Modern Times (1900 CE to Present)

A THUMBNAIL VIEW

- Due to improvements in nutrition and healthcare, and the decrease of the death rate, the world population went from 1 billion people in 1900 to over 6 billion today. The movement of people has also increased throughout the world, with many in search of better economic opportunities. Some refugees, too, are being forced to leave their homelands. Though healthcare has improved tremendously, epidemic diseases such as AIDS and malaria have continued to plague the world, particularly in developing countries with the least access to new medicines.
- Traditional social structures have been challenged as a result of movements that have attempted to empower the working and peasant classes, such as the introduction of communist governments in various parts of the world. As the European Union develops and becomes more interconnected and religious fundamentalism grows, are nation-states losing their political hold?
- Women gained the right to vote in many parts of the world as well as access to new economic opportunities and
 education. The development of the birth control pill empowered women by allowing them to control their own
 reproductive systems.
- The world became more and more integrated through technology, cultures blended, and some came to dominate. At the same time, religious fundamentalism has developed in some regions, possibly to combat this Western-dominated global culture. The pace and rate of interaction has grown rapidly during this period. From the world wars to the United Nations to the World Trade Organization, the world became closely connected, not always with positive results.
- The rise of the nation-state and nationalism led to the adoption of political systems from totalitarianism to democracy. At the same time, the rise of a more globally connected world may blur the lines of the nation-state. Intellectually, the developments of the 20th century boggle the mind. From the airplane to the atom bomb, discoveries in math, science, and technology have revolutionized how we live.
- The world wars demonstrated the influence of technology on warfare, but they also signaled the decline of Europe as the global power. Colonial areas asserted themselves and fought for independence, but they were later faced with a new global conflict called the Cold War. Since then, nations have made attempts at both economic and political reforms, and international and multinational organizations have attempted to form a new world order. The

> AP EXPERT TIP

Throughout your review of World History, try to keep in mind the help-ful acronym "PERSIA" (Political, Economic, Religious, Social, Intellectual, and Arts) and look for these currents existing or emerging during various periods.

development of nuclear weapons changed the nature of war. During the Cold War, the major goal was to stop the other side from dominating. Now that more nations have access to weapons of mass destruction, diplomatic issues are more important than ever.

WORLD CONFLICTS

World War I

On June 28, 1914, the heir to the Austrian throne was assassinated by a Serbian Slav nationalist. Austria accused Serbia of supporting Yugoslav (southern Slavic) nationalism and declared war. Russia sided with Serbia, while Germany pledged support for Austria. When Germany declared war on Russia, France joined Russia. Great Britain was the last major European power to commit to war, when Germany violated Belgium's neutrality on its way to attack France. In World War I, the use of machine guns and gas led to a significant increase in casualties. The war became defensive as **trenches** were built and defended. Civilians, too, were involved in the war effort, as women entered the workforce.

Long-Term Causes of WWI

- Alliances: The alliance system had led to many open and secret agreements between nations. Most of these were
 defensive plans that would protect a nation in the event it was attacked.
- · Imperialism: Tensions stemmed from imperialism and competition for foreign colonies, as in Africa.
- Militarism: The arms race between the major powers—Germany and Britain, which were building increasingly large fleets—also led to a hope that military leaders would fight sooner rather than later.
- Nationalism: After the successful creation of Italy and Germany by 1870, other ethnic groups like the Poles, Bosnians, Czechs, and Yugoslavs hoped for nations of their own. Pan-Germanism came into direct conflict with Pan-Slavism. An eagerness to redraw the map of Europe was mounting.

THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

After defeating Germany, Austria-Hungary, and their allies, the leading Allied powers—Italy, Great Britain, France, and the United States—were labeled the "Big Four." They called a conference at the palace of Versailles. The treaty laid down harsh terms for Germany. The map of Europe was redrawn, but Italy was not satisfied. Other nations such as Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and Yugoslavia were all created in 1919. President Woodrow Wilson entered the Versailles meetings with his plan, called the **Fourteen Points.** In it, he called for self-determination (the right of people to choose their own form of government), free trade, disarmament, fair treatment of colonial peoples, and the establishment of the **League of Nations.** The League of Nations was established in Geneva, Switzerland, in 1921.

Impact of the War on the Allies

- Though victorious, Britain was profoundly affected by the Great War. It had lost a significant percentage of its youth, and its economy was strained.
- Italy was one of the Allied leadership nations and had been promised large pieces of the Austrian Empire when the Allies won. Italy continued to press for more territory along the Adriatic coast.
- The United States was elevated to a world-power status but was not really interested in playing that role. Conservatives
 won the White House and the country largely retreated from European affairs.

Germany had lost millions of troops and was forced to pay huge reparations to the Allies. Germany lost all of its overseas empire, along with provinces on both its eastern and western borders. The Kaiser abdicated and fled Germany, leaving a political vacuum. A new government was assembled in Weimar in 1919. A weak democratic Germany with a president and chancellor was created. As for the Middle East, the Ottoman Empire collapsed in 1918. Turkey declared itself a republic and, under the leadership of Ataturk, followed a program of modernization. Arab nationalism rose. In exchange for their help against the Central Powers, Arabs had been promised freedom. Instead, their land was carved into French and British mandates. A center of tension was the British mandate of Palestine where Arab nationalists competed with Zionists for control of the land, land they had both been vaguely promised by the Allies.

Important Powers

Russia was in shambles as the revolution gave way to civil war after 1918. Russia was not a party to the Versailles treaty because it had withdrawn from the war. The forces of the left led by the Bolsheviks and the supporters of the czar (Whites) fought to control Russia. It took two years of bitter fighting and the deaths of perhaps a million Russians for the Reds to claim victory and declare the birth of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Japan had fought on the Allied side during the war and hoped to add to its empire. It did not get what it wanted at Versailles, and a postwar economic downturn led to hard times.

When Japan gained some German concessions in China through the treaty, there were riots in Beijing to protest. This led to a surge of nationalism in China and to a cultural and intellectual period known as the May Fourth Movement, which resulted in the formation of the Nationalist Party.

India fought on the side of the British in World War I and had been promised self-government after the war, but little change occurred. This led to a surge in Indian nationalism and, under the leadership of Mohandas Gandhi, the eventual independence of India in 1947.

Global Depression

The economy of the United States was crucial to the health of world markets. When the stock market collapsed in October 1929, American and foreign investors lost billions of dollars. The impact was especially severe in Europe, which had depended on American loans to recover from World War I. The wave of bank failures in the United States had a ripple effect in London, Berlin, and Tokyo. The bond market also shrank, and many investors were caught off guard as they tried to cover huge losses. Global unemployment rose, and the United States passed the highest tariff (a tax on imports) in its history, further hindering international trade.

The hardships of the Depression led to political instability and a rise in political extremism. Communists criticized the failings of capitalism, while fascists on the right sought to protect private enterprise. Japan, Italy, and Germany looked to dictatorial rule in an effort to pull out of economic hardship. In the 1930s in Japan, the military replaced civilian politicians. Lacking natural resources, Japan needed to procure crucial minerals for its own industrial needs. It

Causes of Global Depression

- Overdependence on American loans and buying
- Increase in tariffs and protectionism
- Industrial and farming surpluses leading to deflation
- Poor banking management

had already gained Taiwan and Korea, but it now fixed its eye on northeast China. Japan's invasion of Manchuria in 1931 led to protests, but the Japanese kept their new territory and soon left the League of Nations. Similarly, Italy invaded Ethiopia in 1935.

RISE OF FASCIST AND TOTALITARIAN STATES

Italy

The triumph of Marxist revolution in Russia after 1921 had great impact on world political thinking in the 1920s, and fear about the spread of communism led to new political movements. It was in Italy that the first expression of anti-communism emerged. A small group of men led by the fascist Benito Mussolini marched on Rome in 1922, demanding that they be allowed to form a government. The king gave in to this demand, and Italy was soon dominated by Mussolini.

Soviet Union

Lenin, the architect of the Russian Revolution, died of a stroke seven years after the revolution. The power struggle within the Bolshevik party led to the rise of **Josef Stalin**, who took control in 1927. Stalin's ruthless elimination of all his rivals allowed him to take complete power by the 1930s. His leadership became associated with Soviet communism and is also called **Stalinism**.

Germany

Germany rebuilt its government as a parliamentary democracy. Burdened with war debts and inflation, the new government tried to reestablish Germany's place in the international arena. With the Depression, many feared that Germany would become the next communist state. One of the political parties was the National Socialist German Workers' Party

Fascism as an Ideology

- Opposition to communism as a threat to tradition and private property
- · Ultra-nationalism and glorification of the state
- Militarism and glorification of war as the ultimate expression of power
- · Alliances with big business and destruction of the labor unions
- Rejection of liberalism and democracy, which were seen as weak and ineffective

Stalinism as Practiced

- Centralized control of the economy
- · World leadership of the international communist movement
- · Forced collectivization of all farming
- · Promotion of atheism and repression of organized religion

Totalitarian Regime

- · A single leader with almost unquestioned authority
- · A single party in charge of all government
- · Creation of a police state to terrorize and control the populace
- · Aggressive elimination of all opposition groups

(the Nazi Party). Its leader, Adolf Hitler, spoke out against communism and used anti-Semitic racism to suggest that communism was a global conspiracy organized by Jewish people. Hitler also preached ultra-nationalism and the promise of a greater Germany. In 1933, he was appointed chancellor through aggressive anti-communist propaganda. He became dictator, or führer, within a few years by eliminating most of his political opponents. He reorganized the government by inserting the Nazi party into many areas of national life.

The League of Nations

The Treaty of Versailles had created a League of Nations, an organization made up of mostly European nations but also Ethiopia, Japan, Siam, and many Latin American nations. The United States, which was conservative and isolationist after World War I, never joined. The League was never successful on a large scale with its primary purpose of stopping international conflict. The League failed to act after the Japanese invasion of Manchuria, the Italian invasion of Ethiopia, and the Spanish Civil War. This emboldened Hitler, who began his own expansion of German territory within Europe unopposed. The policy of appeasement culminated in the 1939 Munich Agreement in which Britain and France handed Hitler a largely German-speaking population in northern Czechoslovakia. Despite its many failings, the League had some successes, notably with combating malaria in Europe, stopping labor abuses, limiting the distribution of opium products, and further stopping the slave trade in Africa and Asia.

The Spanish Civil War

In the 1930s, Spain was barely industrialized, with a growing urban population and a largely semifeudalistic countryside controlled by the rich and the Roman Catholic Church. In 1932, the king abdicated, and a republic was created. The first republican government was very liberal and attempted to introduce many reforms such as universal, nonreligious education, equality for women, and land reforms. After an even more liberal government was elected in 1936, officers in the army, led by General Francisco Franco, revolted and began a civil war that lasted for four years. Franco defeated the Republican forces in 1939 and ruled as a fascist until his death in 1975.

World War II

As in the years before 1914, there were tense matchups between nations, which would eventually lead to war breaking out. Historians debate when the Second World War began. While many point to the German invasion of Poland in 1939, the war in Asia had been going on since the Japanese invasion of China in 1937. Events in Europe affected the Asian conflict, especially when Germany overran France in 1940. This allowed Japan to take French Indochina, which had rubber and tin that the Japanese wanted for their military machine.

From 1938 to 1942, the territorial expansionism of both Japan and Germany was impressive. The Germans first succeeded in taking control of most of Eastern and Northern Europe with few casualties. The Royal Air Force managed to defend England, and Hitler turned his attention to the Soviet Union. In 1941, Germany launched a surprise invasion against the USSR, and Japan attacked the U.S. Navy in Hawaii. By mid-1942, Japan controlled most of the western Pacific Ocean from New Guinea to the Aleutians, and Germany controlled most of Europe and parts of North Africa. But the Germans were turned back at Stalingrad, and the Japanese lost a large naval battle near Midway Island in June of 1942. From that point on, the industrial capacities of the United States and the USSR were able to outproduce the Axis powers.

Millions were killed in both Asia and Europe, as camps were set up to murder political enemies. China and Poland were the scenes of slaughter, and the death toll in Europe alone is estimated at 20 million; communists, labor leaders, Jews, homosexuals, the mentally disabled, and Gypsies were killed. Six million of Europe's 9.5 million Jews were killed in the Nazis' Holocaust. Millions of Chinese were also killed as the Japanese pushed across Asia.

The Germans and British developed radar to detect each other's planes. Sonar was invented to locate unseen submarines. Rockets were used in war for the first time-most notably by the Germans as they delivered explosives to Britain. The most powerful weapon was the nuclear bomb that America used against the Japanese. Two bombs were dropped, on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, killing over 150,000 people and forcing the surrender of Japan in August 1945.

Civilians in War

World War II saw the first deliberate targeting of civilians as a strategy to defeat the opposing side. From the Spanish Civil War to the Japanese "Rape of Nanjing" to the Nazi Holocaust to Allied firebombing of first German and then Japanese cities, civilians became direct targets in the war. This culminated in the dropping of both atomic bombs to end the war in the Pacific. New types of media (radio and cinema) propagandized the war. Terrorism, the deliberate use of violence for political purposes designed to influence a population's attitude, became a new tool in war.

Much of the responsibility for settling postwar problems fell on the newly created **United Nations** (UN). Led by the five Allied victors of the war (United States, USSR, Great Britain, France, and the Republic of China), the UN established relief agencies and peacekeeping. The United States took on many of the costs of postwar rehabilitation. The UN is a confederation that nations join voluntarily. The **General Assembly** is a forum for discussing world problems. It cannot pass laws but can suggest resolutions. The UN has three responses to military aggression:

- 1. Diplomatic protest and pressure brought to bear on the belligerent nation
- 2. Economic sanctions used to pressure the aggressor nation
- 3. Collective military action by member states to defend the nation(s) being attacked

Outcomes of WWII

- World War II only had two "winners" since many of the Allied powers were devastated (especially France and China).
 Britain was crippled economically and was already losing control of parts of its empire. Possession of the A-bomb meant that the United States was now alone at the pinnacle of power, and except for the attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941, none of its territory was damaged.
- The Soviet Union had faced annihilation and survived to emerge as a great military power. Its losses had been almost 27 million people, and whole tracts of land had been decimated. Once victorious, the USSR participated in the founding of the United Nations and in the War Crimes Tribunal.

The Cold War (1945-1989)

The United States and the USSR, allies during the war, soon developed an ideological and territorial rivalry that would dominate world affairs for over 40 years. The Soviet Union sought to control the nations on its western frontier, partly as a promoter of communism but also to create a buffer to protect itself from future invasions. The United States protested, as this was in violation of wartime agreements. Eventually, a de facto division took place, which divided Europe into a capitalist West and a communist East. In the middle of it all stood the divided former capital of Germany. Postwar Berlin had British, Russian, French, and American troops stationed in close proximity to one another. War almost erupted in 1948 when the Russians sealed off the city, denying the others access, but they finally relented.

The following year, the USSR exploded its own nuclear device, and the rivalry with the United States turned into outright animosity and competition. By the mid-1950s, relations between the Soviet Union and the **People's Republic of China** had cooled. The United States took advantage of the Sino-Soviet split and normalized relations with China in the 1970s. The Cold War took on more of a tri-polar feel, as China had its own nuclear weapons and space program by the 1970s. It all came to an end when the Soviet Union collapsed in 1991.

Competition between the United States and USSR

- Technological: The race to build bigger and more destructive weaponry intensified after the USSR tested its first nuclear bomb in 1949. The thermonuclear bomb (H-bomb) followed in the 1950s. Space technology created new competition when the USSR launched the first satellite in 1957. After this, there was a "space race" and then a "moon race," with both nations hoping to be the first. Landing on the moon by the United States in 1969 and Soviet space stations of the 1970s were some of the by-products of this competition.
- Geopolitical: Both superpowers vied for influence across the globe, especially in the developing nations of Asia and Africa. Wars in Korea, Vietnam, India, Afghanistan, and Angola were fought with weapons provided by the Americans and Soviets.

INDEPENDENCE AND NATIONALIST PROGRESSION

India

India's nationalist movement was led by the British-educated members of the Indian National Congress. The Government of India Act of 1919 transferred some power to the Congress, but the government cracked down on freedom of the press and assembly. Later that year, at Amritsar, a British general ordered troops to fire on a protest rally, and colonial rule lost its legitimacy. Under the leadership of Mohandas Gandhi, the Indian nationalist movement grew. His use of ahimsa (nonviolence) and civil disobedience against unjust laws effectively challenged British authority. Gandhi was unsuccessful, however, in allying with Muslim leadership, and a movement to create a separate Muslim state gained strength. On August 15, 1947, independence was granted to India and Pakistan (the Muslim-dominated area led by Muhammad Ali Jinnah). This division led to a mass migration of Muslim and Hindu refugees and terrible violence. Gandhi was devastated by the division of India and was later assassinated by a Hindu radical.

Sub-Saharan Africa

By 1914, almost all of Africa had been carved up by European powers. Economically, it had been transformed into a monoculture of cash crops and mines of precious metals such as gold and diamonds. Labor organizations, social clubs, literary circles, and youth movements all became vehicles for protest. The process of independence itself varied widely across Africa. The Gold Coast, later Ghana, was the first to achieve its independence in 1957. Led by the U.S.-educated Kwame Nkrumah, strikes and protests were used to remove the British from power. Kenya had a sizable European population that blocked independence; this led to an armed revolt and eventual independence in 1963. The Belgian government departed the Congo suddenly in 1959, leaving behind chaos and civil war. The political borders created by the European colonial powers led to nations that were comprised of unrelated ethnic groups who often became rivals competing for power. This led to ethnic tension in many areas of Africa, including Rwanda, where conflict between the majority Hutus and minority Tutsis led to a 100-day genocide, resulting in the deaths of almost 1 million Tutsis in 1994.

The Union of South Africa was formed in 1910 from former British colonies, but the majority black population was granted no rights. Instead, segregation laws were enacted; this system was known as apartheid. Under apartheid, 87 percent of the territory was designated for white citizens, and the remaining area was for black citizens. But, under the leadership of the African National Congress (ANC), an organized resistance was formed. International opposition against South Africa, like the United Nations economic sanctions and international boycotts, attracted global attention. Finally, in 1989, the National Party began to take apart the apartheid system. Nelson Mandela was released from jail after 26 years, and the ANC was legalized. In 1994, Mandela became the first freely elected president of South Africa.

Zionism and Palestinian Nationalism

Following World War I, the British held a mandate (a system in which a nation administers a territory on behalf of the League of Nations) in Palestine. It made conflicting promises to the Palestinian Arabs and the Jews. In the Balfour Declaration of 1917, the British government committed to support the creation of a homeland for Jews in Palestine, and allowed Jews to migrate to Palestine during the mandate period. The Arab Palestinians saw British rule and Jewish settlement as forms of imperial control, however. By the end of the war, the pan-Arabism movement opposed the creation of a Jewish state, and the Holocaust increased the Jewish commitment to the creation of a homeland. By 1947, the British gave up the mandate and turned the land over the United Nations, which had plans to divide the area into two states. A civil war ensued, and Jewish victories led to the creation of the Jewish state of Israel on May 1948. Continued fighting has plagued this region, including the Six Day War in 1967. The Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO) was created and is dedicated to reclaiming the land and establishing a Palestinian state.

Vietnam

The French colonial rule of Southeast Asia struggled with rising nationalism. Both France and her colonies were occupied by the Axis powers during World War II. A group of Vietnamese nationalists, under the leadership of Marxist Ho Chi Minh, first fought the Japanese during the war and then began a guerrilla campaign against the returning French. Minh hoped that the United States would support his movement, but growing tensions between the United States and the USSR worked against him. The French-Indochina War lasted a gruesome nine years before defeat at Dien Bien Phu forced France to admit it could not keep its Asian possessions. A conference in Geneva in 1954 created four zones out of the former French Indochina: North and South Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia. After the French departure, Vietnam became a Cold War sideshow: the United States gave aid to the south, while Beijing and Moscow supported the communists in the north. This evolved into a large-scale American war after 1965, as the United States tried to protect South Vietnam from communist encroachment. The costly effort failed, ending in a negotiated peace and communist victory in 1975.

POLITICAL REBELLIONS

Russia

By 1914, Russia was far behind Western Europe economically and technologically. It lacked the capital to build its own industry, was in debt to foreign investors, and was agriculturally unproductive. Losses in the Russo-Japanese War highlighted Russia's technological backwardness. After the Revolution of 1905, the czar allowed a legislative body (the **Duma**) to be assembled, but it was often dismissed if not in agreement with the czar.

During World War I, Russian casualties numbered over 2 million, and that led to more tension throughout the country. Among other things, worker strikes began. The disorder and chaos during March of 1917 allowed the Duma to force the czar to abdicate the throne and put a provisional government in power. The government decided to stay in the war, and food shortages, revolts, and continued strikes led to more disorder. Vladimir Lenin, the leader of the Bolsheviks, promised the people "Peace, Land, Bread"—exactly what they needed.

In November of 1917, Lenin's party seized power; in March of 1918, it signed the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** with Germany, ending Russia's part in the war. For the next few years, a civil war raged throughout Russia between the Reds (communists) and the Whites (Loyalists). The **Bolshevik government** took control of the land, banks, and industries and used the **Cheka**, the secret police, to keep an eye on its people. However, the aftermath of World War I and civil war included a severe drought that resulted in widespread famine, so Lenin decided to take a more moderate course of action.

The New Economic Policy (NEP) instituted in 1921 allowed peasants to sell their products, but the government still controlled banking, trade, and heavy industry. Lenin died in 1924, and after a power struggle, Joseph Stalin came to power. Stalin instituted his Five-Year Plans with the goal of increasing industrial and agricultural productivity. Individual farms became collectivized (those who refused collectivization were killed, numbering over 14.5 million), and agricultural productivity declined, leading to great hardship. Industrial productivity increased a few years later, however, when Western Europe and the United States were hurting from the Great Depression. The Russian people experienced tremendous oppression during Stalin's Great Purges of the 1930s. Thousands were tried and executed and millions were imprisoned.

China

China was on the winning side of both world wars, but few nations suffered more from World War II. Technically, the Nationalist (Guomindang) government had been ruling China since the Revolution of 1911, but in reality, the country was fragmented into warlord-dominated zones. Sun Yixian, the father of modern China, died in 1925 and a young army officer named Jiang Jieshi inherited leadership of the struggling Republic of China. After 1921, a new dynamic in the nation was exhibited by the founding of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP). Jiang tried to work with the communists until he turned on them in 1927, driving them underground. Communists were tracked down throughout the 1930s until they retreated to the north and reorganized. The Japanese attacks in 1931 and 1937 rallied all of China to the defense of the nation. When Japan invaded, Chinese nationalists and communists alike tried to cooperate in their fight against the Japanese, but there was little trust.

After Japan surrendered in 1945, the United States tried to encourage formation of a coalition government, but negotiations broke down and civil war resumed. For three years, the CCP and the Nationalist Guomindang (GMD) fought each other. The communists prevailed in 1949, and their leader, Mao Zedong, proclaimed the birth of the People's Republic of China (PRC) from Beijing as the nationalists fled to Taiwan to regroup.

Mao's Initial Changes to China

Economic:

- All businesses were nationalized.
- · Land was distributed to peasants.
- Peasants were urged to pool their land and work more efficiently on cooperative farms.

Political:

- A one-party totalitarian state was established.
- Communist party became supreme.
- Government attacked crime and corruption.

Social:

- Peasants were encouraged to "speak bitterness" against landlords (10,000 landlords were killed as a result)
- Communist ideology replaced Confucian beliefs.
- Schools were opened with emphasis on political education.
- · Health care workers were sent to remote areas.
- · Women won equality (but had little opportunity in government and were paid less than men).
- The extended family was weakened:

In order to increase agricultural and industrial production, Mao instituted a new plan in the late 1950s. In the Great Leap Forward, which aimed to increase agricultural and industrial output, all life was to be collective—family houses were torn down, and commune life replaced family life. Backyard steel furnaces were set up to use scrap metal to make iron and steel. The Great Leap Forward proved to be a great failure. Initial production statistics were grossly inflated, and the backyard furnaces did not turn out iron of acceptable quality. The policies of the Great Leap Forward, combined with the bad weather of the 1950s and 1960s, led to the deaths of at least 16 million Chinese. As a result, some modifications were made to the system. Mao's second major initiative was the Cultural Revolution of the 1960s. In an effort to re-revolutionize China, a group of university students known as the Red Guards rampaged through cities, ordered the destruction of temples, and closed schools. The military was eventually needed to suppress the anarchy created by the Red Guards. The Cultural Revolution cost the country an entire generation of educated people.

The Role of Women during the Russian and Chinese Revolutions Russia Women served in the Red Army New marriage law forbade arranged marriage Women worked alongside men in factories. Government ordered equal pay (not enforced) Maternity leave with full pay was established Women entered professions. China New marriage law forbade arranged marriage. Women worked alongside men in factories. State-run nurseries were set up to care for children. Party leadership remained male. Efforts were made to end foot binding.

Mexico

In the late 19th and beginning of the 20th centuries, Mexico was ruled by the dictatorship of Portfino Diaz. Under this rule, 95 percent of the people owned no land, and foreign investors owned 20–25 percent of the land. Very little changed after the independence movement of the 1830s. In 1910, the people rose up against Diaz, and a civil war ensued. Many of the leaders, who were mestizos, wanted to break the control of the Creole elite. Leaders such as Pancho Villa and Emiliano Zapata advocated land reform. Power changed hands continually throughout the civil war, as leaders were assassinated or overthrown. Eventually, conservative forces won out, and Venustiano Carranza became president in 1917. He convened an assembly to write the Constitution of 1917. The Constitution promised land reform, imposed restrictions on foreign economic control, set minimum salaries and maximum hours for workers, granted the right to unionize and strike, and placed restrictions on Church ownership of property and control over education. In 1929, the National Revolutionary Party, later named the Party of Institutionalized Revolution (PRI), was organized. The PRI dominated Mexican politics for the remainder of the century, instituting land redistribution and standing up to foreign companies, while suppressing opposition. In 2000, Vicente Fox Quesada, the candidate of the National Action Party (PAN), was elected the 69th president of Mexico, ending PRI's 71-year-long control of the office.

Iran

The Shah Muhammad Reza Pahlavi, who ruled Iran from 1953 to 1979, was heavily influenced by the West and pushed to modernize his country. He was oppressive, using secret police to monitor his people. Opposition to the shah's rule came from three camps: the religious ulama, who felt that traditional religion was being suppressed; students and intellectuals, who felt deprived of freedom; and farmers and urban workers, who were hurt by inflation and unemployment.

In 1979, demonstrations led by the religious leader Ayatollah Khomeini forced the shah into exile. Under Khomeini's rule, the sharia (Islamic law) became the law of the land. Women, for instance, were required to return to traditional Islamic clothing and were also placed under legal restrictions. Some women saw this return to tradition as a stand against Western imperialism.

Cuba

From 1940 to 1944, and again from 1952 to 1959, Cuba was ruled by the dictatorship of Fulgencio Batista, under which a small percentage of people were very wealthy and the masses of peasants were quite poor. Fidel Castro organized a guerrilla movement, which initially failed but eventually captured power in 1959. Though he had promised to hold elections, Castro did not do so. At first, Castro denied that he was a communist, but when he established close ties with the USSR, the United States viewed him as a threat. In 1961, Castro announced his communist plans for Cuba: collectivized farms, centralized control of the economy, and free education and medical services. Tensions with the United States continued when a group of Cuban exiles in 1961, supported by the United States, attempted a failed invasion, known as the Bay of Pigs. In 1962, a standoff known as the Cuban Missile Crisis occurred when Soviet missiles were discovered in Cuba. The United States and the Soviet Union compromised, and a third world war was avoided. Castro resigned from office in 2008 because of health issues and was succeeded by his brother Raul. The world is anxious to see the extent to which the younger Castro enacts reforms aimed at economic and political liberalization.

POLITICAL TRANSFORMATION AND ECONOMIC SHIFTS

China

After Mao died in 1976, Deng Xiaoping came to power and instituted a new program of economic modernization. The Four Modernizations were the following: industry, agriculture, technology, and national defense. Foreign investment was encouraged, and thousands of students were sent abroad to study. As a result of these capitalist reforms, the economy boomed. Deng, however, was criticized for not enacting democratic reforms. Criticism of the past was acceptable, as long as it didn't directly involve criticism of Marxist ideology. In May of 1989, massive student demonstrations occurred in Tiananmen Square. Students called for democratic reforms but instead were met with troops and tanks sent to crush the rebellion. The early 2000s witnessed the emergence of China as a global economic power, which resulted from policies that promoted economic liberalization.

India

After independence from the British, India adopted under the leadership of Nehru a parliamentary political system based on that of Britain. The state took ownership of major industries, resources, transportation, and utilities, but local and retail businesses and farmland remained private. Unlike Gandhi, Nehru advocated industrialization. India's foreign policy was one of nonalignment during the polarized Cold War. Tension continued with Muslim Pakistan when war broke out over the disputed land of Kashmir. Nehru's daughter, Indira Gandhi, later became prime minister and was deeply concerned about the growing population. As a result, she adopted a policy of forced sterilization that was extremely unpopular. Also, militant Sikhs in the Punjab demanded autonomy, and Gandhi ordered the rebels attacked. She was later assassinated by her Sikh bodyguard in 1984.

Soviet Union/Russia

After the death of Stalin, Khrushchev came to power in 1953 and initiated a de-Stalinization movement, which criticized Stalin's faults and encouraged more freedom of expression. From 1964 to 1982, Brezhnev maintained power and retreated from de-Stalinization. He instead took a restrictive policy toward dissidents and free expression. During this period, industrial growth declined; the primary problem was the absence of incentives and a system of quotas. When Gorbachev came to power in 1985, he introduced his policy of perestroika (restructuring), which marked the beginning of a market economy with limited free enterprise and some private property. His policy of glasnost (openness) encouraged a discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of the Soviet system. The formation of other parties and two-candidate elections were also introduced. The Soviet Union, however, had major problems with its multiethnic population, and tensions rose along with the development of nationalist movements. The republics soon opted for independence, and the USSR came to an end, as did the Cold War.

In December of 1991, Gorbachev resigned and **Boris Yeltsin** came to power. As the new ruler of Russia, Yeltsin pushed for economic reform, fighting economic inequality and corruption. He attempted to address Russia's economic problems with free market reforms. Price controls were ended and privatization begun. As a result of these policies, the poverty rate skyrocketed, reaching over 40 percent by mid-1993. In December 1999, Yeltsin resigned, and the post went to the Prime Minister, Vladimir Putin. Putin then won the 2000 presidential election.

Under Putin, consumption and investment have helped the Russian economy grow for nine consecutive years, improving the standard of living. However, many reforms made during the Putin presidency have been criticized as being undemocratic. In March 2008, Dmitry Medvedev was elected President of Russia, and Putin became Prime Minister.

Eastern Europe

The Soviet Union heavily influenced its satellite states in Eastern Europe following World War II, installing communist leaders and closely monitoring their progress. In 1956, a student-led protest in Hungary expressed discontent, and the Soviet army was sent in to crush them. In 1968 in Czechoslovakia, a movement (known as the Prague Spring) began in the hopes of creating a form of socialism with more freedom of speech and economic freedom. This movement was short-lived, however, after Soviet troops invaded with the intention of crushing it. Throughout the communist-controlled period, Eastern Europe did experience a rise in education and an increase in the urban working class. The former "privileged class" was removed and replaced by a new privileged class—members of the Communist Party. As the USSR was declining in the 1980s, liberation movements spread throughout the area. An independent labor movement, Solidarity led by Lech Walesa, fought for change in Poland. Czechoslovakia split into the Czech Republic and Slovakia in 1994. In East Germany, mass demonstrations in the summer and fall of 1989 led to the opening of the border with West Germany, the tearing down of the Berlin Wall, and the eventual reunification of Germany. Now that Soviet domination was removed, Eastern European countries moved to join NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) and the EU (European Union). Beginning in 1990, ethnic conflict began in Yugoslavia, and under the Serbian leadership of Slobodan Milosevic, a policy of ethnic cleansing in Bosnia and Kosovo was instituted. In 2000, Milosevic was ousted from power, and he was tried for war crimes at the International War Crimes Tribunal.

More recently, two former Soviet republics were the sites of bloodless democratic revolutions. The Rose Revolution took place in Georgia in November 2003 after widespread protests over disputed parliamentary elections. As a result of these protests, Georgian President Eduard Shevardnadze was forced to resign. The Orange Revolution was a series of protests and political events that took place in Ukraine from late 2004 to early 2005 as a result of electoral fraud and intimidation. This successful democratic revolution was marked by a series of acts of civil disobedience, sit-ins, and general strikes organized by the opposition movement. The world waits to see if these revolutions will be the final step from authoritarian to democratic rule for states that endured almost 50 years of Soviet rule.

Japan

For the five years following World War II, Japan was governed by an Allied administration, which instituted a constitution, land reforms, and an education system. The goal was to make Japan economically strong so it could serve as a defense against communism in East Asia. The Japanese and United States formed a defensive alliance, which allowed Japan to spend almost no money on its own defense—less than 1 percent of its gross domestic product. Japan experienced tremendous growth through the development of an export economy, with a large focus on technology. In recent years, however, Japan has suffered economic difficulties, with long-lasting economic stagnation that began in the 1990s and still continues today. Culturally, it has become a more individualistic society, but it retains an emphasis on strong work ethic.

DEMOGRAPHIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONCERNS

The world's population has grown tremendously in the last 150 years, topping over 6 billion people just before 2000 CE. Improved life expectancy rates through the use of vaccines, sophisticated sewage systems, new medicines, and education contributed to this rise. Birth rates in the West dropped significantly, while birth rates in Asia and Africa increased dramatically. China and India both have populations over a billion, despite the one-child policy in China and birth control programs in India. Migration has increased throughout the past century, both internally (when people move from rural to urban areas or when they flee urban areas due to civil strife) and externally (when people migrate long distances across borders in search of better conditions). Factors include a lack of resources, job opportunities, and religious or ethnic persecution. One result has been rapid urbanization, creating the new challenges of slums and unemployment.

Huge population growth combined with industrialization contributes to the overuse of natural resources and a loss of animal species. Many oceanic fish species are significantly depleted to the point where governments have to prohibit commercial fishing. Plants and animals disappear with the deforestation of tropical areas for slash-and-burn agriculture and timber operations. Smog pollutes many city areas, causing lung diseases. Water pollution limits fresh water supplies, particularly in third-world nations. The increased use of petroleum and heavy metals like mercury contribute to pollution. The increased human population has also led to dramatic increases in the amount of trash produced. Nonbiodegradable and toxic trash products end up in landfills. However, environmentalism, a movement to protect and wisely use our natural resources, spawned in the late 19th century, is stronger than ever. Groups like Greenpeace, the Sierra Club, and the World Wildlife Fund work to protect the environment. The establishment of local, regional, and national parks and wildlife refuges keeps natural areas safe for future generations.

In response to the threat posed by global warming, the United Nations held a convention on climate change. This convention led to the establishment of the Kyoto Protocol, an international environmental treaty with the goal of achieving the stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere. The protocol was adopted in 1997 in Kyoto, Japan and took effect in 2005. As of 2009, 187 nations had signed and ratified the protocol; the United States was not among them.

Social Transformations

CHANGING GENDER ROLES

In 1914, there were few opportunities for women. The fight for female suffrage saw its first successes in New Zealand, Australia, and Finland. Activists in Great Britain and the United States won the right to vote around 1920. Fashion and popular culture helped create a new image of the modern woman-free from some of the constraints of traditional gender roles. Both world wars gave women more power in terms of wage earning, but the demands of the workplace and the home continue to be a challenge for women. The postwar feminist movement publicized the issues of childcare and equal pay for equal work in the 1970s. Politics, law, and medicine have become more open to women in the last half of the 20th century. Successful female heads of government in Israel, Great Britain, and the Philippines demonstrated that politics was no longer an all-male domain.

The sexual revolution of the '60s and '70s further defined gender roles. Key issues such as access to birth control were advanced, giving women more freedom. Greater earning power in the workplace also meant more independence. The institution of marriage was challenged, and some women opted to remain unattached or even to have children by themselves. Given the magnitude of these recent social changes, the impacts are still being felt and processed. In parts of the developing world, changes to gender roles have varied. Some socialist and communist groups instituted important legal reforms for women, such as the 1950 marriage law in China that grants free choice of partners. In reality, many traditional beliefs still exist in China and other areas. The large population problem in China led to the establishment of the one-child policy, and as a result half a million female births go unrecorded each year, showing the continued preference for a male child. Despite having powerful female heads of state such as Indira Gandhi (India) and Benazir Bhutto (Pakistan), female literacy rates in South Asia are still below those of men. In the 1980s, only 25 percent of the female population of India was literate.

GLOBALIZATION

The 20th century brought about new patterns of economic and political organization that transcended national borders. OPEC, the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, organized in 1960 in an effort to raise the price of oil through cooperation. The World Trade Organization (WTO) formed from the General Agreement of Tariffs and Trade (GATT) in 1995 to promote unrestricted global trade. Regional organizations have also formed to protect more local interests. ASEAN, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, formed in 1967 to accelerate economic progress and promote political stability. The EU, European Union, was formed from the European Community in 1993 in an effort to strengthen European economic trade relations and distance itself from the influence of the United States. NAFTA, the North American Free Trade Agreement, involves the United States, Canada, and Mexico working to remove trade barriers between these countries. While the early 21st century has witnessed the emergence of China as a global economic power, the last several years have been dominated by a worldwide economic recession. This crisis, which mostly resulted from over 25 years of U.S. government deregulation, began in the US housing and credit markets in late 2007 and led to the bankruptcy and instability of major American banks and other financial institutions. This financial crisis sparked a global recession, which began in the United States and is currently affecting most of the industrialized world. Finally, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) such as the Red Cross and Greenpeace work to tackle problems that reach beyond national boundaries and governments. As the world becomes more and more connected, cultural lines seemed to have become blurred. Some refer to this as cultural imperialism.

The rise of the use of the English language is also an indication of a developing global culture. Transmitted through the Internet, movies, and music, the English language has spread worldwide. Yet even with the prevalence of a Western-oriented consumer culture, traditional forces remain strong. Islamic fundamentalism, for instance, is a traditional force that very much reacts against Western culture, and the two ideals often clash.