

foreign enemies. The radical phase of the revolution ended in 1794.

The Napoleonic Age

In 1799, an ambitious young army officer, Napoleon Bonaparte, won control of the government. By 1804, he had gained enough power to proclaim himself “Emperor of the French.” A majority of French voters approved his action.

Although Napoleon had gained absolute power, he did not return to the old system. Instead, he preserved many reforms of the French Revolution. He issued the Napoleonic Code, a law code that kept the most important rights won by the people during the revolution. This code recognized that all men were equal before the law, and it protected freedom of religion. Napoleon also made reforms to strengthen the French economy.

The wars of Napoleon. Napoleon conquered an empire that extended from Spain in the west to the borders of Russia in the east. These conquests helped to spread the revolutionary ideas of liberty and equality to the peoples of Europe. At the same time, Napoleon’s successes encouraged the growth of nationalism among the peoples he conquered. As nationalist feelings grew, revolts against French rule erupted.

Eventually, Britain, Prussia, Russia, and Austria united to defeat Napoleon and force him into exile. The victorious allies installed the brother of Louis XVI on the French throne as Louis XVIII.

A continuing struggle. In 1814, European leaders met at the Congress of Vienna. They set out to restore order after 25 years of revolution and war. Most of them wanted to turn the clock back to the traditions that had existed before the French Revolution. Despite their efforts, they could not destroy revolutionary ideas. Throughout the 1800s, reformers in many countries demanded constitutions that protected people’s basic rights. Those demands led to frequent upheavals. During this time, the Industrial Revolution was underway. It, too, contributed to the continuing turmoil in Europe.

SECTION 2 REVIEW

- 1. Identify:** (a) Louis XIV, (b) Magna Carta, (c) English Bill of Rights, (d) Nicolaus Copernicus, (e) Galileo, (f) Isaac Newton, (g) John Locke, (h) Baron de Montesquieu, (i) Congress of Vienna.
- 2. Define:** (a) absolute monarch, (b) divine right, (c) limited monarchy, (d) scientific method.
- 3.** How did rulers like Louis XIV increase their power?
- 4.** What were two limits on the power of the English monarchy?
- 5.** What ideas about government developed during the Enlightenment?
- 6. Analyzing Information** (a) How did Napoleon’s conquests lead to the growth of nationalism? (b) Why do you think later European leaders were unable to destroy revolutionary ideas?
- 7. Writing Across Cultures** List three ideas in the Constitution of the United States that reflect the influence of Enlightenment ideas.

3

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

FIND OUT

How did new technologies contribute to the Industrial Revolution?

How did industrialization affect people’s lives?

How did reformers try to change society in the 1800s?

Vocabulary factory system, assembly line, franchise

“It was a town of machinery and tall chimneys, out of which interminable serpents of smoke trailed themselves for ever and ever. . . . It had a black

canal in it, and a river that ran purple with ill-smelling dye, and vast piles of buildings full of windows . . . where the pistons of the steam-engine worked . . . up and down, like the head of an elephant in a state of melancholy madness. ”

In *Hard Times*, the British writer Charles Dickens described life in a factory town during the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution was a long, slow process during which machines replaced hand tools and new sources of power such as steam and electricity replaced human and animal power in the production of goods.

The Industrial Revolution had two stages. From about 1750 to 1850, Britain took the lead in shifting to new methods of production. From the mid-1800s to 1914, the nations of Western Europe and the United States used these production methods to become modern industrial nations.

Beginnings of the Industrial Revolution

A revolution in agriculture during the 1700s created conditions that favored the Industrial Revolution. Small farms were combined, or enclosed, to make larger, more efficient ones. Farmers began to grow new crops and use new technologies such as the seed drill and the iron plow. Increased food production improved people's diet and health. This, in turn, contributed to rapid population growth. At the same time, better farming methods meant that fewer people were needed to farm. As a result, unemployed farmers formed a large pool of available labor.

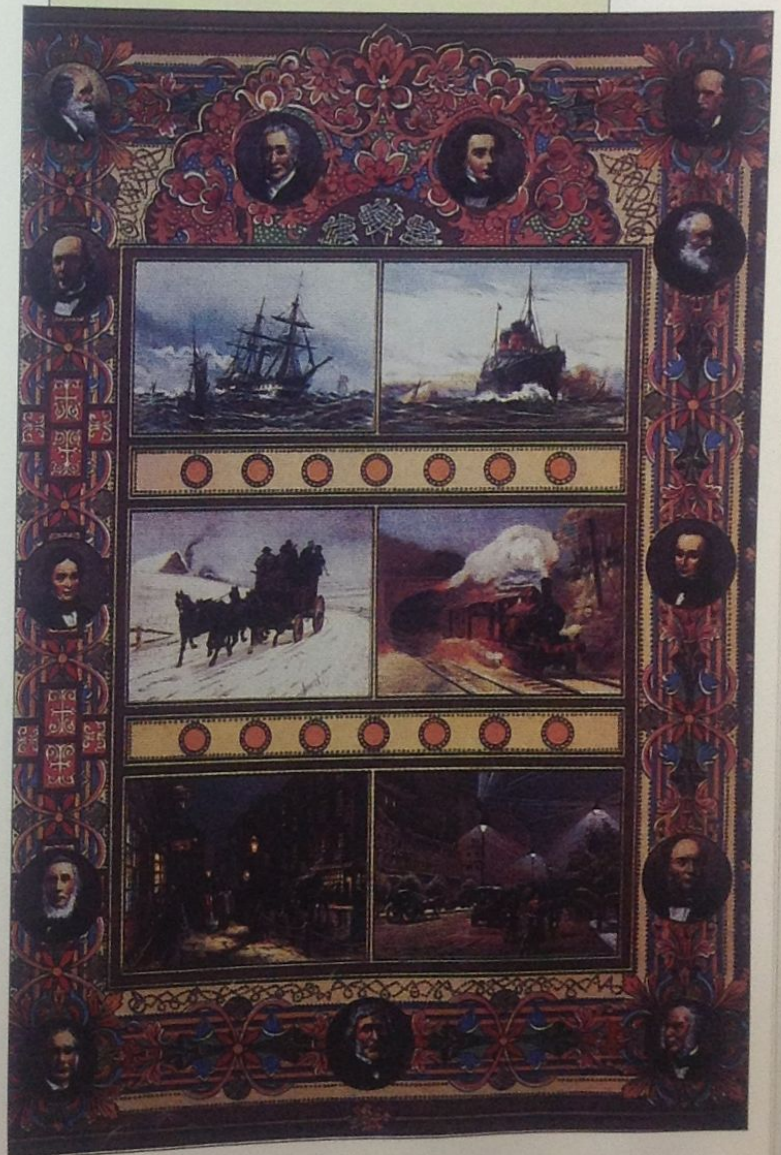
The factory system. The Industrial Revolution began in the British textile industry. Inventors produced new machines that reduced the time required to spin and weave wool and cotton. Because running water was needed to power machines, factory owners built spinning mills near rivers. The new machines led to the growth of the **factory system**, which brought workers and machines together in one place to manufacture goods.

By the late 1700s, steam had begun to replace water as a source of power. The Scottish inventor James Watt improved the steam-powered engine. Steam engines gave a boost to two other industries, coal and iron. In the mid-1800s, Henry Bessemer developed a process to improve the production of steel. Better steel triggered the growth of still other industries.

The Triumph of Steam and Electricity

This English print was issued in 1897 to commemorate the sixtieth anniversary of Queen Victoria's rule. During her long reign, the Industrial Revolution transformed Britain.

Technology What major changes are shown between the pictures at left and those at right?



Improved transportation and communications. The Industrial Revolution brought rapid advances in transportation and communications. Britain built a network of roads, bridges, and canals to connect all parts of the nation. By the mid-1800s, steam-powered railroads and ships were providing improved, faster transportation around the world. At the same time, inventions such as the telegraph revolutionized communications.

Why Britain took the lead. Britain took the lead in the Industrial Revolution for a number of reasons. It had the large iron and coal resources needed to provide power for machines. It was a major commercial nation where merchants had the capital to invest in new enterprises. It had an abundant supply of cheap labor. It had colonies that supplied raw materials and provided a market for finished goods. In addition, the British government encouraged improvements in transportation and used its navy to protect British trade.

The Industrial Revolution Spreads

After the 1850s, other countries industrialized. Among them were Belgium, France, Germany, the United States, and later Japan. By the 1890s, the United States had overtaken Britain as the world's leading industrial power. German industry rivaled both British and American industry by 1900.

Science and industry. By the end of the 1800s, scientists were developing many new products and methods of manufacturing goods. Physicists built electric generators that in time replaced steam engines in many factories. Discoveries in the field of electricity led to the invention of the telephone and the radio, which further improved communications. An American inventor, Thomas Edison, developed a variety of new electrical products, including the phonograph and the light bulb.

The invention of the internal combustion engine, which was used to power automobiles, set the stage for a revolution in transportation. The growth of the automobile industry, in turn, triggered booms in other

industries, such as the production of steel, rubber, and petroleum.

New methods of production. To meet the growing demand for goods, factory owners developed new methods of production. At his automobile factory in the United States, Henry Ford introduced the **assembly line**. There, the complex job of assembling many parts was broken down into small tasks, each performed by an individual worker. The assembly line made production more efficient and reduced costs.

Changing Patterns of Life

The Industrial Revolution radically altered the patterns of life in Europe and North America. As nations industrialized, millions of people moved from rural areas into cities. By 1900, about one third of the people in industrialized countries lived in cities.

Social changes. A new social structure emerged during the Industrial Revolution. At the bottom of society were unskilled, poorly paid workers. A new middle class of factory owners challenged the old land-owning aristocracy. Women worked outside the home in growing numbers. They earned wages in factories and as domestic servants.

Life in the cities. The Industrial Revolution brought many benefits. It created millions of new jobs and produced a great variety of goods more cheaply than ever before. During this period, too, scientists made great advances in diagnosing and treating diseases.

The Industrial Revolution also created problems. Cities were filled with dark, smoky factories surrounded by rows of poorly built houses. Working-class families lived crowded together in one or two rooms in buildings that had no water or sewage system. Under these conditions, disease spread rapidly.

Working conditions. Factories, too, were dangerous and unhealthy places. Workers who were injured on the job received no sick pay. Entire families worked long hours for low pay. Even young children labored for 12 to 16 hours a day, 6 days a week. In 1832, reformers in Britain's Parliament held hearings to determine what changes needed to be made.

Evils of Child Labor

Elizabeth Bentley limped into the hearing room. Facing her sat the members of a parliamentary commission that was investigating factory conditions. Briskly, she answered their questions:

- “What age are you?”
 ‘Twenty-three.’
 ‘What time did you begin work at the factory?’
 ‘When I was six years old.’
 ‘What were your hours of labor in that mill?’
 ‘From five in the morning till nine at night, when they were thronged [busy].’ ”

Like many people during the Industrial Revolution, Elizabeth Bentley had worked in a textile mill since early childhood. She had no choice. Her family needed every penny she and her brothers and sisters could earn in order to survive.

Her day began at 4 A.M., when her mother shook her awake. The young girl quickly ate a bowl of thin porridge, drank a mug of tea, and then walked two miles to the factory. In the slow season, she worked a 13-hour day. Her hours increased to 16 during the busy season. At noon, she got a 40-minute break—her only time off during the day.

Bentley’s first job was as a doffer. She ran from machine to machine, emptying bobbins filled with thread. At age 10, she moved on to the carding room. There, she pulled a heavy rack across linen fibers again and again. The work nearly stretched her arms out of their sockets, causing pains that wracked her body. By the time Bentley was 13 years old, her ankles, knees, and back showed signs of being deformed.

The work was not the only cause of pain, as Bentley revealed to the commission:

- “Suppose you flagged [slowed down] a little, or were late, what would they do?”
 ‘Strap us.’



Children Working in a Coal Mine Early in the Industrial Revolution, factory owners often preferred children to adults in certain jobs. In coal mines, for example, boys and girls could crawl through tunnels more easily. In textile factories, the children could use their small fingers to handle delicate spinning and weaving machinery.

Human Rights What could children do if they were mistreated on the job?

- ‘Were the girls so struck as to leave marks upon their skin?’
 ‘Yes; they have had black marks many times, and their parents dare not come to the foreman about it, they were afraid of losing their work.’ ”

In 1842, other hearings revealed that children who worked in mines faced equally terrible conditions. Girls and boys as young as 8 years old worked 14 hours a day. Crawling on their hands and knees, they carried coal on their backs through low, damp tunnels. These reports shocked people in the middle and upper classes, who urged Parliament to pass reform laws.

Reform came too late to heal Elizabeth Bentley’s broken body. Asked what she did now, she replied that she was “in the poor-house.” ■

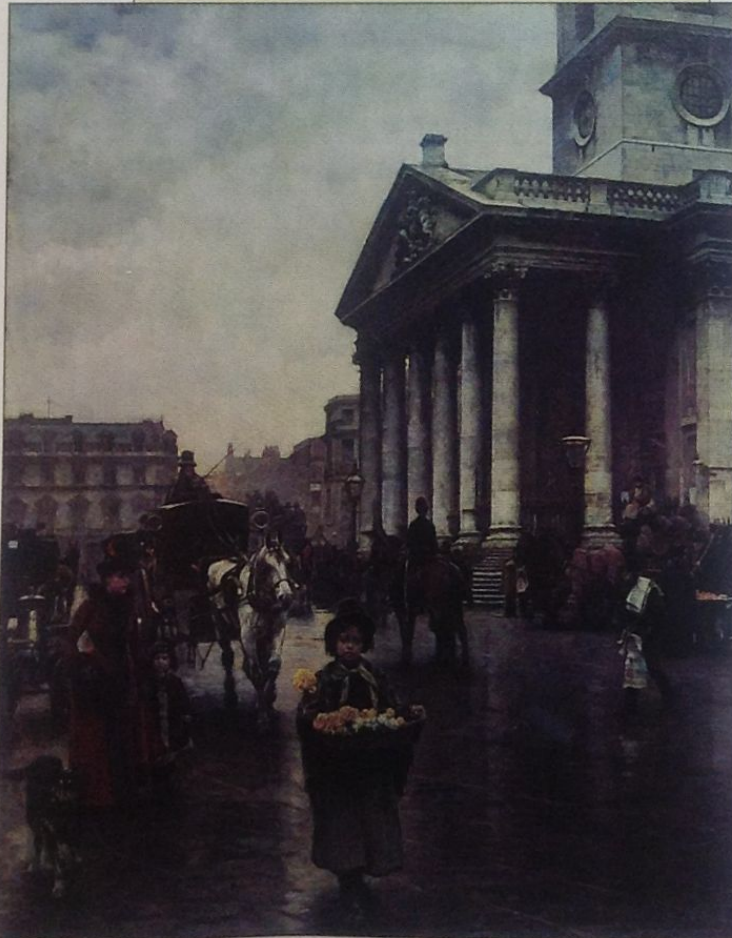
Demands for Reform

As reformers exposed the evils of industrial society, governments slowly took responsibility for making changes. Prodded by reports of terrible conditions and by popular protests, the British Parliament passed laws that limited the work hours of children. Later, these laws applied to all workers. Other European nations eventually took similar actions.

Improvements. To press their demands for change, workers formed labor unions. At

A London Street Industrialization spurred the growth of cities, where the great differences between rich and poor were seen daily. Industrial progress did improve the worker's standard of living. However, it brought greater benefits to upper-class citizens, such as the mother and child at left, than to the poor, such as this flower seller.

Change How did unions help workers?



first, unions met with fierce opposition from business owners and government. Gradually, however, workers won the right to organize. Unions used strikes and other tactics to win better wages, shorter hours, and improved working conditions.

By the early 1900s, life improved for many workers. As wages rose, families no longer had to send young children to work. New regulations made factories safer and healthier. Some governments also took steps to protect workers by providing unemployment, accident, and old-age insurance.

City life also improved. Governments established building codes, improved water and sewage systems, supported hospitals, and organized police forces. In addition, all industrial nations set up free public schools.

Growth of democracy. In most nations of Western Europe, these social changes were closely linked to the growth of democracy. In Britain and elsewhere, reformers focused on extending the **franchise**, or right to vote.

In the early 1800s, only a small percentage of British men could vote. Prodded by reformers, Parliament passed the Reform Bill of 1832. It extended the franchise to almost all middle-class men. In 1867, urban working men won the right to vote. Eventually, Parliament passed laws that gave the vote to rural working men.

Women, too, campaigned for the right to vote. During the early 1900s, they held rallies to publicize their cause. Some even used violence to protest their second-class status. At the time, most people strongly opposed giving women the vote. In Britain, women over age 30 finally won the right to vote in 1918. Other British women, as well as women in many other Western European countries, had to wait even longer before they could enjoy this right.

New Ideas About Society

During the 1800s, philosophers studied the harsh effects of industrialization. They developed new ideas about how society should be organized. Some called on governments to

protect workers and correct the worst abuses of industrial life. Others demanded more radical changes.

Socialism. Socialists argued that the capitalist system rewarded only the industrialists and not the workers whose labor supported it. They favored government ownership of land, machines, and factories. In their ideal world, poverty would not exist and all workers would share equally in the results of their labor.

Marx. Two German social philosophers, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, outlined their revolutionary ideas in the *Communist Manifesto*. In this pamphlet, they called for public ownership of all land as well as the means of production. This system came to be called communism.

Marx claimed that his ideas were based on a scientific study of history. He argued that history showed the struggle of two classes—the “haves” and the “have nots”:

“The history of all hitherto existing society is the history of class struggles. Freeman and slave, patrician and plebeian, lord and serf . . . in a word, oppressor and oppressed, stood in constant opposition to one another.”

In industrial societies, the members of the bourgeoisie (boor zhwah ZEE), or middle class, were the “haves” and those who belonged to the proletariat, or working class, were the “have nots.” Marx predicted a worldwide revolution in which the proletariat would rise up against bourgeois capitalism and form a classless society.

European history did not follow the course that Marx predicted. Working conditions improved during the late 1800s, so most workers saw no reason to overthrow capitalism. Still, Marx’s idea of a classless society in which all would share equally appealed to many people. His teachings became the basis for communist revolutions in Russia, China, and Cuba. They have also inspired nationalist movements in many parts of the Third World.

SECTION 3 REVIEW

- 1. Identify:** (a) James Watt, (b) Henry Bessemer, (c) Thomas Edison, (d) Reform Bill of 1832, (e) *Communist Manifesto*.
- 2. Define:** (a) factory system, (b) assembly line, (c) franchise.
- 3.** Give two examples of how inventions and new methods of production brought changes to industry.
- 4.** Describe how the Industrial Revolution affected each of the following: (a) social structure, (b) cities.
- 5.** (a) Why did Karl Marx oppose capitalism? (b) What solution did communism propose for the ills of modern society?
- 6. Defending a Position** Do you think the positive results of the Industrial Revolution outweighed the negative results? Explain.
- 7. Writing Across Cultures** In the 1860s, an underwater telegraph cable linked Britain and the United States. Write a brief statement outlining the possible benefits of improved communication with Europe during the Industrial Revolution.

4

EUROPE IN TWO WORLD WARS

FIND OUT

- What were the causes of World War I?
- Why did dictators gain power in Italy and Germany?
- What forces contributed to the outbreak of World War II?

Vocabulary appeasement, blitzkrieg, Holocaust

“Peace remains at the mercy of an accident,” declared a German diplomat early in 1914. That “accident” happened in June 1914,

when an assassin shot the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary. The assassination set off a chain of events that shattered the peace of Europe—and the world.

The period from 1815 to 1914 was a relatively peaceful one in Europe. Yet under the surface, tensions were building. As European nations dominated more and more of the globe, rivalries among colonial powers flared. Nationalism, militarism, and industrial competition also contributed to an atmosphere that led to war.

Growth of Nationalism

The wars of Napoleon helped to spark the growth of nationalism. During the 1800s, various ethnic and religious groups throughout Europe sought independence. The spirit of nationalism led to the creation of two new nations—Italy and Germany. The emergence of these nations increased tensions among the great powers of Europe.

Italy. During the early 1800s, Italy was divided into many small states. Most were under foreign rule. For decades, Italian nationalists struggled for independence and unity. Led by Count Camillo Cavour and Giuseppe Garibaldi, Italian nationalists fought to free Italy from foreign control.

By 1870, the unification of the Italian peninsula was complete. Italy then began to

play an active role in world affairs. It entered the race for colonies in Africa. In addition, some Italian nationalists sought to add lands in northern Italy that remained under foreign rule.

Germany. Like Italy, Germany was divided into many separate states. During the 1860s, Count Otto von Bismarck of Prussia led the drive to unite Germany. He followed a policy of “blood and iron”—warfare and military might. Prussian armies defeated Austria, their greatest rival for control of the rest of Germany. They also defeated France in the Franco-Prussian War. France’s desire for revenge fueled tensions in the years that followed.

After France’s defeat in 1871, Bismarck created a united Germany that was led by Prussia. The king of Prussia was proclaimed kaiser, or emperor, of Germany. Under Prussian leadership, industry in Germany forged ahead. Germany also set out to win “a place in the sun” as a world power alongside Britain, France, Russia, and Austria-Hungary.

Unrest in Eastern Europe. In Eastern Europe, the growth of nationalism threatened to break up the large empires ruled by Austria-Hungary and the Ottomans. Both empires ruled millions of people of many ethnic groups. People like the Slavs had a strong sense of pride in their culture and resented foreign rule. As a result, during the early 1900s one crisis after another erupted in the



Garibaldi in Sicily Leading a force of volunteers called the Red Shirts, this bold military commander defeated the foreign rulers who controlled Sicily and southern Italy. The region then joined with several small states in the north to form the Kingdom of Italy. **Choice** Why did Italian nationalists join Garibaldi’s army?

Balkans, a troubled multicultural region in southeastern Europe. Tensions there eventually flared into World War I.

The Road to War

Nationalism and the Industrial Revolution fueled a European drive to build overseas empires. Using their military and economic power, European nations carved up much of Africa and Asia for their own use.

The scramble for colonies brought European countries into conflict with one another in Asia and Africa. More than once, after 1890, Europe found itself teetering on the brink of war. Although the conflicts were smoothed over, anger and hatred grew.

Nationalism and colonial rivalries led European nations to increase military spending by enlarging their armies and building navies. In the late 1800s, all European nations, but Germany in particular, glorified war and encouraged a spirit of militarism.

Alliance system. As tensions grew, European nations sought allies that would come to their aid in case of war. Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy formed the Triple Alliance. In response, France joined Russia and Britain in the Triple Entente (ahn TAHNT). These two alliances only intensified tensions. A crisis that involved one of the great powers now would also affect that nation's allies.

The powder keg explodes. By the early 1900s, Europeans viewed the Balkans as a "powder keg" that was ready to explode into war. Some Slavs had won freedom from the Ottoman Empire, but others in Bosnia and Hercegovina (hehrt seh goh VEE nah) were still ruled by Austria-Hungary.

In June 1914, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, visited Sarajevo (sar uh YAY voh), the capital of Bosnia. During the visit, a Bosnian nationalist shot and killed the archduke and his wife.

The assassination triggered a major crisis. Austria accused Serbia, a nearby Slavic state, of hatching the plot, and threatened war. As diplomats rushed to resolve the crisis, the alliance system was set into motion. Germany stood by its ally, Austria. In the meantime, Russia prepared to help its fellow Slavs in Ser-

bia. On August 1, 1914, Germany declared war on Russia. Within days, France and Britain were drawn into the conflict.

World War I

The war that broke out in August 1914 dragged on for four years. At the time, it was called the Great War. Later, it became known as World War I.

World War I involved all of the major European powers and many regions beyond Europe. On one side were the Central Powers—Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire. On the other side were the Allied Powers—Britain, France, and Russia. Eventually, more than 20 nations, including Italy and the United States, joined the Allies.

Stalemate. The war was fought on many fronts, or combat zones. On the western front—northern France and southern Belgium—France and Britain battled Germany. On the eastern front—from the Baltic to the Black Sea—Russia and Serbia battled Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire.

During much of the war, armies on the western front followed a strategy of trench warfare. Soldiers dug long trenches that were protected by mines and barbed wire. One side would shell the other and then send its troops "over the top" of the trenches to break through enemy lines. Hundreds of thousands of soldiers died in battles that won only a few dozen yards of territory. By November 1914, the war had settled into a stalemate, or situation in which no one could win.

Although Russia had the largest army in the war, its soldiers lacked weapons and skilled leadership. As a result, the Russians suffered terrible losses on the eastern front. After the Russian Revolution in 1917, Russia withdrew from the war. (See Chapter 33.)

New weapons. The Allied Powers and the Central Powers both used new weapons, such as machine guns and poison gas, that caused heavy casualties. The British introduced the armored tank. Both sides used aircraft, although mostly for observing enemy troop movements. At sea, German submarine attacks on merchant ships helped to draw the United States into the conflict in April 1917.



On the Western Front Warfare created a desolate “no man’s land” littered with the bodies of the dead. During this bloody combat, a poet wrote: “In Flanders fields the poppies blow/Between the crosses, row on row.” World War I cost Europe a generation of its young men. **Technology** What new military technology came into use during World War I?

The war ends. By the fall of 1917, large numbers of American troops were reaching Europe. Their arrival boosted the morale of Allied soldiers, who had been fighting for more than three years. When the Germans launched a final offensive in early 1918, Allied troops, bolstered by fresh American forces, beat back the attack and then pushed the Germans into retreat. On November 11, 1918, the Allies and Germany signed an armistice agreement, ending the Great War.

Peace settlements. In 1919, the victorious Allies met in Paris, France, to hammer out a peace settlement. President Woodrow Wilson of the United States had called for a “just peace.” He advised the Allies not to seek revenge against Germany. He also supported the principle of self-determination, or the right of national groups to form independent nations. In the end, however, in the Treaty of Versailles, the Allies imposed harsh terms on Germany, including heavy reparations, or payments for war damages.

Under the settlements, the Allies recognized new nations in Eastern Europe, but they ignored the principle of self-determination in other regions of the world. In the Middle East, for example, parts of the Ottoman Empire became British and French mandates. The Treaty of Versailles also set up a League

of Nations to settle disagreements between nations and prevent future wars.

Effects. World War I caused enormous property damage. Millions of people were killed, and millions more were seriously wounded. After the war, people lived with a sense of uncertainty. So many lives had been shattered that people could not feel secure. How could they be sure that war would never again destroy the hard-won peace? “We do not know what will be born,” wrote French writer Paul Valéry, “and we fear the future, not without reason.”

Rise of Dictators

During the 1920s and 1930s, the nations of Europe struggled to recover from the war. Many of them faced economic hardships and political unrest. The communist revolution in Russia created a fear that similar revolutions would take place in Western Europe.

In response to these conditions, many people turned to powerful leaders who promised their countries a glorious future. During this period, dictators emerged in Italy and Germany.

Fascist Italy. After World War I, Italy was plagued by economic and political problems. Workers in the cities went on strike. In the

country, landless peasants seized the property of wealthy landowners. In addition, many nationalists denounced the government because they felt that Italy had not gained enough territory in the Paris peace settlement.

An ambitious politician, Benito Mussolini, took advantage of the turmoil to gain power. He founded the Fascist party. Fascists glorified the state and supported nationalist expansion. They defended private property, which they believed should be regulated by the government, and despised communism. They also condemned democracy. Free elections, they argued, destroyed the unity of a nation. Above all, the Fascists glorified violence and war as ways to achieve national goals.

Mussolini ruled Italy as a dictator. He silenced critics, controlled the army and the schools, and organized a secret police. Promising to make Italy a great empire like ancient Rome, he invaded Ethiopia in East Africa.

Nazi Germany. After World War I, Germany experienced frequent turmoil. Extremist groups on the far right and the far left threatened to revolt. Runaway inflation and high reparations payments weakened the economy and the new democratic government that was formed after World War I.

In the early 1920s, Adolf Hitler gained control of the National Socialist, or Nazi, party. The Nazis were fascists whose program was based on nationalism, anti-communism, and anti-Semitism. Hitler won popular support by attacking the Treaty of Versailles. He blamed the Jews for Germany's defeat in World War I and for its economic problems. He promoted racism by claiming that Germans belonged to a superior "Aryan" race that was destined to rule the world. His supporters used violence to terrorize opponents, especially the communists.

In the 1930s, the Great Depression struck around the world. Germany was especially hard hit. Faced with disastrous unemployment, desperate Germans rallied behind Hitler's promises of national greatness. In 1933, Hitler became chancellor of Germany. The chancellor was head of the German government.

Hitler moved quickly to crush opposition parties. He set up a fascist state in which he was the *Führer*, or "leader." The Nazi party controlled every aspect of German life. The secret police arrested anyone who was suspected of opposing Nazi rule. The Nazis used the press, the schools, and even churches to spread their message. They also waged a violent campaign against Jews. They sent millions of Jews, as well as other opponents, to concentration camps. These camps later became places of horrifying mass murder.

The Nazis preached the need for hard work, sacrifice, and service to the state. To end unemployment, Hitler launched a vast building program and strengthened the German military. He also embarked on an aggressive campaign to expand German territory.

Nazi aggression. "Today Germany. Tomorrow the world!" declared one Nazi slogan. In violation of the Treaty of Versailles, in 1936, Hitler boldly sent German troops into the Rhineland. Two years later, Nazi Germany annexed Austria. Britain responded with a policy of **appeasement**, or making concessions to an aggressor in order to preserve peace. France, which was faced with economic and social crises itself, also acted to appease Hitler.

In 1938, Hitler threatened to invade Czechoslovakia. France and Britain agreed to give Germany a part of Czechoslovakia, hoping this would end Hitler's aggression. Six months later, however, Hitler seized the rest of Czechoslovakia.

The following year, Hitler signed a non-aggression treaty with the Soviet Union. In this treaty, Germany and the Soviet Union pledged not to attack each other. The Nazi-Soviet pact allowed Hitler to invade Poland without fear of Soviet attack. At the same time, it provided the Soviet Union with at least a temporary assurance that Hitler would not attack it right away.

World War II

The German invasion of Poland in September 1939 triggered World War II. Now, at



Germany at War Soldiers give the “Heil, Hitler!” salute on this poster, printed in 1943 to mark Hitler’s first 10 years in office. “One War — One Victory!” it proclaims. Yet when it appeared, the Allies had already landed in Italy and the German army was being pushed out of Russia. **Political System** How did Germany’s economic problems aid Hitler’s rise to power?

last, Britain and France declared war on Germany. The war pitted the Axis against the Allies. Germany, Italy, and Japan were the major Axis powers. The Allies eventually included Britain, France, the Soviet Union, the United States, China, and 45 other nations.

Axis advances. During the first years of the war, the Axis powers advanced across Europe. Hitler used a military strategy called **blitzkrieg**, or lightning war. German planes, tanks, artillery, and mechanized infantry launched a combined attack on a targeted country. By 1941, Germany had overrun Denmark, Norway, the Netherlands, Belgium, and

France. Joined by Italy, it also seized the Balkans and parts of North Africa.

German planes bombed British cities, hoping to weaken the island nation before invading it. For a while, the Battle of Britain, as it was called, seemed lost. Then, in June 1941, Hitler invaded the Soviet Union. The Germans pushed deep into that country before they were stopped by the harsh Russian winter and the fierce opposition of the Russian people.

In the Pacific, the Japanese seized French, British, and Dutch colonies in Southeast Asia. (See Chapter 18.) The Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941 brought the United States into the war. Japan, however, continued its advance, capturing the Philippines and other islands in the Pacific.

Turning the tide. Starting in 1942, the Allies slowly began to turn the tide of war. They stopped the Axis advance in North Africa and launched an invasion into Italy. Mussolini was forced out of power and eventually executed. The Soviet Union won a costly but crucial victory over the Germans in the east, at the Battle of Stalingrad, in 1942–1943.

On D-Day, June 6, 1944, the Allies landed on the coast of France, opening a new front. Despite heavy German resistance, they liberated France and pushed into Germany. At the same time, Soviet forces moved in from the east. Hitler committed suicide rather than face defeat. Finally, on May 7, 1945, Germany surrendered.

The Holocaust revealed. With the defeat of Germany, the Allies saw firsthand the atrocities committed by the Nazis. During the war, Hitler called for the extermination of all Jews in Europe. In concentration camps, the Nazis built gas chambers to carry out the genocide against Jews. About 6 million Jewish men, women, and children died in the **Holocaust**. Another 3 million to 6 million Poles, Gypsies, political enemies, and “undesirables” also were killed.

Elie Wiesel, a Romanian Jew, was a teenager when he was sent to a concentration camp. Years afterward, he described the horrors of the camp in his autobiographical novel *Night*:

World War II in Europe and North Africa



MAP STUDY

World War II was a worldwide conflict fought in the Pacific, Europe, and North Africa. The Axis Powers and the Allies waged long, bloody campaigns by land, air, and sea that finally ended in defeat for the Axis.

- 1. Region** (a) Which nation in Western Europe remained Allied territory in 1942? (b) What was the status of the countries in Eastern Europe in 1942?
- 2. Movement** Describe the Allied advances on Germany from the west.
- 3. Drawing Conclusions** (a) What advantages did Germany's and Italy's location give them during the war? (b) What disadvantages? Explain.

“Do you see that chimney over there? See it? Do you see those flames? . . . Over there—that’s where you’re going to be taken. That’s your grave, over there. Haven’t you realized it yet? . . . You’re going to be burned.

Frizzled away. Turned to ashes.’ . . . Not far from us, flames were leaping up from a ditch, gigantic flames. They were burning something. A truck drove up at the pit and delivered its load—little children! ”



Holocaust Survivors These prisoners were among the few who survived at the Buchenwald concentration camp. After the war, top Nazi officials were tried and sentenced to death for committing atrocities and other war crimes. **Justice** Why were Nazi leaders put on trial for genocide?

Effects of the war. World War II ended with the defeat of Japan in August 1945, when the United States dropped atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Japan surrendered a few days later. (See Chapter 18.)

World War II was the most destructive war in history. Some estimates say that more than 30 million people died in Europe alone, and perhaps as many as 60 million died throughout the world. Bombing destroyed or heavily damaged many cities in Europe and Asia. Throughout much of Europe, millions of homeless people wandered the streets in despair.

World War II reduced Western Europe's impact on world affairs. World leadership passed to two new superpowers—the United States and the Soviet Union. In the postwar world, European colonies in Africa and Asia sought independence. Weakened by war, the nations of Western Europe slowly gave in to the demands of nationalists.

To help prevent wars in the future, the nations of the world joined to form a new international agency, the United Nations (UN). Member nations agreed to submit disputes to the UN for peaceful settlement. They also pledged to work together to resolve the world problems of disease, hunger, and illiteracy.

SECTION 4 REVIEW

- 1. Locate:** (a) Italy, (b) Germany, (c) Czechoslovakia, (d) Poland.
- 2. Identify:** (a) Triple Alliance, (b) Triple Entente, (c) Treaty of Versailles, (d) Benito Mussolini, (e) Adolf Hitler, (f) D-Day.
- 3. Define:** (a) appeasement, (b) blitzkrieg, (c) Holocaust.
- 4.** Describe how each of the following contributed to the outbreak of World War I: (a) nationalism, (b) imperialism, (c) alliance system.
- 5.** (a) Why did many Italians support Mussolini? (b) Why was Hitler popular among many Germans?
- 6.** (a) List three events that led to the outbreak of World War II. (b) How did Western European nations respond to Hitler's aggression?
- 7. Applying Information** “Everything in the state, nothing outside the state, nothing against the state.” How does this statement sum up the goals of fascism?
- 8. Writing Across Cultures** In 1940, as German armies marched across Europe, Americans debated whether to sell arms to the Allies or remain strictly neutral. Write an editorial taking one side or the other and explaining your reasons for doing so.

CHAPTER 30 REVIEW

Understanding Vocabulary

Match each term at left with the correct definition at right.

- | | |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. predestination | a. belief that God had decided in advance whether an individual would be saved or condemned |
| 2. divine right | b. bringing workers and machines together in one place to manufacture goods |
| 3. factory system | c. making concessions to an aggressor in order to preserve peace |
| 4. franchise | d. right to vote |
| 5. appeasement | e. theory that a ruler's authority came from God |

Reviewing the Main Ideas

1. Describe two themes explored by Renaissance artists and writers.
2. Describe three advances made during the Scientific Revolution.
3. Why was Britain the leader in the Industrial Revolution?
4. How did democracy grow in the 1800s?
5. Why were some nations unhappy with the peace settlements ending World War I?
6. Describe two causes and two effects of World War II.

Reviewing Chapter Themes

1. The Renaissance, Reformation, and Enlightenment led to the growth of new ideas. Give examples of two of the following: (a) Renaissance ideas about learning and the individual, (b) Reformation ideas about the individual and religion, (c) Enlightenment ideas about the individual and government.
2. By the 1600s, modern states were emerging in Europe. Describe the major steps in the development of the modern nations of (a) France and (b) Britain.
3. Industrialization altered the economies and societies of Western European nations. (a) How did the Industrial Revolution strengthen European nations economically? (b) What social changes did it cause?

4. Nationalism was both a positive and a negative force in Europe during the 1800s and 1900s. (a) How did nationalism contribute to the growth of new nations? (b) What role did nationalism play in the outbreak of World War I and World War II?

Thinking Critically

1. **Making Global Connections** What political ideas and traditions did the United States inherit from Europe?
2. **Drawing Conclusions** Under what conditions do you think a dictator is most likely to gain power? Explain.

Applying Your Skills

1. **Analyzing a Quotation** The Declaration of the Rights of Man states, "The aim of all political association is the preservation of the natural . . . rights of man. These rights are liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression." (a) How does this statement reflect Enlightenment ideas? (b) How were these ideas part of the French Revolution?
2. **Reading a Map** Study the map on page 681. (a) What was the westernmost nation to fall under Nazi control? (b) Which Western European nations remained neutral during World War II? (c) From what areas did the Allies launch their invasions of Sicily and France? (See Skill Lesson, page 48.)