The World at War
1900–1945
World War I was characterized by long, bloody battles. This painting by François Flameng shows one such engagement. French soldiers attempt to cross the River Yser in Belgium on pontoon bridges.

**Comparing & Contrasting**

**The Changing Nature of Warfare**

In Unit 4, you will learn about the changing nature of warfare in the 20th century. At the end of the unit, you will have a chance to compare and contrast different aspects of the wars you studied. (See pages 520–525.)
The Great War, 1914–1918

Previewing Themes

**SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY** Advances in weaponry, from improvements to the machine gun and airplane, to the invention of the tank, led to mass devastation during World War I.

**Geography** Which Allied nation could the Central Powers invade only by airplane?

**ECONOMICS** The war affected many European economies. Desperate for resources, the warring governments converted many industries to munitions factories. They also took greater control of the production of goods.

**Geography** According to the map, why might Russia have struggled to obtain resources from its allies?

**POWER AND AUTHORITY** The quest among European nations for greater power played a role in causing World War I. By the turn of the 20th century, relations among these countries had grown increasingly tense.

**Geography** Which alliance may have had the greater challenge, given the geography of the conflict? Why?
Should you always support an ally?

World War I has begun. You are the leader of a European country and must decide what to do. Your nation is one of several that have agreed to support each other in the event of war. Some of your allies already have joined the fight. You oppose the thought of war and fear that joining will lead to even more lives lost. Yet, you believe in being loyal to your allies. You also worry that your rivals want to conquer all of Europe—and if you don’t join the war now, your country may end up having to defend itself.

▲ A World War I poster urges nations to come to the aid of Serbia.

EXAMINING the ISSUES

- Should you always support a friend, no matter what he or she does?
- What might be the long-term consequences of refusing to help an ally?

As a class, discuss these questions. In your discussion, consider the various reasons countries go to war. As you read about World War I in this chapter, see what factors influenced the decisions of each nation.
Marching Toward War

Setting the Stage
At the turn of the 20th century, the nations of Europe had been largely at peace with one another for nearly 30 years. This was no accident. Efforts to outlaw war and achieve a permanent peace had been gaining momentum in Europe since the middle of the 19th century. By 1900, hundreds of peace organizations were active. In addition, peace congresses convened regularly between 1843 and 1907. Some Europeans believed that progress had made war a thing of the past. Yet in a little more than a decade, a massive war would engulf Europe and spread across the globe.

Rising Tensions in Europe
While peace and harmony characterized much of Europe at the beginning of the 1900s, there were less visible—and darker—forces at work as well. Below the surface of peace and goodwill, Europe witnessed several gradual developments that would ultimately help propel the continent into war.

The Rise of Nationalism
One such development was the growth of nationalism, or a deep devotion to one’s nation. Nationalism can serve as a unifying force within a country. However, it also can cause intense competition among nations, with each seeking to overpower the other. By the turn of the 20th century, a fierce rivalry indeed had developed among Europe’s Great Powers. Those nations were Germany, Austria-Hungary, Great Britain, Russia, Italy, and France.

This increasing rivalry among European nations stemmed from several sources. Competition for materials and markets was one. Territorial disputes were another. France, for example, had never gotten over the loss of Alsace-Lorraine to Germany in the Franco-Prussian War (1870). Austria-Hungary and Russia both tried to dominate in the Balkans, a region in southeast Europe. Within the Balkans, the intense nationalism of Serbs, Bulgarians, Romanians, and other ethnic groups led to demands for independence.

Imperialism and Militarism
Another force that helped set the stage for war in Europe was imperialism. As Chapter 11 explained, the nations of Europe competed fiercely for colonies in Africa and Asia. The quest for colonies sometimes pushed European nations to the brink of war. As European countries continued to compete for overseas empires, their sense of rivalry and mistrust of one another deepened.
Yet another troubling development throughout the early years of the 20th century was the rise of a dangerous European arms race. The nations of Europe believed that to be truly great, they needed to have a powerful military. By 1914, all the Great Powers except Britain had large standing armies. In addition, military experts stressed the importance of being able to quickly mobilize, or organize and move troops in case of a war. Generals in each country developed highly detailed plans for such a mobilization.

The policy of glorifying military power and keeping an army prepared for war was known as militarism. Having a large and strong standing army made citizens feel patriotic. However, it also frightened some people. As early as 1895, Frédéric Passy, a prominent peace activist, expressed a concern that many shared:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**
The entire able-bodied population are preparing to massacre one another; though no one, it is true, wants to attack, and everybody protests his love of peace and determination to maintain it, yet the whole world feels that it only requires some unforeseen incident, some unpreventable accident, for the spark to fall in a flash . . . and blow all Europe sky-high.

**FRÉDÉRIC PASSY, quoted in Nobel: The Man and His Prizes**

**Tangled Alliances**
Growing rivalries and mutual mistrust had led to the creation of several military alliances among the Great Powers as early as the 1870s. This alliance system had been designed to keep peace in Europe. But it would instead help push the continent into war.

**Bismarck Forges Early Pacts** Between 1864 and 1871, Prussia’s blood-and-iron chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, freely used war to unify Germany. After 1871, however, Bismarck declared Germany to be a “satisfied power.” He then turned his energies to maintaining peace in Europe.

Bismarck saw France as the greatest threat to peace. He believed that France still wanted revenge for its defeat in the Franco-Prussian War. Bismarck’s first goal, therefore, was to isolate France. “As long as it is without allies,” Bismarck stressed, “France poses no danger to us.” In 1879, Bismarck formed the Dual Alliance between Germany and Austria-Hungary. Three years later, Italy joined the two countries, forming the **Triple Alliance**. In 1881, Bismarck took yet another possible ally away from France by making a treaty with Russia.

**Shifting Alliances Threaten Peace** In 1890, Germany’s foreign policy changed dramatically. That year, Kaiser Wilhelm II—who two years earlier had become ruler of Germany—forced Bismarck to resign. A proud and stubborn man, Wilhelm II did not wish to share power with anyone. Besides wanting to assert his own power, the new kaiser was eager to show the world just how mighty Germany had become. The army was his greatest pride. “I and the army were born for one another,” Wilhelm declared shortly after taking power.
Wilhelm let his nation’s treaty with Russia lapse in 1890. Russia responded by forming a defensive military alliance with France in 1892 and 1894. Such an alliance had been Bismarck’s fear. War with either Russia or France would make Germany the enemy of both. Germany would then be forced to fight a two-front war, or a war on both its eastern and western borders.

Next, Wilhelm began a tremendous shipbuilding program in an effort to make the German navy equal to that of the mighty British fleet. Alarmed, Great Britain formed an entente, or alliance, with France. In 1907, Britain made another entente, this time with both France and Russia. The **Triple Entente**, as it was called, did not bind Britain to fight with France and Russia. However, it did almost certainly ensure that Britain would not fight against them.

By 1907, two rival camps existed in Europe. On one side was the Triple Alliance—Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. On the other side was the Triple Entente—Great Britain, France, and Russia. A dispute between two rival powers could draw all the nations of Europe into war.

**Crisis in the Balkans**

Nowhere was that dispute more likely to occur than on the Balkan Peninsula. This mountainous peninsula in the southeastern corner of Europe was home to an assortment of ethnic groups. With a long history of nationalist uprisings and ethnic clashes, the Balkans was known as the “powder keg” of Europe.

**A Restless Region** By the early 1900s, the Ottoman Empire, which included the Balkan region, was in rapid decline. While some Balkan groups struggled to free themselves from the Ottoman Turks, others already had succeeded in breaking away from their Turkish rulers. These peoples had formed new nations, including Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro, Romania, and Serbia.

Nationalism was a powerful force in these countries. Each group longed to extend its borders. Serbia, for example, had a large Slavic population. It hoped to absorb all the Slavs on the Balkan Peninsula. Russia, itself a mostly Slavic nation, supported Serbian nationalism. However, Serbia’s powerful northern neighbor, Austria-Hungary, opposed such an effort. Austria feared that efforts to create a Slavic state would stir rebellion among its Slavic population.

In 1908, Austria annexed, or took over, Bosnia and Herzegovina. These were two Balkan areas with large Slavic populations. Serbian leaders, who had sought to rule these provinces, were outraged. In the years that followed, tensions between Serbia and Austria steadily rose. The Serbs continually vowed to take Bosnia and Herzegovina away from Austria. In response, Austria-Hungary vowed to crush any Serbian effort to undermine its authority in the Balkans.

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**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps**

1. **Place** What region of the Austro-Hungarian Empire was located along the Adriatic Sea?
2. **Location** Based on the map, why might Serbia have staked a claim to Bosnia and Herzegovina?
A Shot Rings Throughout Europe  Into this poisoned atmosphere of mutual dislike and mistrust stepped the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and his wife, Sophie. On June 28, 1914, the couple paid a state visit to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. It would be their last. The royal pair was shot at point-blank range as they rode through the streets of Sarajevo in an open car. The killer was Gavrilo Princip, a 19-year-old Serbian and member of the Black Hand. The Black Hand was a secret society committed to ridding Bosnia of Austrian rule.

Because the assassin was a Serbian, Austria decided to use the murders as an excuse to punish Serbia. On July 23, Austria presented Serbia with an ultimatum containing numerous demands. Serbia knew that refusing the ultimatum would lead to war against the more powerful Austria. Therefore, Serbian leaders agreed to most of Austria’s demands. They offered to have several others settled by an international conference.

Austria, however, was in no mood to negotiate. The nation’s leaders, it seemed, had already settled on war. On July 28, Austria rejected Serbia’s offer and declared war. That same day, Russia, an ally of Serbia with its largely Slavic population, took action. Russian leaders ordered the mobilization of troops toward the Austrian border.

Leaders all over Europe suddenly took notice. The fragile European stability seemed ready to collapse into armed conflict. The British foreign minister, the Italian government, and even Kaiser Wilhelm himself urged Austria and Russia to negotiate. But it was too late. The machinery of war had been set in motion.

Vocabulary
An ultimatum is a list of demands that, if not met, will lead to serious consequences.

The Armenian Massacre
One group in southeastern Europe that suffered greatly for its independence efforts was the Armenians. By the 1880s, the roughly 2.5 million Armenians in the Ottoman Empire had begun to demand their freedom. As a result, relations between the group and its Turkish rulers grew strained.

Throughout the 1890s, Turkish troops killed tens of thousands of Armenians. When World War I erupted in 1914, the Armenians pledged their support to the Turks’ enemies. In response, the Turkish government deported nearly 2 million Armenians. Along the way, more than 600,000 died of starvation or were killed by Turkish soldiers.

INTERNET ACTIVITY Go online to create a chart or graphic about any aspect of modern Armenian culture.

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• militarism • Triple Alliance • Kaiser Wilhelm II • Triple Entente

USING YOUR NOTES 2. Which event do you consider most significant? Why?

MAIN IDEAS 3. What were the three forces at work in Europe that helped set the stage for war?
4. Who were the members of the Triple Alliance? the Triple Entente?
5. What single event set in motion the start of World War I?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING 6. ANALYZING CAUSES Which of the forces at work in Europe played the greatest role in helping to prompt the outbreak of war?
7. ANALYZING ISSUES Was the description of the Balkans as the “powder keg” of Europe justified? Explain.
8. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS Do you think World War I was avoidable? Use information from the text to support your answer.
9. WRITING ACTIVITY Write a brief letter to the editor of a European newspaper expressing what your views might have been about the coming war.

CONNECT TO TODAY  CREATING A TIME LINE
Working with a partner, use the library and other resources to create a time line of key events in the Balkans from 1914 until today. Limit your time line to the six to eight events you consider most significant.
Europe Plunge into War

MAIN IDEA
SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
One European nation after another was drawn into a large and industrialized war that resulted in many casualties.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW
Much of the technology of modern warfare, such as fighter planes and tanks, was introduced in World War I.

TERMS & NAMES
• Central Powers
• Allies
• Western Front
• Schlieffen Plan
• trench warfare
• Eastern Front

SETTING THE STAGE
By 1914, Europe was divided into two rival camps. One alliance, the Triple Entente, included Great Britain, France, and Russia. The other, known as the Triple Alliance, included Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. Austria-Hungary’s declaration of war against Serbia set off a chain reaction within the alliance system. The countries of Europe followed through on their pledges to support one another. As a result, nearly all of Europe soon joined what would be the largest, most destructive war the world had yet seen.

The Great War Begins
In response to Austria’s declaration of war, Russia, Serbia’s ally, began moving its army toward the Russian-Austrian border. Expecting Germany to join Austria, Russia also mobilized along the German border. To Germany, Russia’s mobilization amounted to a declaration of war. On August 1, the German government declared war on Russia.

Russia looked to its ally France for help. Germany, however, did not even wait for France to react. Two days after declaring war on Russia, Germany also declared war on France. Soon afterward, Great Britain declared war on Germany. Much of Europe was now locked in battle.

Nations Take Sides
By mid-August 1914, the battle lines were clearly drawn. On one side were Germany and Austria-Hungary. They were known as the Central Powers because of their location in the heart of Europe. Bulgaria and the Ottoman Empire would later join the Central Powers in the hopes of regaining lost territories.

On the other side were Great Britain, France, and Russia. Together, they were known as the Allied Powers or the Allies. Japan joined the Allies within weeks. Italy joined later. Italy had been a member of the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austria-Hungary. However, the Italians joined the other side after accusing their former partners of unjustly starting the war.

In the late summer of 1914, millions of soldiers marched happily off to battle, convinced that the war would be short. Only a few people foresaw the horror ahead. One of them was Britain’s foreign minister, Sir Edward Grey. Staring out over London at nightfall, Grey said sadly to a friend, “The lamps are going out all over Europe. We shall not see them lit again in our lifetime.”
A Bloody Stalemate

It did not take long for Sir Edward Grey’s prediction to ring true. As the summer of 1914 turned to fall, the war turned into a long and bloody stalemate, or deadlock, along the battlefields of France. This deadlocked region in northern France became known as the **Western Front**.

**The Conflict Grinds Along**  
Facing a war on two fronts, Germany had developed a battle strategy known as the **Schlieffen Plan**, named after its designer, General Alfred Graf von Schlieffen (SHLEE•fuhn). The plan called for attacking and defeating France in the west and then rushing east to fight Russia. The Germans felt they could carry out such a plan because Russia lagged behind the rest of Europe in its railroad system and thus would take longer to supply its front lines. Nonetheless, speed was vital to the Schlieffen Plan. German leaders knew they needed to win a quick victory over France.

Early on, it appeared that Germany would do just that. By early September, German forces had swept into France and reached the outskirts of Paris. A major German victory appeared just days away. On September 5, however, the Allies regrouped and attacked the Germans northeast of Paris, in the valley of the Marne River. Every available soldier was hurled into the struggle. When reinforcements were needed, more than 600 taxicabs rushed soldiers from Paris to the front. After four days of fighting, the German generals gave the order to retreat.

Although it was only the first major clash on the Western Front, the First Battle of the Marne was perhaps the single most important event of the war. The defeat
of the Germans left the Schlieffen Plan in ruins. A quick victory in the west no longer seemed possible. In the east, Russian forces had already invaded Germany. Germany was going to have to fight a long war on two fronts. Realizing this, the German high command sent thousands of troops from France to aid its forces in the east. Meanwhile, the war on the Western Front settled into a stalemate.

**War in the Trenches** By early 1915, opposing armies on the Western Front had dug miles of parallel trenches to protect themselves from enemy fire. This set the stage for what became known as *trench warfare*. In this type of warfare, soldiers fought each other from trenches. And armies traded huge losses of human life for pitifully small land gains.

Life in the trenches was pure misery. “The men slept in mud, washed in mud, ate mud, and dreamed mud,” wrote one soldier. The trenches swarmed with rats. Fresh food was nonexistent. Sleep was nearly impossible.

The space between the opposing trenches won the grim name “no man’s land.” When the officers ordered an attack, their men went over the top of their trenches into this bombed-out landscape. There, they usually met murderous rounds of machine-gun fire. Staying put, however, did not ensure one’s safety. Artillery fire brought death right into the trenches. “Shells of all calibers kept raining on our sector,” wrote one French soldier. “The trenches disappeared, filled with earth . . . the air was unbreathable. Our blinded, wounded, crawling, and shouting soldiers kept falling on top of us and died splashing us with blood. It was living hell.”

The Western Front had become a “terrain of death.” It stretched nearly 500 miles from the North Sea to the Swiss border. A British officer described it in a letter:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

Imagine a broad belt, ten miles or so in width, stretching from the Channel to the German frontier near Basle, which is positively littered with the bodies of men and scarified with their rude graves; in which farms, villages and cottages are shapeless heaps of blackened masonry; in which fields, roads and trees are pitted and torn and twisted by shells and disfigured by dead horses, cattle, sheep and goats, scattered in every attitude of repulsive distortion and dismemberment.

*VALENTINE FLEMING*, quoted in *The First World War*
Military strategists were at a loss. New tools of war—machine guns, poison gas, armored tanks, larger artillery—had not delivered the fast-moving war they had expected. All this new technology did was kill greater numbers of people more effectively.

The slaughter reached a peak in 1916. In February, the Germans launched a massive attack against the French near Verdun. Each side lost more than 300,000 men. In July, the British army tried to relieve the pressure on the French. British forces attacked the Germans northwest of Verdun, in the valley of the Somme River. In the first day of battle alone, more than 20,000 British soldiers were killed. By the time the Battle of the Somme ended in November, each side had suffered more than half a million casualties.

What did the warring sides gain? Near Verdun, the Germans advanced about four miles. In the Somme valley, the British gained about five miles.

The Battle on the Eastern Front

Even as the war on the Western Front claimed thousands of lives, both sides were sending millions more men to fight on the Eastern Front. This area was a stretch of battlefield along the German and Russian border. Here, Russians and Serbs battled Germans and Austro-Hungarians. The war in the east was a more mobile war than that in the west. Here too, however, slaughter and stalemate were common.

Early Fighting At the beginning of the war, Russian forces had launched an attack into both Austria and Germany. At the end of August, Germany counterattacked near the town of Tannenberg. During the four-day battle, the Germans crushed the
invading Russian army and drove it into full retreat. More than 30,000 Russian soldiers were killed.

Russia fared somewhat better against the Austrians. Russian forces defeated the Austrians twice in September 1914, driving deep into their country. Not until December of that year did the Austrian army manage to turn the tide. Austria defeated the Russians and eventually pushed them out of Austria-Hungary.

**Russia Struggles** By 1916, Russia’s war effort was near collapse. Unlike the nations of western Europe, Russia had yet to become industrialized. As a result, the Russian army was continually short on food, guns, ammunition, clothes, boots, and blankets. Moreover, the Allied supply shipments to Russia were sharply limited by German control of the Baltic Sea, combined with Germany’s relentless submarine campaign in the North Sea and beyond. In the south, the Ottomans still controlled the straits leading from the Mediterranean to the Black Sea.

The Russian army had only one asset—its numbers. Throughout the war the Russian army suffered a staggering number of battlefield losses. Yet the army continually rebuilt its ranks from the country’s enormous population. For more than three years, the battered Russian army managed to tie up hundreds of thousands of German troops in the east. As a result, Germany could not hurl its full fighting force at the west.

Germany and her allies, however, were concerned with more than just the Eastern or Western Front. As the war raged on, fighting spread beyond Europe to Africa, as well as to Southwest and Southeast Asia. In the years after it began, the massive European conflict indeed became a world war.
Military Aviation

World War I introduced airplane warfare—and by doing so, ushered in an era of tremendous progress in the field of military aviation. Although the plane itself was relatively new and untested by 1914, the warring nations quickly recognized its potential as a powerful weapon. Throughout the conflict, countries on both sides built faster and stronger aircraft, and designed them to drop bombs and shoot at one another in the sky. Between the beginning and end of the war, the total number of planes in use by the major combatants soared from around 850 to nearly 10,000. After the war, countries continued to maintain a strong and advanced airforce, as they realized that supremacy of the air was a key to military victory.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Two Top Fighter Planes: A Comparison</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fokker D VII</strong> (German)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length: 23 feet</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wingspan: 29 feet 3 inches</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximum Speed: 116 mph</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximum Height: 22,900 feet</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximum Flight Time: 1.5 hours</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Sopwith F1 Camel</strong> (British)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Length: 18 feet 8 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wingspan: 28 feet</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximum Speed: 122 mph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum Height: 24,000 feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum Flight Time: 2.5 hours</td>
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</tbody>
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1. Designers kept nearly all weight in the center, giving the planes tremendous maneuverability.
2. A timing device enabled machine guns to fire through the propeller.
3. Engines were continuously strengthened for greater speed and carrying capability.

▲ A World War I pilot shows off an early air-to-ground communication device.

**Connect to Today**

1. **Drawing Conclusions** Why would communication with someone outside the plane be important for pilots of World War I and today?


2. **Comparing** Using the Internet and other resources, find out more about a recent innovation with regard to fighter planes and explain its significance.
A Global Conflict

**MAIN IDEA**

**ECONOMICS** World War I spread to several continents and required the full resources of many governments.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**

The war propelled the United States to a new position of international power, which it holds today.

**TERMS & NAMES**

- unrestricted submarine warfare
- total war
- rationing
- propaganda
- armistice

**SETTING THE STAGE**

World War I was much more than a European conflict. Australia and Japan, for example, entered the war on the Allies’ side, while India supplied troops to fight alongside their British rulers. Meanwhile, the Ottoman Turks and later Bulgaria allied themselves with Germany and the Central Powers. As the war promised to be a grim, drawn-out affair, all the Great Powers looked for other allies around the globe to tip the balance. They also sought new war fronts on which to achieve victory.

**War Affects the World**

As the war dragged on, the main combatants looked beyond Europe for a way to end the stalemate. However, none of the alliances they formed or new battlefronts they opened did much to end the slow and grinding conflict.

**The Gallipoli Campaign**

A promising strategy for the Allies seemed to be to attack a region in the Ottoman Empire known as the Dardanelles. This narrow sea strait was the gateway to the Ottoman capital, Constantinople. By securing the Dardanelles, the Allies believed that they could take Constantinople, defeat the Turks, and establish a supply line to Russia.

The effort to take the Dardanelles strait began in February 1915. It was known as the Gallipoli campaign. British, Australian, New Zealand, and French troops made repeated assaults on the Gallipoli Peninsula on the western side of the strait. Turkish troops, some commanded by German officers, vigorously defended the region. By May, Gallipoli had turned into another bloody stalemate. Both sides dug trenches, from which they battled for the rest of the year. In December, the Allies gave up the campaign and began to evacuate. They had suffered about 250,000 casualties.

**Battles in Africa and Asia**

In various parts of Asia and Africa, Germany’s colonial possessions came under assault. The Japanese quickly overran German outposts in...
The United States enters the war on the side of the Allies in 1917.

Brazil is the only South American country to enter the war. It supports the Allies with warships and personnel.

The European colonies throughout Africa become a battlefield as the warring parties strike at one another’s colonial possessions.

India provides about 1.3 million men to fight and labor alongside their British rulers throughout Europe.

Both countries fight on the side of the Allies and contribute many troops to the 1915 Gallipoli campaign in Southwest Asia.

China. They also captured Germany’s Pacific island colonies. English and French troops attacked Germany’s four African possessions. They seized control of three.

Elsewhere in Asia and Africa, the British and French recruited subjects in their colonies for the struggle. Fighting troops as well as laborers came from India, South Africa, Senegal, Egypt, Algeria, and Indochina. Many fought and died on the battlefield. Others worked to keep the front lines supplied. To be sure, some colonial subjects wanted nothing to do with their European rulers’ conflicts. Others volunteered in the hope that service would lead to their independence. This was the view of Indian political leader Mohandas Gandhi, who supported Indian participation in the war. “If we would improve our status through the help and cooperation of the British,” he wrote, “it was our duty to win their help by standing by them in their hour of need.”

**America Joins the Fight** In 1917, the focus of the war shifted to the high seas. That year, the Germans intensified the submarine warfare that had raged in the Atlantic Ocean since shortly after the war began. In January 1917, the Germans announced that their submarines would sink without warning any ship in the waters around Britain. This policy was called *unrestricted submarine warfare*.

The Germans had tried this policy before. On May 7, 1915, a German submarine, or U-boat, had sunk the British passenger ship *Lusitania*. The attack left 1,198 people dead, including 128 U.S. citizens. Germany claimed that the ship had been carrying ammunition, which turned out to be true. Nevertheless, the American public was outraged. President Woodrow Wilson sent a strong protest to Germany. After two further attacks, the Germans finally agreed to stop attacking neutral and passenger ships.
Desperate for an advantage over the Allies, however, the Germans returned to unrestricted submarine warfare in 1917. They knew it might lead to war with the United States. They gambled that their naval blockade would starve Britain into defeat before the United States could mobilize. Ignoring warnings by President Wilson, German U-boats sank three American ships.

In February 1917, another German action pushed the United States closer to war. Officials intercepted a telegram written by Germany’s foreign secretary, Arthur Zimmermann, stating that Germany would help Mexico “reconquer” the land it had lost to the United States if Mexico would ally itself with Germany.

The Zimmermann note simply proved to be the last straw. A large part of the American population already favored the Allies. In particular, America felt a bond with England. The two nations shared a common ancestry and language, as well as similar democratic institutions and legal systems. More important, America’s economic ties with the Allies were far stronger than those with the Central Powers. On April 2, 1917, President Wilson asked Congress to declare war on Germany. The United States entered the war on the side of the Allies.

**War Affects the Home Front**

By the time the United States joined the Allies, the war had been raging for nearly three years. In those three years, Europe had lost more men in battle than in all the wars of the previous three centuries. The war had claimed the lives of millions and had changed countless lives forever. The Great War, as the conflict came to be known, affected everyone. It touched not only the soldiers in the trenches, but civilians as well.

**Governments Wage Total War** World War I soon became a *total war*. This meant that countries devoted all their resources to the war effort. In Britain, Germany, Austria, Russia, and France, the entire force of government was dedicated to winning the conflict. In each country, the wartime government took control of the economy. Governments told factories what to produce and how much.

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**Global Impact**

**The Influenza Epidemic**

In the spring of 1918, a powerful new enemy emerged, threatening nations on each side of World War I. This “enemy” was a deadly strain of influenza. The Spanish flu, as it was popularly known, hit England and India in May. By the fall, it had spread through Europe, Russia, Asia, and to the United States.

The influenza epidemic killed soldiers and civilians alike. In India, at least 12 million people died of influenza. In Berlin, on a single day in October, 1,500 people died. In the end, this global epidemic was more destructive than the war itself, killing 20 million people worldwide.

◆ City officials and street cleaners in Chicago guard against the Spanish flu.
Numerous facilities were converted to munitions factories. Nearly every able-bodied civilian was put to work. Unemployment in many European countries all but disappeared.

So many goods were in short supply that governments turned to rationing. Under this system, people could buy only small amounts of those items that were also needed for the war effort. Eventually, rationing covered a wide range of goods, from butter to shoe leather.

Governments also suppressed antiwar activity, sometimes forcibly. In addition, they censored news about the war. Many leaders feared that honest reporting of the war would turn people against it. Governments also used propaganda, one-sided information designed to persuade, to keep up morale and support for the war.

**Women and the War** Total war meant that governments turned to help from women as never before. Thousands of women replaced men in factories, offices, and shops. Women built tanks and munitions, plowed fields, paved streets, and ran hospitals. They also kept troops supplied with food, clothing, and weapons. Although most women left the work force when the war ended, they changed many people’s views of what women were capable of doing.

Women also saw the horrors of war firsthand, working on or near the front lines as nurses. Here, American nurse Shirley Millard describes her experience with a soldier who had lost both eyes and feet:

**A Primary Source**

He moaned through the bandages that his head was splitting with pain. I gave him morphine. Suddenly aware of the fact that he had [numerous] wounds, he asked: “Sa-ay! What’s the matter with my legs?” Reaching down to feel his legs before I could stop him, he uttered a heartbreaking scream. I held his hands firmly until the drug I had given him took effect.

**Shirley Millard, I Saw Them Die**

**The Allies Win the War**

With the United States finally in the war, the balance, it seemed, was about to tip in the Allies’ favor. Before that happened, however, events in Russia gave Germany a victory on the Eastern Front, and new hope for winning the conflict.

**Russia Withdraws** In March 1917, civil unrest in Russia—due in large part to war-related shortages of food and fuel—forced Czar Nicholas to step down. In his place a provisional government was established. The new government pledged to continue fighting the war. However, by 1917, nearly 5.5 million Russian soldiers had been wounded, killed, or taken prisoner. As a result, the war-weary Russian army refused to fight any longer.

Eight months after the new government took over, a revolution shook Russia (see Chapter 14). In November 1917, Communist leader Vladimir Ilyich Lenin seized power. Lenin insisted on ending his country’s involvement in the war. One of his first acts was to offer Germany a truce. In March 1918, Germany and Russia signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, which ended the war between them.
The Central Powers Collapse  
Russia’s withdrawal from the war at last allowed Germany to send nearly all its forces to the Western Front. In March 1918, the Germans mounted one final, massive attack on the Allies in France. As in the opening weeks of the war, the German forces crushed everything in their path. By late May 1918, the Germans had again reached the Marne River. Paris was less than 40 miles away. Victory seemed within reach.

By this time, however, the German military had weakened. The effort to reach the Marne had exhausted men and supplies alike. Sensing this weakness, the Allies—with the aid of nearly 140,000 fresh U.S. troops—launched a counterattack. In July 1918, the Allies and Germans clashed at the Second Battle of the Marne. Leading the Allied attack were some 350 tanks that rumbled slowly forward, smashing through the German lines. With the arrival of 2 million more American troops, the Allied forces began to advance steadily toward Germany.

Soon, the Central Powers began to crumble. First the Bulgarians and then the Ottoman Turks surrendered. In October, revolution swept through Austria-Hungary. In Germany, soldiers mutinied, and the public turned on the kaiser. On November 9, 1918, Kaiser Wilhelm II stepped down. Germany declared itself a republic. A representative of the new German government met with French Commander Marshal Foch in a railway car near Paris. The two signed an armistice, or an agreement to stop fighting. On November 11, World War I came to an end.

The Legacy of the War  
World War I was, in many ways, a new kind of war. It involved the use of new technologies. It ushered in the notion of war on a grand and global scale. It also left behind a landscape of death and destruction such as was never before seen.

Both sides in World War I paid a tremendous price in terms of human life. About 8.5 million soldiers died as a result of the war. Another 21 million were wounded. In addition, the war led to the death of countless civilians by way of
World War I Statistics

Total Number of Troops Mobilized

- **Allied Powers:** 42 million
- **Central Powers:** 23 million

Battlefield Deaths of Major Combatants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nation</th>
<th>Deaths</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>116,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1.8 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>1.7 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ottoman Empire</td>
<td>325,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria-Hungary</td>
<td>1.2 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>650,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Empire</td>
<td>908,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1.3 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Includes troops from Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India, and South Africa

Source: Encyclopaedia Britannica

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Graphs

1. Comparing Which Allied nation suffered the greatest number of battlefield deaths?
2. Analyzing Issues Which four nations accounted for about 75 percent of all battlefield deaths?

starvation, disease, and slaughter. Taken together, these figures spelled tragedy—an entire generation of Europeans wiped out.

The war also had a devastating economic impact on Europe. The great conflict drained the treasuries of European countries. One account put the total cost of the war at $338 billion, a staggering amount for that time. The war also destroyed acres of farmland, as well as homes, villages, and towns.

The enormous suffering that resulted from the Great War left a deep mark on Western society as well. A sense of disillusionment settled over the survivors. The insecurity and despair that many people experienced are reflected in the art and literature of the time.

Another significant legacy of the war lay in its peace agreement. As you will read in the next section, the treaties to end World War I were forged after great debate and compromise. And while they sought to bring a new sense of security and peace to the world, they prompted mainly anger and resentment.

SECTION ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
- unrestricted submarine warfare
- total war
- rationing
- propaganda
- armistice

USING YOUR NOTES 2. Which effect do you think was most significant? Why?

MAIN IDEAS 3. What factors helped prompt the United States to join the war for the Allies?
4. What role did women play in the war?
5. What was the significance of the Second Battle of the Marne?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING 6. ANALYZING ISSUES In what ways was World War I truly a global conflict?
7. FORMING OPINIONS Do you think governments are justified in censoring war news? Why or why not?
8. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS Which of the non-European countries had the greatest impact on the war effort? Explain.
9. WRITING ACTIVITY ECONOMICS Write a paragraph explaining how the concept of total war affected the warring nations’ economies.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A GRAPHIC
Using the library and other resources, compare the role of women in combat today in any two countries. Display your comparison in a chart or other type of graphic.


**Different Perspectives: Using Primary and Secondary Sources**

**Views of War**

When World War I broke out, Europe had not experienced a war involving all the major powers for nearly a century, since Napoleon’s defeat in 1815. As a result, people had an unrealistic view of warfare. Many expected the war to be short and romantic. Many men enlisted in the army because of patriotism or out of a desire to defend certain institutions. What the soldiers experienced changed their view of war forever.

**A PRIMARY SOURCE**

**Woodrow Wilson**

On April 2, 1917, President Wilson asked Congress to declare war so that the United States could enter World War I. This excerpt from his speech gives some of his reasons.

The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifice we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them.

**B FICTION**

**Erich Maria Remarque**

In the German novel *All Quiet on the Western Front*, Erich Maria Remarque draws upon his own wartime experience of trench warfare.

No one would believe that in this howling waste there could still be men; but steel helmets now appear on all sides of the trench, and fifty yards from us a machine-gun is already in position and barking.

The wire entanglements are torn to pieces. Yet they offer some obstacle. We see the storm-troops coming. Our artillery opens fire... 

I see [a French soldier], his face upturned, fall into a wire cradle. His body collapses, his hands remain suspended as though he were praying. Then his body drops clean away and only his hands with the stumps of his arms, shot off, now hang in the wire.

**C POETRY**

**Wilfred Owen**

The English poet Wilfred Owen was killed in the trenches just one week before World War I ended. This excerpt from his poem “Dulce et Decorum Est” describes a gas attack.

Gas! GAS! Quick, boys!—An ecstasy of fumbling,
Fitting the clumsy helmets just in time;
But someone still was yelling out and stumbling,
And flound'ring like a man in fire or lime...

Dim, through the misty panes and thick green light,
As under a green sea, I saw him drowning.

In all my dreams, before my helpless sight,
He plunges at me, guttering, choking, drowning.

**D PRIMARY SOURCE**

**Maurice Neumont**

France, 1918

This French poster is titled, “They Shall Not Pass, 1914–1918.” Translated into English, the text at the bottom reads, “Twice I have stood fast and conquered on the Marne, my brother civilian. A deceptive ‘peace offensive’ will attack you in your turn; like me you must stand firm and conquer. Be strong and shrewd—beware of Boche [German] hypocrisy.”

**Document-Based Questions**

1. What reasons does Woodrow Wilson (Source A) give for entering the war?
2. What emotions does the French poster (Source D) try to arouse?
3. Judging from Sources B and C, what was it like for the average soldier in the trenches? Explain how you think such experiences affected the average soldier’s view of war.
A Flawed Peace

**POWER AND AUTHORITY** After winning the war, the Allies dictated a harsh peace settlement that left many nations feeling betrayed.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW** Hard feelings left by the peace settlement helped cause World War II.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TERMS &amp; NAMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Woodrow Wilson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georges Clemenceau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourteen Points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-determination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treaty of Versailles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>League of Nations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SETTING THE STAGE** World War I was over. The killing had stopped. The terms of peace, however, still had to be worked out. On January 18, 1919, a conference to establish those terms began at the Palace of Versailles, outside Paris. Attending the talks, known as the Paris Peace Conference, were delegates representing 32 countries. For one year, this conference would be the scene of vigorous, often bitter debate. The Allied powers struggled to solve their conflicting aims in various peace treaties.

**The Allies Meet and Debate**

Despite representatives from numerous countries, the meeting’s major decisions were hammered out by a group known as the Big Four: Woodrow Wilson of the United States, Georges Clemenceau of France, David Lloyd George of Great Britain, and Vittorio Orlando of Italy. Russia, in the grip of civil war, was not represented. Neither were Germany and its allies.

**Wilson’s Plan for Peace** In January 1918, while the war was still raging, President Wilson had drawn up a series of peace proposals. Known as the Fourteen Points, they outlined a plan for achieving a just and lasting peace.

The first four points included an end to secret treaties, freedom of the seas, free trade, and reduced national armies and navies. The fifth goal was the adjustment of colonial claims with fairness toward colonial peoples. The sixth through thirteenth points were specific suggestions for changing borders and creating new nations. The guiding idea behind these points was self-determination. This meant allowing people to decide for themselves under what government they wished to live.

Finally, the fourteenth point proposed a “general association of nations” that would protect “great and small states alike.” This reflected Wilson’s hope for an organization that could peacefully negotiate solutions to world conflicts.

**The Versailles Treaty** As the Paris Peace Conference opened, Britain and France showed little sign of agreeing to Wilson’s vision of peace. Both nations were concerned with national security. They also wanted to strip Germany of its war-making power.

The differences in French, British, and U.S. aims led to heated arguments among the nations’ leaders. Finally a compromise was reached. The Treaty of Versailles
between Germany and the Allied powers was signed on June 28, 1919, five years to the day after Franz Ferdinand’s assassination in Sarajevo. Adopting Wilson’s fourteenth point, the treaty created a League of Nations. The league was to be an international association whose goal would be to keep peace among nations.

The treaty also punished Germany. The defeated nation lost substantial territory and had severe restrictions placed on its military operations. As tough as these provisions were, the harshest was Article 231. It was also known as the “war guilt” clause. It placed sole responsibility for the war on Germany’s shoulders. As a result, Germany had to pay reparations to the Allies.

All of Germany’s territories in Africa and the Pacific were declared mandates, or territories to be administered by the League of Nations. Under the peace agreement, the Allies would govern the mandates until they were judged ready for independence.

A Troubled Treaty

The Versailles treaty was just one of five treaties negotiated by the Allies. In the end, these agreements created feelings of bitterness and betrayal—among the victors and the defeated.

The Creation of New Nations The Western powers signed separate peace treaties in 1919 and 1920 with each of the other defeated nations: Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and the Ottoman Empire. These treaties, too, led to huge land losses for the Central Powers. Several new countries were created out of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia were all recognized as independent nations.

The Ottoman Turks were forced to give up almost all of their former empire. They retained only the territory that is today the country of Turkey. The Allies carved up the lands that the Ottomans lost in Southwest Asia into mandates rather than independent nations. Palestine, Iraq, and Transjordan came under British control; Syria and Lebanon went to France.

Russia, which had left the war early, suffered land losses as well. Romania and Poland both gained Russian territory. Finland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, formerly part of Russia, became independent nations.

“A Peace Built on Quicksand” In the end, the Treaty of Versailles did little to build a lasting peace. For one thing, the United States—considered after the war to be the dominant nation in the world—ultimately rejected the treaty. Many Americans objected to the settlement and especially to President Wilson’s League of Nations. Americans believed that the United States’ best hope for peace was to stay out of European affairs. The United States worked out a separate treaty with Germany and its allies several years later.
Europe Pre-World War I

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. Region Which Central Powers nation appears to have lost the most territory?
2. Location On which nation's former lands were most of the new countries created?

Europe Post-World War I
In addition, the treaty with Germany, in particular the war-guilt clause, left a legacy of bitterness and hatred in the hearts of the German people. Other countries felt cheated and betrayed by the peace settlements as well. Throughout Africa and Asia, people in the mandated territories were angry at the way the Allies disregarded their desire for independence. The European powers, it seemed to them, merely talked about the principle of national self-determination. European colonialism, disguised as the mandate system, continued in Asia and Africa.

Some Allied powers, too, were embittered by the outcome. Both Japan and Italy, which had entered the war to gain territory, had gained less than they wanted. Lacking the support of the United States, and later other world powers, the League of Nations was in no position to take action on these and other complaints. The settlements at Versailles represented, as one observer noted, “a peace built on quicksand.” Indeed, that quicksand eventually would give way. In a little more than two decades, the treaties’ legacy of bitterness would help plunge the world into another catastrophic war.
The Great War

Long-Term Causes

• Nationalism spurs competition among European nations.
• Imperialism deepens national rivalries.
• Militarism leads to large standing armies.
• The alliance system divides Europe into two rival camps.

Immediate Causes

• The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand in June 1914 prompts Austria to declare war on Serbia.
• The alliance system requires nations to support their allies.

Immediate Effects

• A generation of Europeans is killed or wounded.
• Dynasties fall in Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia.
• New countries are created.
• The League of Nations is established to help promote peace.

Long-Term Effects

• Many nations feel bitter and betrayed by the peace settlements.
• Forces that helped cause the war—nationalism, competition—remain.

 TERMS & NAMES

For each term below, briefly explain its connection to World War I.

1. Triple Alliance
2. Triple Entente
3. Central Powers
4. Allies
5. total war
6. armistice
7. Fourteen Points
8. Treaty of Versailles

MAIN IDEAS

Marching Toward War Section 1 (pages 407–410)

9. How did nationalism, imperialism, and militarism help set the stage for World War I?
10. Why was the Balkans known as “the powder keg of Europe”?

Europe Plunges into War Section 2 (pages 411–416)

11. Why was the first Battle of the Marne considered so significant?
12. Where was the Western Front? the Eastern Front?
13. What were the characteristics of trench warfare?

A Global Conflict Section 3 (pages 417–423)

14. What was the purpose of the Gallipoli campaign?
15. What factors prompted the United States to enter the war?
16. In what ways was World War I a total war?

A Flawed Peace Section 4 (pages 424–427)

17. What was the purpose of the League of Nations?
18. What was the mandate system, and why did it leave many groups feeling betrayed?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. USING YOUR NOTES

Trace the formation of the two major alliance systems that dominated Europe on the eve of World War I by providing the event that corresponds with each date on the chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1879</th>
<th>1881</th>
<th>1892, 1894</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1882</td>
<td>1890</td>
<td>1907</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. EVALUATING DECISIONS

POWER AND AUTHORITY

How did the Treaty of Versailles reflect the different personalities and agendas of the men in power at the end of World War I?

3. CLARIFYING

ECONOMICS

How did the war have both a positive and negative impact on the economies of Europe?

4. ANALYZING ISSUES

One British official commented that the Allied victory in World War I had been “bought so dear [high in price] as to be indistinguishable from defeat.” What did he mean by this statement? Use examples from the text to support your answer.
The responsibility for the death of so many American citizens, which is deeply regretted by everyone in Germany, in a large measure falls upon the American government. It could not admit that Americans were being used as shields for English contraband [smuggled goods]. In this regard America had permitted herself to be misused in a disgraceful manner by England. And now, instead of calling England to account, she sends a note to the German government.

from Vossische Zeitung, May 18, 1915

1. Which of the following statements best describes the sentiments of the writer?
   - A. The sinking of the Lusitania was a tragic mistake.
   - B. America was right to blame Germany for the attack.
   - C. The American government failed to protect its citizens.
   - D. England should keep its vessels off the Atlantic Ocean.

2. The sinking of the Lusitania ultimately played a role in prompting Germany to
   - A. abandon the Schlieffen Plan.
   - B. halt unrestricted submarine warfare.
   - C. declare war on the United States.
   - D. begin a widespread rationing program.

3. Which of the following best describes the depiction of the German soldier in this poster?
   - A. noble and courageous
   - B. weak and disorganized
   - C. cruel and barbaric
   - D. dangerous and cunning

For additional test practice, go online for:
- Diagnostic tests
- Strategies
- Tutorials

STANDARDS-BASED ASSESSMENT

Use the quotation about Germany’s sinking of the British passenger ship Lusitania and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

Interactive with History

On page 406, you examined whether it is always right to support an ally or friend. Now that you have read the chapter, reevaluate your decision. If you chose to follow your ally into World War I, do you still feel it was the right thing to do? Why or why not? If you decided to stay out of war, what are your feelings now? Discuss your opinions with a small group.

Focus on Writing

[Science and Technology] Explain in several paragraphs which one of the new or enhanced weapons of World War I you think had the greatest impact on the war and why. Consider the following:
- which weapon might have had the widest use
- which weapon might have inflicted the greatest damage on the enemy

Multimedia Activity

Conducting Internet Research

While World War I was extremely costly, staying prepared for the possibility of war today is also expensive. Work in groups of three or four to research the defense budgets of several of the world’s nations. Have each group member be responsible for one country. Go to the Web Research Guide at hmhsocialstudies.com to learn about conducting research on the Internet. Use your research to
- examine how much money each country spends on defense, as well as what percentage of the overall budget such spending represents.
- create a large comparison chart of the countries’ budgets.
- discuss with your classmates whether the amounts spent for military and defense are justified.

Present your research to the class. Include a list of your Web resources.
When U.S. troops arrived in Europe in 1917 to fight in World War I, the war had been dragging on for nearly three years. The American soldiers suddenly found themselves in the midst of chaos. Each day, they faced the threats of machine gun fire, poison gas, and aerial attacks. Still, the arrival of American reinforcements had sparked a new zeal among the Allies, who believed the new forces could finally turn the tide in their favor. The letters soldiers wrote to their families back home reveal the many emotions they felt on the battlefield: confusion about their surroundings, fear for their own safety, concern for friends and loved ones, and hope that the war would soon be over.

Explore World War I online through the eyes of the soldiers who fought in it. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more at hmhsocialstudies.com.
“I have been on every front in France. You can’t imagine how torn up this country really is. Everywhere there are wire entanglements and trenches and dugouts. Even out of the war zone there are entanglements and dugouts to protect the civilians from air raids.”

-Corp. Albert Smith, U.S. soldier

**Letter from France**
Read the document to learn about one soldier’s observations of wartime life.
Revolution and Nationalism, 1900–1939

Previewing Themes

**REVOLUTION** Widespread social unrest troubled China and Russia during the late 1800s and early 1900s. Eventually revolutions erupted.

**Geography** Study the time line. In what years did revolutions take place in China and in Russia?

**POWER AND AUTHORITY** New nations appeared during the 1920s and 1930s in the former Ottoman Empire in Southwest Asia. These nations adopted a variety of government styles—from a republic to a monarchy.

**Geography** According to the map, which new nations in Southwest Asia emerged from the former Ottoman Empire?

**EMPIRE BUILDING** Nationalist movements in Southwest Asia, India, and China successfully challenged the British, Ottoman, and Chinese Empires.

**Geography** According to the map, which European nations still control large areas of Southwest Asia?

### What You Will Learn

In this chapter you will learn that the political upheavals that swept through Russia, China, and India resulted in Russia forming a totalitarian state, China undergoing a civil war, and India gaining limited self-rule.

**SECTION 1 Revolutions in Russia**

**Main Idea** Long-term social unrest in Russia exploded in revolution, and ushered in the first Communist government.

**SECTION 2 Totalitarianism**

**Case Study: Stalinist Russia**

**Main Idea** After Lenin died, Stalin seized power and transformed the Soviet Union into a totalitarian state.

**SECTION 3 Imperial China Collapses**

**Main Idea** After the fall of the Qing dynasty, nationalist and Communist movements struggled for power.

**SECTION 4 Nationalism in India and Southwest Asia**

**Main Idea** Nationalism triggered independence movements to overthrow colonial powers.
How do you resist oppressive rule—with violent or nonviolent action?

You believe that the policies of your government are unjust and oppressive. The policies favor a small, wealthy class—but the vast majority of people are poor with few rights. The government has failed to tackle economic, social, and political problems. Many of your friends are joining revolutionary groups that plan to overthrow the government by force. Others support nonviolent methods of change, such as peaceful strikes, protests, and refusal to obey unjust laws. You wonder which course of action to choose.

**Mao Zedong.** Communist leader, believed revolution would solve China’s problems.

“Political power grows out of the barrel of a gun.”

**Mohandas K. Gandhi** became the leader of the independence movement to free India of British rule.

“Victory attained by violence is tantamount to a defeat, for it is momentary.”

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**EXAMINING the ISSUES**

- How might armed and powerful opponents respond to groups committed to nonviolent action?
- Which strategy might prove more successful and bring more long-lasting consequences? Why?

As a class, discuss these questions. In your discussion, consider what you have learned about the strategies revolutionaries use to accomplish change. As you read about the revolutions and independence movements, see which strategy was successful.
Revolution and Nationalism 433

Revolutions in Russia

MAIN IDEA

REVOLUTION Long-term social unrest in Russia exploded in revolution, and ushered in the first Communist government.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

The Communist Party controlled the Soviet Union until the country’s breakup in 1991.

TERMS & NAMES

• proletariat
• Bolsheviks
• Lenin
• Rasputin
• provisional government
• soviet
• Communist Party
• Joseph Stalin

SETTING THE STAGE

The Russian Revolution was like a firecracker with a very long fuse. The explosion came in 1917, yet the fuse had been burning for nearly a century. The cruel, oppressive rule of most 19th-century czars caused widespread social unrest for decades. Army officers revolted in 1825. Secret revolutionary groups plotted to overthrow the government. In 1881, revolutionaries angry over the slow pace of political change assassinated the reform-minded czar, Alexander II. Russia was heading toward a full-scale revolution.

Czars Resist Change

In 1881, Alexander III succeeded his father, Alexander II, and halted all reforms in Russia. Like his grandfather Nicholas I, Alexander III clung to the principles of autocracy, a form of government in which he had total power. Anyone who questioned the absolute authority of the czar, worshiped outside the Russian Orthodox Church, or spoke a language other than Russian was labeled dangerous.

Czars Continue Autocratic Rule

To wipe out revolutionaries, Alexander III used harsh measures. He imposed strict censorship codes on published materials and written documents, including private letters. His secret police carefully watched both secondary schools and universities. Teachers had to send detailed reports on every student. Political prisoners were sent to Siberia, a remote region of eastern Russia.

To establish a uniform Russian culture, Alexander III oppressed other national groups within Russia. He made Russian the official language of the empire and forbade the use of minority languages, such as Polish, in schools. Alexander made Jews the target of persecution. A wave of pogroms—organized violence against Jews—broke out in many parts of Russia. Police and soldiers stood by and watched Russian citizens loot and destroy Jewish homes, stores, and synagogues.

When Nicholas II became czar in 1894, he continued the tradition of Russian autocracy. Unfortunately, it blinded him to the changing conditions of his times.
Russia Industrializes

Rapid industrialization changed the face of the Russian economy. The number of factories more than doubled between 1863 and 1900. Still, Russia lagged behind the industrial nations of western Europe. In the 1890s, Nicholas’s most capable minister launched a program to move the country forward. To finance the buildup of Russian industries, the government sought foreign investors and raised taxes. These steps boosted the growth of heavy industry, particularly steel. By around 1900, Russia had become the world’s fourth-ranking producer of steel. Only the United States, Germany, and Great Britain produced more steel.

With the help of British and French investors, work began on the world’s longest continuous rail line—the Trans-Siberian Railway. Begun in 1891, the railway was not completed until 1916. It connected European Russia in the west with Russian ports on the Pacific Ocean in the east.

The Revolutionary Movement Grows Rapid industrialization stirred discontent among the people of Russia. The growth of factories brought new problems, such as grueling working conditions, miserably low wages, and child labor. The government outlawed trade unions. To try to improve their lives, workers unhappy with their low standard of living and lack of political power organized strikes. A

As a result of all of these factors, several revolutionary movements began to grow and compete for power. A group that followed the views of Karl Marx successfully established a following in Russia. The Marxist revolutionaries believed that the industrial class of workers would overthrow the czar. These workers would then form “a dictatorship of the proletariat.” This meant that the proletariat—the workers—would rule the country.

In 1903, Russian Marxists split into two groups over revolutionary tactics. The more moderate Mensheviks (mehn•shuh•vihks) wanted a broad base of popular support for the revolution. The more radical Bolsheviks (bohl•shuh•vihks) supported a small number of committed revolutionaries willing to sacrifice everything for change.

The major leader of the Bolsheviks was Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov (ool•yay•nuhf). He adopted the name of Lenin. He had an engaging personality and was an excellent organizer. He was also ruthless. These traits would ultimately help him gain command of the Bolsheviks. In the early 1900s, Lenin fled to western Europe to avoid arrest by the czarist regime. From there he maintained contact with other Bolsheviks. Lenin then waited until he could safely return to Russia.

Crises at Home and Abroad

The revolutionaries would not have to wait long to realize their visions. Between 1904 and 1917, Russia faced a series of crises. These events showed the czar’s weakness and paved the way for revolution.

The Russo-Japanese War In the late 1800s, Russia and Japan competed for control of Korea and Manchuria. The two nations signed a series of agreements over the territories,
but Russia broke them. Japan retaliated by attacking the Russians at Port Arthur, Manchuria, in February 1904. News of repeated Russian losses sparked unrest at home and led to a revolt in the midst of the war.

**Bloody Sunday: The Revolution of 1905** On January 22, 1905, about 200,000 workers and their families approached the czar’s Winter Palace in St. Petersburg. They carried a petition asking for better working conditions, more personal freedom, and an elected national legislature. Nicholas II’s generals ordered soldiers to fire on the crowd. More than 1,000 were wounded and several hundred were killed. Russians quickly named the event “Bloody Sunday.”

Bloody Sunday provoked a wave of strikes and violence that spread across the country. In October 1905, Nicholas reluctantly promised more freedom. He approved the creation of the Duma (дума) — Russia’s first parliament. The first Duma met in May 1906. Its leaders were moderates who wanted Russia to become a constitutional monarchy similar to Britain. But because he was hesitant to share his power, the czar dissolved the Duma after ten weeks.

**World War I: The Final Blow** In 1914, Nicholas II made the fateful decision to drag Russia into World War I. Russia was unprepared to handle the military and economic costs. Its weak generals and poorly equipped troops were no match for the German army. German machine guns mowed down advancing Russians by the thousands. Defeat followed defeat. Before a year had passed, more than 4 million Russian soldiers had been killed, wounded, or taken prisoner. As in the Russo-Japanese War, Russia’s involvement in World War I revealed the weaknesses of czarist rule and military leadership.

In 1915, Nicholas moved his headquarters to the war front. From there, he hoped to rally his discouraged troops to victory. His wife, Czarina Alexandra, ran the government while he was away. She ignored the czar’s chief advisers. Instead, she fell under the influence of the mysterious Rasputin (распутина). A self-described “holy man,” he claimed to have magical healing powers. Nicholas and Alexandra’s son, Alexis, suffered from hemophilia, a life-threatening disease. Rasputin seemed to ease the boy’s symptoms. To show her gratitude, Alexandra allowed Rasputin to make key political decisions. He opposed reform measures and obtained powerful positions for his friends. In 1916, a group of nobles murdered Rasputin. They feared his increasing role in government affairs.

Meanwhile, on the war front Russian soldiers mutinied, deserted, or ignored orders. On the home front, food and fuel supplies were dwindling. Prices were wildly inflated. People from all classes were clamoring for change and an end to the war. Neither Nicholas nor Alexandra proved capable of tackling these enormous problems.

**The March Revolution**

In March 1917, women textile workers in Petrograd led a citywide strike. In the next five days, riots flared up over shortages of bread and fuel. Nearly 200,000 workers swarmed the streets shouting, “Down with the autocracy!” and “Down with the war!” At first the soldiers obeyed orders to shoot the rioters but later sided with them.
The Czar Steps Down  The local protest exploded into a general uprising—the March Revolution. It forced Czar Nicholas II to abdicate his throne. A year later revolutionaries executed Nicholas and his family. The three-century czarist rule of the Romanovs finally collapsed. The March Revolution succeeded in bringing down the czar. Yet it failed to set up a strong government to replace his regime.

Leaders of the Duma established a provisional government, or temporary government. Alexander Kerensky headed it. His decision to continue fighting in World War I cost him the support of both soldiers and civilians. As the war dragged on, conditions inside Russia worsened. Angry peasants demanded land. City workers grew more radical. Socialist revolutionaries, competing for power, formed soviets. Soviets were local councils consisting of workers, peasants, and soldiers. In many cities, the soviets had more influence than the provisional government.

Lenin Returns to Russia  The Germans believed that Lenin and his Bolshevik supporters would stir unrest in Russia and hurt the Russian war effort against Germany. They arranged Lenin’s return to Russia after many years of exile. Traveling in a sealed railway boxcar, Lenin reached Petrograd in April 1917.

The Bolshevik Revolution

Lenin and the Bolsheviks soon gained control of the Petrograd soviet, as well as the soviets in other major Russian cities. By the fall of 1917, people in the cities were rallying to the call, “All power to the soviets.” Lenin’s slogan—“Peace, Land, and Bread”—gained widespread appeal. Lenin decided to take action.

The Provisional Government Topples  In November 1917, without warning, armed factory workers stormed the Winter Palace in Petrograd. Calling themselves...
the Bolshevik Red Guards, they took over government offices and arrested the leaders of the provisional government. Kerensky and his colleagues disappeared almost as quickly as the czarist regime they had replaced.

**Bolsheviks in Power** Within days after the Bolshevik takeover, Lenin ordered that all farmland be distributed among the peasants. Lenin and the Bolsheviks gave control of factories to the workers. The Bolshevik government also signed a truce with Germany to stop all fighting and began peace talks.

In March 1918, Russia and Germany signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. Russia surrendered a large part of its territory to Germany and its allies. The humiliating terms of this treaty triggered widespread anger among many Russians. They objected to the Bolsheviks and their policies and to the murder of the royal family.

**Civil War Rages in Russia** The Bolsheviks now faced a new challenge—stamp- ing out their enemies at home. Their opponents formed the White Army. The White Army was made up of very different groups. There were those groups who supported the return to rule by the czar, others who wanted democratic government, and even socialists who opposed Lenin’s style of socialism. Only the desire to defeat the Bolsheviks united the White Army. The groups barely cooperated with each other. At one point there were three White Armies fighting against the Bolsheviks’ Red Army.

The revolutionary leader, Leon Trotsky, expertly commanded the Bolshevik Red Army. From 1918 to 1920, civil war raged in Russia. Several Western nations, including the United States, sent military aid and forces to Russia to help the White Army. However, they were of little help.
Evolution of Communist Thought

**Marx**
- History was the story of class struggle.
- The struggle Marx saw was between capitalists and the proletariat, or the workers.
- The proletariat’s numbers would become so great and their condition so poor that a spontaneous revolution would occur.

**Lenin**
- History was the story of class struggle.
- The struggle Lenin saw was capitalists against the proletariat and the peasants.
- The proletariat and the peasants were not capable of leading a revolution and needed the guidance of professional revolutionaries.
- After the revolution, the state needed to be run by a single party with disciplined, centrally directed administrators in order to ensure its goals.
Thanks partly to the new policies and to the peace that followed the civil war, the country slowly recovered. By 1928, Russia’s farms and factories were producing as much as they had before World War I.

**Political Reforms** Bolshevik leaders saw nationalism as a threat to unity and party loyalty. To keep nationalism in check, Lenin organized Russia into several self-governing republics under the central government. In 1922, the country was named the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), in honor of the councils that helped launch the Bolshevik Revolution.

The Bolsheviks renamed their party the Communist Party. The name came from the writings of Karl Marx. He used the word communism to describe the classless society that would exist after workers had seized power. In 1924, the Communists created a constitution based on socialist and democratic principles. In reality, the Communist Party held all the power. Lenin had established a dictatorship of the Communist Party, not “a dictatorship of the proletariat,” as Marx had promoted.

**Stalin Becomes Dictator**

Lenin suffered a stroke in 1922. He survived, but the incident set in motion competition for heading up the Communist Party. Two of the most notable men were Leon Trotsky and Joseph Stalin. Stalin was cold, hard, and impersonal. During his early days as a Bolshevik, he changed his name to Stalin, which means “man of steel” in Russian. The name fit well.

Stalin began his ruthless climb to the head of the government between 1922 and 1927. In 1922, as general secretary of the Communist Party, he worked behind the scenes to move his supporters into positions of power. Lenin believed that Stalin was a dangerous man. Shortly before he died in 1924, Lenin wrote, “Comrade Stalin . . . has concentrated enormous power in his hands, and I am not sure that he always knows how to use that power with sufficient caution.” By 1928, Stalin was in total command of the Communist Party. Trotsky, forced into exile in 1929, was no longer a threat. Stalin now stood poised to wield absolute power as a dictator.
Totalitarianism

**Case Study: Stalinist Russia**

### Setting the Stage

Stalin, Lenin’s successor, dramatically transformed the government of the Soviet Union. Stalin was determined that the Soviet Union should find its place both politically and economically among the most powerful of nations in the world. Using tactics designed to rid himself of opposition, Stalin worked to establish total control of all aspects of life in the Soviet Union. He controlled not only the government, but also the economy and many aspects of citizens’ private lives.

### A Government of Total Control

The term **totalitarianism** describes a government that takes total, centralized, state control over every aspect of public and private life. Totalitarian leaders appear to provide a sense of security and to give a direction for the future. In the 20th century, the widespread use of mass communication made it possible to reach into all aspects of citizens’ lives.

A dynamic leader who can build support for his policies and justify his actions heads most totalitarian governments. Often the leader utilizes secret police to crush opposition and create a sense of fear among the people. No one is exempt from suspicion or accusations that he or she is an enemy of the state.

Totalitarianism challenges the highest values prized by Western democracies—reason, freedom, human dignity, and the worth of the individual. As the chart on the next page shows, all totalitarian states share basic characteristics.

To dominate an entire nation, totalitarian leaders devised methods of control and persuasion. These included the use of terror, indoctrination, propaganda, censorship, and religious or ethnic persecution.

**Police Terror** Dictators of totalitarian states use terror and violence to force obedience and to crush opposition. Normally, the police are expected to respond to criminal activity and protect the citizens. In a totalitarian state, the police serve to enforce the central government’s policies. They may do this by spying on the citizens or by intimidating them. Sometimes they use brutal force and even murder to achieve their goals.

**Indoctrination** Totalitarian states rely on indoctrination—instruction in the government’s beliefs—to mold people’s minds. Control of education is absolutely essential to glorify the leader and his policies and to convince all citizens that their
Totalitarianism

Totalitarianism is a form of government in which the national government takes control of all aspects of both public and private life. Thus, totalitarianism seeks to erase the line between government and society. It has an ideology, or set of beliefs, that all citizens are expected to approve. It is often led by a dynamic leader and a single political party.

Mass communication technology helps a totalitarian government spread its aims and support its policies. Also, surveillance technology makes it possible to keep track of the activities of many people. Finally, violence, such as police terror, discourages those who disagree with the goals of the government.

Key Traits of Totalitarianism

**Ideology**
- sets goals of the state
- glorifies aims of the state
- justifies government actions

**Dynamic Leader**
- unites people
- symbolizes government
- encourages popular support through force of will

**State Control of Individuals**
- demands loyalty
- denies basic liberties
- expects personal sacrifice for the good of the state

**Methods of Enforcement**
- police terror
- indoctrination
- censorship
- persecution

**Dictatorship and One-Party Rule**
- exercises absolute authority
- dominates the government

**State Control of Society**
- business
- labor
- housing
- education
- religion
- the arts
- personal life
- youth groups

**Modern Technology**
- mass communication to spread propaganda
- advanced military weapons

Fear of Totalitarianism

George Orwell illustrated the horrors of a totalitarian government in his novel, *1984*. The novel depicts a world in which personal freedom and privacy have vanished. It is a world made possible through modern technology. Even citizens’ homes have television cameras that constantly survey their behavior.

RESEARCH WEB LINKS
Go online for more on totalitarianism.
Members of a Russian youth group called Young Communists line up for a parade. Notice the picture of Stalin in the background.

Unconditional loyalty and support are required. Indoctrination begins with very young children, is encouraged by youth groups, and is strongly enforced by schools.

**Propaganda and Censorship** Totalitarian states spread propaganda, biased or incomplete information used to sway people to accept certain beliefs or actions. Control of all mass media allows this to happen. No publication, film, art, or music is allowed to exist without the permission of the state. Citizens are surrounded with false information that appears to be true. Suggesting that the information is incorrect is considered an act of treason and severely punished. Individuals who dissent must retract their work or they are imprisoned or killed.

**Religious or Ethnic Persecution** Totalitarian leaders often create “enemies of the state” to blame for things that go wrong. Frequently these enemies are members of religious or ethnic groups. Often these groups are easily identified and are subjected to campaigns of terror and violence. They may be forced to live in certain areas or are subjected to rules that apply only to them.

**CASE STUDY: Stalinist Russia**

**Stalin Builds a Totalitarian State**

Stalin aimed to create a perfect Communist state in Russia. To realize his vision, Stalin planned to transform the Soviet Union into a totalitarian state. He began building his totalitarian state by destroying his enemies—real and imagined.

**Police State** Stalin built a police state to maintain his power. Stalin’s secret police used tanks and armored cars to stop riots. They monitored telephone lines, read mail, and planted informers everywhere. Even children told authorities about disloyal remarks they heard at home. Every family came to fear the knock on the door in the early morning hours, which usually meant the arrest of a family member. The secret police arrested and executed millions of so-called traitors.

In 1934, Stalin turned against members of the Communist Party. In 1937, he launched the **Great Purge**, a campaign of terror directed at eliminating anyone who threatened his power. Thousands of old Bolsheviks who helped stage the Revolution in 1917 stood trial. They were executed or sent to labor camps for “crimes against the Soviet state.” When the Great Purge ended in 1938, Stalin had gained total control of the Soviet government and the Communist Party. Historians estimate that during this time he was responsible for 8 million to 13 million deaths.

**Russian Propaganda and Censorship** Stalin’s government controlled all newspapers, motion pictures, radio, and other sources of information. Many Soviet writers, composers, and other artists also fell victim to official censorship. Stalin would not tolerate individual creativity that did not conform to the views of the state. Soviet newspapers and radio broadcasts glorified the achievements of communism, Stalin, and his economic programs.

Under Stalin, the arts also were used for propaganda. In 1930, an editorial in the Communist Party newspaper *Pravda* explained the purpose of art: “Literature, the
cinema, the arts are levers in the hands of the proletariat which must be used to show the masses positive models of initiative and heroic labor.”

**Education and Indoctrination** Under Stalin, the government controlled all education from nursery schools through the universities. Schoolchildren learned the virtues of the Communist Party. College professors and students who questioned the Communist Party’s interpretations of history or science risked losing their jobs or faced imprisonment. Party leaders in the Soviet Union lectured workers and peasants on the ideals of communism. They also stressed the importance of sacrifice and hard work to build the Communist state. State-supported youth groups trained future party members.

**Religious Persecution** Communists aimed to replace religious teachings with the ideals of communism. Under Stalin, the government and the League of the Militant Godless, an officially sponsored group of atheists, spread propaganda attacking religion. “Museums of atheism” displayed exhibits to show that religious beliefs were mere superstitions. Yet many people in the Soviet Union still clung to their faiths.

The Russian Orthodox Church was the main target of persecution. Other religious groups also suffered greatly. The police destroyed magnificent churches and synagogues, and many religious leaders were killed or sent to labor camps.

Achieving the perfect Communist state came at a tremendous cost to Soviet citizens. Stalin’s total control of society eliminated personal rights and freedoms in favor of the power of the state.

**Stalin Seizes Control of the Economy**

As Stalin began to gain complete control of society, he was setting plans in motion to overhaul the economy. He announced, “We are fifty or a hundred years behind the advanced countries. We must make good this distance in ten years.” In 1928 Stalin’s plans called for a **command economy**, a system in which the government made all economic decisions. Under this system, political leaders identify the country’s economic needs and determine how to fulfill them.

**An Industrial Revolution** Stalin outlined the first of several **Five-Year Plans** for the development of the Soviet Union’s economy. The Five-Year Plans set impossibly high quotas, or numerical goals, to increase the output of steel, coal, oil, and electricity. To reach these targets, the government limited production of consumer goods. As a result, people faced severe shortages of housing, food, clothing, and other necessary goods.

Stalin’s tough methods produced impressive economic results. Although most of the targets of the first Five-Year Plan fell short, the Soviets made substantial gains. (See the graphs on page 444 for coal and steel production.) A second plan, launched in 1933, proved equally successful. From 1928 to 1937, industrial production of steel increased more than 25 percent.
**An Agricultural Revolution**  In 1928, the government began to seize over 25 million privately owned farms in the USSR. It combined them into large, government-owned farms, called **collective farms**. Hundreds of families worked on these farms, called collectives, producing food for the state. The government expected that the modern machinery on the collective farms would boost food production and reduce the number of workers. Resistance was especially strong among kulaks, a class of wealthy peasants. The Soviet government decided to eliminate them.

Peasants actively fought the government’s attempt to take their land. Many killed livestock and destroyed crops in protest. Soviet secret police herded peasants onto collective farms at the point of a bayonet. Between 5 million and 10 million peasants died as a direct result of Stalin’s agricultural revolution. By 1938, more than 90 percent of all peasants lived on collective farms. As you see in the charts below, agricultural production was on the upswing. That year the country produced almost twice the wheat than it had in 1928 before collective farming.

In areas where farming was more difficult, the government set up state farms. These state farms operated like factories. The workers received wages instead of a share of the profits. These farms were much larger than collectives and mostly produced wheat.

**Daily Life Under Stalin**

Stalin’s totalitarian rule revolutionized Soviet society. Women’s roles greatly expanded. People became better educated and mastered new technical skills. The dramatic changes in people’s lives, came at great cost. Soviet citizens found their personal freedoms limited, consumer goods in short supply, and dissent prohibited.

Stalin’s economic plans created a high demand for many skilled workers. University and technical training became the key to a better life. As one young man explained, “If a person does not want to become a collective farmer or just a cleaning woman, the only means you have to get something is through education.”

**Women Gain Rights** The Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 declared men and women equal. Laws were passed to grant women equal rights. After Stalin became dictator, women helped the state-controlled economy prosper. Under his Five-Year Plan...
Plans, they had no choice but to join the labor force. The state provided child care for all working mothers. Some young women performed the same jobs as men. Millions of women worked in factories and in construction. However, men continued to hold the best jobs.

Given new educational opportunities, women prepared for careers in engineering and science. Medicine, in particular, attracted many women. By 1950, they made up 75 percent of Soviet doctors.

Soviet women paid a heavy price for their rising status in society. Besides having full-time jobs, they were responsible for housework and child care. Motherhood is considered a patriotic duty in totalitarian regimes. Soviet women were expected to provide the state with future generations of loyal, obedient citizens.

**Total Control Achieved**

By the mid-1930s, Stalin had forcibly transformed the Soviet Union into a totalitarian regime and an industrial and political power. He stood unopposed as dictator and maintained his authority over the Communist Party. Stalin would not tolerate individual creativity. He saw it as a threat to the conformity and obedience required of citizens in a totalitarian state. He ushered in a period of total social control and rule by terror, rather than constitutional government.

Like Russia, China would fall under the influence of Karl Marx’s theories and Communist beliefs. The dynamic leader Mao Zedong would pave the way for transforming China into a totalitarian Communist state, as you will read in Section 3.

**TERMS & NAMES**

1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
   - totalitarianism
   - Great Purge
   - command economy
   - Five-Year Plans
   - collective farm

**USING YOUR NOTES**

2. Which of the methods of control do you think was most influential in maintaining Stalin’s power? Why?

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<tr>
<th>Methods of control</th>
<th>Example</th>
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**MAIN IDEAS**

3. What are the key traits of a totalitarian state?
4. What are some ways totalitarian rulers keep their power?
5. How did the Soviet economy change under the direction of Stalin?

**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**

6. **CONTRASTING** How do totalitarian states and constitutional governments differ?
7. **SUMMARIZING** Summarize Joseph Stalin’s rise to power and how his control expanded.
8. **EVALUATING COURSES OF ACTION** Were the Five-Year plans the best way to move the Soviet economy forward? Explain.
9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** **POWER AND AUTHORITY** As an industrial worker, a female doctor, a Russian Orthodox priest, or a Communist Party member, write a journal entry about your life under Stalin.

**CONNECT TO TODAY**

**Graphing Russia’s Economy**

Research Russia’s industrial and agricultural production in the last 10 years. Create a series of graphs similar to those found on page 444.
Propaganda

You have read how a totalitarian government can use propaganda to support its goals. These pages show three examples of visual propaganda from the Soviet Union—low-cost posters, traditional painting, and altered photographs.

Posters were mass produced and placed in very visible areas. They were constant reminders of Communist policy and guides for proper thought. Artists were required to paint scenes that supported and glorified the Communist Party. Even photographs were altered if they contained individuals who had fallen out of favor with the party leadership.

RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on propaganda.

Factory Poster
“Help build the gigantic factories.” This poster advertises a state loan for the building of large factories. Developing heavy industry was an important goal in the early days of the Soviet Union.

Woman Worker Poster
A translation of this poster says, “What the October Revolution has given to working and peasant women.” The woman is pointing to buildings such as a library, a worker’s club, and a school for adults.

Painting
In this painting the central figure, Communist leader Joseph Stalin, is greeted enthusiastically. The expressions of the diverse and happy crowd imply not only that Stalin has broad support, but that he is worshiped as well.
Altered Photographs
Stalin attempted to enhance his legacy and erase his rivals from history by extensively altering photographs as this series shows.

1. The original photograph was taken in 1926 and showed, from left to right, Nikolai Antipov, Stalin, Sergei Kirov, and Nikolai Shvernik.

2. This altered image appeared in a 1949 biography of Stalin. Why Shvernik was removed is unclear—he was head of the Central Committee of the Communist Party until Stalin’s death in 1954. Antipov, however, was arrested during Stalin’s purge and executed in 1941.

3. This heroic oil painting by Isaak Brodsky is based on the original photograph, but only Stalin is left. Kirov was assassinated in 1934 by a student, but the official investigation report has never been released. Stalin did fear Kirov’s popularity and considered him a threat to his leadership.

Connect to Today
1. Forming and Supporting Opinions
   Of the examples on this page, which do you think would have been most effective as propaganda? Why?

2. Comparing and Contrasting
   What are the similarities and differences between propaganda and modern advertising campaigns? Support your answer with examples.
Imperial China Collapses

**Main Idea**

**Revolution** After the fall of the Qing dynasty, nationalist and Communist movements struggled for power.

**Why It Matters Now**

The seeds of China’s late-20th-century political thought, communism, were planted at this time.

**Terms & Names**

- Kuomintang
- Sun Yixian
- May Fourth Movement
- Mao Zedong
- Jiang Jieshi
- Long March

**Setting the Stage**

In the early 1900s, China was ripe for revolution. China had faced years of humiliation at the hands of outsiders. Foreign countries controlled its trade and economic resources. Many Chinese believed that modernization and nationalism held the country’s keys for survival. They wanted to build up the army and navy, to construct modern factories, and to reform education. Yet others feared change. They believed that China’s greatness lay in its traditional ways.

**Nationalists Overthrow Qing Dynasty**

Among the groups pushing for modernization and nationalization was the Kuomintang (kwoh•mihn•TANG), or the Nationalist Party. Its first great leader was Sun Yixian (soon yee•shyahn). In 1911, the Revolutionary Alliance, a forerunner of the Kuomintang, succeeded in overthrowing the last emperor of the Qing dynasty. The Qing had ruled China since 1644.

**Shaky Start for the New Republic**

In 1912, Sun became president of the new Republic of China. Sun hoped to establish a modern government based on the “Three Principles of the People”: (1) nationalism—an end to foreign control, (2) people’s rights—democracy, and (3) people’s livelihood—economic security for all Chinese. Sun Yixian considered nationalism vital. He said, “The Chinese people . . . do not have national spirit. Therefore even though we have four hundred million people gathered together in one China, in reality, they are just a heap of loose sand.” Despite his lasting influence as a revolutionary leader, Sun lacked the authority and military support to secure national unity.

Sun turned over the presidency to a powerful general, Yuan Shikai, who quickly betrayed the democratic ideals of the revolution. His actions sparked local revolts. After the general died in 1916, civil war broke out. Real authority fell into the hands of provincial warlords or powerful military leaders. They ruled territories as large as their armies could conquer.
World War I Spells More Problems  In 1917, the government in Beijing, hoping for an Allied victory, declared war against Germany. Some leaders mistakenly believed that for China’s participation the thankful Allies would return control of Chinese territories that had previously belonged to Germany. However, under the Treaty of Versailles, the Allied leaders gave Japan those territories.

When news of the Treaty of Versailles reached China, outrage swept the country. On May 4, 1919, over 3,000 angry students gathered in the center of Beijing. The demonstrations spread to other cities and exploded into a national movement. It was called the **May Fourth Movement**. Workers, shopkeepers, and professionals joined the cause. Though not officially a revolution, these demonstrations showed the Chinese people’s commitment to the goal of establishing a strong, modern nation. Sun Yixian and members of the Kuomintang also shared the aims of the movement. But they could not strengthen central rule on their own. Many young Chinese intellectuals turned against Sun Yixian’s belief in Western democracy in favor of Lenin’s brand of Soviet communism.

The Communist Party in China

In 1921, a group met in Shanghai to organize the Chinese Communist Party. **Mao Zedong** (mow dzuh•dahng), an assistant librarian at Beijing University, was among its founders. Later he would become China’s greatest revolutionary leader.

Mao Zedong had already begun to develop his own brand of communism. Lenin had based his Marxist revolution on his organization in Russia’s cities. Mao envisioned a different setting. He believed he could bring revolution to a rural country...
Jiang Jieshi and the Nationalist forces united China under one government in 1928.

**Primary Source**

The force of the peasantry is like that of the raging winds and driving rain. It is rapidly increasing in violence. No force can stand in its way. The peasantry will tear apart all nets which bind it and hasten along the road to liberation. They will bury beneath them all forces of imperialism, militarism, corrupt officialdom, village bosses and evil gentry.

MAO ZEDONG, quoted in *Chinese Communism and the Rise of Mao*

 Lenin Befriends China While the Chinese Communist Party was forming, Sun Yixian and his Nationalist Party set up a government in south China. Like the Communists, Sun became disillusioned with the Western democracies that refused to support his struggling government. Sun decided to ally the Kuomintang with the newly formed Communist Party. He hoped to unite all the revolutionary groups for common action.

Lenin seized the opportunity to help China’s Nationalist government. In 1923, he sent military advisers and equipment to the Nationalists in return for allowing the Chinese Communists to join the Kuomintang.

**Peasants Align with the Communists** After Sun Yixian died in 1925, Jiang Jieshi (jee•ahng jee•shee), formerly called Chiang Kai-shek, headed the Kuomintang. Jiang was the son of a middle-class merchant. Many of Jiang’s followers were bankers and businesspeople. Like Jiang, they feared the Communists’ goal of creating a socialist economy modeled after the Soviet Union’s.

Jiang had promised democracy and political rights to all Chinese. Yet his government became steadily less democratic and more corrupt. Most peasants believed that Jiang was doing little to improve their lives. As a result, many peasants threw their support to the Chinese Communist Party. To enlist the support of the peasants, Mao divided land that the Communists won among the local farmers.

**Nationalists and Communists Clash** At first, Jiang put aside his differences with the Communists. Together Jiang’s Nationalist forces and the Communists successfully fought the warlords. Soon afterward, though, he turned against the Communists.

In April 1927, Nationalist troops and armed gangs moved into Shanghai. They killed many Communist leaders and trade union members in the city streets. Similar killings took place in other cities. The Nationalists nearly wiped out the Chinese Communist Party.

In 1928, Jiang became president of the Nationalist Republic of China. Great Britain and the United States both formally recognized the new government. Because of the slaughter of Communists at Shanghai, the Soviet Union did not. Jiang’s treachery also had long-term effects. The Communists’ deep-seated rage over the massacre erupted in a civil war that would last until 1949.

**Civil War Rages in China**

By 1930, Nationalists and Communists were fighting a bloody civil war. Mao and other Communist leaders established themselves in the hills of south-central China. Mao referred to this tactic of taking his revolution to the countryside as “swimming in the peasant sea.” He recruited the peasants to join his Red Army. He then trained them in guerrilla warfare. Nationalists attacked the Communists repeatedly but failed to drive them out.

**The Long March** In 1933, Jiang gathered an army of at least 700,000 men. Jiang’s army then surrounded the Communists’ mountain stronghold. Outnumbered, the
The Long March

The Long March of the Chinese Communists from the south of China to the caves of Shaanxi [sha-ni shee] in the north is a remarkable story. The march covered 6,000 miles, about the distance from New York to San Francisco and back again. They crossed miles of swampland. They slept sitting up, leaning back-to-back in pairs, to keep from sinking into the mud and drowning. In total, the Communists crossed 18 mountain ranges and 24 rivers in their yearlong flight from the Nationalist forces.

After finally arriving at the caves in Shaanxi, Mao declared, “If we can survive all this, we can survive everything. This is but the first stage of our Long March. The final stage leads to Peking [Beijing]!”

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. Movement What was the course of the Long March, in terms of direction, beginning in Ruijin and ending near Yan’an?
2. Movement Why didn’t Mao’s forces move west or south?

In one of the more daring and difficult acts of the march, the Red Army crossed a bridge of iron chains whose planks had been removed.

The Red Army had to cross the Snowy Mountains, some of the highest in the world. Every man carried enough food and fuel to last for ten days. They marched six to seven hours a day.

After finally arriving at the caves in Shaanxi, Mao declared, “If we can survive all this, we can survive everything. This is but the first stage of our Long March. The final stage leads to Peking [Beijing]!”
A Japanese landing party approaches the Chinese mainland. The invasion forced Mao and Jiang to join forces to fight the Japanese.

**Civil War Suspended** In 1931, as Chinese fought Chinese, the Japanese watched the power struggles with rising interest. Japanese forces took advantage of China’s weakening situation. They invaded Manchuria, an industrialized province in the northeast part of China.

In 1937, the Japanese launched an all-out invasion of China. Massive bombings of villages and cities killed thousands of Chinese. The destruction of farms caused many more to die of starvation. By 1938, Japan held control of a large part of China.

The Japanese threat forced an uneasy truce between Jiang’s and Mao’s forces. The civil war gradually ground to a halt as Nationalists and Communists temporarily united to fight the Japanese. The National Assembly further agreed to promote changes outlined in Sun Yixian’s “Three Principles of the People”—nationalism, democracy, and people’s livelihood. As you will learn in Section 4, similar principles were also serving as a guiding force in India and Southwest Asia.

**TERMS & NAMES** 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Kuomintang
- Sun Yixian
- May Fourth Movement
- Mao Zedong
- Jiang Jieshi
- Long March

**USING YOUR NOTES** 2. Whose reforms had a greater appeal to the peasants? Why?

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**MAIN IDEAS**

3. How did the Treaty of Versailles trigger the May Fourth Movement?

4. How was Mao’s vision of communism different from that of Lenin?

5. What started the civil war in China?

**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**

6. **RECOGNIZING EFFECTS** What influence did foreign nations have on China from 1912 to 1938?

7. **ANALYZING CAUSES** What caused the Communist revolutionary movement in China to gain strength?

8. **HYPOTHESIZING** If the Long March had failed, do you think the Nationalist party would have been successful in uniting the Chinese? Why or why not?

9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** **REVOLUTION** Write a series of interview questions you would pose to Sun Yixian, Mao Zedong, and Jiang Jieshi.

**CONNECT TO TODAY** **REPORTING ON CURRENT EVENTS**

Research the selection of the newest Communist Party leader of China. Write a brief report identifying that person and explaining how this new leader got into office.
Nationalism in India and Southwest Asia

MAIN IDEA

EMPIRE BUILDING Nationalism triggered independence movements to overthrow colonial powers.

These independent nations—India, Turkey, Iran, and Saudi Arabia—are key players on the world stage today.

TERMS & NAMES

- Rowlatt Acts
- Amritsar Massacre
- Mohandas K. Gandhi
- civil disobedience
- Salt March
- Mustafa Kemal

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

SETTING THE STAGE As you learned in Chapter 13, the end of World War I broke up the Ottoman Empire. The British Empire, which controlled India, began to show signs of cracking. The weakening of these empires stirred nationalist activity in India, Turkey, and some Southwest Asian countries. Indian nationalism had been growing since the mid-1800s. Many upper-class Indians who attended British schools learned European views of nationalism and democracy. They began to apply these political ideas to their own country.

Indian Nationalism Grows

Two groups formed to rid India of foreign rule: the primarily Hindu Indian National Congress, or Congress Party, in 1885, and the Muslim League in 1906. Though deep divisions existed between Hindus and Muslims, they found common ground. They shared the heritage of British rule and an understanding of democratic ideals. These two groups both worked toward the goal of independence from the British.

World War I Increases Nationalist Activity Until World War I, the vast majority of Indians had little interest in nationalism. The situation changed as over a million Indians enlisted in the British army. In return for their service, the British government promised reforms that would eventually lead to self-government.

In 1918, Indian troops returned home from the war. They expected Britain to fulfill its promise. Instead, they were once again treated as second-class citizens. Radical nationalists carried out acts of violence to show their hatred of British rule. To curb dissent, in 1919 the British passed the Rowlatt Acts. These laws allowed the government to jail protesters without trial for as long as two years. To Western-educated Indians, denial of a trial by jury violated their individual rights.

Amritsar Massacre To protest the Rowlatt Acts, around 10,000 Hindus and Muslims flocked to Amritsar, a major city in the Punjab, in the spring of 1919. At a huge festival in an enclosed square, they intended to fast and pray and to listen to political
speeches. The demonstration, viewed as a nationalist outburst, alarmed the British. They were especially concerned about the alliance of Hindus and Muslims.

Most people at the gathering were unaware that the British government had banned public meetings. However, the British commander at Amritsar believed they were openly defying the ban. He ordered his troops to fire on the crowd without warning. The shooting in the enclosed courtyard continued for ten minutes. Official reports showed nearly 400 Indians died and about 1,200 were wounded. Others estimate the numbers were higher.

News of the slaughter, called the Amritsar Massacre, sparked an explosion of anger across India. Almost overnight, millions of Indians changed from loyal British subjects into nationalists. These Indians demanded independence.

**Gandhi’s Tactics of Nonviolence**

The massacre at Amritsar set the stage for Mohandas K. Gandhi (GAHN•dee) to emerge as the leader of the independence movement. Gandhi’s strategy for battling injustice evolved from his deeply religious approach to political activity. His teachings blended ideas from all of the major world religions, including Hinduism, Jainism, Buddhism, Islam, and Christianity. Gandhi attracted millions of followers. Soon they began calling him the Mahatma (muh•HAHT•muh), meaning “great soul.”

Noncooperation When the British failed to punish the officers responsible for the Amritsar massacre, Gandhi urged the Indian National Congress to follow a policy of noncooperation with the British government. In 1920, the Congress Party endorsed civil disobedience, the deliberate and public refusal to obey an unjust

**Analyzing Primary Sources**

**Satyagraha**

A central element of Gandhi’s philosophy of nonviolence was called satyagraha, often translated as “soul-force” or “truth-force.”

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

Passive resistance is a method of securing rights by personal suffering; it is the reverse of resistance by arms. When I refuse to do a thing that is repugnant to my conscience, I use soul-force. For instance, the government of the day has passed a law which is applicable to me: I do not like it; if, by using violence, I force the government to repeal the law, I am employing what may be termed body-force. If I do not obey the law and accept the penalty for its breach, I use soul-force. It involves sacrifice of self.

GANDHI Chapter XVII, Hind Swaraj

**Nonviolence**

In The Origin of Nonviolence, Gandhi offered a warning to those who were contemplating joining the struggle for independence.

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

[It] is not at all impossible that we might have to endure every hardship that we can imagine, and wisdom lies in pledging ourselves on the understanding that we shall have to suffer all that and worse. If some one asks me when and how the struggle may end, I may say that if the entire community manfully stands the test, the end will be near. If many of us fall back under storm and stress, the struggle will be prolonged. But I can boldly declare, and with certainty, that so long as there is even a handful of men true to their pledge, there can only be one end to the struggle, and that is victory.

GANDHI The Origin of Nonviolence

**DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS**

1. Comparing How is soul-force different from body-force?
2. Making Inferences What do Gandhi’s writings suggest about his view of suffering? Give examples from each document.
Gandhi adopted the spinning wheel as a symbol of Indian resistance to British rule. The wheel was featured on the Indian National Congress flag, a forerunner of India’s national flag. Gandhi called on Indians to refuse to buy British goods, attend government schools, pay British taxes, or vote in elections. Gandhi staged a successful boycott of British cloth, a source of wealth for the British. He urged all Indians to weave their own cloth. Gandhi himself devoted two hours each day to spinning his own yarn on a simple handwheel. He wore only homespun cloth and encouraged Indians to follow his example. As a result of the boycott, the sale of British cloth in India dropped sharply.

Strikes and Demonstrations Gandhi’s weapon of civil disobedience took an economic toll on the British. They struggled to keep trains running, factories operating, and overcrowded jails from bursting. Throughout 1920, the British arrested thousands of Indians who had participated in strikes and demonstrations. But despite Gandhi’s pleas for nonviolence, protests often led to riots.

The Salt March In 1930, Gandhi organized a demonstration to defy the hated Salt Acts. According to these British laws, Indians could buy salt from no other source but the government. They also had to pay sales tax on salt. To show their opposition, Gandhi and his followers walked about 240 miles to the seacoast. There they began to make their own salt by collecting seawater and letting it evaporate. This peaceful protest was called the Salt March.

Soon afterward, some demonstrators planned a march to a site where the British government processed salt. They intended to shut this saltworks down. Police officers with steel-tipped clubs attacked the demonstrators. An American journalist was an eyewitness to the event. He described the “sickening whacks of clubs on unprotected skulls” and people “wriggling in pain with fractured skulls or broken shoulders.” Still the people continued to march peacefully, refusing to defend themselves against their attackers. Newspapers across the globe carried the journalist’s story, which won worldwide support for Gandhi’s independence movement.

More demonstrations against the salt tax took place throughout India. Eventually, about 60,000 people, including Gandhi, were arrested.

Britain Grants Limited Self-Rule Gandhi and his followers gradually reaped the rewards of their civil disobedience campaigns and gained greater political power for the Indian people. In 1935, the British Parliament passed the Government of India Act. It provided local self-government and limited democratic elections, but not total independence.

However, the Government of India Act also fueled mounting tensions between Muslims and Hindus. These two groups had conflicting visions of India’s future as an independent nation. Indian Muslims, outnumbered by Hindus, feared that Hindus would control India if it won independence. In Chapter 18, you will read about the outcome of India’s bid for independence.
Nationalism in Southwest Asia

The breakup of the Ottoman Empire and growing Western political and economic interest in Southwest Asia spurred the rise of nationalism in this region. Just as the people of India fought to have their own nation after World War I, the people of Southwest Asia also launched independence movements to rid themselves of imperial rulers.

**Turkey Becomes a Republic** At the end of World War I, the Ottoman Empire was forced to give up all its territories except Turkey. Turkish lands included the old Turkish homeland of Anatolia and a small strip of land around Istanbul.

In 1919, Greek soldiers invaded Turkey and threatened to conquer it. The Turkish sultan was powerless to stop the Greeks. However, in 1922, a brilliant commander, Mustafa Kemal (keh•MAHL), successfully led Turkish nationalists in fighting back the Greeks and their British backers. After winning a peace, the nationalists overthrew the last Ottoman sultan.

In 1923, Kemal became the president of the new Republic of Turkey, the first republic in Southwest Asia. To achieve his goal of transforming Turkey into a modern nation, he ushered in these sweeping reforms:

- separated the laws of Islam from the laws of the nation
- abolished religious courts and created a new legal system based on European law
- granted women the right to vote and to hold public office
- launched government-funded programs to industrialize Turkey and to spur economic growth

Kemal died in 1938. From his leadership, Turkey gained a new sense of its national identity. His influence was so strong that the Turkish people gave him the name Atatürk—“father of the Turks.”

**Persia Becomes Iran** Before World War I, both Great Britain and Russia had established spheres of influence in the ancient country of Persia. After the war, when Russia was still reeling from the Bolshevik Revolution, the British tried to take over all of Persia. This maneuver triggered a nationalist revolt in Persia. In 1921, a Persian army officer seized power. In 1925 he deposed the ruling shah.

Persia’s new leader, Reza Shah Pahlavi (PAH•lee•v), like Kemal in Turkey, set out to modernize his country. He established public schools, built roads and railroads, promoted industrial growth, and extended women’s rights. Unlike Kemal, Reza Shah Pahlavi kept all power in his own hands. In 1935, he changed the name of the country from the Greek name Persia to the traditional name Iran.

**Saudi Arabia Keeps Islamic Traditions** While Turkey broke with many Islamic traditions, another new country held strictly to Islamic law. In 1902, Abd al-Aziz Ibn Saud (sah•OOD), a member of a once-powerful Arabian family, began a successful campaign to unify Arabia. In 1932, he renamed the new kingdom Saudi Arabia after his family.

Ibn Saud carried on Arab and Islamic traditions. Loyalty to the Saudi government was based on custom, religion, and family ties. Like Kemal and Reza Shah, Ibn Saud brought some modern technology, such as telephones and radios, to his
country. However, modernization in Saudi Arabia was limited to religiously acceptable areas. There also were no efforts to begin to practice democracy.

**Oil Drives Development** While nationalism steadily emerged as a major force in Southwest Asia, the region’s economy was also taking a new direction. The rising demand for petroleum products in industrialized countries brought new oil explorations to Southwest Asia. During the 1920s and 1930s, European and American companies discovered enormous oil deposits in Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and Kuwait. Foreign businesses invested huge sums of money to develop these oil fields. For example, the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, a British company, started developing the oil fields of Iran. Geologists later learned that the land around the Persian Gulf has nearly two-thirds of the world’s known supply of oil.

This important resource led to rapid and dramatic economic changes and development. Because oil brought huge profits, Western nations tried to dominate this region. Meanwhile, these same Western nations were about to face a more immediate crisis as power-hungry leaders seized control in Italy and Germany.

**Main Ideas**

3. How did Gandhi’s tactics of civil disobedience affect the British?

4. How did Southwest Asia change as a result of nationalism?

5. How did newly found petroleum supplies change the new nations in Southwest Asia?

**Terms & Names**

- Rowlatt Acts
- Amritsar Massacre
- Mohandas K. Gandhi
- civil disobedience
- Salt March
- Mustafa Kemal

**Using Your Notes**

2. Why do you think the nations in this section adopted different styles of government?

**Connect to Today**

GRAPHING OIL EXPORTS

Do research to find out how many barrels of oil have been exported each year for the last ten years from Iran, Iraq, and Saudi Arabia. Create a graph showing your results.
Revolutionary Leaders: 1900–1939

**Country**
- Russia
- China
- India
- Turkey

**Career**
- Russia: late 1890s–1924, early 1900s–1953, late 1890s–1925, early 1900s–1976, late 1800s–1948, early 1900s–1938
- China: late 1890s–1925
- India: late 1800s–1948
- Turkey: late 1800s–1938

**Key Role**
- Bolshevik revolutionary and first ruler of Communist Russia
- Dictator
- First president of the new Republic of China
- Leader of the Chinese Communist Party
- Leader of the Indian independence movement
- First president of the new Republic of Turkey

**Popular Name**
- "Father of the Revolution"
- "Man of Steel"
- "Father of Modern China"
- "The Great Helmsman"
- "Great Soul"
- "Father of the Turks"

**Goal**
- Promote a worldwide Communist revolution led by workers
- Perfect a Communist state in Russia through totalitarian rule
- Establish a modern government based on nationalism, democracy, and economic security
- Stage a Communist revolution in China led by peasants
- Achieve Indian self-rule through campaigns of civil disobedience
- Transform Turkey into a modern nation

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**TERMS & NAMES**
Briefly explain the importance of each of the following in Russia, China, or India.

1. Bolsheviks
2. Lenin
3. soviet
4. Joseph Stalin
5. totalitarianism
6. Mao Zedong
7. Mohandas K. Gandhi
8. civil disobedience

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**MAIN IDEAS**

**Revolutions in Russia** Section 1 (pages 433–439)
9. How did World War I lead to the downfall of Czar Nicholas II?
10. Why did the provisional government fail?
11. Explain the causes of Russia’s civil war and its outcome.

**Case Study: Totalitarianism** Section 2 (pages 440–447)
12. What are the key traits of totalitarianism?
13. What individual freedoms are denied in a totalitarian state?
14. How did Joseph Stalin create a totalitarian state in the Soviet Union?

**Imperial China Collapses** Section 3 (pages 448–452)
15. Why did the peasants align themselves with the Chinese Communists?
16. Why did Mao Zedong undertake the Long March?

**Nationalism in India and Southwest Asia** Section 4 (pages 453–457)
17. What are some examples of civil disobedience led by Mohandas Gandhi?
18. What steps did Kemal take to modernize Turkey?

**CRITICAL THINKING**

1. **USING YOUR NOTES**
   In a diagram show the causes of changes in government in the countries listed.

2. **FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS**
   Which of the weapons of totalitarian governments do you think is most effective in maintaining control of a country? Explain.

3. **ANALYZING CAUSES**
   What role did World War I play in the revolutions and nationalistic uprisings discussed in this chapter?

4. **HYPOTHESIZING**
   Why were the empires discussed in this chapter unable to remain in control of all of their lands?

5. **RECOGNIZING EFFECTS**
   How did women’s roles change under Stalin in Russia and Kemal in Turkey?
Use the quotation and your knowledge of world history to answers questions 1 and 2

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

India does not need to be industrialized in the modern sense of the term. It has 7,500,000 villages scattered over a vast area 1,900 miles long, 1,500 broad. The people are rooted to the soil, and the vast majority are living a hand-to-mouth life. . . . Agriculture does not need revolutionary changes. The Indian peasant requires a supplementary industry. The most natural is the introduction of the spinning-wheel.

**MOHANDAS K. GANDHI,** Letter to Sir Daniel Hamilton

1. What picture does Gandhi present of India and its people?
   A. India is adequately industrialized.
   B. India is dominated by the British.
   C. India is primarily an agricultural nation.
   D. Indians are well-off and do not need additional industries.

2. What did Gandhi believe about the spinning wheel?
   A. Gandhi believed that the spinning wheel would make Indians less dependent on the British economy.
   B. Gandhi believed that the spinning wheel was a threat to the Indian economy.
   C. Gandhi believed the main economic industry in India should be spinning cloth.
   D. Gandhi believed the spinning wheel was not necessary to the Indian economy.

3. Between which years did Iran show a dramatic increase in oil production?
   A. 1910–1920
   B. 1920–1925
   C. 1930–1935
   D. 1935–1940

For additional test practice, go online for:
- Diagnostic tests
- Strategies
- Tutorials

**MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY**

**Writing a Documentary Film Script**

Write a documentary film script profiling a country where nationalist revolutionary movements are currently active. Consider the following:
- What type of government is currently in power? (constitutional monarchy, single-party dictatorship, theocracy, republic) How long has it been in power?
- Who are the top political leaders, and how are they viewed inside and outside the country?
- Do citizens have complaints about their government? What are they?
- What nationalist revolutionary groups are active? What are their goals and strategies?

The script should also include narration, locations, sound, and visuals.
Years of Crisis, 1919–1939

Previewing Themes

**SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY** In the 1920s, new scientific ideas changed the way people looked at the world. New inventions improved transportation and communication.

**Geography** Innovations in transportation allowed pilot Charles Lindbergh to fly solo from North America across the Atlantic Ocean. Toward what continent did Lindbergh fly?

**ECONOMICS** The collapse of the American economy in 1929 triggered a depression that threatened the economic and political systems of countries throughout the world.

**Geography** Study the map and timeline. What events occurred after the economic crisis that changed the balance of world power?

**POWER AND AUTHORITY** In the 1930s, several countries—including Japan, Germany, and Italy—adopted aggressive, militaristic policies.

**Geography** What land did Germany invade in 1939?
Which candidate will you choose?

On a spring evening in the early 1930s during the Great Depression, you are one of thousands of Germans gathered at an outdoor stadium in Munich. You are unemployed; your country is suffering. Like everyone else, you have come to this mass meeting to hear two politicians campaigning for office. Huge speakers blare out patriotic music, while you and the rest of the crowd wait impatiently for the speeches to begin.

Before long you will have to cast your ballot.

**First candidate’s platform**
- Remember Germany’s long and glorious past
- Replace our present indecisive leadership with a strong, effective leader
- Rebuild the army to protect against enemies
- Regain the lands taken unfairly from us
- Make sacrifices to return to economic health
- Put the welfare of the state above all, and our country will be a great power again

**Second candidate’s platform**
- Realize that there are no simple or quick solutions to problems
- Put people back to work, but economic recovery will be slow
- Provide for the poor, elderly, and sick
- Avoid reckless military spending
- Act responsibly to safeguard democracy
- Be a good neighbor country; honor our debts and treaty commitments

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**EXAMINING the ISSUES**

- **What strategy does each candidate have for solving the nation’s problems?**
- **Which candidate makes the stronger appeal to the listener’s emotions?**

As a class, discuss these questions. In your discussion, remember what you have read about the defeated nations’ bitterness toward the Versailles Treaty following World War I. As you read this chapter, notice that dictators were voted into power as people lost faith in democratic government in the 1920s and 1930s.
The horrors of World War I shattered the Enlightenment belief that progress would continue and reason would prevail. In the postwar period, people began questioning traditional beliefs. Some found answers in new scientific developments, which challenged the way people looked at the world. Many enjoyed the convenience of technological improvements in transportation and communication. As society became more open, women demanded more rights, and young people adopted new values. Meanwhile, unconventional styles and ideas in literature, philosophy, and music reflected the uncertain times.

A New Revolution in Science

The ideas of Albert Einstein and Sigmund Freud had an enormous impact on the 20th century. These thinkers were part of a scientific revolution as important as that brought about centuries earlier by Copernicus and Galileo.

Impact of Einstein’s Theory of Relativity

German-born physicist Albert Einstein offered startling new ideas on space, time, energy, and matter. Scientists had found that light travels at exactly the same speed no matter what direction it moves in relation to earth. In 1905, Einstein theorized that while the speed of light is constant, other things that seem constant, such as space and time, are not. Space and time can change when measured relative to an object moving near the speed of light—about 186,000 miles per second. Since relative motion is the key to Einstein’s idea, it is called the theory of relativity. Einstein’s ideas had implications not only for science but also for how people viewed the world. Now uncertainty and relativity replaced Isaac Newton’s comforting belief of a world operating according to absolute laws of motion and gravity.

Influence of Freudian Psychology

The ideas of Austrian physician Sigmund Freud were as revolutionary as Einstein’s. Freud treated patients with psychological problems. From his experiences, he constructed a theory about the human mind. He believed that much of human behavior is irrational, or beyond reason. He called the irrational part of the mind the unconscious. In the unconscious, a number of drives existed, especially pleasure-seeking drives, of which the conscious mind was unaware. Freud’s ideas weakened faith in reason. Even so, by the 1920s, Freud’s theories had developed widespread influence.
Literature in the 1920s

The brutality of World War I caused philosophers and writers to question accepted ideas about reason and progress. Disillusioned by the war, many people also feared the future and expressed doubts about traditional religious beliefs. Some writers and thinkers expressed their anxieties by creating disturbing visions of the present and the future.

In 1922, T. S. Eliot, an American poet living in England, wrote that Western society had lost its spiritual values. He described the postwar world as a barren “wasteland,” drained of hope and faith. In 1921, the Irish poet William Butler Yeats conveyed a sense of dark times ahead in the poem “The Second Coming”: “Things fall apart; the centre cannot hold; / Mere anarchy is loosed upon the world.”

Writers Reflect Society’s Concerns The horror of war made a deep impression on many writers. The Czech-born author Franz Kafka wrote eerie novels such as The Trial (1925) and The Castle (1926). His books feature people caught in threatening situations they can neither understand nor escape. The books struck a chord among readers in the uneasy postwar years.

Many novels showed the influence of Freud’s theories on the unconscious. The Irish-born author James Joyce gained widespread attention with his stream-of-consciousness novel Ulysses (1922). This book focuses on a single day in the lives of three people in Dublin, Ireland. Joyce broke with normal sentence structure and vocabulary in a bold attempt to mirror the workings of the human mind.

Thinkers React to Uncertainties In their search for meaning in an uncertain world, some thinkers turned to the philosophy known as existentialism. A major leader of this movement was the philosopher Jean Paul Sartre (SAHR•truh) of France. Existentialists believed that there is no universal meaning to life. Each person creates his or her own meaning in life through choices made and actions taken.

Analyzing Primary Sources

Writers of the “Lost Generation”

During the 1920s, many American writers, musicians, and painters left the United States to live in Europe. These expatriates, people who left their native country to live elsewhere, often settled in Paris. American writer Gertrude Stein called them the “Lost Generation.” They moved frantically from one European city to another, trying to find meaning in life. Life empty of meaning is the theme of F. Scott Fitzgerald’s The Great Gatsby (1925).

PRIMARY SOURCE

And as I sat there brooding on the old, unknown world, I thought of Gatsby’s wonder when he first picked out the green light at the end of Daisy’s dock. He had come a long way to this blue lawn, and his dream must have seemed so close that he could hardly fail to grasp it. He did not know that it was already behind him, somewhere back in that vast obscurity beyond the city, where the dark fields of the republic rolled on under the night.

Gatsby believed in the green light, the . . . future that year by year recedes before us. It eluded us then, but that’s no matter—tomorrow we will run faster, stretch out our arms farther . . . And one fine morning—

So we beat on, boats against the current, borne back ceaselessly into the past.

F. SCOTT FITZGERALD, The Great Gatsby
The existentialists were influenced by the German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche (NEE-chuh). In the 1880s, Nietzsche wrote that Western ideas such as reason, democracy, and progress had stifled people’s creativity and actions. Nietzsche urged a return to the ancient heroic values of pride, assertiveness, and strength. His ideas attracted growing attention in the 20th century and had a great impact on politics in Italy and Germany in the 1920s and 1930s.

**Revolution in the Arts**

Although many of the new directions in painting and music began in the prewar period, they evolved after the war.

**Artists Rebel Against Tradition** Artists rebelled against earlier realistic styles of painting. They wanted to depict the inner world of emotion and imagination rather than show realistic representations of objects. Expressionist painters like Paul Klee and Wassily Kandinsky used bold colors and distorted or exaggerated forms.

Inspired by traditional African art, Georges Braque of France and Pablo Picasso of Spain founded Cubism in 1907. Cubism transformed natural shapes into geometric forms. Objects were broken down into different parts with sharp angles and edges. Often several views were depicted at the same time.

**Surrealism**, an art movement that sought to link the world of dreams with real life, was inspired by Freud’s ideas. The term *surreal* means “beyond or above reality.” Surrealists tried to call on the unconscious part of their minds. Many of their paintings have an eerie, dreamlike quality and depict objects in unrealistic ways.

**Composers Try New Styles** In both classical and popular music, composers moved away from traditional styles. In his ballet masterpiece, *The Rite of Spring*, the Russian composer Igor Stravinsky used irregular rhythms and dissonances, or harsh combinations of sound. The Austrian composer Arnold Schoenberg rejected traditional harmonies and musical scales.

A new popular musical style called *jazz* emerged in the United States. It was developed by musicians, mainly African Americans, in New Orleans, Memphis, and Chicago. It swept the United States and Europe. The lively, loose beat of jazz seemed to capture the new freedom of the age.

![The Persistence of Memory (1931), a surrealist work by Spanish artist Salvador Dali, shows watches melting in a desert.](image)
Society Challenges Convention

World War I had disrupted traditional social patterns. New ideas and ways of life led to a new kind of individual freedom during the 1920s. Young people especially were willing to break with the past and experiment with modern values.

Women's Roles Change The independent spirit of the times showed clearly in the changes women were making in their lives. The war had allowed women to take on new roles. Their work in the war effort was decisive in helping them win the right to vote. After the war, women's suffrage became law in many countries, including the United States, Britain, Germany, Sweden, and Austria.

Women abandoned restrictive clothing and hairstyles. They wore shorter, looser garments and had their hair “bobbed,” or cut short. They also wore makeup, drove cars, and drank and smoked in public. Although most women still followed traditional paths of marriage and family, a growing number spoke out for greater freedom in their lives. Margaret Sanger and Emma Goldman risked arrest by speaking in favor of birth control. As women sought new careers, the numbers of women in medicine, education, journalism, and other professions increased.

Technological Advances Improve Life

During World War I, scientists developed new drugs and medical treatments that helped millions of people in the postwar years. The war’s technological advances were put to use to improve transportation and communication after the war.

The Automobile Alters Society The automobile benefited from a host of wartime innovations and improvements—electric starters, air-filled tires, and more powerful engines. Cars were now sleek and brightly polished, complete with headlights and chrome-plated bumpers. In prewar Britain, autos were owned exclusively by the rich. British factories produced 34,000 autos in 1913. After the war, prices dropped, and the middle class could afford cars. By 1937, the British were producing 511,000 autos a year.
Increased auto use by the average family led to lifestyle changes. More people traveled for pleasure. In Europe and the United States, new businesses opened to serve the mobile tourist. The auto also affected where people lived and worked. People moved to suburbs and commuted to work in the cities.

**Airplanes Transform Travel** International air travel became an objective after the war. In 1919, two British pilots made the first successful flight across the Atlantic, from Newfoundland to Ireland. In 1927, an American pilot named Charles Lindbergh captured world attention with a 33-hour solo flight from New York to Paris. Most of the world’s major passenger airlines were established during the 1920s.

At first only the rich were able to afford air travel. Still, everyone enjoyed the exploits of the aviation pioneers, including those of Amelia Earhart. She was an American who, in 1932, became the first woman to fly solo across the Atlantic.

**Radio and Movies Dominate Popular Entertainment** Guglielmo Marconi conducted his first successful experiments with radio in 1895. However, the real push for radio development came during World War I.

In 1920, the world’s first commercial radio station—KDKA in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania—began broadcasting. Almost overnight, radio mania swept the United States. Every major city had stations broadcasting news, plays, and even live sporting events. Soon most families owned a radio.

Motion pictures were also a major industry in the 1920s. Many countries, from Cuba to Japan, produced movies. In Europe, film was a serious art form. However, in the Hollywood district of Los Angeles, where 90 percent of all films were made, movies were entertainment.

The king of Hollywood’s silent screen was the English-born Charlie Chaplin, a comic genius best known for his portrayal of the lonely little tramp bewildered by life. In the late 1920s, the addition of sound transformed movies.

The advances in transportation and communication that followed the war had brought the world in closer touch. Global prosperity came to depend on the economic well-being of all major nations, especially the United States.
Labor-Saving Devices in the United States

Several changes that took place during the 1920s made the use of electrical household appliances more widespread.

- Wiring for electricity became common. In 1917, only 24 percent of U.S. homes had electricity; by 1930, that figure was almost 70 percent.
- Merchants offered the installment plan, which allowed buyers to make payments over time. That way, people could purchase appliances even if they didn’t have the whole price.
- The use of advertising grew. Ads praised appliances, claiming that they would shorten tasks and give women more free time.

Ironically, the new labor-saving devices generally did not decrease the amount of time women spent doing housework. Because the tasks became less physically difficult, many families stopped hiring servants to do the work and relied on the wife to do all the jobs herself.

RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on daily life in the 1920s.

Refrigerator

People used to keep perishable food in iceboxes cooled by large chunks of ice that gradually melted and had to be replaced.

Electric refrigerators, like the one in this 1929 advertisement, kept the food at a fairly constant temperature, which reduced spoilage. Because food kept longer, housewives could shop less frequently.

Washing Machine

To do laundry manually, women had to carry and heat about 50 gallons of water for each load. They rubbed the clothes on ridged washboards, rinsed them in tubs, and wrung them out by hand.

This early electric washing machine, photographed in 1933, made the job less strenuous. The casters on the legs made it easier to move tubs of water. The two rollers at the top of the machine squeezed water from clothes. That innovation alone saved women’s wrists from constant strain.
Iron
Before electrical appliances, women heated irons on a stove. The irons cooled quickly, and as they did so, women had to push down harder to press out wrinkles. Early electric irons also had inconsistent heat. This 1926 ad offered an electric iron that stayed evenly hot, so women didn’t have to put so much force into their ironing. Therefore, they could iron sitting down.

Coffee Pot
The electric coffee pot shown in this 1933 photograph was a vacuum pot. The water in the bottom chamber would come to a boil and bubble up into the top chamber, where the grounds were. The resulting vacuum in the lower chamber pulled the liquid back through the grounds and into the lower chamber.

Vacuum Cleaner
This 1920 ad promised “Twice as many rooms cleaned... twice as much leisure left for you to enjoy.” However, women rarely experienced that benefit. Because the new appliances made housework easier, people began to expect homes to be cleaner. As a result, many women vacuumed more often and generally used their newfound “leisure” time to do even more household chores than before.

### Connect to Today

1. **Analyzing Issues** What benefits did advertisers promise that the new electrical appliances would provide for women? Explain whether women actually received those benefits.

   ![Skillbuilder Handbook, page R17](image)

2. **Comparing and Contrasting** Ask two or three adults about the way that technology has affected their work life and whether modern technologies are “labor-saving devices.” How do your findings compare to the effect of electrical appliances in the 1920s?
A Worldwide Depression

**SETTING THE STAGE** By the late 1920s, European nations were rebuilding war-torn economies. They were aided by loans from the more prosperous United States. Only the United States and Japan came out of the war in better financial shape than before. In the United States, Americans seemed confident that the country would continue on the road to even greater economic prosperity. One sign of this was the booming stock market. Yet the American economy had serious weaknesses that were soon to bring about the most severe economic downturn the world had yet known.

**Postwar Europe**

In both human suffering and economic terms, the cost of World War I was immense. The Great War left every major European country nearly bankrupt. In addition, Europe’s domination in world affairs declined after the war.

**Unstable New Democracies** War’s end saw the sudden rise of new democracies. From 1914 to 1918, Europe’s last absolute rulers had been overthrown. The first of the new governments was formed in Russia in 1917. The Provisional Government, as it was called, hoped to establish constitutional and democratic rule. However, within months it had fallen to a Communist dictatorship. Even so, for the first time, most European nations had democratic governments.

Many citizens of the new democracies had little experience with representative government. For generations, kings and emperors had ruled Germany and the new nations formed from Austria-Hungary. Even in France and Italy, whose parliaments had existed before World War I, the large number of political parties made effective government difficult. Some countries had a dozen or more political groups. In these countries, it was almost impossible for one party to win enough support to govern effectively. When no single party won a majority, a coalition government, or temporary alliance of several parties, was needed to form a parliamentary majority. Because the parties disagreed on so many policies, coalitions seldom lasted very long.

Frequent changes in government made it hard for democratic countries to develop strong leadership and move toward long-term goals. The weaknesses of a coalition government became a major problem in times of crisis. Voters in several countries were then willing to sacrifice democratic government for strong, authoritarian leadership.

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**MAIN IDEA**

**ECONOMICS** An economic depression in the United States spread throughout the world and lasted for a decade.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**

Many social and economic programs introduced worldwide to combat the Great Depression are still operating.

**TERMS & NAMES**

- coalition government
- Weimar Republic
- Franklin D. Roosevelt
- New Deal
- Great Depression
Identifying Problems
A) What political problems did the Weimar Republic face?

The Weimar Republic

Germany’s new democratic government was set up in 1919. Known as the Weimar (WY•MAHR) Republic, it was named after the city where the national assembly met. The Weimar Republic had serious weaknesses from the start. First, Germany lacked a strong democratic tradition. Furthermore, postwar Germany had several major political parties and many minor ones. Worst of all, millions of Germans blamed the Weimar government, not their wartime leaders, for the country’s defeat and postwar humiliation caused by the Versailles Treaty.

Inflation Causes Crisis in Germany

Germany also faced enormous economic problems that had begun during the war. Unlike Britain and France, Germany had not greatly increased its wartime taxes. To pay the expenses of the war, the Germans had simply printed money. After Germany’s defeat, this paper money steadily lost its value. Burdened with heavy reparations payments to the Allies and with other economic problems, Germany printed even more money. As a result, the value of the mark, as Germany’s currency was called, fell sharply. Severe inflation set in. Germans needed more and more money to buy even the most basic goods. For example, in Berlin a loaf of bread cost less than a mark in 1918, more than 160 marks in 1922, and some 200 billion marks by late 1923. People took wheelbarrows full of money to buy food. As a result, many Germans questioned the value of their new democratic government.

Attempts at Economic Stability

Germany recovered from the 1923 inflation thanks largely to the work of an international committee. The committee was headed by Charles Dawes, an American banker. The Dawes Plan provided for a $200 million loan from American banks to stabilize German currency and strengthen its economy. The plan also set a more realistic schedule for Germany’s reparations payments.

Put into effect in 1924, the Dawes Plan helped slow inflation. As the German economy began to recover, it attracted more loans and investments from the United States. By 1929, German factories were producing as much as they had before the war.

Efforts at a Lasting Peace

As prosperity returned, Germany’s foreign minister, Gustav Stresemann (STRAY•zuh•MAHN), and France’s foreign minister, Aristide Briand (bree•AHND), tried to improve relations between their countries. In 1925, the two ministers met in Locarno, Switzerland, with officials from Belgium, Italy, and Britain. They signed a treaty promising that France and Germany would never
again make war against each other. Germany also agreed to respect the existing borders of France and Belgium. It then was admitted to the League of Nations.

In 1928, the hopes raised by the “spirit of Locarno” led to the Kellogg-Briand peace pact. Frank Kellogg, the U.S. Secretary of State, arranged this agreement with France’s Briand. Almost every country in the world, including the Soviet Union, signed. They pledged “to renounce war as an instrument of national policy.”

Unfortunately, the treaty had no means to enforce its provisions. The League of Nations, the obvious choice as enforcer, had no armed forces. The refusal of the United States to join the League also weakened it. Nonetheless, the peace agreements seemed a good start.

Financial Collapse

In the late 1920s, American economic prosperity largely sustained the world economy. If the U.S. economy weakened, the whole world’s economic system might collapse. In 1929, it did.

A Flawed U.S. Economy Despite prosperity, several weaknesses in the U.S. economy caused serious problems. These included uneven distribution of wealth, overproduction by business and agriculture, and the fact that many Americans were buying less.

By 1929, American factories were turning out nearly half of the world’s industrial goods. The rising productivity led to enormous profits. However, this new wealth was not evenly distributed. The richest 5 percent of the population received 33 percent of all personal income in 1929. Yet 60 percent of all American families earned less than $2,000 a year. Thus, most families were too poor to buy the goods being produced. Unable to sell all their goods, store owners eventually cut back their orders from factories. Factories in turn reduced production and laid off workers. A downward economic spiral began. As more workers lost their jobs, families bought even fewer goods. In turn, factories made further cuts in production and laid off more workers.

During the 1920s, overproduction affected American farmers as well. Scientific farming methods and new farm machinery had dramatically increased crop yields. American farmers were producing more food. Meanwhile, they faced new competition from farmers in Australia, Latin America, and Europe. As a result, a worldwide surplus of agricultural products drove prices and profits down.

Unable to sell their crops at a profit, many farmers could not pay off the bank loans that kept them in business. Their unpaid debts weakened banks and forced some to close. The danger signs of overproduction by factories and farms should have warned people against gambling on the stock market. Yet no one heeded the warning.

The Stock Market Crashes In 1929, New York City’s Wall Street was the financial capital of the world. Banks and investment companies lined its sidewalks. At Wall Street’s New York Stock Exchange, optimism about the booming U.S. economy showed in soaring prices for stocks. To get in on the boom, many middle-income people began buying...
Life in the Depression
During the Great Depression of 1929 to 1939, millions of people worldwide lost their jobs or their farms. At first the unemployed had to depend on the charity of others for food, clothing, and shelter. Many, like the men in this photo taken in New York City, made their home in makeshift shacks. Local governments and charities opened soup kitchens to provide free food. There were long lines of applicants for what work was available, and these jobs usually paid low wages.

INTERNET ACTIVITY
Go online to create a photo-essay on the Great Depression in the United States.

stocks on margin. This meant that they paid a small percentage of a stock’s price as a down payment and borrowed the rest from a stockbroker. The system worked well as long as stock prices were rising. However, if they fell, investors had no money to pay off the loan.

In September 1929, some investors began to think that stock prices were unnaturally high. They started selling their stocks, believing the prices would soon go down. By Thursday, October 24, the gradual lowering of stock prices had become an all-out slide downward. A panic resulted. Everyone wanted to sell stocks, and no one wanted to buy. Prices plunged to a new low on Tuesday, October 29. A record 16 million stocks were sold. Then the market collapsed.

The Great Depression
People could not pay the money they owed on margin purchases. Stocks they had bought at high prices were now worthless. Within months of the crash, unemployment rates began to rise as industrial production, prices, and wages declined. A long business slump, which would come to be called the Great Depression, followed. The stock market crash alone did not cause the Great Depression, but it quickened the collapse of the economy and made the Depression more difficult. By 1932, factory production had been cut in half. Thousands of businesses failed, and banks closed. Around 9 million people lost the money in their savings accounts when banks had no money to pay them. Many farmers lost their lands when they could not make mortgage payments. By 1933, one-fourth of all American workers had no jobs.

A Global Depression The collapse of the American economy sent shock waves around the world. Worried American bankers demanded repayment of their overseas loans, and American investors withdrew their money from Europe. The American market for European goods dropped sharply as the U.S. Congress placed high tariffs on imported goods so that American dollars would stay in the United States and pay for American goods. This policy backfired. Conditions worsened for the United
States. Many countries that depended on exporting goods to the United States also suffered. Moreover, when the United States raised tariffs, it set off a chain reaction. Other nations imposed their own higher tariffs. World trade dropped by 65 percent. This contributed further to the economic downturn. Unemployment rates soared.

**Effects Throughout the World** Because of war debts and dependence on American loans and investments, Germany and Austria were particularly hard hit. In 1931, Austria’s largest bank failed. In Asia, both farmers and urban workers suffered as the value of exports fell by half between 1929 and 1931. The crash was felt heavily in Latin America as well. As European and U.S. demand for such Latin American products as sugar, beef, and copper dropped, prices collapsed.

**The World Confronts the Crisis**

The Depression confronted democracies with a serious challenge to their economic and political systems. Each country met the crisis in its own way.

**Britain Takes Steps to Improve Its Economy** The Depression hit Britain severely. To meet the emergency, British voters elected a multiparty coalition known as the National Government. It passed high protective tariffs, increased taxes, and regulated the currency. It also lowered interest rates to encourage industrial growth. These measures brought about a slow but steady recovery. By 1937, unemployment had been cut in half, and production had risen above 1929 levels. Britain avoided political extremes and preserved democracy.

**France Responds to Economic Crisis** Unlike Britain, France had a more self-sufficient economy. In 1930, it was still heavily agricultural and less dependent on foreign trade. Nevertheless, by 1935, one million French workers were unemployed.

The economic crisis contributed to political instability. In 1933, five coalition governments formed and fell. Many political leaders were frightened by the growth of antidemocratic forces both in France and in other parts of Europe. So in 1936, moderates, Socialists, and Communists formed a coalition. The Popular Front, as it was called, passed a series of reforms to help the workers. Unfortunately, price increases quickly offset wage gains. Unemployment remained high. Yet France also preserved democratic government.
Socialist Governments Find Solutions  The Socialist governments in the Scandinavian countries of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway also met the challenge of economic crisis successfully. They built their recovery programs on an existing tradition of cooperative community action. In Sweden, the government sponsored massive public works projects that kept people employed and producing. All the Scandinavian countries raised pensions for the elderly and increased unemployment insurance, subsidies for housing, and other welfare benefits. To pay for these benefits, the governments taxed all citizens. Democracy remained intact.

Recovery in the United States  In 1932, in the first presidential election after the Depression had begun, U.S. voters elected Franklin D. Roosevelt. His confident manner appealed to millions of Americans who felt bewildered by the Depression. On March 4, 1933, the new president sought to restore Americans’ faith in their nation.

Roosevelt immediately began a program of government reform that he called the New Deal. Large public works projects helped to provide jobs for the unemployed. New government agencies gave financial help to businesses and farms. Large amounts of public money were spent on welfare and relief programs. Roosevelt and his advisers believed that government spending would create jobs and start a recovery. Regulations were imposed to reform the stock market and the banking system.

The New Deal did eventually reform the American economic system. Roosevelt’s leadership preserved the country’s faith in its democratic political system. It also established him as a leader of democracy in a world threatened by ruthless dictators, as you will read about in Section 3.
Fascism Rises in Europe

**MAIN IDEA**
In response to political turmoil and economic crises, Italy and Germany turned to totalitarian dictators.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**
These dictators changed the course of history, and the world is still recovering from their abuse of power.

**TERMS & NAMES**
- fascism
- Benito Mussolini
- Adolf Hitler
- Nazism
- Mein Kampf
- lebensraum

**SETTING THE STAGE**
Many democracies, including the United States, Britain, and France, remained strong despite the economic crisis caused by the Great Depression. However, millions of people lost faith in democratic government. In response, they turned to an extreme system of government called fascism. Fascists promised to revive the economy, punish those responsible for hard times, and restore order and national pride. Their message attracted many people who felt frustrated and angered by the peace treaties that followed World War I and by the Great Depression.

**Fascism’s Rise in Italy**
Fascism (FASH•uhm) was a new, militant political movement that emphasized loyalty to the state and obedience to its leader. Unlike communism, fascism had no clearly defined theory or program. Nevertheless, most Fascists shared several ideas. They preached an extreme form of nationalism, or loyalty to one’s country. Fascists believed that nations must struggle—peaceful states were doomed to be conquered. They pledged loyalty to an authoritarian leader who guided and brought order to the state. In each nation, Fascists wore uniforms of a certain color, used special salutes, and held mass rallies.

In some ways, fascism was similar to communism. Both systems were ruled by dictators who allowed only their own political party (one-party rule). Both denied individual rights. In both, the state was supreme. Neither practiced any kind of democracy. However, unlike Communists, Fascists did not seek a classless society. Rather, they believed that each class had its place and function. In most cases, Fascist parties were made up of aristocrats and industrialists, war veterans, and the lower middle class. Also, Fascists were nationalists, and Communists were internationalists, hoping to unite workers worldwide.

**Mussolini Takes Control**
Fascism’s rise in Italy was fueled by bitter disappointment over the failure to win large territorial gains at the 1919 Paris Peace Conference. Rising inflation and unemployment also contributed to widespread social unrest. To growing numbers of Italians, their democratic government seemed helpless to deal with the country’s problems. They wanted a leader who would take action.
Fascism
Fascism is a political movement that promotes an extreme form of nationalism and militarism. It also includes a denial of individual rights and dictatorial one-party rule. Nazism was the Fascist movement that developed in Germany in the 1920s and the 1930s; it included a belief in the racial superiority of the German people. The Fascists in Italy were led by Benito Mussolini, shown in the chart at right.

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts
1. Synthesizing Which political, cultural, and economic characteristics helped make fascism an authoritarian system?
2. Making Inferences What characteristics of fascism might make it attractive to people during times of crisis such as the Great Depression?

Clarifying What promises did Mussolini make to the Italian people?

A newspaper editor and politician named Benito Mussolini boldly promised to rescue Italy by reviving its economy and rebuilding its armed forces. He vowed to give Italy strong leadership. Mussolini had founded the Fascist Party in 1919. As economic conditions worsened, his popularity rapidly increased. Finally, Mussolini publicly criticized Italy’s government. Groups of Fascists wearing black shirts attacked Communists and Socialists on the streets. Because Mussolini played on the fear of a workers’ revolt, he began to win support from the middle classes, the aristocracy, and industrial leaders.

In October 1922, about 30,000 Fascists marched on Rome. They demanded that King Victor Emmanuel III put Mussolini in charge of the government. The king decided that Mussolini was the best hope for his dynasty to survive. After widespread violence and a threatened uprising, Mussolini took power “legally.”

Il Duce’s Leadership Mussolini was now Il Duce (ihl DOO•chay), or the leader. He abolished democracy and outlawed all political parties except the Fascists. Secret police jailed his opponents. Government censors forced radio stations and publications to broadcast or publish only Fascist doctrines. Mussolini outlawed strikes. He sought to control the economy by allying the Fascists with the industrialists and large landowners. However, Mussolini never had the total control achieved by Joseph Stalin in the Soviet Union or Adolf Hitler in Germany.

Hitler Rises to Power in Germany
When Mussolini became dictator of Italy in the mid-1920s, Adolf Hitler was a little-known political leader whose early life had been marked by disappointment. When World War I broke out, Hitler found a new beginning. He volunteered for the German army and was twice awarded the Iron Cross, a medal for bravery.
Benito Mussolini 1883–1945
Because Mussolini was of modest height, he usually chose a location for his speeches where he towered above the crowds—often a balcony high above a public square. He then roused audiences with his emotional speeches and theatrical gestures and body movements.

Vowing to lead Italy "back to her ways of ancient greatness," Mussolini peppered his speeches with aggressive words such as war and power.

Adolf Hitler 1889–1945
Like Mussolini, Hitler could manipulate huge audiences with his fiery oratory. Making speeches was crucial to Hitler. He believed: "All great world-shaking events have been brought about . . . by the spoken word!"

Because he appeared awkward and unimposing, Hitler rehearsed his speeches. Usually he began a speech in a normal voice. Suddenly, he spoke louder as his anger grew. His voice rose to a screech, and his hands flailed the air. Then he would stop, smooth his hair, and look quite calm.

RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Benito Mussolini and Adolf Hitler.

The Rise of the Nazis At the end of the war, Hitler settled in Munich. In 1919, he joined a tiny right-wing political group. This group shared his belief that Germany had to overturn the Treaty of Versailles and combat communism. The group later named itself the National Socialist German Workers’ Party, called Nazi for short. Its policies formed the German brand of fascism known as Nazism. The party adopted the swastika, or hooked cross, as its symbol. The Nazis also set up a private militia called the storm troopers or Brown Shirts.

Within a short time, Hitler’s success as an organizer and speaker led him to be chosen der Führer (duhr-FYUR•uhr), or the leader, of the Nazi party. Inspired by Mussolini’s march on Rome, Hitler and the Nazis plotted to seize power in Munich in 1923. The attempt failed, and Hitler was arrested. He was tried for treason but was sentenced to only five years in prison. He served less than nine months.

While in jail, Hitler wrote Mein Kampf (My Struggle). This book set forth his beliefs and his goals for Germany. Hitler asserted that the Germans, whom he incorrectly called “Aryans,” were a “master race.” He declared that non-Aryan “races,” such as Jews, Slavs, and Gypsies, were inferior. He called the Versailles Treaty an outrage and vowed to regain German lands. Hitler also declared that Germany was overcrowded and needed more lebensraum, or living space. He promised to get that space by conquering eastern Europe and Russia.

After leaving prison in 1924, Hitler revived the Nazi Party. Most Germans ignored him and his angry message until the Great Depression ended the nation’s brief postwar recovery. When American loans stopped, the German economy collapsed. Civil unrest broke out. Frightened and confused, Germans now turned to Hitler, hoping for security and firm leadership.

Hitler Becomes Chancellor
The Nazis had become the largest political party by 1932. Conservative leaders mistakenly believed they could control Hitler and use him for their purposes. In January 1933, they advised President Paul von Hindenburg to name Hitler chancellor. Thus Hitler came to power legally. Soon after, General Erich Ludendorff, a former Hitler ally, wrote to Hindenburg:

PRIMARY SOURCE
By naming Hitler as Reichschancellor, you have delivered up our holy Fatherland to one of the greatest [rabblerousers] of all time. I solemnly [predict] that this accursed man will plunge our Reich into the abyss and bring our nation into inconceivable misery.

ERICH LUDENDORFF, letter to President Hindenburg, February 1, 1933

Vocabulary
chancellor: the prime minister or president in certain countries
Once in office, Hitler called for new elections, hoping to win a parliamentary majori-
ty. Six days before the election, a fire destroyed the Reichstag building, where the parliament met. The Nazis blamed the Communists. By stirring up fear of the Communists, the Nazis and their allies won by a slim majority.

Hitler used his new power to turn Germany into a totalitarian state. He banned all other political parties and had opponents arrested. Meanwhile, an elite, black-uniformed unit called the SS (Schutzstaffel, or protection squad) was created. It was loyal only to Hitler. In 1934, the SS arrested and murdered hundreds of Hitler’s enemies. This brutal action and the terror applied by the Gestapo, the Nazi secret police, shocked most Germans into total obedience.

The Nazis quickly took command of the economy. New laws banned strikes, dissolved independent labor unions, and gave the government authority over business and labor. Hitler put millions of Germans to work. They constructed factories, built highways, manufactured weapons, and served in the military. As a result, the number of unemployed dropped from about 6 million to 1.5 million in 1936.

**The Führer Is Supreme** Hitler wanted more than just economic and political power—he wanted control over every aspect of German life. To shape public opinion and to win praise for his leadership, Hitler turned the press, radio, literature, painting, and film into propaganda tools. Books that did not conform to Nazi beliefs were burned in huge bonfires. Churches were forbidden to criticize the Nazis or the government. Schoolchildren had to join the Hitler Youth (for boys) or the League of German Girls. Hitler believed that continuous struggle brought victory to the strong. He twisted the philosophy of Friedrich Nietzsche to support his use of brute force.

**Hitler Makes War on the Jews** Hatred of Jews, or anti-Semitism, was a key part of Nazi ideology. Although Jews were less than 1 percent of the population, the Nazis used them as scapegoats for all Germany’s troubles since the war. This led to a wave of anti-Semitism across Germany. Beginning in 1933, the Nazis passed laws depriving Jews of most of their rights. Violence against Jews mounted. On the
night of November 9, 1938, Nazi mobs attacked Jews in their homes and on the streets and destroyed thousands of Jewish-owned buildings. This rampage, called *Kristallnacht* (Night of the Broken Glass), signaled the real start of the process of eliminating the Jews from German life. You’ll learn more about this in Chapter 16.

**Other Countries Fall to Dictators**

While Fascists took power in Italy and Germany, the nations formed in eastern Europe after World War I also were falling to dictators. In Hungary in 1919, after a brief Communist regime, military forces and wealthy landowners joined to make Admiral Miklós Horthy the first European postwar dictator. In Poland, Marshal Józef Piłsudski (pihl•SOOT•skee) seized power in 1926. In Yugoslavia, Albania, Bulgaria, and Romania, kings turned to strong-man rule. They suspended constitutions and silenced foes. In 1935, only one democracy, Czechoslovakia, remained in eastern Europe.

Only in European nations with strong democratic traditions—Britain, France, and the Scandinavian countries—did democracy survive. With no democratic experience and severe economic problems, many Europeans saw dictatorship as the only way to prevent instability.

By the mid-1930s, the powerful nations of the world were split into two antagonistic camps—democratic and totalitarian. And to gain their ends, the Fascist dictatorships had indicated a willingness to use military aggression. Although all of these dictatorships restricted civil rights, none asserted control with the brutality of the Russian Communists or the Nazis.

**Fascism in Argentina**

Juan Perón served as Argentina’s president from 1946 to 1955 and again in 1973 and 1974. The two years he spent in Europe before World War II greatly influenced his strong-man rule.

A career army officer, Perón went to Italy in 1939 for military training. He then served at the Argentine embassy in Rome. A visit to Berlin gave Perón a chance to see Nazi Germany. The ability of Hitler and Mussolini to manipulate their citizens impressed Perón.

When Perón himself gained power, he patterned his military dictatorship on that of the European Fascists.

**SECTION ASSESSMENT**

**TERMS & NAMES** 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- fascism
- Benito Mussolini
- Adolf Hitler
- Nazism
- Mein Kampf
- lebensraum

**USING YOUR NOTES**

2. Do you think Hitler and Mussolini were more alike or different? Explain why.

**MAIN IDEAS**

3. What factors led to the rise of fascism in Italy?
4. How did Hitler maintain power?
5. Why did the leadership of many eastern European nations fall to dictators?

**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**

6. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS Why did a movement like fascism and leaders like Mussolini and Hitler come to power during a period of crisis?
7. ANALYZING MOTIVES Why do you think Hitler had German children join Nazi organizations?
8. SYNTHESIZING What emotions did both Hitler and Mussolini stir in their followers?
9. WRITING ACTIVITY [POWER AND AUTHORITY] Reread the History Makers on Mussolini and Hitler on page 912. Then write a description of the techniques the two leaders used to appear powerful to their listeners.

**CONNECT TO TODAY** PRESENTING AN ORAL REPORT

Some modern rulers have invaded other countries for political and economic gain. Research to learn about a recent invasion and discuss your findings in an oral report.
Aggressors Invade Nations

MAIN IDEA

Setting the Stage
By the mid-1930s, Germany and Italy seemed bent on military conquest. The major democracies—Britain, France, and the United States—were distracted by economic problems at home and longed to remain at peace. With the world moving toward war, many nations pinned their hopes for peace on the League of Nations. As fascism spread in Europe, however, a powerful nation in Asia moved toward a similar system. Following a period of reform and progress in the 1920s, Japan fell under military rule.

Japan Seeks an Empire

During the 1920s, the Japanese government became more democratic. In 1922, Japan signed an international treaty agreeing to respect China’s borders. In 1928, it signed the Kellogg-Briand Pact renouncing war. Japan’s parliamentary system had several weaknesses, however. Its constitution put strict limits on the powers of the prime minister and the cabinet. Most importantly, civilian leaders had little control over the armed forces. Military leaders reported only to the emperor.

Militarists Take Control of Japan
As long as Japan remained prosperous, the civilian government kept power. But when the Great Depression struck in 1929, many Japanese blamed the government. Military leaders gained support and soon won control of the country. Unlike the Fascists in Europe, the militarists did not try to establish a new system of government. They wanted to restore traditional control of the government to the military. Instead of a forceful leader like Mussolini or Hitler, the militarists made the emperor the symbol of state power.

Keeping Emperor Hirohito as head of state won popular support for the army leaders who ruled in his name. Like Hitler and Mussolini, Japan’s militarists were extreme nationalists. They wanted to solve the country’s economic problems through foreign expansion. They planned a Pacific empire that included a conquered China. The empire would provide Japan with raw materials and markets for its goods. It would also give Japan room for its rising population.

Japan Invades Manchuria
Japanese businesses had invested heavily in China’s northeast province, Manchuria. It was an area rich in iron and coal. In 1931, the Japanese army seized Manchuria, despite objections from the Japanese parliament. The army then set up a puppet government. Japanese engineers and technicians began arriving in large numbers to build mines and factories.
The Japanese attack on Manchuria was the first direct challenge to the League of Nations. In the early 1930s, the League’s members included all major democracies except the United States. The League also included the three countries that posed the greatest threat to peace—Germany, Japan, and Italy. When Japan seized Manchuria, many League members vigorously protested. Japan ignored the protests and withdrew from the League in 1933.

**Japan Invades China** Four years later, a border incident touched off a full-scale war between Japan and China. Japanese forces swept into northern China. Despite having a million soldiers, China’s army led by Jiang Jieshi was no match for the better equipped and trained Japanese.

Beijing and other northern cities as well as the capital, Nanjing, fell to the Japanese in 1937. Japanese troops killed tens of thousands of captured soldiers and civilians in Nanjing. Forced to retreat westward, Jiang Jieshi set up a new capital at Chongqing. At the same time, Chinese guerrillas led by China’s Communist leader, Mao Zedong, continued to fight the Japanese in the conquered area.

**European Aggressors on the March**

The League’s failure to stop the Japanese encouraged European Fascists to plan aggression of their own. The Italian leader Mussolini dreamed of building a colonial empire in Africa like those of Britain and France.

**Mussolini Attacks Ethiopia** Ethiopia was one of Africa’s three independent nations. The Ethiopians had successfully resisted an Italian attempt at conquest during the 1890s. To avenge that defeat, Mussolini ordered a massive invasion of Ethiopia in October 1935. The spears and swords of the Ethiopians were no match for Italian airplanes, tanks, guns, and poison gas.

The Ethiopian emperor, Haile Selassie, urgently appealed to the League for help. Although the League condemned the attack, its members did nothing. Britain continued to let Italian troops and supplies pass through the British-controlled Suez Canal on their way to Ethiopia. By giving in to Mussolini in Africa, Britain and France hoped to keep peace in Europe.

**Hitler Defies Versailles Treaty** Hitler had long pledged to undo the Versailles Treaty. Among its provisions, the treaty limited the size of Germany’s army. In March 1935, the Führer announced that Germany would not obey these restrictions. The League issued only a mild condemnation.

The League’s failure to stop Germany from rearming convinced Hitler to take even greater risks. The treaty had forbidden German troops to enter a 30-mile-wide zone on either side of the Rhine River. Known as the Rhineland, the zone formed
Japan invaded China, July 1937

The aggression in Asia, 1931–1937

Aggression in Africa, 1935–1939

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

1. Location On these maps, which countries are the aggressors?
2. Movement On what two continents did the aggression occur?

a buffer between Germany and France. It was also an important industrial area. On March 7, 1936, German troops moved into the Rhineland. Stunned, the French were unwilling to risk war. The British urged appeasement, giving in to an aggressor to keep peace.

Hitler later admitted that he would have backed down if the French and British had challenged him. The German reoccupation of the Rhineland marked a turning point in the march toward war. First, it strengthened Hitler’s power and prestige within Germany. Second, the balance of power changed in Germany’s favor. France and Belgium were now open to attack from German troops. Finally, the weak response by France and Britain encouraged Hitler to speed up his expansion.

Hitler’s growing strength convinced Mussolini that he should seek an alliance with Germany. In October 1936, the two dictators reached an agreement that became known as the Rome-Berlin Axis. A month later, Germany also made an agreement with Japan. Germany, Italy, and Japan came to be called the Axis Powers.

Civil War Erupts in Spain

Hitler and Mussolini again tested the will of the democracies of Europe in the Spanish Civil War. Spain had been a monarchy until 1931, when a republic was declared. The government, run by liberals and Socialists, held office amid many crises. In July 1936, army leaders, favoring a Fascist-style government, joined General Francisco Franco in a revolt. Thus began a civil war that dragged on for three years.

Hitler and Mussolini sent troops, tanks, and airplanes to help Franco’s forces, which were called the Nationalists. The armed forces of the Republicans, as supporters of Spain’s elected government were known, received little help from abroad. The Western democracies remained neutral. Only the Soviet Union sent equipment and advisers. An international brigade of volunteers fought on the Republican side. Early in 1939, Republican resistance collapsed. Franco became Spain’s Fascist dictator.

Vocabulary

axis: a straight line around which an object rotates. Hitler and Mussolini expected their alliance to become the axis around which Europe would rotate.
Democratic Nations Try to Preserve Peace

Instead of taking a stand against Fascist aggression in the 1930s, Britain and France repeatedly made concessions, hoping to keep peace. Both nations were dealing with serious economic problems as a result of the Great Depression. In addition, the horrors of World War I had created a deep desire to avoid war.

United States Follows an Isolationist Policy Many Americans supported isolationism, the belief that political ties to other countries should be avoided. Isolationists argued that entry into World War I had been a costly error. Beginning in 1935, Congress passed three Neutrality Acts. These laws banned loans and the sale of arms to nations at war.

The German Reich Expands On November 5, 1937, Hitler announced to his advisers his plans to absorb Austria and Czechoslovakia into the Third Reich (ryk), or German Empire. The Treaty of Versailles prohibited Anschluss (AHN•shlus), or a union between Austria and Germany. However, many Austrians supported unity with Germany. In March 1938, Hitler sent his army into Austria and annexed it. France and Britain ignored their pledge to protect Austrian independence.

Hitler next turned to Czechoslovakia. About three million German-speaking people lived in the western border regions of Czechoslovakia called the Sudetenland. (See map, page 461.) This heavily fortified area formed the Czechs’ main defense against Germany. The Anschluss raised pro-Nazi feelings among Sudeten Germans. In September 1938, Hitler demanded that the Sudetenland be given to Germany. The Czechs refused and asked France for help.

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Visual Sources
1. Analyzing Motives What were Picasso’s probable motives for painting Guernica?
2. Hypothesizing What feelings do you think Guernica stirred in the public in the late 1930s?
Britain and France Again Choose Appeasement  France and Britain were preparing for war when Mussolini proposed a meeting of Germany, France, Britain, and Italy in Munich, Germany. The Munich Conference was held on September 29, 1938. The Czechs were not invited. British prime minister Neville Chamberlain believed that he could preserve peace by giving in to Hitler’s demand. Britain and France agreed that Hitler could take the Sudetenland. In exchange, Hitler pledged to respect Czechoslovakia’s new borders.

When Chamberlain returned to London, he told cheering crowds, “I believe it is peace for our time.” Winston Churchill, then a member of the British Parliament, strongly disagreed. He opposed the appeasement policy and gloomily warned of its consequences:

PRIMARY SOURCE

We are in the presence of a disaster of the first magnitude. . . . we have sustained a defeat without a war. . . . And do not suppose that this is the end. . . . This is only the first sip, the first foretaste of a bitter cup which will be proffered to us year by year unless, by a supreme recovery of moral health and martial vigor, we arise again and take our stand for freedom as in the olden time.

WINSTON CHURCHILL, speech before the House of Commons, October 5, 1938

Less than six months after the Munich meeting, Hitler took Czechoslovakia. Soon after, Mussolini seized Albania. Then Hitler demanded that Poland return the former German port of Danzig. The Poles refused and turned to Britain and France for aid. But appeasement had convinced Hitler that neither nation would risk war.

Nazis and Soviets Sign Nonaggression Pact  Britain and France asked the Soviet Union to join them in stopping Hitler’s aggression. As Stalin talked with Britain and France, he also bargained with Hitler. The two dictators reached an agreement. Once bitter enemies, Fascist Germany and Communist Russia now publicly pledged never to attack one another. On August 23, 1939, their leaders signed a nonaggression pact. As the Axis Powers moved unchecked at the end of the decade, war appeared inevitable.

Connect to Today  Staging a Debate  Established in 1945, the United Nations was intended to be an improvement on the League of Nations. Research to learn about the recent successes and failures of the UN. Then hold a debate in which you argue whether the institution should be preserved.
## The Great Depression

### Long-Term Causes
- World economies are connected.
- Some countries have huge war debts from World War I.
- Europe relies on American loans and investments.
- Prosperity is built on borrowed money.
- Wealth is unequally distributed.

### Immediate Causes
- U.S. stock market crashes.
- Banks demand repayment of loans.
- Farms fail and factories close.
- Americans reduce foreign trade to protect economy.
- Americans stop loans to foreign countries.
- American banking system collapses.

### Immediate Effects
- Millions become unemployed worldwide.
- Businesses go bankrupt.
- Governments take emergency measures to protect economies.
- Citizens lose faith in capitalism and democracy.
- Nations turn toward authoritarian leaders.

### Long-Term Effects
- Nazis take control in Germany.
- Fascists come to power in other countries.
- Democracies try social welfare programs.
- Japan expands in East Asia.
- World War II breaks out.

### Terms & Names

1. Albert Einstein
2. Sigmund Freud
3. Weimar Republic
4. New Deal
5. fascism
6. Benito Mussolini
7. Adolf Hitler
8. appeasement
9. Francisco Franco
10. Munich Conference

### Main Ideas

**Postwar Uncertainty** Section 1 (pages 463–469)
- 11. What effect did Einstein’s theory of relativity and Freud’s theory of the unconscious have on the public?
- 12. What advances were made in transportation and communication in the 1920s and 1930s?

**A Worldwide Depression** Section 2 (pages 470–475)
- 13. Why was the Weimar Republic considered weak?
- 14. What caused the stock market crash of 1929?

**Fascism Rises in Europe** Section 3 (pages 476–480)
- 15. For what political and economic reasons did the Italians turn to Mussolini?
- 16. What beliefs and goals did Hitler express in *Mein Kampf*?

**Aggressors Invade Nations** Section 4 (pages 481–485)
- 17. How did Japan plan to solve its economic problems?
- 18. Why was Germany’s reoccupation of the Rhineland a significant turning point toward war?

### Critical Thinking

1. **Using Your Notes**
   - **Economics** Use a sequence graphic to identify the events that led to the stock market collapse.

2. **Making Inferences**
   - **Power and Authority** What were the advantages and disadvantages of being under Fascist rule?

3. **Drawing Conclusions**
   - What weaknesses made the League of Nations an ineffective force for peace in the 1920s and 1930s?

4. **Synthesizing**
   - **Science and Technology** How did the scientific and technological revolutions of the 1920s help set the stage for transportation in the United States today?

5. **Hypothesizing**
   - What might have been the outcome if Great Britain, France, and other European nations had not chosen to appease German, Italian, and Japanese aggression?
Use the quotation from a live radio report during the Munich Conference and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

**Primary Source**

It took the Big Four [France, Britain, Italy, and Germany] just five hours and twenty-five minutes here in Munich today to dispel the clouds of war and come to an agreement over the partition of Czechoslovakia. There is to be no European war... the price of that peace is, roughly, the ceding by Czechoslovakia of the Sudeten territory to Herr Hitler's Germany. The German Führer gets what he wanted, only he has to wait a little longer for it.

**WILLIAM SHIRER,** quoted in *The Strenuous Decade*

1. Why did France, Britain, and Italy agree to give the Sudeten territory to Germany?
   A. to provoke war
   B. to avoid war
   C. to make Czechoslovakia happy
   D. to make Czechoslovakia unhappy

2. How were the expectations expressed in the radio report overturned by reality?
   A. Czechoslovakia refused to give the Sudeten territory to Hitler.
   B. Hitler did not get what he wanted.
   C. The Big Four didn’t come to an agreement over Czechoslovakia.
   D. Europe was not saved from war.

3. Why do you think Hitler had his photograph taken with this little girl?
   A. to demonstrate his power
   B. to frighten his enemies
   C. to make him appear more human
   D. to demonstrate his hatred of Jews

For additional test practice, go online for
- Diagnostic tests
- Strategies
- Tutorials

**Interact with History**

On page 462, you chose a candidate to support in German elections in the early 1930s. Now that you have read the chapter, did what you read confirm your decision? Why or why not? Would the candidate you selected have a good or bad effect on the rest of the world? Discuss your opinions with a small group.

**Focus on Writing**

Write a radio script for a report on a speech given by Hitler or Mussolini. Imagine that you have just seen the dictator deliver the speech and you want to share your impressions with the public in your broadcast. Be sure to
- summarize the main ideas of the speech.
- describe the speaker’s gestures and facial expressions.
- provide phrases that demonstrate the emotional power of the speech.
- convey the public’s response to the speech.
- offer your opinion of the speech and speaker.

**Multimedia Activity**

**NetExplorations: Life in the 1920s**

Go to *NetExplorations* at hmhsocialstudies.com to learn more about life in the 1920s. Use your research to create a Web page on films from that era. Consider including
- reviews of the films, including a positive or negative recommendation.
- background information about silent films.
- biographical information about the stars and directors of the films.
- stills and clips from the films.
- a comparison between films of the 1920s and modern films.
The Great Depression, which lasted from 1929 to 1939, was the most severe economic downturn in the history of the United States. The boom times of the 1920s concealed severe weaknesses in the American economy. The stock market crash of 1929 exposed the economy’s shaky foundations and plunged the country into a deep economic depression. To stimulate the economy, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt introduced a host of government programs. This New Deal alleviated the worst aspects of the Great Depression. However, it would take a world war to bring the country to full economic recovery.

Explore the impact of the Great Depression online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more at hmhsocialstudies.com.
A New Deal
Watch the video to see how President Roosevelt intended to fight the Great Depression.

Public Works
Watch the video to see examples of the New Deal programs introduced by President Roosevelt.

From Depression to War
Watch the video to see how the American economy finally recovered from the Great Depression.

A Picture Worth 1,000 Words
Watch the video to learn about the work of photographer Dorothea Lange, who chronicled the Great Depression.
CHAPTER 16

World War II, 1939–1945

Previewing Themes

**EMPIRE BUILDING** Germany, Italy, and Japan tried to build empires. They began their expansion by conquering other nations and dominating them politically and economically.

**Geography** What areas did the Axis powers control at the height of their power?

**SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY** Far-reaching developments in science and technology changed the course of World War II. Improvements in aircraft, tanks, and submarines and the development of radar and the atomic bomb drastically altered the way wars were fought.

**Geography** Why might submarines have been a key weapon for the Axis powers in their fight against Great Britain?

**ECONOMICS** Fighting the Axis terror weakened the economies of Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and other European countries. In contrast, when the United States entered the war, its economy grew sharply. The strength of the American economy bolstered the Allied war effort.

**Geography** In terms of location, why was the American economy able to function at a high level while the European economies struggled?

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**Essential Question**

What were the causes and results of World War II?

**What You Will Learn**

In this chapter you will learn that, during World War II, the Allied forces defeated the Axis powers, the Jewish people suffered through the Holocaust, and Europe and Japan were left devastated.

**SECTION 1 Hitler's Lightning War**

*Main Idea* Using the sudden mass attack called the blitzkrieg, Germany overran much of Europe and North Africa.

**SECTION 2 Japan's Pacific Campaign**

*Main Idea* Japan attacked Pearl Harbor in Hawaii and brought the United States into World War II.

**SECTION 3 The Holocaust**

*Main Idea* During the Holocaust, Hitler's Nazis killed six million Jews and five million other “non-Aryans.”

**SECTION 4 The Allied Victory**

*Main Idea* Led by the United States, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union, the Allies scored key victories and won the war.

**SECTION 5 Europe and Japan in Ruins**

*Main Idea* World War II cost millions of human lives and billions of dollars in damages. It left Europe and Japan in ruins.

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**EUROPE AND THE MEDITERRANEAN**

**PACIFIC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1939</th>
<th>1940</th>
<th>1941</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 1939</td>
<td>June 1940</td>
<td>June 1941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany invades Poland; France and Great Britain declare war on Germany. (political cartoon)</td>
<td>France surrenders to Germany; Battle of Britain begins.</td>
<td>Germans invade Soviet Union.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Dec. 1941</td>
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</table>
World War II, 1939–1945

**The African Front**

- June 1942: Allies defeat Japan at Battle of Midway.
- Feb. 1943: Allies defeat Japan at Guadalcanal.
- Aug.–Sept. 1945: Allies use atomic bombs; Japan surrenders.

**European and African Battles, 1939–1945**

- Leningrad (Sept. 8, 1941–Jan. 27, 1944)
- Warsaw (Sept. 8, 1939–Sept. 27, 1939)
- Battle of Stalingrad (Aug. 23, 1942–Feb. 2, 1943)
- Battle of Britain (July 1940–Oct. 1940)
- Normandy (D-day) (June 6, 1944)
- Battle of the Bulge (Dec. 16, 1944–Jan. 16, 1945)
- Dresden (Feb. 13, 1945–Apr. 17, 1945)
- Tobruk (June 20, 1942–June 21, 1942)
- Al-Ageila (Mar. 24, 1941)
- Sicily (July 10, 1943–Aug. 17, 1943)
- El Alamein (Oct. 23, 1942–Nov. 4, 1942)

**Timeline Events**

- June 1944: D-Day invasion takes place.
- May 1945: Germany surrenders.
Under what circumstances is war justified?

Every day your newspaper carries stories of the latest bombing raids on London and other British cities. The photographs of the devastation are shocking. As you read the stories and view the photographs, you wonder what the United States should do to help Great Britain, its longtime ally. The editorial pages of the newspapers ask the same question. Should the United States stand aside and let the European nations settle the issues themselves? Should it offer help to Great Britain in the form of arms and other supplies? Or should the United States join Britain in its struggle against the Axis powers?

EXAMINING the ISSUES

• What circumstances would lead you to support or oppose your country’s participation in a war?

• How are civilians sometimes as much a part of a war effort as soldiers?

As a class, discuss these questions. In your discussion, weigh the arguments for and against fighting. As you read about World War II, think about the role that civilians play in a situation of total war. Think also about the hard moral choices that people often face in times of war.
During the 1930s, Hitler played on the hopes and fears of the Western democracies. Each time the Nazi dictator grabbed new territory, he would declare an end to his demands. Peace seemed guaranteed—until Hitler moved again. After his moves into the Rhineland, Austria, and Czechoslovakia, Hitler turned his eyes to Poland. After World War I, the Allies had cut out the Polish Corridor from German territory to give Poland access to the sea. In 1939, Hitler demanded that the Polish Corridor be returned to Germany.

Germany Sparks a New War in Europe

At this point, as you recall from Chapter 31, Soviet dictator Joseph Stalin signed a ten-year nonaggression pact with Hitler. After being excluded from the Munich Conference, Stalin was not eager to join with the West. Also, Hitler had promised him territory. In a secret part of the pact, Germany and the Soviet Union agreed to divide Poland between them. They also agreed that the USSR could take over Finland and the Baltic countries of Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia.

Germany’s Lightning Attack

After signing this nonaggression pact, Hitler quickly moved ahead with plans to conquer Poland. His surprise attack took place at dawn on September 1, 1939. German tanks and troop trucks rumbled across the Polish border. At the same time, German aircraft and artillery began a merciless bombing of Poland’s capital, Warsaw.

France and Great Britain declared war on Germany on September 3. But Poland fell some time before those nations could make any military response. After his victory, Hitler annexed the western half of Poland. That region had a large German population.

The German invasion of Poland was the first test of Germany’s newest military strategy—the blitzkrieg (BLIHTS-kreeg), or “lightning war.” It involved using fast-moving airplanes and tanks, followed by massive infantry forces, to take enemy defenders by surprise and quickly overwhelm them. In the case of Poland, the strategy worked.

The Soviets Make Their Move

On September 17, Stalin sent Soviet troops to occupy the eastern half of Poland. Stalin then moved to annex countries to the north of Poland. Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia fell without a struggle, but Finland resisted. In November, Stalin sent nearly one million Soviet troops into the Baltic States.
Finland. The Soviets expected to win a quick victory, so they were not prepared for winter fighting. This was a crucial mistake.

The Finns were outnumbered and outgunned, but they fiercely defended their country. In the freezing winter weather, soldiers on skis swiftly attacked Soviet positions. In contrast, the Soviets struggled to make progress through the deep snow. The Soviets suffered heavy losses, but they finally won through sheer force of numbers. By March 1940, Stalin had forced the Finns to accept his surrender terms.

**The Phony War** After they declared war on Germany, the French and British had mobilized their armies. They stationed their troops along the Maginot (MAZH•uh•NOH) Line, a system of fortifications along France’s border with Germany. There they waited for the Germans to attack—but nothing happened. With little to do, the bored Allied soldiers stared eastward toward the enemy. Equally bored, German soldiers stared back from their Siegfried Line a few miles away. Germans jokingly called it the *sitzkrieg*, or “sitting war.” Some newspapers referred to it simply as “the phony war.”

Suddenly, on April 9, 1940, the calm ended. Hitler launched a surprise invasion of Denmark and Norway. In just four hours after the attack, Denmark fell. Two months later, Norway surrendered as well. The Germans then began to build bases along the Norwegian and Danish coasts from which they could launch strikes on Great Britain.

**The Fall of France**

In May of 1940, Hitler began a dramatic sweep through the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg. This was part of a strategy to strike at France. Keeping the Allies’ attention on those countries, Hitler then sent an even larger force of tanks
and troops to slice through the Ardennes (ahr•DEHN). This was a heavily wooded area in northern France, Luxembourg, and Belgium. Moving through the forest, the Germans “squeezed between” the Maginot Line. From there, they moved across France and reached the country’s northern coast in ten days.

**Rescue at Dunkirk** After reaching the French coast, the German forces swung north again and joined with German troops in Belgium. By the end of May 1940, the Germans had trapped the Allied forces around the northern French city of Lille (lee'l). Outnumbered, outgunned, and pounded from the air, the Allies retreated to the beaches of Dunkirk, a French port city near the Belgian border. They were trapped with their backs to the sea.

In one of the most heroic acts of the war, Great Britain set out to rescue the army. It sent a fleet of about 850 ships across the English Channel to Dunkirk. Along with Royal Navy ships, civilian craft—yachts, lifeboats, motorboats, paddle steamers, and fishing boats—joined the rescue effort. From May 26 to June 4, this amateur armada, under heavy fire from German bombers, sailed back and forth from Britain to Dunkirk. The boats carried some 338,000 battle-weary soldiers to safety.

**France Falls** Following Dunkirk, resistance in France began to crumble. By June 14, the Germans had taken Paris. Accepting the inevitable, French leaders surrendered on June 22, 1940. The Germans took control of the northern part of the country. They left the southern part to a puppet government headed by Marshal Philippe Pétain (pay•TAN), a French hero from World War I. The headquarters of this government was in the city of Vichy (VEESH•ee).

After France fell, [Charles de Gaulle](http://www.hmhsocialstudies.com) (duh GOHL), a French general, set up a government-in-exile in London. He committed all his energy to reconquering France. In a radio broadcast from England, de Gaulle called on the people of France to join him in resisting the Germans:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

It is the bounden [obligatory] duty of all Frenchmen who still bear arms to continue the struggle. For them to lay down their arms, to evacuate any position of military importance, or agree to hand over any part of French territory, however small, to enemy control would be a crime against our country.

*GENERAL CHARLES DE GAULLE*, quoted in *Charles de Gaulle: A Biography*

De Gaulle went on to organize the Free French military forces that battled the Nazis until France was liberated in 1944.

**The Battle of Britain**

With the fall of France, Great Britain stood alone against the Nazis. [Winston Churchill](http://www.hmhsocialstudies.com), the new British prime minister, had already declared that his nation would never give in. In a rousing speech, he proclaimed, “We shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets . . . we shall never surrender.”

Hitler now turned his mind to an invasion of Great Britain. His plan was first to knock out the Royal Air Force (RAF) and then to land more than 250,000 soldiers on England’s shores.
In the summer of 1940, the Luftwaffe (LOOFT•VAHF•uh), Germany’s air force, began bombing Great Britain. At first, the Germans targeted British airfields and aircraft factories. Then, on September 7, 1940, they began focusing on the cities, especially London, to break British morale. Despite the destruction and loss of life, the British did not waver.

The RAF, although badly outnumbered, began to hit back hard. Two technological devices helped turn the tide in the RAF’s favor. One was an electronic tracking system known as radar. Developed in the late 1930s, radar could tell the number, speed, and direction of incoming warplanes. The other device was a German code-making machine named Enigma. A complete Enigma machine had been smuggled into Great Britain in the late 1930s. Enigma enabled the British to decode German secret messages. With information gathered by these devices, RAF fliers could quickly launch attacks on the enemy.

To avoid the RAF’s attacks, the Germans gave up daylight raids in October 1940 in favor of night bombing. At sunset, the wail of sirens filled the air as Londoners flocked to the subways, which served as air-raid shelters. Some rode out the bombing raids at home in smaller air-raid shelters or basements. This Battle of Britain continued until May 10, 1941. Stunned by British resistance, Hitler decided to call off his attacks. Instead, he focused on the Mediterranean and Eastern Europe. The Battle of Britain taught the Allies a crucial lesson. Hitler’s attacks could be blocked.

**The Mediterranean and the Eastern Front**

The stubborn resistance of the British in the Battle of Britain caused a shift in Hitler’s strategy in Europe. He decided to deal with Great Britain later. He then turned his attention east to the Mediterranean area and the Balkans—and to the ultimate prize, the Soviet Union.

**Axis Forces Attack North Africa** Germany’s first objective in the Mediterranean region was North Africa, mainly because of Hitler’s partner, Mussolini. Despite its alliance with Germany, Italy had remained neutral at the beginning of the war. With Hitler’s conquest of France, however, Mussolini knew he had to take action. After declaring war on France and Great Britain, Mussolini moved into France.

Mussolini took his next step in North Africa in September 1940. While the Battle of Britain was raging, he ordered his army to attack British-controlled Egypt. Egypt’s Suez Canal was key to reaching the oil fields of the Middle East. Within a week, Italian troops had pushed 60 miles inside Egypt, forcing British units back. Then both sides dug in and waited.

**Britain Strikes Back** Finally, in December, the British struck back. The result was a disaster for the Italians. By February 1941, the British had swept 500 miles across North Africa and had taken 130,000 Italian prisoners. Hitler had to step in to save his Axis partner. To reinforce the Italians, Hitler sent a crack German tank force, the Afrika Korps, under the command of General Erwin Rommel. In late March 1941, Rommel’s Afrika Korps attacked. Caught by surprise, British forces retreated east to Tobruk, Libya. (See the map on page 489.)
After fierce fighting for Tobruk, the British began to drive Rommel back. By mid-January 1942, Rommel had retreated to where he had started. By June 1942, the tide of battle turned again. Rommel regrouped, pushed the British back across the desert, and seized Tobruk—a shattering loss for the Allies. Rommel’s successes in North Africa earned him the nickname “Desert Fox.”

**The War in the Balkans** While Rommel campaigned in North Africa, other German generals were active in the Balkans. Hitler had begun planning to attack his ally, the USSR, as early as the summer of 1940. The Balkan countries of southeastern Europe were key to Hitler’s invasion plan. Hitler wanted to build bases in southeastern Europe for the attack on the Soviet Union. He also wanted to make sure that the British did not interfere.

To prepare for his invasion, Hitler moved to expand his influence in the Balkans. By early 1941, through the threat of force, he had persuaded Bulgaria, Romania, and Hungary to join the Axis powers. Yugoslavia and Greece, which had pro-British governments, resisted. In early April 1941, Hitler invaded both countries. Yugoslavia fell in 11 days. Greece surrendered in 17. In Athens, the Nazis celebrated their victory by raising swastikas on the Acropolis.

**Hitler Invades the Soviet Union** With the Balkans firmly in control, Hitler could move ahead with Operation Barbarossa, his plan to invade the Soviet Union. Early in the morning of June 22, 1941, the roar of German tanks and aircraft announced the beginning of the invasion. The Soviet Union was not prepared for this attack. Although it had the largest army in the world, its troops were neither well equipped nor well trained.

The invasion rolled on week after week until the Germans had pushed 500 miles inside the Soviet Union. As the Soviet troops retreated, they burned and destroyed everything in the enemy’s path. The Russians had used this scorched-earth strategy against Napoleon.

On September 8, German forces put Leningrad under siege. By early November, the city was completely cut off from the rest of the Soviet Union. To force a surrender, Hitler was ready to starve the city’s more than 2.5 million inhabitants. German bombs destroyed warehouses where food was stored. Desperately hungry, people began eating cattle and horse feed, as well as cats and dogs and, finally, crows and rats. Nearly one million people died in Leningrad during the winter of 1941–1942. Yet the city refused to fall.
Impatient with the progress in Leningrad, Hitler looked to Moscow, the capital and heart of the Soviet Union. A Nazi drive on the capital began on October 2, 1941. By December, the Germans had advanced to the outskirts of Moscow. Soviet General Georgi Zhukov (ZHOO•kuhf) counterattacked. As temperatures fell, the Germans, in summer uniforms, retreated. Ignoring Napoleon’s winter defeat 130 years before, Hitler sent his generals a stunning order: “No retreat!” German troops dug in about 125 miles west of Moscow. They held the line against the Soviets until March 1943. Hitler’s advance on the Soviet Union gained nothing but cost the Germans 500,000 lives.

The United States Aids Its Allies

Most Americans felt that the United States should not get involved in the war. Between 1935 and 1937, Congress passed a series of Neutrality Acts. The laws made it illegal to sell arms or lend money to nations at war. But President Roosevelt knew that if the Allies fell, the United States would be drawn into the war. In September 1939, he asked Congress to allow the Allies to buy American arms. The Allies would pay cash and then carry the goods on their own ships.

Under the Lend-Lease Act, passed in March 1941, the president could lend or lease arms and other supplies to any country vital to the United States. By the summer of 1941, the U.S. Navy was escorting British ships carrying U.S. arms. In response, Hitler ordered his submarines to sink any cargo ships they met.

Although the United States had not yet entered the war, Roosevelt and Churchill met secretly and issued a joint declaration called the Atlantic Charter. It upheld free trade among nations and the right of people to choose their own government. The charter later served as the Allies’ peace plan at the end of World War II.

On September 4, a German U-boat fired on a U.S. destroyer in the Atlantic. In response, Roosevelt ordered navy commanders to shoot German submarines on sight. The United States was now involved in an undeclared naval war with Hitler. To almost everyone’s surprise, however, the attack that actually drew the United States into the war did not come from Germany. It came from Japan.

**SECTION ASSESSMENT**

**TERMS & NAMES**

1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
   - nonaggression pact
   - blitzkrieg
   - Charles de Gaulle
   - Winston Churchill
   - Battle of Britain
   - Erwin Rommel
   - Atlantic Charter

**USING YOUR NOTES**

2. Which of the listed events might be considered a turning point for the Allies? Why?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First blitzkrieg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allies stranded at Dunkirk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lend-Lease Act</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**MAIN IDEAS**

3. Why were the early months of World War II referred to as the “phony war”?

4. Why was Egypt of strategic importance in World War II?

5. Why did President Franklin Roosevelt want to offer help to the Allies?

**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**

6. **CLARIFYING** What do you think is meant by the statement that Winston Churchill possibly was Britain’s most powerful weapon against Hitler’s Germany?

7. **MAKING INFERENCES** What factors do you think a country’s leaders consider when deciding whether to surrender or fight?

8. **COMPARING** How were Napoleon’s invasion of Russia and Hitler’s invasion of the Soviet Union similar?

9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** **EMPIRE BUILDING** Write a magazine article on German conquests in Europe through 1942.

**CONNECT TO TODAY**

**PREPARING AN ORAL REPORT**

Conduct research into “stealth” technology, which is designed to evade radar. Use your findings to prepare a brief oral report titled “How Stealth Technology Works.”
Japan's Pacific Campaign

**Main Idea**

Japan attacked Pearl Harbor in Hawaii and brought the United States into World War II.

**Why It Matters Now**

World War II established the United States as a leading player in international affairs.

**Terms & Names**

- Isoroku Yamamoto
- Pearl Harbor
- Battle of Midway
- Douglas MacArthur
- Battle of Guadalcanal

**Setting the Stage**

Like Hitler, Japan’s military leaders also had dreams of empire. Japan's expansion had begun in 1931. That year, Japanese troops took over Manchuria in northeastern China. Six years later, Japanese armies swept into the heartland of China. They expected quick victory. Chinese resistance, however, caused the war to drag on. This placed a strain on Japan’s economy. To increase their resources, Japanese leaders looked toward the rich European colonies of Southeast Asia.

**Surprise Attack on Pearl Harbor**

By October 1940, Americans had cracked one of the codes that the Japanese used in sending secret messages. Therefore, they were well aware of Japanese plans for Southeast Asia. If Japan conquered European colonies there, it could also threaten the American-controlled Philippine Islands and Guam. To stop the Japanese advance, the U.S. government sent aid to strengthen Chinese resistance. And when the Japanese overran French Indochina—Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos—in July 1941, Roosevelt cut off oil shipments to Japan.

Despite an oil shortage, the Japanese continued their conquests. They hoped to catch the European colonial powers and the United States by surprise. So they planned massive attacks on British and Dutch colonies in Southeast Asia and on American outposts in the Pacific—at the same time. Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto (ih•soh•ROO•koo•YAH•muh•MOH•toh), Japan’s greatest naval strategist, also called for an attack on the U.S. fleet in Hawaii. It was, he said, “a dagger pointed at [Japan’s] throat” and must be destroyed.

**Day of Infamy**

Early in the morning of December 7, 1941, American sailors at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii awoke to the roar of explosives. A Japanese attack was underway! U.S. military leaders had known from a coded Japanese message that an attack might come. But they did not know when or where it would occur. Within two hours, the Japanese had sunk or damaged 19 ships, including 8 battleships, moored in Pearl Harbor. More than 2,300 Americans were killed—with over 1,100 wounded. News of the attack stunned the American people. The next day, President Roosevelt addressed Congress. December 7, 1941, he declared, was “a date which will live in infamy.” Congress quickly accepted his request for a declaration of war on Japan and its allies.
Almost at the same time of the Pearl Harbor attack, the Japanese launched bombing raids on the British colony of Hong Kong and American-controlled Guam and Wake Island. (See the map on the opposite page.) They also landed an invasion force in Thailand. The Japanese drive for a Pacific empire was under way.

Japanese Victories

Lightly defended, Guam and Wake Island quickly fell to Japanese forces. The Japanese then turned their attention to the Philippines. In January 1942, they marched into the Philippine capital of Manila. American and Filipino forces took up a defensive position on the Bataan (buh•TAN) Peninsula on the northwestern edge of Manila Bay. At the same time, the Philippine government moved to the island of Corregidor just to the south of Bataan. After about three months of tough fighting, the Japanese took the Bataan Peninsula in April. Corregidor fell the following month.

The Japanese also continued their strikes against British possessions in Asia. After seizing Hong Kong, they invaded Malaya from the sea and overland from Thailand. By February 1942, the Japanese had reached Singapore, strategically located at the southern tip of the Malay Peninsula. After a fierce pounding, the colony surrendered. Within a month, the Japanese had conquered the resource-rich Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia), including the islands of Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes (SEHL•uh•BE EZ). The Japanese also moved westward, taking Burma. From there, they planned to launch a strike against India, the largest of Great Britain’s colonies.

By the time Burma fell, Japan had taken control of more than 1 million square miles of Asian land. About 150 million people lived in this vast area. Before these conquests, the Japanese had tried to win the support of Asians with the anticolonialist idea of “East Asia for the Asiatics.” After victory, however, the Japanese quickly made it clear that they had come as conquerors. They often treated the people of their new colonies with extreme cruelty.

However, the Japanese reserved the most brutal treatment for Allied prisoners of war. The Japanese considered it dishonorable to surrender, and they had contempt for the prisoners of war in their charge. On the Bataan Death March—a forced march of more than 50 miles up the peninsula—the Japanese subjected their captives to terrible cruelties. One Allied prisoner of war reported:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

I was questioned by a Japanese officer, who found out that I had been in a Philippine Scout Battalion. The [Japanese] hated the Scouts. . . . Anyway, they took me outside and I was forced to watch as they buried six of my Scouts alive. They made the men dig their own graves, and then had them kneel down in a pit. The guards hit them over the head with shovels to stun them and piled earth on top.

**LIEUTENANT JOHN SPAINHOWER,** quoted in *War Diary 1939–1945*

Of the approximately 70,000 prisoners who started the Bataan Death March, only 54,000 survived.
The Japanese warship Mikuma lists and begins to sink after being struck by bombs from American aircraft during the Battle of Midway.

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. Location Which battle was fought in the most northern region?
2. Movement From what two general directions did Allied forces move in on Japan?
The Allies Strike Back

After a string of victories, the Japanese seemed unbeatable. Nonetheless, the Allies—mainly Americans and Australians—were anxious to strike back in the Pacific. The United States in particular wanted revenge for Pearl Harbor. In April 1942, 16 B-25 bombers under the command of Lieutenant Colonel James H. Doolittle bombed Tokyo and several other Japanese cities. The bombs did little damage. The raid, however, made an important psychological point to both Americans and Japanese: Japan was vulnerable to attack.

The Allies Turn the Tide  Doolittle’s raid on Japan raised American morale and shook the confidence of some in Japan. As one Japanese citizen noted, “We started to doubt that we were invincible.” In addition, some Japanese worried that defending and controlling a vast empire had caused them to spread their resources too thin.

Slowly, the Allies began to turn the tide of war. Early in May 1942, an American fleet with Australian support intercepted a Japanese strike force headed for Port Moresby in New Guinea. This city housed a critical Allied air base. Control of the air base would put the Japanese in easy striking distance of Australia.

In the battle that followed—the Battle of the Coral Sea—both sides used a new kind of naval warfare. The opposing ships did not fire a single shot. In fact, they often could not see one another. Instead, airplanes taking off from huge aircraft carriers attacked the ships. The Allies suffered more losses in ships and troops than did the Japanese. However, the Battle of the Coral Sea was something of a victory, for the Allies had stopped Japan’s southward advance.

The Battle of Midway  Japan next targeted Midway Island, some 1,500 miles west of Hawaii, the location of a key American airfield. Thanks to Allied code breakers, Admiral Chester Nimitz, commander in chief of the U.S. Pacific Fleet, knew that a huge Japanese force was heading toward Midway. Admiral Yamamoto himself was in command of the Japanese fleet. He hoped that the attack on Midway would draw the whole of the U.S. Pacific Fleet from Pearl Harbor to defend the island.

On June 4, with American forces hidden beyond the horizon, Nimitz allowed the Japanese to begin their assault on the island. As the first Japanese planes got into the air, American planes swooped in to attack the Japanese fleet. Many Japanese planes were still on the decks of the aircraft carriers. The strategy was a success. American pilots destroyed 332 Japanese planes, all four aircraft carriers, and one support ship. Yamamoto ordered his crippled fleet to withdraw. By June 7, 1942, the battle was over. The Battle of Midway turned the tide of war in the Pacific. (See the inset map on page 499.)

An Allied Offensive

With morale high after their victory at Midway, the Allies took the offensive. The war in the Pacific involved vast distances. Japanese troops had dug in on hundreds of islands across the ocean. General Douglas MacArthur, the commander of the Allied land forces in the Pacific, developed a plan to handle this problem.

Vocabulary

invincible: unconquerable
Main Idea
Identifying Problems

If the vast distances of the Pacific caused problems for the Allies, how might they have also caused problems for the Japanese?

MacArthur believed that storming each island would be a long, costly effort. Instead, he wanted to “island-hop” past Japanese strongholds. He would then seize islands that were not well defended but were closer to Japan.

MacArthur’s first target soon presented itself. U.S. military leaders had learned that the Japanese were building a huge air base on the island of Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands. The Allies had to strike fast before the base was completed and became another Japanese stronghold. At dawn on August 7, 1942, several thousand U.S. Marines, with Australian support, landed on Guadalcanal and the neighboring island of Tulagi.

The marines had little trouble seizing Guadalcanal’s airfield. But the battle for control of the island turned into a savage struggle as both sides poured in fresh troops. In February 1943, after six months of fighting on land and at sea, the Battle of Guadalcanal finally ended. After losing more than 24,000 of a force of 36,000 soldiers, the Japanese abandoned what they came to call “the Island of Death.”

To American war correspondent Ralph Martin and the U.S. soldiers who fought there, Guadalcanal was simply “hell”:

**Primary Source**
Hell was red furry spiders as big as your fist, . . . enormous rats and bats everywhere, and rivers with waiting crocodiles. Hell was the sour, foul smell of the squishy jungle, humidity that rotted a body within hours. . . . Hell was an enemy . . . so fanatic that it used its own dead as booby traps.

RALPH G. MARTIN, *The GI War*

As Japan worked to establish a new order in Southeast Asia and the Pacific, the Nazis moved ahead with Hitler’s design for a new order in Europe. This design included plans for dealing with those Hitler considered unfit for the Third Reich. You will learn about these plans in Section 3.

**Using Your Notes**
2. Which event was most important in turning the tide of the war in the Pacific against the Japanese? Why?

**Main Ideas**
3. How did the Japanese plan to catch the European colonial powers and the United States by surprise?
4. In what way was the Battle of the Coral Sea a new kind of naval warfare?
5. What was General Douglas MacArthur’s island-hopping strategy?

**Critical Thinking & Writing**
6. Evaluating Decisions Did Admiral Yamamoto make a wise decision in bombing Pearl Harbor? Why or why not?
7. Analyzing Motives Why do you think the Japanese changed their approach from trying to win the support of the colonized peoples to acting as conquerors?
8. Identifying Problems What problems did Japan face in building an empire in the Pacific?
9. Writing Activity Imagine you are a foreign diplomat living in Asia during World War II. Write journal entries describing the Japanese advance across Asia and the Pacific during 1941 and 1942.

**Multimedia Activity**
Create a Web page that describes the memorial and provides background information on the attack.

**Internet Keyword**
Pearl Harbor

**Section Assessment**

**Terms & Names**
1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
   - Isoroku Yamamoto
   - Pearl Harbor
   - Battle of Midway
   - Douglas MacArthur
   - Battle of Guadalcanal
As part of their vision for Europe, the Nazis proposed a new racial order. They proclaimed that the Germanic peoples, or *Aryans*, were a “master race.” (This was a misuse of the term *Aryan*. The term actually refers to the Indo-European peoples who began to migrate into the Indian subcontinent around 1500 B.C.) The Nazis claimed that all non-Aryan peoples, particularly Jewish people, were inferior. This racist message would eventually lead to the **Holocaust**, the systematic mass slaughter of Jews and other groups judged inferior by the Nazis.

**The Holocaust Begins**

To gain support for his racist ideas, Hitler knowingly tapped into a hatred for Jews that had deep roots in European history. For generations, many Germans, along with other Europeans, had targeted Jews as the cause of their failures. Some Germans even blamed Jews for their country’s defeat in World War I and for its economic problems after that war.

In time, the Nazis made the targeting of Jews a government policy. The Nuremberg Laws, passed in 1935, deprived Jews of their rights to German citizenship and forbade marriages between Jews and non-Jews. Laws passed later also limited the kinds of work that Jews could do.

**“Night of Broken Glass”** Worse was yet to come. Early in November 1938, 17-year-old Herschel Grynszpan (GRIHN•shpahn), a Jewish youth from Germany, was visiting an uncle in Paris. While Grynszpan was there, he received a postcard. It said that after living in Germany for 27 years, his father had been deported to Poland. On November 7, wishing to avenge his father’s deportation, Grynszpan shot a German diplomat living in Paris.

When Nazi leaders heard the news, they launched a violent attack on the Jewish community. On November 9, Nazi storm troopers attacked Jewish homes, businesses, and synagogues across Germany and murdered close to 100 Jews. An American in Leipzig wrote, “Jewish shop windows by the hundreds were systematically . . . smashed. . . . The main streets of the city were a positive litter of shattered plate glass.” It is for this reason that the night of November 9 became known as **Kristallnacht** (krih•STAHL•NAHKT), or “Night of Broken Glass.” A 14-year-old boy described his memory of that awful night:
Kristallnacht marked a major step-up in the Nazi policy of Jewish persecution. The future for Jews in Germany looked truly grim.

**A Flood of Refugees** After Kristallnacht, some Jews realized that violence against them was bound to increase. By the end of 1939, a number of German Jews had fled to other countries. Many however, remained in Germany. Later, Hitler conquered territories in which millions more Jews lived.

At first, Hitler favored emigration as a solution to what he called “the Jewish problem.” Getting other countries to continue admitting Germany’s Jews became an issue, however. After admitting tens of thousands of Jewish refugees, such countries as France, Britain, and the United States abruptly closed their doors to further immigration. Germany’s foreign minister observed, “We all want to get rid of our Jews. The difficulty is that no country wishes to receive them.”

**Isolating the Jews** When Hitler found that he could not get rid of Jews through emigration, he put another plan into effect. He ordered Jews in all countries under his control to be moved to designated cities. In those cities, the Nazis herded the Jews into dismal, overcrowded ghettos, or segregated Jewish areas. The Nazis then sealed off the ghettos with barbed wire and stone walls. They hoped that the Jews inside would starve to death or die from disease.

Even under these horrible conditions, the Jews hung on. Some, particularly the Jews in Warsaw, Poland, formed resistance organizations within the ghettos. They also struggled to keep their traditions. Ghetto theaters produced plays and concerts. Teachers taught lessons in secret schools. Scholars kept records so that one day people would find out the truth.

**The “Final Solution”**

Hitler soon grew impatient waiting for Jews to die from starvation or disease. He decided to take more direct action. His plan was called the “Final Solution.” It was actually a program of genocide, the systematic killing of an entire people.
Hitler believed that his plan of conquest depended on the purity of the Aryan race. To protect racial purity, the Nazis had to eliminate other races, nationalities, or groups they viewed as inferior—as “subhumans.” They included Roma (gypsies), Poles, Russians, homosexuals, the insane, the disabled, and the incurably ill. But the Nazis focused especially on the Jews.

**The Killings Begin** As Nazi troops swept across Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union, the killings began. Units from the SS (Hitler’s elite security force) moved from town to town to hunt down Jews. The SS and their collaborators rounded up men, women, children, and even babies and took them to isolated spots. They then shot their prisoners in pits that became the prisoners’ graves.

Jews in communities not reached by the killing squads were rounded up and taken to concentration camps, or slave-labor prisons. These camps were located mainly in Germany and Poland. Hitler hoped that the horrible conditions in the camps would speed the total elimination of the Jews.

The prisoners worked seven days a week as slaves for the SS or for German businesses. Guards severely beat or killed their prisoners for not working fast enough. With meals of thin soup, a scrap of bread, and potato peelings, most prisoners lost 50 pounds in the first few months. Hunger was so intense, recalled one survivor, “that if a bit of soup spilled over, prisoners would . . . dig their spoons into the mud and stuff the mess in their mouths.”

**The Final Stage** Hitler’s war on the Jews turned toward the “Final Solution” in 1942. The Nazis built extermination camps equipped with huge gas chambers that could kill as many as 6,000 human beings in a day. (See the map on page 519.)

When prisoners arrived at Auschwitz (OUSH•vihts), the largest of the extermination camps, they paraded before a committee of SS doctors. With a wave of the hand, these doctors separated the strong—mostly men—from the weak—mostly women, young children, the elderly, and the sick. Those labeled as weak would die that day. They were told to undress for a shower and then led into a chamber with

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**History in Depth**

**Jewish Resistance**

Even in the extermination camps, Jews rose up and fought against the Nazis. At Treblinka in August 1943, and at Sobibor in October 1943, small groups of Jews revolted. They killed guards, stormed the camp armories and stole guns and grenades, and then broke out. In both uprisings, about 300 prisoners escaped. Most were killed soon after. Of those who survived, many joined up with partisan groups and continued to fight until the end of the war.

Late in 1944, prisoners at Auschwitz revolted, too. Like the escapees at Treblinka and Sobibor, most were caught and killed. Young women like Ella Gartner and Roza Robota made the Auschwitz uprising possible. Gartner smuggled gunpowder into the camp from the munitions factory where she worked. Robota helped organize resistance in the camp. Gartner and Robota were executed on January 6, 1945. Less than a month later, Auschwitz was liberated.
fake showerheads. After the doors were closed, cyanide gas or carbon dioxide poured from the showerheads or holes in the ceiling. All inside were killed in a matter of minutes. Later, the Nazis installed crematoriums, or ovens, to burn the bodies.

The Survivors  Some six million European Jews died in these death camps and in Nazi massacres. Fewer than four million survived. Some escaped the horrors of the death camps with help from non-Jewish people. These rescuers, at great risk to their own lives, hid Jews in their homes or helped them escape to neutral countries.

Those who survived the camps were changed forever by what they had experienced. As Elie Wiesel, nearly 15 years old when he entered Auschwitz, noted:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

Never shall I forget the little faces of the children, whose bodies I saw turned into wreaths of smoke beneath a silent blue sky. Never shall I forget those flames which consumed my faith forever. . . . Never shall I forget those moments which murdered my God and my soul and turned my dreams to dust. . . . Never.

_ELIE WIESEL,_ quoted in _Night_

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**TERMS & NAMES**  1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
   • Aryan • Holocaust • Kristallnacht • ghetto • “Final Solution” • genocide

**USING YOUR NOTES**  2. What Nazi actions were part of the “Final Solution”?

**MAIN IDEAS**  3. What was the new racial order proposed by the Nazis?
   4. What Nazi action marked the final stage of the “Final Solution”?
   5. How did some non-Jews oppose Hitler’s “Final Solution”?

**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**  6. ANALYZING MOTIVES  Why might people want to blame a minority group for most of their country’s problems?
   7. MAKING INFERENCE  Why do you think the German people went along with the Nazi policy of persecution of the Jews?
   8. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS  What impact did the Holocaust have on the Jewish population of Europe?
   9. WRITING ACTIVITY  Write a persuasive essay discussing how German scientists, engineers, and doctors asked to participate in the Holocaust might have opposed Hitler’s policy.

**CONNECT TO TODAY**  CREATING A MAP

Find information on instances of genocide and ethnic cleansing in the last 20 years. Use the information to create an annotated map titled “Genocide in the Late 20th Century.”

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**Jews Killed Under Nazi Rule***

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Original Jewish Population</th>
<th>Jews Killed</th>
<th>Percent Surviving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>3,300,000</td>
<td>2,800,000</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soviet Union (area occupied by Germans)</td>
<td>2,100,000</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>404,000</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>850,000</td>
<td>425,000</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany/Austria</td>
<td>270,000</td>
<td>210,000</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Estimates  Source: Hannah Vogt, _The Burden of Guilt_
The Allied Victory

**MAIN IDEA**

The Allies’ victory in World War II set up conditions for both the Cold War and today’s post-Cold War world.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**

- D-Day
- Dwight D. Eisenhower
- Battle of Stalingrad
- Battle of the Bulge
- kamikaze

**TERMS & NAMES**

**SETTING THE STAGE**

On December 22, 1941, just after Pearl Harbor, Winston Churchill and President Roosevelt met at the White House to develop a joint war policy. Stalin had asked his allies to relieve German pressure on his armies in the east. He wanted them to open a second front in the west. This would split the Germans’ strength by forcing them to fight major battles in two regions instead of one. Churchill agreed with Stalin’s strategy. The Allies would weaken Germany on two fronts before dealing a deathblow. At first, Roosevelt was torn, but ultimately he agreed.

**The Tide Turns on Two Fronts**

Churchill wanted Britain and the United States to strike first at North Africa and southern Europe. The strategy angered Stalin. He wanted the Allies to open the second front in France. The Soviet Union, therefore, had to hold out on its own against the Germans. All Britain and the United States could offer in the way of help was supplies. Nevertheless, late in 1942, the Allies began to turn the tide of war both in the Mediterranean and on the Eastern Front.

**The North African Campaign**

As you recall from Section 1, General Erwin Rommel took the key Libyan port city of Tobruk in June 1942. With Tobruk’s fall, London sent General Bernard Montgomery—“Monty”—to his troops—to take control of British forces in North Africa. By the time Montgomery arrived, however, the Germans had advanced to an Egyptian village called El Alamein (AL-uh-MAYN), west of Alexandria. (See the map on page 508.) They were dug in so well that British forces could not go around them. The only way to dislodge them, Montgomery decided, was with a massive frontal attack. The Battle of El Alamein began on the night of October 23. The roar of about 1,000 British guns took the Axis soldiers totally by surprise. They fought back fiercely and held their ground for several days. By November 4, however, Rommel’s army had been beaten. He and his forces fell back.

As Rommel retreated west, the Allies launched Operation Torch. On November 8, an Allied force of more than 100,000 troops—mostly Americans—landed in Morocco and Algeria. American general Dwight D. Eisenhower led this force. Caught between Montgomery’s and Eisenhower’s armies, Rommel’s Afrika Korps was finally crushed in May 1943.
The Battle for Stalingrad As Rommel suffered defeats in North Africa, German armies also met their match in the Soviet Union. The German advance had stalled at Leningrad and Moscow late in 1941. And the bitter winter made the situation worse. When the summer of 1942 arrived, however, Hitler sent his Sixth Army, under the command of General Friedrich Paulus, to seize the oil fields in the Caucasus Mountains. The army was also to capture Stalingrad (now Volgograd), a major industrial center on the Volga River. (See the map on page 508.)

The Battle of Stalingrad began on August 23, 1942. The Luftwaffe went on nightly bombing raids that set much of the city ablaze and reduced the rest to rubble. The situation looked desperate. Nonetheless, Stalin had already told his commanders to defend the city named after him to the death.

By early November 1942, Germans controlled 90 percent of the ruined city. Then another Russian winter set in. On November 19, Soviet troops outside the city launched a counterattack. Closing in around Stalingrad, they trapped the Germans inside and cut off their supplies. General Paulus begged Hitler to order a retreat. But Hitler refused, saying the city was “to be held at all costs.”

On February 2, 1943, some 90,000 frostbitten, half-starved German troops surrendered to the Soviets. These pitiful survivors were all that remained of an army of 330,000. Stalingrad’s defense had cost the Soviets over one million soldiers. The city was 99 percent destroyed. However, the Germans were now on the defensive, with the Soviets pushing them steadily westward.

The Invasion of Italy As the Battle of Stalingrad raged, Stalin continued to urge the British and Americans to invade France. However, Roosevelt and Churchill decided to attack Italy first. On July 10, 1943, Allied forces landed on Sicily and captured it from Italian and German troops about a month later.

The conquest of Sicily toppled Mussolini from power. On July 25, King Victor Emmanuel III had the dictator arrested. On September 3, Italy surrendered. But the Germans seized control of northern Italy and put Mussolini back in charge. Finally, the Germans retreated northward, and the victorious Allies entered Rome on June 4, 1944. Fighting in Italy, however, continued until Germany fell in May 1945. On April 27, 1945, Italian resistance fighters ambushed some German trucks near the northern Italian city of Milan. Inside one of the trucks, they found Mussolini disguised as a German soldier. They shot him the next day and later hung his body in downtown Milan for all to see.

The Allied Home Fronts Wherever Allied forces fought, people on the home fronts rallied to support them. In war-torn countries like the Soviet Union and Great Britain, civilians endured extreme hardships. Many lost their lives. Except for a few of its territories, such as Hawaii, the United States did not suffer invasion or bombing. Nonetheless, Americans at home made a crucial contribution to the Allied war effort. Americans produced the weapons and equipment that would help win the war.
GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. Region Which European countries remained neutral during World War II?
2. Movement What seems to be the destination for most of the Allied advances that took place in Europe during 1943–1944?
Mobilizing for War Defeating the Axis powers required mobilizing for total war. In the United States, factories converted their peacetime operations to wartime production and made everything from machine guns to boots. Automobile factories produced tanks. A typewriter company made armor-piercing shells. By 1944, between 17 and 18 million U.S. workers—many of them women—had jobs in war industries.

With factories turning out products for the war, a shortage of consumer goods hit the United States. From meat and sugar to tires and gasoline, from nylon stockings to laundry soap, the American government rationed scarce items. Setting the speed limit at 35 miles per hour also helped to save gasoline and rubber. In European countries directly affected by the war, rationing was even more drastic.

To inspire their people to greater efforts, Allied governments conducted highly effective propaganda campaigns. In the Soviet Union, a Moscow youngster collected enough scrap metal to produce 14,000 artillery shells. And a Russian family used its life savings to buy a tank for the Red Army. In the United States, youngsters saved their pennies and bought government war stamps and bonds to help finance the war.

War Limits Civil Rights Government propaganda also had a negative effect. After Pearl Harbor, a wave of prejudice arose in the United States against Japanese Americans. Most lived in Hawaii and on the West Coast. The bombing of Pearl Harbor frightened Americans. This fear, encouraged by government propaganda, was turned against Japanese Americans. They were suddenly seen as “the enemy.” On February 19, 1942, President Roosevelt issued an executive order calling for the internment of Japanese Americans because they were considered a threat to the country.

In March, the military began rounding up “aliens” and shipping them to relocation camps. The camps were restricted military areas located far away from the coast. Such locations, it was thought, would prevent these “enemy aliens” from assisting a Japanese invasion. However, two-thirds of those interned were Nisei, native-born American citizens whose parents were Japanese. Many of them volunteered for military service and fought bravely for the United States, even though their families remained in the camps.

Victory in Europe

While the Allies were dealing with issues on the home front, they also were preparing to push toward victory in Europe. In 1943, the Allies began secretly building an invasion force in Great Britain. Their plan was to launch an attack on German-held France across the English Channel.

The D-Day Invasion By May 1944, the invasion force was ready. Thousands of planes, ships, tanks, and landing craft and more than three million troops awaited the order to attack. General Dwight D. Eisenhower, the commander of this enormous force, planned to strike on the coast of Normandy, in northwestern France. The Germans knew that an attack was coming. But they did not know where it would be launched. To keep Hitler guessing, the Allies set up a huge dummy army with its own headquarters and equipment. This make-believe army appeared to be preparing to attack the French seaport of Calais (ka•LAY).
Code-named Operation Overlord, the invasion of Normandy was the largest land and sea attack in history. The invasion began on June 6, 1944—known as D-Day. At dawn on that day, British, American, French, and Canadian troops fought their way onto a 60-mile stretch of beach in Normandy. (See the map on this page.) The Germans had dug in with machine guns, rocket launchers, and cannons. They sheltered behind concrete walls three feet thick. Not surprisingly, the Allies took heavy casualties. Among the American forces alone, more than 2,700 men died on the beaches that day.

Despite heavy losses, the Allies held the beachheads. Within a month of D-Day, more than one million additional troops had landed. Then, on July 25, the Allies punched a hole in the German defenses near Saint-Lô (san•LOH), and the United States Third Army, led by General George Patton, broke out. A month later, the Allies marched triumphantly into Paris. By September, they had liberated France, Belgium, and Luxembourg. They then set their sights on Germany.

The Battle of the Bulge As Allied forces moved toward Germany from the west, the Soviet army was advancing toward Germany from the east. Hitler now faced a war on two fronts. In a desperate gamble, he decided to counterattack in the west. Hitler hoped a victory would split American and British forces and break up Allied supply lines. Explaining the reasoning behind his plan, Hitler said, “This battle is to decide whether we shall live or die. . . . All resistance must be broken in a wave of terror.”

On December 16, German tanks broke through weak American defenses along a 75-mile front in the Ardennes. The push into Allied lines gave the campaign its name—the Battle of the Bulge. Although caught off guard, the Allies eventually pushed the Germans back. The Germans had little choice but to retreat, since there were no reinforcements available.
**Germany’s Unconditional Surrender** After the Battle of the Bulge, the war in Europe rapidly drew to a close. In late March 1945, the Allies rolled across the Rhine River into Germany. By the middle of April, a noose was closing around Berlin. About three million Allied soldiers approached Berlin from the southwest. Another six million Soviet troops approached from the east. By April 25, 1945, the Soviets had surrounded the capital and were pounding the city with artillery fire.

While Soviet shells burst over Berlin, Hitler prepared for his end in an underground headquarters beneath the crumbling city. On April 29, he married his longtime companion, Eva Braun. The next day, Hitler and Eva Braun committed suicide. Their bodies were then carried outside and burned.

On May 7, 1945, General Eisenhower accepted the unconditional surrender of the Third Reich from the German military. President Roosevelt, however, did not live to witness the long-awaited victory. He had died suddenly on April 12, as Allied armies were advancing toward Berlin. Roosevelt’s successor, Harry Truman, received the news of the Nazi surrender. On May 9, the surrender was officially signed in Berlin. The United States and other Allied powers celebrated V-E Day—Victory in Europe Day. After nearly six years of fighting, the war in Europe had ended.

**Victory in the Pacific**

Although the war in Europe was over, the Allies were still fighting the Japanese in the Pacific. With the Allied victory at Guadalcanal, however, the Japanese advances in the Pacific had been stopped. For the rest of the war, the Japanese retreated before the counterattack of the Allied powers.

**The Japanese in Retreat** By the fall of 1944, the Allies were moving in on Japan. In October, Allied forces landed on the island of Leyte (LAY•tee) in the Philippines. General Douglas MacArthur, who had been ordered to leave the islands before their surrender in May 1942, waded ashore at Leyte with his troops. On reaching the beach, he declared, “People of the Philippines, I have returned.”

Actually, the takeover would not be quite that easy. The Japanese had devised a bold plan to halt the Allied advance. They would destroy the American fleet, thus preventing the Allies from resupplying their ground troops. This plan, however, required risking almost the entire Japanese fleet. They took this gamble on October 23, in the Battle of Leyte Gulf. Within four days, the Japanese navy had lost disastrously—eliminating it as a fighting force in the war. Now, only the Japanese army and the feared kamikaze stood between the Allies and Japan. The kamikazes were Japanese suicide pilots. They would sink Allied ships by crash-diving their bomb-filled planes into them.

In March 1945, after a month of bitter fighting and heavy losses, American Marines took Iwo Jima (EE•wuh JEE•muh), an island 760 miles from Tokyo. On April 1, U.S. troops moved onto the island of Okinawa, only about 350 miles from southern Japan. The Japanese put up a desperate fight. Nevertheless, on June 21, one of the bloodiest land battles of the war ended. The Japanese lost over 100,000 troops, and the Americans 12,000.

![U.S. marines raise the Stars and Stripes after their victory at Iwo Jima.](image)
The Atomic Bomb

On the eve of World War II, scientists in Germany succeeded in splitting the nucleus of a uranium atom, releasing a huge amount of energy. Albert Einstein wrote to President Franklin Roosevelt and warned him that Nazi Germany might be working to develop atomic weapons. Roosevelt responded by giving his approval for an American program, later code-named the Manhattan Project, to develop an atomic bomb. Roosevelt’s decision set off a race to ensure that the United States would be the first to develop the bomb.

On the morning of August 6, 1945, the B-29 bomber *Enola Gay*, flown by Colonel Paul W. Tibbets, Jr., took off from Tinian Island in the Mariana Islands.

At precisely 8:16 A.M., the atomic bomb exploded above Hiroshima, a city on the Japanese island of Honshu.

### Hiroshima: Day of Fire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of the Bombing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ground temperatures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hurricane force winds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy released</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buildings destroyed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Killed immediately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dead by the end of 1945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total deaths related to A-bomb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overwhelming destructive power of the Hiroshima bomb, and of the bomb dropped on Nagasaki three days later, changed the nature of war forever. Nuclear destruction also led to questions about the ethics of scientists and politicians who chose to develop and use the bomb.

Nagasaki citizens trudge through the still smoldering ruins of their city in this photograph by Yosuke Yamahata.

1. **Making Inferences**  What advantages did the United States have over Germany in the race to develop the atomic bomb?

2. **Comparing and Contrasting**  If you were to design a memorial to the victims of the Hiroshima and Nagasaki bombings, what symbol would you use? Make a sketch of your memorial.
The Japanese Surrender After Okinawa, the next stop for the Allies had to be Japan. President Truman’s advisers had informed him that an invasion of the Japanese homeland might cost the Allies half a million lives. Truman had to make a decision whether to use a powerful new weapon called the atomic bomb, or A-bomb. Most of his advisers felt that using it would bring the war to the quickest possible end. The bomb had been developed by the top-secret Manhattan Project, headed by General Leslie Groves and chief scientist J. Robert Oppenheimer. Truman first learned of the new bomb’s existence when he became president.

The first atomic bomb was exploded in a desert in New Mexico on July 16, 1945. President Truman then warned the Japanese. He told them that unless they surrendered, they could expect a “rain of ruin from the air.” The Japanese did not reply. So, on August 6, 1945, the United States dropped an atomic bomb on Hiroshima, a Japanese city of nearly 350,000 people. Between 70,000 and 80,000 people died in the attack. Three days later, on August 9, a second bomb was dropped on Nagasaki, a city of 270,000. More than 70,000 people were killed immediately. Radiation fallout from the two explosions killed many more.

The Japanese finally surrendered to General Douglas MacArthur on September 2. The ceremony took place aboard the United States battleship Missouri in Tokyo Bay. With Japan’s surrender, the war had ended. Now, countries faced the task of rebuilding a war-torn world.

TERMS & NAMES
1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
   • Dwight D. Eisenhower
   • Battle of Stalingrad
   • D-Day
   • Battle of the Bulge
   • kamikaze

USING YOUR NOTES
2. Which battle do you think was most important in turning the war in favor of the Allies? Why?

MAIN IDEAS
3. Why did Stalin want the United States and Britain to launch a second front in the west?
4. How did the Allies try to conceal the true location for the D-Day landings?
5. What brought about the Japanese surrender?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
6. CLARIFYING How do governments gather support for a war effort on the home front?
7. ANALYZING ISSUES Should governments have the power to limit the rights of their citizens during wartime? Explain your answer.
8. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS Did President Truman make the correct decision in using the atomic bomb? Why or why not?
9. WRITING ACTIVITY **SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY** Write a research report on the work of the Manhattan Project in developing the atomic bomb.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A POSTER
During World War II, the U.S. government used propaganda posters to encourage citizens to support the war effort. Create a similar kind of poster to encourage support for a war on litter in your neighborhood.
After six long years of war, the Allies finally were victorious. However, their victory had been achieved at a very high price. World War II had caused more death and destruction than any other conflict in history. It left 60 million dead. About one-third of these deaths occurred in one country, the Soviet Union. Another 50 million people had been uprooted from their homes and wandered the countryside in search of somewhere to live. Property damage ran into billions of U.S. dollars.

Devastation in Europe

By the end of World War II, Europe lay in ruins. Close to 40 million Europeans had died, two-thirds of them civilians. Constant bombing and shelling had reduced hundreds of cities to rubble. The ground war had destroyed much of the countryside. Displaced persons from many nations were left homeless.

A Harvest of Destruction

A few of the great cities of Europe—Paris, Rome, and Brussels—remained largely undamaged by war. Many, however, had suffered terrible destruction. The Battle of Britain left huge areas of London little more than blackened ruins. Warsaw, the capital of Poland, was almost completely destroyed. In 1939, Warsaw had a population of nearly 1.3 million. When Soviet soldiers entered the city in January 1945, only 153,000 people remained. Thousands of tons of Allied bombs had demolished 95 percent of the central area of Berlin. One U.S. officer stationed in the German capital reported, “Wherever we looked we saw desolation. It was like a city of the dead.”

After the bombings, many civilians stayed where they were and tried to get on with their lives. Some lived in partially destroyed homes or apartments. Others huddled in cellars or caves made from rubble. They had no water, no electricity, and very little food.

A large number of people did not stay where they were. Rather, they took to the roads. These displaced persons included the survivors of concentration camps, prisoners of war, and refugees who found themselves in the wrong country when postwar treaties changed national borders. They wandered across Europe, hoping to find their families or to find a safe place to live.

Simon Weisenthal, a prisoner at Auschwitz, described the search made by Holocaust survivors:
**Costs of World War II: Allies and Axis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Direct War Costs</th>
<th>Military Killed/Missing</th>
<th>Civilians Killed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>United States</strong></td>
<td>$288.0 billion*</td>
<td>292,131**</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Great Britain</strong></td>
<td>$117.0 billion</td>
<td>272,311</td>
<td>60,595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>France</strong></td>
<td>$111.3 billion</td>
<td>205,707***</td>
<td>173,260†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>USSR</strong></td>
<td>$93.0 billion</td>
<td>13,600,000</td>
<td>7,720,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Germany</strong></td>
<td>$212.3 billion</td>
<td>3,300,000</td>
<td>2,893,000††</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Japan</strong></td>
<td>$41.3 billion</td>
<td>1,140,429</td>
<td>953,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* In 1994 dollars.
** An additional 115,187 servicemen died from non-battle causes.
*** Before surrender to Nazis.
† Includes 65,000 murdered Jews.
†† Includes about 170,000 murdered Jews and 56,000 foreign civilians in Germany.

**SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts**

1. **Drawing Conclusions** Which of the nations listed in the chart suffered the greatest human costs?
2. **Comparing** How does U.S. spending on the war compare with the spending of Germany and Japan?

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**Primary Source**

Across Europe a wild tide of frantic survivors was flowing. . . . Many of them didn’t really know where to go. . . . And yet the survivors continued their pilgrimage of despair. . . . “Perhaps someone is still alive. . . .” Someone might tell where to find a wife, a mother, children, a brother—or whether they were dead. . . . The desire to find one’s people was stronger than hunger, thirst, fatigue.

SIMON WEISENTHAL, quoted in Never to Forget: The Jews of the Holocaust

**Misery Continues After the War** The misery in Europe continued for years after the war. The fighting had ravaged Europe’s countryside, and agriculture had been completely disrupted. Most able-bodied men had served in the military, and the women had worked in war production. Few remained to plant the fields. With the transportation system destroyed, the meager harvests often did not reach the cities. Thousands died as famine and disease spread through the bombed-out cities. The first postwar winter brought more suffering as people went without shoes and coats.

**Postwar Governments and Politics**

Despairing Europeans often blamed their leaders for the war and its aftermath. Once the Germans had lost, some prewar governments—like those in Belgium, Holland, Denmark, and Norway—returned quickly. In countries like Germany, Italy, and France, however, a return to the old leadership was not desirable. Hitler’s Nazi government had brought Germany to ruins. Mussolini had led Italy to defeat. The Vichy government had collaborated with the Nazis. Much of the old leadership was in disgrace. Also, in Italy and France, many resistance fighters were communists.

After the war, the Communist Party promised change, and millions were ready to listen. In both France and Italy, Communist Party membership skyrocketed. The communists made huge gains in the first postwar elections. Anxious to speed up a political takeover, the communists staged a series of violent strikes. Alarmed French and Italians reacted by voting for anticommunist parties. Communist Party membership and influence began to decline. And they declined even more as the economies of France and Italy began to recover.
How would demilitarization and a revived economy help Japan achieve democracy?

The Nuremberg Trials While nations were struggling to recover politically and economically, they also tried to deal with the issue of war crimes. During 1945 and 1946, an International Military Tribunal representing 23 nations put Nazi war criminals on trial in Nuremberg, Germany. In the first of these Nuremberg Trials, 22 Nazi leaders were charged with waging a war of aggression. They were also accused of committing “crimes against humanity”—the murder of 11 million people.

Adolf Hitler, SS chief Heinrich Himmler, and Minister of Propaganda Joseph Goebbels had committed suicide long before the trials began. However, Hermann Göring, the commander of the Luftwaffe; Rudolf Hess, Hitler’s former deputy; and other high-ranking Nazi leaders remained to face the charges.

Hess was found guilty and was sentenced to life in prison. Göring received a death sentence, but cheated the executioner by committing suicide. Ten other Nazi leaders were hanged on October 16, 1946. Hans Frank, the “Slayer of Poles,” was the only convicted Nazi to express remorse: “A thousand years will pass,” he said, “and still this guilt of Germany will not have been erased.” The bodies of those executed were burned at the concentration camp of Dachau (DAHK•ow). They were cremated in the same ovens that had burned so many of their victims.

Postwar Japan

The defeat suffered by Japan in World War II left the country in ruins. Two million lives had been lost. The country’s major cities, including the capital, Tokyo, had been largely destroyed by bombing raids. The atomic bomb had turned Hiroshima and Nagasaki into blackened wastelands. The Allies had stripped Japan of its colonial empire.

Occupied Japan General Douglas MacArthur, who had accepted the Japanese surrender, took charge of the U.S. occupation of Japan. MacArthur was determined to be fair and not to plant the seeds of a future war. Nevertheless, to ensure that peace would prevail, he began a process of demilitarization, or disbanding the Japanese armed forces. He achieved this quickly, leaving the Japanese with only a small police force. MacArthur also began bringing war criminals to trial. Out of 25 surviving defendants, former Premier Hideki Tojo and six others were condemned to hang.

MacArthur then turned his attention to democratization, the process of creating a government elected by the people. In February 1946, he and his American political advisers drew up a new constitution. It changed the empire into a constitutional monarchy like that of Great Britain. The Japanese accepted the constitution. It went into effect on May 3, 1947.

MacArthur was not told to revive the Japanese economy. However, he was instructed to broaden land ownership and increase the participation of workers and farmers in the new democracy. To this end, MacArthur put forward a plan that required absentee landlords with huge estates to sell land to the government. The government then sold the land to tenant farmers at reasonable prices. Other reforms pushed by MacArthur gave workers the right to create independent labor unions.
Occupation Brings Deep Changes

The new constitution was the most important achievement of the occupation. It brought deep changes to Japanese society. A long Japanese tradition had viewed the emperor as divine. He was also an absolute ruler whose will was law. The emperor now had to declare that he was not divine. That admission was as shocking to the Japanese as defeat. His power was also dramatically reduced. Like the ruler of Great Britain, the emperor became largely a figurehead—a symbol of Japan.

The new constitution guaranteed that real political power in Japan rested with the people. The people elected a two-house parliament, called the Diet. All citizens over the age of 20, including women, had the right to vote. The government was led by a prime minister chosen by a majority of the Diet. A constitutional bill of rights protected basic freedoms. One more key provision of the constitution—Article 9—stated that the Japanese could no longer make war. They could fight only if attacked.

In September 1951, the United States and 47 other nations signed a formal peace treaty with Japan. The treaty officially ended the war. Some six months later, the U.S. occupation of Japan was over. However, with no armed forces, the Japanese agreed to a continuing U.S. military presence to protect their country. The United States and Japan, once bitter enemies, were now allies.

In the postwar world, enemies not only became allies. Sometimes, allies became enemies. World War II had changed the political landscape of Europe. The Soviet Union and the United States emerged from the war as the world’s two major powers. They also ended the war as allies. However, it soon became clear that their postwar goals were very different. This difference stirred up conflicts that would shape the modern world for decades.

SECTION ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
- Nuremberg Trials
- demilitarization
- democratization

USING YOUR NOTES 2. How did the aftermath of the war in Europe differ from the aftermath of the war in Japan?

MAIN IDEAS 3. Why did so many Europeans take to the roads and wander the countryside after the war?
4. How did the Allies deal with the issue of war crimes in Europe?
5. What three programs did General Douglas MacArthur introduce during the U.S. occupation of Japan?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING 6. ANALYZING CAUSES Why do you think that many Europeans favored communism after World War II?
7. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS Do you think it was right for the Allies to try only Nazi and Japanese leaders for war crimes? Why or why not?
8. MAKING INFERENCES Why was demilitarization such an important part of the postwar program for Japan?
9. WRITING ACTIVITY ECONOMICS In the role of an observer for the United States government, write a report on the economic situation in Europe after World War II. Illustrate your report with appropriate charts and graphs.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A RADIO NEWS REPORT
Conduct research on a recent trial at the International War Crimes Tribunal in The Hague. Use your findings to create a two-minute radio news report on the trial.
MAY 1942
Allies turn back Japanese fleet in Battle of the Coral Sea; Allies surrender in Philippines

1940 1941 1943 1944 1945

EUROPE

PACIFIC

AUG 1939 Nonaggression pact between Germany and the Soviet Union
SEP 1939 Germany invades Poland; World War II begins
AUG 1942 Hitler orders attack on Stalingrad
MAY 1942 Britain evacuates forces from Dunkirk
JUNE 1940 France surrenders; the Battle of Britain begins
JUNE 1941 Germany invades the Soviet Union
NOV 1942 Allies land in North Africa
FEB 1943 Germans surrender at Stalingrad
DEC 1944 Battle of the Bulge begins
JUNE 1944 Allies invade Europe on D-Day
MAR 1945 Allies capture Iwo Jima
JUNE 1945 Okinawa falls to Allies
AUG 1945 Allies drop atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki
SEPT 1945 Japan surrenders

AUG 1939 Nonaggression pact between Germany and the Soviet Union
SEP 1939 Germany invades Poland; World War II begins
AUG 1942 Hitler orders attack on Stalingrad
MAY 1942 Britain evacuates forces from Dunkirk
JUNE 1940 France surrenders; the Battle of Britain begins
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JUNE 1944 Allies invade Europe on D-Day
MAR 1945 Allies capture Iwo Jima
JUNE 1945 Okinawa falls to Allies
AUG 1945 Allies drop atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki
SEPT 1945 Japan surrenders

CRITICAL THINKING

1. USING YOUR NOTES
Copy the chart into your notebook and specify for each listed battle or conflict whether the Axis powers or the Allied powers gained an advantage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Battle/Conflict</th>
<th>Allied or Axis Powers?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Britain</td>
<td>Allies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>War in the Balkans</td>
<td>Allies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearl Harbor</td>
<td>Axis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of the Coral Sea</td>
<td>Allies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Midway</td>
<td>Allies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS
Consider the personalities, tactics, and policies of Hitler, Rommel, MacArthur, and Churchill. What qualities make a good war leader?

3. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

EMPIRE BUILDING
Compare and contrast Japan’s and Germany’s goals in World War II.

4. EVALUATING COURSES OF ACTION
ECONOMICS
Why do you think the governments of the United States and other countries encouraged people on the home front to organize programs for such activities as scrap collection and Victory gardens?

TERMS & NAMES
For each term or name below, briefly explain its connection to World War II.
1. blitzkrieg
2. Atlantic Charter
3. Battle of Midway
4. Holocaust
5. genocide
6. D-Day
7. Nuremberg Trials
8. demilitarization

MAIN IDEAS

Hitler’s Lightning War Section 1 (pages 491–496)
9. What event finally unleashed World War II?
10. Why was capturing Egypt’s Suez Canal so important to the Axis powers?

Japan’s Pacific Campaign Section 2 (pages 497–501)
11. What was Yamamoto’s objective at Pearl Harbor?
12. How did Japan try to win support from other Asian countries?

The Holocaust Section 3 (pages 502–505)
13. Name two tactics that Hitler used to rid Germany of Jews before creating his “Final Solution.”
14. What tactics did Hitler use during the “Final Solution”?

The Allied Victory Section 4 (pages 506–513)
15. Why were consumer goods rationed during the war?
16. What was Operation Overlord?

Europe and Japan in Ruins Section 5 (pages 514–517)
17. Why did Europeans leave their homes following the war?
18. What were two of the most important steps that MacArthur took in Japan following the war?
1. According to the writer, what is the least the Allies might have done with reference to using the atomic bomb?
   A. tell Japan that they possessed the atomic bomb, a weapon with incredible destructive power
   B. demonstrate it on a selected target in Japan where loss of life would be limited
   C. invite Japanese leaders to a demonstration explosion of the bomb in the United States
   D. drop the bomb on cities in Germany as well as on Japanese cities

2. In which country were most death camps located?
   A. Austria
   B. Germany
   C. Poland
   D. Yugoslavia

For additional test practice, go online for:
- Diagnostic tests
- Tutorials
- Strategies

**INTERACT WITH HISTORY**

On page 490, you had to decide under what circumstances war is justified. Now that you have read the chapter, do you think that Germany and Japan were justified in waging war? Were the Allies justified in declaring war on Germany and Japan? As you think about these questions, consider the moral issues that confront world leaders when they contemplate war as an option.

**FOCUS ON WRITING**

**SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY** Conduct research on the scientific and technological developments used in the Allied war effort. Use your findings to create several **information cards** for a card series titled “Science and Technology During World War II.” Organize the information on your cards in the following categories:
- name of invention or development
- country
- year
- use in the war
- use today

**MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY**

**Writing an Internet-Based Research Paper**

During World War II, many consumer-goods manufacturers switched to the production of military goods. Many of these companies still exist. Working with a partner, use the Internet to research one such company. Find out what products the company made before and during the war, and how the company’s wartime role affected its reputation. Go to the Web Research Guide at hmhsocialstudies.com to learn about conducting research on the Internet.

Present the results of your research in a well-organized paper. Be sure to:
- apply a search strategy when using directories and search engines to locate Web resources.
- judge the usefulness and reliability of each Web site.
- correctly cite your Web sources.
- edit for organization and correct use of language.
A global conflict, World War II shaped the history of both the United States and the world. Americans contributed to the war effort in numerous ways. Many enlisted in the military and served in Africa, Europe, and the Pacific. Others contributed by working in factories to produce the massive amounts of ships, planes, guns, and other supplies necessary to win the war. In the process, these Americans left behind firsthand accounts of their experiences during the war, both at home and abroad.

Explore some of the personal stories and recollections of World War II online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more at [hmhsocialstudies.com](http://hmhsocialstudies.com).
“I am allowed to write of my own personal combat experiences and I can say that I have been fortunate so far. War is like something you cannot imagine. I had no idea what it was about and still don’t.”

— Erwin Blonder, U.S. soldier

A Soldier’s Letter Home
Read the document to learn about one soldier’s wartime experiences in southern France.

America Mobilizes for War
Watch the video to see how the United States mobilized its citizens for war and how society changed as a result.

Air War Over Germany
Watch the video to see how the P-51 Mustang helped the Allies win the air war over Germany.

The Pacific Islands
Watch the video to hear veterans describe their experiences fighting in the Pacific theater.
Technology of War

In Unit 4, you studied the economic and political upheavals that led to two world wars. For the first time, war involved not only the interested countries, but also their allies near and far and their colonies in far-flung places. In the next six pages, you will analyze the widespread use of machines and other technologies as tools for fighting and the increasingly involved role of civilians in war.

Maxim Machine Gun
Hiram Maxim (above) invented the first portable, automatic machine gun. Machine guns fired hundreds of rounds per minute and were used by all the combatants in World War I.

Tanks
Tanks, like the early British model shown above, enabled armies to travel over uneven ground and barbed wire. Although too slow to be used to full advantage at first, they were devastating against soldiers in trenches.

First Military Plane
The earliest military planes were used for reconnaissance of enemy positions. A passenger could drop bombs (below) and, in later World War I models, operate a machine gun.

Poison Gas
Poison gases were introduced to help break the stalemate of trench warfare. They caused suffocation, blistered skin, or blindness (below) to those exposed.
Blitzkrieg ▲
The Germans used blitzkrieg or "lightning war" to invade Poland. They employed air strikes, fast tanks, and artillery, followed by soldiers sped into battle on trucks (shown above). They swiftly overwhelmed Poland and disrupted its command and communications.

Atomic Bomb ▲
The United States dropped two atomic bombs on Japan and became the first nation to use nuclear weapons. An atomic bomb (right) creates an explosion that causes massive damage. The radioactive particles released are carried by winds for weeks.

German Me 262
Military jet planes were first used by the Germans in 1944. These planes added speed to fire power. The Me 262 (below) was the only jet to be used extensively in World War II.

Comparing & Contrasting
1. How did technology change the nature of war in the 20th century?
2. Compared with earlier guns, what made machine guns so effective?
3. How did airplanes change the way war was carried out?
Expansion of Warfare

World War I and World War II both began as localized wars. As the allies of the opposing combatants became involved in the wars, combat spread to distant parts of the world. Countries attacked each other’s colonies, attempted to gain territory for themselves, dedicated massive amounts of physical and human resources, and sometimes sought to kill entire populations.

Total War

A feature of warfare in the 20th century was how entire national economies were directed toward the war effort. As a result, civilians were not only potential victims of combat, but they also became actual targets themselves. Civilians also became active participants, producing arms, food, vehicles, and other goods needed for war. Many factories stopped producing consumer goods and began making products needed by the military.

London

The photograph shows a section of London destroyed by bombs in the Battle of Britain during World War II.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

What effect do you think the kind of destruction shown in the photograph had on the residents of London?

Lusitania

This newspaper shows the headline and various articles about the sinking of the British passenger ship Lusitania during World War I. Note also the announcement from the German embassy warning civilians not to travel to Great Britain because Germany considered it a war zone.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

What effect would the headline and photograph have on the American public?
Genocide

Genocide is the calculated and methodical destruction of a national, religious, ethnic, or racial group. The perpetrators consider their victims inferior or wish to take over their lands and property, or both. The mass killing of Armenians by Ottoman Turks beginning in 1915 is considered the first genocide of the 20th century. During the Holocaust, the Nazis killed more than 6 million people. As a result, in 1948 the United Nations approved an international convention to prevent and punish genocide.

Genocide in WWI

The following excerpts are from telegrams sent to the secretary of state by the U.S. embassy in the Ottoman Empire. They concern the situation of Armenians in Turkey. The first passage was written by the American Consul General at Beirut and describes the deportation of Armenians from the Zeitoon region, and the second calls attention to the killing of people in eastern Turkey.

July 20, 1915:
Whole villages were deported at an hours notice, with no opportunity to prepare for the journey, not even in some cases to gather together the scattered members of the family, so that little children were left behind. . . .

In many cases the men were (those of military age were nearly all in the army) bound tightly together with ropes or chains. Women with little children in their arms, or in the last days of pregnancy were driven along under the whip like cattle. Three different cases came under my knowledge where the woman was delivered on the road, and because her brutal driver hurried her along she died. . . .

These people are being scattered in small units, three or four families in a place, among a population of different race and religion, and speaking a different language. I speak of them as being composed of families, but four fifths of them are women and children.

July 31, 1915:
[The president of a charitable organization] has information from [a] reliable source that Armenians, mostly women and children, deported from the Erzerum district, have been massacred near Kemakh. . . . Similar reports comes from other sources showing that but few of these unfortunate people will ever reach their stated destination.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION
What would be the result of scattering Armenian villagers in unfamiliar places under such terrible conditions?

Genocide in WWII

Primo Levi describes how prisoners at the Nazi concentration camp of Auschwitz were selected for death.

Each one of us, as he comes naked out of the Tagesraum [common room] into the cold October air, has to run the few steps between the two doors, give the card to the SS man [the Nazi guard] and enter the dormitory door. The SS man, in the fraction of a second between two successive crossings, with a glance at one’s back and front, judges everyone’s fate, and in turn gives the card to the man on his right or his left, and this is the life or death of each of us. In three or four minutes a hut of 200 men is ‘done’, as is the whole camp of twelve thousand men in the course of the afternoon.

Jammed in the charnel-house [a place of great suffering] of the Tagesraum, I gradually felt the human pressure around me slacken, and in a short time it was my turn. Like everyone, I passed by with a brisk and elastic step, trying to hold my head high, my chest forward and my muscles contracted and conspicuous. With the corner of my eye I tried to look behind my shoulders, and my card seemed to end on the right.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION
What was the Nazis’ attitude toward selecting prisoners to be killed?

Comparing & Contrasting

1. Judging from the examples on these two pages, in what ways did warfare expand to include civilians?
2. If civilians manufacture materials for the war effort, should they be military targets? Why or why not?
3. How did modern weaponry contribute to both the sinking of the Lusitania and the bombing of London?
The Human Cost of War

The global nature of World Wars I and II wreaked a level of destruction unknown before. National economies were exhausted; farmland, towns, and villages were destroyed. More soldiers died in World War I than in all the conflicts of the previous three centuries, and millions more died in World War II. Civilians died by the millions as a result of military operations, concentration camps, the bombing of towns and cities, and starvation and disease.

Military Cost

Both sides in the two world wars suffered tremendous military casualties, including dead, wounded, and missing in action. About 8.5 million soldiers died in World War I and 19.4 million in World War II. The excerpts show how weapons and tactics contributed to the large number of casualties.

**Primary Source**

**Trench Warfare**

British sergeant major Ernest Shephard remembers the first day of the Battle of the Somme in his diary.

A lovely day, intensely hot. Lots of casualties in my trench. The enemy are enfilading us with heavy shell, dropping straight on us. A complete trench mortar battery of men killed by one shell, scores of dead and badly wounded in trench . . . Every move we make brings intense fire, as trenches so badly battered the enemy can see all our movements. Lot of wounded [from the front] . . . several were hit again and killed in trench. We put as many wounded as possible in best spots in trench and I sent a lot down, but I had so many of my own men killed and wounded that after a time I could not do this. . . .

[L]iterally we were blown from place to place. Men very badly shaken. As far as possible we cleared trenches of debris and dead. These we piled in heaps, enemy shells pitching on them made matters worse.

**Document-Based Question**

Judging from the quotation, what was Shephard’s attitude toward the battle?

**Iwo Jima**

Japan lost 21,000 soldiers and the United States 6,800 in the Battle of Iwo Jima. A U.S. Marines correspondent described part of the fighting below.

Behind a rolling artillery barrage and with fixed bayonets, the unit leaped forward in . . . [a] charge and advanced to the very mouths of the fixed [Japanese] defenses. . . . [T]he men flung themselves at the tiny flaming holes, throwing grenades and jabbing with bayonets. Comrades went past, hurdled the defenses and rushed across Airfield no. 2. . . . Men died at every step. That was how we broke their line. . . .

Across the field we attacked a ridge. The enemy rose up out of holes to hurl our assault back. The squads re-formed and went up again. At the crest they plunged on the [Japanese] with bayonets. . . . The [Japanese] on the ridge were annihilated.

**Document-Based Question**

What attitude do you think the soldiers on both sides had to adopt to fight in such a bloody conflict as this?

Military Casualties, World War I and World War II

**Skillbuilder: Interpreting Graphs**

What factors may have contributed to the increased number of deaths in World War II over World War I?
Civilian Cost

Civilians suffered not only as the direct victims of war, but also from the loss of their homes, the workplaces that gave them an income and produced useful goods, and the farms that supplied food. They also experienced the unsanitary conditions that resulted from bombing.

Displaced Persons

Laura de Gozdawa Turczynowicz, an American married to a Polish nobleman, described fleeing the advance of the German army into Suwalki, Poland.

At the [Vilno] station were crowds of Suwalki people. One man of our acquaintance had brought with him only his walking stick! Another man had become separated from his young son, fourteen, and daughter, sixteen, and the poor father was on the verge of losing his reason. . . .

Such a lot of people came for help that my money melted like snow in the sunshine. I took just as many as could be packed in our [hotel] rooms. . . .

The next day dragged wearily along, everybody waiting, living only to hear better news. The city was rapidly filling with refugees. In one place, an old convent, they were given a roof to sleep under, and hot tea.

**DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION**

*Under what conditions did the Polish refugees flee from the Germans?*

Atomic Bomb

In this excerpt, Dr. Tatsuichiro Akizuki describes the people who began arriving at his hospital in Nagasaki the day the bomb was dropped.

It was all he could do to keep standing. Yet it didn’t occur to me that he had been seriously injured. . . .

As time passed, more and more people in a similar plight came up to the hospital. . . . All were of the same appearance, sounded the same. “I’m hurt, hurt! I’m burning! Water!” They all moaned the same lament. . . . They walked with strange, slow steps, groaning from deep inside themselves as if they had travelled from the depths of hell. They looked whitish; their faces were like masks.

**DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION**

*Why did the doctor not recognize his patients’ symptoms?*

**INTERNMENT CAMPS**

After Pearl Harbor, thousands of Japanese Americans were sent to internment camps mainly located in the western United States.

**DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION**

*Judging from the photograph, what was the government’s attitude toward Japanese Americans?*

**EXTENSION ACTIVITY**

Look up the numbers of civilian casualties suffered in different countries during World War II in an encyclopedia or other reference source. Use the graph on page 524 as a model. Be sure to include the countries with the most significant figures in different parts of the world. Write a paragraph explaining why these countries had the greatest number of casualties.