a new product that you want to sell in the region you selected, but people there do not use the same currency as you do. To sell your product, you will need to be able to exchange one type of currency for another. Search the Internet or look in a newspaper to find a list of currency exchange rates. For example, if your product sells for 1,000 dollars, what should the cost be in euros? In South African rand? In Japanese yen?
- With three or four partners, create a skit that illustrates one of the following basic economic concepts: scarcity and limited resources, supply and demand, or opportunity costs and trade-offs. For example, a skit might illustrate supply and demand by showing how the high demand for the best seats at a concert increases the prices for those seats. Perform your skit for the class.
- You can increase your purchasing power by saving money. One effective way to do this is to deposit savings in a bank account that earns you interest. Suppose you want to save \$3,000 for a new computer. You decide to put \$300 each month in a savings account that earns three percent interest compounded each month. If the interest is compounded, that means you earn interest on the money you deposit plus on the interest itself. Copy the chart below. Then complete it to show the value of savings at the end of six months.

Month	Monthly Deposit	Compounded Interest Earned (at 3%)	Value of Savings
1	\$300	\$9	\$309.00
2	\$300	\$18.27	\$627.27
3	\$300		
4	\$300		
5	\$300		
6	\$300		

Excerpt from

The Dao De Jing

by Laozi



▲The Chinese character for Dao

About the Reading *The Dao De Jing was written about 2,500 years ago. It forms the basis of Daoism, an ancient Chinese belief system that influenced many Asian cultures. Daoism holds that all things in nature are part of a unified whole. Light balances dark, hot balances cold, yin balances yang, to produce a harmony. The word "Dao" is usually translated as "the path" or "the way." The Daoist way counsels retreat from the everyday world. By accepting and living in harmony with the laws of nature, a person can find peace.*

Chapter Two

All under heaven see beauty as beauty only
because they also see ugliness.
All announce that good is good only because
they also denounce what is bad.
Therefore, something and nothing give birth to
one another
Difficult and easy complete one another.
Long and short fashion one another.
High and low arise from one another.
Notes and tones harmonize with one another.
Front and back follow one another.
Thus, the True Person acts without striving
and teaches without words.
Deny nothing to the ten thousand things.
Nourish them without claiming authority,
Benefit them without demanding gratitude,
Do the work, then move on.
And, the fruits of your labor will last forever.

Chapter Fifteen

The ancient followers of the Dao were subtle,
mysterious, and penetrating.
They were too deep to be fathomed.
All we can do is describe their appearance.
Hesitant, as if crossing a winter stream.
Watchful, as if aware of neighbors on all sides.
Respectful, like a visiting guest.
Yielding, like ice beginning to melt.
Simple, like an uncarved block.
Open, like a valley.
Obscure, like muddy water.
Who else can be still and let the muddy water
slowly become clear?
Who else can remain at rest and slowly come
to life?
Those who hold fast to the Dao do not try to
fill themselves to the brim.
Because they do not try to be full they can be
worn out and yet ever new.

fathomed understood

obscure unclear, hidden from view

**Skills
FOCUS**

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

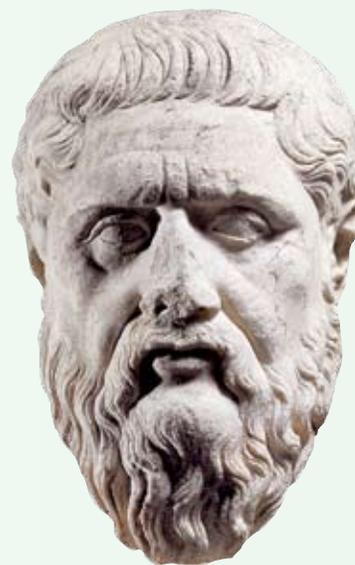
- 1. Identify** In your own words, state the main idea of Chapter Two.
- 2. Elaborate** Daoism arose at a time of political instability in China. How would the ideas expressed in Daoism be appealing in a time of unrest?

Excerpt from

The Apology

from the *Dialogues* of Plato

About the Reading *The Greek philosopher Plato (c. 429–c. 347 BC) was a student of Socrates. Socrates was known for his relentless pursuit of truth and his questioning of authority. In 399 BC, in a time of unrest following Athens' defeat in the Peloponnesian War, Socrates was brought to trial on charges of corrupting the minds of his young students. He was sentenced to death. "The Apology" is Plato's version of Socrates' defense at his trial. As used here, "apology" means a formal defense of one's beliefs or actions.*



A bust of Plato ▲

Let us reflect in another way, and we shall see that there is great reason to hope that death is a good, for one of two things: either death is a state of nothingness and utter unconsciousness, or, as men say, there is a change and migration of the soul from this world to another.

Now if you suppose that there is no consciousness, but a sleep like the sleep of him who is undisturbed even by the sight of dreams, death will be an unspeakable gain. For if a person were to select the night in which his sleep was undisturbed even by dreams, and were to compare with this the other days and nights of his life, and then were to tell us how many days and nights he had passed in the course of his life better and more pleasantly than this one, I think that any man, . . . will not find many such days or nights, when compared with the others. Now if death is like this, I say that to die is gain; for eternity is then only a single night.

But if death is the journey to another place, and there, as men say, all the dead are, what good, O my friends and judges, can be greater than this? If indeed when the pilgrim arrives in the world below, he is delivered from the professors of justice in this world, and finds the true judges who are said to

give judgment there, . . . that pilgrimage will be worth making. . . . Nay, if this be true, let me die again and again. . . . Above all, I shall be able to continue my search into true and false knowledge; as in this world, so also in that; I shall find out who is wise, and who pretends to be wise, and is not. What would not a man give, O judges, to be able to examine the leader of the great Trojan expedition; . . . What infinite delight would there be in conversing with them and asking them questions! For in that world they do not put a man to death for this; certainly not. For besides being happier in that world than in this, they will be immortal, if what is said is true.

Wherefore, O judges, be of good cheer about death, and know this of a truth—that no evil can happen to a good man, either in life or after death. . . .

The hour of departure has arrived, and we go our ways—I to die, and you to live. Which is better God only knows.

**Skills
FOCUS**

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

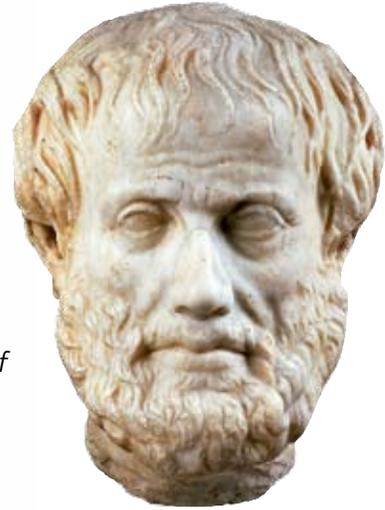
- 1. Describe** Describe how Socrates feels about death. Does he believe in an afterlife?
- 2. Analyze** What does Socrates mean when he says that "in that world they do not put a man to death for this"?
- 3. Elaborate** Why might Athenians turn against their tradition of free speech in a time of uncertainty?

Excerpt from

Politics

by Aristotle

About the Reading One of the most influential ancient Greek philosophers, Aristotle (384–322 BC) wrote about many subjects, including biology, government, physics, and poetry. Aristotle's *Politics* is one of the most important works of political philosophy. After more than 2,000 years, it is still discussed by political scholars. In this excerpt, Aristotle describes the characteristics of a democracy.



A bust of Aristotle ▲

The basis of a democratic state is liberty; which, according to the common opinion of men, can only be enjoyed in such a state; this they affirm to be the great end of every democracy. One principle of liberty is for all to rule and be ruled in turn, . . . whence it follows that the majority must be supreme, and that whatever the majority approve must be the end and the just. Every citizen, it is said, must have equality, and therefore in a democracy the poor have more power than the rich, because there are more of them, and the will of the majority is supreme. This, then, is one note of liberty, which all democrats affirm to be the principle of their state. Another is that a man should live as he likes. This, they say, is the privilege of a freeman, since, on the other hand, not to live as a man likes is the mark of a slave. This is the second characteristic of democracy, whence has arisen the claim of men to be ruled by none, if possible, or, if this is impossible, to rule and be ruled in turns; and so it contributes to the freedom based upon equality.

. . . [T]he characteristics of democracy are as follows: the election of officers by all out of all; and that all should rule over each, and each in his turn over all; that the appointment to all offices, or to all but those which require experience and skill, should be made by lot; that no property

qualification should be required for offices, or only a very low one; that a man should not hold the same office twice, or not often, or in the case of few except military offices: that the tenure of all offices, or of as many as possible, should be brief, that all men should sit in judgment, or that judges selected out of all should judge, in all matters, or in most and in the greatest and most important . . . ; that the assembly should be supreme over all causes, or at any rate over the most important, and the magistrates over none or only over a very few. . . .

These are the points common to all democracies; but democracy and demos in their truest form are based upon the recognized principle of democratic justice, that all should count equally; for equality implies that the poor should have no more share in the government than the rich, and should not be the only rulers, but that all should rule equally according to their numbers.

magistrates government officials

demos democratic populace or citizenry

Skills
FOCUS**READING LIKE A HISTORIAN**

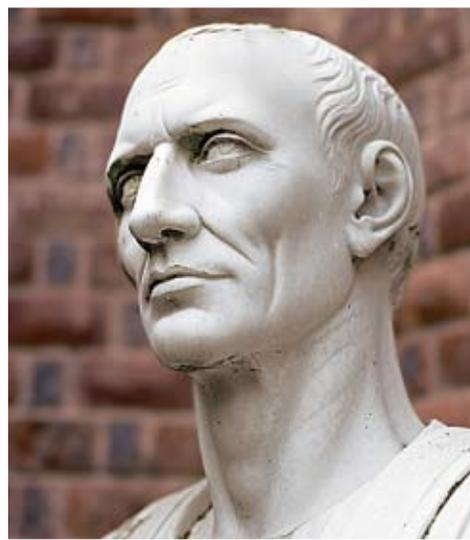
- 1. Identify** According to Aristotle, what are two principles of liberty? How are they related?
- 2. Evaluate** Aristotle asserts that “the majority must be supreme.” Do you agree or disagree? Explain your answer.

Excerpt from

The Gallic Wars

by Julius Caesar

About the Reading Soldier and statesman, Julius Caesar helped transform ancient Rome from a republic to an empire. From 58 to 50 BC, he led a Roman army that conquered Gaul, a land that included modern-day France, Belgium, and parts of Switzerland. He published an account of his campaign in *The Gallic Wars* (50 BC). In this excerpt, Caesar describes the role of the Druids, or priests, in the lives of the Gauls.



A statue of Julius Caesar ▲

Throughout all Gaul there are two orders of those men who are of any rank and dignity. . . . But of these two orders, one is that of the Druids, the other that of the knights. The former are engaged in things sacred, conduct the public and the private sacrifices, and interpret all matters of religion. To these a large number of the young men resort for the purpose of instruction, and they [the Druids] are in great honor among them. For they determine [judge] respecting almost all controversies, public and private; and if any crime has been perpetrated, if murder has been committed, if there be any dispute about an inheritance, if any about boundaries, these same persons decide it; they decree rewards and punishments; if any one, either in a private or public capacity, has not submitted to their decision, they interdict him from the sacrifices. This among them is the most heavy punishment. Those who have been thus interdicted are esteemed in the number of the impious and the criminal: all shun them, and avoid their society and conversation, lest they receive some evil from their contact; nor

is justice administered to them when seeking it, nor is any dignity bestowed on them. Over all these Druids one presides, who possesses supreme authority among them. Upon his death, if any individual among the rest is pre-eminent in dignity, he succeeds; but, if there are many equal, the election is made by the suffrages [votes] of the Druids; sometimes they even contend for the presidency with arms. These assemble at a fixed period of the year in a consecrated [holy] place in the territories of the Carnutes, which is reckoned the central region of the whole of Gaul. Hither all, who have disputes, assemble from every part, and submit to their decrees and determinations. This institution is supposed to have been devised in Britain, and to have been brought over from it into Gaul; and now those who desire to gain a more accurate knowledge of that system generally proceed thither [Britain] for the purpose of studying it.

resort turn to, make use of

interdict prohibit, forbid, ban

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

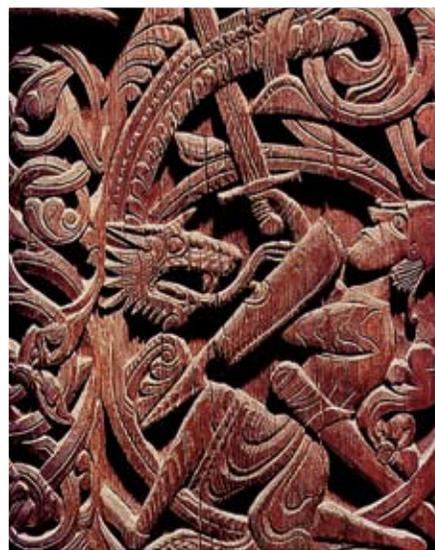
- 1. Describe** Are Druids religious leaders or political leaders? Explain your answer. What does this say about the Gauls?
- 2. Draw Conclusions** Why might Julius Caesar want to give an account of his military triumphs in Gaul on the eve of his own war with Pompey?

Excerpt from

Beowulf

by Anonymous (translated by Burton Raffel)

About the Reading *The epic poem Beowulf is the first great work of English literature. It tells of Beowulf, a warrior from Sweden who sails to Denmark to rid King Hrothgar's people from the monster Grendel. Much of the story is based on early Celtic and Scandinavian folk legends. In this excerpt, Beowulf and Grendel are fighting. Beowulf has seized Grendel's arm. Shrieking with pain and defeat, Grendel tries to flee. But he cannot break Beowulf's powerful grip.*



Viking carving, c. 1100s ▲

That mighty protector of men
 Meant to hold the monster till its life
 Leaped out, knowing the fiend was no use
 To anyone in Denmark. All of Beowulf's
 Band had jumped from their beds, ancestral
 Swords raised and ready, determined
 To protect their prince if they could. Their
 courage
 Was great but all wasted: they could hack at
 Grendel
 From every side, trying to open
 A path for his evil soul, but their points
 Could not hurt him, the sharpest and hardest
 iron
 Could not scratch at his skin, for that sin-
 stained demon
 Had bewitched all men's weapons, laid spells
 That blunted every mortal man's blade.
 And yet his time had come, his days
 Were over, his death near; down
 To hell he would go, swept groaning and
 helpless
 To the waiting hands of still worse
 fiends.

Now he discovered—once the afflictor
 Of men, tormentor of their days—what it
 meant
 To feud with Almighty God: Grendel
 Saw that his strength was deserting him, his
 claws
 Bound fast, Higlac's brave follower tearing at
 His hands. The monster's hatred rose higher,
 But his power had gone. He twisted in pain,
 And the bleeding sinews deep in his shoulder
 Snapped, muscle and bone split
 And broke. The battle was over, Beowulf
 Had been granted new glory; Grendel escaped,
 But wounded as he was could flee to his den,
 His miserable hole at the bottom of the marsh,
 Only to die, to wait for the end
 Of all his days.

Higlac's brave follower meaning Beowulf; Higlac is Beowulf's uncle and feudal lord

Skills
 FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Recall** According to this excerpt, why can Beowulf's men not harm Grendel?
- 2. Draw Conclusions** In what way is the poem's blending of Christian belief with ancient mythology characteristic of the Middle Ages?

Excerpt from

Magna Carta

About the Reading Magna Carta, or Great Charter, is an agreement between King John of England and a group of English nobles. The nobles forced the king to sign the agreement in 1215. It required the king to give up certain rights, follow certain basic legal procedures, and accept that his power was subject to law. Magna Carta is one of the earliest documents limiting the powers of a ruler and listing the rights of the ruled. The “we” and “us” in Magna Carta refer to the king.



Presenting Magna Carta to King John ▲

[1] In the first place we have granted to God, and by this our present charter confirmed for us and our heirs forever that the English Church shall be free, and shall have her rights entire, and her liberties inviolate; . . . We have also granted to all freemen of our kingdom, for us and our heirs forever, all the underwritten liberties, to be had and held by them and their heirs, of us and our heirs forever.

[7] A widow, after the death of her husband, shall forthwith and without difficulty have her marriage portion and inheritance; nor shall she give anything for her dower, or for her marriage portion, or for the inheritance which her husband and she held on the day of the death of that husband; and she may remain in the house of her husband for forty days after his death, within which time her dower shall be assigned to her.

[8] No widow shall be compelled to marry, so long as she prefers to live without a husband; provided always that she gives security not to marry without our consent, if she holds of us, or without the consent of the lord of whom she holds, if she holds of another.

[38] No **bailiff** for the future shall, upon his own unsupported complaint, put anyone to his “law,” without credible witnesses brought for this purposes.

[39] No freemen shall be taken or imprisoned or **disseised** or exiled or in any way destroyed, nor will we go upon him nor send upon him, except by the lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land.

[40] To no one will we sell, to no one will we refuse or delay right or justice.

[45] We will appoint as justices, constables, sheriffs, or bailiffs only such as know the law of the realm and mean to observe it well.

bailiff official employed by an English sheriff to make arrests and executions

disseised deprived of legal possession of property

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

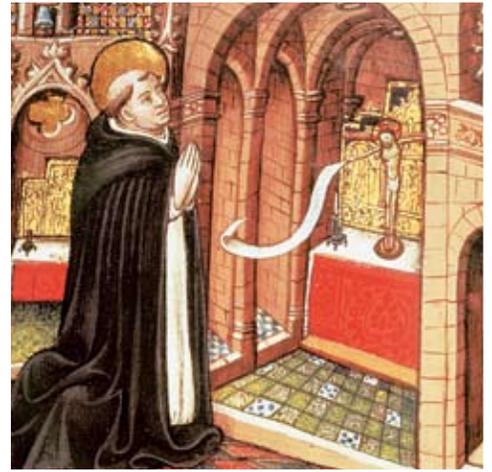
- 1. Identify Main Ideas** What are the main ideas in the first paragraph?
- 2. Analyze** Paragraphs 38–40 and 45 discuss how justice should be carried out. What do they suggest about justice under King John?
- 3. Make Judgments** What does *Magna Carta* tell you about the relationship between kings and nobles under the feudal system?

Excerpt from

Summa Theologica

by Thomas Aquinas

About the Reading *Thomas Aquinas (c.1225–1274) was a Roman Catholic philosopher and theologian. Many Catholics consider Aquinas to be the church's greatest theologian. The excerpt below is from Aquinas's most famous work, the Summa Theologica, a systematic description of Roman Catholic theology. Aquinas's method is to pose questions and then answer them. In this excerpt, he discusses who may make laws, the purpose of laws, and the limits of laws.*



Thomas Aquinas, from a 1442 book ▲

Whether the reason of any man is competent to make laws?

... A law, properly speaking, regards first and foremost the order to the common good. Now to order anything to the common good, belongs either to the whole people, or to someone who is the viceregent of the whole people. And therefore the making of a law belongs either to the whole people or to a public personage who has care of the whole people: since in all other matters the directing of anything to the end concerns him to whom the end belongs. ...

Whether it belongs to the human law to repress all vices?

... Human law is framed for a number of human beings, the majority of whom are not perfect in virtue. Wherefore human laws do not forbid all vices, from which the virtuous abstain, but only the more grievous vices, from which it is possible for the majority to abstain; and chiefly those that are to the hurt of others, without the prohibition of which human society could not be maintained: thus human law prohibits murder, theft and such like.

... The purpose of human law is to lead men to virtue, not suddenly, but gradually. Wherefore it does not lay upon the multitude of imperfect men the burdens of those who are already virtuous, viz. that they should abstain from all evil. Otherwise these imperfect ones, being unable to bear such precepts, would break out into yet greater evils: thus it is written ... (Mt. 9:17) that if “new wine,” i.e. precepts of a perfect life, “is put into old bottles,” i.e. into imperfect men, “the bottles break, and the wine runneth out.”

viceregent assistant to a regent or ruler

repress to check, put down, or prevent

abstain refrain, keep from doing

grievous serious, grave

Mt. 9:17 A passage from the Gospel of Matthew in the Christian Bible. Aquinas frequently cites the Bible.

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Identify** According to Aquinas, who can make laws?
- 2. Make Inferences** What is the purpose of human law? Does Aquinas believe that governments should exercise unlimited powers when it comes to making laws?

Excerpt from

Travels in Asia and Africa, 1325–1345

by Ibn Battutah

About the Reading *Ibn Battutah (1304–1369?) was one of the greatest travelers of all time. A scholar, judge, and explorer, Battutah traveled throughout the Muslim world for nearly 30 years, covering some 75,000 miles. He visited Turkey, Iran, China, Sri Lanka, Southeast Asia, India, East Africa, and North Africa. Battutah dictated the stories of his journeys to a scholar named Ibn Juzay al-Kalbi. This record of his travels was published as his book Travels in Asia and Africa, 1325–1345. This excerpt describes Battutah's visit to Baghdad in 1327, when it was ruled by the Mongols.*



Baghdad garden, 1396 ▲

Thence we travelled to Baghdad, the Abode of Peace and Capital of Islam. Here there are two bridges . . . on which the people promenade night and day, both men and women. The town has eleven cathedral mosques, eight on the right bank and three on the left, together with very many other mosques and madrasas, only the latter are all in ruins.

The baths at Baghdad are numerous and excellently constructed, most of them being painted with pitch, which has the appearance of black marble. This pitch is brought from a spring between Kufa and Basra, from which it flows continually. It gathers at the sides of the spring like clay and is shovelled up and brought to Baghdad. Each establishment has a large number of private bathrooms, every one of which has also a wash-basin in the corner, with two taps supplying hot and cold water. Every bather is given three towels, one to wear round his waist when he goes in, another to wear round his waist when he comes out, and the third to dry himself with. In no town other than Baghdad have I seen all this

elaborate arrangement, though some other towns approach it in this respect.

The western part of Baghdad was the earliest to be built, but it is now for the most part in ruins. In spite of that there remain in it still thirteen quarters, each like a city in itself and possessing two or three baths. The hospital [*maristan*] is a vast ruined edifice, of which only vestiges remain.

The eastern part has an abundance of bazaars, the largest of which is called the Tuesday bazaar. On this side there are no fruit trees, but all the fruit is brought from the western side, where there are orchards and gardens.

Abode home

madrasa (Arabic) school, often associated with a mosque

pitch sticky, oil-based substance used for waterproofing

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Interpret** Why do you think Battutah found the baths in Baghdad worth highlighting in his account? Explain your answer.
- 2. Draw Conclusions** What did it say about Muslim civilization at the time that someone like Ibn Battutah could travel so widely in many different lands?

Excerpt from

The Chronicle

by Jean de Venette

About the Reading Jean de Venette (c. 1307–c. 1370) was a Roman Catholic monk in Paris. His *Chronicle* covers 1340 to 1368, the years when the Black Death appeared in Europe. De Venette's eyewitness account of the plague and other events provides valuable information about social, religious, and political life of the fourteenth century.



Burying plague victims in France, 1349 ▲

In the month of August, 1348, after Vespers when the sun was beginning to set, a big and very bright star appeared above Paris, toward the west. . . . It is . . . possible that it was a presage of the amazing pestilence to come, which, in fact, followed very shortly. . . .

This plague, it is said, began among the unbelievers, came to Italy, and then crossing the Alps reached Avignon, where it attacked several cardinals and took from them their whole household. Then it spread, unforeseen, to France, through Gascony and Spain, little by little, from town to town, from village to village, from house to house, and finally from person to person. It even crossed over to Germany, though it was not so bad there as with us. . . .

Some said that this pestilence was caused by infection of the air and waters, since there was at this time no famine nor lack of food supplies, but on the contrary great abundance. As a result of this theory of infected water and air as the source of the plague the Jews were suddenly and violently charged with infecting wells and water and corrupting the air. The whole world rose up against them cruelly on this account. In Germany and other parts of the world where Jews lived, they were massacred and slaughtered by Christians, and many thousands were burned everywhere, indiscriminately. The unshaken, if fatuous, constancy of the men

and their wives was remarkable. For mothers hurled their children first into the fire that they might not be baptized and then leaped in after them to burn with their husbands and children. It is said that many bad Christians were found who in like manner put poison into wells. But in truth, such poisonings, granted that they actually were perpetrated, could not have caused so great a plague nor have infected so many people. There were other causes; for example, the will of God and the corrupt humors and evil inherent in air and earth. Perhaps the poisonings, if they actually took place in some localities, reinforced these causes. The plague lasted in France for the greater part of the years 1348 and 1349 and then ceased. Many country villages and many houses in good towns remained empty and deserted. Many houses, including some splendid dwellings, very soon fell into ruins. Even in Paris several houses were thus ruined, though fewer here than elsewhere.

presage sign

fatuous silly and pointless

constancy faithfulness

humors bodily fluids whose balance was thought to be essential to well-being

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Describe** What does Venette think about some of the explanations for the causes of the plague?
- 2. Analyze** What do the words "fatuous" and "constancy" used to describe those Jews who chose death rather than abandon their religious faith indicate about the author's point of view?

Excerpt from

The Canterbury Tales

by Geoffrey Chaucer

About the Reading *The Canterbury Tales* are a collection of stories that give us a picture of life in the Middle Ages. By placing travelers together on a pilgrimage, or religious journey, Chaucer (1343–1400) was able to include the entire range of English medieval society in his story. The excerpt, from the Prologue to the poem, introduces a handful of Chaucer's large cast of characters.



Pilgrims leaving Canterbury, early 1500s ▲

It happened in that season that one day
In Southwark, at The Tabard, as I lay
Ready to go on pilgrimage and start
For Canterbury, most devout at heart,
At night there came into that hostelry
Some nine and twenty in a company
Of sundry folk happening then to fall
In fellowship, and they were pilgrims all
That towards Canterbury meant to ride. . .

There was a *Knight*, a most distinguished
man,

Who from the day on which he first began
To ride abroad had followed chivalry,
Truth, honor, generousness, and courtesy.
He had done nobly in his sovereign's war
And ridden into battle, no man more,
As well in Christian as in heathen places,
And ever honored for his noble graces. . .

A *Monk* there was, one of the finest sort
Who rode the country; hunting was his sport.
A manly man, to be an Abbot able;
Many a dainty horse he had in stable. . .
He did not rate that text at a plucked hen
Which says that hunters are not holy men. . .

There was a *Merchant* with a forking
beard

And motley dress; high on his horse he sat,
Upon his head a Flemish beaver hat
And on his feet daintily buckled boots. . .
This estimable Merchant so had set
His wits to work, none knew he was in
debt. . .

An *Oxford Cleric*, still a student though,
One who had taken logic long ago
Was there; his horse was thinner than a rake,
And he was not too fat, I undertake,
But had a hollow look, a sober stare;
The thread upon his overcoat was bare. . .

A worthy *woman* from beside *Bath* city
Was with us, somewhat deaf, which was a pity.
In making cloth she showed so great a bent
She bettered those of Ypres and of Ghent. . .
A worthy woman all her life, what's more
She'd had five husbands, all at the church door,
Apart from other company in youth;
No need just now to speak of that, forsooth. . .

There was a *Plowman* with him there. . .
Many a load of dung one time or other
He must have carted through the morning
dew.

He was an honest worker, good and true.

hostelry inn; The Tabard is a lodging place

heathen pagan; for Chaucer, a non-Christian

motley multi-colored

cleric clergyman; Oxford University trained clergymen

Skills
Focus

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

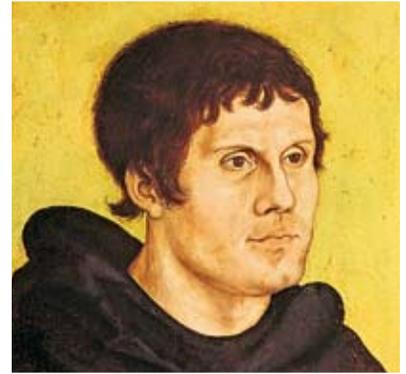
- 1. Identify** Who are some of the people on the pilgrimage?
- 2. Analyze** How does Chaucer's cast of characters represent the changes that were taking place during the High Middle Ages?

Excerpt from

Refusal at the Diet of Worms

by Martin Luther

About the Reading After being excommunicated by Pope Leo X, Martin Luther (1483–1546) was summoned by Emperor Charles V to appear before the Diet of Worms in 1521. He was given an opportunity to renounce his writings. Luther asked for a day to consider his response. His speech the following day became a ringing defense of individual conscience.



Martin Luther, c. 1521 ►

“Your Imperial Majesty and Your Lordships: I ask you to observe that my books are not all of the same kind.

“There are some in which I have dealt with piety in faith and morals with such simplicity and so agreeably with the Gospels that my adversaries themselves are compelled to admit them useful, harmless, and clearly worth reading by a Christian . . .

“The second kind consists in those writings leveled against the papacy and the doctrine of the papists, as against those who by their wicked doctrines and precedents have laid waste Christendom by doing harm to the souls and the bodies of men . . . Through the Pope’s laws and through man-made teachings the consciences of the faithful . . . have been devoured . . . by unbelievable tyranny, . . . If then I recant these, the only effect will be to add strength to such tyranny, to open not the windows but the main doors to such blasphemy . . .

“The third kind consists of those books which I have written against private individuals, . . . who have exerted themselves in defense of the Roman tyranny and to the overthrow of that piety which I have taught. I confess that I have been more harsh against them than befits my religious vows and my profession . . .

But it is not in my power to recant them, because that recantation would give that tyranny and blasphemy an occasion to lord it over those whom I defend and to rage against God’s people more violently than ever . . .

“And so, through the mercy of God, I ask Your Imperial Majesty, and Your Illustrious Lordships, or anyone of any degree, to defeat them [Luther’s books] by the writings of the Prophets or by the Gospels; for I shall be most ready, if I be better instructed, to recant any error, and I shall be the first in casting my writings in the fire . . .”

Thereupon the Orator of the Empire, in a tone of upbraiding . . . asked for a plain reply . . . Was he prepared to recant, or no?

Luther then replied: . . . “Unless I am convicted [convinced] of error by the testimony of Scripture, . . . I cannot and will not recant anything, for to act against our conscience is neither safe for us, nor open to us. On this I take my stand. I can do no other. God help me. Amen.”

recant withdraw and renounce

upbraiding disapproval

**Skills
FOCUS**

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Identify** What are the three categories into which Luther places his books? Why does he say that he cannot recant the second kind?
- 2. Explain** Why would Luther’s position have posed a threat to the authority both of the pope and of the emperor?

Excerpt from

Don Quixote

by Miguel de Cervantes

About the Reading Miguel de Cervantes (1547–1616) lived during the peak and decline of Spain's Golden Age. His masterpiece *Don Quixote* (1606; 1615) is a parody of medieval stories of knights and chivalry, which were extremely popular in Cervantes's time. It reflects the disillusionment that began to affect Spanish society as the country declined in power.



Don Quixote and the windmill ▲

At this point they caught sight of thirty or forty windmills which were standing on the plain there, and no sooner had Don Quixote laid eyes upon them than he turned to his squire and said, "Fortune is guiding our affairs better than we could have wished; for you see there before you, friend Sancho Panza, some thirty or more lawless giants with whom I mean to do battle. I shall deprive them of their lives, and with the spoils from this encounter we shall begin to enrich ourselves; for this is righteous warfare, and it is a great service to God to remove so accursed a breed from the face of the earth."

"What giants?" said Sancho Panza.

"Those that you see there," replied his master, "those with the long arms, some of which are as much as two leagues in length."

"But look, your Grace, those are not giants but windmills, and what appear to be arms are their wings which, when whirled in the breeze, cause the millstone to go."

"It is plain to be seen," said Don Quixote, "that you have had little experience in this matter of adventures. If you are afraid, go off to one side and say your prayers while I am engaging them in fierce, unequal combat."

Saying this, he gave spurs to his steed Rocinante, without pay-

ing any heed to Sancho's warning that these were truly windmills and not giants that he was riding forth to attack. Nor even when he was close upon them did he perceive what they really were, but shouted at the top of his lungs, "Do not seek to flee, cowards and vile creatures that you are, for it is but a single knight with whom you have to deal!"

At that moment a little wind came up and the big wings began turning.

He thereupon commended himself with all his heart to his lady Dulcinea, beseeching her to succor him in this peril; and, being well covered with his shield and with his lance at rest, he bore down upon them at a full gallop and fell upon the first mill that stood in his way, giving a thrust at the wing, which was whirling at such a speed that his lance was broken into bits and both horse and horseman went rolling over the plain, very much battered indeed.

squire a young nobleman who attends a knight

millstone large stone used for grinding

succor help

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Describe** Use examples from this excerpt to show how Cervantes portrays Don Quixote as both noble and foolish.
- 2. Analyze** In your opinion, is Don Quixote a crazy person who refuses to see things as they really are, or is he more like a person who refuses to compromise his ideals so he can achieve a greater good?

Excerpt from

Leviathan

by Thomas Hobbes

About the Reading Thomas Hobbes (1588–1679) wrote *Leviathan* in 1651, while in exile in France. At the time England was ruled by Parliament, making it unsafe for Royalists like Hobbes. In *Leviathan*, Hobbes argues that in their natural state people are selfish and constantly at war. The only way society can be established is if people surrender some rights to an authority that offers safety. In this excerpt, Hobbes discusses the possible forms of sovereign governments.

Cover page of *Leviathan* ▲

The difference of Commonwealths consisteth in the difference of the sovereign, or the person representative of all and every one of the multitude. And because the sovereignty is either in one man, or in an assembly of more than one; and into that assembly either every man hath right to enter, or not every one, but certain men distinguished from the rest; it is manifest there can be but three kinds of Commonwealth. For the representative must needs be one man, or more; and if more, then it is the assembly of all, or but of a part. When the representative is one man, then is the Commonwealth a monarchy; when an assembly of all that will come together, then it is a democracy, or popular Commonwealth; when an assembly of a part only, then it is called an aristocracy. Other kind of Commonwealth there can be none: for either one, or more, or all, must have the sovereign power (which I have shown to be indivisible) entire.

There be other names of government in the histories and books of policy; as tyranny and oligarchy; but they are not the

names of other forms of government, but of the same forms misliked [misnamed]. For they that are discontented under monarchy call it tyranny; and they that are displeased with aristocracy call it oligarchy: so also, they which find themselves grieved under a democracy call it anarchy, which signifies want of government; and yet I think no man believes that want of government is any new kind of government: nor by the same reason ought they to believe that the government is of one kind when they like it, and another when they dislike it or are oppressed by the governors.

commonwealth an independent state or community

manifest clear, plain, apparent

want lack, absence

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Describe** In your own words, describe Hobbes's three basic forms of commonwealth. What do they have in common?
- 2. Draw a Conclusion** What does Hobbes mean when he says that "sovereign power" is "indivisible"? Does that leave any room for compromise in the struggle between king and Parliament?

Excerpt from

The Spirit of Laws

by Charles de Secondat, Baron de Montesquieu



Baron de Montesquieu ▲

About the Reading Charles de Secondat, Baron de Montesquieu (1689–1755), was a French jurist and influential political thinker during the Enlightenment. He drew on the classical past of ancient Greece and Rome and the contemporary government of Great Britain for some of his ideas. His best-known work, *The Spirit of Laws* (1748), contains his theories of separation of governing powers and checks and balances, two ideas that strongly influenced the United States Constitution.

In every government there are three sorts of power: the legislative; the executive, in respect to things dependent on the law of nations; and the executive, in regard to things that depend on the civil law.

By virtue of the first, the prince or magistrate enacts temporary or perpetual laws, and amends or abrogates those that have been already enacted. By the second, he makes peace or war, sends or receives embassies; establishes the public security, and provides against invasions. By the third, he punishes criminals, or determines the disputes that arise between individuals. The latter we shall call the judiciary power, and the other simply the executive power of the state.

The political liberty of the subject is a tranquility of mind, arising from the opinion each person has of his safety. In order to have this liberty, it is requisite the government be so constituted as one man need not be afraid of another.

When the legislative and executive powers are united in the same person, or in the same body of magistrates, there can be no liberty; because apprehensions may arise, lest the same monarch or senate should enact tyrannical laws, to execute them in a tyrannical manner.

Again, there is no liberty, if the power of judging be not separated from the legislative and executive powers. Were it joined with the legislative, the life and liberty of the subject would be exposed to arbitrary control, for the judge would then be the legislator. Were it joined to the executive power, the judge might behave with all the violence of an oppressor.

There would be an end of every thing were the same man, or the same body, whether of the nobles or of the people to exercise those three powers that of enacting laws, that of executing the public resolutions, and that of judging the crimes or differences of individuals.

What a situation must the poor subject be in, under those republics! The same body of magistrates are possessed, as executors of the laws, of the whole power they have given themselves in quality of legislators. They may plunder the state by their general determinations; and as they have likewise the judiciary power in their hands, every private citizen may be ruined by their particular decisions.

abrogates abolishes

arbitrary unrestrained; based on individual whim

Skills
Focus

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

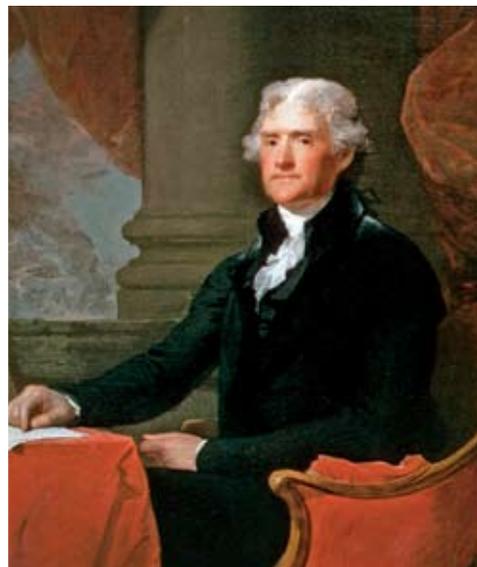
- Analyze** Why does Montesquieu say it is a bad idea to combine legislative and executive powers in one person?
- Make Judgments** Review the excerpt from Hobbes on R66. How do his ideas and Montesquieu's differ?

Excerpt from

The Declaration of Independence

by Thomas Jefferson

About the Reading In April 1775, American colonists fought English soldiers at Lexington and Concord. By the summer of 1776, events had advanced far enough that the Continental Congress voted for independence. The job of writing a formal declaration of that independence fell to Thomas Jefferson. Only 33 years old at the time, Jefferson was respected by his colleagues for his writing ability. Still, Congress revised about one-fifth of his draft. The passage that begins “We hold these truths to be self-evident,” however, they left untouched. It has become a lasting statement of America’s founding ideals.



Thomas Jefferson ▲

In Congress, July 4, 1776

The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America,

When in the Course of human events it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature’s God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. — That to secure these rights, Governments are

instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed, — That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness.

impel force

endowed provided, given

unalienable cannot be taken away, given away, or transferred

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Identify Main Ideas** What is the main idea in the first paragraph of this excerpt?
- 2. Interpret** How are Jefferson’s words consistent with the Enlightenment’s ideas of John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau?
- 3. Support a Position** Is it the right of the people to alter or abolish a government if they wish to? Give reasons that support your position.

Excerpt from

The Wealth of Nations

by Adam Smith



Adam Smith ▲

About the Reading Adam Smith (1723–1790) was a Scottish philosopher and economist. In his best-known work, *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), Smith asserted the value of free trade and few, if any, governmental regulations or restraints on trade. Smith's arguments exerted a tremendous force in shaping an era of free trade in the 1800s. In this excerpt, Smith describes how a person's self-interest guides him or her to buy and sell things in order to have the "necessaries of life."

In civilized society he [man] stands at all times in need of the cooperation and assistance of great multitudes, while his whole life is scarce sufficient to gain the friendship of a few persons. In almost every other race of animals each individual, when it is grown up to maturity, is entirely independent, and in its natural state has occasion for the assistance of no other living creature. . . . But man has almost constant occasion for the help of his brethren, and it is in vain for him to expect it from their benevolence only. He will be more likely to prevail if he can interest their self-love in his favour, and show them that it is for their own advantage to do for him what he requires of them. Whoever offers to another a bargain of any kind, proposes to do this. Give me that which I want, and you shall have this which you want, is the meaning of every such offer; and it is in this manner that we obtain from one another the far greater part of those good offices which we stand in need of. It is not from the benevolence of the butcher, the brewer, or the baker, that we expect our dinner, but from their regard to their own interest. We address ourselves, not to their humanity but to their self-love, and never talk to them of our own necessities but of their advantages. Nobody but a

beggar chuses [chooses] to depend chiefly upon the benevolence of his fellow-citizens. Even a beggar does not depend upon it entirely. The charity of well-disposed people, indeed, supplies him with the whole fund of his subsistence. But though this principle ultimately provides him with all the necessaries of life which he has occasion for, it neither does nor can provide him with them as he has occasion for them. The greater part of his occasional wants are supplied in the same manner as those of other people, by treaty, by barter, and by purchase. With the money which one man gives him he purchases food. The old cloaths [clothes] which another bestows upon him he exchanges for other old cloaths which suit him better, or for lodging, or for food, or for money, with which he can buy either food, cloaths, or lodging, as he has occasion.

brethren literally brothers; here, fellow men

benevolence kindness

good offices goods and services

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Recall** According to Smith, how does man in civilized society differ from "almost every other race of animals"?
- 2. Analyze** Why is it necessary for a person to obtain goods by treaty, barter, or purchase?
- 3. Predict** Based on this excerpt, why do you think that Smith was an advocate of liberal free trade among nations?

Excerpt from the Introduction to

A Vindication of the Rights of Woman

by Mary Wollstonecraft

About the Reading *In 1789 the French Revolution erupted and, with its stirring slogan of “liberty, equality, fraternity,” shook European society. Inspired by the ideas of the revolution in France, in 1792 Wollstonecraft wrote A Vindication of the Rights of Woman. It is a strong and passionate criticism of the social and economic institutions that lead to inequality for women.*



Mary Wollstonecraft ▲

I have sighed when obliged to confess, that either nature has made a great difference between man and man, or that civilization . . . has been very partial. I have . . . a profound conviction, that the neglected education of my fellow creatures is the grand source of the misery I deplore; and that women in particular, are rendered weak and wretched by a variety of concurring causes. . . . The conduct and manners of women, in fact, evidently prove, that their minds are not in a healthy state; for, like the flowers that are planted in too rich a soil, strength and usefulness are sacrificed to beauty; and the flaunting leaves, after having pleased a fastidious eye, fade, disregarded on the stalk, long before the season when they ought to have arrived at maturity. One cause of this barren blooming I attribute to a false system of education, gathered from the books written on this subject by men, who, considering females rather as women than human creatures, have been more anxious to make them alluring mistresses than rational wives; and the understanding of the sex has been so bubbled by this specious homage, that the civilized women of the present century, with a few exceptions, are only anxious to inspire love, when they ought to cherish a nobler ambition, and by their abilities and virtues exact respect. . . .

Yet, because I am a woman, I would not lead my readers to suppose, that I mean violently to agitate the contested question respecting the equality and inferiority of the sex; but . . . I shall stop a moment to deliver, in a few words, my opinion. In the government of the physical world, it is observable that the female, in general, is inferior to the male. The male pursues, the female yields—this is the law of nature; and it does not appear to be suspended or abrogated in favor of woman. This physical superiority cannot be denied—and it is a noble prerogative! But not content with this natural pre-eminence, men endeavor to sink us still lower, merely to render us alluring objects for a moment; and women, intoxicated by the adoration which men, under the influence of their senses, pay them, do not seek to obtain a durable interest in their hearts, or to become the friends of the fellow creatures who find amusement in their society. . . .

partial biased

fastidious overly fussy; picky

specious showy but false; lacking genuineness

abrogated abolished; repealed

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

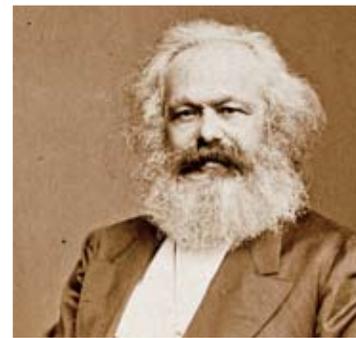
- 1. Identify Main Ideas** What is the main idea of this excerpt?
- 2. Explain** In your own words, explain how Wollstonecraft responds to the issue of the equality of the sexes.
- 3. Elaborate** How did Wollstonecraft's ideas differ from those of other Enlightenment thinkers? Explain.

Excerpt from

The Communist Manifesto

by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels

About the Reading *In the 1840s, a new philosophy of history and the nature of human beings—communism—appeared. Communism views humans as historical beings whose lives and work are determined by the material conditions of the society in which they live. Communism also envisions a society in which there is no private property and in which workers will not be exploited and forced to live in poverty and misery. Marx and Engels wrote The Communist Manifesto (1848) as an explanation of the doctrines and theories of communism.*



Karl Marx ▲

The history of all hitherto existing society is the history of class struggles. . . .

Freeman and slave, patrician and plebian, lord and serf, guild-master and journeyman, in a word, oppressor and oppressed, stood in constant opposition to one another, carried on an uninterrupted, now hidden, now open fight, a fight that each time ended, either in a revolutionary reconstitution of society at large, or in the common ruin of the contending classes. . . .

We have seen above that the first step in the revolution by the working class is to raise the proletariat to the position of ruling class to win the battle of democracy.

The proletariat will use its political supremacy to wrest, by degree, all capital from the bourgeoisie, to centralize all instruments of production in the hands of the state, i.e., of the proletariat organized as the ruling class; and to increase the total productive forces as rapidly as possible. . . .

When, in the course of development, class distinctions have disappeared, and all production has been concentrated in the hands of a vast association of the whole nation, the public power will lose its political character. Political power, properly so called, is merely the organized power of one class for oppressing another. If the proletariat during

its contest with the bourgeoisie is compelled, by the force of circumstances, to organize itself as a class; if, by means of a revolution, it makes itself the ruling class, and, as such, sweeps away by force the old conditions of production, then it will, along with these conditions, have swept away the conditions for the existence of class antagonisms and of classes generally, and will thereby have abolished its own supremacy as a class.

In place of the old bourgeois society, with its classes and class antagonisms, we shall have an association in which the free development of each is the condition for the free development of all.

The Communists disdain to conceal their views and aims. They openly declare that their ends can be attained only by the forcible overthrow of all existing social conditions. Let the ruling classes tremble at a communist revolution. The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win.

Proletarians of all countries, unite!

proletariat workers or working-class people

bourgeoisie the wealthy middle class; capitalists

Skills
Focus

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Recall** How have all previous “class struggles” ended?
- 2. Analyze** According to Marx, how and why will a communist revolution take place? Is his prediction realistic?

Excerpt from

All Quiet on the Western Front

by Erich Maria Remarque

About the Reading *Erich Maria Remarque (1898–1970) was born in Germany and served in the German army during World War I. His novel All Quiet on the Western Front (1929) describes the routine horrors of war that soldiers faced in the trenches that spread across Western Europe.*



Trench in World War I ▲

There are so many airmen here, and they are so sure of themselves that they give chase to single individuals, just as though they were hares. For every one German plane there come at least five English and American. For one hungry, wretched German soldier come five of the enemy, fresh and fit. For one German army loaf there are fifty tins of canned beef over there. We are not beaten, for as soldiers we are better and more experienced; we are simply crushed and driven back by overwhelming superior forces.

Behind us lay rainy weeks—grey sky, grey fluid earth, grey dying. If we got out, the rain at once soaks through our overcoat and clothing;—and we remain wet all the time we are in the line. We never get dry. Those who will wear high boots tie sand bags round the tops so that the mud does not pour in so fast. The rifles are caked, the uniforms caked, everything is fluid and dissolved, the earth one dripping, soaked, oily mass in which lie yellow pools with red spiral streams of blood and into which the dead, wounded, and survivors slowly sink down.

The storm lashes us, out of the confusion of grey and yellow the hail of splinters whips forth the child-like cries of the wounded, and in the night shattered life groans painfully into silence.

Our hands are earth, our bodies clay and our eyes pools of rain. We do not know whether we still live.

Then the heat sinks heavily into our shell-holes like a jelly fish, moist and oppressive and on one of those late summer days, while bringing food, Kat falls. We two are alone. I bind up his wound; his shin seems to be smashed. It has got the bone, and Kat groans desperately: “At last—just at the last—”

I comfort him. “Who knows how long this mess will go on yet! Now you are saved—”

The wound begins to bleed fast. Kat cannot be left by himself while I try to find a stretcher. Anyway, I don’t know of a stretcher-bearer’s post in the neighborhood.

Kat is not very heavy; so I take him up on my back and start off to the dressing station with him.

Twice we rest. He suffers acutely on the way. We do not speak much. I have opened the collar of my tunic and breathe heavily, I sweat and my face is swollen with the strain of carrying. All the same I urge him to let us go on, for the place is dangerous.

**Skills
Focus**

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Describe** How does the narrator describe the conditions on the battlefield?
- 2. Infer** After Kat is wounded, why do you think the narrator tells him “Now you are saved”?

Excerpt from

On Nonviolent Resistance

by Mohandas K. Gandhi



Mohandas K. Gandhi ►

About the Reading Mohandas K. Gandhi (1869–1948) was the leader of India's fight for independence from British rule. Though Gandhi was often arrested and imprisoned for his actions, he urged his followers to adhere to the principles of nonviolence. The following excerpt is from a 1916 speech made to Gandhi's Hindu supporters at Kochrab Ashram in India. It was collected with other of Gandhi's writings and published in 1922.

There are two ways of countering injustice. One way is to smash the head of the man who perpetrates injustice and to get your own head smashed in the process. All strong people in the world adopt this course. Everywhere wars are fought and millions of people are killed. . . . Pride makes a victorious nation bad-tempered. It falls into luxurious ways of living. Then for a time, it may be conceded, peace prevails. But after a short while, it comes more and more to be realised that the seeds of war have not been destroyed but have become a thousand times more nourished and mighty. No country has ever become, or will ever become, happy through victory in war. A nation does not rise that way, it only falls further. In fact, what comes to it is defeat, not victory. And if, perchance, either our act or our purpose was ill-conceived, it brings disaster to both belligerents.

But through the other method of combating injustice, we alone suffer the consequences of our mistakes, and the other side is wholly spared. This other method is satyagraha. One who resorts to it does not have to break another's head; he may merely have his own head broken. He has to be prepared to die himself suffering all the pain. . . . [N]o State is possible without two entities (the rulers and the ruled). You are

our sovereign, our Government, only so long as we consider ourselves your subjects. When we are not subjects, you are not the sovereign either. So long as it is your endeavour to control us with justice and love, we will let you do so. But if you wish to strike at us from behind, we cannot permit it. Whatever you do in other matters, you will have to ask our opinion about the laws that concern us. If you make laws to keep us suppressed in a wrongful manner and without taking us into confidence, these laws will merely adorn the statute-books. We will never obey them. Award us for it what punishment you like, we will put up with it. Send us to prison and we will live there as in a paradise. Ask us to mount the scaffold and we will do so laughing. Shower what sufferings you like upon us, we will calmly endure all and not hurt a hair of your body. We will gladly die and will not so much as touch you. But so long as there is yet life in these our bones, we will never comply with your arbitrary laws.

satyagraha power of truth without force or violence to change political and other circumstances; insistence on truth
scaffold raised wooden platform used for public executions

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Identify Main Ideas** What are the two ways to counter injustice to which Gandhi refers?
- 2. Explain** How did Gandhi use nonviolent resistance in the struggle for Indian independence?

Guernica

by Pablo Picasso



About the Artist Pablo Picasso (1881–1973) was one of the most famous artists of the twentieth century, restlessly pioneering bold, new styles. Born in Barcelona, Spain, Picasso spent much of his career in Paris, then the art capital of the world. Picasso mostly avoided politics, but during the Spanish Civil War (1936–1939), he sided with the Republican government, which commissioned a painting to commemorate the bombing of the small town of Guernica by Fascist forces in 1937.

About the Painting Mondays were market days in Guernica, a town of about 5,000 people with no military significance. On Monday, April 27th, 1937, Nazi bombers dumped 100,000 pounds of bombs on the town, reducing it to rubble. The Nazis, who were allies of the Spanish Nationalists, later admitted that the purpose of this unprecedented attack was to test a new military tactic—carpet-bombing civilians to kill them and break their morale.

Guernica is a large oil-on-canvas painting measuring 11.5 feet high by 25.5 feet wide. It is done in Cubist style, which uses interlocking geometric shapes to portray the world in a nonrealistic fashion. Picasso restricted his palette of colors to black, white, and shades of gray. He set the scene inside a room open at the left. A bull stands over a woman grieving over a dead child in her arms. Other images in the painting include a horse, wounded by a spear or lance; a dead soldier; a female

figure floating into the room (above and to the right of the horse), carrying a lamp; and another female figure (at the far right) falling through a burning building. Interpretations of the painting and the individual images in it vary widely. Picasso said, "If you give a meaning to certain things in my paintings it may be very true, but it is not my idea to give this meaning. . . . I make the painting for the painting. I paint the objects for what they are."

**Skills
Focus**

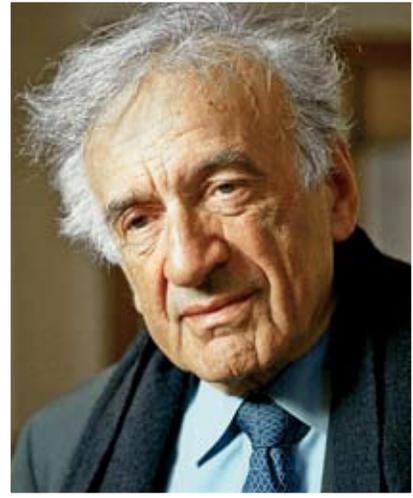
READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Describe** How does Picasso show the bombing of Guernica in his painting?
- 2. Interpret** Why do you think Picasso chose to create such a large painting in the Cubist style and in such stark colors? Select one part of the painting and interpret its meaning.
- 3. Evaluate** Would you say that Picasso's painting is as effective a statement about the horror and destruction of war today as it was in 1937? Why or why not? Refer to images in the painting to support your answer.

Never Shall I Forget

by Elie Wiesel

About the Reading *Elie Wiesel (1928–) was fifteen years old when he and all the other Jews in his Romanian village were shipped to Nazi concentration camps in Poland and Germany during World War II. In 1955 Wiesel wrote a nine-hundred-page memoir, which was later condensed and republished under the title Night. The following excerpt originally appeared as a prose passage in Night.*



Elie Wiesel ▲

Never Shall I Forget

Never shall I forget that night, the first night in camp, that turned my life into one long night seven times sealed.

Never shall I forget that smoke.

Never shall I forget the small faces of the children whose bodies I saw transformed into smoke under a silent sky.

Never shall I forget those flames that consumed my faith for ever.

Never shall I forget the nocturnal silence that deprived me for all eternity of the desire to live.

Never shall I forget those moments that murdered my God and my soul and turned my dreams to ashes.

Never shall I forget those things, even were I condemned to live as long as God Himself.

Never.

**Skills
FOCUS**

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Describe** What is the effect on the reader of Wiesel's repeated use of the word "never"?
- 2. Interpret** What does Wiesel mean by "bodies . . . transformed into smoke"?
- 3. Elaborate** How did Wiesel's time in the concentration camp affect him?

Excerpt from

Address to the United Nations

by Eleanor Roosevelt

About the Reading *As the world learned of the atrocities committed by Nazi Germany, members of the United Nations saw the need to clarify fundamental human rights. A UN commission drafted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Former First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt (1884–1962) represented the United States when the UN General Assembly adopted the document on December 10, 1948. The excerpt below is taken from her speech to the General Assembly.*



Eleanor Roosevelt ▲

In giving our approval to the Declaration today it is of primary importance that we keep clearly in mind the basic character of the document . . . It is a Declaration of basic principles of human rights and freedoms . . . to serve as a common standard of achievement for all peoples of all nations.

We stand today at the threshold of a great event both in the life of the United Nations and in the life of mankind. This Universal Declaration of Human Rights may well become the international Magna Carta of all men everywhere[,] . . . an event comparable to the proclamation of the Declaration of the Rights of Man by the French people in 1789, the adoption of the Bill of Rights by the people of the United States, and the adoption of comparable declarations at different times in other countries.

. . . This must be taken as testimony of our common aspiration first voiced in the Charter of the United Nations to lift men everywhere to a higher standard of life and to a greater enjoyment of freedom. Man's desire for peace lies behind this Declaration. The realization that the flagrant violation of human rights by Nazi and Fascist countries sowed the seeds of the last world war has

supplied the impetus for the work which brings us to the moment of achievement here today.

In a recent speech in Canada, Gladstone Murray said:

The central fact is that man is fundamentally a moral being. That the light we have is imperfect does not matter so long as we are always trying to improve it. . . . We are equal in sharing the moral freedom that distinguishes us as free men. Man's status makes each individual an end in himself. No man is by nature simply the servant of the state, or of another man . . . the ideal and fact of freedom—and not technology—are the true distinguishing marks of our civilization.

This Declaration is based upon the spiritual fact that man must have freedom in which to develop his full stature and through common effort to raise the level of human dignity. We have much to do to fully achieve and to assure the rights set forth in this Declaration.

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Recall** To what other documents does Roosevelt compare this Declaration?
- 2. Explain** How were the events of World War II important in spurring the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

Excerpt from

Inaugural Address

by Nelson Mandela

About the Reading After years of imprisonment for opposing white rule in South Africa, Nelson Mandela (1918–) was freed in 1990. He led his party, the African National Congress, in negotiations with the government of President F. W. de Klerk. The two leaders agreed to a timetable for the end of apartheid and a date for South Africa's first democratic elections. In that election, held in 1994, Mandela was elected president.



Nelson Mandela ▲

Today, all of us do, by our presence here, and by our celebrations in other parts of our country and the world, confer glory and hope to newborn liberty . . .

Our daily deeds as ordinary South Africans must produce an actual South African reality that will reinforce humanity's belief in justice, strengthen its confidence in the nobility of the human soul and sustain all our hopes for a glorious life for all . . .

To my compatriots, I have no hesitation in saying that each one of us is as intimately attached to the soil of this beautiful country as are the famous jacaranda trees of Pretoria and the mimosa trees of the bushveld . . .

That spiritual and physical oneness we all share with this common homeland explains the depth of the pain we all carried in our hearts as we saw our country tear itself apart in a terrible conflict, and as we saw it spurned, outlawed and isolated by the peoples of the world. . . .

The time for the healing of the wounds has come.

The moment to bridge the chasms that divide us has come.

The time to build is upon us. We have, at last, achieved our political emancipation. We pledge

ourselves to liberate all our people from the continuing bondage of poverty, deprivation, suffering, gender and other discrimination. . . .

We have triumphed in the effort to implant hope in the breasts of the millions of our people. We enter into a covenant that we shall build the society in which all South Africans, both black and white, will be able to walk tall, without any fear in their hearts, assured of their inalienable right to human dignity—a rainbow nation at peace with itself and the world. . . .

We understand it still that there is no easy road to freedom.

We know it well that none of us acting alone can achieve success.

We must therefore act together as a united people, for national reconciliation, for nation building, for the birth of a new world. . . .

Never, never and never again shall it be that this beautiful land will again experience the oppression of one by another and suffer the indignity of being the skunk of the world.

Let freedom reign.

**Skills
FOCUS**

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Identify** What does Mandela want South Africans to do—for themselves and for the people of the world?
- 2. Explain** What goals does Mandela set out for South Africa's future?

Excerpt from

Nobel Peace Prize Acceptance Speech

by Aung San Suu Kyi

About the Reading *Aung San Suu Kyi (1945–), a pro-democracy activist in Myanmar (Burma), has repeatedly been arrested by Myanmar’s military dictatorship. In 1991 she was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize. Her son delivered her acceptance speech, as she was under house arrest.*



Aung San Suu Kyi ▲

I stand before you here today to accept on behalf of my mother, Aung San Suu Kyi, this greatest of prizes, the Nobel Prize for Peace. Because circumstances do not permit my mother to be here in person, I will do my best to convey the sentiments I believe she would express.

Firstly, I know that she would begin by saying that she accepts the Nobel Prize for Peace not in her own name but in the name of all the people of Burma. She would say that this prize belongs not to her but to all those men, women and children who, even as I speak, continue to sacrifice their wellbeing, their freedom and their lives in pursuit of a democratic Burma. . . .

I know that if she were free today my mother would, in thanking you, also ask you to pray that the oppressors and the oppressed should throw down their weapons and join together to build a nation founded on humanity in the spirit of peace.

Although my mother is often described as a political dissident who strives by peaceful means for democratic change, we should remember that her quest is basically spiritual. As she has said, “The quintessential revolution is that of the spirit,” and she has written of the “essential

spiritual aims” of the struggle. The realization of this depends solely on human responsibility. At the root of that responsibility lies, and I quote, “the concept of perfection, the urge to achieve it, the intelligence to find a path towards it, and the will to follow that path if not to the end, at least the distance needed to rise above individual limitation . . . To live the full life,” she says, “one must have the courage to bear the responsibility of the needs of others. . . .” And she links this firmly to her faith when she writes, “. . . Buddhism . . . places the greatest value on man, who alone of all beings can achieve the supreme state of Buddhahood. Each man has in him the potential to realize the truth through his own will and endeavor and to help others to realize it.” Finally she says, “The quest for democracy in Burma is the struggle of a people to live whole, meaningful lives as free and equal members of the world community. It is part of the unceasing human endeavor to prove that the spirit of man can transcend the flaws of his nature.”

Buddhahood in Buddhism, a peaceful and gentle state

Skills
FOCUS

READING LIKE A HISTORIAN

- 1. Identify** To whom would Aung San Suu Kyi say that the Nobel Peace Prize belongs?
- 2. Analyze** For Suu Kyi, what is the nature of the struggle for democratic change, and how will success in that struggle be realized?

Biographical Dictionary

A

- 'Abbas** (1571–1629) Shah of the Safavid Empire in Persia from 1588 to 1629; his military victories against the Ottomans and skilled administration brought about a golden age in Safavid history. (p. 503)
- Abraham** According to the Bible, the originator of the Jewish line of descent; according to the Qu'ran, the ancestor of the Arabs; he held a deep devotion to and a great trust in the will of God. (p. 46)
- Abu Bakr** (c. 573–634) First Muslim caliph; as a close companion and successor to Muhammad, he unified the restive Bedouin tribes of central Arabia into a strong fighting force that he led into Iraq and Syria. (p. 262)
- Aginaldo, Emilio** (1869–1964) Self-proclaimed president of the new Philippine Republic in 1899; he fought for Filipino independence from the United States. (p. 764)
- Akbar the Great** (1542–1605) Mughal emperor of India; he ruled from 1556 until 1605 and continued the policy of conquest put in place under regent Bairim Khan, enlarging his empire to include nearly all of the Indian peninsula north of the Godavari River. (p. 505)
- Alexander the Great** (356–323 BC) King of Macedon and conqueror of much of Asia; he is considered one of the greatest generals of all time. (p. 151)
- Alexander I** (1777–1825) Czar of Russia from 1801 to 1825; after the defeat of the Napoleon's army in 1812, he became one of the most powerful leaders in Europe, supporting the suppression of all revolutionary movements in Russia and Europe. (p. 615)
- Alexander II** (1818–1881) Czar of Russia from 1855 to 1881; he freed the Russian serfs and passed other liberal reforms in Russia. (p. 730)
- Alexander Nevsky** (c. 1220–1263) Russian hero; he defeated the Swedes and the Teutonic knights. As grand duke of Kiev, he was vassal of the Mongols, who controlled much of Russia at the time. (p. 360)
- Alfred the Great** (849–899) King of Wessex from 871 to 899; he defeated Danish invaders and united Anglo-Saxon England under his control. He compiled a code of laws and promoted learning. (p. 362)
- Ali, Sunni** (died 1492) First great leader of Africa's Songhai Empire; he organized an uprising against Malian rule and established a new empire in Songhai. (p. 299)
- Alighieri, Dante** (1264–1321) Italian poet and humanist; he was the author of *The Divine Comedy*, one of the greatest literary classics. (p. 416)
- Anawrahta** (died 1077) First king of Pagan from 1044 to 1077; he united a territory that included much of modern day Myanmar (Burma); a devout Buddhist, he built thousands of Buddhist temples. (p. 331)
- Aquino, Corazon** (1933–) Philippine politician and president of the Philippines from 1986 to 1992; she struggled to restore political stability, return to democracy, and rebuild the nation's economy. (p. 927)
- Archimedes** (287–212 BC) Greek mathematician and inventor; he was known for his work in geometry, physics, and mechanics. (p. 155)
- Aristotle** (384–322 BC) Greek philosopher and student of Plato; he taught that logic was the tool for any necessary inquiry; his work later became the basis for medieval scholasticism. (p. 143)
- Arkwright, Richard** (1732–1792) English inventor; in 1769 he patented the spinning frame, which spun stronger, thinner, thread. (p. 636)
- Aryabhata** (476–c. 550) Gupta mathematician and astronomer; he argued that the earth revolves around the sun and correctly explained the causes of eclipses. (p. 241)
- Ashoka** (died c. 232 BC) Mauryan emperor from c. 273–c. 232 BC; one of the greatest rulers of ancient India, he brought nearly all of India under one authority for the first time in history. He also promoted the spread of Buddhism. (p. 235)
- Atahualpa** (c. 1502–1533) Last Inca king; he was taken prisoner by Pizarro and his army after refusing to accept Christianity and surrender his empire to Spanish conquistadors. He was killed by the Spanish and his empire was taken over. (p. 478)
- Atatürk, Kemal** (1881–1938) Turkish leader and founder of modern Turkey; he sought to transform Turkey into a modern, secular state with separation between religion (Islam) and government. (p. 809)
- Attila** (c. AD 406–453) King of the Huns from 434 to 453; he invaded parts of the Roman Empire, devastating the Balkan countries and northern Greece when promised tribute was not paid. Plague and famine helped forestall his invasion of Italy. (p. 191)
- Augustine of Hippo** (354–430) Early Christian church father and philosopher; his writings helped shape Christian doctrine for centuries. (p. 363)

Augustus (63 BC–AD 14) First emperor of Rome; he established the Second Triumvirate with Mark Antony and Lepidus. He created the imperial system of administration, established new coinages, and encouraged trade. (p. 174)

Aung San Suu Kyi (1945–) Burmese political leader; she won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1991 for her efforts to promote democracy in the country of Myanmar (Burma). (p. 919)

Aurangzeb (1618–1707) Mughal emperor of India (1658–1707); he expanded Mughal power to its greatest extent. However, his efforts to impose his strict religious views helped undermine Mughal rule. (p. 507)

B

Babur (1483–1530) Founder of the Mughal empire of India; he invaded Afghanistan and India and established an empire there. (p. 505)

Ban Zhao (AD 45–c. 115) Confucian scholar of the Han period; she wrote a classic Confucian text on the role of women, *Lessons for Women*, in which she argues that women should show humility and obedience toward their husbands and families. (p. 229)

Begin, Menachem (1913–1992) Israeli politician and prime minister; he signed a peace treaty with Anwar Sadat that ended thirty years of conflict between Israel and Egypt. (p. 956)

Beethoven, Ludwig van (1770–1827) German composer who spanned the Classical and Romantic periods; often considered the greatest composer; wrote symphonies, quartets, and sonatas. (p. 676)

Belisarius (c. 505–565) Byzantine general under Justinian I; he led expeditions to overthrow the Vandal kingdom in North Africa and occupied parts of Italy for Justinian. (p. 348)

Bell, Alexander Graham (1847–1922) American inventor and educator; his interest in electrical and mechanical devices to aid people with hearing impairments led to the development and patent of the telephone. (p. 664)

Ben-Gurion, David (1886–1973) Israeli statesman; he founded the Histadrut labor organization and was head of the Mapai Labor Party from 1930 to 1965. (p. 951)

bin Laden, Osama (1957–) Founder of al Qaeda, the terrorist network responsible for the attacks of September 11, 2001, and other attacks. (p. 899)

Bismarck, Otto von (1815–1898) German statesman; he became the leading force behind German unification. His main political goal was for Prussia to gain power over Austria. (p. 719)

Bolívar, Simón (1783–1830) South American revolutionary who led independence wars in the present nations of Venezuela, Colombia, Panama, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia. (p. 699)

Bonaparte, Napoleon (1769–1821) general; Emperor of France; he seized power in a coup d'état in 1799; he led French armies in conquering much of Europe, placing his relatives in positions of power. Defeated at the Battle of Waterloo, he was exiled on the island of Elba. (p. 609)

Borromeo, Charles (1538–1584) Archbishop of Milan from 1560 to 1584; he took steps to implement the reforms ordered by the Council of Trent. (p. 457)

Buddha (c. 563–483 BC) Founder of Buddhism, also known as Siddhartha Gautama; he gave up princely life to search for truth and enlightenment. He established the Buddhist religion based on the Four Noble Truths and the Eightfold Path. (p. 104)

Buonarroti, Michelangelo (1475–1564) Italian Renaissance sculptor, architect, painter, and poet; he sculpted the *Pieta* and the *David*, and he painted the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel. (p. 443)

C

Caesar, Julius (100–47 BC) Roman general and one of the greatest military leaders in history; he conquered most of Gaul and was named dictator for life in Rome. He was later murdered by a group of senators who opposed his enlarged powers. (p. 173)

Calvin, John (1509–1564) French Protestant theologian of the Reformation; he founded Calvinism, which was associated with the doctrine of predestination. (p. 452)

Carnegie, Andrew (1835–1919) American industrialist and humanitarian; he led the expansion of the U. S. steel industry in the late 1800s and early 1900s. (p. 647)

Carranza, Venustiano (1859–1920) Mexican revolutionist and politician; he led forces against Vitoriano Huerta during the Mexican Revolution (1910–1920). (p. 763)

Castiglione, Baldassare (1479–1529) Italian diplomat and writer; he wrote *The Courtier*, one of the most important books of the Renaissance, in which he delineates the rules and correct behaviors for a courtier to adopt in order to win favor from a ruler. (p. 440)

Castro, Fidel (1926–) Communist political leader of Cuba; he helped overthrow the Cuban government in 1959 and seized control of the country, exercising total control of the government and economy. (p. 969)

Catherine the Great (1729–1796) Czarina of Russia from 1762 to 1796; ruling with absolute power, she introduced a number of reforms that extended Peter the Great's policy of "westernization." (p. 555)

Cavour, Camillo di (1810–1861) Italian statesman and premier of the kingdom of Sardinia; architect of the Italian unification movement in the late 1800s. (p. 715)

Cervantes, Miguel de (1547–1616) Spanish novelist, dramatist, and poet; he wrote *Don Quixote de la Mancha*. (p. 537)

Chamorro, Violeta (1929–) President of Nicaragua from 1990 to 1997; she was the first woman to govern a Central American nation. (p. 979)

Chandragupta Maurya (c. 321–c. 298 BC) Founder of the Mauryan Empire in India; he conquered much of northern India and ruled over parts of Pakistan. (p. 233)

Chandra Gupta II (300s–400s) Emperor of the Gupta; during his reign the Gupta Empire reached its peak. He extended the territory of the empire. His regime was a time of prosperity and cultural flourishing for much of India. (p. 237)

Charlemagne (c. 742–814) King of the Franks from 768 to 814; he united much of France, Germany and northern Italy in one Frankish empire; crowned Emperor of the Roman people in 800. (p. 373)

Charles I (1600–1649) King of England, Scotland, and Ireland from 1625 to 1649; his conflict with Parliament started the English Civil War. He was beheaded in 1649. (p. 547)

Charles II (1630–1685) King of England, Scotland, and Ireland from 1660 to 1685 and eldest son of King Charles I; he was asked by Parliament to rule England after the death of Oliver Cromwell. (p. 549)

Charles V (1500–1558) King of Spain (as Charles I); Holy Roman Emperor (as Charles V) from 1519 to 1558; his opposition to the Protestant Reformation embroiled Spain in a series of wars throughout his reign. (p. 536)

Chaucer, Geoffrey (c. 1340–1400) English poet; he wrote *The Canterbury Tales*, 23 stories of pilgrims assembled at the Tabard Inn in Southwark. (p. 416)

Chávez, Hugo (1954–) Venezuelan political leader and president; he set out to eliminate poverty in his country, but his methods of doing so tended to turn his country away from democracy and toward a dictatorship. (p. 982)

Churchill, Winston (1874–1965) British prime minister; he opposed the policy of appeasement and led Great Britain through World War II. (p. 836)

Cleisthenes (died c. 570 BC) Ancient Greek ruler often called the "father of democracy." He increased the size of the council that governed Athens to 500, and he reorganized Athenian tribes on a geographical rather than familial basis. (p. 135)

Clovis (c. 466–511) King of the Franks from 481 to 511; he established the kingdom of the Franks in the late 400s; according to legend, his victories convinced him to convert to Christianity. (p. 362)

Columbus, Christopher (1451–1506) Italian explorer, sailing for Spain, who reached the Americas in 1492 while searching for a western sea route from Europe to Asia. (p. 473)

Copernicus, Nicolaus (1473–1543) Polish astronomer; he proposed the heliocentric, or sun-centered, theory of the universe. (p. 569)

Cortés, Hernán (1485–1547) Spanish conquistador; from 1519 to 1521, he defeated the Aztec Empire, conquering Mexico for Spain. (p. 477)

Cromwell, Oliver (1599–1658) Lord Protector of England; in 1642 he led Parliament's forces in deposing King Charles I; he became ruler of England in 1653. (p. 547)

Cruz, Sister Juana Ines de la (1651–1695) Mexican nun and poet; she wrote poetry, prose, and plays. (p. 537)

Curie, Marie (1867–1934) and **Pierre** (1859–1906) European chemists and physicists; they discovered radium and polonium in 1898. (p. 667)

Cyril (c. 827–869) and **Methodius** (c. 825–884) Brothers and Christian missionaries; their use of the Slavonic language helped convert many Moravians to Christianity. They developed a written alphabet for the Slavonic language that became known as the Cyrillic alphabet. (p. 358)

Cyrus the Great (died 529 BC) King of Persia and founder of the Persian Empire; he defeated the Median army and united the Persians and Medians under his rule. (p. 51)

D

Darius I (550–486 BC) King of Persia from 522 to 486 BC; he reorganized and strengthened the Persian Empire by reforming the army and the government. (p. 52)

Darwin, Charles (1809–1882) English scientist; he proposed the theory of evolution through natural selection, which came to be known as Darwinism. (p. 667)

Deng Xiaoping (1904–1997) Chinese revolutionary and government leader; after a struggle for power following Mao's death, Deng took power in 1981; he made far-reaching market reforms in the Chinese economy. (p. 923)

Descartes, René (1596–1650) French philosopher, mathematician, and scientist; his belief that all things should be doubted until they could be proved by reason became one of the underpinnings of the scientific method. (p. 569)

Díaz, Porfirio (1830–1915) Mexican general and politician; president and dictator of Mexico for 30 years, he sought foreign investment but ruled harshly. (p. 762)

Dickens, Charles (1812–1870) English author during the Victorian era; he wrote *Great Expectations*, *A Christmas Carol*, *Oliver Twist*, and *A Tale of Two Cities*, among many other works. (p. 676)

Diocletian (245–313) Roman emperor from 284 to 305; he divided the Roman Empire into eastern and western halves. (p. 189)

Disraeli, Benjamin (1804–1881) British statesman; as prime minister, he oversaw the passage of key reforms, including an extension of male suffrage. (p. 688)

Drake, Sir Francis (c. 1540–1596) English admiral; he rounded the tip of South America and explored the west coast. He ended up heading west to return to England, thus becoming the second man to circumnavigate the globe. (p. 474)

Dürer, Albrecht (1471–1528) German painter, engraver, and theoretician; he combined Italian Renaissance techniques of realism and perspective with elements unique to the northern Renaissance, such as the use of oils in his painting. (p. 447)

E

Edison, Thomas (1847–1931) American inventor of over 1,000 patents, including the light bulb; he established a power plant that supplied electricity to parts of New York City. (p. 660)

Einstein, Albert (1879–1955) American theoretical physicist; he developed the theory of relativity among his many scientific theories and was awarded the Nobel Prize for physics in 1921. (p. 668)

Eisenhower, Dwight D. (1890–1969) General; thirty-fourth president of the United States; as Supreme Allied Commander in Europe during World War II, he led the Allied invasions of North Africa and of France (D-Day). (p. 846)

El Greco (c. 1541–1614) Greek painter in Spain; chiefly religious in nature, his works express the spirit of the Counter, or Catholic, Reformation. (p. 537)

Eleanor of Aquitaine (c. 1122–1204) Queen of France and England; she was one of the most powerful women in Europe during the Middle Ages. (p. 388)

Elizabeth I (1533–1603) Queen of England from 1558 to 1603; a skillful politician and diplomat, she reasserted Protestant supremacy in England. (p. 454)

Equiano, Olaudah (c. 1750–1797) African American abolitionist; he was an enslaved African who was eventually freed, became a leader of the abolitionist movement, and wrote *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano*. (p. 489)

Erasmus, Desiderius (1466–1536) Dutch priest and humanist; he wrote on the need for a pure and simple Christian life. To his regret, his writings fanned the flames of discontent with the Roman Catholic Church. (p. 445)

Erastosthenes (c. 276–c. 194 BC) Greek astronomer and geographer; he calculated the circumference of the globe using careful observations and simple geometry. (p. 155)

Eriksson, Leif (died c. 1020) Norwegian explorer; he led a group of Vikings to North America and settled on the eastern shore of modern-day Canada. (p. 380)

Euclid (died c. 275 BC) Greek geometer; he created practical books on geometric forms and mathematics. His work formed the basis for later European studies in geometry. (p. 155)

Eyck, Jan van (c. 1390–1441) Flemish painter; his paintings focused on landscapes and domestic life and fused the everyday with the religious. (p. 447)

Ezana (c. AD 300s) Aksumite ruler; he destroyed the Kush capital of Meroë and took over the kingdom of Kush around AD 320. (p. 289)

F

Faraday, Michael (1791–1867) English scientist; he invented the dynamo—a machine that generated electricity. His invention eventually led to today's electrical generators. (p. 660)

Ford, Henry (1863–1947) American business leader; he revolutionized factory production through use of the assembly line and popularized the affordable automobile (Model T). (p. 662)

- Fox, Vicente** (1942–) Mexican political leader and president of Mexico; he was the first democratically elected opposition candidate in Mexico's history. (p. 981)
- Francis of Sales** (1567–1622) French Roman Catholic leader and preacher; he worked to win back the district of Savoy, in France, from Calvinism. (p. 457)
- Franklin, Benjamin** (1706–1790) American statesman; he was a philosopher, scientist, inventor, writer, publisher, first U. S. postmaster, and member of the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence. (p. 582)
- Franz Ferdinand** (1863–1914) Heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary whose assassination by a Serb nationalist started World War I. (p. 780)
- Franz Joseph I** (1830–1916) Emperor of Austria-Hungary from 1848 to 1916; during his long reign he took small steps to address the democratic and nationalist aspirations of his people. (p. 724)
- Frederick the Great** (1712–1786) King of Prussia from 1740 to 1786; through victories in a series of wars with Austria, Prussia's main rival for dominance among the German states, Frederick made Prussia a major European power in the late 1700s. (p. 557)
- Frederick Wilhelm IV** (1795–1861) King of Prussia from 1840 to 1861; when revolution broke out in Prussia in 1848, Frederick Wilhelm promised a constitution and other reforms, which he later disavowed. (p. 719)
- Freud, Sigmund** (1856–1939) Austrian psychiatrist and founder of psychoanalysis; he treated hysteria using hypnosis and believed that complexes of repressed and forgotten impressions underlie all abnormal mental states. (p. 670)
- Fulton, Robert** (1765–1815) American engineer and inventor; he built the first commercially successful, full-sized steamboat, the *Clermont*, which led to the development of commercial steamboat ferry services for goods and people. (p. 637)

G

- Galen** (129–c. 199) Greek physician; he wrote several volumes that summarized all the medical knowledge of his day. (p. 180)
- Galilei, Galileo** (1564–1642) Italian astronomer, mathematician, and physicist; he discovered the law of motion of falling objects and invented the first working telescope; his discoveries put him into conflict with the Roman Catholic Church. (p. 570)
- Gama, Vasco da** (c. 1469–1524) Portuguese navigator; in 1497–1499, he became the first European to sail around Africa and reach India by sea. (p. 472)

Gandhi, Indira (1917–1984) Indian politician; daughter and mother of Indian prime ministers, she was India's first female prime minister; her term was marred by sectarian violence involving India's Sikh minority. (p. 911)

Gandhi, Mohandas (1869–1948) Leader of India's struggle for independence from Great Britain; he organized the population for protest through the methods of nonviolent resistance and civil disobedience. (p. 809)

Garibaldi, Giuseppe (1807–1882) Italian military and nationalist leader; he unified the southern states of Italy and joined them to the north to form the united Kingdom of Italy. (p. 716)

Genghis Khan (c. 1162–1227) Mongol warrior and ruler; he forged the Mongol tribes into a fighting force that conquered much of Asia, including parts of China. (p. 317)

Gorbachev, Mikhail (1931–) Russian politician; he was the last president of the Soviet Union before the country's collapse in 1991. (p. 892)

Gracchi Tiberius Sempornius Gracchus (163–133) and his brother Gaius Sempronius Gracchus (153–121); Roman statesmen; they tried to help ex-soldiers in Rome by redistributing public land to small farmers. The Roman elite reacted violently to these actions and led mobs that killed the brothers. (p. 172)

Gregory VII (c. 1020–1085) Roman Catholic pope; his assertion of church power to appoint bishops led him into conflict with Holy Roman Emperor Henry IV, who claimed the powers for himself. Gregory excommunicated Henry, who relented. (p. 394)

Gregory the Great (c. 540–604) Roman Catholic pope from 590 to 604; he restored monastic discipline and was zealous in propagating Christianity. (p. 363)

Guevara, Che (1928–1967) Argentinean revolutionary leader; he was an aide to Fidel Castro during the Cuban revolution. (p. 969)

Gutenberg, Johannes (c. 1397–1468) German inventor and printer; he invented movable type. His first printed publication was a 1,282-page Bible. (p. 445)

H

Hammurabi (ruled c. 1792–1750 BC) King of Babylonia; he was a brilliant military leader who brought all of Mesopotamia into the Babylonian Empire. He is known for his uniform code of 282 laws, the earliest known set of written laws. (p. 37)

- Harun al-Rashid** (c. 766–809) Fifth Abbasid caliph (ruled 786 to 809); under his rule, the Abbasid dynasty reached its height and Islamic culture experienced a flowering. (p. 266)
- Hatshepsut** (died 1468 BC) Queen of ancient Egypt; she took the throne in place of her stepson, Thutmose III, and during her reign, focused on temple-building projects and trade. (p. 68)
- Henry IV** (1050–1106) King of Germany from 1056 to 1106 and Holy Roman Emperor from 1056 to 1106; he was excommunicated by Pope Gregory VII over bishop appointments; he acknowledged the pope's authority and was readmitted to the church. (p. 394)
- Henry IV** (1553–1610) King of France from 1589 to 1610; he issued the Edict of Nantes (1598), which permitted Protestant worship, in order to restore peace to France. (p. 541)
- Henry VII** (1457–1509) King of England; he was the first king from the house of Tudor; his defeat of Richard III and his assumption of the throne marked the end of the Wars of the Roses and the beginning of a new era in England's history. (p. 422)
- Henry VIII** (1491–1547) King of England from 1509 to 1547; his desire to annul his marriage led to a conflict with the pope, England's break with the Roman Catholic Church, and its embrace of Protestantism. Henry established the Church of England in 1532. (p. 453)
- Henry the Navigator** (1394–1460) Prince of Portugal and patron of exploration; he made no voyages himself but spent his life directing voyages of discovery along the African coast. (p. 471)
- Herodotus** (c. 484–c. 425 BC) Greek historian; his most famous work is *The Histories*, which describes major events of the Persian Wars. (p. 145)
- Herzl, Theodor** (1860–1904) Hungarian Zionist leader; in 1896 he wrote *The Jewish State*, which outlined plans for an independent Jewish country. (p. 694)
- Hidalgo, Miguel** (1753–1811) Mexican priest and revolutionary; he made the first public call for Mexican independence. In 1810 he rang a bell in his hometown calling the peasants to fight for their independence from Spain. He was captured and executed. (p. 696)
- Hildegard of Bingen** (1098–1179) Medieval nun and author; she wrote dozens of poems and music to accompany them. (p. 415)
- Hirohito** (1901–1989) Emperor of Japan from 1926 to 1989; he led Japan during World War II and was forced into unconditional surrender following the atomic-bomb attacks on Hiroshima and Nagasaki. (p. 862)

Hitler, Adolf (1889–1945) Totalitarian dictator of Germany; his invasion of European countries led to World War II. He espoused notions of racial superiority and was responsible for the mass murder of millions of Jews and others in the Holocaust. (p. 826)

Ho Chi Minh (1890–1969) Vietnamese nationalist and revolutionary leader; president of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam (North Vietnam) from 1945 to 1969; he wanted to bring communism to South Vietnam. (p. 915)

Homer (800s–700s BC) Greek poet, he wrote the epic poems the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, which tell stories set during and after the Trojan War. (p. 144)

Hongwu (1328–1398) First emperor of the Ming dynasty in China; he drove the Mongols out of China, Korea, and Manchuria. He concentrated all power in his own hands. (p. 510)

Hudson, Henry (died 1611) English navigator; he sailed for the Dutch East India Company and discovered the Hudson River in present-day New York. (p. 474)

Hugh Capet (c. 938–996) King of France from 987 to 996; elected by Frankish nobles to succeed King Louis V, he founded the Capetian dynasty, which ruled France for 300 years. (p. 390)

Hussein, Saddam (1937–2006) President of Iraq from 1979 to 2003; he established a brutal dictatorship, suppressed all dissent, and led Iraq into wars with Iran (1980–1990) and Kuwait (1991). He was removed from power in 2003 by U.S.-led forces. (p. 898)

I

Ibn Khaldun (1211–1282) Muslim writer; he wrote the *Muqaddimah*, which traced the history of the Muslim world. (p. 272)

Ibn Rushd (1126–1198) Spanish-Arab philosopher; also known as Averroes; influenced by Aristotle, his best-known writings explore the relationship between reason and faith. (p. 272)

Ibn Sina (980–1037) Persian philosopher and physician; also known as Avicenna; noted as a medical scholar, he contributed to many other fields of study. (p. 272)

Ibsen, Henrik (1828–1906) Norwegian poet and dramatist; he wrote *A Doll's House*, which revealed the unfair treatment of women in the home. (p. 676)

Ignatius of Loyola (1491–1556) Spanish churchman and founder of the Jesuits (1534); this order of Roman Catholic priests proved an effective force for reviving Catholicism during the Catholic Reformation. (p. 456)

Ivan IV (1530–1584) Grand duke of Russia and the first Russian ruler to assume the title of czar; also known as Ivan the Terrible. He instituted a campaign of terror against disfavored boyars. He killed his son, leaving no heir to the throne. (p. 553)

J

Jefferson, Thomas (1743–1826) American statesman; third president of the United States; he was a member of two Continental Congresses, chairman of the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence, the Declaration's main author and one of its signers. (p. 582)

Jesus of Nazareth (AD 1–30) First-century Jewish teacher and prophet; he founded Christianity and taught about kindness and love of God. His teachings spread through the Roman Empire and, eventually, the rest of the world. (p. 184)

Jiang Jieshi (1887–1975) Chinese general and politician; he succeeded Sun Yixian as leader of the Nationalist Party in China and led attacks against Communists in China in the 1920s. (p. 808)

Jinnah, Muhammad Ali (1876–1948) Indian politician and founder of Pakistan; as leader of the Muslim League, he believed that Indian Muslims needed a separate nation and called for a partition in 1940. (p. 910)

Joan of Arc (c. 1412–1431) French soldier and national heroine; she rallied the French troops during the Hundred Years' War and was burned at the stake for heresy. (p. 421)

Johanson, Donald (1943–) American anthropologist; he discovered a partial Australopithecine skeleton in Ethiopia, which he named Lucy. (p. 6)

Justinian I (483–565) Byzantine emperor from 527 to 565; he reunited the parts of the Roman Empire, simplified Roman laws with Justinian's Code, and ordered Hagia Sophia built. (p. 348)

K

Kalidasa (c. AD 600s) Indian dramatist and poet, often called the "Indian Shakespeare;" his poems and plays were written on historical, mythological, and romantic subjects. (p. 240)

Kangxi (1654–1722) Chinese emperor of the Qing dynasty from 1661 to 1722; his reign was one of relative internal peace. He constructed many public works and was a patron of the arts. (p. 512)

Kautilya (c. 300 BC) Indian philosopher and politician and advisor to Chandragupta; he wrote *Arthashastra*, a great work on how rulers seize and maintain power. (p. 234)

Kenyatta, Jomo (c. 1893–1978) African political leader and first president of Kenya from 1964 to 1978; he was a leader of the African nationalist movement. (p. 938)

Keynes, John Maynard (1883–1946) British economist; his revolutionary economic theory, which stated that governments could prevent economic downturns by deficit spending, provided the basis for some of Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal policies. (p. 815)

Khomeini, Ayatollah Ruhollah (c. 1900–1989) Iranian political and religious leader; he led a revolution to overthrow the Shah of Iran's government in 1979; he ruled the country for the next ten years. (p. 958)

Kim Il Sung (1912–1994) North Korean political leader and chief of state of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea from 1948 to 1994; he established a government party based on the Soviet model, with the state controlling much of the economy, financing heavy industry and the military. (p. 928)

Kim Jong Il (1941–) Dictatorial leader of North Korea; under his rule the North Korean economy has continued to deteriorate. (p. 928)

King, Martin Luther Jr. (1929–1968) American civil rights leader; he was a celebrated and charismatic advocate of civil rights for African Americans in the 1950s and 1960s. He was assassinated in 1968. (p. 889)

Klerk, F. W. de (1936–) South African statesman and president of South Africa from 1989 to 1994; he began the process of ending apartheid in South Africa by lifting the ban on anti-apartheid parties and releasing Nelson Mandela from prison. (p. 944)

Kublai Khan (1215–1294) Mongol emperor and founder of the Yuan Dynasty, grandson of Genghis Khan; he continued his grandfather's wars of conquest in China. He moved the Mongol capital to China and expanded his empire beyond China. (p. 318)

L

Lalibela (c. 1180–c. 1250) Ethiopian ruler from about 1200 to 1250; he is known for building large stone Christian churches, many of which are still standing today. (p. 290)

Las Casas, Bartolomé de (1474–1566) Spanish missionary and historian; he sought to protect Native Americans from Spanish mistreatment by replacing them as laborers with imported African slaves. (p. 479)

Leakey, Louis (1903–1972) British archaeologist and anthropologist of East Africa; he was convinced that Africa was the best place to search for human origins and made many important archaeological discoveries there. (p. 7)

Leakey, Mary (1913–1996) British archaeologist; along with her husband, Louis, she made great discoveries of early hominids in East Africa. (p. 6)

Lenin, Vladimir (1870–1924) Russian revolutionary and founder of Bolshevism; he rose to power in Russia following the Russian Revolution in 1917. (p. 730)

Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519) Italian painter, sculptor, architect, musician, engineer, and scientist; his interests and talents spanned numerous disciplines. He painted the *Mona Lisa*. (p. 443)

Leopold II (1835–1909) King of Belgium from 1865 to 1909; he financed an expedition to the Congo and assumed the title of sovereign of the Congo Free State. His armies treated the Congolese brutally and exploited them as workers. (p. 758)

Lincoln, Abraham (1809–1865) Sixteenth president of the United States; his election led to the secession of the Southern states and the Civil War; Lincoln successfully preserved the Union and issued the Emancipation Proclamation. He was assassinated in 1865. (p. 703)

Liu Bang (c. 250–195 BC) First emperor of the Han dynasty in China; he did away with the Legalist policies of the Qin and appointed Confucian scholars as his advisors. (p. 224)

Locke, John (1632–1704) English philosopher and founder of British empiricism; he developed political and economic theories during the Enlightenment. He wrote *Two Treatises on Government* in which he declared that people have a right to rebel against governments that do not protect their rights. (p. 575)

Louis XIII (1601–1643) King of France from 1610 to 1643; a relatively weak ruler, he let Cardinal Richelieu, his chief minister, hold great sway during his reign. (p. 541)

Louis XIV (1638–1715) King of France from 1643 to 1715; known as the Sun King, he built the palace at Versailles as a means to consolidate absolute power; a series of wars at the end of his long reign drained France's wealth. (p. 542)

Louis XVI (1754–1793) King of France from 1774 to 1792; his unpopular policies helped trigger the French Revolution. Deposed by the National Convention, he was executed by guillotine. (p. 594)

Louis Philippe (1773–1850) King of France from 1830 to 1848; he came to power after the July Revolution and he was known as the “citizen king” for showing an interest in the working class and having much in common with the middle class. (p. 692)

Louis Napoleon (1808–1873) Emperor of France from 1852 to 1870; after winning the presidential election in 1848, he staged a coup d'état and took absolute power. A nephew of Napoleon I, he ruled during a time of economic prosperity in France. (p. 692)

Luther, Martin (1483–1546) German monk whose protests against the Catholic Church in 1517 (the Ninety-Five Theses) led to calls for reform and to the movement known as the Reformation. (p. 450)

M

Macartney, Lord George (1737–1806) British diplomat; he visited China in 1793 to discuss expanding trade. He was sent away after his goods were found to be inferior and he refused to kowtow to the emperor. (p. 513)

MacArthur, Douglas (1880–1964) American general, he commanded U. S. troops in the southwest Pacific during World War II and administered Japan after the war ended. He later commanded UN forces at the beginning of the Korean War, until he was removed by President Truman. (p. 848)

Machiavelli, Niccolò (1469–1527) Italian political philosopher and statesman; he wrote *The Prince*, which advised rulers to separate morals from politics. He insisted that a ruler do whatever is necessary to succeed and that the ends would justify the means. (p. 440)

Madison, James (1751–1836) American statesman; he was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention and the fourth president of the United States. He is known as the “father of the Constitution.” (p. 584)

Magellan, Ferdinand (c. 1480–1521) Portuguese navigator; his ships were the first to circumnavigate the globe, though he died on the journey. (p. 474)

Malthus, Thomas (1766–1834) English economist and sociologist; his theory that population growth would exceed the growth of food production and that poverty would always exist was used to justify low wages and laws restricting charity to the poor. (p. 647)

Mandela, Nelson (1918–) Former guerrilla fighter; statesman; he helped end apartheid and became the first black president of South Africa. (p. 944)

- Mansa Musa** (died 1332) Leader of Mali who held power from 1307 to 1332; he conquered the Kingdom of Songhai. He expanded trade, supported the arts, and promoted Islam. (p. 298)
- Mao Zedong** (1893–1976) Leader of the Chinese Communists; he led a successful revolution and established a Communist government in China in 1949. (p. 808)
- Marconi, Guglielmo** (1874–1937) Italian physicist; he experimented with wireless telegraphy and established communication across the English Channel between France and England. (p. 664)
- Marcos, Ferdinand** (1917–1989) Philippine politician; he was elected president of the Philippines in 1965, but soon became an authoritarian dictator. He imposed martial law, arrested his political opponents, and stole millions from his country's treasury. (p. 927)
- Maria Theresa** (1717–1780) Austrian archduchess, queen of Bohemia and Hungary from 1740 to 1780; she took the throne after the War of the Austrian Succession. She was one of the most beloved monarchs in the history of Austria. (p. 556)
- Marie-Antoinette** (1755–1793) Queen of France, wife of King Louis XVI; she was queen during the French Revolution and disliked by many French citizens. She was found guilty of treason and guillotined. (p. 594)
- Marius, Gaius** (c. 157–86 BC) Roman general and politician; he eliminated property restrictions for acceptance into the army and began to accept anyone who wished to join the Roman army. He made armies into private forces that became devoted to their generals. (p. 172)
- Martí, José** (1853–1895) Cuban writer and independence fighter; he was killed in battle but became a symbol of Cuba's fight for freedom. (p. 763)
- Marx, Karl** (1818–1883) German social philosopher and chief theorist of modern socialism and communism; he declared that as capitalism grew, more and more workers would become impoverished and miserable. He advocated for a state in which the workers own the means of production and govern themselves. Along with Friedrich Engels, he wrote the *Communist Manifesto* in 1848, explaining their philosophy. (p. 649)
- Mazzini, Giuseppe** (1805–1872) Italian patriot; he formed the nationalist group called Young Italy to fight for the unification of the separate Italian states into one nation. (p. 714)
- Medici, Lorenzo de** (1449–1492) Florentine ruler; he supported some of the most talented Renaissance artists. He was known for his patronage and liberal mind. (p. 442)
- Mehmed II** (1432–1481) Sultan of the Ottoman Empire from 1444 to 1446 and again from 1451 to 1481; he was a strong military leader who conquered the Byzantine capital of Constantinople. (p. 501)
- Meiji, Emperor** (1852–1912) Emperor of Japan from 1867 to 1912; he restored imperial rule to Japan and, with the help of samurais, pushed for many reforms in Japan. (p. 750)
- Meir, Golda** (1898–1978) Israeli politician; she was the prime minister of Israel during the Yom Kippur War and sought assistance and supplies from the United States. (p. 956)
- Menelik II** (1844–1913) Emperor of Ethiopia after 1889; he gained Ethiopian independence from Italy in 1896. (p. 760)
- Menes** (fl. 3100 BC) First pharaoh of Egypt; he is credited with uniting Upper and Lower Egypt and is said to have founded the city of Memphis, the capital of unified Egypt. (p. 64)
- Metternich, Prince Klemens von** (1773–1859) Austrian statesman and diplomat; he was the Austrian representative at the Congress of Vienna. (p. 617)
- Mobutu Sese Seko** (1930–1997) President of Zaire; he made himself dictator and, over the course of his rule, amassed great wealth for himself at the expense of his people, who remained poor. (p. 945)
- Moctezuma II** (1466–1520) Aztec ruler from 1502 to 1520; he was the emperor of the Aztecs when Cortés and his army conquered the empire. He was taken prisoner and killed during battle with the Spanish army. (p. 477)
- Montesquieu, Baron de** (1689–1755) French jurist and political philosopher; he explored democratic theories of government. He proposed a government divided into three branches and greatly influenced the United States Constitution. (p. 576)
- More, Sir Thomas** (1478–1535) English statesman and author; he wrote *Utopia*, which describes an ideal society. (p. 446)
- Morelos, José María** (1765–1815) Creole priest; he became the leader of the revolutionary movement in Mexico after Miguel Hidalgo's death. (p. 698)
- Morse, Samuel** (1791–1872) American artist and inventor; he applied scientists' discoveries of electricity and magnetism to develop the telegraph. (p. 663)
- Moses** (1500s–1400s BC) Hebrew prophet and lawgiver; according to the Bible, he led the Hebrew people out of Egypt and back to Canaan in the Exodus. According to the Bible, it was during this journey that he received the Ten Commandments from God. (p. 46)

Muhammad (c. 570–632) Prophet of Islam whom Muslims recognize as Allah's messenger to all humankind. His teachings form the basis of Islam. (p. 258)

Muhammad, Askia (died 1538) King of Songhai from 1493 to 1598; he was known for encouraging a revival of Muslim learning in the West African kingdom during his rule. (p. 300)

Murasaki, Lady Shikibu (c. 978–c. 1026) Japanese courtier and writer; she wrote *The Tale of Genji*, a masterpiece of Japanese literature widely considered to be the world's first novel. (p. 326)

Musharraf, Pervez (1943–) Pakistani general; he overthrew the elected government of Pakistan in 1999 and became president. (p. 913)

Mussolini, Benito (1883–1945) Italian Fascist leader; he ruled as Italy's dictator for more than 20 years beginning in 1922. His alliance with Hitler brought Italy into World War II. (p. 823)

N

Nasser, Gamal Abdel (1918–1970) Egyptian army officer, political leader, and first president of the republic of Egypt; he helped lead a military coup that forced King Faruq to abdicate. He banned existing political parties and undertook an ambitious land reform program to gain support for his regime among the poor. (p. 952)

Nebuchadnezzar II (c. 630–562 BC) Chaldean king of Babylon from 605 to 562 BC; he rebuilt Babylon into a beautiful city noted for its famed Hanging Gardens. (p. 43)

Nehru, Jawaharlal (1889–1964) Indian statesman; he was the first prime minister of an independent India at the end of British colonial rule. (p. 910)

Nelson, Admiral Horatio (1758–1805) British admiral; he defeated Napoleon's navy in Egypt and again at the Battle of Trafalgar (1805). (p. 609)

Newton, Isaac (1642–1727) English mathematician and natural philosopher; he discovered the law of gravity as well as laws on the physics of objects. (p. 570)

Nkrumah, Kwame (1909–1972) Ghanaian nationalist leader and statesman; he pushed for Ghanaian independence from Great Britain and was elected Ghana's first president in 1957. (p. 938)

Noriega, Manuel (1938–) Panamanian general and dictator; he brutally crushed his enemies and used the country as a base for drug smuggling. (p. 977)

O

Omar Khayyam (c. 1048–c. 1131) Persian poet, mathematician, astronomer, and philosopher; author of *The Rubaiyat*, a collection of poems about a man who celebrates the simple pleasures in life. (p. 274)

Otto the Great (912–973) King of Germany (936–973) and Holy Roman Emperor (962–973); he defeated the Magyar army, which ended the Magyar raids in the mid-900s. (p. 390)

P

Pachacuti (died 1471) Inca leader from 1438 to 1471; with the help of his son, Topa Inca, he extended the Incan empire through the use of military force and political alliances. (p. 213)

Pahlavi, Mohammad Reza (1919–1980) Shah of Iran from 1941 to 1979; during his reign, Iran's oil industry was controlled by foreign interests. He was overthrown in a revolution led by the Ayatollah Khomeini. (p. 953)

Pankhurst, Emmeline (1858–1928) British woman suffragist; she founded the Women's Social and Political Union in 1903. In support of women's suffrage, she led hunger strikes and was arrested often for her actions. (p. 688)

Pasteur, Louis (1822–1895) French chemist; his experiments with bacteria disproved the theory of spontaneous generation and led to the germ theory of infection. He also developed vaccines for anthrax and rabies. (p. 668)

Paul (c. AD 10–67) Apostle to the Gentiles; he worked to spread Jesus' teachings and wrote letters that explained key ideas of Christianity. (p. 185)

Pavlov, Ivan (1849–1936) Russian physiologist and experimental psychologist; he researched the physiology of the heart, the digestive system, the brain, and the higher nervous system. He conducted a famous experiment with dogs demonstrating conditioned reflex. (p. 669)

Pedro I (1798–1834) First emperor of Brazil (1822–1831); he declared Brazil's independence from Portugal, where Pedro's father was king. (p. 700)

Pericles (c. 495–429 BC) Athenian statesman; he encouraged the spread of democracy in Athens and the growth of the city-state's power. (p. 139)

Perón, Juan (1895–1974) President of Argentina from 1946 to 1955 and again from 1973 to 1974; he rose to power following a military coup d'état and was a supporter of the rights of the people. (p. 974)

- Peter the Great** (1672–1725) Czar of Russia from 1682 to 1725; he transformed Russia into a modern state. He was an absolute monarch who brought the ways of Western Europe to Russia and made various reforms. (p. 553)
- Philip II** (1527–1598) King of Spain (1556–1598), Naples from (554–1598), and Portugal (1580–1598); he led Roman Catholic efforts to recover parts of Europe from Protestantism. He was defeated by England and the Netherlands. (p. 536)
- Piankhi** (c. 751–716 BC) King of ancient Kush; he led the Kushites north into Egypt, conquering all of Egypt and making himself pharaoh. (p. 83)
- Pinochet, Augusto** (1915–) President and dictator of Chile from 1973 to 1990; he planned and carried out a coup of Salvador Allende's government in Chile. (p. 976)
- Pisan, Christine de** (1364–c. 1430) French poet and author; her work *The City of Women* discusses the role of women in society. She championed the causes of equality and education for women. (p. 446)
- Pizarro, Francisco** (c. 1476–1541) Spanish conquistador, conqueror of Peru; founder of Lima, Peru. From 1530 to 1533, he conquered the Inca Empire. (p. 478)
- Plato** (c. 427–347 BC) Greek philosopher; a student of Socrates, he started a school in Athens called the Academy. In *The Republic* he describes an ideal society run by philosopher-kings. (p. 143)
- Pol Pot** (1925–1998) Cambodian political leader; he led the Khmer Rouge guerillas in establishing a Communist government in Cambodia. Once in power, the Communists' brutal efforts to restructure Cambodian society left 1.5 million people dead. (p. 919)
- Polo, Marco** (1254–1324) Venetian traveler in China; he worked for Kublai Khan and was sent on missions throughout the Mongol empire and in India. (p. 320)
- Princip, Gavrilo** (1894–1918) Serbian nationalist; he assassinated Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary, which started World War I. (p. 781)
- Ptolemy** (c. 367–c. 282 BC) One of Alexander the Great's generals, he founded a dynasty that ruled Egypt for nearly 300 years. (p. 180)

Q

- Qianlong** (1711–1799) Emperor of the Qing dynasty from 1735 to 1796; he was the grandson of Kangxi. During his reign, China expanded to its greatest size. He limited foreign contacts and ordered traders to conduct business with the Chinese government, not with private merchants. (p. 512)

R

- Ramses the Great** (died c. 1237 BC) Pharaoh of Egypt; he led an army against Hittite invaders of Egypt. He ruled Egypt with extravagance and built more temples and monuments than any other Egyptian pharaoh. (p. 69)
- Raphael** (1483–1520) Italian Renaissance painter; he painted frescos, his most famous being *The School of Athens*. (p. 443)
- Rasputin, Grigory** (1872–1916) A self-proclaimed Russian holy man and prominent figure at the court of Czar Nicholas II. He was viewed as corrupt, and support for czarist Russia deteriorated because of him. (p. 791)
- Rhodes, Cecil** (1853–1902) British imperialist and business magnate; he was one of the foremost advocates of expanding the British Empire and was a strong believer in the superiority of the "Anglo-Saxon" race. (p. 757)
- Ricci, Matteo** (1552–1610) Italian missionary; he traveled to China in 1583. He learned the language and adopted many Chinese customs, which gained him entry to the Ming court. He introduced China to European learning in mathematics, science, and technology. (p. 511)
- Richard the Lion-Hearted** (1157–1199) King of England from 1189 to 1199; he fought in the Holy Land against Saladin during the Third Crusade. He eventually ceased fighting and returned to England. (p. 406)
- Richelieu, Cardinal** (1585–1642) French minister and chief minister of King Louis XIII; he wanted to strengthen the monarchy and fought against Huguenot resistance to the Catholic monarchy. (p. 541)
- Robespierre, Maximilien** (1758–1794) Leading figure of the French Revolution; he was known for his intense dedication to the Revolution. He became increasingly radical and led the National Convention during its most bloodthirsty time. (p. 602)
- Rommel, Erwin** (1891–1944) German general during World War II; he commanded the Afrika Korps and was nicknamed the Desert Fox for his leadership. (p. 845)
- Roosevelt, Franklin Delano** (1882–1945) Thirty-second president of the United States; he was elected president four times. He led the United States during the major crises of the Great Depression and World War II. (p. 814)
- Rousseau, Jean-Jacques** (1712–1778) Swiss-French political philosopher; he valued the social contract and addressed the nature of man in his work *On the Origin of Inequality*. (p. 575)

Rumi (c. 1207–1273) Persian poet; he was a Sufi mystic and founded a Sufi order whose members use music and dancing in their rituals. His poems are still read by many today. (p. 274)

S

Sadat, Anwar (1918–1981) Egyptian soldier and statesman; he launched the Yom Kippur War against Israel. (p. 956)

Saladin (1138–1193) Muslim sultan and hero; he campaigned to drive the Christians from the Holy Land. He stopped an army of crusaders under Richard the Lion-Hearted of England. (p. 405)

San Martín, José de (1778–1850) South American revolutionary; he led troops in Argentina, Chile, and Peru and gained independence for these nations. (p. 699)

Santa Anna, Antonio López de (1794–1876) Mexican general, president, and dictator; he fought in the Texas Revolution and seized the Alamo but was defeated and captured by Sam Houston at San Jacinto. (p. 762)

Sargon I (died c. 2300 BC) King of Akkad in Mesopotamia; he is considered the founder of Mesopotamia and conquered many cities along the middle Euphrates to northern Syria. He established trade routes with the Indus Valley, the coast of the Oman islands, and the shores of the Persian Gulf. (p. 36)

Shah Jahan (1592–1666) Mughal emperor of India from 1628 to 1658; under his rule, Mughal power reached its height and his age was the golden period of Muslim art and architecture. (p. 507)

Shaka (died 1828) Founder of the Zulu Empire; he reorganized the army and introduced new fighting tactics. He subdued neighboring peoples, consolidating an empire that encompassed most of southern Africa. (p. 758)

Shakespeare, William (1564–1616) English dramatist and poet; he is considered one of the greatest dramatists of all time and wrote such works as *Romeo and Juliet*, *Hamlet*, and *A Midsummer Night's Dream*. (p. 446)

Shi Huangdi (259–210 BC) First Qin ruler of China; he built institutions that helped China remain unified for almost 2,000 years. (p. 224)

Shotoku, Prince (573–622) Regent of Japan from 593 until 622; he used the Chinese model of government to increase the power of the emperor. He weakened the power of the clan to oppose the emperor. (p. 324)

Sima Qian (c. 145–90 BC) Chinese historian, sometimes called the “father of Chinese history;” he wrote the *Historical Records*, or *Shiji*, in which he attempts to provide a complete history of China from the Yellow Emperor to the reign of Wudi. (p. 232)

Smith, Adam (1723–1790) Scottish economist; he became the leading advocate of laissez faire economics and is considered by some to be the “father of modern economics.” He wrote the first true text on economics, *The Wealth of Nations*, in 1776. (p. 647)

Socrates (469–399 BC) Greek philosopher of Athens; his teaching style was based on asking questions. He wanted people to question their own beliefs. He was arrested and condemned to death for challenging authority. (p. 143)

Solon (c. 630–c. 560 BC) Athenian statesman; he introduced the first civil democracy in Greece and created the Boule. (p. 135)

Stalin, Joseph (1879–1953) Totalitarian dictator of the Soviet Union; he led the Soviet Union through World War II and created a powerful Soviet sphere of influence in Eastern Europe after the war. (p. 824)

Suharto (1921–) President of Indonesia from 1967 to 1998; he seized power in Indonesia from Sukarno in a coup d'état. His authoritarian and corrupt rule eventually led to his ouster. (p. 918)

Sukarno (1901–1970) Indonesian politician; he became Indonesia's first president after he led an independence movement there. A strong anti-communist, whose policies resulted in the deaths of hundreds, he was deposed in a coup led by Suharto. (p. 918)

Sulla, Lucius Cornelius (138–78 BC) Roman general and politician; he became consul in 88 BC, led a civil war against Marius and his followers, emerged victorious, and became dictator. (p. 172)

Suleyman I (1495–1566) Sultan of the Ottoman Empire from 1520 to 1566; he expanded the empire and took on a large economic and political role in the affairs of Europe and the Mediterranean. (p. 501)

Sun Yixian (1866–1925) Chinese statesman and revolutionary leader; he believed that China should be a democracy but that it first needed to replace the Qing dynasty with a ruling nationalist party. He founded the Revolutionary Alliance in 1905. (p. 750)

Sundiata (died 1255) Founder and ruler of Mali; he organized an army and defeated the other kingdoms of West Africa. (p. 297)

T

Talleyrand, Charles Maurice de (1754–1838) French statesman and diplomat; he was one of the negotiators at the Congress of Vienna. He represented France on behalf of Louis XVIII. (p. 617)

Taizong (599–649) Second emperor of the Tang dynasty from 626 to 649; he secured his throne by having his two brothers and their ten sons executed. He established schools to train candidates to take civil service exams. (p. 310)

Teresa of Avila (1515–1582) Spanish Carmelite nun and one of the principal saints of the Roman Catholic Church; she reformed the Carmelite order. Her fervor for the Catholic Church proved inspiring for many people during the Reformation period. (p. 458)

Theodora (died 548) Byzantine empress; she was married to Justinian and exerted a great influence over him and over the political and religious events of the empire. (p. 348)

Thomas Aquinas (1225–1274) Italian philosopher and theologian; he argued that rational thought could be used to support Roman Catholic belief. (p. 417)

Thucydides (c. 460–400 BC) Greek historian of Athens; he wrote *The History of the Peloponnesian War*. He is regarded as the first critical historian and is often ranked as the greatest historian of antiquity. (p. 145)

Tokugawa Ieyasu (1542–1616) Japanese warrior and dictator; he was appointed shogun by the emperor, thus assuming complete control of the government and establishing the Tokugawa shogunate. (p. 519)

Tojo, Hideki (1884–1948) Japanese nationalist and general; he took control of Japan during World War II. He was later tried and executed for war crimes. (p. 841)

Tolstoy, Leo (1828–1910) Russian novelist; his novel *War and Peace* portrayed war as confusing and horrible. (p. 676)

Toussaint L'Ouverture (c. 1744–1803) Haitian patriot and martyr; he took control of Hispaniola for the French and was a hero of the people. Napoleon felt threatened by his growing popularity and had him captured and killed in 1803. (p. 696)

Trotsky, Leon (1879–1940) Russian Communist revolutionary; he negotiated the peace between Russia and the Central Powers to end Russian involvement in World War I. (p. 792)

Truman, Harry S (1884–1972) Thirty-third president of the United States; he became president upon the death of Franklin D. Roosevelt. He led the United States through the end of World War II and the beginning of the Cold War. (p. 861)

Trung Nhi (died 43 AD) Vietnamese nationalist and hero; along with her sister Trung Trac, she raised an army that drove the Chinese out of Vietnam for a short period. (p. 333)

Trung Trac (died 43 AD) Vietnamese nationalist and hero; along with her sister Trung Nhi, she raised an army that drove the Chinese out of Vietnam for a short period. (p. 333)

Tull, Jethro (1674–1741) British inventor; he invented the seed drill. (p. 634)

U

Urban II (c. 1042–1099) Roman Catholic pope from 1088 to 1099; he called on Christians to launch the First Crusade. (p. 404)

V

Velázquez, Diego (1465–1524) Spanish painter; he painted in a realistic style but also worked in impressionism towards the end of his career. (p. 537)

Victor Emmanuel (1820–1878) King of Sardinia-Piedmont from 1849 to 1861 and king of Italy from 1861 to 1878; he was the first king of a united Italy. (p. 716)

Victoria, Queen (1819–1901) Queen of Great Britain and Ireland from 1837 to 1901 and empress of India from 1876 to 1901; she had the longest reign in all of British history and she allowed Parliament to become more involved in running the government. (p. 688)

Villa, Francisco "Pancho" (1878–1923) Mexican bandit and revolutionary leader; he led revolts against Carranza and Huerta. He was pursued by the United States but evaded General Pershing. (p. 762)

Vladimir I (c. 965–1015) Grand prince of Kiev; he converted to Orthodox Christianity in the 980s and made it the state religion. (p. 358)

Voltaire (1694–1778) French philosopher and author; he was a supporter of Deism, the idea that God was no longer involved with the universe after creating it. He also advocated a tolerant approach to religion. (p. 576)

W

- Washington, George** (1732–1799) First president of the United States; he commanded the Continental Army during the Revolutionary War and served as a representative to the Continental Congress. (p. 583)
- Watt, James** (1736–1819) Scottish inventor; he developed crucial innovations to make the steam engine efficient, fast, and better able to power machinery. (p. 637)
- Wellington, Duke of** (1769–1852) British soldier and statesman; he led the British troops against Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo. (p. 616)
- Wendi** (541–604) Emperor of China; he founded the Sui dynasty and worked to build a centralized government. He also began the construction of the Grand Canal. (p. 310)
- Wilhelm I** (1797–1888) King of Prussia from 1861 to 1888 and emperor of Germany from 1871 to 1888; he chose Otto von Bismarck as Prussia's prime minister, and together they unified Germany. (p. 719)
- William and Mary King** William III (1650–1702) and Queen Mary II (1662–1694), rulers of Great Britain who replaced King James II as a result of the Glorious Revolution. (p. 550)
- William the Conqueror** (c. 1027–1087) King of England from 1066 to 1087; he was a powerful French noble who conquered England and brought feudalism to England. (p. 388)
- Wilson, Woodrow** (1856–1924) Twenty-eighth president of the United States; he proposed the League of Nations after World War I as a part of his Fourteen Points. (p. 795)
- Wordsworth, William** (1770–1850) English Romantic poet; his works include *The Evening Walk*, *Descriptive Sketches*, *The Prelude*, and *The Excursion*. (p. 676)
- Wright, Orville** (1871–1948) and **Wilbur** (1867–1912) American pioneers of aviation; they went from experiments with kites and gliders to piloting the first successful gas-powered airplane flight. (p. 663)
- Wu Zhao** (625–705) Empress of China from 690 to 705; she was the only woman to hold the title of emperor and was very powerful. (p. 310)
- Wudi** (141–87 BC) Fifth emperor of the Han dynasty in China; he led the Han dynasty during its peak and substantially increased Chinese territory. (p. 226)

X

- Xerxes** (c. 519–465 BC) King of Persia; his armies invaded Greece but were eventually defeated by the Greeks. (p. 53)

Y

- Yaroslav the Wise** (978–1054) Grand duke of Kiev from 1019 to 1054; he promoted Christianity and civilization in Russia and began a codification of the law. (p. 357)
- Yeltsin, Boris** (1931–) Russian politician and president of Russia in the 1990s; he was the first popularly elected leader of the country. (p. 895)
- Yi Song-gye** (1335–1408) Founder of the Korean Choson dynasty; his dynasty became one of the longest continuous dynasties in history. (p. 521)
- Yonglo** (1360–1424) Third emperor of the Ming dynasty in China; he ordered the reconstruction of Beijing and made it the new capital of China. He also commissioned an encyclopedia that covered history, philosophy, literature, astronomy, medicine, and numerous other topics. (p. 510)

Z

- Zapata, Emiliano** (1879–1919) Mexican revolutionary; he led the revolt against Porfirio Díaz in the south of Mexico during the Mexican Revolution. (p. 762)
- Zhang Qian** (died 113 BC) Chinese official under Emperor Wudi; he was sent on a journey through China to form an alliance with the Xiongnu tribe to the west. His travels led to a vast increase in trade and the establishment of the Silk Road. (p. 231)
- Zheng He** (1371–c. 1433) Admiral, diplomat, and explorer during China's Ming dynasty; his Chinese fleet visited more than 30 countries. (p. 510)
- Zoroaster** (c. 628–c. 551 BC) Religious teacher and prophet of ancient Persia; he founded a religion known as Zoroastrianism based on the idea that people have free will and can act as they choose. (p. 53)

English and Spanish Glossary

MARK	AS IN	RESPELLING	EXAMPLE
a	alphabet	a	*AL-fuh-bet
ā	Asia	ay	AY-zhuh
ä	cart, top	ah	KAHRT, TAHF
e	let, ten	e	LET, TEN
ē	even, leaf	ee	EE-vuhn, LEEF
i	it, tip, British	i	IT, TIP, BRIT-ish
ī	site, buy, Ohio	y	SYT, BY, OH-HY-oh
	iris	eye	EYE-ris
k	card	k	KAHRD
ō	over, rainbow	oh	OH-vuhr, RAYN-boh
ú	book, wood	ooh	BOOHK, WOOHD
ó	all, orchid	aw	AWL, AWR-kid
ói	foil, coin	oy	FOYL, KOYN
aú	out	ow	OWT
	cup, butter	uh	KUHP, BUHT-uhf
ü	rule, food	oo	ROOL, FOOD
yü	few	yoo	FYOO
zh	vision	zh	VIZH-uhn

* A syllable printed in small capital letters receives heavier emphasis than the other syllable(s) in a word.

Phonetic Respelling and Pronunciation Guide

Many of the key terms in this textbook have been respelled to help you pronounce them. The letter combinations used in the respelling throughout the narrative are explained in the following phonetic respelling and pronunciation guide. The guide is adapted from *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, Eleventh Edition*; *Merriam-Webster's Biographical Dictionary*; and *Merriam-Webster's Geographical Dictionary*.

A

Abbasid dynasty that overthrew the Umayyad dynasty to rule the Muslim caliphate from 750 to 1258; for 150 years the Abbasids maintained the unity of the caliphate and Islamic culture and civilization flourished. (p. 265)

Abasida gobernantes del Imperio musulmán que derrocaron a la familia Umayyad y establecieron un régimen que contribuyó a fortalecer el imperio, lo cual brindó gran prosperidad y crecimiento cultural a la cultura islámica (pág. 265)

abbot the elected head of a monastery (p. 364)

abad autoridad elegida de un monasterio (pág. 364)

abolition abolishment of slavery (p. 703)

abolición eliminación de la esclavitud (pág. 703)

absolute monarch a ruler that has unlimited power and authority over his or her people (p. 535)

monarca absoluto gobernante con poder y autoridad ilimitados sobre su pueblo (pág. 535)

acropolis a walled, high area containing fortifications and temples and located in the center of a polis (p. 129)

acrópolis área elevada y defendida por muros que rodea a una polis (pág. 129)

acupuncture Chinese medical practice that involves inserting needles into the skin in order to relieve pain (p. 232)

acupuntura práctica médica china que consiste en insertar agujas en la piel para aliviar el dolor (pág. 232)

adobe sun-dried brick used by the Pueblo Indians for building (p. 200)

adobe ladrillos secados al sol que los indios Pueblo usaban para construir (pág. 200)

African Diaspora the dispersal of people of African descent throughout the Americas and Western Europe due to the slave trade (p. 491)

diáspora africana resultado del comercio de esclavos, cuando muchos africanos y sus descendientes fueron llevados a la Américas y a Europa Occidental (pág. 491)

African National Congress political organization in South Africa; founded in 1912, it developed into the main opposition force to apartheid (p. 944)

Congreso Nacional Africano organización política de Sudáfrica; fundada en 1912, comenzó como una agrupación pacífica que luchaba por los derechos civiles y se oponía al apartheid (pág. 944)

agora an open area that served as a meeting place and market in early Greek city-states (p. 129)

ágora área abierta que servía como lugar de encuentro y mercado en las primeras ciudades estado griegas (pág. 129)

ahimsa in Jainism, nonviolence and respect for all living things (p. 102)

ahimsa en el jainismo, pacifismo y respeto por todos los seres vivos (pág. 102)

al Qaeda “the base”; Islamist terrorist organization responsible for the September 11 attacks (p. 899)

al Qaeda literalmente significa “la base”; grupo fundamentalista islámico (pág. 899)

alliance a formal agreement between two or more nations entered into to advance common interests or causes (p. 208)

alianza acuerdo formal entre dos o más naciones; promover causas o intereses comunes (pág. 208)

Allied Powers the alliance formed between Britain, France, and Russia during World War I (p. 781)

Potencias Aliadas alianza que formaron Gran Bretaña, Francia y Rusia durante la Primera Guerra Mundial (pág. 781)

Allies the alliance of Britain, France, and Russia in World War II; joined by the United States after the Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941 (p. 838)

Aliados alianza de Gran Bretaña, Francia y Rusia durante la Segunda Guerra Mundial; Estados Unidos se unió tras el bombardeo de Pearl Harbor en 1941 (pág. 838)

Amritsar Massacre (1919) an event in which British troops fired on a large crowd of peaceful, unarmed Indian protestors, killing some 400 people; it led to a campaign of protest led by Gandhi (p. 809)

masacre de Amritsar (1919) suceso ocurrido en la India en el cual los soldados británicos dispararon contra una multitud de manifestantes pacíficos que no llevaban armas; murieron aproximadamente 400 personas (pág. 809)

anesthetic a drug that inhibits pain during surgery (p. 668)

anestesia droga que inhibe el dolor durante una cirugía (pág. 668)

Angkor Wat Hindu temple complex built by the Khmer rulers of Cambodia in the 1100s (p. 332)

Angkor Wat templo construido por los gobernantes Khmer de Camboya (pág. 332)

animism the belief that all things in nature have spirits (p. 11)

animismo creencia de que todas las cosas en la naturaleza tienen espíritu (pág. 11)

Anti-Comintern Pact (1936) agreement signed between Germany and Japan in which they established their opposition to the Comintern, a Soviet-sponsored international organization aimed at spreading communism (p. 822)

Pacto Anti-Comintern (1936) acuerdo firmado entre Alemania y Japón para establecer su oposición al Comintern, una organización internacional promovida por la Unión Soviética que se dedicaba a difundir el comunismo (pág. 822)

anti-Semitism hostility or prejudice towards Jews (pp. 694, 826)

antisemitismo creencias en contra de los judíos (pág. 694, 826)

annulled declared invalid based on church laws (p. 453)

anular declarar inválido según las leyes de la Iglesia (pág. 453)

apartheid the South African government’s official policy of legalized racial segregation throughout the society (p. 941)

apartheid política oficial del gobierno sudafricano que consiste en la segregación racial legalizada en toda la sociedad (pág. 941)

appeasement giving in to aggressive demands in order to avoid war (p. 836)

pacificación ceder a las demandas de potencias intransigentes para evitar una guerra (pág. 836)

Apostles the 12 chosen disciples of Jesus; they were the first Christian missionaries (p. 185)

apóstles los 12 discípulos elegidos por Jesús; fueron los primeros misioneros cristianos (pág. 185)

apprentice a person who learns a skill under a master of the trade (p. 412)

aprendiz persona que aprende una destreza con un maestro del oficio (pág. 412)

aqueducts manmade channels used to transport water; ancient Romans built impressive aqueducts (p. 180)

acueductos canales hechos por el hombre para llevar agua a las ciudades de la antigua Roma (pág. 180)

archipelago a large group or chain of islands (p. 323)

archipiélago gran grupo o cadena de islas (pág. 323)

archon a chief of state of ancient Athens (p. 136)

arconte jefe de gobierno en Atenas (pág. 136)

armistice an agreement to cease fighting, usually in a war (p. 797)

armisticio acuerdo para cesar una lucha, generalmente en una guerra (pág. 797)

arms race competition between nations to gain an advantage in weapons (p. 883)

carrera armamentística competencia entre naciones para tener ventaja en cuanto a la cantidad de armas (pág. 883)

- artifacts** objects that people in the past made or used, such as coins, pottery, and tools. (p. 6)
artefactos objetos hecho por los primeros humanos, como una herramienta, una pieza de cerámica o un arma (pág. 6)
- artisans** skilled craftspeople who make goods, such as pottery or baskets, by hand (p. 21)
artesanos trabajadores que hacen productos a mano, como piezas de cerámica o canastas (pág. 21)
- Asian Tigers** term referring to South Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Singapore, which built strong export-driven economies in the late 1900s (p. 929)
tigres asiáticos países de Asia que siguen un modelo de desarrollo económico similar al japonés (pág. 929)
- assembly line** a mass-production process in which a product is moved forward through many work stations where workers perform specific tasks (p. 645)
línea de montaje proceso de producción en masa en el que un producto pasa por varias etapas en las que los trabajadores hacen tareas específicas (pág. 645)
- astrolabe** an instrument for determining the positions and movements of heavenly bodies (p. 272)
astrolabio instrumento usado para determinar la posición y el movimiento de los cuerpos celestes (pág. 72)
- augurs** priests in ancient Rome who specialized in interpretation of the natural phenomena sent by the gods (p. 179)
augures sacerdotes de la antigua Roma que se especializaban en la interpretación de los fenómenos naturales enviados por los dioses (pág. 179)
- Austro-Prussian War** (1866) war fought between Prussia and Austria lasting seven weeks; Prussian victory dissolved the German Confederation and led to the exclusion of Austria from German affairs (p. 720)
Guerra austro-prusiana (1866) guerra entre Prusia y Austria; la victoria prusiana provocó la exclusión de Austria de Alemania (pág. 720)
- autocracy** a government in which the ruler holds absolute power (p. 729)
autocracia forma de gobierno en la que el gobernante tiene poder absoluto (pág. 729)
- Axis Powers** the alliance of Germany, Italy, and Japan in World War II (p. 837)
Potencias del Eje alianza de Alemania, Italia y Japón durante la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 837)

B

- Baghdad Pact** during the Cold War, a U.S.-led alliance against communism in the Middle East (p. 952)
Pacto de Bagdad alianza dirigida por Estados Unidos contra el comunismo en Medio Oriente (pág. 952)
- balance of trade** the difference in value between what a nation imports and exports over a period of time (p. 484)
balance comercial la diferencia en valor entre lo que una nación importa y lo que exporta a lo largo de un período de tiempo (pág. 484)
- Balfour Declaration** (1917) a statement issued by the British foreign secretary in favor of establishing a Jewish homeland in Palestine (p. 798)
Declaración de Balfour declaración escrita por el Ministro de Asuntos Exteriores británico a un líder sionista de Palestina (pág. 798)
- Balkan Wars** (1912–1913) two wars that cost the Ottoman Empire all of its European territories except the area around Constantinople (Istanbul) (p. 727)
Guerras de los Balcanes (1912–1913) dos guerras que se libraron por el último de los territorios europeos del Imperio otomano; a causa de ellas, el área que rodea a Constantinopla (Estambul) quedó como el único territorio otomano en Europa (pág. 727)
- Bantu** a family of closely related African languages; one of any of the African peoples who speak that language (p. 287)
Bantú familia de lenguas africanas estrechamente relacionadas; miembro de cualquiera de los pueblos africanos que hablan estas lenguas (pág. 287)
- Bataan Death March** (1942) a forced march of American and Filipino prisoners of war captured by the Japanese in the Philippines in World War II (p. 848)
marcha de la muerte de Bataan (1942) marcha forzada de los prisioneros de guerra estadounidenses y filipinos capturados por los japoneses en Filipinas durante la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 848)
- Battle of Britain** (1940) three month air battle between Germany and Great Britain fought over Great Britain during World War II; Britain's victory forestalled a German invasion (p. 840)
batalla de Inglaterra (1940) serie de batallas aéreas entre Alemania y Gran Bretaña que se libraron en Gran Bretaña durante la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 840)
- Battle of El Alamein** (1942) World War II battle in which Britain won a decisive victory over Germany in Egypt, securing the Suez Canal (p. 846)
batalla de El Alamein (1942) batalla clave de la Segunda Guerra Mundial donde los británicos obtuvieron una victoria aplastante sobre los alemanes en Egipto (pág. 846)

Battle of Guadalcanal (1942-1943) World War II battle in the Pacific; it represented the first Allied counter-attack against Japanese forces; Allied victory forced Japanese forces to abandon the island (p. 850)

batalla de Guadalcanal (1942-1943) batalla de la Segunda Guerra Mundial que se libró en el Pacífico por tierra, mar y aire; la victoria aliada obligó a las fuerzas japonesas a abandonar la isla (pág. 850)

Battle of Iwo Jima (1945) World War II battle between Japanese forces and invading U.S. troops (p. 860)

batalla de Iwo Jima (1945) batalla de la Segunda Guerra Mundial entre las fuerzas japonesas y el ejército invasor estadounidense (pág. 860)

Battle of Midway (1942) World War II naval battle fought in the Pacific; the Americans broke the Japanese code and knew the date and location of the attack, setting the stage for a major American victory (p. 849)

batalla de Midway (1942) batalla de la Segunda Guerra Mundial librada en el Pacífico; los estadounidenses descifraron el código japonés y averiguaron dónde y cuándo atacarían los japoneses, lo que les permitió obtener una victoria importante (pág. 849)

Battle of Okinawa (1945) World War II victory for the Allied troops that resulted in the deaths of almost all of the 100,000 Japanese defenders; the battle claimed 12,000 American lives (p. 861)

batalla de Okinawa (1945) victoria de los Aliados en la Segunda Guerra Mundial que tuvo como consecuencia la muerte de los casi 100,000 defensores japoneses; los estadounidenses perdieron 12,000 soldados en la batalla (pág. 861)

Battle of Stalingrad (1942) World War II battle between invading German forces and Soviet defenders for control of Stalingrad, a city on the Volga River; each side sustained hundreds of thousands of casualties; Germany's defeat marked a turning point in the war (p. 848)

batalla de Stalingrado (1942) una de las batallas más sangrientas de la Segunda Guerra Mundial, en la que los soviéticos defendieron la ciudad, a costa de decenas de miles de vidas, y lograron echar a los alemanes de la ciudad (pág. 848)

Battle of Verdun (1916) the longest battle of World War I; it ended in stalemate, with both sides suffering hundreds of thousands of casualties (p. 786)

batalla de Verdún (1916) la batalla más larga de la Primera Guerra Mundial; ambos bandos quedaron muy debilitados tras perder decenas de miles de vidas (pág. 786)

Bay of Pigs invasion (1961) the failed attempt of Cuban exiles backed by the U.S. to overthrow the Cuban socialist government of Fidel Castro (p. 885)

invasión de la Bahía de Cochinos (1961) intento frustrado de los exiliados cubanos, apoyados por Estados Unidos, de derrocar al gobierno socialista de Fidel Castro (pág. 885)

bedouins small groups of nomadic people in Arabia (p. 257)

beduinos pequeños grupos de pueblos nómadas de Arabia (pág. 257)

Benedictine Rule a collection of rules or guidelines for monks and monasteries; named for Benedict of Nursia; widely used in Europe in the Middle Ages (p. 364)

regla benedictina serie de 73 capítulos que detallaban cómo debían organizarse los monjes y los monasterios (pág. 364)

Berlin airlift (1948-1949) a program in which the United States and Britain shipped supplies by air to West Berlin during the Soviet blockade of all routes to the city (p. 880)

punto aéreo de Berlín (1948-1949) programa de envío de suministros a Berlín occidental por parte de Estados Unidos y Gran Bretaña durante el bloqueo soviético de todas las vías de acceso a la ciudad (pág. 880)

Berlin Conference (1884-1885) a meeting at which representatives from European nations agreed upon rules for the European colonization of Africa (p. 758)

Conferencia de Berlín (1884-1885) encuentro en el que representantes de países europeos acordaron reglas para la colonización europea de África (pág. 758)

Bessemer process a process developed in the 1850s that led to faster, cheaper steel production (p. 661)

proceso de Bessemer proceso desarrollado en la década de 1850 que permitió producir acero de forma más rápida y económica (pág. 661)

biotechnology the use of biological research in industry (p. 1008)

biotecnología usa de la investigación biológica en la industria (pág. 1008)

bishop a high-ranking church official who oversees a group of churches in a particular region or city (p. 187)

obispo funcionario de alto rango de la Iglesia católica que supervisa un grupo de iglesias de una región o ciudad en particular (pág. 187)

Black Death a terrible outbreak of bubonic plague that swept through Europe, beginning in 1347 (p. 422)

Peste Negra terrible plaga de peste bubónica que comenzó en 1347 y arrasó Europa (pág. 422)

Black Tuesday October 29, 1929, the day that the United States stock market crashed (p. 813)

martes negro 29 de octubre de 1929, día en que el mercado de valores de Estados Unidos colapsó (pág. 813)

blitzkrieg a German word meaning “lightning war”; a fast, forceful style of fighting used by Germans in World War II (p. 838)

blitzkrieg palabra alemana que significa “guerra relámpago”; estilo de combate rápido y contundente que usaron los alemanes en la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 838)

Bloody Sunday January 22, 1905, the day that czarist troops fired on protestors at the Winter Palace, igniting the Russian Revolution of 1905 (p. 732)

Domingo sangriento 22 de enero de 1905 acontecimiento inspirador de la Revolución rusa de 1905, cuando el ejército disparó contra unos manifestantes frente al Palacio de Invierno (pág. 732)

Bolsheviks Marxists whose goal was to seize state power and establish a dictatorship of the proletariat; Soviet Communists (p. 790)

bolcheviques seguidores de Marx cuyo objetivo era apropiarse del poder estatal y establecer una dictadura del proletariado; comunistas soviéticos (pág. 790)

bourgeoisie the urban middle class; merchants, professionals, and manufacturers (p. 595)

burguesía la clase media urbana; mercaderes, profesionales y fabricantes (pág. 595)

Boxer Rebellion (1900) a siege of a foreign settlement in Beijing by Chinese nationalists who were angry at foreign involvement in China (p. 749)

rebelión de los boxers (1900) asedio a un asentamiento extranjero en Beijing por parte de nacionalistas chinos que estaban en desacuerdo con la intervención extranjera en China (pág. 749)

boyars wealthy Russian landowners (p. 552)

boyars ricos terratenientes ruso (pág. 552)

British East India Company a joint-stock company granted a royal charter by Elizabeth I in 1600 for the purpose of controlling trade in India (p. 742)

British East India Company sociedad por acciones a la que Isabel I otorgó un cédula real en 1600 para controlar el comercio en la India (pág. 742)

Bronze Age (c. 3000 BC) the period after the Stone Age, when people began to make items out of bronze (p. 17)

Edad de Bronce (circa 3000 a.C.) período posterior a la Edad de Piedra en el que las personas comenzaron a fabricar objetos de bronce (pág. 17)

Buddhism the religion founded by Siddhartha Gautama, which teaches the Four Noble Truths and following the Eightfold Path (p. 104)

budismo religión fundada por Siddhartha Gautama que enseña las Cuatro Nobles Verdades y a seguir el sendero óctuple (pág. 104)

bureaucracy a highly structured organization, often governmental, managed by officials (p. 66)

burocracia departamentos y agencias dirigidos por funcionarios no electos cuyo propósito es dirigir el gobierno (pág. 66)

Bushido “way of the warrior;” code of behavior of Japanese samurai warriors, stressing bravery, loyalty, and honor (p. 517)

bushido “vía del guerrero”; código de conducta de los guerreros samuráis japoneses que destacaba la valentía, la lealtad y el honor (pág. 517)

Byzantine Empire (395–1453) name historians give to the Eastern Roman Empire; it refers to Byzantium, the name of the capital city before it was changed to Constantinople (p. 347)

Imperio bizantino (395–1453) parte oriental del anterior Imperio romano, que data del año 330 d.C., cuando Constantino I reconstruyó Bizancio y la transformó en su capital (pág. 347)

C

caliph “successor to the Prophet”; title given to the political and religious leader of Muslims (p. 263)

califa “sucesor del Profeta”; título dado al líder político y religioso de los musulmanes (pág. 263)

caliphate area ruled by a caliph (p. 263)

califato área gobernada por un califa (pág. 263)

calligraphy the art of fine handwriting (p. 273)

caligrafía arte de escribir a mano con destreza (pág. 273)

Camp David Accords (1978) a peace agreement mediated by U.S. President Carter between Egyptian President Anwar Sadat and Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin (p. 956)

Acuerdos de Camp David (1978) acuerdos de paz entre el presidente egipcio Anwar Sadat y el primer ministro israelí Menachem Begin en los que el presidente Estados Unidos Carter actuó como mediador (pág. 956)

capitalism economic system in which most businesses are privately owned (p. 487)

capitalismo sistema económico donde la mayoría de las empresas son de propiedad privada (pág. 487)

caravel a sailing vessel that uses square and triangular sails to help it sail against the wind (p. 471)

carabela barco de velas triangulares y cuadradas que permiten navegar con el viento en contra (pág. 471)

castes social classes in the ancient Indian class system; see also *varnas* (p. 97)

castas sistema de clases de la sociedad tradicional de la India (pág. 97)

cataracts rocky stretches in a river marked by rapid currents or waterfalls (p. 64)

rápidos parte rocosa del curso de un río donde la corriente es rápida y abundan las cascadas (pág. 64)

census a population count that includes other demographic data (p. 213)

censo recuento de la población que incluye otros datos demográficos (pág. 213)

Central Powers the alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire during World War I (p. 781)

Potencias Centrales alianza entre Alemania, el Imperio austrohúngaro y el Imperio otomano durante la Primera Guerra Mundial (pág. 781)

charter a founding document or agreement, such as the one that created the United Nations (p. 1040)

carta de constitución documento que crea organizaciones, como Naciones Unidas (pág. 1040)

Christendom term historians use to denote the society, concentrated in Western Europe, that developed in the Middle Ages in which people were linked by common customs and the Christian religion (p. 363)

cr cristiandad la sociedad cristiana, formada en el siglo V; unió a la mayoría de los europeos occidentales a través de una religión y costumbres comunes (pág. 363)

Christianity a religion based on the teaching of Jesus of Nazareth (p. 183)

cr cristianismo religión basada en las enseñanzas de Jesús de Nazaret (pág. 183)

circumnavigate to proceed completely around (p. 474)

cr circunnavegar dar una vuelta completa alrededor de algo (pág. 474)

circus the site of chariot races in ancient Rome (p. 178)

cr circo pista de carreras de cuadrigas de la antigua Roma (pág. 178)

citadel a fortress (p. 95)

cr ciudadela fortaleza (pág. 95)

city-state a political unit that includes a town or a city and the surrounding land controlled by it (p. 34)

cr ciudad estado unidad política que incluye un pueblo o una ciudad y las tierras vecinas que están bajo su control (pág. 34)

civil law a form of law based on a written code of laws (p. 182)

cr derecho civil forma de derecho basada en un código de leyes escrito (pág. 182)

civil service a centralized administrative system that runs the day-to-day business of government (p. 226)

cr administración pública sistema administrativo centralizado que se encarga de los asuntos cotidianos del gobierno (pág. 226)

civilization a complex, organized society that has advanced cities, a government, religion, record keeping and writing, job specialization, social classes, and arts and architecture (p. 19)

cr civilización sociedad compleja y organizada que tiene ciudades desarrolladas, un gobierno, una religión, registros escritos, especialización laboral, clases sociales y arte y arquitectura (pág. 19)

clergy church leaders (p. 350)

cr clero líderes de la iglesia (pág. 350)

cloning the process of making a genetically identical copy of an animal's cell (p. 1008)

cr clonación proceso de hacer una copia genéticamente idéntica de la célula de un animal (pág. 1008)

codex books made by Mayans out of the inner bark of wild fig trees (p. 206)

cr códices libros hechos por los mayas con la corteza interna de higueras silvestres (pág. 206)

Cold War an era of high tension and bitter rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union in the decades following World War II (p. 879)

cr Guerra Fría época de mucha tensión y rivalidad implacable entre Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética tras el fin de la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 879)

Columbian Exchange the transfer of plants, animals, and diseases between the Americas and Europe, Asia, and Africa beginning with the voyages of Columbus (p. 483)

cr intercambio colombino intercambio de plantas, animales y enfermedades entre las Américas, Europa, Asia y África (pág. 483)

commonwealth a republican government based on the common good of all the people (p. 548)

cr commonwealth gobierno democrático basado en el bien común de todos los ciudadanos (pág. 548)

communism economic and political system in which government owns the means of production and controls economic planning (p. 649)

cr comunismo sistema político y económico en que el gobierno posee los medios de producción y controla la planificación económica (pág. 649)

concentration camps detention sites created for military or political purposes to confine, terrorize, and, in some cases, kill civilians (p. 855)

cr campos de concentración lugares de detención creados con fines militares o políticos para confinar, intimidar y, en algunos casos, matar a civiles (pág. 855)

Confucianism a belief system based on the teachings of Chinese philosopher Confucius (551–479 BC) that stressed treating one another humanely and honoring one's family (p. 112)

cr confucianismo filosofía basada en las enseñanzas de Confucio (551–479 B.C.) que hace hincapié en comportarse bien con el prójimo y en respetar y honrar a la propia familia (pág. 112)

conquistador a Spanish soldier and explorer who led military expeditions in the Americas and captured land for Spain (p. 477)
conquistador soldados y exploradores español que encabezó expediciones militares en América y capturó territorios en nombre de España (pág. 477)

constitution a political structure (p. 166)
constitución una estructura política (pág. 166)

constitutional monarchy a monarchy limited by certain laws (p. 550)
monarquía constitucional monarquía limitada por ciertas leyes (pág. 550)

consuls the chief executives elected to run the government in ancient Rome (p. 166)
cónsules autoridades ejecutivas elegidas para gobernar en la antigua Roma (pág. 166)

containment the United States policy adopted in the 1940s to stop the spread of communism by providing economic and military aid to countries opposing the Soviets (p. 880)
contención política estadounidense adoptada en la década de 1940 para detener la difusión del comunismo; se proporcionó ayuda económica y militar a los países que se oponían a los soviéticos (pág. 880)

Continental System the system of commercial blockades of Britain and continental Europe set in place by Napoleon with the intent of destroying Britain's economy (p. 610)
Sistema Continental sistema de bloqueos comerciales a Gran Bretaña y Europa continental impuestos por Napoleón para intentar destruir la economía británica (pág. 610)

Contras rebels seeking to overthrow Nicaragua's Sandinista government in the 1980s; financed by the United States (p. 972)
contras rebeldes que intentaban derrocar el gobierno sandinista de Nicaragua; financiados por Estados Unidos (pág. 972)

cottage industry a usually small-scale industry carried on at home by family members using their own equipment (p. 635)
industria casera industria que los miembros de una familia desarrollan en el hogar, generalmente a pequeña escala y con sus propias herramientas (pág. 635)

Council of Trent a meeting of church leaders in the 1500s whose purpose was to clearly define Catholic doctrines for the Catholic Reformation (p. 456)
Concilio de Trento encuentro de los líderes de la Iglesia en el siglo XVI con el fin de definir claramente las doctrinas católicas para la Reforma católica (pág. 456)

counterculture a rebellion of teens and young adults against mainstream American culture in the 1960s (p. 890)
contracultura rebelión de adolescentes y adultos jóvenes contra la cultura masiva estadounidense en la década de 1960 (pág. 890)

Counter-Reformation the Catholic Church's series of reforms in response to the spread of Protestantism in the mid-1500s to the early 1600s (p. 456)
Contrarreforma serie de reformas que emprendió la Iglesia católica como respuesta a la difusión de las iglesias protestantes (pág. 456)

counterrevolution a revolution against a government established by a revolution (p. 604)
contrarrevolución revolución contra un gobierno establecido por una revolución (pág. 604)

counts title of nobility; in Charlemagne's empire, chosen officials who ruled parts of the empire in his name (p. 375)
condes funcionarios elegidos por Carlomagno que administraban las distintas partes de su imperio (pág. 375)

coup d'état "stroke of state"; the sudden overthrow of a government by force (p. 609)
golpe de estado derrocamiento súbito de un gobierno por la fuerza (pág. 609)

court a gathering of nobles around a monarch (p. 109)
corte reunión de nobles (pág. 109)

covenant a binding agreement (p. 46)
pacto acuerdo vinculante (pág. 46)

credit an arrangement by which a purchaser borrows money from a bank or other lender and agrees to pay it back over time (pp. 410, 813)
crédito acuerdo por el cual un comprador pide dinero a un banco o a otro prestamista para hacer una compra y se compromete a devolverlo en determinado tiempo (pág. 410, 813)

creoles people of Spanish or Portuguese descent born in the Americas (p. 696)
criollos nativos de las Américas descendientes de españoles o portugueses (pág. 696)

Crimean War (1853–1856) war between the Ottoman Empire and Russia, ostensibly over access for Eastern Orthodox Christians to the Holy Land, controlled by the Ottomans; Britain and France allied with the Ottomans to check Russian expansion (p. 726)
Guerra de Crimea (1853–1856) guerra entre Gran Bretaña, Francia y los turcos otomanos por un lado y Rusia por el otro, causada por disputas religiosas entre los cristianos católicos y los cristianos ortodoxos en Palestina (pág. 726)

Crusades (1096–1204) a series of wars carried out by European Christians to gain control of the Holy Land from their Muslim rulers (p. 404)
Cruzadas (1096–1204) serie de guerras santas encabezadas por los católicos para recuperar partes de Medio Oriente, en posesión de los musulmanes (pág. 404)

- Cuban Missile Crisis** (1962) confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union over Soviet missiles in Cuba (p. 885)
crisis de los misiles en Cuba (1962) confrontación entre Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética acerca de los misiles soviéticos en Cuba (pág. 885)
- cultural diffusion** the spreading of culture from one society to another (p. 23, 995)
difusión cultural transmisión cultural de una sociedad a otra (pág. 23, 995)
- Cultural Revolution** the violent attempt at social change in China launched by Mao Zedong in 1966 (p. 922)
Revolución cultural intento violento de cambiar la sociedad china, ideado por Mao Tsé-Tung en 1966 (pág. 922)
- culture** a group's knowledge, beliefs, values, and customs (p. 6)
cultura conocimientos, valores, creencias y costumbres de un grupo (pág. 6)
- cuneiform** Sumerian writing (p. 35)
cuneiforme tipo de escritura que usaban los sumerios (pág. 35)
- Cyrillic alphabet** an alphabet derived from the Greek alphabet and used for writing Slavic languages (p. 358)
alfabeto cirílico alfabeto derivado del alfabeto griego y usado en las lenguas eslavas (pág. 358)
- czar** "caesar"; title taken by the ruler of Russia (p. 552)
zar "césar"; título que llevaba el gobernante del ruso (pág. 552)

D

- daimyo** a warrior lord in feudal Japan who controlled vast amounts of land and commanded a private army of samurai (p. 519)
daimyo señor guerrero del Japón feudal que controlaba grandes extensiones de tierra y lideraba un ejército privado de samuráis (pág. 519)
- Daoism** a system of ideas and beliefs based on the teachings of Chinese thinker Laozi, who believed that people should live a simple, honest life and not interfere with the course of natural events (p. 112)
taoísmo sistema de ideas y creencias basadas en las enseñanzas del pensador chino Laozi, quien creía que se debe vivir una vida sencilla y honesta sin interferir con el desarrollo natural de los acontecimientos (pág. 112)
- D-Day** June 6, 1944; the first day of the Allied invasion of Normandy in World War II (p. 859)
Día D 6 de junio de 1944; el primer día de la invasión de los Aliados a Normandía durante la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 859)
- Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen** a document that laid out the basic principles of the French Revolution—liberty, equality, and fraternity (p. 598)
Declaración de los Derechos del Hombre y del Ciudadano documento que estableció los principios básicos de la Revolución francesa: libertad, igualdad y fraternidad (pág. 598)
- deforestation** the clearing of forests (p. 1006)
deforestación tala de árboles (pág. 1006)
- delta** a triangular region formed at the mouth of a river by deposits of silt (p. 64)
delta región triangular formada en la desembocadura de un río por depósitos de cieno (pág. 64)
- democracy** a government run by the people (p. 135)
democracia gobierno del pueblo (pág. 135)
- deported** forced to leave a country (p. 855)
deportado obligado a dejar un país (pág. 855)
- desertification** the transformation of habitable land to desert through a change in climate or destructive land use (p. 946)
desertificación transformación de una región habitable en un desierto, a través de un cambio en el clima o el uso destructivo de la tierra (pág. 946)
- détente** efforts taken by U.S. president Nixon in the late 1960s and early 1970s to lower Cold War tensions (p. 887)
détente intento que hizo el presidente Nixon a finales de la década de 1960 y comienzos de la década de 1970 para reducir la tensión de la Guerra Fría (pág. 887)
- deterrence** the development of or maintenance of military power to deter, or prevent, an attack (p. 883)
disuasión desarrollo o mantenimiento de un poder militar para disuadir, o impedir, un ataque (pág. 883)
- devolution** the redistribution of power from the central government to local governments (p. 1023)
devolución redistribución del poder del gobierno central a los gobiernos locales (pág. 1023)
- dharma** in Hinduism, the religious and moral duties of an individual (p. 100)
dharma en el hinduismo, las obligaciones religiosas y morales de un individuo (pág. 100)
- Diaspora** the dispersal of the Jews from their homeland in Palestine during the 2,600 years that followed the destruction of the Solomon's Temple in Jerusalem in 586 BC by the Chaldeans (p. 48)
diáspora dispersión de los judíos desde su tierra natal en Palestina durante los 2,600 años que siguieron a la destrucción del Templo de Jerusalén, en el año 586 b.C. (pág. 48)
- dictator** a political leader holding unlimited power (p. 167)
dictador cargo político en el cual, quien lo ocupa, tiene poder ilimitado (pág. 167)

direct democracy the type of governing system where all people vote directly on an issue (p. 136)

democracia directa sistema de gobierno donde todos los ciudadanos votan directamente sobre una cuestión (pág. 136)

disciples followers of Jesus (p. 184)

discípulos seguidores de Jesús (pág. 184)

divine right the belief that a ruler's authority comes directly from God (p. 535)

derecho divino creencia de que la autoridad de un gobernante viene directamente de Dios (pág. 535)

division of labor when certain people do a specific task or type of work (p. 19)

división del trabajo cuando ciertas personas hacen una tarea o trabajo específicos (pág. 19)

Domesday Book the written record of English landowners and their property made by order of William the Conqueror in 1085–1086 (p. 388)

Domesday Book registro escrito de las propiedades de los terratenientes ingleses hecho por orden de Guillermo el Conquistador entre 1085 y 1086 (pág. 388)

domestication taming animals and adapting crops for human use (p. 13)

domesticación adaptar animales y cultivos para el uso humano (pág. 13)

domino theory the belief during the Cold War that the fall of one non-communist country to communism would cause neighboring non-communist countries also to fall to communists (p. 916)

teoría del dominó creencia de que el comunismo se difundiría a otros países durante de la Guerra Fría (pág. 916)

Dreyfus affair a political scandal that divided France in the 1890s, involving the wrongful conviction of Jewish army officer Alfred Dreyfus for treason (p. 694)

caso Dreyfus escándalo político que dividió a Francia en la década de 1890 y que se inició cuando el militar judío Alfred Dreyfus fue condenado erróneamente por traición (pág. 694)

Dual Monarchy Austria-Hungary (1867–1918), two separate, equal states ruled by one monarch (p. 724)

monarquía dual sistema de gobierno donde un mismo rey gobierna a dos estados (pág. 724)

dualism the belief that the world is controlled by two opposing forces, good and evil (p. 53)

dualismo creencia de que el mundo está controlado por dos fuerzas opuestas: el bien y el mal (pág. 53)

Duma the Russian legislative assembly, formed after the Revolution of 1905 (p. 732)

Duma asamblea rusa formada después de la Revolución de 1905 que aprobaba todas las leyes (pág. 732)

dynastic cycle the rise and fall of the Chinese dynasties (p. 111)

ciclo dinástico el ascenso y la caída de las dinastías chinas (pág. 111)

dynasty a family of rulers whose right to rule is hereditary (p. 35)

dinastía familia de gobernantes cuyo derecho a gobernar es hereditario (pág. 35)

E

Edict of Nantes (1598) a declaration of French king Henry IV in which he promised that Protestants could live peacefully in France and were free to establish houses of worship in selected French cities (p. 541)

Edicto de Nantes (1598) declaración del rey francés Enrique IV, donde prometía que los protestantes podrían vivir en paz en Francia y eran libres de establecer sus lugares de culto en ciertas ciudades francesas (pág. 541)

Eightfold Path the Middle Way and part of the Four Noble Truths that the Buddha taught as the means to nirvana or enlightenment (p. 104)

sendero óctuple el Camino Medio y parte de las Cuatro Nobles Verdades que Buda enseñaba como sendero hacia el nirvana o la iluminación (pág. 104)

elite a group of persons, or a member of such a group, enjoying superior intellectual, social, or economic status (p. 204)

élite grupo de personas o miembros de ese grupo que gozan de una posición intelectual, social o económica superior (pág. 204)

Emancipation Proclamation (1862) an order issued by President Abraham Lincoln freeing the enslaved people in areas rebelling against the Union (p. 704)

Proclamación de Emancipación (1862) decreto emitido por el presidente Abraham Lincoln para liberar a los esclavos en las áreas que se rebelaban contra la Unión (pág. 704)

enclosure movement a process in Europe from 1700s to the mid-1800s where landowners fenced small fields to create large farms, allowing for more efficient farming methods and increased the food supply (p. 635)

movimiento de cercamiento proceso por el cual los terratenientes cercaban pequeños campos para crear grandes granjas; esto permitía aplicar métodos agrícolas más rentables y aumentó el suministro de alimentos (pág. 635)

encomienda Spanish colonial system in which a colonist was given a certain amount of land and a number of Native Americans to work the land in exchange for teaching the Native Americans Christianity (p. 477)

encomienda sistema por el cual un colono recibía una porción de tierra y un grupo de indígenas norteamericanos lo cultivaban a cambio de recibir enseñanzas cristianas (pág. 477)

enlightened despots the absolute monarchs in 18th-century Europe who ruled according to the principles of the Enlightenment (p. 578)

déspotas ilustrados los monarcas absolutos europeos del siglo XVIII, que gobernaban según los principios de la Ilustración (pág. 578)

Enlightenment a time of optimism and possibility from the late 1600s to the late 1700s; also called the Age of Reason (p. 574)

Ilustración época de optimismo y nuevas posibilidades que comenzó en Europa en el siglo XVII; también llamada Edad de la Razón (pág. 574)

entrepreneur a risk taker who starts a new business within the economic system of capitalism (p. 647)

empresario persona que corre un riesgo para emprender un negocio dentro del sistema económico capitalista (pág. 647)

epidemic an outbreak of a contagious disease that spreads rapidly and affects many people (p. 998)

epidemia algo que afecta a muchas personas y se propaga o extiende rápidamente (pág. 998)

ethnic cleansing the elimination of an ethnic group from society through killing or forced migration (p. 897)

limpieza étnica eliminación de un grupo étnico de una sociedad, ya sea asesinando o expulsando del área a los miembros de dicho grupo (pág. 897)

Eucharist a ceremony of some Christian denominations that commemorates Jesus' last supper with his disciples (p. 187)

Eucaristía ceremonia especial del cristianismo que conmemora la última cena de Jesús y sus discípulos (pág. 187)

Exodus the escape of the Hebrews from Egypt (p. 46)

Éxodo huida de los hebreos de Egipto (pág. 46)

extraterritoriality the right of citizens to be tried in the courts of their native country rather than in the courts of the country that they are living in (p. 747)

extraterritorialidad derecho de un ciudadano a ser juzgado por una corte de su país natal y no del país donde vive (pág. 747)

F

factors of production the basic resources for industrialization, such as land, labor, and capital (p. 635)

factores de producción recursos básicos para la industrialización, como la tierra, la mano de obra y el capital (pág. 635)

factory a place where goods are manufactured in mass quantity (p. 636)

fábrica lugar de producción masiva de bienes (pág. 636)

famine an extreme shortage of food (p. 997)

hambruna escasez extrema de alimentos (pág. 997)

fascism a totalitarian system of government that focuses on the good of the state rather than on the good of the individual citizens (p. 823)

fascismo sistema totalitario de gobierno que se centra en el bien del estado y no en el bienestar de los ciudadanos individuales (pág. 823)

fealty the loyalty owed by a vassal to his feudal lord (p. 383)

fidelidad lealtad que un vasallo le debe a su señor feudal (pág. 383)

federal system a system of government in which power is divided between a central, or a federal, government and individual states (p. 584)

sistema federal sistema de gobierno donde el poder se divide entre un gobierno central o federal, y estados individuales (pág. 584)

Fertile Crescent a region of rich farmland that curves from the Mediterranean Sea to the Persian Gulf centered on the area between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers (p. 33)

Media Luna de las tierras fértiles región de ricas tierras de cultivo en Medio Oriente, que se extiende desde el mediterráneo hasta los ríos Tigris y Éufrates (pág. 33)

feudal system a political and social system based on the granting of land in exchange for loyalty, military assistance, and other services (p. 383)

sistema feudal sistema político y social basado en la cesión de tierras a cambio de lealtad, protección militar y otros servicios (pág. 383)

fief a grant of land from a lord to a vassal (p. 383)

feudo cesión de tierras por parte de un señor a un vasallo (pág. 383)

filial piety a love and respect for one's parents and ancestors (p. 229)

piedad filial amor y respeto por los propios padres y antepasados (pág. 229)

Final Solution the Nazi Party's plan to murder the entire Jewish population of Europe and the Soviet Union (p. 855)

Solución Final plan del Partido Nazi para asesinar a toda la población judía de Europa y la Unión Soviética (pág. 855)

First Estate in pre-Revolution France, the clergy (p. 594)

primer estado en la Francia prerrevolucionaria, el clero (pág. 594)

Five Pillars of Islam behaviors and obligations that are common to all Muslims, which include the profession of faith, the performance of five daily prayers, the giving of alms, the requirement to fast, and the journey to Mecca, or Hajj (p. 259)

cinco pilares del Islam prácticas y obligaciones comunes a todos los musulmanes, que incluyen la profesión de la fe, rezar cinco plegarias diarias, dar limosnas, ayunar y peregrinar a la Meca, o hajj (pág. 259)

flying buttress an arched stone support on the outside of buildings, which allows builders to construct higher walls (p. 414)

arbotante estructura de piedra en forma de arco que sirve de apoyo para el exterior de un edificio, lo que permite construir muros más altos (pág. 414)

forum the assembly place of an ancient Roman city (p. 165)

foro lugar de asamblea en una antigua ciudad romana (pág. 165)

Four Noble Truths in Buddhism, the guidelines that are the essence of the Buddha's teaching: that life is suffering, that desires cause suffering, that the annihilation of desires can relieve suffering, and that the way to relieve suffering is to follow the Eightfold Path (p. 104)

Cuatro Nobles Verdades en el budismo, pautas esenciales de las enseñanzas de Buda: que la vida es sufrimiento, que los deseos causan sufrimiento, que la anulación de los deseos puede aliviar el sufrimiento, que para lograr esto se debe seguir el sendero óctuple (pág. 104)

Fourteen Points President Woodrow Wilson's plan for organizing post-World War I Europe and for avoiding future wars (p. 797)

Catorce Puntos plan del presidente Woodrow Wilson para organizar Europa después de la Primera Guerra Mundial y evitar futuras guerras (pág. 797)

Franco-Prussian War (1870–1871) a war fought between France and Prussia that ended in the defeat of France and the unification of Germany (p. 720)

Guerra franco-prusiana (1870–1871) guerra entre Francia y Prusia que terminó con la derrota de Francia y la fundación de Alemania (pág. 720)

free trade the exchange of goods among nations without barriers such as tariffs, or taxes (p. 993)

libre comercio intercambio de bienes entre naciones sin barreras como aranceles o impuestos (pág. 993)

friars members of certain Roman Catholic religious orders; first prominent in the Europe of the late Middle Ages; unlike monks, friars preached in towns (p. 420)

frailes monjes que predicaban para los pobres en las ciudades europeas en desarrollo (pág. 420)

G

Gallipoli Campaign (1915) failed attempt by the Allies in World War I to take control of the Dardanelles (p. 787)

campana de Gallipoli (1915) intento de los Aliados en la Primera Guerra Mundial de tomar el control de los Dardanelos; terminó en un fracaso (pág. 787)

Gang of Four powerful group of radicals, including Madame Mao, responsible for many of the excesses of China's Cultural Revolution in the 1960s and 1970s; they lost power after Mao's death in 1976 (p. 923)

Banda de los Cuatro grupo comunista radical de la señora Mao, que quería continuar la Revolución cultural en China (pág. 923)

Ge'ez an ancient Afro-Asiatic language; it is still used today as a liturgical language in the Ethiopian Coptic Church (p. 289)

ge'ez antigua lengua afroasiática; todavía tiene un uso litúrgico en la Iglesia copta de Etiopía (pág. 289)

General Assembly a United Nations body consisting of all the member nations (p. 1041)

Asamblea General de Naciones Unidas; está formada por todas las naciones miembro (pág. 1041)

genetic engineering changing the genetic makeup of a plant or animal to create a new type (p. 1008)

ingeniería genética cambio de la estructura genética de una planta o un animal para crear un nuevo tipo (pág. 1008)

genocide the killing of an entire people (p. 788)

genocidio asesinato de todo un pueblo (pág. 788)

gentry wealthy landowners involved in commercial activities, such as trade, who have political power (p. 315)

pequeña nobleza terratenientes ricos que participaban en actividades comerciales y tenían poder político (pág. 315)

geocentric theory scientific theory that has the earth as the center of the universe with the sun and stars revolving around it (p. 568)

teoría geocéntrica teoría científica que afirma que la Tierra es el centro del universo y el Sol y las estrellas giran a su alrededor (pág. 568)

ghazis warriors for the Islamic faith (p. 500)

gazis guerreros de la fe islámica (pág. 500)

ghetto an area where minority groups live (p. 855)

gueto área donde vive un grupo de personas de un determinado origen étnico (pág. 855)

glasnost "openness"; refers to a new era of media freedom in the Soviet Union under Mikhail Gorbachev in the 1980s (p. 892)

glasnost "apertura": se refiere a una nueva era de libertad de los medios de comunicación en la Unión Soviética bajo el gobierno de Mikhail Gorbachev (pág. 892)

global warming an increase in the average temperature of the earth's atmosphere (p. 1007)

calentamiento global aumento de la temperatura promedio de la atmósfera terrestre (pág. 1007)

globalization the process in which trade and culture link together countries around the world (p. 992)

globalización hacer global o universal el alcance o la aplicación de algo (pág. 992)

Glorious Revolution (1688) a nonviolent revolution in which leaders of Britain's Parliament invited Mary, daughter of King James II, and her husband, the Dutch ruler William of Orange, to replace King James II (p. 550)

Revolución gloriosa (1688) revolución pacífica en que los líderes del Parlamento británico invitaron a María, hija del rey Jacobo II, y a su marido, el gobernante holandés Guillermo de Orange, a sustituir al rey Jacobo II (pág. 550)

glyphs a symbolic picture carved onto a surface (p. 206)

glifos dibujo simbólico grabado en una superficie (pág. 206)

Gothic a style of church architecture developed during the 1100s characterized by tall spires and flying buttresses (p. 414)

gótica estilo de arquitectura religiosa caracterizado por chapiteles altos y arbotantes que se desarrolló en el siglo XII (pág. 414)

Great Depression (1929–1930s) a severe worldwide depression that followed the collapse of the United States stock market; prices and wages fell, business activity slowed, and unemployment rose (p. 813)

Gran Depresión (1929–década de 1930) grave crisis económica mundial que siguió al colapso del mercado de valores de Estados Unidos; los precios y los salarios bajaron, la actividad comercial disminuyó y aumentó el desempleo (pág. 813)

Great Leap Forward (1958) Mao Zedong's second Five-Year Plan for China; its goal was to speed progress (p. 921)

Gran Salto Adelante (1958) segundo plan de cinco años para China de Mao Tsé-Tung, cuyo fin era acelerar el progreso (pág. 921)

green revolution a significant increase in agricultural productivity resulting from the introduction of high-yield varieties of grains, the use of pesticides, and improved management techniques (p. 1008)

revolución verde aumento significativo de la productividad agrícola debido a la introducción de variedades de cereales de alto rendimiento, el uso de pesticidas y la mejora de las técnicas de administración (pág. 1008)

griots professional West African storytellers (p. 286)

griots contadores de cuentos profesional de África occidental (pág. 286)

guilds associations of people who worked at the same craft or trade during the Middle Ages (p. 411)

gremios asociaciones de personas que trabajaban en el mismo oficio o comercio en la Edad Media (pág. 411)

guillotine a device used during the French Revolution for beheading people (p. 602)

guillotina aparato usado durante la Revolución francesa para decapitar a las personas (pág. 602)

Gulag a Soviet forced labor camp or prison, used especially for political dissidents (p. 825)

gulag campo de trabajos forzados de la Unión Soviética, destinado especialmente para los prisioneros políticos (pág. 825)

H

haiku a Japanese poem that consists of 17 syllables set in three lines (p. 521)

haiku poema japonés que consiste en 17 sílabas dispuestas en tres versos (pág. 521)

Hanseatic League an organization of north-German cities and towns that organized and controlled trade throughout northern Europe from the 1200s through the 1400s (p. 409)

Liga hanseática organización del norte de Alemania que se encargaba de organizar y controlar el comercio de todo el norte de Europa durante los siglos XIII, XIV y XV (pág. 409)

hegira Muhammad's journey from Mecca to Medina (p. 258)

hégira viaje de Mohamed de la Meca a Medina (pág. 258)

heliocentric theory scientific theory that has the sun as the center of the universe with the earth rotating around the sun (p. 569)

teoría heliocéntrica teoría científica que afirma que el Sol es el centro del universo y la Tierra gira a su alrededor (pág. 569)

Hellenistic the blending of Greek cultures with those of Persia, Egypt, and Central Asia following the conquests of Alexander the Great (p. 153)

helenístico mezcla de las culturas griegas con las culturas de Persia, Egipto y Asia Central (pág. 153)

helots in ancient Greece, state slaves (p. 130)

ilotas en la antigua Grecia, esclavos del estado (pág. 130)

heresy an opinion that goes against the teachings of a church (p. 419)

herejía opinión que va en contra de las enseñanzas de una iglesia (pág. 419)

hieroglyphics a form of ancient writing in which picture symbols represent sounds (p. 78)

jeroglíficos forma de escritura antigua en la que los sonidos se representan con dibujos (pág. 78)

Hindu-Arabic numerals the number system that we use today, created by Indian scholars and brought to Europe by Arabs (p. 241)

números indoarábigos sistema numérico que usamos hoy en día; fue creado por estudiosos de la India y traído a Europa por los árabes (pág. 241)

Hinduism the largest religion in India; Hindus believe that everything in the world is a power of Brahman, the single great universal being; they also believe in reincarnation and strive to break free from the cycle of rebirth (p. 99)

hinduismo la religión más importante de la India; los hindúes creen en la reencarnación y se esfuerzan por liberarse del ciclo de renacimiento (pág. 99)

Holocaust the killing of millions of Jews and others by the Nazis during World War II (p. 856)

Holocausto asesinato de millones de judíos y otras personas por los nazis durante la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 856)

Holy Land region that included Jerusalem and the area around it, considered holy by Jews, Christians, and Muslims (p. 404)

Tierra Santa la región donde Jesús fue crucificado y enterrado (pág. 404)

hominid an early humanlike creature that is believed to be the ancestor of humans (p. 6)

homínido criatura primitiva parecida a los humanos, de quien se cree que descienden los humanos (pág. 6)

hoplites foot soldiers in ancient Greece (p. 130)

hoplitas soldados de infantería de la antigua Grecia (pág. 130)

hubris great pride (p. 132)

hibris orgullo desmesurado (pág. 132)

Huguenot a French Protestant (p. 541)

hugonote protestante francés (pág. 541)

humanism an intellectual movement during the Renaissance that focused on the study of worldly subjects, such as poetry and philosophy, and on human potential and achievements (p. 439)

humanismo movimiento intelectual del Renacimiento que se centró en el estudio de temas terrenales como la poesía y la filosofía, y en el potencial humano y sus logros (pág. 439)

Hundred Days (1815) period that marks the time between Napoleon's return to Paris from Elba (March 20), his final defeat at Waterloo (June 18), and the restoration of King Louis XVIII (June 28) (p. 616)

Cien Días (1815) período que marca la época entre el regreso de Napoleón a París desde Elba (20 de marzo) y la restauración del rey Luis XVIII (28 de junio) (pág. 616)

Hundred Years' War (1337–1453) war fought between France and England for control of the French throne (p. 420)

Guerra de los Cien Años (1337–1453) guerra entre Francia e Inglaterra por el control del trono francés (pág. 420)

hunter-gatherers people who hunt animals and gather wild plants to provide for their needs (p. 10)

cazadores y recolectores personas que cazan animales y recolectan plantas silvestres para satisfacer sus necesidades (pág. 10)

hydrogen bomb a nuclear weapon that gets its power from the fusing together of hydrogen atoms (p. 883)

bomba de hidrógeno arma nuclear que debe su potencia a la fusión de átomos de hidrógeno (pág. 883)

hyperinflation an extremely high level of inflation that grows rapidly in a short period of time (p. 975)

hiperinflación nivel de inflación extremadamente alto que aumenta con rapidez en un corto período de tiempo (pág. 975)

I

icon a painting or carving of Jesus, the Virgin Mary, or a saint (p. 350)

icono pintura o grabado de Jesús, la Virgen María o un santo (pág. 350)

illumination the process of decorating a written manuscript with pictures or designs (p. 414)

ilustración proceso de decorar un manuscrito con dibujos o diseños (pág. 414)

import-substitution led industrialization an economic policy of replacing certain imported goods with a country's own manufactured goods (p. 968)

industrialización de sustitución de importaciones política económica que consiste en reemplazar ciertos bienes importados por bienes producidos en el país (pág. 968)

impressionism a new style of painting that began in France in the 1860s in which artists used light, vivid color, and seeming motion to capture an impression of a scene (p. 676)

impresionismo novedoso estilo de pintura que comenzó en Francia en la década de 1860 en la que los artistas usaban juegos con la luz, el movimiento y el uso de colores vivos (pág. 676)

indemnity compensation that is paid to a nation for the damage inflicted upon it in a war (p. 618)

indemnización compensación que se paga a una nación por los daños causados a dicha nación (pág. 618)

Indian National Congress a major political party in India; founded in 1885 to press for greater rights for Indians under British rule, it later became one of the main forces calling for Indian independence (p. 744)

Congreso Nacional de la India importante partido político de la India, fundado en 1885 con el fin de organizar a los ciudadanos en la lucha contra el Imperio británico (pág. 744)

Indo-Europeans a group of semi-nomadic people who migrated from southern Russia to the Indian subcontinent around 1700 BC (p. 40)

indoeuropeos grupo de pueblos seminómadas que migraron desde el sur de Rusia hasta el subcontinente indio hacia el año 1700 a.C. (pág. 40)

indulgences pardons issued by the pope of the Roman Catholic Church that could reduce a soul's time in purgatory; from the 1100s to the 1500s, indulgences could be purchased, which led to corruption (p. 450)

indulgencias perdones comprados a la Iglesia católica con el fin de evitar un castigo por un pecado (pág. 450)

Industrial Revolution a period of rapid growth in the use of machines in manufacturing and production that began in the mid-1700s (p. 633)

revolución industrial período de rápido crecimiento del uso de las máquinas para la producción; comenzó a mediados del siglo XVIII (pág. 633)

industrialization developing industries for the production of goods (p. 635)

industrialización desarrollo de las industrias que producen bienes (pág. 635)

inflation increased prices for goods and services combined with the reduced value of money (p. 189)

inflación aumento del precio de los bienes y servicios combinado con la reducción del valor del dinero (pág. 189)

Inquisition institution of the Roman Catholic Church that sought to eliminate heresy by seeking out and punishing heretics; especially active in Spain in the later 1400s and 1500s (p. 420)

Inquisición institución de la Iglesia católica romana que intentaba eliminar la herejía persiguiendo y castigando a los herejes; fue particularmente activa en España en el siglo XV (pág. 420)

interchangeable parts identical machine-made parts that can be substituted for each other in manufacturing (p. 645)

piezas intercambiables partes idénticas que se pueden reemplazar entre sí (pág. 645)

interdependence a relationship between countries in which they rely on one another for resources, goods, or services (p. 992)

interdependencia relación entre países que se produce cuando dependen mutuamente para poder obtener recursos, bienes o servicios (pág. 992)

Internet an electronic system that allows the linking of millions of individual computers around the world (p. 898)

Internet sistema electrónico que conecta a millones de computadoras individuales de todo el mundo (pág. 898)

intifada a violent uprising by Palestinians against the Israeli occupation of the West Bank and Gaza Strip in the late 1980s (p. 956)

intifada levantamiento violento de los palestinos contra la ocupación israelí de Cisjordania y la franja de Gaza a finales de la década de 1980 (pág. 956)

Iranian Revolution (1978–1979) a revolution against the shah of Iran led by the Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini, which resulted in Iran becoming an Islamic republic with Khomeini as its leader (p. 958)

Revolución iraní (1978–1979) revolución contra el sha de Irán dirigida por el ayatolá Ruhollah Khomeini, cuyo resultado fue que Irán se transformó en una república islámica dirigida por Khomeini (pág. 958)

iron curtain term coined by Winston Churchill in 1946 to describe an imaginary line dividing Communist countries in the Soviet bloc from countries in Western Europe during the Cold War (p. 879)

cortina de hierro término creado por Winston Churchill en 1946 para describir una línea imaginaria que separaba a los países comunistas del bloque soviético de los países de Europa occidental durante la Guerra Fría (pág. 879)

Iroquois League an alliance of five (later, six) Native American tribes formed in the 1500s for defense and self-governance (p. 202)

Liga de Iroqueses alianza de indígenas estadounidenses, formada para gobernarse a sí mismos (pág. 202)

Islam a monotheistic religion whose prophet is Muhammad and whose holy book is the Qur'an; the term means "achieving peace through surrender to God" (p. 258)

Islam religión enseñada por Mahoma; el término significa literalmente "entregarse" o "someterse" (pág. 258)

isolationism staying out of the affairs and wars of other nations; the position initially held by the United States at the beginning of World War II (p. 842)
aislacionismo permanecer al margen de los asuntos y los conflictos bélicos de otras naciones; postura que mantenía Estados Unidos al comienzo de la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 842)

J

Jainism a religion of India, founded about the same time as Buddhism (c. 500 BC) and in reaction to some Hindu practices; believers renounce worldly things, embrace self-discipline, and practice nonviolence (p. 102)

jainismo religión que promueve la no violencia y cuyos miembros prometen decir sólo la verdad y no robar (pág. 102)

Janissaries highly trained soldiers in the elite guard of the Ottoman Empire (p. 500)

Jenízaros soldados sumamente entrenados de la guardia de élite del Imperio otomano (pág. 500)

Jesuits members of a Catholic religious order, the Society of Jesus, founded by Ignatius Loyola in 1534 (p. 456)

jesuitas miembros de la orden católica de la Compañía de Jesús, fundada por Ignacio de Loyola en 1534 (pág. 456)

jihad “struggle for the faith”; can be thought of as an individual or communal struggle; as the latter, the term embraces notions of defending the Muslim community and holy war (p. 260)

jihad “lucha por la fe”; lucha para obedecer la voluntad divina en la fe musulmana (pág. 260)

joint-stock companies businesses formed by groups of people who jointly make an investment and share in the profits and losses (p. 487)

sociedad por acciones empresas formada por personas que realizan una inversión conjunta y comparten las ganancias y las pérdidas (pág. 487)

joint ventures business partnerships and co-ownership (p. 1032)

empresa conjunta asociación comercial y copropiedad (pág. 1032)

journeyman a skilled worker who was paid wages by the master of a guild (p. 412)

oficial trabajador especializado que recibía su salario del jefe de un gremio (pág. 412)

Judaism a monotheistic religion originating with the Israelites, tracing its origins to Abraham, and having its spiritual and ethical principles embodied chiefly in the Hebrew Scriptures and the Talmud (p. 45)

judaísmo religión monoteísta de los israelitas, cuyos orígenes se remontan a Abraham; sus principios espirituales y éticos se encuentran en las Escrituras Hebreas y el Talmud (pág. 45)

junta a group of leaders who rule jointly (p. 972)

junta grupo de líderes que gobiernan juntos (pág. 972)

K

kabuki a form of Japanese theater dating from the 1600s, featuring a highly stylized blend of singing and dancing; performances can last all day (p. 521)

kabuki forma de teatro japonés que podía durar todo un día y en la cual los actores cantaban, bailaban e interactuaban con el público (pág. 521)

kamikazes in World War II, Japanese pilots who loaded their aircraft with bombs and crashed them into enemy ships (p. 850)

kamikazes en la Segunda Guerra Mundial, pilotos que se estrellaban con su avión cargado de explosivos contra un barco enemigo (pág. 850)

karma in Hinduism, the totality of a person's good and bad deeds and the way in which they affect that individual's fate in the afterlife (p. 99)

karma en el hinduismo, la totalidad de las acciones buenas y malas de una persona y la forma en que afectarán su destino en la otra vida (pág. 99)

khan a Mongol chief or ruler (p. 317)

khan jefe o gobernante mongol (pág. 317)

Khmer Rouge Communists trained by the Vietcong who came to power in Cambodia in 1975 (p. 919)

Khmer Rouge comunistas entrenados por el Vietcong que se hicieron con el poder en Camboya en 1975 (pág. 919)

kivas underground chambers in a Pueblo village, used by the men for religious ceremonies or councils (p. 200)

kivas cámaras subterráneas de los indios Pueblo, usadas por los hombres para celebrar ceremonias religiosas o consejos (pág. 200)

knights in medieval Europe, nobles who were members of a lord's heavily armored cavalry (p. 383)

caballeros en la Europa medieval, nobles que eran miembros de la caballería fuertemente armada de un señor (pág. 383)

Koryo dynasty (835–1392) Korean dynasty founded by the warlord Wang Kon (p. 326)

dinastía Koryo (835–1392) dinastía coreana fundada por el caudillo Wang Kon (pág. 326)

Kristallnacht (1938) “night of broken glass”; an event that occurred on the nights of November 9 and 10 in which Hitler’s Nazis encouraged Germans to riot against Jews; nearly 100 Jews died (p. 827)

Kristallnacht (1938) “noche de cristales rotos”; suceso que tuvo lugar en las noches del 9 y 10 de noviembre, en el que ciudadanos alemanes, alentados por los nazis de Hitler, atacaron a los judíos; murieron casi 100 judíos (pág. 827)

L

labor union an organization representing workers’ interests (p. 644)

sindicato organización que representa los intereses de los trabajadores (pág. 644)

laissez-faire a business system where companies are allowed to conduct business without interference by the government (p. 646)

laissez-faire sistema comercial donde las empresas pueden llevar a cabo actividades comerciales sin interferencia del gobierno (pág. 646)

Latin the language of ancient Rome (p. 182)

latín la lengua de Roma (pág. 182)

League of Nations an international body of nations formed after World War I to prevent future wars (p. 797)

Liga de las Naciones cuerpo internacional de naciones formado después de la Primera Guerra Mundial para evitar futuras guerras (pág. 797)

Legalism a Chinese political philosophy that holds that the most effective government is that which rules the people by a harsh set of laws (p. 224)

legalismo filosofía política china que sostiene que el gobierno más eficaz es el que gobierna mediante un conjunto de leyes severas (pág. 224)

Liberation Theology the belief, common in Latin America in the late 1900s, that the Roman Catholic Church should be active in the struggle for economic and political equality (p. 968)

teología de la liberación creencia de que la iglesia cristiana debe participar activamente en la lucha por la igualdad política y económica (pág. 968)

loess fine yellowish soil blown from the desert regions (p. 109)

loess tierra fina y amarillenta de algunas regiones desérticas (pág. 109)

logic the process of making inferences (p. 144)

lógica proceso de hacer inferencias (pág. 144)

Long March (1934) the 6,000-mile journey made by Communist Chinese to escape Nationalist troops (p. 808)

Larga Marcha (1934) viaje de 6,000 millas hecho por los comunistas chinos para escapar de las tropas nacionalistas (pág. 808)

Louisiana Purchase (1803) the purchase of land between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains that nearly doubled the size of the United States (p. 702)

Compra de Luisiana (1803) compra de tierra entre el río Mississippi y las montañas Rocallosas que casi duplicó el tamaño de Estados Unidos (pág. 702)

lyric poetry a type of poetry that gained its name from the lyre, an instrument that played while the poetry was sung (p. 145)

poesía lírica tipo de poesía que debe su nombre a la lira, instrumento que acompañaba la poesía cantada (pág. 145)

M

Magna Carta (1215) a charter agreed to by King John of England that granted nobles certain rights and restricted the king’s powers (p. 389)

Carta Magna (1215) carta de libertades aceptadas por el rey Juan de Inglaterra, que obligaban al respetara ciertos derechos (pág. 389)

Magyars a Hungarian ethnic group (p. 724)

magiares grupo étnico de Hungría (pág. 724)

maize corn (p. 202)

maíz grano (pág. 202)

Manchukuo Japanese puppet state (1932-1945) formed in Manchuria and eastern Inner Mongolia (p. 822)

Manchukuo antiguo estado del este de Asia en Manchuria y el este de Mongolia Interior; fue establecido como estado títere en 1932 después de que los japoneses invadieran Manchuria en 1931 (pág. 822)

Manchurian Incident (1931) using an explosion on a Japanese-controlled Southern Manchurian railroad as an excuse, Japanese military forces conquered Manchuria and set up a puppet government (p. 821)

incidente de Manchuria (1931) plan de los japoneses para incriminar a los chinos en la explosión de una bomba en un ferrocarril controlado por los japoneses en la región china de Manchuria; el gobierno japonés se negó a apoyar la acción con sus tropas, lo que produjo una importante crisis diplomática en Japón (pág. 821)

Mandate of Heaven the Chinese belief that royal authority is the result of divine approval (p. 111)

Mandato del Cielo creencia china de que la autoridad del rey es el efecto de la aprobación divina (pág. 111)

mandates territories once part of the Ottoman Empire that the League of Nations gave to other European powers to rule after World War I (p. 798)
mandatos después de la Primera Guerra Mundial, los territorios del Imperio otomano que serían gobernados por potencias europeas (pág. 798)

manifest destiny a belief shared by many Americans in the mid-1800s that the United States should expand from the Atlantic to the Pacific oceans (p. 703)
destino manifiesto creencia compartida por muchos estadounidenses a mediados del siglo XIX de que Estados Unidos debía expandirse desde el océano Atlántico hasta el Pacífico (pág. 703)

manorial system an economic system in the Middle Ages that was built around large estates called manors (p. 384)
sistema de feudos sistema económico de la Edad Media cuya base eran grandes propiedades llamadas feudos (pág. 384)

maquiladora a large industrial assembly plant located in the border towns of Mexico that produces finished goods for export to the United States (p. 1027)
maquiladora gran planta de montaje industrial ubicada en las ciudades fronterizas de México en la que se fabrican productos elaborados para exportar a Estados Unidos (pág. 1027)

Marshall Plan (1947) plan for the economic reconstruction of Europe after World War II (p. 879)
Plan Marshall (1947) plan para la reconstrucción económica de Europa tras la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 879)

martyrs people put to death for their beliefs (p. 186)
mártires personas ejecutadas por sus creencias (pág. 186)

Marxism-Leninism the political and economic philosophy of the Bolsheviks, expounded by Vladimir Lenin, which looked to an uprising of the proletariat that would abolish private property and enforce social equality (p. 792)
marxismo-leninismo filosofía política y económica de los bolcheviques; se concentraba en el levantamiento contra los burgueses; refutaba el capitalismo y tenía como objetivo final la creación de una sociedad sin clases (pág. 792)

mass production the system of manufacturing large numbers of identical items (p. 645)
producción en masa sistema de fabricación que consiste en producir gran cantidad de artículos idénticos (pág. 645)

Mau Mau a violent movement in Kenya during the 1960s, led by Kikuyu farmers, to rid the country of white settlers (p. 939)
Mau Mau movimiento emprendido por los agricultores kikuyu con el fin de expulsar de Kenia por medios violentos a los agricultores blancos (pág. 939)

medieval the time period in western European history known as the Middle Ages (p. 362)
medieval período de la historia de Europa occidental conocido como la Edad Media (pág. 362)

megacity an urban area with a population of 10 million or more (p. 1027)
megalópolis ciudad con una población de 10 o más millones de habitantes (pág. 1027)

megaliths huge stones used for burial or religious purposes (p. 15)
megalitos grandes piedras usadas en tumbas o para fines religiosos (pág. 15)

mercantilism an economic system used from about the 1500s to the 1700s that held that a nation's power was directly related to its wealth (p. 484)
mercantilismo sistema económico usado desde el siglo XVI hasta el siglo XVIII aproximadamente, que afirmaba que el poder de una nación estaba directamente asociado a su riqueza (pág. 484)

Mesopotamia the area that lies between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in Southwest Asia (p. 33)
Mesopotamia área ubicada entre los ríos Tigris y Éufrates, en el suroeste de Asia (pág. 33)

Messiah in Judaism, a savior sent by God (p. 184)
Mesías en el judaísmo, un salvador enviado por Dios (pág. 184)

Middle Passage the name for voyages that brought enslaved Africans across the Atlantic Ocean to North America and the West Indies (p. 489)
Paso Central viaje en el que los esclavos africanos atravesaban el océano Atlántico hasta llegar a América del Norte y las Antillas (pág. 489)

Middle Way basic Buddhist teachings of the Eightfold Path; it advises people to live in moderation, avoiding the extremes of either comfort or discomfort in the search for nirvana (p. 105)
Camino Medio enseñanzas básicas del sendero óctuple; aconseja vivir con moderación y evitar los extremos de la comodidad o la incomodidad en la búsqueda del nirvana (pág. 105)

minarets towers attached to the outside of a mosque, from where a crier calls Muslims to worship (p. 274)
minaretes torres adosadas al exterior de una mezquita desde la cual un voceador convoca a los musulmanes a decir sus plegarias (pág. 274)

moksha in Hinduism, the escape from the cycle of rebirth (p. 100)
moksha en el hinduismo, el hecho de liberarse del ciclo de renacimiento (pág. 100)

monasticism voluntary separation from society, usually in monasteries, to dedicate one's life to God; prevalent in the Middle Ages (p. 363)
monacato separación voluntaria de la sociedad para dedicar la vida a Dios (pág. 363)

monotheism the belief in one god (p. 49)

monoteísmo creencia en un solo dios (pág. 49)

Monroe Doctrine (1823) U.S. President James Monroe's statement forbidding further colonization in the Americas and declaring that any attempt by a foreign country to colonize would be considered an act of hostility by the United States (p. 702)

Doctrina Monroe (1823) declaración del presidente Estados Unidos James Monroe en la que se prohibía la colonización del continente americano y se advertía que todo intento de colonización por parte de cualquier país extranjero sería considerado un acto hostil (pág. 702)

monsoons seasonal winds in India (p. 94)

monzóns vientos estacional de la India (pág. 94)

mosaics images created with tiny bits of colored tile fitted together and cemented into place (p. 349)

mosaicos imágenes creadas con pequeños trozos de azulejos de colores colocados uno al lado del otro y pegados con cemento (pág. 349)

mosque a building for Muslim prayer (p. 260)

mezquita edificio de oración de los musulmanes (pág. 260)

movable type metal blocks on which symbols were etched (p. 314)

tipo móvil bloque de metal donde se grababan símbolos (pág. 314)

Mughal Empire a Muslim empire in India (1526–1761) founded by Babur (p. 505)

Imperio mughal imperio musulmán en la India (1526–1761) fundado por Babur (pág. 505)

multinational corporations large companies that operate in several different countries and sell their products around the world (p. 992)

corporaciones multinacionales grandes empresas que operan en varios países diferentes y venden sus productos en todo el mundo (pág. 992)

mummification the process of preserving the body with chemicals after death (p. 75)

momificación proceso de preservar el cuerpo mediante sustancias químicas después de la muerte (pág. 75)

Muslim League political group founded in 1906 to protect the rights of Indian Muslims; it later became one of the main forces calling for India independence and a separate nation for Indian Muslims (p. 745)

Liga musulmana grupo político de musulmanes de la India que buscaban proteger sus derechos (pág. 745)

Muslims followers of Islam (p. 258)

musulmanes seguidores del Islam (pág. 258)

N

Nanjing Massacre (1937) the murder of as many as 300,000 Chinese men, women, and children by Japanese troops (p. 822)

masacre de Nanjing (1937) asesinato de nada menos que 300 mil hombres, mujeres y niños chinos por parte de las tropas japonesas (pág. 822)

nationalism sense of pride and devotion to one's nation (p. 613)

nacionalismo sentido de orgullo y lealtad por la propia nación (pág. 613)

NATO North Atlantic Treaty Organization; a defensive military alliance of twelve Western nations formed in 1949 (p. 880)

OTAN Organización del Tratado del Atlántico Norte; alianza militar defensiva de doce naciones occidentales formada en 1949 (pág. 880)

navigation the guidance of ships from place to place (p. 379)

navegación acto de guiar embarcaciones de un lugar a otro (pág. 379)

Nazi Party National Socialist Party; fascist political party of Adolf Hitler governed on totalitarian lines and advocating German racial superiority (p. 826)

Partido Nazi Partido Nacional Socialista de los Trabajadores Alemanes; partido político fascista liderado por Adolf Hitler que se basaba en el totalitarismo, la superioridad racial y el control gubernamental de la industria (pág. 826)

negritude movement African and Afro-Caribbean literary movement founded in Paris in the 1930s that rejected European models and promoted pride in African cultural identity (p. 947)

movimiento de la negritud movimiento literario fundado por un grupo de estudiantes africanos y afro-caribeños que vivían en París en la década de 1930 (pág. 947)

Neolithic Era the New Stone Age; the time period after the Paleolithic Era, marked by the use of tools (p. 13)

Neolítico Nueva Edad de Piedra; periodo posterior al Paleolítico que se destaca por el uso de herramientas (pág. 13)

Neolithic Revolution a period in human history marked by the introduction of agriculture and a shift from food gathering to food production (p. 13)

revolución neolítica período de la historia del hombre marcado por la introducción de la agricultura y el paso de la recolección de alimentos a su producción (pág. 13)

neutral in a war, not aiding either side (p. 781)

neutral en una guerra, que no apoya a ningún bando (pág. 781)

New Deal U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt's plan of economic relief, recovery, and reforms for the country during the Great Depression (p. 815)

Nuevo Trato plan del presidente Franklin D. Roosevelt destinado a proporcionar ayuda económica, y a recuperar y reformar económicamente al país después de la Gran Depresión (pág. 815)

New Economic Policy Lenin's plan, started in 1921, to allow limited capitalism, especially among farmers, in order to restore the Soviet economy (p. 793)

Nueva Política Económica Respuesta de Lenin a los campesinos y trabajadores que sufrían después de la Revolución Rusa; autorizó un poco de capitalismo para que estas personas pudieran recuperarse (pág. 793)

NGO a non-governmental organization, or a group not affiliated with any government, formed to provide services or to push for a certain public policy (p. 997)

ONG organización no gubernamental, o grupo no afiliado a ningún gobierno, que se forma para brindar servicios o promover cierta política pública (pág. 997)

nirvana in Buddhism, the release from the world and the achievement of peace and enlightenment (p. 105)

nirvana en el budismo, la liberación del mundo y el logro de la iluminación en una paz espiritual y perfecta (pág. 105)

Nok one of the earliest African peoples to make iron tools (500 BC–AD 200), the Nok lived in what is today Nigeria (p. 287)

nok pueblo que vivió en lo que hoy en día es Nigeria; fue el primero en hacer herramientas agrícolas de hierro (pág. 287)

nomads people who move from place to place in search of food and water (p. 10)

nómadas personas que se trasladan de un lugar a otro en busca de comida y agua (pág. 10)

nonaggression pact an agreement between nations to not attack one another (p. 838)

pacto de no agresión acuerdo entre naciones de no atacarse entre sí (pág. 838)

nonaligned nations nations who refused to ally with either side in the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union (p. 886)

naciones no alineadas naciones que se niegan a aliarse con uno de los bandos en un conflicto (pág. 886)

North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) a free trade agreement that eliminated tariffs on trade between Mexico, the United States, and Canada (p. 980)

Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte (NAFTA, por sus siglas en inglés) acuerdo de libre comercio que eliminó las barreras comerciales entre México, Estados Unidos y Canadá (pág. 980)

Nuremberg Laws Nazi laws that eliminated citizenship and many civil and property rights for Jews (p. 827)

Leyes de Nuremberg leyes de los nazis que negaban la ciudadanía y muchos derechos civiles y de propiedad a los judíos (pág. 827)

Nuremberg trials (1945-1949) trials in which an Allied military tribunal tried several dozen top Nazi and military officials; many were executed for war crimes (p. 878)

juicios de Nuremberg (1945-1949) juicios en los que un tribunal militar de los Aliados juzgó a varias decenas de autoridades militares y nazis de alto rango; muchos fueron ejecutados por crímenes de guerra (pág. 878)

O

obelisks tall, thin pillars with pyramid-shaped tops (p. 73)

obeliscos pilares altos y delgados cuya parte superior tiene forma de pirámide (pág. 73)

offshoring the movement of an entire factory or other business enterprise abroad (p. 1031)

externalización acto de trasladar al extranjero una fábrica o negocio al completo (pág. 1031)

Old Order the political and social system in place in France before the Revolution (p. 593)

Viejo Orden sistema político y social que funcionaba en Francia antes de la Revolución (pág. 593)

one-party system political system in which a single political party controls the government and elections are rarely competitive (p. 945)

sistema de partido único sistema político donde un único partido controla el gobierno y las elecciones no suelen ser competitivas (pág. 945)

Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) an organization that coordinates petroleum policies of major producing countries (p. 955)

Organización de Países Exportadores de Petróleo (OPEP) organización que coordina las políticas sobre el petróleo de las empresas país más importantes (pág. 955)

oracle bones inscribed animal bones used to predict the future (p. 110)

huesos oráculos huesos de animales con inscripciones usados para predecir el futuro (pág. 110)

Orthodox Church the church that followed the Eastern traditions of Christianity as opposed to the Western traditions (p. 351)

iglesia ortodoxo iglesia que siguió las tradiciones cristianas orientales, en lugar de las tradiciones occidentales (pág. 351)

Ottomans ruling dynasty of the Ottoman Empire (1293–1922), named for Osman I, the founder; at the Empire's height, the Ottomans ruled a vast area that encompassed southwest Asia, northeast Africa, and southeast Europe (p. 500)

otomanos descendientes de Osmán I, que gobernó el vasto sultanato turco del suroeste de Asia, el noreste de África y el sureste de Europa hasta su disolución tras la Primera Guerra Mundial (pág. 500)

outsourcing the practice of using workers from outside a company to cut costs or increase production (p. 992)

tercerización práctica de las empresas de usar trabajadores externos para reducir los costos o aumentar la producción (pág. 992)

P

pagoda a multistory Buddhist tower used as a temple or a shrine (p. 313)

pagoda torre budista de varios pisos que se usa como templo o santuario (pág. 313)

Paleolithic Era also known as the Old Stone Age; a prehistoric period that lasted from about 2.5 million years ago to about 8,500 BC (p. 9)

Paleolítico también conocido como la Antigua Edad de Piedra; período prehistórico que duró desde hace aproximadamente 2.5 millones de años hasta aproximadamente 8,500 a.C. (pág. 9)

Pan-Arabism political movement in the 1950s and 1960s promoting Arab unity (p. 953)

panarabismo la unidad de los pueblos de ascendencia árabe (pág. 953)

Papal States territories in central Italy controlled by the pope from 756–1870 (p. 374)

Estados Pontificios región del centro de Italia controlada por el papa (pág. 374)

papyrus a paper-like material made by ancient Egyptians from the stem of the reedy papyrus plant, which grows in the Nile River delta (p. 78)

papiro material semejante al papel que fabricaban los egipcios con los tallos de una planta parecida a la caña llamada papiro, que crece en el delta del Nilo (pág. 78)

Parliament the governing body of England (p. 389)

Parlamento el cuerpo que gobierna Inglaterra (pág. 389)

partition division (p. 910)

partición división (pág. 910)

pasteurization the process of heating liquids to kill bacteria and prevent fermentation (p. 668)

pasteurización proceso de calentar los líquidos para matar las bacterias y evitar la fermentación (pág. 668)

pastoralists nomads who kept herds of livestock on which they depended for most of their food (p. 15)

pastoralistas campesinos nómadas que mantenían ganado, del cual obtenían la mayor parte de su alimento (pág. 15)

paterfamilias the family father (p. 179)

paterfamilias el padre de la familia (pág. 179)

patriarch an ancestral “father” of Judaism (p. 46)

patriarca “padre” ancestral del judaísmo (pág. 46)

patricians a class of powerful landowners in ancient Rome who controlled the government and society (p. 165)

patricios terratenientes romanos poderosos; miembros de la clase alta adinerada que controlaban el gobierno y la sociedad (pág. 165)

patronage the practice of rewarding political loyalty with well-paying government positions (p. 945)

tráfico de influencias dar puestos bien pagados en el gabinete gubernamental a los seguidores leales de un funcionario del gobierno (pág. 945)

Pax Mongolia a period of peace in Mongolia lasting from the mid-1200s until the mid-1300s (p. 318)

Pax Mongolia período de paz en Mongolia que duró desde mediados del siglo XIII hasta mediados del siglo XIV (pág. 318)

Pax Romana a period of peace in Roman Empire lasting from the beginning of Augustus's reign until the death of Marcus Aurelius (27 BC–AD 180) (p. 175)

Pax Romana período de paz en Roma que duró desde el comienzo del gobierno de Augusto hasta la muerte de Marco Aurelio (27 BC–AD 180) (pág. 175)

Peace of Augsburg (1555) an agreement between states in the Holy Roman Empire that gave each German prince the right to decide whether his state would be Catholic or Protestant (p. 536)

Paz de Augsburg (1555) acuerdo por el cual la religión de cada estado alemán sería decidida por su gobernante (pág. 536)

peacekeeping sending multinational forces into countries to enforce ceasefires or truces among warring countries or warring groups within a single country (p. 1041)

mantenimiento de la paz envío de fuerzas internacionales a otros países para que se respete un cese del fuego o una tregua entre países en guerra o entre grupos en guerra dentro de un mismo país (pág. 1041)

peninsulares colonists in Latin American who were born on the Iberian Peninsula, in Spain or Portugal (p. 696)

peninsulares europeos que nacieron en la península ibérica, es decir, en España o Portugal (pág. 696)

perestroika “restructuring”; restructuring of the corrupt government bureaucracy in the Soviet Union begun by Mikhail Gorbachev (p. 892)

perestroika “reestructuración”; la reestructuración de la burocracia corrupta del gobierno soviético que se realizó bajo la presidencia de Mikhail Gorbachev (pág. 892)

Persian Gulf War (1990–1991) war in which U.S.-led forces liberated Kuwait from Iraq (p. 898)

Guerra del Golfo (1990-1991) guerra en que las fuerzas lideradas por Estados Unidos liberaron Kuwait de Irak (pág. 898)

phalanx a military formation composed of rows of soldiers standing shoulder to shoulder carrying pikes or heavy spears (p. 136)

falange formación militar compuesta por soldados parados hombro contra hombro y portando picas o lanzas pesadas (pág. 136)

pharaoh ruler of ancient Egypt (p. 66)

faraón gobernador de Egipto antigua (pág. 66)

philosophes philosophers of the Enlightenment (p. 576)

filósofos filósofos de la Ilustración (pág. 576)

piety devotion to one’s religion (p. 393)

piEDAD nivel de devoción de una persona a su religión (pág. 393)

plantations large farms that usually specialized in the growing of one type of crop for a profit (p. 488)

plantación establecimientos agrícolas grande, generalmente especializado en un tipo de cultivo con el fin de obtener una ganancia (pág. 488)

plebeians farmers or workers, who made up a large part of the population in ancient Rome (p. 165)

plebeyos agricultores o trabajadores que formaban gran parte de la población antigua romana (pág. 165)

plebiscite the procedure used to submit the constitution of a new government to the people for a yes-or-no vote (p. 610)

plebiscito procedimiento para someter a votación la aprobación de una nueva constitución o gobierno; los ciudadanos votan a favor o en contra (pág. 610)

pogroms the organized persecutions and massacres of Jews in Russia in the 1880s (p. 730)

pogroms persecuciones organizadas y masacres de los judíos en Rusia en la década de 1880 (pág. 730)

polis a city-state of ancient Greece (p. 129)

polis ciudad estado de la antigua Grecia (pág. 129)

polytheism the belief in many gods (p. 34)

politeísmo creencia en muchos dioses (pág. 34)

pontificate papal term in office (p. 394)

pontificado mandato del papa (pág. 394)

popes title given to the heads of the Roman Catholic Church (p. 187)

papas títulos que asumen los jefes de la Iglesia católica romana (pág. 187)

popular culture cultural traits such as food, sports, and music, that are common within a group of people (p. 995)

cultura popular rasgos culturales que son bien conocidos y aceptados (pág. 995)

populist a supporter of the rights of the common people as opposed to the privileged elite (p. 974)

populista defensor de los derechos y el poder del pueblo (pág. 974)

porcelain a type of ceramic made by firing a pure clay at very high temperatures and then glazing it; often called “china” (p. 313)

porcelana tipo de cerámica que se hace al exponer arcilla pura a temperaturas muy altas, y luego vidriarla (pág. 313)

Potsdam Conference (1945) a meeting of Allied leaders in the German city of Potsdam to address issues about the post-World War II Europe (p. 863)

Conferencia de Potsdam (1945) encuentro de los líderes Aliados hacia el final de la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 863)

predestination the belief that at the beginning of time God decided who would gain salvation (p. 452)

predestinación creencia de que al comienzo de los tiempos Dios decidió quién alcanzaría la salvación (pág. 452)

privatization the process of converting businesses or industries from public to private ownership (p. 1032)

privatización el control privado de las industrias, en contraposición al control del gobierno (pág. 1032)

propaganda information such as posters and pamphlets created by governments in order to influence public opinion (p. 785)

propaganda información difundida con la intención de influir en la opinión pública (pág. 785)

Protestant Reformation a religious movement in the 1500s that split the Christian church in western Europe and led to the establishment of a number of new churches (p. 449)

Reforma protestante revolución religiosa del siglo XVI que dividió la iglesia de Europa occidental y llevó al establecimiento de una serie de iglesias nuevas (pág. 449)

pueblo an aboveground structure with many rooms (p. 200)

pueblo estructura de varias habitaciones construida por encima del nivel del suelo (pág. 200)

Puritans English Protestants of the late 1500s and most of the 1600s who wanted to “purify” the Church of England through reforms (p. 547)

puritanos protestantes inglés que quería “purificar” la Iglesia de Inglaterra a través de reformas (pág. 547)

Q

quipu in Incan society, a cord that contained knotted strings of various lengths, weaves, colors, and design, which functioned as a system of record keeping (p. 213)

quipu en la sociedad inca, un sistema de cordeles con nudos de distinta longitud, forma de entrelazarse, color y diseño que servía para llevar registros escritos (pág. 213)

Qur'an the sacred text of Islam (p. 259)

Corán texto sagrado del Islam (pág. 259)

R

radical a person with extreme views (p. 599)

radical persona con opiniones extremas (pág. 599)

radioactivity a process in which certain elements constantly break down and release energy (p. 667)

radioactividad proceso por el cual los átomos de ciertos elementos se desintegran constantemente y liberan energía (pág. 667)

Raj the British rule of India from 1757 until 1947 (p. 743)

Raj gobierno británico en la India desde 1757 hasta 1947 (pág. 743)

rajás leaders of ancient cities in India (p. 96)

rajás líderes de las antiguas ciudades de la India (pág. 96)

reactionary an extremist who not only opposes change but also wants to undo certain changes (p. 618)

reaccionario extremista que no solamente se opone al cambio, sino que también quiere revertir algunos cambios (pág. 618)

realism a mid-1800s movement in art and literature that rejected romanticism and sought to depict the details of everyday life, no matter how unpleasant (p. 676)

realismo movimiento artístico y literario de mediados del siglo XIX que rechazaba el romanticismo y prefería representar el mundo tal cual es (pág. 676)

realpolitik “the politics of reality”; the belief in practical goals instead of theory in political philosophy (p. 719)

realpolitik “la política de la realidad”; la creencia en los objetivos prácticos en lugar de en la teoría de la filosofía política (pág. 719)

reason clear and ordered thinking (p. 144)

razón pensamiento claro y ordenado (pág. 144)

Reconquista the effort of Christian leaders to drive the Muslims out of Spain, occurring between the 1100s and 1492 (p. 391)

Reconquista campaña de los líderes cristianos para expulsar a los musulmanes de España entre el siglo XII y 1492 (pág. 391)

Red Guards a group of young men in China who carried out the work of the Cultural Revolution; they roamed the cities and villages, identifying possible opposition to Mao Zedong’s leadership (p. 922)

Guardias Rojos grupo de jóvenes que llevaron a cabo el trabajo de la Revolución cultural; recorrían las ciudades y los pueblos en busca de posibles opositores al liderazgo de Mao Tsé-Tung (pág. 922)

Red Shirts army of volunteer troops led by Giuseppe Garibaldi; in 1860 they attacked the island of Sicily and won it for the Italians (p. 716)

Camisas Rojas ejército de tropas voluntarias dirigidas por Guisepppe Garibaldi; en 1860 atacaron la isla de Sicilia y la conquistaron para los italianos (pág. 716)

refugees people who leave their country to escape danger or persecution (p. 998)

refugiados personas que dejan su país para escapar de un peligro o una persecución (pág. 998)

Reign of Terror a period during the French Revolution in which the Robespierre-led government executed thousands of political figures and ordinary citizens (p. 604)

Reino del Terror período de la Revolución francesa en que el gobierno dirigido por Robespierre ejecutó a miles de figuras políticas y ciudadanos comunes (pág. 604)

reincarnation in Hinduism, the belief that after one dies, the soul is reborn into a different form (p. 99)

reencarnación en el hinduismo, la creencia de que después de la muerte el alma renace bajo una forma diferente (pág. 99)

Renaissance “rebirth”; following the Middle Ages, a movement that centered on the revival of interest in the classical learning of Greece and Rome (p. 439)

Renacimiento movimiento posterior a la Edad Media que se centró en revivir el interés por el legado clásico de Grecia y Roma (pág. 439)

republic a political system in which the citizens of a region elect representatives to run the government (p. 165)

república sistema político en el que los ciudadanos de una región eligen representantes para dirigir el gobierno (pág. 165)

Restoration the period of the reign of Charles II in England when the monarchy was restored after the collapse of Oliver Cromwell’s government; there was also a rebirth of English culture during this time (p. 549)

Restauración período de la historia de Inglaterra durante el reinado de Carlos II en el que se restauró la monarquía tras la caída del gobierno de Oliver Cromwell; durante este período, también hubo un renacimiento de la cultura inglesa (pág. 549)

romanticism an artistic and literary movement at the beginning of the 1800s which rejected the rationalism of the Enlightenment in favor of emotion, intuition, and imagination (p. 676)

romanticismo movimiento intelectual de comienzos del siglo XIX que se concentró en el sentimiento y la imaginación, y se ocupó del tema del romance de la vida en contraposición a la razón (pág. 676)

Roosevelt Corollary (1904) a policy proposed by U.S. president Theodore Roosevelt as an addition, or corollary, to the Monroe Doctrine; it pledged to use U.S. military force to prevent European interference in the internal affairs of Latin American nations while reserving for the United States the right to intervene (p. 765)

Corolario de Roosevelt cambio en la Doctrina Monroe en la que se declaraba que Estados Unidos podía intervenir en los asuntos internos de los países latinoamericanos (pág. 765)

Rosetta Stone a granite stone found in 1799 that bears an inscription in hieroglyphics, demotic characters, and Greek; gave the first clue to deciphering Egyptian hieroglyphics (p. 78)

Piedra Roseta piedra de granito hallada en 1799 donde se ve una inscripción en jeroglíficos, en caracteres demóticos y en griego; sirvió como primera pista para descifrar los jeroglíficos egipcios (pág. 78)

Royalists supporters of government by a monarch; used as a name for supporters of England's King Charles I (p. 547)

monárquicos defensores de un gobierno monárquico (pág. 547)

Rus northern European force, probably Vikings, who set up a state centered on Kiev in the mid-800s that grew into Russia (p. 357)

rus nombre que se daba a los europeos del norte a mediados del siglo IX (pág. 357)

Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905) an imperialistic conflict that stemmed from the rival designs of Russia and Japan on Manchuria and Korea, resulting in the defeat of Russia (p. 730)

Guerra ruso-japonesa (1904–1905) conflicto entre imperios que surgió debido a las intenciones rivales de Rusia y Japón respecto a Manchuria y Corea; terminó con la derrota de Rusia (pág. 730)

S

sagas long stories, written in the early 1200s, about great Icelandic heroes and events (p. 380)

sagas largas historias islandesas acerca de grandes héroes y sucesos (pág. 380)

Sahel a semiarid strip of land across the center of Africa that divides the Sahara from wetter areas (p. 284)

Sahel en África, franja de tierra que separa el desierto de otras zonas más húmedas (pág. 284)

Saint Bartholomew's Day Massacre August 24, 1572; a massacre of 6,000 to 8,000 Huguenots in Paris authorized by King Charles IX and his mother Catherine de Médici (p. 541)

masacre del día de San Bartolomé 24 de agosto de 1572; sangriento episodio que ocurrió durante las guerras religiosas en Francia después del intento de asesinato de un líder militar hugonote, planeado por Catalina de Médici; el resultado fue un extenso combate donde murieron entre 6,000 y 8,000 hugonotes (pág. 541)

salons gatherings in which intellectual and political ideas were exchanged during the Enlightenment (p. 575)

salóns reunión donde se intercambiaban ideas intelectuales y políticas durante la Ilustración (pág. 575)

samurai a professional Japanese warrior hired by wealthy landowners for protection in feudal Japan (p. 517)

samurai guerrero profesional japonés contratado por los terratenientes ricos del Japón feudal para obtener protección (pág. 517)

sanctions economic or political penalties imposed by one country on another to try and force a change in policy (p. 1003)

sanciones penalidades económicas o políticas impuestas por un país a otro para obligarlo a cambiar su política (pág. 1003)

Sandinistas Marxist group who led the revolution against the dictator of Nicaragua and then ruled the country from 1979 to 1990 (p. 972)

sandinistas grupo marxista que dirigió la revolución contra el dictador de Nicaragua (pág. 972)

sansculottes “without breeches”; a radical group of shopkeepers and wage earners during the French Revolution who wanted a larger voice in government and an end to food shortages (p. 595)

sansculottes “sin pantalones”; grupo radical de comerciantes y trabajadores a sueldo que, durante la Revolución francesa, querían tener más participación en el gobierno y poner fin a la escasez de comida (pág. 595)

satraps governors of ancient Persia (p. 53)

sátrapas gobernadores de Persia antigua (pág. 53)

savanna open grassland (p. 284)

sabana pradera abierta (pág. 284)

scholar-officials elite, educated members of the government during the Song period in China (p. 312)

funcionarios eruditos miembros cultos de la élite que gobernaba China durante el período Song (pág. 312)

Scholasticism in the Middle Ages, the theological and philosophical school of thought that attempted to reconcile faith and reason (p. 417)

escolasticismo escuela de pensamiento teológico y filosófico de la Edad Media que intentaba reconciliar la fe y la razón (pág. 417)

scientific method a method of inquiry that promotes observing, measuring, explaining, and verifying as a way to gain scientific knowledge (p. 568)

método científico método de investigación basado en la observación, medición, explicación y verificación como la verdadera manera de adquirir el conocimiento científico (pág. 568)

Scientific Revolution a transformation in European thought in the 1500s and 1600s that called for scientific observation, experimentation, and the questioning of traditional opinions (p. 568)

revolución científica transformación del pensamiento que ocurrió durante los siglos XVI y XVII debida a la observación, experimentación y cuestionamiento científico de las opiniones tradicionales (pág. 568)

secession the act of separating from (p. 703)

secesión acto de separarse de algo (pág. 703)

Second Estate in pre-Revolution France, the nobles (p. 594)

Segundo Estado en la Francia anterior a la Revolución, los nobles (pág. 594)

Secretariat body of the United Nations responsible for carrying out the administrative tasks (p. 1041)

Secretaría de Naciones Unidas; grupo se encarga de las tareas administrativas de NU (pág. 1041)

secular having to do with worldly, as opposed to religious, matters (pp. 439, 1037)

secular relacionado con cuestiones terrenales, en contraposición a las cuestiones religiosas (pág. 439, 1037)

Security Council body of the United Nations, consisting of 15 members, five of them permanent, charged with being the guardians of world peace (p. 1041)

Consejo de Seguridad de Naciones Unidas; su función es mantener la paz (pág. 1041)

Senate a body of legislators (p. 166)

Senado cuerpo de legisladores (pág. 166)

Sepoy Mutiny (1857–1858) a rebellion of Hindu and Muslim soldiers against the British in India (p. 742)

Motín de Sepoy (1857–1858) rebelión de los soldados hindúes y musulmanes contra los británicos que estaban en la India (pág. 742)

serfs peasants who were legally bound to their lord's land (pp. 384, 729)

siervos campesinos que estaban legalmente obligados a quedarse en las tierras de su señor (pág. 384, 729)

shah name given to a king of the Safavid Empire (p. 502)

shah nombre dado al rey del Imperio safavida (pág. 502)

Sharpeville massacre (1960) an incident in which South African police fired on a crowd of apartheid protestors, killing 67 people (p. 944)

masacre de Sharpeville (1960) incidente en el cual una organización nacionalista africana convocó a una manifestación frente a la estación de policía del municipio de Sharpeville; la policía abrió fuego contra los manifestantes y mató a 67 (pág. 944)

Shia a branch of Islam whose adherents believe that the caliphate must go to a descendent of Muhammad—particularly a member of the family of Ali (p. 264)

chiita persona que cree que el califato debe ser para un pariente de Mahoma, especialmente un miembro de la familia de Alí (pág. 264)

Shining Path guerrilla group in Peru that terrorized the countryside in the 1980s and 1990s (p. 977)

Sendero Luminoso grupo guerrillero de Perú que sembró el terror en las áreas rurales en la década de 1990 (pág. 977)

Shinto “Way of the *kami* (spirits)”; an indigenous religion of Japan that holds that everything in nature has a spirit; believers perform ceremonies to ask for the blessings of the spirits; traditionally, Shinto believers venerated the emperor (p. 323)

shintó “camino de los dioses”; religión indígena de Japón que consiste en rituales y plegarias para apaciguar a los espíritus de la naturaleza y en venerar al emperador (pág. 323)

shogun the hereditary chief of Japan's warrior class who held the real power, while the emperor ruled in name only (p. 519)

shogun jefe hereditario de la clase guerrera japonesa que poseía el verdadero poder, mientras que el emperador sólo gobernaba nominalmente (pág. 519)

Siege of Leningrad (1941–1942) Nazi army's unsuccessful attempt to capture the city of Leningrad in the Soviet Union during World War II; as many as 1 million civilians perished during the siege (p. 846)

sitio de Leningrado (1941–1942) toma de Leningrado por parte de Hitler en Rusia; durante este sitio, murieron nada menos que un millón de civiles (pág. 846)

Sikhism an Indian religion founded in the late 1400s whose beliefs blend elements of Hinduism and Islam (p. 506)

sikhismo religión no violenta cuyas creencias unen las religiones hinduista y musulmana (pág. 506)

Silk Roads trade routes stretching from China to the Mediterranean, which allowed for the exchange of goods and ideas from China to the Roman Empire (p. 231)

Rutas de la Seda rutas comercial que se extendían desde China hasta el Mediterráneo y que permitió el intercambio de bienes e ideas entre China y el Imperio romano (pág. 231)

Sino-Japanese War (1894) war fought between China and Japan for influence over Korea; Japan's victory symbolized its successful modernization (p. 751)

Guerra sinojaponesa (1894) guerra entre China y Japón a causa de una rebelión en Corea; ambas naciones enviaron tropas para someter a los rebeldes coreanos (pág. 751)

Six-Day War (June, 1967) war between Israel and Egypt, Syria, and Jordan; Israel's victory gave it control of areas with large Palestinian populations, including the West Bank and Gaza (p. 956)

Guerra de los Seis Días (junio de 1967) guerra entre Israel y Egipto, Siria, y Jordán; terminó con una victoria aplastante para Israel (pág. 956)

slash-and-burn agriculture a farming method in which fields are cleared for farming by cutting down and burning trees and brush (p. 205)

agricultura de tala y quema método de cultivo en el cual se despeja un campo talando y quemando árboles y arbustos para luego cultivarlo (pág. 205)

smelt to melt or fuse metal in order to separate the metallic components (p. 85)

fundir derretir el metal para separar sus componentes metálicos (pág. 85)

Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act (1930) a U.S. law that set extremely high tariffs on imports in an effort to protect American farmers and manufacturers; the result was a worsening of the Great Depression (p. 815)

Ley arancel Smoot-Hawley (1930) arancel extremadamente alto sobre los productos agrícolas y manufacturados (pág. 815)

social contract an agreement between a people and their government, stating that people would give up some of their freedom and in return, their government would provide them with peace, security, and order (p. 575)

contrato social acuerdo entre un pueblo y su gobierno que establece que el pueblo cederá parte de su libertad a cambio de que el gobierno brinde paz, seguridad y orden (pág. 575)

Social Darwinism an application of Charles Darwin's scientific theories of natural selection and the survival of the fittest to the struggle between nations and races; used in the late 1800s to justify imperialism and racism (p. 757)

darwinismo social visión de la sociedad basada en la teoría científica de la selección natural de Charles Darwin (pág. 757)

socialism a political and economic system in which society, usually in the form of the government, owns the means of production (p. 648)

socialismo sistema económico y político en el cual la sociedad, generalmente en la forma del gobierno, posee los medios de producción (pág. 648)

socialist republic a type of republic in which there is no private property and the state owns and distributes all goods to people (p. 730)

república socialista tipo de república en la cual no hay propiedad privada y el estado posee todos los bienes y los distribuye entre los ciudadanos (pág. 730)

Solidarity an independent labor union founded in Soviet-controlled Poland in 1980 (p. 892)

Solidaridad sindicato independiente fundado en 1980 en la Polonia controlada por los soviéticos (pág. 892)

Soweto Uprising (1976) a major student protest against apartheid that took place in the township of Soweto; the peaceful march turned violent, killing more than 600 people and wounding 4,000 (p. 944)

rebelión de Soweto (1976) importante protesta estudiantil contra el apartheid que ocurrió en el municipio de Soweto; la marcha pacífica se tornó violenta, con más de 600 muertos y 4,000 heridos (pág. 944)

Spanish-American War (1898) war fought between Spain and the United States that began after the sinking of the battleship USS *Maine*; the United States won the war in four months, gaining control of Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines (p. 764)

Guerra hispano-estadounidense (1898) guerra entre España y Estados Unidos que comenzó tras el hundimiento de *Maine*; fue un desastre para España y Estados Unidos ganó la guerra en cuatro meses, tomando el poder de Puerto Rico, Guam y las Filipinas (pág. 764)

Spanish Armada a great fleet (130 ships and 20,000 men) assembled by Spain in 1588 for an invasion of England (p. 538)

Armada española gran flota de barcos; incluía aproximadamente 130 barcos y 20,000 marineros y soldados (pág. 538)

Sputnik (1957) the first artificial satellite; launched by the Soviet Union (p. 884)

Sputnik (1957) primer satélite artificial; lanzado por la Unión soviética (pág. 884)

Stamp Act (1765) a law passed by the British Parliament that raised tax money by requiring the American colonists to pay for an official stamp whenever they bought paper items (p. 581)

Ley del Sello (1765) ley aprobada por el Parlamento británico que aumentaba los impuestos para los colonos estadounidenses, obligándoles a pagar un sello oficial cada vez que compraran artículos de papel (pág. 581)

standard of living a measure of the quality of life (p. 651)
nivel de vida medida de la calidad de vida (pág. 651)

steppes arid grasslands (p. 40)
estepas praderas áridas (pág. 40)

strike a work stoppage (p. 644)
huelga detención del trabajo (pág. 644)

subcontinent a large landmass that is part of a continent but is considered an independent entity either geographically or politically (p. 94)
subcontinente gran masa de tierra que es parte de un continente pero se considera una entidad independiente, ya sea geográfica o políticamente (pág. 94)

subsidies grants of money (p. 485)
subsidios dinero que se otorga (pág. 485)

Suez Canal Egyptian waterway connecting the Mediterranean and Red seas; built in 1869 by Franco-Egyptian company; in 1875 Britain bought Egypt's share in the canal (p. 758)
canal de Suez canal de agua egipcio del que se apoderaron los ingleses en 1882 (pág. 758)

Suez Crisis (1956) Egypt's confrontation with Britain, France, and Israel over control of the Suez Canal (p. 952)
crisis de Suez confrontación entre Egipto por un lado y Gran Bretaña, Francia e Israel por el otro, sobre el control del Canal de Suez (pág. 952)

suffrage the right to vote (p. 688)
sufragio derecho a votar (pág. 688)

Sufis a branch of Islam emphasizing a personal, mystical connection with God (p. 264)
sufis místicos musulmanes que intentaban vivir una vida simple (pág. 264)

sultan title for the ruler of the Ottoman Empire (p. 500)
sultán título del gobernador del Imperio otomano (pág. 500)

Sunnis “people who follow the Sunna (way of the Prophet)”; the largest branch of Islam; believers accepted the first four caliphs as rightful successors of Muhammad (p. 263)
sunies “personas que siguen la Sunna”; rama del Islam que acepta a los cuatro primeros califas como sucesores legítimos de Mahoma (pág. 263)

surplus excess (p. 19)
excedente lo que sobra (pág. 19)

sustainable development economic development that is maintained over a period of time but does not harm the environment (p. 1006)
desarrollo sostenible desarrollo económico que se mantiene durante cierto tiempo, pero que no daña el medio ambiente (pág. 1006)

Swahili an African society that emerged in the late 1100s along the East African coast and combined elements of African, Asian, and Islamic cultures (p. 292)
swahili sociedad africana que surgió a finales del siglo XII a lo largo de la costa africana oriental; combinaba elementos de las culturas africana, asiática e islámica (pág. 292)

T

Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864) revolt against the Qing dynasty in China led by Hong Xiuquan, a convert to Christianity; over 20 million Chinese died; eventually suppressed with British and French aid (p. 748)
rebelión de Taiping (1850–1864) rebelión en China encabezada por Hong Xiuquan, quien declaró que se establecería una nueva dinastía (pág. 748)

Taj Mahal a mausoleum built by India's Mughal emperor Shah Jahan from 1632–1643 to honor his wife (p. 507)
Taj Mahal maravilla arquitectónica creada por el Shah Jahan (pág. 507)

Taliban Islamist group that took control over much of Afghanistan in the late 1990s; were ousted by the United States invasion of 2001 (p. 899)
talibanes grupo que tomó el control de gran parte de Afganistán después de la ocupación soviética en 1979 (pág. 899)

technology the application of knowledge, skills, and tools to meet people's needs (p. 10)
tecnología aplicación de conocimientos, destrezas y herramientas que usamos para satisfacer nuestras necesidades (pág. 10)

telegraph a machine perfected by Samuel F. B. Morse in 1832; it uses pulses of electric current to send messages across long distances through wires (p. 663)
telégrafo máquina perfeccionada por Samuel F. B. Morse en 1832 que usa pulsaciones de corriente eléctrica para enviar mensajes a larga distancia mediante cables (pág. 663)

terrorism the use of violence by individuals and groups to advance political goals (p. 1000)
terrorismo uso de la violencia, por parte de individuos o grupos, para conseguir objetivos políticos (pág. 1000)

theocracy a government ruled by religious leaders who claim God's authority (pp. 66, 452)
teocracia gobierno de líderes religiosos que afirman tener la autoridad de Dios (pág. 66, 452)

Third Estate in pre-Revolution France, the bourgeoisie, artisans, workers, and peasants (p. 595)
Tercer Estado en la Francia antes de la Revolución, la burguesía, los artesanos, los trabajadores y los campesinos (pág. 595)

Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) a conflict in Europe that began in Prague as a Protestant rebellion against the Holy Roman Empire; fought over religion and power among ruling dynasties (p. 556)

Guerra de los Treinta Años (1618–1648) conflicto europeo que comenzó en Praga como una rebelión protestante contra el Santo Imperio Romano; fue una guerra por motivos religiosos y de poder entre familias dominantes (pág. 556)

Tiananmen Square Massacre violent suppression by the Chinese communist government of a large pro-democracy protest in Beijing's central square in 1989 (p. 923)

masacre de la plaza de Tiananmen gran protesta en favor de la democracia realizada en China en 1989 y que el gobierno reprimió con fuerzas militares; en consecuencia, murieron cientos de personas (pág. 923)

Torah the first five books of the Hebrew Bible; the most sacred texts of the Jewish faith (p. 46)

Torá los primeros cinco libros de la Biblia; los textos más sagrados de la fe judía (pág. 46)

totalitarianism form of government in which the person or party in charge has absolute control over all aspects of life (p. 824)

totalitarismo forma de gobierno en la cual la persona o partido que está en el poder tiene un control absoluto de todos los aspectos de la vida (pág. 824)

total war a war that requires the use of all a society's resources (p. 785)

guerra total guerra que requería el uso de todos los recursos de una sociedad (pág. 785)

traditional economy an economic system in which economic decisions are made based on customs, beliefs, religion, and habits (p. 19)

economía tradicional sistema económico donde las decisiones económicas se toman sobre la base de costumbres, creencias y hábitos (pág. 19)

Trail of Tears (1838–39) an 800-mile march made by the Cherokee from their homeland in Georgia to Indian Territory; resulted in the deaths of almost one-fourth of the Cherokee people (p. 703)

Ruta de las Lágrimas (1838–39) marcha de 800 millas que hizo la tribu cherookee desde su territorio natal en Georgia hasta el Territorio Indígena; tuvo como consecuencia la muerte de casi la cuarta parte del pueblo cherookee (pág. 703)

Trans-Siberian Railroad railroad, begun in 1891, linking western Russia to Siberia in the east (p. 730)

ferrocarril transiberiano ferrocarril que unió Rusia occidental y el este de Siberia (pág. 730)

Treaty of Kanagawa (1854) trade treaty between Japan and the United States opening up two Japanese ports to U.S. trade; signed in response to a show of force by U.S. admiral Matthew Perry (p. 750)

Tratado de Kanagawa (1854) tratado que permitió a los barcos estadounidenses detenerse en dos puertos japoneses (pág. 750)

Treaty of Paris (1783) the agreement that officially ended the American Revolution and established British recognition of the independence of the United States (p. 584)

Tratado de París (1783) acuerdo que puso fin oficialmente a la Guerra de Independencia estadounidense y estableció el reconocimiento británico de la independencia de Estados Unidos (pág. 584)

Treaty of Tordesillas (1494) the agreement between Spain and Portugal that created an imaginary north-south line dividing their territory in the Americas (p. 479)

Tratado de Tordesillas (1494) acuerdo entre España y Portugal que creaba una línea imaginaria de norte a sur que dividía el territorio de las Américas (pág. 479)

Treaty of Utrecht (1713) treaty that ended the War of the Spanish Succession; it gave the throne to Louis XIV's grandson but also stated that France and Spain would never be ruled by the same monarch (p. 544)

Tratado de Utrecht (1713) tratado que supuso el fin de la Guerra de Sucesión Española y dio el trono al nieto de Luis XIV, pero también impuso la condición de que Francia y España nunca serían gobernadas por el mismo rey (pág. 544)

Treaty of Versailles (1919) treaty ending World War I; required Germany to pay huge war reparations and established the League of Nations (p. 797)

Tratado de Versalles (1919) tratado que puso fin a la Primera Guerra Mundial; exigía a Alemania que pagara enormes indemnizaciones de guerra y estableció la Liga de las Naciones (pág. 797)

Treaty of Westphalia (1648) treaty ending the Thirty Years' War; it reduced the power of the Holy Roman Emperor; it extended religious toleration to Protestants and Catholics within most of the empire (p. 556)

Tratado de Westfalia (1648) tratado que puso fin a la Guerra de los Treinta Años; en un sentido general, fue una victoria protestante y extendió la tolerancia religiosa (pág. 556)

trench warfare a form of combat in which soldiers dug trenches, or deep ditches, to seek protection from enemy fire and to defend their positions (p. 784)

guerra de trincheras forma de combate en que los soldados cavaban trincheras, o pozos profundos, para protegerse del fuego enemigo y defender sus posiciones (pág. 784)

triangular trade trading network lasting from the 1600s to the 1800s that carried goods and enslaved people between Europe, the Americas, and Africa (p. 489)

comercio triangular redes de intercambio de bienes y esclavos entre Inglaterra, las colonias norteamericanas y África (pág. 489)

tribute a payment made by conquered peoples to their conquerors in order to obtain security (p. 208)

tributo pago hecho por los pueblos conquistados a sus conquistadores para obtener seguridad (pág. 208)

Triple Alliance an alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy in the late 1800s (p. 780)

Triple Alianza alianza entre Alemania, el Imperio austrohúngaro e Italia (pág. 780)

Triple Entente an alliance between France, Russia, and Great Britain in the late 1800s (p. 780)

Triple Entente alianza entre Francia, Rusia y Gran Bretaña (pág. 780)

triumvirate a ruling body of three members (p. 173)

triumvirato alianza política de tres gobernantes (pág. 173)

troubadours traveling singers who entertained people during the Middle Ages (p. 416)

trovadores cantantes de la Edad Media que viajaban de una ciudad a otra para entretener a las personas (pág. 416)

Truman Doctrine (1947) U.S. president Truman's pledge to provide economic and military aid to countries threatened by communism (p. 879)

Doctrina Truman (1947) compromiso del presidente del Estados Unidos Truman para prestar ayuda económica y militar a los países amenazados por el comunismo (pág. 879)

tyrant a strong man who seized power by force and claimed to rule for the good of the people (p. 135)

tirano hombre poderoso que tomaba el poder por la fuerza y afirmaba gobernar por el bien del pueblo (pág. 135)

U

U-boats submarines used by Germans in World Wars I and II (p. 795)

U-boats nombre que recibieron los pequeños submarinos que usaron los alemanes en la Primera y la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 795)

Umayyad (661–750) first ruling dynasty over the Muslim Caliphate (p. 263)

Umayyad (661–750) califato de Mu'awiya que marcó un período de enorme crecimiento y cambio para el imperio musulmán (pág. 263)

unequal treaties trade treaties that China signed under pressure of invasion; gave Western powers trade benefits (p. 747)

tratados desiguales tratados comerciales que China firmó bajo amenaza de invasión y que dieron beneficios comerciales a las potencias occidentales (pág. 747)

United Nations international organization formed in 1945 to maintain world peace and encourage cooperation among nations (p. 863)

Naciones Unidas organización internacional que promueve la cooperación entre las naciones (pág. 863)

urbanization the migration of people from rural areas to cities (p. 672)

urbanización migración de las áreas rurales a las ciudades (pág. 672)

V

varnas the four social classes in Vedic society (p. 97)

varnas las cuatro clases sociales de la sociedad védica (pág. 97)

vassal in medieval Europe, a person granted land from a lord in return for services (p. 383)

vasallo en la Europa medieval, persona que recibía tierras de un señor a cambio de ciertos servicios (pág. 383)

V-E Day (1945) May 8, 1945; a term used by the Allies, it stands for "victory in Europe" during World War II (p. 860)

Día V-E (1945) 8 de mayo de 1945; fecha en que los Aliados celebraron su victoria en Europa en la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 860)

Vedas sacred writings of the Indo-Aryans (p. 96)

Vedas escrituras sagradas de los indoarios (pág. 96)

Velvet Revolution (1989) a quick, peaceful revolution that swept the Communists from power in Czechoslovakia (p. 893)

revolución de terciopelo (1989) revolución rápida y pacífica que expulsó a los comunistas del poder en Checoslovaquia (pág. 893)

veto ban (p. 165)

veto prohibición (pág. 165)

viceroy officials who ruled Spain's American empire (p. 479)

virreyes funcionarios que gobernaban en el imperio español en las Américas (pág. 479)

Victorian Era the era spanning the reign of Queen Victoria of England (1837–1901) (p. 688)

época victoriana reinado de la reina Victoria entre los años 1837 y 1901 (pág. 688)

- Vietcong** communist guerilla force allied with North Vietnam which fought to overthrow the government of South Vietnam from the 1950s to 1975 (p. 916)
Vietcong fuerzas militares del Frente Nacional de Liberación, grupo que quería derrocar al gobierno de Vietnam (pág. 916)
- Vietminh** nationalist organization led by Ho Chi Minh that fought for Vietnamese independence from French rule in the 1940s and 1950s (p. 915)
Vietminh fuerza dirigida por Ho Chi Minh que desafió la autoridad de los franceses en Indochina (pág. 915)
- villa** a home in the country (p. 178)
villa casa de campo (pág. 178)
- V-J Day** (1945) August 15, 1945; a term used by the Allies, it stands for “victory over Japan” during World War II (p. 862)
Día V-J (1945) 15 de agosto de 1945; fecha en que los Aliados declararon la victoria sobre Japón en la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 862)

W

- Wars of the Roses** (1455–1485) civil war for the English crown between the York (white rose) and Lancaster (red rose) families (p. 421)
Guerras de las Rosas (1455–1485) guerra entre las familias inglesas de York y Lancaster (pág. 421)
- War of the Spanish Succession** (1701–1713) war fought over the Spanish throne; Louis XIV wanted it for his son and fought a war against the Dutch, English, and the Holy Roman Empire to gain the throne for France (p. 544)
Guerra de Sucesión Española (1701–1713) guerra por la sucesión al trono de España; Luis XIV lo quería para su hijo y luchó contra los holandeses, los españoles y el Santo Imperio Romano para que el trono quedara en manos francesas (pág. 544)
- Warsaw Pact** a military alliance of the Soviet-dominated countries of Eastern Europe, established in 1955 (p. 880)
Pacto de Varsovia alianza militar entre los países controlados por los soviéticos de Europa oriental, establecida en 1955 (pág. 880)
- weapons of mass destruction (WMD)** weapons that kill or injure civilian, as well as military personnel, usually nuclear, chemical, and biological weapons (p. 1002)
armas de destrucción masiva (WMD, por sus siglas en inglés) armas que matan o hieren a los civiles así como a los militares; generalmente, armas nucleares, químicas y biológicas (pág. 1002)

- Western Front** during World War I, the deadlocked region in northern France where German and Allied armies faced off (p. 782)
frente occidental durante la Primera Guerra Mundial, área del norte de Francia donde los combates habían llegado a un punto en que ninguno de los bandos podía avanzar (pág. 782)
- westernization** the adoption of the culture and ideas of Western society, namely Europe and America (p. 553)
occidentalización adopción de la cultura e ideas de la sociedad occidental, es decir, de Europa y Estados Unidos (pág. 553)
- woodblock printing** a type of printing in which text is carved into a block of wood and the block is then coated with ink and pressed on the page (p. 313)
xilografía tipo de impresión que consiste en grabar una página de texto en una plancha de madera, cubrir la plancha de tinta y presionarla sobre un papel (pág. 313)

X

- Xiongnu** nomadic raiders from the grasslands north of China during the reign of Han dynasty; emperor Wudi fought against them in the mid-100s BC (p. 226)
xiongnu nómadas que vivían en las praderas del norte de China durante el reino de Wudi; eran una gran amenaza militar para China (pág. 226)

Y

- Yalta Conference** (February, 1945) a meeting between Franklin Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, and Joseph Stalin to reach an agreement on what to do with Germany after World War II (p. 862)
Conferencia de Yalta (1945) encuentro entre Franklin Roosevelt, Winston Churchill y Joseph Stalin para llegar a un acuerdo sobre qué hacer con Alemania después de la Segunda Guerra Mundial (pág. 862)
- yoga** a series of physical and mental exercises that teaches people how to focus their bodies and minds (p. 101)
yoga serie de ejercicios físicos y mentales que enseñan a las personas a concentrar la mente y el cuerpo (pág. 101)

Yom Kippur War (1973) war launched by Egypt and Syria against Israel on the Jewish holy day of Yom Kippur; the Israeli counterattack, supported by the United States repulsed the Syrians and Egyptians (p. 956)

Guerra de Yom Kippur (1973) ataque a Israel por parte de Egipto y Siria el día de Yom Kippur; tuvo como consecuencia un contraataque de los israelíes, que expulsaron a los sirios y pasaron a Egipto cruzando el canal de Suez (pág. 956)

Young Turks Turkish reformist and nationalist political party active in the early 20th century (p. 727)

Jóvenes Turcos partido político reformista y nacionalista turco, activo a comienzos del siglo XX (pág. 727)

Z

Zen Buddhism sect of Buddhism that stresses meditation as a means of achieving enlightenment; became popular among Japanese aristocrats and was a part of the samurai's code (p. 517)

budismo zen secta del budismo que enfatiza el valor de la meditación como medio para alcanzar la iluminación; se hizo popular entre los aristócratas japoneses y era parte del código samurai (pág. 517)

ziggurat a Sumerian temple made of sun-dried brick that was dedicated to the chief god or goddess of a particular city-state (p. 34)

zigurat templo sumerio hecho de ladrillos secados al sol, dedicado al dios o diosa principal de una determinada ciudad estado (pág. 34)

Zimmermann Note a telegram sent to a German official in Mexico prior to U.S. entrance into World War I; proposed an alliance between Germany and Mexico (p. 795)

Telegrama Zimmermann telegrama enviado a un funcionario alemán que estaba en México antes de que Estados Unidos entrara en la Primera Guerra Mundial, con la propuesta de una alianza entre Alemania y México (pág. 795)

Zionism nationalist movement, begun in the 1890s, to establish a Jewish state in Palestine (p. 694)

sionismo movimiento nacionalista para establecer un estado judío en Palestina (pág. 694)

Zollverein an economic alliance of most German states in 1834; allowed for free trade among themselves and common tariffs on imports, exports, and transit (p. 719)

Zollverein alianza económica entre la mayor parte de los estados alemanes en 1834, que autorizaba el libre comercio y establecía aranceles comunes para las importaciones, las exportaciones y el tránsito (pág. 719)

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q = quotation p = picture

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