Chapter Summary

Section 1: Struggle in Latin America
The Mexican Revolution took years of upheaval and a number of changes in government. Nationalism created a movement for a Mexican state that reflected pride in its people and culture.

Section 2: Nationalism in Africa and the Middle East
African colonies were promised more freedom and possible independence in exchange for providing soldiers for World War I. But at the Paris Peace Conference, African nations’ concerns were ignored. Egypt and Turkey were the most successful at creating independent states, which inspired other Arab nations. The creation of a Jewish state in Palestine became a goal for Jews.
Chapter Summary (continued)

Section 3: India Seeks Self-Rule

Over a million Indians served in WWI with the expectation that Britain would reward their nation with independence. Gandhi emerged as a leader of the Congress party and engaged in a series of acts of civil disobedience against the British. His nonviolent approach attracted world attention, which forced the British to concede some power to the Indians.

Section 4: Upheavals in China

After the fall of the Qing dynasty, China’s government was in disarray. Two strong leaders fought for control of the government—Jiang Jieshi and Mao Zedong. Their struggles to control and manage China divided the country until WWII, when they temporarily united to fight the Japanese.
Chapter Summary (continued)

Section 5: Conflicting Forces in Japan

Japan’s imperialist ambitions were very successful in the first half of the twentieth century. Korea was annexed in 1910 and parts of China were handed over to Japan after WWI. Internal governmental struggles gave Japan a more liberal government in the 1920s, but ultranationalists reacted strongly to the events of the 1930s and created a much more militaristic government.
Objectives

• Identify the causes and effects of the Mexican Revolution.

• Describe the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) and the reforms it introduced in Mexico after the revolution.

• Analyze the effects of nationalism in Latin America in the 1920s and 1930s.
Terms and Places

- **haciendas** – large plantations
- **nationalization** – government takeover of property or resources
- **economic nationalism** – emphasis on home control of the economy
- **cultural nationalism** – pride in one’s own culture
- **Good Neighbor Policy** – a policy in which the United States pledged to lessen its interference in the affairs of Latin American nations
How did Latin Americans struggle for change in the early 1900s?

Latin America’s economy was booming in the early 1900s, but it was highly dependent on foreign, industrialized countries.

From military dictatorships to constitutional democracies, Latin American countries struggled to create governments that reflected the nationalist goals of their citizens.
**Latin America in the early 1900s**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Many governments were stable and had democratic constitutions.</td>
<td>• Military dictators or oligarchies held the real power.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• The economy was booming.</td>
<td>• The middle and lower classes had no say in their own government.</td>
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<td>• Most natural resources and cash crops were sold to industrialized</td>
<td>• Foreign investors controlled many of the natural resources.</td>
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<td>countries.</td>
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By 1910, the dictator Porfirio Díaz had ruled Mexico for almost 35 years. He oversaw a period of peace and prosperity, but not everyone was fortunate.
In 1910, liberal reformer Francisco Madero demanded free elections, and Díaz resigned. Madero was democratically elected in 1911, but within two years he was assassinated by one of his generals, Victoriano Huerta, who became a dictator.
Peasants Francisco “Pancho” Villa and Emiliano Zapata joined forces with rich landowner Venustiano Carranza to defeat Huerta.

- Villa and Zapata wanted to make broad changes to improve peasants’ lives, but Carranza disagreed.
- After they defeated Huerta, Carranza turned on Villa and Zapata and defeated them.
In 1917, Carranza was elected president of Mexico.

Constitution of 1917
- Land reforms
- Religious reforms
- Labor reforms
- Suffrage
- Women’s rights

He reluctantly approved a new constitution, which, with amendments, is still in force today.
The Constitution of 1917

| Land                  | • Permitted the breakup of large estates  
|                      | • Set restrictions on foreigners owning land  
|                      | • Allowed **nationalization** of natural resources  |
| Religion             | • Made church land the property of Mexico  |
| Labor                | • Set a minimum wage  
|                      | • Protected workers’ right to strike  |
| Rights for women     | • Enforced equal pay for equal work  
|                      | • Gave married women some economic and legal rights  |
| Suffrage             | • Allowed only men to vote  |
After Carranza was overthrown in 1920, fighting in Mexico continued throughout the decade.

In 1929, the government organized what later became the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI).

The PRI dominated Mexican politics from the 1930s until the free election of 2000.
### The PRI:

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<td>• Adopted some of the goals of business and military leaders, peasants, and workers</td>
<td>• Kept the real power in the government’s hands</td>
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<td>• Brought stability to Mexico</td>
<td>• Suppressed opposition and dissent</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Carried out many desired reforms over time</td>
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- **Adopted some of the goals of business and military leaders, peasants, and workers**
- **Brought stability to Mexico**
- **Carried out many desired reforms over time**
- **Kept the real power in the government’s hands**
- **Suppressed opposition and dissent**
As the Mexican government restored order, it began to carry out reforms in the 1920s and 1930s.

- In the 1920s, the government helped some Indian communities regain their lands.

- President Lázaro Cárdenas redistributed millions of acres of land to peasants in the 1930s.
In 1938, President Cárdenas nationalized Mexico’s oil resources and compensated American and British oil companies for their losses.

The Mexican government supported labor unions and set up schools and libraries to combat illiteracy.

Mexico became the first Latin American nation to pursue real social and economic reforms for the majority of its people.
Latin America went into an economic crisis because of World War I and the Great Depression.

- Prices and demand for Latin American exports fell.
- Import prices rose, causing sweeping economic nationalism.
- Many countries tried to develop industry, but few were successful.
The economic crisis caused people to lose faith in the ruling oligarchies and in liberal government.

- Political nationalism lead to strong authoritarian governments.
- People hoped that these governments could do a better job controlling the economy.
At the same time, cultural nationalism was reflected in the work of Latin American artists, writers, and thinkers.

This movement celebrated the culture of the country, including its native roots.
The United States made many investments in Latin America in the early 1900s, but also interfered when its interests were threatened. These actions stirred up anti-American feelings in Latin America. U.S. president Franklin Roosevelt pledged that America would follow the Good Neighbor Policy in Latin America.

This policy supported Latin American nationalism and improved relations between Latin America and the United States.
Objectives

- Describe how Africans resisted colonial rule.
- Analyze how nationalism grew in Africa.
- Explain how Turkey and Persia modernized.
- Summarize how European mandates contributed to the growth of Arab nationalism.
- Understand the roots of conflict between Jews and Arabs in the Palestinian mandate.
Terms and People

- **apartheid** – a policy of rigid segregation in South Africa

- **Pan-Africanism** – a movement that emphasized the unity of Africans and people of African descent worldwide

- **négritude movement** – a group of writers who expressed pride in their African roots and protested colonial rule

- **Asia Minor** – the Turkish peninsula between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea
Terms and People (continued)

- **Pan-Arabism** – a nationalist movement built on the shared heritage of Arabs who lived in lands from the Arabian Peninsula to North Africa

- **Balfour Declaration** – a 1917 British declaration that advocated setting up a national home for Jews in Palestine
How did nationalism contribute to changes in Africa and the Middle East following World War I?

During World War I, many soldiers came from the colonies. They expected that at the end of the war, their work would be acknowledged and rewarded.

When the Treaty of Versailles was signed and the people of the European colonies were ignored, nationalist sympathies surfaced and the people of Africa and the Middle East fought to obtain their independence.
In the early 1900s, almost all of Africa was ruled by European powers.

Under imperialism, Europeans forced Africans to:

- Work on plantations or in mines
- Pay taxes to colonial governments
- Carry identification cards
- Live and travel only where allowed by Europeans
During World War I, more than one million Africans fought on the side of the Allies for their colonial rulers. They hoped to be rewarded with independence after the war.

At the Paris Peace Conference in 1919, the Allies denied independence to African colonies and kept them under European control.
At the Pan-African Congress in 1919, Africans called on the Allies to grant them a charter of rights.

The conference failed to convince the Allies to approve a charter of rights for Africans. Nevertheless, it established cooperation between African and African-American leaders.
In the 1920s, a movement known as *Pan-Africanism* encouraged African nationalism.

French-speaking writers in West Africa and the Caribbean started the *négritude movement*.

A leader of the *négritude* movement, Marcus Garvey, spoke of “Africa for Africans” and demanded an end to colonial rule.
Throughout the 1920s and 1930s, Africans in Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa, and other countries resisted the colonial system.

Protesters used many techniques. They:

- Settled illegally on European-owned plantations
- Organized illegal labor unions
- Formed unauthorized associations and political parties
Between 1910 and 1940, whites in South Africa imposed a system of racial segregation.

At that time, blacks:

- Could not hold the best-paying jobs
- Had to carry passes and couldn’t vote
- Were forced to live on crowded “reserves”

Segregation in South Africa became even stricter after 1948, when *apartheid* became law.
One response by South African blacks was the creation of the African National Congress (ANC).

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<th>The ANC:</th>
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<td>Formed in South Africa in 1912 by African Christian churches and African-run newspapers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demanded rights for black South Africans</td>
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<tr>
<td>Worked through legal means to protest unfair laws</td>
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<tr>
<td>Built a framework for later political action</td>
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The ANC was ignored by the South African government.
The most successful nationalist movement in Africa after World War I took place in Egypt.

- Egyptians united behind the Wafd party, whose protests, strikes, and riots forced Britain to grant Egypt independence in 1922.

- Britain still controlled Egypt’s monarchy and left troops to guard the Suez Canal. The Muslim Brotherhood was formed during the 1930s to foster broad Islamic nationalism.
During World War I, the allies promised independence to Middle Eastern peoples in return for help against the Ottomans.

The reality was that the lands of the Middle East were divided between Britain and France after the war.

This stirred nationalist feelings among the Arabs across borders.
The Middle East, 1920s
Arab nationalists created the Pan-Arabism movement.

- This involved people in present-day Syria, Jordan, Iraq, Egypt, Algeria, and Morocco.
- Pan-Arabism sought to free Arabs from foreign domination.
- One of its goals was to stop the exploitation of Arab oil reserves by the European powers.
In Asia Minor, Turks resisted Western control and fought to build a modern nation apart from other Arab nations.

The sultan had signed the Treaty of Sévres in 1920, which had given a great deal of Turkish land to Greece.

Nationalist Turks, led by Mustafa Kemal, overthrew the sultan, defeated Greece, formed the modern Republic of Turkey, and negotiated a new treaty.
Kemal took the name Atatürk ("father of the Turks") and led the Turkish republic.

Between 1923 and his death in 1938, Atatürk was responsible for many reforms. He:

- Moved to modernize, Westernize, and secularize Turkey
- Encouraged industrial expansion
- Gave women the right to vote and to work outside the home
Atatürk’s reforms were successful, and nationalists in Persia (present-day Iran) followed his lead.

• In 1925, army officer Reza Khan overthrew the shah and rushed to modernize, Westernize, and secularize Persia, which angered Muslim religious leaders.

• Khan also persuaded the British company that controlled Persia’s oil industry to hire Persians and to give Persia a larger share of the profits.
In 1897, Theodor Herzl responded to growing European anti-Semitism by founding the modern Zionist movement.

- The goal of the movement was to rebuild a Jewish state in Palestine.
- At the same time, violent pogroms against Jews in Russia prompted thousands to migrate to Palestine.
- These immigrants joined a small Jewish community that had lived there since Biblical times.
The Allies had promised Palestine to both the Arabs and the Jews.

In 1917, the British tried to win the support of European Jews by issuing the **Balfour Declaration.** They advocated setting up a national home for the Jewish people.

The Allies promised Arabs their own kingdoms in former Ottoman lands, including Palestine, after the end of World War I.
From 1919 to 1940, many Jews and Arabs migrated to Palestine. Tensions between the two groups developed. For the rest of the century Arabs and Jews fought over the land.

The Balfour Declaration noted that the civil and religious rights of non-Jewish communities in Palestine had to be preserved.
Objectives

- Explain what motivated the Indian independence movement after World War I.
- Analyze how Mohandas Gandhi influenced the independence movement.
- Describe the impact of the Salt March on the course of the Indian independence movement.
Terms and People

- **Amritsar massacre** – an incident in 1919 in which British troops fired on an unarmed crowd of Indians
- **ahimsa** – an ancient Hindu doctrine of nonviolence and reverence for all life
- **civil disobedience** – the refusal to obey unjust laws
- **untouchables** – members of the lowest caste in India
- **boycott** – a refusal to buy goods
How did Gandhi and the Congress party work for independence in India?

Gandhi was inspired by Hindu traditions as well as American ideas about civil disobedience. He led the Congress party through a series of nonviolent actions against British rule.

Worldwide negative reaction to the harsh British reprisals against Indians forced the British to give Indians concessions, but not independence until after WWII.
The Indian National Congress party pressed for self-rule within the British Empire starting in 1885.

In return for fighting during World War I, the British promised greater self-government in India. More than a million Indians fought for the Allies.

After the war, the British proposed only a few small reforms, angering Indian nationalists.
Unhappy with British rule, some Indians protested, rioted, and attacked British residents.

- On April 13, 1919, a large but peaceful crowd of Indians gathered in Amritsar in northern India to hear several Indian speakers.

- British soldiers fired on the crowd, killing 400 and wounding 1,100.

- Amritsar was a turning point, convincing many Indians of the need for independence from the British.
India Seeks Self-Rule

Section 3

After the **Amritsar massacre**, the Indian National Congress party called for full independence for India.

In the 1920s, a new leader named Mohandas Gandhi emerged and united Indians across class lines.
Gandhi came from a middle-class Hindu family. He:

- Studied law in England
- Moved to South Africa and fought against laws that discriminated against Indians in South Africa
- Returned to India and became the leader of the Indian National Congress in 1914
Gandhi urged equal rights for all men and women, as well as for the untouchables. He fought injustice with nonviolent resistance and inspired Indians of all religions and ethnic background. His campaign of civil disobedience attracted wide support, catching the attention of the British government and the world.
Gandhi’s ideas about nonviolent resistance came from many sources.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindu tradition</th>
<th>Western influences</th>
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</table>
| • The ancient doctrine of **ahimsa** | • Equality for men and women  
| | • Christian teachings about love  
| | • American philosopher Henry David Thoreau’s ideas about civil disobedience  
| | • Democracy  
| | • Nationalism |
Gandhi challenged British rule in nonviolent ways during the 1920s and 1930s. He:

- Called for an Indian **boycott** of British goods, especially cotton textiles
- Worked to restart India’s traditional industries
- Mobilized mass support for India’s independence by protesting the British salt monopoly
In 1930, Gandhi and his followers marched to the sea.

- Gandhi walked 240 miles to the sea, arriving with thousands of followers.
- After picking up a lump of salt, he was arrested and jailed.
- His example inspired tens of thousands of nonviolent acts of protest in India.
India Seeks Self-Rule

Section 3

Gandhi’s campaign forced the British to give some power to Indians and to meet other demands of the Indian National Congress.

Tens of thousands were imprisoned, and newspapers around the world criticized the British for their brutal treatment of Indians.
In 1939, World War II began. Britain angered Indians by postponing their independence and bringing them into the war without consulting them.

Many Indians protested and were jailed, but millions of others did help Britain during the war.

When the war ended in 1945, India’s independence was at hand, but conflicts between Hindus and Muslims troubled the nation for years to come.
Objectives

- Explain the key challenges faced by the Chinese republic in the early 1900s.
- Analyze the struggle between two rival parties as they fought to control China.
- Describe how invasion by Japan affected China.
Terms and People

- **Twenty-One Demands** – a list of demands that sought to make China a Japanese protectorate

- **May Fourth Movement** – a cultural and intellectual ferment, set off on May 4, 1919, by student protests against the Paris Peace Conference

- **vanguard** – elite leaders

- **Guomindang** – Nationalist party in China

- **Long March** – a 1934-1935 retreat by Chinese Communists who were being pursued and killed by the Guomindang
How did China cope with internal division and foreign invasion in the early 1900s?

After the collapse of the Qing dynasty, China fell into chaos due to its ineffective government. The republic could not counter the threats posed by warlord uprisings or foreign imperialism.

Two strong leaders emerged: Jiang Jieshi and Mao Zedong. They led opposing factions until World War II, when they temporarily put aside their differences to join forces against the Japanese.
After the Qing collapse in 1911, new President Sun Yixian hoped to rebuild China.

- His ideas for rebuilding China were founded on the Three Principles: Nationalism, Democracy, and Economic security for all.
- In 1912, Sun stepped down as president, and a powerful general, Yuan Shikai, took over.
Yuan wanted to set up a dynasty, but wasn’t supported by the military.

- During World War I, the Japanese gave Yuan the Twenty-One Demands.
- China was too weak to resist, so Yuan gave in to some of the demands.
After Yuan’s death, China experienced conflict and upheaval.

- Armies of warlords battled for control.
- Foreign powers increased their influence over China.
- At the Paris Peace Conference, the Allies gave Japan control over Chinese lands controlled by the Germans. This angered the Chinese Nationalists.
- Students protested the actions of the allies, starting the May Fourth Movement, which increased Chinese nationalist sentiments.
# The May Fourth Movement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protests</th>
<th>Began with students in Beijing and rapidly spread to other cities.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reform ideals</td>
<td>Rejected Confucian traditions, Western ideals, and foreign domination.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Politics</td>
<td>Formed a small Chinese Communist Party in the 1920s. Was trained by the Soviet Union to be the vanguard of a Communist revolution in China.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s participation</td>
<td>Women joined marches and campaigned to end traditional practices, such as foot binding.</td>
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</table>
In 1921, Sun Yixian and his Guomindang established a government in south China.

- He planned to raise an army to defeat the warlords.
- **Western democracies would not help**, so Sun accepted aid from the Soviet Union.
- Sun also joined forces with the Chinese Communists, although he still believed in his Three Principles of the People.
Sun died in 1925, and army officer Jiang Jieshi took over the Guomindang.

He wanted to defeat the warlords and reunite China, and was not interested in democracy or communism.
In 1926, Jiang led the Guomindang and the Chinese Communists on the Northern Expedition and captured Beijing.

- Guomindang troops slaughtered thousands of Communist Party members and their supporters.
- The massacre marked the beginning of a bitter civil war that lasted for 22 years.

In early 1927, Jiang turned on the Communists because they threatened his position.
Mao Zedong, a young communist revolutionary of peasant origins, escaped the massacre.

Mao believed that the Communists should seek support from the large peasant masses.
As Mao’s army retreated, the Guomindang followed on what became known as the 1934-1935 **Long March**.

In response, Jiang led the Guomindang in a series of “extermination campaigns” against the Communists.

In southeastern China, the Communists redistributed land to peasants and promised other reforms.
During the 6,000-mile Long March, the Communists treated peasants, who had been abused by the Guomindang, with respect. The peasants welcomed the Communists.

Only 8,000 of the 100,000 Communists who began the march survived.

Mao claimed the retreat as a victory because it had spread the communist message.
In 1931, Japan captured Manchuria. The Guomindang was forced to join with the Communists to fight the Japanese in the 1937 Second Sino-Japanese War.

The United States, Britain, France, and the Soviet Union all sent aid to help the Chinese.
In what became known as “the rape of Nanjing,” Japanese troops captured the city, killed hundreds of thousands of soldiers and civilians, and brutalized still more.

The Guomindang and the Communists remained united until the end of the war with Japan.
By the end of World War II, Jiang and the Guomindang controlled China’s central government.

Mao Zedong’s Communist Party controlled much of northern and central China.

Soon, the Communists would begin revolution across all of China.
Objectives

- Explain the effects of liberal changes in Japan during the 1920s.
- Analyze how nationalists reacted to Japan’s problems during the Great Depression.
- Describe how the militarists used their power in the 1930s.
Terms and People

- **Hirohito** – the Japanese emperor who reigned from 1926 to 1989
- **ultranationalist** – an extreme nationalist
- **Manchuria** – a northern Chinese province
How did Japan change in the 1920s and 1930s?

Japan used its strong economy to become an imperialist nation, expanding into China and Korea.

The 1920s were a period of liberal reforms in Japan. By the 1930s, however, Japan experienced a backlash against liberalism due to the combined effects of the Great Depression and growing militarism.
During WWI, Japan grew into a major economic and imperial power.

Japan was a growing presence in East Asia. Japan:

• Annexed Korea as a colony in 1910
• Sought further rights in China with the Twenty-One Demands
• Was awarded former German possessions in East Asia by the Allies at the 1919 Paris Peace Conference
In 1926, Hirohito became emperor of Japan.

- According to Japanese tradition, he was the nation’s supreme authority and a living god.
- He reigned for 63 years, until 1989.
Japanese democracy during the 1920s was fairly liberal, but dominated by powerful business interests.

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<tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>• Political parties grew stronger.</td>
<td>• Political parties were manipulated by the zaibatsu, Japan’s powerful</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Elected members of the Diet exercised their</td>
<td>business leaders.</td>
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<td>power.</td>
<td>• Women did not win the right to vote until 1945.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• All adult men won the right to vote.</td>
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Western powers grew wary of Japan’s aggressive growth. Japan slowed down its foreign expansion. Japan:

- Signed a 1922 agreement with the United States, Britain, and France to limit the size of its navy
- Agreed to leave Shandong
- Reduced military spending
Japan experienced turmoil in many parts of its society during the 1920s.

| Economy                  | • Rural peasants remained poor while the rest of the country prospered.  
|                         | • Peasants and factory workers were drawn to socialist ideas. |
| Culture                 | • Younger people adopted Western fashions and philosophies.  
|                         | • Conservatives blamed Western influences for the lack of obedience and respect for authority. |
| Politics                | • Tensions grew between the government and the military.  
|                         | • Conservatives complained of government corruption. |
A devastating earthquake struck the Tokyo area in 1923, killing 100,000 and causing major property damage and unemployment.

As Tokyo began to recover, Japan faced another economic crisis: the Great Depression.

Trade suffered and urban unemployment soared. Rural peasants were close to starvation.
Military officials and **ultranationalists** responded to the Depression in Japan by blaming Western influences and preaching independence. They:

- Condemned politicians for agreeing to Western demands to stop overseas expansion
- Condemned Western racial policies that shut out Japanese immigrants
- Demanded renewed expansion to provide Japan with the natural resources it needed to fuel its industries
In 1931, a group of Japanese army officers in the Chinese province of Manchuria pretended that the Chinese had attacked a Japanese-owned railroad line. Claiming self-defense, the Japanese army attacked and conquered Manchuria. They then set up a puppet state.
The League of Nations condemned Japan for the Manchurian incident. Japan withdrew from the League, which did not take military action.

The Japanese army had not told the government of its plans, and politicians were upset, but the Japanese people sided with the military.
In the 1930s, ultranationalists plotted to overthrow the government. The unrest forced the government to accept military domination in 1937.

- Cracked down on socialists
- Suppressed most democratic freedoms
- Revived ancient warrior values
- Built a cult around Emperor Hirohito
- Used schools to teach students obedience and service
The Japanese government followed the Manchurian incident by nullifying the agreements it had made to limit its navy, and in 1937, Japan attacked China, starting the Second Sino-Japanese War.

Japan had ambitions to conquer China, but the onset of World War II in 1939 changed Japan’s focus.

Japan signed the Tripartite Pact with Germany and Italy in September 1940, cementing the alliance known as the Axis Powers.