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- Group 4: The Classified

THE
HISTORY
BOOK



AT LEAST AS IMPORTANT AS COLUMBUS'S JOURNEY TO AMERICA OR THE APOLLO 11 EXPEDITION

THE FIRST HUMANS ARRIVE IN AUSTRALIA
(c.60,000–45,000 YEARS AGO)

IN CONTEXT

FOCUS

Migration

BEFORE

c.200,000 years ago *Homo sapiens* (modern human) evolves in Africa.

c.125,000–45,000 years ago Groups of *Homo sapiens* expand out of Africa.

AFTER

c.50,000–30,000 years ago Denisovan hominins are present in south-central Russia.

45,000 years ago *Homo sapiens* arrives in Europe.

c.40,000 years ago The Neanderthals die out. Their last known sites are on the Iberian peninsula.

c.18,000 years ago *Homo floresiensis* fossils date from this time.

c.13,000 years ago Humans are present near Clovis, New Mexico, but may not be the continent's first humans.

Homo sapiens evolves in Africa.

Homo sapiens spreads into the **Near East** but retreats to Africa, only later reaching **Europe and western Asia**.

After moving into **southern Asia**, *Homo sapiens* groups follow the coastline to **Southeast Asia**.

In western Eurasia, *Homo sapiens* encounters **other hominin species**, the **Neanderthals and Denisovans**.

***Homo sapiens* arrives in Australia.**

All hominin species except *Homo sapiens* **die out**.

Modern humans are the only truly global mammal species. Since evolving in Africa around 200,000 years ago, *Homo sapiens* has rapidly expanded across the world—testament to our species' curiosity in exploring its surroundings and creativity in adapting to different habitats. In

particular, many researchers think that humans' ability to exploit coastal environments was key to their rapid spread along the southern coasts of Asia.

Even the radically different flora and fauna of Australia proved no barrier; humans may have arrived on the continent as early as 60,000

See also: The Law Code of Hammurabi 36–37 ■ The palace at Knossos 42–43 ■
The conquests of Alexander the Great 52–53 ■ The assassination of Julius Caesar 58–65

“

I, [the creator], give you
Ramesses II, constant
harvests... [your] sheaves
are as plentiful as the sand,
your granaries approach
heaven and your grain
heaps are like mountains.

**Inscription in temple at
Abu Simbel, c.1264 BCE**

”

north into the Mediterranean Sea, and the surrounding expanses of uninhabitable desert—gave rise to the kingdom’s unique culture and civilization. The pharaoh was viewed as a living god who could control the order of the cosmos, including the annual flooding of the Nile, which brought fertilizing silt to replenish the soil. Pharaohs were also often depicted as farmers in agricultural scenes, representing their role as guardians of the land.

The Old Kingdom

The Old Kingdom that followed Narmer was ruled by a succession of dynasties that were led by powerful pharaohs, who channeled the bureaucratic and economic might of the unified kingdom into monumental building projects, such as the construction of the pyramids. These, in turn, stimulated scientific, technological, and economic development, increasing trade with other kingdoms in the Near East

and the Mediterranean. In the Old Kingdom the predominant gods were Ra, the sun god; Osiris, the god of the dead; and Ptah, the creator. In the Middle and New Kingdoms that followed, which were ruled by families from Thebes, Amon became the main deity. As supreme ruler, the pharaoh was closely associated with the gods, and was believed to be the living incarnation of certain deities.

The New Kingdom

In the 23rd century BCE, the Old Kingdom collapsed. After what is known as the Intermediate Period, the Middle Kingdom dynasties restored unified control of Egypt from 2134 BCE until around 1750 BCE, when they were invaded by the Hyksos (probably Semites from Syria). The Hyksos, in turn, were expelled from Egypt in about

1550 BCE, with the XVIII dynasty—arguably the greatest and most important—coming to power and establishing the New Kingdom. By this time, immortality was believed to be available not just to the pharaoh, but to priests, scribes, and others who could afford offerings, spells, and mummification, and many tombs were dug into the Valley of the Kings to be filled with extraordinarily rich grave goods.

Under expansionist pharaohs, such as Thutmose III and Ramesses II, Egyptian control was extended into Asia as far as the Euphrates River, and up the Nile into Nubia. It was no coincidence that Ramesses built Abu Simbel in Nubia: as well as representing the divine glory of Egypt’s pharaohs generally, the temple was a symbol of Ramesses’ control over the recently conquered territory. ■

The **Nile Valley** is bordered by **inhospitable desert**, but is **highly fertile** because the longest river in the world flows through it and **irrigates it**.

A **sophisticated, coherent, and unified** civilization develops over a **vast stretch** of terrain.

Trade and conquest boost the economy and **population levels**. A large, prosperous kingdom emerges.

Vast monuments, such as the Abu Simbel temple complex, are constructed, reflecting Egypt’s power, wealth, and belief systems.

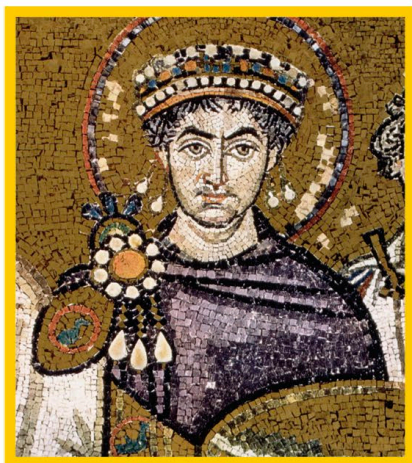


THUS PERISH ALL TYRANTS

THE ASSASSINATION OF
JULIUS CAESAR (44 BCE)



See also: The Battle of Milvian Bridge 66–67 ■ The Sack of Rome 68–69 ■ The fall of Jerusalem 106–07 ■ The Great Schism 132 ■ The fall of Constantinople 138–41



Emperor Justinian, a man of great energy, set about an ambitious, wide-ranging program of expansion and reform in order to restore the Roman Empire to its former glory.

He was determined to restore Roman dignity, and this meant reconquering the lost Roman provinces. He began in 533 by dispatching an army to North Africa under general Belisarius, who swiftly defeated the Vandals (a Germanic people who had ruled there since the 430s).

Emboldened by his success, Justinian ordered an invasion of Italy in 535. Belisarius's army made rapid progress and in 536 they successfully recaptured Rome. Byzantine euphoria at the recovery of their ancient capital was rudely shattered, however, when the Gothic King Witigis counter-attacked and subjected Rome to a grinding, year-long siege.

Stalemate in Italy

Belisarius launched a fresh assault, but he was recalled after Justinian began to fear that he would set himself up as an independent king in Italy. The country passed back

and forth between the two sides as the war in Italy dragged on for almost 20 years.

Twice the Goths retook Rome but, lacking the resources to hold it, lost it again both times to the Romans. Finally, the last major Gothic army was defeated in 552.

The impact of the war

Although the Byzantines had won the war, the victory was hollow. Italy was devastated—the cities had lost much of their population and the rural economy was in tatters. The traditional Latin-speaking ruling classes found that Greek-speakers from Constantinople were given all the key positions. Rome was treated as a provincial outpost of the Byzantine Empire, and hopes that the city might be restored as the center of imperial power were dashed.

The effects of the war, together with a plague that killed one-third of the empire's inhabitants in 542, made it hard to find troops that could garrison Italy. The new province provided little tax revenue and it became a major financial drain. The optimism that greeted the capture of Rome was replaced by a profound gloom—a mood confirmed when in 568 the Lombards, another barbarian group, invaded Italy and took most of the Byzantine land in north and central Italy.

Although the Byzantine Empire survived a further nine centuries, it was never again able to make another serious attempt to restore the Roman Empire in the west. Instead, it focused on defending its Greek-speaking core in the east, leaving the Germanic kingdoms in Italy, France, and Spain free to develop unhindered. ■





THE ROMAN CHURCH HAS NEVER ERRED

THE INVESTITURE CONTROVERSY (1078)

IN CONTEXT

FOCUS

The medieval church and the papacy

BEFORE

1048–1053 Pope Leo IX issues decrees against simony and priestly marriage, beginning the reform movement.

1059 A college of cardinals to elect new popes is established.

1075 The Lateran Council decrees that only the pope can appoint bishops.

1076 Gregory VII deposes and excommunicates Henry IV.

AFTER

1084 Henry IV captures Rome, forcing Gregory VII to flee to southern Italy.

1095 The pope calls a Crusade, asserting papal leadership over Christendom.

1122 In the Concordat of Worms, Henry V gives up almost all rights to invest bishops.

Laxness in observing church rules on clerical marriage and investiture of bishops **leads to calls for reform.**

Gregory VII promotes reform, including a **ban on lay investiture.**

Emperor and pope clash over investiture; the emperor is excommunicated.

The **pope's victory** in the investiture struggle **strengthens the reform movement** and papal administration.

For three days in 1078, the Holy Roman Emperor Henry IV stood penitent, barefoot in the snow outside the Italian fortress of Canossa, begging Pope Gregory VII for absolution. This event was the culmination of the Investiture Controversy, a struggle between the two men about the extent of secular authority over the Christian church, and the authority to appoint—or invest—bishops.

Both king and pope were rulers of particular domains, but they also had rival symbolic claims to lead all Christendom. An emperor had to be crowned by the pope before he assumed the imperial title. Pope Gregory VII asserted that the pope's authority was supreme in spiritual matters, and that even in secular affairs it stood far above that of worldly princes.

When at last Gregory signaled forgiveness of the penitent emperor, it marked a bitter blow for imperial prestige and a huge triumph for the independence of the church.

The state of the church

By the early 11th century, the papacy was at a low ebb. It had failed to impose—or had lost—authority over national churches outside Italy,

See also: The Maya Classical period begins 71 ■ Christopher Columbus reaches America 142–47 ■ The Treaty of Tordesillas 148–51 ■ The Columbian Exchange 158–59 ■ The voyage of the *Mayflower* 172–73 ■ Bolívar establishes Gran Colombia 216–19

whose chiefs, together with priests, ruled on important decisions. In 1376, the Aztecs chose for the first time an overall leader (*tlatoani*), who came to serve as war leader, judge, and administrator for the burgeoning empire. Under Itzcoatl (1427–40), Moctezuma I (1440–69), Axayacatl (1469–81), and Ahuitzotl (1486–1503) Aztec armies subdued their neighbors in the Valley of Mexico and then spread outward, reaching Oaxaca, Veracruz, and to the edges of land controlled by the Mayan people in the east of modern-day Mexico and Guatemala.

As the Aztec Empire expanded, society was transformed. A warrior elite emerged, while at the bottom of society bondsmen (*mayeques*), who owned no land, were bound by labor service to their lords. The militaristic nature of Aztec society was accentuated by an education system in which all males received military training (in separate schools for nobles and commoners). This reinforced the warrior ethos and gave the Aztecs an incalculable advantage over neighboring tribes in Mexico.

The imperial system

Tenochtitlan was adorned by many temples to the gods of the Aztec pantheon. Each god had their own temple, with the Templo Mayor having twin shrines dedicated to Huitzilopochtli and Tlaloc, the rain god. At these temples a stream of human victims was sacrificed—up to 80,000 at the rededication of the

Templo Mayor in 1487—by burning alive, decapitation, or cutting open the chest and removing the heart.

Many of the Aztec battles were “flower wars”: ritual affairs in which opponents were captured (rather than killed) and sacrificed to placate the Aztec gods, who were believed to need blood to sustain them and keep the sun moving across the sky.

Tenochtitlan also exacted tribute from its subjects. Although there was very little in the way of an organized government bureaucracy, there were tax collectors, who crisscrossed the 38 provinces of the Aztec Empire and levied tribute, which included 7,000 tons of maize, 4,000 tons of beans, and hundreds of thousands of cotton blankets »



The founding of Tenochtitlan is illustrated in the *Codex Mendoza*: a record of Aztec history and culture created c.1540 by an Aztec artist for presentation to Charles V of Spain.

THE EAR MODERN 1420–1795

See also: Athenian democracy 46–51 ■ The assassination of Julius Caesar 58–65 ■ The Sack of Rome 68–69 ■ The fall of Constantinople 138–41 ■ Christopher Columbus discovers America 142–47 ■ Martin Luther's 95 theses 160–63

“

This enormous construction towering above the skies, vast enough to cover the entire population of Tuscany with its shadow.

Leon Battista Alberti
On Painting and Sculpture
(1435)

”

their prestige. The strong economy and deep civic pride in Italy laid the foundations for one of the most significant intellectual movements in history: the Renaissance.

Il Duomo

At the time of the competition, Florence's cathedral featured a vast octagonal space toward its eastern end, but since work on the building began in 1296 no one had worked out how to make a dome to cover it. The dome would have to be the largest cupola constructed since the late Roman period and the guild specified that it should be built without external buttresses, favored by their political rivals in France, Germany, and Milan and also considered old-fashioned. This seemed an impossible task. The young goldsmith and clockmaker-

Dominating the skyline of Florence, Brunelleschi's groundbreaking dome remains the tallest building in the city, rising majestically from the surrounding red-tiled roofs at 374 ft (114 m) high.

turned- architect Filippo Brunelleschi won the competition with his daring plan for a huge eight-sided brick dome, but many doubted that he would be able to construct it.

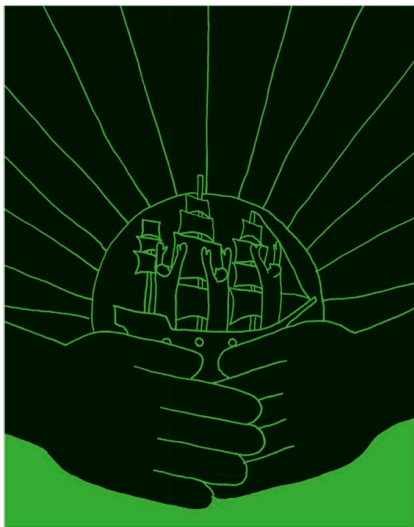
The main problem was being able to support the structure in such a way that it did not spread and collapse under its own weight. Brunelleschi's ingenious solution was to construct two concentric domes—an inner supporting dome and a larger outer one. The domes were then joined together with huge brick arches and a complex interlocking system of “chains” made from rings of stone and wooden beams that were attached by iron clamps to prevent the dome from expanding outwards

The result—which was finally completed in 1436—remains the largest masonry dome in the world. Combining the style of antiquity with new engineering techniques, it exhibited the blend of ancient wisdom and modern knowledge that typified the Renaissance.

The Renaissance in Italy

Meaning “rebirth,” the Renaissance was a movement that started in Italy and began to spread across Europe from the mid-14th century. Its roots lay in the rediscovery of the culture of ancient Greece and Rome and it influenced all the arts, as well as science and scholarship. Painters, sculptors, and architects broke free from the traditions of medieval art. They visited the monuments of ancient Rome, looking at classical statues and the carvings on Roman buildings, and created works of art in the classical style. This new movement inspired architects, such as Leon Battista Alberti and Brunelleschi, and a wave of great artists, including Michelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci. Most of these figures were active in many fields—Brunelleschi was a sculptor and engineer as well as an architect; Michelangelo painted, sculpted, and wrote poetry; while da Vinci's achievements spanned both the arts and the sciences. »





THEY CHERISHED A GREAT HOPE AND INWARD ZEAL

THE VOYAGE OF THE *MAYFLOWER* (1620)

IN CONTEXT

FOCUS

North American colonization

BEFORE

1585 English settlers found Roanoke Island Colony in North Carolina, but within five years it is abandoned.

1607 The first permanent English settlement in North America is founded at Jamestown, Virginia.

1608 French settlers found Quebec in Canada.

AFTER

1629 English settlers found the Massachusetts Bay Colony on North America's east coast.

1681 English Quaker William Penn founds Pennsylvania to provide a refuge for fellow Quakers.

1732 English settlers found Georgia, the last of the 13 original colonies on the northeast coast.

In 1620, a group of English people who could not legally worship as they wished to in England set sail across the Atlantic to begin a new life in America. This group later became known as the Pilgrims. They set off on two ships, but one proved unseaworthy so they had to continue in just one, the *Mayflower*. Winter storms ravaged the 66-day crossing and the ship's main beam fractured. While still aboard, the Pilgrims drew up the *Mayflower Compact*, which pledged their loyalty to the Crown but also asserted their right to make their

own laws within the English legal framework. They settled at Plymouth and, although many died that first winter, their community endured.

Early colonization

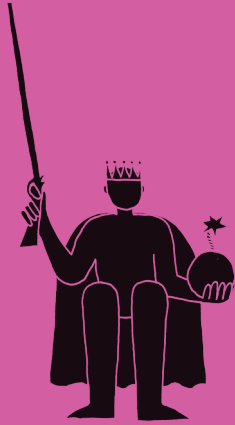
At that time, England, like other countries, was competing to establish colonies in North America. Jamestown had been founded thirteen years before the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth, but it was not a religious community. The Colony of Virginia, centered around Jamestown, had been established by English colonists in 1607 under

English **Protestants** seeking **religious freedom** sail to **North America** on the *Mayflower*.

More **religious separatists** follow, swelling the **colony's population**.

Other English colonies are founded by **companies** granted **royal charters** from the **Crown**.

The colonists develop a form of government based on the pursuit of religious freedom, following the English parliamentary model.



DON'T FORGET YOUR GREAT GUNS, THE MOST RESPECTABLE ARGUMENTS OF THE RIGHTS OF KINGS

THE BATTLE OF QUEBEC (1759)

IN CONTEXT

FOCUS

Seven Years' War

BEFORE

1754 Fighting between France and Britain in North America, the so-called French and Indian War, begins.

1756 Frederick II of Prussia begins the Seven Years War by invading Saxony to prevent Russia from creating a base there.

1757 Prussia inflicts a significant defeat on superior French and Austrian forces at Rossbach.

1759 Russia wipes out two-thirds of the Prussian army at Kunersdorf.

AFTER

1760 French forces at Montreal surrender to the British.

1763 The Seven Years' War comes to an end with the treaties of Paris and Hubertusburg.

On September 13, 1759, 24 British men scaled the cliffs below Quebec, opening the way for British forces commanded by General James Wolfe to capture the city. The crucial battle ended French dominance in Canada and was a key event in the Seven Years' War (1756–1763).

The war involved most of the chief European nations in a struggle for territory and power. It centered on two main clashes: one maritime and colonial, involving land battles in North America and India between Britain and Bourbon France; the other a European land war that chiefly pitted France, Austria, and Russia against Prussia. Overseas colonies also became involved, making this the first true global conflict.

Competing powers

Britain achieved notable victories over France. A French invasion attempt on Britain was thwarted by Britain's superior navy, and Britain scored colonial victories over France in West Africa, the Caribbean, and

“

Without supplies
no army is brave.

Frederick the Great, 1747

”

North America where there were major successes in Canada. Britain forced France to cede all of their territory east of the Mississippi River, effectively ending the threat France posed to Britain's North American colonies.

There were similar victories in India. The British general Robert Clive, wrongfooted the French by defeating the Nawab of Bengal at Plassey in 1757 and acquiring his territory for Britain, paving the way for the British domination of India. The end of the Seven Years' War left Britain the leading colonial power. ■

See also: Christopher Columbus reaches America 142–47 ■ The Defenestration of Prague 164–69 ■ The voyage of the *Mayflower* 172–73 ■ The Battle of Waterloo 214–15 ■ The Battle of Passchendaele 270–75

IN CONTEXT

FOCUS

The French Revolution

BEFORE

May 1789 Louis XVI summons the States General. In June, the commons forms the National Assembly, taking effective power in the name of the people.

AFTER

April 1792 The Legislative Assembly declares war on Austria and Prussia. The first French Republic is declared.

January 1793 Louis XVI is executed.

March 1794 The Terror is at its peak. In July, Robespierre, its prime exponent, is executed.

October 1795 Napoleon forcibly restores order to a turbulent Paris.

November 1799 Napoleon effectively becomes the ruler of France.

On July 14, 1789, an enraged Parisian mob, seeking weapons to defend their city from a rumored royal attack, stormed the crumbling fortress known as the Bastille and murdered its governor and guards. This violent defiance of royal power has become the symbol of the French Revolution, a movement that not only engulfed France but also reverberated around the world. The ideas articulated in the revolution spelled the beginning of the end for Europe's absolute monarchies and inspired their eventual replacement by more democratic governments.

The French Revolution originally set out to sweep away aristocratic privilege and establish a new state based on the Enlightenment principles of *liberté, égalité, and fraternité*. But although it was introduced by a surge of optimism, the revolution soon degenerated into a violence that played out over several years and that would be brought to an end only by the dictatorship of Napoleon Bonaparte. It remains a story of confusion and chaos, of a collision between a privileged old order, the *ancien*

The French Revolution was the greatest step forward in the history of mankind since the coming of Christ.

Victor Hugo

Les Misérables (1862)

régime, and a new world that struggled, often violently, to create a coherent new order.

A country in disarray

The French king, Louis XVI, well meaning but indecisive, was hardly the man to confront any crisis, let alone one as grave as that facing France in 1789. In the previous century, his great-great-grandfather Louis XIV, the Sun King, had established France as an absolute monarchy, with all power concentrated in the king's hands, and his palace at

Enlightenment thought establishes a belief in a **new political order** based on **liberty**.

A **political crisis** arises in France, and the **overthrow of the old order** seems suddenly possible.

The Bastille prison is attacked by a violent mob.

The underpinning belief in ***liberté, égalité, fraternité*** changes not just France, but the world.

A sustained period of **instability, rioting, civil war, and state-sanctioned executions** follows.

Attempts are made to construct a **new society**: the monarchy is abolished and a **republic declared**.

See also: The signing of the Declaration of Independence 204–07 ■ The storming of the Bastille 208–13 ■ The Expedition of the Thousand 238–41 ■ Russia emancipates the serfs 243 ■ The Gettysburg Address 244–47 ■ France returns to a republican government 265

“

Workers of the world,
unite! You have nothing
to lose but your chains!

The Communist Manifesto

”

Their goal was the preservation of aristocratic ruling elites, sustaining the old order, and holding frontiers.

This desire, however, was to be countered by a new political reality informed by a number of factors, including the desire to ensure that the liberties championed by the French Revolution were upheld. This new reality was also the result of what came to be called nationalism: the right of peoples, however they were defined, to determine their own futures as independent nations.

Just as important was the emergence of a new political creed—socialism—that sought to end the inequalities accelerated by the Industrial Revolution and led to impoverished workers being exploited by factory owners.

The old order is restored

In the feverish atmosphere of 1848, however, these aims would prove irreconcilable. As chaos threatened, the liberally minded middle classes sided much more naturally with existing political elites in restoring order than with the radicals seeking to rebuild societies and create new nations.

The ultimate beneficiaries of the revolutions were the monarchies in Italy and Germany, which would exploit a kind of popular nationalism to unify their countries. But at the same time, as economic shifts brought social change in their wake, the gradual emergence of trade unions—at least in Western European liberal democracies—led to improving standards of living for the previously dispossessed. ■

The Communist Manifesto

The Communist Manifesto was published in London in 1848, the same year as the revolutions that engulfed Europe. Although its impact on those upheavals was negligible, its resonance in years to come on social thought almost everywhere would be overwhelming. The pamphlet was the work of two Germans: Friedrich Engels, son of a textile manufacturer, and the similarly privileged Jewish academic Karl Marx. In 1847, both men had joined a semi-subversive

French group, the League of the Just, which later re-emerged, in London, as the Communist League. Engels subsequently financed Marx's seminal work, *Das Kapital*, its first volume published, again in London, in 1867. It was a detailed attempt to demonstrate how what Marx called capitalism contained the seeds of its own downfall, and the inevitability of the proletarian revolution that would create a classless society free of exploitation or want.

The **Congress of Vienna** attempts to **stifle nationalism** and the threat of **future revolt**.



The **promise of liberalism** proves impossible to extinguish. Demands for **national self-determination** grow.



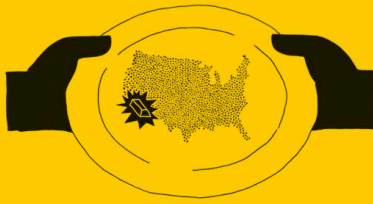
France, in particular, after the restoration of the monarchy, sees **violent uprisings**.



The **French Revolution of 1848** spawns rebellions in **Germany, Austria, and Italy**. All are **suppressed by force**.



Conservative elites exploit **nationalism** to drive the **unifications** of Italy and Germany.



OUR MANIFEST DESTINY IS TO OVERSPREAD THE CONTINENT

THE CALIFORNIA GOLD RUSH (1848–1855)

IN CONTEXT

FOCUS

American expansion

BEFORE

1845 Texas, formerly part of Mexico, is incorporated into the United States.

1846 Britain signs Oregon over to the United States.

1848 New Mexico and California are annexed after the Mexican–American War.

AFTER

1861 The first transcontinental telegraph line is completed; the Pony Express mail service closes two days later.

1862 The Homestead Act grants 160 acres of free land to anyone settling it.

1869 The first transcontinental railroad is completed.

1890 The US Census Bureau closes the American frontier, since no more large areas of land are unsettled.

Knowledge of the lands in the **American West** encourages an interest in **settlement** there.

The gold rush in California sparks a global frenzy to share in the new riches, accelerating the settlement of the West Coast.

Telegraph and railway lines **improve links** between the east and west coasts.

American Indians are forced away from their **ancestral lands**.

Better communications spur the development of **industry** in the United States.

The belief by sometime journalist John L. O'Sullivan that the "manifest destiny" of the United States lay in its expansion to the west was boosted immensely by the discovery of gold in a river in northern California in January 1848. Even allowing for the inevitable difficulties of communication and travel at the time, the find sparked a frenzied

reaction. Over the next five years, as many as 300,000 "49ers"—a reference to the year in which the influx began in earnest—were drawn to what, in 1850, would become the 31st state of the US. The immediate consequence was both a wild lawlessness in the pursuit of instant riches and the confirmation of America's Pacific coast as a promised land. The

ERN





**IN STARTING
AND WAGING A WAR,
IT IS NOT RIGHT
THAT MATTERS BUT
VICTORY**

NAZI INVASION OF POLAND (1939–1945)



See also: The Second Opium War 254–55 ■ The Treaty of Versailles 280 ■ The Cultural Revolution 316–17 ■ The global financial crisis 330–33

from the air and were constantly under attack by Nationalist troops on the ground. They traveled mostly at night, the unit splitting into different columns to make them harder to spot.

The Tibetan mountains, Gobi Desert, and miles of wilderness stood between them and their goal: to reach the safety of northern China and establish a new Communist base. Hundreds died of starvation: of the original 80,000 marchers, only about 8,000 survived. Far from being viewed as a failure, however, their feat was hailed as a triumph of endurance and ensured the survival of the CCP.

Unifying the nation

In 1895, China had suffered a heavy military defeat against Japan. Anti-Japanese feeling swelled following Japan's aggression against China during World War I. Huge protests erupted after the 1919 Treaty of Versailles handed former German colonies in China to Japan. In the wake of these protests, communist ideals gained support, and in



Mao Zedong rides his white horse alongside Communist Party members during the Long March of 1934–35. His role in the march ultimately saw him rise to leader of the nation.

1921 the CCP was founded. The Kuomintang, a Nationalist party, also grew and by the mid-1920s had begun unifying the country.

Massacre in Shanghai

Nationalists joined forces with Communists in 1926 under Chiang Kai-shek (Jiang Jieshi) in the Northern Expedition to regain territories controlled by regional warlords. During the expedition, as the CCP increased in strength, a bitter rivalry led to an attack by

Nationalists against the CCP in Shanghai, in April 1927. Hundreds of Communists were arrested and tortured. The massacre triggered years of anti-Communist violence, and the Communists retreated to the Jiangxi countryside.

The struggle for survival

After the Long March, the CCP regrouped in the north. Nationalists and Communists were forced into an uneasy alliance in 1937, when Japan invaded China. By 1939, large areas in the north and east had been conquered. After Japan's defeat in World War II, tension between Nationalists and Communists flared up again, leading to civil war in 1946. The Communists won after massive battles with more than half a million troops on either side. On October 1, 1949, Mao Zedong created the People's Republic of China.

The Long March was a feat of remarkable endurance. To the survivors, it provided a deep sense of mission and contributed to the perception of Mao as a leader of destiny and revolutionary struggle. ■

Chiang Kai-shek

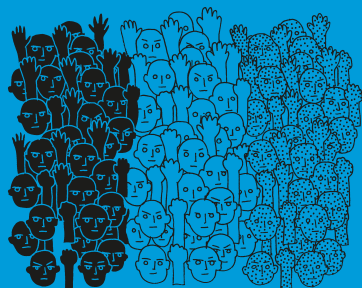


The foremost non-communist Chinese leader of the 20th century, Chiang Kai-shek (1887–1975) was a soldier who, in 1925, became leader of the Kuomintang (Nationalist Party), which had been founded by Sun Yat-sen.

During his various stints as China's premier, he ruled over a troubled country. He attempted modest reforms but was beset by intractable domestic strife, as well as by armed conflict with Japanese invaders.

Despite making attempts to crush his chief rivals, the Chinese Communists, when China was

attacked by Japan his followers forced him to make an alliance with the Communists against the invading Japanese. The alliance did not survive the end of the World War II, and in 1949 Chiang and his party were driven from the mainland to the island of Formosa, which by that time had become known to Westerners as Taiwan. While he was there, Chiang set up a government in exile, which he controlled until his death in 1975. His government was recognized by many states as China's legitimate government.



ALL POWER TO THE PEOPLE

THE 1968 PROTESTS

IN CONTEXT

FOCUS

Radical post-war politics

BEFORE

1963 *The Feminine Mystique* by Betty Friedan reignites the women's rights movement.

1967 The killing in Berlin of student demonstrator Benno Ohnesorg sparks a revolt.

March 1968 Demonstrators in Italy protest against police brutality.

AFTER

1969 The Days of Rage demonstrations in Chicago use violence to protest against the Vietnam War and US racism.

1970s The radical group Japanese Red Army protests the presence of US military bases in Japan.

1978 The Italian Red Brigades take former prime minister Aldo Moro hostage as part of their left-wing terrorist campaign.

In 1968, a small demonstration over poor campus facilities at Nanterre University in a suburb of Paris, France, spread across the country. In March, riot police were called to deal with the unrest, and hundreds of students descended on Nanterre. By May, the uprising had moved to the center of Paris, and the number of protestors swelled to thousands. Tension erupted on the streets, as demonstrators called for revolutionary social change and the collapse of the government. Within a few days, 8 million workers went on a wildcat strike that brought France to a standstill.

A momentous year

France's journey to near revolution is the defining event of 1968, a year of global protest. Much was against the Vietnam War, but many people also marched against oppressive regimes. Politics became more radical: the "coming out" of sexual minorities, women's liberation, and sexual equality came to the fore. In the United States, groups such as the Black Panthers fought for racial

equality; and the German Student Movement, led by Rudi Dutschke, opposed the older generation, who had been part of World War II.

The French protests lost steam as elections showed overwhelming support for the government. The revolutionary movements of 1968 ultimately failed, but they inspired a generation to question authority. In their wake came a rise in left-wing terrorist groups that used bombing and kidnapping while purporting to fight for social justice. ■

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What's important is that the action took place, when everybody judged it to be unthinkable.

Jean-Paul Sartre

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See also: Nkrumah wins Ghanaian independence 306–07 ■ The March on Washington 311 ■ The Gulf of Tonkin Incident 312–13 ■ De Gaulle founds the French Fifth Republic 340 ■ The Red Army Faction's terrorist activity 341