

History

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Preface

Herein is a collection of notes on history I have taken, rendered into prose of varying quality. I have paid particular attention to those topics which tend to be more popular as questions and answers in knowledge and trivia games (e.g. quiz bowl). To facilitate ease of reading, **bolded** terms are typically those which have appeared as answer lines or are likely to appear as answer lines.

There will necessarily be sections of this document which are lacking the depth or detail they rightly deserve. The goal of this document is not to present a complete and thorough retelling of human history, but to provide a starting point for history enthusiasts to quickly learn a wide variety of information.

As with any collection of information, there is obvious bias towards those topics which interest me or which I had prior knowledge of, but I am always working to add depth to those sections which are underdeveloped.

This document is a work in progress. It may contain errors or misleading information. If you find problems or wish to bring something to my attention, please file an issue on the [GitHub repository](#).



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Chapter 1. Dawn of Civilization

To bring about the rule of righteousness in the land so that the strong shall not harm the weak.

— Hammurabi

Mesopotamia

First, it's worth noting that **Sumer** existed around 3000 BC. Having been founded with the settlement of Eridu, the civilization's major city would come to be known as **Ur**. Later, Ur became very important in the changes that civilization would go through. Sumer also had a period of history called Uruk during which **cuneiform**, a wedge shaped writing system, was developed. The kings of the city-states of Sumer were called lugal, and the people used irrigation canals to farm all year.

One of the first notable rulers in Mesopotamia was **Sargon I** of Akkad, who conquered much of Sumer. He fought a war against Ur-Zababa prior to becoming one of the greatest conquerors the world had ever seen. His capital was never found. The dissolution of his Akkadian Empire led to the establishment of two important powers: Babylonia and Assyria.

Hammurabi of Babylon ruled around 1800 BC. Notably, he made a code of law can be summarized with “an eye for an eye”—it was quite harsh and painful. The code was carved on a column in Susa and it discusses the consequences for slaves that disobey their masters. The epilogue of the code thanks the gods Zamana and Ishtar, important gods around the time. Now, having been rediscovered, the code sits in the Louvre.

The last king of the Neo-Assyrian empire was **Ashurbanipal**, son of Esarhaddon son of Sennacherib. His library, a huge collection of cuneiform documents he kept in Nineveh, is in the British Museum now. He reportedly salted the earth after defeating the Elamites and taking their capital at Susa. The death of Ashurbanipal led to the downfall of the Neo-Assyrian empire.

A Chaldean king, **Nebuchadnezzar II**, was well known for building the **Hanging Gardens**

of Babylon. He defeated Necho II of Egypt at the **Battle of Carchemish** in 605 BC, and reconquered Jerusalem, destroying the city and the temple within. In addition to the Hanging Gardens, Nebuchadnezzar also put together the Ishtar Gate, Entemananki, Ezika, and Esagila.

Ancient Egypt

From c. 7000 BC to 3000 BC, the Nile Valley was being settled and generally consisted of disjointed groups which eventually coalesced into **Upper Egypt** and **Lower Egypt**. Upper Egypt was to the south (“up” the Nile), while Lower Egypt was to the north.

Some of the early Egyptian history here is fairly sketchy; there tends to be some debate amongst historians regarding certain dates and identities. A nontrivial amount of information regarding the chronology of rules eventually ends up tracing back to the **Turin King List** (aka the Turin Royal Canon), a papyrus ostensibly created during the reign of Rameses II and now housed in Turin. The information contained therein is dubious for early Egyptian history, and half of it is missing anyway.

Early Dynastic Period

Circa 3100 BC, the two kingdoms began to intertwine in both culture and economics. Thus began the **First Dynasty** of Egypt. The first pharaoh post-unification was likely **Narmer**, a king often identified as **Menes** in the Greek classical tradition (there’s still some debate around this).

An important archaeological find from this period is the **Narmer Palette**, which depicts the White Crown of Upper Egypt along with the Red Crown of Lower Egypt.

Old Kingdom (c. 2686–2181 BC)

Djoser of the Third Dynasty was the first King of the Old Kingdom, and he was buried in a notable namesake step pyramid at Saqqara, near Memphis. He worked with his vizier **Imhotep** (the guy from *The Mummy*) to make it, and Imhotep was one of the most important people during that time.

During the Third Dynasty, independent Egyptian states became called **nomes**, with each ruled by a nomarch. Each nome was under the ultimate rule of the king.

That brings us to the Fourth Dynasty, which began with Snefru (known sometimes as Soris), who became a prolific pyramid commissioner. Snefru ordered the building of three pyramids: the Meidum pyramid, the Bent Pyramid at Dahshur, and the Red Pyramid.

Snefru was succeeded by **Khufu** (known to the Greeks as Cheops), who most famously built the Great Pyramid at Giza. Not much else is documented about his reign, but he is the main character in the Westcar Papyrus (a collection of some stories about miracles).

Later kings of the Fourth Dynasty included **Menkaure**, who also built a pyramid in Giza.

The Fourth Dynasty gave way to the Fifth, which ended in the First Intermediate Period. At this point, pharaonic power was greatly diminished and power became decentralized.

Middle Kingdom (c. 2050–1710 BC)

That all ended when the Eleventh Dynasty reunited under Mentuhotep II. The Middle Kingdom gave rise to old styles of government, resulting in the readoption of the vizier as a position of great power.

However, by the end of the Thirteenth Dynasty, dynastic chaos began to once again take hold of the Kingdom. Thus begins the full disintegration of unity once again, resulting in the Second Intermediate Period.

New Kingdom (c. 1550–1069 BC)

The Eighteenth Dynasty was home to perhaps the most famous figures of Egypt.

Ahmose I is the accepted founder of the Eighteenth Dynasty. He campaigned against the Hyksos and the Levant. He was followed by Amenhotep I and Thutmose I.

Thutmose I was succeeded by Thutmose II, who married Thutmose I's daughter, **Hatshepsut**. She came to power after Thutmose II's death, ruling jointly with Thutmose III. Widely considered a hugely successful pharaoh, Hatshepsut built much of the Karnak temple in Luxor including a *Chapelle Rouge* (Red Chapel) from which we learned about her. She created an era of prosperity due to redeveloping trade networks and funded a mission to Queen Ati of the Land of Punt, which notably brought back myrrh and frankincense. The expedition was commemorated with a temple at Deir el-Bahri. Hatshepsut was succeeded by Thutmose III upon her death.

It is at this point that the word “pharaoh” actually came to refer to the person in power, rather than just the palace in which the King of Egypt resided.

Thutmose III, having learned of military strategy during his time as co-regent with Hatshepsut, grew into an immensely successful expansionist. Sometimes referred to as “the Napoleon of Egypt”, he captured hundreds of eastern cities and crossed the Euphrates.

Amenhotep III built the Luxor Temple and multiple other huge palaces. He was the

richest of the Eighteenth Dynasty kings.

Akhenaten (1353–1336 BC), formerly Amenhotep IV, completely reorganized all the religion in Egypt. He worshiped Aten (a solar disc) instead of the old religion. This didn't exactly ingratiate him with the priests of the time, and he fell out with them 5 years into ruling. He was married to **Nefertiti**, a daughter of Ay who didn't come from royal blood and his son was **Tutenkhamen** (who was a very young king). He constructed Amarna and was succeeded by Smenkhare.

The Eighteenth Dynasty fell into division and decline, and by 1292 BC the reigning pharaoh Horemheb died childless. He appointed his vizier as his successor.

That vizier became Rameses I, the first pharaoh of the Nineteenth Dynasty. He was succeeded by his son **Seti I**.

Seti fought wars in the east, claiming large portions of the east for Egypt again. In particular, he managed to take Kadesh from the Hittites, though that particular victory was short-lived as the Hittites recaptured the city. Seti was succeeded by his son.

Rameses II, The Great (1279–1213 BC) fought the Hittites at the **Battle of Kadesh**, near the Orontes River, where over 6,000 chariots were used; the battle was fought to a draw and the two kingdoms formed a treaty. Rameses also suppressed the Shardana pirates in a naval battle. Rameses built the **Abu Simbel** temples and a temple at Luxor that houses the House of Life. His wife was **Nefertari**, daughter of Hattusilis, and the Greeks called him Ozymandias. He added large sections to the Karnak temple complex and was succeeded by Merneptah I when he was buried in the Valley of the Kings.

Indus River Valley

Further East, some small civilizations were cropping up in the **Indus River Valley**.

Notably, these include **Harappa** and **Mohenjo-Daro**, which date to the 27th century BC. Mohenjo-Daro had a famous Great Bath and a College of Priests. These were the centers of the civilization. Even though I don't really have much else to say on the subject, they really are quite notable.

Chapter 2. Ancient Europe

They plunder, they slaughter, and they steal: this they falsely name Empire, and where they make a wasteland, they call it peace.

— Calgacus, on the Romans

Persian Wars

In modern day Iran, a large war machine was massing in the 6th century BC. The Greeks would end up not liking them very much.

Cyrus the Great

Cyrus the Great, grandson of **Astyages**, founded the **Achaemenid** Empire. He ended the **Babylonian Captivity**, in which many Jews were held captive in Babylon, and his Edict of Restoration allowed them to return home. He created an important declaration of human rights and wrote it down on his “cylinder”, and his capital was at Pasargadae. Xenophon immortalized the man in his text *Cyrus the Great*.

Cyrus overthrew the Median Empire (the Medes). He was also victorious over **Croesus of Lydia** at Thymbra and at Sardis. Now, having built this empire, some Persian kings wanted to also conquer Greece. Obviously, the Greeks weren’t very pleased with this proposition, and fought back.

Croesus, son of Alyattes II and last king of Lydia, had also fought the Medes at the Battle of the Eclipse, where a total solar eclipse was notably predicted by **Thales of Miletus** (famous philosopher at the time); this was the perhaps the first occurrence of a predicted solar eclipse.

Darius I

Darius I (the Great) attempted to conquer Greece. To get power, he overthrew Gaumata,

and bragged about it in the Behistun Inscription. Following the Ionian Revolt (bunch of Greeks rising up in Asia Minor), he sent troops to Marathon.

The battle at **Marathon** (490 BC) coincided with the Carneia festival, so the Spartans didn't fight (not very good sign for the Greeks, read about the Spartans below). The Persians were led by Artaphernes (Darius's brother) and Datis. However, the Athenians, led by **Miltiades**, managed to win, and **Pheidippides** the runner ran back to Athens and died saying "*Nike*", and the twenty six (approximately) miles he ran led to our modern marathon.

Darius also began construction of **Persepolis**, the new Persian capital. He increased the number of satraps (governors) in Persia to 23.

Xerxes I

When Darius I died, he was succeeded by his son **Xerxes I**, who kept trying to conquer Greece. Xerxes enhanced the city of Persepolis and ordered the building of the Gate of All Nations. He faced multiple rebellions for melting down a big statue of Marduk in Babylon. At one point, a bridge spanning the Hellespont broke, and Xerxes decapitated the engineers (definitely the best way to get more work done). He then proceeded to whip the sea for insolence, as was the custom at the time. During the second Persian invasion of Greece, there were some important battles:

Thermopylae (480 BC) was a famous battle in which **Leonidas** and his 300 Spartans made a final stand against Xerxes in a narrow pass. They actually had a decent chance of surviving, but a traitor named Ephialtes decided to tell Xerxes about a path that was hidden in the mountains, and the Spartans returned home on their shields. Zack Snyder proceeded to show the battle in slow motion in the film *300*.

Salamis (480 BC) was a naval battle near the Isthmus of Corinth, close to Piraeus. **Themistocles** led a force of Greek triremes against the navy of Xerxes. Xerxes placed men on Psyttaleia, a small island near the exit of the straits, to try and kill/capture any Greeks that dared pass. However, Aristides led an Athenian detachment and killed the Persians on Psyttaleia. Other people at the battle included Artemesia of Caria, Queen of Halicarnassus. Xerxes reportedly saw 200 of his ships sink into the sea from Egaleo Hill, and he wasn't happy. This was the high point of the Persian invasion; after Salamis, they began to retreat. The battle has been called "the battle that saved Western civilization".

Plataea was the final decisive defeat of the Persian army. After this, the Persians finally gave up and decided that Greece wasn't worth it.

Greek City-States

Athens was a very forward-thinking Greek city-state. Democracy originated in Athens, pioneered by reformers like **Solon** and Cleisthenes. Another notable leader of Athens was

Draco, who was quite strict in his laws. They practiced ostracism, a practice started by Cleisthenes — every year, the citizens would vote to exile someone for five years. They built the Parthenon on their Acropolis, where the Elgin Marbles would be taken from years later. Notably, Athens's harbor and port was **Piraeus**, where the ships that won at Salamis were built.

Sparta (also called Lacedaemon) was a militaristic Greek city-state. Children were taught to fight from a very young age, and soldiers were told to return with their shield or on it. Slaves and of Sparta were called helots, and the ruling class were known as ephors. Future leaders of Sparta were allowed to kill helots to prove themselves in a ritual called the *krypteia*. Philip II of Macedon once sent a message to Sparta regarding Laconia, the province where Sparta is, saying that if Philip invaded Laconia, Sparta would be destroyed, never to rise again. The ephors responded with the ominous message: "IF". Philip II and his son Alexander never tried to conquer the city.

Peloponnesian War

After the thwarted invasion of Persia and the ensuing Greco-Persian wars, Athens and Sparta fought during the **Peloponnesian War** (431–404 BC). Athens brought in some allies in the form of the **Delian League**. Briefly during the war, the Council of Four Hundred took power in Athens. At another time, **Pericles**, the leader of Athens, delivered a funeral oration.

The Athenians, in an attempt to win, launched the Sicilian Expedition, which attempted to take Syracuse. It didn't end very well, so the expedition's commander, **Alcibiades**, was recalled to Athens, and Sicily didn't really care at all about Athens's threats. Alcibiades would go on to be accused of profaning the Eleusinian mysteries, and notably switching sides multiple times during the Peloponnesian War. When the Athenians were going to go home, there was a lunar eclipse. Being superstitious, Nicias and friends decided not to sail, and were attacked by the Syracusians. Other battles include Cyzicus, where the Athenians won under Thrasybulus.

The last major battle of the war was **Aegospotami**, where a Spartan fleet under Lysander crushed the Athenian navy. Athens also had to endure a bad plague at this point, during which Pericles died. Other notable battles include Notium, Sphacteria, and Delium. Halfway through the war, the Peace of Nicias interrupted it. Thucydides ended up writing a history of the war.

The **Sacred Band of Thebes** was an elite force of 150 male lovers under Epimondas. The band fought at the battle of Leuctra against Cleombrotus of Sparta, during one of the local post-Peloponnesian conflicts.

Macedonia: Philip and Alexander

Philip II, son of Eurydice and Amyntas III, was King of Macedon. He rose to the throne when his brother, Perdiccas III, died in battle against the Illyrians, leaving only his son, Amyntas IV. Philip got rid of Amyntas and united all of Greece, using both iron and gold to achieve his goals, and proceeded to conquer Paeonia and Thessaly (disregarding warnings by Demosthenes). He destroyed the Sacred Band of Thebes at the **Battle of Chaeronea**; following the victory, Philip created the League of Corinth to help build amass armies against Persia.

Philip's son was **Alexander the Great**, who would become one of the greatest conquerors of his time. Alexander the Child was tutored by **Aristotle**, and he became a brilliant tactician and leader. When he was young, he had helped his father at Chaeronea, and one of his earliest victories was at the Battle of the Granicus. When he was declared king, he killed some rivals, including Amyntas IV. He cut the **Gordian Knot** because he couldn't untie it, (brute force solves all problems).

Alexander decided to try and conquer the massive Persian Empire, which was now ruled by **Darius III**. At the battle of **Issus**, Alexander met the forces of Darius, pushing him back and making him angry. On the plains of **Gaugamela**, Darius flattened the grass to make it easier for his large numbers of chariots to outmaneuver Alexander's forces. Alexander was smarter than Darius and ended up winning anyway, taking over the Persian Empire.

Alexander eventually headed to Punjab, defeating King Porus of the Paurava Kingdom at the **Hydaspes River** (and losing his horse, Bucephalus, in the process).

Alexander proceeded to execute the general Permenion, as well as Permenion's son, Philotas. After Alexander's death, his generals fought over his vast conquered lands in the Wars of the Diadochi, and his massive empire fell apart.

Rome: From Romulus to Constantine

While Persia and Greece were having wars and conquering each other, another important city was growing in Italy. The Roman empire would grow to encompass much of the Western world, and greatly influence the rest of history.

Monarchy

There were seven kings of Rome, but here are the important ones:

Romulus founded the city of Rome in 753 BC along with his brother Remus. They were legendarily raised by a she-wolf, and they overthrew their evil grandfather Amulius and restored Numitor to power. Romulus staked his claim on Rome after seeing birds from the Palatine Hill, while Remus was on the Aventine. However, they got into a bit of a brotherly argument, and Remus ended up dead. As king, Romulus hosted a festival of

Neptune, and invited the Sabines, who were led by Titus Tatius. There, he authorized his men to kidnap and rape the Sabine women, giving the Romans an easier way to increase their population. He organized a personal guard called the Celeres, and when he died, he was deified as Quirinus.

Numa Pompilius, second king of Rome, established a more organized religion and the office of Pontifex Maximus (kind of like the Roman Pope).

Tarquinius Superbus (Tarquin the Proud) was the seventh and final king of Rome. After the rape of Lucretia, wife of Collatinus, he was ousted by Brutus (not the one who killed Caesar).

Also notable during the monarchy: The **Etruscans** lived in Italy at the same time (preceding the Romans). Their king was **Lars Porsenna**, and one of their major cities was Veii. At one point, **Horatius Cocles** defended a bridge against an Etruscan attack. **Mucius Scaevola** put his hand into a fire to prove to Porsenna that he was strong.

Republic

With the death of Tarquinius Superbus, the Roman Republic began. It was governed by two consuls and a Senate, and lasted until about 14 BC. **Collatinus** and **Brutus** (recall the end of Tarquin) were the first two consuls. Brutus was also the only person in Rome to coin money with his own face on it,

The Republic lasted quite a long time, and lots of important things happened. I'll talk about some of them, but this probably won't end up being a complete account.

Rome began to expand following the creation of the Republic. Latin and Etruscan towns and cities fell at such battles as Lake Regillus (496 BC).

Roman society was split between **plebeians** and **patricians**, the commoners and nobles respectively. Because plebeians couldn't hold high office, they would occasionally effectively go on strike (a "secession of the plebs"). The first such secession led to the creation of the office of Tribune, which provided the plebeians a way to check the power of the Senate. The struggle between the two classes, called the **Conflict of the Orders**, lasted until 287 BC, at which point the plebeians were effectively politically equal to patricians, though their quality of life was still quite low.

Marcus Furius Camillus was one of the first great generals of the Republic. He besieged the Etruscan city of Veii and was given a triumph. During the course of the war with the Etruscans, he was named dictator. When he attacked Falerii, a local teacher attempted to surrender the children of the city to him. Camillus refused to capture the kids, and Falerii made peace with Rome. Livy and Plutarch claim he was given four triumphs and was

dictator five times. Camillus was famously referred to as the “Second Founder of Rome”.

Rome waged three **Samnite Wars** in Italy intermittently from 343 to 290 BC. The Oscan-speaking Samnites were one of Rome’s most important rivals on the peninsula; the wars were a result of Roman intervention in political affairs that the Samnites took offense to. The largest of the wars was the Second Samnite War, which included a massive Roman defeat at the **Battle of the Caudine Forks** by Samnite leader Gaius Pontius. Despite this, the Romans bounced back and the war ended with Samnite defeat at Bovianum. The Samnites were subjugated and attempted to rebel in the Third Samnite War. Importantly, the Samnite tactical unit known as the **maniple** (a phalanx with joints) was adopted by the Romans upon seeing their opponents use it to great effect.

Pyrrhus of Epirus decided to invade Rome in 280 BC, ostensibly to aid the city of Tarentum in Magna Graecia (southern Italy). Victory would result in him being granted quite a lot of power. He took a bunch of elephants to stop the Romans and defeated the Romans at Heraclea. Pyrrhus won a costly victory at Asculum (279 BC) resulting in our use of the term “Pyrrhic Victory”. He then became ruler of Sicily for a while, before retreating from Italy.

During the Republic, Rome got into a series of three Punic Wars against Carthage. During these wars, **Cato the Elder** repeatedly said “Carthage must be destroyed”.

The **First Punic War** primarily took place on Sicily, with quite a bit of fighting around Syracuse. It was a result of Hiero II stopping a Mamertine uprising in Messina, Sicily. As a result of the First Punic war, Sicily became the first conquered Roman territory.

The **Second Punic War** was a much bigger deal. It started over a conflict of control of Saguntum in Spain. **Hannibal** Barca, his father Hamilcar, and his brother Hasdrubal, were the leading Carthaginian commanders. Hasdrubal died at the Battle of Metaurus during the war. They were opposed by **Scipio Africanus**, a highly competent Roman general. Hannibal took his elephants and his army through Spain and across the Alps, and he attacked the Romans when they weren’t expecting it. He won battles at Trebia, Lake Trasimene, and Cannae, where Hannibal used his now famous pincer tactic to encircle the Romans army. At this point, the Romans were deploying the “Fabian Strategy”, which consisted entirely of them trying to delay their inevitable death. However, soon the Romans pushed back, and eventually the final showdown at **Zama** was a win for Scipio. Hannibal eventually killed himself using poison he kept stored in a ring he wore.

In 197 BC, **Philip V** of Macedon, trying to live up to the greatness of his forefather Alexander, decided to take Greece back from the Romans and triggered the Second Macedonian War. He encountered Roman troops under Flaminius at **Cynoscephalae**, a field in Thessaly, where a large Roman contingent including 20 elephants thrashed the Macedonians. Philip sued for peace.

Gaius and Tiberius Gracchus were tribunes in the Roman republic. As tribunes, of

course, their main objective was to make life better for plebeians. They were rivals with their cousin Scipio Aemilianus, who opposed some of their reforms. At one point, Tiberius was killed by the Optimate faction of the Senate, because he'd passed the Lex Sempronia Agraria, a land reform bill that his enemies didn't particularly care for. Twelve years later, in 121 BC, Gaius was killed by the Senate following a constitutional crisis.

Cincinnatus was a former consul of Rome. He'd retired to his farm in rural Italy. When a Roman army was trapped on Mount Algidus by Aequi troops, Rome looked to Cincinnatus to help them out a bit. They appointed him dictator, a position that he ended up having for only sixteen days (traditionally the post was held for six months at a time). At the end of these sixteen days, he proceeded to go back to his plow and continue farming.

Gaius Marius was known as the "third founder of Rome" for defeating the Cimbri and Teutones at battles such as Vercellae and Aquae Sextiae. He defeated Jugurtha the Numidian and enacted various military reforms, and he was supported by the four-time consul Lucius Cornelius Cinna, who held quite a bit of power in Rome. He was elected consul for six years running, and his arch-nemesis was **Lucius Cornelius Sulla**, who captured Jugurtha after Marius defeated him, thus ending the Jugurthine War.

Marius and Sulla had both fought in the **Social War** from 90 to 88 BC. The war was triggered by the murder of tribune **Marcus Livius Drusus**, who had wanted to extend citizenship to everyone in Italy. On his death, the Marsi and Samnites rebelled against Rome, and generals like Marius, Sulla, and Pompeius Strabo (father of the more important Pompey) won a military victory. The end result of the war, however, ensured that individual Italian groups got some more rights.

Following the death of Marius and the later death of Cinna, Sulla came back to Rome and started a rebellion. He won the **Battle of the Colline Gate** (defeating his last remaining opponents, including the last remnants of the Samnites), and was appointed as the first dictator for life. He doubled the size of the Senate and increased the number of *praetors* (judges). During his proscriptions, he promised rewards for the deaths of his enemies. He made peace with Mithridates VI, king of Pontus. Machiavelli refers to Sulla as "half fox and half man".

The next most important events in the later Roman Republic were largely the work of the two triumvirates.

The **First Triumvirate** consisted of Julius Caesar, Pompey the Great, and Marcus Crassus.

Julius Caesar was perhaps the most famous of the figures of the Roman Republic. As a young man, he was kidnapped by pirates, and he proceeded to be insulted by the low ransom they asked for. When he eventually became older, he hunted down the pirates and killed them. In 63 BC, he was picked to be Pontifex Maximus. His commentary on the Gallic Wars includes his victory over **Vercingetorix** at Alesia. Caesar's generals at Alesia included Titus Labienus and Mark Antony. He was co-consul with Bibulus, and he won at

Thapsus against the Optimates and the Numidians.

Pompey the Great was a general. He was granted a navy by the Lex Gabinia, and he defeated the Mediterranean pirates quickly and efficiently. He also helped Metellus fight Sertorius in Spain. The Lex Manilia gave him command of the war against Mithridates VI of Pontus, taking command from Lucullus. He quickly drove Mithridates back, and Mithridates decided to commit suicide. Pompey's wife was Julia, and his was the first permanent theater in Rome — where Caesar would later be killed.

Marcus Crassus was a very rich person. He'd made lots of money through his building and firefighting empires; since Rome was made of wood (mostly), Crassus was able to buy burning houses for cheap, put out the fires, rebuild them, and flip them for some massive payoffs. Along with Sulla, Crassus had fought at the Colline Gate, where he commanded the right wing.

When **Spartacus**, a gladiator trained in Capua and aided by Crixus, revolted, Crassus fought against him in an attempt to bring him to justice. Spartacus was killed at the Siler River, and Crassus crucified those who participated in Spartacus's slave revolt along the Appian Way, and he was mad when Pompey ended up claiming credit for taking out Spartacus. In an attempt to win some goodwill with the general public, Crassus went on a campaign in the Far East (starting in Syria), and proceeded to lose to the Parthians under Surena at **Carrhae**. He was killed when the Parthians supposedly poured gold down his throat.

When returning from Gaul, Caesar crossed the Rubicon with his army, saying "The die is cast". Bringing an army into Rome is simply not something that you're supposed to do, so this little gesture triggered a civil war with Pompey. Caesar narrowly avoided being destroyed at Dyrrachium, but came back and decisively defeated Pompey at **Pharsalus**, where Mark Antony notably helped command the left wing. Following his final defeat, Pompey ran away and ended up in Egypt, where Ptolemy XIII beheaded him.

As the new dictator for life, Caesar lived well, increasing the size of the senate from 600 to 900. In 44 BC, his wife Calpurnia warned him to beware the Ides of March, but he went to the Theater of Pompey and got stabbed many times by Brutus and Cassius, resulting in the end of his rule and the rise of the Second Triumvirate. **Brutus** was notable because he was actually the descendant of the Brutus that had ousted Tarquin. Brutus had been saved at Pharsalus by Servillia, and he had been raised by Cato the Younger.

The **Second Triumvirate** consisted of Octavian, Mark Antony, and Marcus Aemilius Lepidus.

Octavian was the adopted son of Julius Caesar, and he brought together a new triumvirate. His best friend was **Marcus Agrippa**, who commanded his armies.

Mark Antony was a friend of Octavian who would eventually fall out with him. He divorced Fulvia in order to marry Octavia the Younger. He delivered the eulogy at

Caesar's funeral, as noted by Shakespeare: "Friends, Romans, Countrymen...". With Octavian, he defeated Caesar's murderers Brutus and Cassius at **Philippi**.

Lepidus is relatively lesser known, but he had a lot of money, for all triumvirates need to be bankrolled.

Later, when Octavian and Antony became enemies, Antony was in Egypt with Cleopatra. They battled, and in 31 BC, at the Battle of **Actium**, Agrippa was sent to crush Antony's forces. They were successful, and Octavian became Augustus, first emperor of Rome.

Empire

Rome had lots of emperors, so I'll go over the ones that come up often.

Julio-Claudians

Augustus, formerly Octavian, ruled over the *Pax Romana*. His first wife was Scribonia, whom he had a daughter with, but he ended up exiling both of them to Pandateria. He failed to uphold the Treaty of Tarentum with the Parthians, and won at Cape Naulochus. His armies also notably lost the Battle of Teutoburg Forest against some Germanic tribesmen, and Augustus shouted at Quintilius Varus to "give me back my armies".

Augustus was succeeded by **Tiberius**, who wasn't exactly his first choice. Tiberius eventually exiled himself to Capri and died there.

Caligula, the third emperor, was quite crazy. His name means "little boot", a name he was given by the military as a kid. In AD 39, he performed a stunt where he ordered a floating bridge to be built on the Bay of Baiae. Caligula then rode his horse across the bay, simply to defy of an astrologer who told him that he "had no more chance of being emperor than riding a horse across the bay of Baiae". Reportedly, he wanted to make his horse Incitatus a senator. He also notably had Herod Antipas and Macro killed, and his sister was **Agrippina the Younger**. Caligula was killed by the Praetorian Guard, led by Cassius Chaerea, in AD 41 while addressing some actors.

Claudius came to power when his nephew Caligula died. The guard who came to tell him that he was going to be emperor found him hiding behind a curtain. Claudius was also a stutterer; He wasn't the most confident of people, but he ended up being a far more effective emperor than many would have thought. His imperial court included important freedmen like Narcissus and Pallas. When Claudius's attempts to drain the Fucine Lake, a volatile and disease-ridden lake, failed, Narcissus was blamed (the lake wasn't actually drained until the 19th century). In his letter to the Alexandrians, Claudius ordered toleration of Judaism. During his reign, Rome conquered Britain, and Claudius spared the British chief **Caractacus**. Eventually, he was murdered on the orders of Agrippina the Younger, so that...

Nero, Agrippina's son, took the throne, but he ended up killing Agrippina anyway. Nero

was just about as insane as Caligula, and he apocryphally fiddled while Rome burned. He had a huge statue of himself built in front of his golden house, the *domus aurea*. He sent Paulinus to suppress the revolt of **Boudicca** in Britain. The Pisonian conspiracy and a revolt by Vindex were targeted against him, and the death of this insane matricidal emperor led to...

The Year of the Four Emperors in AD 69. During this year, the four emperors were, in order, Galba, Otho, Vitellius, and finally, Vespasian.

Flavians

Vespasian founded the new Flavian dynasty. An accomplished general, he'd commanded troops with his son Titus in Judaea during the Great Jewish Revolt, during which the mass suicide of the rebels at **Masada** took place. He had also been proconsul in Africa, and had faced a riot in Hadrumetum. He'd thrown people into the Dead Sea to test its buoyancy, according to **Josephus**. Following the periodic insanity of the Julio-Claudians and the turmoil of AD 69, Vespasian was the first ruler to truly try to improve things. He began construction on the Colosseum on the location of Nero's old Golden Palace, and construction was completed in AD 80 under Titus. He sent Agricola to conquer the rest of Britain and finish Claudius's work, conquering the Isle of Wight in the process.

After Vespasian died, his son **Titus** became emperor. He completed the construction of the Colosseum, and he has an arch in Rome. He's known for his disaster recovery following the eruption of Mount Vesuvius in AD 79, an event notably chronicled by **Pliny the Elder**. Vesuvius took out Pompeii and the neighboring city of Herculaneum.

Following Titus, **Domitian**, his brother, ruled the empire. He recalled Agricola from Britain and purged the Senate after a revolt by Saturninus. He defeated the Chatti, and as a result, called himself Germanicus. Suetonius claims that Domitian was also very good with a bow and arrow (some even say he could fire 4 arrows at once). Domitian was assassinated in AD 96, since the Senate and the Roman people were fed up with his brand of autocracy. Historians around the time hated Domitian, although recent analysis seems to conclude that he wasn't really all that bad. Following his death, the Senate ordered a *damnatio memoriae* on Domitian, attempting to purge any trace that he'd ever ruled the Empire.

Nerva-Antonines

On the death of Domitian, the dynasties changed again. The new Nerva-Antonine dynasty began with the **Five Good Emperors**: Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus Pius, and Marcus Aurelius.

Nerva was selected to fill the power vacuum left by Domitian, largely because his appointment wasn't particularly contentious. He was older (would die soon), had no children (low risk of crazy natural-born heirs), and he was reasonably well respected. In

fact, all five of the Good Emperors would adopt their heirs, and the first natural-born heir would end these great times for Rome.

Trajan, adopted son of Nerva, was a military man. He expanded Rome to its greatest extent by conquering Dacia (Romania), following victory over Decebalus at Sarmisegetusa. For his military exploits, Trajan earned the title of Dacicus, and his efforts were commemorated with a big column in the new *Forum Romanum*, which he had designed with help from Apollodorus of Damascus. His bridge was built east of the Iron Gates of Transylvania, and he sent Lucius Quietus was sent to suppress a Jewish uprising called the Kitos War. Trajan died while returning from a campaign in Parthia. He would be remembered as one of the greatest emperors Rome had ever seen, and the people of the time knew it. People wished new emperors would be “as lucky as Augustus, and as good as Trajan”.

Hadrian built a well known wall in Britain (Hadrian’s Wall), and he also rebuilt the Pantheon. He’d been a commander in Dacia, where he had been nicknamed “Graeculus”. He had Lucius Quietus killed after Quietus claimed that Hadrian had made up stories of his adoption. Hadrian also stopped the Bar Kokhba Jewish revolt, which had been supported by Rabbi Akiva, and he withdrew Roman troops from Mesopotamia. He deified his lover Antinous after he drowned in the Nile.

Hadrian had stipulated that his successor **Antoninus Pius** adopt Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus. Pius personally took Hadrian’s body from Baiae to Rome, and he completed Hadrian’s Temple and Mausoleum. His wife Faustina the Elder died in 141 and she was deified, and Pius gave money to orphan girls in her honor. Pius died in 161.

Marcus Aurelius was a Stoic philosopher, and he wrote the famous *Meditations*. His tutor was Fronto, and he was married to Faustina the Younger. The Antonine plague was brought to Rome by his legions, and he fought the Marcomannic Wars. Notably, Aurelius is the subject of perhaps the only equestrian statue to survive antiquity. He co-ruled with Lucius Verus for a while, and he was succeeded by Commodus.

Commodus (Joaquin Phoenix in *Gladiator*) was quite deserving of his own name. He renamed Rome, after which he renamed the months after himself. He ended the Marcomannic Wars that Marcus Aurelius had begun, and he was strangled in his bathtub as part of a conspiracy created by his mistress Marcia.

Rise and Fall of the Severans

The death of Commodus kicked off the year 193, known as the **Year of the Five Emperors**. **Pertinax**, the son of a freed slave, was proclaimed emperor following his successful foray into both military and political life. He tried to institute several reforms, including restoring some measure of discipline to the Praetorian Guard. Naturally, the Guard were not wholehearted supporters of this sort of overreach; Pertinax was assassinated three months into his reign.

Left with an empty throne, the Praetorians decided to simply give it to whomever could provide them with the most cash. **Didius Julianus** won the auction by promising 25,000 sesterces to every Roman soldier. The Praetorians then used the fact that they had more weapons than the Senate to force confirmation of the new emperor. Julianus immediately moved to reverse Pertinax's reforms, devaluing Roman currency and generally making bad decisions and turning the populace against himself.

As news of Julianus's failure moved through the Empire, three generals each realized they could claim power for themselves. **Septimius Severus** in Pannonia, Pescennius Niger in Syria, and Clodius Albinus in Britannia decided not to recognize Julianus as the emperor. All three claimed the throne, bringing the total count of the year, of course, to five.

Severus being the closest, Julianus decided to deal with him first by declaring him an enemy of the empire. The emperor began training the Praetorians to shake them from their complacent stupor, but ultimately failed to do so effectively. Severus allied with Albinus and marched the Pannonian Legions through Italy, ending at Rome. He offered amnesty to most of the Praetorians, convening the Senate to declare himself Emperor. He then beheaded Julianus and dismissed the Praetorian Guard, refilling them with members of the Pannonian Legions.

Severus then turned his attention to Syria, where Niger was still under the delusion that he was emperor. Severus moved east and won the Battle of Issus (194), killing Niger shortly thereafter as he attempted flight to Parthia. At this point, Albinus had turned on Severus in the west, so Severus moved west and crushed him at the Battle of Lugdunum in 197.

Thus, Septimius Severus founded the Severan dynasty and ended the Year of the Five Emperors. His wife was **Julia Domna**, who had supposedly married Severus because she'd foreseen that he would be emperor. In 197, he created three new legions, I, II, and III *Parthica*, and mounted a campaign against Parthia, sacking the capital at Ctesiphon for the third time in the second century. The Monumental Arch of Palmyra was built and dedicated to Severus. He placed the jurist Papinian in the office of Praetorian prefect, having ordered the execution of the previous prefect, Plautianus.

In 208, Severus went to Britain to extend Roman rule into Caledonia. He enhanced Hadrian's Wall and the Antonine Wall, and made nontrivial advancements into Caledonia while suffering heavy casualties. The Caledonians negotiated peace in 210, but revolted again that same year. Severus was infuriated, deciding to wipe out the enemy completely:

Let no one escape sheer destruction, no one our hands, not even the babe in the womb of the mother, if it be male; let it nevertheless not escape sheer destruction.

The following year, Severus became gravely ill, and he retreated to Eboracum (York) to die. He reportedly told his sons just prior to his death: "Be harmonious, enrich the soldiers, and scorn all other men."

His sons **Caracalla** and **Geta** came to power to continue the line. Unfortunately, they hated each other, leading to a dysfunctional rule during which some think they have wanted to simply split the empire between them. Caracalla ordered Geta killed during an attempt at a peace meeting between them 11 months in, and issued a *damnatio memoriae*, wiping Geta from history as much as possible.

Caracalla married Fulvia Plautilla, and he abandoned Severus's Caledonian campaign. He ordered the creation of the Baths of Caracalla in Rome, the second largest in the city. He also issued the **Edict of Caracalla** (*Constitutio Antoniniana*), which gave citizenship to all free men through the empire. He worshiped Serapis (the Egyptian god of healing) and made a temple to him on the Quirinal Hill.

Caracalla sent a marriage proposal between himself and the daughter of Artabanus V of Parthia, which Artabanus declined, leading Caracalla to start a military campaign against Parthia. He followed the advice of his father and raised the wages of the legionaries, which created a monetary crisis he resolved by introducing a new coin, the *antoninianus*, which was worth two *denarii* but weighed less.

In 217, preparing for another campaign in Parthia, Caracalla was stabbed by disgruntled soldier Julius Martialis. The assassination was carried out on the orders of **Macrinus**, Caracalla's Praetorian prefect, who quickly moved to make himself emperor. Despite his best efforts, Macrinus failed to convince the Senate to declare a *damnatio memoriae* on Caracalla.

Macrinus can perhaps be considered an interlude in the saga of the Severans. He was an equestrian from Mauretania, making him the first emperor who wasn't from the senatorial class. He continued Caracalla's war with the Parthians, losing to Artabanus V at the Battle of Nisibis (217) and seeking peace shortly thereafter. Macrinus ruled with his son Diadumenian, and they never set foot in Rome during their short reign.

As Macrinus tried to bring order to the bankrupt and war exhausted empire, the military grew disgruntled with lower pay and worse treatment. Julia Domna's sister, Julia Maesa, decided to have her young grandson **Elegabalus** take advantage of the discontent and start a rebellion. Elegabalus defeated Macrinus at the Battle of Antioch (218), and declared himself emperor. Macrinus tried to flee, but he was found and executed. Diadumenian was found trying to get to Artabanus V in Parthia but he was also killed. Both Macrinus and his son were declared enemies of the state and a *damnatio memoriae* was issued against them.

Elegabalus was only known by that name after his death, because he elevated the sun god Elegabal in the Roman pantheon, building the Elegabalium temple on the Palatine Hill. In addition to the religious controversies this caused, Elegabalus's reign was marred with various sex scandals and corruption. As such, Julia Maesa decided that he had to be replaced. She managed to convince the teenage emperor to name his cousin **Severus Alexander** as his heir, but Elegabalus reneged on that agreement soon after. The

Praetorian Guard, preferring Alexander to Elegabalus, were ordered arrested by the emperor in 222, at which point they assassinated him and his mother Julia Soaemias. Elegabalus was eighteen years old, and he also had a *damnatio memoriae* applied to him.

Alexander Severus ruled for 13 years, starting when he was about fifteen years old. His mother, Julia Mamaea, was his primary influence during his entire reign, which did not make him popular with the Roman army. As such, even though his time as emperor was reasonably successful, when he tried to bring peace to Germanic tribes using diplomacy instead of war, the army decided to assassinate him in 235.

Crisis of the Third Century

Alexander's death resulted in the ascension of **Maximinus Thrax** to the throne. A career soldier who came from nothing, Maximinus was a direct reaction to Alexander's unpopularity in the military.

Maximinus was a bit of a crazy tyrannical emperor, so a rebellion sprung up in North Africa, where some upstarts decided to kill Maximinus's tax collector. They decided to appoint their own governor and his son emperor, and the senate proceeded to recognize them as **Gordian I** and **Gordian II** in 238, kicking off the **Year of the Six Emperors**. They lasted the better part of three weeks, after which they were defeated by the disgruntled Numidian governor Capelianus at Carthage, where Gordian II was killed, and his father committed suicide shortly thereafter.

Maximinus Thrax marched on Rome with an army, having been declared an enemy, and the senate realized they didn't have an emperor any more. They appointed **Pupienus** and **Balbinus**, two very old senators, as joint emperors. Two old senator-types ended up not being popular with the regular folk, though, so the senate also named **Gordian III**, grandson of Gordian I, as emperor. Now, they had three men calling themselves emperor and generally working together for a bit, so they sent Pupienus to fight Maximinus. Due to poor results at the siege at Aquileia, Maximinus's own soldiers from II Parthica became disenchanted with the war and killed their general.

Pupienus came back to Rome and found the city completely out of control, filled with rioters, and literally on fire. The two emperors managed to bring order back, but a seed of distrust that had been planted grew into frequent disagreements and hatred. The Praetorian Guard eventually tired of this nonsense, and dragged both the emperors through the streets naked before torturing and killing them. They had been in power for less than 100 days. Thus, Gordian III became sole emperor.

Gordian opened the doors to the Temple of Janus, going to war with the goal of driving back Sassanid attacks in the east. At the Battle of Resaena (243), the Sassanids were sent back across the Euphrates. At some point in the ensuing Roman push towards Ctesiphon, Gordian died of uncertain causes.

Philip the Arab, Gordian's Praetorian prefect, took the throne. He quickly set up a peace

with the Sassanids, and he celebrated Rome's millennial anniversary in 248. Philip was supportive of Christian residents of the empire, and some think he may have even been the first Christian emperor. He may have tried to celebrate Easter in Antioch on one occasion. In 249, Philip the Arab was killed in a revolt by his successor, **Decius**.

Decius died at the Battle of Abritus against the Goths, and his son **Hostilian** took his place. However, in Moesia Superior, **Trebonianus Gallus** rose to emperor in opposition to Hostilian, in a joint rule with his son Volusianus. Hostilian died shortly thereafter. Due to displeasing his army, Gallus was replaced with **Aemilian**, a general who became popular after leading some victories against the Goths.

When Aemilian went the same way as Gallus had, he was replaced by **Valerian**. Valerian was taken captive by **Shapur I** of the Sassanid Empire following the Battle of Edessa. Shapur allegedly made Valerian swallow molten gold in captivity, obviously killing him.

Co-ruling with Valerian for a time was his son **Gallienus**. He began sole rule following his father's death, but his reign was plagued with attempts at usurpation. One source claims that "Thirty Tyrants" (not to be confused with the Athenian government) tried to overthrow Gallienus. The list of people who tried to take power includes men such as Ingenuus, Regalianus, Macrianus, and Postumus. He continued fights against the Gothic coalitions, and he may have commanded a decisive victory at the Battle of Naissus (268) over Aureolus. This is unclear because he may have been dead beforehand, having been murdered at some point during a siege at Mediolanum. Gallienus had reigned for 15 years.

If Gallienus wasn't at Naissus, then his successor, **Claudius Gothicus**, certainly was. He died less than two years into his reign, probably of the plague. The soldiers elected **Quintillus**, who stayed emperor for a few months before slitting his wrists.

Quintillus's primary opponent, **Aurelian**, was able to secure Rome with Quintillus's death in 272. His first move was to reunite Rome, pulling together an increasingly shattered empire.

In Germania, Aurelian had fought various hostile groups, including the Juthungi. With the Alamanni, the Juthungi invaded northern Italy, defeating Aurelian's armies using an ambush at Placentia (271). However, Aurelian regrouped and won the Battle of Fano and forced the Alamanni out of Italy. He then decided to build a set of walls around Rome; these became known as the Aurelian Walls.

Aurelian mounted a campaign against Zenobia of Palmyra in the east. She had cut off Rome's shipments of grain, so Aurelian had invaded. During the campaign, he legendarily did not destroy Tyana, after supposedly having a dream of Apollonius of Tyana asking him for mercy. He won victories at Emesa and Antioch, allowing him to capture Vallabathus, son of Zenobia and Odaenathus. Soon, Aurelian was knocking on the doors of Palmyra, and he marched Zenobia through the streets of Rome in chains.

The emperor also worked with Tetricus in Gaul to ensure that Gaul and Britain came back under imperial control. Aurelian and Tetricus conspired to rig a battle at Chalons-en-Champagne, resulting in an easy victory.

Upon return to Rome, Aurelian was hailed as *Restitutor Orbis* (the Restorer of the World). He had reunited the empire after so many fractious years. Back home, he strengthened the cult of Sol Invictus as the chief god of Rome, building a new temple for the Sun in 274. He also dealt with the only uprising of mint workers, in which men under Felicissimus, a finance official, were opposed to not being allowed to steal silver from coins any more. The decisive battle of Felicissimus's rebellion was fought on the Caelian Hill, and many of the rebels were executed.

In 275, on a march towards Asia Minor and another Sassanid campaign, Aurelian fell victim to a panicked secretary named Eros, who forged a list of officials that Aurelian wanted dead. Afraid for their lives, people whose names were on the list killed Aurelian. In his three short years in power, he'd reunited an empire, and significantly strengthened its military position in the world. However, his premature death prevented the end of the Crisis of the Third Century.

Aurelian was succeeded by **Tacitus** (not to be confused with the historian). He died (maybe assassinated), and was replaced by **Florianus**, his brother. But he was killed too, in favor of **Probus**, whose only notable accomplishment was completing the Aurelian Walls. When he went the way of Florianus, he was replaced by **Carus**, who may have been killed by lightning. He was succeeded by **Numerian** and **Carinus**.

Numerian died while on a military campaign in 284, but Carinus's claim to the throne was contested by **Diocletian**, a cavalry commander for Carus who had commanded forces in Moesia. He came west and met Carinus's armies at the Battle of the Margus, during which Carinus's prefect Aristobulus defected. Carinus ended up dead by his own men, and Diocletian took the empire for himself in 285, ending the Crisis of the Third Century.

The Dominate

Diocletian aimed to achieve stability in his newly acquired empire. He waged war against the Sarmatians, the Carpi, and the Alamanni, and he handled rebels in Egypt. Along with Galerius, he invaded the Sassanid Empire and sacked Ctesiphon in 299.

He created a more extensive bureaucracy in his empire, making new administrative centers in Nicomedia, Mediolanum, Antioch, and Trier. To finance this growth and his constant military campaigns, taxes were generally raised. Diocletian also started using the name *dominus* to refer to the position of emperor, going against precedent that had been set in the Principate by Augustus.

In this period of expansion, Diocletian realized that the empire had become too large and unwieldy for one man to rule. He split the empire into two halves, taking control of the eastern half and giving the West to his friend **Maximian**. These two emperors, known as

Augustus, then took a junior Emperor (*Caesar*) to help them; Diocletian and Maximian were joined by Galerius and Constantius Chlorus, respectively. Thus, the **Tetrarchy** was formed. The new governmental structure worked fairly well for a time after its establishment.

Diocletian tried to stop inflation with his Edict on Maximum Prices, but that failed because everyone ignored it. He also decided to start persecuting Christians with a fervor not seen since Nero, in a period that came to be known as the Diocletianic Persecution. It notably started during Terminalia in Nicomedia, when he ordered a newly built church destroyed. He then abdicated voluntarily in 305, retiring to his palace in Aspalathos, which would eventually become the center of Split, Croatia.

The two people vying for his spot were **Constantine I, the Great** and **Maxentius**. Constantine had come to power as a result of the death of Constantius I at York. Before the decisive battle at the **Milvian Bridge** (312), Constantine had a dream. He saw a chi-rho symbol in the sky, with the words “in this sign, you will conquer”. He had his soldiers paint it on their shields, and they won. So, Constantine converted to Christianity and became the first Christian Roman emperor.

Constantine was victorious against Abantus at the Hellespont, and at Chrysopolis he finally defeated his other major rival Licinius and gained full control of his empire. He convened the **First Council of Nicaea** and issued the Nicene Creed, and he issued the **Edict of Milan**, which allowed for Christian toleration. A forgery during his reign claimed that Constantine was apparently moving east, giving all his lands to Pope Sylvester I and the Catholic Church, but this “Donation of Constantine” was disputed by Nicolas of Cusa and Lorenzo Valla. Constantine killed his son Crispus and his wife Fausta somewhat controversially, suffocating the latter by placing her in an over-heated bath (a method of execution that is perhaps unique in the history of Rome). His capital was moved to Byzantium, which would be renamed Constantinople in his honor.

Heading into the middle of the 4th century, we begin to see the end of Rome, so we’ll talk about that later.

Chapter 3. Asian Dynasties

When future generations look back to my time, it will probably be similar to how I now think of the past.

— Wang Xizhi, Master Calligrapher

Ancient India

Recall that there was some burgeoning civilization in India. Around the 4th century BC, more centralized dynasties with influential impact started taking power. Here we go over some of the more important ones.

Maurya Dynasty (324 — 184 BC)

The dynasty was founded by **Chandragupta Maurya**. He defeated the Nanda Empire and the Macedonian Seleucid Empire, and having defeated Alexander the Great, he was able to unify India. The Iron Pillar of Delhi is sometimes attributed to him, but that theory was probably discredited.

Chandragupta's grandson, Bindasura's son, **Ashoka** (273–232 BC), is considered perhaps the greatest ruler of ancient India. He took the throne after killing some of his relatives (but spared his brother, Tissa). He conquered the Kalinga empire, an action that changed him forever, since he adopted Buddhism as his new religion. After his conversion, he put up edicts on columns all over the place to promote non-violence and animal rights, and he became mostly a pacifist ruler. One of those columns at Sarnath has four lions on it, along with a 24 spoke wheel of righteousness, a symbol which would be placed on the Indian flag.

Gupta Dynasty (240 — 550)

Chandra Gupta II was the most important ruler during this time, and the Gupta Empire was biggest under him. Besides that, not a lot of hugely notable things happened around this time. There would follow periods of India being invaded repeatedly by people from

all over the place, including Persia, Scythia, Parthia, and more.

Until we get to a point in history where India starts to interact with the rest of the world more, let's move up a little bit and take a look at China.

Chinese Dynasties

The history of China until modern times is largely one of dynasties. Here are the most important ones.

Shang Dynasty (1600 — 1046 BC)

The Shang is the first real Chinese dynasty with written records, succeeding the lesser known Xia dynasty. The writings are found on “oracle bones”, which were bones that were heated and used to tell the future in a practice called pyromancy. Their capital was near Anyang. The emperor Wu Yi was killed by a bolt of lightning, because he was quite vocal about not liking the god of lightning and thunder very much. Other notable emperors include Wu Ding and Fu Hao. Then, the emperor Xi Di lost the battle of Muye and killed himself, leading to the Zhou dynasty ruling.

Zhou Dynasty (1046 — 256 BC)

The Zhou was the longest lasting period of Chinese history. During the Zhou, the use of iron began. When the Zhou capital was sacked, the Eastern Zhou and the **Spring and Autumn period** began. Intellectualism flourished at this point; Sun Tzu wrote *The Art of War* and the Hundred Schools of thought (one of which was **Confucianism**) were introduced.

However, during the Zhou dynasty, real power rested with the feudal lords, so by the end of this really long dynasty, everything fell apart into seven separate warring states. When the fighting had settled, the state of Qin was victorious.

Qin Dynasty (221 — 206 BC)

A short, but important dynasty, consisting almost entirely of one important emperor: **Qin Shi Huangdi**. He burned a lot of books, so people tend to not think too highly of him. He also standardized weights, unified Chinese writing, and began building a Great Wall which you may have heard of. Along with his minister Li Si, he implemented **Legalism**. When he died, he was buried near Xi'an with a massive and famous terra cotta army.

Qin Shi Huangdi had created the first truly unified China, but his death, the dynasty was mismanaged into failure, and it collapsed quickly.

Han Dynasty (206 BC — AD 220)

A golden age of China that had a lasting impact, the Han dynasty names China's predominant ethnic group today. The emperor **Gaozu** (aka Liu Bang) founded the dynasty, even though he was born as a peasant. He reunited China and made a new capital at Chang'an (now Xi'an).

One of the greatest rulers of China was **Wudi**, who expanded China greatly. He reformed government and he made Confucianism the new official doctrine. An official named **Wang Mang** temporarily overthrew the Han dynasty to try and make a new Xin dynasty, but it didn't take. Wang Mang died at Chang'an, and Emperor Guangwu took back the throne.

By the end, the Han dynasty had faced the **Yellow Turban Rebellion**, a Taoist peasant revolt during the reign of Emperor Ling. The Yellow Turban Rebellion was the opening to the Period of the Three Kingdoms.

Period of the Three Kingdoms (184 — 280)

A short and violent period in history. The classic novel *Romance of the Three Kingdoms* ensured that it's still well known today. The three kingdoms were Wei, Shu, and Wu: Cao Wei north of the Yangtze, Eastern Wu in the lower Yangtze, and Shu Han in Sichuan.

The **Battle of Red Cliffs** (208) was fought between Liu Bei and Sun Quan, (although admittedly it overlapped a bit with the Han dynasty). It set up the basis for the states of Shu and Wu.

Eventually, Cao Wei managed to defeat the other kingdoms, but failed to reunify China. China ended up going through a short period of Southern and Northern dynasties, but not a lot of things I care about happened during that time, so let's skip to the Tang dynasty.

Tang Dynasty (618 — 907)

The Tang dynasty succeeded in reuniting China after the Sui dynasty (very short dynasty) fell. It brought another golden age in China: important people such as **Li Po** and Du Fu worked and the printing press was invented.

The Tang dynasty moved the capital back to Chang'an and was also ruled by **Gaozu**. His son, emperor Taizong (aka Li Shimin), deposed him and became a great ruler, consolidating power fairly effectively and conquering a lot more of western China. He was succeeded by Empress **Wu**, the only woman to be emperor of China, presiding over the "second Zhou dynasty". The Tang also fought three wars against the [Three Kingdoms of Korea](#) (Goguryeo, Baekje, and Silla).

Later, during the reign of Xuanzong, the **An Lushan** rebellion tore apart the Tang. Even though it was quelled, the revolt had lasting effects that ended up beginning the periods of

the five dynasties and the Ten Kingdoms.

Song Dynasty (960 — 1279)

Soon afterwards, the Song dynasty began. This was a time dedicated to culture, not warfare; to engineering, not killing. Gunpowder was discovered, the first compass was made, a standing navy was established, and paper money was circulated.

The first ruler was **Taizu**, and he realized that he could save his own neck if he asked all the generals and military people around China to retire. This resulted in scholars being far more dominant during the Song dynasty.

The capital was moved to Kaifeng, which was captured by the Jin dynasty from the north. So, the Song fled down south and made a new Southern Song dynasty with capital at Hangzhou, and the Jin didn't bother them any more. But then the Mongols came down and destroyed the Jin, with the help of the Song. The Song didn't realize that the Mongols wanted their territory too, so even though they lasted a while under Mongol attacks, they eventually were defeated.

Yuan Dynasty (1271 — 1368)

The **Mongols** established the Yuan dynasty, most notable for the emperor **Kublai Khan**. The dynasty was created after the Battle of Yamen, and the capital was at Dadu.

In the 1350's, the White Lotus Society (Buddhists) created an army to go against the Yuan dynasty. This **Red Turban Rebellion**, led by Zhu Yuanzhang, would bring about the demise of the Yuan and the rise of the Ming within a few years.

Ming Dynasty (1368 — 1644)

The rulers of the Ming dynasty were the Zhu family. Everyone knows about their porcelain work, notably their vases. This dynasty originated the use of the word "china" to describe high quality porcelain.

The emperor **Hongwu**, who had led the Red Turbans, founded the dynasty. The eunuch Zheng He led fleets on treasure voyages to show off how rich they were.

This is also when China's capital was moved to Beijing, and Yongle built the **Forbidden City**. The Ming dynasty collapsed as a result of a failing economy coupled with the invasion of the Manchu people from the north.

Qing Dynasty (1644 — 1911)

The Manchurian Qing dynasty was the last dynasty of China. They created the banner system, and the emperor Kangxi quelled the Revolt of the Three Feudatories. The dowager

empress Cixi weakened the dynasty, and at one point, they were also threatened by a **White Lotus Rebellion** against Emperor Chia Ch'ing; the rebellion was almost successful because of a corrupt government under Ho-shen. The three great emperors were Kangxi, Yongzheng, and Qianlong. Other notable emperors include Guangxu. However, the dynasty ended because the later emperors weren't very effective.

The **Taiping Rebellion** lasted from 1850 to 1864. The Christian Hong Xiuquan led a fairly bloody revolt against the Qing, aided by his God Worshiper's Society. Hong Xiuquan said that he was Jesus's younger brother (the genealogy might not side with him on that particular issue). The rebels set up a base at Nanking. The Qing were aided by foreign powers, which helped create the **Ever Victorious Army**, under the command of Frederick Townsend Ward, and later Charles George "Chinese" Gordon. The rebellion ended with the fall of Nanking and a Qing victory.

In 1899, foreign spheres of influence were growing in China. Locals such as the Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists ("Boxers") weren't particularly thrilled. They decided to fight back against the Unequal Treaties and the Open Door policy that other countries had created in China, starting the **Boxer Rebellion**. During the rebellion, Boxers killed foreign missionaries during the Taiyuan Massacre. Boxers converged on Beijing and laid siege to the Legation Quarter, and the Empress Dowager Cixi decided to support them. Thus began a conflict between Cixi and the Boxers and the Eight-Nation Alliance against them. The siege of the legations was lifted in 1900 and the Boxer Protocol was implemented.

Early Korea

The first Korean kingdom was **Gojoseon**, which divided the Korean peninsula with the state of Jin to the south. The kingdom was well known by the 4th century BC, and its capital was in Pyongyang. Dangun was the legendary founder of Gojoseon, said to be the "son of a bear". The Han dynasty defeated Gojoseon ruler Wiman Joseon in 108 BC and established the Four Commanderies of Han in former Gojoseon.

Following the fall of Gojoseon, the Proto-Three Kingdoms period began. Various new states coalesced on the peninsula, including Dongbuyeo and Bukbuyeo.

Three Kingdoms of Korea

The **Three Kingdoms of Korea** began in 57 BC and consisted of Goguryeo, Baekje, and Silla.

Goguryeo was founded by Jumong and the government was centralized by King Taejo. By the 5th century, Goguryeo had reached a peak. Gwanggaeto the Great and his son Jangsu expanded the kingdom into Manchuria and Russia. It was a military state which continually fought for control of the peninsula, and had multiple wars with various Chinese dynasties.

Baekje was founded by Onjo, a former Goguryeo, in 18 BC. Under King Geunchogo, Baekje expanded to control most of the western peninsula. Baekje was well known for its naval power and maritime trade.

Silla was unified by Bak Hyeokgeose in 57 BC around southeastern Korea. It was the smallest of the three kingdoms.

North and South States

Silla drove Chinese Tang forces from the peninsula in the Silla-Tang War, and by the end of the seventh century, the North and South States Period began.

In the south was Unified Silla, which facilitated trade with the west (Abbasid Caliphate) and continued the maritime traditions of Baekje.

In the north was Balhae, founded after the fall of Goguryeo. Balhae was weakened and conquered by the Khitan Liao dynasty in 926. We don't know much about Balhae due to a lack of records.

Goryeo

Goryeo was founded by Wang Geon in 918 and soon came to dominate Korea. Its name was the source of what we now call Korea. The dynasty continued well into the 1300s, so we'll get back to that later.

Chapter 4. The Sundering of Europe

Would that I had twelve clerks so learned in all wisdom and so perfectly trained as were Jerome and Augustine.

— Charlemagne

The Fall of Rome

Destruction of the West

By the fourth century, Rome's influence in the Western world was unparalleled. The empire had conquered much of the known world by the time of Constantine, and even though it was split into multiple parts, it held quite a bit of sway in Europe and in Northern Africa. The fall of the Western Roman Empire in the fifth century was a big turning point in history.

In 378, the Goths were invading the Roman empire (they were running from the Huns), and the Roman emperor **Valens** fought them at the **Battle of Adrianople**. Prior to the battle, Valens had given the **Visigoths** the status of *foederati*, and let them live across the Danube. They had even helped the Romans fight the Huns. But now, the invading army was comprised of: the Thervings (Visigoths), led by Fritigern; Bacurius the Iberian; and the Greutungs, led by Alatheus and Saphrax. Valens died at the battle (a result of being abandoned by his guards), and **Gratian** came to power as a result. The Goths' decisive victory struck a resounding blow against the might of the Romans; Adrianople is often considered the beginning of the fall of western Rome, despite the actual battle being fought by soldiers in the Eastern Roman Empire.

Gratian's reign ended in 383 when Magnus Maximus, emperor in the West, attacked Gaul and killed him. **Theodosius I** became emperor. Theodosius fought civil wars with the West, and when he defeated Maximus, he appointed Valentinian II as Augustus in the West.

During the reign of Theodosius, a half-Vandal Roman general named **Stilicho** was

appointed guardian of the young future emperor Honorius. **Alaric I** of the Balti dynasty became the leader of the **Visigoths** (the Thervings of Adrianople) after the death of Fritigern. The Visigoths had separated from the Ostrogoths, who had gone their own way. Alaric tried to rebel a couple times, but Stilicho stopped him. Eventually Stilicho made peace with Alaric, who went and joined the Romans and was no longer considered an enemy.

In 410, Stilicho was disgraced (a victim of conspiracy), hunted down, and killed. Alaric was once again an enemy of the state, so he went on the offensive. At this point, Rome wasn't the capital of the Western Roman Empire anymore (that title had been given to Ravenna), but it was still considered an eternal city, and it was still a focal point of the empire.

Rome itself hadn't been touched by any enemy since Brennus sacked it in 387 BC. First, Alaric invaded Greece, killing many and wiping out the Eleusinian Mysteries. Alaric invaded Italy and besieged Rome, trying to negotiate three times. On the third siege, Alaric got fed up and entered the city, pillaging and ransacking a lot of the big important buildings, but on the whole, not causing a particularly massive amount of damage. The sacking prompted **St. Augustine** to write *City of God*. Augustine would later die during the Vandal siege.

Meanwhile, elsewhere in the empire, Honorius's lands were breaking. Constantine III, last of the imperial usurpers, managed to raise an army in Britain and march on Gaul. He defeated Sarus (who was loyal to Honorius), and co-ruled with Honorius for a while. The Visigoths went west from Italy, and ruled Spain from their capital at Toledo. The Vandals eventually settled in the south of Spain. Other barbarian tribes settled into parts of Spain and Gaul, splitting the empire even further.

In 444, the Huns were united by **Attila** (the "Scourge of God"), who also included many Germanic tribes in his subjects. Attila had taken the kingship after his brother Bleda had died. He kept attacking the Eastern empire until 450, making money, but he always stopped at the walls of Constantinople. He then claimed the Emperor's sister Honoria as his wife, and he invaded Gaul in 451 to get his "dowry", half of the Western Roman Empire. The invasion was stopped by Flavius Aetius and the Visigoths under Ostrogoth king **Theodoric the Great** at battles at the **Catalunian Plains** and at **Chalons**. Allegedly, Pope Leo I convinced Attila not to attack Rome — soon after, Attila died of a nosebleed in his sleep.

By 439, the Vandals had crossed the Strait of Gibraltar, moved east, and taken Carthage from Rome. They set up a new kingdom in Northern Africa, where they would reside for a century. **Genseric** was their king, and his son the prince was Huneric. After going back and forth trying to attack Italy, they got their true chance when Valentinian killed Aetius, and in 455, the Vandals managed to enter Rome itself, and plunder it for two weeks. They sailed away with lots of gold and conquered Sicily. From this point onwards, their ships were a menace to the Romans.

In 476, a former soldier named **Odoacer** invaded Rome. He deposed the 16 year old emperor Romulus Augustulus, but didn't kill him. Odoacer became the first ruler of Italy after Rome, and ended the Western Roman Empire.

Byzantine Empire

Zeno was the ruler of the Eastern Roman Empire at the fall of the West. Hoping to be rid of the annoying Theodoric, Zeno appointed him king in Italy, where he killed Odoacer in Ravenna. Zeno died by being buried alive while drunk, because nobody opened the sarcophagus.

Justinian I (482–565) was an important Byzantine (Eastern Roman) Emperor. Justinian's wife was Theodora, and his most important general was **Belisarius**. Belisarius won the **Battle of Tricamarum**, defeating Gelimer and the Vandals in Northern Africa.

There's a famous mosaic of Justinian and Theodora at Ravenna, the Ostrogothic capital that Belisarius captured. His rule was documented in the *Secret History* of Procopius as well as by Agathias. Justinian also built the **Hagia Sophia**, the famous domed basilica in Constantinople, and he notably codified the legislation of the empire in the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, which was compiled for him by **Tribonian**.

The **Nika Riots** during Justinian's reign were a result of chariot racing factions uniting against Justinian. Justinian was forced to fire Tribonian, and he ordered the instigator, **Hypatius**, nephew of Anastasius, killed by Belisarius and Mundus. Belisarius's most notable rival, the eunuch **Narses**, helped by bribing the Blue racing faction into abandoning Hypatius.

During 541, the **Plague of Justinian** affected the Byzantine Empire, especially Constantinople. It was probably caused by *Y. pestis*, which would cause the bubonic plague. Justinian himself got sick, but he managed to survive.

Other notable rulers of the Byzantine Empire included Basil II and Leo IV, the Khazar.

Building a Holy Roman Empire

While Rome's world was collapsing around it, some new dynasties were being created in what used to be the province of Gaul. The region was now called Francia, and it was ruled by the Franks, a bunch of Germanic peoples.

Merovingian Kingdom

In the fifth century, while Rome was falling, **Childeric I**, son of Merovech, leader of the Salian Franks, founded the **Merovingian dynasty**. It's said that Childeric's father was a half-fish, half-bull monster, but there's perhaps a slight chance that's just a fabrication. When Childeric died, he was buried in Saint Brice in Tournai, with a golden bull's head

and lots of golden insects (bees, cicadas, etc.).

Childeric's son was **Clovis I** (481–511), the greatest of the Merovingian rulers. He was married to Clotilde, and he adopted Christianity, being baptized in 496. He united Gaul under his rule, and he defeated the remaining Romans (led by Syagrius, the last Roman official of Gaul), at the Battle of Soissons. At the Battle of Vouille (507), he allied with Anastasius I (Byzantine Emperor) and defeated the Visigoths under Alaric II, conquerer of Spain. Gregory of Tours would refer to Clovis as a “new Constantine” when he wrote his *Histories*. He would be buried in the Church of the Holy Apostles that he built in Paris.

When Clovis died, his kingdom was divided among his four sons. To the outside world, these four separate polities were still all the Merovingian kingdom. Eventually Clotaire II reunited the realm, and his son **Dagobert I** was the last powerful Merovingian king. Dagobert expelled the Jews after being asked to by Heraclius, who had prophesied the fall of Byzantium. After Dagobert, the kings were known as the “idle kings” or the “do-nothing kings”, so we don't really care enough to discuss them here.

In 687, Pepin the Middle came to power by winning the Battle of Tertry. Pepin the Middle's son, the prince **Charles “The Hammer” Martel** also assumed power. Martel's sons, Carloman and **Pepin the Short**, appointed Childeric III as the new king. Pepin the Short was annoyed at not having the title of the King, even though he ruled the Franks. Childeric didn't do much, Carloman had decided to become a monk or something, and Pepin's other brother Grifo wasn't a huge opposition. So Pepin deposed Childeric and colluded with Pope Zachary to get himself elected king.

Carolingian Empire

Pepin the Short was the first **Carolingian** king. He had a good relationship with the papacy, exemplified by his earlier consultation with Zachary. He helped Pope Stephen II when he helped intervene with the Lombards (a Germanic tribe) in Italy at battles such as **Pavia**, and Stephen II helped Pepin by crowning him. He gave the captured lands to the pope, as part of the “Donation of Pepin”. In 768, Pepin died, and even though his reign would not be as impressive as his son's, we can certainly consider him to be a highly successful ruler.

Pepin's son was **Charlemagne**, who co-ruled with his brother Carloman I. He married Desiderata as a show of alliance with the Lombards. Carloman died in 771 and Charlemagne became the sole ruler of the Franks. With his brother's death, he broke his alliance; he conquered the Lombards led by Desiderius in Italy and became their king.

Charlemagne continued his father's good relationship with the pope, leading troops into Muslim controlled Spain. He led campaigns against people who lived east of him, forcing Christianity on them under penalty of death, a policy that resulted in the Massacre of Verden. A leading scholar in his court in Aachen was Alcuin, who led a “Carolingian Renaissance”, and established the Palatine school.

On Christmas Day, 800, Charlemagne was crowned Emperor of the Romans by Leo III. Charlemagne is often referred to as the “Father of Europe”, because he united much of the West for the first time since the fall of Rome. When he died, he was succeeded by Louis the Pious.

Charlemagne and the Franks had recreated a new empire that strove to be as impressive as Rome itself. This **Holy Roman Empire**, as it would soon be known, was set to play a major role in history for centuries to come.

Islamic Caliphates

Muhammad of Mecca united a large portion of the world under Islam. Muslims believe that he was a prophet of God and he died in Medina in 632.

Rashidun (632–661)

The Rashidun were the “rightly-guided caliphs”. **Abu Bakr**, the first caliph to succeed Muhammad, named Umar as his rightful successor, and after Umar came Uthman. When Uthman died, a conflict called the first Fitna (Islamic civil war) began. At this point, **Ali** came to power for a violent five years, and the followers of Islam split in two. The followers of Abu Bakr were Sunni Muslims, and followers of Ali were Shi’a Muslims.

The Rashidun spread across all of the Arabian peninsula and much of modern day Iran, as well as a small portion of Northern Africa. It was in fact the largest empire ever built up to that point in history.

After Ali’s reign, his son Hasan was elected as caliph, but he gave the caliphate to Mu’awiyah instead.

Umayyad (661–750)

Mu’awiyah established the Umayyad caliphate, which expanded across all of northern Africa and crossed the Strait of Gibraltar to control much of Iberia as well. It became the fifth-largest empire ever created in history, the largest up to that point, and its capital was at Damascus.

In 732, the Umayyad fought the **Battle of Tours** against the aforementioned Charles Martel. The battle took place in northern France, close to the Frankish border, and the Franks positioned their phalanx on a hilltop. The Franks won a decisive victory against Abd ar-Rahman, and the Umayyad were forced to dial down their ambition. It was at Tours that Charles earned the name “Martel”, meaning Hammer. The battle laid the foundation for what would become the [Carolingian Empire](#). The Umayyads also lost in 740 to the Byzantines at Akroinon.

Notable caliphs during this time include Yazid I and Mu’awiyah II. The greatest period of

the Umayyad was under Abd al-Malik, while the empire stretched from Spain to India. The last ruler of the Umayyad was Marwan II. In 747, a huge rebellion began against the caliphate, started by people who were annoyed at a distant government. In 750, Marwan fought an Abbasid army at the **Battle of the Zab** on the banks of the Great Zab river. The Abbasids killed Marwan and ended the rule of the Umayyads.

Abbasid (750–1517)

The **Abbasid** set up Baghdad as a major city until it was sacked in 1258. In the 9th century, they created an army that was meant only to fight for them. These slave soldiers were called **Mamluks**, and eventually they would control Egypt. The ruler al-Mu'tasim moved the capital from Baghdad to Samarra, while the Mamluks slowly gained power.

At one point, the dynasty was opposed by Banu and Babak Khorramdin. During the Anarchy at Samarra, Turkish chiefs fought for control. They would be sacked by Hulagu Khan at Baghdad, where the House of Wisdom was held.

Chapter 5. Medieval Times

In prosperity a man often destroys the good he has done; amidst difficulties he often repairs what he long since did in the way of wickedness.

— Alfred the Great

After the fall of the Western Roman Empire, the Middle Ages started. They would last until the start of the Renaissance in the 15th century, and they were full of massive population growth and war in Europe. Let's look at some areas of Europe in particular.

England: A New Monarchy

Anglo-Saxon England

Near the beginning of the Middle Ages, the Anglo-Saxons lived in England, a result of Germanic tribes moving north across the English Channel. Anglo-Saxon England was traditionally considered a heptarchy, consisting of Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Sussex, and Wessex. By the 7th century, many of the Anglo-Saxons had converted to Christianity. The Venerable **Bede** chronicled the era, earning him the title “Father of English History”.

The kingdom of Mercia rose to prominence in the 7th century, building massive earthworks like Offa's Dyke, which separated modern-day Wales from the rest of England. By the late 8th century, Viking raiders began to invade the island. These Danes were led by **Guthrum**, whom we don't know much about before he seized control of the Danes. Other Viking leaders of the invading forces included Ivar the Boneless, son of Ragnar Lodbrok. They subdued East Anglia, capturing York.

Alfred the Great, king of **Wessex**, son of Æthelwulf, fought back against Guthrum. He created a network of fortified towns called burhs (these would be turned into boroughs eventually) to defend Wessex and defeat the invaders, who had formed the **Great Heathen Army**. Alfred was victorious at battles such as Eddington and Ashdown. He then confined Guthrum in a region thenceforth known as the Danelaw and he proclaimed

himself king of all the English. His coronation was performed by Pope Leo IV, and he compiled a census of England called the Doom Book (not to be confused with the Domesday Book that would be made later). He introduced a system of shires, hundreds, and tithings to divide England into governable portions. Alfred remains the only English king to ever be called “the Great”.

Alfred was eventually succeeded by **Edgar the Peaceful**, and by the end of Edgar’s reign, Wessex had taken control of the rest of England, including York and the Danelaw. When Edgar died only two years after being crowned at Bath, the issue of who should succeed to the throne was thrown into doubt. Edgar’s son Edward was crowned king, but he was quickly assassinated.

He was followed by Edgar’s half-brother, **Æthelred the Unready**. As his name may suggest, his reign didn’t go very well, even though he did rule for a long time. It’s been written that he defecated in his baptismal font, leading to a prophecy that the English crown would fall under his reign; however, that story is probably entirely fake (entertaining, though). It’s now believed that he was simply the victim of bad counsel, and wasn’t actually particularly “unready”. He married Emma, a princess of Normandy. While he was king, England was invaded by Danes again, led by Sweyn Forkbeard, provoked by Æthelred’s St Brice’s Day massacre. The Vikings pillaged through Essex, an action that resulted in the **Battle of Maldon**, where the Vikings easily crushed the English. From that point forward, the Vikings roamed the countryside, apparently free to take whatever they pleased, while Æthelred simply hid in his basement. Sweyn found Æthelred and forced him into exile. Soon after, though, Sweyn died, and Æthelred was able to come back to England.

Angered at Æthelred, **Cnut**, son of Sweyn, invaded England. Æthelred’s son, Edmund Ironside, abandoned his father, and multiple English nobles took Cnut’s side. But Æthelred died and Edmund was forced to fight the Danes. At the battle of Ashingdon, the Danes overpowered the English and Cnut and Edmund split England; Edmund took Wessex, and Cnut took everything else. When Edmund died (probably murdered), the English witan council declared Cnut king of England. Cnut married Æthelred’s widow Emma, who agreed only because he agreed to allow her children to be heirs to the throne. However, Cnut had had a previous wife, and her children also wanted the throne.

When Cnut died in 1035, the throne was disputed. The claimants were Harold Harefoot (Harold I, son of Cnut) and Emma’s son by Cnut, Harthacnut. Emma’s son by Æthelred, Edward, tried to raid Southampton, but failed, and his brother Alfred was killed later. Harthacnut became king on the death of Harold Harefoot, but he was unpopular, and nobody wanted his heirs to become king. When he died, Edward came back from exile and was recognized as king.

Edward, known to us as **Edward the Confessor**, married the daughter of Earl Godwin of Wessex in order to secure an alliance. When the citizens of Dover killed Edward’s relative Eustace of Bolougne (probably a response to Edward’s appointment of Robert of Jumieges

as Archbishop of Canterbury) and Godwin refused to punish some people who killed Edward's relatives, Edward had a falling out with Godwin, and the Godwins ran away to Normandy. During the conflict, Edward was regularly working with and for the earls Siward and Leofric. At this point, Edward might have offered the succession to his cousin, William, duke of Normandy. However, the king reconciled with Godwin some time later, so when Godwin died in 1053, his son, **Harold Godwinson**, acceded to the earldom in Wessex. Godwin's other sons were given East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria.

In 1066, Edward died, and Harold Godwinson was declared king of England. For the following year, England was in turmoil because even though Harold had taken the crown, there were those who believed it wasn't his to take. Recall that Edward had likely given a promise of succession to his cousin, William, Duke of Normandy. **Harald Hardrada** of Norway, descendant of Cnut, also staked a claim to the throne, because that's what Vikings had been doing for a few years at this point.

Harold's brother Tostig, leader in Northumbria, allied himself with Hardrada. Hardrada invaded Northern England, fighting the Battle of Fulford near York, but he was killed at the **Battle of Stamford Bridge** by Harold Godwinson's forces.

While Harold was celebrating his victory, William of Normandy sailed for England and landed at Pevensey. Harold marched back south, where he met William at the **Battle of Hastings**, near Senlac Hill and Telham Hill. Harold tried to use housecarls and shield walls to defend from William's archers. William crushed Harold's forces at Hastings, and Harold himself got an arrow in the eye. The battle was chronicled on the **Bayeux Tapestry**, which notably shows Halley's comet in the sky. The site of the battle is now home to a church called Battle Abbey. As a result of his achievement, William is known to us as **William the Conqueror**.

Anglo-Norman England

William the Conqueror, now William I, king of England, quickly moved to consolidate his power. His people were revolting all over the place, and he crushed each uprising, building a set of castles to control them. These revolts included one led by the Earls Edwin and Morcar. He led a massive and bloody expedition through the north of England, killing those who stood in his way, called the **Harrying of the North**. He commissioned a census of the country, and recorded it in the **Domesday Book**. At the **Trial of Penenden Heath**, William investigated Odo of Bayeux for stealing lands. His archbishop was Lanfranc, and he stopped Edward Ætheling, Harold Godwinson's successor. Orderic Vitalis, when chronicling William's rule, says that William admitted to being a "barbarous murderer" when he died in 1087 after falling off his horse at the Siege of Mantes.

William Rufus (William II) inherited his father's throne, but he also faced revolts from his brother Robert and his cousin Stephen. When William II died in a hunting accident (he may have been murdered), his brother Henry I quickly moved to take the crown.

Henry I, “Beauclerc”, defeated his brother Robert Curthose, duke of Normandy, at Tinchebrai. He recalled St. Anselm as Archbishop of Canterbury, but exiled him again. His son William Atheling drowned in the **White Ship** disaster of 1120. This was particularly problematic, because even though Henry had at least twenty children, they were almost all illegitimate. The only reasonable heir was his daughter, the **Empress Matilda** (married to Henry V, Holy Roman Emperor), who was unpopular because she was a woman. On Henry’s death in 1128, yet another power struggle broke out; Matilda disputed the claim of **Stephen of Blois**, Henry’s nephew. This civil war was called the **Anarchy**, and it resulted in the rise of a new dynasty.

The Plantagenets

Henry II

Eventually, **Henry II**, Matilda’s son by Geoffrey Plantagenet of Anjou, was crowned king. Henry had been born in Anjou, making him the first of the Angevins, and the first member of the **House of Plantagenet** to be king. Henry married Eleanor of Aquitaine after her marriage to Louis VII of France was annulled.

He got into disputes with the Church, and wanted power over them. To do this, he appointed his good friend **Thomas Becket** to the position of Archbishop of Canterbury, believing that Becket was a man that would be loyal to him. The Church wasn’t pleased with this decision, as Becket had been a political rather than religious figure for most of his life. So, Becket went about changing their mind. He ended up becoming a thorn in Henry’s side, fighting to give the Church unrestricted power and freedom. Obviously Henry didn’t like this at all, and he issued the **Constitutions of Clarendon** to restrict the power of Church courts and the power of the pope (Alexander III) in England. Becket resisted, and Henry exiled him to France.

In 1169 Henry wanted to crown his son (Young Henry) as king along with himself. This required Becket to agree, so Henry tried to reconcile with him and he failed. Henry crowned his son by himself, and Becket laid an interdict on England, stopping useful Church activity like weddings. Eventually, Henry got fed up with Becket and he got really mad, saying things like, “What miserable drones and traitors have I nourished and brought up in my household, who let their lord be treated with such shameful contempt by a low-born cleric?” (often misquoted as “Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest?”). Perhaps in response to this, four knights went secretly to Canterbury and killed Becket, resulting in Becket being declared a martyr and a saint.

Henry wanted some more territory for his sons, so he invaded Ireland, conquered it, and set up local fiefdoms to rule over the island. He then faced the Great Revolt in which elder sons supported by France’s Louis VII rebelled. John was the only son that didn’t rebel against Henry.

Richard I

Henry II was succeeded by **Richard I, the Lionheart** in 1189, because Henry's three eldest children (William, Henry, and Geoffrey) had died. Richard spent his reign mostly protecting his territory and fighting the Third Crusade in the East. He married Berengaria of Navarre and was killed by a crossbow fired from Chateau de Chalus-Chabrol in 1199.

King John

Richard's youngest brother **John Lackland** inherited the throne. King John negotiated the Treaty of Le Goulet with Philip Augustus of France in 1200, giving away a large chunk of the land in France that his predecessors had spent so much time putting together. When he abandoned Isabel of Gloucester in order to marry Isabella of Anguleme, the peace was broken. John had claimed that he hadn't obtained papal consent to marry Isabel in the first place.

John took William de Roches, his seneschal, and defended his lands in Normandy, and won the Battle of Mirebeau. However, Philip later won the chaotic **Battle of Bouvines** against John and his allies. Perhaps victory in France would have sparked the nobles' confidence in John, but his loss just made people even less satisfied with his annoying rule.

The nobles eventually lost faith in John, and at Runnymede, they forced him to sign **Magna Carta**, which gave them permission to overpower him if they didn't like what he did. Magna Carta also ensured that raising taxes for scutage (ability to raise ransom) and other acts could not be done without "common counsel of the realm". John eventually reneged on Magna Carta, so the barons gave up and decided to revolt. Pope Innocent III excommunicated John and John lost at Poitou. This resulted in the First Barons' War, and John was succeeded by his son Henry.

Henry III

Henry III came to power as a child, and his reign was filled with rebellion. The barons reformed government under the **Provisions of Oxford** Simon de Montfort became a de facto ruler, drastically reducing the power of the king, going into the Second Barons' War as well as establishing a more modern Parliament. When Henry invaded France, he lost at the Battle of Taillebourg. Henry's son, Edward, stopped the rebellion and restored Henry to power.

Edward I

Edward I, Longshanks, rebuilt the monarchy, which had fallen into shambles as a result of the ineffective reigns of John and Henry III. Edward aimed to consolidate his power in Scotland, which had previously had a slightly fuzzy relationship with the English crown. He made **John Balliol** king in Scotland, thinking that John would be loyal to him. He was wrong. Balliol was succeeded by John Comyn, and Edward invaded Scotland.

At the Battle of Stirling Bridge, he was repulsed by the Scots, who were led at that point by **William Wallace**. But he struck back and the English defeated the Scots at the **Battle of Falkirk**. When Edward captured and killed Wallace, **Robert the Bruce** rose to power in Scotland. Robert killed John Comyn by stabbing him to death on an altar. Edward would be known to posterity as “The Hammer of the Scots”, and when he died, he was succeeded by his son.

Edward II

Edward II would proceed to have a fairly pathetic time as king. He married Isabella of France, daughter of Philip the Fair. His favorite, Piers Gaveston, was so heavily favored by him that the populace forced Gaveston into exile. Edward tried to continue his father’s subjugation of Scotland, but he failed when Robert the Bruce completely humiliated English forces at the **Battle of Bannockburn**.

Edward III

Edward III was a courageous and great ruler of England. He defeated the Scots at Halidon Hill, and took back a substantial portion of Scotland. He started the Hundred Years' War with France following the Battle of Sluys, and through outmaneuvering, won the **Battle of Crecy** in 1346. Edward also set up the Order of the Garter and won the Battle of Poitiers. The English lost at the disastrous naval Battle of La Rochelle.

Edward’s sons were Edward the Black Prince and John of Gaunt. The Black Prince won the Battle of Poitiers, and he was the father of Richard II, who would be king. The prince’s death prevented him from ever becoming king himself.

Richard II

When **Richard II** came to power, he was only ten years old. He faced a **Peasants' Revolt** led by **Wat Tyler** for taxes that were too high. The rebellion was stopped when the Lord Mayor William Walworth killed Tyler.

Henry IV

Henry IV of Bolingbroke claimed that he was descended through Edmund Crouchback, who may have been the oldest son of Henry III. Not a lot of people really believed him. He decided to go on the offensive and took the crown by force, imprisoning Richard. Richard would later die for some unknown reason. Henry restarted the Hundred Years War and he stopped rebellions in Scotland (by the Percys) and in Wales (by Owain Glyndwr). Henry IV died in 1413.

Henry V

He was succeeded by **Henry V**, a ruthless king who really liked war. He invaded France, taking advantage of Charles VI of France’s illness, and took Caen, Rouen, and went to

Calais. He participated in the Siege of Harfleur, and after that, his army, outnumbered three to one, won the **Battle of Agincourt** on St. Crispin's Day in 1415. At Agincourt, the Duke of Brabant showed up late but he was killed quickly. The French were led by Charles d'Albert, and they stole a crown from the English during the battle. D'Albert then led the French straight into a line of pikes that the English had driven into the ground for defense. The English won in large part because of their Welsh longbows. The battle led to the Treaty of Troyes. Henry took back Normandy, and he married Catherine of Valois. He died in 1422 and was succeeded by his infant son.

Wars of the Roses

Henry IV, Henry V, Henry VI were members of the **House of Lancaster**, which would come to fight the **House of York** in the Wars of the Roses, so named because of the roses that were the insignia of the warring houses (red and white respectively).

Henry VI started his reign young, but even when he grew up, he would be a weak king. Many people would rise up against him, including Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, "the Kingmaker". Warwick's cousin was a naval commander — Thomas Neville, the Bastard of Fauconberg. Henry had a mental breakdown, and Richard, Duke of York, was named regent in his stead.

When Henry became sane again, Richard of York and the Nevilles decisively defeated him and the House of Lancaster at the **First Battle of St. Albans**. It wasn't a big battle and few men died, but some of those killed were fairly important people. However, popular support wasn't really with York, and they fled. When they returned, they won the Battle of Northampton and captured Henry. They reached an agreement called the Act of Accord, according to which Henry would stay king, and when he died, the House of York would take the crown.

Edward IV of York took the throne after he won the Battle of Towton. However, his marriage would lead to him being deposed and Henry VI being restored to the throne. Edward returned and his victory at the Battle of Tewkesbury and subsequent murder of Henry wiped out the Lancastrians.

At this point, the House of York seemed to be fairly solidly set as the new ruling family. When Edward IV died, he was succeeded by his brother Richard, who took the throne and became **Richard III**, under the *Titulus Regius* statute. Richard had supposedly imprisoned Edward's children (Edward V and his brother). Richard had married Anne Neville after an argument with George, Duke of Clarence, and Edward IV. Edward's sons were never seen again, leading to the legend of the "Princes in the Tower".

By 1483, Lady Margaret Beaufort of the House of Tudor was actively promoting her son Henry as a better alternative to Richard III. Henry tried to take England, but his plans fell apart and he ran away to France, living in exile in Brittany for a year. He put together an army, getting help from the Welsh by using a dragon flag to show his ancestry. In 1485, he

landed at Milford Haven to try again, realizing his best chance was to attack Richard and defeat him quickly.

Henry met Richard at the **Battle of Bosworth Field** near Ambion Hill. The Yorkist army deployed on the hilltop so that Richard could see the whole area. Henry's army had very few Englishmen in it — many were Scottish and French. His army was commanded by the Earl of Oxford, who was assisted by the Lords Stanley (who initially hung back but then decided to join when they felt like it). When the battle began, Henry was maneuvering around trying to get into a better position. The first charge was led by John Howard, Duke of Norfolk.

At one point, when Henry rode to join the Stanleys, Richard decided to charge and kill him quickly. He killed Henry's standard-bearer Sir William Brandon and unhorsed John Cheyne, but Henry was still very well guarded. Richard had come close to Henry, but his group was surrounded gradually and Henry's Welshmen hacked him to death. After the battle, Richard was buried at Grey Friars monastery. Richard's circlet was brought to Crown Hill, where Henry Tudor was crowned **Henry VII**, king of England.

Henry VII was the first of the Tudors to rule England, and we'll see more of him and his wild and crazy descendants later.

France: The Capetians

When we looked at France last time, Charlemagne was in power. In 814, he died, and his heirs were incompetent, so the empire started to break. In 843, the grandsons of Charlemagne (the sons of Louis the Pious) signed the **Treaty of Verdun**. The treaty split the Carolingian empire between Louis the German, Charles the Bald, and Lothair. Louis the German received the east, which would eventually become the kingdom of Germany, Charles the Bald got modern-day France, and Lothair took the Low Countries and Italy.

Capetians

Viking advances and infighting amongst French royals would result in the downfall of the Carolingians. In 987, an assembly in Reims elected **Hugh Capet** to the position of King of the Franks. The dynasty he founded, the **Capetians**, would rule France for over eight centuries, along with its friends the Valois and Bourbons. Hugh's son, Robert the Pious, was elected king before Hugh died, in order to ensure succession.

In the land of the Franks, **Philip I** came to power in 1060 and ruled until 1108. His reign included the [First Crusade](#). This was also the time that William the Conqueror was invading England.

Starting with the reign of **Louis VI**, royal authority in France became more accepted. Louis liked war, and he was assisted by Abbot Suger regarding non-military things. He was succeeded by his son **Louis VII**, who people tended to like. He married Eleanor of

Aquitaine, and also saw a crusade. However, his marriage was annulled, and Eleanor would marry Henry II of England.

Philip II Augustus recovered much of Normandy from England (under John's rule at the time); recall the Battle of Bouvines, England was mostly ousted from France. He founded the Sorbonne, and he made Paris a more intellectual city.

In 1218, on Sicily, the bad rule of Charles I of Anjou forced a rebellion, in favor of **Peter III of Aragon**. This revolt was known as the **Sicilian Vespers**. A phase of the War of the Sicilian Vespers was the Aragonese Crusade. After the war, the Sicilians won and Angevin rule was kicked off the island.

France would become even more centralized under **Louis IX** (1226–1270). His mother was Blanche of Castile. He fought Henry III in the Saintonge War, in which Henry tried to take back England's old territory. Louis defeated Hugh of Lusignan and Henry III of England at the Battle of Taillebourg. On completion of the war, he supported new forms of art, and he commissioned the Saint-Chapelle, a Gothic building. He participated in the Seventh and Eighth Crusades. Louis's nephew was **Robert of Artois**, an experienced soldier who participated in the Aragonese Crusade. He also won the Battle of Furnes against the Flemings, and in 1302, he went into Flanders and won the Battle of the Golden Spurs. On his death in 1270, he became the only canonized king of France, St. Louis.

Philip III and **Philip IV** (Philip the Fair) followed Louis IX. Philip IV tried to invade Aragon, and failed miserably because of an epidemic. The latter elevated his monarchy to a glorious position. He focused on the north of France, and he forced England out of Gascony. He got into an argument with Pope Boniface VIII for taxing the clergy in 1296. Eventually he would put his own pope into the papacy that got moved to Avignon. He also destroyed the [Knights Templar](#). Philip IV died in 1314, and his son Louis X ruled shortly before he died of sickness.

The throne then passed to his brother **Philip V**. He made peace with Flanders, and he continued to fight with Edward II of England regarding Gascony. He put down the Pastoreux uprising when his hand was forced by Pope John XXII. He was succeeded by his brother, Charles IV.

Hundred Years' War

When Charles died in 1328, it signaled the end of the main line of the Capetians. Thus, the crown passed down to Philip VI, son of Charles of Valois. The standing enmity between England and France turned into the Hundred Years' War, discussed above. Just as England experienced a peasant revolt in 1381, France experienced the **Jacquerie** in 1358.

France was pushed back in the beginning of the war (1337–1360), and they began to push back later. However, when Henry V of England won at Agincourt, France fell into chaos. Seven years later, Henry VI was declared king in Paris by the Treaty of Troyes, and the

Valois were pushed back.

In 1429, **Joan of Arc** was seemingly given instructions from Saints Michael, Catherine, and Margaret. She went and met the Dauphin Charles VII at Orleans, and he was impressed by her. She then went to the siege of Orleans, and she helped lift the siege (claiming she had seen a sign), leading to her being known as “the Maid of Orleans”. The victory helped crown **Charles VII** king in Rheims. She went on to rout John Fastolf at the Battle of Patay, aided by La Hire. She wielded an old sword that was found behind St. Catherine’s altar. However, she was captured by Burgundians at the Compiègne, due to a mistimed drawbridge. Then, she was sold to the English John of Luxembourg, tried by Bishop Chaucon, and burned at the stake for witchcraft. She would be sainted in 1920.

The French went on to drive England back out of France. Other notable battles during the Hundred Years' War included: Bauge, where the French won; Poitiers, where the British crushed the French; and Formigny, where the French won. The last battle of the war is considered to have been the Battle of Castillon.

House of Valois

The first king of France of the House of Valois was **Francis I**, son of Charles of Angoulême. He succeeded Louis XII, who had died without an heir. Francis fought in the **War of the League of Cambrai** during the Italian Wars. During the final stage of that war, Francis routed the Papal States and the Old Swiss Confederacy at the Battle of Marignano. Other important battles include Agnadello, and France was placed under interdict by Julius II during this time. Pope Clement VII became a big ally of Francis.

Germany: Holy Roman Empire

The Germans were slowly being united under such leaders as Henry the Fowler. In 936, Henry’s son **Otto I, the Great** was crowned as king at Aachen. He led Burchard III of Swabia and Conrad the Red of Lorraine into battle against the Magyars at the Battle of Lechfeld in 955. Note that the Magyars had previously lost the Battle of Pressburg. After receiving a plea for help, Otto led the First Italian Expedition to defend Adelaide, queen of Italy, who was imprisoned on Lake Garda by the usurper Berengar II, Otto married Adelaide and took Italy, becoming King of the Lombards. In 962, he was declared Holy Roman Emperor by Pope John XII.

Later, **Henry IV** (1050–1106) began a clash with the Church. He disagreed with **Pope Gregory VII** over appointments to Catholic offices in what came to be known as the lay **Investiture Controversy**. After the pope decided to excommunicate him, Henry famously walked to and did penance for three days in the snows before Canossa in 1077. A cycle of excommunication and opposition continued between church and emperor, until 1122, when the **Concordat of Worms** between Callixtus II and Henry V was confirmed at the First Lateran Council, resulting in a temporarily cease of dispute. The Investiture

Controversy resulted in a strengthening of the Church, helping increase piety in the lay population and setting up a climate for continuing the Crusades.

At this point, trading in the Baltic Sea increased, and the **Hanseatic League** formed. The League was a set of major trading towns led by **Lubeck** which would dominate trade across the coast. The cities also included Cologne, Hamburg, Bremen, and Visby. The League established trading posts called *kontors*, and it forced the Treaty of Stralsund on Valdemar IV of Denmark. Members of the League were raided by privateers hired by Albrecht von Mecklenburg called the Victual brothers.

In 1226, the **Teutonic Knights** began their conquest of Prussia. Prussia would evolve from the set of towns that the Knights established after their war. The knights' greatest enemies were probably a society called the Lizard League. They lost the Thirteen Years War, and their leaders included Hermann Von Salza. The knights fought against the Cumans for Andrew II of Hungary. They remained in power in Prussia until the Battle of Tannenberg in 1410.

Eventually, the Hohenstaufen dynasty under **Frederick Barbarossa** (1152–1190) gave Bavaria to Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony. Austria became a separate entity, and Frederick tried to take Italy.

Starting in 1438, the **Habsburgs** from the south and east parts of the empire would maintain a grip on the position of the Holy Roman Emperor. We'll see a lot more of the Habsburgs as time goes on.

Scandinavia: Kalmar Union

In 1397, the kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden formed the **Kalmar Union**. The intent was to unite the three kingdoms under a single ruler, while still leaving the countries as separate states.

The union was conceived by **Margaret I**, daughter of **Valdemar IV** of Denmark. She married into Norwegian royalty, and after she was recognized as regent in both countries, she adopted Bogislav of Pomerania and renamed him **Erik of Pomerania**. After defeating the unpopular Albert of Mecklenburg, king of Sweden, at the Battle of Asle, Erik was made ruler of all three kingdoms.

The Union often came into conflict with the concurrent Hanseatic League. In the 1420s and 1430s, the Danes became embroiled in the Dano-Hanseatic War, after Erik introduced a tax on ships passing through the öresund.

The union began to fall apart, having to deal with insurrections like the Engelbrecht Rebellion. Erik was deposed, and succeeded by Christopher of Bavaria. On Christopher's death, the power vacuum was filled by **Charles VIII** in Sweden, who was subsequently also elected as king in Norway. However, the Danish Privy Council decided to put

Christian I of Oldenburg in power, resulting in a few (seventy) years of war between the Danes and the Swedes.

Eventually, **Christian II** reconquered Sweden, killing the anti-unionist Sten Sture the Younger at the Battle of Bogesund. Along with Archbishop Gustavus Trolle, Christian started the **Stockholm Bloodbath**, killing many Sture supporters in late 1520. Trolle is now considered one of the great traitors of Sweden. The Swedes then rose up, and by the next year, they had reclaimed their country, and the Danish occupation surrendered Stockholm in 1523. The election of **Gustav Vasa** to the Swedish throne put the final nail in the coffin of the Kalmar Union.

Crusades

The **Crusades** were religious military campaigns with the goal of restoring Christianity.

First Crusade

The **First Crusade** (1096–1099) was declared by **Pope Urban II** in 1095 at the **Council of Clermont**. The main goal originally was to help **Alexius I Komnenos**, the Byzantine emperor at the time. At the Council of Piacenza, he asked Urban II for help repelling the Seljuk Turks in Anatolia. However, it quickly became about regaining Jerusalem and the Holy Land, and the crusaders expected help from Alexius. Anna Komnena, daughter of Alexius I, wrote the *Alexiad*, detailing his reign and his role in letting the Crusade go through the Byzantine empire.

During the crusade, the Byzantine general Tatikios won a victory at Dorylaeum. Walter the Penniless (aka Walter Sans Avoir) and Peter the Hermit were defeated at Nicea. Other leaders in the conflict included Raymond of Toulouse, Bohemond, and Godfrey of Bouillon. It was ultimately successful in taking back the Holy Land. The prelude to the First Crusade was known as the People's Crusade.

Second Crusade

The **Second Crusade** (1145–1149) started as a reaction to Zengi's capture of Edessa. It was encouraged by Pope Eugenius III in the bull *quantum praedecessores* and it was championed by the preacher St. Bernard of Clairvaux (called in by the Archbishop of Mainz). The major generals in the crusade were Louis VII of France and Conrad III of Germany. The crusade ended when the siege of Damascus failed and it failed to take back the Holy Land.

Third Crusade

The **Third Crusade** (1189–1192) was another attempt to take the Holy Land. It was also known as the Kings' Crusade, since Philip II of France, **Frederick Barbarossa**, and

Richard the Lionheart all led forces. Frederick died when he decided to ride his horse across the Saleph River, because the horse couldn't handle it and his armor was too heavy to swim with. The major leader for the Muslim side was **Saladin**.

Saladin had previously defeated the **Assassins** at Masyaf (he covered the ground around his tent with chalk so he could see their footprints). The assassins were led by the "old man of the mountain", and their opiate-abusing ways would be stopped by Hulagu Khan.

Richard and Saladin made peace at the Treaty of Ramla after the Battle of Arsuf, mostly because they were tired of fighting and they didn't feel like continuing. The crusade ended mostly successfully, capturing Acre and Jaffa, but failed to take Jerusalem. On the way home, Richard's disguises failed and he was captured by **Leopold V of Austria**, and was kept in various states of captivity for a couple years.

Fourth Crusade

The **Fourth Crusade** (1202–1204) tried to take Jerusalem by way of Egypt. Pope **Innocent III** called for the crusade, but nobody really cared. So Theobald III of Champagne held a tournament where various people, such as Fulk of Neuilly, attended and took the cross, to go on the crusade. Before the crusade started, the Venetians had been in deep debt. Doge Enrico Dandolo wanted to pay it off, and Alexius IV, the Byzantine prince, offered to do so.

Boniface of Montferrat and Philip of Swabia met and agreed to take down the Byzantine emperor Alexius III. Because of this, the crusade ended up going to Constantinople. The crusaders attacked Galata Tower to break the chain across the Golden Horn. Eventually, they were able to enter the city and they sacked it for three days. At the end, Alexius III had been toppled and Alexius IV was in power. Only about a tenth of the crusaders ever made it to the Holy Land, so the very Christian intentions of the crusade simply turned into the extremely non-Christian sacking of Constantinople.

After the Fourth Crusade, Innocent III called the **Fourth Lateran Council** of 1215 to discuss papal involvement in the crusades. The most important result of the meeting was the establishment of the doctrine of transubstantiation, but it also made one confession a year mandatory and planned the Fifth Crusade.

Later Crusades

The **Albigensian Crusade** (1209–1229), also called the Cathar Crusade, didn't go east. Pope Innocent III called for this one to eliminate Catharism in Languedoc in the south of France. The Cathars were a sect of Christians that became known as the Albigensians. This crusade ended in far less Cathars being alive and the French crown growing in power. The crusade ended with a Treaty of Paris.

The **Children's Crusade** (1212) tried to take Jerusalem peacefully. It failed pretty badly because it recruited children and some of them were sold into slavery. Notable leaders

included Stephen of Cloyes, and the crusade was sent home by Philip II after reaching Saint-Denis.

The **Fifth Crusade** (1213–1221) tried to take Jerusalem through Egypt (again). They lost to the Ayyubid state in Egypt and failed.

The **Sixth Crusade** (1228) tried to take Jerusalem (do you see a pattern?). Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II delayed the start of the crusade; when they did set out, there was an outbreak of malaria. Very little fighting actually occurred, and the crusaders won a diplomatic victory. Pope Gregory IX, an enemy of Frederick, didn't like that Frederick declared himself king in Jerusalem.

Louis IX of France participated in the **Seventh Crusade** (1248–1254) and **Eighth Crusade** (1270). The crusaders didn't take Jerusalem.

The last crusade was the **Ninth Crusade**.

Knights Templar

It is at this point that we should discuss the Poor Fellow-Soldiers of Christ and of the Temple of Solomon, known more commonly as the **Knights Templar**.

Following the conquest of Jerusalem in the [First Crusade](#), Christians began to make pilgrimages around the Holy Land. They were hounded by highwaymen and bandits, slaughtered in droves by criminals who faced no retribution. In 1119, Baldwin II granted **Hughes de Payens** money and premises in the Temple of Solomon to form a monastic order tasked with the protection of Christians in the Holy Land. De Payens became the first Grand Master of the Knights Templar.

Saint Bernard of Clairvaux took an interest in the Templars, advocating for them and convincing the church to fund and supply the order. Innocent II signed the bull *Omne Datum Optimum*, allowing the Templars to essentially disregard any local laws. They passed through borders at will, and answered only to the pope himself.

The Knights came to serve many purposes. Their foremost charge was that of war; they supplied heavy cavalry and shock troops throughout the Crusades, often in pivotal battles such as the Battle of Montgisard against Saladin.

Simultaneously, the order became an early incarnation of a banking system. They wrote letters of credits for pilgrims and held money & valuables for them. They were, for all intents and purposes, a multinational financial corporation.

By the late 1200s, the power of the Knights was slowly starting to decline. They had been defeated at Hattin by Saladin and many were subsequently executed. They were occasionally placed in opposition to other orders, such as the Knights Hospitaller and the Teutonic Knights. They relocated north to Acre after the loss of

Jerusalem.

In 1305, Clement V called **Jacques de Molay**, the Templar Grand Master, and Fulk de Villaret, the Hospitaller Grand Master, to Avignon in order to discuss merging the organizations. Neither de Molay nor de Villaret were happy about these developments.

Clement enlisted Philip IV of France to arrest de Molay and a large number of Templars on Friday the 13th of October 1307. The charges encompassed spitting on the cross, blasphemy, and indecent kissing (*mon dieu!*). Other cited heresies included worshipping cats and Egyptian deities. Clement then issued the bull *pastoralis praeeminentiae*, ordering all Templars everywhere be arrested and all their money taken. Clement soon disbanded the order by issuing *Vox in Excelso* in 1312 and he ordered de Molay burned at the stake in 1314.

In 2001, Barbara Frale discovered the **Chinon Parchment** in the Vatican Archives. The document notes that Clement apparently absolved the Templars of heresy prior to the disbanding of the order. The Catholic Church now holds the position that the persecution of the Templars was wrong, Clement having been pressured into extreme action by political pressure from Philip IV.

Khans & Conquerors

Bulgarian Empire

The **Bulgars** were Turkic nomads who started to settle down along the north shores of the Black Sea during the 7th century. In 679, a group of Bulgars led by Khan **Asparuh** established the **First Bulgarian Empire** in the northeastern Balkans.

In the beginning, relations with the Byzantines were pretty good. A peace treaty signed with the Byzantines resulted in settlement south of the Danube. When the [Umayyad](#) besieged Constantinople in 717, Khan Tervel sent Bulgarian forces to assist the city and kill Arabs. This alliance formed an effective bulwark against Arab incursion into Europe proper.

Unfortunately by the 750s the cohesion of Bulgaria was faltering. Internal instability (potentially regarding how to coexist with the Byzantine Empire) led to the rise of multiple factions. When Constantine V came to power in Constantinople, he launched invasions into Bulgaria. Of course, actively invading a nation which is debating whether or not to support you will make your staunchest allies in said nation turn on you rather fast. Bulgaria became united against the Byzantine threat, and the war continued until Bulgarian victory in 803.

In 803, **Krum** came to power and launched an expansion campaign which increased the

size of Bulgaria twofold. In 808, he brought Bulgaria to war with the Byzantines once again. Emperor Nicephorus I managed to attack and capture Pliska, the Bulgarian capital, but was defeated decisively shortly thereafter at the Battle of Varbitsa Pass. Nicephorus was killed, and Krum supposedly lined his skull with silver and used it as a wine cup.

By the end of the 9th century and into the 10th, the reigns of **Boris I** and **Simeon the Great** resulted in a flourishing of Bulgarian culture. This Golden Age lasted until the early 11th century, when continued pressure from neighbors resulted in Byzantine rule over Bulgaria.

In 1185, a series of protests called the **Uprising of Asen and Peter** resulted in the restoration of Bulgaria as the **Second Bulgarian Empire**. Shortly following the [Fourth Crusade](#), the Latin Empire crusader state lost to the Bulgarians at the 1205 Battle of Adrianople. By the mid 1200s, the Bulgarians became a powerful influence in the Balkans, and the Empire spread to the Black Sea. Constant invasion by Ottomans led to the fall of Sofia in the 1380s, and the Bulgarian capital of Tarnovo was captured in 1388. The Ottomans captured the rest of Bulgaria shortly thereafter, ending the Bulgarian Empire (though resistance would continue into the 1400s).

Mongols of the Steppe

The Mongolian plateau was home to the Khereid, Khamag Mongol, Naiman, Mergid, and Tatar tribal confederations. The Jin dynasty emperors worked to keep them feuding among themselves. During the 13th century, the usually harsh, dry, and cold steppes of central Asia had very mild, wet conditions, which would contribute to a rise of Mongol military strength. One of the sons of the Mongol chieftain Yesugei was Temujin, whose family was killed in Tatars, leading him to swear revenge on those who would oppose him. By 1206, Temujin was crowned as the Khan of the Mongol Nation and he became **Genghis Khan**.

According to legend, Genghis had been born holding a clot of blood in his hand, which meant that he would become a leader. Genghis Khan married Borte and he appointed his brother Shigi-Khuthugh to the position of supreme judge to oversee the Yassa law code that he made. He also was tolerant of religious freedom and he didn't tax those who couldn't take it. He encouraged literacy and adopted the use of the Uyghur script. Genghis's life was documented by Rashid al-Din and Juvaini.

Genghis united the warring Mongol tribes into a single mighty force. His army was divided into arbans, zuuns, Mingghans, and tumens. He forbade looting of the enemy without permission and he set up a system to share spoils of war; he also set up a practice of holding victory feasts on a platform on top of captured nobles. Genghis expanded the Mongol empire, and pushed into central Asia, with the help of his general Subotai. In 1220, he sacked Samarkand. Before he died fighting the Tangut peoples in 1227, he named his son **Ogedei** heir to his empire in place of his other son Tolui,

During Ogedei's reign, a grandson of Genghis, **Batu Khan**, overran the Bulgars and other peoples of southern Russia. When Ogedei died in 1241, his widow **Toregene Khatun** took over control of his empire. She was able to control most of it for a long while, but Batu's **Golden Horde** did not show up to the *kurultai* that was held to choose the next khan, and the empire was thrown into imbalance.

The Golden Horde was composed of the Blue and White Hordes, named for the colors of tents that they used. There was much more turmoil between the khans that I won't get into right now, but other leaders of the Golden Horde included Nogai, Uzbek, Berke, Jani Beg, and Hulagu Khan. Also recall that Kublai Khan invaded China and set up the Yuan dynasty in the mid-late 13th century.

Tamerlane

Some time in the 1320s, a man called Timur the Lame, or **Tamerlane**, was born. He founded the Timurid dynasty in Central Asia and referred to himself as the "Sword of Islam". He led his army around Asia, wrecking and plundering all towns he saw and creating pyramids of skulls outside of places he sacked. His capital was at Samarkand, he put down a tax revolt in Isfahan, and he built the White Palace in his birthplace of Shahrisabz. At Ankara, he captured Bayezid the Thunderbolt and he defeated Mahmud Tughluq and sacked Delhi. Tokhtamysh of the Golden Horde, one of Tamerlane's biggest rivals, lost Sarai to him at the Battle of Kur River. Tamerlane's other victories include the Battle of the Terek River and the Battle of Ankara.

Tamerlane's life was chronicled by Ruy Gonzales de Clavijo, and he was buried in a tomb called Gur-e-Amir, which would be opened before Operation Barbarossa (see the World War II chapter). Tamerlane was succeeded by his son, Shah Rukh. His grandson was Ulugh Beg, and one of his descendants was Babur, who would found the Mughal Empire.

Chapter 6. African Empires

An army of sheep led by a lion can defeat an army of lions led by a sheep.

— Ghanaian Proverb

West Africa

Ghana

The **Ghana Empire** (Wagadou) ruled from about 300 to 1235. It was founded by the Soninke people. Notably, it placed value on gold, treating all gold nuggets as the king's property. The name of the Ghana Empire referred to the ruler, who lived in Kumbi Saleh.

Important kings of the Ghana Empire included **Tunka Menin**. It is said that the empire had 22 Muslim kings and 22 non-Muslim kings. Kings used to perform a “trial by wood”, which involved giving an accused person a bitter piece of wood and seeing if he vomited. We know about Ghana because of Al-Bakri's *Book of Highways and Empires*.

Ghana's decline led to the rise of the Sosso Empire.

Ashanti

The **Oyoko** clan settled at Kumasi and established the Ashanti Empire around the Ghana area. The kings of the Ashanti Empire ruled from the great and divine throne known as the **Golden Stool**. The Stool reportedly descended from the heavens and landed on the first king, Osei Tutu. Independence was declared in 1670.

Mali

The **Mali Empire** was founded in 1230 by **Sundiata** Keita, who defeated Sumanguru (Soumaoro) of the Sosso Empire. The Epic of Sundiata chronicles (semi-historically), the founding of the empire. Sundiata's mother was the hunchback Sogolon. He was born a cripple, ugly and lazy, but then he lifted himself up using an iron rod, bending it and

resulting in “The Hymn of the Bow”. Mali would become well known for its overabundance of wealth. Mali’s capital was at **Timbuktu**.

The other important king of the Mali Empire was **Mansa Musa** (Musa I). He once caused rampant inflation when he spent a lot of gold for salt in a pilgrimage to Mecca. His general was Sagmandia, who recaptured Gao. He also constructed the Sankore Madrasah (university) and the Djinguereber Mosque, and employed architects such as Abu Ishaq as-Sahili. Mansa Musa was notably shown in the Catalan Atlas holding a fleur-de-lis.

Songhai

The **Songhai Empire** succeeded the Mali Empire. It was founded by **Sunni Ali** in 1464, and it would last until the late 1500s. The capital was at **Gao**, but other major cities did include Timbuktu. Notable locations included salt mines at Tagharza.

The empire was at its peak during the reign of **Askia Muhammad**. Other important rulers include Kings Nuhu and Kossoi.

In the late 16th century, Morocco invaded the Songhai Empire. Morocco was led by Judar Pasha against the Songhai King Askia Ishaq II. The final confrontation occurred at the **Battle of Tondibi**. The Songhai came up with the brilliant plan of sending a thousand cattle at the Moroccan lines. Moroccan cannons sent the cattle stampeding right back at the Songhai, breaking their lines and forcing them into retreat. Judar Pasha moved on, sacking Gao and continuing to Timbuktu.

Despite the shattering of the Songhai Empire itself, Morocco was never able to exert real influence over the area. Many smaller states sprung up in the aftermath. The Songhai reestablished themselves as the **Dendi Kingdom** by 1600, a nation which would remain until it fell to the French in 1901.

South Africa

Great Zimbabwe

During the Iron Age, **Great Zimbabwe** was the capital of the Kingdom of Zimbabwe. The city was constructed in the 11th century by Shona people, and it stayed around until the 15th century. The city included the Imba Huru (Great Enclosure) and it was excavated by Richard Hall.

The Shona constructed the Kingdom of Mutapa, which went between the Zambezi and Limpopo rivers. I wish I had more to say on the subject, but I don’t right now...

Chapter 7. Renaissance & Reformation

While I thought that I was learning how to live, I have been learning how to die.

— Leonardo da Vinci

After the Middle Ages, a rebirth of culture and achievement began. It started in Italy, and it would provide a transition from Medieval Times into the Early Modern Era.

Italian Renaissance

The **Renaissance** started in Tuscany on the west coast of Italy. It spread to Venice, where the **humanist** scholars were happy with the new discoveries, and they enjoyed interest in the classics that had been forgotten in what they called the Dark Ages (so named because light bulbs had not been invented yet). The Italian Renaissance peaked in the 16th century when the Italian Wars threw the region into turmoil.

We'll leave the numerous cultural achievements of the Renaissance to literature experts and art historians. Suffice it to say that there was a lot of very good stuff that came from the era, including works of Petrarch, Bocaccio, Michelangelo, Leonardo da Vinci, Botticelli, Raphael, Titian, etc.

Background

Remember that the papacy had been moved to Avignon by Philip the Fair, so the papal states were fairly loosely held together, and didn't do a lot of huge things. However, the Fourth Crusade had done much to improve the strength of trade of the northern Italian city-states, like Genoa, Venice, and Pisa, weakening the Byzantine Empire.

Most of the outside kingdoms left the city-states of Italy alone, and Florence grew in strength, resulting in their florin becoming the *de facto* currency of trade. Merchants were very powerful people in the 13th century.

But, in the 14th century, the economy fell apart, partly as a result of the Hundred Years' War. The banks of Bardi and Peruzzi in Florence collapsed. The **Black Death** swept

through Europe and took out nearly a third of Europe's people. During the plague, **flagellants** went around whipping themselves for religious reasons. Florentine textile workers rebelled in the *ciompi* in 1378.

Warring City-States

Northern Italy was divided between city-states, and there was conflict between the forces of the papacy and the Holy Roman Empire. Internally, they were also divided between the factions of the **Guelphs and the Ghibellines**. Mercenaries were employed by many city-states, and many would have a sizable military force. On land, the mercenaries were called **condottieri**, and they came from all over Europe.

Pisa, Genoa, and Venice fought many battles on water, and eventually Pisa's became weakened. On land, Florence, Milan, and Venice became dominant, and they signed the Peace of Lodi (1454) and agreed to stop fighting so much.

Florence

Medici Rule

For much of the 14th century, the House of Albizzi led Florence. Florence became the central banking hub of Europe when Siena's Bonsignori banks failed.

The main family that rivaled the Albizzi was the **Medici**. The first of the Medici was **Giovanni de' Medici**, followed by his son, **Cosimo di Giovanni de' Medici** (Cosimo the Elder). They controlled the largest bank in Europe, so they had a lot of money and would stay in power for three centuries. Cosimo had negotiated the Peace of Lodi with **Francesco Sforza**, leader of Milan. Cosimo's son Piero succeeded him, and promptly died.

Power passed to Cosimo's grandson, **Lorenzo the Magnificent**. Lorenzo would become a big patron of the arts, which was quite important in Renaissance Italy. He formed the Council of Seventy, which formalized rule of Florence with Lorenzo himself at the head. However, his relationship with others slowly decayed, and the papacy didn't like him very much. At the Castello del Trebbio, the Pazzi family was nudged by Pope Sixtus IV to conspire against Lorenzo. On April 26, 1478, they tried to kill Lorenzo after High Mass at the Santa Maria del Fiore (the Florence Cathedral, the one with the big dome). They managed to stab Giuliano, Lorenzo's brother, but Lorenzo escaped wounded. Florentines took it upon themselves to kill off many members of the Pazzi family (perhaps Ezio Auditore had something to do with it?) and the Pazzis were forced out of Florence.

Bonfire of the Vanities

Near the end of the 15th century, **Girolamo Savonarola**, a Dominican monk, took Florence after the French, led by Charles VIII, invaded the city. Savonarola had prophesied a biblical flood from the north, and people took Charles's invasion to mean

that Savonarola was right. He took power to combat the secularism that had been flourishing (seeing how secularism doesn't really help monks), and his followers were called the *Piagnoni* (the "Weepers").

Savonarola destroyed a bunch of art and books in the Piazza della Signoria during his **Bonfire of the Vanities**, notably making Sandro Botticelli "desert his painting" and forcing Pico della Mirandola to abandon writing. Savonarola wrote works such as *Infelix Ego, On the Ruin of the Church*, and *On the Downfall of the World* (note a common theme). Savonarola claimed that an infinite God created an infinite cosmos with infinite worlds. At one point, he was asked to walk through fire to prove himself, but a rainstorm canceled the event, causing a riot. Eventually, Pope Alexander VI excommunicated Savonarola. He was consequently burned at the stake, having confessed to heresy while being tortured with Domenico de Pescia and Fra Silvestro.

Rome: Vatican Popes and the Borgias

In 1417, the papacy was able to return to Rome, but it mostly stayed a ruined city. By 1447, though, Pope Nicholas V was able to make it a better place. Pope Pius II was a humanist scholar, and the papacy would become controlled by powerful families, such as the Medici and the Borgias. Pope Sixtus IV ordered the construction of the Sistine Chapel. The Papal States became more centralized, and the popes became warriors.

Pope Alexander VI was pope for the last decade of the 15th century. His uncle was Alfonso Borgia, **Pope Callixtus III**, who had allegedly tried to excommunicate Halley's comet. He was originally named Rodrigo Borgia, and he had a few children. The important ones were **Lucrezia Borgia** and **Cesare Borgia**. Claims of incest surrounded the family. Cesare, who conquered Forli, was praised in Machiavelli's *The Prince*, being used as an example of a great and harsh ruler.

Tudor England

Henry VII

Recall that **Henry VII Tudor** had won at Bosworth Field and had become the first Tudor king of England. The Tudors would rule England for the entirety of the 16th century. It's perhaps interesting to note that the actual Tudor monarchs didn't particularly like being called "Tudor", because the family had been largely unimpressive before Henry VII came to power.

Henry married Elizabeth of York and unified the warring houses of Lancaster and York, as symbolized by the Tudor symbol, a white and red rose. He planned to make a gold plated statue of himself and put it on the tomb of Edward the Confessor. He also made the **Court of the Star Chamber** to try to limit the power of barons. A plot against him by John de la Pole (Richard III's nephew) involved a boy named Lambert Simnel, who posed as

Edward, Earl of Warwick, and led some mercenaries into England, being defeated at the Battle of Stoke Field. Another threat came from Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be Edward IV's son. Henry married his son Arthur to **Catherine of Aragon**, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, but Arthur quickly died, leaving his brother Henry as the new heir.

Henry VIII

When Henry VII died in 1509, his son became **Henry VIII**, and the position of the Tudors was secured. He married Catherine of Aragon, and the only child of theirs that survived was Mary. Henry started an incursion into France, but the only notable battle was the Battle of the Spurs, where the king didn't even show up, so the war wasn't particularly effective.

At this point, James IV of Scotland activated the **Auld Alliance** with France and declared war. In 1513, the English met 10,000 Scots at the **Battle of Flodden Field** (the battle actually took place at Milfield and Braxton Hill). The English were victorious and James IV was defeated, as chronicled by Walter Scott in his *Marmion*. Henry also negotiated with Francis I of France at the **Field of the Cloth of Gold**, where the two monarchs notably wrestled each other.

When Catherine wasn't able to have any more children than Mary, Henry got nervous. The last time a female monarch was on the throne was back when Matilda was queen, and you probably remember that hadn't worked out so well. He decided to divorce Catherine, but **Pope Clement VII** wouldn't let him. Henry got mad at the pope and decided to make his own church (starting the English Reformation).

The new **Church of England** wasn't much of a change from Catholicism, except with Henry at the head of it. In 1530, he declared his marriage to Catherine invalid, so Mary was declared illegitimate. Henry then married **Anne Boleyn** in 1533, and Anne had a daughter named Elizabeth. Henry got annoyed again when the queen failed to have a son, so he beheaded her married **Jane Seymour**. Jane gave birth to Edward, and Henry was finally happy. Of course, Jane promptly died of sepsis, and Henry ended up quite upset. Henry then married the German **Anne of Cleves** for the political advantages. He didn't like her very much, so he divorced her as fast as he could. He then married **Catherine Howard**, but since she wasn't faithful, she ended up on the chopping block as well. Henry's last marriage was to **Catherine Parr**, and his health started declining, so she outlived him. For those of you counting at home, that's six marriages total.

Henry did do things other than get married. His 1530s **Dissolution of the Monasteries** resulted in Robert Aske leading a revolt known as the **Pilgrimage of Grace**. His advisors included Cardinal Thomas Wolsey and **Thomas Cromwell**. Henry appointed **Thomas Cranmer** Archbishop of Canterbury, where he would serve into the reign of Mary I. Cranmer wrote the **Book of Common Prayer**, a big part of the English Reformation. He got into an argument with **Thomas More**, Lord Chancellor, who opposed Henry's creation

of the new church. True to form, Henry had him convicted of treason and beheaded, so Pope Pius XI canonized More as a martyr.

Henry also launched the **War of the Rough Wooing** (1543–1550), also called the Eight Years' War, in which he tried to enforce the Treaty of Greenwich and force a marriage between his son Edward VI and the baby Mary, Queen of Scots. During the War of the Rough Wooing, Edward Seymour led an expedition to burn down Edinburgh, and the Battle of Pinkie Cleugh was so bad for the Scots that they now call it Black Saturday.

Henry died in 1547 as his paranoia and insanity got even worse. He was buried next to Jane Seymour and was succeeded by their son, Edward.

Edward and Mary

Edward VI was only nine when he took his father's crown in 1547. He had to stop Kett's Rebellion in Norfolk and the Prayer Book Rebellion. At this point, England became a predominantly Protestant nation. Edward died in 1553 at age 15 from tuberculosis, failing to live up to expectations of greatness. John Dudley, Lord President Northumberland, put **Lady Jane Grey** on the throne. But her reign was disputed, so her head ended up slightly further from her neck than she would have preferred.

Thus, **Mary I**, daughter of Catherine of Aragon, took the throne. Excluding the only partially accepted reigns of Matilda and Jane Grey, Mary was the first true queen of England. She was Catholic and she wanted England to be more like before the English Reformation, so Mary burned almost 300 Protestants (recorded in John Foxe's Book of Martyrs), resulting in her being called "Bloody Mary". She imprisoned Thomas Cranmer, forced him to recant Protestantism, and burned him anyway. Notably, she married Philip II of Spain, son of [Charles V](#), Holy Roman Emperor. When Mary died in 1558, English people rejoiced.

Elizabeth I

Elizabeth I, daughter of Anne Boleyn, became queen in 1558. She moved to reestablish the Church of England and managed to end the conflict between Puritans and Catholics. Elizabeth never married and was referred to as the "Virgin Queen", putting her succession in doubt. Her spymaster **Francis Walsingham** stopped the Throckmorton and Babington plots which tried to kill her. She also expelled the Hanseatic League from their London Steelyard, and sent raiders to burn Cádiz.

Elizabeth was able to maintain a fair amount of stability in the kingdom. She did have to stop the Revolt of the Northern Earls in 1569, but she managed to consolidate power fairly well. Population grew rapidly under Elizabeth while government expanded. Her policy was "Video et taceo" ("I see and I am quiet") and she advocated some religious tolerance, such as issuing the 39 Articles to concretely define a doctrine of English religion. However, she was excommunicated by Pope Pius V by the bull *Regnans in Excelsis*.

Mary, Queen of Scots (Mary Stuart) was a Queen of Scotland while Elizabeth was queen in England. She was forced to abdicate by James after she was imprisoned in Loch Leven Castle. Mary was Elizabeth's cousin, and she asked for Elizabeth's protection after her abdication. Mary had claimed the throne of England as her own right, and the participants of the Rising of the North believed that Mary was the true monarch. Elizabeth kept her imprisoned because she thought Mary was a threat, and she had Mary killed in 1567 for conspiring against her.

Elizabeth supported the "Sea Dogs", her privateers, who included Walter Raleigh and **Sir Francis Drake**. Drake is notable for completing the second circumnavigation of the globe. On his way through California, he claimed land there as "New Albion". He died of dysentery after losing at the Battle of San Juan.

In 1601, Elizabeth delivered the "Golden Speech" to Parliament, saying that this would be her last Parliament. Elizabeth died in 1603, marking the end of the House of Tudor that had reigned for the 16th century.

Reformation

Background

The Great **Papal Schism** was a split in the Catholic Church, occurring between 1378 and 1418. When Pope Gregory XI ended the Avignon Papacy and returned to Rome, some people became unhappy. When Gregory died, Romans wanted a Roman pope, so they presented **Urban VI** as pope. But, a bunch of cardinals picked **Clement VII** and made a new papacy in Avignon.

Eventually the Antipope John XXIII gathered the **Council of Constance** (1414–1418). Gregory XII, the Roman pope, agreed, and the parties met. A previous council at Pisa had started some Catholic reforms, and Constance continued them. The council succeeded in ending the Schism by electing Martin V as the new pope.

Also of note at the Council of Constance was the condemnation of **Jan Hus**. Hus, the author of *De Ecclesia*, is considered the first church reformer. The Council of Constance ended up convicting Hus of heresy, because he'd denounced indulgences under Antipope John XXIII. A secular court burned him at the stake despite King Sigismund's promise of safe passage.

Hus had worked with **John Wycliffe**, another reformer around that time. Wycliffe's supporters, the **Lollards**, opposed the Catholics in England. The Lollards were fought by Thomas Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury. They also had posted their "Twelve Conclusions" on the doors of St. Paul's.

The Council of Constance also ruled on the Polish-Lithuanian-Teutonic wars. They established the Diocese of Samogitia, and Pope Martin V appointed a new Polish king.

New Religious Ideas

Around 1517, **Martin Luther** started to talk about how the **indulgences** that were being sold by Johann Tetzel weren't exactly legitimate, and just a way for the pope to make money. In defiance, Luther nailed his **95 Theses** to the door of a church in Wittenberg. They criticized the Church and tore down the authority of the pope.

While Luther was making Theses, **Ulrich Zwingli** began a movement in Switzerland. Zwingli would later debate Luther on various Protestant matters. Some of Zwingli's followers thought that Luther's Reformation was too conservative, and they became the Anabaptists.

In the papal bull *Exsurge Domine*, **Pope Leo X** excommunicated Luther. The bull cited 41 sentences that Luther was commanded to recant, but Luther didn't listen, sent the Pope a copy of his book *On the Freedom of a Christian*, and burned the bull publicly in Wittenberg. At the **Diet of Worms**, Luther was ordered to appear before a general assembly. Holy Roman Emperor Charles V presided. Other people at Worms included Jerome Schurff and Johann von Eck (a prominent theologian). Luther was ordered to recant. Obviously he didn't, saying things like "Here I stand, I can do no other" (apocryphally) and "My conscience is captive to the Word of God", opting for a speech talking about how he was right. The Diet declared Luther an outlaw and said anyone in Germany could kill him without consequence.

Luther ran away and was given shelter by Frederick the Wise in Wartburg Castle. In 1529, the Marburg Colloquy was called together, and Luther advocated for the idea of a Real Christ (the Eucharist isn't symbolic) in a debate against Zwingli.

Counter-Reformation

The Catholics, in the wake of the Reformation, aimed to reform their own Church. Between 1545 and 1563, a **Council of Trent** was called. It's one of the Catholic Church's most important councils, because it embodies the ideas of this **Counter-Reformation**. The council lasted for 25 sessions, under three popes: Paul III, Julius III, and Pius IV.

The council produced an Index of Banned Books, while declaring that the Vulgate was the only valid Bible. It upheld the seven sacraments as valid, and standardized a definition of transubstantiation. The papal bull *Benedictus Deus* upheld the outcome, and the council standardized the procedure of mass (Tridentine Mass). It had to move to Bologna temporarily due to people dying of plague.

Habsburg Empires

At this point, we've mentioned a bit of what was happening in Germany when the Reformation was taking place. Let's talk about the Habsburgs and their various leaders and lands.

Holy Roman Empire

In 1440, **Frederick III** was crowned Holy Roman Emperor by Pope Nicholas V. Nicholas hoped that an alliance could help end the **conciliar movement** undermining the Church during the Great Schism. Frederick III married Eleanor of Portugal, and he built up lands and power. His son became **Maximilian I**.

Maximilian's son, **Philip the Handsome**, married **Joanna the Mad**, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, heir to Castile, Aragon, and a bunch of the rest of Spain too. She apparently deserved the epithet, because she probably had to be forcibly removed from the corpse of her husband when he died, and she didn't let any women approach his coffin. Joanna had six children, and the eldest became Charles V.

By the time **Charles V** came to the throne in 1500, the Habsburgs had gotten themselves a whole lot of power, but the 1.5 million square miles of family domains resulted in a pretty bad overextension modifier for the empires. His personal union with the Spanish Empire resulted in the largest European monarchy since Charlemagne had been in power 700 years prior.

Charles was a big opponent of the Reformation, resulting in constant conflict with German nobility who quite liked Luther's ideas. As Protestantism proliferated his demesne, he reluctantly signed the 1555 **Peace of Augsburg** with the **Schmalkaldic League**. The League was an alliance of princes that helped Martin Luther, and the Peace of Augsburg stopped the religious struggles by formalizing the division of Germany along denominational lines.

During the Italian Wars (fought against France), he defeated Francis I at the Battle of Pavia. The wars, waged on and off between 1494 and 1559, featured loads of shifting alliances, multiple turnovers of cities like Milan, and general instability. The 1559 Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis resulted in Spanish control of Milan and the House of Savoy taking control of Turin. The wars were a notable instigating factor for the Counter-Reformation and the Council of Trent.

His advisors included Guillermo del Croy, Mercurino Gattinara, and Bartolomeo de las Casas, who helped him improve the social structure, e.g. by limiting slavery. Juan de Padilla tried to rebel in the Revolt of the Comuneros, which Charles put down. Other notable rebellions included one by the Arumer Zwarte Hoop (a peasant/mercenary army) in Frisia, and the Revolt of Ghent of 1539.

Of course, Charles's control of Spain led to his signing off on the various *conquistador* adventures in the Americas; he enabled the destruction of the Inca and the Aztecs.

Charles abdicated in 1556, giving his brother Ferdinand I the lands of Austria and Bohemia (beginning what would become Austria-Hungary).

Spain

The Spanish lands went to Charles's son **Philip II**. Philip married Mary I of England, and the phrase “the empire on which the sun never sets” was used to describe Habsburg lands at this time. He built himself a big palace called **El Escorial**. Spain went bankrupt many, many times while he was king. One time, his forces went into a “Spanish Fury” and massacred over 7,000 civilians in the Sack of Antwerp.

The Duke of Alba worked for Philip; he notably established the “Council of Troubles” (the “Court of Blood”) in order to prosecute heretics. This occurred in the Netherlands, where **William I, the Silent, of Orange** was revolting against Philip. William was eventually assassinated in 1584 when Spain declared him an outlaw. The Dutch War of Independence (Eighty Years' War) lasted from 1568 to 1648, during which Philip's army fought in the Battle of the Downs.

Philip led Spain into the later parts of the Italian Wars. He won a Battle of the Gravelines against the French on land in 1558. The Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis secured some territory for Spain in 1559. The treaty ended the long-lasting Franco-Spanish wars of the era in Italy.

Philip liked to fight against heresy, and he defended Catholicism fiercely. After the Revolt of the Netherlands, he fought Protestantism in the Netherlands. This campaign ended up spiraling into the Cologne War.

In 1571, Philip put his brother John (Don Juan) of Austria in command of the fleet of the Holy League. The objective of the Holy League was to break the Ottoman Turks' control in the eastern Mediterranean. The League met the Ottomans at the **Battle of Lepanto**, near the Gulf of Patras. At Lepanto, Miguel de Cervantes (author of *Don Quixote*) had to have his arm amputated. Among the commanders of the Holy League were Augustino Barbarigo and **Andrea Doria**. Uluch Ali, an Ottoman commander, captured the flag of the Maltese Knights during the battle. The leading Ottoman commander Ali Pasha was beheaded, and his head was stuck on a pike. The Holy League won a decisive victory at Lepanto.

In 1588, Philip sent his **Spanish Armada**, a fleet of 130 ships led by Pedro de Valdes, to try and invade England. At a second Battle of the Gravelines, this time on the sea, the Armada lost to the smaller, faster English ships, under the command of Francis Drake, where Drake commanded the *Revenge*. Drake had also raided Cadiz earlier while commanding the *Elizabeth Bonaventure*, aiming to “sing the beard” of the enemy king.

French Wars of Religion

The latter half of the 16th century was a tumultuous time for France, and a lot of blood was shed in the wake of the Reformation. King Henry II died in a jousting tournament in 1559. His three sons succeeded to the throne, but they were either children or pathetic

rulers. Henry's widow **Catherine de' Medici** came to power. In the beginnings of the wars of religion, she was an important person. At this time, the Protestants in France were called **Huguenots**.

Huguenot Animosity

In 1572, Catholic princess Margaret of Valois married Protestant prince Henry of Navarre in the "secret nuptials", and Catherine wasn't very happy. She had the Duke of Guise kill **Gaspard de Coligny**, a Huguenot leader, in an assassination signaled by ringing church bells. Thus began the five day long **St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre**. Thousands of Huguenots were killed, but Henry of Navarre managed to escape by temporarily converting to Catholicism. Catherine said that the Huguenots were plotting against her son, **King Charles IX**. After the massacre, Pope Gregory XIII sent the king a Golden Rose, and praised the actions taken.

There were numerous smaller wars of religion in France, but the eighth and last conflict was probably the most important. The war was called the **War of the Three Henrys**. The first Henry was king **Henry III of Poland**. The second was **Henry I, Duke of Guise**, head of the Catholic League, supported by Philip II of Spain. The third was **Henry III of Navarre**, who had converted to Catholicism, but now converted back to lead the Huguenots. Guise and Henry III were both killed, and in 1589 Navarre was the only one left standing. Navarre famously said "Paris is well worth a mass" and renounced Protestantism in order to gain popularity.

Henry IV and the House of Bourbon

Navarre became **Henry IV of France**, first of the house of Bourbon to sit on the throne. He instituted a policy called the *paulette*, in which offices could be bought and made hereditary. Henry conducted a "Conquest of the Kingdom" in which his armies swept through France and took Paris by way of the Battle of Ivry.

Henry also made social improvements. In 1598, he issued the **Edict of Nantes** at the encouraging of the Duke of Sully. The edict gave religious toleration and 150 places of refuge to Huguenots, and it was opposed by Pope Clement VII. Shortly after that, the Peace of Vervins ended the religious wars. Henry also built the Louvre.

Even though he was generally a very popular person, Henry faced multiple assassination attempts, such as by Pierre Barriere in 1593 and by Jean Chatel in 1594. In 1610, Francois Ravillac, a Catholic fanatic, stabbed Henry to death in his coach on the Rue de la Ferronnerie.

Age of Discovery

Starting in the 15th century, Europeans started going all over the globe. They discovered

new places, new routes, and opened up new trade of plants, animals, food, disease, violence, and corruption.

Atlantic Ocean

In Portugal, **Prince Henry the Navigator** wanted to know more about places like Africa. He wanted to find Prester John, a legendary man that was supposed to have lots of rich lands in Ethiopia. He sponsored Joao Goncalves Zarco, who found the Azores and Madeira. The Portuguese used the caravel, a smaller ship that was able to sail windward very effectively. Henry died in 1460, and Portuguese explorers found the “Gold Coast” in modern-day Ghana. Portugal would colonize both sides of Africa, but not the land in between.

Next door to Portugal, Castile in Spain had taken rule of the Canary Islands off the coast of Africa. **Ferdinand and Isabella**, the Catholic Monarchs, had completed the *reconquista* late in the 15th century, driven the Moors out of Spain, and wanted to find new trade routes. When they conquered Granada in 1492, the rulers funded **Christopher Columbus** of Genoa and his expedition to bypass west Africa and the Portuguese-controlled routes.

Columbus set sail from Palos de la Frontera on the ships Santa Maria, Nina, and Pinta. He first sailed to the Canary islands, and then went west across the Sargasso Sea. After five weeks, he landed in the Bahamas (which he called San Salvador), and he thought he was in the West Indies. He founded the settlement of *La Navidad* in modern-day Haiti, kidnapped some natives, and brought them back to Spain with him.

After Columbus came back, the Spanish and Portuguese decided that they needed to stay out of each others' way. Pope Alexander VI sent a bull to Ferdinand and Isabella dividing the lands. King John II of Portugal wasn't happy with this, because it didn't let him get to India. In 1494, after negotiations between the Iberian countries, they signed the **Treaty of Tordesillas**. Portugal got the islands discovered on Columbus's first voyage, and Africa, Asia, and modern-day Brazil. Spain got basically everything else, mostly uncharted territory.

In 1497, Henry VII of England commissioned **John Cabot** to explore the New World. He sailed from Bristol and landed somewhere around Newfoundland, and explored trying to find new routes. He was the first non-Viking European to explore North America. At the same time, Joao Fernandes Lavrador was sent by Portugal, and he found Labrador.

Columbus would discover the mouth of the Orinoco in northern South America. **Amerigo Vespucci** reached Guyana in 1499, and he sailed southward. Vespucci found the mouth of the Amazon River, and turned around. His first name would of course be notable in naming the Americas, because it was Vespucci that suggested that the lands were not the Indies, but actually a New World.

In 1500, the second Portuguese India Armada, commanded by **Pedro Cabral**. They landed

on the Brazilian coast, and they called it *Ilha de Vera Cruz* because they thought it was an island. Cabral's expedition connected Europe, Africa, America, and Asia.

In the early 1600s, **Henry Hudson** was an English explorer who tried to find the Northwest Passage to China. When he wanted to keep going west, though, his crew mutinied.

Indian Ocean

Portugal had rejected Columbus's ideas of going west to get to India twice already, because it was just too far. John II sent **Bartolomeu Dias** in 1487 to go around Africa, but Dias wasn't exactly successful, and he returned from the Cape of Good Hope.

In 1497, Manuel I, the new king, sent a fleet under **Vasco da Gama** to explore. They passed the Great Fish River where Dias had turned back and just kept going. He ordered the *Sao Rafael* burned near Malindi, Kenya. They made it to India in 1498. Da Gama was named viceroy in India in 1524. The Lusiads were written in honor of da Gama.

Cabral's fleet that had landed in Brazil came back around Africa and reached Madagascar, Mauritius, and more.

Some other explorers also made it to southern China and traded there, as well as the "Spice Islands" in the Indian Ocean.

Pacific Ocean

In 1513, the Spanish explorer **Vasco Nunez de Balboa**, hearing of another sea, trekked across Panama. His crew fought battles, bushwhacked through dense jungle, and climbed mountains. Balboa became the first European to see the Pacific Ocean from the Americas. They found a bay that they called San Miguel, and he called the ocean the "South Sea".

In 1516, **Ferdinand Magellan** presented a plan to sail all the way around the world to Charles I, king of Spain. Magellan had previously served under Alfonso de Albuquerque during the conquest of Malacca. In 1519, five ships including the flagship *Trinidad* left from Seville. Three of the ships were the first to reach Tierra del Fuego at the southern tip of the Americas. They went through the straits that we now call the Straits of Magellan. At this point, the Pacific Ocean was given its name because it looked so still. Magellan was killed by a spear at the **Battle of Mactan** against Philippine natives led by Lapu-Lapu. The Spaniard Juan Sebastian del Cano (Elcano) commanded the return to Spain in 1522, completing the first circumnavigation of the globe.

Conquistadors

While the Portuguese were exploring the Indian Ocean and trading a lot, the Spanish wanted to look for gold in the New World. The people that went on these expeditions

were the **conquistadors**, and they were mostly in it for gold.

Cortes and the Aztecs

In Mexico, the **Aztec Empire** had been prospering and generally minding their own business. Their capital was modern-day Mexico City, known in that time as **Tenochtitlan**.

A conquistador looking to get to the center of Mexico, **Hernan Cortes**, heard that the Aztecs had lots of gold. Cortes took Veracruz and asked to meet with the Aztec Emperor **Moctezuma II**. When Cortes got to Tenochtitlan, Moctezuma let him and his men in and gave them lots of gold in order to better get to know them. The Aztecs thought that Cortes was their feathered snake god Quetzalcoatl.

When the Aztecs attacked the Spaniards on the coast, Cortes took the emperor hostage. The governor of Cuba, Diego Velazquez, sent forces in 1520 led by Panfilo de Narvaez to stop Cortes. Cortes left a couple hundred men in Tenochtitlan and stopped the group. When his men killed a bunch of people in Tenochtitlan, he tried to get back, but Moctezuma was already dead. Many of Cortes's men died when his settlement was attacked on *La Noche Triste* (The Night of Sorrows), and Cortes had to flee. He returned, besieged Tenochtitlan, and took the city from the new ruler Cuauhtemoc, claiming the new Mexico City for Spain.

Pizarro and the Incas

Further south, on the west coast of South America, the **Inca Empire** was flourishing. These were the Andean people who had built Macchu Picchu (excavated by Hiram Bingham many years later), and had grown under their king **Pachacuti** many years ago. Their math systems involved knotted strings called *quipus*, and their capital was at Cuzco, a city shaped like a mountain lion, from which they ruled the four *suyus* that made up the empire. In the early 16th century, their king was **Atahualpa**, son of Huayna Capac, who had gotten power by killing his brother Huascar in a civil war at the Battle of Quipaipan.

Francisco Pizarro had been with Balboa when they had crossed Panama, and he had served a short time as the mayor in Panama City. These days, Pizarro had his own men, and they explored the south looking for gold (because that's what explorers do). He worked with Hernando de Luque and Diego de Almagro to divide the profits. In 1524, they tried to conquer Peru and utterly failed. When they landed again, they found some gold, so Pizarro stayed on land while the others went back for reinforcements.

When reinforcements were rejected by the governor of Panama, they returned. At the Isla de Gallo, Pizarro drew a line in the sand, saying that whoever wanted to come with him towards the riches of Peru could, and the choice was theirs and theirs alone. Thirteen men decided to stay with Pizarro (they were known as the "Famous Thirteen"). By 1528, they discovered more riches in the Tumbes region of Peru.

Pizarro headed back to Spain and asked King Charles I to help with another expedition to

Peru. In 1530, he departed and found that Tumbes was destroyed; Pizarro used the place to found San Miguel de Piura, a new settlement. He took his men and went to meet Atahualpa, who turned the Spaniards away. At the **Battle of Cajamarca**, 200 Spanish soldiers attacked and defeated an Inca army of 80,000 men. Pizarro made Atahualpa fill a “ransom room” with gold and two rooms with silver, but then decided to convict him of conspiracy and kill him anyway. Pizarro proceeded to take Cuzco and found the city of Lima in Peru.

North America

Some other important explorers explored the northern parts of America.

In 1512, Ferdinand of Spain asked **Juan Ponce de Leon**, the governor of Puerto Rico, to explore the Americas. Leon had to finance his own expeditions, but he could govern whatever he found. He left from Puerto Rico in 1513 and he found Florida, thinking it was an island. He also discovered the Gulf Stream in his travels. Now, however, he’s probably most associated with his supposed obsession with finding the Fountain of Youth in or around Florida.

In 1539, **Francisco Coronado** launched an expedition into the American southwest. He was the first European to visit the Grand Canyon, and he searched for Cibola and the Seven Cities of Gold.

In 1541, **Hernando de Soto**, who had been exploring Florida, decided to move west. His troops were the first to see the Mississippi River, and they moved up to the Arkansas River.

Chapter 8. Early Modern Asia

After victory, tighten the cords of your helmet.

— Tokugawa Ieyasu

We've been focused mostly on Europe for a while, but let's take a moment to look at what was happening in the east. This will be a short chapter, but it's important as a transitional period in history.

Tsars of Russia

Russia is in both Asia and Europe, and because the Renaissance and Reformation chapter doesn't really deal with Russia (due to a continuing strict adherence to Eastern Orthodoxy and reverence for Byzantine culture in the 15th and 16th centuries), it's in this chapter on Asia.

Background

The Russian princes trace their heritage back to **Rurik**. The princes ruled over Kievan Rus', a predecessor to the modern Russian state that was centered around lots of smaller polities, notably Kiev and Novgorod.

The Mongols that we saw in the Middle Ages were also taking up a fairly large amount of space in Russia. But the Mongols (Tatars) of the Golden Horde, from their capital at Sarai, generally left the princes of south and east Russia alone as long as they paid their taxes.

The princes generally cared more about the Northern Crusaders in the 13th century, who were led by the Teutonic Knights and the Swedes. **Alexander Nevsky**, prince of Novgorod, became famous after victories such as the Battle of the Ice against the Teutonic Knights. Nevsky was hailed as a hero as a result of his exploits even though he often cooperated with the Mongols. Under the Mongols, the Russians developed an infrastructure and became much more organized.

Grand Duchy of Moscow

The son of Alexander Nevsky, Daniil Aleksandrovich, founded Moscow, a polity that would force the Tatars from Russia. In 1380, the Mongols were defeated at **Kulikovo Field** by Grand Prince Dmitry Donskoy. The Russian Orthodox Church also moved to Moscow, leading to it being known as a “Third Rome” (the first two were Rome and Constantinople, the previous centers of Orthodox Christianity).

By the 15th century, princes of Moscow were going around and taking as much land as they could. Most successful among these was **Ivan III, the Great** (1462–1505), Grand Prince of Moscow, who began the foundations for the Russian state itself. He annexed Novgorod and Tver', and defeated the Lithuanian armies at the Battle of Verdosha River, tripling the size of the Grand Duchy of Moscow. He also notably greatly renovated the Moscow Kremlin, and he was called “sovereign of all Russia”. His attacks would begin the eventual complete destruction of the once great Golden Horde.

Tsardom and Troubles

The power that had been centralizing in Moscow became truly great during the time of Tsar **Ivan IV, the Terrible** (1547–1584). He was the first to be called “tsar”, and he made his position stronger than ever before. He was advised by a “Chosen Council”. He set up a new code of laws (the Sudebnik), and he created the Zemsky Sobor, the first Russian representative body. He waged the **Livonian War** against Stephen Bathory and Sigismund II of Livonia to take the Baltic, but he failed and asked Pope Gregory XIII for help. During the Livonian War, the Order of the Brothers of the Sword were defeated. Ivan also supposedly blinded the architect of St. Basil's Cathedral.

Later in life, Ivan proceeded to divide his lands into two, one of which was the *oprichnina*. His secret police, the Oprichniki, conducted the massacre of Novgorod because Ivan was suspicious of Archbishop Pimen. Ivan ended up killing his heir Ivan Ivanovich, and was therefore succeeded by the largely incompetent **Feodor I**.

Feodor's reign was mostly actually run by **Boris Godunov**, the brother of Feodor's wife Irina; Godunov usurped the Tsardom after Feodor died childless. He had won back territories from Sweden after the Truce of Plussa. Notably, he was the first tsar to use Siberia to send people into exile. Godunov's later reign was full of civil wars, such as one against Grigori Otrepiev, a False Dmitri. His successor was only in power for two months before being killed. Russia descended into the **Time of Troubles**.

Russia would end up mostly surviving the Time of Troubles, despite the Russo-Polish war and the Ingrian war. We'll look at the reemergence of the Tsars later — Russia will be more a part of European history from now on.

Japan: Rise of the Shogun

Conspicuously missing from topics thus far, there really were things happening in Japan prior to the 16th century. A lot of ancient Japanese history doesn't come up too often, so we'll start with classical Japan, for which we'll go back in time a bit.

Classical Japan

Classical Japanese periods are named after their capital cities.

During the Asuka period (538–710), the Japanese polities began to become a truly centralized state, and the three kingdoms of Korea were still in conflict. Buddhism moved to Japan.

The Asuka period was succeeded by the Nara period of the 8th century. Nara was generally considered a golden age of prosperity and progress.

The final period of classical Japan is the **Heian period** (794–1185). It's noted for art and literature, and Lady Murasaki Shikibu wrote the *Tale of Genji*. Notable aristocratic families included the Fujiwara clan, who took control of the imperial family. They faced the Hogen Rebellion, Heiji Rebellion, and Gempei War. The Gempei War ended with the Battle of Dan-no-ura, when Minamoto clan won. Then, the first Shogun was Yoritomo of the Minamoto clan, signaling an end to the power of the Fujiwara.

Feudal Japan

Medieval Japan was controlled by *daimyo*, powerful families, and *shogun*, military warlords. The emperor was mostly a figurehead.

Recall that the Mongols tried to invade Japan in 1274 and 1281. They were deterred by the *kamikaze*, the famous typhoon that saved Japan.

Fast forward a bit past a bunch of mildly important stuff, and we get to the Azuchi-Momoyama period (1569–1603).

The first great unifier of Japan was **Oda Nobunaga** (1534–1582). Oda introduced musketeers into the Japanese military, and he allowed Jesuits into the country to combat the Ikko and Tendai monasteries.

He was killed in a revolt in 1582, and true unification was completed by his general **Toyotomi Hideyoshi**, the second great unifier of Japan. He invaded [Korea](#), but he was stopped at the Battle of Noryang by the Korean turtle ships. Hideyoshi tried to conquer the Ming dynasty in China, but he died.

Tokugawa Ieyasu, a student of Oda Nobunaga, was a regent for Hideyoshi's heir. He previously had won battles at Komaki, Nagakute, Temmokuzan, Anegawa, and Nagashino.

At the **Battle of Sekigahara**, Tokugawa defeated Ishida Mitsunari, general of Toyotomi Hideyori (Hideyoshi's son).

Tokugawa became the third great unifier of Japan and the first leader of Japan's final shogunate. The Tokugawa Shogunate's crest was three hollyhock leaves. Tokugawa created a "four-class" system of warriors, artists, farmers, and merchants, and he also made the sankin-kotai system of government. He destroyed the Toyotomi clan completely after the Siege of Osaka, where he used the excavation of moats (that he had filled in himself) as an excuse to start the attack. The Tokugawa would start a period of seclusion (sakoku) because of the Shimabara Rebellion. The Tokugawa Shogunate stayed in power for quite a while, so let's go look at India for now.

Dynastic Korea

Goryeo Revisited

When last we visited [Korea](#), the Goryeo dynasty was founded by Wang Geon.

The Khitan Empire (the **Liao Dynasty**), which controlled what is now eastern Russia and some of China, invaded Goryeo in 1018 but were repelled at the Battle of Kuju. Victory against the Khitan resulted in a golden age for Goryeo. The Tripitaka Koreana, a comprehensive and still intact Buddhist canon carved on wood blocks, was completed.

In 1231, the Mongol leader Ögedei Khan invaded Korea. Mongol forces crossed the Yalu and captured the Goryeo capital at Gaesong. Goryeo sued for peace and the Mongols retreated. The following year, Goryeo evacuated Gaesong and moved the Royal Court south, irking the Mongols, who launched a second invasion, but were forced to withdraw again. The Mongols invaded again and again, nine times in total, until 1257. Driven to desperation, Goryeo swore allegiance to the new Mongol leader, Kublai Khan, and the Yuan Dynasty presided over Goryeo for almost the next century.

The Yuan Dynasty fell apart in the 1350s, and the Goryeo were reformed. The Goryeo was overthrown in 1392, when Taejo took power in a coup and established a new dynasty.

Joseon Dynasty

Yi Seong-gye (eventually also called Taejo), founded the Joseon dynasty in 1392. He introduced Neo-Confucianism as the main philosophy. Taejo built Gyeongbok Palace in modern day Seoul (then called Hanyang). Internal conflicts after he died included the Strifes of Princes, succession battles between Taejo's heirs.

Sejong the Great (r. 1418-1450) established the Hall of Worthies, a research academy. The Hall created Hangul (the Korean alphabet) and worked on various other engineering and scientific advancements. He presided over a golden age of Korean culture, but this period was not to last.

Sejong was succeeded by his son Mujong, who promptly died and was succeeded by the 12-year-old Danjong. Danjong's uncle Sejo then deposed Danjong in 1455. The so-called "six martyred ministers" then attempted to kill Sejo, but they were caught and executed. Danjong was then murdered in exile.

In 1494, Yeonsangun came to power and immediately abused it. Yeonsangun oversaw multiple literati purges at the turn of the century. He banned Hangul because people were using the alphabet to criticize him.

Amidst domestic unrest in the late 1500s, [Toyotomi Hideyoshi](#) invaded over the sea. Under the command of Yi Sun-sin, Korean turtle ships repelled the invasion. Shortly thereafter, Manchu invasions led to more bloodshed until Joseon came to terms with the Qing dynasty, making Korea a tributary of China in 1636.

Mughals of India

In 1526, **Babur**, a descendant of Tamerlane, had tried multiple times to take Samarkand, but had failed and decided to go away. He set up shop in Kabul and then went through the Khyber Pass into India. After he defeated Ibrahim Lodi at the First Battle of Panipat, Babur took most of the north of India. He defeated the Rajputs at the Battle of Khanwa to increase his strength. Babur's son was **Humayun**, who didn't have a very stable empire, and was pushed into Persia by rebellions led by people like Sher Shah.

In 1555, Humayun was able to come back to India, but he tripped on some stairs and died. Humayun's son **Akbar** succeeded him as a 12-year-old. The young Akbar was assisted by his regent Bairam Khan, and in 1556, he defeated Hemu the Grocer and his Sur armies at the **Second Battle of Panipat**. After the battle, Akbar reportedly didn't behead Hemu, and instead pointed to a picture that he had drawn of Hemu bleeding on the ground, saying that he had already killed him, denying him any final honor. Akbar built a new capital at **Fatehpur Sikri** (his "city of victory"), and he ended Rajput wars by marrying Mariam uz-Zamani. Akbar made a system of *diwans* to make sure that finances were handled correctly. He built the Jama Masjid around the tomb of the mystic Salim Chishti, and even named his eldest son after him.

Akbar's son **Jahangir** ruled a spectacular era of the Mughal empire. But he was an opium addict and wasn't a great ruler.

Jahangir's son was **Shah Jahan**, who brought the Mughal empire to a new peak. Shah Jahan waged war on the Deccan Plateau, taking Bijapur and Golconda and attacking the Uzbeks and the Persians. He rebuilt and renovated the Red Fort and he had a Peacock Throne with lots of gems on it. He put the Koh-i-noor diamond in the **Taj Mahal**, a mausoleum he built in Agra for his wife Mumtaz. Shah Jahan's eldest son was Dara Shikoh, and his younger son was **Aurangzeb**.

In a battle for succession, Aurangzeb killed Dara after the **Battle of Samugarh** in 1659. He

also won at the Battle of Deorai. Shah Jahan was declared incompetent and spent the end of his life locked up by Aurangzeb in the Red Fort. Aurangzeb levied the *jizya* tax, and he killed Tegh Bahadur for not converting to Islam.

Following Aurangzeb's death, **Bahadur Shah I** took power, killing his brothers in the process. His policies were often aimed at crushing Sikhs.

Ottomans of Turkey

The Ottomans would be an important force throughout modern times until their fall after World War I. Let's quickly go over their origins until the late 19th century, when we'll look at them again in the context of that war.

Rise of an Empire

The **Ottoman Empire** was founded in the early 14th century by **Osman I**, son of Ertugrul. When the **Seljuk Turk** Sultanate of Rum fell, Osman expanded the Turkish borders towards the Byzantines. Osman's son was **Orhan**, who captured Bursa in 1324 and made it the new capital. The Ottomans proceeded to capture Thessaloniki and they were victorious at Kosovo and Nicopolis.

In 1383, Murad I created the **Jannissaries**, an elite infantry group that formed the bodyguards for the Sultan. They started out as Christian child slaves and evolved into a great force. However, by 1620 or so, they were corrupt and failing. Mahmud II would abolish the Janissaries during the Auspicious Incident, which killed over 6,000 of them.

In 1402, Tamerlane won the Battle of Ankara and took Sultan Bayezid I prisoner. At the end of a civil war in 1413, **Mehmet I** took the rule, ending the Interregnum (*Fetret Devri*). At the Battle of Varna (1444), Murad II defeated Polish and Hungarian forces.

Heights of Power

Mehmed II, son of Murad II, besieged and conquered Constantinople in 1453, overthrowing Constantine XI. By the 16th century, the empire was expanding fast. Selim I defeated Safavid Persia at the Battle of Chaldiran, and he established rule in Egypt.

Suleiman the Magnificent (1494–1566), son of Selim I, “Kanuni”, the Lawgiver, was the longest-reigning Sultan. During the Safavid wars, he signed the Peace of Amasya with the Shah of Iran. In 1521, Suleiman captured Belgrade. He fought parts of Hungary in the Ottoman-Hungarian wars. Notably, he won the **Battle of Mohacs** (1526), and took Hungary. He followed up by besieging Vienna in 1529, but failed. At the Siege of Guns (1532), he was stopped from taking Vienna again.

Modernization to Decline

During the Tanzimat period (1839–1876), the government created a more modern army and reformed many things. The Sultan Abdulmecid I issued the Rescript of Gulhane (Rosehouse or Rose Chamber), which stopped tax farming. The Constitution, called the *Kanun-u Esasi*, was the apex of this reform period. The [Crimean War](#) was a part of the contest in which European powers wanted to take parts of the empire for themselves.

Chapter 9. European Monarchy

I am the state.

— Louis XIV, maybe

The 17th century was full of war and crisis. The monarchs were powerful, and history from now on gets a bit more complicated as this is really the heart of early modern history.

Thirty Years' War

Background

Remember that France had just been through a lot with its wars of religion. Protestantism was still making waves, and even though the Peace of Augsburg helped a little bit, there was still quite a bit of unease running through Europe. Additionally, Calvinism still wasn't really recognized in the Peace.

At this point, Spain wanted the German states because of territory in the Netherlands, France was uneasy about its proximity to Habsburg Spain and the Holy Roman Empire, and Sweden and Denmark felt like they wanted some more land. The Holy Roman Empire was all over the place (par for the course), but was heavily fragmented.

The **Thirty Years' War** is generally thought of as having four phases: the Bohemian Revolt, the Danish intervention, the Swedish intervention, and the French intervention.

Bohemian Revolt

Archduke **Ferdinand II** of Austria was the Crown Prince in Bohemia. He was Catholic, and the Protestants in Bohemia weren't particularly pleased with that. In 1618, they tossed some of his representatives out of a window in the **Defenestration of Prague**.

The Defenestration of Prague started the Bohemian revolt, which would move across the entirety of Europe. Protestant leaders moved the war to western Germany, and Philip IV

of Spain was called to assist.

The Ottoman Empire decided to help out the Bohemian Protestants after they elected **Frederick V** as king, because the Ottomans were never particularly fond of Catholics in the first place. This triggered the minor Polish-Ottoman War (1620–1621), and the Ottomans defeated the Poles at the Battle of Cecora. But, the Ottomans didn't help the Bohemians at the **Battle of White Mountain** (near Prague) where Christian of Anhalt was defeated by Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II and the **Count of Tilly**.

Danish Intervention

In 1625, **Christian IV** of Denmark decided to help the Lutherans, resulting in the Low Saxon War. In response, Ferdinand II hired **Albrecht von Wallenstein**, a rich Bohemian who let Ferdinand use his army. Wallenstein and Tilly pushed Christian back.

Wallenstein moved north and took parts of Denmark, but wasn't able to take Copenhagen. So after a bit more fighting, a small **Treaty of Lubeck** put the Danish Intervention mostly to rest.

After the War of Mantuan Succession between France and the Habsburgs in Italy, another black death swept across northern Italy.

Swedish Intervention

In 1630, Lutheran **Gustavus Adolphus**, king of Sweden, the Lion of the North, invaded Europe. The Swedish armies pushed the Catholics back, and Gustavus Adolphus took much of the land for himself. France and Bavaria allied with the 1631 **Treaty of Fontainebleau**. At the **Battle of Breitenfeld**, the Swedes defeated Tilly, who would end up dead soon. Other notable Swedish victories around this time included the Battle of the Rain.

Now that Tilly was dead, Ferdinand II asked Wallenstein for help again. The Swedes met Wallenstein at the **Battle of Lutzen**; even though the Swedes won, Gustavus Adolphus died. Near the end of this phase, Ferdinand II signed the Peace of Prague. Later, because of treachery against the Holy Roman Emperor, Ferdinand II would have Wallenstein assassinated.

French Intervention

France was a Catholic state; recall their difficulties with the Protestant Huguenots. However, their hatred of the Holy Roman Empire, the Habsburgs, and Spain transcended religious boundaries. [Cardinal Richelieu](#), Chief Minister, had already subsidized Gustavus Adolphus's invasion.

Emperor Ferdinand II died in 1637, and was succeeded by Ferdinand III. The new

emperor wanted to end the war using negotiation, so he convened the Imperial Diet. In Flanders, the French defeated the Spanish at the **Battle of Rocroi** (soon after the death of Louis XIII), and proceeded to take the rest of the region.

In 1642, Richelieu died, but his war continued. The French continued to push through, winning battles such as Nordlingen (1645). By 1648, battles were coming all the way to Prague, where the final battle was fought.

Peace of Westphalia

It took four years for the war to be resolved. Much of the work was done at Osnabruck and Munster, in Westphalia. Other treaties that were part of the final **Peace of Westphalia** (1648) included the Treaty of Hamburg. The war was decided in favor of letting countries deal with religion for themselves.

Stuart England and the Protectorate

James I

When Elizabeth I died in 1603, her closest Protestant relative was James VI of Scotland, who was crowned **James I** of England in the Union of the Crowns. He quickly made peace with the Spanish, and the English didn't really deal with the rest of Europe for a good part of the 17th century. In the **Spanish Match**, he tried to find a Habsburg Infanta wife for his son Charles, but that failed. He was called the "wisest fool in Christendom" because he was educated but kind of foolish. He wrote the *The True Law of Free Monarchies* and the *Basilikon Doron*. James also started the North Berwick witch trials.

There were people who weren't particularly happy with the Protestant James as king, and they tried to kill him every once in a while, notably with the Main Plot and the Bye Plot in 1603. He was held hostage during the Ruthven Raid, and he set up the Treaty of Berwick.

On the fifth of November, 1605, a group of Catholics led by **Sir Robert Catesby** schemed to kill James I. This **Gunpowder Plot** aimed to blow up Parliament. **Guy Fawkes**, a conspirator, rented a room in the Wynnard House under the name "John Johnson" from Thomas Percy in preparation for the event. When Robert Cecil found a warning letter from Francis Tresham to his brother-in-law William Parker, Lord Monteagle, they looked around a bit and found Fawkes with 36 barrels of gunpowder under the Houses of Parliament. In the aftermath, the principal Jesuit in England, Henry Garnet, was convicted of treason and killed. These days, Guy Fawkes Day is commemorated with fireworks and bells and such.

Charles I

James I was succeeded by **Charles I** in 1625. At this point, the Parliament didn't really

have a lot of power and it was summoned whenever the king felt like it. However, it was particularly useful in that it could raise taxes, which the king was particularly fond of. In 1628, a new Parliament drafted the Petition of Right, which further restricted Charles's power.

For the next ten years, Charles didn't call Parliament in a period called the "Personal Rule". He believed in High Anglicanism, which he supported through his appointment of William Laud as Archbishop of Canterbury.

Let's talk about ship money. England is on an island, and as such, often needs a good navy to handle war. So when the country was at war, the king generally could levy a "ship money" tax without approval of Parliament, in order to raise a navy for defense. Usually, the only people that had to pay ship money were people on the coastal areas of the island, seeing how they would be affected if a marauding band of killers decided to land on Great Britain. In 1634, Charles decided to start asking inland residents for ship money, making everyone mad.

In 1640, Charles's religious beliefs resulted in the Bishops' War, an uprising in Scotland, which he managed to stop with the Pacification of Berwick. It didn't take, and the Scots started another war. Charles didn't have enough money to fight the Scots, so he had to call a new Parliament in 1640, led by John Pym. Parliament wasn't nice enough to Charles, so he disbanded them after a few weeks, so it's now called the **Short Parliament**. Then, Charles went back into Scotland but didn't do very well.

In November 1640, he called another Parliament under pressure: the **Long Parliament**. They started to air their grievances and made it so a Parliament must convene at least every 3 years (Triennial Act). They also passed the Ship Money Act, stopping the ridiculous ship money taxes that Charles had put into effect. They accused Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, of treason. Charles tried to capture five members of Parliament but he failed.

English Civil War

In 1642, after the failed capture by Charles, an **English Civil War** broke out between Parliament and the crown. Parliament armies were known as the **Roundheads**, and Charles's forces were the **Cavaliers**. The first battle of the war was fought at Edgehill in 1642, which ended inconclusively. After the Battle of Turnham Green, Charles was pushed back to Oxford.

At the **Battle of Marston Moor** in 1644, Parliament won with the help of the Scots under the strong leadership of **Oliver Cromwell**. Parliament proceeded to create a **New Model Army** under Sir **Thomas Fairfax** and Cromwell.

At the **Battle of Naseby** in 1645, Parliament destroyed Charles's forces. The First English Civil War ended with the imprisonment of Charles. In 1647, Cromwell and others argued in the Putney Debates against the Levellers, who wanted more political equality.

Charles escaped, and the Second English Civil War was a short conflict, which ended with the New Model Army securing the country. The Long Parliament was disbanded in a coup known as **Pride's Purge**, and Charles was tried at the **Rump Parliament**, after which his head was taken from him in 1649 at Whitehall Gate in London.

Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector

Having killed Charles I, Cromwell proceeded to subjugate Scotland, Ireland, and the rest of England. In Ireland, he won the **Siege of Drogheda** in 1649, killing 3,500 people. In 1653, John Lambert wrote the Institution of Government, giving Cromwell the title of Lord Protector for life, making him “king in all but name”. Cromwell disbanded the Rump Parliament and established the Barebones Parliament.

Cromwell ended the First Anglo-Dutch War and died in 1658. Power passed to his son Richard Cromwell, but Richard was ineffective and his father's Protectorate crumbled around him.

Restoration: Charles II

In 1659, Richard Cromwell was forced to abdicate. The newly elected Parliament let the exiled king back from the Netherlands, and he sailed back from Scheveningen in 1660. The monarchy was restored to England, and **Charles II** (The “Merry Monarch”) became king. He had many mistresses, including the “pretty, witty” Nell Gwyn; he had at least twelve children, but none by his wife, Catherine of Braganza.

Parliament passed the Clarendon Code, which was comprised of the Conventicle Act, the Corporation Act and the Act of Uniformity. It aimed to make the Church of England the dominant faith in Britain. In 1665, the Great Plague of London swept through the city, and Charles and his family fled to Salisbury.

In 1666, the **Great Fire of London** started in a bakery in Pudding Lane. It burned down much of the city including St. Paul's Cathedral, which was restored by **Christopher Wren**. The fire was chronicled, along with much of Charles's reign, in the journal of **Samuel Pepys**.

Charles's brother James was the heir because of Catherine's inability to have kids. In 1678, Titus Oates, a priest, warned Charles of the “Popish Plot” which aimed to kill him. He was making it all up, but Charles had his minister Lord Danby investigate, causing panic. Charles would later have Lord Danby imprisoned for treason and other crimes.

James II and the Glorious Revolution

Charles died in 1685 and his Catholic brother **James II** took the crown. James's wife was Mary of Modena. After James Scott tried to overthrow James II in the Monmouth Rebellion, the king had Judge Jeffrys begin a set of trials called the **Bloody Assizes**

following the Battle of Sedgemoor. He set out the Declaration of Indulgence, a step toward religious freedom, but it was opposed by seven Anglican bishops, who were upset by it.

People weren't happy with James, so a group called the Immortal Seven asked his Protestant daughter **Mary** and her husband **William III of Orange** to take power in the country. In the **Glorious Revolution**, beginning in 1688, William landed in England and was crowned. James tried to fight back in the Williamite War, but William defeated James at the **Battle of the Boyne** in Ireland in 1690.

In 1689, the **English Bill of Rights** was passed. It stated that monarchs could not be Catholic, and it gave the Parliament more power. But, Catholics loyal to James were still trying to take the throne back. This resulted in 1692 at the Massacre of Glencoe. Jacobite rebellions continued until the forces of **Bonnie Prince Charlie** were defeated at the Battle of Culloden in 1746.

France: Louis, Louis, and Louis

Louis XIII and Cardinal Richelieu

When Henry IV was killed in 1610, **Louis XIII** succeeded him. He was only nine, so his mother **Marie de' Medici** was his regent. But she wasn't very competent so she got exiled by the king in 1617 while he proceeded to kill a bunch of her followers, such as Concino Concini.

Louis then worked closely with chief minister **Cardinal Richelieu**, who had succeeded the Duke Charles de Luynes in the position. Richelieu had previously implemented the reforms of the Council of Trent in France.

At one point, Richelieu was exiled to Avignon, and in another event, he had to run to Blois after Concino Concini was killed. He created the Company of One Hundred Associates and started the "reformation of the third order of the realm".

In 1627, in an attempt to defeat the Huguenots, Richelieu ordered the **Siege of La Rochelle**. The city, led by Jean Guiton, stood for a whole year before surrendering in 1628 with the Peace of Ales. In 1630, Marie and enemies of Richelieu tried to get the king to dismiss Richelieu. They thought they were successful, but Louis kept Richelieu and the event came to be called the Day of the Dupes. This is important because it shows how reliant Richelieu was on Louis for his power.

While Louis XIII was in power, the French won at Veillane against the Spanish, and he helped Charles Gonzaga, Duke of Nevers, secure Mantua. His brother Gaston, working with Counts of Montresor and Soissons, tried to overthrow Louis, but he failed.

Louis died in 1643, just a few days before the Battle of Rocroi. His son succeeded him.

Louis XIV

Rise and Domestic Affairs

Louis XIV, the “Sun King”, was one of the most important French kings. He reigned from 1643 to 1715, the longest reign of any monarch so far in European history. When his father died, Louis’s mother **Anne of Austria** was in charge, being advised Richelieu’s successor, **Cardinal Mazarin**.

Louis’s minority included dealing with the **Fronde** immediately after the Peace of Westphalia, in which a bunch of nobles rebelled against Mazarin. The event was named after the slings people used to smash windows during it. There were two phases to the Fronde: the phase of the Parlements and the phase of the Princes. The first phase was put to rest by the Peace of Rueil, and the Battle of Rethel was the decisive battle of the second. The 1652 Battle of Faubourg St. Antoine took place next to the Bastille.

Louis XIV truly came to the crown in 1661 when Mazarin died. He started fiscal reform by appointing **Jean-Baptiste Colbert** as his finance minister. He first neutralized the Superintendent of Finances, Nicolas Fouquet, by convicting him of embezzlement after a feast at the Chateau of Vaux-le-Vicomte. Colbert proceeded to lessen national debt and improve taxation. Louis’s other advisors included Michel Le Tellier and Hugues de Lionne.

Under Louis XIV, the Midi Canal was built while he was at Languedoc. He also built the Royal Mirror-Glass Factory. In 1685, Louis issued the **Edict of Fontainebleau**, revoking the Edict of Nantes and the privileges it gave Protestants.

War and Foreign Policy

While he was young, Louis’s France fought in some wars with other countries as well. During the Franco-Spanish War, France and Britain won a big victory at the Battle of the Dunes under the command of Turenne.

Early in his rule, Louis XIV participated in the War of Devolution, in which he fought with Habsburgs in the Spanish Netherlands. The war was ended by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Louis was also involved in the **War of the League of Augsburg**, also called the Nine Years’ War (1688–1697). In 1685, the Elector Palatine Charles II died, and Maximilian of Bavaria, an ally of France, died in 1688. In order to stop Louis from becoming too powerful, the Holy Roman Emperor organized a League of Augsburg. When William and Mary took the throne in England, they took up arms against the French and the League of Augsburg became known as the **Grand Alliance**. The war ended with the **Treaty of Ryswick** in 1697 when France was mostly exhausted by war.

Charles II of Spain ruled a large empire, encompassing Spain, Milan, parts of the

Netherlands, etc. But, he had no children, and when he died, he reneged on an agreed will, giving the entirety of the empire to Philip, Duke of Anjou. Louis XIV decided to accept the new will, and Philip became King **Philip V** of Spain.

Naturally, this triggered some tensions in Europe, starting the **War of the Spanish Succession** (1701–1714). The French started winning, but the work of John Churchill, Duke of Marlboro, and Eugene of Savoy repelled him. The Austrians and the Palatinate took Bavaria after the **Battle of Blenheim**, which ended with many French troops drowning in the Danube and a victory for the Duke of Marlborough. Maximilian II, Elector of Bavaria, fled. Other important battles included Ramillies, Turin, and Oudenarde. France and Spain won at Villaviciosa and Brihuega, while the Allies won a Pyrrhic victory at the Battle of Malplaquet. France eventually won at Denain and regained their momentum. The **Treaty of Utrecht** in 1713 brought peace to France, Spain, Britain, and the Dutch. Afterwards, the Holy Roman Emperor made peace in the Treaties of Rastatt and Baden. Spain would later stop its attempts at conquest after losing the War of the Quadruple Alliance, long after Louis was dead.

Louis XIV died of gangrene at Versailles, the palace he built, in 1715. He was succeeded by his great-grandson, the five year old Louis XV.

Louis XV

Louis XV (1710–1774), the Beloved, took the throne when he was only five. While he was a child, his great-uncle Philippe II, Duke of Orleans, was regent, and **Cardinal Fleury** was his chief minister. Philippe dealt with the Mississippi bubble, in which there was a lot of investor interest in the Mississippi Company. Philippe was targeted in the **Cellamare Conspiracy**, in which Antonio del Guidice, Spanish Ambassador, tried to put Philip V of Spain in power.

After Philippe's death, Louis married Maria, daughter of Stanislaw Leszczynski, although Madame de Pompadour is probably his better known lover.

He participated in the Battle of Fontenoy in the War of the Austrian Succession, and he returned the Austrian Netherlands to Austria in 1748. During the Seven Years' War, Louis lost a good chunk of French India and New France.

Chapter 10. Colonies of the New World

For we must consider that we shall be as a city upon a hill. The eyes of all people are upon us.

— John Winthrop

Remember that Europeans had been colonizing the New World for a while. Let's actually take a look at what was happening across the Atlantic and talk about the new colonies and societies that formed there.

Pilgrims and Plymouth

Around the turn of the 17th century, some Puritans in England didn't like the atmosphere of turmoil and persecution that they faced. These men included the Separatists of Scrooby, and they all decided to go to Holland. They lived in Leiden for a while, but they didn't really like the Dutch culture, so they packed up and left.

In 1620, the ship *Speedwell* left from Delftshaven with the colonists, met up with its sister ship **Mayflower**, and moved west. *Speedwell* was taking on water, and after a failed attempt to fix it, they decided to sell the ship. Passengers on the *Mayflower* included Miles Standish, John Alden, and William Bradford. On the voyage, a passenger named John Howland went overboard, but they got him back. A baby born on the voyage was named Oceanus and the only passenger to die was William Button.

On the way, the passengers drafted a contract, the **Mayflower Compact**, which was signed by 41 men on the ship, including John Billington, George Soule, and Edward Winslow. It organized these **Pilgrims** into a "civil body politick".

When they landed at **Plymouth**, Thomas Hunt and others kidnapped some Patuxet. One of the abductees was **Squanto**, who ended up helping the Pilgrims.

Thirteen American Colonies

The colonies would turn into a fairly important country, so let's look at a couple notable things that happened in each of them.

Virginia

The first successful English colony was **Jamestown**, started by colonists who came over under the command of Christopher Newport. During the Starving Time, many people died while the colony was directed by George Percy, and the Starving Time was ended by the arrival of Thomas West, Lord De La Warr. Lord De La Warr went on to found Henricus, a town nearby. Jamestown also faced the first strike in the colonies, in which Polish members of the community refused to work.

Jamestown was dependent on trade with the local Native Americans, including **Powhatan**. The tobacco farmer **John Rolfe** married **Pocahontas**, the daughter of Powhatan, and brought her back to London. Popular religious leader Alexander Whitaker converted Pocahontas to Christianity. Captain **John Smith** sent a "Rude Letter" to the Virginia Company, and the company sent the *Sea Venture*, which got shipwrecked.

In 1619, the **House of Burgesses** was established in Jamestown. The first meeting was presided over by George Yeardley, and the House later moved to Williamsburg.

In 1676, **Bacon's Rebellion**, an uprising of indentured servants and slaves, occurred under Governor William Berkeley. The rebellion was started with a disagreement between Giles Brent and some Doeg Indians, after a Doeg raid on Thomas Matthews's farm. Skirmishes in the rebellion included massacres of the Occaneechees. When Bacon died of dysentery, John Ingram became the leader of the rebellion. The rebellion resulted in the burning of Jamestown.

Maryland

George Calvert, Lord Baltimore wanted to found a new Catholic refuge in the Chesapeake. He managed to get a charter for the colony of Avalon, but then he died.

His son, **Cecilius Calvert, Lord Baltimore**, was granted a charter for Maryland, named after Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I of England.

Delaware

Delaware was home to the Algonquian tribes. The Dutch were the first to settle there, but they all were killed. In 1638, **Peter Minuit** established New Sweden for 1651.

In 1651, **Peter Stuyvesant** and his fellow Dutch made a fort at New Castle, and they annexed New Sweden into New Netherland.

New York

In 1624, the Dutch West India Company founded **New Amsterdam** on Manhattan Island. When Richard Nicholls took it in 1664, he renamed it New York. With the Treaty of Breda (1667) after George Carteret's capture of Albany, the capture was confirmed. Governors of New York include Richard Nicholls, Francis Lovelace, and Sir Edmund Andros.

Pennsylvania

In 1681, Charles II gave a charter to **William Penn** to repay a debt that he owed Penn's father, along with the land that had previously been known as Upland. Penn originally called it New Wales, and then Sylvania, but the king renamed it Pennsylvania. Penn, a Quaker, signed a peace treaty with Tammany of the Delaware tribe, and there were good relations between Quakers and other tribes.

New Jersey

New Jersey was created from New York but the border wasn't finalized for a long time. The land was given to George Carteret and John Berkeley.

Massachusetts Bay

The **Puritans** who wanted to reform the Church of England made the Massachusetts Bay colony. They wanted to make a nation of saints, a "City upon a Hill".

In 1689, there was a revolt in Boston against James II, and Sir Edmund Andros and others were arrested.

In February 1692, Salem cousins Betty Parris and Abigail Williams started having fits of epilepsy. They started screaming, throwing things, and enacting scenes from *The Exorcist*, which was impressive considering it wouldn't be made for another 300 years. They accused Sarah Good, Sarah Osborne, and **Tituba** of afflicting them with witchery. Thus began a period of mass hysteria that surrounded the **Salem Witch Trials**.

All sorts of interesting ways of accusing and proving that Salem residents were witches came about. At one point, Mary Sibley instructed John Indian to make a "witch cake". The cake was made of rye meal and urine from the girls, was fed to a dog, with the belief that this would hurt the witch.

Cotton Mather wrote *Wonders of the Invisible World* in defense of the trials. His father, Increase Mather, also wrote about evil spirits and how to deal with them. The last trial was held in May 1693, and people worked to clear the names of those accused and killed.

Rhode Island & Providence Plantations

Roger Williams was banished from Massachusetts Bay because he wanted a better separation of Church and State. He went and founded Rhode Island, which became a place for refugees, including **Anne Hutchinson**. The land was provided by the Narragansett sachem Canonicus. Williams made a constitution with majority rule, that advocated a “liberty of conscience”.

Connecticut

The main settlers in Connecticut were Puritans led by **Thomas Hooker**. The Quinnipack Colony was a part of it, and the colony would come to be called New Haven. Other important settlements include Windsor and Wethersfield.

During the **Pequot War**, the Pequots besieged Saybrook Colony’s garrison and raided Wethersfield. After they lost at Fairfield, the Pequot asked for peace, having been nearly wiped out. Other battles during the war include the Mystic Massacre. The resulting peace was the Treaty of Hartford.

New Hampshire

The first permanent settlement in New Hampshire was Hilton’s Point, which became Dover. In 1679, it was the Royal Province, and **Father Rale’s War** was fought between colonists and the Wabanaki Confederacy.

Georgia

The British colony was established by **James Oglethorpe** in 1733. It was intended as an agrarian society with no slaves and lots of farmers.

North Carolina

The first incorporated town in North Carolina was Bath, which is where Edward Teach would have his headquarters. The first capital of North Carolina would be New Bern.

Early leaders of **Roanoke**, a colony on an island off the coast founded by Sir Walter Raleigh, included Richard Greenville and Ralph Lane. John White was another governor, and he left at one point. The colony worked close with Manteo and Wanchese, who were brought back to England. When White returned in 1590, he found the word “Croatoan” carved into a tree, and he saw nobody around.

South Carolina

South Carolina was a colony, notably situated south of North Carolina.

Golden Age of Piracy

In early modern times, there was an explosion of pirate activity on the seas. Buccaneers in the Caribbean attacked ships all over the colonies.

French pirates had set themselves up on Hispaniola, but they moved to Tortuga for tactical reasons. In the mid 1600s, buccaneering flourished, while Port Royal expanded and allowed them to make even more money. At the end of the War of the Spanish Succession, thousands of sailors and privateers didn't have to serve in the military any more, and the sea trade was booming.

Some important pirates of the era (either read this section or go play Assassin's Creed IV: Black Flag):

- **Henry Morgan** raided and took Panama, and he was knighted and made governor of Jamaica.
- **William "Captain" Kidd** was executed in 1701, and he's known now for the treasure he may have buried.
- **"Black Sam" Bellamy** was captain of the *Whydah Gally*. He was a Robin Hood of pirates who he had his own justifications for piracy.
- **Charles Vane** served under Henry Jennings, then captained his own crew. They didn't like him much, and he was marooned, captured, and hanged in 1721.
- **Stede Bonnet** was a landowner in Barbados, and he wanted adventure. He captained the *Revenge*, and he was hanged in 1718.
- **Edward Teach, "Blackbeard"** is probably the most famous of the pirates. He captained the *Queen Anne's Revenge* and he was killed in 1718 by Robert Maynard.
- **Bartholomew Roberts, "Black Bart"** was perhaps the most successful of the pirates. He was killed in 1722.
- **Anne Bonny** and **Mary Read** were the most notorious pirate women. Read had dressed as a boy for much of her life, and she allied with Bonny. They claimed pregnancy to avoid execution when they were caught, but they died anyways.

Chapter 11. Expansionism in Europe

I have conquered an empire but I have not been able to conquer myself.

— Peter the Great

In the 18th century, European states were truly expanding. The population was increasing, the Enlightenment was fostering intellectualism, and war was rampant. But to see what happened in the 18th century, first we need some background in the 17th century, in Russia and Prussia.

Ascension of the Romanovs

Last time we looked at Russia, it had descended into a Time of Troubles following the death of Boris Godunov.

Michael Romanov

In 1613, **Michael I Romanov** (Mikhail I Romanov), son of the patriarch Filaret, was elected tsar by the Zemsky Sobor, ending the Time of Troubles and founding the House of Romanov. The early part of his reign, while he was a child, was dominated by the Saltykovs from his mother's side of the family. The Romanovs would stay in power until 1917. The Russians moved to peace with their enemies, and Michael signed the Peace of Stolbovo with Sweden. Michael died in 1645.

After Michael died, there were multiple peasant disorders in Russia. In the mid to late 17th century, rebellions included the Salt Riot, Copper Riot, and the Moscow Uprising. In 1667, the Cossacks, free settlers of South Russia, led by Stenka Razin, went up the Volga River, but eventually Stenka was caught and killed. Later, Stepan Razin would be supported by the streltsy in a 1670s uprising. It's probably useful to note that of the four great Russian rebellions at this time, all were led by Cossacks — we mostly care about Razin and Pugachev (we'll see him later)

Peter the Great

Peter the Great (1672–1725) was an important part of modernizing Russia. When he was a child, he got military experience from playing with his “toy army” in war games. He originally shared power with his brother Ivan V, who had severe mental and physical disabilities. By the time he became tsar, Russia was the biggest country in the world.

In 1689, the *streltsy*, musketeers that Ivan the Terrible had organized when he was tsar, revolted to put Peter’s half sister Sophia on the throne. Peter put down the rebellion with the help of his advisor Patrick Gordon. Peter’s first attacks were against the Ottoman Turks, and he wanted to take Azov, near the Black Sea.

When Peter wanted a better “window to the West”, he made an alliance with the Polish-Lithuanian commonwealth and started the **Great Northern War** against Charles XII of Sweden. Sweden was able to stop attacks at Travendal and the **Battle of Narva** (1700), and pushed back through to Saxony where, after the Battle of Kliszow, it forced Augustus II of Poland-Lithuania to accept the Treaty of Altranstadt. The treaty ensured the execution of Johann Patkul, who’d made the alliance in the first place.

Peter pushed west and in 1703, he built **St. Petersburg** on the Baltic Sea. Charles moved into Russia and met Peter’s forces at the **Battle of Poltava** (1709). At the battle, Ivan Mazepa, a Cossack commander in the Russian army, deserted and went to the Swedish side after learning that he was going to be replaced by Alexander Menshikov. The Russian army under Menshikov crushed the Swedish forces at Poltava and Charles was exiled to the Ottoman Empire (Moldova, to be precise). Charles would later be killed at the Siege of Fredriksten. In 1714, at the Battle of Gangut, Russia won its first ever naval victory. The war ended with Sweden defeated and Russia as a dominant power in the world. The war concluded in 1721 with the Treaties of Stockholm, Treaty of Frederiksborg, and the **Treaty of Nystad**, in which Russia got Estonia and East Ingria.

Peter modernized and reorganized his governmental structure. He turned it into a more centralized state, and he replaced the **Duma**, the old council of *boyars* (nobles), with his new nine-man senate. In 1722, he set up the Table of Ranks, which formalized positions in the military and public office. He created the Holy Synod, a collective body led by a government official. Peter imposed a beard tax as part of his war on facial hair. He took a Grand Embassy through Europe, working as a carpenter for Lynst Rogge in a Dutch shipyard.

Peter launched the Russo-Persian war in 1722 to take down the Safavid Empire in Persia. Even though the Safavid lost a lot of territory, they got it back when Nader Shah, the new leader, signed the Treaty of Resht to create an alliance against the Ottomans.

Rise of Prussia

Background

The **Hohenzollerns** were an important part of the history of Prussia. Around the time of the Thirty Years' War, the Mar-grave George William fled to Königsberg. His successor was **Frederick William I, The Great Elector**. Frederick William I reformed the army and paid homage to Władysław IV (House of Vasa) of Poland, in return for the Duchy of Prussia. With the duchy in hand, the Hohenzollern dynasty had a territory all their own. Frederick William I organized an absolutist monarchy in Brandenburg-Prussia and issued the Edict of Potsdam, which opened the borders for Protestants (including French Huguenots).

The Great Elector's son, Elector Frederick III, crowned himself King **Frederick I** of Prussia, and the Holy Roman Emperor **Leopold I** allowed him to do so even though Prussia was largely in the empire. Frederick I sponsored the arts, and Prussia grew. Frederick I was succeeded by King **Frederick William I**, the Soldier King. He put together a better standing army, and they saw a little action in the Great Northern War. In the Treaty of Stockholm, he got half of Swedish Pomerania.

Frederick the Great

When his father Frederick William died in 1740, **Frederick II, the Great** took the throne. He built the Sans Souci Palace, near Berlin. He also created the *Fürstenbund*, a Protestant alliance of German princes.

At the time, Prussia was still mostly a scattered mess of territories. When Frederick took the throne, he wanted to take the Austrian province of Silesia. Holy Roman Emperor **Charles VI** had issued a **Pragmatic Sanction** in 1713, stating that Habsburg domains in Austria would be inherited by his daughter, **Maria Theresa**.

Frederick disputed the claim because he wanted the money in Silesia. He won the First Silesian War, which ended with the Treaty of Breslau. The three Silesian Wars were part of the **War of the Austrian Succession** (1740–1748), known in the Americas as King George's War. Frederick was worried that Augustus III of Poland would take Silesia. As is often the case with wars of succession, a lot of other countries were drawn into the conflict. George II of Britain led troops at the Battle of Dettingen (the last time a British monarch would ever do so). One part of the war was the First Carnatic War.

In another sub-conflict, some Spanish coast guards boarded a British merchant ship and cut off the captain's ear, resulting in the **War of Jenkins's Ear**. Other notable battles in the war included Fontenoy and Mollwitz. Frederick's forces also won at Hohenfriedberg.

The war was ended by the **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle**. It confirmed Maria Theresa as ruler of Austria and Hungary, while Prussia kept Silesia. The treaty also reasserted Britain's right to the *asiento* (slave trade), which was a big part of their motivation for war.

Later, Frederick was involved in the 1778–79 **War of the Bavarian Succession**, the

“Potato War”, against the Austrians. Frederick wanted to prevent the Habsburgs from taking control of Bavaria. The Treaty of Teschen ended the war without any major battles; however, about 10,000 soldiers on each side died of starvation and disease.

Seven Years' War

The **Seven Years' War** (1756–1763) was one of the most important conflicts of modern history. It involved much of the world, and it shaped history in all of its theaters. It was composed of: French and Indian War (US and Canada), Pomeranian War (Sweden and Prussia), Third Carnatic War (India), and Third Silesian War (Prussia and Austria)

Origins

Great Britain and France started fighting in 1754 because of tensions in the New World. At the same time, Prussia was in a conflict with Austria (again) over lands and dominance in the Holy Roman Empire. In 1756, Prussia allied with Britain, and France and Austria allied against them. The Anglo-Prussian alliance was joined by Portugal and some German states, and the French and Austrians were joined by Sweden, Saxony, and Spain. Russia joined Austria at the outset, but then switched sides when Peter III came to power there.

As far as notable battles in Europe go: at the Battle of Leuthen, Charles of Lorraine was defeated. At the Battle of Wandiwash, Sir Eyre Coote was defeated by Count de Lally. And, at the Battle of Rossbach, Charles de Rohan and Prince Joseph of Saxe-Hildburghausen were defeated. Baron von Seydlitz was promoted after his victory at the Battle of Kolin.

French and Indian War

The American theater of the war was the **French and Indian War** because the Native Americans allied with the French against British control in America.

During the French and Indian War, the **Braddock Expedition** (1755) tried to capture Fort Duquesne, but it failed at the Battle of Monongahela, where Edward Braddock was killed. Notably, **George Washington** was the American aide to Braddock during the expedition. After the disastrous expedition, Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia commissioned Washington as Commander of the Virginia Regiment.

The **Battle of the Plains of Abraham** in Quebec was the major victory in the American theater. At the battle, the Marquis de Montcalm and James Wolfe both died; the latter inspired a famous painting by Benjamin West. The French had regrouped near Bougainville across the St. Charles River, and the battle itself lasted less than an hour.

Resolution

The war was a great success for William Pitt the Elder, who strategized for the British. Britain took possession of Canada in the **Treaty of Paris**. One of the notable negotiators

for the treaty was John Stuart. The **Treaty of Hubertusburg** allowed Frederick the Great to keep Silesia.

Enlightenment

The Enlightenment was very influential in the mid 18th century. It brought a new way of thinking about philosophy and social science to the world. Thinkers of the era included Locke, Rousseau, and Montesquieu, but we'll leave discussion of them to someone who cares. Let's look at how the Enlightenment affected history.

Catherine the Great

Catherine II, the Great came to power in Russia in 1762, having engineered a coup that killed her husband Peter III. Her accession to the throne was aided by her favorites: Count Grigory Orlov and **Grigory Potemkin**. Potemkin notably made fake villages to impress the empress after ousting Alexander Vassilchikov and helping win the Russo-Turkish Wars. Catherine's generals included Alexander Suvorov and Pyotr Rumyantsev, and one of her admirals was Fyodor Ushakov.

Catherine crushed the Ottomans in the Russo-Turkish Wars, and after the Battle of Chesma, she was able to take Azov and the Crimea. She helped Stanislaw Poniatowski acquire the throne in Poland, but then she, along with Frederick the Great and Maria Theresa, partitioned the Polish-Lithuanian commonwealth amongst their three countries, with Russia getting the biggest chunk. Under Catherine, Russia started the colonization of Alaska.

She continued to modernize Russia in the style of Peter the Great, but serfdom was still an important part of the economy. Catherine faced **Pugachev's Rebellion** (1773–1775), a large scale uprising of Cossacks and peasants which she had to have her general Suvorov put down. The rebellion was led by Yemelyan Pugachev, a Cossack pretender to the throne. At the Battle of Kazan, the rebels took the city but were then beaten by the government led by Peter Panin. Alexander Pushkin wrote about Pugachev in his *The History of Pugachev* and *The Captain's Daughter*.

Partially because of the Enlightenment, Catherine's Russia was in a golden age. She defined her rule in much the same way Elizabeth I had done in England. Catherine is a notable example of an **enlightened despot**—she spent time with the ideas of the Enlightenment, frequently corresponding with Diderot and Voltaire, who called her the “Star of the North” and the “Semiramis of Russia”. Catherine wrote the *Nakaz*, a set of legal principles influenced by the French Enlightenment. She also established the Smolny Institute, the first place of higher learning for women in Europe. Her Free Economic Society for the Encouragement of Agriculture and Husbandry was Russia's first learned society and became an important part of liberalism in Russia.

Catherine died of a stroke in 1796. She was succeeded by her son, **Paul I** of Russia.

Hanoverian Succession

Anne

Queen Anne (House of Stuart) was Queen starting in 1702. Under the **Acts of Union** which united England and Scotland, she became the monarch of the new united state called Great Britain. She favored the more moderate Tory politicians because she was Anglican, and during the War of the Spanish Succession, she dismissed many of their opponents, the Whigs. Anne died childless in 1714.

She was succeeded by her second cousin **George I** of the **House of Hanover**. He was descended from James I, through the Stuarts, because the Act of Settlement of 1701 prevented Catholics from taking the throne. He was succeeded by **George II**, who in turn was followed by George III.

In 1721, **Robert Walpole** became the first Prime Minister of Great Britain. He'd previously been Chancellor of the Exchequer, during which time he'd created a "sinking fund" to try and reduce national debt. He managed to keep the position of prime minister for 20 years straight—some people call the period the "Robinocracy". He covered up a bunch of scandals including the South Sea Bubble (during which he came to power), leading to his sometimes being called the "Screenmaster General". Walpole started using 10 Downing Street as the primary residence for the Prime Minister. His government collapsed partly as a result of Britain's entrance into the War of Jenkins' Ear, which Walpole was somewhat forced into joining against his will.

George III

George III, King of Great Britain and Ireland, grandson of George II, son of Frederick Prince of Wales, reigned from 1760 to 1820. During his reign, Great Britain and Ireland formed the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland under the Acts of Union (1800). George was the longest reigning monarch up to that point, and his wife was Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

The early parts of his rule were marked by the Seven Years' War. The Whigs didn't really like him because they thought he favored the Tories. During George's reign, the American Revolution took place, but we'll look at that later.

Later in his reign, George appointed Lord Shelburne to the Prime Minister's position. Charles James Fox, however, didn't like Shelburne and feuded with George constantly. Nevertheless, George approved Fox's appointment to the "ministry of all the talents", which was eventually disbanded under Baron Grenville. George developed porphyria later in life and died in 1820.

Chapter 12. American Independence

Once vigorous measures appear to be the only means left of bringing the Americans to a due submission to the mother country, the colonies will submit.

— King George III

Colonies in the 18th Century

Conflicts

We start in the years following the French and Indian War in the colonies of America. Various people came to dislike British rule in the area. In 1763, the **Proclamation of 1763** was issued, forbidding settlement west of the Appalachians.

In that same year, **Pontiac's Rebellion** broke out against British policies in the Great Lakes area. Pontiac, an Ottawa chieftain, started the war near Fort Detroit. An attack on the weapons caches was stopped because the mistress of Henry Gladwin, the commander of the fort, warned the defenders of the fort of the attack. Jeffrey Amherst tried to win the war by infesting blankets with smallpox. A massacre occurred at Parents' Creek, after which the river was called Bloody Run. Other battles included the Devil's Hole Massacre. A vigilante group called the Paxton Boys went on a rampage in western Pennsylvania, resulting in governor John Penn ordering their arrest. The rebellion ended in a stalemate and was partially concluded by the Fort Niagara treaty.

Taxing the Colonies

In 1764, Parliament passed the Currency Act, which stopped use of some paper money. They also passed the **Sugar Act**, placing duties on multiple goods. The prime minister at the time was **George Grenville**, who wanted to levy even more taxes, but he waited for a year before doing so.

In 1765, the **Sons of Liberty** were formed. They tried to show that the British tax laws were pointless, and in Boston, they looted the home of Thomas Hutchinson, chief justice.

The Stamp Act Congress was convened at Federal Hall in New York City, and a Declaration of Rights and Grievances was made. The Congress was convened by John Otis, and participants included John Dickenson and Caesar Rodney.

When the colonists couldn't put up any more money, Parliament passed the **Stamp Act** (1765), the first direct tax only on the colonies, which taxed paper products. The "Committees of Correspondence", a setup of communications between the colonies, were created. As a result of the Stamp Act, Ebenezer MacIntosh led an assault on Thomas Hutchinson's house.

In 1767, the **Townshend Acts** (named after the current Chancellor of the Exchequer) were imposed on paper, glass, tea, etc. Within a year, colonists started putting together resistance — riots broke out when *Liberty*, John Hancock's sloop, was seized.

Massacre and Party

On March 5, 1770, a mob gathered around a bunch of British soldiers, throwing snowballs, supposedly because of some accusations made by a wigmaker's apprentice. The soldiers, under Thomas Preston, started firing into the crowd and hit 11 people — five people died in total in the **Boston Massacre** on King Street, which ended when governor **Thomas Hutchinson** cleared the crowd. Among the people who died were the African American merchant **Crispus Attucks**, as well as Samuel Gray, James Caldwell, Samuel Maverick, and Patrick Carr. **Paul Revere**, a local silversmith you may have heard of, made and circulated Henry Pelham's print of the massacre. John Adams defended the soldiers involved against the prosecution of Samuel Quincy and Robert Treat Paine, resulting in their acquittal. The press compared the event to a similar one at St. George's Field a few years before.

In 1770, the new Prime Minister was the Tory **Lord North**, and Parliament withdrew a bunch of taxes except for tea. In the *Gaspee* Affair, some patriots under John Brown burned a warship.

Parliament then passed the **Tea Act** to help the East India Company sell Dutch tea. A meeting in Boston decided that the tea shouldn't be allowed to land, a position in stark opposition to Hutchinson's stance. Francis Roth tried to negotiate with Hutchinson, but Hutchinson wouldn't give in. So, the Patriots organized the **Boston Tea Party**. Participants met at Faneuil Hall and the Old South Meeting Hall, dressed like Mohawks, and on a signal from their leader **Samuel Adams**, they went out to Boston Harbor. They then went on ships in the harbor and dumped tea off into the water. Similar events took place in Edenton, North Carolina (organized completely by women), and in Annapolis, Maryland (organized by Thomas Charles Williams).

In response to the Boston Tea Party, Parliament passed the **Intolerable Acts** (Coercive Acts). These consisted of: the Massachusetts Government Act, the Administration of Justice Act, the Boston Port Act, and the Quartering Act. The patriots issued the Suffolk Resolves,

forming a new “Provincial Congress”. In 1774, the **First Continental Congress** convened. During the Congress, it was decided that Americans would obey Parliament but continue to resist taxes and boycott goods.

Revolution

Opening Battles

In February 1775, Massachusetts was declared to be in a state of rebellion. Thus began **Battles of Lexington and Concord**, which started with the “Shot heard `round the world” at Concord (not to be confused with Bobby Thomson’s 1951 home run). Revere, Prescott, and Dawes went around warning the Americans that the British were on their way.

The **Battle of Bunker Hill** near Boston followed a siege on the city after Thomas Gage tried to take Dorchester Heights. The Americans were led by **Israel Putnam**, and William Prescott ordered soldiers to not fire until they could see the whites of the British soldiers' eyes. The American doctor Joseph Warren died at the battle and Prescott led the expedition to occupy Breed’s Hill. British admiral Samuel Graves provided artillery support from the HMS Somerset. Other hills included Moulton and Copp Hills, which were assaulted by Robert Pigot. The British under William Howe won a Pyrrhic victory at Bunker Hill in what would be the bloodiest battle of the war.

After Bunker Hill, the colonists issued the **Olive Branch Petition** to try to make peace with George. The document was requested by John Dickinson at the **Second Continental Congress** and carried by Robert Penn. George III never actually saw the letter and he issued the Proclamation for Suppressing Rebellion and Sedition.

Declaring Independence

By June 1776, colonies were getting on board with the idea of independence after the Halifax Resolves allowed voting for independence. The Committee of Five, consisting of John Adams, **Benjamin Franklin**, Roger Sherman, Robert Livingston, and **Thomas Jefferson**, drafted the **Declaration of Independence**. On signing it on July 4, 1776, John Hancock said that he wanted to make sure the king could read his huge signature.

The United States was a new nation, but they still had to defend their independence. The British returned to America, sweeping down from Canada with the help of their German Hessian mercenaries, and taking New York City after the Battle of Brooklyn. At the Staten Island Peace Conference, John Adams and Benjamin Franklin met with Howe but failed to come to an agreement. The British also took New Jersey at some point.

Turning Points

Recall that **George Washington** was the commander of the Continental Army. On December 26, 1776, the Hessian forces under Johann Rall were quartered in Trenton (people say they were drunk because of Christmas, but that might not be true at all). Washington crossed the Delaware River, launching a surprise attack at the First **Battle of Trenton**. In order to help the attack, the American spy John Honeyman had fed the Hessians bad intelligence after an interrogation. The local militia, led by John Cadwallader, launched an attack on Bordentown to try to stop enemy supplies, but weather conditions didn't really let them pull that off very well. John Sullivan led his column around and stopped the Hessians from escaping down an abandoned road near Assunpink Creek. Washington's forces were victorious at Trenton, and soon afterwards, the Americans defeated **Charles Cornwallis** at the Battle of Princeton to take back the rest of New Jersey.

In 1777, the British sent an invasion under **John Burgoyne** to move down from Canada. Following the British capture of Fort Ticonderoga, they met the Americans, led by Horatio Gates, at the **Battle of Saratoga**. Near the start of the battle, Daniel Morgan's sharpshooters killed many British officers. Soldiers under **Benedict Arnold** and Ebenezer Learned charged the Hessians. Arnold was wounded in the leg and removed from combat, but was considered a hero of the battle. Later, Simon Fraser was mortally wounded by a sniper. Notable engagement locations in the battle included Freeman's Farm and Bemis Heights.

Later, Gates would be the leader that some Continental officers called the **Conway Cabal** that tried to replace George Washington as command of the army. The Cabal obviously failed, and Gates apologized for his role.

The American victory at Saratoga signaled a turning point, because France (and Spain) decided they wanted to help the Americans out. The British were stuck fighting a global war they never really wanted against powerful countries without any real allies of their own.

Conclusion

In 1781, the British army, now led by Cornwallis, marched on Yorktown, Virginia. They hoped to rendezvous with the British fleet on the coast, but that didn't end up happening. A fleet from Saint Domingue, led against the British by the Comte de Grasse, blocked escape for the British fleet led by Thomas Graves at the **Battle of the Chesapeake**. Joint forces under the Comte de Rochambeau and Washington defeated Cornwallis on land during the **Battle of Yorktown**. In the midst the battle, Robert Abercrombie tried to disable enemy cannons. The British plan to evacuate to Gloucester Point was stopped by a storm and they lost. After the battle, the British band played "The World Turned Upside Down". The battle signaled Cornwallis's final surrender to Washington, and North proceeded to resign from his post as Prime Minister.

In 1783, the **Treaty of Paris** was signed, ending the Revolution. Notable signers include John Jay, Ben Franklin, and John Adams. One of the negotiators, Henry Laurens, had just been released from the Tower of London. Article 2 used the Mitchell Map, which wasn't very accurate, while Article 6 required forts on the Great Lakes to be vacated. It set the borders of the USA as the Mississippi River and Florida.

A New Nation

The new United States were under the rule of the **Articles of Confederation**. The Articles established a “league of friendship” when the colonies declared independence, but they didn't give a lot of power to a federal government. The government passed the Land Ordinance and Northwest Ordinance, approving American expansion into Canada.

In 1786, **Shays' Rebellion** broke out in Massachusetts, led by Daniel Shays and other farmers who had helped win the Revolutionary War. Other rebels included Job Shattuck, Luke Day, John Bly, Charles Rose, and Moses Sash. The farmers were mad about confiscation of property because they were in debt. It had to be suppressed by Governor James Bowdoin, who asked William Shephard to lead the military. Shephard and Benjamin Lincoln led forces that held the Springfield Armory and killed some rebels. At one point, rebels stormed the Northampton Courthouse. John Hancock became governor of Massachusetts following the rebellion, which was effective in showing that the Articles of Confederation weren't good enough. The Annapolis Convention was called to try and make them better, and it called for a better constitutional convention.

The **Constitutional Convention** was called in Philadelphia in 1787 by Federalists who wanted a stronger national governmental presence. It was there that the new Constitution, drafted largely by **James Madison**, was submitted for ratification.

In an attempt to ensure ratification, John Jay, James Madison, and Alexander Hamilton wrote the **Federalist Papers**. Signed “Publius”, the papers said it'd be easier to prevent factions from being formed in a strong central union. The 51st section of the papers claimed that “if men were angels, no government would be necessary”, and the paper opposed the Bill of Rights.

Chapter 13. Revolutions in Europe

History is filled with the sound of silken slippers going downstairs and wooden shoes coming up.

— Voltaire

The turn of the 19th century was full of revolutions in Europe. France's monarchy got all turned upside-down, Napoleon took power, and rebellions swept the continent.

French Revolution

The French Revolution was a particularly important event for Europe, and it was influenced partly by the American Revolution.

Louis XVI

Louis XVI, the grandson of Louis XV, came to power in 1774, when his father, the Dauphin, died. His wife was **Marie Antoinette** of Austria. Louis supported the American Revolution starting in 1776 until independence. In the beginning of his reign, he wanted to make France more Enlightened, so he tried to abolish serfdom, stop the *taille*, and increase religious tolerance. His foreign minister Charles Gravier was an important part in Louis's support of the American Revolutionaries.

Background

Louis's financial reforms were carried out by **Turgot** and Malesherbes, but the nobles weren't happy with that. Turgot had been appointed by Louis's adviser Maurepas, so Louis fired Turgot and replaced him with finance minister **Jacques Necker**.

Necker was given the title of Director-General of France (he couldn't be named controller because he was Protestant), and quickly became popular through various tax reforms. Necker tried to divide the *taille* tax more fairly, and he took many loans to help finance the American Revolution, a venture which the French were increasingly in favor of. Necker published the *Compte rendu*, in which he summarized government cash flow in

order to provide transparency into the monetary inner workings of the government

By 1781, public opinion had turned on the high cost of the war, and Necker was left high and dry with no friends in the court as a result of his reforms. As a result of increasing public and internal pressure (including from the king and queen), Necker resigned.

Louis wasn't happy with Necker and would replace him with Charles Alexandre du Calonne. When Calonne wasn't able to get France out of debt, Louis called the Assembly of Notables.

Tennis Court Oath

The king was losing power, and people were calling for him to convene the **Estates General**, an assembly of the nobility, clergy, and common folk which hadn't been called since 1614 under Louis XIII. In 1788, Louis succumbed to public pressure the Estates General.

The Third Estate wasn't pleased by the fact that they weren't as well off as the nobility and clergy. They split off in June 1789 and declared themselves the **National Assembly**. When the Menus Plaisirs at Versailles was locked and the 577 assembly members were left without a place to meet, they went to an indoor tennis court and took the **Tennis Court Oath**. The agreement, written by Jean-Sylvan Bailly and Jean-Joseph Mounier, promised that they would stay together until a new constitution was created. Other notables at the Tennis Court Oath were Abbe Sieyes and Mirabeau. Jacques-Louis David made a sketch of the Oath.

Outbreak of Revolution

On July 11, 1789, Jacques Necker was dismissed. People were mad, since Necker had been doing good things for the general populace. On July 14, some insurgents decided to storm the **Bastille**. The fortress prison had become a symbol of the power of the king, despite only holding seven prisoners at the time. The insurgents went for ammo caches inside the building. The commander of the Bastille, Bernard de Launay, was killed and his head was put on a pike. After the storming, Jean-Sylvan Bailly became mayor following the death of Jacques de Flesselles. The wave of revolution resulted in the Great Fear.

In August, the **Declaration of the Rights of Man** was passed. It was heavily influenced by the Declaration of Independence in the USA, where the **Marquis de Lafayette** had worked with Jefferson. The National Constituent Assembly then worked to make a new constitution.

In October, there was a **Women's March** on Versailles, protesting the high price of bread by means of weapons. The mob stormed the palace, killing some guards. Louis gave in to their demands and moved his family from Versailles to the **Tuileries** in Paris.

Constitutional Monarchy

Around this time, the **Jacobin** Club (Society of Friends of the Constitution) was forming. The Jacobins would become a more radical group of revolutionaries, in contrast to the **Girondists**. Jacobin members included **Maximilien Robespierre** and **Georges Danton**, who would become quite important in the coming years. Robespierre wrote the “Defender of the Constitution” to oppose war with Austria.

At the meetings that tried to define a new constitution, issues were raised regarding how the new government would govern. It was decided to continue the monarchy checked by a constitution. Louis would remain in power, with some weaker power. These new ideas weren’t very popular with the radicals.

Terror and War

In 1791, Louis XVI wasn’t very happy with the state of the revolution, so he decided to take his family and run for the border. They fled towards **Varennes**, trying to get to Austria and safety. Louis posed as the butler of a fake Russian baroness played by the dauphin’s governess. But, they were captured and placed under house arrest in the Tuileries.

In the **Brunswick Manifesto**, Austria and Prussia demanded that Louis be put back in power. Not being fans of the idea, the Legislative Assembly went to war with Austria and Prussia.

Because they thought that he was conspiring with enemies of France, the people condemned Louis to death. He was executed by **guillotine** on the Place de la Concorde in January 1793, stripped of his title. His final words were drowned out by a National Guard drum roll ordered by Antoine-Joseph Santerre. Marie Antoinette would be killed in the same way nine months later.

Let’s talk about the guillotine. It wasn’t the first beheading machine in Europe; the Halifax Gibbet and the Scottish Maiden had been used in the past. After Louis XVI banned the breaking wheel in France, a committee including Joseph-Ignace Guillotinn and Antoine Louis was formed to create a new execution device. The prototype for the guillotine was then created by Antoine Louis, working with Tobias Schmidt.

Lots of violence broke out at this point. The wars weren’t going very well, and **sans-culottes** (literally: without culottes), poor workers and some radicals, were rioting.

This was the point that the **Committee of Public Safety** rose to power under the leadership of the Jacobins. Robespierre was the leader of the Committee, and he ordered executions in large numbers during the ensuing **Reign of Terror**. At least sixteen

thousand people lost their lives to the guillotine. Many Girondins were arrested, including Jacques Pierre Brissot.

Jean-Paul Marat was a journalist who was known for his inflammatory rhetoric. Marat had been a scientist and doctor, but he became the editor of *Friend of the People*. He wrote *The Chains of Slavery* and *A Philosophical Essay on Man*. Marat spent a lot of time attacking Girondins, and when he was in his bath, **Charlotte Corday**, a Girondin assassin, assassinated him. His death was painted by Jacques-Louis David.

The **Vendee Revolt** was a 1792 uprising against the government. The rebels were people who were loyal to the church and to the king. This counter-rebellion was suppressed by General Lazare Hoche at battles such as Savenay and Cholet.

Members of the Committee of Public Safety such as Georges Danton were being removed all the time. Robespierre, “the Incorruptible”, became more and more powerful, and more and more radical. A new Constitution of 1793 was adopted; it granted universal male suffrage. Robespierre, in 1794, created a new religion, known as the **Cult of the Supreme Being**, which replaced the Cult of Reason. The French calendar was changed — the new months were completely different.

The Directory

In the new month of Thermidor, people stopped loving Robespierre, who had gone off the deep end. The moderate factions, led by Paul Barras, went and arrested Robespierre at the Hotel de Ville. As a result of this **Thermidorian Reaction**, Robespierre was guillotined, and a five man governing entity called the **Directory** rose to power.

The Directory was against the pointless death of the Reign of Terror, but it wasn’t effective either. It did manage to end the Vendee Revolt, and its final leader was the Abbe Sieyes. The Army, led by **Napoleon Bonaparte**, took control of France after deposing them in the Coup of 18 Brumaire. This established a Consulate, and Napoleon would declare himself Emperor in 1804.

Napoleonic Era

The years of Napoleon were filled with war and conquest. It got to the point that Napoleon was basically fighting all of Europe.

Rise of Napoleon

Napoleon had been born on Corsica, and he served in the French army for a while. His brother was Joseph, who would help when Napoleon became a leader. He married **Josephine de Beauharnais** and during the French Revolutionary Wars, he led a campaign in Italy. He signed the **Treaty of Campo Formio** with Austria and divided Italy with them. In 1797, he’d helped start the second phase of the directory during the coup of

18 Fructidor.

In 1798, Napoleon had led an expedition into Egypt, fighting against the Ottomans. He defeated the Mamluks at the **Battle of the Pyramids**, securing the territory. The campaign started the modern study of Egyptology. Later, the British fleet destroyed the French at the **Battle of the Nile**, and Napoleon was forced to leave Egypt later.

In the **18 Brumaire Coup** (1799), Napoleon overthrew the Directory in alliance with officials such as Joseph Fouché and Talleyrand. The new Consulate drafted the Constitution of the Year VIII and Napoleon was elected First Consul. In 1800, his army crossed the Alps into Italy, where the Austrians were occupying the land. At the **Battle of Marengo**, Napoleon defeated the Austrians and barely avoided being pushed out of Italy.

While ruler, Napoleon faced the *Conspiration des poignards* and the Plot of the Rue Saint-Nicaise (the “infernal machine”). He used these and made himself the Emperor of the new French Empire. He was crowned by Pope Pius VII at Notre Dame. In 1805, he was crowned King of Italy and he added 18 Marshals of the Empire to secure it for him.

Britain and Nelson

At this time, George III was still king of Britain. In 1801, Great Britain and Ireland joined to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Horatio Nelson was one of the most important commanders in British history. He had learned from his uncle, Maurice Suckling. Nelson had also taken a trip to the Arctic when he was a kid, so there’s a famous painting of him hitting a polar bear with a rifle. He was a lover of Emma Hamilton, for whom he killed Admiral Caracciolo of the Pathenopean Republic.

Nelson served under Samuel Hood, and at the Siege of Calvi, he was wounded and he lost his eye. Due to his service under Sir John Jervis at the Battle of Cape St. Vincent, he was knighted by the king. Nelson also led British forces at the Battle of the Nile during Napoleon’s ventures into Egypt. At Santa Cruz de Tenerife, he lost his arm while leading an assault.

Wars with Napoleon

In 1802, France and Britain had agreed to end hostilities resulting from the War of the Second Coalition with the **Treaty of Amiens**. The **War of the Third Coalition** (1805) was the end of that peace.

Napoleon seriously considered invading Britain, but he needed a stronger navy. When he got one, he met the British fleet under Nelson at the **Battle of Trafalgar**. Nelson commanded HMS *Victory*. Nelson copied his old admiral Jarvis by trying to split Napoleon’s forces and taking the French in two blocks. At the start of the battle, he

famously sent the message “England expects every man to do his duty” by flag signals to the other ships. John Pasco, who was sending the signal, had the word “confides” replaced with “expects”. Nelson’s fleet was hit by cannon fire, but the British were able to break the center, split the French, and take the *Redoubtable* and the *Bucentaure*. Cuthbert Collingwood commanded the *Royal Sovereign* and attacked the French from the rear. During the battle, the Admiral Villeneuve was captured and Britain lost no ships, but Nelson was shot by a sniper while on deck and killed. Trafalgar ensured that Napoleon stopped trying to take Britain.

After his navy was crushed at Trafalgar, Napoleon faced the Austro-Russian army at the **Battle of Austerlitz** in Moravia. Austerlitz is sometimes called the Battle of Three Emperors: Napoleon (France), Alexander I (Russia), and Francis II (Holy Roman Empire). Napoleon chose to split his army across the two massive opposing armies and he fought from the low ground. The most important charge, led by Marshal Nicolas Soult with St. Hilaire and Vandamme, was a big push to take Pratzen Heights. This led to the Austrians and Russians being split, so the French army encircled and defeated them. Napoleon only lost one battalion in the battle; Austerlitz is perhaps his greatest victory. The battle led to the **Treaty of Pressburg**, which created the Confederation of the Rhine. It was a nail in the coffin of the Holy Roman Empire; the Habsburgs had to pay indemnities of forty million francs. The French proceeded to occupy Vienna and Venice, and Napoleon grew even more confident.

In 1807, Napoleon had signed the **Treaty of Tilsit** with Tsar Alexander I. But, in 1812, Napoleon and Alexander disagreed on the issue of Poland. Napoleon decided to invade Russia with 650,000 men in his *Grand Armee*. They won some victories, such as the Battle of Smolensk. For almost 3 months, the Russians retreated, burning the earth as they went.

The armies then met at the **Battle of Borodino** near Moscow. Napoleon’s forces, aided by Prince Eugene and Count Barclay de Tolly, scattered Mikhail Kutuzov’s soldiers. Notable places in the battle included the Raevsky Redoubt and the “Bagration fleches”. Borodino was the bloodiest battle of the Russian Campaign, but it wasn’t decisive. Napoleon entered Moscow, and the Russians retreated. When the infamous Russian winter came around, Napoleon gave up, left his men, and went back to Paris.

Napoleon also fought against Spain, Portugal, and Britain in the **Peninsular War** (1808), part of the **War of the Sixth Coalition**. It featured the first use of the term “guerrilla warfare”. The British **Duke of Wellington** devised the Lines of Torres Vedras, a set of strong forts and such, in order to protect Lisbon after the Battle of Talavera. Ande Massena tried to attack the Lines, but he failed. In early 1812, Wellington defeated Napoleon at the **Battle of Salamanca**. During the war, the **Treaty of Kiel** took Denmark out of the war.

At the **Battle of Leipzig** (a “Battle of the Nations”) during the War of the Sixth Coalition, 30,000 troops were stranded in the city after the bridge over the Elster River was demolished, leading to Napoleon’s defeat there at the hands of an Austro-Prussian force

led by Prince Schwarzenburg and General Blucher, as well as Alexander I of Russia. Important locations of engagement include Markkleeberg and Liebertwolkwitz, while Antoine Drouot commanded artillery on Gallows Hill.

After the War of the Sixth Coalition, Napoleon signed the **Treaty of Fontainebleau (1814)** with Austria, Russia, and Prussia. Napoleon was exiled to Elba, and Louis XVIII was restored to the throne in France.

Congress of Vienna

The **Congress of Vienna** was a Congress convened in order to figure out what to do following the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars. It lasted from September 1814 to June 1815.

The Congress was convened and chaired by **Klemens von Metternich** of Austria, who had replaced Johann Stadion as Foreign Minister. Metternich's deputy was Johann von Wessenberg. Other representatives at this "concert of Europe" included **Viscount Castlereagh** from Britain, who would be succeeded by the Duke of Wellington, and later, the Earl of Clancarty. **Talleyrand** represented the French, and Alexander I attended for Russia.

As a result of the Congress of Vienna, many boundaries were shifted and power was redistributed in Europe. Norway and Sweden were united under a single ruler, and Krakow was declared a new free city. A new German Confederation consisting of 38 states was created, and Switzerland was officially declared neutral. The Congress condemned slavery, but didn't outlaw it.

The Hundred Days

The Congress of Vienna was interrupted by the **Hundred Days**. Napoleon returned from exile on Elba in March 1815, sparking the War of the Seventh Coalition.

After failed attacks at Quatre-Bras and Ligny, Napoleon met the Duke of Wellington at the **Battle of Waterloo**. Wellington was joined during the battle by Prussians Gebhard von Blucher and H.E.K. von Zieten. Napoleon's forces under Marshal Ney captured La Haye Saint, but Zieten was able to attack back. Troops under D'Erlon attacked Mont-Saint-Jean and a farm. Waterloo signaled Napoleon's final defeat. Following the battle, the Lion's Mound was constructed to commemorate the death of **William the Silent** of Orange.

Napoleon was subsequently exiled to Saint Helena, where he moved into Longwood House. He died in May 1821.

Britain's Internal Struggles

The Napoleonic Wars had really taken their toll on England. Famine and unemployment

led to widespread poverty, and the Corn Laws weren't helping much either. In response, the Manchester Patriotic Union put together a demonstration led by Henry Hunt, a famous radical. After the meeting, William Hulton dispatched units under Hugh Birley to St. Peter's Field to arrest the people leading it. Birley was drunk, and cavalry charged into the crowd, resulting in 15 deaths and hundreds of injuries. Following this **Peterloo Massacre**, Lord Sidmouth introduced the **Six Acts**, including the Training Prevention Act, the Seditious Meetings Act, and the Seizure of Arms Act. The name was given by James Wroe in his newspaper *The Observer*.

In 1838, a new movement called the **Chartists** started. Named after the People's Charter of 1838 that they presented to Parliament, the working class movement aimed for political reform. Led by William Lovett, the Chartists called for a secret ballot and universal male suffrage. John Frost led the militant branch of the group in the Newport Rising. Protesters removed plugs from steam boilers, disabling them, in the Plug Plot. Their newspaper, the *Northern Star*, was edited by Feargus O'Connor. Thomas Carlyle wrote a pamphlet, *Chartism*, about the movement.

Chapter 14. Early United States

Let us raise a standard to which the wise and honest can repair; the rest is in the hands of God.

— George Washington

First Presidents

George Washington

The first President of the nascent United States was **George Washington**, unanimously elected to the position by the electoral college. His Vice President was **John Adams**, and his First Lady was **Martha Washington**.

Washington created a Cabinet with four departments: State, War, Treasury, and Justice. As Secretary of State, he appointed **Thomas Jefferson**. His Secretary of War was **Henry Knox**, who had helped him with artillery at Trenton; Knox would be succeeded by Timothy Pickering. As Secretary of Treasury, he appointed **Alexander Hamilton**.

John Jay, one of the authors of the Federalist Papers, was sent to negotiate a treaty with Britain. There had been disputes in the US regarding the evacuation of forts in the Northwest Territories and the Great Lakes, so Jay signed a treaty with the British. **Jay's Treaty** didn't solve the fact that British ships had been impressing sailors onto their boats, and some people like Thomas Jefferson thought that it was too friendly to the British. Popular outrage led to Jay being burned in effigy in the streets.

Another notable treaty was the 1795 **Pinckney's Treaty** (Treaty of San Lorenzo), which was negotiated with Spain by Thomas Pinckney. It ended the first phase of the West Florida Controversy, and it also allowed farmers to ship through New Orleans.

During the **Whiskey Rebellion** (1794), a bunch of people in western Pennsylvania decided to rise up against excise taxes on liquor. Alexander Hamilton had proposed the tax, and it wasn't very popular, but Albert Gallatin (future Treasury Secretary) failed to prevent it. The governor of Pennsylvania at the time was Thomas Mifflin, who personally

led troops during the conflict. The rebels were incited by editorials written by “Tom the Tinker”. During the rebellion, John Neville’s house was burned at the Battle of Bower Hill. Washington sent “**Light Horse Harry**” **Lee** and his “Watermelon Army” to put down the rebellion.

Washington’s Farewell Address is notable because it offered advice to the new country. Washington talked about the importance of law and of national unity. He warned against making entangling alliances and said that the US should focus on American affairs. “Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principle.”

John Adams

Washington’s vice president, John Adams, succeeded him. Adams’s cousin Sam Adams had led the Sons of Liberty, and his First Lady was **Abigail Adams**. Adams was the first president to live in the White House.

In the **XYZ Affair**, three French diplomats demanded bribes from Americans. In response, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney (different Pinckney than the one who signed the treaty) is thought to have said either “No, no, not a sixpence” or “Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute!”

John Adams also signed the **Alien and Sedition Acts**, a set of four laws passed in 1798 during the **Quasi-War** with France. The fourth one was important because it made it criminal to criticize the government and president. James Madison and Thomas Jefferson opposed the Federalist perspective that these laws created, as they were clearly designed to weaken the Democratic-Republican party. To this end, they wrote the **Kentucky Resolution** and **Virginia Resolution**, which resulted in the Acts being deemed unconstitutional.

Thomas Jefferson

Office and Policy

Thomas Jefferson was John Adams’s Vice President. He was elected president in 1800, in an election against Aaron Burr, notable because election had to be decided by the House of Representatives, as Burr and Jefferson were tied in the electoral college. His second Vice President was **George Clinton**. Jefferson’s Treasury Secretary was originally **Albert Gallatin**, who wanted to reduce taxes.

The First **Barbary War** (1801–1805) started when Jefferson decided not to pay tribute to the Pasha of Tripoli. During the war, the USS *Philadelphia*, captained by William Bainbridge, was captured at Tripoli. The heroics of **Stephen Decatur** resulted in capturing and burning the ship. Other important battles of the war include the Battle of

Cape Gata and the Battle of Derne. Tobias Lear, who replaced William Eaton, was a peace envoy in the war. During the war, the USS *Intrepid* notably exploded.

Treasury Secretary Gallatin opposed Jefferson's passing of the **Embargo Act** (1807), which disallowed trade with any foreign countries. Clearly, this hurt the American economy, and was widely considered a bad move. Notable political cartoons criticizing the act include one of a turtle biting a man's pants.

Lewis and Clark

In 1803, Jefferson doubled the size of the US by executing the **Louisiana Purchase**. Francois de Barbe-Marbois of France sold the territory to negotiator Robert Livingston for \$15 million following the Haitian Revolution against Napoleon. The agreement was nearly stopped because it almost violated the Treaty of San Ildefonso between Spain and France. Talleyrand in France and the Federalists in the US opposed the Purchase.

In 1804, Jefferson sent **Meriwether Lewis** and **William Clark** to lead their expedition into the newly acquired territory. They left from St. Louis with a group that included Clark's slave **York**, a child named **Pompy** (Little Pomp), and a Newfoundland dog named **Seaman**. On their way, Lewis and Clark constructed Fort Clatsop and Fort Mandan. Their guides included Old Toby, Touissant Charbonneau, and Charbonneau's Shoshone wife, **Sacagawea**. Charbonneau had worked in the North West Company before starting to trade with the Hidatsas and the Mandan.

The Murder and Treason of Aaron Burr

Aaron Burr was Jefferson's first Vice President. He had served in the army during the Revolution, and had become a successful lawyer since. During his time as President of the Senate, the Senate impeached Supreme Court Justice Samuel Chase. At the end of his term as Vice President, Burr faced Alexander Hamilton in a duel. Burr shot and killed Hamilton, but was never tried.

Burr then went west, looking for new opportunities. He amassed some troops on Blennerhassett Island, and took action. After trying to help Mexico overthrow its Spanish rule and take parts of the Louisiana Purchase for himself, Burr was indicted on charges of treason and imprisoned in Fort Soddet. The plot was exposed by James Wilkinson, who had sent a letter to Jefferson after seeing letters to Anthony Merry and the Marquis of Casa Yrujo. Burr's defense attorneys included Edmund Randolph, John Wickham, and Luther Martin. He was acquitted since treason requires two witnesses or an admission of guilt.

War of 1812

James Madison

Jefferson was succeeded as President by **James Madison**, who had earlier helped draft the Constitution. Madison's First Lady was Dolley Madison. He retained Albert Gallatin as Treasury Secretary. Madison vetoed the Bonus Bill, which would've used bonuses to create a highway. Before he took office, the Non-Intercourse Act was signed, but it was replaced by Macon's Bill No. 2; both bills had to do with limiting foreign trade, but weren't as absurdly restrictive as Jefferson's Embargo Act.

Course of War

While Madison was President, a big problem on the seas was the fact that the British Navy was practicing **impressment**; they would take US sailors and make them work on British ships. Impressment was a big cause of conflict between the US and Britain, which became the **War of 1812**.

The **Battle of Lake Erie** (1813), also called the Battle of Put-In Bay, was a naval battle in which the US took control of the lake. The American commander was **Oliver Hazard Perry**, who notably said "We have met the enemy and they are ours." Perry had earlier served in the Barbary war, notably at the Battle of Derne. British leaders included Robert Heriot Barclay and Robert Finnis. Before the battle, Perry took his ships across a sandbar at Presque Isle using "camels" (barges and such that were emptied of any ballast). Jesse Elliot, an American Lieutenant, controversially wasn't fighting at the start of the battle. When the Americans took the *Lawrence*, there was a flag on it saying "Don't give up the ship".

At the **Battle of Bladensburg** (1814), the British under Robert Ross decisively defeated the US under William Winder. The British had amassed their ships on Tangier Island and launched rockets against the Americans. As a result of the battle, the British walked into Washington and burned the White House and other important things. Bladensburg and the burning of D.C. have been called the "greatest disgrace ever dealt to American arms".

Francis Scott Key penned **The Star Spangled Banner** during a battle at **Fort McHenry**. Other battles in the war include Chateauguay, Crysler's Farm, and Prophetstown, while the bloodiest battle was Lundy's Lane. Laura Secord, a Canadian heroine, walked 20 miles out of US-occupied territory in 1813 to warn the British of an attack; she's now mostly remembered because of the Canada-made Laura Secord Chocolates, which she didn't really have anything to do with.

The **Treaty of Ghent** ended the war. Important American negotiators were Henry Clay and John Quincy Adams. During the negotiation, the British launched multiple invasions, stopping after Plattsburg and Bladensburg. The treaty notably asks the Americans to stop fighting with the Native Americans and create a new barrier state in the Northwest Territory.

Two weeks after the treaty was signed, the **Battle of New Orleans** took place, because they hadn't gotten the memo yet. The Americans were commanded by **Andrew Jackson** against British forces under **Edward Pakenham**. Jackson had earlier won the Battle of Pensacola against Creek and British forces. The American army was notably assisted by the French pirate **Jean Lafitte**. Other American commanders included John Coffee and William Carroll, while British officers included Admiral Alexander Cochrane and Thomas Mullins. Much of the fighting occurred at Rodriguez Canal, where the British tried to fill the canal with sugarcane (they failed). At one point, British troops under Thomas Mullins forgot the ladders needed to scale American earthworks, leading to confusion and necessitating Pakenham's reinforcement with the missing ladders. Choctaw fighters tried to surround the Americans by attacking through marshes. There was also fighting at Fort Bowyer and Fort St. Philip. The battle ended with only 71 American casualties and over 2,000 British casualties.

Nationalism and Reform

Era of Good Feelings

James Monroe was elected to the presidency in 1816. He was the last President to have been a Founding Father, and he'd fought in the Revolutionary War and had been wounded at Trenton. While governor of Virginia, he had faced **Gabriel Prosser's Rebellion**. At this point, the Federalists were a broken and failing party, so Monroe defeated Rufus King and took the presidency easily.

The time he was president is called the "Era of Good Feelings" because there was effectively one party. His Secretary of State was **John Quincy Adams**, John Adams's son. Monroe issued the **Monroe Doctrine**, which prohibited European countries from interfering with the Western hemisphere. The **Adams-Onís Treaty** (1819) was signed, buying Florida from Spain. Spain had claimed West Florida as a consequence of the 1783 Treaty of Paris.

In 1820, **Henry Clay** passed the **Missouri Compromise**. It temporarily reconciled the pro-slavery and anti-slavery factions in Congress. The compromise prohibited slavery north of 36°30' N, except in Missouri. Because Missouri was admitted as a slave state, Maine was split from Massachusetts and admitted as a free state. A follow-up passed to the compromise added an exclusionary clause for mulattoes. James Tallmadge tried to pass the Tallmadge Amendment, which would have freed some slaves when they turned 25.

Seminole Wars

The **First Seminole War** was fought from 1816 to 1819, while Monroe was in office. General Andrew Jackson had been going into Spanish Florida to fight before the US took control of the area. Britain and Spain weren't very happy with this arrangement, but eventually the Adams-Onís treaty gave Florida to the US. The Treaty of Moultrie Creek, or

Fort Moultrie, forced the Seminoles to leave north Florida.

The **Second Seminole War** (1835–1842) started when the US tried to make the Seminoles leave Florida completely, as a result of the **Treaty of Payne's Landing** (1832). **Osceola** was an important Seminole leader at the start of the war. Seminoles claimed they signed the treaty under duress, and they used guerrilla warfare against American troops. Many Seminoles died, and the ones that weren't were forced to Oklahoma. During the Dade Massacre, the Seminoles decisively defeated US forces under Major Francis Dade.

The **Third Seminole War** (1855–1858) was provoked when settlers went into Seminole territory. Chief Billy Bowlegs raided Fort Myers in 1855. The rest of the Seminoles were forced to go to Oklahoma, and only about 100 of them remained in the Everglades.

John Q. Adams

The election in 1824 was a strange one. None of the candidates had a majority in the electoral college, so it fell to the House to select the president. Surprisingly, the House picked **John Quincy Adams** over Andrew Jackson. Many people believed that Adams had struck a **corrupt bargain** with **Henry Clay**. It was claimed that in exchange for Clay convincing the House to pick Adams, Adams would make Clay his Secretary of State.

While president, Adams was opposed at every turn by Jacksonians who resented him. He appointed Robert Trimble to the supreme court. By the end of the presidency, he had endured a terrible argument with the British West Indies, and he had built the Dismal Swamp Canal and some other useful transportation routes.

Andrew Jackson

Andrew Jackson, “Old Hickory”, known as “Sharp Knife” to Native Americans, took the presidency in the 1828 election.

During the beginning of his administration, Jackson dealt with the **Peggy Eaton Affair**, in which a bunch of his cabinet members and their wives were targets of vicious attacks concerning their morality. Jackson eventually concluded that John C. Calhoun was responsible for the rumors, but Secretary of War John Eaton and his wife Peggy ended up shunned by many. Jackson also had an unofficial **Kitchen Cabinet** which contained a bunch of his advisors.

If you've seen *The West Wing*, you'll know that Jackson once put a two-ton block of cheese in the White House and invited anyone to eat from it. This was intended to show openness to the American people. In 1830, he struck down the **Maysville Road bill**, vetoing a bill that would allow the government to buy stock in a road company to construct a road in Kentucky.

While president, Jackson initiated a whole new set of Indian removal policies. In 1830,

Congress passed the **Indian Removal Act**, which resulted in the Cherokee having to be relocated. Leaders of the Cherokee included John Ridge, who negotiated the **Treaty of New Echota** with Jackson.

During the **Nullification Crisis** (1828–1832), Jackson faced controversy over tariffs. The 1828 **Tariff of Abominations** was protested by South Carolinian Vice President **John C. Calhoun**. Calhoun claimed that the state should be able to nullify the tariff, and he wrote the *South Carolina Exposition and Protest*. Jackson supported a strong union, opposing Calhoun. The Verplanck Bill almost ended the crisis, but eventually the Force Bill was passed, expanding the power of the presidency and compelling compliance.

The **Second Bank of the United States** had been created in 1816 by Madison. In 1823, **Nicholas Biddle** was appointed as executive of the Bank. Biddle submitted a recharter for the Bank in 1832, but Jackson really didn't like the Bank, so he vetoed the bill. Jackson also issued the **Specie Circular**, an executive order that compelled government land to be paid for using gold or silver.

The election of 1832 featured the Bank as a central issue. Jackson and Martin van Buren were nominated from the Democratic Party. The National Republican Party nominated Henry Clay and John Sergeant, while the Anti-Masonic party nominated **William Wirt** and Amos Elmaker, because Jackson and Clay were both masons. Jackson was quite popular at this point, achieving a solid victory and reelection.

In 1835, Richard Lawrence, the first known failed presidential assassin, tried to shoot Jackson outside the Capitol. When Jackson died in 1845, he was buried at his house, **The Hermitage**, in Nashville.

Martin Van Buren

Martin Van Buren had been Jackson's Vice President, and Jackson had previously appointed him as Minister to Great Britain until Calhoun shut that down. He'd been Secretary of State until the Peggy Eaton affair. He had developed the Albany Regency, a political machine.

Van Buren was elected to the presidency in 1836, and he served one term. His Vice President was Richard Mentor Johnson, and his Secretary of State was **Daniel Webster**.

During the **Panic of 1837**, the economy collapsed. This was followed by five years of depression, sometimes attributed to Jackson and his Bank War. Van Buren denied Texas's request to join the Union, trying to keep the world together.

During the 1838 Mormon War, **Joseph Smith** and the Mormons were forced from Missouri. Smith tried to get Van Buren to help the Mormons, but Van Buren refused.

Following the Treaty of New Echota, the Cherokee and other Florida tribes went on the **Trail of Tears**. Winfield Scott had set up internment camps to prepare for Indian

removal.

In 1839, a small incident arose regarding the border between Maine and New Brunswick, Canada. The bloodless **Aroostook War** occurred when loggers from both countries disputed where they could cut trees. William I of the Netherlands tried to help mediate the conflict after John Baker tried to create the Republic of Madawaska, but he failed. Forts constructed as causes of the war included Fort Kent, Fort Fairfield, and Fort Blunder. The Webster-Ashburton Treaty, negotiated by Daniel Webster, Winfield Scott, and Alexander Baring, ended the dispute.

Tippecanoe and Tyler Too

William H. Harrison

William Henry Harrison had been an important Army general in an earlier war with **Tecumseh**. Around 1810, Tecumseh and his brother **Tenskwatawa** (The Prophet) led fighters and met Harrison. At the **Battle of Tippecanoe** (1811), near Prophetstown, Harrison defeated tribal forces. Harrison was hailed as a hero. During the War of 1812, Harrison had fought at the Battle of the Thames, where Tecumseh died. He'd been the Northern Whig candidate for the presidency in 1836.

In 1840, he ran against Van Buren, calling him "Van Ruin". The campaign slogan was "Tippecanoe and Tyler Too", referencing Harrison's most notable victory. Harrison won a landslide electoral victory.

At his inauguration, Harrison wanted to show that he was still a great military hero. So, even though it was cold and wet outside, he didn't wear a coat or hat, and proceeded to give the longest inaugural address ever given. Thirty days later, he contracted pneumonia and died. He was the first president to die in office, having served the shortest term of any of them.

John Tyler

John Tyler, "His Accidency", took the presidency on Harrison's death. Tyler sent Caleb Cushing to negotiate the Treaty of Wanghia with China. He lost Secretary of State Abel Upshur and Secretary of the Navy Thomas Gilmer when the USS *Princeton* exploded. He also annexed Texas.

When Tyler broke with the Whig party over bank issues, almost everyone in his cabinet resigned, Daniel Webster stayed around to finalize the Webster-Ashburton Treaty.

In 1842, Tyler faced the **Dorr Rebellion** in Rhode Island, but he decided not to send troops to stop it. When state militia marched on the rebels, the rebels ran away.

Chapter 15. European Nationalism

Patriotism is when love of your own people comes first; nationalism, when hate for people other than your own comes first.

— Charles de Gaulle

While the United States was first getting started in the 19th century, many parts of Europe were experiencing huge changes of their own.

Italian Unification

Origins

Napoleon had wreaked havoc on Italy (along with the rest of Europe). With his fall, the old power structures of Italian city-states had fallen apart, and nationalism was on the rise. The process of Italian unification, called ***Risorgimento***, began after the Congress of Vienna.

In 1820, the Two Sicilies Insurrection, a mutiny by soldiers in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, took place against the reigning king Ferdinand I. Later, during the Piedmont Insurrection, Santore di Santarosa wanted to unite Italy under the House of Savoy.

By 1830, the Italians began to look more favorably on the idea of unifying Italy. The Duke of Modena, Francis IV, was an ambitious man who wanted to unite northern Italy under his rule. His supporters were *Carbonari*, and he arrested Ciriaco De' Amici for a planned uprising. In 1831, however, Pope Gregory XVI asked for Austrian help against rebellions across the peninsula. The Austrian armies went across Italy, suppressing rebellion.

Revolutions and Independence Wars

In 1848, revolution in Lombardy began in earnest. Shortly afterwards, revolts broke out in Sicily and Naples, putting Ruggero Settimo in power in Sicily. Unrest in Tuscany resulted in Grand Duke Ferdinand granting the Tuscans a constitution. Pope Pius IX gave a constitution to the Papal States as well.

Milan was besieged by the Austrians under **Marshal Josef Radetzky**, but he failed and retreated. Eventually, Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, declared the **First Italian Independence War** on Austria. Radetzky won at the Battle of Custoza and took Lombardy, except for Venice, where the Republic of San Marco was established.

The **Second Italian Independence War** started in 1859. The Sardinian Prime Minister, **Camillo Benso, Count of Cavour** (colloquially Camillo Cavour), allied with Napoleon III. The last major battle of the war was the **Battle of Solferino** and San Martino. It was the last major battle in which armies were personally commanded by monarchs. The battle resulted in a Franco-Sardinian victory, and leaders at the battle included General Ludwig von Benedek and Franz von Gyulai. Jean-Henri Dunant wrote *A Memory of Solferino*, and he started a discussion that would end with the creation of the Geneva Convention, as well as the inception of the **International Red Cross**. Sixteen days after the battle, the **Peace of Villafranca** was signed.

A Unified Italy

Giuseppe Garibaldi was a native of Nice. He had been part of the Piedmont uprising, after which he went to South America for a while, returning to Italy in 1848. His defense of Montevideo during the Uruguayan Civil War against Jan Manuel do Rosas, combined with his following heroics in Italy, resulted in people calling him “The Hero of Two Worlds”. He’d also fought in the Ragamuffin War (also called the War of Tatters) in southern Brazil, and he almost fought in the American Civil War, but didn’t because Lincoln didn’t make abolishing slavery the stated goal of the war.

After the Revolutions of 1848, Garibaldi became the hero of the unification movement. He was quite popular in the south, but in the north, the House of Savoy was in power in the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia.

Garibaldi’s **Redshirts**, the Italian Legion, were a volunteer force that Garibaldi had formed in Uruguay, when Garibaldi was fighting its Civil War. Their flag was black, with a volcano in the middle.

By the middle of 1860, there were few states remaining in Italy. Garibaldi wasn’t happy with the fact that France had taken Nice, so he wanted to take it back. Cavour convinced Garibaldi to instead direct his forces south, toward the Sicilian rebellions. In the **Expedition of the Thousand** (Mille Expedition), Garibaldi took a his Redshirts and landed at Marsala on the coast of Sicily. Following battles such as **Calatafimi**, Garibaldi advanced on Palermo, taking it and inciting Ferdinando Lanza. He proceeded to topple the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

Garibaldi proceeded to subdue the rest of Italy, and retired to Caprera. In 1861, Italy became a true nation-state, unified under **Victor Emmanuel II**, House of Savoy, of Piedmont. Cavour became his Chief Minister.

Giuseppe Mazzini was another notable radical in the unification movement. He started the political society called *La Giovine Italia* (Young Italy), whose motto was “God and the People”. One of his followers was [Felice Orsini](#), who tried to kill Napoleon III. Mazzini was Chief Minister in Rome in 1849, before Garibaldi’s Expedition. After unification, Mazzini wasn’t happy with the fact that Italy was still a monarchy.

French Regimes and Leaders

Bourbon Restoration

After Napoleon was finally subdued, France fell back into old monarchic habits for a while. Some revolutions would take it back out of that and into modernization, though.

Louis XVIII, brother of Louis XVI, ruled from 1814 to 1824. He created the Charter, which kept some of the advances of the French Revolution. The revived absolute monarchy had a parliament, consisting of a Chamber of Deputies and a Chamber of Peers.

July Revolution

In 1830, **Charles X** of Bourbon was ruling over France. He’d succeeded Louis XVIII, and opinion of Charles quickly went south. In addition, Charles’s minister **Jules de Polignac** had invaded Algeria and established rule there.

On March 17, the majority in the Chamber of Deputies gave the **Address of the 221** (a no confidence motion). Charles got mad and proceeded to dissolve Parliament and the National Guard of Paris. Adolphe Thiers created *Le National* and an association called “Help yourself, and Heaven will help you”.

At this point, revolution was right around the corner. When Charles signed the July Ordinances, also called the **Ordinances of Saint-Cloud**, he suspended freedom of the press. The revolution began on July 27.

The opening of the **July Revolution** is a time known as the Three Glorious Days, during which opposition to Polignac led to barricades being built all over Paris. By the end of the July Revolution, France was placed under a constitutional monarchy, and Charles X abdicated.

July Monarchy

In Charles’s place was **Louis Philippe I**, the “Citizen-King” of France, who’d been picked by the National Assembly over Henry V. Notably, he had defected to Austria with Charles Francois Dumouriez in 1793. He ruled over the **July Monarchy** from 1830 until 1848.

Louis Philippe wanted a “just milieu” between royal power and popular pressure. Under Louis Philippe, the *haute bourgeoisie* were quite dominant. The conservatives in the

House of Deputies were led by Francois Guizot. The center-left faction was led by **Adolphe Thiers**, who would become president in 1871. In a notable political cartoon, Louis Philippe was shown transforming into a pear. He sent Marshal Soult to put down the Canut Revolt in Lyon.

The king survived seven assassination attempts while in power. In 1835, while in Austria, Louis Philippe was attacked by Giuseppe Fieschi, who built an “infernal machine”, a gun that was 25 gun barrels tied together. Fieschi just ended up killing 18 other people while the king went through relatively unscathed.

Because so many people were trying to end the monarchy, it began to rule more harshly. By 1848, it fell apart as people revolted against the king. Louis Philippe abdicated and the **Second Republic** was formed.

The Second French Empire

By the end of 1848, **Louis Napoleon Bonaparte** was overwhelmingly elected president of the Republic. He had previously tried to overthrow the government multiple times. During one attempt, he hired a ship called the *Edinburgh-Castle* and sailed to Boulougne, but he failed miserably, was arrested, imprisoned in Fort Ham, and ridiculed vigorously.

His prime minister was Odilon Barrot, who nobody objected to because he was so neutral. Louis Napoleon sent forces under Nicolas Oudinot to the Papal State because the Pope had run away. He also signed the Falloux Law, which restored some power for the Catholic Church and its schools.

In 1851, Louis Napoleon wasn't allowed to run for president again. Naturally, he decided to stage a coup and make himself President for Life. By the following year, he had created the **Second Empire** and made himself **Napoleon III** of France. As noted [previously](#), Napoleon III colluded with Cavour in Italy and signed the Treaty of Villafranca, following heavy losses at Magenta and Solferino.

Napoleon III reconstructed Paris with his prefect of the Seine, **Baron Haussmann**. He picked Emile Ollivier as his prime minister, installed Maximilian as ruler in Mexico, and commissioned Charles Garnier to build the Paris Opera House. He wrote *The Extinction of Pauperism*, and noted that “history appears the first time as tragedy, the second time as farce”.

In 1858, **Felice Orsini** and friends tried to kill Napoleon III (the event is sometimes called the Orsini Affair). One of the accomplices posed as a Portuguese beer salesman. They failed, but they did manage to hit his carriage, also containing his wife Eugenie de Montijo, with three bombs.

Napoleon III was captured at the Battle of Sedan during the Franco-Prussian War, which we'll look at in detail later on. His wife Empress Eugenie fled Paris and the Second Empire fell apart.

Paris Commune

So, the **Third Republic** began in February 1871, with Thiers as the new president.

Radical factions led by men such as **Louis Auguste Blanqui** quickly seized the National Guard in Paris, taking control of 400 bronze cannons and stationing them in neighborhoods around Paris. Thiers decided to send the actual army to seize control of the cannons in Montmartre, but failed due to popular support for the National Guard. The army retreated to Versailles and Blanquists took control of various important government buildings. Elections in the city during March 1871 chose 92 councilmembers and created the **Paris Commune**.

The Paris Commune shed the tricolor (using a red flag in its stead) and re-adopted Robespierre's Republican Calendar. They intended to enact a set of forward-thinking social democratic reforms. Notably, the Commune toppled the Vendôme Column, a monument to Napoleon I. Though they couldn't vote, there were many prominent Communard women, including Louise Michel, "The Red Virgin of Montmartre", who led various insurrectionary fights.

Thiers was regrouping in Versailles, but he had not the manpower to retake Paris. The Commune decided of their own volition to march on Versailles, convinced that soldiers of the French army would not fire on members of the National Guard. They were wrong.

The Commune took the failed attack on Versailles personally. They declared that anyone who aided the government in Versailles would be killed, and brought back a new incarnation of the [Committee of Public Safety](#).

On May 21, the army attacked Paris and began the **Bloody Week**. They fought through the newly widened streets of the city (courtesy of the aforementioned Haussmann), and outflanked the Communards. For a week, the army marched through Paris, capturing and summarily executing members of the Commune. Many survivors such as Louise Michel were sent to French New Caledonia (in the South Pacific), where they oppressed the indigenous Kanak people.

The Third French Republic

In 1894, Jewish artillery captain **Alfred Dreyfus** was convicted of treason and imprisoned on Devil's Island. Two years later, an investigation by Georges Picquart identified Francis Esterhazy as the actual culprit. High ranking military officials suppressed the new evidence, convicting Dreyfus on a few more charges instead. The incident and the cover-up began to spread, prompting outrage, such as in Emile Zola's *J'accuse*. By 1906, Dreyfus was exonerated.

Prussia: The Iron Chancellor

Otto von Bismarck

Otto von Bismarck is called the “Iron Chancellor” for a reason. He played a big part in unifying Germany in the 19th century, and his influence would be felt for years to come.

Foreign Policy

In 1862, Bismarck was appointed Minister President of Prussia by **King Wilhelm I**. His diplomatic strategy was called *realpolitik*, and he started small wars with other countries. In that same year, he made the “blood and iron” speech, discussing how those two things would be used to improve Prussia’s role in the world. When Frederick VII of Denmark died in 1863, Bismarck was in the middle of a dispute over Schleswig-Holstein. This started the Second Schleswig War.

During the **Austro-Prussian War** (Seven Weeks' War), Austria went back on the agreement that ended the Schleswig War. The war lasted seven weeks; the Prussians referred to it as “blitzkrieg”. At the **Battle of Koniggratz**, the Prussians won a decisive victory, owing to the elder von Moltke’s use of needle guns. Bismarck stopped his troops from continuing, and reestablished good will towards Austria with the Peace of Nikolsburg.

In 1872, Bismarck and Harry von Arnim, ambassador to France, started to disagree because Arnim wanted to be chancellor. Bismarck sent Fritz von Holstein to spy on Arnim, who took sensitive papers and fled. He also used the Gastein Convention to push borders to the north.

In 1873, Bismarck created the League of the Three Emperors, along with Tsar Alexander II and Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary. His aim was to keep control of Eastern Europe and control other groups that weren’t part of their three countries, such as Poland.

Domestic Issues

Bismarck was also very strong in his domestic policy. During the 1871 **Kulturkampf**, he waged a “culture struggle” on the Catholic Church. He didn’t want Pius IX and friends taking control using papal infallibility.

The May Laws (Falk Laws) of 1873, enforced by Adalbert Falk, closed many seminaries and further weakened the Church. Many bishops and priests were jailed. Kulturkampf was opposed by Ludwig Windthorst, leader of the Center Party. The policy was abandoned in 1878 because the Catholics got organized and Bismarck decided that it wasn’t worth it.

At one point, Bismarck was almost assassinated by Ferdinand Cohen-Blind, a student. Also

notably, Bismarck was so good with foreign policy that he predicted World War I to the month, saying “the crash will come twenty years after my departure”. He would be succeeded as Chancellor by Leo Caprivi.

Franco-Prussian War

When Prussia defeated Austria in the Seven Weeks' War, France got scared. Napoleon III didn't want Germany to tip the balance of power. Bismarck wanted war with France, but he needed it to be France's fault so Germany would be behind him.

In 1870, Bismarck published the **Ems Dispatch**, an edited conversation between Wilhelm I and Count Benedetti (French ambassador to Prussia). The idea had come about as a consequence of Leopold of Hohenzollern being offered the Spanish throne, and it precipitated a whole new war.

France declared war in July 1870, and each side saw the other as the aggressor. Bismarck's Chief of Staff, Moltke the Elder, led the German army to lots of victories. After battles such as **Sedan** and Metz, the Germans had a lot of momentum. They captured Napoleon III at Sedan, and the rest of the war was mostly a siege of Paris, but it didn't work very well.

The war provided Bismarck with what he needed to unify Germany. By the end of the war, Wilhelm I was declared German Emperor and the new German Empire was created. The end of the war also saw France surrender Alsace-Lorraine, and they had to pay an indemnity.

Hungarian Revolution

The kingdom of Hungary had been ruled by the Habsburgs ever since [Suleiman's](#) victory at Mohacs in 1526. However, it largely remained able to operate without entangling with the broader Austrian Empire, being governed by the legislative institution known as the Diet of Hungary. After the Napoleonic Wars, Emperor Francis II reconvened the Diet and started the Reform Period.

Istvan Szechenyi became a leader who wanted to modernize Hungary based on the advances of western countries such as England. His ideas found a rival in **Lajos Kossuth**, who wanted to expand democracy, enact tax reform, and abolish serfdom. Liberal reformers' ideas divided between Szechenyi and Kossuth, but they put forth “Twelve Points”.

When news of the 1848 revolution in France came to Hungary, Kossuth capitalized. He made a speech in Vienna and Metternich was deprived of his powers. Combined with a bloodless revolution in Buda and Pest, this led to Ferdinand V expanding Hungarian autonomy and appointing **Lajos Batthyany** first Prime Minister of Hungary. The new government enacted the **April laws**, which created a modern democratic system.

Batthyany tried to reconcile the new Hungarian system with the primary Habsburg powers in Vienna. He failed, resigning in October 1848. By March 1849, the Austrians passed the Stadion Constitution and attempted to abolish the Diet of Hungary. A new government came to be in Hungary, headed by Kossuth (appointed by new Prime Minister Bertalan Szemere). Desire for reform grew into revolution and a war for independence when Croatian Viceroy **Josip Jelacic** crossed the border to restore Habsburg control. After over a year of war, the Austrians appealed to Russia, and Tsar Nicholas I marched into Hungary and Kossuth abdicated, fleeing west.

Following the defeat of Austria in the Austro-Prussian war in 1866, the two nations came to the Austro-Hungarian Compromise of 1867, which established the dual monarchy: Austria-Hungary.

Twilight of the Tsars

In Russia, the Romanovs were reigning through the 19th century. At the beginning of the 20th century, the Tsardom would be abolished, so let's examine the last of the Romanovs.

Alexander I

Alexander I (1801–1825), the Blessed, son of Paul I, was around during the Napoleonic Era. Some claim that he knew about the plot to assassinate his father and bring himself to power.

He signed the Treaty of Tilsit with Napoleon on a raft in the Niemen River, following the Battle of Friedland in the War of the Fourth Coalition. Alexander I also fought at Leipzig during the War of the Sixth Coalition. He increased Russia's territory following the Finnish War, and he became King of Poland due to the Congress of Vienna, and Napoleon's fall.

Decembrist Revolt

Alexander I was succeeded by **Nicholas I** (1825–1855). Most notably, he faced the **Decembrist Revolt** in 1825. The Decembrists aimed to put either Sergey Trubetskoy or Constantine Pavlovich in charge. Trubetskoy ran away, and Pavlovich didn't show. Supporters were thrown into the Neva River. Leaders of the revolt formed the Union of Welfare, the Union of Salvation, and the Northern and Southern Societies. Pavel Pestel, leader of the Southern Society, was hanged at the end of the revolt. At one point, a cavalry charge ended in failure when the horses slipped on ice. After the revolt, the Chernigov Regiment tried to mutiny.

Crimean War

Nicholas I also was tsar when Russia entered into the **Crimean War** (1853–1856), on the

namesake peninsula on the Black Sea, against the allied forces of Britain, France, the Ottoman Empire, and Sardinia. Causes of the war included religion in the Holy Land, as well as the fact that everyone wanted land in the failing Ottoman Empire. The London Straits Convention preceded open war, which the Ottomans declared in 1853.

A notable engagement is the **Battle of Balaklava**. The Allied forces arrived from the village of Kamara, and the Russians set up on Woronzov Heights. The battle is most well known for the **Charge of the Light Brigade**, in which **Lord Raglan** sent cavalry under the **Earl of Cardigan** into the Valley of Death, which was defended by Pavel Liprandi. As you can guess by the name of the location, the Charge didn't end well for the British troops. Notably, Colin Campbell's 93rd Highland Regiment formed the "Thin Red Line" and repelled Russian attacks. The battle was memorialized by Alfred Lord Tennyson in his poem "The Charge of the Light Brigade" and by Iron Maiden in "The Trooper".

Nonmilitary personnel in this war were also important. **Florence Nightingale** (the lady with the lamp) and Mary Seacole served as nurses during the war. Journalists the photographer Roger Fenton and the journalist William Howard Russell.

Other important battles include the Russian defeat at Inkerman, during which the Russian forces were in heavy fog and ended up going the wrong way. Lesser battles were fought at Alma and Sinope. At the **Siege of Sevastopol**, French and British forces realized that Sevastopol was the key to the Black Sea. Both sides lost many troops to disease, and Lord Raglan himself died of dysentery. Sevastopol was the last major decisive battle of the war. The 1856 Treaty of Paris ended the Crimean War.

Alexander II

During the Crimean War, Nicholas I died and his son **Alexander II**, the Liberator, succeeded him. Alexander was tsar at the conclusion of the war and signed the Treaty of Paris. His wife was Marie of Hesse, and his mistress was Catherine Dolgorukov. During his reign, he signed the Dictatorship of Heart. He also waged the Russo-Turkish War, after which he signed the Treaty of San Stefano, attended the Congress of Berlin, and revised the treaty into the Treaty of Berlin.

The most important thing Alexander II did was issue a ukase to emancipate the Russian serfs in 1861. This reform led him to be called Alexander the Liberator. He also reorganized the judicial system and created a system of **zemstvos** for local government, with help from Nikolay Milyutin. He started mandatory military service for everyone, even nobles, and he was helped in military reform by Dmitry Milyutin, Nikolay's brother. His secret police was called the Third Section (Third Department), and they exiled lots of people to Siberia. Alexander was the first tsar with a beard since Peter.

There were people who didn't really like Alexander, and after an assassination attempt, Count Loris-Melikov was appointed head of the Supreme Executive Commission and given power to fight the rebels. In 1881, Alexander was traveling to Mikhailovsky Manege for

roll call. On the side of the street, Nikolai Rysakov, a member of the **People's Will** (Narodnaya Volya), had a package in his hand. When he threw the bomb, it failed to penetrate the bulletproof carriage (a gift from Napoleon III). A second bomber, Ignacy Hryniewicz, threw his bomb at the tsar and mortally wounded him. Later, the Church of the Savior on Blood was built where Alexander had been killed.

Alexander III

Alexander III, son of Alexander II, the Peacemaker, succeeded his father as tsar. While he was tsar, Russia fought in no big wars. Notably, Alexander passed the **May Laws** (1882), which prevented Jewish people from inhabiting many rural areas, including shtetls and the Pale of Settlement (where they previously had been expressly allowed to stay).

Nicholas II

Nicholas II reigned from 1894 until the revolutions that forced the downfall of the tsar in 1917. In 1891, while in Otsu, Japan, he had been the target of an assassination attempt. When Nicholas took the throne, Russia was one of the biggest powers in the world. His advisors included Prime Minister Peter Stolypin and Sergei Witte, and his Minister of the Interior was Alexander Protopopov. His government was notably anti-Semitic, and his secret police forged documents proving that Jews would conquer the world.

Nicholas's coronation was held in Uspensky Cathedral on Khodynka Field, and free beer and cups were served. Rumor spread that there wouldn't be enough beer for everyone, and this being Russia, the crowd trampled each other to get their share, suffocating and killing over a thousand people. The incident became known as the **Khodynka Tragedy**.

Nicholas's son, **Alexei**, had hemophilia. **Tsarina Alexandra** wanted him cured, and the best mystic she found was **Grigori Rasputin**, the "Mad Monk", who was recommended by Anna Vyrubova, whose life he had saved earlier. People sometimes claim that Rasputin had associations with the khlysty group. Eventually, people like Oswald Rayner decided to kill Rasputin. They poisoned him. Then they shot him. When that didn't work, they dumped him into the Neva River, and he likely drowned. Later, Rasputin's body was dug up and burned.

Russo-Japanese War

Nicholas and the Russians had been moving east for a while, and war with Japan was a natural consequence. When the Japanese attacked Port Arthur in 1904, they preemptively declared war on Russia. The ensuing **Russo-Japanese War** (1904–1905) was of particular importance to this part of Nicholas's rule.

Now, the part of the Russian fleet that wasn't stuck at Port Arthur was all the way in the Baltic Sea. It's a nine-month journey to the east side of Russia, and Britain wasn't letting Russia use the Suez Canal, so Nicholas had to bring his ships around the long way to help

at Port Arthur. While the Baltic Fleet was moving, the biggest land battle occurred at Mukden. When the fleet finally arrived, they faced the Japanese under Togo Heihachiro at the **Battle of Tsushima Strait**, and the fleet was almost destroyed immediately. Other notable battles include Motien Pass and Ulsan. The Yalu River was a notable location of land battles while crossing it, while the Battle of the Yellow Sea included a blockade of Russian forces.

The war was ended by the **Treaty of Portsmouth**. Theodore Roosevelt helped negotiate the treaty, along with Sergei Witte and Komura Jutaro.

Revolution in 1905

The **Russian Revolution of 1905** was an empire-wide revolt that aimed to take down the tsardom, partially instigated by the humiliation that Russia had suffered following the Russo-Japanese War. As the revolution grew, it included a strike on the Trans-Siberian Railroad, as well as the Potemkin Mutiny. **Father Georgy Gapon** organized marchers on **Bloody Sunday**, calling for the Assembly of Russian Factory Workers to march on the Winter Palace.

The revolution caused Nicholas to issue the **October Manifesto**, a document that tried to create a new constitutional monarchy in Russia. Written by Sergei Witte, the manifesto gave veto powers to the Duma, and he allowed for more liberty in expression. The document gave its name to the **Octobrists**, led by Alexander Guchkov, who would end up dominating the Third and Fourth Dumas. However, the manifesto was repealed just a year later by the Fundamental Laws.

Victorian England

Queen Victoria

Queen **Victoria**, House of Hanover, Empress of India, came to power in 1837 after William IV. Victoria had been raised by Sir John Conroy and the Duchess of Kent, her mother, under the Kensington System. She married Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg Gotha in 1840, and she had 9 children, giving her the nickname of “grandmother of Europe.”

Victoria reigned for 63 years, making her the second longest reigning English monarch. When she died in 1907, she was succeeded by her son **Edward VII**.

Robert Peel

Robert Peel was a noteworthy Conservative prime minister around the early years of Victoria’s reign. He began the Bedchamber Crisis in 1841 when he suggested that Victoria replace some Whig advisors with Conservative ones. In 1843, an insane Scot named Daniel M’Naghten tried to kill Peel, but ended up killing Peel’s personal secretary Edward

Drummond instead.

Peel repealed the **Corn Laws** in 1842, and reintroduced the income tax among his other financial reforms. The repeal of the Corn Laws was opposed to typical Conservative ideology, and the incident resulted in loss of his ministry.

Disraeli and Gladstone

Two rivals in Parliament were known for shaping the country during Victoria's reign.

The Conservative **Benjamin Disraeli** remains the only Prime Minister to have been of Jewish descent. When he was getting started, he'd published the newspaper *The Representative*, and he'd led the Young England movement with George Smythe. Under the Earl of Derby, he'd served as Chancellor of the Exchequer three times, including during the "Who? Who? Ministry". He represented Britain at the Congress of Berlin, and he was supported by Queen Victoria, who made him an earl. Disraeli made Victoria Empress of India using the Royal Titles Act of 1867. When Disraeli purchased 44% shares in the Suez Canal Company, he took a loan from Lionel de Rothschild and family and passed the 1867 Reform Act.

Victoria didn't like the Liberal **William Gladstone**, a "Grand Old Man", very much. As Prime Minister, Gladstone introduced two bills for Irish Home Rule, but they were rejected. During his **Midlothian Campaign** against Disraeli, Gladstone denounced atrocities that were taking place in the Ottoman Empire, in a pamphlet called "Bulgarian Horrors and the Question of the East". His Secretary of State Edward Caldwell reformed the military (Caldwell Reforms), and he "invincibles" stabbed Lord Cavendish during his ministry. After Mahdists in Khartoum killed "Chinese" Gordon during the Mahdist War, Queen Victoria held Gladstone responsible.

European Imperialism

Scramble for Africa

The **Berlin Conference** (1884–1885) was the formalization of the Scramble for Africa. Europeans got together and carved up the continent in a manner that they felt suited them. It was organized by Otto von Bismarck, and it resulted in the General Act of the Berlin Conference.

Leopold and Congo

Leopold II of Belgium (1865–1909) was given some land in south central Africa, and he established the **Congo Free State**. The Casement Report went over the Rubber Atrocities that Leopold inflicted on workers who weren't able to produce enough rubber for him, including things like hand amputation. Leopold's personal army was called the Force Publique, and he allegedly buried slaves alive and sold them to be eaten.

Leopold also sent **Henry Morton Stanley** into Africa to find **David Livingstone**. When he found Livingstone, Stanley asked, “Dr. Livingstone, I presume?”, a quote that is now famous for some reason. Stanley had earlier led the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition into central Africa; the expedition is now notorious for its ambition and the large number of deaths on the way.

Portuguese in Africa

Portugal took states on the coasts of Africa: Angola, Mozambique, Guinea-Bissau, Cape Verde, and Sao Tome and Principe. The states were called PALOP and Portugal took them because it has lost a lot of land in South America.

All Rhodes Lead to Africa

Cecil Rhodes was born in 1853, and he was sent to South Africa as a child. He entered the diamond industry, and in 1888, he founded the **De Beers diamond company**. A year later, his British South Africa Company received a charter from the crown to exploit mineral wealth on the continent.

Rhodes became a giant in the African mining industry, gaining political appointments and large amounts of wealth. His exploitative business tactics often placed him in a moral gray area. For example, with his business partner Charles Rudd, Rhodes convinced King Lobengula of Matabeleland to sign the **Rudd Concession**, predicated on the false assumption that at most 10 white men would mine in Matabeleland. Lobengula’s attempts to back out of the deceptive treaty fell on deaf ears.

Rhodes wanted to connect Africa from north to south, and he envisioned a “Cape to Cairo” railway that would facilitate this. Unfortunately for Rhodes, Belgium, Germany, France, and the other European powers on the continent prevented this dream from becoming reality.

Boer Wars

First Boer War

The First Boer War doesn’t come up very often, but it happened in 1880, ending promptly in 1881. The war was between Britain and the Boers (settlers in South Africa). It was caused by the annexation of the **Transvaal Republic** in 1877 by Britain. The major battle to know here is the Battle of Majuba Hill, a decisive Boer victory.

Second Boer War

The **Second Boer War** (this is the important one, mostly just called the “Boer War”) started in 1899. The UK (under Horatio Kitchener) fought the South African Republic and the Orange Free State. It started after a conference between High Commissioner Alfred, Lord Milner (UK) and Paul Kruger (president of the Transvaal) fell apart at Bloemfontein.

It was partly caused when the **Jameson Raid** failed to get uitlanders to rise up in the Transvaal. Following the raid, Rhodes was forced to step down as Cape prime minister.

The first major battle was at Talana Hill, after which the British retreated from Dundee following the death of William Penn Symons. During the war, **Robert Baden-Powell** held Mafeking under a siege, using artillery such as “the Wolf” and “Lord Nelson”; other battles included the Black Week and the Siege of Ladysmith. The war marked the first use of concentration camps, which were condemned by the Fawcett Commission under Emily Hobhouse. Kitchener used scorched-earth tactics to combat guerrilla fighters led by Kruger and Louis Botha.

The war was ended by the **Treaty of Vereeniging**, and the Transvaal and the Orange Free State were brought under British sovereignty. Reconstruction was handled by Milner and “Milner’s Kindergarten”, a group of Oxford-trained civil servants.

Britain in India

British company rule in India had begun in 1757 following the **Battle of Plassey**, at which Robert Clive and the British East India Company defeated the Nawab of Bengal. Over the following century, the British took over the entire subcontinent.

In 1857, Indian conscripts of the British army began to hear rumors that cartridges of the Enfield rifles they used were coated with pig and cow fat. This, along with other factors, led the **Sepoy Mutiny** to break out in Meerut. The East India Company set up in Delhi, where a siege led to the arrest of Bahadur Shah II. William Hodson had Bahadur Shah’s children shot at the Bloody Gate. A siege at Lucknow was relieved by forces under Henry Havelock and Colin Campbell. The next siege at Kanpur was led by Tatya Tope, and Havelock and Campbell moved their relief column to end the siege. The rebels were defeated because they weren’t very organized and they had no clear goals, but the large scale of the revolt made the British government take control of the region from the companies. Thus ended company rule in India, leading to the start of the British Raj.

Chapter 16. Expansion and Civil War

War is hell.

— William Tecumseh Sherman

We look at the entire middle of the 19th century in America in this chapter, starting with the Mexican-American War and going straight through to the end of Reconstruction.

War With Mexico

James K. Polk

The election of 1844 resulted in Democrat **James K. Polk**, “Young Hickory”, defeating the Whig Henry Clay, following Clay’s third and final attempt to take the office. Polk, who was governor of Tennessee, had been a dark horse who got the nomination over Lewis Cass and Martin Van Buren.

Polk’s Vice President was **George M. Dallas**. Robert Walker, Secretary of the Treasury, passed the **Walker Tariff**, which helped a border dispute in Oregon; this resulted in Polk acquiring some of the Oregon territory for the US. Secretary of the Navy George Bancroft established Annapolis Naval Academy, and Polk established the Smithsonian. As president, he also created the Department of the Interior.

Revolution in Texas

In 1836, American settlers in Texas (a part of Mexico) decided they didn’t want to be Mexican any more. So they declared independence and created the **Republic of Texas**. While Mirabeau B. Lamar was President of Texas, Texas printed “red back” currency.

Mexican President **Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna** decided to take Texas back. His general Jose de Urrea led the Goliad campaign up the coast, killing almost all troops he encountered.

Santa Anna himself led a force that marched to San Antonio, where he met a Texan

garrison at the **Alamo**. Before the Battle of the Alamo, the commander William Travis acknowledged certain death. He drew a line in the sand and said that anyone who wanted to could cross the line and fight with him. Everyone crossed the line except for Moses Rose, who ran away. Defenders at the Alamo included **Davy Crockett** and Jim Bowie. Travis responded to Santa Anna's request for surrender by firing cannons at him. The garrison of about 200 men died fighting Santa Anna, in a battle that is remembered to this day.

The Texans, under **Sam Houston** (first president of Republic of Texas), came back to ambush Santa Anna's forces at **San Jacinto**. The battle didn't even last 20 minutes because the Texans caught the Mexicans on a siesta. The Texans also had some impressive cannons called the "Twin Sisters". Battle cries included "Remember Goliad" and "Remember the Alamo!". The battle was a decisive victory for the Texans, and it resulted in the capture of Santa Anna and the signing of Treaties of Velasco.

Texas was annexed into the Union in 1845, ending the Lone Star Republic. Just before the deal was set, the Regulator-Moderator war was quelled. The plan was proposed by Anson Jones, and Texas reserved the right to split into five states in the future. In 1850, a payment of \$10 million helped Texas repay its debts. Later in Polk's presidency, the question of the southern border of the Nueces River for the state would be brought into question.

Course of War

Precipitated by the Thornton Affair, a battle along the Rio Grande, the **Mexican-American War** lasted from 1846 to 1848. The US quickly took New Mexico and California.

The war featured some notable fighting groups. St. Patrick's Battalion was a group of Irish Catholic soldier who defected and were subsequently hanged. The Mormon Battalion, the only religious military unit in US history, was led by Philip Saint George Cooke.

At the Battle of Chapultapec, US Marines stormed a castle on a hill, the site of a Mexican military academy. They won, and in the process, they killed the six "Boy Heroes" (Los Ninos Heroes), Mexican military cadets who wouldn't fall back when ordered by General Bravo.

Zachary Taylor led land forces to win at battles at Monterrey and Buena Vista. Winfield Scott and Matthew Perry ran the first successful American amphibious landing at **Veracruz**. They besieged the city and took it.

In 1846, Californian settlers under William B. Ide captured Sonoma and General Mariano Vallejo. This initiated the **Bear Flag Revolt**, and John Fremont (the Pathfinder) and Robert Stockton became leaders. The revolt was put down by Stephen Kearny during his conquest of California during the war.

The war was ended by the **Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo**. Nicholas Trist and John Slidell

were negotiators at the treaty, but Trist's disobedience of Polk's instructions made Polk mad at him. Trist had been ordered to offer \$30 million to get Baja California and more territory in the South. When Trist finished with the treaty, he had taken less land, and he got money from Mexico, and was promptly fired on returning to Washington.

American Frontier

Outlaws of the Wild West

Certainly you know about the numerous outlaws and renegades that wandered the Old West, killing and robbing town all over the frontier. In this section, we look at some of the most famous of these people and the ones who chased them.

Jesse James

James (1847-1882) was an outlaw from Missouri who associated with the James-Younger Gang. During the Civil War, James and his brother were Bushwhackers (guerrillas) who may have participated in the Centralia Massacre. In 1882, James was shot by **Robert Ford**, a member of his own gang, for reward money.

Wild Bill Hickok

Now a legend, he had become a fugitive as a teenager. He fought for the Union during the Civil War, and he was involved in lots of shootouts. He was killed by Jack McCall in Deadwood (in the Black Hills), while holding a poker hand including black aces and eights. The hand would come to be called the "Dead Man's Hand".

Wyatt Earp

A sheriff who served in Tombstone, Arizona. He's most well known for participating in the **Gunfight at the O.K. Corral**, a 30-second gunfight at which Tom and Frank McLaury and Billy Clanton were killed.

Doc Holliday

Also at O.K. Corral, as a temporary deputy. Holliday had become a dentist when he was young, but then he got tuberculosis and moved west, where he became friends with Earp. Following the shootout, Earp took Holliday as part of his Vendetta Ride posse, and the local sheriff issued arrest warrants for the posse. Holliday eventually died in Colorado from the tuberculosis.

Billy the Kid

Perhaps the most infamous of the Wild West gunmen. His real name was William H. Bonney, and it's said that he killed 21 men, even though it was probably more like 8. In 1881, a bounty was placed on his head by the governor of New Mexico, Lew Wallace. He was shot and killed when he was 21.

California Gold Rush

In 1849, James Marshall struck gold at **Sutter's Mill**. John Sutter was a Swiss pioneer who had tried to make New Helvetia, a colony near modern day Sacramento. However, the gold discovery and resulting **California Gold Rush** didn't really help his plans. The so-called 49ers, gold hunters, showed up in California in droves, looking to make their fortunes. Word spread when people like Samuel Brannan, publisher of the *Star*, publicized discovery of gold.

During the gold rush, brand new techniques like coyoteing, dredging, and improvements on gold panning were pioneered. **Levi Strauss** sold denim overalls to help out the 49ers. To get to California, the 49ers used the Siskiyou Trail to get to places like Coloma, CA.

Antebellum America

Zachary Taylor

In the 1848 election, Lewis Cass and Martin Van Buren were defeated by Whig **Zachary Taylor**, "Old Rough-and-Ready". Taylor had fought in the Mexican-American War, winning at both Palo Alto and Buena Vista even though he was outnumbered three to one. Before that, he had won the Battle of Lake Okeechobee during the Seminole Wars. Taylor's Secretary of State was John M. Clayton. Clayton negotiated the **Clayton-Bulwer Treaty**, which said that canals in Central America should be controlled by both the US and Britain and open to all countries.

Millard Fillmore

In the middle of 1850, Taylor got cholera after eating fruit and milk, and died. He was succeeded by **Millard Fillmore**, his Vice President, whom history has proved to be one of the worst presidents ever. Fillmore ran again in 1856 as a member of the Know-Nothing Party. During his presidency, Commodore Matthew Perry signed the Treaty of Kanagawa with the Tokugawa Shogunate.

In 1850, Henry Clay helped write the **Compromise of 1850**. The Compromise admitted California to the union as a free state, banned slave trading in Washington, DC, contained a strong **Fugitive Slave Act**, and gave popular sovereignty to Utah and New Mexico. During debate over the Compromise, William Seward gave his "Higher Law" speech opposing it, saying that "there is a higher law than the Constitution". Other opponents included John Calhoun, but Webster and Douglas reworked Clay's original compromise and got it passed.

Franklin Pierce

The candidates in the election of 1852 were **Franklin Pierce** the Democrat, Winfield Scott

the Whig, and John P. Hale of the Free Soil Party. Pierce won the election in an electoral landslide. His Secretary of State was William Marcy, and his Secretary of War was Jefferson Davis, who would become President of the Confederacy.

In 1854, Marcy met with some American ministers in Europe to discuss acquiring Cuba for the US. They met in Aix-la-Chapelle and drafted the **Ostend Manifesto**. It was quickly hated in the north of the USA and in Europe.

Also in 1854, the **Kansas-Nebraska Act** was passed, repealing the Missouri Compromise of 1820. The Act had been written by Senator **Stephen Douglas** from Illinois, and it created the territories of Kansas and Nebraska, allowing settlers in each territory popular sovereignty to decide if they wanted to allow slavery.

Pierce also signed the **Gadsden Purchase** on April 25, 1854. The purchase included southwestern New Mexico and southern Arizona (south of the Gila River), and it was signed by James Gadsden, former president of the South Carolina Railroad Co. and current US ambassador to Mexico. It was made because the US was thinking about making a transcontinental railroad. However, it was so unpopular in Mexico that Santa Anna was ousted as dictator.

James Buchanan

James Buchanan was elected president in 1856, defeating Republican John C. Fremont and “Know Nothing” Millard Fillmore. He was notably the only bachelor president, and his Vice President was John Breckinridge. Lewis Cass, his Secretary of State, quit while Buchanan was in office. Buchanan had been Secretary of State for Polk, and he’d helped write the Ostend Manifesto as minister to Britain.

In 1856, the **Lecompton Constitution** was drafted for Kansas. It was pro-slavery, and Buchanan endorsed it (not a good call). Stephen Douglas was against the constitution, and governor Robert J. Walker resigned over controversy regarding it. As a result, Free-Staters and Border-Ruffians got into a conflict in the territory, during a period we now call **Bleeding Kansas**.

Charles Sumner was a senator from Massachusetts, and during the Bleeding Kansas crisis, he denounced the Kansas-Nebraska Act in the Senate. His “Crime against Kansas” speech attacked Andrew Butler and Stephen Douglas, calling them Don Quixote and Sancho Panza, respectively. Butler’s nephew, **Preston Brooks**, didn’t like the speech; he took a cane and beat Sumner in the Senate chamber. During the caning of Sumner, Laurence Keitt reportedly waved a gun around and said “let them be!”

Abolitionism

At this time, abolitionism was also picking up steam, partly under the violent leadership of **John Brown**. Brown had led the Pottawatomie Massacre near Lawrence, Kansas during

Bleeding Kansas, killing five settlers.

In 1859, Brown took 21 men, funded by rich people called the Secret Six, and led a raid on the United States Arsenal at **Harper's Ferry** in Virginia. The first person to die in the raid was Dangerfield Newby, and the raid was stopped by General Robert E. Lee and J.E.B. Stuart. Brown was captured and hanged; notably, Stonewall Jackson guarded him while awaiting execution.

The **Free Soil Party** was a party that advocated abolition. In 1848, the **Barnburner** faction (opposed to the Conscience Whigs), nominated their leader Martin Van Buren for the presidency. Salmon P. Chase coined the Free Soilers' slogan, "Free Soil, Free Labor, Free Men".

In opposition to the abolition movement were the **Knights of the Golden Circle**. They were led by Clement Vallandigham, and they would try to help the Confederacy defeat the Union and spread slavery.

Civil War

Of course, all of this conflict brewing in the country in the 1850s would turn into a pivotal war. Let's examine the causes and course of the American Civil War.

Background Miscellany

John J. Crittenden had been the Attorney General for Millard Fillmore and William H. Harrison. In 1860, as senator from Kentucky, Crittenden proposed the **Crittenden Compromise** to try and stop the Civil War, but it failed. In 1861, Crittenden chaired the Frankfort Convention, and he passed the Crittenden-Johnson Resolution, also called the War Aims Resolution, to try to define goals for the Civil War.

The **Copperheads**, Peace Democrats, were opposed to the war when it began, and they were led by Clement Vallandigham. They were occasionally linked to the Knights of the Golden Circle, and other leaders included Lambdin Milligan, who was involved in the *Ex parte Milligan* case.

Abraham Lincoln

Notably, we haven't really talked about **Abraham Lincoln** yet, because he definitely deserves his own subsection. Lincoln had grown up in Kentucky, and had moved to Illinois to become a lawyer. He served in the Illinois House of Representatives, and was elected to the US House in 1846. He opposed the Mexican-American War in his Spot Resolutions, asking for proof of Mexican belligerence, which made him unpopular in Illinois for a while.

In 1854, Lincoln joined the nascent Republican Party, helping it grow. He gave the Peoria

Speech against slavery and the Kansas-Nebraska Act, stating that “the policy of prohibiting slavery in new territory originated with the author of the Declaration of Independence”.

In 1858, he ran for the Senate against Stephen Douglas, in a race that contained lots of very public and famous debates. His nomination acceptance is now called the House Divided speech, and Lincoln claimed that “I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free”. Douglas formulated the Freeport Doctrine, which said that states could always choose to outlaw slavery if they wanted to.

Lincoln lost the race, but later, he gave a speech at the Cooper Union university in New York, once again asserting that he didn’t think slavery should be expanded. The speech helped him get the Republican nomination over William Seward.

The 1860 Presidential Election was Lincoln’s next run for office, and he swept the North, winning the election and becoming the 16th president. When he was elected, seven slave states promptly seceded from the Union and created the **Confederate States of America**. Then, they attacked.

Events and Battles

Trent Affair

The United States risked battle with Great Britain when the U.S. Navy captured Confederate officers off the RMS *Trent*. Britain was particularly annoyed by this violation of neutrality, and threatened to go to war with the U.S. over the affair. Lincoln and his top advisers eventually decided to release the prisoners, not wanting to damage Anglo-American relations.

Fort Sumter

The first shots were fired at Fort Sumter, where South Carolina troops assaulted the fort. Commanders there included Abner Doubleday (baseball guy), Robert Anderson, and PGT Beauregard. Mary Boykin Chestnut viewed the battle from The Battery, and defenders at Fort Sumter were awarded the Gillmore Medal.

First Bull Run

The first *major* battle was fought at the First Battle of Bull Run (First Manassas). The Confederates under PGT Beauregard won the battle, and General Bernard Bee reportedly said, “There stands Jackson, like a stone wall!”, giving **Stonewall Jackson** his nickname. Irvin McDowell led the Union troops, who had issued retreating because of civilians in the way. Important locations included Henry House Hill, Matthews Hill, and Brawner’s Farm. After the battle, the Pennsylvania Reserves were activated, and the Confederate Army didn’t pursue the Union because Bonham and Longstreet were having an argument.

Hampton Roads

At Hampton Roads, the two ironclads USS **Monitor** and CSS *Virginia* (formerly the **Merrimack**) fought on the waters of the James River near Chesapeake Bay. The Monitor's "cheesebox", its rotating turret, was used to save the blockade and stop the Virginia. Commanders at the battle include Franklin Buchanan (CSA) and the Swedish John Ericsson.

Shiloh

Also known as the Battle of Pittsburg Landing, Shiloh was a Union victory in southwest Tennessee, resulting in the death of Albert Sidney Johnston. On the first day, Union forces under Grant were pushed back, the result of a surprise attack by Johnston and Beauregard, but Grant's troops managed to fortify a bunker called the Hornet's Nest. Troops under Stoney Lonesome and Lew Wallace became known as the "lost division", because they took the Shunpike Road instead of the River Road, and showed up too late to the battle.

Reinforcements for the Union showed up later, led by Bull Nelson and Don Carlos Buell. A huge artillery unit led by Daniel Ruggles was assembled on Duncan Field. At Fallen Timbers, Nathan Bedford Forrest (KKK) was shot while a rear guard. Other notable locations include Owl Creek, a swamp pressured by Corinth Road.

Second Bull Run

Second Bull Run began at Brawner's Farm, which had also been an important location in the first battle there. Robert E. Lee's forces destroyed Union troops under John Pope, and in the follow-up Battle of Chantilly, Isaac Stevens and Philip Kearny were killed. After the battle, the Army of Virginia was dissolved, and Robert E. Lee crossed the Potomac and started the Maryland Campaign.

Antietam

The bloodiest single day battle in US history, Antietam (Sharpsburg) was fought in Maryland in 1862. The battle started when the Union army tried to capture Dunker Church, leading to a lot of losses. Lee issued Special Order 191 (the "Lost Dispatch"), a general movement order, which was recovered by Union troops; the intelligence allowed the Union to figure out the Confederate strategy.

AP Hill brought reinforcements from Harper's Ferry for the Confederates, and Ambrose Burnside captured a bridge (which was later named after him). Multiple attacks were aimed at a "sunken road" that was known as Bloody Lane. The battle allowed Lincoln to issue the Emancipation Proclamation.

Fredericksburg

At Fredericksburg, Robert E. Lee crushed Union troops under Ambrose Burnside in northern Virginia. Lee had stopped the Union advance on Richmond at the Rappahannock River, which Burnside's forces had to cross using pontoon bridges. This let the Confederates set up artillery on Telegraph Hill and Howison Hill. Edwin Sumner and William Franklin led attacks that were repulsed by James Longstreet and Stonewall Jackson.

Chancellorsville

Chancellorsville was a “perfect battle” during which Lee defeated Joseph Hooker. It took place simultaneously with the second battle at Fredricksburg, and occurred when the Union crossed the Rappahannock. During the battle, Stonewall Jackson was killed by friendly fire. Confederates fortified Zoan Church during the battle, which also featured fighting at Salem Church and Hanover Junction.

Vicksburg

Vicksburg was fought simultaneously with Gettysburg, in the west. Grant's forces used David Porter's fleet to move northeast, and laid siege to Vicksburg, Mississippi. He took Port Gibson, Grand Gulf, and Champion's Hill. John Pemberton's Confederate forces had retreated to Vicksburg from Big Black River, and Pemberton surrendered on July 4, 1863.

Gettysburg

The “high water mark of the Confederacy” came at Gettysburg, fought in the beginning of July 1863. Union forces under George Meade defeated Lee (Lee's first defeat since Chancellorsville), forcing him to turn back. A few days before the battle, Joseph Hooker had resigned command of the Army of the Potomac. Before the battle, the Battle of Brady Station was fought, preventing JEB Stuart from fighting at Gettysburg.

Lots of important events occurred during the three day battle. A boulder field called the Devil's Den was stormed by John Bell Hood and his Georgia troops. Henry Heth fought John Buford near Cashtown, and attacked Union soldiers along Herr's Ridge. Richard Ewell led a Confederate charge on the first day from the north, pushing Union soldiers onto a hill. Other unsuccessful Confederate assaults included ones on Culp's Hill and Cemetery Ridge, and other notable locations include Peach Orchard and Emmitsburg Road.

A lot of fighting also occurred at **Little Round Top** (there was also a Big Round Top). Strong Vincent yelled “Don't give an inch!”, before he was shot in defense of it. A bayonet charge led by the 20th Maine, under Joshua Chamberlain, helped defend the position. Other men who died at Little Round Top include Paddy O'Rourke and Charles Hazlett.

Pickett's Charge was an attempt by George Pickett to get out of two hours of artillery

barrage on Cemetery Ridge. Along with Johnston Pettigrew and Isaac Trimble, and his brigadier generals Richard Garnett and Lewis Armistead, Pickett led a charge, but it didn't end very well.

Chickamauga & Chattanooga

In the west, the clearest Confederate victory was at the Battle of Chickamauga. Braxton Bragg, along with Longstreet's corps from the east, defeated William Rosencrans. During the battle, Union troops under George Henry Thomas helped defend Snodgrass Hill, and Thomas was nicknamed "the Rock of Chickamauga". Notable locations in the battle included Lafayette Road, where the Union retreated to, and Horseshoe Ridge. Longstreet exploited a gap in the right flank of the Union forces, breaking them. After the battle, Union forces retreated to Chattanooga, which they had recently captured.

After Chickamauga, Union troops were besieged at the Battle of Chattanooga, and they won. Defensive positions at Chattanooga included Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge. After Chattanooga, Bragg was replaced by Joseph Johnston.

Mobile Bay

A Union naval victory at Mobile Bay was able to close the last unblockaded port on the Gulf of Mexico. Union ships were led by David Farragut, who may have said "Damn the torpedoes, full speed ahead!" The major Confederate ship was the *Tennessee*, which was crippled by Farragut's forces. Guns at Fort Morgan also helped the Confederates defend. Other ships included *Tecumseh* and *Chickasaw*, which went to engage Fort Powell and Dauphin Island.

March to the Sea

In 1864, William Tecumseh Sherman led a March to the Sea through Atlanta, and ending with the capture of Savannah. On the way, troops bent railroad rails into "Sherman neckties" and tied them around things. After capturing Atlanta, Sherman sent the "Christmas gift" telegram, giving the city to Lincoln.

Overland Campaign

The Overland Campaign started at the **Battle of the Wilderness** in 1864, which took place a short distance from Chancellorsville. It was fought in tangled woods, and lots of people died because of friendly fire and fire. Longstreet and Hill went towards the Brock road, and Longstreet was wounded by friendly fire.

Longstreet wasn't able to fight in the following **Battle of Spotsylvania Court House**. It was the bloodiest of the Overland Campaign, and it was fought near the "Mule Shoe", which became called the "Bloody Angle". At the battle, **John Sedgwick**, the highest ranking Union officer to die in the war, was killed by a sniper after supposedly saying that those snipers "couldn't hit an elephant at this distance".

Appomattox

A decisive Union victory at the Battle of Appomattox Court House resulted in the surrender of the Confederacy. Lee's Army of Northern Virginia surrendered to Grant's Union Army in the courthouse. George Armstrong Custer was present at the battle, and he bought some of the furniture in the courthouse.

Union Generals

George McClellan

McClellan was the first commander of the Army of the Potomac, during the Peninsular Campaign. He lost the Seven Days Battles, leading Lincoln to create the Army of Virginia and give **John Pope** command of it. However, when Pope lost at Second Bull Run, McClellan was reinstated.

McClellan was extremely cautious, leading some to say he had a “bad case of the slows”. This didn't serve him well at Antietam, and cost him a decisive victory. As a result, Lincoln pulled McClellan from command.

Ulysses S. Grant

Grant won some battles in the west, as discussed previously. Then, he won at Appomattox and forced Lee to surrender. Other details about Grant can be found when he becomes President.

Ambrose Burnside

Burnside was put in control of the Army of the Potomac following McClellan's failure to pursue Lee after Antietam. He had previously led a botched attack on a bridge at Antietam—the bridge will forever be called Burnside bridge. Now, he's probably best known for the fact that his facial hair style is called “sideburns”.

Burnside defeated Longstreet at Campbell's Station, and also won at Roanoke Island and New Bern. He tried to blow a hole under Confederate lines at Petersburg, an incident now called the Battle of the Crater. After he failed miserably at Fredricksburg, Burnside was replaced as commander by Joseph Hooker.

George Armstrong Custer

Custer's most notable actions occurred after the war, but he did fight in the war as well. While under Philip Sheridan, Custer and his Wolverines had defeated Jubal Early in the Valley Campaigns. At Gettysburg, he'd led cavalry to stop JEB Stuart from flanking the Union position. He'd fought at Appomattox, and was given a table for his work at the Court House. He was suspended from the army when he went to visit his wife, Elizabeth Bacon, in Fort Riley.

George G. Meade

Meade was the Union commander at Gettysburg. After the Confederacy retreated, he didn't pursue them.

William Tecumseh Sherman

Sherman led the March to the Sea, capturing Atlanta and Savannah during the scorched earth campaign, making Georgia “howl” during the march and giving Savannah as a Christmas present to Lincoln. He issued Special Field Order No. 15, allowing for slaves to resettle after the campaign. He was defeated at Kennesaw Mountain, and he also helped at Chattanooga.

He established Army Command at Fort Leavenworth, and he married Ellen Ewing (daughter of **Thomas Ewing**, first Secretary of the Interior), who said he suffered “melancholy insanity” when he was put on leave one time. After Appomattox, Sherman met Joseph Johnston at Bennett Place to accept his surrender.

Confederate Generals

Robert E. Lee

The greatest of the Confederate generals was the commander of the Army of Northern Virginia. Previously, Lee had captured John Brown at Harper's Ferry. He had also led forces at the Battle of Cerro Gordo in the Mexican-American War, outflanking the enemy by finding a trail that allowed Winfield Scott to circle around. Notably, he said that “It is well that war is so terrible, or we should grow too fond of it”, while defending Marye's Heights.

Lee was given command after Joseph Johnston was wounded right before the Seven Days Battles against McClellan. He went on to win at Wilderness, Cold Harbor, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville. He lost lots of men at Antietam, Cheat Mountain, and Gettysburg, where he was forced back to the South.

Stonewall Jackson

Jackson had earned a promotion to major at the Battle of Chapultepec, and he was a general by the time the Civil War rolled around.

At First Bull Run, Jackson held like a “stone wall” on Matthews Hill, giving him his nickname. At the Battle of Gaines' Mill, Jackson showed up late, and made a lot more mistakes during the Seven Days Battles. He was defeated at the First Battle of Kernstown, but during the Shenandoah Valley Campaign, Jackson won at Cross Keys and Port Republic. He proceeded to take Harper's Ferry, and he held his lines at Fredericksburg.

At Chancellorsville, Confederate soldiers mistook Jackson for a Union soldier, and they

shot him. His arm was amputated, he got pneumonia, and died eight days later.

Joseph Johnston

Johnston was a pretty important commander in the Confederate Army. After being wounded at the Battle of Seven Pines, command was given to Lee.

PGT Beauregard

Beauregard led the attack on Fort Sumter, and he was defeated at Shiloh by Grant's Union army. He also won First Bull Run. While besieged at **Corinth** by Henry Halleck, he faked a counterattack and proceeded to lead his entire regiment out of the town unnoticed.

Braxton Bragg

At the Battle of Buena Vista in the Mexican-American War, Bragg took control of a battery of "flying artillery" from Samuel Ringgold, where he was told by Zachary Taylor to hold of Santa Anna's charge.

Bragg lost to Grant at Chattanooga, and he defeated William Rosencrans at Chickamauga. He replaced Beauregard in 1862, and he commanded the II Corps at Shiloh.

John Bell Hood

Hood replaced Joseph Johnston at the defense of Atlanta from Sherman. He lost at Nashville to George S. Thomas. Hood also coordinated an invasion of Tennessee, led by Beauregard.

James Longstreet

Longstreet, Lee's "Old War Horse", was wounded at the Battle of the Wilderness. He also led Pickett's Charge, albeit quite reluctantly, because it wasn't a very good idea. After the war, he became a [scalawag](#). He helped calm civil unrest in New Orleans in 1875, and was later Ambassador to the Ottoman Empire.

JEB Stuart

Lee called Stuart the "eyes of the army". He showed up late to Gettysburg, so he wasn't able to give Confederates very useful information. He used to wear a cape and peacock-feature hat (which wasn't contemporary in the mid-19th century). Stuart was killed at the Battle of Yellow Tavern.

Reconstruction

Sic Semper Tyrannis

John Wilkes Booth was an actor—a Maryland native who sympathized with the Confederacy. So, on March 20, 1865, Booth and some friends decided to kidnap the president. He put together a group of friends including John Surratt, Lewis Powell, George Atzerodt, and David Herold. They met in a boarding house owned by Mary Surratt, John's mother. They assembled when they thought Lincoln would be attending a play on March 17, but Lincoln's plans changed and he didn't show up.

On April 14, Lincoln and first lady Mary Todd went to a performance of *Our American Cousin*, which was being shown at **Ford's Theatre**. Booth decided to kill Lincoln that night, and he told Powell to kill Secretary of State Seward, and assigned Atzerodt to Vice President Johnson's assassination. Booth was well known at the theater, so he had free access to the whole building. He walked into the presidential box and shot Lincoln in the back of the head. He then stabbed Major Henry Rathbone and jumped down to the stage. He shouted "*sic semper tyrannis*" (thus always to tyrants), and then ran away.

Booth then hid in Zekiah Swamp, and arrived back at Surratt's Tavern. Along with Herold, he went and got help for his injured leg from Dr. Samuel Mudd. Eventually, Booth was tracked down to the Garrett Farmhouse after his fellow conspirators, and he was shot resisting arrest by Sergeant Boston Corbett.

The other assassinations didn't succeed. Powell stabbed Seward in the face and neck, but he survived. Atzerodt spent the evening drinking at a hotel bar and didn't try to kill Johnson. Mary Surratt would become the first American woman to be executed.

Andrew Johnson

Johnson was governor of Tennessee during the Civil War, and he had served in that post in the 1850s as well. He became the only senator from the South that didn't leave the Senate after secession, an act that led him to succeed **Hannibal Hamlin** as Lincoln's Vice President. Before his first speech as Vice President, he'd apparently gone through a bottle of whiskey, resulting in this bit of fun:

I am a-goin' for to tell you here to-day; yes, I'm a-goin' for to tell you all, that I'm a plebeian! I glory in it; I am a plebeian! The people—yes, the people of the United States have made me what I am; and I am a-goin' for to tell you here to-day—yes, today, in this place—that the people are everything.

Following Lincoln's assassination, Johnson was inaugurated as the 17th president.

In an 1866 campaign against Radical Republicans, Johnson delivered the Swing Around the Circle Speeches, following a National Union Party convention in Philadelphia. Johnson was joined by David Farragut and U.S. Grant.

Johnson's Secretary of State, **William Seward**, negotiated the purchase of Alaska from the

Russians. In the Treaty of Cession negotiated with Baron Eduard de Stoeckel, called “Seward’s Folly”, the US paid \$7.2 million to Russia in exchange for a territory that was nothing more than rocks and ice. The Senate voted in favor of it partly because of a speech given by Charles Sumner (of caning fame) in its favor, and partly because of the help of Cassius Clay (no, not that one). Baron Stoeckel bribed the Daily Morning Chronicle to ensure that the paper supported it as well. Because of the purchase, the calendar changed from the Julian to the Gregorian, resulting in the date instantaneously changing from June 6 to June 18 (time travel in the 19th century).

The Senate didn’t really like Johnson, so they passed the **Tenure of Office Act** over his veto. The Act stated that Senate approval was needed to remove a Senate-confirmed official (read: cabinet member) from office. Johnson promptly tried to remove **Edwin Stanton**, his Secretary of War, from office, and replace him with Lorenzo Thomas. Of course, this was a violation of the Tenure of Office Act and Johnson was impeached. The Swing Around the Circle speeches were cited as being “disrespectful” by the Senate, and proponents of impeachment included John Bingham and Thaddeus Stevens.

Rebuilding the South

The South was in shambles after the war, and it had to be reconstructed. Reconstruction began under Lincoln and continued until about 1877.

In 1864, the **Wade-Davis Bill** was written by two Radical Republicans. It required Southern states who wanted to be admitted back into the Union to take an Ironclad oath, stating that they had never supported the Confederacy. The bill was pocket vetoed by Lincoln, who instead supported the **Ten Percent Plan**. Lincoln’s plan was more lenient, only requiring that 10% of the vote count from a state had to swear an oath to the Union.

Lots of Northerners came South in an attempt to profit. Because of their luggage, angry Southerners called them **carpetbaggers**. Southerners who tried to do the same thing and sympathized with the North were referred to as **scalawags**.

The **Freedmen’s Bureau** was an organization that helped former slaves get an education. It was headed by Oliver Howard, and it was created a couple months before Lincoln was shot.

Ulysses Grant

In 1868, **Ulysses S. Grant** was elected President. His running mate was Schuyler Colfax, and he defeated Democrat Horatio Seymour. The election had made an issue of Grant’s General Order No. 11, which expelled Jews from some states. He implemented the Force Acts to prosecute the Ku Klux Klan.

Grant’s administration was full of scandals and scams. During the Virginius Affair, there was a dispute over a ship in Cuba during the Ten Years’ War. His War Secretary **William**

Belknap was accused of taking kickbacks from Caleb Marsh, as a result of appointing Marsh to Fort Sill; Belknap resigned pending impeachment.

On September 24, 1869, a day known as **Black Friday**, **Jay Gould** and **James Fisk** tried to corner the gold market on the New York Gold Exchange. Other participants included Abel Corbin, who helped Fisk and Gould talk to higher social circles, allowing them to give loans to people like Daniel Butterfield. Eventually, the attempt was stopped by George Boutwell.

The **Whiskey Ring** was a scandal in which people tried to get around taxes on whiskey. It was organized by John McDonald, apparently under direction from Grant's private secretary Orville Babcock. Babcock was eventually acquitted, but only because of his position so close to Grant. Over 200 other people were indicted, including IRS agents such as John Joyce. The scandal was uncovered by Treasury Secretary Benjamin Bristow.

During the **Credit Mobilier** of America scandal, Oakes Ames offered discounted stock to congressmen during the construction of the Transcontinental Railroad. The scandal was investigated Aaron Perry, and it was leaked when Colonel Henry S. McComb leaked letters to Charles Dana of the New York Sun, who ran the "King of Frauds" column about the scandal. Other people implicated in the scandal included James Patterson and James Brooks.

Post-War West

The first **Homestead Act** had been passed in 1862, giving people who wanted to move West cheap land. People who wanted to take up the government on its land offer simply had to be the head of a family and not have taken up arms against the US.

George Custer went west, trying to find gold in the Black Hills of South Dakota with Alfred Terry. He led a campaign against Sioux in the area, destroying Black Kettle's home. At the **Battle of Little Big Horn**, Custer fought the Sioux. The chief was **Sitting Bull**, and the battle commander was **Crazy Horse**. After Custer's last stand at Little Big Horn, the only survivor of his forces was a horse named Comanche.

Chapter 17. American Imperialism

I should welcome almost any war, for I think this country needs one.

— Theodore Roosevelt, 1899

A Gilded Age

Mark Twain coined the term **Gilded Age** to talk about the fact that there were some pretty bad social problems in the late 19th century, but they were masked by economic growth.

Rutherford Hayes

The Election of 1876 was one of the most controversial elections ever. Republican **Rutherford B. Hayes** was up against Democrat **Samuel Tilden**, who won the popular vote. Tilden had been the Governor of New York, where he'd tried to stop Tammany Hall and Boss Tweed. Hayes was down by 19 electoral votes, but Florida, Louisiana, South Carolina, and Oregon were in dispute. An elector in Oregon was declared illegal and replaced. As a result, the **Compromise of 1877** was created, giving all 20 remaining votes to Hayes. In return, Republicans agreed to end Reconstruction and take the troops out of the South. Power in the South went to the Democratic **Redeemers**, and Hayes was sometimes called "His Fraudulency".

Hayes's First Lady was **Lucy Hayes**, now known as "Lemonade Lucy" because she was a big supporter of the **temperance movement** to ban alcohol. The president banned alcohol from the White House while in office. Hayes's Secretary of the Interior was Carl Schurz, who helped determine Indian policy, and his Attorney General was Carl Devens. His Treasury Secretary was John Sherman, and his Vice President was William Wheeler (Hayes apparently asked "Who is Wheeler?" when told about his running mate).

Hayes vetoed the **Bland-Allison Act**, in which the Treasury would be required to put \$2 million in silver into circulation, but Congress passed the act over his veto anyway. He also sent Winfield Scott Hancock to Pittsburgh and Baltimore to deal with the Great Railroad Strike. Hayes removed Alonzo Cornell and Chester Arthur from power in the

Port of New York, an action that was opposed by his nemesis Roscoe Conkling, leader of the Stalwarts.

Hayes also helped arbitrate the end of the War of the Triple Alliance in South America. He got Paraguay some territory.

Garfield and Arthur

Hayes didn't run for reelection, and Republican **James Garfield** took office, having gotten the nomination as a result of a compromise with the Stalwarts and Half-Breeds. Garfield had previously won Ex Parte Milligan, and his rags-to-riches story was written by **Horatio Alger**. While in office, Garfield had Postmaster General Thomas James investigate the Star Route frauds.

In 1881, **Charles Guiteau**, a Stalwart, asked Garfield for a consulship in Paris. He had printed lots of copies of a speech about Winfield Scott Hancock called "Garfield vs. Hancock". Garfield refused Guiteau and Guiteau got angry. Yelling "I am a Stalwart!", Guiteau shot Garfield. In an attempt to help Garfield, **Alexander Graham Bell** brought a metal detector to find bullets, although at first it was only detecting springs in the bed that Garfield was on. Garfield died and Guiteau was convicted of his murder, and the assassination resulted in the Pendleton Civil Service Act being passed.

Garfield's Vice President **Chester A. Arthur** took office. Arthur had previously been supported by Stalwart Roscoe Conkling (during the Hayes administration). He signed the Pendleton Act, and he rebuilt the navy. During Arthur's administration, the Chinese Exclusion Act was passed, and he signed a compromise tariff called the Mongrel Tariff. He also signed the Edmunds Act, banning polygamists from taking public office.

Cleveland, Harrison, and Cleveland

In 1884, **Grover Cleveland** was elected the 22nd president, defeating Republican **James G. Blaine**. Interestingly, during the election, Cleveland was supported by the **Mugwumps**, Republicans who believed in Cleveland's ideas on civil service reform. Cleveland (along with Tilden before him) was a **Bourbon Democrat**, a conservative group of Democrats who wanted a gold standard. Reverend Samuel Burchard claimed at a meeting where Blaine was present that the Democratic party's antecedents were "Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion", a fatal mistake during the last week of the campaign that hurt Blaine with the Catholic vote.

While he was in office, Cleveland refused to pay attention to the Tenure of Office Act, which led to it being repealed in 1887. His Vice President, Arthur Hendricks, died in 1885, and during much of his term, Cleveland didn't have a Vice President. He tried to reduce the amount of silver backing the dollar, favoring the gold standard instead. His Secretary of State, Thomas Bayard, negotiated for fishing rights off of Canada, and Cleveland withdrew the US from the Berlin Conference Treaty (recall the Scramble for Africa). He

also set the record for most vetoes in one term because he opposed spending so much.

During the election of 1888, Cleveland ran for reelection against **Benjamin Harrison**, grandson of William Henry Harrison. Harrison's campaign manager William Dudley tried to bribe "the Blocks of Five", electors who sold their votes to Harrison. Harrison won on issues like tariffs, leaving Cleveland a private citizen for the next four years.

In office, Harrison tried to get more money backed by silver. To this end, his administration managed to pass the McKinley Tariff and the **Sherman Silver Purchase Act** with the help of the Billion Dollar Congress. Also during his administration, the **Sherman Antitrust Act** was signed into law. During the Baltimore Crisis, some American sailors were attacked by a Chilean mob. He tried to help secure voting rights to enforce the 15th amendment in the Force Bill, with help from Henry Cabot Lodge. He did that in opposition to his Vice President, Levi Morton, but it mostly failed.

Harrison was nominated for reelection again, and went up against Cleveland again in 1892. In the "cleanest, quietest" election of the post-war generation, Cleveland defeated Harrison, making Cleveland the 24th president as well. The victory might be attributed to the fact that Harrison didn't campaign much because his wife had tuberculosis.

Cleveland took office again, and the **Panic of 1893** promptly began. The increased coinage of silver had resulted in a gold shortage, and Cleveland tried to get the Sherman Silver Purchase Act repealed. The repeal of the act was the beginning of the end for silver as a basis for currency in the US. In 1894, Cleveland also had to handle the **Pullman Strike**, and he sent federal troops to break it up. Also, while Cleveland was president, the Statue of Liberty showed up in New York. He elevated the Department of Agriculture to the Cabinet, and he vetoed the Texas Seed Bill.

The Frontier: Wars with the Apache

American military influence in the southwest United States and northern Mexico in the middle of the eighteenth century resulted in increased resistance by numerous Native American tribes including the Chiricahua Apache. Most notable among the war leaders of the movement was **Cochise**, a chief who began an uprising in 1861 following the death of his father-in-law Mangas Coloradas. Cochise hid in the Dragoon Mountains and led raids against American forces led by General George Crook. Cochise then worked on peace talks with **Otis Howard**, the commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, and Thomas Jeffords, perhaps the only white friend he had.

Following Cochise's death in 1874, **Geronimo** took over the fight for the Apache. Some of Geronimo's followers were killed at Casa Grande in 1873, and after he took over the fight, Crook sent multiple columns of troops into Mexico. In 1886, Geronimo entered peace talks with Crook in the Canon de los Embudos. However, on finding out that Crook was planning to kill him anyway, Geronimo escaped. Crook was promptly replaced by **Nelson Miles**, who ended up capturing Geronimo in Skeleton Canyon later in 1886.

Geronimo spent quite a while in captivity, mostly in Fort Sill. During this time, he joined the Dutch Reformed Church to try and take the “white man’s road”, but he was expelled after a few years because of his gambling habits. Geronimo died in 1909. His name is still used by jumping paratroopers.

Spanish-American War

William McKinley

McKinley had put the McKinley Tariff through Congress while Harrison was president, although it had gotten replaced by the Wilson-Gorman Tariff. He’d also chaired the Ways and Means Committee during the Billion Dollar Congress. In 1896, he got himself the Republican nomination for president, with the help of his strategist Mark Hanna. He defeated **William Jennings Bryan** after a front-porch campaign for the gold standard and “sound money”.

McKinley passed the Dingley Tariff and in 1900, he set up the Gold Standard Act. In 1898, the US annexed Hawaii and it became a territory.

In 1900, McKinley defeated Bryan again to get reelection. However, he didn’t stay in office very long. In 1901, he went to the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo. Leon Czolgosz, an anarchist, came in concealing a pistol in a handkerchief. Czolgosz shot McKinley, and failure to use a nearby X-ray machine may have contributed to his death. Afterwards, Czolgosz claimed that his name was “Fred Nobody” and said that “I didn’t believe one man should have so much service, and another man have none.”

Course of War

The **Spanish-American War**, a splendid little war, started in 1898 and was an important part of McKinley’s presidency. Cuba had been revolting against Spain for quite some time.

Eventually, the **USS Maine**, under the command of Charles Dwight Sigisbee, exploded in Havana harbor. People didn’t know what was going on, but **yellow journalists** like **Joseph Pulitzer** and **William Randolph Hearst** helped people figure out that the Spanish were evil — “Remember the Maine! To hell with Spain!”. In 1976, the explosion would be investigated by Admiral Hyman Rickover, and it was probably caused by a coal explosion, not a mine.

Also at time, Senor Don Enrique Dupuy de Lome sent the **De Lome Letter**. The letter, sent to the Foreign Minister of Spain, Don Jose Canelejas, was a huge insult to McKinley, filled with references to his effeminacy and his ineffective weakness as a leader. Hearst called it the “worst insult to the United States in its history”. Two months later, McKinley asked Congress to declare war.

The short war began in the Pacific. At the **Battle of Manila Bay**, the Asiatic Squadron,

under Commodore **George Dewey**, forced the Spanish Pacific Squadron, under Admiral Patricio Montojo, to surrender the city of Manila. American ships took position in Subic Bay, and the Spanish set up in Bacoar Bay. Dewey spent the battle on the USS *Olympia* and said “You may fire when ready”.

A notable unit in the American army during the war was the 1st United States Volunteer Cavalry, also called the **Rough Riders**, or “Wood’s Weary Walkers” after their commander, Leonard Wood. Wood’s second in command was **Theodore Roosevelt**, former assistant Secretary of the Navy. When Wood left the regiment, the Rough Riders became Roosevelt’s. They fought at the Battle of Las Guasimas, and at the **Battle of San Juan Hill**, near Kettle Hill. San Juan Hill was an important battle for the Rough Riders. Henry Lawton’s men were stopped at the Battle of El Caney, so Wood was forced to charge up the hill against Arsenio Linares. Other locations included Bloody Ford and Hell’s Pocket.

The war was ended by the **1898 Treaty of Paris**. Spain gave up control of much of its land, and the US got temporary control of Cuba and indefinite control of Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines. Following the treaty, the Insular Cases decided that in the island territories, “the Constitution follows the flag”.

Progressivism and Imperialism

Organizing Labor

Poor labor conditions in the early nineteenth century resulted in the creation of the **Knights of Labor** in 1869. Led by Grand Master Workmen such as Uriah Stephens and **Terence Powderley**, the Knights were the first large labor organization in the United States. Members of the union killed many Chinese laborers in the 1885 **Rock Springs Massacre**, and they attempted a strike against Jay Gould’s Great Southwest Railroad in 1886.

On May 1, 1886, anarchists threw a bomb at police officers in **Haymarket Square** in Chicago during a strike against the McCormick Harvesting Machine Company. The ensuing riot resulted in many arrests, as well as the executions of August Spies and three other men. Governor **John Peter Altgeld** ended up pardoning everyone else, but the Knights of Labor were blamed for the incident and their reputation was irredeemably damaged.

This paved the way for the rise of the **American Federation of Labor**, led by **Samuel Gompers**. The AFL was created primarily as a place for people dissatisfied by the Knights of Labor, and they excluded unskilled workers, African Americans, and women.

Women's Suffrage

In order to discuss the history of women in the United States, we must begin some time ago. In the early and middle parts of the nineteenth century, the **cult of domesticity** emerged. Thus arose the notion that ideal women stayed with the house and did not work outside it, as a result of the fact that people didn't all need to work on making goods by themselves to survive. Even at this time, there were some minor equality movements, but they were largely unsuccessful, and many of them were tied to abolitionism. Notably, Oberlin College became the first coeducational institution in 1837, just four years after its founding.

The **first wave of feminism** started at the **Seneca Falls Convention** in New York in 1848. Organized by **Elizabeth Cady Stanton** and **Lucretia Mott**, the convention put forth a **Declaration of Sentiments**, which stated that "all men and women are created equal". Stanton and Mott had come up with the idea eight years previously, while attending William Lloyd Garrison's World Anti-Slavery Convention. It is also notable that Frederick Douglass argued in favor of women's suffrage at the convention.

Three years later, Stanton met **Susan B. Anthony**, and together, they founded the New York Women's State Temperance Society, as well as the Women's Loyal National League. In 1868, Anthony began a women's rights newspaper called *The Revolution*,

In 1872, Anthony was arrested for voting in Rochester, New York, and although she was convicted, she never paid the fine. Later, she and Stanton presented Congress with what would become the 19th Amendment. In 1890, she united women's rights activists into the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA).

The 19th Amendment passed Congress in 1920, granting women the right to vote.

Theodore Roosevelt

Under William McKinley, Roosevelt had served as Assistant Secretary of the Navy, and he'd led the Rough Riders for a year in the Spanish-American War. Coming back from the war, he became Governor of New York, but party establishment didn't want him actually doing anything, so they put him in the least powerful position in government: the Vice Presidency. However, McKinley's assassination led to Roosevelt being sworn in as the youngest president in history when he was just 42 years old.

As president, Roosevelt put forward his **Square Deal** domestic policy. His vice president was Charles Fairbanks. He tried to make life more fair for people by "trustbusting", and helping reform with the Pure Food and Drug Act. He coined the term "bully pulpit" for the power he wielded from the White House. He also passed the Elkins Act, fining railroads offering rebates. Roosevelt led the country into the new **Progressive Era**. In 1904, he was reelected over Alton B. Parker in a landslide. He loved the outdoors, and established many new national parks, forests, etc. Roosevelt was also a historian; he wrote *The Naval War of*

1812 and The Winning of the West.

Roosevelt's foreign policy was all about "speaking softly and carrying a big stick". He sent the new **Great White Fleet** all around the world to show that the US was powerful. His Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine, proposed after the Venezuela Crisis (British bombarding Venezuelan forts), stated that the US will intervene in cross-hemisphere conflicts between Europe and Latin America to ensure fairness. He set up a Gentlemen's Agreement to prevent Japanese immigration.

Roosevelt set Taft up to succeed him in 1908, and following the end of his second term, immediately departed for a safari in East Africa. Over a few months, his group killed or captured over eleven thousand animals.

Following his loss in the election of 1912, Roosevelt joined Brazilian explorer Candido Rondon on an expedition through the Amazon rainforest. The objective was to find the headwaters of the so-called "River of Doubt". Along for the ride was Roosevelt's son Kermit, and about a dozen other helpers. Roosevelt hurt his leg on the trip, and the subsequent infection resulted in rapidly declining health. He survived the trip, but died a few years later. The River of Doubt was renamed the Roosevelt River.

A Man, A Plan, A Canal, Panama

In the late 1690s, the Scots had tried to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans using the Darien Scheme; they wanted to make a colony providing an overland route across Panama. That didn't work out.

In the early 20th century, the first people to try and make a canal through Panama were the French. They failed badly, and the company's director **Philippe Bunau-Varilla**, came to Washington asking for help from Roosevelt and Secretary of State **John M. Hay**. The Senate voted in favor of building the canal across the isthmus, but there was a problem. Panama wasn't its own country; rather, it was part of Colombia, and they didn't want the canal made.

The Hay-Herran Treaty was proposed by US to mitigate this issue, but the Colombian Senate didn't like it. Bunau-Varilla told the Americans that the Panamanians might revolt soon, in an effort to get their *own* dictator, and Roosevelt decided to actively support the rebels. Dr. Manuel Amador worked with the Americans brought by the USS *Nashville*, overthrew the Colombian government, and became the first president of an independent Panama.

After the revolution was successful, Bunau-Varilla signed the **Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty** with the US, giving them rights to dig across the isthmus. Notably, no Panamanians actually signed the treaty. Roosevelt, faced with a bit of an image problem as a result, was told by Attorney General **Philander Knox**: "Mister President, do not let so great an achievement suffer from any taint of legality!" Construction on the Panama Canal would

proceed from 1904 to 1914.

William H. Taft

Roosevelt decided not to run for reelection again in 1908. He endorsed Secretary of War **William Howard Taft** for the presidency instead. Taft had been the first American Governor-General of the Philippines. After the Russo-Japanese War, he'd discussed the Taft-Katsura Agreement with the Japanese Prime Minister.

As president, he tried to improve the economies of Latin America with **Dollar Diplomacy**. His Secretary of State was Philander Knox, and his Secretary of the Interior, Richard Ballinger, had an argument with the Forestry Service under Gifford Pinchot (Ballinger-Pinchot affair). In 1909, the **Payne-Aldrich Tariff** was passed. The tariff was really high and protectionist, so it was unpopular; Taft defended it in the Winona Speech, and he claimed it was the “best tariff bill that the Republican Party ever passed”.

Taft was really fat, and he may or may not have gotten stuck in a White House bathtub at some point. He would go on to become the only President to also serve as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

Election of 1912

The election of 1912 heralded the return of Theodore Roosevelt from his badly timed four year leave. He formed the Progressive **Bull Moose Party** instead of being nominated by Republicans again, since they picked Taft as their candidate again. Democrat **Woodrow Wilson** was nominated after a fairly contentious Democratic convention, and he picked Oscar Underwood as his running mate. The fourth candidate was Socialist **Eugene V. Debs**, who ended up getting 6% of the popular vote.

Roosevelt's reforms were grouped together as “New Nationalism” and advocated a strong government; Wilson's “New Freedom” platform was based on a smaller government. Taft didn't use a fun name like Roosevelt and Wilson, and he came in third in the election anyway. In 1912, Roosevelt was shot by John Schrank on the campaign trail, but the bullet was sufficiently slowed down by his eyeglass case and his 50 page speech that he said:

Friends, I shall ask you to be as quiet as possible. I don't know whether you fully understand that I have just been shot; but it takes more than that to kill a Bull Moose. But fortunately I had my manuscript, so you see I was going to make a long speech, and there is a bullet — there is where the bullet went through — and it probably saved me from it going into my heart. The bullet is in me now, so that I cannot make a very long speech, but I will try my best.

The split Republican vote allowed Wilson to win the election. Taft only won 8 electoral votes, and the election was the first and only time since 1860 that 4 candidates cleared 5% of the vote.

Chapter 18. World War I

One day the great European War will come out of some damned foolish thing in the Balkans.

— Otto von Bismarck, 1888

There were many causes of World War I. Chief among these were militarism, imperialism, entangling alliances, and a great spirit of nationalism. Realize that at this point, the royals of Europe were all related to each other in one way or another, and that really helped create this complex web of relationships, obligations, and alliances. Europe was a powder keg — all that was left was to ignite it.

Background

Kaiser Wilhelm II

The last of the German Kaisers was **Wilhelm II**. Otto von Bismarck was in power under Wilhelm until he was dismissed in 1890 and replaced by **Leo von Caprivi**. He built a greater navy for the German empire, led by Admiral **Alfred von Tirpitz**, containing the new German submarines, the U-Boats. Helmut von Moltke the Younger led the General Staff of Wilhelm's army while he was in power.

When the Daily Telegraph interviewed the Kaiser, he called the English “mad, mad, mad as March hares”, which didn't do much for his popularity abroad. During the Moroccan Crisis, in which he sent the *Panther* into **Agadir**, Wilhelm called for the Algeiras Conference.

Death in Sarajevo

The **Black Hand** was a Serbian secret military society that was formed by Serbian army leaders. Led by Dragutin Dimitrijevic, codename “Apis”, the Hand aimed to unite Serbia and Montenegro.

Archduke Franz Ferdinand, nephew of Austro-Hungarian Emperor **Franz Joseph**,

decided to marry Countess Sophie von Chotek. In order to let this go through, he renounced any regal claims that his children held, thus allowing for Charles I of Austria to be crowned.

In 1914, Apis decided that Franz Ferdinand should be killed. The Archduke was visiting Sarajevo, and he was driving through town in a motorcade. Three young Serbs named **Gavrilo Princip**, Nedeljko Cabrinovic, and Trifko Grabez were put in position, impersonating customs officials, to blow him up, shoot him, etc. Cabrinovic failed his grenade attack. When Franz Ferdinand was mistakenly directed off the Appel Quay by the driver Leopold Lojka, Princip put two bullets into the car. The first went into the Archduke's neck, and the second hit the Duchess.

The assassination of Franz Ferdinand launched a crisis. Austria-Hungary issued the **July Ultimatum** against the Serbs, but they created it to be impossible to fulfill. The empire was looking for war, and they would have it.

On July 28, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. The next day, Russia mobilized against Austria-Hungary. Germany then declared war on Russia, Britain on Germany, and thus began the Great War.

War in Europe

Let's look at some of the important bits of military history of World War I.

A War on Two Fronts

The **Central Powers**, Germany and Austria-Hungary, were surrounded. They were forced to fight a land war on two fronts; France to the west, and Russia to the east. The Germans devised the **Schlieffen Plan**, in which they would quickly defeat the French and then continue the war against Russia. The plan was deployed by Helmut von Moltke the Younger, and originally planned to march through the Netherlands.

The man in charge of French forces at the start of the war was **Joseph Joffre**, a man who realized that this would be a different war than the ones France had fought previously, and dismissed numerous corps commanders and divisional commanders, replacing them with better wartime commanders such as Ferdinand Foch and Philippe Petain. The French deployment plan against the Schlieffen Plan was Plan XVII.

Battle of the Frontiers

France waged the **Battle of the Frontiers** across the eastern border of France. While the middle of the line was beaten back by German forces after attacks into Alsace-Lorraine, field commander Charles Lanrezac was forced to hold the Germans at the left flank with the aid of British Commander-in-Chief Sir **John French** (be careful with this name),

The Germans managed to break through the Franco-British defense, allowing them to take Liege and Namur and force their way into northern France. This would end up forcing the First Battle of the Marne.

On the way, the siege at Liege was taking so long that **Erich Ludendorff** took a small force with him, found his way to the front door of the fortress, knocked on the door, and demanded the French surrender. They did.

First Battle of the Marne

In 1914, the Schlieffen Plan was halted at the **First Battle of the Marne**. The French Sixth Division, under Philippe Petain, held off the Germans until 600 taxicabs commissioned by General Joseph Gallieni brought reinforcements to the battlefield, forcing the Germans to retreat. Other notable commanders included Louis Francet d'Esperey, whom Joffre had replaced Lanrezac with just prior, following the Battle of St. Quentin.

Race to the Sea

Historians these days seem to be cooling on the term **Race to the Sea**, since it implies that the outflanking effort which resulted in trenches being dug toward the Belgian coast would somehow result in something when they reached it. British and French forces aimed to push forward against the Germans, while the Germans simply wanted to defend the territory they had gained. As a result, German trenches were far better constructed and more intended for permanence.

Ypres

Five battles took place at **Ypres**, a city the British called "Wipers".

The first battle was part of the First Battle of Flanders in late 1914. The battle started following the failure of the Race to the Sea to accomplish anything useful, in terms of territorial gains. Subconflicts included the Battle of Langemarck and La Basse and Armentieres.

The Second Battle of Ypres was fought in April 1915. It notably included the first use of mass German poison gas attacks, in which chlorine was used in violation of the Hague Convention. The battle included conflicts at St. Julien and Kitcheners' Wood.

The **Third Battle of Ypres** is also known as the **Battle of Passchendaele**. During it, the ANZAC Corps took Broodseine Ridge and Polygon Wood, and the Canada Corps under Arthur Currie took Passchendaele Ridge. Other commanders included Douglas Haig and Robert Nivelle.

There were two other battles at Ypres.

Verdun

In 1916, the German Fifth Army attacked near **Verdun**, on the Meuse River, attempting to capture a critical point to take the city. The French commander was the defense-minded **Philippe Petain**, who ordered that the French were not to withdraw. Robert Nivelle said that “They shall not pass!”, but Petain is often credited with the quote as well.

General **Erich von Falkenhayn**, Chief of Staff of the Armed Forces of Germany, aimed to “bleed France white” at Verdun, having been stopped at the Marne. Germans went into battle with grenades, not rifles. During the battle, La Voie Sacree, the Sacred Way, was used to channel supplies and reinforcements. Commanders included Emile Driant (killed), Fernand de Langle de Cary (removed), and Charles Mangin, who captured Fort Vaux and Douaumont. Important focuses of fighting included Mort-Homme and Cote 304. Victory at the battle resulted in Petain being hailed as “the Lion of Verdun” and promoted out of there.

The Somme Offensive

The **Battle of the Somme** (1916) was meant to relieve some of the pressure placed on the Allies at Verdun. The Allies were led by Ferdinand Foch and Douglas Haig, and the offensive was one of the bloodiest battles of the war. On the first day, 60,000 British troops were killed.

Right before Zero Hour, a huge mine exploded under Hawthorn Ridge Redoubt, as part of a huge preliminary attack, beginning the battle. Fighting locations included High Wood, during the Battle of Bazentin Ridge, and subconflicts included the Battle of Albert. The first tanks were placed into combat, and the British Mark I tore through barbed wire.

After the stalemate at the Somme, the German army retreated to the **Hindenburg Line**, a network set up to provide defensive positions. One section of the line was called the Siegfried Line.

Gallipoli

The **Gallipoli Campaign**, aka the Dardanelles Campaign, took place on the Gallipoli peninsula in the Ottoman Empire. The aim of the campaign was to open a path to Constantinople via the peninsula. The offensive was supported by **Winston Churchill**, First Lord of the Admiralty, and HH Asquith, the Prime Minister.

The first landing of Gallipoli is now marked by ANZAC day (Australian and New Zealand Army Corps). ANZAC took heavy casualties during the campaign. The Allies fought at Salonika, and were unable to get reinforcements through. The largest battle was fought at Suvla Bay, during the August Offensive of the campaign, where Frederick Stopford was stopped by Otto Liman von Sanders. Following the August Offensive, Charles Monro was appointed as a replacement for Ian Hamilton. Other notable locations included Krithia,

Scimitar Hill, and Chocolate Hill.

The failure of the Gallipoli campaign led to the resignation of Churchill as First Lord of the Admiralty, and Asquith fell into disfavor, paving the way for the rise of David Lloyd George in Britain.

Jutland

The important naval battle that comes up here is the **Battle of Jutland**, between steel Dreadnought battleships. The battle was fought in the North Sea, near Denmark, and it was the only full scale battleship battle in the war. The Allied Grand Fleet was commanded by **Admiral John Jellicoe**, and the Central High Seas Fleet was under German Vice-Admiral Reinhard Scheer.

Scheer sank the *Indefatigable* and the *Queen Mary* during the battle. Scouting forces were led by David Beatty and Franz von Hipper, and phases of the battle included a “run to the south” and a “run to the north”. During a night fighting part of the battle, there were limited radio capabilities.

The Hundred Days Offensive

The **Hundred Days Offensive** would ultimately cause the end of the war. The offensive began in August 1918 with the **Battle of Amiens**, during which Allied forces put together huge advances; Erich Ludendorff referred to the first day of the battle as “the black day of the German Army”. Troops under Henry Rawlinson silenced the artilleries and used fake radio messages to confuse the Germans. The Hundred Days Offensive also allowed the Allies to break the Hindenburg Line.

American Involvement

We haven’t really talked about the American role in the war yet. First, however, we need some background.

Woodrow Wilson

President of Princeton University prior to running for public office, **Woodrow Wilson** was the first Democrat since Andrew Jackson to win two consecutive terms. Wilson had written *A History of the American People* and he advocated a “New Freedom”.

His election had been managed by William McCombs, and he was supported by William Jennings Bryan. Wilson was largely elected because of the fact that Teddy Roosevelt’s Bull Moose Party split the Democratic vote with Taft’s Democratic party.

While in office, Wilson would pass many important bills. Among these were the Underwood Tariff, the Clayton Anti-Trust Act, and the Federal Reserve Act (Glass-Owen

Act). Also notable were the creation of the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) and the passage of the Federal Farm Loan Act.

Wilson was a big proponent of neutrality in the opening phases of the Great War. In 1916, he won reelection over Charles Evans Hughes under the slogan “He kept us out of war!”

Joining the War

RMS **Lusitania** was a British ocean liner owned by the Cunard line. On May 7, 1915, a German U-boat torpedoed the ship, sinking it. The Germans thought that there were munitions on the boat, but it was only admitted that the ship was carrying cartridges. There were Americans on the ship, and William Jennings Bryan resigned following the event — Robert Lansing took over as Secretary of State.

In 1917, German Foreign Secretary Zimmerman sent a message to Heinrich von Eckardt. This **Zimmerman Telegram** was intercepted by British Intelligence and decoded at Room 40. The message called for Mexico to attack the US to take back territories like New Mexico and Texas. After the British forwarded the message to Woodrow Wilson, the American people were outraged. The note was an important catalyst in sending the US into war.

In April 1917, Wilson went before Congress and asked Congress to declare war, stating that it would make “the world safe for democracy”. In order to garner support for US involvement in the war, Wilson formed the Creel committee, a group of “Four Minute Men” who gave propaganda speeches.

Leading the American Expeditionary Force into WWI was General of the Armies **John “Black Jack” Pershing**. Pershing had, as previously mentioned, been sent after Pancho Villa near the Mexican Border.

Paris Peace Conference

After the war, leaders from the world gathered in France to create terms of peace. Among these were the “Big Four”: David Lloyd George (UK), Georges Clemenceau (France), Woodrow Wilson (USA), and Vittorio Orlando (Italy). Prior to the conference, Wilson created his Fourteen Points; notably, the list contained the creation of a League of Nations to prevent this sort of thing from happening again. David Lloyd George remarked on returning from the conference that it went “not bad, considering I was sitting between Jesus Christ [Wilson] and Napoleon [Clemenceau]”. Notably, [Ho Chi Minh](#) went to the Peace Conference and made a case for civil rights for Vietnamese people, but people didn’t listen to him.

The **Treaty of Versailles** was drafted out of the Paris Peace Conference. It was a fairly controversial treaty, and it set up huge war reparations that Germany would have to pay. China didn’t want to sign because Shandong was transferred to Japan. John Maynard

Keynes wrote *The Economic Consequences of the Peace*, discussing how it was a bad treaty. Article 10 of the treaty specified the creation of the League of Nations.

Interestingly, Wilson was unable to get the treaty through Congress at home, facing resistance from people like Henry Cabot Lodge against the League of Nations itself (Wilson's brainchild).

Chapter 19. Boom and Bust

The worst is over without a doubt.

— Secretary of Labor James Davis, June 19, 1930

Roaring Twenties

1920's Republicans

Warren G. Harding

In 1920, **Warren G. Harding** was elected to the Presidency, promising a “return to normalcy” following the First World War. Harding had defeated Leonard Wood to get the Republican nomination, which he’d won in a “smoke-filled room” thanks to his campaign manager Harry Daugherty; he proceeded to use a front-porch campaign to win the general election. Notably, Harding was the first Senator to be elected to president. His Vice President was Calvin Coolidge, and his closest advisors were called the “Ohio Gang”. While Harding was president, 10,000 West Virginia mine workers went on strike, and they fought with the Logan Defenders in the **Battle of Blair Mountain**.

Harding established the General Accounting Office, and he appointed William Howard Taft and Edward Sanford to the Supreme Court. He also signed the Budget and Accounting Act and Sheppard-Towney Act.

Harding’s administration was also part of the **Teapot Dome** scandal. The scandal centered around Harding’s Interior Secretary **Albert Fall**. Fall was favored by companies such as Pan American Petroleum to give rights to oil fields such as Elk Hills. Robert La Follette ordered investigation of the scandal, and Thomas Walsh headed the investigation, asking for the resignation of Secretary of the Navy Edwin Denby. The Supreme Court heard the case *McGrain v. Daugherty*, and Edward Doheny was one of the others implicated in the investigation.

Calvin Coolidge

When Harding died in office, **Calvin Coolidge** became president. While governor of Massachusetts, Coolidge had put down a police trike in Boston, calling on the militia. He was called “Silent Cal”, known for his laconic wit. Coolidge signed the Indian Citizenship Act into law, and his Secretary of State Frank Kellogg signed the **Kellogg-Briand Pact**, prohibiting the use of war to resolve disputes (it didn’t work very well). Coolidge was reelected to office over Robert La Follette and John W. Davis, and his running mate was Charles Dawes. He appointed J. Edgar Hoover head of the FBI. He then declined renomination, saying “I do not choose to run”.

Prohibition

In the early 20th century, a good number of people were following the **temperance movement**. People like Carrie Nation had been opposing alcohol use for some time, enforcing beliefs with a hatchet. The Women’s Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) was founded by Frances Willard to promote prohibition of alcohol. The Anti-Saloon League also supported banning alcohol.

In 1920, the “Noble Experiment” of Prohibition was put into effect by the **18th Amendment**. The **Volstead Act** enforced Prohibition, setting the law that actually banned alcohol itself. Prohibition would remain in effect until 1933 until it was repealed by the **21st Amendment**.

Gangs and Gangsters

The start of Prohibition led to the rise of all sorts of unsavory people. Chief among these was **Al Capone**, a gangster on the south side of Chicago. At one point, Capone had been slashed in the face while working for Frankie Yale in the Harvard Inn, leading to his nickname: “Scarface”. When William Emmett Dever forced Capone out of the city, Capone made a deal with mayor Big Bill Thompson, and got himself a new headquarters at the Lexington Hotel.

At the **St. Valentine’s Day Massacre** in 1929, Capone’s agents attacked North Side Gang members who worked for Bugs Moran. The victims had been lured to the SMC Cartage Co. building for a fake shipment of whiskey. Six of Moran’s men were killed, but Moran lived. After the massacre, there was an attack on the Barker compound.

Capone was targeted by the Department of Justice’s Prohibition Bureau. The bureau was led by **Eliot Ness**, who formed the **Untouchables** in Chicago to go after gangsters. Capone was eventually sent to prison for tax evasion, based on precedent set in *United States v. Sullivan*.

Great Depression

Hoover's Crash

Herbert Hoover was the last president of the roaring twenties. Born in Iowa (the first President who hailed from west of the Mississippi), he'd made his fortune directing Australia's Consolidated Zinc Inc. Hoover won the election of 1928 by defeating Al Smith, promising "a chicken in every pot and a car in every garage". Hoover signed the Norris-LaGuardia act, ending "yellow-dog" labor contracts that prevented employees from unionizing.

On October 29, 1929, **Black Tuesday**, the New York Stock Exchange crashed, starting the Great Depression. Hoover's worst mistake was signing the **Smoot-Hawley Tariff** in 1930, claiming that "Prosperity is just around the corner". He also created the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to try to stabilize the economy.

The **Bonus Army** was a group of World War I veterans, led by Walter Waters, that traveled to Washington to force payment of their insurance certificates. Others that supported the army included Evelyn McLean and General Pelham Glassford. They camped out in Anacostia Flats, in a collection of tents some described as an "immense hobo jungle". Hoover sent Douglas MacArthur to break up the army. MacArthur, of course, did this using artillery and tear gas, but Hoover never reprimanded him for it.

Of course, Hoover's failure to deal with the situation correctly led to people not to like him very much. Small shantytowns called "Hoovervilles" sprung up all over the place. As the Depression grew worse, feelings toward Hoover were summed up by a poem:

Hoover is my Shepherd, I am in want,
He maketh me to lie down on park benches,
He leadeth me by still factories,
He restoreth my doubt in the Republican Party.
He guided me in the path of the Unemployed for his party's sake,
Yea, though I walk through the alley of soup kitchens, I am hungry.
I do not fear evil, for thou art against me;
Thy Cabinet and thy Senate, they do discomfort me;
Thou didst prepare a reduction in my wages;
In the presence of my creditors thou anointed my income with
taxes,
So my expenses overrunneth my income.
Surely poverty and hard times will follow me
All the days of the Republican administration.

And I shall dwell in a rented house forever.
Amen.

— E.J. Sullivan, The 1932nd Psalm

A New Deal

The election of 1932 wasn't great for Herbert Hoover. He lost all but six states to the Democratic candidate, **Franklin Delano Roosevelt**. FDR's running mate was John Nance Garner.

Shortly after the election, Giuseppe Zangara shot at Roosevelt while he was meeting with Chicago mayor Anton Cermak. Zangara missed because he was standing on a wobbly chair, killing Cermak but leaving Roosevelt unscathed.

Roosevelt proposed a **New Deal** to help get the country through the Depression. An important piece of New Deal legislation was the **National Industrial Recovery Act** (NIRA), which would set up the PWA and the NRA (see below). *Schechter v. US* ruled the NIRA unconstitutional. The New Deal was composed of many different projects, most of which have a 3 letter acronym associated with them.

NRA

The NRA was symbolized by a Blue Eagle with the words "We Do Our Part". It allowed a "blanket code" and was originally directed by General Hugh S. Johnson. The NRA also regulated business practices and set up "codes of fair competition". Clarence Darrow and the FTC would investigate the NRA for monopolistic practices.

WPA

The Works Progress Administration, or Works Project Administration, was a federal agency that employed people to carry out public projects. It was run by Harry Hopkins, and employed over 8.5 million people. It was preceded by the FERA.

CCC

The Civilian Conservation Corps was a program that employed and trained younger men. The CCC planted millions of trees and did outdoor work projects.

TVA

The Tennessee Valley Authority was a government entity that provided power to the Tennessee Valley. The first chairman of the TVA was **David Lilienthal**, who also served on the Atomic Energy Commission. It used the Wilson Dam and the Tellico Dam, and was ruled to be legal in *Ashwander v. TVA*. Reagan would eventually criticize the TVA in "A Time for Choosing", and Barry Goldwater said that he would sell it "for a dollar".

In an attempt to improve the chances of New Deal legislation winning in the Supreme

Court, FDR tried **court packing**. He wanted to add extra justices and fundamentally change the makeup of the court. The court packing plan also called for a ten year term limit and mandatory retirement of justices. The conservative justices were called the “Four Horsemen”, and the liberal justices were the “Three Musketeers”. On “White Monday”, Owen Roberts changed his mind on a Washington state minimum wage case, tipping the court to a 5–4 ruling. Now that Roberts was considered to be on the Democratic side, the change of opinion is called “the switch in time that saved nine”.

Another piece of important New Deal era legislation is the **National Labor Relations Act**, or Wagner Act. It set up the National Labor Relations Board and was quite pro-union. However, the act eventually was gutted by the later Taft-Hartley Act, passed over Truman’s veto, which allowed states to pass right-to-work laws and generally greatly reducing the power of unions.

Chapter 20. Interwar Europe

Fascism is a religion. The twentieth century will be known in history as the century of Fascism.

— Benito Mussolini

Fascism is capitalism in decay.

— Vladimir Lenin

From Tsar to Stalin

Seeds of Revolution

By 1917, the Russian people were getting tired of the mediocre leadership. They didn't trust Rasputin, food was scarce, people were dying in the war, and the tsar was losing support. In late February of 1917, strikes began occurring, and soon much of the labor force of St. Petersburg were no longer working. Nicholas ordered the Duma to disband, and he ordered his troops to shoot people in the street, triggering the **February Revolution**. The revolution led to Nicholas's abdication, and a new provisional government took over.

The provisional government was initially led by Prince Georgy Lvov, who coordinated with the Petrograd (St. Petersburg) Soviet in the "Dual Power".

Rise of the Bolsheviks

Vladimir Lenin had fled to western Europe after multiple encounters with the law in Russia. He created the newspaper *Iskra*, an attempt to spread revolutionary ideals among those whom it would benefit most. He had been active in the 1905 revolution, after which he had joined *New Life*, a radical newspaper. In April 1917, he took a train from Zurich back to Finland Station in St. Petersburg. On the way, he wrote his "April Theses" in an attempt to start undermining the provisional government.

During the **July Days**, Lenin tried to organize protests against the government, but he failed. However, his failure still had the effect of getting Prince Lvov out of power and putting the government in the hands of **Alexander Kerensky**, the Socialist Revolutionary minister, while Lenin himself ran off to Finland.

Kerensky's government was a bit more progressive than Lvov's. He instituted freedom of speech, but Lenin's **Bolsheviks** weren't really happy with that either. During Kerensky's government, the Kornilov Affair attempted to overthrow Kerensky. Lavr Kornilov failed, and Kerensky removed him as commander-in-chief. It's worth noting that Kornilov had originally inherited the post from Aleksey Brusilov (the general who led the Brusilov Offensive in World War I).

The Bolsheviks under Trotsky and Lenin decided to start the **October Revolution** in late 1917. Under the slogan "Peace, Land, Bread", the Bolsheviks aimed to supplant Kerensky. The revolution began when a blank shot from the cruiser *Aurora* signaled an assault on the Winter Palace. The Women's Battalion of Death was ordered to guard the Winter Palace from the revolutionaries. The tsar and his family were sent to Yekaterinburg and subsequently executed. Notably, John Reed wrote *Ten Days That Shook the World* about the revolution.

Lenin and Trotsky

Now that Lenin was in charge, he wanted out of the quagmire that the war had placed the country in. He sent **Leon Trotsky** to negotiate the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** with the Germans. Richard von Kuhlmann was the German representative at the talks. The Russians gave up a good chunk of western Russia to the Germans, and the treaty also provided for a new independent Democratic Republic of Armenia. The districts of Kars, Bactum, and Erdehan were ceded back to the Ottomans. However, the treaty would eventually be nullified by the Treaty of Rapallo anyway.

Lenin instituted the **New Economic Policy** (NEP), which taxed farmers following the Kronstadt Rebellion. His Red Army was led by his good friend Trotsky, having successfully dealt with the moderate Mensheviks. During this period of war communism, all industry and land was nationalized, and the rich peasants, **kulaks**, benefited quite a bit.

Stalin's Soviet Union

Lenin was followed as Soviet Premier by **Joseph Stalin**. At this point, Trotsky had been exiled to Mexico to escape his enemies, so Stalin ordered him killed; Trotsky ended up with an ice-axe in his skull, but he didn't die for a day after the attack.

In 1929, Stalin proposed the first **Five Year Plan**. He did away with Lenin's NEP and controlled all economic activity through the collectivization of agriculture. Stalin forced a million kulaks off of their land, leading to some kulaks killing their own livestock in defiance; the event is sometimes called the "liquidation" of the kulaks. Russia, once the

poorest power of Europe, quickly industrialized.

Stalin also ordered the NKVD, a law enforcement agency led by Lavrenti Beria, to carry out the **Great Purges**. During the **Moscow show trials** following the assassination of **Sergey Kirov**, Andrei Vyshinsky targeted Old Bolsheviks and other people Stalin didn't like, as Stalin consolidated his power. After the Trial of the Sixteen, **Grigory Zinoviev** was notably executed; he had allegedly sent a letter to the British Communist party, costing Ramsay Macdonald a 1924 British election. At one point during WWII, Stalin didn't agree to exchange prisoner Friedrich Paulus for his own son. He invented the "Doctor's Plot" but prosecution stopped when he eventually died. The lawmaking body of the Soviet Union was called the politburo.

Nazism in Germany

Weimar Republic

Germany had been utterly destroyed by the fallout of World War I. The military was decimated, the country was going broke paying war reparations, and the Germans had lost quite a bit of territory, both within and outside of Europe.

Following the abdication of the Kaiser, the once great German empire became the **Weimar Republic**, a collection of 19 states governed by a leadership that was falling apart as soon as it took power. Early in the Republic's rule, the Spartacists (Spartacus Revolt) tried to overthrow it. The first president of the Weimar Republic was **Friedrich Ebert** of the Social Democrats (SPD), but he was forced out of Berlin during the **Kapp Putsch**. When Ebert was killed in 1925, **Paul von Hindenburg** (that general during World War I) took office.

Hindenburg would defeat Communist Ernst Thälmann in elections twice. The "camarilla" of four advisors included his son Oscar. He appointed Franz von Papen to the chancellorship, and Hindenburg himself would hold office as President until 1935.

The Rise of Hitler

Adolf Hitler was an Austrian-born artist. Unfortunately, the Vienna Academy of Fine Arts rejected him multiple times due to his "unfitness for painting". As a result, when World War I broke out, Hitler volunteered to serve in the army. He was wounded at the Somme and was given the Iron Cross. After the war, Hitler joined the DAP (German Worker's Party), which soon changed its name to the NSDAP (National Socialist German Worker's Party), or Nazi Party. Hitler managed to gain a decent following on account of his vitriolic speeches against his enemies.

At the 1923 **Beer Hall Putsch**, Hitler, aided by Erich von Ludendorff, attempted a coup against the Weimar government. He wanted to emulate Mussolini's March on Rome the

previous year and take power. Hitler and his SA stormed a beer hall in Munich, interrupting Gustav Ritter von Kahr, who had been placed in power along with Hans Ritter von Seisser and Otto von Lossow. Hitler took the three men into a back room with a gun and claimed that he had four bullets, one for each of them and one for himself, if they did not cooperate with him. During the putsch, sixteen demonstrators and three policemen were killed. Hitler and Rudolf Hess were sentenced to five years in Landsberg Prison, while Ludendorff was acquitted.

While in prison, Hitler wrote *Mein Kampf* (*My Struggle*), laying out his plans for changing Germany. When he got out of prison, the NSDAP was banned in Bavaria, but he got the ban lifted. Then, the US stock market crashed. Hitler took full advantage of the shock to the German economy and got the NSDAP over 100 seats in the Reichstag. In 1932, he ran against Hindenburg in the presidential election, and came in second. This rise to prominence made powerful people in Germany urge Hindenburg to appoint Hitler as the new chancellor, which Hindenburg reluctantly agreed to. Hitler quickly started trying to get Hindenburg to dissolve the Reichstag.

In 1933, the Reichstag was set on fire. The Nazis blamed a communist plot, but historians disagree on who actually set the fire. Some claim that the communist Dutchman Marinus van der Lubbe set the fire, and some Bulgarians were also put on trial for it: Blagoy Popov, Vasil Tanev, and Georgi Dimitrov. Hitler then convinced Hindenburg to issue the Reichstag Fire Decree, repealing many human rights, and forcing many communists into concentration camps.

The Nazis didn't get a majority in the elections of 1933, but Hitler still got enough votes to pass the Enabling Act. He got full legislating power, and by 1934 he decided to get rid of his enemies. Franz von Papen's recent speech at Marburg University antagonized Hitler. In the **Night of the Long Knives** (codename Operation Hummingbird), Hitler targeted **Ernst Rohm**, Kurt von Schleicher, and Gustav von Kahr, among others. Rohm had been the Chief of Staff of the SA, but Hitler had been disagreeing with Rohm lately.

Third Reich

A few days later, Hindenburg died, and Hitler became the new head of state — Fuhrer and Chancellor of Germany. Let's look at some of the high ranking people in Hitler's new Third Reich.

Heinrich Himmler was the new commander of the SS and Gestapo, as well as supervisor of the new concentration camps. He was in charge of purging the SA in 1934, and he set up an assassination attempt on Albert Speer.

Hermann Goering was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Luftwaffe (Air Force) in 1935, having been an ace fighter pilot in World War I. In fact, he had led the fighter wing that had once been commanded by Manfred von Richthofen, the Red Baron, and he had won the Blue Max award.

Joseph Goebbels was Hitler's Rich Minister of Propaganda. He founded a newspaper called *The Assault* and he was appointed General Plenipotentiary for Total War. Goebbels also confiscated what he called "degenerate art" and helped deport Jews from Berlin.

Hitler's regime attacked Jews in Germany, treating them as subhuman and boycotting their businesses. In 1933, the Nazis established their first concentration camp at **Dachau** in Bavaria, and they created the Nuremberg Laws in 1935 to ban Jews from holding important positions.

In 1938, Hershel Greenspan killed the Third Secretary Ernst vom Rath. Goebbels said that Greenspan was part of a huge Jewish conspiracy and called for an attack on Jewish homes and synagogues. The many broken windows during the November attack led the night to be called "The Night of the Broken Glass", or **Kristallnacht**.

Fascist Italy

In the early 1920s, Italy wasn't having a great time. The country had high unemployment, was politically unstable, and the economy was falling apart. The period was called the *Biennio Rosso*, or Red Biennium, and anarchists tried to take power in a few places.

Into this context of rife instability emerged the National Fascist Party. Led by **Benito Mussolini** and his **Blackshirts**, Mussolini and the Fascists aimed to bring down the current government. In October 1922, Mussolini demanded power. When the government didn't immediately give it to him, he took his Blackshirts and led a 30,000 man **March on Rome** to oust Prime Minister Luigi Facta. Mussolini took power and he passed the Acerbo Law, resulting in the Fascists taking control of Parliament.

By 1926, Mussolini had essentially taken full power over the country, making himself only directly responsible to King Victor Emmanuel III. In 1928, all political parties were outlawed and the Fascists took complete control.

Mussolini managed to come to an agreement with the Catholic Church. He signed the Lateran Accord of 1929 with Pope Pius XI, recognizing the pope as the sovereign of Vatican City, an independent state. Pietro Gasparri, a cardinal, signed the treaty and resolved the so-called "Roman Question".

Mussolini's goal was to make Italy a great European power again, like in the days of Ancient Rome. He ordered the bombing and capture of Corfu after General Enrico Tellini was assassinated. In 1935, Mussolini took it upon himself to invade Ethiopia. This Second Italo-Abyssinian war resulted in France and Britain no longer trusting him, and he took Italy out of the League of Nations.

Spanish Civil War

By the 1930s, Spanish politics were quite polarized, like in a few other places on the continent. In 1936, the leftist Popular Front was formed, and they were elected into power in government. However, more radical groups like the CNT and FAI, as well as the right-wing **Falange** (led by Primo de Rivera) and Carlists opposed them. As militias formed and grew, and violence spread, a civil war broke out.

In July 1936, **Francisco Franco**, a generalissimo in the colonial army, brought a force from Morocco over to Spain, while General Emilio Mola moved in from Navarre. Franco had earlier made a name for himself by defeating Abd el-Krim in the Rif War, during which he had led the Foreign Legion. He merged the Falange and Carlist factions into the Nationalist armies. Franco's **Nationalists** took much of south and western Spain by use of the Army of Africa. The Nationalists were aided fairly heavily by Hitler's Germany and Mussolini's Italy, and the **Republicans** were reinforced by some volunteers from the USSR. The Nationalists were led by Franco, Mola, and Jose Sanjurjo. In late 1936, NKVD officer Alexander Orlov notably took a lot of gold from the Spanish treasury in Madrid, and transported it back to the Soviet Union.

By November 1936, the Nationalists were assaulting Madrid. Mola told a journalist that while his four columns marched on the city, a "fifth column" inside the city undermined the Republicans from within. However, the Republicans held Madrid, and managed to also keep Jarama and Guadalajara. In April 1937, the Nationalists initiated Operation Rügen, bombing **Guernica** using the Luftwaffe's Condor Legion. The infamous bombing would inspire Pablo Picasso's well-known painting.

The final decisive defeat of the Republicans came at the Battle of the Ebro in 1939. When the Republicans failed to turn the tide back in their favor, they retreated. Barcelona was taken by Nationalists, and the war was over.

Mola and Sanjurjo both died in plane crashes later in the war. Franco would rule Spain until his death in 1975. He forced prisoners to make a mausoleum called The Valley of the Fallen, and he put his enemies in the Carabanchel Prison during the White Terror. Spain's political parties, excepting Falange, were banned. Labor unions were outlawed, except for one, resulting in the Vertical Syndicate. Spain began to try and take back Gibraltar from UK rule. Although Spain would maintain neutrality in World War II, Franco would allow his Blue Division to fight for the Nazis.

Chapter 21. World War II

I hate war as only a soldier who has lived it can, only as one who has seen its brutality, its futility, its stupidity.

— Dwight D. Eisenhower

Expansionism Around the World

Germany's *Lebensraum*

The chancellor of Austria from 1932 to 1934 was **Engelbert Dollfuss**. When he was killed by Nazis, he was replaced by **Kurt von Schuschnigg**. Both Dollfuss and Schuschnigg tried to stop Hitler from taking Austria and bringing it into Germany, an annexation called **Anschluss**. Hitler justified the expansionism by stating that Germany needed *Lebensraum*, “living space”. When Schuschnigg insisted on a referendum being passed, he was replaced by **Arthur Seyss-Inquart**, who was placed into the governorship of the new state of Ostmark. Hitler annexed Austria in 1938, and took down Wilhelm Miklas, president of Austria.

A few months after the Anschluss, Hitler decided he wanted the **Sudetenland**, a region in Northwestern Czechoslovakia. At the time, Konrad Henlein was leading a separatist movement in the Sudetenland. A conference was called in Munich, with Hitler, British Prime Minister **Neville Chamberlain**, and French Prime Minister Edouard Daladier. The Munich Pact resulted in appeasement for Hitler, and Chamberlain went home declaring “peace for our time”. This policy of appeasement was condemned by “Cato” in the book *Guilty Men*.

In May 1939, German and Italian foreign ministers Joachim von Ribbentropp and Galeazzo Ciano signed an alliance. The original name for it was the Pact of Blood, but Mussolini decided that it would be better received if it was instead called the **Pact of Steel**. The pact solidified the main alliance that would make up the **Axis Powers**.

Japanese Aggression

To trace the roots of the war in the Pacific, let's go back a bit to Japan's invasion of Manchuria back in 1931. In September 1931, the Kwantung Army of the Empire of Japan, led by Kanji Ishiwara, invaded Manchuria, in response to the Mukden Incident (a staged bombing to provide pretext for invasion). This prompted the creation of the **Manchukuo** puppet state under **Pu Yi**, the last Chinese emperor.

Roosevelt's Secretary of War **Henry Stimson** issued the Stimson Doctrine, outlining how the US would deal with Manchukuo. Manchukuo was also home to **Unit 731**, a covert biological warfare division of the Japanese Army, which conducted some of the most heinous war crimes of the war, experimenting on humans, poisoning water, and killing thousands of people. Unit 731 and its affiliates were known as the Epidemic Prevention and Water Purification Department.

Japan joined the Anti-Comintern Pact in 1936, and in 1940, it joined Germany and Italy to form the Axis Powers. At this point, the emperor **Hirohito** was talking about the revival of *hakko ichiu*, the God-given right of Japan's emperor to unite and rule the world. The USSR fought Japan at the Battle of Lake Khasan (1938) and the **Battle of Khalkhin Gol** (1939), part of the Soviet-Japanese Border Wars over the definition of Manchukuo. Notably, Georgy Zhukov fought at Khalkhin Gol, assisting Grigory Shtern in defending Baintsagan Hill. We'll see more of Zhukov in the Eastern Front in Europe. After the battles, the Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact was signed in 1941.

During Japanese occupation of Nanking, they perpetrated the **Rape of Nanking**. Between December 1937 and January 1938 (during the Second Sino-Japanese War), over 300,000 civilians were killed by Japanese occupying forces. During the massacre, the Nazi John Rabe helped create a safety zone where he sheltered civilians, while the missionary John Magee took lots of pictures and documented the event. Toshaki Mukai won a sword contest in which the objective was to kill a hundred people. The event was so horrific that many Japanese textbooks still omit it.

Hideki Tojo was the Prime Minister of Japan, and he believed that war with the US would be inevitable. He convinced Hirohito to allow an attack on America, the UK, and the Netherlands. Others, such as Admiral **Yamamoto Isoroku**, disagreed. Yamamoto claimed that Japan wouldn't last in a prolonged war against the Americans.

Blitzkrieg

Invading Poland

On August 23, 1939, Soviet minister **Vyacheslav Molotov** and Joachim von Ribbentrop signed the **Nazi-Soviet Pact**, also called the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact. The treaty was formally a non-aggression agreement between Hitler and Stalin, but it also set up government and partition of territory in Eastern Europe, notably splitting up Poland

preemptively.

On August 31, the Nazis set up a false flag operation, posing as Poles and staging an attack on a German radio station. The Germans then used this Gleiwitz Incident, part of the **Operation Himmler** propaganda campaign, as a reason to invade Poland. The Soviet Union invaded shortly thereafter, having come to an agreement with Japan as well. The Polish, facing a war on two fronts, retreated to Romania, and Poland was occupied. The Germans then annexed western Poland and the Free City of Danzig.

The invasion of Poland prompted France, Great Britain, and the rest of the Commonwealth to declare war on Germany. Hitler tried to make peace with the UK and France, saying that they shouldn't interfere with Poland, but Chamberlain responded that "Past experience has shown that no reliance can be placed upon the promises of the present German Government." As a result, Hitler ordered an attack on France, which would commence in the spring of 1940.

Winter War

In November 1939, the USSR invaded Finland because the Finns didn't give the Russians the land they wanted. The USSR probably wanted to conquer Finland in its entirety, seeing how it had three times as many soldiers, thirty times as many planes, and 100 times more tanks than Finland. Even with such staggeringly uneven odds, the Finns were able to hold off the Soviets for months. This was largely due to mediocre leadership in the Red Army, following Stalin killing or imprisoning all the good generals.

The war started when the village of Manila was shelled, probably by the Russians. The Finns fought using skis and Molotov cocktails, which proved effective against Soviet tanks. A Finnish marksman named Simo Hayha, aka the "White Death", killed at least 505 men, the highest number of sniper kills in any major war. The Russians' advance to Oulo was stopped by the Finns at the battle of Suomussalmi.

Under the leadership of Semyon Timoshenko and Kirill Meretskov, the Russians were eventually able to push through the Mannerheim Line, a Finnish defense system constructed between Taipale and the Gulf of Finland. They entered the Isthmus of Karelia, and the war was ended by the Moscow Peace Treaty.

In June 1940, the USSR annexed the Baltic states of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, as well as Bessarabia, Northern Bukovina, and Hertza.

Pre-War Britain and France

Winston Churchill had been First Lord of the Admiralty in World War I, and when this new World War broke out, he was reappointed to the post, serving in Chamberlain's War Cabinet. During the "Phony War" (while the USSR was fighting Finland), Churchill was quite prominent. It quickly became apparent that nobody

had any faith in Chamberlain's handling of the war, so he resigned and recommended Churchill to George VI as the new prime minister.

The French had set up a defensive position in eastern France that they called the **Maginot Line**. The line contained a full underground rail network and air conditioned chambers and it was very heavily fortified.

Germany Moves West

Invasion of France

The Germans decided that the Maginot Line wasn't worth attacking, because it was quite difficult to breach. So, they decided to go around it. In a strategy known as the **Manstein Plan**, the Germans attacked France via Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg. The German attack through the **Ardennes** proved far more effective than Allied leaders had thought it would be. The French had prepared their Dyle Plan without anticipating this offensive route. A large number of Allied forces were quickly encircled and beaten. In June, Italy attacked France, declaring war on the Allies. By June 14, Paris was occupied, and France quickly surrendered to the German and Italians. During the Battle of France, Churchill gave his "We shall fight on the beaches speech":

Even though large tracts of Europe and many old and famous States have fallen or may fall into the grip of the Gestapo and all the odious apparatus of Nazi rule, **we shall not flag or fail. We shall go on to the end. We shall fight in France, we shall fight on the seas and oceans, we shall fight with growing confidence and growing strength in the air, we shall defend our island, whatever the cost may be. We shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender**, and if, which I do not for a moment believe, this island or a large part of it were subjugated and starving, then our Empire beyond the seas, armed and guarded by the British Fleet, would carry on the struggle, until, in God's good time, the New World, with all its power and might, steps forth to the rescue and the liberation of the old.

France was occupied by Axis forces, and the authoritarian **Vichy France** was established, ruled by **Philippe Petain** and **Pierre Laval**. The Vichy 80 were a notable group of parliamentarians who voted against the establishment of the new state. Vichy France supplanted the Third Republic, governing under the motto of "Work, Family, Fatherland". The Vichy regime colluded with the Nazis, although it did officially remain neutral. In fact, during the Vel d'Hiv roundup, many Jews were sent to the **Drancy Internment Camp**, just northeast of Paris.

The French Resistance also formed under Charles de Gaulle, who had led the Free French. De Gaulle gave the **Appeal of June 18**, a radio broadcast which originated the Resistance.

Battle of Britain

After offering peace to Britain and getting rejected again, Hitler launched an air campaign against the UK. Churchill commented on the coming battle in his “finest hour speech”:

What General Weygand has called the Battle of France is over; the Battle of Britain is about to begin. Upon this battle depends the survival of Christian civilization. Upon it depends our own British life, and the long continuity of our institutions and our Empire. The whole fury and might of the enemy must very soon be turned on us. Hitler knows that he will have to break us in this island or lose the war. If we can stand up to him, all Europe may be freed and the life of the world may move forward into broad, sunlit uplands. But if we fail, then the whole world, including the United States, including all that we have known and cared for, will sink into the abyss of a new dark age made more sinister, and perhaps more protracted, by the lights of perverted science. Let us therefore brace ourselves to our duties, and so bear ourselves, that if the British Empire and its Commonwealth last for a thousand years, men will still say: **This was their finest hour.**

Hitler's Luftwaffe began battling the Royal Air Force for superiority in the skies over the island. The British were greatly aided by the new radar systems that they had developed, and the fact that Goering was so focused on bombing London gave the British a strategic edge. The Germans ramped up their attack on Adlertag, or “Eagle Day”. Churchill ended up firing the commander who was in charge of the battle, Hugh Dowding. The German end goal was to launch **Operation Sea Lion**, which involved taking the English Channel and launching a full scale invasion of Britain. However, they weren't successful enough during the Battle of Britain to carry it out, and Operation Sea Lion was indefinitely postponed. Churchill had this to say in the aftermath of the Battle of Britain:

The gratitude of every home in our Island, in our Empire, and indeed throughout the world, except in the abodes of the guilty, goes out to the British airmen who, undaunted by odds, unwearied in their constant challenge and mortal danger, are turning the tide of the World War by their prowess and by their devotion. **Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few.**

The loss of the Battle of Britain prompted Germany to begin a large scale bombing offensive against British cities known as **The Blitz**. London would be attacked 71 times during the 37 week period.

Naval Warfare

The pride of the German navy going into World War II was the battleship **Bismarck**. Along with her sister ship *Tirpitz*, *Bismarck* was the biggest ship ever built by Germany. Commanded by Ernst Lindemann, *Bismarck* only conducted one offensive operation. The ship was intercepted by the Royal Navy, and they fought at the **Battle of the Denmark Strait**.

Bismarck sunk the battlecruiser HMS *Hood*, prompting the Royal Navy to chase the

Germans relentlessly. Eventually, she would be hit with torpedoes from HMS *Ark Royal* and sunk with help from other members of the British fleet.

Operation Barbarossa

At this point, Hitler thought that Britain was still holding out hope that the Allies would be aided by the US and the Soviet Union. So, Hitler tried to get the Soviets to join the Axis Powers. When the Soviets asked for some territorial concessions, Hitler decided to prepare for war.

On June 22, 1941, the Axis, led primarily by the Germans, invaded the USSR in **Operation Barbarossa**, named after Frederick Barbarossa (recall the emperor during the Third Crusade). The offensive was in direct opposition to the agreement that the countries had agreed to in the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact earlier. The Axis's main goal was to create a line of demarcation from Arkhangelsk to Astrakhan, crush communism, and take the Soviet Union.

The Axis proceeded to launch the **Siege of Leningrad**. The Nazis set up the siege in September 1941, but the battle would not end until January 1944. The city was low on supplies, but a supply route called the Road of Life over the frozen Lake Ladoga prevented supplies from running out. Troops stationed in and around the city were commanded by Carl Mannerheim, but he elected not to have his men directly fight in the siege. Immediately following the battle, Finnish forces took back Karelia from the Soviets.

By October, the Axis seemed to be doing pretty well for itself. The Kiev offensive was extremely successful, allowing the Axis to advance into the Crimea and eastern Ukraine. The German pincer offensive known as Operation Typhoon was about to go into effect, pinning Moscow, and allowing the Germans to take the city. The only sieges still in effect were at Leningrad and at Sevastopol.

As the offensive against Moscow was put into action, the harsh Russian weather began. The Germans were forced to stop just outside the city simply because they were really tired. Even though the Nazis had taken quite a bit of territory, their goals remained unmet, and the momentum of their *blitzkrieg* had run out.

The Russians, notoriously slow at mobilizing troops, finally put together enough men to match the Axis's numbers. By December, they began a huge counteroffensive to get the Nazis off their land.

American Policy

“Neutrality”

Going into World War II, the US was under the Neutrality Acts of 1936, supporting complete isolationism: Americans understandably didn't want anything to do with the

growing unrest in Europe. However, the Neutrality Acts were woefully insufficient, because they didn't really distinguish between aggressors and victims, opting instead to treat both as "belligerents" in a war America wanted no part in.

When war broke out in Europe, FDR requested that Congress switch to a policy of **cash and carry**. The policy allowed for the selling of materiel to belligerents, provided that the buyers transported the goods themselves and paid in cash.

By March 11, 1941, the US enacted a new **Lend-Lease** policy for selling arms to the Allies. Aid was free to the Free French, Great Britain, China, and the USSR. In exchange, the US was given some leases on bases in Allied territory. Roosevelt justified the policy by likening it to a garden hose:

Well, let me give you an illustration: Suppose my neighbor's home catches fire, and I have a length of garden hose four or five hundred feet away. If he can take my garden hose and connect it up with his hydrant, I may help him to put out his fire. Now, what do I do? I don't say to him before that operation, "Neighbor, my garden hose cost me \$15; you have to pay me \$15 for it." What is the transaction that goes on? I don't want \$15, I want my garden hose back after the fire is over. All right. If it goes through the fire all right, intact, without any damage to it, he gives it back to me and thanks me very much for the use of it. But suppose it gets smashed up, holes in it, during the fire; we don't have to have too much formality about it, but I say to him, "I was glad to lend you that hose; I see I can't use it any more, it's all smashed up." He says, "How many feet of it were there?" I tell him, "There were 150 feet of it." He says, "All right, I will replace it." Now, if I get a nice garden hose back, I am in pretty good shape.

Eventually, the bill was passed when Everett Dirksen introduced it while a bunch of Congressmen were at a luncheon. The office created to administer the Lend-Lease Act was headed by Edward Stettinius, and it ended up improving on a previous Destroyers for Bases act.

In August 1941, Churchill met Roosevelt in Placenta Bay, Newfoundland, aboard USS *Augusta* and HMS *Prince of Wales*. They signed the **American Charter**, defining Allied goals for the war. It stated that there would be no "territorial aggrandizement" and emphasized "the right of all peoples to choose the form of government under which they will live".

Pearl Harbor

By 1939, the US had stopped trade with Japan and placed more economic pressure on Japan. Japan's attacks on China stalemated in 1940. The **McCollum memo** was a memo that outlined a course of action against Japan in the Pacific, suggesting that the US provoke Japan into an "overt act of war". Roosevelt put troops in the Philippines, saying that the US would react if anyone in that area was attacked by Japan. This put a damper on Japan's aim to take a defensive perimeter around their country. They didn't want

Americans interfering with Japan's plan to take the Dutch East Indies. As a result, Yamamoto made the decision to directly attack the US on home soil.

On December 2, 1941, the Japanese navy received a message to “climb Mount Niitaka”, giving information on how and when to attack the Americans (the Japanese referred to it as Operation Z). Japan then sent the “Fourteen Part Message” to the US, breaking off negotiations with the Americans. On December 7, Japanese aircraft attacked the naval base at **Pearl Harbor** on Oahu, Hawaii. The first person to see the fighters coming was Lieutenant Kermit Tyler, who was manning a radar at Fort Shafter. The attacks targeted Wheeler Field, and destroyed battleships *Arizona*, *Oklahoma*, *West Virginia*, and *California*. The Japanese fleets used the code words “Tora, Tora, Tora” to signal a successful surprise attack.

The next day, Roosevelt went in front of a Joint Session of Congress to ask for a declaration of war. He gave his famous Infamy Speech:

Yesterday, December 7, 1941 — **a date which will live in infamy** — the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by naval and air forces of the Empire of Japan.

The only congressperson to vote against a declaration of war was Jeanette Rankin. As a result of alliances, Britain, China, and Australia also formally declared war on Japan, and Germany and the other Axis powers declared war on the US.

European Theater

War in Africa

Fighting in North Africa started when Italy declared war. The British army crossed into Libya, taking the Italian Fort Capuzzo. They then launched Operation Compass, which crushed the Italians in Africa, and Germany sent Field Marshal **Erwin Rommel**, the Desert Fox of the Afrika Korps, to Africa.

The British fought Rommel all around Libya and Egypt at battles such as Tobruk, until eventually they met at the **Second Battle of El Alamein**. Just before the battle, General Claude Auchinleck (the Auk), had been replaced by **Bernard Montgomery**. Auchinleck had defended Ruweisat Ridge at the First Battle of El Alamein. Montgomery planned Operation Lightfoot, a means to cut accessible corridors through the Axis minefields. British tanks attacked Axis gasoline supplies at Tel el Aqqaqir. Rommel was forced to get past land mines and barbed wire that went to the Qattara Depression. The decisive defeat of the Germans at El Alamein led Churchill to say:

The fight between the British and the Germans was intense and fierce in the extreme. It was a deadly grapple. The Germans have been outmatched and outfought with the very kind of weapons with which they had beaten down so many small peoples, and also large

unprepared peoples. They have been beaten by the very technical apparatus on which they counted to gain them the domination of the world. Especially is this true of the air and of the tanks and of the artillery, which has come back into its own on the battlefield. The Germans have received back again that measure of fire and steel which they have so often meted out to others. **Now this is not the end. It is not even the beginning of the end. But it is, perhaps, the end of the beginning.**

The US entered the war during **Operation Torch** in late November, 1942. **Dwight Eisenhower** commanded the troops in North Africa, and **George Patton** came in from Casablanca. They were defeated by Rommel at the **Battle of the Kasserine Pass** early in 1943, but by May, the Allies broke the Mareth Line and shattered the Axis defense.

Attack on Italy

In January 1943, Roosevelt and Churchill met at the **Casablanca Conference**. It was agreed that the Allied forces in the south would turn their attention to Sicily, which Churchill called the “soft underbelly” of Europe. The Allies also decided to begin nonstop bombing of Germany from here on out (Operation Pointblank), and that they would accept no less than the “unconditional surrender” of the Axis powers. Roosevelt explained:

We mean no harm to the common people of the Axis nations, but we do mean to impose punishment and retribution upon their guilty, barbaric leaders.

In July 1943, **Operation Husky** was launched, following a disinformation campaign against the Italians known as Operation Mincemeat. The amphibious invasion landed between Licata and Scoglitti, and the Allies began pushing forward into the continent.

As soon as the Allies took Sicily, Italian public sentiment immediately turned against Mussolini. Victor Emmanuel III called Mussolini into his office and told him he was fired. The king replaced him with Marshal **Pietro Badoglio**. Germany came into Italy, taking Rome and forcing Badoglio and the king to run away. By October 1943, Italy declared war on Nazi Germany from Malta.

Bombing Campaign

Starting in 1942, RAF Bomber Command were helped by the US Air Force in raiding Germany. The general strategy was one of “Europe First”; the US would help take out Hitler and Germany before focusing on Japan. The meeting in Casablanca then issued the Casablanca directive:

Your primary object will be the progressive destruction and dislocation of the German military, industrial and economic system and the undermining of the morale of the German people to a point where their capacity for armed resistance is fatally weakened.

Invasion of France

Operation Overlord

The Nazis knew that the Allies were going to try to get into Europe via France. Rommel was sent to reinforce the Atlantic Wall, the huge system of defenses that the Axis had put in place. The Germans also set up *Rommelspargel* (Rommel's asparagus); they placed 15-foot tall logs in the ground to damage gliders and paratroopers.

The Allies set up a plan called **Operation Overlord** to take the continent through Normandy. To mislead the Germans as to their true intentions, the Allies created Operation Fortitude, a military deception campaign divided into North and South sub-plans. They made up phantom armies that would invade from Norway and Pas de Calais, thus distracting the Axis with fake attacks that would never actually happen. Another military deception in preparation for the invasion was called Operation Bodyguard.

Eisenhower's plan to invade at Normandy required special consideration because of the condition of the beachhead. Artificial ports called Mulberry Harbors and special tanks called Hobart's Follies were developed. On **D-Day**, June 6, 1944, an airborne assault heralded the arrival of a 5,000 vessel amphibious landing. The Americans landed at Utah and Omaha Beaches, the British at Sword and Gold Beaches, and the Canadians at Juno Beach. On August 15, the Allies launched **Operation Dragoon** on southern France. By the end of August, more than 3 million Allied troops would be in France.

Operation Market Garden

The next major Allied operation, on September 17, was **Operation Market Garden**. Bernard Montgomery aimed to capture a number of bridges in the Netherlands. His first attempt at a plan was Operation Comet, but that ended up scrapped because of bad weather.

To take the bridges, Montgomery decided to drop in paratroopers from the 82nd and 101st Airborne Divisions (including Easy Company). They were to take bridges at Eindhoven and at Nijmegen. However, Market Garden failed because the Allies weren't able to take the bridge at Arnhem. The British 1st Airborne was supposed to take the bridge, but failed because there was a Panzer unit guarding it.

Ardennes Counteroffensive

In December 1944, the Germans launched an attack into the Ardennes, Operation Autumn Fog, trying to take Antwerp. They attacked at St. Vith, Elsenborn Ridge, Houffalize, and **Bastogne**. During the opening of the offensive, the Blowtorch Brigade under Joachim Peiper committed the Malmedy Massacre, killing 113 Allied POWs from the 285th Field Artillery Observation Battalion.

While the Germans moved west, Eisenhower ordered troops into Bastogne to set up a

defense. When Heinrich Luttwitz asked for the surrender of the defenders in the town, General **Anthony McAuliffe** replied, “Nuts!” While troops held out in the town, Patton took his army from Luxembourg and pushed through to end the siege at Bastogne.

On December 31, the Germans launched Operation Nordwind, their last major offensive on the Western Front, into Alsace and Lorraine. The resulting battle was known by many names; The Germans called it Operation Watch on the Rhine, while the Allies called it the Ardennes Counteroffensive, and press referred to it as the **Battle of the Bulge** because of the way the Allied front line was shaped.

The German offensive was doomed at the end of the battle, which ended up being the largest and bloodiest the Americans fought in the war. Victory was achieved largely using surprise tactics and the fact that the Allies had broken the Enigma Machine, thus giving them the ability to read German coded messages.

Taking Berlin

In February 1945, FDR, Churchill, and Stalin met at the **Yalta Conference** in the Livadia Palace on the Crimea. The idea was to discuss how to put together the countries that had fallen apart during the war. The conference was codenamed Argonaut, and it had been preceded by the **Tehran Conference** in 1943. Stalin agreed to help invade Japan, while the Big Three called for a democratic government in Poland, establishing the Curzon Line as the eastern border of the country. They also agreed to divide Germany into four zones following victory over the Nazis.

After they won in the Ardennes, the Allies pushed the Germans back towards the Rhine. They crossed after capturing the Ludendorff Bridge at Remagen. They executed a pincer movement, trapping the Germans in the Ruhr Pocket. By the time they got to Berlin, they met up with the Soviets and they forced a surrender. **V-E Day** came on May 8, 1945.

Hitler had killed himself in a bunker on April 30, and Mussolini was killed and strung up on display two days earlier. In the US, Harry S. Truman had replaced FDR, who had died in office, and **Clement Atlee** had succeeded Churchill as Prime Minister in London.

Allied leaders met again at the **Potsdam Conference** July 11 to discuss and confirm the earlier agreements that they’d made about Germany. They reaffirmed their goal of “unconditional surrender” with Japan, issuing the Potsdam Declaration to that effect.

Eastern Front

Soviets vs. Nazis

Remember that the Russians had been forced to retreat and used a scorched earth policy to destroy their own land. When we left off, the Germans had laid siege to Leningrad, but succumbed to the harsh Russian winter. The Soviets referred to the war as the “Great Patriotic War”.

Having endured the winter, the Germans needed some oil. So, they went south in the summer of 1942, focusing on the Caucasus. The Soviets were quickly pushed back hundreds of miles to the east. However, Hitler then split the Wehrmacht into Army Group A (Caucasus) and Army Group B (Stalingrad). This major mistake would lead to a drawn out and bloody conflict in the city on the Volga.

Stalingrad

The **Battle of Stalingrad** is perhaps the biggest, baddest, bloodiest battle in history. The Germans under Friedrich Paulus started the attempt to capture the city in the late summer. Fighting quickly became extremely close-quarters, and there was quite a bit of building-to-building combat. Yakov Pavlov fortified an apartment building and used it as a fort for himself. Mamayev Kurgan led fighting at the top of a hill now named in his honor. Colonel Raiynin led the 1077th Anti-Aircraft Regiment, composed entirely of women just out of high school, in an attempt to stop the Luftwaffe from succeeding in their runs.

In November, Alexandr Vasilevsky and **Georgy Zhukov** devised themselves a counteroffensive, codenamed Operation Uranus. They set up a two-pronged attack on Romanian and Hungarian forces protecting the German 6th Army. Hitler ordered Paulus not to retreat, although he did allow Erich von Manstein to try to fight their way into Stalingrad. The encircled Germans tried to get out, and fighting continued until February 1943. At that point, they ran out of supplies and surrendered. The five month battle was the turning point of the war on the Eastern Front.

Moving West

The Nazis focused on a heavily fortified salient near the Battle of Kharkov, and as a result, the Germans' retreat was forced at the **Battle of Kursk** in July. Hitler's offensive, codenamed Operation Citadel, led to the Battle of Prokhorovka, one of the biggest armored battles ever. The Soviet T-34 was countered by the Germans using Tiger and Panther tanks. Soviet victory at Kursk started the Wehrmacht on a retreat that would take them all the way back to Berlin.

War in the Pacific

Island Hopping

Let's discuss the most important battles of the war in the Pacific.

Java Sea

Japanese forces invaded the Dutch East Indies and were largely successful in the beginning of 1942. American-British-Dutch-Australian Command was led by Dutch Rear-Admiral Karel Doorman, and they met the Japanese on February 27.

Allied forces attempted to sink a Japanese invasion convoy led by Admiral Takeo Takagi, but efforts were repelled with heavy Allied losses. Doorman's flagship *De Ruyter* was sunk by a torpedo, and he went down with the ship.

Japan mounted a land invasion of the island of Java and captured much of the island, including modern-day Jakarta (then Dutch-named Batavia).

Pacific Leadership

On March 30, 1942, **Admiral Chester Nimitz** was appointed Supreme Allied Commander in the Pacific. In the Southwest Theater, **Douglas MacArthur** was put in charge. Japanese forces were under the command of **Isoroku Yamamoto**, who would be succeeded by Mineichi Koga.

Coral Sea

Nimitz met the Japanese fleet near the Great Barrier Reef at the **Battle of the Coral Sea** in early May 1942. The battle was fought over control of Port Moresby, and it notably was fought entirely between aircraft carriers. There was no ship-to-ship combat; the whole battle was fought exclusively with planes.

Before the battle started, Japan invaded Tulagi, attempting to establish dominance over the island for use as a base. On the first day of the battle, the *Kikuzuki* and *Shoho* were destroyed, and on the next day, the *Shokaku* was forced to retreat. USS *Yorktown* escaped damage, but *Lexington* was destroyed.

Midway

A month after the Coral Sea, Nimitz met Yamamoto at the **Battle of Midway**, a little over a thousand miles northwest of Oahu. The battle would be the first time Japan had lost a naval battle since the Battle of Shimonoseki Straits in 1863. Nimitz was aided by a Task Force, led by Frank Fletcher and Raymond Spruance.

During the battle, the *Yorktown* was destroyed, but the Japanese fleet lost many carriers. The attack on the *Hiryu* forced Vice Admiral Yamaguchi to sink with his ship. The SBD Dauntless Dive Bombers helped sink the *Mikuma* during an action known as the Famous Four Minutes.

Guadalcanal Campaign

The first major Allied offensive in the Pacific was the **Guadalcanal Campaign**, codenamed Operation Watchtower. In August 1942, Marines landed on the islands of Guadalcanal, Tulagi, Tanambogo, and Florida in the Solomon Islands. The main invasion included fighting along the Matanikau River, and eventually Operation Ke resulted in full Japanese withdrawal, rendering the campaign a major Allied success. Supply lines used during the battle included the Tokyo Express, and the Allies set up the "Cactus Air Force".

Leyte Gulf

The largest naval battle of World War II was fought in October 1944, on the waters off of the Philippine islands of Leyte, Samar, and Luzon, in the **Leyte Gulf**. The battle saw the first use of the kamikaze attacks, and the Third Fleet, commanded by **William Halsey**, destroyed Kurita's "Center Force". Fighting centered around Samar and the Surigao Strait, and at one point, Halsey followed a decoy fleet, leaving the main landing force unprotected from the sea.

Iwo Jima

In February 1945, American Marines executed Operation Detachment, invading and capturing the Japanese-controlled island of **Iwo Jima**. Iwo Jima was referred to as a "God-forsaken island", filled with heavy Japanese fortifications and an extensive tunnel system under Mount Suribachi. A Marine general, Holland "Howling Mad" Smith, was stuck on his ship for the duration of the battle.

The Japanese commander Tadamichi Kuribayashi opted out of a suicidal banzai charge on the beach, instead choosing to fight in the tunnel system that he'd created, modeling the defense on the prior Battle of Peleliu. Much of the fighting took place on Meatgrinder Hill, until the Marines took Mount Suribachi. **Joe Rosenthal** took a picture of the iconic flag raising on the mountain, making people like Ira Hayes and John Bradley famous. Kuribayashi's body was never found.

Okinawa

The largest amphibious assault of the Pacific theater, Operation Iceberg, was launched in April 1945 on the islands of **Okinawa**. The intended outcome of the invasion was a base from which to launch an invasion of mainland Japan.

The ensuing battle has been called the "typhoon of steel", due to the intense and ferocious fights and the massive numbers of *kamikaze* attacks launched by Japan. Japan lost over 77,000 soldiers, while the Allies lost 14,000. Notable deaths include Ernie Pyle, and the Japanese commanders Isamu Cho and Mitsuru Ishajima. Fighting occurred at Wana Ridge, the Kiyan Peninsula, and Shuri Castle.

Ending the War

Manhattan Project

In 1942, General Leslie Groves directed an initiative to create the first nuclear weapons. The project, codenamed the **Manhattan Project**, took place at **Los Alamos National Laboratory**, under the direction of physicist **J. Robert Oppenheimer**. Along the way, the Manhattan Project absorbed the British project Tube Alloys. The Smyth Report chronicled the history of the project, which was located at places like Hanford and Oak Ridge.

On July 16, 1945, the **Trinity Test** was conducted at Alamogordo Bombing and Gunnery Range in New Mexico. The successful test led to the creation of two weapons: Little Boy and Fat Man.

Hiroshima & Nagasaki

Recall that at this point, the US army was all set up on Okinawa ready to invade by land. Then, Truman ordered the use of the bombs that the Manhattan Project had developed. The B-29 *Enola Gay* was set up to deliver the bombs from Tinian in the Mariana Islands.

The plane dropped Little Boy on Hiroshima on August 6, 1945. Three days later, Fat Man was dropped on the city of Nagasaki. During the following months, many thousands would die of radiation sickness, burns, etc.

A Second Victory

On August 15, Japan surrendered to the Allies. Hirohito read the **Jewel Voice Broadcast**, in which he announced that Japan had accepted the Potsdam Declaration and unconditionally surrendered. It was probably the first time that the emperor had spoken to the common people, and Hirohito told people to “endure the unendurable”, and he renounced his divinity. After the war, Hirohito avoided the war crimes trials that would condemn Tojo to death. Tojo tried to kill himself, and ended up hanged in 1946.

Chapter 22. Cold War

From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the Continent.

— Winston Churchill

Germany Divided

The Second World War had killed almost 10% of the German population. The place was in shambles. At Potsdam, the country had been divided into four zones by the Allies. The country didn't regain independence until 1949.

In East Germany, Soviets ruled with an iron fist, employing the **Stasi** as the official state security. From 1950 to 1971, the party boss in the area was **Walter Ulbricht**. In 1953, Ulbricht's government had to put down an uprising using Soviet troops and tanks. The General Secretary after Ulbricht was **Erich Honecker** (1971–1989).

Berlin, deep in the heart of East Germany, was itself divided into separate occupation zones. Stalin then decided to blockade West Berlin, disallowing any Allied supplies from reaching the city. The Soviets introduced the Ostmark in their zone to combat announcement of the new Deutsche Mark. As a result, Lucius Clay, deputy governor of Germany, put Operation Vittles into effect. The **Berlin Airlift**, as it was called, aimed to fly two million tons of supplies into the city and drop them to the people below. Construction for the bases occurred at places near Tempelhof and Lake Tegel. Albert Wedemeyer, a general who had commanded the airlift from India over the Himalayan Hump, helped the effort. The British contribution was codenamed Operation Plainfare, and the Australian operation was designated Operation Pelican.

By 1961, 2.6 million people had fled from East Germany, and Ulbricht created the **Berlin Wall** to try and stop them. The wall was crossable in few locations, including Checkpoint Charlie, and abandoned subway stops past the wall were called "ghost stations". During the Berlin Wall crisis in 1961, Lucius Clay ordered tanks to a standoff to back up Albert Hemsing.

Cold War Begins

Truman and his Doctrine

Following the victory in World War II, Truman and friends helped set up the **United Nations**. He also issued the **Truman Doctrine**, giving aid to Turkey and Greece, in an attempt to contain communism. Truman's policy of containment was inspired partly by **George F. Kennan** (Mr. X) and his writings talking about **containment** of communism. Kennan sent the **Long Telegram** from Soviet Russia, claiming that the Soviets were expansionist and needed to be contained in places that mattered to the US.

In order to help rebuild Europe, Secretary of State **George Marshall** came up with a strategy. The **Marshall Plan** consisted of using \$13 billion to bring economies back on track, and William Clayton, Kennan, and Marshall unveiled the plan at a graduation speech at Harvard in 1947. To counter the Marshall Plan, the Soviets put their own Molotov Plan into effect to help Eastern European countries.

NATO & the Warsaw Pact

In 1949, the former Allies formed the **North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)**. Headquartered in Brussels, NATO's goal was to stop the growing Soviet threat. They set up yearly readiness exercises named after Able Archer and Dean Rusk.

In response, the Soviets set up the **Warsaw Pact** in 1955. Included in the organization were China and North Korea, and during Zapad 81, they would carry out the largest military exercise ever.

Korean War

Korea had been ruled by Japan since 1910 until the later parts of World War II. Then, the Soviets took control of the peninsula north of the **38th parallel**, and US forces occupied the south, and Japan surrendered, packed up, and left.

Two separate governments were set up. The south elected **Syngman Rhee** president in July 1948. Rhee had converted to Christianity in High School, and he had spent time in America. He opposed Communism, and as soon as he took power, he started instituting laws against political dissent, smashing his leftist opponents.

In Communist North Korea, a new regime was established under **Kim Il-Sung**. His symbol was a blue orchid that had been given to him by Sukarno, and he made it the official flower of the country. He set up the kwan li so labor camps, and he introduced the Juche (self-reliance) political ideology, displacing Stalin and Mao. In 1968, his government would capture **USS Pueblo**, commanded by Captain Lloyd Bucher.

Now, both Rhee and Kim Il Sung wanted to unite Korea under their respective governments. Stalin set up the North Koreans with weapons, and they crossed the 38th parallel on June 25, 1950, fighting on the Ongjin peninsula. They came south, forcing Rhee to leave Seoul and drastically reducing the headcount of South Korean troops.

At this point, the Truman administration wasn't really well prepared for military action in Korea. There were worries as to what the Soviets would do if the US intervened in Korea. Truman wrote:

There was complete, almost unspoken acceptance on the part of everyone that whatever had to be done to meet this aggression had to be done. There was no suggestion from anyone that either the United Nations or the United States could back away from it.

There was fear of a chain reaction allowing the Soviets to disregard the UN and create Communist aggression in any number of other places across the world. On June 27, after the UN Security Council ruled that the North Korean invasion was bad, Truman sent the 8th Army into the peninsula to help the South Koreans.

The first significant American engagement came at the **Battle of Osan**. The battle was unsuccessful, and the North Korean KPA pushed the South Korean ROK and the US army back to **Pusan**. Battles around this time included Onjong. Kim Il-sung thought he would end the war by the end of August.

To relieve the Pusan perimeter, General MacArthur ordered the planning of a landing at **Inchon**. The battle began with USS *Mansfield*, USS *Swenson*, and USS *Collett* bombarding a fortress. The X Corps then landed at Green, Blue, and Red beaches, and captured the Kimpo airstrip, allowing for a breakout from the Pusan perimeter. By the end of September, Seoul was back in South Korean hands.

Continuing their momentum, MacArthur and the ROK went up western Korea and took Pyongyang in October. MacArthur then thought it was going to be a good idea to keep going straight on into China, but Truman disagreed. When China entered the war, it led to major Allied losses, and MacArthur was seriously considering using nuclear weapons to end the war. MacArthur's Home-by-Christmas Offensive was met with the Chinese Second Phase Offensive, ambushing and pushing the allied forces back from the Yalu River.

While MacArthur wanted complete surrender from the North Koreans, Truman wasn't as optimistic about the land war in Asia (he realized it was a classic blunder). So, Truman relieved MacArthur of his command, and put **General Matthew Ridgway** in charge.

The rest of the Korean War would mostly be spent in stalemate. Combat continued during armistice negotiations, which would take a very long time to go through. Negotiations were held at Kaesong and at Panmunjom. Battles during the stalemate included: Pork Chop Hill, Heartbreak Ridge, White Horse Mountain, Hill Eerie, and the siege of Outpost Harry. An armistice was agreed on in July 1953, setting up a **Demilitarized Zone (DMZ)**

at the 38th parallel. The area is still patrolled by members of both sides, and clashes occur sometimes.

South Korea fell into instability following the **April Revolution**, a set of student uprisings which led to Rhee's resignation in 1960. By May 1961, General **Park Chung-Hee** led a coup, seized power, and effectively became a dictator. Chung-Hee's popularity waned in the 1970s, and he was assassinated in 1979. South Korea became a proper democracy following the June Democratic Struggle in 1987.

Of course, the DMZ was not without its own problems. In 1976, for instance, two U.S. Army officers were killed while cutting down a poplar tree in the DMZ. This "axe murder incident" resulted in massive numbers of U.S. forces being deployed to the DMZ, codenamed Operation Paul Bunyan. This ended up intimidating North Korea into backing down.

Soviet Union After Stalin

Khrushchev's USSR

In the US, the transfer of leadership from Truman to Eisenhower resulted in policy not changing much, even though the transition crossed party lines. The change from Stalin to his successor, **Nikita Khrushchev**, however, was big. Stalin died in 1953, and the Communist Party named Khrushchev, his right hand man, First Secretary.

During some collective leadership, Khrushchev consolidated power. He gave his **secret speech**, "On the Personality Cult and Its Consequences", to the 20th Party Congress of the Communist Party, denouncing Stalin and the crimes that Stalin had committed:

We have to consider seriously and analyze correctly [the crimes of the Stalin era] in order that we may preclude any possibility of a repetition in any form whatever of what took place during the life of Stalin, who absolutely did not tolerate collegiality in leadership and in work, and who practiced brutal violence, not only toward everything which opposed him, but also toward that which seemed to his capricious and despotic character, contrary to his concepts.

Even though his speech was supposed to be secret, it ended up getting leaked. Khrushchev ended up being named Premier of the USSR in 1958.

While in power, Khrushchev used the Virgin Lands Campaign to try and improve agricultural productivity. He oversaw some liberalization and de-Stalinization, in a period known as the Khrushchev Thaw. At one point, Lazar Kaganovich and Vyacheslav Molotov, the Anti-Party group, tried to overthrow him and replace him with his Prime Minister, Nikolai Bulganin.

The Cuban Situation

Cuban Revolutions

To contextualize this part, we need to go back a bit and take a look at where Cuba was at this point in time, and how it got there. In 1952, **Fulgencio Batista** became dictator of Cuba. Batista had been elected President after overthrowing Carlos Prío Socarrás in 1940. Around this time, a young lawyer named **Fidel Castro** decided that he didn't like Batista and wanted to depose him. He teamed up with his brother **Raul Castro** and led an attack on Moncada Barracks in July 1953. They failed badly and ended up in prison in Model Prison on the Isle of Pines. In his own defense, Castro gave the "History Will Absolve Me" speech in court:

I know that imprisonment will be harder for me than it has ever been for anyone, filled with cowardly threats and hideous cruelty. But I do not fear prison, as I do not fear the fury of the miserable tyrant who took the lives of 70 of my comrades. Condemn me. It does not matter. **History will absolve me.**

When they got out, the Castros went to Mexico, and met **Ernesto "Che" Guevara**. While they were there, they set up the **26th of July Movement** and prepared to take down Batista again, named after the date of the failed Moncada Barracks attack.

In December 1956, Fidel and less than a hundred men took the yacht *Granma* (incidentally, the paper of the Cuban Communist Party would be named *Granma* in its honor) to Cuba, landing with the intention of taking the island. They were promptly decimated by Batista's men, but Castro escaped into the Sierra Maestra mountains. From there, he and Guevara ran a guerrilla campaign against Batista. Every time Batista tried to take down the rebellion, he failed. At this point, the US imposed trade restrictions on Cuba and told Batista to get out of town, and Batista left the island in January 1959, allowing Castro to take over.

American Relations

Of course, the Americans weren't particularly happy with the fact that Cuba (only 90 miles from Key West) was under the dictatorial control of a Communist. So, the US severed diplomatic ties with Castro's Cuba.

In May 1960, CIA U-2 pilot **Francis Gary Powers** was shot down over Cuba, attempting to photograph enemy military installations. The Cuban government convicted Powers of espionage. Eventually, Powers was exchanged for the captured Soviet spy Rudolf Abel in Berlin. For more information on the incident, watch *Bridge of Spies*.

In April 1961, the CIA executed a plan to take down the Castro regime. The idea for the **Bay of Pigs invasion** (Operation Zapata) had been created under the Eisenhower administration, but it was executed four months into Kennedy's administration.

The CIA idea was to arm 1,400 Cuban exiles known as Brigade 2506 and empower them to establish “a new government with which the United States can live in peace”. On April 15, the brigade got on a boat from Guatemala and landed on Playa Giron, initially making some gains. Then, everything proceeded to go south. During Operation Falcon, the drop of 150 paratroopers failed to take their objective, and retreat into the Escambray Mountains was impossible. So, most of the brigade was captured and interrogated.

Kennedy took full responsibility for the failure, and the invasion was a contributing factor to the dismissal of Allen Dulles as director of the CIA in late 1961. Following the Bay of Pigs, the Kennedy administration began Operation Mongoose, a more covert sabotage campaign against Castro, making Castro hate the US even more.

Castro was fairly closely allied with Khrushchev at this point, them both being Communists. After the failure of the Bay of Pigs invasion, Khrushchev agreed to Castro's request for nuclear missiles on the island. Khrushchev was pleased with the arrangement, especially in light of the fact that the US had missiles in Italy and Turkey within range of Moscow.

This was October 1962, so a US election was underway, The US confirmed missile preparations when Richard Heyser flew a U-2 plane over Cuba, taking pictures of new bases under construction at San Cristobal. Kennedy's administration was criticized about the nuclear missiles sitting 90 miles off the Florida coast. At this point, the US blockaded Cuba and demanded that all the existing missiles there should be dismantled.

Negotiations in the United Nations Security Council were mediated by Secretary General U Thant, and Ambassador **Adlai Stevenson** discussed the situation in Cuba with Soviet Ambassador Valerian Zorin:

Do you, Ambassador Zorin, deny that the USSR has placed and is placing medium and intermediate range missiles and sites in Cuba? Yes or no? Don't wait for the translation: yes or no? **I am prepared to wait for my answer until hell freezes over, if that's your decision.**

Stevenson then proceeded to present a series of pictures taken by the U-2 to the Security Council. During the Cuban Missile Crisis, Kennedy put together EXCOMM, a group of National Security Council members and friends, to help advise him during the situation. The crisis was resolved by the Hotline Agreement, in which the US agreed to dismantle the Jupiter Missiles threatening Moscow, and a new hotline was set up between Kennedy's and Khrushchev's offices.

Brezhnev in Power

When the Soviets got tired of Khrushchev in 1964, they ousted him and placed **Leonid Brezhnev** in his place as First Secretary. He'd previously been in charge of the Virgin Lands Campaign, and now he took full power. Brezhnev would consolidate power, setting

up his Brezhnev Doctrine, allowing intervention if socialist countries decided to turn to capitalism. A prime example of the use of his doctrine is the invasion of Czechoslovakia during [Prague Spring](#). He also ordered the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan, and he would participate in the SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks) agreements.

When Brezhnev took over, the “Era of Stagnation” began. The economy, politics, and social change all more or less came to a standstill, and they would stay that way until Gorbachev took over in the mid-80s.

Vietnam War

Before we get to how this proxy war was fought, let’s first take a look at history in southeast Asia. France had begun to conquer Indochina in the 1850s, and in 1888, **French Indochina** was colonized in present-day Cambodia and Vietnam. Vietnamese forces tried to oppose French rule for quite a while, but the most successful were the **Viet Minh**, founded in 1941, and controlled by the Communist Party. While France was occupied by Germany, the Indochinese government sided with the Vichy regime. The Viet Minh opposed French occupation, and they fought the Japanese who tried to take over as well.

When Japan lost World War II, Japanese forces in Vietnam were inactive, and Viet Minh forces took over the country in the **August Revolution**. **Ho Chi Minh** led meetings to create the independent Democratic Republic of Vietnam in Hanoi. At this point, the Viet Minh were fairly popular. However, all the Allies who had won World War II thought the area should belong to France. British and Nationalist Chinese forces took the country and then ceded control to France. Ho Chi Minh wasn’t particularly happy with this development, and the Viet Minh began a guerrilla campaign, resulting in the **First Indochina War**. The war fanned out, including Laos and Cambodia, home to the Pathet Lao and the Khmer Serei respectively.

By 1950, the People’s Republic of China and the USSR were helping the Viet Minh take back their country. The French and Americans began to seriously consider using tactical nuclear weapons, but Eisenhower decided against it. During negotiations, the US sailed recon flights over Dien Bien Phu based off carriers in the Gulf of Tonkin.

The **Battle of Dien Bien Phu** would signal the end of French occupation of Indochina. Viet Minh commander Vo Nguyen Giap served up a decisive defeat against the French, partly because the French underestimated the Viet Minh following a French victory at Na San. Following a good amount of trench warfare, Giap ordered a full assault, capturing 10,000 prisoners.

After Dien Bien Phu, Vietnam was partitioned at the **17th parallel**, and under the Geneva Accords, people were allowed to move between the two new countries for a short period of time. North Vietnam instituted agrarian reform, setting up a campaign against land owners.

In the south, **Bao Dai** was instituted as emperor (he would be the last one), and **Ngo Dinh Diem** was appointed prime minister. Diem quickly moved to crush all his opponents in his pursuit of the destruction of communism, and he set himself up to win elections by the end of 1955. Winning as much as 133% of the vote in some places (by rigging the election), Diem was elected president of a new independent Republic of Vietnam on October 26, 1955. Supported by the Americans (Eisenhower had no real alternative), Diem instituted his “Denounce the Communists” campaign, killing and torturing communists across the country.

By 1957, insurgency was starting to take root. People were getting fed up with Diem’s government, but they were disorganized. In late 1960, the National Liberation Front, aka Viet Cong, was created in an attempt to organize the activists. The Viet Cong wanted American influence out of Vietnam. By 1960, North Vietnam decided to start helping, and they invaded Laos. In 1962, multiple countries got together and agreed to respect Laos’s neutrality.

The South Vietnamese ARVN army was more or less incompetent in the face of the Viet Cong. At the Battle of Ap Bac, the Viet Cong defeated the ARVN, despite having many disadvantages. In the middle of 1963, the US started discussing a change of leadership in South Vietnam. The CIA looked the other way when some generals overthrew Diem and killed him. After the coup, chaos reigned supreme. Military regimes in South Vietnam came and went quickly.

In August 1964, USS *Maddox* fired on some torpedo boats in the Gulf of Tonkin. Later, USS *Turner Joy* and *Maddox* were both fired on in gulf. This **Gulf of Tonkin incident** led to some debate in Congress. In response to the incident, the US began Operation Pierce Arrow, in which the Navy engaged North Vietnamese ships. Johnson also used the incident to pass the **Gulf of Tonkin Resolution** on August 7, giving the president power to conduct military operations there without actually declaring war. The only person who opposed the bill in the House was Eugene Siler.

The bombing in North Vietnam escalated in three stages. It included Operation Flaming Dark, Operation Rolling Thunder, and Operation Arc Light. Operation Commando Hunt targeted places such as the Ho Chi Minh trail, a supply route through Laos and Cambodia. The war proceeded to escalate, with the incompetence of the South Vietnamese military becoming more apparent. **William Westmoreland**, deputy commander of Military Assistance Command Vietnam said, “I am convinced that U.S. troops with their energy, mobility, and firepower can successfully take the fight to the NLF.”

In late 1967, Communists baited American troops out at Dak To and at **Khe Sanh Marine Base** on the border with Laos. Americans, perfectly willing to take their massive military might into the middle of nowhere, where they didn’t have to worry about civilian collateral casualties, obliged. But, at the end of January 1968, the Viet Cong broke the truce that went along with the Tet (New Year), and they began the **Tet Offensive**. Enemy troops attacked over 100 cities, including Westmoreland’s headquarters and the US Embassy in

Saigon. Initially staggered by the surprise and scale of the assault, the Americans responded in kind. At the Battle of Hue, the US recaptured a former capital from Viet Cong forces.

Many civilians died in the Tet Offensive, but the US was able to take out lots of Viet Cong troops as well. In fact, it was a military victory for US forces. However, the Tet Offensive was notable for its side effects. Westmoreland, who had been well known back home, having been featured on the cover of *Time* and named Person of the Year, suddenly found himself losing all his popularity. American support for the war started to wane, and people started to turn on the Johnson administration. This was an intelligence failure, some say, as big as not seeing the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. In an editorial, Walter Cronkite said:

To say that we are closer to victory today is to believe, in the face of the evidence, the optimists who have been wrong in the past. To suggest we are on the edge of defeat is to yield to unreasonable pessimism. To say that we are mired in stalemate seems the only realistic, yet unsatisfactory, conclusion.

Westmoreland was promoted out of Vietnam and succeeded by **Creighton Abrams**. Peace talks started in Paris, and the US stopped bombardment of North Vietnam.

When Nixon was elected, he started to withdraw US military from the area. The idea behind his “Nixon Doctrine” was to make sure the ARVN could hold on their own, a policy known as “Vietnamization”. Nixon also worked to try and make peace with the USSR and China.

On March 16, 1968, Army soldiers raped and killed hundreds of unarmed civilians in South Vietnam. The **My Lai massacre** occurred in a supposed Viet Cong stronghold in the area, codenamed Pinkville — the incident was originally called the Pinkville massacre. Air support flown by Warrant Officer Hugh Thompson, Lawrence Colburn, and Glenn Andreotta helped stop the massacre, earning themselves the Soldier’s Medal in the process. Public awareness of the carnage was stirred up when Ron Ridenhour wrote a letter to Mo Udall; Ridenhour also investigated the event. Second Lieutenant William Calley was court martialed and was the only person convicted of any crimes in the aftermath of My Lai.

Incidents such as My Lai really helped to spur opposition to the war in the US. The situation was bad enough that Governor of Ohio Jim Rhodes threatened martial law. In 1970, students at **Kent State** protested Nixon’s decisions regarding the war. In the Prentice Hall parking lot near Blanket Hill, the Ohio National Guard fatally shot four students. The Scranton Commission was assembled to investigate the Kent State shootings.

The **Paris Peace Accords** on “Ending the War and Restoring Peace in Vietnam” were signed in January 1973, having been negotiated by **Henry Kissinger** and Le Duc Tho, who both won the Nobel Peace Prize for their efforts (though Tho declined it). A ceasefire was

declared, and elections were to be held in both North and South Vietnam.

During the ceasefire, the North Vietnamese kept building infrastructure, preparing for one final massive invasion of the south. The success of a dry season offensive in 1973-1974 inspired the North Vietnamese to try again. In 1975, they launched Campaign 275, prompting President of South Vietnam Nguyen Van Thieu to order a retreat. By the end of March, Hue and fallen, and Da Nang and its airport were in ruins.

The North Vietnamese then pushed for Saigon. The Ho Chi Minh campaign aimed to take the city by May 1. On April 27, they encircled the city. The NVA shelled the airport, closing it. Martial law was declared. Operation **Frequent Wind** was launched for evacuation. The signal was the playing of “White Christmas”. On April 30, NVA troops entered Saigon. They took Independence Palace. President Duong Van Minh surrendered.

Space Race

The goal of annihilating the enemy with planes and guns and bombs fueled an initiative on both sides of the Cold War to get things further up into the sky. The German scientist **Wernher von Braun** had been director of Nazi Germany’s missile program, and during the 1950s, he came over to the United States to help the Americans make rockets. His team went to White Sands Proving Ground in New Mexico and started working on rockets that would eventually become the basis for the Jupiter and Saturn rocket family.

The Soviets decided to try building a satellite. Sergei Korolev founded the Soviet space program and he got permission in 1957 to put a *sputnik* in the air. On October 4, 1957, the new **Sputnik 1** satellite was launched into orbit. In light of this new development, Eisenhower ordered the US Vanguard project to launch early. However, when Project Vanguard failed to launch and exploded, newspapers called it Flopnik, Stayputnik, Kaputnik, Dudnik, etc. By the end of January 1958, von Braun and his team launched Explorer 1 successfully into orbit.

On April 12, 1961, the USSR launched **Yuri Gagarin** into orbit in **Vostok 1**. Gagarin, the first cosmonaut, was the first human to make it into space. He became a hero of the Soviet Union. When the US created NASA, the Air Force’s attempts to put a man in space was renamed **Project Mercury**. On May 5, 1961, they launched **Alan Shepard** into space. Shepard didn’t achieve orbit, but he did manage to exercise control over his attitude and rockets. The Mercury suborbital flight was repeated in July by **Virgil “Gus” Grissom**. In February 20, 1962, **John Glenn** became the first American to orbit the Earth. Meanwhile, the Soviets launched more Vostok flights, including Vostok 6, which launched **Valentina Tereshkova**, the first woman in space.

The Americans were fairly humiliated that they had been beaten twice in a row at this point. Kennedy decided to look into the space program himself, with the new goal being the moon. On September 12, 1962, he gave a speech at Rice University:

We choose to go to the Moon in this decade and do the other things, not because they are easy, but because they are hard, because that goal will serve to organize and measure the best of our energies and skills, because that challenge is one that we are willing to accept, one we are unwilling to postpone, and one which we intend to win... It is for these reasons that I regard the decision last year to shift our efforts in space from low to high gear as among the most important decisions that will be made during my incumbency in the office of the Presidency.

NASA then announced **Project Gemini**, a two-man craft that would help develop technologies for the future three-man Apollo program. Gemini ran for 10 piloted missions. The Soviets worked on the Soyuz spacecraft and the Voskhod program.

As we know, eventually Apollo 11 was successful. Crewed by **Neil Armstrong**, **Buzz Aldrin** and **Michael Collins**, the mission landed on the moon on July 21, 1969. There's more space travel stuff that can be talked about, but let's move on for now.

Last Days of War

Mikhail Gorbachev

Brezhnev left office in 1982. He was succeeded by Yuri Andropov, former head of the KGB, and Konstantin Chernenko. Their leadership didn't last very long, and in 1985, **Mikhail Gorbachev** was elected General Secretary by the Politburo. Gorbachev had a big wine-colored birthmark on his forehead that cartoonists were quite fond of mocking.

Gorbachev began to turn around the stagnant economy. His agenda was called **perestroika**, or restructuring. It relaxed the production quota system and let people own their own businesses through the Law on Cooperatives. He also started **glasnost**, or openness, which introduced transparency and improved freedom of the press. Gorbachev implemented the "Sinatra Doctrine", which let Warsaw Pact nations determine for themselves how they would work (the name's an allusion to the song "My Way").

An August 1991 Communist coup tried to target Gorbachev after the Cold War ended, and it was suppressed by **Boris Yeltsin**, who then gave a speech while standing on a tank.

Raising the Iron Curtain

Because of the fact that the USSR was giving in a bit, Reagan decided that it would be OK to start talks with the Russians on thawing the Cold War. The first meeting was held in Geneva, and the second Reykjavik Summit was set up in Iceland. The third summit resulted in the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty (INF).

In 1987, Reagan gave a speech at the Brandenburg Gate. In challenge to Gorbachev, Reagan said:

We welcome change and openness; for we believe that freedom and security go together, that the advance of human liberty can only strengthen the cause of world peace. There is one sign the Soviets can make that would be unmistakable, that would advance dramatically the cause of freedom and peace. General Secretary Gorbachev, if you seek peace, if you seek prosperity for the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, if you seek liberalization: Come here to this gate! Mr. Gorbachev, open this gate! **Mr. Gorbachev, tear down this wall!**

In 1989, the Berlin Wall fell, and the iron curtain across the continent was lifted. With the end of the Cold War, the 1989 revolutionary wave washed over Central and Eastern Europe.

Chapter 23. Recent U.S. History

The arc of the moral universe is long, but it bends toward justice.

— Martin Luther King Jr.

Postwar America

Harry Truman

Let's talk about Harry S. Truman, Roosevelt's final Vice President. Truman was born in Missouri, and he joined Tom Pendergast's political machine in Kansas City. As discussed before, Truman assumed the presidency just before the Nazis surrendered, and he ordered dropping the bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

Truman ran for reelection in 1948. His opponent was **Thomas Dewey**, a New York Republican. Also running was **Strom Thurmond**, who had shown up from South Carolina with the support of Dixiecrats, and formed the States' Rights Democratic Party with his running mate Fielding Wright. During the election, Truman criticized the "Do-Nothing Congress" for opposing his Fair Deal. On election day, the Chicago Tribune preemptively announced election results: "Dewey Defeats Truman!" However, they were wrong because some polls weren't available, and Truman ended up winning reelection. Truman's new cabinet included Secretary of State **Dean Acheson**.

I Like Ike

Dwight David Eisenhower was a five-star general in the United States Army, serving as Supreme Commander of Allied Forces in Europe during World War II. In 1952, he entered the Presidential race as a Republican. His running mate was Richard M. Nixon, and he defeated the Adlai Stevenson/John Sparkman ticket in a landslide.

Eisenhower authorized Operation Ajax, which deposed **Mohammad Mosaddegh**, prime minister of Iran, in a 1953 coup. He also gave the go-ahead on Operation PBSUCCESS, targeting Jacobo Arbenz in Guatemala, ending the democratic government in Guatemala,

ending the revolution, and putting Carlos Castillo Armas in charge of a new military dictatorship. His New Look policy was an attempt at nuclear deterrence in the face of the burgeoning Cold War.

In 1947, a young Wisconsin Senator named **Joseph McCarthy** took office, having defeated Robert La Follette, Jr in 1946. McCarthy had flown combat missions for the Marines during the war, and he turned his nickname “Tail-Gunner Joe” into a campaign slogan: “Congress needs a tail-gunner!” In 1950, McCarthy came to prominence by giving a speech to the Women’s Club of Wheeling, WV:

The bright young men who are born with silver spoons in their mouths are the ones who have been the worst. In my opinion, the State Department, which is one of the most important government departments, is thoroughly infested with Communists. I have in my hand 57 cases of individuals who would appear to be either card carrying members or certainly loyal to the Communist Party, but who nevertheless are still helping to shape our foreign policy.

McCarthy quickly became the most well-known face in an anti-Communist witch hunt. His modern Red Scare went until the Army-McCarthy hearings of 1954, until the Senate eventually voted to censure McCarthy. Senator Joseph Welch said:

Senator, may we not drop this? We know he belonged to the Lawyers Guild. Let us not assassinate this lad further, Senator. You’ve done enough. Have you no sense of decency, sir? **At long last, have you left no sense of decency?**

Eisenhower covertly opposed McCarthy while he was doing his whole crusade. He was a mostly moderate conservative president, keeping around most of the New Deal programs. He also launched the **Interstate Highway System** and DARPA. In 1957, Orval Faubus opposed the enrollment of nine black students into Central High School in Little Rock. Eisenhower sent in the 101st Airborne to intervene and make sure that they got into school.

In January 1961, Eisenhower gave his farewell address, written by himself, his brother Milton, and his speechwriter Malcolm Moos:

As we peer into society’s future, we — you and I, and our government — must avoid the impulse to live only for today, plundering for, for our own ease and convenience, the precious resources of tomorrow. We cannot mortgage the material assets of our grandchildren without asking the loss also of their political and spiritual heritage. We want democracy to survive for all generations to come, not to become **the insolvent phantom of tomorrow.**

Civil Rights

To contextualize the modern civil rights movement, we must trace a certain amount of

social history from the Civil War period.

After the Civil War, the Reconstruction amendments fixed some big problems, such as slavery. However, into the 1950s, segregation was still rampant and racism was common, especially in the South. Segregation was sanctioned by the government, as shown by the **Jim Crow system**. The Supreme Court upheld it in the “separate but equal” doctrine established in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896).

Washington & DuBois

Booker T. Washington was one of the last American leaders who were born as slaves. He was the first leader of the **Tuskegee Institute**, a newly formed educational institution for Black Americans. Washington built the college from scratch, from premises to curricula. He also founded the National Negro Business League. Later, he wrote his autobiography *Up From Slavery*.

Washington gave the Atlanta Address of 1895, at which he announced the **Atlanta Compromise**. The idea was that southern African Americans would accept white political rule, provided that they were given basic education and due process.

A ship lost at sea for many days suddenly sighted a friendly vessel. From the mast of the unfortunate vessel was seen a signal: "Water, water; we die of thirst!" The answer from the friendly vessel at once came back: "**Cast down your bucket where you are.**" A second time the signal, "Water, water; send us water!" ran up from the distressed vessel, and was answered: "Cast down your bucket where you are." And a third and fourth signal for water was answered: "Cast down your bucket where you are." The captain of the distressed vessel, at last heeding the injunction, cast down his bucket, and it came up full of fresh, sparkling water from the mouth of the Amazon River.

A few years after Washington gave his speech, leaders such as **W.E.B. Du Bois** and a group he called “The Talented Tenth” spoke out against the compromise. Du Bois explicitly campaigned for full civil rights and better representation in politics. He founded the **Niagara Movement**, an activist group which became the foundation for his future organization: the **National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)**. Du Bois was a prolific author: he wrote *The Souls of Black Folk*, *Black Reconstruction in America*, his autobiography *Dusk of Dawn*, as well as many pieces for NAACP’s journal *The Crisis*.

20th Century Developments

During the **Great Migration**, a large percentage of African American populations moved out of the South into urban centers in the north and the west. This led to cultural flourishings such as the **Harlem Renaissance** in New York, as well as political and economic prosperity in locations such as the south side of Chicago. The founding of the **NAACP** led to increased opposition to violence against Black people, particularly

regarding lynching as it was practiced in the south.

The **Ku Klux Klan** had come back thanks to the extreme popularity of *Birth of a Nation*, a film directed by D.W. Griffith in 1915 which glorified the terrorist activities the Klan had engaged in during the Civil War era.

Racial tensions were high in Oklahoma, where Native American relocation had brought slaves to the territory. Once freed, the oil economy in cities such as Tulsa housed an unusually large number of wealthy and educated African American residents. One location with a particularly dense concentration of money was the Greenwood District, which was known as “Black Wall Street”. In 1921, white residents of Tulsa perpetrated the **Tulsa race massacre**, in which hundreds of Black residents were killed and Greenwood was utterly destroyed.

Modern Civil Rights

The crux of the Civil Rights Movement that comes up takes place between 1954 and 1968:

In May 1954, the Supreme Court rules on *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*. A more detailed overview of the important case is in the appendix, but the decision overturns *Plessy*.

On March 2, 1955, a black woman in Alabama is arrested for not giving up her seat on the bus to a white man. The ACLU and civil rights leaders quickly mobilize, but then they stop. She is fifteen years old, pregnant, and her name is **Claudette Colvin**. A pending bus boycott is called off, and leaders decide not to publicize Colvin’s story because it doesn’t play well, even though her court case will eventually end segregation on the buses (*Browder v. Gale*).

On December 1, **Rosa Parks**, a seamstress and secretary for the NAACP, doesn’t listen to James Edwards’s instructions to leave her seat on a bus and gets arrested. This triggers the **Montgomery Bus Boycott**; leading this is a Baptist minister named **Martin Luther King, Jr.** He is elected president of the Montgomery Improvement Association. People start to listen to Dr. King, who rises to prominence at the head of a burgeoning movement for civil rights.

In September 1957, Orval Faubus, governor of Arkansas, decides to block integration of Little Rock Central High School. Within two weeks, President Eisenhower federalizes the National Guard and orders the Army into Little Rock. The **Little Rock Nine**, a set of students who were to attend the school, get a military escort. By the end of the month, Eisenhower signs the **Civil Rights Act of 1957**, in spite of segregationist **Strom Thurmond**, who tried to stop it by giving the longest one-person filibuster of all time, lasting over 24 hours.

Meanwhile, King founds the **South Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC)** and is chosen as its first president. The SCLC leads the Albany Movement in Georgia against

segregation in 1962. In 1963, King organizes nonviolent protests in Birmingham, garnering national attention. Alabama is governed by **George Wallace**, who had called for “segregation now, segregation tomorrow, segregation forever” at his inauguration. The protests result in a massive police response they land King in jail, where he writes his “Letter from a Birmingham Jail”:

Moreover, I am cognizant of the interrelatedness of all communities and states. I cannot sit idly by in Atlanta and not be concerned about what happens in Birmingham. **Injustice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere.** We are caught in an inescapable network of mutuality, tied in a single garment of destiny. Whatever affects one directly, affects all indirectly.

In August 1963, King organizes the **March on Washington** for Jobs and Freedom, with logistical help from Bayard Rustin. Speakers at the huge event include Walter Reuther, Josephine Baker, and John Lewis, who criticizes Kennedy in his speech, causing some controversy. Of course, the most famous speaker is King himself, who gives his “Normalcy, Never Again” speech, saying that he had come to “cash a check” for inalienable rights, and he refused to believe that the bank was bankrupt. The speech quickly becomes known as the “**I Have a Dream**” speech.

In 1968, King travels to Memphis, Tennessee, to help striking African American sanitation workers, who have walked out in protest of Mayor Henry Loeb. On April 3, he delivers his “**I’ve Been to the Mountaintop**” speech:

Well, I don’t know what will happen now. We’ve got some difficult days ahead. But it doesn’t matter with me now. Because I’ve been to the mountaintop. And I don’t mind. Like anybody, I would like to live a long life. Longevity has its place. But I’m not concerned about that now. I just want to do God’s will. And He’s allowed me to go up to the mountain. And I’ve looked over. And I’ve seen the promised land. I may not get there with you. But I want you to know tonight, that we, as a people, will get to the promised land! And so I’m happy, tonight. I’m not worried about anything. I’m not fearing any man. My eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord!

While staying at the Lorraine Motel in Memphis, King walks out onto his balcony at 6:01 PM on April 4. He is struck by a bullet fired into his jaw, and he dies an hour later at St. Joseph’s Hospital. The FBI investigation finds the fingerprints of **James Earl Ray** at the origin of the gunfire. Two months later, Ray is captured at Heathrow Airport and confesses to having killed King.

The Sixties

JFK

The 1960 Democratic primary resulted in **John Fitzgerald Kennedy** defeating Hubert

Humphrey and Lyndon B. Johnson. At the convention, Kennedy gave his “New Frontier” speech:

For the problems are not all solved and the battles are not all won — and we stand today on the edge of a New Frontier... But the New Frontier of which I speak is not a set of promises — it is a set of challenges. It sums up not what I intend to offer the American people, but what I intend to ask of them.

Upon winning, Kennedy asked Johnson to be his running mate.

The general election was shaping up to be the closest in many years. Kennedy would be fighting a battle against **Richard M. Nixon**, centering around Cuba, Kennedy’s Roman Catholicism, and the space race. The election brought the first televised presidential debates in history. Nixon looked uncomfortable with his five o’clock shadow and injured leg, while Kennedy looked far better to a television audience.

Kennedy ended up being the youngest man elected president. During his inauguration, he said, “Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country.” Kennedy would go on to write *Profiles in Courage*.

Kennedy’s Secretary of Defense was **Robert McNamara**, who ramped up the Vietnam War. When he was Secretary, McNamara surrounded himself with a set of experts from RAND Corporation, who were called the **Whiz Kids**, hearkening back to a group McNamara had been a part of at Ford. This was all part of McNamara’s attempt to try and run the Pentagon like a business.

We’ve discussed some of what Kennedy did in relation to the Cold War already. He signed the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, set up the Peace Corps, and increased US involvement in Vietnam. The botched Bay of Pigs invasion occurred soon after he took office, and he was forced to resolve the Cuban Missile Crisis. In West Germany, he gave his “Ich bin Ein Berliner” speech.

On November 22, 1963, Kennedy was traveling through Dallas in a presidential motorcade. Accompanying him were his wife **Jacqueline Kennedy**, Texas Governor John Connally, and Connally’s wife Nellie. While driving through Dealey Plaza, shots were fired from the Texas School Book Depository. The assassination was recorded by **Abraham Zapruder** on his namesake film. **Lee Harvey Oswald** was arrested and charged for killing Kennedy, but he claimed he was just a patsy. Two days later, Oswald was killed by **Jack Ruby**. Chief Justice Earl Warren chaired the **Warren Commission** to investigate the assassination. The commission, which included Gerald Ford, concluded that Oswald was the only assassin, and the nearby “grassy knoll” that some claimed to have significance wasn’t important at all.

Lyndon B. Johnson

Lyndon Baines Johnson had been elected as a Texan Senator in 1948. The election was fraught with controversy, and Johnson defeated incumbent governor Coke Stevenson in court with help from his friend Abe Fortas. The situation resulted in Johnson being called “Landslide Lyndon” permanently thereafter amidst fraud allegations. Johnson proceeded to work his way up to majority whip and Democratic leader in the Senate. The senator was also quite the imposing personality; he would stand uncomfortably close to people while talking to them, in a strategy called “The Treatment”. In 1960, Kennedy chose Johnson as his running mate; upon Kennedy’s assassination, Johnson took the oath of office on board Air Force One.

The 1964 campaign for reelection made Johnson look for a new catchy slogan to encompass his social agenda. He settled on “The Great Society”. The plan discussed urban improvements, a war on poverty, educational reform, and crime control. During election season, Johnson aired the “Daisy Ad” against his opponent **Barry Goldwater**, claiming that a vote for Goldwater is a vote for the nuclear annihilation of children: “the stakes are too high for you to stay home [and not vote]”.

Johnson passed the Economic Opportunity Act, creating the Job Corps and Head Start. He appointed Abe Fortas and Thurgood Marshall to the Supreme Court. Robert Weaver became the first African-American cabinet member in the new Housing and Urban Development Department.

Nixon and Carter: The 1970s

Rise of Nixon

A front runner in the Democratic primary campaign in 1968, **Robert Francis Kennedy** had previously served on the Senate Labor Rackets Committee. He had challenged the Teamsters under **Jimmy Hoffa** and written *The Enemy Within*. Robert Kennedy had served on his brother’s cabinet as Attorney General, advising the president during the Cuban Missile Crisis. He’d delivered a speech in Indianapolis following the assassination of Martin Luther King. In June 1968, RFK won the California primary, defeating Senator Eugene McCarthy. He was celebrating in the Ambassador Hotel, where Palestinian **Sirhan Sirhan** shot him. Sirhan was subdued by bodyguards including Rafer Johnson and Rosey Grier in the Embassy Room.

Richard Milhous Nixon had served as Vice President under Eisenhower. In response to slush fund allegations, Nixon had delivered the “Checkers Speech”, discussing a dog he’d gotten as a present. Previously, he’d also defeated Helen Douglas for his Senate seat, claiming she was “pink right down to her underwear” and calling her “the Pink Lady”. He’d lost to Kennedy back in 1960. He proceeded to fail to win the California gubernatorial election in 1962, and he decided to try for the presidency again in 1968. His

opponent was **Hubert Humphrey** running with Edmund Muskie. Humphrey was the incumbent Vice President, hailing from Minnesota. Nixon crushed Humphrey in the election, getting himself the presidency.

Nixon signed the Anti-Ballistic Missile Treaty. He visited China with his First Lady Pat, and he ended the draft and proceeded to pull troops out of Vietnam. In 1972, he was reelected in a huge landslide over opponent **George McGovern** and his running mate **Sargent Shriver** (who had replaced Thomas Eagleton).

The Watergate Affair

In 1967, Robert McNamara had prepared a set of documents on the military presence in South Vietnam, and had sent them to RAND Corporation. These documents would eventually come to be known as the **Pentagon Papers**. A military analyst named **Daniel Ellsberg** opposed the war, and when he discovered the papers, decided that the American public should see them, and gave them in March 1971 to the New York Times. Attorney General John Mitchell cited the Espionage Act and tried to arrest Ellsberg for the release, but the papers ended up staying public.

Nixon's top advisors at this time included Chief of Staff H.R. Haldeman, John Ehrlichman, and John Mitchell, and John Dean. They decided to set up a secret organization to fix leaks, the White House Plumbers. One of their first jobs was to break into the office of Lewis Fielding, Ellsberg's psychiatrist. Also on the Plumbers were Howard Hunt and **G. Gordon Liddy**.

At this point, the Republicans wanted to run against McGovern, because it seemed like he'd be easier to beat than Muskie. The Republicans had set up the **Committee to Re-Elect the President** (CREEP).

Liddy came up with an idea to burglarize the **Watergate complex**. They were to break into DNC headquarters and bug the telephones. People recruited into the operation included James McCord and Bernard Barker. But, the DC Police caught the burglars, and they were hauled in front of Judge John Sirica. Now, the FBI started investigating, and it was suggested to Nixon to put an end to this because it was a security risk.

At this point, McGovern became the Democratic candidate, and he botched his run. He ended up winning only Massachusetts and DC, and got trounced by Nixon.

Now, the White House was denying any connection to the Watergate break-in. The people who had actually broken in weren't particularly happy about this. Then, John Dean decided to go and talk about how Haldeman, Ehrlichman, and the President had been part of the cover up. Now, CREEP, Nixon, and everyone was being investigated by the grand jury, the FBI, and by the media.

Chief among the reporters looking into Watergate were two *Washington Post* reporters named **Bob Woodward** and **Carl Bernstein**. They were helped by a mysterious

informant named **Deephroat** (now revealed to be **Mark Felt**, the #2 man at the FBI). There was also a special prosecutor named Archibald Cox, who was looking into CREEP and friends. CREEP money was supposedly being channeled into covert operations.

When it was revealed that Nixon had been recording all the conversations he'd had, everyone wanted the tapes. Of course, Nixon didn't want to give the tapes away.

Nixon tried to get Attorney General Elliot Richardson to get rid of Cox, but Richardson didn't want to, and he resigned. Deputy Attorney General William Ruckelshaus did the same, and then Nixon turned to Solicitor General **Robert Bork**. Bork determined that it was legal to do what Nixon was asking, Cox was sent away, and his office was sealed off. This series of events came to be known as the **Saturday Night Massacre**. Nixon was forced to put Leon Jaworski into the Cox's old position.

Then, Nixon decided to give some transcripts of the tapes over. This didn't work for very long, and the Supreme Court decided in *United States v. Nixon* that he had to release them all. When people heard the tapes, it was fairly obvious that the Nixon administration was wholly corrupt. Pressure against Nixon grew until he was about to be impeached, and he resigned.

Gerald Ford

When Spiro Agnew resigned as Nixon's Vice President, Nixon appointed **Gerald Ford** (born Leslie Lynch King Jr.) to the post. On Nixon's resignation, Ford became president, making him the only person to have served in both the vice presidency and the presidency without having been elected to either post. A month after Nixon's resignation, Ford pardoned him, and he also pardoned Vietnam war draft dodgers.

In 1975, in the span of three weeks, Ford had two attempts on his life. Sara Jane Moore and Lynette "Squeaky" Fromme, the only two women to attempt presidential assassination, tried to kill Ford.

Ford's economic policy was called "whip inflation now". Donald Rumsfeld served as both his Chief of Staff and Secretary of Defense. He also retained **Henry Kissinger** as Secretary of State from the Nixon administration. Ford signed the **Helsinki Accords** in 1975, attempting to improve relations with the Communist bloc. During the Mayaguez incident (the last official battle of the Vietnam War), Ford sent Marines to retake the *Mayaguez*, a merchant ship near Cambodia.

Jimmy Carter

At the start of the 1976 campaign, Ford had to overcome opposition in his own party. He defeated Ronald Reagan, a former California governor, and got the nomination at the convention, selecting Bob Dole as his running mate. His opponent was **Jimmy Carter**, a peanut farmer from rural Georgia who served as governor until 1975. Apparently when

Carter told his mother he was running for president, his mother asked, “President of what?” Carter’s running mate was Walter Mondale, and he beat Carl Sanders (“Cufflinks Carl”) in the primary. During the campaign, Ford famously claimed, “There is no Soviet domination of Eastern Europe and there never will be under a Ford Administration”. The election ended up being fairly close but Carter won.

On his second day in office, Carter pardoned Vietnam War draft dodgers. He created the Department of Energy. He established the Department of Education, appointing Shirley Hufstедler as its first secretary. He signed the Torrijos-Carter Treaties, guaranteeing that Panama would own its Canal by 1999. Carter’s Secretary of State was Cyrus Vance, but when Vance resigned, Carter replaced him with Edmund Muskie. At the urging of his National Security Advisor Zbigniew Brzezinski, Carter established his “Carter Doctrine”, stating that the US would use military force to defend the Persian Gulf.

In March 1979, a partial meltdown at **Three Mile Island** almost caused an evacuation of Harrisburg, PA. The meltdown was partially blamed on a maintenance bag that covered up information from Met Ed employees. While the energy crisis was setting in, Carter gave his “malaise speech”:

The threat is nearly invisible in ordinary ways. It is a **crisis of confidence**. It is a crisis that strikes at the very heart and soul and spirit of our national will. We can see this crisis in the growing doubt about the meaning of our own lives and in the loss of a unity of purpose for our nation.

Republicans in Power

Ronald Reagan

The incumbent Jimmy Carter went up against **Ronald Reagan**, former actor and governor of California, and independent John B. Anderson in the election of 1980. As a result of the failure to deal with the Iran Hostage Crisis and a failing economy, Reagan won the election in a landslide, with Carter only winning 6 states and the District of Columbia. Simultaneously, Republicans took control of the Senate for the first time in 28 years.

Reagan’s “voodoo economics” had been attacked by his Vice President, **George H.W. Bush**, during the primaries. Reagan signed the Kemp-Roth tax cut, and his director of the OMB was David Stockman, who helped implement his supply-side economics. While Reagan was in office, he dealt with the air traffic controller strike.

In March 1981, **John Hinckley, Jr.** tried to kill Reagan at the Hilton Hotel in Washington, D.C. Hinckley was obsessed with Jodie Foster, who’d starred in *Taxi Driver* just a few years prior, writing:

Over the past seven months I’ve left you dozens of poems, letters and love messages in the faint hope that you could develop an interest in me. Although we talked on the phone

a couple of times I never had the nerve to simply approach you and introduce myself... The reason I'm going ahead with this attempt now is because I cannot wait any longer to impress you.

All targets survived. Hinckley was found not guilty by reason of insanity.

Reagan did not believe that the US and the Soviets were both equally culpable in the manifestation of the Cold War. In March 1983, he stood in front of the National Association of Evangelicals and delivered the “**Evil Empire**” speech, decrying the USSR as directly opposed to all that is good in the world:

I urge you to beware the temptation of pride—the temptation of blithely declaring yourselves above it all and label both sides equally at fault, to ignore the facts of history and the aggressive impulses of an evil empire, to simply call the arms race a giant misunderstanding and thereby remove yourself from the struggle between right and wrong and good and evil.

In October 1983, Reagan ordered US forces to invade Grenada. Codenamed **Operation Urgent Fury**, the goal was to intervene with the Marxist-Leninist government under Maurice Bishop that had taken control in 1979. Bishop had been killed six days prior and hidden in a dumpster by Bernard Coard's new JEWEL faction. Reagan also cited a threat to a few hundred medical students at St. George's University. The invasion was a success, resulting in a new government and Bishop's body

In 1984, Reagan and Bush utterly demolished Mondale and Geraldine Ferraro. Mondale won only Minnesota and DC, and Reagan was reelected.

Of course, in Reagan's second term, he dealt with media exposure of the **Iran-Contra Affair**. Here's how it happened.

At this point in time, The **Contras** in Nicaragua were fighting against the **Sandinistas**. The Sandinistas, under Daniel Ortega, had taken power a few years ago, and since they leaned very far to the left, Reagan wasn't overly fond of them, and he wanted to help the Contras. Congress didn't want to fund the Contras, so they passed the **Boland Amendment** preventing sending government money to them.

Seven Americans were taken hostage in Lebanon by Hezbollah. Iran was currently involved in the [Iran-Iraq War](#). In order to free them, Israel was meant to send weapons to Iran, with the US resupplying Israel. So, this was a fairly straightforward arms-for-hostages situation, with the Americans using Israel as a proxy.

Then, National Security Council military political liaison named **Oliver North** diverted funds from the weapon sales to fund the **Contras**. So, the money was being funneled in a way that tried to bypass the Boland Amendment.

In November 1986, the story was leaked by the Lebanese magazine Ash-Shiraa. This

turned into a Congressional investigation, and Reagan claimed no knowledge of the affair. Defense Secretary **Caspar Weinberger** wrote that Reagan knew that the hostage-for-arms deal was happening. In March 1987 Reagan took full responsibility for the bad stuff that happened during the scandal.

A few investigations into the affair were conducted, notably one by Congress, and one by the Reagan appointed **Tower Commission** (John Tower, Brent Snowcroft, and Edmund Muskie). Reagan wasn't implicated in any criminal acts in the end, but fourteen officials including Weinberger were indicted, and eleven were convicted, including National Security Advisor John Poindexter. During the trials, Fawn Hall, North's secretary, was granted immunity for her testimony. During his state of the union, Reagan said of the affair: "Mistakes were made."

H.W.

Incumbent Vice President **George Herbert Walker Bush** and **Dan Quayle** of Indiana won the 1988 election in a landslide, defeating Democratic candidate **Michael Dukakis**. On accepting the nomination, Bush had given his "thousand points of light" speech. Bush campaigned largely on his economic policy: "Read my lips — no new taxes." During the Vice Presidential debate, Dukakis's running mate Lloyd Bentsen famously told Quayle, "Senator, I served with Jack Kennedy. I knew Jack Kennedy. Jack Kennedy was a friend of mine. **Senator, you're no Jack Kennedy.**" When Bush won the election, he became the first sitting vice president to be elected to the presidency since Van Buren all the way back in 1836.

Before he'd been vice president, Bush had been the RNC chairman during Watergate and he'd directed the CIA. As president, he signed the Americans with Disabilities Act into law. He launched Operation Restore Hope to give aid to Africa. Bush also launched **Operation Just Cause**, which ousted Manuel Noriega from his position in Panama. While in office, he appointed David Souter and Clarence Thomas to the Supreme Court. When Saddam Hussein invaded Kuwait in 1991, a coalition was put together to free the country, and we'll talk the resulting Operation Desert Storm when we get to recent Middle Eastern history.

Chapter 24. Recent European History

The better I get to know men, the more I find myself loving dogs.

— Charles de Gaulle

Republics of France

Fourth Republic

On October 13, 1946, a new **Fourth Republic** established itself in France. The French Colonial Empire proceeded to fall apart. French Indochina was lost at the Battle of **Dien Bien Phu**, falling into Viet Minh hands, led by [Ho Chi Minh](#).

In 1956, France faced the **Suez Crisis**. France had built the Suez Canal, and therefore owned the Canal. When Egyptian President **Gamal Abdel Nasser** (more in the later chapters) decided to nationalize the Canal, Britain and France attacked. Israel had also allied with Britain and France in the secret Protocol of Sevres. It started when Israel, aiding the British and French, began Operation Kadesh. They invaded Port Said as part of Operation Musketeer. Eisenhower would put a stop to the fighting.

President de Gaulle

Shortly after the Suez Crisis, Guy Mollet was forced out of the post of Prime Minister. By 1958, the Fourth Republic was falling apart under Rene Coty. French army units took power in Algiers in May and the whole thing fell apart.

Into this crisis rose **Charles de Gaulle**, who had led the Free French in World War II. The National Assembly put de Gaulle in power and he founded the new **Fifth Republic**. He introduced his “Politics of Grandeur” and demanded that France be given complete autonomy in its affairs. He withdrew France from NATO’s military command, because he thought that the US had too much control. In 1965, de Gaulle helped start the Empty Chair Crisis, which involved financing the Common Agricultural Policy of the European Economic Community (EEC). The crisis was resolved when the Luxembourg compromise

was reached in January 1966.

On a visit to Canada in 1967, de Gaulle voiced support for a free Quebec, declaring, “vive le Quebec libre” (long live free Quebec).

The new president also had to deal with the war in Algeria. After visiting Africa, he decided that he supported independence for Algeria, and neutralized the army that was stationed there. In 1959, he gave the country self-determination, and there followed a revolt by the French settlers. The Secret Army Organization opposed Algerian independence.

In 1962, de Gaulle signed the **Evian Accords**, creating a ceasefire in Algeria and giving victory to the FLN (National Liberation Front in Algeria). This resulted in several assassination attempts against him by the OAS (the settlers' resistance group), including one in which he narrowly escaped machine gun fire in a limousine.

In May 1968, protests broke out against de Gaulle's government. His OTRF broadcasting organization had a monopoly on TV and radio. On May 29, de Gaulle disappeared without telling anyone. He went to Baden-Baden, from whence he returned with the military's support. During the revolts, the Grenelle Agreements were signed, increasing the minimum wage, but failing to resolve the conflict. Eventually, de Gaulle's time as a leader was up and **George Pompidou** took over running the country.

United Kingdom: The Commonwealth

Many important things happened between the end of the Second World War and the late 1960s, but I'm not going to talk about them.

The Troubles started in 1968 as a conflict between republicans and unionists in Northern Ireland. They started when a series of riots such as the Battle of the Bogside broke out in Derry. During the Troubles, ten inmates at Maze Prison, including Bobby Sands, starved themselves to death. The Troubles were ended by the **Good Friday Agreement** in 1998, which came about as the result of peace talks chaired by George Mitchell.

In the 1970s, the UK went through some rough economic times. Labour had returned to power in 1974 under Harold Wilson. The economy got worse until Wilson was replaced by James Callaghan. But, he presided over the Winter of Discontent and he was voted out with no confidence.

In 1979, Conservative **Margaret Thatcher**, the Iron Lady, was elected prime minister. Philosophically, Thatcher held views similar to Ronald Reagan and Brian Mulroney (elected in Canada in 1984). Her Conservative Party was made up of “wets” and “dries”. After the Maze Prison hunger strike, Sinn Fein started to come back into power. In 1981, the royal family was brought back into the limelight when **Prince Charles** married **Princess Diana**, and everyone cared.

In Argentina, an unstable military junta under Leopoldo Galtieri had taken power. On April 2, 1982, Argentina invaded the British-controlled Falkland Islands, starting the **Falkland War**. In response, the British sent a naval task force to the islands. They opened with the Black Buck Raids and the Raid on Pebble Island, and proceeded to try Operation Mikado, which was aborted. After an amphibious landing at Port San Carlos, they won the Battle of Goose Green. A big chunk of Argentine casualties occurred when the British sunk ARA *General Belgrano*. The British used Ascension Island as a staging ground, where they used US technology. The whole war lasted over seventy days, and resulted in British victory and restoration of the status quo.

In other foreign affairs, Thatcher visited Deng Xiaoping in China and negotiated the peaceful transfer of Hong Kong back to China in 15 years. She also set up the creation of Zimbabwe from the former state of Rhodesia.

At home, Thatcher faced a National Union of Mineworkers strike led by Arthur Scargill. During the Westland affair, Thatcher and her Defence Minister Michael Heseltine dealt with the rescuing of Westland Helicopters. The incident embarrassed the government, hurt Thatcher's public reputation, and led to Heseltine's resignation. At one point, she survived an IRA assassination attempt by Patrick Magee and his men in which they tried to blow her up in the Grand Hotel in Brighton. When she tried to institute the Community Charge (essentially a poll tax) her popularity vanished and she was replaced by **John Major**.

Eastern Bloc

Czechoslovakia

After World War II, Czechoslovakia expelled a bunch of Germans who'd been living in its borders. The Third Republic began, but the country became part of Stalin's sphere of influence. In February 1948, Communists took over the country, and Edvard Benes came to power. In June 1953, strikes in Plzen were broken up without too much blood, disappointing Allen Dulles, who'd wanted an excuse for the CIA to help the people resist Soviet control. The 1960 Constitution proclaimed the victory of socialism, and created the Czechoslovak Socialist Republic.

In January 1968, **Alexander Dubcek**, a Slovak reformer, was elected first secretary of the KSC (Communist Party of Czechoslovakia). He replaced Antonin Novotny as Novotny also ceded the presidency to Ludvik Svoboda. Dubcek started to enact a new reform movement in the spring of 1968, which would be known as **Prague Spring**. On April 5, he set up the Action Programme, which guaranteed freedom of religion, press, assembly, and speech, calling it "socialism with a human face". During Prague Spring, Ludvik Vaculik published his "Two Thousand Words" manifesto. Other Warsaw Pact countries weren't particularly happy about what was happening in Prague Spring, so they invaded Czechoslovakia in August. Dubcek was arrested and taken to Moscow, where he

negotiated the **Brezhnev Doctrine**, allowing for Czechoslovakia to become partially sovereign, with the KSC gaining power. Notably, in January 1969, Jan Palach set himself on fire in Prague to protest the invasion of the country and the end of Prague Spring. By April 1969, Dubcek was replaced by **Gustav Husak**.

Skip forward a bit to 1989, when the anti-Communist revolution started. Between November and December of that year, the non-violent **Velvet Revolution** took place. The main anti-communist party was Charter 77, a civic initiative that managed to overthrow the communist regime. Former playwright **Vaclav Havel** was elected the first president of Czechoslovakia in 41 years. Havel was reelected and became the first president of the new Czech Republic, after it split from Slovakia following the Velvet Divorce in 1993.

Communism in Hungary

After the war, Hungary had passed a new constitution, and socialism was set up as the main governmental goal. The People's Front, led by Matyas Rakosi, took power and declared all other parties illegal. In May 1949, Laszlo Rajk of the "Hungarian" Communists, was arrested and put on trial. He was found guilty and executed, and Rakosi proceeded to impose full totalitarian rule, executing thousands. His secret police, led by Gabor Peter, persecuted anyone that Rakosi called an enemy. Rakosi fell in 1956.

On October 23, 1956, a student demonstration in Budapest began. The protests got attention from the police, who opened fire on the students, sparking the **Hungarian Revolution of 1956**. Stalin's statue was toppled, and people wanted Erno Gero to step down from power. At two in the morning the following day, Soviet tanks entered Budapest. On the 25th, they opened fire on protesters, and the Central Committee forced Gero to resign, replacing him with **Janos Kadar**. At this point, **Imre Nagy** and a group of supporters took over the Hungarian Working People's Party. Nagy freed Cardinal Josef Mindszenty, among other political prisoners. On November 1, Nagy announced that he was going to withdraw from the Warsaw Pact. Then, Khrushchev intervened. Soviet tanks took airfields and subdued the Hungarian forces. Nagy was arrested and replaced by Janos Kadar, a Soviet loyalist.

Kadar proceeded to lead an attack on the revolutionaries, imprisoning or killing them. He then declared general amnesty. By the late 1980's, Kadar's government was poised to become a Western-style democracy. Kadar was replaced in 1988 by Imre Pozsgay.

Romania

Going back a bit, Romania had declared independence from the Ottomans in 1878, following the Russo-Turkish war. The country declared neutrality in World War I, but was eventually pressured into joining the Allies. Surrounded by Austria-Hungary and the Ottomans, most of the country was immediately captured, but the Allied victory resulted in territorial gains. The interwar years were characterized by the larger country they called "Greater Romania", and in 1938, the first Romanian dictator, **King Carol II** came to

power.

When World War II started, the Soviet Union declared interest in Bessarabia, currently under Romanian control. While Romania initially tried to remain neutral, Soviet aggression led to the country joining the Axis Powers. Territorial losses in the opening year of the war led to Carol II being deposed. He was replaced by **Ion Antonescu** and the Iron Guard, who formed the National Legionary State. Antonescu and friends participated in the Holocaust, and were deposed late in the war by **King Michael I**, who decided to have the country join the Allies instead.

Three years later, in 1947, Michael was forced out of power by Communists. Soviet occupation resulted in a communist republic governed by **Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej**. With the death of Gheorghiu-Dej in 1965, **Nicolae Ceausescu** became the first President of Romania.

Ceausescu's regime became increasingly authoritarian throughout the 1970s. In his **July Theses** speech, Ceausescu aimed to intensify socialist ideology in the country, beginning a Neo-Stalinist type attack on freedom and autonomy.

In December 1989, Ceausescu tried to evict Laszlo Tokes, a Hungarian pastor, from the city of Timisoara. Protests against the move quickly spiraled into a **Romanian Revolution** against the regime in general. People's opinion of the government dropped quickly, and when Ceausescu tried to give another speech on the 21st, the audience quickly booed him off the stage, yelling "Timisoara!" Ceausescu took refuge in the Central Committee building with his wife Elena, but the following day, the crowd rushed the building and made it inside. He and his wife barely managed to escape by taking a helicopter off the roof. On Christmas Day, the Ceausescus were arrested and killed.

Polish Republic

The Polish People's Republic was created under the communist Polish United Workers' Party, and the new name was adopted in 1952. Under the Stalinist regime, thousands were tried and executed. The Catholic Church was persecuted after Stalin died, Cardinal Stefan Wyszynski was detained, and there was a show trial of the Krakow Curia in January 1953. When the Warsaw Pact formed in 1955, the Polish People's Republic had the second largest army.

As de-Stalinization started in 1956, riots broke out in Poznan. During the **Polish October**, the new Polish Party's First Secretary **Wladyslaw Gomulka** liberalized life. This Polish Thaw started the country in the "way to socialism". During the 1968 political crisis, inspired in part by Prague Spring, Polish opposition set up protests, prompting a crackdown by the authorities.

In the early 1970's, Poland's economy was in a good place, but the 1973 oil crisis caused a recession. Edward Gierek, who had replaced Gomulka, tried to help the economy, but he

wasn't successful, and 1976 led to protests against him. In 1978, Cardinal Karol Jozef Wojtyla became **Pope John Paul II**, improving Catholic morale. By 1979, economic growth was tanking and foreign debt was going straight up.

In 1980, the government tried to increase meat prices, but that resulted in general strikes in Lublin. Then, protests at the **Gdansk Shipyard** started a reaction of strikes that stopped a lot of progress. Workers led by **Lech Walesa**, a former electrician who had led the strike at the Lenin Shipyard, signed the Gdansk Agreement that ended the strike. Now, a bunch of unionizing movements swept over the country. On September 17, they got together in Gdansk, led by Walesa, and created a new national union organization called **Solidarity**. In 1981, at the first Solidarity National Congress, Walesa was elected the national chairman of the Union.

In December, the regime began martial law in the country, and ZOMO riot police were deployed to stop Solidarity. The Military Council of National Salvation was put in charge, as a basic appearance of political stability had been attained. When Gorbachev came to power, his reforms helped Poland. Then, the Round Table Negotiations and the election of 1989 led to the fall of communism.

The Round Table Agreement set up local self government, and the legislature (the Sejm) was split based on the new agreement. After some work, Lech Walesa was elected president of the Third Polish Republic in November 1990.

Yugoslavia

Yugoslavia had been created following the First World War, when it was called the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. But they decided that name was too long, and in 1929 it was renamed to the Kingdom of Yugoslavia. It was invaded during World War II, and after the war, it was known as the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia. A communist regime was put in place.

At the head of the country was the Partisan **Josip Broz Tito**. Tito took down the Chetnik (opposing party) leader Draa Mihailovic, and he set up the UDBA secret police. Yugoslavia was expelled from Cominform in 1948 following Tito's notable **split with Stalin**, and he became the First Secretary General of the Non-Aligned Movement, which he helped created with Gamal Abdel Nasser and [Jawaharlal Nehru](#). Tito signed the Treaty of Vis with Ivan Ubaic, and his British liaison was Fitzroy Maclean. After imprisoning Aloysius Stepinac for helping the Ustashi movement against him, Tito was excommunicated by the pope. In 1974, Tito called himself "President for Life", promoting "brotherhood and unity" in Yugoslavia.

Tito died in 1980. This led to some internal strife in Yugoslavia, and the country dissolved by 1991, leading to the Yugoslav Wars.

Bulgaria

Bulgaria had joined the Axis in 1941 as part of the Tripartite pact, occupying much of the Balkans (Greece, Yugoslavia). However, when the Red Army marched across the border in 1944, Bulgaria severed ties with the Axis and the Communist Party in the country launched a coup and installed a new government led by the Fatherland Front.

By 1946, the monarchy had been abolished, Tsar Simeon II had been exiled, and the Kingdom of Bulgaria became the People's Republic of Bulgaria. The Communist Party, led by **Georgi Dimitrov**, became the majority power.

Dimitrov was succeeded on his death in 1949 by Vulko Chervenkov, who wasn't popular enough to keep hold of power. He was replaced by **Todor Zhivkov** in 1954, who would remain General Secretary of the party until 1989 (making him the longest serving leader under the Iron Curtain).

Among the political complexities the Bulgarian government had to deal with was the matter of Pirin Macedonia. A Macedonian region which had been ceded to Yugoslavia after the First World War, its fate had been left to the whims of the relationship between Tito and Stalin. Bulgaria and Greece had been fighting over Macedonia for many years, but now Stalin demanded that cultural autonomy must be given to the people of Pirin Macedonia, to create a unified identity within Bulgaria. In the 1960s (well after Tito and Stalin stopped being friends), Zhivkov would declare that Pirin Macedonia was part of Bulgaria, stating that there was no such thing as a Macedonian nation, and all accounts to the contrary had been fabricated by the Yugoslav government.

Zhivkov borrowed ideas from the Soviet Union and China, being inspired by the Great Leap Forward to create the Third Five-Year Plan (1958-1962), which attempted to industrialize and liberalize the country. However, due to nearby turmoil (e.g. the USSR invading Czechoslovakia in 1968), Bulgaria backed off on the aggressive industrial investment and began to stagnate in the 1970s. Zhivkov tried to remedy this in 1981 using the "New Economic Model". For example, Bulgaria supplied 40% of the computers used by the Eastern Bloc economic union (COMECON). The general quality of life stayed low as shelves stayed empty (or filled with mediocre products).

In 1980, the Zhivkov and the Bulgarian government, spurred by Turkey's invasion of Cyprus and Kenan Evren's coup in Turkey in 1980, decided to wage a culture war on the Turkish minority in Bulgaria. Turks were forbidden to speak their language, were forced to change their names, and in 1989, many Turks were expelled from Bulgaria (resulting in yet more economic decline due to reduced agricultural output).

Zhivkov's failure to improve things came to the forefront, and he was replaced with Peter Mladenov in 1989. That only kept the Communists in power for a short time, though, as proper elections were held in 1990, ending the Communist lead in government and renaming the country the Republic of Bulgaria.

The Balkans

Bosnian War

I'm going to go a little further than I have in other sections. The **Bosnian War** took place between 1992–1995, in Bosnia and Herzegovina. It came about as a result of the dissolution of Yugoslavia. When Bosnia and Herzegovina declared independence, the Bosnian Serbs, supported by **Slobodan Milosovic** and his Serb forces, mobilized inside the country and started a war that raged across all of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

On one side was the Serb Army of the Republika Srpska (VSR), and on the other was the Army of the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina (ARBiH). Also in the mix were the Croats, who wanted to make parts of Bosnia and Herzegovina part of Croatia.

The war was full of fighting, unchecked shelling of populated areas, ethnic cleansing, and mass rape. These atrocities were especially exemplified by the Siege of Sarajevo and the Srebrenica Massacre, during which Ratko Mladic's troops killed over 8,000 men and boys. During the war, Sarajevo was home to Sniper Alley, a major street in the city, where signs reading "PAZI" warned about the dangers inherent in using the road. After the massacres, NATO forces intervened in 1995. The war included Operation Deliberate Force and Operation Deny Flight, and the latter resulted in the Banja Luka incident, in which six Serb attack jets were shot down by American F-16s.

Peace negotiations in Ohio resulted in the **Dayton Agreement**, which was finalized in November 1995. The treaty that was signed by Alija Izetbegovic, Franjo Tudman, and Bill Clinton.

Chapter 25. Recent World History

Judgment comes from experience, and experience comes from bad judgment.

— Simon Bolivar

Keep in mind that we haven't looked at some parts of the world in quite a long time. As a result, "recent" in some of these places may go back quite a while...

South America: Conflict and Dictators

Bolivar's Fight for Independence

For this part, we go all the way back to the first part of the 19th century. Spain and Portugal ruled South America, and in the first quarter of the 1800's, the wars of independence began.

In 1819, **Simon Bolivar** came up with a plan to take New Granada by crossing the Andes. He'd previously given his Decree of War to the Death during his Admirable Campaign through Merida. Bolivar aimed to create an army himself and invade Venezuela with the help of Antonio Jose de Sucre. After winning at the Battle of Carabobo, the Battle of Pinchincha, and finally at the Battle of Boyaca, Bolivar created **Gran Colombia** in northern South America and became its first president. In 1828, an assassination attempt on Bolivar was stopped by his mistress Manuela Saenz, and Bolivar called her "Libertadora del libertador" (liberator of the liberator). At the **Guayaquil Conference**, Bolivar met with Jose de San Martin and convinced him to retire to France.

Brazilian Regimes

When King Joao VI of Portugal left Brazil in 1821, he left behind his son, who became Dom **Pedro I** of Brazil. He, in turn, abdicated in 1831, leaving behind his young son as the new emperor.

When **Pedro II** took power, he was only five, so regents ruled until 1840. At this time, there were loads of revolutions and wars, including: the Sabinada, the Ragamuffin War or

War of Tatters (recall Garibaldi), the Male Revolt, Cabanagem and Balaiada, and others. Then, Pedro started a new parliamentary reign. He passed the Law of Free Birth, and his daughter Isabel passed the Golden Law which abolished slavery. Pedro was ousted in 1889 by a coup led by Deodoro da Fonseca, and a republic was established in Brazil.

The Old Republic lasted from 1889 to 1930, during which important events almost certainly occurred.

After 1930, **Getulio Vargas** led a new military junta. He was called the “Father of the Poor”, and he set up an Estado Novo in Brazil, inspired by the Estado Novo that Antonio Salazar had set up in Portugal. He replaced the “**cafe com leite**” (coffee with milk) politics that had dominated the old republic, which had placed a lot of power in the hands of the very rich and particularly alert coffee industry. He created the fake communist “Cohen Plan” to foment hatred of communists, and he supported Plinio Salgado’s far-right political organization until Salgado targeted him in the Pajama Revolt.

Vargas was deposed in 1945 and replaced with Jose Linhares, but he returned, becoming a democratically elected president in 1951. When his bodyguard tried to kill his rival Carlos Lacerda on Rua Tonelero, people called for Vargas’s resignation. He killed himself in 1954 and was replaced by his Vice President Cafe Filho.

Chile

Chile’s independence movement began in 1810, following the establishment of a new junta. The new government was led by Jose Miguel Carrera, who ruled with an iron fist. Unhappy about this, **Bernardo O’Higgins** led a group of rivals that aimed to get full independence. After a loss at Rancagua, he and his friend **Jose de San Martin**, the “Bolívar of the South”, led the Army of the Andes to victories at Maipu and **Chacabuco**. O’Higgins served as the second Supreme Director of Chile from 1817 to 1823.

In 1970, Marxist **Salvador Allende** was elected president. He was part of the new Popular Unity Party, and he defeated Jorge Alessandri to win the election. He dealt with the El Teniente copper mine strike, and he went through the Cuban packages smuggling scandal during which arms were discovered in the packages.

In August 1973, Carlos Prats, a member of Allende’s cabinet, was replaced by **Augusto Pinochet**. A month later, on September 11, 1973, Pinochet staged a CIA-backed coup against Allende. Allende apparently committed suicide in the presidential palace, La Moneda, and Pinochet seized power in Chile.

Having come to power, Pinochet ordered the assassination of everyone he didn’t like by the Caravan of Death. He arrested Defense Minister Orlando Letelier, imprisoned him for a year, and tortured him; Letelier was eventually assassinated on Pinochet’s orders. Pinochet killed Carlos Prats, utilized the DINA secret police, and he was supported by the Carabineers. He also employed the **Chicago Boys**, a group of Chilean economists, who had

trained at the University of Chicago under Milton Friedman and Arnold Harberger, and who lowered tariffs and privatized industry following Allende's Marxist regime. Pinochet led **Operation Condor** in the 1970's, suppressing and killing leftists in South America. The campaign was what targeted Orlando Letelier, as well as the Group of Seven. During Operation Condor, the Night of the Pencils resulted in the kidnapping and torture and murder of many students. The operation expanded into the **Dirty War** under Jorge Videla in Argentina.

Argentina

Argentina was placed into turmoil in 1943 by a coup led by Pedro Pablo Ramirez, Arturo Rawson, Edelmiro Farrell, and **Juan Peron**. They marched on the Casa Rosada and demanded that President Castillo step down, which he did, and ended the Infamous Decade of Argentina. Ramirez took power, and broke relations with the Axis. He was replaced by Farrell, and Peron helped manage relations with laborers until he was deposed. Peron was detained on Martin Garcia Island, until he was brought back in 1945 and won elections.

Peron's second wife was **Eva "Evita" Peron**, who helped out a lot and then died of cancer in 1952. She did the Rainbow Tour to try and improve relations with Europe. When Evita died, Peron's third wife, Isabela, was Vice President.

Juan Peron censored lots of things and the number of unionized workers went up. His government was isolationist, and he tried to avoid the Cold War using his "Third Way" policy, which ended up being targeted by the Dirty War mentioned earlier. Peron was supported by the descamisados (shirtless ones). When a group of his Monteneros supporters went to meet him at the airport, they were killed in the Ezeiza massacre. Peron was deposed in 1955 and exiled by Eduardo Lombardi, but he came back to power in 1973.

Conflict

War of the Triple Alliance

The **War of the Triple Alliance** took place from 1864 to 1870. The popular theory of the cause of the war is that Paraguayan President **Francisco Solano Lopez** wanted to get control of the Platine basin. Paraguay started fighting Brazil in 1864 when Paraguay invaded the Mato Grosso. By the next year, Argentina and Uruguay realized their shared dislike of Paraguay and entered the war, allying with Brazil. During the war, Bartolome Mitre led Argentinian forces and Pedro II was in charge in Brazil. Immediately prior to the start of the war, Venancio Flores and the Blanco Party took power in Uruguay, overthrowing Atanasio Aguirre and the Colorado Party.

The initial offensive of Paraguay stalled after they lost at the Battle of Yatay. Marshal Caxias of Brazil retrained the Allied army for a few months. The turning point of the war

was the naval battle of Riachuelo. The war ended at Cerro Cora, where Solano Lopez was killed, and the peace settlement was brokered by Rutherford Hayes. Paraguay, needless to say, was utterly demolished by this uneven war, and the country lost 60% of its population, leaving a woman-man ratio of 4 to 1.

War of the Pacific

The **War of the Pacific** was fought, as you may have guessed, along the Pacific coast of South America, between 1879 and 1883. On one side was Chile, and on the other, the allied nations of Bolivia and Peru. In February 1878, Bolivia imposed a tax on a Chilean mining company, even though they'd previously said they wouldn't. So Chile occupied Antofagasta, a port city. Peru was drawn into the whole ordeal because of a secret treaty they'd made with Bolivia. It's worth noting that countries were also after the valuable guano and saltpeter in the Atacama. On March 1, Bolivia declared war and Chile declared war right back on both countries.

Chile's land war eventually defeated the allied nations. Bolivia retreated after the Battle of Tacna (1880), and the Peruvians were defeated at the Battle of Arica (1881). Other important battles include the Battle of Angamos, where Captain Miguel Grau was killed when his ship *Huascar* was captured; he'd earlier helped sink *Esmeralda* at the Battle of Iquique. Chile occupied Lima in January 1881, while Peru tried to stop the Chileans with a guerrilla campaign. The war ended with the Treaty of Ancon; Bolivia became landlocked, and the Tarapaca province was given to Chile.

Eastern Asia: Independence and Leaders

Indian Subcontinent

The British Raj had been in charge in India since 1858. While there had been some more militant movements for independence in Bengal, they were largely failures, so let's forward a bit to the 20th century.

Independence

Mohandas "Mahatma" Gandhi was born in India and went to learn law in London. He then spent some time as a lawyer in South Africa, helping the Indian community there with civil rights using nonviolent civil disobedience. While in South Africa, he founded Phoenix Farm and Tolstoy Farm. He came back to India in 1915, and he started to organize a peasant movement to protest high taxes and injustice. He took control of the Indian National Congress and started his whole campaign for independence. During the early twenties, he led the Non-Cooperation Movement against the Rowlatt Act.

Gandhi decided to try for *swadeshi*, boycotting foreign products, increasing use of homespun cotton fabric. After the **Purna Swaraj** declaration of independence of India was promulgated in 1930, Gandhi led the **Dandi Salt March** to protest the salt tax. On

March 12, he started the march with less than 80 people, and by the end of the march on April 6, the group was almost two miles on. On reaching Dandi, Gandhi picked up some mud and boiled it, claiming to shake the very foundations of the British Empire. For this, he was put in Yerwada Jail for eight months along with about 60,000 other Indians. Gandhi would later be assassinated by **Nathuram Godse**.

Of course, there were other notable people in the period that India was working for independence. People like **Subhas Chandra Bose** and **Bhagat Singh** wanted armed resistance. During the Second World War, Gandhi's Quit India Movement and Bose's Indian National Army peaked. In 1947, the **Indian Independence Act** was signed, and the new countries of India and Pakistan were formed.

A New India

The first prime minister of the new India was **Jawaharlal Nehru**, who had split the country with Pakistan in 1947 very soon after independence. Nehru had given the **Tryst with Destiny** speech right before independence:

Long years ago we made a tryst with destiny, and now the time comes when we shall redeem our pledge, not wholly or in full measure, but very substantially. **At the stroke of the midnight hour, when the world sleeps, India will awake to life and freedom.** A moment comes, which comes but rarely in history, when we step out from the old to the new, when an age ends, and when the soul of a nation, long suppressed, finds utterance.

He created the States Reorganization Commission, headed by Faizal Ali, in 1953 to reorganize the state boundaries in the country (the process ended up taking 2 years).

Nehru also conceived of the **Non-Aligned Movement**, which was created in Belgrade in 1961. Nehru, along with such people as Yugoslavia's Tito, Ghana's Kwame Nkrumah, Indonesia's Sukarno, and Egypt's Nasser, aimed to create an association of countries that did not want to ally with or ally against any of the major blocs.

Nehru instituted the Forward Policy, in which he set up a bunch of forts along the Chinese border. This started the **Sino-Indian War**, a border dispute with China that included the Battle of Thag La Ridge. People didn't like Nehru after this war, and he lost office in 1964.

The third prime minister was **Indira Gandhi**, Nehru's daughter. She won after defeating Morarji Desai. After losing power for a bit, she came back in 1971 along with her Congress party. India intervened in the Bangladesh Independence War, and Bangladesh (formerly East Pakistan) became independent as well. Gandhi started a two year state of emergency in the country, and was forced out in the late seventies by the Janata Party.

In the start of 1980, however, Indira Gandhi came back to power. Insurgency in Punjab became a problem quickly, and Gandhi decided to order **Operation Blue Star**, in which Indian troops raided militant headquarters in the Sikh Golden Temple of Amritsar. This

didn't go so well, and a lot of civilians died. Sikh people across the country were infuriated with Gandhi. Her own Sikh bodyguards Beant Singh and Satwant Singh assassinated Gandhi in 1984.

Pakistan

The first leader of the new Pakistan was **Muhammad Ali Jinnah**. He'd issued Fourteen Points that dealt with religious minority protections. When Congress Party walked out of government during World War II, he called for a "Day of Deliverance". He broke with Nehru over the two-state idea and the Lahore Resolution. He set up the Lucknow Pact and preceded Muhammad Iqbal as leader of the Muslim League. When he called for "Direct Action" (the Great Calcutta Killing), riots started in Bengal.

Communism in China

In the early 20th century, people were getting fed up with the Qing dynasty, and they revolted. The revolutionaries were led by **Sun Yat-sen**, and the Wuchang Uprising led to the new provisional government of the Republic of China, headquartered in Nanjing. Sun Yat-sen was declared the first president of the new republic.

Sun was succeeded by **Yuan Shikai**, who was made president because he was able to get Emperor Puyi to step down. Meanwhile, Sun Yat-sen and Song Jiaoren formed the new **Kuomintang** (KMT), China's nationalist party. Yuan started persecuting the KMT, who ended up winning elections in 1912–1913. The Second Revolution took place when Sun and KMT forces tried to overthrow Yuan, but they failed and Sun ran to Japan while Yuan likely ordered a successful hit on Song Jiaoren. Yuan created the Empire of China in 1915, and he set himself up as emperor. But he died in 1916 right after abdicating, and this led to the Warlord Era of China. China fell apart.

In the 1920s, Sun Yat-sen set up a base in the south to try and unite the broken country. He set up alliances with the USSR and the Communist Party in China (CPC), talking to Mikhail Borodin at a conference in Penang. He delivered a speech talking about the Three Principles of the People: nationalism, democracy, and the people's livelihood. He also put forward the Five-Power Constitution.

On Sun's death, his protege **Chiang Kai-shek** took control of the KMT. He'd been the first commander of the KMT Whampoa Military Academy that Sun had set up, and in 1926 he led the Northern Expedition against the **Beiyang Government** (which had been created by Yuan Shikai) to try and unify the country. Chiang became the president of China. He set up the New Life Movement, and with the help of the Blue Shirts Society, he tried to spread education of a new vaguely fascist set of ideals. During the Xi'an incident in 1936, Chiang was kidnapped by Marshal Zhang Xueliang, and Soong Mei-ling (Madame Chiang Kai-shek) helped negotiate an end to the incident. Chiang set up a truce with the CPC to fight Japan before the Second World War, but truces between enemies aren't really made to last.

After Japan was defeated, the civil war started up again between the Nationalist forces and the CPC. The Marshall Mission, in which the Americans tried to help set up a coalition government, failed in 1946 and the war continued. By 1949, the Nationalists were defeated because the CPC were simply better at war, as well as the fact that Chiang had managed to antagonize a good chunk of the country.

Upon defeat, Chiang and the Nationalist forces retreated to Taiwan (called Formosa). Chiang set up a new martial law under the KMT, going after people who criticized him with the help of the Green Gang. This period was known as the White Terror. Chiang died in 1975.

With the KMT out of the way in Taipei, the CPC was free to do whatever they wanted on the mainland. On October 1, 1949, **Mao Zedong** proclaimed the People's Republic of China. Mao had become head of the CPC during the **Long March**, when they had been forced to retreat from the KMT. He'd also joined forces with Zhu De in order to create the Red Army. For the next few years after taking power, he set up his Marxist/Leninist ideals in the country, which would later be detailed in his **Little Red Book**.

Mao launched the Hundred Flowers Campaign in 1956, encouraging people to openly express their ideas. Of course, when he decided that he didn't like people disagreeing with him, he quickly changed tack and cracked down on dissidents as part of his Anti-Rightist Campaign. In 1957, he launched his **Great Leap Forward**, trying to turn China from an old-fashioned agrarian state into a modern industrial one. This had the particularly impressive effect of transforming it into neither of the above, and leaving it in famine.

Mao started the **Cultural Revolution**, in which he tried to get rid of Chinese traditionalism. The main objective was to destroy the Four Olds (Old Customs, Old Culture, Old Habits, and Old Ideas). Mao issued the "Bombard the Headquarters" document, which incited reactions from the public. The Red Guards attacked many people in the country, killing and pillaging as they saw fit. During the 1968 "Down to the Countryside Movement", Mao sent a bunch of privileged city kids to go learn from farmers in the middle of nowhere. While the Cultural Revolution was going on, the **Gang of Four** came to prominence, led by Mao's last wife, **Jiang Qing**.

Under Mao, the first Premier of the PRC was **Zhou Enlai**, who helped out with foreign policy related issues. He had previously helped negotiate Chiang Kai-shek's release during the Xi'an incident. After Nehru was elected, Zhou talked with him and came up with the "Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence". He administered China during the Cultural Revolution. John Foster Dulles, Eisenhower's Secretary of State, didn't want to shake Zhou Enlai's hand, but Kissinger smoothed over relations when discussing Nixon's visit to China.

Mao died in 1976, and a power vacuum was created. The Gang of Four were blamed for the craziness that was the Cultural Revolution. Mao's appointed successor was **Hua Guofeng**, but he wasn't going to stay in power for long. Before long, **Deng Xiaoping**

defeated Hua Guofeng and took control as the Paramount Leader of China from 1978 to 1992. Deng advocated the Four Modernizations, and he created Special Economic Zones to help the economy, pushing for his “one country, two systems” policy.

The death of former general secretary Hu Yaobang in 1989 resulted in a funeral that ended in **Tiananmen Square**. Students and protesters called for governmental reform and about a million people stood in the square. Initially, the government didn’t do anything, but the protests kept going. Then, Deng decided to use force to resolve the protests, sending in tanks and declaring martial law. Jeff Widener took a picture of a man standing in front of a column of tanks. The incident resulted in really hurting Deng’s popularity, who had actually been doing pretty well up until that point.

Cambodia: Khmer Rouge

In 1945, the Japanese were occupying Cambodia. The young king **Norodom Sihanouk** declared the existence of the independent Kingdom of Kampuchea, and the Japanese ratified it and the new government set up shop in Phnom Penh. He stayed around until he was ousted by Prime Minister **Lon Nol** in 1970 while he was in Beijing. He quickly moved to ally Cambodia with the US.

In April of that year, Nixon announced that the Cambodian Incursion of US and South Vietnamese troops had begun. The aim was to destroy the NVA bases in the country. This came as no surprise; the US had been bombing Cambodia for a while at this point. In 1972, Lon Nol became president.

All this while, the **Khmer Rouge** (CPK) insurgency was growing within Cambodia. It was led by **Pol Pot** and Ieng Sary, who were backed by North Vietnam. They slowly weaned off Vietnamese dependency and on 1975, they attacked in full. In 117 days, the Khmer Republic fell and Lon Nol surrendered.

Not one to be outdone by Chairman Mao, Pol Pot set up the Super Great Leap Forward, instituting a bunch of purges after declaring that this was Year Zero. The CPK subsequently ordered everyone out to go work on farms, trying to rebuild the country to conform to Pol Pot’s ideas. The farming collectives soon came to be known as the “killing fields”. Pol Pot set up a prison camp codenamed S-21 in a high school and killed 20,000 people. In 1979, the Vietnamese army invaded Cambodia, creating the new People’s Republic of Kampuchea and forcing Pol Pot to the Thai border. He killed himself when his party decided to turn him over to international authorities.

Indonesia

In 1942, Japan was occupying Indonesia. They offered **Sukarno** some power in order for him to make everyone else in the country support Japan. Sukarno instituted “guided democracy” in the country when he became the first president. He set up the Pancasila (Five Principles) in a 1945 speech. After the 30 September Movement, he was deposed and

replaced by **Suharto**.

Suharto, head of the Golkar Party, came to power in 1967. He was apposed by Megawati Sukarnoputri, Sukarno's daughter, who led the PDI. His New Order government **invaded East Timor** in Operation Komodo, occupying it and beginning a bloody era that lasted from 1975 until 1999. He was forced to resign in 1998, following a riot at Triskati University and his failure to manage the economy. He was succeeded by Bacharddin Jusuf Habibie, but he only lasted until 1999 because nobody liked him.

Singapore and Malaysia

In 1819, Sir **Stamford Raffles** was determined to build a new British base in Southeast Asia, as a means to challenge Dutch dominance of navel trade in the area. Following a dispute between Tengku Long and Tengku Rahman over the Sultanate of Johor, Raffles managed to install Tengku Long in power and create a British base in Singapore. He then left Singapore and left Major William Farquhar as governor of the new base. Over the next fifty years, the population of Singapore would grow from 1,000 to 100,000. Tensions with the Dutch rose over the next few years, leading to the signing of the Anglo-Dutch Treaty of 1824.

Together with Penang and Malacca, Singapore formed the "Straits Settlements", administered by the British East India Company until they were established as a Crown Colony in 1867.

During the Second World War, Allied troops retreated to Singapore following the Japanese conquest of the Malay Peninsula. The defenses gave out and Arthur Percival ceded the city to **Tomoyuki Yamashita**. Japanese occupation was harsh and ruthless. During the **Sook Ching Massacre**, the Japanese military targeted allegedly "hostile elements" such as Chinese Singaporeans and systematically murdered tens of thousands. There were also significant purges of Indian, Malay, and other people throughout the area.

After the war, the British failure to defend the city led to anti-colonial movements rallying under the slogan *Merdeka* ("independence"). The Straits Settlements were separated, and Singapore got its own Legislative and Executive Councils as its own Crown Colony.

In 1955, David Marshall was the first Chief Minister of Singapore. The Hock Lee bus riots killed four people and shook trust in the government. The Chinese middle school riots further worsened the state of things for Marshall.

Singapore achieved full self government in 1958 as the result of the State of Singapore Act. The first Prime Minister was **Lee Kuan Yew**, who represented the **People's Action Party** (PAP).

In summer 1963, Singapore, Malaya, Sabah, and Sarawak signed the Malaysia Agreement and established Malaysia. However, racial tensions rose again as non-Malays in Singapore

protested discriminatory Malay policies. From Indonesia, Sukarno was stoking the fires by trying to incite Malay violence against Chinese Singaporeans. The 1964 Race Riots resulted in 23 deaths and more injured. Malaysian Prime Minister Tunku Abdul Rahman expelled Singapore from the federation to stop the violence. Singapore was independent.

Burma

Here's a country with history that comes up sometimes, but often in fragments. So, I'm just going to go over the bits that matter.

During World War II, Operation Dracula was an Allied attack on Burma. This was part of the Burma Campaign, and the operation's goal was to attack Rangoon and reoccupy Burma. The Japanese had already left, so occupation came swiftly.

The **8888 Uprising** took place on August 8, 1988, which lends it its name. Note that until this point, the Burma Socialist Programme Party had reigned supreme under Ne Win. The Way to Socialism had wrecked Burma's economy, and people were not happy. The goal of the uprising was democracy, and it was violently suppressed, but it did manage to get Ne Win out of power. In 1988, the State Law and Order Restoration Council (SLORC) took power.

In 1990, elections resulted in a win for the National League for Democracy (NLD), notably including **Aung San Suu Kyi**. But the military quickly put a stop to that and put her under house arrest. Everyone in the world got mad at them, and Aung San Suu Kyi was given the Nobel Peace Prize in 1991. The military put Than Shwe in power in 1992. He eventually released Aung San Suu Kyi.

Middle East: War and Turmoil

Turkey

In the early 20th century, the Ottoman Empire was an entity rooted in the past, the last remnants of a bygone era of kings and sultans that had peaked with Suleiman the Magnificent. Time had eroded the borders of the empire, resulting in the loss of Greece, Algeria, and Tunisia. Beset on all sides with attackers, the Ottomans built a new alliance out of necessity with Germany. They joined the First World War and managed to hold their own (certainly better than Austria-Hungary did) but were ultimately defeated by the Allied Powers. The **Treaty of Sevres** broke up the empire and distributed it among Greece, Italy, Britain, and France.

Into these fractious times came Mustafa Kemal, a soldier who had made a name for himself in the Gallipoli Campaign, having been saved from certain death by a pocket watch that had blocked a piece of flying shrapnel. Under him, the Turkish War of Independence raged in the country, aiming to revoke the Treaty of Sevres. By the end of

1922, the new army expelled the occupying forces, overthrew the sultanate, and set up a new parliament. The **Treaty of Lausanne**, signed by Mustafa Kemal in 1923, resulted in the formation of a new Republic of Turkey. Mustafa Kemal was made first president of the new republic, and he was rewarded with the honorific **Ataturk** and hailed as the “father of the Turks”.

Ataturk’s philosophy was characterized by the “Six Arrows”: Republicanism, Nationalism, Populism, Revolutionism, Secularism, and Statism. His policies included adoption of the Latin alphabet and the metric system. He prohibited civil servants from wearing the Ottoman fez, a relic that was not welcome in Ataturk’s new republic. Ataturk also established full rights for women politically. When he died in 1938, he designated Ismet Inonu as his successor.

Iran

Following the end of the Second World War, the Tehran Declaration allowed Iran to have independence. The young Shah, **Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi**, came to power, and his constitutional monarchy started to work well. He had a hands-off role in government, and by 1950 he had created the new Senate, which elected **Mohammad Mosaddeq** as prime minister in 1953. Mosaddeq nationalized British oil interests, and he forced the shah into exile following an attempted coup by intelligence chief Nematollah Nassiri.

Now, the CIA and MI6, under the direction of Kermit Roosevelt, decided to organize a coup under Fazlollah Zahedi (codenamed **Operation Ajax** and Operation Boot, respectively). The coup took Mosaddeq out of power, and installed Pahlavi as shah again. Pahlavi introduced the White Revolution, modernizing the country. He was a secular Muslim, and he tried to westernize Iran. His new ideas and reforms didn’t leave him without enemies, and Pahlavi used his SAVAK secret police to crush opposition to his regime.

In 1979, opposition to the shah came to a head in the Islamic Revolution. A huge outpouring of support ushered **Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini** into power. Khomeini had been saved from execution a few years prior by Hassan Pakravan, a member of SAVAK, whom Khomeini promptly executed *because* he was a member of SAVAK, even though Pakravan had saved his life. Iran quickly shifted into an Islamic state, replacing a capitalist economy and social structure with a nationalized, heavily regulated one. Khomeini’s ideology was called the “Guardianship of the Jurist”.

The first major event worth noting in Khomeini’s Iran was the **Iran Hostage Crisis**. When the US admitted the former shah into America for cancer treatment, Iranian students overran the US embassy, taking 52 hostages on November 4, 1979. Carter then launched **Operation Eagle Claw** to try and rescue the hostages. Helicopters launched from USS *Nimitz* ran into issues with obscure sand-based weather phenomena called *haboobs*, in which sand is suspended in the air, and they were forced to abort. The failure of Eagle Claw damaged American reputation across the world. Notably, the Canadian government

launched the **Canadian Caper** to rescue six Americans trapped in Tehran, who had evaded capture with the rest of the embassy. They pretended that they were scouting locations for shooting a scene of a fictional movie called *Argo*, and Canadian ambassador Ken Taylor helped pull off a successful rescue (watch the Oscar winning movie).

It's also worth discussing the **Iran-Iraq War**, which ran from 1980 to 1988. **Saddam Hussein** decided to invade Iran because of the unstable state it was in as a result of the revolution. This was the war in which the Iran Contra affair took place, and the US ran Operations Earnest Will and Prime Chance during the "Tanker War" phase of the war. During **Operation Praying Mantis**, the US launched attacks on oil platforms. Iraq authorized the Halabja poison gas attack, which attacked the Kurdish population. A ceasefire was signed in 1988.

Israel

Israel gained independence in 1949, signing armistices and ceasefires with friends and neighbors. The **Knesset** (parliament) was convened and moved to Jerusalem. The first elections resulted in the Socialist-Zionist parties of Mapai and Mapam winning most of the seats. The leader of Mapai was **David Ben-Gurion**, who became Israel's first prime minister.

Ben-Gurion ordered Operation Magic Carpet, which successfully migrated lots of people out of Yemen. Ben-Gurion also founded Ahdut HaAvoda, which would eventually become the Labour Party. In 1956, he launched the Sinai War when Nasser nationalized the Suez Canal. The Lavon Affair, in which Operation Susannah failed to blame the Muslim Brotherhood for some bombs being planted. The affair resulted in Defense Minister Pinhas Lavon resigning, and Ben-Gurion soon left the party, being succeeded by Moshe Sharett and Levi Eshkol.

The 1967 **Six Day War** pitted Israel against Egypt, Syria, and Lebanon. It was started by Israeli preemptive strikes on airfields in the opposing countries. During the brief war, Israel took the Gaza Strip, the Sinai Peninsula, and the West Bank. It was ended by UN Resolution 242, and it led to the Khartoum Resolution, declaring that there would be "no peace, no recognition, and no negotiation".

In 1969, Eshkol died in office, giving the office to Labour leader **Golda Meir**, winning 56 of 120 seats in the Knesset. Meir had previously been Foreign Minister under Ben-Gurion and Eshkol. She was the first female prime minister of Israel, and like Thatcher, she was called the "Iron Lady". During the War of Attrition, the Israelis shot down some Soviet fighters because they were helping Egypt. During the 1972 Summer Olympics in Munich, 11 Israeli team members were taken hostage by Palestinian terrorists, and they were killed as a result of a failed German rescue. In response, Meir authorized Operation Wrath of God, in which Mossad assassinated people that were involved in the incident.

The **Yom Kippur War** with Sadat's Egypt started on October 6, 1973. Syrian and Egyptian

forces launched a surprise attack on Israeli troops at Golan Heights and across the Suez Canal (Operation Badr), respectively. Israel hadn't mobilized, partially because Meir and Moshe Dayan rightly believed that the US wouldn't help Israel if it instigated a war. Of course, American aid to Israel resulted in an OPEC oil embargo against the US. Other Israeli commanders included David Elazar and Israel Tal. UN Resolutions 338 and 339 called for ending the war. After the war, Kissinger negotiated troop disengagements using "shuttle diplomacy". Meir was succeeded by **Yitzhak Rabin**, who was notably assassinated by Yigal Amir.

New African States

A New Egypt

The Egyptian Republic was declared in June 1953, with Muhammad Naguib as the first president. He was forced to resign the following year and **Gamal Abdel Nasser** came to power. Nasser had headed the Free Officers Movement that had dethroned King Farouk in the first place. Nasser nationalized the Suez Canal, leading to the Suez Crisis, and he allied with Syria in the **United Arab Republic**. Recall that while he was president, Egypt fought in the Six Day War. He also built the **Aswan High Dam**, which resulted in the creation of Lake Nasser. After he was almost assassinated (recall the Lavon affair), he banned the Muslim Brotherhood, executing Sayyid Qutb.

Nasser died in 1970 and he was succeeded by **Anwar Sadat**. Sadat launched the Yom Kippur War (October War). His *Infitah* economic policy wasn't particularly popular, leading to the Bread Riots. He signed the Camp David Accords with **Menachim Begin** (with help from Jimmy Carter), winning the Nobel Peace Prize. He was assassinated by Khalid Islambouli for the same accords and succeeded by **Hosni Mubarak**.

Ethiopia: Empire and Communism

Menelik II came to power in Ethiopia in 1889 with the death of Yohannes IV at the Battle of Gallabat, after which he declared himself the *negus* of Shewa. He signed the Treaty of Wuchale, ceding the future land of Eritrea to Italy. Menelik fought the First Italo-Ethiopian War, decisively defeating the Italian forces at the **Battle of Adowa**. Following the war, a peace at Addis Ababa gave Ethiopia its independence. Menelik died in 1913.

In 1930, **Haile Selassie** became Emperor on the death of Empress Zauditu, although his real title was "His Imperial Majesty Haile Selassie I, Conquering Lion of the Tribe of Judah, King of Kings of Ethiopia and Elect of God". When Abba Jifar II of Jimma died, Haile Selassie annexed Jimma into Ethiopia.

World War II led to the Italian invasion of Ethiopia. Mussolini's forces occupied Addis Ababa, and while the Emperor tried to get the League of Nations to intervene, he was exiled and Italy formally annexed Ethiopia. The war continued, with the League of

Nations recognizing that Ethiopia was part of Italy. Following peace in Europe, Haile Selassie returned to power.

The emperor replaced the Constitution of 1931 with a new Constitution of 1955. He founded the Organization for African Unity in 1963.

In 1974, the aging Haile Selassie was taken out of office and replaced with the **Derg**, an administrative military council which promptly executed large sections of the Emperor's government. Haile Selassie was reportedly strangled in his palace the following year.

Lieutenant Colonel **Mengistu Haile Mariam** took control of the Derg, putting some Marxist policies in place, bought and paid for courtesy of the Soviet Union. Many rich people in Ethiopia took offense at this, and the ensuing internal conflict prompted Somalia to invade. Ethiopian forces barely managed to push them back.

The Derg began the Red Terror in 1977, killing thousands of enemies of the communists. Communism was officially adopted in the 1980s, and Mengistu became the first President in 1987. Opposition movements resulted in Mengistu's fleeing the country to Zimbabwe, where he still lives. Mengistu was convicted of genocide in 2006, having killed hundreds of thousands of people.

Rwandan Genocide

On April 6, 1994, a plane carrying President **Juvenal Habyarimana** and Burundian President Cyprien Ntaryamira was shot down on descent into the Rwandan capital of Kigali, and everyone on the plane died. Habyarimana was the head of the **Hutu**-led Rwandan government, which had come to power after overthrowing Gregoire Kayibanda. His death prompted genocidal killings against **Tutsi** opposition to start. The **Interahamwe** and Impuzamugambi militias went around recruiting other Hutus to pick up whatever weapons they could find and help out. Their RTLM broadcast messages telling Hutus to "cut down the tall trees". One of the first actions taken was when some "cockroaches" were killed in a Polish church in Gikondo.

The UN launched UNAMIR (UN Assistance Mission for Rwanda), and some Belgian soldiers were killed. Force Commander Romeo Dallaire was criticized for inaction, and after the genocide he went to Canada and wrote *Shake Hands with the Devil*. The diplomatic officer was Jacques Roger Booh Booh. The French tried to intervene in Operation Turquoise, setting up a safe zone (Zone Turquoise).

The genocide ended with **Paul Kagame** and his RPF taking control of Kigali. The Tanzanian city of Arusha held a criminal tribunal for the genocide.

Uganda: Idi Amin

Uganda got independence from Britain in 1962, and the first Chief Minister was Benedicto

Kiwanuka. In 1966, **Milton Obote** became prime minister and suspended the constitution. On January 25, 1971, **Idi Amin**, a commander in the army, led a military coup, taking Obote from power and putting himself in his place. He would rule for the next eight years.

Amin set out to kill everyone who opposed him (as is customary for evil dictators). He killed over 300,000 people during his time in office, and when he pushed out all the Indian entrepreneurs from the country during “Africanization”, the economy fell to bits.

On June 27, 1976, an Air France flight was hijacked by Palestinian terrorists, whom Amin allowed to land at Entebbe airport (the biggest in Uganda). They proceeded to let all the non-Israeli passengers go, and kept the crew and the rest of the passengers. The Israel Defense Forces (IDF) put Operation Thunderbolt into effect. Led by Lt. Col. **Yonatan Netanyahu**, commandos secured 102 hostages, resulting in 5 wounded commandos and the death of Netanyahu. Amin proceeded to order the death of many Kenyans in Uganda because Kenya had supported Israel.

When Amin tried to annex the Kagera province of Tanzania in 1978, he started the Uganda-Tanzania War. The war led to the end of his rule, and Amin went into exile, dying in 2003.

Angolan Civil War

Angola gained independence from Portugal in 1975. Many different factions worked towards this goal, and their interests were not always aligned. Chief among these independence fighters were the People’s Movement for the Liberation of Angola (**MPLA**), the National Front for the Liberation of Angola (**FNLA**), and the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (**UNITA**). The FNLA, led by Holden Roberto, were notably instrumental in securing independence.

However, soon after independence, the MPLA gained control of the capital of Luanda with the help of Cuban forces, **Agostinho Neto** was chosen as the first president of Angola. UNITA aimed to take the capital, resulting in 26 years of civil war. The FNLA played little to no part in the war. Back in the United States, Dick Clark introduced the Clark Amendment to prevent covert military aid to Angola. The civil war did not end until 2002 with the death of **Jonas Savimbi**, the leader of UNITA.

South Africa

Apartheid was a South African system of segregation that started in 1948 and stayed around until 1991. It was staunchly advocated by H.F. Verwoerd, who would end up being killed in parliament in 1966. Apartheid party members created Bantustans, which were territories set aside for black residents of the country. The UN declared it a crime against humanity in 1966. Apartheid led to the Sharpeville Massacre, and during the Soweto Uprising, many people including Steve Biko were killed. During the Rivonia Trial, ten members of the African National Congress (ANC) were charged and some were convicted

for fighting against the state, essentially.

Among those convicted was the Xhosa ANC leader **Nelson Mandela**, who was placed in prison on Robben Island for the next 27 years. During the Rivonia Trial, he had said:

During my lifetime I have dedicated myself to this struggle of the African people. I have fought against white domination, and I have fought against black domination. I have cherished the ideal of a democratic and free society in which all persons live together in harmony and with equal opportunities. It is an ideal which I hope to live for and to achieve. **But if needs be, it is an ideal for which I am prepared to die.**

Mandela served 27 years of his life sentence, and after being freed, he succeeded F.W. de Klerk as president of South Africa. One of his important acts of unity was presenting the winners' trophy at the Rugby World Cup. He established the Truth and Reconciliation commission. Mandela offered South Africa as a site for the trial of the Lockerbie Bombers (Pan Am Flight 103).

North America: Mexico and Canada

Mexico After Spain

Mexican Independence

Spain had ruled Mexico for three centuries, but things were thrown into chaos when the Peninsular War and various Napoleonic shenanigans resulted in radical restructuring and the creation of a Constitution in the early 1800s. On September 16, 1810, Father **Miguel Hidalgo**, a Catholic priest, issued the Cry of Dolores, a call for Mexicans to overthrow the Spaniards and claim independence (the date is now celebrated as Independence Day in Mexico). So began the Mexican War of Independence.

Less than a year later, Hidalgo was captured and executed. He was replaced by fellow priest José Maria Morelos, who was executed in 1815 (following restoration of the Spanish monarchy in 1814).

The war dragged on. In 1820, **Agustin de Iturbide**, a Royalist army officer, defected to the insurgency and partnered with Vincente Guerrero to create the Army of the Three Guarantees. The guarantees were as follows:

- Religion: Mexico would be a Catholic nation
- Independence: Spain would no longer have control over Mexico
- Unity: Mexico would stand together against its enemies

Iturbide quickly turned the tide of the war, coming into control of most of Mexico, resulting in the **Treaty of Cordoba** in 1821 which granted Mexico its independence.

Unfortunately, Juan O'Donohú had signed the treaty for Spain without proper authorization, and Spain rejected the treaty.

First Mexican Empire

Spain's rejection of the treaty and lack of proper leadership in Mexico led to a problem in regards to who should actually be in charge. As is customary, the army decided to put an end to this by appointing Iturbide as the first Mexican emperor. Unfortunately, without proper support of other nobility throughout the country, he had no means to really hold on to power. Seeing an opportunity, **Antonio López de Santa Anna** decided to call for the removal of the emperor.

The Age of Santa Anna is chronicled in the section on the [Mexican American War](#).

Mexican Revolution

In 1910, a major revolution against Mexican ruler **Porfirio Diaz** broke out. The revolution would last for most of the decade, and it evolved from a revolt into a civil war, including such offshoots as a Bandit War and a Border War. The uprising was initially led by **Francisco Madero**, who had written a document about how he hated Diaz. By 1911, Madero was put into power, following a massive election victory. In 1913, the **Ten Tragic Days** (Decena Trágica) ended with both Madero and his Vice President Jose Suarez dead.

Following Madero's assassination, **Victoriano Huerta** came to power. He signed the Embassy Pact with Taft's ambassador Henry Lane Wilson. But, Woodrow Wilson decided not to acknowledge Huerta's new regime.

Opposition to Huerta was led by **Venustiano Carranza**, a rancher from Coahuila. He organized a Constitutionalist army with the support of the US, and started to fight against Huerta. Germany supported Huerta, because they wanted to keep the US distracted from their war in Europe. When Carranza took power, Huerta fled to the United States (a slightly concerning move from the American perspective).

Pancho Villa led an army called the Villistas and joined Madero's movement. He'd led the attacks on Ciudad Juarez which took Diaz from power. After Madero's death, Villa amassed a sizable army (the Northern Division), and helped Carranza fight Huerta. However, Villa wanted to continue the revolution, and he deposed Carranza at the Convention of Aguascalientes in favor of Eulalio Gutierrez. He fought at Celaya against Carranza in a couple major battles.

Villa crossed the border into the US in 1916 and raided Columbus, New Mexico. President Wilson sent General John Pershing on the Punitive Expedition into Mexico to capture Villa. Pershing defeated Villa at Carrizal, but failed to catch him after a year of chasing Villa around Mexico, so Pershing was sent to WWI by Wilson instead. Villa retired in 1920, and he was killed in 1923 by gunmen while he was sitting in his car in Hidalgo del Parral.

Emiliano Zapata, leader of the Liberation Army of the South, is considered a national hero of Mexico. Peasants and poor Mexicans rallied to Zapata's battle cry of "Tierra y Libertad" (Land and Liberty), and he laid out reforms in his Plan of Ayala. However, he was opposed by some powerful people including the Figueroa brothers. He said that it was "better to die on your feet than live on your knees". In 1919, Zapata was killed by Pablo Gonzales and Jesus Guajardo in an ambush.

Near the end of the war, six Americans were killed by Villistas near Ruby, Arizona, in the Ruby Incident.

Canada

A New Dominion

In 1864, the Quebec Conference put forward the **Seventy-Two Resolutions**, which set up guidelines for the unification of British colonies in North America. At the London Conference of 1866, some more logistics were worked out, and on July 1, 1867, the Canadian Confederation created the new Dominion of Canada was formed.

John A. Macdonald was elected in 1867 as the first Prime Minister of Canada. Macdonald, perhaps well known today as a binge drinker, helped shape Canada by building the Dominion's government and creating a strong Conservative Party. His protectionist economic program, the National Policy, included strong tariffs,

In 1869, Metis leader **Louis Riel** began the **Red River Rebellion**, which resulted in Manitoba entering the Canadian Confederation. He then spent a while as a fugitive in Montana and other places. Wildly popular with many different groups, Riel was asked by Saskatchewan leaders to help them with the national government, but he decided to organize the militaristic **North-West Rebellion** of 1885 instead. The government sent troops in to combat the uprising, and Riel was captured and convicted of treason. Even though many Canadians saw him as a hero, Macdonald chose to hang him, resulting in a sharp decline in Macdonald's popularity and made him quite a polarizing figure.

Under Macdonald, the Canadian Pacific Railway was created. About 150 members of the Conservative government were accused of taking bribes, an affair that came to be known as the **Pacific Scandal**. The disastrous scandal led to Macdonald's resignation as Prime Minister.

Klondike Gold Rush

George and Kate Carmack, along with Skookum Jim Mason, hit gold in the Yukon territory in 1896. As soon as news hit the United States, gold seekers came up through Skagway and Dyea in Southeast Alaska. Of course, the long journey meant that most didn't turn up until 1898. The gold rush led to the rise of Skagway as a major Alaskan port, as well as the creation of boom towns such as Dawson City.

The gold rush and the rise of Skagway attracted all sorts of folks, including **Jefferson Randolph “Soapy” Smith**, a con artist from Denver. Soapy Smith wanted control of Skagway’s underworld, and his rise to power in the city did not go unnoticed. Vigilantes such as **Frank H. Reid** aimed to stop Smith and take control themselves. In 1898, a Smith gang attempt to swindle a man named John Stewart out of his gold resulted in violence between Smith and Reid, an event now known as the **Shootout on Juneau Wharf**. The gunfight resulted in both Smith and Reid’s deaths.

Canada After World War II

Canada participated in both World Wars, and was severely affected by the Great Depression as well. After World War II, Canada was a founding member of NATO, and helped create NORAD with the United States.

In 1960, Jean Lesage was elected Premier of Quebec, leading to the **Quiet Revolution** in Quebec. The Revolution led to a number of Quebec reforms, such as education reform and hydroelectric improvements.

Pierre Trudeau was elected the 15th Prime Minister of Canada in 1968. His motto was “Reason before passion”, and while Quebec was pushing for independence in light of their Quiet Revolution, Trudeau managed to encourage and promote national unity. In his advocacy of Canada as a **“Just Society”**, he advocated new programs such as universal health care. Trudeau’s Finance Minister was **John Turner**, who ended up resigning. On one occasion, Trudeau spoke using some fairly “unparliamentary” language in Parliament, but tried unconvincingly to pass it off as having said “fuddle duddle”.

In October 1970, Quebec Labor Minister **Pierre Laporte** and British trade commissioner James Cross were kidnapped by the Front de liberation du Quebec (**FLQ**). The incident began the **October Crisis**. Trudeau invoked the **War Measures Act** for the third and final time in Canadian history, suspending civil liberties and authorizing mass raids and arrests in an attempt to find Laporte’s kidnappers. Laporte’s body was found seven days after his kidnapping.

Following the short term of John Turner, **Brian Mulroney** was elected Prime Minister in 1984, defeating Joe Clark. Mulroney, along with George H.W. Bush, created NAFTA. He proposed the **Meech Lake Accord**, which aimed to recognize Quebec as a separate society in Canada. The Accord failed, and he followed it with another failure, the Charlottetown Accord. Mulroney was succeeded by Kim Campbell.

Appendix A: Supreme Court Cases

Marbury v. Madison (1803)

Chief Justice: John Marshall

John Adams, on his last day in office, named a bunch of new judges under the Organic Act. The judges are referred to as the “Midnight Judges”. The commissions weren’t honored by Thomas Jefferson, because he said they were invalid. **William Marbury**, who would have gotten an appointment as a Justice of the Peace in D.C., petitioned Jefferson’s Secretary of State, **James Madison**, to give the commissions using **writs of mandamus**.

Marbury didn’t get the commission, and the Judiciary Act was ruled unconstitutional. Marshall wrote the majority opinion, and William Cushing and Alfred Moore notably didn’t take part in the ruling. The case is notable because it established **judicial review**, the process by which the courts can find acts of Congress unconstitutional.

McCulloch v. Maryland (1819)

Chief Justice: John Marshall

William Pinckney and Daniel Webster won this case, in which Maryland wanted to impede operation of a branch of the National Bank by taxing bank notes. The court upheld that this wasn’t legal, and granted Congress implied powers to regulate commerce.

Gibbons v. Ogden (1824)

Chief Justice: John Marshall

A steamboat license was given to Robert Fulton (of *Clermont* fame). Some issues of regulation of navigation in state waters ensued. Aaron Ogden wanted Thomas Gibbons not to be allowed to operate in these waters. The majority opinion ruled the license unconstitutional, saying that navigation is in the scope of commerce.

Worcester v. Georgia (1832)

Chief Justice: John Marshall

The court held that non-Native Americans being on Native American lands without a license is unconstitutional. The case laid out the relationship between Native American tribes and the government. It stated that only the federal government could deal with Native American nations.

Dred Scott v. John Sandford (1857)

Chief Justice: Roger Taney

Commonly known as the “Dred Scott case”. Scott had been taken from the South into free states and territories (Illinois and Wisconsin) by John Emerson, so he figured he should be free. In a 7–2 decision, Taney denied this request, saying that the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional (this was the second time a federal statute had been struck down by the court). Taney said that because Scott wasn’t a citizen, he couldn’t sue for freedom.

***Ex Parte* Milligan (1866)**

Chief Justice: Salmon P. Chase

Lambdin Milligan (recall the Knights of the Golden Circle) was accused of plotting to steal Union weapons and invade Union POW camps. He and his conspirators were charged, convicted, and sentenced to death by a military tribunal. In the Supreme Court case, the court determined that trying civilians by military tribunal, while civilian courts are still functioning, is unconstitutional. This reversed the previous *Ex parte* Merryman.

Plessy v. Ferguson (1896)

Chief Justice: Melville Fuller

Louisiana had passed the Separate Car Act, which required segregation on rail cars. Homer Plessy bought a ticket on a train and boarded a whites-only car. He was asked to leave, refused, and was arrested. His case made it to the court, where the 7–1 vote went against Plessy, with the dissent being written by John Marshall Harlan, who claimed that the law was essentially a “badge of servitude”. The majority decision, written by Henry Billings Brown, upheld the constitutionality of “separate but equal” facilities, a doctrine which would remain upheld for another 50 years.

Lochner v. New York (1905)

Chief Justice: Melville Fuller

Commonly known as just “Lochner”. The case involved a law that said a baker could only work ten hours a day, and sixty hours a week. The court upheld that the law wasn’t necessary to protect the health of bakers, calling it an “interference with the right and liberty of the individual to contract”. In his dissent, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr. wrote, “the Fourteenth Amendment does not enact Herbert Spencer’s Social Statics”. The decision started the *Lochner* era, during which the court handed down lots of controversial decisions regarding working conditions.

Schenck v. United States (1919)

Chief Justice: Edward D. White

Commonly known as “Schenck”. Charles Schenck was general secretary of the Socialist Party, and they encouraged distribution of pamphlets that told people to dodge the draft. So, Schenck and friends were convicted of violating the Espionage Act of 1917. They appealed all the way to the Supreme Court.

The court ruled unanimously against Schenck, saying that the First Amendment didn’t alter criminal expressions. Expressions which were intended to result in a crime, those which presented a “clear and present danger” of succeeding, could be punished; Holmes used the analogy of “shouting fire in a crowded theater”. The Schenck decision was overturned by *Brandenburg v. Ohio* in 1969.

Schechter Poultry Corp. v. United States (1935)

Chief Justice: Charles Evans Hughes

This case invalidated regulations of the poultry industry, saying that it was an invalid use of Congress’s power. The unanimous decision rendered the NIRA (recall the New Deal section) unconstitutional. FDR was understandably annoyed at this decision, saying that “we have been relegated to the horse-and-buggy definition of interstate commerce.” Justices Hughes and Cardozo agreed that “extraordinary circumstances” don’t allow Congress to get more power.

Korematsu v. United States (1944)

Chief Justice: Harlan F. Stone

Commonly just called **Korematsu**. Fred Korematsu was an Oakland florist who tried to stay out of WWII-era internment camps. This led to a case having to do with the

constitutionality of Executive Order 9066. Hugo Black's majority opinion in the 6–3 decision stated that internment was based on “pressing public necessity”, not racism, so internment was legal.

Brown v. Board of Education (1954)

Chief Justice: Earl Warren

Plaintiffs claimed that the system of “separate but equal” segregation was unfair, mostly because the segregated facilities were not equal. They wanted schools desegregated, citing Kenneth and Mamie Clark's “doll test” studies, which showed that black children were being badly affected by segregation. A companion case was introduced in *Briggs v. Elliott*.

The decision was unanimous in ordering the desegregation of schools, overturning *Plessy v. Ferguson*. Segregation was deemed a violation of the Fourteenth Amendment, and schools were ordered to be desegregated with “all deliberate speed”.

Mapp v. Ohio (1961)

Chief Justice: Earl Warren

Dollree Mapp was running a numbers game with some other people out of her apartment. Police got a search warrant and found betting slips and some pornography. She was arrested and cleared on a misdemeanor charge of possession of numbers paraphernalia. Later, they decided to prosecute for “knowingly having had in her possession and under her control certain lewd and lascivious books, pictures, and photographs in violation of 2905.34 of Ohio's Revised Code”. She never served any of the sentence, and appealed to the Supreme Court.

The court ruled in a 6–3 decision in favor of Mapp. They then overturned a previous ruling, *Wolf v. Colorado*. The Boyd and Weeks decisions were cited and precedent, and the case affirmed the “fruit of the poisonous tree” doctrine. The exclusionary rule made evidence impermissible in court.

Gideon v. Wainwright (1963)

Chief Justice: Earl Warren

A burglary took place in a Florida pool hall on June 3, 1961. A witness claimed he'd seen Clarence Earl Gideon in the poolroom, and the police arrested Gideon and charged him. Gideon was denied legal counsel because the Florida court said only capital cases warranted an appointed lawyer. He filed suit against the Secretary of the Florida Department of Corrections, and the case went to the Supreme Court. Gideon was assigned Abe Fortas (who would become a Supreme Court justice later) to represent him.

In a unanimous decision, the court ruled in favor of Gideon, saying that Sixth Amendment rights must be given to defendants. Hugo Black wrote the majority opinion, overturning certain parts of *Betts v. Brady*.

Miranda v. Arizona (1966)

Chief Justice: Earl Warren

Ernesto Miranda was arrested in Phoenix and linked to the rape of an eighteen-year-old girl. He signed a confession, but Miranda was never informed of his right to counsel. The case went to the Supreme Court. The court, in a 5–4 ruling, expanded on the rights previously given in *Escobedo v. Illinois*, and said that officers need to read apprehended suspects their rights.

Appendix B: Popes

The Catholic Church crops up fairly often in our survey of history. Almost every time they've been mentioned, we've been acquainted with new popes, but we haven't really taken the time to describe the exploits of all of them, like we have with U.S. presidents or monarchs of the British isles, because a lot of them simply weren't that notable. Here, we go over the ones that you should care about, as well as some that you probably shouldn't, but are interesting regardless.

Saint Peter

Pontificate: c. 30-64

The first pope was likely born in AD 1. An Apostle of Jesus, the Bible claims he was given the keys to the Kingdom of Heaven by Christ, and was crucified upside-down. The Vatican's *Basilica di San Pietro* is of course named after him.

Gregory I

Pontificate: 590-604

Saint Gregory the Great ordered Augustine of Canterbury to undertake the **Gregorian Mission**, the first large-scale mission out of Rome, to convert the Anglo-Saxon pagans to Christianity. By the time the final missionary died in 635, much of southern Britain had been converted, and Augustine was made the first Archbishop of Canterbury. He notably had to deal with the Italian incursions of the Lombards, but despite his ability to secure a short truce (due to a massive payment to Lombard King Agilulf as he marched on Rome) Gregory wasn't able to create a lasting peace with them.

Gregory is considered the founder of the medieval notion of the papacy, largely due to his correspondence and other notable writings. His *Commentary on Job*, known as the *Magna Moralia*, is perhaps his most famous work, taking up 6 volumes of discussion of morality.

Gregory VII

Pontificate: 1073-1085

Born Hildebrand of Sovana, Gregory was elected by acclamation. The cry of “Let Hildebrand be pope!” went up at the funeral of his predecessor, Pope Alexander II. He was elected legally later the same day.

Gregory is probably best known for launching the Investiture Controversy, which you can read more about in the subsection on Henry IV and the early Holy Roman Empire. The Controversy wouldn’t be resolved until the Concordat of Worms by Callixtus II.

Gregory was well known for his largely successful attempts to reform the church. He was the first in centuries to actually enforce internal simony rules, as well as the first to vigorously push celibacy policy on the clergy.

Urban II

Pontificate: 1088-1099

The Frenchman Odo of Châtillon went on to become one of the most famous popes of all time. He originally studied under Bruno of Cologne (founder of the Carthusian Order of monks), and Gregory VII named him Bishop of Ostia in 1080; Odo was one of the most prominent supporters of Gregory’s extensive reforms.

At the start of his papacy in 1088, Urban was kept away from the Vatican because of the continuing Investiture Controversy. Henry IV had taken Rome and installed the antipope Clement III in 1084.

Urban continued his predecessor’s reforms while touring Europe. He notably supported Conrad II of Italy (then Prince Conrad) in his rebellion against his father Henry IV; in particular, he facilitated Conrad’s marriage to Maximilia of Sicily, whose father Count Roger financed Conrad’s military ambitions. Urban also notably supported **Anselm**, Archbishop of Canterbury, when he fled William II and England. He excommunicated Philip of France, due to the latter’s bigamy in marrying Bertrade de Montfort (eventually, a public penance resulted in Bertrade’s children succeeding to the French throne).

Of course, Urban is best known for his involvement in the [First Crusade](#). Having been asked for help by Alexios I Komnenos at the Council of Piacenza, Urban called for the First Crusade at the Council of Clermont.

Alexander VI

Pontificate: 1492-1503

The Spaniard. Born Rodrigo Llancol, he took the name **Rodrigo Borgia** on the ascension of his uncle Callixtus III to the papacy. He took full advantage of the nepotism characteristic of the age, and was appointed Cardinal-Bishop of Albano by the time he was 40. Rodrigo was elected to the papacy in 1492 following the death of Innocent VIII. Giovanni Lorenzo de Medici (the future Pope Leo X) reportedly was made uneasy by this, warning:

Now we are in the power of a wolf, the most rapacious perhaps that this world has ever seen. And if we do not flee, he will inevitably devour us all.

Alexander unabashedly used his newfound position of power to advance the interests of his (illegitimate) children; in particular his son Cesare (an ambitious and violent man, recall Machiavelli's *The Prince*) and his daughter Lucrezia (who nobody has ever proved poisoned many people). Allegations of incest between Lucrezia and Cesare were also frequently made, but never proved.

In the process of acquiring wealth for his progeny, Alexander started numerous wars with France and Spain for land in Northern Italy. When this didn't work out so well for him and Charles VIII of France came knocking on the gates of Rome, he formed the Holy League of 1495 to push him back out of the peninsula.

During the Jubilee in 1500, Alexander created the tradition of opening a holy door on Christmas Eve and closing it the following day. He set up opening/closing these doors in the four major basilicas and formalized the process.

Alexander was such a terrible pope that the priests of St. Peter's simply refused to bury him on his death. In addition, he did establish the despicable behavior which would become a standard of Renaissance papacy.

Julius II

Pontificate: 1503-1513

Giuliano della Rovere, one of Alexander VI's greatest rivals, spent the entirety of Alexander's pontificate in exile after losing the election in 1492 to him. He'd been promoted to cardinal initially when his uncle Pope Sixtus IV had begun his papacy.

Following Alexander's death, Della Rovere supported the election of Pius III, who died within a month. Through some impressive diplomacy, Della Rovere then managed to secure the support of Cesare Borgia for the ensuing election and was elected almost unanimously and took the name of Pope Julius II.

Julius proceeded to systematically dismantle everything the Borgias had built while Alexander was pope. He formed the **League of Cambrai** with Louis XII of France, Maximilian I Holy Roman Emperor, and Ferdinand II of Aragon, as a means to defeat

Venice. Following the conflict, Julius placed France under interdict. As the resultant **Italian Wars** drew on, Venice and France switched places, and Julius then entered into the new Holy League of 1511 to deal with France.

Julius amended the [Treaty of Tordesillas](#) to accommodate Portuguese claims on Brazil, and he allowed Henry VIII of England to marry Catherine of Aragon (which of course we know didn't last).

While in office, Julius had the Sistine Chapel torn down and rebuilt, and he commissioned Michelangelo to paint its ceiling. Upon his death, Michelangelo created the Tomb of Julius in San Pietro in Vincoli, but since it wasn't ready soon enough, Julius is actually buried in Rome instead.

Julius's numerous military accomplishments have led to his being called "The Warrior Pope", and while they were indeed impressive, he is often considered a failure as a religious leader, leaving a situation in which the Protestant Reformation was able to grow.

Leo X

Pontificate: 1513-1521

Giovanni di Lorenzo de Medici was made a cardinal at only 13 by Innocent VIII, whom G.J. Meyer refers to as "ludicrously misnamed" due to his extreme penchant for nepotism.

Upon his election to the papacy, Leo decided to enact some reform. He improved the quality of the college of cardinals, and he closed the Fifth Lateran Council (started by Julius); however, he failed to implement the reforms prescribed by the council.

While Leo wasn't a despicable human being like most of his predecessors, his pursuits were slightly eccentric or perhaps buffoon-like. After Manuel I gifted Leo a white elephant named Hanno, Leo used him to embarrass an abbot named Giacomo Baraballo by making him ride Hanno until thrown off.

Of course, much of what Leo did was overshadowed by Martin Luther's actions in response to Leo's issuance of indulgences. The Reformation caused Leo to issue the bulls *Exsurge Domine* and *Decet Romanum Pontificem*.

He died of illness in 1521.

Clement VII

Pontificate: 1523-1534

After Leo came Adrian VI, the only Dutchman to be Pope. He also failed to reform the Renaissance papacy much, and was succeeded by Guilio de' Medici, the nephew of

Lorenzo the Magnificent.

Upon taking the papacy, Guilio named himself Clement VII, and he sent Archbishop Nikolaus von Schonberg of Capua to end the Italian Wars, but that failed. He allied himself with the Italian princes and Francis I of France, but when Francis lost badly at Pavia, Clement had to let go of ties. A few years after Pavia, Clement resumed the alliance with France by forming the **League of Cognac** with France, Venice, and Milan.

In 1527, Charles III, Duke of Bourbon, marched on Rome and besieged the city. Shortly thereafter, he died while trying to climb a ladder, and his troops quickly began to sack Rome. These events ended the grand Renaissance in Rome. Terrified, Clement took refuge in the Castel Sant'Angelo, where he was captured and imprisoned for a few months; during this time, Niccolo Capponi was elected as Gonfaloniere in Florence. Eventually, he was let free, and he spent some time in exile before returning in late 1528.

Clement is known now for opposing the annulment of Henry VIII of England's marriage to Catherine of Aragon. His [excommunication of Henry](#) led to the eventual 1534 Act of Supremacy that created the Church of England, and began the English Reformation.

Paul III

Pontificate: 1534-1549

Following the sack of Rome, Clement's Catholic Church was in turmoil. Paul III was made pope into this era in the wake of the Protestant Reformation. Born Alessandro Farnese in the Papal States, Paul was the first of the Renaissance popes to actively take action to improve the Catholic Church, in response to the Reformation.

In an attempt to fix the problems that Martin Luther and Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor, had with the Catholic Church, Paul started taxing his own subjects more, relieved certain important nobles from positions of power, and caused strife in his own domain. Cities like **Perugia** attempted to renounce the pope, but were forcibly suppressed by Paul's son Pier Luigi.

Paul also notably recognized multiple religious societies and orders, including the Jesuits, the Barnabites, et al.

Leo XIII

Pontificate: 1878-1903

Born Vincenzo Gioacchino Raffaele Luigi Pecci, had been Camerlengo to Pius IX, whose papacy was one of only two which lasted longer than Leo's own. Following Pius's death, Pecci was elected pope and chose the name Leo XIII.

Known for his intellectualism, he became an advocate for social welfare, writing the encyclical *Rerum novarum*, which explained that workers needed a safe workplace, fair wages, and the right to unionize.

He issued many other encyclicals, and became known as the “Rosary Pope”. Leo also established Mary as the Mediatrix (the person through whom Christ bestows graces).

Pius XII

Pontificate: 1939-1958

The successor of Pius XI, Pius XII was born Eugenio Maria Giuseppe Giovanni Pacelli in Rome. Prior to his appointment, he was papal nuncio and Cardinal Secretary of State, during which time he secured treaties with Latin America and signed the *Reichskonkordat* with Hitler’s Germany (the treaty kept the Church in Germany but forced bishops to swear loyalty to the Reich).

Pius was made pope just months before the outbreak of World War II. He denounced the Nazis and tried to keep the Catholic Church in Germany, denouncing totalitarianism. Pius also defined the Assumption of Mary in his *Munificentissimus Deus*, during which he invoked papal infallibility.

He was succeeded by John XXIII.