Chapter 16

The Age of Imperialism

Chapter Themes

- **Movement** Political, economic, and social factors lead to the Age of Imperialism. *Section 1*
- **Change** European powers divide most of Africa into colonies, and Africans resist European intervention and colonialism. *Section 2*
- **Reaction** India and China come under European control or influence, while Japan tries to meet the Western challenge. *Section 3*
- **Nationalism** Nationalism intensifies in Latin America as United States involvement in the region increases. *Section 4*

**The Storyteller**

No one knows how the rumor started, but it spread quickly. The bullets for the new rifles, the story went, were greased with the fat of cows and pigs. The sepoys, Indian soldiers in the British army, were outraged. Because Hindus regarded the cow as sacred and Muslims could not touch pork, using these bullets would violate the beliefs of both groups. As a result, the sepoys started a rebellion in May 1857 that soon engulfed much of India.

The Indian Revolt of 1857 was not an isolated incident. As European powers acquired new territories in the 1800s, conflicts between colonial rulers and colonial peoples developed. By the early 1900s European nations ruled large parts of Asia and Africa, while the United States was expanding its interests in Latin America.

**Historical Significance**

How did the spread of empires affect peoples in Asia, Africa, and Latin America? How did colonial peoples respond to Western rule?

- 1850
- 1875
- 1900
- 1925

- **1853** Commodore Perry lands in Japan.
- **1869** Suez Canal opens.
- **1885** European powers meet in Berlin to divide Africa into colonies.
- **1911** China becomes a republic.
An Indian prince hosts a British officer at a nautch (a form of entertainment by professional dancers).

**Chapter Overview Online**
Visit the *World History: The Modern Era* Web site at [worldhistory.me.glencoe.com](http://worldhistory.me.glencoe.com) and click on *Chapter 16—Chapter Overview* to preview the chapter.

**Your History Journal**

*Draw or copy the map “Imperialism in Africa 1914” on page 486 of this chapter. Then, using the map of modern Africa in the Atlas as a guide, write in the new national names and draw in present boundaries.*
The term **imperialism** is a Latin word from the days of the Roman Empire. Imperialism means one country’s domination of the political, economic, and social life of another country. About 2,000 years ago, imperial Rome controlled most of the Mediterranean world. By the end of the 1800s, a handful of European countries, together with the United States, controlled nearly the entire world. Not surprisingly, the era between 1800 and 1914 has come to be known as the Age of Imperialism.

The imperialism of the 1800s resulted from three key factors. First, nationalism prompted rival European nations to build empires in their competitive quests for power. Second, the Industrial Revolution created a tremendous demand for raw materials and expanded markets, which prompted industrialized nations to seek new territories. Finally, both religious fervor and feelings of racial and cultural superiority inspired Europeans to impose their cultures on distant lands.

**Political Rivalries**

In the mid-1800s European countries saw themselves as actors on the world stage, and each country wanted to play a starring role. If Great Britain started a small colony in distant Asia or Africa, France had to start one too—and so did Belgium, Germany, Italy, Holland, Spain, Portugal, and Russia.

Once begun, the quest for colonies became a continuing enterprise that seemed to have no limits. Slow and difficult communication between remote territories and European capitals often enabled colonial governors and generals to take matters into their own hands. If a colony’s borders did not provide military security, for instance, military officials

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**Guide to Reading**

**Read to Find Out**

**Main Idea** There were political, economic, and social causes of imperialism.

- **Terms to Define**
  - imperialism, colony, protectorate, sphere of influence

- **People to Meet**
  - Cecil Rhodes, Rudyard Kipling

- **Places to Locate**
  - Algeria, Australia, New Zealand, Rhodesia (Zimbabwe)

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**The Storyteller**

In India, British schools taught English and required students to adopt Christianity. The wife of a British official described attending a graduation ceremony in the year 1886. “The proceedings began with a hymn. The children sang pretty well, though in a harsh voice…. Then a boy stood up, put his hands together, and repeated the Lord’s Prayer. Others followed him, and then Mr. Summers [the teacher] read a chapter from the Old Testament about Adam and Eve…. We could just tell he was speaking of the various nations—English, Parsee, [Muslim], Hindu, all came from Adam and Eve, we were all one family here.”

—adapted from *An Indian Journal*, Nora Scott, 1994

*Indians and British*
based in the colony used their armies to expand the colony’s borders. This strategy worked well enough until colonial governments started claiming the same territories. Then new conflicts arose, and European troops found themselves facing off on remote battlefields in Africa and Asia.

Desire for New Markets

The Industrial Revolution of the 1800s knew no borders. Factories in Europe and the United States consumed tons of raw materials and churned out thousands of manufactured goods. The owners and operators of these factories searched constantly for new sources of raw materials and new markets for their products. They hoped to find both in foreign lands.

Rubber, copper, and gold came from Africa, cotton and jute from India, and tin from Southeast Asia. These raw materials spurred the growth of European and American industries and financial markets, but they represented only the tip of the iceberg. Bananas, oranges, melons, and other exotic fruits made their way to European markets. People in Paris, London, and Berlin drank colonial tea, coffee, and cocoa with their meals and washed themselves with soap made from African palm oil.

The colonies also provided new markets for the finished products of the Industrial Revolution. Tools, weapons, and clothing flowed out of the factories and back to the colonies whose raw materials had made them possible.

Seeking New Opportunities

Imperialism involved more than just guns, battles, raw materials, and manufactured goods. Colonies needed people who were loyal to the imperialist country. Great Britain, France, and Germany needed British, French, and German citizens to run their newly acquired territories and keep them productive.

Throughout the 1800s European leaders urged their citizens to move to far-off colonies. Many of them responded. In the 1840s, for example, thousands of French citizens sailed across the Mediterranean Sea to Algeria, where they started farms and estates on lands seized from local Algerian farmers.

The British, meanwhile, emigrated to the far corners of the globe, hoping to find opportunities not available at home. Many rushed to Australia and New Zealand in the 1850s in search of gold. As the British government continued to acquire vast tracts of land in Africa, Asia, and the Pacific, the phrase “the sun never sets on the British Empire” became a popular way of describing Great Britain’s vast holdings.

Strong-minded individuals saw emigration as a chance to strike it rich or make a name for themselves. Perhaps the most spectacular success story of the era belonged to Cecil Rhodes, a British adventurer who made a fortune from gold and diamond mining in southern Africa. Rhodes went on to found a colony that bore his name: Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe).
“Civilizing” Mission

Some emigrants had motives that went beyond mere personal glory and profit. Religious and humanitarian impulses inspired many individuals to leave their secure lives at home and head for the distant colonies. The desire to spread Western technology, religion, customs and traditions also fueled colonial expansion.

During the Age of Imperialism, growing numbers of Catholic and Protestant missionaries decided to bring the Christian message to the most remote corners of Africa and Asia. Over the decades they set up hundreds of Christian missions and preached to thousands of Africans and Asians. Like many other Europeans and Americans of this period, these missionaries believed that Christianity and Western civilization together could benefit and transform the world.

The missionaries were not military conquerors, but they did try to change people’s beliefs and practices. They believed that, in order to become “civilized,” the people of Africa and Asia would have to reject their old religions and convert to Christianity. To achieve this goal, missionaries built churches and taught Christian doctrine. Missionaries often set up schools and hospitals as well.

Other Europeans also believed that Western civilization was superior to the civilizations of colonial peoples. As a result, some colonial officials tried to impose Western customs and traditions on the people they conquered. These officials insisted that their colonial subjects learn European languages, and they encouraged Western lifestyles as well. They also discouraged colonial peoples from practicing traditional customs and rituals.

Some Europeans seized on the theory of social Darwinism as proof of their cultural superiority. This theory adapted Darwin’s ideas about the evolution of animals—particularly his notion of “the survival of the fittest”—to explain differences among human beings. Social Darwinists believed that white Europeans were the “fittest” people in the world and that they had a duty to spread Western ideas to “backward” peoples.

In 1899 the British writer Rudyard Kipling captured the essence of the imperialist attitude in his famous poem “The White Man’s Burden.” Kipling addressed the poem to the United States, which at this time had just begun to acquire and govern colonies of its own:

“Take up the White Man’s burden—
Send forth the best ye breed—
Go bind your sons to exile
To serve your captives’ need;
To wait in heavy harness
On fluttered folk and wild—
Your new-caught, sullen peoples,
Half-devil and half-child.”

Forms of Imperialism

Imperial nations gained new lands through treaties, purchases, and military conquest. Once in power, they used several forms of territorial control. A colony was a territory that an imperial power ruled directly through colonial officials. A protectorate had its own government, but its policies were guided by a foreign power. A sphere of influence was a region in which the imperial power had exclusive investment or trading rights.

Within these general forms of control, each imperial nation exercised its power differently. The French used their colonial officials to govern, to spread French culture, and to make territories overseas extensions of France. The British, by contrast, focused strictly on administration and were less apt to convert colonial peoples to British ways. The British often allowed local rulers to govern territories as their representatives.

SECTION 1 ASSESSMENT

Main Idea
1. Use a diagram like the one below to identify the economic and social causes of imperialism.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic</th>
<th>Social</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Recall
2. Define imperialism, colony, protectorate, sphere of influence.
3. Identify Cecil Rhodes, Rudyard Kipling.

Critical Thinking
4. Evaluate What does the Kipling poem reveal about his attitude toward Africans and Asians?

Understanding Themes
5. Movement Explain why the period from 1800 to 1914 is the Age of Imperialism.
Section 2

The Partition of Africa

Until the 1800s Europeans knew little of Africa beyond its northern, western, and southern coasts. Then, in the mid-1800s, a few brave explorers began to venture into the African interior. The most famous of these was Scottish doctor and missionary David Livingstone, who first went to Africa in 1840. For the next 30 years, Livingstone explored wide tracts of central and eastern Africa, setting up Christian missions and sending back to Great Britain detailed reports of his discoveries, such as Victoria Falls.

When Europeans temporarily lost touch with Livingstone late in the 1860s, the New York Herald hired a British journalist and explorer named Henry M. Stanley to track him down. Their famous meeting in 1871 is best remembered for Stanley’s understated greeting, “Dr. Livingstone, I presume?” With help from European financial backers, Stanley went on to lead several major expeditions through central Africa himself.

The publicity surrounding the explorations of Livingstone and Stanley generated new interest in Africa throughout Europe. This interest swelled when subsequent explorers sent back excited reports about the continent’s abundance of resources. Reports such as these helped set off a mad European scramble for Africa between 1880 and 1914. One European country after another laid claim to parts of Africa. In 1885, 14 nations met in Berlin, Germany, and agreed to partition, or divide, the prize King Leopold II of Belgium called “this magnificent African cake.” By 1914 European nations controlled 90 percent of the continent.

North Africa

The world’s largest desert—the Sahara—stretches across North Africa from the Atlantic
Ocean to the Red Sea. Most of the people in North Africa live on a thin strip of land located north of the Sahara along the Mediterranean coast. Here the land is fertile and the climate mild. In the early 1800s Muslim Arabs under the authority of the Ottoman ruler in Istanbul governed the large territories west of Egypt, which at that time were called Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers. Today Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers are the independent North African countries of Libya, Tunisia, and Algeria.

The French in North Africa

In 1830 King Charles X of France ordered an invasion of Algiers with the aim of colonizing that country. French troops encountered stiff resistance from the Algerians, whose leader was Abd al-Qadir (AB•duhl KAH•duhr). About 10 years passed before 100,000 French soldiers finally subdued the determined Algerians. After conquering Algiers, the French seized neighboring Tunis in 1881 and secured special rights in Morocco in 1904. About 1 million French people settled in North Africa during these years of struggle.

Britain and Egypt

During the early 1800s, Ottoman Egypt was virtually independent under its governor, Muhammad Ali. Muhammad Ali’s armies conquered neighboring lands, making Egypt a power in the eastern Mediterranean. To modernize Egypt, Ali reformed tax and land systems, encouraged industry, and supported irrigation projects to boost cotton production. Under Ali’s successors, however, Egypt’s debts rose along with European influence.

In 1859 a French entrepreneur, Ferdinand de Lesseps, set up a company to build the Suez Canal. Joining the Mediterranean and Red Seas, this waterway became a vital shortcut between Europe and Asia and was especially valued by the British as an important link to India. In 1875 Great Britain gained effective control of the canal when Egypt sold its canal shares to the British to pay off its debts. During the next few years, British influence increased over Egypt. In 1882 British forces put down a revolt led by nationalist leader Ahmed Arabi, and Egypt became a British protectorate.

Meanwhile, in the Sudan, south of Egypt, a Muslim revival stirred nationalist feelings. Since the 1880s, the Sudanese, under their leader the Mahdi, had challenged British expansion. In 1898, however, British forces, using Maxim machine guns, defeated the more simply armed Sudanese army at the Battle of Omdurman. Soon after the battle, the British also confronted a French force at Fashoda, bringing Great Britain and France to the brink of war. In the end, the French withdrew their army and their claim to the Sudan when the British recognized French control of Morocco.

Italy Seizes Libya

Libya lies between Egypt on the east and Algeria and Tunisia on the west. Known as Tripoli in the 1800s, the country had almost no economic value, but it was coveted by Italy, the nearest European nation. Entering the imperialist race late, Italy was eager to establish an African empire. After seeking guarantees of neutrality from other European nations, Italy in 1911 declared war on the Ottoman Empire, which ruled Tripoli. Italy easily
defeated the Ottoman Turks and took Tripoli as a colony, renaming it Libya. Libya was the last country in North Africa to be conquered by European nations.

**West, Central, and East Africa**

West, Central, and East Africa have varied landscapes: mountains, plains, deserts, and rain forests. During the 1800s, these regions consisted of many territories, each with its own history and traditions. Europeans, however, exploited the Africans’ lack of political unity and swallowed up most of these lands in the late 1800s.

**West Africa**

In the 1500s and 1600s Europeans traded along the coasts of Africa. From West African coastal trading posts, they carried out the transatlantic slave trade that provided labor for plantations and mines in the Americas. West African states traded salt, gold, and iron wares with the Europeans, but some local rulers also supplied prisoners of war to the slave trade.

During the early 1800s, many Western nations declared an end to the slave trade and abolished slavery. Slave trading, however, continued as Arab and African traders sent people from Central and East Africa to perform slave labor in the Middle East and Asia. Meanwhile, West African states, weakened by the population losses of the slave trade, traded natural products, such as palm oil, ivory, rubber, cotton, and cacao beans, for European manufactured goods.

To control this trade and to expand their coastal holdings, European nations began to push inland in the 1870s. Before this time, Europeans had avoided inland Africa because of the difficult terrain and deadly diseases, such as malaria. In the late 1800s, the discovery of the natural ingredient, quinine, to fight malaria and the use of steamships for river transportation made European exploration of inland Africa easier. By 1900, European powers, especially Great Britain and France, had acquired vast new territories in West Africa.

European expansion, however, did not go unchallenged. In the 1890s West African rulers, such as Samory Touré (sah•MOHR•ree•Ray) and Behanzin, led armies against the French. In the Gold Coast, the Ashanti queen Yaa Asantewaa rallied her people against British expansion. All of these efforts were defeated by well-armed European forces. By 1900, Liberia was the only remaining independent state in West Africa. Established in 1822 by free African Americans, Liberia became a republic in 1847. Its ties to the United States made it off limits to European expansion.

**Central and East Africa**

In 1877 the explorer Henry M. Stanley reached the mouth of the Congo River. He later described the river as a “grand highway of commerce to … Central Africa.” As a result of Stanley’s exploration, Belgium’s King Leopold II claimed the Congo region as his own private plantation. He enslaved the Congolese people and had them cut down forests for rubber trees and kill elephant herds for ivory tusks. In pursuing his ambitions, Leopold stripped the Congo of many people and resources.

Leopold’s brutal control of the Congo lasted about 20 years, despite the world’s outrage. In 1908 he finally agreed to give his plantation to the Belgian government in return for a large loan. Thus, in that year, the Congo region owned by Leopold became the Belgian Congo.

**Visualizing History**

This wood carving of a man reading a book is a Yoruba artist’s depiction of a Swedish missionary. Besides establishing missions, what were other European objectives in Africa?
While the Belgians were claiming the Congo Basin, the British, the Germans, and the Italians were doing the same in East Africa. The only country in East Africa to remain independent during this period was Ethiopia, located in a remote region known as the Horn of Africa. Beginning in the 1880s, Italy tried to conquer this country, but the Italians underestimated the determination of their opponent, Ethiopia's Emperor Menelik II. As emperor, Menelik had conquered many small kingdoms and reunified the Ethiopian Empire.

When the Italians attacked Ethiopia in 1896, Menelik's well-trained forces crushed the invaders at the battle of Adowa. His victory was so devastating...
that no Europeans dared invade his country again during his lifetime. Ethiopia and Liberia were the only two African nations to escape European domination completely during the Age of Imperialism.

Southern Africa

Dutch settlers came to southern Africa in 1652 and established the port of Cape Town. For the next 150 years, the Afrikaners, as these settlers came to be called, conquered the lands around the port, which eventually became known as Cape Colony.

Before construction of the Suez Canal, the quickest sea route to Asia from Europe was around the Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of Africa. Sensing the strategic value of Cape Colony, the British seized it during the Napoleonic Wars in the early 1800s. The Afrikaners resented British rule, particularly laws that forbade slavery. They believed that they were superior to black Africans and that God had ordained slavery.

In the 1830s about 10,000 Afrikaners, whom the British called Boers (the Dutch word for “farmers”), decided to leave Cape Colony rather than live under British rule. In a move known as the Great Trek, the Afrikaners migrated northeast into the interior. Here they established two independent republics, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. The constitution of the Transvaal stated, “There shall be no equality in State or Church between white and black.”

The Afrikaners fought constantly with their neighbors. First they battled the powerful Zulu nation for control of the land. Under their king Shaka, the Zulu in the early 1800s had conquered a large empire in southern Africa. The Zulu and Boers were unable to win a decisive victory. Finally, in 1879, the British became involved in battles with the Zulu. Under their king, Cetywayo, the Zulu at first defeated British forces. With guns and greater numbers, however, the British eventually destroyed the Zulu Empire.

Conflict also developed between the British and the Boers. During the 1880s, British settlers moved into the Boer-ruled Transvaal in search of gold and diamonds. Eager to acquire this wealth for Great Britain, Cecil Rhodes—the prime minister of Cape Colony—and other British leaders wanted all of South Africa to come under British rule. They began pressuring the Boers to grant civil rights to the British settlers in the Transvaal. Growing tension finally erupted in 1899 into the Anglo-Boer War, which the British won three years later.

In 1910 Great Britain united the Transvaal, the Orange Free State, Cape Colony, and Natal into the Union of South Africa. The constitution of this British dominion made it nearly impossible for nonwhites to win the right to vote. As one black African writer of the time said, “The Union is to be a Union of two races, namely the British and the Afrikaners—the African is to be excluded.”

Racial equality became a dominant issue in South African affairs after the formation of the Union. Several nonwhite South African groups tried to advance their civil rights against the white minority government. Mohandas K. Gandhi, a lawyer from India, worked for equality for Indians in South Africa. He urged the Indians to disobey laws that discriminated against them. Gandhi’s efforts brought some additional rights for the Indian community.

South Africa’s black majority also took action against racial injustices. In 1912 black South Africans founded the South African Native National Congress (SANNC), whose goal was to work for black rights in South Africa. In 1923 the SANNC became the African National Congress (ANC).
Effects of Imperialism

Imperialism had profound effects on Africa. These effects varied from colony to colony, but they centered mainly on economic and social life. The imperialists profited from the colonies by digging mines, starting plantations, and building factories and ports. They hired Africans at low wages and imposed taxes that had to be paid in cash. Men were often housed in dormitories away from their families and subjected to brutal discipline.

Schools set up by Europeans taught Africans that European ways were best. In some cases, African traditions declined, although most Africans held on to their cultures while accepting some European ways. For example, many Africans came to accept some form of Christianity.

By the early 1900s, a western-educated elite had emerged in many European colonies in Africa. These Africans condemned imperialism as contrary to western ideals of liberty and equality. They founded nationalist groups to push for self-rule. By the end of the twentieth century, Africa’s peoples had won their political independence from European rule.
Chapter 16
The Age of Imperialism

**Section 3**

The Division of Asia

**Read to Find Out**

**Main Idea** The countries of Asia responded in varying ways to imperialism.

- **Terms to Define**
  - sepo, viceroy, sphere of influence, culture system, westernization

- **People to Meet**
  - Ci Xi, Sun Yat-sen, Matthew C. Perry, Mutsuhito, Diponegoro, Emilio Aguinaldo

- **Places to Locate**
  - Beijing, the East Indies, the Philippines, Indochina

**The Storyteller**

“Until the year 1924 I was the only foreigner privileged to witness and to participate in the great ceremonies....” So wrote Reginald Johnston, Professor of Chinese at the University of London, and witness to the end of an empire in the “Palace of Cloudless Heaven” within the Forbidden City.

“It was not without difficulty that even the emperor was able to … invite a few ‘ocean-men’ to witness the New Year ceremonial which took place on February 5, 1924. It turned out to be the last occasion on which the ceremony was performed.

Before another year had passed, the life of the Manchu court had come to an end.”

—adapted from *Twilight in the Forbidden City*, Reginald F. Johnston, 1934

**The British in India**

European trade with Asia opened up in the 1500s as sea routes replaced difficult overland routes. British involvement in India dates back to this period, when English traders first sailed along India’s coast. In 1600 some of these traders formed the East India Company, which later became one of the richest and most powerful trading companies the world had ever known.

After its founding, the East India Company built trading posts and forts in strategic locations throughout India. The French East India Company did the same and challenged the British for control of the India trade. In 1757 Robert Clive, a British East India Company agent, used an army of British and Indian troops to defeat the French at the Battle of Plassey. During the next hundred years, the British expanded their territory in India through wars and commercial activity.

**The Sepoy Rebellion**

As a result of steady expansion, the East India Company came to control most of India by 1857. Their power was tested that year, however, when the sepoy, or Indian soldiers, rebelled against their British commanders. Long before the greased bullet rumor discussed at this chapter’s beginning triggered the Indian Revolt of 1857, sepoy resentment had been growing over British attempts to impose Christianity and European customs on them.
The sepoy rebellion spread across northern and central India, in some places resulting in the massacre of British men, women, and children. Within a year, British forces put down the uprising. In revenge for the massacres, they killed thousands of unarmed Indians. The revolt left bitterness on both sides and forced the British to tighten their control of India. In 1858 Parliament ended the East India Company and sent a viceroy to rule as the monarch’s representative. Treaties secured the loyalty of the remaining independent Indian states.

Indian Nationalism

The British government tried to quell further unrest in India by spending vast amounts of money on India’s economic development. It built paved roads and an extensive railway system; it installed telegraph lines and dug irrigation canals; and it established schools and universities.

At the same time, British colonial officials discriminated against Indians and forced them to change their ancient ways, often with tragic results. Indian farmers, for example, were told to grow cotton instead of wheat, because British textile mills needed cotton. The lack of wheat then led to severe food shortages that killed millions of Indians during the 1800s.

Outraged by the food shortages and other problems, many Indians wanted to move toward self-rule. In 1885 a group of Indian business and professional leaders formed the Indian National Congress. Accepting western ideas such as democracy and equality, the Congress at first used peaceful protest to urge the British to grant more power to Indians. Later, as the Congress party, it led the long struggle for complete independence.

China Faces the West

While the British increased their hold on India, they and other Europeans developed trade with China. During the 1500s, Chinese civilization had been highly advanced, and the Chinese at that time had little interest in European products. There was only limited trade between China and Europe during the next 300 years. During this period, while technological changes transformed Europe, China’s political, economic, and military position weakened under the Qing dynasty. Qing emperors ruled China from 1644 to 1912.

The Unequal Treaties

In the early 1800s, British merchants found a way to break China’s trade barriers and earn huge
profits. In exchange for Chinese tea, silk, and porcelain—and to avoid paying cash—the merchants smuggled a drug called opium, which they obtained from India and Turkey, into China. In 1839 Chinese troops tried to stop the smuggling. When the British resisted, war broke out. The British used gunboats to bombard Chinese ports and easily defeated the Chinese, who lacked modern weapons.

British victory in the Opium War in 1842 led to the Treaty of Nanking, the first of many “unequal treaties” that forced China to yield many of its rights to Western powers. The Nanking treaty granted the British payment for war losses as well as the island of Hong Kong. British citizens in China also gained extraterritoriality, the right to live under their own laws and courts. Over the next 60 years, the “unequal treaties” increased foreign influence in China and weakened the Qing dynasty. Civil wars, such as the Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864), also eroded the dynasty’s control.

By the 1890s, European powers as well as Japan claimed large sections of China as spheres of influence—areas where they had exclusive trading rights. Coming late to the imperialist scramble, the United States did not claim a sphere of influence. Instead, it tried to open China to the trade of all nations through the Open Door Policy. Deadlocked by their own rivalries, the other powers reluctantly agreed to this policy in 1899.

**Chinese Responses**

To modernize China, some reformers during the late 1800s began a “self-strengthening” movement. This program involved importing both Western technology and educational methods. They also worked to improve agriculture, strengthen the armed forces, and end the European practice of extraterritoriality.

Lack of government support stalled these efforts. Chinese weakness was only further exposed in an 1894 war against a modernizing Japan that ended in China’s defeat and loss of territory. From China, Japan gained the island of Taiwan and the Liaodong Peninsula as well as trading benefits in Chinese territory. The Japanese also ended China’s influence in Korea.

After this setback, reformers regained influence with the support of the young emperor Guang Xu (gwawng SHYOO). They launched the Hundred Days of Reform to modernize the government and encourage new industries. However, conservatives led by the emperor’s mother, Ci Xi (TSUH•SEE), returned to power, arrested the emperor, and halted the reforms.

By the late 1890s, anti-foreign feelings in China had led to the formation of secret societies dedicated to removing diplomats, entrepreneurs, missionaries, and other foreigners from the country. One group, the Righteous and Harmonious Fists, practiced a Chinese form of boxing, and Westerners named its members Boxers. In 1900 the Boxers carried out attacks against foreigners and Chinese Christians, besieging foreign communities in Beijing, the Chinese capital. In response, the Western powers and Japan sent a multinational force that ended the uprising. The empress, who had supported the Boxers, reversed her policy.

**The Revolution of 1911**

After the Boxer Uprising, Ci Xi struggled to hold on to power. She agreed to allow foreign troops to remain in China and gave in to some of her people’s demands for change. For example, she established schools and reorganized the government. But it was too little, too late. Many Chinese believed that a modern republic should replace the Qing dynasty. In their view, the only way to achieve this goal was through revolution.
The revolutionaries wanted China to regain its former power and influence. One of them, a doctor named **Sun Yat-sen**, wrote in the early 1900s: “Today we are the poorest and weakest nation in the world and occupy the lowest position in international affairs. Other men are the carving knife and serving dish; we are the fish and the meat.”

In 1905 Sun and other revolutionaries formed the United League (later known as the Guomindang, or Nationalist party). Their goal was to modernize China on the basis of the “Three Principles of the People”: nationalism (freedom from foreign control), democracy (representative government), and livelihood (economic well-being for all Chinese). The revolutionary cause was strengthened in 1908 when Ci Xi died, and two-year-old Prince Pu Yi became emperor. Three years later, revolution swept China as peasants, workers, soldiers, and court officials turned against the weak dynasty. Sun Yat-sen hurried home from a fund-raising tour of the United States. In January 1912, he became the first president of the new Chinese republic.

**Modernization of Japan**

Japan’s dealings with the European powers began in much the same way as China’s, but they ended differently. European traders first came to the island country in the 1500s. Like the Chinese, the Japanese were uninterested in European products, and they cut off almost all trade with Europe in the early 1600s. At the time a military commander called a shogun ruled Japan. Although the country also had an emperor, he had no real power.

Japan did not trade again with the outside world until 1853, when four American warships commanded by Commodore **Matthew C. Perry** sailed into the bay at Edo (present-day Tokyo). Perry wanted Japan to begin trading with the United States. The shogun, knowing what had happened to China in the recent Opium War, decided early in 1854 to sign a treaty with Perry.
The Meiji Leaders

In the first five years after Perry’s arrival, the shogun signed trade treaties with Britain, France, Holland, Russia, and the United States. Since the treaties favored the imperialist powers, the Japanese people called them unequal treaties, just as the Chinese had. Unhappiness with the treaties led to the overthrow of the shogun in 1868. A group of samurai gave its allegiance to the new emperor, Mutsuhito, but kept the real power to themselves. Because Mutsuhito was known as the Meiji (MAY•jee), or “Enlightened” emperor, Japan’s new rulers were called the Meiji leaders.

The Meiji leaders tried to make Japan a great power capable of competing with Western nations. Adopting the slogan “Rich country, strong military” they brought the forms of parliamentary government to Japan, strengthened the military, and worked to transform the nation into an industrial society. The Meiji leaders established a system of universal education designed to produce loyal, skilled citizens who would work for Japan’s modernization. In this way, the Japanese hoped to create a new ruling class based on talent rather than birth.

Industrialization

In the 1870s Japan began to industrialize in an effort to strengthen its economy. The Japanese did this with little outside assistance. They were reluctant to borrow money from the West, fearing foreign takeovers if loans could not be repaid. In any case, most Western banks were not interested in making loans to Japan, because they considered the country a poor financial risk.

The Japanese government laid the groundwork for industrial expansion. It revised the tax structure to raise money for investment. It also developed a modern currency system and supported the building of postal and telegraph networks, railroads, and port facilities.

Beginning in the late 1880s, Japan’s economy grew rapidly. A growing population provided a continuing supply of cheap labor. The combination of new technological methods and cheap labor...

India was the most important British possession. This painting shows a British military officer traveling by elephant through northern India with his cavalry and foot soldiers.

Australia drew many British settlers, who made their homes in the harsh outback, or semi-dry interior, as well as in coastal areas.

1. What types of people were found throughout Great Britain’s empire?
2. In the 1800s, people often said that “the sun never sets on the British Empire.” What do you think this phrase meant?
allowed Japan to produce low-priced goods. Wars at the turn of the century further stimulated Japan’s economy and helped it enter new world markets. By 1914 Japan had become one of the world’s leading industrial nations.

Japan as a World Power

By the 1890s the Meiji leaders had taken great strides toward creating a modern nation. Japan had acquired an efficient government, a vigorous economy, and a strong military. Needing more natural resources, the Japanese government began to establish its own overseas empire. The first prize it attempted to take was Korea.

When the people of Korea revolted against their Chinese rulers in 1894, Japan decided to intervene. Japanese troops easily defeated the Chinese army in the Sino-Japanese War. Although Korea officially became independent, Japan gained partial control of its trade. Over the next few years, thousands of Japanese settled in Korea.

Korea also figured in Japan’s next war. The Russian Empire had interests in Korea as well, and its interests began to clash with Japan’s. Even more important was neighboring Manchuria, where the Russians kept troops and had a naval base at Port Arthur. In 1904 the Japanese navy launched a surprise attack on Port Arthur. Few people expected Japan to win the Russo-Japanese War, but the Japanese piled up victory after victory. The conflict ended in 1905, when Russia signed a treaty granting the country of Japan control over Korea and other nearby areas.

Japan’s victory over Russia inspired non-Western nationalist leaders throughout the world. It proved that the European empires could be defeated if one had the will and determination. On the other hand, Japan had now become an imperialist country itself. It annexed Korea as a colony in 1910 and continued to expand its empire for the next 35 years.

Southeast Asia

Southeast Asia consists of two distinct geographic areas. Island Southeast Asia is made of two archipelagos, or groups of islands: the East Indies and the Philippines. To the north and west lies mainland Southeast Asia. It includes all of the territories that occupy the Indochinese and Malay Peninsulas.

The growth of imperialism in these areas followed a familiar pattern. Beginning in the 1500s, imperialist powers came, saw, and conquered. Over the next 400 years Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands, Great Britain, France, and the United States all set up colonies in that region. They ranged in size from the huge Dutch East Indies that included thousands of islands to the tiny British settlements on the island of Singapore.

The Islands of Southeast Asia

For centuries, the island region of Southeast Asia had attracted foreign traders and colonizers. At the beginning of the 1800s, the Dutch controlled most of the East Indies and Spain controlled the Philippines.

The Dutch East Indies, present-day Indonesia, had many natural resources, including rich soil. Farmers grew coffee, pepper, cinnamon, sugar, indigo, and tea; miners dug for tin and copper; loggers cut down ebony, teak, and other hardwood trees. The Dutch government used a method of forced labor called the culture system to gather all these raw materials. The Dutch also discouraged westernization, or the spread of European civilization. The enormous profits the Dutch received from the East Indies made the colony the envy of the imperialist powers.

Diponegoro, a native prince from the East Indian island of Java, started a revolt against the Dutch in 1825. Although it lasted 10 years, this revolt eventually ended in failure, and the Dutch encountered little real opposition for the next 80 years. One of the Dutch governors put it this way: “We have ruled here for 300 years with the whip and the club and we shall still be doing it in another 300 years.” In the early 1900s, the Dutch won control of the entire archipelago, extending their rule into northern Sumatra and the Celebes. But within a generation, nationalist forces would bring the Dutch East Indian empire to its knees.

The Spanish rule of the Philippines resembled the Dutch rule of the Dutch East Indies. Native Filipinos worked for very low wages, if any, on tobacco and sugar plantations owned by wealthy Spaniard landowners. During the 1800s the
Filipinos’ resentment grew until it finally exploded into revolution in 1896.

When the United States declared war on Spain in 1898, the American government promised to free the Philippines in return for the rebels’ help against the Spanish. After winning the Spanish-American War, the United States broke its promise and ruled the Philippines as a colony. The Filipinos led by Emilio Aguinaldo (ah•gee•NAHL•doh) then arose against American rule, but United States troops defeated them two years later.

Mainland Southeast Asia

The mainland region of Southeast Asia consisted of several large territories in the early 1800s, including Burma (present-day Myanmar), Malaya, Vietnam, Siam (Thailand), Cambodia, and Laos. All through the 1800s, Great Britain and France struggled for domination of the area—more for military, than for economic, reasons.

The British swept into Burma from India in the 1820s. Over the next 60 years, they took full control of Burma and Malaya. Meanwhile, the French were slowly conquering Indochina, including present-day Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos. They took complete control in the 1880s.

Squeezed between the two growing blocks of British and French territory lay the kingdom of Siam. In 1893 the French invaded Siam, sending forces into Bangkok, the capital city. Great Britain and France avoided armed conflict, however, when they agreed to define their spheres of influence in Southeast Asia. As a result of the agreement, Siam remained independent.

European rivalries for control of resources brought much disturbance to mainland Southeast Asia. Western influences changed traditional ways of life. Colonial landowners and trading companies forced local farmers and workers to grow cash crops, mine coal, and cut teak trees.
Have you heard the expression, “surfing the Net”? This means you can search through the Internet to find information on many subjects. You won’t get wet, but you sure can learn a lot and have fun!

Learning the Skill

The Internet is a global computer network that offers many features, including the latest news and weather, stored information, E-mail, and on-line shopping. Before you can connect to the Internet and use the services it offers, however, you must have three things: a computer, a modem, and a service provider. A service provider is a company that, for a fee, gives you entry to the Internet.

Once you are connected, the easiest and fastest way to access sites and information is to use a “Web browser,” a program that lets you view and explore information on the World Wide Web. The Web consists of many documents called “Web pages,” each of which has its own address, or Uniform Resource Locator (URL). Many URLs start with the keystrokes http://

Practicing the Skill

This chapter focuses on the Age of Imperialism, when the Panama Canal and the Suez Canal were completed. Surf the Internet to learn about the history of these canals.

1. Log on the Internet and access one of the World Wide Web search tools, such as Yahoo at website http://www.yahoo.com or Lycos at http://www.lycos.com or WebCrawler at http://www.webcrawler.com

2. Search by category or by name. If you search by category in Yahoo, for example, click on Social Science. To search by name, type in Panama Canal and Suez Canal.

3. Scroll the list of Web pages that appears when the search is complete. Select a page to bring up and read or print it. Repeat the process until you have enough information you can use to develop a short report on the two major canals completed during the Age of Imperialism.

Applying the Skill

Go through the steps just described to search the Internet for information on the Sepoy Rebellion in India. Based on the information, write an article for your school newspaper or magazine about your topic.

For More Practice

Turn to the Skill Practice in the Chapter Assessment on page 503 for more practice in using the Internet.
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Section 4

Imperialism in the Americas

Read to Find Out

Main Idea  Latin Americans largely opposed the growth of American influence in their region.

Terms to Define

- arbitration

People to Meet

- James Monroe, José Martí, William McKinley, Theodore Roosevelt, Benito Juárez, Porfirio Díaz, Emiliano Zapata, Francisco “Pancho” Villa, Venustiano Carranza, Woodrow Wilson

Places to Locate

- Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Isthmus of Panama, Mexico

The Storyteller

Frederic Remington was one of the first “foreign correspondents” — a journalist in Cuba during the Spanish-American War. He wrote: “At night I lay up beside the road outside of Siboney, and cooked my supper by a soldier fire, and lay down under a mango-tree on my raincoat, with my haversack for a pillow. I could hear the shuffling of the marching troops, and see by the light of the fire near the road the ... sweaty men.”

—adapted from Frederic Remington and the Spanish-American War, Douglas Allen, 1971

On the floor of the Senate in 1898, United States Senator Albert J. Beveridge delivered a stirring speech on America’s growing role as a world power:

“Fate has written our policy for us; the trade of the world must and shall be ours. We will establish trading-posts throughout the world as distributing-points for American products.... Great colonies governing themselves, flying our flag and trading with us, will grow about our posts of trade.”

Senator Beveridge’s grand ambition capped a half-century of growing American influence in world affairs. The imperialist powers of Europe had already laid claim to much of the world. Now that the United States had grown considerably in size, wealth, and power, it was determined to use the Monroe Doctrine to block the spread of European imperialism in neighboring Latin America, an area that includes Mexico, the Caribbean islands, Central America, and South America. In doing so, the United States was also promoting its own brand of imperialism that involved the penetration of new economic markets and the acquisition of overseas territories.

The Monroe Doctrine

Even before the independence of all the Latin American countries was well established, Spain had sought the support of other European powers in reconquering its former colonies. Both the United States and Great Britain opposed Spain’s...
As the United States grew in strength during the late 1800s and early 1900s, it began to make its power felt in Latin America. In 1895, when Great Britain was in conflict with Venezuela over the boundaries of British Guiana, the United States urged that the dispute be submitted to arbitration, or settlement by a third party that is agreeable to both sides. Appealing to the Monroe Doctrine, the United States Department of State issued a strong warning to the British to pressure them into accepting arbitration. Aware of the power of the United States and involved with problems in its empire, Great Britain agreed to a peaceful settlement.

The Spanish-American War

Soon after the Guiana border dispute was settled, the United States turned its attention to Cuba. Cuba and the neighboring island of Puerto Rico were still Spanish colonies in the late 1800s. Cuba was particularly important to Spain, which reaped huge profits from the island’s many sugar and tobacco plantations.

In 1895 José Martí, a writer and political activist, led Cubans in a revolution against Spanish rule. Cuba’s Spanish leaders embarked on a bloody attack on the rebel forces. Martí was killed in a battle against the Spaniards, and Spanish troops rounded up thousands of Cubans and sent them to prison camps where conditions were brutal. Disease and starvation soon claimed more than 400,000 Cuban lives.

Remember the Maine!

The struggle of the Cubans for freedom attracted much sympathy in the United States. American newspapers printed vivid stories describing the cruelty and killings in Cuba. Soon, prominent American politicians began clamoring for war with Spain. Businesspeople who had invested in Cuba also joined in. Finally, in January 1898, President William McKinley ordered the battleship Maine to Havana, the capital of Cuba, to demonstrate growing American interest in Cuban affairs. A few weeks later, an explosion ripped through the Maine while it was still anchored in Havana harbor, sinking the ship and killing 260 American sailors.

The cry “Remember the Maine!” swept across the United States. American newspapers left little doubt that Spain was responsible for the disaster. In April 1898, under pressure from all sides, McKinley asked Congress to declare war on Spain. The Spanish-American War lasted four months and ended with a victory for the United States.
The Panama Canal was a testament to the skill of American engineers. The enormous lock gates (under construction, left) were made of steel plates attached to a skeleton of steel girders. (Note the size of the men working around these gates.) Each gate weighed 700 tons (784 short tons) but was hollow and could float. Because they were buoyant, the gates exerted less stress on their hinges as the gates were opened and closed. Without the significant advances made in technology during the 1800s, this canal could not have been built.

Without President Theodore Roosevelt (center) the Panama Canal would not have been built. During his presidency he decided that the United States would build a canal across the Isthmus of Panama—and he made it happen. Roosevelt wanted to boost American power and to compete more effectively with the imperial powers of Europe and Japan. The Panama Canal helped accomplish this goal by strengthening the military posture of the United States. The canal eliminated 7,800 miles (12,550 km) from the sea voyage between New York and San Francisco. It cost $380 million and tens of thousands of lives, and took ten years to complete.
American Territorial Gains

During the late 1800s, the United States made many significant territorial gains. In 1867 it purchased Alaska from Russia, and in 1898 annexed Hawaii, shortly after American entrepreneurs on the islands had overthrown the Hawaiian queen Liliuokalani (lee•lee•oo•oh•kah•LAH•nee). As a result of the Spanish-American War, the United States gained from Spain territories in the Pacific Ocean (the Philippines and Guam) and in the Caribbean Sea (Puerto Rico). Although independent, Cuba was under American protection. In 1917 the United States purchased the Virgin Islands (St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix) from Denmark.

The Panama Canal

Victory in the Spanish-American War made the United States a world power. It needed to be able to move its fleet quickly between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. What was needed was a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, a narrow neck of land that linked Central America and South America.

For centuries, Europeans and Americans had dreamed of building a canal across Central America. In the 1880s the Frenchman Ferdinand de Lesseps, who had built the Suez Canal, tried—and failed—to build a canal in Panama. Thirteen years after the bankruptcy of de Lesseps’s company, United States President Theodore Roosevelt received the backing of Congress to acquire the Panama canal rights and property.

In 1902 Panama was part of Colombia. Roosevelt tried to negotiate a treaty with Colombia that year that would give the United States land to build the canal in Panama. When Colombia refused, Roosevelt and the American public were outraged.

Roosevelt soon developed a plan, however. With his approval, American agents encouraged the people of Panama to revolt against the government of Colombia. They did so on the night of November 3, 1903, with the help of the United States Navy. The rebellion was over by the next day, and the new Republic of Panama quickly signed a treaty granting the United States the land to build the Panama Canal.

Construction of the canal began in 1904 and took 10 years and more than 40,000 workers to complete. Many of the workers, however, died of malaria and yellow fever. This problem was eventually solved by implementing a sanitation program to control disease-carrying mosquitoes. When the first ship finally steamed through the canal in August 1914, the canal was hailed as one of the world’s great engineering feats.

Possession of the Panama Canal gave the United States even more of a stake in Latin America. Thus, the United States continued to exert its power in the region throughout the early 1900s. In 1904 President Theodore Roosevelt extended the Monroe Doctrine in what became known as the Roosevelt Corollary. Now the United States would actively force Latin American countries to honor their foreign debts. During the next two decades, United States forces intervened in countries such as the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Nicaragua. The United States hoped its interventions would provide stability and prepare the way for democracy. Most Latin Americans viewed American actions as moves to turn their countries into “colonies” of the United States and to protect foreign businesses that were exploiting their resources.

Mexico

During the 1800s and early 1900s, the United States became deeply involved in the affairs of its southern neighbor, Mexico. During the 1830s, opposition to the dictatorial rule of General Antonio López de Santa Anna grew in the Mexican state of Texas, where many Americans had settled. In 1835 the Americans and some Mexicans in Texas revolted and the next year set up an independent republic. Texas in 1845 joined the American republic as a state, and conflict soon developed between Mexico and the United States. Mexico lost the Mexican War, and in the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848), lost nearly half of its territory to the United States.

Reform and Conflict

After the Mexican War, Mexico entered an era of change known as La Reforma. In 1855 Mexican voters chose Benito Juárez, a lawyer of Native American background, as president. Juárez reduced the power of the military, separated church and state, and improved the lot of impoverished farmers. In 1863, when Mexico could not pay its foreign debts, French troops occupied Mexico City. Juárez fled the capital to organize a guerrilla movement in the countryside. In 1864 Mexican conservatives, supported by the French, named Austrian Archduke
Maximilian emperor of Mexico. In 1867 the French, under American pressure, withdrew their troops from Mexico, and Juárez returned to power after his forces had ousted and executed Maximilian.

Four years after Juárez’s death in 1872, General Porfirio Díaz seized power. To ensure “Order and Progress,” Díaz strengthened the army and limited individual freedoms. Under Díaz’s harsh rule, however, Mexico made economic advances, building railroads, developing industries, expanding farmlands, and opening new mines. Unfortunately for the Mexican people, most profits went to foreign investors and wealthy landowners. While the rich prospered, most Mexicans remained poor.

The Mexican Revolution

Discontent with Díaz eventually led to revolution. From 1910 to 1920, Mexico was engulfed by the first major social upheaval in modern Latin America. During this time, armies of farmers, workers, ranchers, and even soldaderas, or women soldiers, fought the authorities and each other across Mexico. The unrest also sparked a wave of Mexican immigration to the United States.

The revolution began when Francisco Madero, a liberal reformer, and his supporters overthrew Díaz in 1911. Once in power, Madero was murdered by one of his generals, Victoriano Huerta. A year later, Huerta himself was toppled from power by Mexican revolts and American intervention.

No strong leader emerged to take Huerta’s place. Instead, three revolutionary leaders—Emiliano Zapata, Francisco “Pancho” Villa, and Venustiano Carranza—competed for power. Using the battle cry, “Tierra y Libertad!” (Land and Liberty!), Zapata and his followers fought for the rights of impoverished farmers. Like Zapata, Villa proposed radical reforms. The more conservative Carranza, however, was able to become president in 1915 with American support. In retaliation, Villa crossed the border into New Mexico and killed 18 Americans. United States President Woodrow Wilson then sent American troops into Mexico to capture Villa. American entry into World War I in 1917 led to the withdrawal of these troops.

That same year, Carranza reluctantly introduced a liberal constitution but was slow in carrying out reforms. In 1919 a pro-Carranza military officer murdered Zapata, who had protested Carranza’s disregard of land reform. A year later, Carranza was killed and General Álvaro Obregón came to power. As the violence began to subside in the 1920s, relations between Mexico and the United States were less tense. The memory of American intervention, however, lingered in Mexican minds.
Reviewing Facts

1. History Use a diagram like the one below to identify different responses of U.S. Presidents to events in Latin America.

   Responses to Latin America
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Monroe</th>
<th>McKinley</th>
<th>Roosevelt</th>
<th>Wilson</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
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<tr>
<td>U.S. Presidents</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. History Explain how imperial nations acquired and ruled overseas lands. In what ways did the British and the French differ in ruling their empires?

3. Geography Identify the locations and state the significance of the Suez and Panama Canals.

4. Culture Describe the role of religion in the spread of Western values during the 1800s.

5. History Identify how Asians, Africans, and Latin Americans reacted to Western imperialism after the mid-1800s.

Critical Thinking

1. Apply How did science, industry, and technology aid the growth of imperialism?

2. Evaluate Why was Japan able to establish itself as an imperial and military power?

3. Synthesize How did imperialism affect peoples in Africa, Asia, and Latin America? What impact did imperialism have on the peoples of Europe and North America?

4. Analyze Contrast the ways in which the Age of Imperialism contributed to the growth of unity in the world with the ways in which it contributed to disunity.
Geography in History

1. **Place**  Refer to the map below. What two large bodies of water does the Panama Canal connect?

2. **Human/Environment Interaction** Why do you think engineers chose this particular location in which to build the canal?

3. **Location** Why is the Pacific Ocean located on the southeast side of this map?

4. **Region** What geographic features of this region made building the canal difficult?

**The Panama Canal**

![Map of the Panama Canal]

**Understanding Themes**

1. **Movement** What factors stimulated outward expansion by the European powers in the Age of Imperialism?

2. **Change** How did Africans react to the changes brought by the spread of imperialism in Africa?

3. **Reaction** In what two ways did Indian nationalists respond to British rule in India?

4. **Nationalism** Trace the events of the Mexican Revolution. Why was the Revolution an important development in modern Latin America?

**Linking Past and Present**

1. Historical context refers to the setting in which an event occurs. Throughout the 1900s the United States continued to intervene in Latin America. Investigate three recent interventions, and explain how the historical context surrounding American interventions has changed from 1900 to the present.

2. Have attitudes about imperialism changed from the 1800s to the present time? Explain. What factors do you think account for any changes?

3. Does imperialism exist in some form today? What factors do you think account for any changes? If imperialism exists today, does it differ from the imperialism of the 1800s?

4. Examine the role of the South African Native Congress (SANNC) in South Africa after its founding in 1912. As the African National Congress (ANC) after 1923, how did the organization’s involvement change under independent white-dominated South African governments from the 1920s to the early 1990s? How does the ANC influence developments in South Africa today?

**Skill Practice**

Using the steps described on page 496, search the Internet for information about one of the following topics from the Age of Imperialism. Write an article for the school newspaper or magazine based on the information you retrieved about your topic.

- writings of Rudyard Kipling
- establishment of Liberia
- African Imperialism 1914
- Cecil Rhodes
- Russo-Japanese War
- Spanish-American War
Between the late 1700s and the early 1900s, the nations of Europe and North America entered an Industrial Revolution which had far-reaching effects. Many people pushed for social and political reforms. Meanwhile, Western nations gradually extended their imperialism.

**VOCABULARY PREVIEW**

- **admonitions**: warnings
- **consumption**: use
- **tyranny**: oppression imposed by government
- **enunciated**: spoken clearly
- **debouched**: emerged

In the United States and Great Britain women struggled for decades to gain the right to vote. Here, Emmeline Pankhurst, a leader of this cause in England, speaks to women in Connecticut in 1913.

... We found that all the fine phrases about freedom and liberty were entirely for male consumption, and that they did not in any way apply to women. When it was said ... “Taxation of men without representation is tyranny,” everybody quite calmly accepted the fact that women had to pay taxes and even were sent to prison if they failed to pay them—quite right. We found that “Government of the people, by the people and for the people” ... was again only for male consumption; half of the people were entirely ignored; it was the duty of women to pay their taxes and obey the laws and look as pleasant as they could under the circumstances; in fact, every principle of liberty enunciated in any civilized country on earth, with very few exceptions, was intended entirely for men; and when women tried to force the putting into practice of these principles, for women, then they discovered they had come into a very, very unpleasant situation indeed. ...
From 1859 to 1870, a series of wars led to Italy’s unification. One nationalist leader was Giuseppe Garibaldi, whose attack on Palermo, Sicily, in 1860 is recorded in this eyewitness account written by London Times correspondent Nandor Eber.

...The Neapolitan fort at the gate, considerably reinforced, opened a hot fire, ... while at the same time the two guns and the troops posted at the Porta Sant’Antonio brought a crossfire to bear on the attackers. But this was no obstacle to the brave fellows who led the way. They did not lose time with firing, but rushed on with the bayonet. ... Close to the Porta di Termini is the Vecchia Fiera—the old marketplace. This was the first point where Garibaldi stopped. One must know these Sicilians to have an idea of the frenzy, screaming, shouting, crying, and hugging; all would kiss his hand and embrace his knees. Every moment brought new masses, which debouched in troops from one of the streets, anxious to have their turn. As the Cacciatori gradually cleared the lower part of the town most of the inhabitants came to have a look, and give a greeting to the liberator of Palermo and Sicily. ...
Standardized Test Practice

**Directions:** Choose the best answer to each of the following multiple choice questions. If you have trouble answering a question, use the process of elimination to narrow your choices. Write your answers on a separate piece of paper.

1. The invention of the power loom in 1787 led to

   A an increase in cloth imports from Asia.
   B an increase in the need for skilled craftspeople.
   C an increase in productivity.
   D an increase in the price of finished cloth.

   **Test-Taking Tip:** The phrase led to indicates that this question is looking for a cause and effect relationship. In general, the machinery developed during the Industrial Revolution reduced the need for skilled craftspeople, so answer B is an unlikely effect of this invention.

2. The Industrial Revolution led to the growth of capitalism. In which of the following ways did the government help capitalism flourish?

   F By establishing few regulations
   G By setting duties on imports and exports
   H By requiring state ownership of factories
   J By enacting laws protecting workers

   **Test-Taking Tip:** This question requires you to remember the meaning of the word capitalism. Since capitalism is an economic system in which individuals and private firms—not the government—own the means of production, answer H does not make sense. Look for the answer that would help make businesses profitable.

3. Early factory workers faced dangerous conditions and unfair practices. Business owners exploited workers for all the following reasons EXCEPT that

   A there were more workers than available jobs.
   B business controlled housing and jobs.
   C labor unions did not focus on safety.
   D governments were slow to interfere with capitalism.

   **Test-Taking Tip:** Be careful—this question is looking for the exception. Do not simply choose the first answer that "makes sense." Look for the answer that does NOT fit. Since answer A is true, it cannot be the exception.

Read the quotation from *The Communist Manifesto* and answer the question that follows.

*Let the ruling classes tremble at a Communist revolution. The proletariat have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Working men of all countries, unite!*

4. Engels and Marx wrote *The Communist Manifesto* to advocate

   F freedom for political prisoners.
   G a revolution of the working class against the bourgeoisie.
   H the growth of their empire.
   J democratic ideals and civil rights.

   **Test-Taking Tip:** Make sure that your answer is supported by information in the quotation. Do not rely only on your memory. Remember also that proletariat means "members of the working class."

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5. According to the graph

A. the North had more people and firearms, but the South had more manufactured goods.
B. the North had more railroad tracks, but the South had more farmland and bank deposits.
C. the North had more manufactured goods, but the South had more people and railroad tracks.
D. None of the above

**Test-Taking Tip:** Double check all the answer choices against the information on the graph. Make sure that you look at the key to determine how North and South are represented. Remember that the sections of a circle graph are different sizes for a reason.

6. Which area of Central Africa produces manganese?

F. Democratic Republic of the Congo
G. Gabon
H. Congo
J. Cameroon

**Test-Taking Tip:** Use the map’s key, or legend, to identify the symbols used on the map. Make sure that you double check all answers against the information on the map.