

# 孤独的阅读者



## 学术英文

听力·辨音训练

答案

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**Level I**

# CHAPTER 1

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## 汉英对照版

1. Through many millennia early humans (hominids) began using stones, discovered fire, and in small bands they gathered wild plants and hunted wild animals.

历经数千年，早期人类开始使用石头，发现了火，并且组成小群体采摘野菜和捕食野生动物。

2. Modern humans, known as *Homo sapiens sapiens*, appeared first in Africa no later than 150,000 years ago, and eventually spread throughout the world by the end of the Paleolithic era, or the Old Stone Age.

现代人类，被称为智人（*Homo sapiens sapiens*），最早出现在非洲，不迟于 15 万年前，并最终在旧石器时代末期或旧石器时代蔓延到世界各地。

3. The Neolithic (New Stone Age) Revolution occurred beginning c. 10,000 B.C., and its significance was in producing food through the domestication of plants and animals, an event that first occurred in the upland regions of the Middle East's Fertile Crescent.

新石器时代（新石器时代）革命发生在公元前 10000 年，其重要意义在于通过对植物和动物的驯化来生产食物，这一事件最初发生在中东新月沃土的高地地区。

4. Permanent villages replaced nomadic bands, pottery was made from clay, goods were accumulated and traded.

永久性的村庄取代了游牧民族乐队，陶器由粘土制成，商品被积累和交易。

5. Increasingly, complexity led to the further development of what is called civilization, which can be defined as urban, with more formal institutions, the use of writing, monumental architecture, and the production of metal.

逐渐的，复杂性导致了所谓的文明的进一步发展，这种文明可以被定义为城市的，它们具有更正式的制度，使用书写，纪念性建筑和金属生产。

6. Ancient Mesopotamia, in Southwest Asia, was a city-state civilization created by a people known as the Sumerians.

位于西南亚的古代美索不达米亚是一个由被称为苏美尔人的民族创造的城邦文明。

7. The rivers were tamed, but remained unpredictable, affecting both religion and the arts (notably in the *Epic of Gilgamesh*).

河流被驯服，但仍然无法预测，影响宗教和艺术（特别是吉尔伽美什的史诗）。

8. Priests and kings held a monopoly of power, temples (ziggurats) were constructed of brick, and trade and commerce expanded, although most of the inhabitants were farmers.

权力被祭司和国王垄断，寺庙（金字塔）由砖建造，而且尽管大多数居民还是农民，贸易和商业扩大了。

9. Writing on clay, known as cuneiform (wedge-shaped) began.

在粘土上写作，被称为楔形文字（楔形）的开始

10. Located on flat plains, the city-states were vulnerable to invasion.

位于平原上的城邦很容易被入侵。

11. The result was the creation of a series of empires, beginning with the Akkadians c. 2340 B.C, later followed by the Babylonians, famous for Hammurabi's law code (c.1750).

结果是一系列帝国的创建，以公元前 2340 年阿卡德人创建的帝国为开端，巴比伦人紧随其后，它们因汉谟拉比法典（c.1750）而闻名于世。

12. Civilization also developed along Egypt's Nile River, a more predictable river than those in Mesopotamia, and Egyptian religion reflected its more benign nature.

文明也沿着埃及的尼罗河发展，这条河比美索不达米亚的河更加可预测，埃及宗教反映了它更加温和的性质。

13. The Nile also served as a unifier of ancient Egypt, and surrounded by deserts, Egypt was less subject to invasion.

尼罗河也充当着古埃及统一者的角色，因被沙漠包围，埃及较少受到入侵。

14. Egyptian pharaohs were perceived as gods, unlike the rulers in Mesopotamia, and their tombs were the pyramids that were constructed during the Old Kingdom, c. 2600-2400 B.C.

埃及法老王被认为是神，不像美索不达米亚的统治者，他们的墓葬是公元 2600-240，在旧王国建造的金字塔。

15. A quest for immortality developed, particularly around the cult of Osiris, and mummification became widespread during the Middle Kingdom (c.2050-1650 B.C.), whose end coincided with an invasion of the Hyksos peoples.

一种对永生的追求得到发展，特别是围绕着对奥西里斯的崇拜，而且木乃伊化在中王国时期（公元前 1950 年至公元前 150 年）广泛传播，其结束恰逢希克索斯人的入侵。

16. Native rule resumed during the New Kingdom (c. 1567-1085), an era of Egyptian imperialistic expansion throughout much of the Middle East.

在新王国（约 1567 年至 1085 年）期间恢复了原住民统治，这是埃及帝国主义在中东大部分地区扩张的时代。

17. During the 1330s, a potentially radical religious revolution began with the pharaoh Amenhotep IV, who assumed the name Akhenaten, in honor of his god, Aten, god of the disk of the sun.

在十三世纪三十年代，法老阿蒙霍特普四世（Amenhotep IV）为了纪念太阳圆盘之神阿滕（Aten），发动了一场潜在的激进宗教革命。

18. His actions in closing the temples devoted to the other gods alienated the priesthood, particularly the priests of the powerful god, Amon-Re.

他关闭专门用于其他神灵的寺庙的行为使得他被其他神职人员疏远，特别是强大神阿蒙 - 雷的祭司。

19. After his death, the old gods were restored, but in his religious pursuits, Akhenaten had neglected foreign policy, and Palestine and Syria were lost from Egyptian rule.

在他去世后，旧神被恢复了，但在他的宗教活动中，阿肯那顿忽视了外交政策，巴勒斯坦和叙利亚因埃及的统治而丧失了。

20. In the 1200s, the so-called "Sea Peoples" invaded Egypt, and during the next millennium Egypt was often dominated by foreign empires, such as the Assyrian, Persian, and Macedonian.

在 12 世纪，所谓的“海上民族”入侵埃及，在下一个千年，埃及经常被外国帝国统治，如亚述人，波斯人和马其顿人。

21. In the late first century B.C., Egypt became a Roman province.

公元前一世纪末，埃及成为罗马行省。



## 全文整合版

Through many millennia early humans (hominids) began using stones, discovered fire, and in small bands they gathered wild plants and hunted wild animals. Modern humans, known as *Homo sapiens sapiens*, appeared first in Africa no later than 150,000 years ago, and eventually spread throughout the world by the end of the Paleolithic era, or the Old Stone Age.

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Increasingly, complexity led to the further development of what is called civilization, which can be defined as urban, with more formal institutions, the use of writing, monumental architecture, and the production of metal.

Ancient Mesopotamia, in Southwest Asia, was a city-state civilization created by a people known as the Sumerians. The rivers were tamed, but remained unpredictable, affecting both religion and the arts (notably in the *Epic of Gilgamesh*). Priests and kings held a monopoly of power, temples (ziggurats) were constructed of brick, and trade and commerce expanded, although most of the inhabitants were farmers. Writing on clay, known as cuneiform (wedge-shaped) began. Located on flat plains, the city-states were vulnerable to invasion. The result was the creation of a series of empires, beginning with the Akkadians c. 2340 B.C, later followed by the Babylonians, famous for Hammurabi's law code (c.1750).

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religious pursuits, Akhenaten had neglected foreign policy, and Palestine and Syria were lost from Egyptian rule. In the 1200s, the so-called "Sea Peoples" invaded Egypt, and during the next millennium Egypt was often dominated by foreign empires, such as the Assyrian, Persian, and Macedonian. In the late first century B.C., Egypt became a Roman province.

# CHAPTER 2

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## 汉英对照版

1. Farming appeared in Europe's Balkans by 6500 B.C. and in central Europe by 4000 B.C.  
到公元前 6500 年，农业出现在欧洲的巴尔干地区，以及公元前 4000 年的中欧。
2. Indo-European speakers migrated into Europe and the Middle East around 2000 B.C.  
印度裔欧洲人在公元前 2000 年左右移居欧洲和中东。
3. One Indo-European group, the Hittites, established a kingdom in Asia Minor c. 1700.  
公元前 1700 年，隶属于印欧语系的赫梯人在小亚细亚建立了一个王国。
4. They, like the Egyptians, were attacked by the Sea Peoples, and by 1190, Hittite power had ended.  
他们像埃及人一样遭到海上民族的攻击，到了 1190 年，赫梯的力量已经退出历史舞台。
5. The Middle East was a complex and vibrant region during the first millennium B.C., with numerous peoples, sometimes as kingdoms and empires, contending with each other.  
在公元前一千年，中东是一个复杂而充满活力的地区，它有许多民族，有时王国和帝国会相互竞争。
6. One of the most significant peoples was the Semitic-speaking Hebrews of ancient Canaan.  
其中一个最重要的民族是古代迦南的说闪米特语的希伯来人。

7. By the end of the second millennium B.C. they had emerged as an identifiable people, with a United Kingdom under Saul, David, and Solomon, which was followed by two smaller kingdoms—Judah and Israel.

到公元前第二个千年结束时，他们已成为一个可识别的民族，在扫罗，大卫和所罗门统治之下有一个联合王国，其后是两个较小的王国 - 犹大和以色列。

8. The latter succumbed to the power of the Assyrian Empire in the late eighth century B.C. and the former to the Chaldeans, or the Neo-Babylonians, in 586 B.C.

后者在公元前 8 世纪晚期屈服于亚述帝国的力量。前者在公元前 586 年屈服于迦勒底人，或新巴比伦人。

9. It was not political, military, or economic power that explains the importance of the Jews, but their religion of ethical monotheism.

能够解释犹太人重要性的并非政治，军事或经济力量，而是他们的一神论宗教。

10. The single God of the Hebrews—Yahweh—was perceived as a universal and transcendent God who demanded morality and goodness from his worshipers.

希伯来人的唯一上帝 - 耶和华 - 被认为是一个普世和超然的上帝，他要求他的信徒讲道德和善良。

11. The theological and moral beliefs of the ancient Hebrews have affected the western world down to the present.

直至今现在，古希伯来人的神学和道德信仰都在影响着西方世界。

12. A Middle Eastern kingdom that had much greater political and military power was the Assyrian Empire, whose might at its height stretched from the Tigris and the Euphrates to the Nile.

具有更大政治和军事力量的中东王国是亚述帝国，在最鼎盛时期它的面积从底格里斯河和幼发拉底河延伸到尼罗河。

13. The Assyrian kings, who were considered to be absolute rulers, assembled a mighty army of well over 100,000, and was the first large army to make use of iron weapons.

被认为是绝对统治者的亚述国王聚集了一支超过 10 万强大军队，这只军队是第一支使用铁制武器的大军。

14. The Assyrians resorted to terrorism to defeat and control their enemies: they had a fearsome reputation.

亚述人使用恐怖主义来击败和控制他们的敌人：他们有着可怕的声誉。

15. The Assyrian Empire reached its apogee under Ashurbanipal (d. 626 B.C.), but by the end of the seventh century it was destroyed and succeeded by a new imperial power, the Chaldeans, or Neo-Babylonians, headed by Nebuchadnezzar (d. 562 B.C.), with his capital of Babylon becoming one of the ancient world's great cities, which contained the famed Hanging Gardens.

亚述帝国在亚述巴尼帕（公元前 626 年）的统治之下达到了顶峰，但到了公元七世纪末，它被一个新的皇权，迦勒底人或新巴比伦人所摧毁并继承，这个皇权由尼布甲尼撒领导（公元前 562 年），他的首都巴比伦成为世界上最伟大的城市之一，其中包含著名的空中花园。

16. However, the reign of the Chaldeans was brief and was followed by the Persians, an Indo-European speaking people related to the Medes and led by Cyrus the Great (d. 530 B.C.), from Persis in southern Iran.

然而，迦勒底人的统治是短暂的，其后亚述帝国被波斯人所统治，波斯人是一个与米底人有关的印欧语系民族，它由居住在伊朗南部的波斯人赛勒斯大帝（公元前 530 年）所统治。

17. Under his leadership, the Persian Empire stretched from Asia Minor through the Middle East and Mesopotamia to western India.

在他的领导下，波斯帝国从小亚细亚经过中东和美索不达米亚一直延伸到印度西部。

18. His successors, Cambyses and Darius, expanded and consolidated their rule, expanding into Egypt and, briefly, to Greece.

他的继任者冈比西斯和大流士扩大并巩固了他们的统治，将波斯帝国扩展到埃及，和希腊。

19. Under Darius, Persia was the world's largest empire.

在大流士的统治之下，波斯成为世界上最大的帝国。

20. An efficient bureaucracy and an integrated road system were established, along with a cosmopolitan army, and its capitals were located at Susa and later at Persepolis.

波斯帝国建立了一个高效的官僚机构和综合道路系统，以及一个国际化的军队，它的首都最初位于苏萨，后来搬到波斯波利斯。

21. The most significant cultural contributions of the Persians was the religion of Zoroastrianism, a religion of the one god, Ahuramazda, who was opposed by an evil spirit, and which eventually resulted in a religion more dualistic than monotheistic in character.

波斯人最重要的文化贡献是琐罗亚斯德教，但它唯一信仰的上帝阿胡拉·马兹达遭到邪灵的对，这最终导致该宗教在特点上相比较一神论更具二元性。

## 全文整合版

Farming appeared in Europe's Balkans by 6500 B.C. and in central Europe by 4000 B.C. Indo-European speakers migrated into Europe and the Middle East around 2000 B.C. One Indo-

European group, the Hittites, established a kingdom in Asia Minor c. 1700. They, like the Egyptians, were attacked by the Sea Peoples, and by 1190, Hittite power had ended.

The Middle East was a complex and vibrant region during the first millennium B.C., with numerous peoples, sometimes as kingdoms and empires, contending with each other. One of the most significant peoples was the Semitic-speaking Hebrews of ancient Canaan. By the end of the second millennium B.C. they had emerged as an identifiable people, with a United Kingdom under Saul, David, and Solomon, which was followed by two smaller kingdoms—Judah and Israel. The latter succumbed to the power of the Assyrian Empire in the late eighth century B.C. and the former to the Chaldeans, or the Neo-Babylonians, in 586 B.C.

It was not political, military, or economic power that explains the importance of the Jews, but their religion of ethical monotheism. The single God of the Hebrews—Yahweh—was perceived as a universal and transcendent God who demanded morality and goodness from his worshipers. The theological and moral beliefs of the ancient Hebrews have affected the western world down to the present.

A Middle Eastern kingdom that had much greater political and military power was the Assyrian Empire, whose might at its height stretched from the Tigris and the Euphrates to the Nile. The Assyrian kings, who were considered to be absolute rulers, assembled a mighty army of well over 100,000, and was the first large army to make use of iron weapons. The Assyrians resorted to terrorism to defeat and control their enemies: they had a fearsome reputation. The Assyrian Empire reached its apogee under Ashurbanipal (d. 626 B.C.), but by the end of the seventh century it was destroyed and succeeded by a new imperial power, the Chaldeans, or Neo-Babylonians, headed by Nebuchadnezzar (d. 562 B.C.), with his capital of Babylon becoming one of the ancient world's great cities, which contained the famed Hanging Gardens.

However, the reign of the Chaldeans was brief and was followed by the Persians, an Indo-European speaking people related to the Medes and led by Cyrus the Great (d. 530 B.C.), from Persis in southern Iran. Under his leadership, the Persian Empire stretched from Asia Minor through the Middle East and Mesopotamia to western India. His successors, Cambyses and Darius, expanded and consolidated their rule, expanding into Egypt and, briefly, to Greece. Under Darius, Persia was the world's largest empire. An efficient bureaucracy and an integrated road system were established, along with a cosmopolitan army, and its capitals were located at Susa and later at Persepolis. The most significant cultural contributions of the Persians was the religion of Zoroastrianism, a religion of the one god, Ahuramazda, who was opposed by an evil spirit, and which eventually resulted in a religion more dualistic than monotheistic in character.

# CHAPTER 3

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## 汉英对照版

1. Like the ancient Hebrews, the Greeks also had a profound influence on Western Civilization.

与古希伯来人一样，希腊人也对西方文明产生了深远的影响。

2. Unlike the river valleys of the Middle East, Greece is mountainous land, with human occupation generally occurring in the narrow valleys.

与中东的河谷不同，希腊是山地，人类通常生活在狭窄的山谷中。

3. The soil was poor in most locations, and the peoples of Greece early turned to the sea, notably the Aegean Sea.

大多数地方土壤贫瘠，希腊人民早早将目光转向大海，尤其是爱琴海。

4. The first civilization in the region was a non-Greek society centered on the island of Crete.

该地区的第一个文明是以克里特岛为中心的非希腊社会。

5. During the third millennium B.C. the Cretans, (or Minoans, from legendary King Minos), traded throughout the eastern Mediterranean.

公元前三千年，克里特人（或米诺斯人，传奇的米诺斯国王），在整个地中海东部进行贸易。

6. Commerce and art rather than military conquest governed the Minoans, practices reflected in the wall frescos at Knossos and elsewhere.



统治着米诺斯人的是商业和艺术而非军事征服，这种做法在克诺索斯和其他地方的壁画中有所体现。

7. However, c. 1450 B.C. its civilization was destroyed, perhaps by natural disaster, probably through military conquest by the Greek-speaking peoples of the mainland.

但是，公元前 1450 年，它的文明可能是在自然灾害中被破坏，也可能被大陆的希腊民族所征服。

8. The earliest Greek-speakers (Indo-Europeans) migrated into Greece c. 1900 B.C., and by c. 1600 B.C. had established the first Greek, or Mycenaean, civilization (from one of its major cities, Mycenae).

公元前 1900 年，最早的希腊人（印欧种人）迁移到希腊，并于公元前 1600 年建立了第一个希腊或迈锡尼文明（该文明来自其主要城市之一迈锡尼）。

9. More war-like than the Minoans, the Mycenaeans dominated the Aegean world and beyond until they succumbed during the twelfth century B.C., possibly through invasions by new Greek-speakers from the north.

迈锡尼人比米诺斯人更好战，他们统治了爱琴海世界及其他地区，直到公元前 12 世纪他们才被入侵的北方新希腊人打败。

10. A Dark Age resulted: civilization largely disappeared, an era covered by the stories of Homer's epic poems, which established the heroic values for later Greek society.

黑暗时代的结果是：文明在很大程度上消失了，荷马史诗覆盖了整个时代，并为后来的希腊社会树立了英雄价值观。

11. With the end of the Dark Age (c. 800 B.C.) the era of the polis, or city-state, began.

随着黑暗时代的结束（公元前 800 年），城邦时代开始了。

12. Most numbered a few thousand persons, although Athens at its height reached 300,000.

尽管鼎盛时期的雅典有 30 万人，但大多数城邦都只有几千人。

13. Two of the most famous city-states were Sparta, a militarized polis ruled by an oligarchy, and where commerce and the arts were minimized, and Athens, which became noted for its democratic instructions though, like other poleis, their many slaves and women had no political rights.

两个最著名的城邦是斯巴达和雅典，前者是一个由寡头政治统治的军事化城邦，在那里商业和艺术被压缩，后者以其民主制度而闻名，像其他城邦一样，他们的奴隶和妇女没有政治权利。

14. War was endemic, with the poleis rarely uniting until Persians invaded Greece.

战争通常是地方性的，在波斯人入侵希腊之前，城邦很少联合起来。

15. The Persian War (499-479 B.C) temporarily unified the Greeks, who were victorious against the powerful Persian Empire.

波斯战争（公元前 499-479）暂时统一了希腊，他们战胜强大的波斯帝国。

16. At the end of the war, Athens created the anti-Persian Delian League, but Athens converted the alliance into an empire.

在战争结束时，雅典创建了反波斯联盟，雅典从联盟转变为一个帝国。

17. In reaction, Sparta created its own alliance, the Peloponnesian League.

作为回应，斯巴达创建了自己的联盟，伯罗奔尼撒联盟。

18. Eventually, war broke out, and in the resulting Peloponnesian War (431-404 B.C.), the Greek world suffered disastrously.

最终，战争爆发，在之后的伯罗奔尼撒战争（公元前 431-404）中，希腊世界遭受了灾难性的后果。

19. The fifth and fourth centuries was the classical era in Greece, especially in Athens, with the emergence of history and theater.

第五和第四世纪是希腊的古典时代，特别是在出现了历史和戏剧的雅典。

20. The ideals of Greek art and architecture (e.g. the Parthenon) have survived to the present.

希腊艺术和建筑的理想（例如帕特农神庙）幸存至今。

21. Rational and critical thought developed, and philosophers such as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle posed questions about humanity and nature which are still being debated today.

理性和批判性思维得以发展，苏格拉底，柏拉图和亚里士多德等哲学家提出了关于人性和自然的问题，这些问题至今仍在争论中。

22. Religion and myth were important to most Greeks: the gods dwelt on Mt. Olympus, games and festivals were held in their honor, and oracles were consulted, notably at Delphi.

宗教和神话对大多数希腊人来说很重要：众神住在奥林匹斯山上，游戏和节日都以他们的名义举行，并且特别在德尔斐咨询了神谕。

23. Ancient Greece was no utopia, as slavery, poverty, repression of women, and violence was often the norm, but as the text notes, its civilization was the fountainhead of the culture of the West.

古希腊不是乌托邦，因为奴隶制，贫穷，对妇女的压迫和暴力往往是常态，但正如文本所指出的那样，它的文明是西方文化的源泉。

## 全文整合版

Like the ancient Hebrews, the Greeks also had a profound influence on Western Civilization. Unlike the river valleys of the Middle East, Greece is mountainous land, with human occupation generally occurring in the narrow valleys. The soil was poor in most locations, and the peoples of Greece early turned to the sea, notably the Aegean Sea.

The first civilization in the region was a non-Greek society centered on the island of Crete. During the third millennium B.C. the Cretans, (or Minoans, from legendary King Minos), traded throughout the eastern Mediterranean. Commerce and art rather than military conquest governed the Minoans, practices reflected in the wall frescos at Knossos and elsewhere. However, c. 1450 B.C. its civilization was destroyed, perhaps by natural disaster, probably through military conquest by the Greek-speaking peoples of the mainland.

The earliest Greek-speakers (Indo-Europeans) migrated into Greece c. 1900 B.C., and by c. 1600 B.C. had established the first Greek, or Mycenaean, civilization (from one of its major cities, Mycenae). More war-like than the Minoans, the Mycenaeans dominated the Aegean world and beyond until they succumbed during the twelfth century B.C., possibly through invasions by new Greek-speakers from the north. A Dark Age resulted: civilization largely disappeared, an era covered by the stories of Homer's epic poems, which established the heroic values for later Greek society.

With the end of the Dark Age (c. 800 B.C.) the era of the *polis*, or city-state, began. Most numbered a few thousand persons, although Athens at its height reached 300,000. Two of the most famous city-states were Sparta, a militarized polis ruled by an oligarchy, and where commerce and the arts were minimized, and Athens, which became noted for its democratic institutions though, like other poleis, their many slaves and women had no political rights.

War was endemic, with the *poleis* rarely uniting until Persians invaded Greece. The Persian War (499-479 B.C) temporarily unified the Greeks, who were victorious against the powerful Persian Empire. At the end of the war, Athens created the anti-Persian Delian League, but Athens converted the alliance into an empire. In reaction, Sparta created its own alliance, the Peloponnesian League. Eventually, war broke out, and in the resulting Peloponnesian War (431-404 B.C.), the Greek world suffered disastrously.

The fifth and fourth centuries was the classical era in Greece, especially in Athens, with the emergence of history and theater. The ideals of Greek art and architecture (e.g. the Parthenon) have survived to the present. Rational and critical thought developed, and philosophers such as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle posed questions about humanity and nature which are still being debated today. Religion and myth were important to most Greeks: the gods dwelt on Mt. Olympus, games and festivals were held in their honor, and oracles were consulted, notably at Delphi. Ancient Greece was no utopia, as slavery, poverty, repression of women, and violence was often the norm, but as the text notes, its civilization was the fountainhead of the culture of the West.

# CHAPTER 4

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## 汉英对照版

1. The independence of the Greek poleis ended in the fourth century, and a new age, known as the Hellenistic era, came into being.

独立的希腊城邦在 4 世纪消失了，一个被称为希腊化时代的新时代应运而生。

2. Philip II (d. 336 B.C.), king of Macedonia to the north, overcame the last Greek resistance at the battle of Chaeronea in 338 B.C.

北方马其顿王国国王菲利普二世（公元前 336 年），于公元前 338 年在查尔尼纳战役中击垮了希腊。

3. His next goal was to invade the Persian Empire, but he was assassinated in 336 B.C. leaving that task to his twenty-year old son, Alexander, known to history as Alexander the Great.

他的下一个目标是入侵波斯帝国，但在公元前 336 年遭到暗杀，这项事业留给了他年仅二十岁的儿子亚历山大，也就是我们所熟知的亚历山大大帝。

4. In 334 B.C. Alexander crossed into Asia Minor with an army of 37,000 soldiers.

在公元前 334 年，亚历山大率领约 3.7 万人的军队进入小亚细亚。

5. By 332 B.C. he captured Egypt, building there a new city on the Mediterranean, and naming it Alexandria.

到公元前 332 年，他统治了埃及，在地中海建造了一座新城，并将其命名为亚历山大城。

6. The Persian capitals of Susa and Persepolis fell by 330 B.C., and he reached India three years later.

公元前 330 年，波斯都城苏萨和波斯波利斯投降，三年后他到达了印度。

7. Alexander wanted to go on, but his troops rebelled.

亚历山大决定东进，但他的部队听到消息后发生哗变，拒绝前进。

8. Still planning more campaigns, Alexander died in Babylon in 323 B.C. at age thirty-two, one of the ancient world's greatest heroes as well as one of its most enigmatic figures.

亚历山大率残部回到巴比伦，在那里他还计划要进行更多的战役。公元前 323 年，亚历山大在巴比伦去世，时年 32 岁。他是历史上最伟大的英雄之一，也是最神秘的人物之一。

9. The resulting society is known as Hellenistic, meaning Greek-like or to imitate Greeks.

作为他征服的结果，一个新时代——希腊化时代应运而生。“希腊化”意思是“仿效希腊”。

10. The Greek language became the international language, Greek ideas became influential, and Greek merchants, artists, philosophers, and soldiers found opportunities and rewards throughout the Near East.

希腊语成为国际语言，希腊思想变得很有影响力，这为希腊的商人，艺术家，哲学家和士兵创造了机会，使得希腊的语言和思想传遍近东。

11. Alexander's new empire soon divided into several states, ruled by his generals and their descendants.

亚历山大死后，通过征服建立的新帝国很快就分崩离析了，出现了作为帝国继承者的希腊化王国，由他的将军和后代统治。

12. In addition, outsiders, notably the Celts from Gaul, who sacked Rome in 390 B.C., invaded Macedonia in the early third century and later Asia Minor, threatening the Hellenistic world.

此外，高卢的凯尔特人于前 390 年包围了罗马城，又于公元前 3 世纪进攻马其顿，后来也曾攻入小亚细亚，威胁希腊化世界。

13. The great cities were also dominated by Greeks.

许多大城市也由希腊人统治。

14. Commerce increased, and women often played significant roles in economic activities.

希腊化时代的商业经历了相当大的发展，女性通常在经济活动中发挥重要作用。

15. Slavery was extensive, with the slave market on the island of Delos selling as many as 10,000 slaves each day.

奴隶制非常广泛，德洛斯岛上的奴隶市场每天卖掉的奴隶多达 10,000 名。

16. Educational opportunities were broadened, with the state sometimes assuming a larger role, though most schools were established by wealthy individuals.

尽管大多数学校是由富有的人建立的，但教育机会有所扩大，国家有时会发挥更大的作用。

17. As in the past, education was generally for boys, not girls.

与过去一样，教育一般是针对男孩，而不是女孩。

18. Egypt's Alexandria was particularly significant in cultural matters: its library contained 500,000 volumes (or scrolls), and artists and intellectuals were attracted to the city.



埃及的托勒密成就了亚历山大城特别重要的文化中心的地位。其图书馆藏书量为古代之最，馆藏（或卷轴）50 万册以上，这吸引着大批学者和作家前往亚历山大城。

19. The era was rich in literature, and comedy and history both thrived.

在希腊化时代，文学，戏剧和历史著作都得到了蓬勃发展。

20. Sculptors and architects found many opportunities under the patronage of kings and other wealthy individuals.

雕塑家和建筑师得到了国王和其他富裕市民的资助，并为其提供了诸多机会。

21. It was a golden age for science and mathematics, with astronomers positing a heliocentric universe and accurately determining the circumference of the earth.

这是数学和科学发展的黄金时代，天文学家提出了太阳中心说，并准确地计算出地球的周长。

22. There were new schools of philosophy, such as Epicureanism and Stoicism.

希腊化世界出现了新的哲学流派，如伊壁鸠鲁学派和斯多葛学派。

23. Religion remained central, but the worship of the Greek Olympian gods declined, and other religions came to the fore.

希腊人的宗教信仰仍热情不减，但是对传统的希腊奥林匹斯神灵的崇拜有所下降，其他宗教脱颖而出。

24. Many were mystery religions that promised individual salvation, such as the Egyptian cult of Isis.

许多是以神秘宗教的形式出现，它们承诺能够拯救个人，如埃及的伊希斯崇拜。

25. Judaism remained the exception to the cults and civic religions, and worshiped Yahweh, whether in Judea, which again achieved its independence in 164 B.C., or elsewhere.

与希腊传统信仰和外来宗教不同，犹太教是排他的，他们只信仰耶和華。后因与罗马君主对宗教进行统一的要求相冲突，犹太人发动起义，经斗争，于公元前 164 年重新获得了独立。

26. The Hellenistic world was a Greek-like world, but there were many other influences in that cosmopolitan society, and much would have appeared foreign to the Greeks.

希腊化世界是一个类似希腊的世界，但在这个世界性的社会中还有许多其他的影响，而且很多东西对希腊人来说都是陌生的。

## 全文整合版

The independence of the Greek poleis ended in the fourth century, and a new age, known as the Hellenistic era, came into being. Philip II (d. 336 B.C.), king of Macedonia to the north, overcame the last Greek resistance at the battle of Chaeronea in 338 B.C. His next goal was to invade the Persian Empire, but he was assassinated in 336 B.C. leaving that task to his twenty-year old son, Alexander, known to history as Alexander the Great.

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B.C., invaded Macedonia in the early third century and later Asia Minor, threatening the Hellenistic world.

The great cities were also dominated by Greeks. Commerce increased, and women often played significant roles in economic activities. Slavery was extensive, with the slave market on the island of Delos selling as many as 10,000 slaves each day. Educational opportunities were broadened, with the state sometimes assuming a larger role, though most schools were established by wealthy individuals. As in the past, education was generally for boys, not girls.

Egypt's Alexandria was particularly significant in cultural matters: its library contained 500,000 volumes (or scrolls), and artists and intellectuals were attracted to the city. The era was rich in literature, and comedy and history both thrived. Sculptors and architects found many opportunities under the patronage of kings and other wealthy individuals. It was a golden age for science and mathematics, with astronomers positing a heliocentric universe and accurately determining the circumference of the earth.

There were new schools of philosophy, such as Epicureanism and Stoicism. Religion remained central, but the worship of the Greek Olympian gods declined, and other religions came to the fore. Many were mystery religions that promised individual salvation, such as the Egyptian cult of Isis. Judaism remained the exception to the cults and civic religions, and worshiped Yahweh, whether in Judea, which again achieved its independence in 164 B.C., or elsewhere.

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# CHAPTER 5

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## 汉英对照版

1. Italy, less mountainous and more fertile than Greece, almost bisects the Mediterranean, and was thus potentially positioned to dominate that inland sea, and under Rome it did so.

意大利远不如希腊的山区崎岖不平，且拥有比希腊更适宜农耕的农田。意大利半岛纵深伸向地中海，是地中海东西两个海区的关键，一旦罗马统一了意大利，自然而然就会把触角伸向整个地中海。

2. The Greeks to the south and the Etruscans to the north were early influences, and the latter ruled Rome during the sixth century B.C.

南部的希腊人和北部的伊特鲁里亚人对罗马早期的历史产生影响，后者于公元前 6 世纪统治了罗马。

3. In 509 B.C. the Romans expelled the Etruscans establishing a republic, but one ruled by an aristocratic oligarchy.

公元前 509 年，伊特鲁里亚人被驱逐，共和政府取而代之，一个崭新的罗马诞生，由贵族寡头统治。

4. Roman citizens were divided into two groups, or orders, the few patricians and the many plebeians.

罗马公民由少数贵族和平民两大阶级组成。

5. At the beginning of the Republic the former had the power, but from the early fifth century the two orders struggled with each other.

在共和国初期，前者拥有权力，但从公元前 5 世纪初开始，平民开始为争取与贵族政治和社会的平等权而斗争。

6. Over time, through the Roman genius for political compromise, the plebeians gained influence, including a plebeian assembly, the right to become magistrates, and intermarriage, but most of the advantages went to the richer plebeians.

随着时间的推移，罗马贵族被迫妥协，平民获得诸多政治便利，如平民会议的创建，平民可以当选国家的最高官职，可以同贵族通婚，但大多数优势都只属于更富裕的平民。

7. Rome also struggled with its neighbors, but not so peacefully.

罗马与其邻国战事不断。

8. By 264 B.C. Rome was the master of Italy.

公元前 264 年，罗马完成了对意大利的征服。

9. Roman diplomacy was as important as its armies, and its rule was softened by allowing local autonomy and gradually granting Roman citizenship to non-Romans.

罗马的外交政策与其军队一样重要，它们推行地方事务自治和扩大公民权，使被征服民族感觉自己的利益与罗马的成败休戚相关。

10. The next challenge was Carthage and its empire in Africa and Spain.

接下来的挑战是迦太基及其在非洲和西班牙的帝国。

11. Three wars were fought (the Punic Wars: 264-241, 218-202, and 149-146 B.C.), with Rome the victor.

三场战争（布匿战争：264-241, 218-202 和公元前 149-146），罗马是胜利者。

12. In the east, Rome conquered Macedonia in 148 B.C., taking over Greece.

在东部，罗马在公元前 148 年征服了马其顿，接管了希腊。

13. The increasingly larger Roman army played a major and continuous role in Rome's expanding empire.

越来越大的罗马军队在罗马不断扩张的帝国中发挥了重要而持续的作用。

14. Religion and law permeated Roman life.

宗教和法律渗透到了罗马生活的各个方面。

15. Ritual was at the focus of religion, for ritual established the correct relationship with the gods, both for individuals (families had their household cults) and for the state.

仪式是宗教的焦点，无论是个人还是国家，仪式的精确进行对于同神建立良好的关系是至关重要的。

16. Roman law was among its most enduring accomplishments.

罗马法是其影响最为深远的成就之一。

17. The early civil law for Romans was expanded to the law of nations, for Romans and non-Romans alike.

罗马法从早期民法被扩展为国际法，这些法律既适用于罗马人也适用于外国人。

18. Finally, a system of natural law emerged, based upon reason and universal divine law.

最后，出现了以理性和神圣的普世法为基础的自然法系统。

19. Late Republican Rome was influenced by Hellenistic Greece, particularly in literature, art, and Stoic philosophy.

晚期罗马共和国受到希腊的影响，特别是在文学，艺术和斯多葛哲学方面。

20. In the second century the conservative and traditional values of Rome declined as affluence and individualism increased, and from 133 B.C. to 31 B.C. the Republic was in crisis.

到了公元前 2 世纪，随着帝国的富足和个人主义的兴趣，罗马开始弱化传统价值观，从公元前 133 年至公元 31 年，共和国便处于风雨飘摇之中。

21. There were factional struggles within the governing oligarchy.

掌权的贵族寡头之间存在派系斗争。

22. In 60 B.C., Pompey, Crassus, and Julius Caesar seized power.

公元前 60 年，庞培，克拉苏和凯撒掌权。

23. Caesar conquered Gaul (most of western Europe) during the 50s B.C., thus becoming a threat to Pompey and the Senate.

在公元前 50 年，凯撒征服了高卢（西欧大部分地区），威胁到了庞培和参议院的统治。

24. War led the defeat of the Senate and the death of Pompey.

凯撒向罗马进军，在与庞培及其同盟之间的战争中获胜。

25. Caesar became dictator, thus alienating the Senate oligarchy, who murdered him on March 15, 44 B.C.

凯撒成为独裁者，但在公元前 44 年 3 月 15 日，一憎恨凯撒统治的当权元老谋杀了他。

26. Mark Antony, Caesar's chief associate, and Caesar's young adopted heir, Octavian, then formed an alliance, but Antony's relations with the Egyptian ruler, Cleopatra, contributed to the breaking of the pact.

凯撒的旧部下安东尼，以及他年轻的继承人（侄孙）屋大维结成联盟，但安东尼与埃及女王克利奥帕特拉的关系导致了该联盟的破裂。

27. At the Battle of Actium (31 B.C.), Antony and Cleopatra were defeated, and Octavian became the sole ruler of the Roman world.

公元前 31 年，在希腊的阿卡提姆一役中，屋大维打败了安东尼和克利奥帕特拉，成为罗马世界的唯一统治者。

28. The Republic had come to an end.

共和国覆灭了。

## 全文整合版

Italy, less mountainous and more fertile than Greece, almost bisects the Mediterranean, and was thus potentially positioned to dominate that inland sea, and under Rome it did so. The Greeks to the south and the Etruscans to the north were early influences, and the latter ruled Rome during the sixth century B.C. In 509 B.C. the Romans expelled the Etruscans establishing a republic, but one ruled by an aristocratic oligarchy.

Roman citizens were divided into two groups, or orders, the few patricians and the many plebeians. At the beginning of the Republic the former had the power, but from the early fifth century the two orders struggled with each other. Over time, through the Roman genius for political compromise, the plebeians gained influence, including a plebeian assembly, the right to become magistrates, and intermarriage, but most of the advantages went to the richer plebeians.



Rome also struggled with its neighbors, but not so peacefully. By 264 B.C. Rome was the master of Italy. Roman diplomacy was as important as its armies, and its rule was softened by allowing local autonomy and gradually granting Roman citizenship to non-Romans. The next challenge was Carthage and its empire in Africa and Spain. Three wars were fought (the Punic Wars: 264-241, 218-202, and 149-146 B.C.), with Rome the victor. In the east, Rome conquered Macedonia in 148 B.C., taking over Greece. The increasingly larger Roman army played a major and continuous role in Rome's expanding empire.

Religion and law permeated Roman life. Ritual was at the focus of religion, for ritual established the correct relationship with the gods, both for individuals (families had their household cults) and for the state. Roman law was among its most enduring accomplishments. The early civil law for Romans was expanded to the law of nations, for Romans and non-Romans alike. Finally, a system of natural law emerged, based upon reason and universal divine law. Late Republican Rome was influenced by Hellenistic Greece, particularly in literature, art, and Stoic philosophy.

In the second century the conservative and traditional values of Rome declined as affluence and individualism increased, and from 133 B.C. to 31 B.C. the Republic was in crisis. There were factional struggles within the governing oligarchy.

In 60 B.C., Pompey, Crassus, and Julius Caesar seized power. Caesar conquered Gaul (most of western Europe) during the 50s B.C., thus becoming a threat to Pompey and the Senate. War led the defeat of the Senate and the death of Pompey. Caesar became dictator, thus alienating the Senate oligarchy, who murdered him on March 15, 44 B.C. Mark Antony, Caesar's chief associate, and Caesar's young adopted heir, Octavian, then formed an alliance, but Antony's relations with the Egyptian ruler, Cleopatra, contributed to the breaking of the pact. At the Battle of Actium (31 B.C.), Antony and Cleopatra were defeated, and Octavian became the sole ruler of the Roman world. The Republic had come to an end.

# CHAPTER 6

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## 汉英对照版

1. Octavian, an astute politician, did not declare the Republic dead or himself emperor.  
屋大维，一位精明的政治家，他没有取消传统的共和制度形式或称帝。
2. In 27 B.C. he accepted the title of Augustus, and rather than emperor he called himself princeps, or chief citizen.  
公元前 27 年，他接受了奥古斯都的头衔，相比于皇帝，他更喜欢称自己为元首或第一公民。
3. He followed the prescribed legal forms, and the Senate had a role in governing, but most of the authority was in the hands of the princeps.  
他设法保持外表的形式，元老院在执政方面发挥了作用，但大多数权力掌握在元首手中。
4. Significantly, the army swore loyalty to him.  
值得注意的是，他仍然控制着军队。
5. Concerned about moral decline, Augustus restored temples and shrines.  
关注道德的衰落，奥古斯都恢复了寺庙和神社。
6. Marriage and children were encouraged, extravagance was discouraged.  
鼓励婚姻和儿童，不鼓励奢侈。
7. It was a Golden Age in literature with works by Virgil, Horace, Ovid and Livy.  
这是文学的黄金时代，有维吉尔，霍勒斯，奥维德和利维的作品。

8. Augustus established the Julio-Claudian dynasty, which lasted until 68.

奥古斯都建立了 Julio-Claudian 王朝，一直持续到 68 年。

9. In 69 Vespasian, a successful general but not a member of an old Senatorial family, founded the Flavian dynasty.

Vespasian 在他 69 岁的时候创立了弗拉维安王朝，他是一位成功的将军，但不是元老院家族的成员。

10. His son, Domitian assumed the title of imperator, or emperor.

他的儿子图密善获得了皇帝（imperator）的称号。

11. In the second century five “good emperors” maintained the Pax Romana (Roman peace).

公元前 2 世纪，五个所谓的“好皇帝”开创了一段持续一百年的和平繁荣时期（罗马和平）。

12. The empire, with its 50,000,000 inhabitants, was prosperous, but more so in the cities than the countryside.

拥有五千万居民的罗马帝国达到了鼎盛时期，但繁盛更多的体现在城市而非乡村。

13. The Romanization of the Empire varied widely, but became more entrenched in the West, where Latin took root, than in the East and Asia, with its older traditions and preexisting Greek as the major language.

帝国的罗马化程度差别很大，但罗马文化对以拉丁语为语言的帝国的西半部分，比以希腊语为语言的东半部分和亚洲影响深远。

14. The age of expansion was over: the Rhine and Danube rivers served as the borders in Europe, and the Near East was governed by client rulers.

扩张的时代结束了：莱茵河和多瑙河作为欧洲的边界，而近东则由委任统治者统治。

15. The Early Empire was a prosperous era for many, including long distance trade over the Silk Road from China and East Asia.

早期帝国相当繁荣，贸易越出了罗马边界，包括从中国和东亚经丝绸之路进行的长途贸易。

16. In the Early Empire Romans excelled in architecture and engineering, as exemplified in its 50,000 miles of roads and the Colosseum.

在早期帝国中，罗马人在建筑和工程方面表现出色，例如其 50,000 英里长的罗马大道和罗马斗兽场。

17. Rome itself had a population of one million, and the gulf between the rich and poor was enormous.

罗马的人口近一百万，且贫富差距巨大。

18. However, the third century was an era of decline.

然而，整个 3 世纪，罗马帝国政趋向崩溃。

19. There were civil wars, invasions, plagues, population decline, and economic collapse.

内战，外敌入侵，瘟疫，人口下降和经济崩溃不断侵蚀着中央政府。

20. One of the most important events in history was the birth and spread of the religion of Christianity, which grew out of Judaism and probably influenced by the numerous mystery religions of the period.

历史上最重要的事件之一是基督教的诞生和传播，它源于犹太教，可能受到当时众多神秘宗教的影响。

21. Jesus (d. c.30 A.D) preached the love of God and one's neighbor.

公元 30 年，耶稣开始公开宣扬对神和其他人的爱。

22. Some saw Jesus as a false messiah, others were disappointed that he did not lead a revolt against Rome, and the Romans, fearing he was a rebel, executed him.

有些人认为耶稣是一个虚假的弥赛亚，另一些人则对他没有反抗罗马的行为感到失望；罗马人则担心他是反叛者，将其交给罗马当局。

23. His followers believed that he rose ascended into heaven, and that he would return and establish the Kingdom of God on earth.

他的追随者相信他复活升天，且即将归来并带领他们在人间建立神的国度。

24. Christianity, with its promise of salvation as a consolation to this life's trials, its similarity to many mystery religions, and its universality as a religion for all people, slowly gained acceptance.

基督教承诺将救赎作为对生命审判的安慰，与许多神秘宗教的相似性，以及它作为所有人的宗教的普遍性，慢慢被人们所接受。

25. The fifth century saw the decline and fall of the Western Roman Empire (the empire was divided in 395).

公元 5 世纪，西罗马帝国开始衰落，到 395 年，罗马帝国事实上成为两个独立的国家。

26. With fewer resources, the West was less able to repel the Huns and German.

由于资源较少，西方无力抵御匈奴和日耳曼人的入侵。

27. In 476 the last Western emperor was deposed, and numerous Germanic kingdoms replaced the Western Roman Empire, although the Eastern Empire survived for another thousand years.

公元 476 年，最后一位西方皇帝被废，尽管东罗马帝国存活了一千年，西罗马帝国在政治上已经被日耳曼君主统治的诸王国所取代，许多日耳曼王国取代了西罗马帝国。

## 全文整合版

Octavian, an astute politician, did not declare the Republic dead or himself emperor. In 27 B.C. he accepted the title of Augustus, and rather than emperor he called himself princeps, or chief citizen. He followed the prescribed legal forms, and the Senate had a role in governing, but most of the authority was in the hands of the princeps. Significantly, the army swore loyalty to him. Concerned about moral decline, Augustus restored temples and shrines. Marriage and children were encouraged, extravagance was discouraged. It was a Golden Age in literature with works by Virgil, Horace, Ovid and Livy.

Augustus established the Julio-Claudian dynasty, which lasted until 68. In 69 Vespasian, a successful general but not a member of an old Senatorial family, founded the Flavian dynasty. His son, Domitian assumed the title of imperator, or emperor. In the second century five “good emperors” maintained the Pax Romana (Roman peace). The empire, with its 50,000,000 inhabitants, was prosperous, but more so in the cities than the countryside. The Romanization of the Empire varied widely, but became more entrenched in the West, where Latin took root, than in the East and Asia, with its older traditions and preexisting Greek as the major language. The age of expansion was over: the Rhine and Danube rivers served as the borders in Europe, and the Near East was governed by client rulers. The Early Empire was a prosperous era for many, including long distance trade over the Silk Road from China and East Asia.

In the Early Empire Romans excelled in architecture and engineering, as exemplified in its 50,000 miles of roads and the Colosseum. Rome itself had a population of one million, and the gulf between the rich and poor was enormous. However, the third century was an era of decline. There were civil wars, invasions, plagues, population decline, and economic collapse.

One of the most important events in history was the birth and spread of the religion of Christianity, which grew out of Judaism and probably influenced by the numerous mystery

religions of the period. Jesus (d. c.30 A. D) preached the love of God and one's neighbor. Some saw Jesus as a false messiah, others were disappointed that he did not lead a revolt against Rome, and the Romans, fearing he was a rebel, executed him. His followers believed that he rose ascended into heaven, and that he would return and establish the Kingdom of God on earth. Christianity, with its promise of salvation as a consolation to this life's trials, its similarity to many mystery religions, and its universality as a religion for all people, slowly gained acceptance.

The fifth century saw the decline and fall of the Western Roman Empire (the empire was divided in 395). With fewer resources, the West was less able to repel the Huns and German. In 476 the last Western emperor was deposed, and numerous Germanic kingdoms replaced the Western Roman Empire, although the Eastern Empire survived for another thousand years.

# CHAPTER 7

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## 汉英对照版

1. The third century had been an era of severe decline in the Roman Empire, but under Diocletian (r. 284-305) and Constantine (r. 306-337) stability was restored.

公元 3 世纪是罗马帝国严重衰落的时代，戴克里先（第 284-305 号）和君士坦丁（第 306-337 号）两位皇帝经过努力，恢复了秩序和稳定，罗马帝国又焕发了生机。

2. The fourth century saw the triumph of Christianity.

公元 4 世纪见证了基督教的胜利。

3. Constantine legalized it, becoming the first Christian emperor, and Theodosius (r. 378-395) proclaimed it as the official religion.

君士坦丁第一位基督教皇帝，并将其合法化。公元 378-395 年，在狄奥多西大帝统治时期，基督教成为罗马帝国的官方宗教。

4. Constantine founded a New Rome in the east, and named it Constantinople.

君士坦丁在希腊城市拜占庭的基址上建造东部的新都，并将其命名为君士坦丁堡。

5. The empire was divided in 395, and with fewer resources, the West was less able to repel the Huns and Germans.

公元 395 年，分裂为东西两个部分，由于资源较少，西方无力击退匈奴和日耳曼人。

6. In 476 the last Western emperor was deposed, while the Eastern Empire survived for another thousand years.

公元 476 年，最后一位西方皇帝被废，而东罗马帝国又存活了一千年。



7. The migration of the Germanic peoples was a cause as well as a consequence of the fall of the Western Roman Empire.

日耳曼大迁徙既是西罗马帝国衰落的原因，也是后果。

8. Germanic kingdoms were established in the West, including the Ostrogoths in Italy, the Visigoths in Spain, several Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in Britain, and a Frankish kingdom in old Gaul.

西方出现了众多日耳曼王国，包括意大利的东哥特人，西班牙的西哥特人，英国的几个盎格鲁-撒克逊王国，以及古代高卢的法兰克王国。

9. Socially, there was often a fusion between old Roman elites and the new Germanic aristocracy, but Roman laws were replaced by the blood feud and the ordeal.

在社交方面，古罗马精英和新的日耳曼贵族之间经常融合，但罗马法则被流血冲突和报复所取代。

10. Bishops headed the Christian Church in major cities.

主教领导主要城市的基督教会。

11. The Bishop of Rome claimed supremacy over the Church.

罗马主教被公认为基督教会的领导者。

12. According to tradition Peter became the first Bishop of Rome (or pope), and his successors claimed his authority.

根据传统，彼得成为罗马的第一位主教（或教皇），他的继任者成了天主教的教皇。

13. One of the most significant was Gregory I, the Great (590-604): the Church would build upon Gregory's foundations, both religious and political.

其中最重要的是格雷戈里一世，大帝（590-604）：教会将建立在格雷戈里的宗教和政治基础之上。

14. Monasteries were crucial to the success of the Church.

修道院对教会的成功至关重要。

15. Early Christian monks were often hermits who practiced extreme forms of asceticism.

早期的基督教僧侣往往是隐士，他们实行极端形式的禁欲主义。

16. The Church was the intellectual force in the Middle Ages.

教会是中世纪知识分子的主要提供者。

17. The early Church was greatly influenced by Greek philosophy in defining doctrine.

希腊哲学极大的影响力早期基督教会的教义。

18. The Eastern Roman Empire suffered no decline and fall, as had the West.

东罗马帝国没有向西方一样遭受任何衰落。

19. Constantinople was the largest city in Europe, and Justinian (r. 527-565) was among its greatest rulers.

君士坦丁堡是欧洲最大的城市，查士丁尼（r. 527-565）是其最伟大的统治者之一。

20. He codified centuries of Roman law in the *Corpus Iuris Civilis*, which was adopted in the West toward the end of the Middle Ages.

他组织编纂了罗马法，该法构成了东罗马帝国法令的基础，这种状况一直延续到中世纪末期。

21. But the Eastern Empire, which became known as the Byzantine Empire, was overextended, and plagues and was reduced its territory to Asia Minor and the Balkans.

由于过度扩张，瘟疫和战争，拜占庭帝国领土面积日益缩小，它仅仅控制着东巴尔干地区和小亚细亚一带。

22. The pope was the recognized head of Western Christendom, but in the East it was the emperor who not only ruled the state but also the church.

教皇是西方基督教世界公认的领袖，但在东方，皇帝既控制着国家又控制着教会。

23. Eventually the differences led to two different Christian churches, Catholic and Orthodox.

最终，这些差异使得基督教分裂为两种不同的教会，即天主教和东正教。

24. Muhammad, one of the most significant figures in world history, was born in the Arabian city of Mecca.

穆罕默德是世界历史上最重要的人物之一，出生于阿拉伯城市麦加。

25. Muhammed received numerous religious revelations from Allah (or God), which were written down in the Qur'an, the holy book of Islam.

他获得的启示最终被记录下来，《古兰经》就是从这些启示录中衍生出来的。

26. Although differences emerged after Muhammed's death in 632, in part over who should succeed him, Islam expanded rapidly, with Muslim Moors moving into Spain c.710 and into France until defeated at the battle of Tours in 732.

632 年，穆罕默德去世，他的信徒此后处于两难选择之中，部分原因在于穆罕默德没有指定继承者。伊斯兰教迅速扩张，穆斯林于 710 年左右进入西班牙，于 732 年进入法国，在都尔战役中被击败。

27. Constantinople repelled Muslim armies, surviving until 1453, indirectly protecting Christian Europe.

拜占庭军队击溃了穆斯林的舰队，拯救了拜占庭帝国，存活至 1453 年，间接的拯救了基督教欧洲。

28. Not only did Muslims capture vast territories, they also created a great culture.

穆斯林不仅占领了广阔的领土，而且还创造了一种伟大的文化。

## 全文整合版

The third century had been an era of severe decline in the Roman Empire, but under Diocletian (r. 284-305) and Constantine (r. 306-337) stability was restored. The fourth century saw the triumph of Christianity. Constantine legalized it, becoming the first Christian emperor, and Theodosius (r. 378-395) proclaimed it as the official religion. Constantine founded a New Rome in the east, and named it Constantinople. The empire was divided in 395, and with fewer resources, the West was less able to repel the Huns and Germans. In 476 the last Western emperor was deposed, while the Eastern Empire survived for another thousand years.

The migration of the Germanic peoples was a cause as well as a consequence of the fall of the Western Roman Empire. Germanic kingdoms were established in the West, including the Ostrogoths in Italy, the Visigoths in Spain, several Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in Britain, and a Frankish kingdom in old Gaul. Socially, there was often a fusion between old Roman elites and the new Germanic aristocracy, but Roman laws were replaced by the blood feud and the ordeal.

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But the Eastern Empire, which became known as the Byzantine Empire, was overextended, and plagues and wars reduced its territory to Asia Minor and the Balkans. The pope was the recognized head of Western Christendom, but in the East it was the emperor who not only ruled the state but also the church. Eventually the differences led to two different Christian churches, Catholic and Orthodox.

Muhammad, one of the most significant figures in world history, was born in the Arabian city of Mecca. received numerous religious revelations from Allah (or God), which were written down in the Qur'an, the holy book of Islam. Although differences emerged after Muhammed's death in 632, in part over who should succeed him, Islam expanded rapidly, with Muslim Moors moving into Spain c.710 and into France until defeated at the battle of Tours in 732. Constantinople repelled Muslim armies, surviving until 1453, indirectly protecting Christian Europe. Not only did Muslims capture vast territories, they also created a great culture.

# CHAPTER 8

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## 汉英对照版

1. Early medieval Europe was a land of isolated villages.

早期的中世纪欧洲是一片孤立的村庄。

2. Famine was common and life expectancy low.

饥荒很常见，而且人民的平均寿命很低。

3. In France, Charlemagne (r.768-814) gained a vast European kingdom through military conquest.

在法国，查理曼（r.768-814）依靠武力征服获得了广阔的欧洲王国。

4. On Christmas Day, 800, Pope Leo III crowned him Roman emperor, symbolizing the fusion of Roman, Christian, and German elements.

公元 800 年，圣诞节这天，教皇利奥三世为查理曼加冕，使其成为罗马皇帝，这象征着罗马，基督教和日耳曼元素的融合。

5. It was a much different Roman Empire than existed centuries earlier, but nevertheless, some historians have claimed that Charlemagne should be considered as the “father of Europe.”

查理曼的加冕不是象征罗马帝国的再生，而是象征一个崭新的欧洲文明的诞生，一些历史学家声称查理曼应该被视为“欧洲之父”。

6. There was also a Carolingian intellectual revival.

还有一个是加洛林文艺复兴。

7. Monasteries maintained scriptoria for the copying of manuscripts, and the Carolingian minuscule standardized the script.

加洛林时期修道院保留了大量手稿，加洛林修道士在抄写实践中形成的加洛林抄写体是手工印刷体，使得脚本标准化。

8. A palace school was established, which taught in classical Latin what later became the liberal arts.

查理曼建立了一所宫廷学校，这所学校教授古典拉丁文，且采用七艺划分文科课程。

9. The Church attempted to establish formal monogamous marriages.

教会试图建立正式的一夫一妻制。

10. Sex outside of marriage was condemned, as was homosexuality.

婚外性行为及同性恋行为遭到谴责。

11. Clergy were to be celibate.

神父们都坚守独身。

12. The fundamental food for all classes was bread, consumed in great quantities.

加洛林时期的人们，不论穷富，其主要食物是面包，且对面包的消费量极大。

13. Drunkenness was common, as was overeating (gluttony), though malnutrition also was widespread.

暴食暴饮是加洛林社会的人们共有的缺点，虽然营养不良也很普遍。

14. Bleeding, herbs, magical charms, and appeals to God and the saints were resorted to in curing diseases.

中世纪早期的医生除了采用药草和放血的方法治病以外，还增加请求神灵治疗法。

15. Charlemagne's grandchildren divided his lands into a Latin-French west and a Germanic east, with the middle region to be fought over.

查理曼去世以后，加洛林帝国一分为三——西法兰克，东法兰克和中法兰克。

16. Invasions by Scandinavian Vikings, Muslims, and Magyars occurred in the ninth and tenth centuries.

9-10 世纪，西欧处于数个非基督教民族的轮番进攻之下，它们包括穆斯林、马扎尔人和维京人。

17. Divided leadership and the invasions led to feudalism, or lordship, where government became localized and powerful nobles controlled vast lands.

外族入侵及其分化促成了封建主义，随着政府权威的消解，实力强大的贵族控制了大量的土地。

18. Other free men, vassals, served the lords, promising military service, and were granted lands, known as fiefs.

贵族赐给封臣土地，作为回报，封臣为他们的主人而战。

19. Relations between lords and vassals were formalized by the oath of homage.

领主与封臣之间的关系需经公共仪式才可正式确立。

20. Peasants, free and unfree (serfs), worked the land in a system known as manorialism.



农民，以及自由和不自由的农奴在土地上工作的制度被称为庄园制。

21. In the Germanies, with the death of the last Carolingian ruler (911), a Saxon duke was elected king.

在德意志地区，公元 911 年，随着最后一位加洛林王朝统治者的去世，撒克逊公爵当选为国王。

22. Otto I (d.973), who was crowned Roman Emperor, attempted to rule both Italy and the Germanies, an impossible task.

973 年，被加冕为罗马皇帝的奥托一世试图统治意大利和德意志，但这是一项不可能完成的任务。

23. The Carolingian line also died out in France (987), and Count Hugh Capet was chosen the new king.

987 年，加洛林最后一位国王去世之后，雨果·卡佩当选为新国王，由此建立了法国的卡佩王朝。

24. In England, Alfred the Great (r.871-899), king of Wessex, defeated the Danish Vikings and created a unified monarchy.

在英格兰，威塞克斯国王阿尔弗雷德大帝（r.871-899）击败了丹麦的维京人，并创建了一个统一的君主国。

25. The tenth century was the “Golden Age of Byzantine civilization.”

十世纪是“拜占庭文明的黄金时代”。

26. Under the Macedonian dynasty (867-1081), trade flourished, the Bulgars were defeated, Muslim armies were repelled, and Byzantine territory was increased.

在马其顿王朝时期（867-1081），贸易蓬勃发展，保加尔人被击败，穆斯林军队被击退，拜占庭帝国版图扩大。

27. In Eastern Europe the Slavic kingdoms of Poland and Bohemia were established, whose peoples were converted to Christianity by Catholic missionaries.

在东欧，出现了由斯拉夫人建立的波兰和波希米亚王国，在传教士的努力下，他们的人民已经实现了向基督教的皈依。

28. The eastern and southern Slavs, such as the Bulgars, the Serbs, and the Russ, adopted Orthodox Christianity.

东部和南部的斯拉夫人，如保加利亚人，塞尔维亚人和罗斯人，都皈依了东正教。

29. Under the Umayyad dynasty, Damascus was the capital of Islam until the eighth century when the new Abbasid dynasty moved it east to Baghdad.

倭马亚王朝在大马士革定都，这里是伊斯兰帝国的中心，公元 8 世纪，新的阿拔斯王朝将其向东移至巴格达。

30. Greek, Syrian, and Persian scientific and philosophic writings were translated into Arabic, and an urban culture blossomed, not only in the Near East but also in Umayyad Spain's Cordoba, which later became a gateway of classical knowledge to the Christian west.

不计其数的希腊，叙利亚和波斯的科学与哲学著作被翻译成阿拉伯语，穆斯林创造了辉煌的都市文化，这一点不仅在近东可见一斑，西班牙境内倭马亚王朝的首都科尔多瓦可作为明证，阿拉伯帝国成为基督教西方古典知识的门户。

31. Political unity, however, was lost, with separate caliphates established in Spain, Egypt, and elsewhere.

然而，阿拉伯帝国内部失去了政治团结，西班牙，埃及和其他地方建立了独立的哈里发。

## 全文整合版

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In the Germanies, with the death of the last Carolingian ruler (911), a Saxon duke was elected king. Otto I (d.973), who was crowned Roman Emperor, attempted to rule both Italy and the Germanies, an impossible task. The Carolingian line also died out in France (987), and Count Hugh Capet was chosen the new king. In England, Alfred the Great (r.871-899), king of Wessex, defeated the Danish Vikings and created a unified monarchy.

The tenth century was the “Golden Age of Byzantine civilization.” Under the Macedonian dynasty (867-1081), trade flourished, the Bulgars were defeated, Muslim armies were repelled, and Byzantine territory was increased. In Eastern Europe the Slavic kingdoms of Poland and Bohemia were established, whose peoples were converted to Christianity by Catholic missionaries. The eastern and southern Slavs, such as the Bulgars, the Serbs, and the Russ, adopted Orthodox Christianity.

Under the Umayyad dynasty, Damascus was the capital of Islam until the eighth century when the new Abbasid dynasty moved it east to Baghdad. Greek, Syrian, and Persian scientific and philosophic writings were translated into Arabic, and an urban culture blossomed, not only in the Near East but also in Umayyad Spain's Cordoba, which later became a gateway of classical knowledge to the Christian west. Political unity, however, was lost, with separate caliphates established in Spain, Egypt, and elsewhere.

# CHAPTER 9

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## 汉英对照版

1. The period from 1000 to 1300, known as the High Middle Ages, saw a doubling of the European population and the growth of cities and trade.

中世纪盛期是从 1000 到 1300 年，欧洲人口增加了一倍，城市发展，贸易增长。

2. The climate improved, contributing to increased food production, and forests were cleared and lands reclaimed from swamps.

气候的改善有助于粮食产量的增加，此外，农民砍伐树木，排干沼泽来获取土地。

3. Iron plowshares brought heavy soils under cultivation, and horses, with the invention of horse collars, replaced the slower-moving oxen in the fields.

铁犁在耕种时足以完成翻种厚重黏土的任务，且随着马轭的发明，马匹取代了田地中行动缓慢的牛，使得犁地速度有了提高。

4. Watermills and windmills came into wider use.

水车和风车也得到了广泛的应用。

5. The increased demand for agricultural products improved the lot of the peasants.

对农产品需求的增加改善了农民的命运。

6. While peasants labored, the aristocratic ideal was to wage war.

农民忙于劳作，而贵族则热衷于发动战争。

7. Tournaments allowed knights to train for battle, but it also provided a social outlet, contributing to the ideals of chivalry.

比武大会允许年轻贵族进行军事训练，但它也提供了一个社交渠道，有助于骑士精神的传递。

8. The Church, with mixed success, attempted to limit warfare by forbidding fighting on Sundays and feast days, and by redirecting the ardor for battle into crusades.

教会试图通过禁止星期日和节日的战斗来限制战争，并将战斗的热情重新引导到十字军东征，这些措施取得了不同程度的成功，

9. Castles served as fortresses and homes for the ruling class.

城堡是统治阶级的堡垒和家园。

10. Aristocratic women married young and were to be subservient, but they often had financial responsibilities, and some had considerable influence.

贵族妇女结婚早，且处于男子的控制之下，但她们往往有料理家产的责任，而且有些人有相当大的影响力。

11. The revival of urban life occurred first in northern Italy and in Flanders, where the wool-cloth trade developed.

城市生活的复兴首先发生在毛纺业发达的意大利北部和弗兰德斯。

12. Regional fairs, such as at Champagne in northern France, facilitated trade.

各领地的集市活动促进了贸易发展，如法国北部的香槟。

13. In the cities, the largest with a population of 100,000, artisans, organized into monopolistic craft guilds, played a major role.

在城市中，垄断的工业行会发挥了重要作用，其中最大的行会拥有 10 万人口的工匠。

14. New laws and customs evolved, and many towns gained charters of liberty from local lords, which guaranteed certain freedoms.

新的法律和习俗得到了发展，许多城镇从地方领主那里获得了自由的许可证，特许证赋予他们所渴望的某些自由。

15. The urban inhabitants lived and worked in close proximity, fire was a constant threat, and dirt and disease was rampant.

城市居民生活和工作距离很近，火灾是一个持续的威胁，污垢和疾病猖獗。

16. There was also an artistic and intellectual renaissance in the High Middle Ages.

中世纪盛期是一个学术活力和艺术生命力尽显的时代。

17. The first university was founded in Bologna, Italy, where the recently discovered *Body of Civil Law* was the focus of study.

第一所大学出现于意大利的博洛尼亚，它的研究重点是民法体系。

18. Teaching was in Latin, and the curriculum was the seven liberal arts of grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music.

中世纪大学内学生最初的学科集中在传统的文科七艺，包括语法、修辞、逻辑、算术、集合、天文以及音乐等，拉丁文是学生们通用的交流语言。

19. Books were rare, thus instructors read the texts to students, adding their own interpretations.

书本价格昂贵，很少学生负担得起，所以老师从文本中读取一段，然后加上个人评论。

20. Many graduates took positions in the royal and church bureaucracies.

许多毕业生在皇家和教会官僚机构中担任职务。

21. There was a renewed interest in classical writings, particularly those of Aristotle, which were translated into Latin in the twelfth century.

人们对古典著作重燃兴趣，尤其是亚里士多德的古典著作，这些著作在十二世纪被翻译成拉丁文。

22. Christian theology was the “queen of the sciences,” and scholars attempted to reconcile faith with reason, using logic to validate revelation in a system known as *scholasticism*.

神学，作为对宗教的规范研究，在新的大学里有“科学王后”之誉。有人尝试将因果关系或逻辑分析应用于教会的基本教义。所谓的经院神学是指中世纪教会的哲学和神学体系。

23. The most influential of the scholastics was Thomas Aquinas (d. 1274), who used Aristotelian logic and the dialectical method of posing and answering questions in his *Summa Theologica*.

最有影响力的学者是托马斯·阿奎那（卒于 1274 年），他完成了著名的《神学大全》，在该书中他使用亚里士多德的辩证法来提出和回答问题。。

24. In literature, Latin began to give way to the vernacular.

在文学方面，拉丁语开始让位于方言。

25. Troubadour poetry was written in the vernacular, as were heroic epics such as the *Song of Roland*.

另一种类型的本地文学是歌谣，或英雄史诗，最早和最佳的例证就是《罗兰之歌》



26. In architecture, Romanesque, with its barrel vaults and massive pillars and walls with little space for windows gave way in the twelfth century to the Gothic.

在建筑方面，罗马式建筑拥有圆形拱顶，巨大的柱子和墙壁，窗户空间很小，在 12 世纪让位于哥特式建筑。

27. Cathedral construction would take decades: it was a community endeavor, an act of faith in this world and the next.

大教堂的建设需要几十年的时间：这是一项社区活动，是对现世和来世的信仰行为。

## 全文整合版

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There was a renewed interest in classical writings, particularly those of Aristotle, which were translated into Latin in the twelfth century. Christian theology was the “queen of the sciences,” and scholars attempted to reconcile faith with reason, using logic to validate revelation in a system known as scholasticism. The most influential of the scholastics was Thomas Aquinas (d. 1274), who used Aristotelian logic and the dialectical method of posing and answering questions in his *Summa Theologica*.

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# CHAPTER 10

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## 汉英对照版

1. In the High Middle Ages monarchs consolidated their power.

在盛期中世纪，君主权力得到了巩固。

2. When William, Duke of Normandy, conquered England in 1066, he created a centralized monarchy.

1066 年，诺曼底公爵威廉征服英格兰后，他创造了一个中央集权的君主制。

3. Henry II (d.1189) established a system of royal courts and laws common to the entire kingdom, but Henry's youngest son, John (d.1216) was forced to accept the Magna Carta in 1215, which established the principle that the king was also bound by the laws.

亨利二世（d.1189）建立了王由室法庭和共同法组成的法律体系，但是亨利最小的儿子约翰（1216 年）在 1215 年被迫接受了大宪章，这确立了国王权力受法律约束的原则。

4. Edward I (d.1307) advanced representative government in the institution of Parliament when he summoned representatives from the cities and the non-titled knightly class to meet with the higher nobility.

爱德华一世（d.1307）统治时期，代议制政府发展史中重要的一个机构——英国议会产生，议会由骑士，城镇议员以及男爵和教会议员组成。

5. The early Capetian kings of France had little authority over their nobility, but Philip II Augustus (d.1223) strengthened the monarchy by depriving the English kings of their French lands.

法国早期的卡佩国王对他们的贵族没什么权力，但是菲利普二世奥古斯都（d.1223）通过剥夺英国国王在法国的土地加强了君主制。

6. By the reign of Philip IV the Fair (d.1314) a royal bureaucracy was firmly in place.

在菲利普四世统治时期（d. 1314），一个皇家官僚机构已经牢固的存在。

7. In 1302, Philip summoned representatives of the nobility, clergy, and the cities, thus instituting the Estates-General, which never gained the power of England's Parliament.

在 1302 年，菲利普召集贵族，神职人员和城市的代表建立了三级会议，但三级会议并未像英国议会一样获得权力。

8. In the eleventh century several small Christian kingdoms in northern Spain began to wage war against the Muslims, a struggle that continued until 1492 when the Moors were expelled.

在十一世纪，西班牙北部的几个小型基督教王国开始对穆斯林发动战争，这场斗争一直持续到 1492 年摩尔人被驱逐。

9. The German monarchs, preoccupied with controlling northern Italy, lessened their authority in Germany; centralized royal power never materialized in Germany.

德国君主专注于控制意大利北部，因而他们在德国的权威下降；集中的王权在德国从未实现过。

10. Unified monarchies appeared in Scandinavia, and in Eastern Europe German Teutonic Knights battled Slavs.

斯堪的纳维亚半岛出现了统一的君主制，德国条顿骑士团与斯拉夫人在东欧作战。

11. Further east, the Mongols captured Russia.

再往东，蒙古人征服了俄罗斯。

12. The Church remained powerful, but its spirituality was compromised by its secular involvements.

教会仍然十分强大，但自身精神生活因其过多的参与世俗而受到损害。

13. In the Investiture Controversy, wherein the German kings had been appointing church officials, Pope Gregory VII forced Henry IV to beg his forgiveness at Canossa (1077), an event which symbolized of the pope's authority.

在“主教叙任权之争”中，教皇格雷戈里七世强迫亨利四世在卡诺萨（1077）请求他的原谅，这一事件象征着教皇的权威。

14. The Church's power reached its apex under Pope Innocent III (r.1198-1216), who excommunicated kings and authorized crusades.

教皇的权力在教皇英诺森三世（1198-1216）统治时达到了顶峰，他将国王和授权的十字军逐出教会。

15. The High Middle Ages was an era of religious enthusiasm.

盛期中世纪是一个充满宗教热情的时代。

16. Monasteries provided many social services, including providing food and clothing to the poor, and hospitals for the elderly or terminally ill.

修道院提供了许多社会服务，包括为穷人提供食物和衣物，以及为老年人或绝症提供医院。

17. Collecting holy relics and embarking on pilgrimages was widespread.

收集圣物并开始朝圣是很普遍的。

18. Innocent III supported a crusade against the heresy of Cathar dualism, and instituted the holy inquisition.

英诺森三世支持反对卡塔尔二元论异端的十字军东征，并设立了神圣的宗教裁判所。

19. Homosexuals and Jews were also victims of popular passions, and the latter were driven out of France and England.

同性恋者和犹太人也是宗教不宽容的受害者，后者被驱逐出法国和英国。

20. The crusades exemplified the power of the papacy and popular religious enthusiasm.

十字军东征体现了罗马教皇的力量和民众的宗教热情。

21. The Moslem Seljuk Turks defeated a Byzantine army at the battle of Manzikert in 1071, and in 1095 Pope Urban II urged a holy war against Islam.

1071 年，穆斯林塞尔柱土耳其人在曼齐克特战役中击败拜占庭军队，1095 年，教皇乌尔班二世敦促对伊斯兰教进行圣战。

22. The motives of the crusades were mixed, including religion, adventure, and the quest for riches, and they captured Jerusalem in 1099 and established several small states in the region.

十字军的动机十分复杂，包括宗教，冒险和对财富的渴求，他们在 1099 年占领了耶路撒冷，并在该地区建立了几个小国。

23. The Turks struck back, leading to later crusades.

土耳其人的反击导致后来的十字军东征。

24. The Fourth Crusade sacked Constantinople; the Byzantine Empire never fully recovered.

第四次十字军东征攻陷了君士坦丁堡，从此拜占庭帝国一蹶不振。

25. Other crusades followed, but in 1291 the last western outpost fell to Islam.

其他十字军紧随其后，但在 1291 年，最后一个西部前哨落入伊斯兰教手中。

26. The crusades contributed to the revival of trade, already underway, but they also encouraged the spread of religious bigotry and violence.

十字军东征促进了贸易的复兴，但它们也鼓励了宗教偏见和暴力的扩散。

## 全文整合版

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event which symbolized of the pope's authority. The Church's power reached its apex under Pope Innocent III (r.1198-1216), who excommunicated kings and authorized crusades.

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The crusades exemplified the power of the papacy and popular religious enthusiasm. The Moslem Seljuk Turks defeated a Byzantine army at the battle of Manzikert in 1071, and in 1095 Pope Urban II urged a holy war against Islam. The motives of the crusaders were mixed, including religion, adventure, and the quest for riches, and they captured Jerusalem in 1099 and established several small states in the region. The Turks struck back, leading to later crusades. The Fourth Crusade sacked Constantinople; the Byzantine Empire never fully recovered. Other crusades followed, but in 1291 the last western outpost fell to Islam. The crusades contributed to the revival of trade, already underway, but they also encouraged the spread of religious bigotry and violence.



**Level II**

# CHAPTER 11

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The fourteenth century was an era of crisis. A “little ice” age led to famine, but a greater disaster followed: The Black Death. The bubonic plague, spread by black rats’ fleas carrying the bacterium *Yersinia pestis*, reached Europe in 1347. In a few years up to 50 percent of the population died, with higher mortality rates in urban areas. It returned every few years for centuries.

Reactions differed. Some escaped into alcohol, sex, and crime. Others, believing the Black Death to be a punishment from God, attempted to atone for their sins through self-inflicted pain. The Jews became scapegoats. People fled, carrying the plague with them. The resulting labor shortage could benefit peasants, although the demand for products was also reduced. When the ruling classes reduced wage rates there were peasant revolts. The ruling classes quelled the revolts, but social upheaval continued to bedevil the post-plague world.

Wars were also part of the crisis, notably the Hundred Years War between England and France. In 1328 the French Capetian line ended. England’s Edward III (d.1377) claimed the French throne, but a cousin to the Capets, Philip of Valois, became king (d.1350). War soon began. Armored knights on horseback were the backbone of medieval armies, but English peasants using the longbow had begun to change the face of war. When the French king was captured, a treaty was signed in 1360: France agreed to pay ransom, the English received land in France, and Edward renounced his claim to the throne.

Using guerilla tactics, the French regained their lands, but in 1415 England’s Henry V (d.1422) invaded. The French cause was saved by Joan of Arc (d.1431), a young peasant woman. Her leadership inspired the French, who also began to rely on cannon, and by 1453 France had won.

During Edward III’s reign, the English Parliament gained control over taxes, increasing its power. In France, however, the Estates-General failed to achieve the same influence. In Germany, dukedoms and city-states went their own way, independent of the Holy Roman

Emperor, itself an elective office. Italy was divided into small kingdoms in the south, the Papal States in central Italy, and several city-states in the north, notably Milan and the oligarchic republics of Florence and Venice. Warfare was endemic.

The papacy declined. Confrontation between France's Philip IV (d.1314) and Pope Boniface VIII led to the removal of the papacy to Avignon on France's border in 1305. From 1377 there were two competing popes. Some argued that a general council, not the pope, should rule the church, and Conciliarism did end the Great Schism.

Vernacular literature was exemplified in Italy by Dante, Chaucer in England, and Christine de Pizan in France. In art, Giotto explored three-dimensional realism. After the Black Death, artists frequently portrayed subjects of death and decay. The impact of the plague led to urban public health regulations and to younger marriages. Technological developments included the perfection of the clock. Finally, the development of gunpowder blew the Middle Ages into history.

# CHAPTER 12

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Beginning in Italy, the Renaissance (or “rebirth”) was an era that rediscovered the culture of ancient Greece and Rome. It was also a time of recovery from the fourteenth century. In comparison with medieval society, the Renaissance had a more secular and individualistic ethos, but might best be seen as evolutionary in its urban and commercial continuity from the High Middle Ages.

The aristocracy remained the ruling class, its ideals explicated in Castiglione’s *The Book of the Courtier*. Peasants were still the vast majority, but serfdom and manorialism were dying out. An important minority were the inhabitants of towns and cities, with merchants and bankers at the apex and the unskilled workers at the bottom. The father or husband as a director dominated the extended family, and marriages were arranged for social and economic advantage. Wives were much younger than their husbands, with their primary function being to bear children.

Italy was dominated by five major states: the duchy of Milan, Florence, Venice, the Papal States, and the kingdom of Naples. There were also other city-states that were centers of culture and where women played vital roles. At the end of the fifteenth century, Spain and France invaded the divided peninsula. The exemplar of the new statecraft was Niccolò Machiavelli (d.1527), whose *The Prince* described the methods of gaining and holding political power: moral concerns are irrelevant, for the ends justify the means.

There was an increased emphasis upon the human. Civic humanism posited that the ideal citizen was not only an intellectual but also a patriot, actively serving the state, and humanist education was to produce individuals of virtue and wisdom. The printing press was perfected, multiplying the availability of books. In art, the aim was to imitate nature by the use of realistic perspective. Masaccio (d.1428), Donatello (d.1466) and Michelangelo (d.1564) made Florence a locus of the arts. The High Renaissance of Michelangelo, Leonardo da Vinci (d.1519) and Raphael (d.1520) combined natural realism with Platonic idealism.

It was the era of the “new monarchies.” In France, Louis XI (d.1483), the Spider, established a centralized state. England’s Henry VII (d.1509) limited the private armies of the aristocracy,

raised taxes, and left a more powerful monarchy. In Spain, Isabella (d.1504) and Ferdinand (d.1516) created a professional army and enforced religious uniformity by the conversion and expulsion of Jews and Moslems. The Holy Roman Empire remained weak, but the Habsburg emperors created a strong state of their own through numerous marriages. The were no “new monarchies” in Eastern Europe, but Russia’s Ivan III (d.1505) ended Mongol control. Lastly, in 1453 the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople.

The church was besieged by problems. John Wyclif (d.1384) and John Hus (d.1415) condemned the papacy for corruption, its temporal concerns, and demanded the Bible in the vernacular. The popes reflected their era, and their secular involvements overshadowed their spiritual responsibilities. Most were great patrons of the arts, but religious concerns ranked behind the pleasures of this life.

# CHAPTER 13

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There were several roots of the religious reformations of the sixteenth century, including Christian humanism, where the focus was on the Bible and the writings of the church fathers. Among the humanists was Desiderius Erasmus (d.1536), who stressed inner piety and Christ as a guide for daily life rather than dogma and ritual. The Church was criticized for corruption, materialism, and for abuses such as pluralism and absenteeism. To the medieval church, the sacraments administered by the clergy ensured salvation, but Martin Luther (d.1546) argued that faith alone was the answer, and that the Bible, not the Church, was the sole authority. In 1517 Luther went public in his criticisms. Outlawed after being condemned by pope and emperor, he translated the Bible into German.

Erasmus agreed with Luther's ideas, but feared that they would destroy Christian unity. When peasants rose in rebellion, Luther condemned them: equality before God did not mean equality on earth, and pragmatically, Luther needed the support of the German princes against Emperor Charles V (r.1519-1556). In 1555, Charles and the princes agreed to the Peace of Augsburg, by which each prince would determine the religion of his subjects. In Switzerland, Ulrich Zwingli (d.1531) removed stained glass windows and eliminated music from worship. When Pope Clement VII was unable to annul the marriage of England's Henry VIII (d.1547), Parliament established a separate church with the monarch as its head. John Calvin (d.1564) agreed with Luther's theology, but went further in emphasizing God's sovereignty and the concept of predestination: some were predestined for heaven, others for hell. His leadership made Geneva, Switzerland, the locus of Protestantism.

For Protestants the family was the center of human society, but theological equality did not lead to equality in marriage: the wife's role was to obey her husband and bear children. Catholic holy days and religious carnivals were abolished; some went further, closing theaters and abolishing dancing.

Within the Catholic Church, the most important religious order was the Society of Jesus, or the Jesuits, founded by Ignatius Loyola (d.1556). Pope Paul III (r.1534-1549) called the council of Trent, which met from 1545 to 1563; its final report reaffirmed traditional Catholic doctrine.

It was a violent century. In France, Henry III, a Catholic, was assassinated by a monk in 1589, and the Huguenot, or Protestant, head of the Bourbon family became Henry IV (d.1610). He converted to Catholicism, reconciling the majority, and he issued the Edict of Nantes, granting religious toleration to the Huguenots: both actions were taken for political reasons. Spain's Philip II's authoritarian rule and persecution of Protestants led to rebellion in the Netherlands. It was crushed in the south, but not the north: the Dutch became independent in 1648.

Elizabeth (d.1603) was a moderate Protestant, whose policies satisfied most, but not the radical Puritans nor her exiled Catholic cousin, Mary Queen of Scots, who plotted against her and was beheaded. Philip II sent a naval Armada against England in 1588. It ended in defeat for Spain.

# CHAPTER 14

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The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were an era of Western global expansion. Among the motives, economics ranked first, followed by religion, and adventure or fame, or, as the text quotes, "God, glory, and gold." It occurred when it did because of the emergence of centralized monarchies, sufficient wealth to finance such endeavors, and new technologies such as better maps and charts, more seaworthy ships, the compass and astrolabe, and knowledge of Atlantic winds.

The first to venture forth were Portugal and Spain. Portuguese ships were exploring and trading along Africa's west coast by the mid-fifteenth century, bringing back slaves and gold. Seeking the same Asian goal as Portugal, the Italian Christopher Columbus (d.1506), sailing for Spain, reached the Caribbean West Indies in 1492, believing it was part of Asia. It was not, and the newfound land became known as the New World or America, after Amerigo Vespucci, an early geographer. Spanish conquistadors arrived on the mainland of Mesoamerica in 1519. Aztec resistance was quickly overcome thanks to assistance from other native states, gunpowder and horses, and European diseases such as smallpox.

In South America, the Incas were conquered by the 1530s. The natives became Spanish subjects, but were often exploited by Spanish settlers. Catholic missionaries, under the control of the Spanish crown, brought Christianity, including cathedrals, schools, and the inquisition, to the native population.

Although originally less prized than gold and spices, slaves became a major object of trade, and by the nineteenth century ten million African slaves had been shipped to America. It was not until the late 1700s that slavery came under criticism in Europe.

The Dutch expelled Portugal from the Spice Islands by 1600, and in India, the British East India Company controlled the Mughal Empire by the mid-1700s. Trade with China was limited, its rulers believing the West offered nothing that China needed, and Japan gave only the Dutch even minimal trading rights. In the New World, the Dutch, French, and the British



also established colonies. Eventually British North America consisted of thirteen colonies. France established an empire in Canada, but its French population remained small.

In Europe, a commercial revolution led to integrated markets, joint-stock trading companies, and banking and stock exchange facilities. Mercantilist theory posited that a nation should acquire as much gold and silver as possible, there must be a favorable balance of trade (i.e. more exports than imports) and the state would provide subsidies to manufactures, grant monopolies to traders, build roads and canals, and impose high tariffs to limit imports.

The impact of European expansion was mixed. In the Americas, the native culture was largely destroyed and a new multiracial society evolved. The Columbian exchange saw Europeans bringing horses, cattle, sugarcane, wheat, disease and gunpowder to the New World and adopting the potato, maize (corn), and chocolate in turn. Native cultures were least affected in Asia, particularly in Japan and China. Missionaries, mostly Catholic, were mainly successful in the New World, and within Europe, imperial rivalries could lead to war.

# CHAPTER 15

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The seventeenth century experienced economic recession and population decline as well as continued religious conflict between Catholics and Protestants. The breakdown of community and the growth of a more individualistic ethic resulted in a world of greater uncertainty. One reflection of anxieties was an epidemic of witchcraft accusations, usually against women.

Protestant and Catholic animosities remained a prime cause for war, notably the Thirty Years War (1618-1648). There were also national and dynastic rivalries such as those between the Bourbon kings of France and the Habsburgs of Spain and the Holy Roman Empire. The Peace of Westphalia gave the German princes the right to determine the religion of their domains, France gained territory, Spanish power declined, and the Habsburg authority as German emperors was diminished.

The century is known as the age of absolutism or the age of Louis XIV. Monarchs justified their absolutist claims by divine right—God had chosen kings to rule. Louis XIV (r.1643-1715), the Sun King, was the model for other rulers. His palace of Versailles symbolized his authority, where the aristocracy was entertained and controlled by ceremony and etiquette. Louis revoked his grandfather's Edict of Nantes, and he fought four costly wars, mainly to acquire lands on France's eastern borders. The Hohenzollern rulers of Brandenburg-Prussia became kings. Austrian power waned in the empire but it gained lands in the east and in Italy. Russia's Peter the Great (r.1689-1725) attempted to westernize Russia, especially militarily, and built a new capital, St. Petersburg, to be his window on the west. The last major invasion by the Ottoman Empire into central Europe resulted in its defeat in 1683.

The period also witnessed the golden age of the oligarchic Dutch republic. The States General was controlled by wealthy merchants, many from Amsterdam with its population of 200,000. During wars, the military leader, or stadholder, gained additional power.

The Stuart kings of Scotland, advocates of divine right absolutism, became the rulers of England in 1603. Religious disputes occurred within Protestantism, between the Church of England and Puritan reformers. Civil war between Charles I (r.1625-1649) and Parliament led to the creation of a republic, the Commonwealth. The monarchy was restored under Charles II (r.1660-1685). His brother James II (r.1685-1688), a Catholic, was opposed by his own Protestant daughter, Mary, and her husband, William of Orange, the Dutch stadholder, and invaded. Before ascending the throne, they accepted the Bill of Rights, limiting royal power. John Locke (d.1704) claimed that government is created by a social contract to protect the natural rights of life, liberty, and property, and if it fails to do so, there is a right of revolution.

In art, Mannerism, with its emotional and religious content, was followed by the Baroque, which used dramatic effects to convey religious and royal power, which in turn gave way to French Classicism. Rembrandt (d.1669) made it the golden age of Dutch painting. It was also a golden age of theater with England's Shakespeare (d.1616), Spain's Lope de Vega (d.1635), and France's Moliere (d.1673).

# CHAPTER 16

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There was an interest in nature, “God’s handiwork,” in the Middle Ages, but the world was seen through a theological prism, relying on a few ancient authorities, particularly Aristotle. Other ancient authors were rediscovered in the Renaissance, and its artists made use of science, mathematics, and nature in portraying the real world. The quest for scientific truths was often combined with a belief in magic and alchemy.

From the Scientific Revolution of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries came a new cosmology. Aristotle and Claudius Ptolemy had posited a geocentric universe, with the fixed earth in the center and crystal spheres moving around it in perfect circular orbits. But it was difficult to reconcile the Ptolemaic system with actual astronomical observations until Nicolaus Copernicus (d.1543) theorized a heliocentric or sun-centered universe. Johannes Kepler (d.1630) discovered that planetary orbits were elliptical and that a planet’s speed is variable, thus destroying the idea of perfect circular orbits.

Galileo Galilei (d.1642), using the new telescope, discovered the moon’s craters, moons of Jupiter, and sunspots; the universe was not perfect and unchanging as the Aristotelian system had claimed. Galileo was condemned by the Catholic Church, which feared a cosmology where humanity was no longer at the center of the universe and where God’s heavens were material. In his Principia, Isaac Newton (d.1722) put forth mathematical proofs to support his universal law of gravitation: the entire universe is a mechanistic entity, operating though mathematical laws.

There were advances in medicine. Andreas Vesalius (d.1564) used anatomical dissection, discovering that ancient Greek ideas of medicine were often incorrect. The discovery a single system of blood that circulates through veins and arteries was made by William Harvey (d.1657).

In spite of gender discrimination, the lack of formal educational opportunities, and the assumption that females were inferior, many women made contributions to the Scientific

Revolution, including Margaret Cavendish (d.1673) and the astronomer Maria Winkelmann (d.1720).

The Scientific Revolution led to doubt. Rene Descartes (d.1650) questioned all that he had learned and began again. What he could not doubt was his own existence—I think therefore I am—truth relies upon reason. Mind and matter differed; the mind could only achieve knowledge of the material world through reason and mathematics. Francis Bacon (d.1626) contributed the scientific method or the inductive method, where a study of the particular would lead to correct generalizations. To “conquer nature in action” was Bacon’s goal.

Knowledge of the new science was spread through universities, royal patronage, scientific societies, and scientific journals. The Scientific Revolution was more than merely intellectual theories. Its appeal was also to non-scientific elites because of its practical implications in economic progress and profits and in maintaining the social order, including the waging of war.

Traditional religious beliefs were challenged. Blaise Pascal (d.1662) claimed that Christianity was not contrary to reason, that reason and emotions were inseparable. Ultimately, his faith was in the human heart, not the rational mind.

# CHAPTER 17

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A cosmopolitan group, the philosophes used reason to improve society. The baron de Montesquieu's (d.1755) The Spirit of the Laws praised the system of checks and balances and separation of powers that he believed were the essence of the British political system, an important concept of the United States Constitution. Voltaire (d.1778) attacked the intolerance of organized religion, and many philosophes adopted Deism with its mechanistic god and a universe operating according to natural laws.

Denis Diderot (d.1784) compiled a multi-volume Encyclopedia, a compendium of Enlightenment ideas. David Hume (d.1776) advocated a "science of man." In economics, the Physiocrats rejected mercantilism in favor of the laws of supply and demand and laissez-faire, as did Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations. Jean-Jacques Rousseau (d.1778), like Locke, believed in the social contract theory, arguing that society must be governed by the general will. In claiming that in education children should follow their instincts—reason was not enough—he was a precursor of Romanticism. Many of the philosophes had traditional attitudes towards women, but Mary Wollstonecraft (d.1797) argued for the equality of the sexes and the right of women to be educated. The Enlightenment appealed mostly to the urban middle classes; it passed the peasants by. Its ideas were discussed in Parisian salons, coffeehouses, reading clubs, lending libraries, and societies like the Freemasons.

In art, the lightness and curves of the Rococo replaced the Baroque. In classical music there were major development in the opera, oratorio, sonata, concerto, and the symphony by Johann Sebastian Bach (d.1750), George Frederick Handel (d.1759), Franz Joseph Haydn (d.1809), and Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (d.1791). In England, the novel became a new literary form. There was an increase in the reading public with books, magazines, and newspapers. Elite private schools emphasized the Greek and Latin classics, but new middle-class education stressed modern languages and other relevant subjects. The theories of Cesare Beccaria (d.1794) and others contributed to a decline in the use of torture and capital punishment.

There was a separation between popular culture and the culture of the elites, although the rate of literacy was rising among the majority, in part because of an increase in primary education. State churches, traditional and conservative, were the norm. There was some gain in religious toleration for minorities including the Jews, although anti-Semitic attitudes continued. Popular religious movements appealed to the non-elites. Pietists in Germany sought a deeper personal relationship with God, and in England, John Wesley (d.1791) led a revival movement among the common people. It was a century of both change and tradition.

# CHAPTER 18

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During the eighteenth century, royal authority was often justified by the service the monarch could render to the state and its people rather than by divine right. Some believed that the monarchs should have a monopoly of power in what is called “enlightened despotism” or “enlightened absolutism.” Britain’s constitutional monarchy was an alternative.

For much of the century France was ruled by Louis XV (r.1715-1774). Only five when he ascended the throne, in his maturity he proved to be weak and lazy, controlled by his mistresses and advisors. His successor was little better. Louis XVI (r.1774-1793) was unprepared, and his wife, Marie Antoinette, an Austrian princess, became a focus of anti-royal attitudes. In Britain, power was shared between kings and parliament, with the latter gaining influence. The new ruling dynasty, from Hanover in Germany, was ignorant of British traditions and incompetent, which led to a new position in government, that of the Prime Minister.

Prussia rose to major power status under Frederick William I (r.1713-1740) and Frederick II the Great (r.1740-1786), strengthening the kingdom through an efficient bureaucracy and a larger army. Frederick the Great was in the model of an enlightened despot: he reformed the laws, allowed religious toleration and considerable freedom of speech and the press, but he also increased the army to 200,000. In the Austrian Empire, Empress Maria Theresa (r.1740-1780) centralized the government and Joseph II (r.1780-1790) abolished serfdom, reformed the laws, and granted religious toleration, but his reforms did not outlast his reign. Russia’s Catherine II the Great (r.1762-1796) also instituted reforms, but they favored the landed nobility rather than the peasants and serfs.

War was endemic, with national interests and dynastic concerns prevailing in a system guided by the balance of power. The Seven Years War (1756-1763) was fought not only in Europe but also in North America and India. Frederick the Great was the instigator, desiring Austrian Silesia, but Britain was the true victor, driving France from Canada and India, and creating a worldwide empire.



The population grew, mainly as the result of a declining death rate and improvements in agriculture, and the end of the threat of the bubonic plague. The seeds of the industrial revolution were planted, notably in the textile industry where new technologies transformed the manufacture of cotton cloth, and there was a significant increase in international trade.

The patriarchal family remained the core of society. 85 percent of the population were peasants, freer in the west than the east, but still facing many legal obligations. The nobility were 2 or 3 percent. Their large country estates defined their life style, but anyone with sufficient wealth could generally enter their ranks. Townspeople were a small minority except in Britain and the Dutch Republic; London had a population of 1 million, Paris half that. Urban mortality rates were high and poverty widespread.

# CHAPTER 19

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An era of revolutions began with the American Revolution, justified ideologically by Locke's social contract and natural rights philosophy. The Constitution of 1787, with its Bill of Rights, provided a strong central government with a separation of power between the three branches. Its affect in Europe was immense: Enlightenment ideals could become reality.

But there were other causes for the French Revolution, such as the legal inequality of the three Estates of the clergy, the aristocracy, and commoners, who were the vast majority. In 1788, the government, facing financial collapse, summoned the Estates-General for the first time since 1614. Assembling at Versailles in May 1789, it deadlocked on whether to vote as estates or by head. The Third Estate proclaimed itself the National Assembly, an illegal act which Louis XVI failed to repress, in part because of rural and urban uprisings, notably the capture of the Bastille prison in Paris on July 14.

The constitution of 1791 subordinated the monarch to the Legislative Assembly. All were citizens, but only citizens who paid taxes had the vote. The lands of the Catholic Church were nationalized and the church placed under civil control. The result was war in April 1792. In reaction to early military defeats the revolution entered into a more radical stage, abetted by the Paris Commune of artisans and merchants. A republic was proclaimed and the ex-king, Louis XVI, was executed in January 1793.

To meet the domestic and foreign threats, the Committee of Public Safety was given dictatorial power. Under the leadership of Maximilien Robespierre, it raised an army motivated by national patriotism rather than dynastic loyalties. Revolutionary courts were created to ferret out those not sufficiently supportive of the revolution, and 50,000 were executed during "the Terror." But in July 1794, the National Convention turned against Robespierre, who was quickly executed.

Revolution and war gave Napoleon Bonaparte, his opportunity. A controversial figure, he was more the enlightened despot than the democratic revolutionary. He made peace with the

papacy on his terms, and his Civil Code guaranteed equality, though less so for women. In 1804 he crowned himself Emperor. His armies conquered much of the continent but his empire did not last. Great Britain remained undefeated and French armies on the continent bred nationalistic reactions in many of the conquered areas. In June 1812, he invaded Russia with 600,000 troops, but ultimately the French were forced to retreat. National revolts, a reaction to French occupation armies, broke out, and Napoleon abdicated in 1814. He briefly returned to power but was defeated at the battle of Waterloo in 1815, and sentenced to exile on the island of Saint Helena in the South Atlantic, where he died in 1821. His shadow hung over Europe for decades.

At the end, order had triumphed over liberty, and the victors were the propertied classes. However, the ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity inspired future generations, and the citizen nationalism created in France led to the development of modern nationalism elsewhere.

# CHAPTER 20

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The Industrial Revolution was a transforming event in world history. Britain was in the forefront because of several advantageous circumstances. An agricultural revolution had increased the quantity of foodstuffs thus lowering the costs and a population increase supplied a surplus of labor for the new industrial technologies. Britain was a wealthy nation with capital for investment. Coal and iron were abundant, and a transportation revolution created a system of canals, roads, bridges, and later, steam-powered railroads. Parliament had established a stable government where property, one of Locke's natural rights, was protected. Finally, Britain was the world's major colonial power with access to overseas markets. The cotton industry led the way because of new technologies such as the spinning jenny and power loom. Most significant was the steam engine, perfected by James Watt (d.1819). London's Great Exhibition of 1851 showcased to the world Britain's industrial might.

Continental industrialization was delayed because of a lack of transport, the existence of internal tolls, less sympathetic governments, and the upheavals of the French Revolution and Napoleonic wars. Unlike Britain's laissez-faire approach, continental industrialization was subsidized by governments the construction of railroads, establishing technical schools, and excluding cheaper British goods through tariffs. By 1860, the United States was also well along the road of industrialization.

In the non-western world industrial development was much slower, in part because it lacked the social-economic-political structures of the West, but also because Britain and other colonial powers prevented the growth of local industries in order to maintain a market for their manufactured goods: colonies were to produce raw materials and purchase industrial products.

The birthrate declined but the population increased because of a reduction in epidemics and wars and an increase in the food supply. Overpopulation, particularly in rural areas, led to disaster, such as in the potato famine in Ireland that led to the death of a million persons between 1845 and 1851. Cities grew dramatically: London grew from one million in 1800 to 2.35 million in 1850. Urbanization was slower on the continent, and until the twentieth

century most workers were still engaged in agriculture. Urban living conditions were often horrendous and most cities lacked any semblance of sanitary facilities.

The new middle-class consisted of manufacturers and bankers. Even members of the traditional aristocracy became industrial entrepreneurs. Another new class was the working class. The work environment, especially in the factories, was dreadful: long hours, unsafe conditions, and child labor was the norm. Laws were passed, in Britain known as the Factory Acts, in the attempt to improve factory conditions, initially for women and children, and workhouses were established for the jobless and homeless.

Labor unions were formed to improve wages and conditions but with limited success. Workers sometimes protested by destroying the factories and machines, as did the Luddites in England. England's Chartist movement petitioned Parliament, demanding reforms, but the politicians rejected their demands. The Industrial Revolution radically transformed western civilization and then the rest of the world—politically, economically, socially—for good and for ill.

**Level III**

# CHAPTER 21

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One of the many “isms” of nineteenth century was conservatism. For conservatives, society and the state, not the individual, was paramount, in a world to be guided by tradition. The victors over Napoleon met at the Congress of Vienna, forming the Quadruple Alliance of Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia. Its guiding principle was “legitimacy,” or monarchical government, to be maintained by a balance of power. A new German Confederation replaced the Holy Roman Empire. The Quadruple Alliance became the Quintuple Alliance with the admittance of France.

Acting as the Concert of Europe, the major powers intervened to uphold conservative governments. However, Britain, seeking new markets, opposed intervention when Spain’s Latin American colonies declared their independence. The Bourbons returned to France with Louis XVIII (1814-1824) and Charles X (1824-1830). Bourbon Spain and Italy remained under conservative rule. Order was maintained in multi-ethnic Austria, and in Russia a reform movement was crushed in 1825.

Liberalism grew out of the Enlightenment and the era of Revolutions. Freedom was the aim, both in politics and in economics; the state should have no responsibilities except in defense, policing, and public works construction. Natural rights and representative government were essential, but most liberals limited voting to male property owners. Nationalism, with its belief in a community with common traditions, language, and customs, also emerged from the French Revolution, threatening the status quo in divided Germany and Italy and the multi-ethnic Austrian Empire. Utopian socialists envisioned cooperation rather than competitive capitalism, and voluntary communities were established.

In 1830, an uprising in France led to a constitutional monarchy headed by Louis-Philippe (1830-1848), supported by the upper middle-class. Belgium split off from the Netherlands, but national uprisings in Poland and Italy failed. In Britain, the franchise was widened to include the upper middle-classes, and free trade became the norm. The great revolutionary year was 1848. France’s Louis-Philippe fled into exile and the Second Republic was established with universal manhood suffrage, but conflict developed between socialist demands and the

republican political agenda. A unified Germany was the aim of the Frankfurt Assembly, but it failed. In Austria, liberal demands of Hungarians and others were put down. In Italy, there were uprisings against Austrian rule and a republic was proclaimed in Rome, but conservatives regained control.

Romanticism, a reaction against Enlightenment reason, favored intuition, feeling, and emotion. Johann Wolfgang von Goethe wrote a popular novel about a youth who committed suicide for love. The brothers Grimm collected folk tales, and the Middle Ages inspired Sir Walter Scott. Mary Shelley and Edgar Allan Poe wrote about the bizarre and Percy Bysshe Shelley and Lord George Byron were notable poets. Nature was often the subject in William Wordsworth's poetry and the paintings of Caspar David Friedrich. In music, Ludwig von Beethoven was a major figure.



# CHAPTER 22

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Louis Napoleon was elected president of France's Second Republic in 1848, but when the National Assembly refused to sanction a second term, he led a coup d'état against his own government, and, with the approval of the French voters, he became Emperor Napoleon III. Against the tide of laissez-faire liberalism, his regime took the economic lead, notably in the rebuilding of Paris. The decline of the Ottoman Empire sparked the Crimean War (1854-1856), the result of Britain and France's fear of Russian expansion. Russia was stalemated but it and Britain retreated from European affairs during the era of the unification of Germany and Italy.

Italian unification was led by Count Camillo di Cavour (d.1861), prime minister of Piedmont-Sardinia. An alliance was made with France against Austria, and victories in 1859 enlarged Piedmont's territory. Giuseppe Garibaldi (d.1882) led an uprising against the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and in 1861 a kingdom of Italy under Piedmont's House of Savoy was realized, excluding Rome and Venetia, which were taken over by 1870.

In 1862, Otto von Bismarck became Prussia's prime minister. A brilliant diplomat, in 1866 he maneuvered larger Austria into declaring war against Prussia. With its superior army, victorious Prussia united the northern states into the North German Confederation. In 1870, Prussia defeated France in a brief war, and the Second German Empire was the result. Under Bismarck, nationalism was allied with conservatism, whereas earlier in the century nationalism had been associated with liberalism.

Austria compromised with Hungarian nationalists, creating the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. Russia's defeat in the Crimean War led to reforms under Alexander II (r.1855-1881), including the freeing of millions of serfs. Conservatives feared the tsar went too far, but others wanted more reform, which led to the tsar's assassination in 1881. Britain escaped disruption because of economic growth and Parliament's willingness to make necessary reforms. The American Civil War (1861-1865) ended with the Union preserved and slavery abolished, and in 1867, Britain gave Canada dominion status, including the right to rule itself in domestic matters.

Karl Marx (d.1883), with Friedrich Engels (d.1895), published *The Communist Manifesto* in 1848, but initially it passed unnoticed. According to Marx, “the history of all hitherto existing society is the history of class struggles.” In the modern world it was the middle-class, or the bourgeoisie, who controlled the means of production, but Marx predicted that the proletariat would rise up, reorganize society on a socialist model, and create a classless society.

In science, the laws of thermodynamics, the germ theory of disease, electromagnetic induction, and chemistry’s periodic law changed the world, as did Charles Darwin’s *On the Origin of Species* (1859) with its theory of the struggle for existence, the survival of the fittest, and the emergence of new species.

It was the age of realism in the arts, exemplified in the novels of Gustave Flaubert and the works of Charles Dickens. Gustave Courbet painted scenes of everyday life.

# CHAPTER 23

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A Second Industrial Revolution occurred in the latter nineteenth century, a revolution of steel, chemicals, electricity, and the internal combustion engine. Higher wages fueled internal markets. Tariffs replaced free trade and cartels monopolized production. Germany became the industrial leader while Europe was divided into an industrialized north and a poorer south and east. World-wide, European manufactured goods and investment capital was exported abroad in exchange for raw materials.

The status of women improved somewhat in service and white-collar jobs as typists and clerks. Prostitution remained an avenue for survival for many women. Working-class political parties, such as Germany's Social Democratic Party, were established. The Second International, 1889, hoped to coordinate Marxist socialist parties, but split among advocates of the revolutionary class struggle and those who envisioned socialism being achieved democratically. Trade unions were most successful in Britain.

Europe's population reached 460 million by 1910. Many migrated from the poorer east and south to industrialized northern Europe and abroad, often for economic reasons, but also to escape ethnic and religious persecution. In the industrial north, urban populations constituted up to 80 percent of the total. Urban conditions improved because of building codes and better housing, cleaner water, and new sewage systems. Old city walls were torn down and workers commuted by trains and streetcars to the new suburbs. In redesigned cities, such as Paris and Vienna, parks and wide roads were built.

The standard of living generally improved. The elite were 5 percent of the population but controlled 30-40 percent of the wealth, as old landed wealth merged with the new industrial wealth. The middle classes, with their values of hard work and propriety, encompassed the upper middle-class professionals down to the lower middle-class white-collar clerks and bank tellers. The lower classes made up 80 percent of the population, but with rising wages many workers adopted middle class values. Industrialism reinforced traditional female inferiority: women stayed at home while men went out to work. The birthrate dropped as families limited the number of children.

Because of expanding voting rights and the need to have an electorate educated in national values, most states assumed responsibility for mass compulsory education up to the age of twelve. Literacy rates reached almost 100 percent in northern Europe, leading to a demand for mass newspapers, filled with sports and sensationalism. New leisure hours, including the weekend, led to new mass entertainment.

By the end of the century most British males had the vote. In France, the Third Republic was established in spite of opposition from monarchists, army officers, and the Catholic clergy. Italy was troubled by regional differences, political corruption, and ever-changing governments. The traditional order lasted longer in central and eastern Europe. In Germany, where the popularly elected Reichstag lacked power, Bismarck implemented social welfare programs to seduce the workers away from socialism. After the assassination of Russia's Alexander II, the reactionary Alexander III (r.1881-189) and Nicholas II (r.1894-1917) opposed all reforms.

# CHAPTER 24

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By the end of the nineteenth century, faith in reason, progress, and science was being subverted by a new modernity about the physical universe, the human mind, and in the arts. The anxieties about old certainties were seemingly confirmed by the Great War, which began in 1914.

The Newtonian mechanistic universe was challenged by the discovery of radiation and the randomness of subatomic particles. Max Planck said that energy is radiated in packets, or quanta. Albert Einstein claimed that time and space were relative to the observer, and that matter was a form of energy ( $E = mc^2$ ). Friedrich Nietzsche lauded the instinctive irrational, and Sigmund Freud argued that human behavior was governed by the unconscious.

Social Darwinists, arguing that society was also a survival of the fittest, justified laissez-faire government, but it was also used by nationalists and racists as a justification for war and inequality. Science challenged religion, but fundamentalists put their faith in the literal Bible.

In literature, Naturalism exhibited a mechanistic attitude toward human freedom. Symbolists denied objective reality; it was only symbols in the mind. Art Impressionism stressed the changing effects of light in the paintings of Camille Pissarro. In Post-impressionism, Vincent van Gogh emphasized light but also structure in portraying subjective reality (photography mirrored objective reality). Pablo Picasso's Cubism reconstructed subjects according to geometric forms and Vasily Kandinsky's Abstract Expressionism abandoned representational images. In music, mood was stressed; the musical dissonances of Igor Stravinsky's *The Rite of Spring* caused a riot at its Paris debut.

Many women demanded equal rights, including political equality; British suffragettes broke windows and went on hunger strikes to gain attention. Anti-Semitism revived. In France, Captain Alfred Dreyfus was imprisoned on trumped-up charges, and there were anti-Semitic political parties in Germany and Austria. In Russia, pogroms led many Jews to emigrate. Theodor Herzl claimed that Jews should have their own state in Palestine. British Liberals

enacted social welfare legislation. Germany's Social Democratic Party was opposed by the emperor and right-wing parties. In Russia, socialists turned to revolution; after the 1905 Revolution, Nicholas II accepted a weak Duma. By 1900, the United States was the world's leading industrial nation.

National rivalry, Social Darwinism, religious and humanitarian concerns, and economic demands of raw materials and overseas markets contributed to the New Imperialism. By 1914, Africa had been colonized. Britain occupied Australia and New Zealand and took over India from the East India Company. France colonized Indochina and Russia expanded to the Pacific. China was unable to resist Western pressures, and Japan was forced to open its borders, but modernized by borrowing from the West. An imperial United States emerged after 1898.

After the unification of Germany, Bismarck formed the Triple Alliance of Germany, Italy, and Austria-Hungary. Russia turned to France, and Britain, fearing Germany's ambitions, joined them in the Triple Entente. Austrian annexations in the Balkans were resented by Serbia. With Germany backing Austria and Russia supporting Serbia, a spark could set off a conflagration.

# CHAPTER 25

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The text rightly calls World War I the defining event of the twentieth century. The June 28, 1914, assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, by a Serbian terrorist, was the final spark. Austria, after receiving a “blank check” by Germany, declared war against Serbia on July 28. Germany declared war on Russia after the latter's military mobilization. Germany's Schlieffen Plan was to attack France through neutral Belgium.

By August 4, the Great War had begun. Initially there was great enthusiasm. War gave excitement to ordinary lives and most assumed that it would soon be over. The Germans drove the Russians back in the east, but in the west a stalemate developed, with trenches extending from the Swiss border to the English Channel, defended by barbed wire and machine guns. Attacking troops had to cross “no man's land”: 21,000 British died on the first day of the Battle of the Somme. Artillery, poison gas, seasonal mud, and ever-present rats and decaying corpses added to the carnage.

The Ottoman Empire joined Germany and Italy. After German submarine attacks, the United States entered the war in 1917. Governments took the economic lead, especially in producing munitions, and wage and price controls were instituted. Propaganda was employed to keep up morale and newspapers were censored. Many women entered the labor force, and after the war were given the vote in the United States and Britain.

Russia was unprepared for war, lacking a large industrial base or adequate leadership, and public support waned because of military losses. When bread rationing was introduced in March 1917, women demonstrated in the streets of St. Petersburg/Petrograd. The Duma established a Provisional Government and Nicholas abdicated on March 15. But socialist soviets, or workers' councils, challenged the new government's legitimacy. The revolutionary Bolshevik V.I. Lenin campaigned for “Peace, Land, and Bread” and “All Power to the Soviets.” The war was increasingly unpopular, and in November the Bolsheviks seized power. Lenin established a dictatorship and signed a costly peace with Germany. Civil war broke out between the Bolshevik Reds and the Whites, who were unable to agree politically and militarily. Able military leaders, interior lines of defense, and “revolutionary terror” led the

Bolsheviks to victory by 1921.

After Russia's withdrawal from the war, Germany launched a massive attack in the west. However, the war had taken its toll in Germany, and in the fall, after American troops entered the conflict, the German government collapsed. On November 11, 1918, an armistice was signed.

The peace delegates gathered at Paris in January 1919. Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles required Germany to accept guilt for causing the war and pay reparations. Its army was reduced to 100,000 and it lost territory to France and Poland. The Austrian and Ottoman empires disappeared. The United States refused to ratify the Treaty of Versailles and did not join the League of Nations, the institution that was to guarantee permanent peace.



# CHAPTER 26

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Ten million deaths, a lost generation, disillusionment and despair were among the fruits of World War I. Some of the survivors turned to pacifism; others were attracted to radical national ideologies such as fascism in Italy and Nazism in Germany.

European prosperity, largely the result of American loans and investments, ended with the Great Depression. The economist John Maynard Keynes favored increased government spending and deficit financing rather than deflation and balanced budgets, but had little support. Britain's unemployment remained at 10 percent during the 1920s and rose rapidly in the depression. France was governed, or ungoverned, by frequent coalition governments. The United States' New Deal was more successful in providing relief than in recovery, and unemployment remained high until World War II. Among most of the nations of Europe there was a retreat from democracy, which seemed to have failed, both politically and economically.

Totalitarian governments, which required the active commitment of their citizens, came to power in Germany, Italy and the Soviet Union. Italian fascism resulted from Italy's losses in the Great War, economic failure, and incompetent politicians. Threatening "to march on Rome," Benito Mussolini was chosen prime minister in 1922. Legal due process was abandoned and rival parties were outlawed, but totalitarianism in Italy was never as effective as in Nazi Germany or Soviet Russia.

In Germany, Adolph Hitler headed the National Socialist German Workers' Party (Nazis). A powerful orator, Hitler published his beliefs in Mein Kampf, and created a private army of storm troopers (SA), but it was not until the depression that the Nazis received wide support. Hitler became chancellor in 1933, and a compliant Reichstag passed the Enabling Act, giving him dictatorial power. Hitler rearmed Germany, abolished labor unions, and created a new terrorist police force, the SS. The Nuremberg laws excluded Jews from citizenship, and in the 1938 Kristallnacht, Jewish businesses and synagogues were burned and Jews beaten and killed.

After Lenin's death in 1924, Joseph Stalin assumed leadership in the Soviet Union. In 1928, he announced his first five-year plan to turn the Soviet Union into an industrial society. Giant collective farms were created, and in the process 10 million lives were lost. Stalin's opponents were sent to Siberia, sentenced to labor camps, or liquidated. With the exception of Czechoslovakia, authoritarian governments appeared in Eastern Europe as well as in Portugal and Spain. In the Spanish Civil War, the fascist states aided Francisco Franco and the Soviet Union backed the Popular Front.

In art, German Expressionism reflected the horrors of war and the corruptions of peace, Dada focused upon the absurd, and Surrealism upon the unconscious. The unconscious "stream of consciousness" technique was used in the novels of James Joyce. The Bauhaus movement emphasized the functional in architecture. It was also the "the heroic age of physics." The discovery of subatomic particles indicated that splitting the atom could release massive energies, and Werner Heisenberg's "uncertainty principle" had implications far beyond the study of physics.

# CHAPTER 27

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Of the causes of World War II, Adolph Hitler's ambitions loom large, including his beliefs in Aryan racial supremacy and the need for Germany to have living space in the east (*Lebensraum*). Posing as a man of peace, Hitler claimed that the Treaty of Versailles was unfair; and when German troops occupied the demilitarized Rhineland, there was little reaction by Britain and France. Criticized for invading Ethiopia, Mussolini joined Hitler in forming the Rome-Berlin Axis.

Hitler annexed Austria in March 1938. Czechoslovakia's Sudetenland, home of three million ethnic Germans, was next. Hitler soon seized the rest of Czechoslovakia, signed a non-aggression pact with the Soviet Union, and launched the *Blitzkrieg* against Poland on September 1, 1939. Next the Netherlands fell in five days, and France capitulated in June. Most of the British army escaped at Dunkirk, and under Winston Churchill's leadership, Britain survived Nazi Germany's air assault in the Battle of Britain. Hitler invaded Russia in June 1941, but Soviet resistance and winter conditions led to stalemate and soon a Soviet counterattack.

Imperial ambitions and economic concerns propelled Japan to attack the United States at Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. The Japanese advance was ended at the naval battles of the Coral Sea and Midway in 1942. In mid-1943 a German army was defeated at the Battle of Stalingrad, a major turning point in the war. In June 1944, Rome fell to the Allies and Normandy was invaded. The Soviets linked up with the western Allies in April 1945, and Hitler committed suicide. The United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki on August 6 and 8, 1945. The war had ended, but at the cost of 50 million dead.

In the Nazi empire racial assumptions were paramount, and anti-Semitism was central to Nazism. In the 1930s, Jewish emigration was encouraged, but ultimately the Final Solution was annihilation, and millions died in extermination camps. Up to six million Jews died in the Holocaust, along with Gypsies, homosexuals, and others.

Women played a major role in all the combatant nations. The mainland of the United States was never endangered, and because of its industrial wealth, the United States became the chief arsenal for the Allies. 110,000 Japanese-Americans were placed in relocation camps. Both sides bombed civilian populations; the Allied bombing of Dresden in February 1945 killed 100,000 persons, and Japanese cities suffered from widespread bombing even before the use of the atomic bomb.

Approximately 20 million soldiers lost their lives, and civilian deaths numbered 40 million. The Soviet Union experienced the greatest losses. With the exception of the United States, the economies of the belligerent nations were nearly destroyed.

By the Yalta conference of February 1945, the Soviet Union controlled most of Eastern Europe. Germany was to be divided into zones of occupation. An ideological struggle had emerged, pitting totalitarian communism against democratic capitalism. In 1946, Churchill gave a label to the new Cold War reality: Europe was divided by “an iron curtain.”

# CHAPTER 28

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The Cold War began in the aftermath of World War II. The United States and the Soviet Union had different philosophies and conflicting ambitions and fears. The Truman Doctrine promised to aid nations threatened by communism, and the Marshall Plan, which provided \$13 billion to rebuild Europe, was rejected by the Soviets. Germany and Berlin were divided into zones. When the Americans, British, and French unified their zones, the Soviets blocked access to Berlin, leading to a year-long Berlin Air Lift.

In 1949, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was created as a defensive alliance against Soviet aggression. The Soviet bloc countered with the Warsaw Pact. North Korea invaded South Korea in 1950, and the West claimed it was instigated by the Soviets. The Cold War spread to space, with the Soviet space satellite, *Sputnik I*. The Berlin Wall was built in 1961, a major Cold War symbol. The 1962 Cuban Missile Crisis almost led to nuclear holocaust until the Soviets backed down. In Vietnam, the United States feared a communist victory would result in the fall of all of Asia, like a row of dominoes. The communists achieved victory in 1975, but the dominos did not fall.

By the end of the 1960s, most of Africa had achieved independence. In the Middle East, Israel was founded in 1948 amidst war with the Arab states; the 1967 Six Day War brought the Palestinian West Bank under Israeli control. The Philippines became independent, and British India, with its Hindu majority and Muslim minority, was partitioned into Pakistan and India, but at the cost of a million dead. In China, Mao Zedong's Communists forced Chiang Kai-Shek's Nationalists to Taiwan. Soviet emphasis on heavy industry left little for consumers, and when their satellite states pursued independent paths the Soviets cracked down.

The Western European economy boomed. Charles de Gaulle's Fifth Republic saw France leave NATO and develop an atomic bomb. The Federal Republic of Germany experienced an "economic miracle," as did Italy in spite of its many coalition governments. Britain's Labour Party created a welfare state, but unrealistic union demands and a lack of business investment slowed the economy. The 1960s was a time of upheaval, with the civil rights movement, race riots, and the Vietnam anti-war movement. Canadian events often mirrored

those in the United States.

A new society, with its own challenges, resulted from economic growth and new technologies. White-collar workers increased, birth control, notably “the pill,” led to smaller families, and more women joined the work force. A significant feminist or women’s liberation movement emerged. In the arts, Andy Warhol’s Pop Art achieved notoriety as did Jackson Pollock and Abstract Expressionism. Samuel Beckett’s *Waiting for Godot* exemplified the Theater of the Absurd. The impact of two world wars and the breakdown of traditional values led to the philosophy of existentialism, exemplified by Jean Paul-Sartre and Albert Camus, which reflected the meaninglessness of modern society. Conversely, the same events and concerns led to a revival of religion.

# CHAPTER 29

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At the end of the 1960 protests engulfed the West. A youth movement emerged, and the feminist movement transformed the lives of women. One focus of rebellion was the Vietnam War, which deeply divided American society. At times the protests turned violent, and in reaction, many demanded “law and order,” a desire that Richard Nixon capitalized upon in gaining the presidency in 1968.

Under the leadership of Leonid Brezhnev (d.1982), economic stagnation stalked the Soviet Union. Because of Soviet control, Eastern Europe also stagnated. There were some economic reforms in Hungary—“Communism with a capitalist facelift”—but when reforms were introduced in Czechoslovakia in 1968, the Red Army crushed the “Prague Spring.”

After decades of economic growth, Western Europe experienced economic recessions in 1970s. West Germans installed a center-left government in 1969, and under Willy Brandt a policy of *Ostpolitik*, or “opening to the East” was adopted. In 1979, the Conservative Party’s Margaret Thatcher became the first woman prime minister in Britain. She reduced the power of the unions and brought down inflation, but some areas of the country suffered unemployment.

During the 1970s, the administrations of Gerald Ford and Jimmy Carter struggled with economic stagflation—high inflation and high unemployment. The economic problems compounded by Carter’s inability to gain the freedom of American hostages held in Iran led to his defeat by Ronald Reagan in 1980. The Reagan Revolution reduced welfare benefits and increased military funding. Tax cuts were initiated in the belief that they would stimulate economic growth, and although the economy improved, government deficits also increased.

In Vietnam, by 1965 the Vietcong opposition, backed by North Vietnam led by Ho Chi Minh, threatened the survival of the south. In response, Lyndon Johnson sent in American combat forces. Casualties mounted and in 1973, Nixon agreed to withdraw American troops.

In the People’s Republic of China, the apex of communist radicalism was the Great Proletarian

Cultural Revolution, which began in 1966. In 1972 the fervent anti-communist Nixon journeyed to China, and met with Mao. The result was a lessening of tensions and by the end of the 1970s a “strategic relationship” against any Soviet threat in Asia.

Relations with the Soviet Union also improved with détente. In 1975 the Helsinki Agreements signatories recognized existing borders in Europe and agreed to protect the human rights of their citizens. Détente took a step backwards in 1979 with the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. Reagan called the Soviet Union “the evil empire” and pursued a military buildup.

It was a new era of science, wherein governments and large corporations provided necessary funding. The computer, made possible by the silicon chip, revolutionized society. But scientific developments could lead environmental disaster, as symbolized by the nuclear accident at Chernobyl in 1986.

The ideas of Postmodernism rejected objective truth, and literary critics posited structuralism and deconstruction as alternative ways to perceive the world. Serialism and minimalism were influential in music. Popular culture was increasingly globalized, and mass sports increased in popularity, made possible by world-wide television.



# CHAPTER 30

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By the 1980s the Soviet Union was in economic crisis. A new era began in 1985 when Mikhail Gorbachev came to power. In his attempt to reform Soviet society he relied upon perestroika (restructuring) and glasnost (openness). Competitive elections were instituted, and non-Communist political parties were legalized.

However, the Soviet Union was in disarray as nationalistic movements began in most of the republics, a consequence of the reduction of the Soviet dictatorship. The Soviet Union was abolished in 1991, and a voluntary Commonwealth of Independent States replaced the Soviet empire. New president Boris Yeltsin gave backing to a market economic and a pluralistic political system, but corruption and organized crime remained. Yeltsin resigned in 1999, and a former KGB official, Vladimir Putin, replaced him.

Across Eastern Europe, Communist regimes collapsed, replaced by democratic governments. A few of the eastern states joined NATO and more became members of the European Union (EU). Ethnic demands shook Serb-dominated but multi-ethnic Yugoslavia, and war resulted when Croatia declared its independence. Yugoslavia, which had come into existence after World War I, disappeared from the map, with the remaining rump renamed Serbia.

German reunification came at considerable economic cost given the former East Germany's bankrupt economy. In Britain in 1997, Tony Blair was elected prime minister, whose tenure was tarnished by corruption and his active support of the Iraq War. Socialism failed to work in France under Francois Mitterrand, but economic problems continued under conservative Jacques Chirac.

By 2004, the population of European Community was 455 million. The EC became the European Union in 1994, and a common currency, the euro, was adopted by most member states. In the United States, the 1990s was a period of prosperity. The events of September 11, 2001, and the resulting wars in Afghanistan and Iraq, dominated the presidency of George W. Bush.

Although the Cold War had ended by 1990, “history” had not. There was a new era of conflict, an Age of Terrorism. The motives of terrorists could be nationalist, economic, political, and increasingly religious.

Women continued to enter the workforce in greater numbers, and the women’s movement prospered. In spite of the opposition of the Catholic Church, birth control and abortion were widely available. The birth rate in many Western countries declined, necessitating immigrants and “guest workers” to staff jobs. Social tensions increased and violent anti-immigrant actions occurred in France and Germany and elsewhere.

Church attendance declined precipitously in the West. The exception was among fundamentalist Christians, particularly in the United States. Islamic fundamentalism found a receptive audience, some of whom turned to terrorism.

In the visual arts, Neo-Expressionism reached its apex. The world became digitalized, and video games and cell phones transformed society. In the global economy, the multinational or the transnational corporation has become the central arbiter. But globalization could also contribute to environmental challenges such as global warming and mass immigration, with its social consequences.

