DK

History
OF THE WORLD
MAP BY MAP

Venice

Ravenna

Adriatic Sea

Zara

568

ITALY

1202 Army of the
Fourth Crusade pillages
the port of Zara

Danube

SLAVS, BULGARS,
AND AVARS

DACIA

Ragusa

924

915

Rome

Serdica

1014 Basil II
defeats Bulgars and
annexes Bulgarian
Kingdom

MACEDONIA

Naples

Barium

Durazzo

Kleidion

*Tyrrhenian
Sea*

Brundisium

Thessalonica
(Salonika)

552/3
Battle of Mons
Lactarius

875 768 916

*Aegean
Sea*

*Ionian
Sea*

Athens

Sicily

902

878

Syracuse

FOREWORD BY
PETER SNOW

Crete

HISTORY
OF THE WORLD
MAP BY MAP

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MAP BY MAP

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FOREWORD

This book tells the story of life on earth in more meticulous detail and with more arresting pictures than I've ever seen before. I believe that in this digital age, maps are more important than ever. People are losing sight of the need for them in a world where our knowledge is reduced to the distance between two postcodes. For me a journey – certainly the contemplation of a journey – is a voyage across a map. But this beautiful book offers the added dimension of a state-of-the-art journey through time. These maps display the story of the world in delightfully accessible form. They demonstrate in a spectacular way how there is no substitute for the printed page, for the entrancing spread of colour across paper that we can touch and

handle. The maps are large, the colours are bold. Text boxes spring out from places whose history matters. Clear and easily readable graphics reveal the ups and downs of empires, cultures, wars and other events both human and natural that have shaped our world from the beginning.

To me, history without maps would be unintelligible. A country's history is shaped by its geography – by its mountains and valleys, its rivers, its climate, its access to the sea, its raw materials and harvests just as much as it is shaped by its population, its industry, its relations with its neighbours and its takeover by invaders from abroad. This book is more than a historical atlas: it describes the

geography of history but adds revealing pictures as well. For me, the history of the First World War is admirably summed up by the map that describes the build-up to it on pages 268–69 and the following maps and accounts of the fighting including the telling picture of the trenches.

I've been using maps to tell stories all my life as a television journalist and historian. The stories of the European Union and the collapse of Communism were my constant companions when recounting the events of the last half century. That part of recent history only makes sense if it is also described by maps like those on pages 320–21 and 336–37. I have spent many hours as a journalist making maps with graphics artists at the BBC and ITN to illustrate the story of wars in the Middle East and Vietnam. Far better ones are now displayed for us in this book on pages 328–29 and 332–33. No historian can do justice to the story of the rise and fall of the great empires like that of the French Emperor Napoleon without maps like that on pages 208–11.

For its depth of learning and its variety of ways of giving us a picture of the history of our planet, this magnificent account – map by map – is second to none.

PETER SNOW, 2018
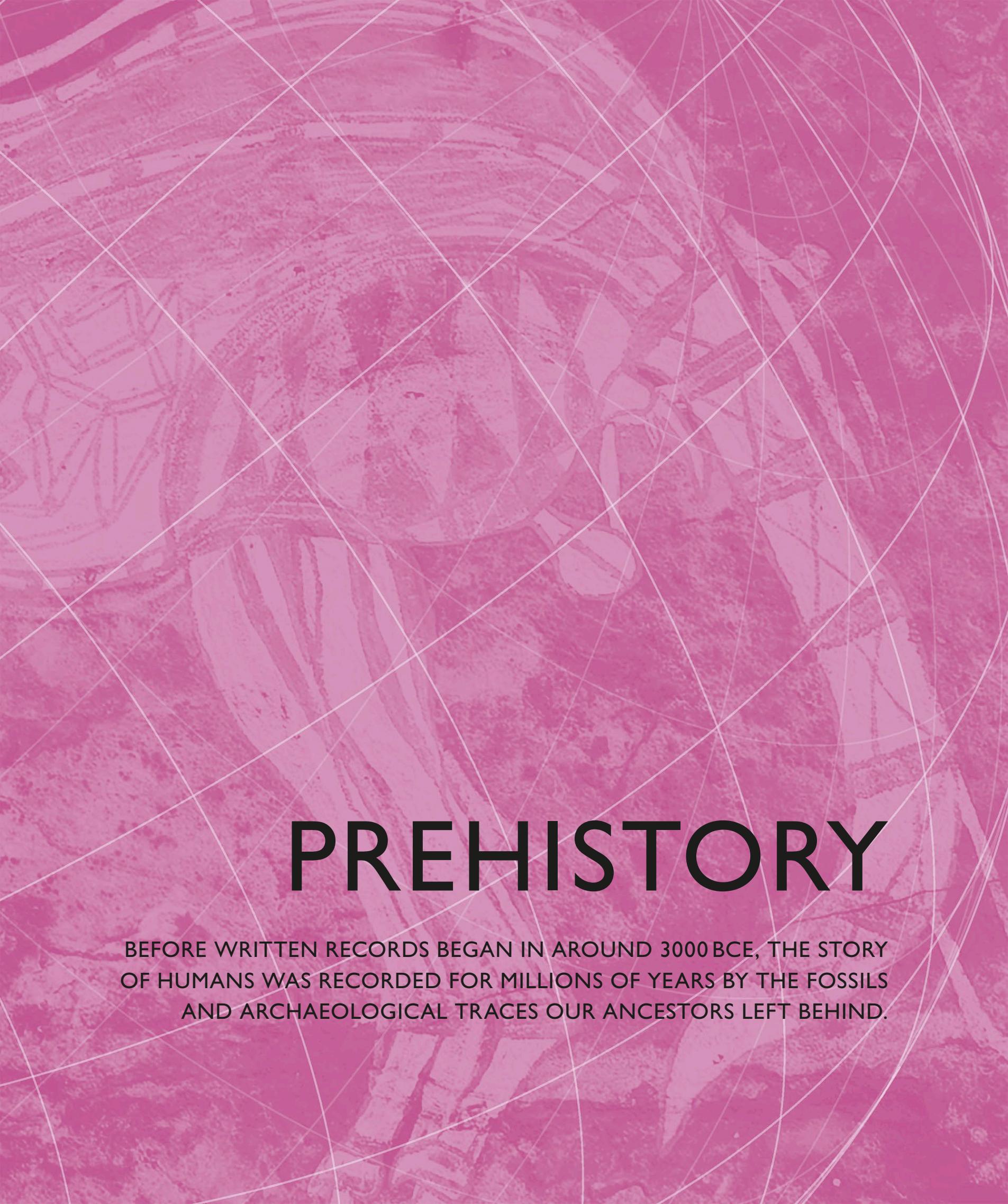
PREHISTORY

BEFORE WRITTEN RECORDS BEGAN IN AROUND 3000 BCE, THE STORY OF HUMANS WAS RECORDED FOR MILLIONS OF YEARS BY THE FOSSILS AND ARCHAEOLOGICAL TRACES OUR ANCESTORS LEFT BEHIND.

△ **Lucy**
Shown here are the fossilized remains of the apelike Lucy – a member of the genus *Australopithecus* from east Africa from over 3 MYA. The fossil is sufficiently complete to suggest that Lucy walked upright on two legs.

FROM APES TO FARMERS

The history of humankind is rooted in a part of the animal kingdom that includes monkeys, apes, and other primates. It took millions of years of evolution – over countless generations – for apelike ancestors to become modern *Homo sapiens*.

Scientific evidence links all humans to apes. Specifically, chimpanzees are our closest non-human relatives, and DNA – the ultimate bloodline indicator – suggests that we separated from a common ancestor some 6.5 million years ago (MYA). Indeed, humans are apes – albeit in an upright, naked form.

Monkeys, apes, and humans are primates that have a large brain, grasping digits, forward-facing eyes, and nails instead of claws. Fossilized remains of animals that lived in the distant past provide tantalizing evidence of just how apes became modern humans. Skeletons turn into fossils when they become mineralized into rock – a process that usually takes at least 10,000 years. Fossilized remains are usually fragmentary, but an expertise in anatomy helps scientists use the fossil record to reconstruct extinct species. Fossils can also be dated so scientists can build up a chronology of evolutionary change. For example, African fossils of a primate called *Proconsul*, dated to 21–14 MYA, resembled a monkey. But it lacked a tail – a feature more typical of apes – suggesting that *Proconsul* could have been the earliest known member of the ape family.

Hominids and hominins
Modern great apes (gorillas, orang-utans, and chimpanzees), humans, and their prehistoric relatives are united in a biological family called hominids. As well

△ **Flint and stone**
For nearly 2 million years, human technology was represented by stone flake tools and hand axes. These were made by hitting flint or other workable rock with stone to produce sharp cutting edges.

> *"We can see the focus, the centre of evolution, for modern humans in Africa."*
>
> CHRIS STRINGER, BRITISH ANTHROPOLOGIST

as lacking a tail, they have bigger brains than their monkey ancestors. This meant that many prehistoric hominids doubtless used tools to forage for food – just as chimpanzees do today. Great apes also became bigger than monkeys and many spent more time on the ground. One group evolved to walk on two legs, which freed grasping hands for other tasks.

This group – called hominins – includes humans and their immediate ancestors, and dates back at least 6.2–6.0 million years to the species *Orrorin tugenensis* – a very early bipedal hominin found in Kenya.

The first humans
Not all hominins were direct ancestors of living people, but at least one branch of the genus *Australopithecus* might have been. Belonging to the genus *Homo*, the first humans were fully bipedal, with arched feet that no longer had opposable grasping toes and an S-shaped spine centred above a wide pelvis. Such adaptations helped them run quickly on open ground. The earliest species – *Homo habilis*, from 2.4 MYA – may have

THE RISE OF MODERN HUMANS

Even before the emergence of modern humans *(Homo sapiens)* almost 300,000 YA, hominins had developed the traits that would make them a dominating force on the planet. From just under 1 MYA, hominins were controlling fire – for cooking, and later to help with manufacturing processes. But with *Homo sapiens* came a more complex culture. Archaeological evidence indicates that these modern humans dispersed widely from their centre of origin in Africa before 200,000 YA.

185,000 YA *Homo sapiens* migrates from Africa and into Asia 1.5 million years after the first hominins first left the African continent

135–100,000 YA Seashells perforated and used as ornamental beads in Middle East and North Africa are first jewellery – and earliest evidence of drilling

DISPERSAL			
CULTURE			
TECHNOLOGY			

| 180,000 YA | 160,000 YA | 140,000 YA | 120,000 YA |

165,000 YA Earliest evidence of pigment use at Pinnacle Point, South Africa, for painting or as part of a tool handle

◁ **Close cousins**
Neanderthals – the closest extinct human species to modern humans, *Homo sapiens* – had larger skulls with more prominent eyebrows. *Homo sapiens* and Neanderthals were sufficiently similar to interbreed where they coexisted.

remained in Africa, but we know that later other *Homo* species dispersed widely across Eurasia.

The rise of *Homo sapiens*

Only one species of human – *Homo sapiens* – came to dominate the world after emerging from Africa about a quarter of a million years ago. Remarkably, brain capacity doubled between *Homo habilis* and *Homo sapiens*. Bigger brainpower meant that humans could skilfully manipulate the environment and resources around them – ultimately leading to the emergence of complex cultures and technologies.

For much of its time, *Homo sapiens* coexisted with other human species. In Ice-Age Eurasia, chunky-bodied Neanderthals (*Homo neanderthalensis*) successfully lived in a range of environmental conditions, developing their own advanced cultures. But the world's climate became especially unsuitable, and only *Homo sapiens* prevailed. They spread further – reaching Australia by 65,000 YA and South America possibly by 18,500 YA. Evidently, *Homo sapiens* had the social structures to succeed in ways that their competitors could not. The first modern humans were efficient hunter-gatherers, inventing new technologies that helped them
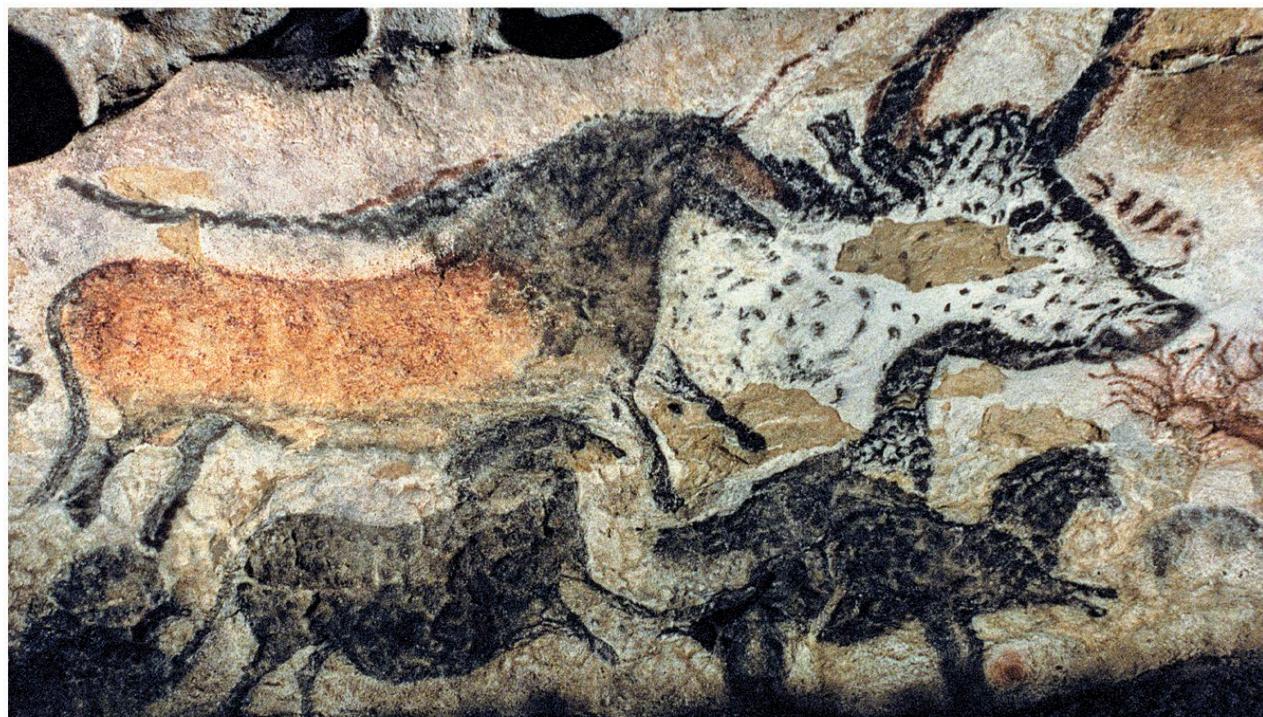
acquire more food and travel further. This meant that they thrived in many different places, from the frozen Arctic to the hot tropics. Then, within the last 20,000 years, all around the world modern humans began to abandon their nomadic ways in favour of fixed settlements, turning their skills to farming the land, supporting bigger societies and – ultimately – setting the seeds of civilization itself.

△ **Early artists**
These depictions of Ice Age animals on the walls of the Lascaux caves in southern France are about 17,000 years old. Similar paintings nearby show that prehistoric humans had developed a degree of creative expression as early as 30,000 years ago.

92,000 YA Evidence of the earliest known ritual burial of the dead at Qafzeh Cave, Israel

60,000 YA Microliths in Africa – small stone tools, including blades – first used for cutting and scraping, the earliest known processing technology

40,000 YA Oldest securely dated painting includes a handprint in an Indonesian cave

25,000 YA Siberian *Homo sapiens* settles on the continental shelf between Ice Age Russia and Alaska, before dispersing through the Americas

5,000 YA A new wave of colonists – the Austronesians – migrates from Asia, across New Guinea, and reaches islands of the Pacific Ocean

80,000 YA   60,000 YA   40,000 YA   20,000 YA   0

65,000 YA Australia and New Guinea – then connected by land – are colonized by boat

44,000 YA *Homo sapiens* migrate from Asia into Europe, mixing with European Neanderthals and eventually replacing them

30,000 YA Needles used for sewing in Europe and Russia

28,000 YA Spectacular double child burial in eastern Europe shows complex hunter-gatherer cultures living on the steppes

15,000 YA First use of ladders in Lascaux Caves, France

THE FIRST HUMANS

The human story began in Africa 7 or 6 million years ago. Through the fossil record of this vast continent we can draw a complex family tree of human relatives of which our species, *Homo sapiens*, is the last to survive.

We have fossil evidence for the existence of about 20 different species of African "hominin" – members of the human lineage that diverged from that of chimpanzees 7–10 million years ago. Each has been assigned to a biological group or "genus", but the relationships between the groups and species are still debated. Only certain hominins were the ancestors of modern humans; others, such as the *Paranthropus* species, may represent evolutionary dead ends.

Human evolution was not an inevitable, linear progression from apes. Some of our ancestors developed adaptations – in different combinations – that would ultimately mark out modern humans. Perhaps most notably, a larger brain enabled complex thought and behaviour, including the development of stone-tool technologies, while walking on two legs became the main form of locomotion.

The earliest fossils assigned to our species – dated to around 300,000 years ago – were found in Morocco, but other early specimens have been found widely dispersed across Africa. This has led scientists to believe that the evolution of modern humans probably happened on a continental scale.

> *"I think Africa was the cradle, the crucible that created us as* Homo sapiens.*"*
>
> PALEOANTHROPOLOGIST DONALD JOHANSON, 2006

300,000 YA The earliest remains of *Homo sapiens* in the fossil record were unearthed here in Morocco

◁ **Turkana Boy**
The skull of a young, male *Homo ergaster* was found along with his well-preserved, nearly complete skeleton near Lake Turkana, Kenya. Because his brain was about 60 per cent the size of a modern human's, his skull narrows immediately behind the eye sockets.

I **THE FIRST HUMANLIKE APES** 7–5.5 MYA

The sparse record of the earliest hominins – *Sahelanthropus* and *Orrorin* – shows that although they had shorter faces and smaller teeth, they had brains no larger than those of chimpanzees. The sole *Sahelanthropus* skull was discovered in Chad, far removed from other hominin sites in eastern and southern Africa. Fossils of both *Orrorin* and *Ardipithecus kadabba* are thought to exhibit features linked to developing two-legged locomotion.

Sahelanthropus skull

▲ *Sahelanthropus*   ▼ *Orrorin*   ■ *Ardipithecus*

EARLY HOMININ MIGRATION
Archaeological evidence from Asia and Europe suggests that by about 2 million years ago, hominins had begun to leave Africa for the first time – long before *Homo sapiens* began to disperse (see pp.16–17). Experts once assumed that the migration corresponded with the appearance of *Homo ergaster*, but older species might have been the pioneers – a 1.7-million-year-old fossil found in Dmanisi, Georgia, resembles the earlier *Homo habilis*. The earliest known hominin fossils from Southeast Asia are of *Homo erectus* – an Asian variant of *Homo ergaster*, found on the the island of Java and dating to 1.8 million years ago. Stone tools from the Nihewan Basin, China, date to 1.6 million years ago. Two sites in Spain's Sierra de Atapuerca show that hominins had reached western Europe by 1.2 million years ago.

KEY
→ Likely route   ○ Sites of fossil finds

EUROPE
Swanscombe · Happisburgh · Mauer
Boxgrove
0.95–0.5 MYA · Steinheim
1.2 MYA
Atapuerca · Tautavel · Isernia la Pineta · Dmanisi
Ceprano
Petralona
Kocabas
Ubeidiya
1.7 MYA

ASIA
Nihewan · Zhoukoudian
1.6–1.3 MYA
Hexian · Nanjing
Lantian · Yunxian

MORE THAN 1.8 MYA
Buia
Daka
Bodo
Konso-Gardula
Lake Turkana · Koobi Fora
Olduvai Gorge · Olorgesailie
Narmada

AFRICA

1.8 MYA
Sangiran · Trinil
Ngandong · Mojokerto

ATLANTIC OCEAN

2 HUMANLIKE APES DIVERSIFY 5.3–2.58 MYA

Fossils from this time indicate a diversity of hominin species. Fossils of *Ardipithecus ramidus*, found in Ethiopia, include the oldest near-complete hominin skeleton. Later, *Kenyanthropus* – known from a single skull – and early *Paranthropus* – with its enormous molars – lived alongside several species of the genus *Australopithecus*, one of which left the famous Laetoli footprints 3.7–3.0 MYA (right), showing that a striding gait had evolved.

■ *Ardipithecus*　⬠ *Australopithecus*

◆ *Kenyanthropus*　⬡ *Paranthropus*

3 OUR OWN GENUS APPEARS 2.58 MYA–300,000 YA

Homo habilis, the first member of our genus in the fossil record, evolved and, for a time, lived alongside later *Australopithecus* and *Paranthropus* species. Stone tools from this period have been found, but it is difficult to assign them to species. *Homo ergaster* was the first hominin to have humanlike body proportions. It likely gave rise to *Homo heidelbergensis*, from which modern humans evolved.

⬟ *Australopithecus*

⬡ *Paranthropus*

◗ *Homo habilis*

◑ *Homo ergaster*

◐ *Homo heidelbergensis*

Handaxe, probably *H. ergaster*

4 HOMO SAPIENS PREVAILS 300,000–50,000 YA

When the first *Homo sapiens* became established, all other known African hominins died out, except one. Fossil remains recently dated to 335,000–236,000 years ago suggest that a species named *Homo naledi* was inhabiting southern Africa at about the time *Homo sapiens* first appeared. Whether the species interacted is unknown, but with *Homo naledi*'s disappearance, our species would have had Africa to itself.

▬ *Homo naledi*

● *Homo sapiens*

Map labels and annotations

Mediterranean Sea

Hauah Fteah

c.200,000 YA Excavations at this cave near the Libyan coast have produced evidence of continual occupation by modern humans for many thousands of years

Nile

Taramsa

3.6–3 MYA The discovery of *Australopithecus bahrelghazali* fossils in Chad extended the known range of *Australopithecus* species

Bahr el Ghazali

Toros-Menalla

A F R I C A

Singa

5.8 MYA The history of hominin occupation of the Middle Awash site in Ethiopia's Afar Depression stretches back to the time of *Ardipithecus kadabba*

Middle Awash

Ethiopian Highlands

4.2 MYA Numerous species of *Paranthropus* and early human ancestors were first discovered in the Omo-Turkana Basin

Omo

Lake Turkana

3.3 MYA The oldest stone tools ever discovered, from the archaeological site of Lomekwi, pre-date the appearance of the *Homo* genus

Lomekwi

Koobi Fora

Tugen Hills

Lake Victoria

Olduvai Gorge

c.1.8–1.6 MYA One of our earliest ancestors, *Homo habilis*, lived here alongside *Paranthropus boisei* for thousands of years

Ndutu

Laetoli

c.350,000 YA Found in 1973, the Ndutu cranium has features common to both *Homo erectus* and archaic *Homo sapiens*, and has been assigned to *Homo heidelbergensis*

300,000–125,000 YA The very robust *Homo heidelbergensis* cranium found in Kabwe, Zambia, in 1921, once held a brain approaching the size of modern humans'

Great Rift Valley

Lake Tanganyika

Lake Nyasa

Kabwe

Madagascar

335,000–236,000 YA The Cradle of Humankind site contains the Rising Star Cave system where fossils of *Homo naledi* were first discovered in 2013

Makapansgat

Zambezi

Rising Star Cave

Border Cave

Cradle of Humankind

Taung

Florisbad

294,000–224,000 YA A partial cranium found at Florisbad, South Africa, appears to be that of a transitional individual with features common in both *Homo heidelbergensis* and *Homo sapiens*

Elandsfontein

Klasies River Mouth

Die Kelders

HOMININ FOSSIL RECORD

The discovery of human fossils and artefacts across Africa has helped identify different genera and species of early humans. This map shows key locations of fossil remains and artefacts, along with the era in which their owners once lived. The dates of individual finds and periods are given in terms of "millions of years ago" (MYA) or simply "years ago" (YA).

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4

8 MYA　6 MYA　4 MYA　2 MYA　0

3 EASTERN COASTAL ROUTE
80,000–40,000 YA

The genetic trail of modern humans leaving Africa leads through the Middle East, then along the coast of south Asia. People living off rich coastal resources may have made swift progress. Fossil evidence proves that they reached Borneo by 40,000 years ago, while Australian sites have been dated to 65,000 years ago.

→ Migration routes   ◆ Archaeological site
● Fossil site

4 EUROPE COLONIZED   50,000–25,000 YA

Despite its relative proximity to Africa, modern humans did not start to colonize Europe until around 50,000 years ago. Early sites suggest that they spread along coastlines and rivers, starting in the eastern Mediterranean. Although little fossil evidence exists, the rich archaeological material includes the first figurative carvings and musical instruments.

→ Migration routes   ◆ Archaeological site
◆ Fossil site

5 INTERACTION WITH NEANDERTHALS
50,000–28,000 YA

Neanderthals had been living in Europe for hundreds of thousands of years before modern humans arrived. Although the timing and locations are unknown, ancient genetics suggests thousands of interbreeding events. Some fossils attributed to modern humans show features associated with Neanderthals, leading some scientists to speculate that these individuals may be hybrids.

● Fossil site   ◆ Archaeological site

42,000–37,000 YA DNA extracted from remains of *Homo sapiens* from Pestera cu Oase, Romania, is estimated to be 5–11 per cent Neanderthal, meaning that it had a Neanderthal relation within 4–6 generations

38,700–36,200 YA A male from Kostenki is one of the oldest modern humans found in Europe

24,000 YA According to DNA analysis, Mal'ta Boy shares a close ancestry with the male found in Kostenki, Europe

Mamontovaya Kurya
Byzovaia

Kostenki
Mladec
Kents Cavern
Hohle Fels   Vogelherd
Les Rois   Cioclovina
Chatelperron
Pestera cu Oase   Bacho Kiro
Lagar Velho
Gorham's Cave
Temara
Dar-es-Soltan
Jebel Irhoud
Hauah Fteah
Misliya Cave
Skhul
Qafzeh
Al Wusta
Taramsa   Jebel Faya
Singa
Herto / Middle Awash
Omo Kibish

Ust Karakol   Malaia Syia
Denisova Cave   Mal'ta
Okladnikov Cave   Kara-Bom
Teshik Tash

Jwalapuram
Tam Pa Ling caves
Balangoda   Lenggong Valley

300,000 YA Jebel Irhoud is the site of the earliest *Homo sapiens* yet found – a kind of proto-*Homo sapiens* with a modern, flat face but a primitive rear skull

38,000–30,000 YA Balangoda Man in Sri Lanka represents the earliest reliably dated record of anatomically modern humans in south Asia

2 EARLY ASIAN EXPANSIONS
194,000–88,000 YA

The earliest evidence of modern humans living outside Africa are a partial jaw and teeth from Misliya Cave in Israel, dated to 194,000–177,000 years ago. Fossils from Skhul and Qafzeh, also in Israel, dated to around 120,000 years ago possibly represent a subsequent wave of expansion. The discovery of an 88,000-year-old finger bone in Al Wusta, Saudi Arabia, has extended the range of early migrations to the Arabian Peninsula.

→ Migration routes   ● Fossil site

1 HOMO SAPIENS IN AFRICA
300,000–70,000 YA

Before *Homo sapiens* first left Africa they flourished as a species and began to exhibit what we might recognize as "modern" behaviour. Excavations at the Blombos Caves, on the southern tip of Africa, have produced some of the earliest evidence of complex thought and innovation, including jewellery, engraved stones, refined bone tools, projectile weapons, and painting materials.

● Fossil site   ◆ Archaeological site

35,000 YA Border Cave yielded the Lebombo Bone to archaeologists – this bears marks suggesting a counting tally, similar to those used in recent times by the San people of the Kalahari

Laetoli
Border Cave
Florisbad
Blombos Caves   Klasies River Mouth

MIGRATION OF EARLY HUMANS

The series of arrows on this map represents the probable migration routes of early modern humans based on current archaeological and genetic evidence. Also highlighted are some of the most significant archaeological sites that have yielded tools and cultural evidence, and locations where important fossils have been discovered.

KEY
▇ Land exposed due to lower sea level 20,000 YA

TIMELINE

	300	250	200	150	100	50	0
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							
7							

THOUSANDS OF YEARS AGO

6 MYSTERIOUS DENISOVANS
150,000–50,000 YA

DNA analysis of a finger bone and two teeth from Denisova Cave in Siberia has identified a previously unknown and distinct population, the Denisovans. Although their remains have only been found at one site, their genes indicate that they were widespread. Contemporaries of the Neanderthals, they also interbred with this species, as well as with *Homo sapiens*.

☠ Fossil site

Yana

45,000 YA Tools, along with mammoth and rhinoceros bones, show humans living above the Arctic Circle during the Ice Age

Ust-mil

Zhoukoudian

Tianyuan Cave

120,000–80,000 YA Human remains at Tianyuan cave are the oldest in east Asia

Yamashita-cho

40,000 YA Around 70 stone axes were found buried in dated volcanic sediment layers

△ **The emergence of art**
The Venus of Brassempouy (France), dating to about 25,000 years ago, features one of the earliest known representations of the human face.

Matenkupkum, Balof, and Panakiwuk

Huon Peninsula

Jerimalai

7 CENTRAL TO EAST ASIA
120,000–45,000 YA

Populations that spread to central and eastern Asia probably came from those that had originally colonized coastal southern Asia. The cold, bleak environments they encountered to the north would have demanded great adaptability. Those that reached the far northeast would give rise to the populations that went on to colonize the Americas.

SAHUL

→ Migration routes   ◆ Archaeological site

☠ Fossil site

OUT OF AFRICA

The modern human, *Homo sapiens*, is a truly global species, inhabiting every continent. Our colonization of the planet started before 177,000 years ago, when groups began dispersing from their African homeland. By 40,000 years ago, our species lived in northern Europe and central and east Asia, and had crossed the sea to Australia.

Ancient hominins had moved from Africa into Asia and Europe well over a million years before our species first appeared (see p.14). But the details of how *Homo sapiens* relates to these earlier species are still emerging gradually with every fossil and archaeological discovery from the period. Genetic and archaeological evidence now overwhelmingly favours the Recent African Origin model, also known as the "Out-of-Africa" theory, which proposes that *Homo sapiens* evolved in Africa and later spread across the Old World, replacing all other hominin species.

Homo sapiens first left Africa some time after 200,000 years ago, and some groups appear to have reached east Asia by at least 80,000 years ago, and perhaps as early as 120,000 years ago. Either via the Horn of Africa or the Sinai Peninsula, the first migrants travelled east along Asia's southern coastline, and either north into China or eastwards across Southeast Asia. Subsequent groups headed through central and eastern Asia and finally northwest into Europe.

As they moved into new territories, *Homo sapiens*' progress may have been hindered, particularly in Europe, by their encounters with other hominins, including Neanderthals and Denisovans. Little is yet known of the Denisovans, but the Neanderthal was the first fossil hominin discovered and is now known from thousands of specimens. Evidence of interaction with both species lives on in our genes.

> *"I, too, am convinced that our ancestors came from Africa."*
>
> KENYAN PALAEOANTHROPOLOGIST RICHARD LEAKEY, 2005

THE STORY IN OUR GENES
EVIDENCE IN HUMAN DNA

By comparing the genetic make-up of living people from all over the world, scientists are able to analyse the evolutionary relationships between different populations. This has enabled them to confirm our African origins and describe how and when our species spread around the world. Genetic material (DNA) has also been extracted from the fossils of some extinct species. Analysis of the DNA of Neanderthals and Denisovans has revealed that they both interbred with *Homo sapiens* and contributed some of their genes to modern human populations.

The Vedda people of Sri Lanka
DNA analysis has been used to show that these are the earliest native inhabitants of Sri Lanka.

THE FIRST AUSTRALIANS

More than 60,000 years ago, hardy, resourceful people arrived in Australia after crossing the seas from Asia. They became Aboriginal Australians and went on to establish a unique way of life with a distinct culture.

During the last ice age, Australia, New Guinea, and Tasmania were joined in a single landmass (see p.17), which was colonized by a seafaring people who crossed the seas from Asia on bamboo vessels. These people were the first Australians. Their journey through the continent followed coastlines and river valleys. Archaeological evidence suggests that by 30,000 years ago, they had spread far and wide, from Tasmania in the south to the Swan River in the west and northwards into New Guinea.
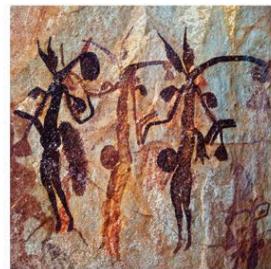
△ **Ancient art**
Discovered in western Australia in 1891, the ancient Bradshaw rock paintings show human figures engaged in display or hunting.

Indigenous Australians

Australia's indigenous peoples were seminomadic; instead of developing agricultural societies, they moved with the seasons. They lived in small family groups but were connected through extensive social networks. Already adept at hunting and gathering, they developed new technologies such as boomerangs, fish traps, and stone axes shaped by grinding. Over time, the groups became culturally diverse. In the far north, people of the Torres Strait – between Australia and New Guinea – became distinct from the Australian Aborigines. Aboriginal life became centred on relationships between people and the natural world, or "Country", which included animals, plants, and rocks. These links, which have lasted into modern life, are formalized in the "Dreaming": oral histories of creation combined with moral codes , some of which are reflected in art.

THE COLONIZATION OF AUSTRALIA

The earliest known archaeological sites in Australia are 65,000 years old – a date that conforms with genetic evidence for the origins of indigenous Australians. Fossils of humans and their animal prey, as well as artefacts from the time, indicate that populations were centred around coastlines and the Murray–Darling river basins.

Madjedbebe Rock Shelter 65,000 YA

Nawarla Gabarnmung 45,000 YA

AUSTRALIA

Upper Swan River 40,000 YA

Willandra Lakes 40,000 YA

Devil's Lair 48,000–43,000 YA

Penrith 50,000–40,000 YA

Tasmania 30,000 YA

KEY

◆ Archaeological site pre-30,000 YA

1 | ASIAN ORIGINS BEFORE 25,000 YA

Probably before 40,000 YA, hunter-gatherers were already living in Asian Arctic regions. These hardy people, who hunted mammoth at the Yana RHS site in Siberia (27,000 YA), were used to harsh conditions and well-prepared to take advantage of the lower sea levels that exposed the Beringia landmass joining Asia and America before 24,000 YA. They were the ancestors of the first people who crossed to America.

→ Movement of people

2 | FOUNDER AMERICANS 26,000–13,000 YA

Genetic evidence indicates that most early North Americans arose from one of two branches of a population originating in east Asia. These common ancestors of Ancient Beringians and today's Native Americans' ancestors were blocked by ice sheets before moving past Alaska. The first Americans went further south and into Canada when receding ice sheets exposed coastal and interior routes.

→ Movement of people
◆ Archaeological site

3 | NORTH AMERICAN CULTURES 15,000–10,000 YA

Multiple population dispersals pushed on through North America, but archaeological evidence is dominated by stone artefacts left by peoples of the so-called Clovis culture, around 13,000 YA. Named after an archaeological site in New Mexico, the Clovis people were mobile hunter-gatherers who used tools to kill and butcher large animals, such as mammoths.

→ Movement of people
◆ Archaeological site

4 | PENETRATING FURTHER SOUTH 14,000–12,000 YA

At least one bloodline diverged from the rest of the North Americans and migrated southwards. These people took their hunting technology with them as they reached out into the more tropical regions of Central America, then down towards the equator and South America.

→ Movement of people
◆ Archaeological site

5 | COLONIZING SOUTH AMERICA 14,000–10,000 YA

Most of South America's earliest colonists stuck to the Pacific coast, where they spread in the Andean region before continuing down towards Patagonia. It is likely that many crossed the Andes, with some people living at altitudes of over 4000m (13,120ft), to go eastwards deep into the Amazon basin or across Patagonia.

→ Movement of people
◆ Archaeological site

6 | ORIGINS OF ARCTIC INDIGENOUS PEOPLES 5,000 YA

Within the last 5,000 years, the ancestors of today's Inuit, Inupiat, and Yupik peoples entered America. Like the earlier colonists, they probably arrived from northeastern Asia, but stayed in the north. The complex skills that allowed them to live and hunt in the Arctic are still practised today.

⇢ Movement of people

16–14,000 YA One of the oldest sites including non-Clovis tools and a range of plants gathered for food, including seeds, fruits, and corn

15,000 YA Oldest Clovis artefacts, possibly used for working wood and bone

14,600 YA Evidence of butchering of mastodons

16,000 YA 650,000 artefacts, mainly blades and flakes, could indicate permanent quarrying site

13,000 YA Evidence of stone spearheads and butchered mastodon

20–19,000 YA Butchering marks on mammoth bones are possible evidence for one of earliest southward movements of humans from ice-locked north

11,290 YA Clovis, for many years, thought to be the oldest anthropological deposit in North America

12,600 YA Clovis-type infant (Anzick-1) is first ancient Native American DNA sample providing a full genetic sequence

13,000 YA Evidence of transition from hunter-gatherer to early farming settlements

24,000 YA Mammoth bone and flakes indicate possible eastern reach of Yana culture from Siberia

11,500 YA Double child burial, one of which, Xaxchitee'aanenh T'eede Gaay (Sunrise Girl Child), provided DNA evidence of Ancient Beringian people

13,000 YA Tools similar to those of Ushki complex

14,000 YA Microblades similar to those used in central Siberia

14,000–13,600 YA Dates of wooden tools match local First Nation's (Heiltsuk Nation's) oral history of its colonization

13,800 YA Pre-Clovis stone tool embedded in bone

14,000 YA Human coprolites (preserved faeces)

13,000 YA Human remains on offshore island indicate possible use of watercraft

13,000 YA Blades and flake tools, but without burins (chisel-like edges), at Ushki complex

GREENLAND

SIBERIA

BERINGIA

Nenana
Swan Point
Upward Sun River
Bluefish Cave and Old Crow River
Ushki complex

Laurentide Ice Sheet

Cordilleran Ice Sheet

Rocky Mountains

Triquet Island
Manis mastodon
Paisley Cave
Arlington Springs
Anzick
La Sena and Lovewell
Meadowcroft Rockshelter
Topper
Page-Ladson
Gault
Clovis
Ixtapan
Taima-Taima

NORTH AMERICA

SOUTH AMERICA

THE CLOVIS
STONE AGE HUNTERS

The hunter-gatherer Clovis people were once viewed as the first Americans, but archaeological sites pre-dating the Clovis period show this is not the case. However, the Clovis became a widespread influence. They used bifacial stone points and blades to hunt many of North America's large mammals, such as bison, mammoths, and sabre-tooth cats. In addition to the changing climate and habitats of these species, hunters were possibly one of the main factors that led to their extinction.

Extinct sabre-toothed cat

COLONIZING A NEW WORLD

Genetic studies and archaeological evidence from sites in Siberia, North America, and South America show that humans moved over a land bridge joining America to Asia at least 30–20,000 years ago (YA). As the land emerged from an ice age, these people then spread through the entire continent, possibly reaching along the coasts of southern South America by 18,000 YA.

KEY

- Extent of ice sheet 24,000 YA
- Extent of ice sheet 15,000–12,500 YA
- Land exposed by lower sea level at height of Ice Age

TIMELINE

11,500 YA Oldest human skeleton, "Luzia", found in Brazil

11,000 YA Spearhead, human fossil, and remains of hunted animals

10,500 YA Stone scrapers, choppers, and bolas, possibly used to hunt birds

13,100 YA Human habitation with living floor, hearth, and horses

18,500–14,500 YA Oldest human habitation in South America, possibly a coastal culture; unusually good preservation including hearths, hide, and plants

Lagoa Santa

Andes

Quebrada Santa Julia

Piedra Museo

Monte Verde

Fell's Cave

PACIFIC OCEAN

◁ Clovis spearheads
Bifacially worked (chipped into shape on each side) flint points were characteristic products of Clovis technology across North America.

PEOPLING THE AMERICAS

By the time Columbus set foot in the Americas in 1492, the continents had been peopled for thousands of years. The real discoverers of these new worlds had come from Siberia. They conquered ice and snow and trekked enormous distances to colonize a landmass of prairieland, desert, rainforest, and mountains.

Some 24,000 years ago the world was locked in an ice age, when an Arctic ice sheet covered much of the northern world. With so much water frozen in glaciers, ocean levels were low enough to expose a connection of land, known as Beringia, between Asia and North America. This meant that people could walk across from one continent to the other, until their way became blocked as ice sheets closed in on them. There, America's founding peoples were isolated for thousands of years, until warmer times melted the ice and opened up corridors to the south, possibly as early as 20,000 YA.

DNA evidence from archaeological sites and the DNA of Native Americans alive today shows that two distinct populations split from the founding group that had entered the new lands across Beringia.

Only one of these went on to settle the Americas – the ancestors of Native Americans. The other population – known as the Ancient Beringians – may have been isolated on or outside Beringia until after the glacial melt, as evidence of their DNA is distinct from that of any past or present Native Americans. Genetics show that between 17,500 and 14,600 YA, the group that had entered America branched again into two new lineages, northern and southern. People who continued further followed routes along the Pacific coast and far into the interior. Some became separated over vast distances, but remained genetically similar, suggesting that they moved rapidly. Within a few thousand years, they had established themselves in Central America, and just centuries after that had entered Patagonia.

"They made prehistory, those latter-day Asians who, by jumping continents became the first Americans. Theirs was a colonization the likes and scale of which… would never be repeated."

DAVID J MELTZER, *FIRST PEOPLES IN A NEW WORLD: COLONIZING ICE AGE AMERICA*, 2009

THE FIRST FARMERS

Working the land to grow food was an entirely new way of life for prehistoric humans. It turned them from nomads into farmers – and created settlements with permanent buildings, larger societies, and the potential to develop more elaborate technology and culture.
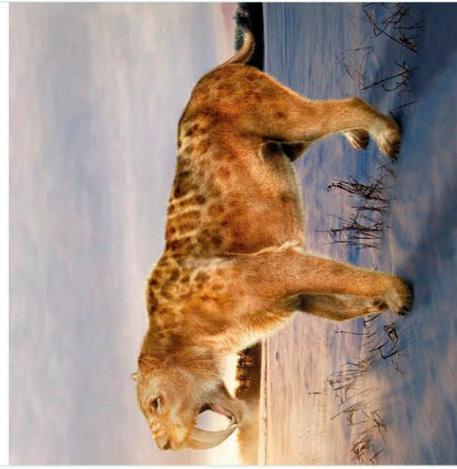
△ Innovative tools
Wooden tools called adzes had blades made from stone that were sufficiently strong to fell trees, open up land for pasture, or dig hard ground.

The earliest humans mostly lived in small nomadic bands and went wherever food was plentiful. They tracked the migrations of large animals as they hunted for meat, just as they followed the seasonal bounties of fruit and seeds. They built – and rebuilt – simple camps, carrying a few lightweight belongings with them.

This hunter-gatherer existence supported humans through the last ice age, but, about 12,000 years ago, a rise in Earth's temperature opened up a world of alternative possibilities. One species of human – *Homo sapiens* – successfully emerged into this warmer world. By this time, these modern humans had spread far beyond their African ancestral home into Asia, Australasia, and America. And independently, all over the world, they had begun creating permanent farming settlements.

Settling down

Permanent camps with stronger houses made sense in places where the land was especially fertile – such as on floodplains of rivers. Settlers could support more hungry mouths by hunting, fishing, and gathering plant food around a local foraging ground that was rich in resources. This was just a small step from farming as

▷ Early farming villages
This settlement at Mehrgarh in modern Pakistan dates from 7000 BCE. It had mud-brick houses and granaries to store surplus cultivated cereal.

it was more convenient to nurture or transplant food plants closer to home, or plant their seeds and tubers (some recent evidence suggests people had started to do this as early as 23,000 years ago) – while the most amenable wild animals were confined to pens. These first farms produced more food to feed more people, so settlements could grow bigger and even produce a surplus to help with leaner times. Valuable food stores – defended from competing camps – became another reason to stay in one place.

Domestication

By about 10,000 BCE, agriculture had emerged in Eurasia, New Guinea, and America, with farmers relying on local plants and animals as favoured sources of food. They learned that some species were more useful than others, and so these became staple parts of their diets.

In the fertile floodplains of Mesopotamia (modern Iraq), local wild wheat and barley became the cereals of choice, while goats and sheep provided meat. East Asia's main cereal was rice, and in Central America, farmers cultivated maize. In all cases, the first farmers selected the most manageable and high-yielding plants and animals. Over time and generations, their choices would change the traits of wild species, as crops and livestock passed on their characteristics to form the domesticated varieties we use today. With

SETTLED LIVING

As modern humans dispersed around the world, they relied on local plants and animals for sustenance. Nomadic societies gave way to settled communities as people planted the first crops or corralled the first livestock. Domestication of wild species began from about 12,000 years ago. The first farmers used the most edible species that were easiest to harvest, growing their food in abundance, providing enough to support larger populations, and ultimately out-competing hunter-gatherers.

11,000–9000 BCE Wheat and barley are grown in southwest Asia to produce non-shattering seed heads that are easier to harvest – the first domesticated cereals

10,000 BCE Lentils, peas, and chickpeas in Middle East provide an additional source of protein – improving the dietary balance along the Fertile Crescent

CROPS			
ANIMALS			

| 11,000 BCE | 10,000 BCE | 9000 BCE | 8000 BCE |

10,000 BCE In southwest Asia, local animals – including sheep, goats, pigs, and cattle – are domesticated and will become globally important livestock

10,000–5000 BCE Maize domesticated in Central America becomes the staple cereal in the Americas, while squash plants are selectively bred to reduce bitterness of their taste

◁ **Working the land**
A wooden model, from 2000 BCE, of a man ploughing the land with oxen, depicts the earliest kind of scratch plough, which cut a furrow through hard ground ready for sowing seeds.

domestication, settlements became increasingly reliant on the limited kinds of plants and animals that provided the bulk of their food. As a result, although food was plentiful it sometimes lacked dietary balance. More time was needed to work the land, and livestock could be lost during droughts. People's health was often poor, as crowded settlements encouraged the spread of infectious disease among humans as well as their livestock.

Ultimately, agriculture's success, or otherwise, was a trade-off between these risks and benefits. In some parts of the world – such as the Australian interior – conditions favoured more traditional nomadic lifestyles, and here humans largely remained hunter-gatherers. As farmers gained a better understanding of the needs of their crops and livestock, they developed ways of overcoming risks and increasing productivity. They learned how to use animal dung as fertilizer or to irrigate the land by diverting rivers – curtailing effects of seasonal drought. In Egypt, for example, the waters of the Nile were used for large-scale irrigation of farmland, helping to lengthen growing seasons.

Over time, food productivity became material wealth: more food not only fed more people but facilitated trade, too. At the same time, larger settlements could support people with different skills, such as craftsmen and merchants. It meant that the agricultural revolution would have far-reaching consequences for the history of humankind – including the emergence of industrial towns and cities.

> *"Farming was the precondition for the development of … civilizations in Egypt, Mesopotamia, the Indus Valley, China, the Americas, and Africa."*
>
> GRAEME BARKER, BRITISH ARCHAEOLOGIST, FROM *AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION IN PREHISTORY, 2006*

△ **Feral ancestor**
The Armenian mouflon from south-western Asia is the possible ancestor of the domesticated sheep, which was one of the earliest animal species to be tamed, at around 10,000 BCE.

7000 BCE Rice plants grown in the fertile Yangtze River valley in China are bred to provide larger, more nutritious grains

5000 BCE Potato plants are grown in Peru and northern Argentina – the ancestors of potatoes used as a staple today

4000 BCE Pearl millet is grown in the Sahel regions and – along with sorghum – becomes one of the staple cereals of Africa

3000 BCE Dromedary camels are domesticated in Africa and Arabia – and used for transport or for their meat and milk

2000 BCE Turkeys are domesticated in Mexico and used for meat and their feathers, and later have ceremonial significance

6000 BCE   5000 BCE   4000 BCE   3000 BCE   2000 BCE

7000 BCE Cattle domesticated in northern Africa, pre-dating the emergence of most crops on the African continent

5500 BCE Horses are domesticated in central Asia

5000 BCE Llama, alpaca, and guinea pig are domesticated in South America; llamas are used for meat, wool, and as beasts of burden

4000 BCE Chickens are used as food and for cock-fighting in southern Asia, although genetic evidence suggests a much earlier origin as a domesticated bird, possibly before 10000 BCE

ORIGINS OF AGRICULTURE

When hunter-gatherers abandoned their nomadic life and became the first farmers, they were doing more than feeding their families. They were kick-starting an agricultural revolution that would have enormous implications for the future of humanity.

Evidence for agriculture's origins comes from archaeology and from DNA of crops or livestock, and their wild counterparts. No-one knows exactly why people started to work the land. Perhaps they transplanted wild crops closer to home for convenience, or saw the potential of germinating seeds. Whatever happened, as climates warmed in the wake of the Ice Age and populations swelled, people around the world – entirely independently – became tied to farming. It brought a stable source of nourishment and sometimes, when yields were good, a surplus to sustain people through leaner times. Tending crops or corralling livestock demanded that communities stayed in one place long enough to reap the harvest. Other reasons for staying in one location would have been that the new farming tools were too heavy to carry from place to place and any food surplus had to be stored. While agrarian settlements grew to become the seeds of civilization, their communities spread, taking their skills, plants, and livestock with them.

"… Almost all of us are farmers or else are fed by farmers"

JARED DIAMOND, FROM *GUNS, GERMS, AND STEEL*, 1997

DOMESTICATION REVOLUTION
WILD SPECIES TO CROPS AND LIVESTOCK

The crops and livestock that humankind uses today descended from wild species that had rather different characteristics. Farmers chose to breed from individuals that served them best, such as by selecting ones that provided better yields or were more easily managed. This so-called artificial selection, applied over many generations and sometimes across centuries, gave rise to domesticated forms of plants and animals.

Teosinte (original wild plant)

Produce of artificial selection
Bigger cobs of domesticated maize (left) are descended from wild maize (right).

Modern maize cob

5 DIFFERENT KINDS OF CROPS AND LIVESTOCK: AMERICA 10,000–2000 BCE

Across the Old World, similar kinds of crops and livestock were being used in separate centres of agriculture. But the early colonizers of the Americas found entirely new plants, such as squashes and maize. The variety of these plants increased as people from different regions exchanged their produce. The only large animals suitable for domestication in the Americas, llamas and alpacas, were both found in the Andes.

- ◆ Archaeological site
- 🌾 Maize and millet
- Peanut
- 🍎 Squash and sunflower
- Squash and avocado
- Potato
- 🐂 Turkey
- Llama and alpaca
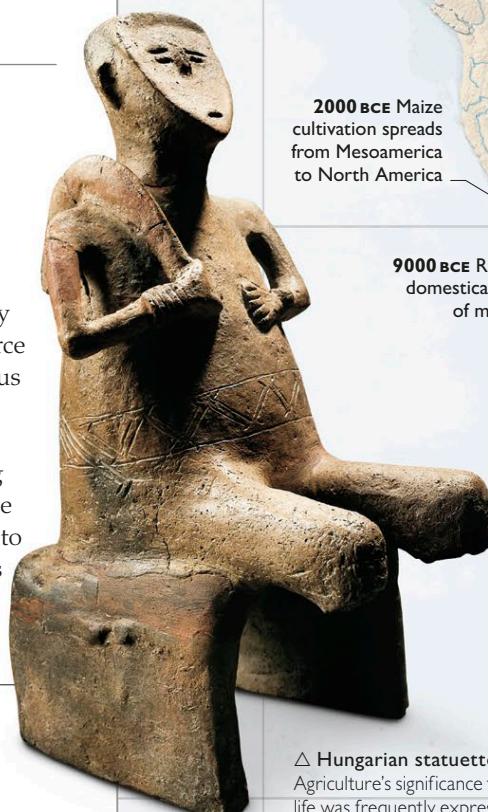
NORTH AMERICA

2000 BCE Maize cultivation spreads from Mesoamerica to North America

Mississippi Valley

5000 BCE Evidence of squash domestication

9000 BCE Rapid domestication of maize

Mesoamerica

2000 BCE Earliest domestication of turkeys by Mayans

Andes

6000 BCE Earliest domestication of llamas by Incas

SOUTH AMERICA

△ **Hungarian statuette**
Agriculture's significance to community life was frequently expressed in art, such as this 5th-millennium sickle-clasping idol, from central Europe.

ADVENT OF AGRICULTURE
Agriculture arose independently in different parts of the world, before diffusing into adjacent regions. Each area developed its own specific crops, dependent on the region's climate, and some produce went on to become globally important as communities expanded across the world.

KEY
- Main independent centres of domestication
- Secondary centres
- 🌾 Cereals
- Pulses
- 🍎 Fruits and vegetables
- 🐂 Livestock
- Tubers and roots

SIZE KEY
- 🌾 Globally important produce
- Mainly regional produce

TIMELINE

1				
2				
3				
4				
5				

12,000 BCE — 10,000 — 8000 — 6000 — 4000 — 2000

1 DOMESTICATION OF CROPS IN ASIA: CHINA
11,000–3000 BCE

Rice became the staple cereal crop in river valleys in China. Farmers chose the best glutinous rice grains to grow more plants, so rice grains got bigger. This human-driven change had already transformed wild wheat in Mesopotamia, where harvesting by sickles had, by chance, favoured non-shattering seed heads. But selection of rice grains in Asia probably happened through more conscious effort.

- ◆ Archaeological site
- 🌾 Millet and rice
- 🌾 Rice
- 🫘 Soybean
- 🟣 Mungbean
- 🍈 Melon
- 🐖 Pig, horse, chicken, duck
- 🐄 Cattle

7000 BCE Arrival of agriculture in Europe, with food-producing economy adopted in Greece

11,000 BCE Earliest evidence of plant domestication in the form of emmer and einkorn wheats

10,200 BCE Earliest evidence of pig domestication

10,000 BCE Earliest evidence of sheep and goat domestication

5500 BCE Earliest evidence of horse domestication, including use of harnesses

Yellow and Yangtze River Valleys

10,000 BCE Archaeological evidence of millet, the earliest known dry farming crop in Asia

5000 BCE Earliest known domestication of cattle in Africa

3100 BCE First major irrigation project under Egypt's First Dynasty diverts floodwater of the Nile

Fertile Crescent

Ganges River Valley

8000 BCE Origin of all domesticated Asian rice

10,500 BCE Modern cattle domesticated from a small founding herd containing possibly as few as 80 animals

West African Sahel

Sahel and Upper Nile Valley

5000 BCE Likely origin of domesticated oil palm

4500 BCE Evidence of pearl millet domestication; the earliest known cultivated crop in Africa

3500–3000 BCE Archaeological evidence of sorghum domestication

7000 BCE Possible early cultivation of rice in southern Asia

Before 10,000 BCE Wild junglefowl, ancestor of modern-day chickens, are domesticated

New Guinea Highlands

7000 BCE Archaeological evidence of banana and taro cultivation

1 MYA Evidence of first controlled use of fire by humans, at Wonderwerk Cave; possibly earliest barbeque

E U R O P E · A S I A · A F R I C A · AUSTRALIA

4 LIVESTOCK BEFORE CROPS: AFRICA
9000–2000 BCE

In some parts of the world, animals were domesticated before crops. In Africa, cattle were being used as early as 9000 BCE, but local cereals, such as millet and sorghum, were not domesticated until thousands of years after that. Agriculture began in the Sahara; due to increased rainfall after the Ice Age, the area was then covered by grasslands, lakes, and marshes. As the region dried, agriculture spread southwards.

- ◆ Archaeological site
- 🌾 Sorghum and millet
- 🌴 Oil palm and date palm
- 🐄 Cattle, donkey, and camel

3 EARLIEST EVIDENCE OF AGRICULTURE: MESOPOTAMIA   12,000–4000 BCE

It is no coincidence that some of the earliest crops were grown on the nutrient-rich floodplain between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers of modern-day Iraq. Here in ancient Mesopotamia (meaning "between rivers"), wheat was domesticated around 11,000 BCE. This region was part of a so-called "Fertile Crescent" that stretched westwards as far as the Levant and became key to the global agricultural revolution.

- ◆ Archaeological site
- 🌾 Wheat and barley
- 🫘 Lentil, pea, and chickpea
- 🍎 Olive
- 🐄 Sheep, goat, pig, and cattle

2 AGRICULTURE IN THE WET TROPICS: NEW GUINEA   10,000–4000 BCE

Covered with rainforest, the tropical island of New Guinea offered a completely different mix of food plants. Instead of cereals, people grew fruit and root crops – notably banana and taro, the latter of which has both edible roots and leaves and is still a local food staple. But farming here was only part of the local economy; the region remains today the only primary centre of agriculture that has not contributed domesticated species to the rest of the world.

- ◆ Archaeological site
- 🍌 Banana
- 🌿 Taro and yam

VILLAGES TO TOWNS

As nomadic hunter-gatherers began farming, for the first time in history human populations became anchored to fixed points on a map of civilization. Settlements grew in size and complexity; the first villages became the first towns.

Just as agriculture turned humans into a more sedentary species, so the settlements they made drove the attributes of modern human society: material accumulation, industry, and trade. This happened in places around the world, but nowhere is the evidence for it clearer than in southwest Asia. Here the first farmers produced enough food on fertile soils to support denser populations. Although life was labour-intensive, and there was a greater risk of disease from overcrowding and malnutrition, there were benefits of living together in one place over a long period. People could concentrate on producing a surplus and perfect skills to make their lives easier. Clay was baked into bricks for making stronger houses or fashioned into large storage vessels. As towns grew they were sometimes fortified with surrounding walls. Shells from the Mediterranean showed wide trade links developing, while copper gradually supplanted flint for better tools. As society itself divided into craftspeople, merchants, and their leaders, these first local industries brought material wealth that formed the basis of the first exchange economies.

> *"… it made sense for men to band together… for… management of the environment."*
>
> JM ROBERTS, FROM *HISTORY OF THE WORLD*, 1990

POTTERY IN THE STONE AGE
HARNESSING THE POTENTIAL OF CLAY

Fired clay had been used to make figurines and pots before 20,000 YA. It later became important in constructing dwellings. Wet clay was used to reinforce brushwood walls. Solid bricks gave protection from the elements and enemies, while creative clay technology was used to fashion more decorative pots.

Halaf vase
Mesopotamian pottery was decorated with geometric designs as early as 6000 BCE.

EMERGENCE OF SETTLEMENTS

The chronology of settlement in southwest Asia followed an arc from the earliest camps in the west to the foundations of would-be cities in the east. Within 8,000 years – right across the region – agrarian villages were becoming industrial towns.

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4

15,000 BCE   10,000 BCE   5000 BCE   1 CE

7400–5200 BCE Early proto-urban settlement develops new burial traditions beneath houses

4900 BCE Sophisticated use of copper, including mace-heads and jewellery

Anatolia

Çatal Höyük

Hacilar

Canhasan

Taurus Mountains

6000 BCE After a period of abandonment, village is reoccupied by a culture with advanced pottery

6000 BCE Small fortified town with a surrounding wall

Ugarit

CYPRUS

9000 BCE A town with two-storey, round, stone houses

Khirokitia

Mediterranean Sea

Byblos

From 8000 BCE One of the oldest continuously inhabited towns in the world

7200–6500 BCE People cultivate cereals, and herd goats, while hunting animals and gathering nuts

Levant

Jordan

From 10,000 BCE Camping ground for Natufian hunter-gatherers grows into one of the world's oldest cities

Jericho

Beidha

Ain Ghazal

Nile Delta

10,300–9550 BCE Settlement consisting of farms supporting thousands of people produces lime-plaster statues representing the human form

Sinai

EGYPT

Nile

Black Sea

1 TRANSITION FROM NOMADS TO SETTLEMENTS 12,500–9000 BCE

The Natufian people, descended from nomads of the Levant and Sinai, made the earliest settlements in southwest Asia, from about 12,500 BCE. At first these were probably nothing more than seasonal hunting camps, although evidence for these is scant because nomads had few material possessions. Their descendants stockpiled food that demanded permanent storage.

■ Spread of settlements

◆ Archaeological site

2 FIRST AGRARIAN SETTLEMENTS 11,000–6000 BCE

Farmers emerged from early settlers who exploited wild cereals, such as rye, which was cultivated as early as 11,050 BCE. At first, settlers rallied together to protect wild food plants from grazing animals, but, over time, plants were moved or seeds sown closer to home. Houses became more permanent, as mud brick replaced perishable brushwood as building material.

■ Spread of settlements

◆ Archaeological site

3 SPREAD OF MATERIAL CULTURE 7000–4000 BCE

More food supported bigger settlements, as villages proliferated over a wider region, from Anatolia in the west to the Zagros Mountains in the east. Çatal Höyük, a rich archaeological site, might have supported up to 10,000 people. Although it lacked social hierarchy, it had a thriving industry in pottery and obsidian tools, and may have traded for seashells and flints from Syria.

■ Spread of settlements

◆ Archaeological site

4 GROWTH OF URBAN LIFE 6000–3000 BCE

The Ubaid people were the first to colonize southeastern Mesopotamia as the Stone Age gave way to the Copper Age. They used copper to make tools, were led by hereditary chieftains, and may even have had a primitive democracy. Ubaid settlements merged to form bigger communities – notably Uruk, which would become one of the first true cities and a hub of major trade networks.

■ Spread of settlements

◆ Archaeological site

Caspian Sea

From 9500 BCE Settlement is reoccupied after a period of abandonment and thrives as a village that domesticates cereals and sheep

9130–7370 BCE Oldest known temple, built by people who probably guarded plant resources but had not started farming

5500–4000 BCE Becomes western outpost of Ubaid culture

5000–1500 BCE Town includes one of the earliest known temples featuring pilasters and recesses

7090–4950 BCE Settlement engages in organized trade of obsidian and shells with distant places

Lake Van

Lake Urmia

Gobekli Tepe

6500–2600 BCE Becomes gateway to Tigris Valley and develops into one of the first cities

Tell Brak

Tell Zeidan

Tepe Gawra

6000 BCE Appears as specialized artisan village, producing fine pottery

Tell Halaf

6100–5400 BCE Town that gives its name to the Halaf Culture, known for pottery with geometric or animal designs

Mureybat

From 11,500 BCE Founded by people of Natufian culture

Tell Abu Hureyra

From 10,200 BCE Small village of Natufian culture hunter-gatherers

6000 BCE Trade hub, which also improves its own agriculture through irrigation

6000–1500 BCE Settlement produces monochromatic pottery

Jarmo

Tell Arpachiyah

Tell Hassuna

Tepe Giyan

Tepe Guran

6400–6200 BCE Small village based on dry-farming, herding, and hunting

Baghouz

SYRIA

6000 BCE Town occupied by Samarra culture, known for finely-made pottery

Tell es Sawwan

Choga Mami

Ali Kosh

7500 BCE Settlement with domestication of animals, such as goats

Mesopotamia

6000 BCE First known use of canal irrigation

Iranian Plateau

Tigris

Syrian Desert

Tepe Sabz

6000 BCE Village with agriculture

5000 BCE Settlement uses stone and flint tools and irrigation from the Tigris

Euphrates

Nippur

Zagros Mountains

◁ **Ain Ghazal statue**
Bigger settlements nurtured more complex belief systems. Lime-plaster human figures, buried beneath floors, are possible evidence of early ancestor worship.

5000 BCE An important religious centre

Uruk

Eridu

Tell el 'Ubaid

Arabian Peninsula

2900 BCE City becomes the largest in the world at the time

5200–3500 BCE Settlement that gives its name to the Ubaid culture develops use of copper-based technology

From 5400 BCE Develops into one of the biggest settlements of the Ubaid culture; possibly the world's first city

Persian Gulf

THE
ANCIENT
WORLD

ANCIENT HISTORY STRETCHES FROM WHEN THE FIRST CITIES
DEVELOPED AROUND 3000 BCE TO THE FALL OF POWERS SUCH AS
THE ROMAN EMPIRE AND HAN CHINA IN THE FIRST CENTURIES CE.

THE FIRST CIVILIZATIONS

Fertile soil, warm climate, and an ample supply of water, along with agriculture and a stone-working technology, allowed the first urban civilizations to develop. The earliest is thought to have flourished in Mesopotamia (modern-day Iraq) around 3500 BCE.

Of all the factors that helped civilizations grow, water was perhaps the most important. The earliest known civilization was born in Sumer, in southern Mesopotamia, in the fertile region between the rivers Tigris and Euphrates. The Sumerians were drawn to the area they settled in because of the abundance of fresh water the rivers provided.

A thriving trading centre of the Sumerian civilization, Uruk is generally considered to be the world's first city. It boasted 6 miles of defensive walls and a population that numbered between 40,000 and 80,000 at the height of its glory in 2800 BCE. Other Sumerian city-states that contributed significantly to the civilization included Eridu, Ur, Nippur, Lagash, and Kish. Probably the most important Sumerian invention was the wheel, followed by the development of cuneiform writing.

The first pyramids

Just as the Sumerians depended on the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, the Egyptian civilization could not have come into existence without the Nile. The water from the Nile flooded the plains for 6 months annually, leaving behind a nutrient-rich layer of thick, black silt. This meant that the early Egyptians could cultivate crops, including grains, and fruit and vegetables.

> *"This is the wall of Uruk, which no city on Earth can equal."*
>
> *EPIC OF GILGAMESH, c. 2000 BCE*

△ **Ram in the thicket**
A fine example of Sumerian craftsmanship, this elaborately worked statuette of a wild goat searching for food comes from the city-state of Ur in ancient Mesopotamia.

△ **Architectural wonder**
Giza's pyramids were the tombs of three Old Kingdom pharaohs. From left to right, the three large pyramids seen here are the tombs of Menkaure, Khafre, and Khufu.

In around 3400 BCE, two Egyptian kingdoms flourished – Upper Egypt in the Nile valley and Lower Egypt to the north. Some 300 years later, King Narmer unified the two kingdoms, establishing Memphis as the capital of united Egypt. It was near Memphis, at Saqqara, that the Egyptians built their first pyramid in around 2611 BCE. The step pyramid was designed by Imhotep – one of King Djoser's most trusted advisors – as a tomb to house the corpse of his royal master. More than 130 pyramids followed. The most significant of these was the Great Pyramid, constructed at Giza for Khufu, who reigned from 2589 to 2566 BCE. Two more pyramids were erected on the same site for the pharaohs Khafre and Menkaure, Khufu's successors. Although completely unrelated, pyramid-shaped

ANCIENT CIVILIZATIONS

City-based civilization is thought to have originated in Mesopotamia (the area between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris), followed by Egypt's Nile Valley. Civilizations grew independently in the fertile basins of the Yellow River in China and the Indus Valley in today's Pakistan and India. In each case, a great river created the conditions for intensive, efficient agriculture. Early cities also grew in Peru, for reasons not yet fully understood. In Europe, the Minoans built highly developed urban settlements centered on grand palaces.

3500 BCE The wheel is invented

3100 BCE The earliest form of cuneiform script is used

c.3000 BCE First signs of urbanization appear

MESOPOTAMIA

EGYPT

INDUS VALLEY

CHINA

MINOANS

3500 BCE | 3250 BCE | 3000 BCE | 2750 BCE

3500–3000 BCE City-states such as Uruk and Ur develop

3100 BCE King Narmer unites Upper and Lower Egypt; the hieroglyphic script develops

c.2600 BCE The cities of Mohenjo Daro and Harappa are founded

▷ **Ritual vessel**
This Chinese bronze food bowl, or *gui*, was probably made between 1300 and 1050 BCE. It was used in Shang religious rituals.

structures were also constructed in what is now Peru by the Norte Chico civilization, builders of the first cities in Americas, at some time before 3000 BCE.

Civilizations of the east

Rivers played an equally important part in the development of civilizations in the Indus Valley (in the northwestern part of south Asia) and northern China. The Indus Valley people are known today as Harappans after Harappa – one of their greatest cities, along with Mohenjo Daro. The Harappans prospered from 3300 to 1900 BCE. Until recently, the Harappans were thought to have been overrun by Aryan invaders from the north, but a more modern theory suggests that tectonic shifts that affected the rivers on which they relied were the cause of the Indus Valley collapse. Yet another theory suggests that the drying up of local rivers led to the culture's decline.

A Chinese civilization flourished along the Huang He, or Yellow River, in the north. As with the Egyptian and Harappan civilizations, here, too, seasonal floods enriched the soil. This encouraged the development of farming, while the river itself provided a useful trade route. By 2000 BCE, bronze-working, silk-weaving, and pottery were being practised.

The mysterious Minoans

Around the same time that the Chinese civilization was developing, another influential civilization was emerging on the Mediterranean island of Crete. Its people are known as the Minoans, so named by the British archaeologist Sir Arthur Evans to honour Minos, a legendary ruler who may or may not have existed. The Minoans were a great maritime trading power, exporting timber, pottery, and textiles. Trade brought wealth, and they built many palaces – Knossos being the most impressive. The Minoan civilization declined in the late 15th century BCE. Some historians attribute this to a volcanic explosion on the island of Thera (modern-day Santorini), while others argue that it was the result of an invasion by the Mycenaeans from mainland Greece.

▽ **Artistic expression**
This colourful fresco, depicting a Minoan funeral ritual honouring a dead nobleman, decorates a sarcophagus dating from the 14th century BCE.
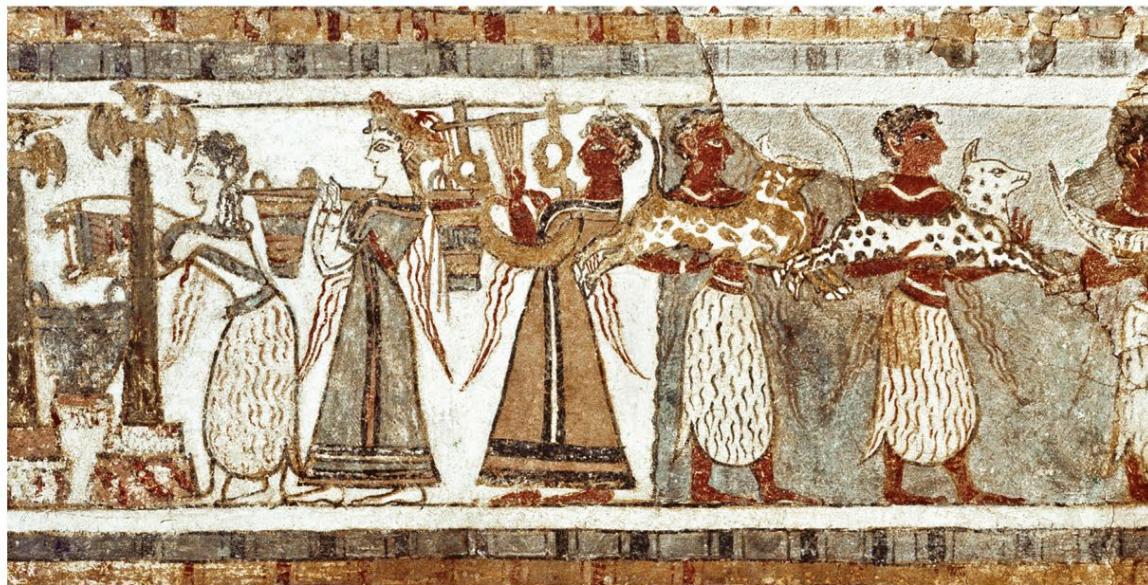
c.2500 BCE Earliest use of the Indus script is seen

2000 BCE Bronze casting is practised by the Erlitou culture on the Yellow River

1700 BCE The Hyksos take control of the Nile delta, ending Egypt's Middle Kingdom

c.1646 BCE A massive volcanic explosion occurs at Thera

1500 BCE The Aryans infiltrate the Indus Valley from the north

1200 BCE Chinese writing is used for the first time

| 2500 BCE | 2250 BCE | 2000 BCE | 1750 BCE | 1500 BCE | 1250 BCE |

2350 BCE King Sargon of Akkad unites Sumerian cities to create the world's first empire

2000–1450 BCE The Minoan civilization spreads from Crete through the Aegean

1900 BCE Construction of the temple of Karnak, at Thebes in Egypt, begins

1800 BCE Climate change begins to affect the Indus Valley civilization

1600 BCE The Battle of Mingtiao takes place, and the Shang dynasty is established

1 PRE-DYNASTIC EGYPT 4000 BCE–3050 BCE

From 4000 BCE, Egyptian cities such as Heliopolis, Memphis, and Abydos grew into key trading centres, importing metals and building stones from Nubia. They also traded with Mesopotamian cities, acquiring valuable materials such as lapis lazuli, which has its origin in the Indus Valley. By 3500 BCE, Nekhen (later named Hierakonpolis) was already a large city with Egypt's oldest known temples, housing royal tombs.

🔔 Old royal tombs

2 TRADE IN MESOPOTAMIA 4000–2500 BCE

By 4000 BCE, many city-states had emerged in Mesopotamia. Cities such as Kish, Uruk, and Ur traded local goods to the Mediterranean and also formed trade links with the Indus region – a source of luxury goods such as carnelian beads and lapis lazuli. Religion played a key societal role. Temples redistributed surplus food and craft products – offered in the name of gods – as rations, or traded them for raw materials.

⛩ Major temples

c. 3000 BCE Trade routes are established across the Iranian Plateau linking Mesopotamia with the Indus Valley

c. 3000 BCE Eshnunna holds a strategic position, controlling trade between Mesopotamia and the northeastern region

c. 2700 BCE Uruk's population reaches about 50,000

c. 3100 BCE Hierakonpolis is the most likely capital after Lower and Upper Egypt are unified under King Narmer

c. 2040 BCE Ziggurat of Ur is built by King Ur-Nammu (r. 2047–2030 BCE)

c. 2000 BCE Egyptian cities trade with Nubia, importing luxury goods such as gold, copper, ebony, and incense

TRADE AND THE FIRST CITIES

The first cities emerged from 4000 BCE along river valleys where high agricultural productivity was possible. Archaeological findings reveal the extent to which these cities traded with one another.

KEY

- 🟩 Egypt
- 🟨 Mesopotamia
- 🟧 Indus Valley
- ⬜ Trading area
- ○ Trading city
- ▪▪ Trade route
- ◆ Archaeological site of traded goods

TIMELINE

	4000 BCE	3000	2000	1000
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				

△ **King Sargon**
Unearthed from the ancient ruins of Nineveh, this bronze head sculpture is thought to be of King Sargon of Akkad.

Map labels: Black Sea, Caucasus, GREECE, Anatolia, Kizil Irmak, Caspian Sea, Araks, Lake Van, Lake Urmia, Shah Tepe, Tepe Hissar, Kültepe, Hasanlu, Marlik, Tarsus, Habuba Kabira, Tell Brak, Nineveh, MESOPOTAMIA, Nuzi, Godin Tepe, Iranian Plateau, Ebla, Syrian Desert, Mari, Ashur, Kermanshah, Hamadan, Tepe Giyan, Sialk, Cyprus, Khafajah, Eshnunna, Tell as-Suleimeh (Awal), Byblos, Sippar, Tell Ajrab, Kalleh Nisar, Shahdad, Kish, Nippur, Susa, LEVANT, Shuruppak, Adab, Umma, Girsu, Anshan, Uruk, Lagash, Mediterranean Sea, Eridu, Failaka, Ur, Tall-i Qaleh, Crete, Heliopolis, Memphis, Saqqara, Tepe Yahya, Sinai, Zagros Mountains, EGYPT, Tarut, Persian Gulf, Abydos, Naqada, El Kab, Hierakonpolis, Edfu, Nile, Dilmun, Umm an Nar, Ajman, Hili, Elephantine, Red Sea, Arabian Peninsula, Hafit, Sahara, AFRICA, NUBIA

3 AKKADIAN EMPIRE 2300–2200 BCE

As the Mesopotamian cities continued to flourish, powerful leaders sought control over the region. The first was Sargon (*c.* 2296–2240 BCE). As a young man, Sargon served the king of Kish, but later rebelled and overthrew the Sumerian ruler. He renamed the city-state Akkad and built it into a military power, before conquering the cities of southern Mesopotamia and lands to the northwest as far as Byblos.

■ Sumer   ■ Akkadian Empire

c. **2000 BCE** With its lapis lazuli mines, Shortughai becomes a key trading colony of the Indus civilization

c. **2600 BCE** Construction of the city of Mohenjo-Daro reflects sophisticated civil engineering and urban planning

c. **3000 BCE** Lothal bead-makers develop advanced methods to work with carnelian

Amu Darya — Hindu Kush Range — Shortughai

A S I A

Himalayas

Indus Valley

Harappa
Kalibangan
Mundigak
Ganweriwala
Shahr-i Sokhta
Mohenjo-Daro
Thar Desert
Arawalli Hills
Chanhu-Daro
Bampur
Dasht
Dholavira
Lothal
INDIA
Rann of Kutch
Rojadi

Arabian Sea

4 CITIES OF THE INDUS 2600–1500 BCE

Ruins of cities such as Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro show planned street layouts and sophisticated water supply and draining systems. These cities produced fine metalwork and developed new techniques in handicraft. From around 2500 BCE, they traded widely, despatching their goods with seals carved with inscriptions. These branding objects have been found throughout Mesopotamia, revealing how widely the Indus people traded.

▤ Indus inscriptions   ▮ Chlorite vessels

5 CARNELIAN TRADE 2350–1800 BCE

A precious stone known as carnelian was valued second to lapis lazuli both in Mesopotamian and in Harappan society. Carnelian was sourced in and around the Indus Valley and was mostly crafted into beads and amulets. From around 2350 BCE, Indus Valley merchants who traded in carnelian jewellery established links with Mesopotamian cities.

✦ Archaeological site of carnelian beads

THE FIRST CITIES

The first known cities developed along fertile river plains in Mesopotamia (modern Iraq), Egypt, and the Indus Valley. They became thriving trading centres with an organized social structure, and flourished in the fields of art, craft, and architecture.

By 3000 BCE, agricultural advances led to food surpluses in some parts of the world, namely the river valleys of the Nile in Egypt, the Indus, and the Tigris and Euphrates in Mesopotamia, allowing the communities living in these regions to branch out into a range of craftwork – from metalworking to masonry. This gave rise to the first markets, which channelled wealth into these sites, and in doing so

"The Mesopotamians viewed their city-states as earthly copies of a divine model and order."

J. SPIELVOGEL, FROM *WESTERN CIVILIZATION* VOL. I, 2014

formed the nucleus of the world's first cities. These urban centres mostly grew on the riverbanks, in close proximity to fertile farmland and sources of clay for brick-making. The rivers served as vital routes for transporting raw material such as timber, precious stones, and metals into the cities. Trade goods also moved over land, in particular across the Levant and the Iranian Plateau, linking the cities of all three regions. Most notably, carnelian beads and seals (branding marks on documents accompanying goods) from the Indus valley have been found widely in Mesopotamia. Many Mesopotamian cities grew into powerful city-states, some of which eventually became the capitals of some of the earliest known empires.

STANDARD OF UR
MESOPOTAMIAN ARTEFACT, 2600–2400 BCE

Excavated from the royal tombs of Ur in the 1920s, the Standard of Ur is a tapered box decorated with scenes. The original purpose of the artefact remains a mystery, but the images on the two side panels, dubbed the "War Side" and the "Peace Side", form a narrative that offers a vivid insight into the different aspects of life in the ancient city. The scenes also include the earliest known image of wheels used for transport.

EGYPT OF THE PHARAOHS

Egypt was among the most enduring civilizations in the ancient world. With its succession of powerful rulers, unique religion and art, and trading networks, the culture exerted its influence in the Nile Valley and beyond for more than 3,000 years.

From c. 2700 to 1085 BCE, Egypt's kings, or pharaohs, ruled the Nile Valley for three long, separate periods, named by historians the Old, Middle, and New Kingdoms.

Egypt's ancient civilization grew along the banks of the River Nile, which was the main artery for travel and trade. The river was also rich in fish and flooded annually, covering the banks with fertile mud, making for a highly productive agricultural region. While Egypt's pharaohs ruled over this riverside zone, their influence spread much further afield, mainly through land and sea trading expeditions, which became more widespread in the Middle and New Kingdom eras. The Egyptians developed their own system of writing, and the pharaohs bolstered their wealth by employing scribes to record goods traded and to ensure tax was collected.

The Egyptian people worshipped multiple gods and also regarded the pharaohs as deities, which lent spiritual weight to the ruling power. The strength of the pharaohs' authority is evident in the impressive burial sites built during the ancient era, including the pyramids of the Old Kingdom and the colossal temples and tombs of the later kingdoms.

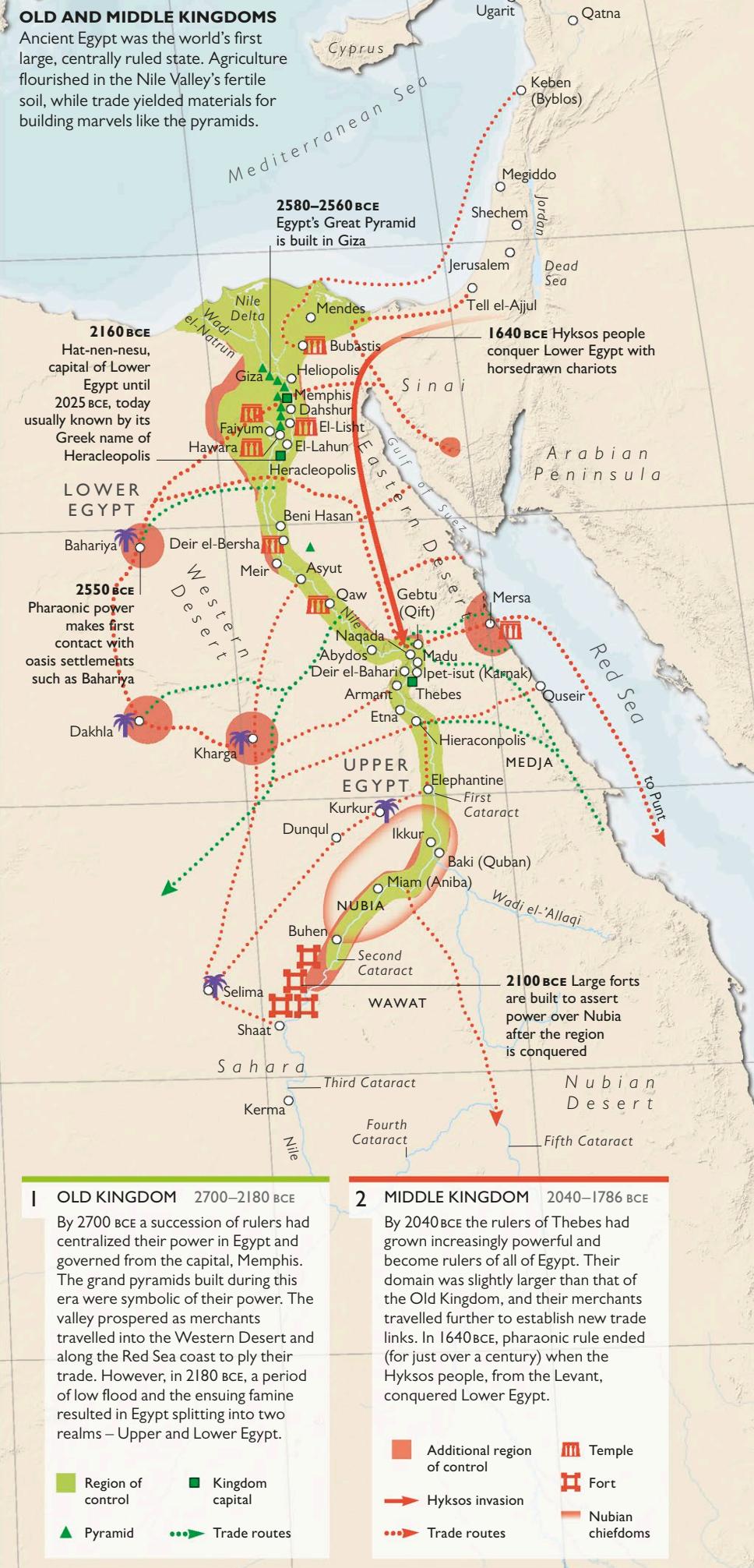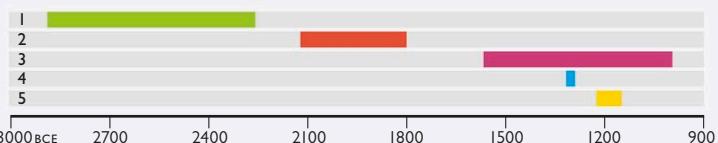*"The All-Lord himself made me great. He gave to me the land while I was in the egg."*
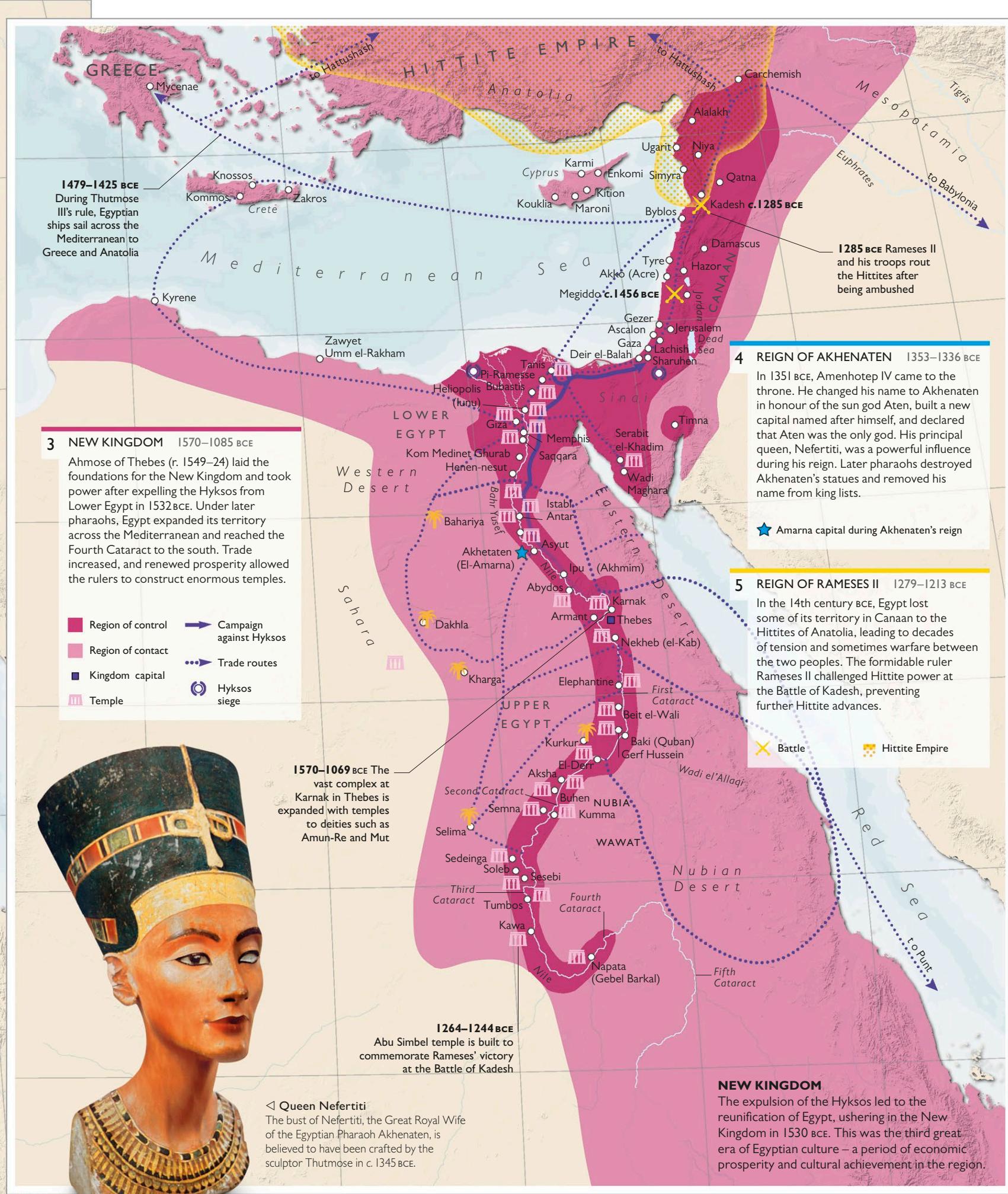
RAMESES II, PHARAOH OF THE NEW KINGDOM, 1279–1213 BCE

REGION UNDER EGYPTIAN CONTROL
The maps show the boundaries of the Old, Middle, and New Kingdoms of Ancient Egypt, and include the trade routes that linked the sites of oases, cities, the great temples, forts, and pyramids.

KEY
🌴 🌴 Oasis

TIMELINE

1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
3000 BCE	2700	2400	2100	1800	1500	1200	900

OLD AND MIDDLE KINGDOMS
Ancient Egypt was the world's first large, centrally ruled state. Agriculture flourished in the Nile Valley's fertile soil, while trade yielded materials for building marvels like the pyramids.

2580–2560 BCE Egypt's Great Pyramid is built in Giza

2160 BCE Hat-nen-nesu, capital of Lower Egypt until 2025 BCE, today usually known by its Greek name of Heracleopolis

1640 BCE Hyksos people conquer Lower Egypt with horsedrawn chariots

2550 BCE Pharaonic power makes first contact with oasis settlements such as Bahariya

2100 BCE Large forts are built to assert power over Nubia after the region is conquered

Map labels: Cyprus, Ugarit, Qatna, Mediterranean Sea, Keben (Byblos), Megiddo, Shechem, Jordan, Jerusalem, Dead Sea, Tell el-Ajjul, Nile Delta, Mendes, Bubastis, Heliopolis, Sinai, Giza, Memphis, Dahshur, El-Lisht, Fajyum, El-Lahun, Hawara, Heracleopolis, LOWER EGYPT, Beni Hasan, Gulf of Suez, Arabian Peninsula, Bahariya, Deir el-Bersha, Meir, Asyut, Eastern Desert, Wadi el-Natrun, Western Desert, Qaw, Gebtu (Qift), Mersa, Naqada, Abydos, Madu, Deir el-Bahari, Ipet-isut (Karnak), Quseir, Armant, Thebes, Dakhla, Etna, Red Sea, Kharga, Hieraconpolis, UPPER EGYPT, MEDJA, Elephantine, First Cataract, Kurkur, Dunqul, Ikkur, Baki (Quban), Miam (Aniba), Wadi el-'Allaqi, NUBIA, Buhen, Second Cataract, to Punt, Selima, WAWAT, Shaat, Sahara, Third Cataract, Nubian Desert, Kerma, Fourth Cataract, Fifth Cataract, Nile

1 OLD KINGDOM   2700–2180 BCE
By 2700 BCE a succession of rulers had centralized their power in Egypt and governed from the capital, Memphis. The grand pyramids built during this era were symbolic of their power. The valley prospered as merchants travelled into the Western Desert and along the Red Sea coast to ply their trade. However, in 2180 BCE, a period of low flood and the ensuing famine resulted in Egypt splitting into two realms – Upper and Lower Egypt.

- 🟩 Region of control
- 🟩 Kingdom capital
- 🔺 Pyramid
- ●●●► Trade routes

2 MIDDLE KINGDOM   2040–1786 BCE
By 2040 BCE the rulers of Thebes had grown increasingly powerful and become rulers of all of Egypt. Their domain was slightly larger than that of the Old Kingdom, and their merchants travelled further to establish new trade links. In 1640 BCE, pharaonic rule ended (for just over a century) when the Hyksos people, from the Levant, conquered Lower Egypt.

- 🟧 Additional region of control
- ➡ Hyksos invasion
- ●●●► Trade routes
- 🏛 Temple
- ⛫ Fort
- 🟧 Nubian chiefdoms

HITTITE EMPIRE

Anatolia

GREECE

Mycenae

to Hattushash

to Hattushash

Carchemish

Alalakh

Ugarit   Niya

Cyprus   Karmi

Enkomi Simyra   Qatna

Kition

Kouklia   Maroni

Byblos   Kadesh **c.1285 BCE**

1479–1425 BCE
During Thutmose III's rule, Egyptian ships sail across the Mediterranean to Greece and Anatolia

Knossos

Kommos   Zakros

Crete

1285 BCE Rameses II and his troops rout the Hittites after being ambushed

Damascus

M e d i t e r r a n e a n   S e a

Tyre   Hazor

Akko (Acre)

Kyrene

Megiddo **c.1456 BCE**

Dead Sea

Gezer

Ascalon   Jerusalem

Zawyet
Umm el-Rakham   Gaza

Deir el-Balah   Lachish

Sharuhen

Tanis

Pi-Ramesse   *Sinai*

Heliopolis   Bubastis

(Iunu)

**LOWER
EGYPT**

Giza

Memphis   Serabit
el-Khadim

Timna

Kom Medinet Ghurab   Saqqara

Henen-nesut

Wadi
Maghara

*W e s t e r n
D e s e r t*

Istabl
Antar

Bahariya

Bahr Yusef

Asyut

Akhetaten
(El-Amarna)

Ipu   (Akhmim)

Abydos

Eastern Desert

S a h a r a

Karnak

Dakhla   Armant   Thebes

Nekheb (el-Kab)

Kharga

Elephantine   *First
Cataract*

**UPPER
EGYPT**

Beit el-Wali

Kurkur   Baki (Quban)
Gerf Hussein

El-Derr

Aksha

Second Cataract   Buhen

Semna   Kumma

NUBIA

Selima   **WAWAT**

Sedeinga

Soleb   *N u b i a n
D e s e r t*

Sesebi

*Third
Cataract*   Tumbos   *Fourth
Cataract*

Kawa

Napata
(Gebel Barkal)   *Fifth
Cataract*

Nile

M e s o p o t a m i a

Tigris

Euphrates

to Babylonia

Jordan   **C A N A A N**

*Red
Sea*

Wadi el'Allaqi

to Punt

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3   NEW KINGDOM   1570–1085 BCE

Ahmose of Thebes (r. 1549–24) laid the foundations for the New Kingdom and took power after expelling the Hyksos from Lower Egypt in 1532 BCE. Under later pharaohs, Egypt expanded its territory across the Mediterranean and reached the Fourth Cataract to the south. Trade increased, and renewed prosperity allowed the rulers to construct enormous temples.

	Region of control	→	Campaign against Hyksos
	Region of contact	···▶	Trade routes
■	Kingdom capital	◉	Hyksos siege
🏛	Temple		

1570–1069 BCE The vast complex at Karnak in Thebes is expanded with temples to deities such as Amun-Re and Mut

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4   REIGN OF AKHENATEN   1353–1336 BCE

In 1351 BCE, Amenhotep IV came to the throne. He changed his name to Akhenaten in honour of the sun god Aten, built a new capital named after himself, and declared that Aten was the only god. His principal queen, Nefertiti, was a powerful influence during his reign. Later pharaohs destroyed Akhenaten's statues and removed his name from king lists.

★ Amarna capital during Akhenaten's reign

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5   REIGN OF RAMESES II   1279–1213 BCE

In the 14th century BCE, Egypt lost some of its territory in Canaan to the Hittites of Anatolia, leading to decades of tension and sometimes warfare between the two peoples. The formidable ruler Rameses II challenged Hittite power at the Battle of Kadesh, preventing further Hittite advances.

✕ Battle   ▦ Hittite Empire

1264–1244 BCE
Abu Simbel temple is built to commemorate Rameses' victory at the Battle of Kadesh

---

◁ Queen Nefertiti
The bust of Nefertiti, the Great Royal Wife of the Egyptian Pharaoh Akhenaten, is believed to have been crafted by the sculptor Thutmose in *c.* 1345 BCE.

NEW KINGDOM
The expulsion of the Hyksos led to the reunification of Egypt, ushering in the New Kingdom in 1530 BCE. This was the third great era of Egyptian culture – a period of economic prosperity and cultural achievement in the region.

200 BCE–9 CE The Romans take their alphabet with them as they conquer western Europe

3 THE FIRST ALPHABETS 1500–1050 BCE

The earliest alphabet – a system of symbols denoting all language sounds, both consonants and vowels – can be traced to c. 1500 BCE, as what is known as Proto-Canaanite or Proto-Sinaitic. Some experts suspect it developed from a subset of Egyptian hieroglyphs. The people who used it passed the idea on to the Phoenicians, who had developed it into their own alphabet by 1050 BCE. Being maritime traders, they took their alphabet around the Mediterranean.

■ Proto-Canaanite and Phoenician alphabets

4 WESTERN ALPHABETS 1050 BCE–250 CE

The peoples who traded with the Phoenicians, such as the Greeks and Etruscans, adapted the Phoenician alphabet for their own languages. The Roman alphabet, now used all over the world, derives from the script of the Etruscans. Exactly how the alphabet reached northern Europe, where it might have triggered the development of runic alphabets, remains unknown.

→ Spread of alphabets
■ Runic alphabets
■ Phoenician-influenced alphabet

DENMARK

BRITAIN

200–300 CE Runes – alphabetic scripts made up of straight lines – develop in northern Germany and Scandinavia

1600 BCE The earliest known writing in Greek is in the "Linear B" script of the Myceneans

EUROPE

GAUL

ASIA

1050 BCE The Phoenician alphabet contains 22 symbols denoting only consonants – these three are equivalent to the Roman "B", "H", and "S"

Massalia

Rome
ITALY

GREECE

Mycenae
Troy

Hattushash
LUWIA

Mesopotamia

3400 BCE Pictographs in Sumer (southern Mesopotamia) represent the earliest known writing

250 BCE Brahmi script (possibly influenced by syllabic or alphabetic scripts from the West) is used in India

Gades

Syracuse

Crete

Ugarit

Susa
Uruk

Persepolis

Harappa

Indus Valley

Ganges

700 BCE The Etruscans of northern Italy, borrowing from the Phoenicians and Greeks, develop their own alphabetic script

Mediterranean Sea

Mohenjo-Daro

Pataliputra

1750 BCE The Minoans of Crete write in their own version of hieroglyphs, but also use an as-yet-undeciphered script called Linear A

Memphis

Arabia

1700–1500 BCE Proto-Canaanite, the earliest known alphabet, is thought to have travelled from the Nile Delta or Sinai Peninsula to the Levant

EGYPT

Sahara

200 CE Arabic script develops in the early centuries CE, and may have evolved from the script of the Nabateans, who built the city of Petra in what is now Jordan

INDIA

2 EGYPTIAN HIEROGLYPHS 3200 BCE–400 CE

The Egyptians developed their hieroglyphs towards the end of the 4th millennium BCE. Hieroglyphs are pictorial symbols representing ideas, syllables, or sounds. People used them mainly for carved temple inscriptions. Hieroglyphs fell out of use after the temples to the Egyptian gods closed in the 4th century CE, but this was not before the idea of hieroglyphic writing seems to have passed to Crete and Anatolia.

■ Egyptian hieroglyphs
→ Spread of hieroglyphs

2050 BCE By the Middle Kingdom of Egypt, some hieroglyphs have come to denote sounds, such as "m" (owl), "b" (lower leg), and "aa" (forearm)

Nile

SABA'

2600–1800 BCE The origin and subsequent disppearance of the Indus Valley script are both mysteries, and its intricate symbols are not yet understood

ETHIOPIA

AFRICA

900 BCE Alphabetic writing spreads south to become the ancient South Arabian script, centuries before Arabic took over

1 PICTOGRAPHS TO CUNEIFORM 3400 BCE–100 CE

Writing was first devised in Sumer. Sumerian scribes first used pictographs (picture-like symbols), but simplified these into wedge-shaped marks. These marks give the technique its name, which comes from the Latin *cuneus* – a wedge. From Sumerian cities such as Uruk, cuneiform spread across Mesopotamia, and peoples from the Hittites in Turkey to the Persians in Iran used it to write their languages.

600 BCE–100 CE Ancient Ethiopic (Ge'ez) evolves as an offshoot of South Arabian

▷ **Never to be forgotten**
Hieroglyphs were painstaking to write and were not used for everyday purposes. They were used for inscriptions intended to last forever – and these, on the tomb of Nefertari, queen of pharaoh Rameses II, appear new after more than 3,250 years.

Cuneiform tablet

■ Sumerian cuneiform
→ Spread of cuneiform

OLD WORLD ORIGINS

Writing was invented independently in at least two places in the Old World – Mesopotamia and China. Egyptian and Indus Valley writing may represent another two instances of separate invention, or writing might have spread there from Mesopotamia.

TIMELINE

| | 4000 BCE | 3000 BCE | 2000 BCE | 1000 BCE | 1 CE | 1000 CE |

1200 BCE The earliest known Chinese writing is inscribed on "oracle bones" by fortune tellers

1–500 CE Korean scribes try different methods of adapting Chinese characters to write their language

Yellow River

KOREA

JAPAN

Anyang

CHINA

Nara

Yangtze

650–800 CE Japanese scholars create scripts based on both classical and adapted Chinese characters

THE FIRST WRITING

Writing developed first *c.* 3400 BCE in western Asia, but also independently in China, Mesoamerica, and possibly the Indus Valley. From the start, symbols represented spoken language in different ways – either as words and ideas, or the language's sounds, or a mixture of both.

By the 4th millennium BCE, cities had developed in Egypt, China, the Indus Valley, and Mesopotamia. The societies that built these cities traded on a large scale and had complex, organized religions. Both of these developments encouraged literacy – for writing accounts and goods traded, or for recording calendars and sacred lore.

The earliest writing – in Mesopotamia – began as pictures scratched on damp clay tablets that were then baked in the sun to create a permanent document. Slowly, these evolved into "cuneiform" symbols made of wedges. Many surviving cuneiform tablets list goods or contain tax records, although there are also religious and literary works written with the technique. At around the same time, the Egyptians developed their hieroglyphs and later, the Chinese evolved their written characters, both of which were used for religious purposes initially. Alphabetic scripts, which originated in Sinai or the Levant, caught on widely as the Phoenicians disseminated their version. Alphabets needed only 20–30 symbols, as opposed to the hundreds used in syllabic scripts or the thousands in Chinese.
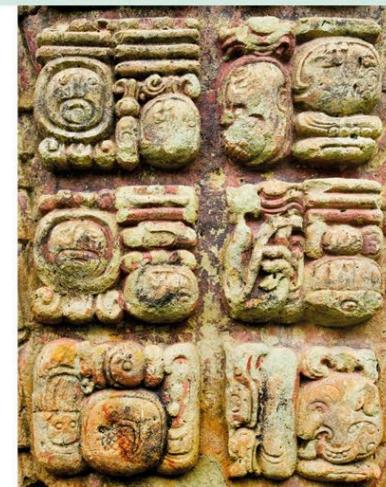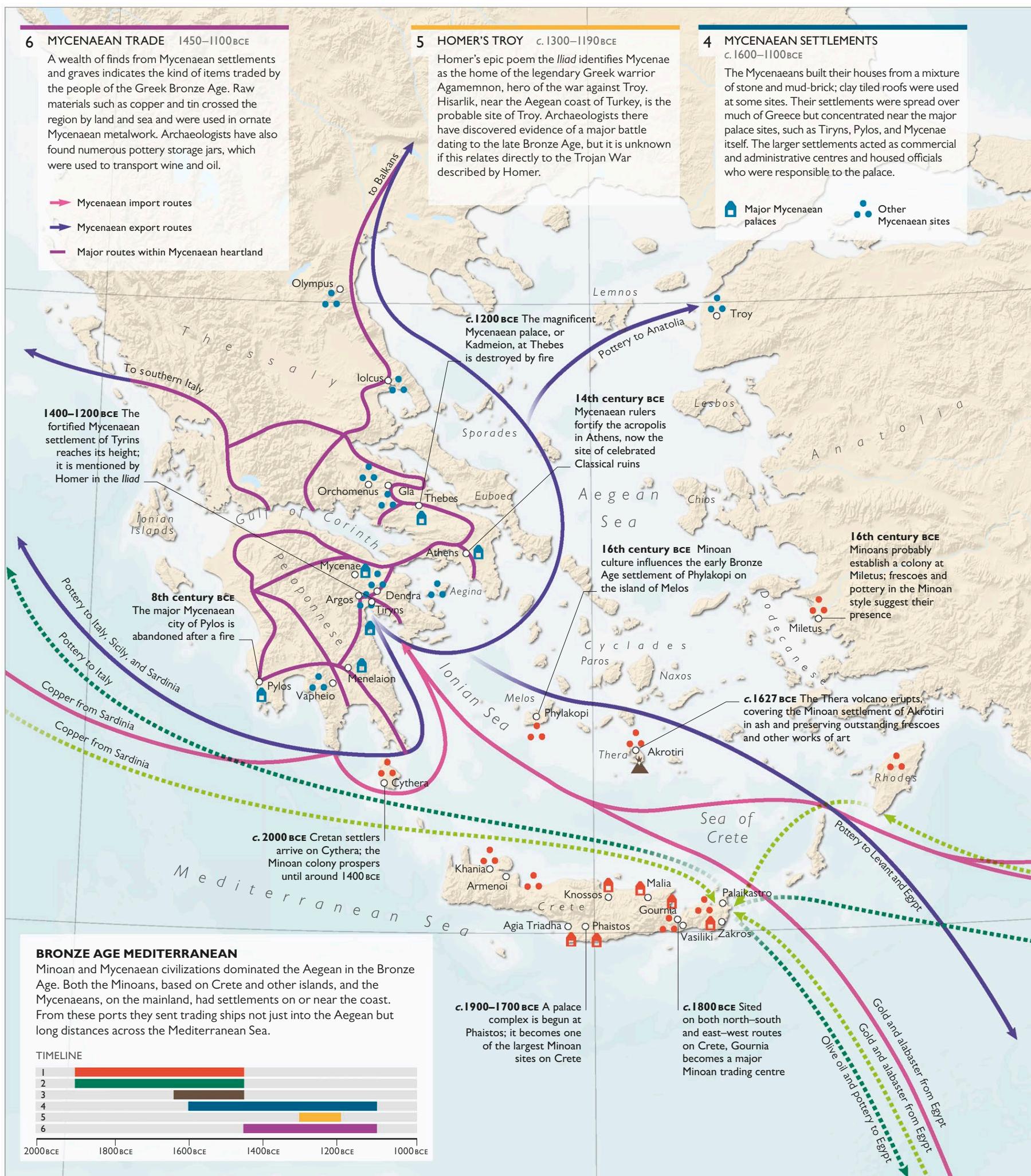
"Do not answer back against your father."

5 CHINESE CHARACTERS 1200 BCE–220 CE

From the late Shang Dynasty (1200–1050 BCE), various scripts evolved in China. They were all logographic, meaning the complex symbols, called characters, denoted words or morphemes (the smallest unit of language that conveys meaning), rather than sounds. By the Han Dynasty (206 BCE–220 CE), certain standard scripts had developed, one of which is the unsimplified script still in use outside the People's Republic.

■ Chinese script → Spread of Chinese script

6 INDIAN SCRIPTS 268 BCE–400 CE

South Asia has a profusion of syllabic scripts, all descended from Brahmi, which dates back at least to Ashoka's time (268–232 BCE) but whose origins are obscure. Brahmi may have developed indigenously, or been adapted from alphabets, such as Aramaic, from western Asia. What is certain is that Indian writing has no known link with the mysterious and undeciphered script of the long-lost Indus Valley civilization.

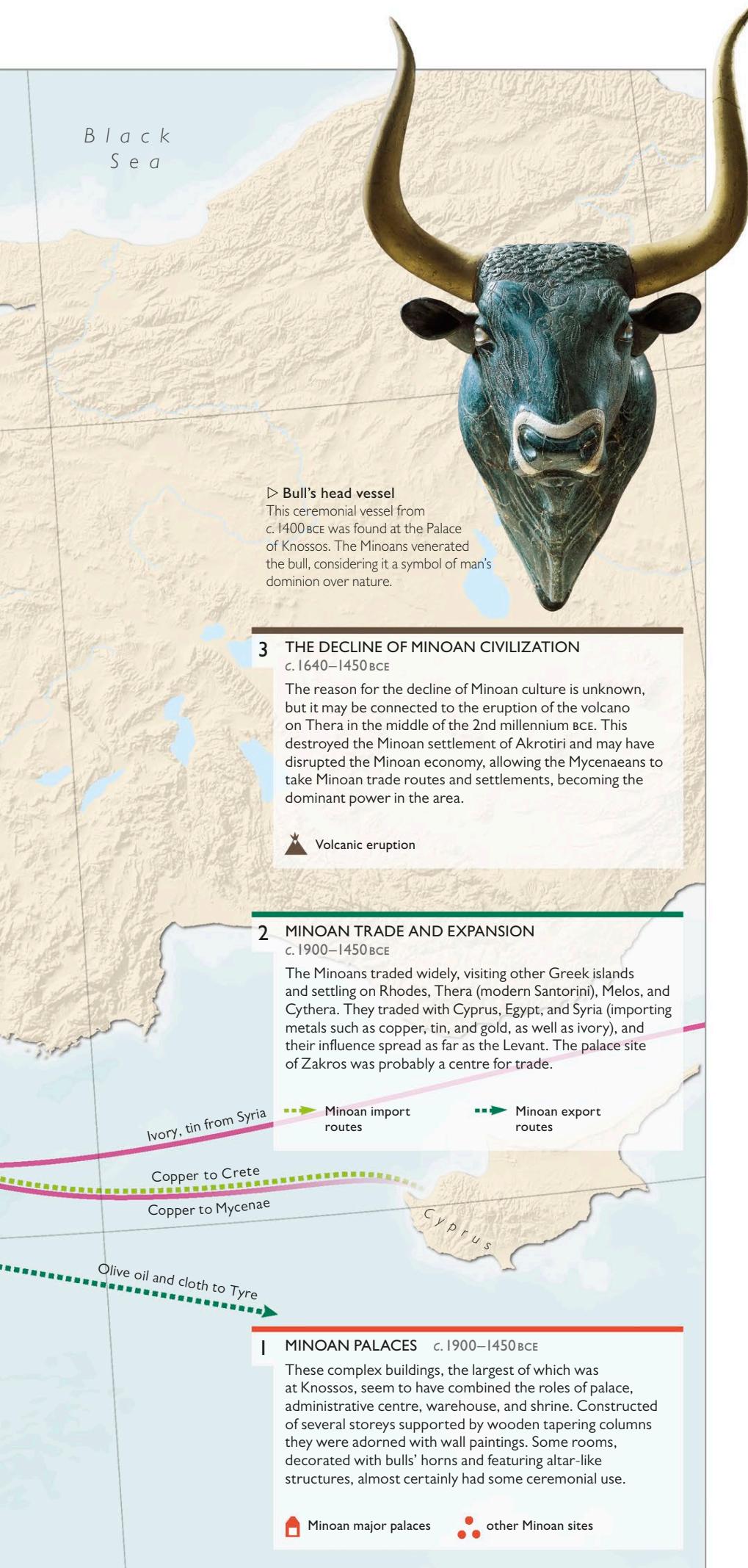■ Indus Valley script ▪▪▶ Possible influence on Brahmi from the West

MESOAMERICAN SCRIPTS
WRITING OF THE OLMECS, ZAPOTECS, AND MAYA

Civilizations in Mesoamerica invented their own writing systems, but they did not spread beyond the region. Inscriptions date back to the mysterious Cascajal Block, possibly carved by Olmecs around 800 BCE. The Zapotecs used a pictographic script from at least 400 BCE and were followed by the Maya, whose intricate symbols, or glyphs (right), combined logograms (denoting ideas) and syllabic script. Maya glyphs came into use *c.* 300 BCE and remained current until the Spanish conquest (see pp.152–53).

6 MYCENAEAN TRADE 1450–1100 BCE

A wealth of finds from Mycenaean settlements and graves indicates the kind of items traded by the people of the Greek Bronze Age. Raw materials such as copper and tin crossed the region by land and sea and were used in ornate Mycenaean metalwork. Archaeologists have also found numerous pottery storage jars, which were used to transport wine and oil.

➤ Mycenaean import routes

➤ Mycenaean export routes

Major routes within Mycenaean heartland

5 HOMER'S TROY c. 1300–1190 BCE

Homer's epic poem the *Iliad* identifies Mycenae as the home of the legendary Greek warrior Agamemnon, hero of the war against Troy. Hisarlik, near the Aegean coast of Turkey, is the probable site of Troy. Archaeologists there have discovered evidence of a major battle dating to the late Bronze Age, but it is unknown if this relates directly to the Trojan War described by Homer.

4 MYCENAEAN SETTLEMENTS c. 1600–1100 BCE

The Mycenaeans built their houses from a mixture of stone and mud-brick; clay tiled roofs were used at some sites. Their settlements were spread over much of Greece but concentrated near the major palace sites, such as Tiryns, Pylos, and Mycenae itself. The larger settlements acted as commercial and administrative centres and housed officials who were responsible to the palace.

Major Mycenaean palaces

Other Mycenaean sites

to Balkans

Olympus

Lemnos

Troy

Pottery to Anatolia

c. 1200 BCE The magnificent Mycenaean palace, or Kadmeion, at Thebes is destroyed by fire

T h e s s a l y

Iolcus

Sporades

Lesbos

14th century BCE Mycenaean rulers fortify the acropolis in Athens, now the site of celebrated Classical ruins

A n a t o l i a

To southern Italy

1400–1200 BCE The fortified Mycenaean settlement of Tyrins reaches its height; it is mentioned by Homer in the *Iliad*

Ionian Islands

Gulf of Corinth

Orchomenus Gla Thebes

Euboea

Athens

A e g e a n S e a

Chios

16th century BCE Minoan culture influences the early Bronze Age settlement of Phylakopi on the island of Melos

16th century BCE Minoans probably establish a colony at Miletus; frescoes and pottery in the Minoan style suggest their presence

P e l o p o n n e s e

Mycenae

Argos Dendra
Tiryns

Aegina

D o d e c a n e s e

Miletus

8th century BCE The major Mycenaean city of Pylos is abandoned after a fire

C y c l a d e s

Paros

Naxos

Pottery to Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia

Pottery to Italy

Pylos

Menelaion

Vapheio

Melos

Phylakopi

c. 1627 BCE The Thera volcano erupts, covering the Minoan settlement of Akrotiri in ash and preserving outstanding frescoes and other works of art

Copper from Sardinia

Copper from Sardinia

Ionian Sea

Thera Akrotiri

Rhodes

Cythera

Sea of Crete

Pottery to Levant and Egypt

c. 2000 BCE Cretan settlers arrive on Cythera; the Minoan colony prospers until around 1400 BCE

M e d i t e r r a n e a n   S e a

Khania
Armenoi

Knossos

Malia

Palaikastro

C r e t e

Gournia

Agia Triadha Phaistos

Vasiliki Zakros

c. 1900–1700 BCE A palace complex is begun at Phaistos; it becomes one of the largest Minoan sites on Crete

c. 1800 BCE Sited on both north–south and east–west routes on Crete, Gournia becomes a major Minoan trading centre

Gold and alabaster from Egypt

Gold and alabaster from Egypt

Olive oil and pottery to Egypt

BRONZE AGE MEDITERRANEAN

Minoan and Mycenaean civilizations dominated the Aegean in the Bronze Age. Both the Minoans, based on Crete and other islands, and the Mycenaeans, on the mainland, had settlements on or near the coast. From these ports they sent trading ships not just into the Aegean but long distances across the Mediterranean Sea.

TIMELINE

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6						

2000 BCE 1800 BCE 1600 BCE 1400 BCE 1200 BCE 1000 BCE

Black Sea

▷ **Bull's head vessel**
This ceremonial vessel from *c.* 1400 BCE was found at the Palace of Knossos. The Minoans venerated the bull, considering it a symbol of man's dominion over nature.

3 THE DECLINE OF MINOAN CIVILIZATION
c. 1640–1450 BCE

The reason for the decline of Minoan culture is unknown, but it may be connected to the eruption of the volcano on Thera in the middle of the 2nd millennium BCE. This destroyed the Minoan settlement of Akrotiri and may have disrupted the Minoan economy, allowing the Mycenaeans to take Minoan trade routes and settlements, becoming the dominant power in the area.

🌋 Volcanic eruption

2 MINOAN TRADE AND EXPANSION
c. 1900–1450 BCE

The Minoans traded widely, visiting other Greek islands and settling on Rhodes, Thera (modern Santorini), Melos, and Cythera. They traded with Cyprus, Egypt, and Syria (importing metals such as copper, tin, and gold, as well as ivory), and their influence spread as far as the Levant. The palace site of Zakros was probably a centre for trade.

- - -▶ Minoan import routes   - - -▶ Minoan export routes

Ivory, tin from Syria

Copper to Crete

Copper to Mycenae

Cyprus

Olive oil and cloth to Tyre

1 MINOAN PALACES *c.* 1900–1450 BCE

These complex buildings, the largest of which was at Knossos, seem to have combined the roles of palace, administrative centre, warehouse, and shrine. Constructed of several storeys supported by wooden tapering columns they were adorned with wall paintings. Some rooms, decorated with bulls' horns and featuring altar-like structures, almost certainly had some ceremonial use.

🏠 Minoan major palaces   ⦁⦁⦁ other Minoan sites

MINOANS AND MYCENAEANS

During the Bronze Age, first the Minoan and then the Mycenaean cultures dominated Greece and the Aegean. These peoples developed a range of skills, such as metalworking, architecture, and literacy, that laid the foundations for the later Classical civilization of Greece.

The Minoan culture – considered by some to be the first European civilization – flourished on Crete in the 2nd millennium BCE. Many mysteries still surround the Minoans; scholars have been unable to decipher their writing, so do not know their exact dates, or even what they called themselves – the word "Minoan" is a modern term of convenience. But they are known to have been highly influential in trading across the Mediterranean, leaving inscriptions at several places on the Greek mainland as well as on some islands in the Aegean. Minoan civilization was centred on several large, elegantly decorated Cretan palaces, which were not fortified, suggesting they were a peaceful people.

From the mid-15th century BCE, the Mycenaeans – based on mainland Greece – became the dominant power. They were a trading people, exchanging goods with mainland Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia. They also wielded military power, as seen by their fortified palaces, and impressive weaponry and armour. Their script, known as Linear B (probably derived from Cretan Linear A) has been deciphered and was used to write an early form of Greek.

The Mycenaeans created several independent states in mainland Greece with settlements on many of the islands. Each state centred on a palace, and most were capable of major engineering projects, such as stone fortifications, harbours, dams, and roads. Disputes between the states may have contributed to the decline of the Mycenaean civilization after about 1100 BCE.

KNOSSOS
EUROPE'S OLDEST CITY

At its height, Minoan Knossos was a large city of 10,000–100,000 people. At its heart was the palace complex, which had 1,300 rooms covering some 2.4 hectares (6 acres). As well as large, beautifully decorated residential or ceremonial rooms, there were many rooms set aside for storage. These rooms contained hundreds of large jars for oil, grain, or other foods. Grain mills also formed part of the palace complex.

Fresco fragment
The walls of the palace at Knossos were decorated with images of animals, mythological creatures, and people.
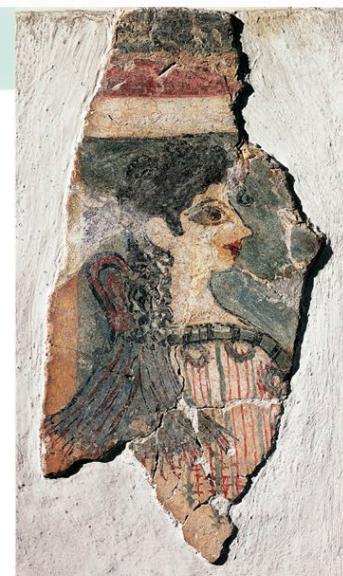
BRONZE AGE CHINA

Chinese culture began to take on its distinctive form in the Bronze Age, from about 1600 BCE onwards, with the development of writing during the Shang dynasty and its successor, the Zhou. Politically, China was still a collection of separate states, with one or more of the states taking a leading role at different times.

Most historians date the Bronze Age in China to *c.* 2000–*c.* 770 BCE, although the widespread use of bronze continued for centuries. The period coincides with the beginnings of literacy in China and with the rule of two influential dynasties, the Shang (*c.* 1600–1027 BCE) and the Zhou (1046–256 BCE).

The Shang controlled much of northern China, creating a feudal system with a core state and a number of vassal states. Its rulers cemented their power using rituals such as ancestor worship and divination using "oracle bones" (bones incised with written messages). The Shang moved their capital city several times, the last and largest being at Anyang, where archaeologists have uncovered a royal tomb containing bronze artefacts and oracle bones. They extended their influence through trade with northern and central Chinese neighbours, and with people of the steppes to the west.

Around the 11th century BCE, Ji Chang of the Zhou – a people from the Shang's western border – led a rebellion and the Shang were conquered. The Zhou developed systems of coinage, and writing evolved into something closer to the modern Chinese script. Two of the most influential philosophers of all time, Confucius and Laozi, were active under the Zhou dynasty.

SHANG CHINA

Before the Shang, the Yellow River valley was occupied by sophisticated cultures for centuries. The region became the Shang's heartland, where they made vassals of a number of local states.

KEY
- ● Shang city
- ••• Trade route
- ⇨ Main Shang campaign

TIMELINE

	2200 BCE	2000	1800	1600	1400	1200	1000
1							
2							
3							
4							

◁ **Shang bronze work**
This owl-shaped vessel exemplifies the exquisite patterns with which Shang metalworkers decorated their products; these included tableware, such as food and drinking vessels.

2nd millennium BCE
A western trade route links China with central Asia; it is a forerunner of the Silk Road between eastern and western Asia

ZHOU CHINA

Zhou began as a vassal state in the far west of the Shang empire. Towards the end of the Shang period, the Zhou challenged their overlords, moving eastwards and establishing strongholds along the Yellow River before removing the Shang rulers by 1046 BCE. By 1000 BCE, their influence was felt across most of China, including the Shang's neighbouring peoples the Baipu, and encompassed the whole area to which urban civilization had spread.

KEY
- ◼ Distribution of urban civilization by *c.* 1000 BCE
- ◼ Zhou strongholds
- ○ Zhou capitals

BEFORE THE SHANG   *c.* 2070–1600 BCE

A series of neolithic cultures pre-date the Shang in China – archaeologists have, for example, revealed the remains of the Longshan culture in the Yellow River valley and the Yueshi culture in the Shandong region. Other sites, such as Erlitou with its impressive buildings, tombs, and paved roads, point to more sophisticated cultures, such as the Xia dynasty (who are thought to have existed from 2070 BCE).

- ★ Possible Xia capital
- ◼ Longshan culture, *c.* 3000–2000 BCE
- ◼ Yueshi culture, *c.* 1900–1500 BCE

Map labels: Mo, Wuzhong, Lingzhi, Ji, Bo Hai, Ordos Desert, Xianyun, Linzi, Shandong, Di, Anyang, Rong, Qiang, Chu, Luoyang, Xinzheng, Shangqin, Yong, Luoyi, Yellow Sea, Feng before 1122, Lantian after 1122, Wu, Henan, Ying, Guiji, Ba, Baipu, Yue

3 SHANG CRAFTS AND FORTIFICATIONS
c. 1600–1050 BCE

Archaeologists have uncovered large Shang fortifications made of rammed earth. These structures suggest that the region was strategically important for the Shang; Erligang may have been an early Shang capital. Other finds there include the workshops of potters, bone workers (who made items from bone), and bronze workers. Shang cast bronzes are among the most impressive of early Chinese objects.

⭐ Early Shang capital

🟫 Major Shang bronze artefact finds

4 SHANG MILITARY POWER   *c.* 1400–1046 BCE

The Shang rulers were faced with competition for power in both the east and northwest of their Yellow River heartlands. They had a small standing force equipped with chariots and archers based at Yin (modern Anyang), their capital from *c.* 1400 BCE. They supplemented this with thousands of additional troops and weapons supplied by vassal rulers. A Shang king could therefore assemble an army of perhaps 13,000 men, armed with weapons such as dagger-axes, that could usually subdue hostile states or rebels.

⭐ Shang capital

11th century BCE The Shang struggle for territory against the Dongyi people; this weakens the Shang, contributing to their fall to the Zhou dynasty

Bo Hai

S h a n d o n g

Yellow Sea

Yellow River

PI

Taixicun

GENG

Xingtai

XING

YANJING RONG

GUANG

WANG

YUWAN RONG

DAYI SHANG

Anyang

HUO

LI

XIANG

WEI

Huixian

GUI

TANG

DONGYI

CHAOGE

CAORENG

ANYI   FANG

Anyi

Erlitou

PENG   WEI

WEI   TU

Luoyang   Erligang

XUYI

QUANRONG

REN

QIANG

ZHOU

RONG

LUHUN

YONG

HUIYI

C H I N A

c. **11th century BCE**
Settlements along the Yangtze River come under Shang influence; the river is a major artery for trade

H e n a n

c. **1600 BCE** The city of Sanxingdui is founded; trapezoidal in shape, it has thick enclosing walls

Sanxingdui

Panlongcheng

To 4th century BCE
The Wu people lived to the southeast of the main area of Shang power, and Wu later became an important state under the Zhou

2 SHANG TERRITORIES   *c.* 1600–1050 BCE

From about 1600 BCE, the Shang moved southwards from their heartlands in the Yellow River valley to control a large part of northern China. They forced some areas to become vassal states, granting these territories to family members, ministers, or tribal leaders. In return, the vassal rulers had to help defend the empire from nearby hostile states, pay taxes, and provide labourers to work on royal agricultural lands.

🟦 Principal Shang territory

🟥 Vassal state

🟨 Hostile state

To 4th century BCE
The Yüeh people occupy the area to the south of Shang lands

Yangtze River

Wucheng

c. **1200 BCE** The Shang occupy a site at Xingan (also known as Dayangzhou); archaeological finds there include hundreds of jade and bronze artefacts, indicating a highly developed culture

Xingan

BRONZE AGE COLLAPSE

Between 1225 and 1175 BCE, several Bronze Age societies of the eastern Mediterranean collapsed. Citadels across the region were sacked by unknown enemies, and the Hittite Empire and Mycenaean kingdoms were destroyed.

△ **Last writing**
This fire-blackened tablet is one of the last documents of the Mycenaean civilization. It is written in an early Greek script called Linear B.

The first victim was the Hittite Empire, whose capital, Hattusa, was sacked in around 1200 BCE. Meanwhile, in Greece, the Mycenaeans, fearing attack from the sea, were fortifying their palaces. Despite all preparations, the palaces were destroyed by fire. Egypt was also attacked, by a coalition from the Aegean they referred to as the "Sea Peoples". Pharaoh Rameses III describes defeating the invaders in the 1170s. Driven out of Egypt, the Sea Peoples went on to conquer and settle the coast of the Levant.

The cause of the collapse remains unclear. It is unlikely that the Sea Peoples were solely responsible. There is evidence that climate change was the underlying cause of a cascade of disintegration. The period was exceptionally dry, and drought could have led to famine, weakening the palace economies and making them vulnerable to attack. Other factors that might have contributed to the collapse include earthquakes and internal rebellions. As cities fell, their populations were displaced and began to migrate, in turn unsettling other kingdoms. After the collapse, trade in bronze, which had previously been conducted on a large scale, was disrupted and people turned increasingly to iron.

THE FALL OF BRONZE AGE CITIES

KEY

- Sacked city
- City that survived
- → Invasion or migration
- Hittite Empire
- Mycenaean civilization
- Egyptian New Kingdom

Hattusa
Troy
Iolcos
Sardis
Carchemish
Aleppo
Tarsus
Alalakh
Pylos
Mycenae
Enkomi
Kition
Ugarit
Knossos
Paphos
Kadesh
Byblos
Tyre
Hazor
Askelon
Mediterranean Sea
Sais
Tanis
Memphis
LEVANT
Red Sea

During the Bronze Age collapse, dozens of citadels, from Pylos in the west to Carchemish in the east, were violently destroyed. Many would never be occupied again. The Phoenician cities Tyre and Byblos escaped destruction due to their impregnable positions on fortified islets. Egypt survived, but in a weakened state, losing its empire in the Levant (see pp.44–45).

Invaders from the sea
A relief from the temple of Pharaoh Rameses III shows captive warriors of the Peleset, one of the Sea Peoples who invaded Egypt. The Peleset later settled the Levant, where they came to be known as the Philistines.

THE ANCIENT LEVANT

The Levant is the fertile land to the east of the Mediterranean, called Canaan in the Hebrew Bible. It was dominated by powerful neighbours, but the resistance to Rome of one group of its people – the Jews – resulted in their expulsion, accelerating their diaspora across Asia and Europe.

The Levant was fought over by the great powers of the Bronze Age (see pp.42–43), including Egypt, the Hittites, and the old Assyrian state. It was full of rich and important cities such as Megiddo and Jericho when the Biblical kingdom of Israel came into existence in around 1020 BCE. However, the region had been in decline for centuries and its powerful neighbours were weak. On the coast, ports grew into city-states that became known as "Phoenician" in the Greek world (see pp.54–57). Phoenicians went on to form a network of trading colonies that eventually controlled most of the Mediterranean. Settlers on the coast to the south of the Phoenicians became known as Philistines. Meanwhile, Israel split into two kingdoms named Israel and Judah, and spent centuries under the domination of first Assyria, then Babylon, then Persia.

By the time of the New Testament of the Bible, the former Hebrew kingdoms had become the Roman vassal state of Judaea, and the teachings of Jesus Christ were spreading through the Roman Empire (see pp.86–87). Rebellions against Rome, including the Great Jewish Revolt (66–74 CE) and the Bar Kokhba Revolt (132–35 CE) then led to the destruction of Jerusalem, the dispersion of the Jewish people (now named Jews after Judah), and the merging of Judaea with its neighbours to make a new Roman province called Syria Palaestina, after the Philistines.

MASADA
LAST BASTION OF JEWISH REVOLT

Herod the Great built a fortified palace at this spectacular mountaintop fortress in the desert, and it was here that the Zealots of the Great Jewish Revolt took their last stand against the Romans. After the Roman armies laid siege to Masada for 6 months, Jewish historians record that they built a siege ramp and set fire to the inner defensive walls. The 900 Jews inside reportedly killed themselves to avoid slavery.

1 ISRAEL AND JUDAH c. 1020–926 BCE

According to Judaeo-Christian tradition, Saul founded the kingdom of Israel, and Bible scholars put this date at around 1020 BCE. The kingdom reached its greatest extent under King David, but split into Israel and Judah in 926 BCE.

- Judah and Israel
- Conquered Kingdom
- Vassal state
- Boundary of David's kingdom
- Judah–Israel boundary from 926 BCE

OLD TESTAMENT LEVANT

The Old Testament of the Hebrew Bible records the story of Israel and Judah, but at times, supporting archaeological or historical evidence is lacking. From the 8th century BCE onwards, however, historians can turn to independent sources from Assyria, Babylon, and Persia – successive conquerors of the region.

586 BCE Israelites are deported from Jerusalem to Babylonia (southern Mesopotamia) by Nebuchadnezzar II, after he conquers the city while expanding his Neo-Babylonian Empire

c. 1000 BCE King David, Saul's successor, beats the Philistines and extends the Israelite kingdom; he makes Jerusalem his capital

c. 1006 BCE David is anointed as king

c. 1200–1000 BCE The Peleset (Philistines in the Bible) settle here – they were one of many "Sea Peoples" who overran the established kingdoms at the end of the Bronze Age

722 BCE Samaria (Shechem), then the capital of Israel, is destroyed by Sargon II of Assyria; Israel becomes an Assyrian province

701 BCE Assyrians invade Judah and win famous victory at the Siege of Lachish

539 BCE The Israelites living in Babylonia are permitted to return by Cyrus the Great of Persia, after he conquers Babylon

2 ASSYRIAN CONQUEST 722–701 BCE

There are non-Biblical Assyrian sources for events when the Assyrian Empire conquered Israel and took over Judah as a vassal state. Jewish tradition tells us 10 of the fabled 12 Tribes of Israel were dispersed, assimilated, enslaved, or otherwise lost. Assyrian records support that deportation as a means of subjugation was carried out. Israel became a province of Assyria. Judah survived with the two remaining tribes.

✕ Assyrian victory
◎ Assyrian seige

3 BABYLON AND PERSIA 586–539 BCE

The Bible tells the story of the exile of the Israelites in Babylon. We have good independent sources for a deportation of prominent inhabitants of Judah to Mesopotamia (in modern Iraq), by the Babylonian king Nebuchadnezzar II. When allowed to return by Cyrus the Great, however, many had become prosperous and settled in exile, and stayed where they were. This was the beginning of the worldwide Jewish diaspora.

→ Deportation route to Mesopotamia

ROMAN RULE AND REVOLT

In the time of the biblical New Testament, the central parts of Israel and Judah had become the Roman province of Judaea. Revolts against Rome by the people – now known as Jews – resulted in their expulsion and resettlement in Egypt, Babylonia, and throughout the Roman Empire.

△ **Message on a coin**
This sestertius of Emperor Vespasian shows one Jew sitting and another Jew with his hands tied, reminding all Judaean citizens who carried it of their subservience to Rome.

64 BCE Roman Judaea included regions such as Samaria and Galilee (both were within the ancient kingdom of Israel and later, independent Judaea)

66–69 CE Jewish revolt supressed by army of Roman Emperor Vespasian

70 CE After breaking the siege of Jerusalem, the army of Roman Emperor Titus destroys and loots the Jewish temple; Titus establishes the Roman province of Judaea

40 BCE – 4 BCE The kingdom of Herod the Great, although he is a vassal of Rome, extends beyond Roman Judaea

6 SYRIA PALESTINA 132–35 CE

The Bar Kokhba Revolt, 70 years after the Masada incident, was crushed even more severely. Jerusalem was destroyed and the Jewish people banished, accelerating their dispersal both through the Roman Empire and to established centres in Mesopotamia. Judaea was renamed and merged with Roman Syria by the victorious Roman Emperor Hadrian to form Syria Palaestina.

■ Bar Kokhba Revolt

5 JEWISH REVOLT 66–74 CE

A series of Jewish revolts against Rome resulted in the dispersal of the Jewish people. The first involved the destruction and looting of the temple of Jerusalem, remembered in Rome as a relief on the Arch of Titus, showing Roman soldiers carrying off a menorah. The event is mourned by Jewish people on the saddest day in their calendar – the fast day, Tisha B'Av.

4 ROMAN RULE 63 BCE–66 CE

Judaea was conquered by Rome. Until then, it was a kingdom that won its independence from the Hellenistic (Greek) Seleucid Empire, set up by Alexander the Great, which crumbled in 110 BCE. The Romans set up Judaea as a client state. Herod the Great assumed the throne as Rome's vassal in 40 BCE and proceeded to extend his kingdom.

— Frontier of Roman Empire and client states

■ Kingdom of Herod

■ Roman province of Judaea

135 CE Bar Kokhba Revolt is crushed; Jerusalem is destroyed, and Jews banished

71–74 CE Diehard Jewish rebels, pursued by Roman leaders Bassus and Silva, take refuge in the rock fortress of Masada and commit mass suicide rather than submit to Rome

→ Army of Vespasian
✕ Jewish victory
▪▪▶ Army of Titus
▬ Area of major revolt 66 CE
• • ▶ Army of Bassus and Silva
▬ Area of revolt 69 CE
◎ Siege

Map labels: Damascus, Sidon, Tyre, PHOENICIA, Ituraea, Gaulanitis, Trachonitis, Batanaea, Auranitis, Ptolemais, Capernaum, Gamala, Jotapata, Sea of Galilee, Tiberias, Galilee, Nazareth, Caesarea, Decapolis, Samaria, Jordan, JUDAEA, Gadara, Emmaus, Beth-Horon, Jericho, Jerusalem, Bethlehem, Machaerus, Gaza, Dead Sea, Nabataeans, Masada

THE LEVANT

The narrow strip of land beside the eastern Mediterranean features in the Old Testament and the New Testament of the Hebrew Bible, but also in the records of powerful neighbours, such as Egyptians, Assyrians, Persians, and Romans.

TIMELINE

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1200 BCE 1000 BCE 800 BCE 600 BCE 400 BCE 200 BCE I CE 200 CE
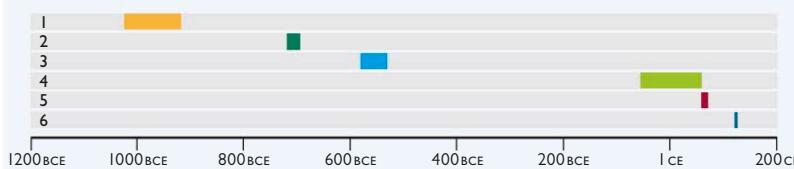
"I protest openly that I do not go over to the Romans as a deserter of the Jews, but as a minister from thee."

FLAVIUS JOSEPHUS, JEWISH-ROMAN HISTORIAN, IN *THE JEWISH WAR*

THE IRON AGE

When Bronze Age people learned how to smelt iron, they sparked off a technological revolution. Exactly where and why they first turned from bronze to iron is a mystery. The most likely explanation is that when supplies of tin and copper, the two constituents of bronze, ran short, necessity became the mother of innovation.

▽ **Ruling the underworld**
A relief cut into the rocks of a temple in Hattusa – the ancient capital of the Hittites, in modern Turkey – depicts 12 deities of the underworld. The Hittites worshipped more than 1,000 deities.

Until recently, archaeological evidence suggested that ironworking first started in central Anatolia, Turkey, some time between 2000 and 1300 BCE, with the Hittites – an ancient Anatolian people – being credited with pioneering the new technology of iron smelting (heating iron ore to extract the metal). It was believed that the Hittites began to forge iron artefacts as early as the 18th century BCE and

▷ **Signs of iron in Europe**
Dating from 750–450 BCE, this iron dagger was found in one of the thousand graves discovered at Hallstatt (modern Austria), the hub of central Europe's first Iron Age culture.

that their iron weapons – including swords, battleaxes, spear points, and arrowheads – gave them a massive military advantage over their neighbours. Following the collapse of their empire, their knowledge spread through the Middle East and from there to Greece and the Aegean region, eventually reaching central and western Europe. Modern archaeological research, however, has challenged this picture. It is now thought that Indian metalsmiths may have discovered how to forge iron at roughly the same time as the Hittites, or even earlier.

Early ironsmiths

Archaeological excavations of megalithic burial sites in Uttar Pradesh in northern India and Malabar in the south have uncovered iron artefacts dating from 2012 BCE and 1882 BCE. Other excavations in the Ganges valley have uncovered iron artefacts dating from around the same time that the Hittites were forging their first iron implements, while iron daggers found at sites in Hyderabad in southern India are thought to date from 2400–2000 BCE. In Europe, ironworking began with the Greeks, possibly as early as 1050 BCE. A few hundred years later, the Celts (the collective name for a variety of tribes in

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE IRON AGE

The Iron Age began almost 4,000 years ago, starting independently in central Anatolia (in modern Turkey) and India. Later, the knowledge of iron smelting and forging spread into central Europe via Greece and then through the rest of the continent. Iron, which was more widely available than the tin and copper needed to make bronze, replaced bronze for use in almost all utilitarian objects, from weapons to ploughs to utensils.

2010–1880 BCE Iron artefacts are made in Uttar Pradesh and Malabar, India

1800–1700 BCE Iron is first smelted by the Hittites

1600 BCE Iron is forged in the Ganges valley

1400 BCE The cementation process, which makes iron stronger, is developed

INDIA				
WESTERN ASIA				
EUROPE				

2200 BCE   2000 BCE   1800 BCE   1600 BCE   1400 BCE

1650 BCE The Hittite capital of Hattusa is founded

1500 BCE The Indus Valley civilization collapses; the Aryans migrate into India from central Asia

1400 BCE The Celtic culture begins in the Upper Danube region

◁ **The versatile Celts**
The Celts were skilled at working various metals, not just iron. Discovered in a peat bog near Gundestrup, Denmark, in 1891, this cauldron was made from silver between the 2nd and 1st centuries BCE.

Europe) became masters of the craft.

The oldest archaeological evidence demonstrating their skill at forging iron and other metals comes from Hallstatt, near Salzburg in Austria. Tomb excavations there, which started as early as the mid-19th century, uncovered a rich treasury of grave goods, including iron swords dating from around 700 BCE. Why the culture centred around Hallstatt collapsed is uncertain.

The Hallstatt culture was replaced by the La Tène culture, which appeared in the mid-5th century BCE. Excavations have revealed more than 2,500 iron swords with decorated scabbards as well as other metalwork items. The La Tène culture was artistically prolific. Its influence spread through much of western Europe as the Celtic tribes expanded out of their original homelands.

Worldwide usage

In Africa, knowledge of iron smelting seems to have developed at much the same time as it was spreading through western Europe. Some historians put this down to the Phoenicians, who carried their knowledge of iron smelting to their north African colonies, notably Carthage. The majority view now is that it was more likely a local development. Whatever the truth, there is no disputing the fact that African iron-making was extremely varied, with many distinct local technologies evolving over the centuries.

There is clear evidence of iron smelting in Ethiopia, the region of the Great Lakes, Tanzania, Ghana, Mali, and central Nigeria around the Niger and Benue rivers, where the Nok culture emerged. In some respects, African metalsmiths were ahead of Europe. In east Africa, for instance, they were producing steel as early as 500 BCE.

From bronze to iron

Wherever and whenever the transition from the Bronze Age to the Iron Age happened, it brought with it significant changes to everyday life, from the way ancient peoples cultivated their crops to how they fought their wars. Some civilizations, however, missed out on the Iron Age altogether. In Central and South America, for example, various civilizations, most notably the Incas, were skilful metalworkers in gold, silver, copper, and bronze, but they simply never made the transition to iron.

> *"[the Celts] are quick of mind and with good natural ability for learning."*
>
> DIDORUS SICULUS, GREEK HISTORIAN

▽ **Traditional metalworking**
Iron has been smelted and forged in Africa for three millennia. This 19th-century engraving shows small-scale iron-working near Lake Mobutu in east Africa.
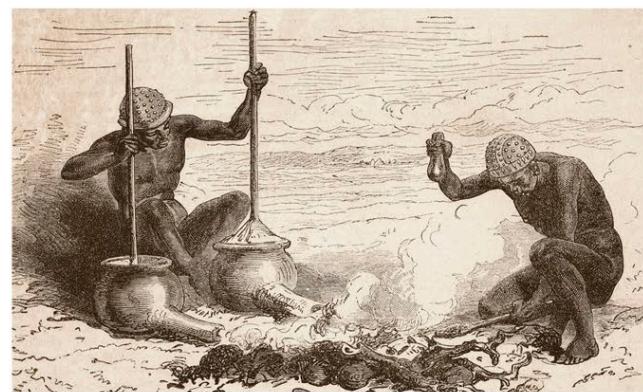
1200 BCE The Hittite Empire collapses; the Assyrians start using iron weapons and armour

800 BCE Ironworking becomes widespread in central Europe; the Celtic migrations begin

704–681 BCE Under the rule of Sennacherib, the new Iron Age power of Assyria annexes Israel and Judah and crushes Babylon

535 BCE Cyrus of Persia attacks Babylon and absorbs its empire

326 BCE Alexander the Great arrives in northern India

300 BCE The Celts cross the English Channel to Britain

200 BCE The use of iron in the Celtic world expands significantly

1200 BCE   1000 BCE   800 BCE   600 BCE   400 BCE   200 BCE   1 CE

1200 BCE Ironworking spreads to the eastern Mediterranean region

800–400 BCE The Hallstatt culture flourishes; its wealth is based on ironworking and salt mining

627 BCE Assyrian Empire becomes the largest the world has yet seen under King Ashurbanipal

572 BCE Nebuchadnezzar II conquers most of the Assyrian Empire to build a new Babylonian Empire

322 BCE The Mauryan Empire is founded in India

272 BCE Asoka the Great becomes emperor of Maurya; he expands the empire greatly
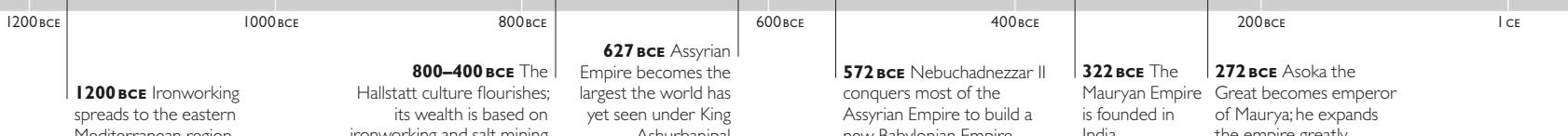
ASSYRIA AND BABYLONIA

The Iron Age in the Middle East was an age of empire. The Assyrians, based in what is now northern Iraq, created the blueprint for a new type of extensive state that employed direct and indirect rule to place a range of peoples and territories under the control of one sovereign.

After 1200 BCE, in the aftermath of the migrations at the end of the late Bronze Age (see pp.42–43), small-scale local states replaced large regional powers such as the Hittite state and the New Kingdom of Egypt. The kingdom of Assyria, protected by the River Tigris and the Taurus and Zagros mountains, survived the upheaval despite losing peripheral territories to Aramaean clans. From 900 BCE, it started to grow again at the expense of these smaller neighbours.

Besides incorporating territories and putting them under eunuch governors loyal only to the king, the Assyrian Empire greatly favoured indirect rule. From the eastern Mediterranean to what is now Iran, client rulers swore sacred oaths to accept the sovereignty of the god Ashur and his human representative, the Assyrian king, in return for local power. The empire was held together by these bonds of mutual obligation and by an innovative relay postal system – for the first time, information travelled much faster than if carried by a single messenger. The succeeding Babylonian Empire adopted much of this blueprint, but replaced Ashur with its own god, Marduk, and dispensed with eunuch governors.

"The god Ashur is king, and Ashurbanipal is [his] representative, the creation of his hands."

CORONATION HYMN OF ASHURBANIPAL OF ASSYRIA

BABYLONIAN LAW
JUSTICE CARVED IN STONE

King Hammurabi of Babylon (r.1782–1750 BCE) compiled a set of 282 rulings, which were recorded on stone steles set up in temples across his realm. These laws were to "prevent the strong oppressing the weak" and specified fines and punishments to suit specific social contexts. Over 1,000 years later, in the days of the Assyrian and Babylonian empires, Hammurabi was still revered as a model ruler.

Stele of Hammurabi
The king receives authority, symbolized by a measuring tape and a ruler, from the god Shamash, the patron of justice.

2 BABYLON, CITY OF THE GOD MARDUK
1782 BCE–500 CE

The ancient city first came to prominence as the capital of the kingdom of King Hammurabi. Home to the god Marduk's temple, Babylon was later closely associated with the kingship over all of Babylonia (southern Mesopotamia). In the first millennium BCE, the title of King of Babylon was coveted by every ruler who sought to control that region, including the Assyrian and later the Persian and Seleucid kings.

★ Babylon

1 ASHUR, CITY OF THE GOD ASHUR
2000–614 BCE

This city was the site of the god Ashur's only temple. An influential city-state in the early 2nd millennium BCE, it was integrated into the northern Mesopotamian kingdom forged by Shamshi-Adad (c.1813–1781 BCE). He was reviled as an unlawful conqueror, but 500 years later, when Ashur was the heart of an expanding kingdom, the Assyrians claimed Shamshi-Adad as an ancestor of their royal house.
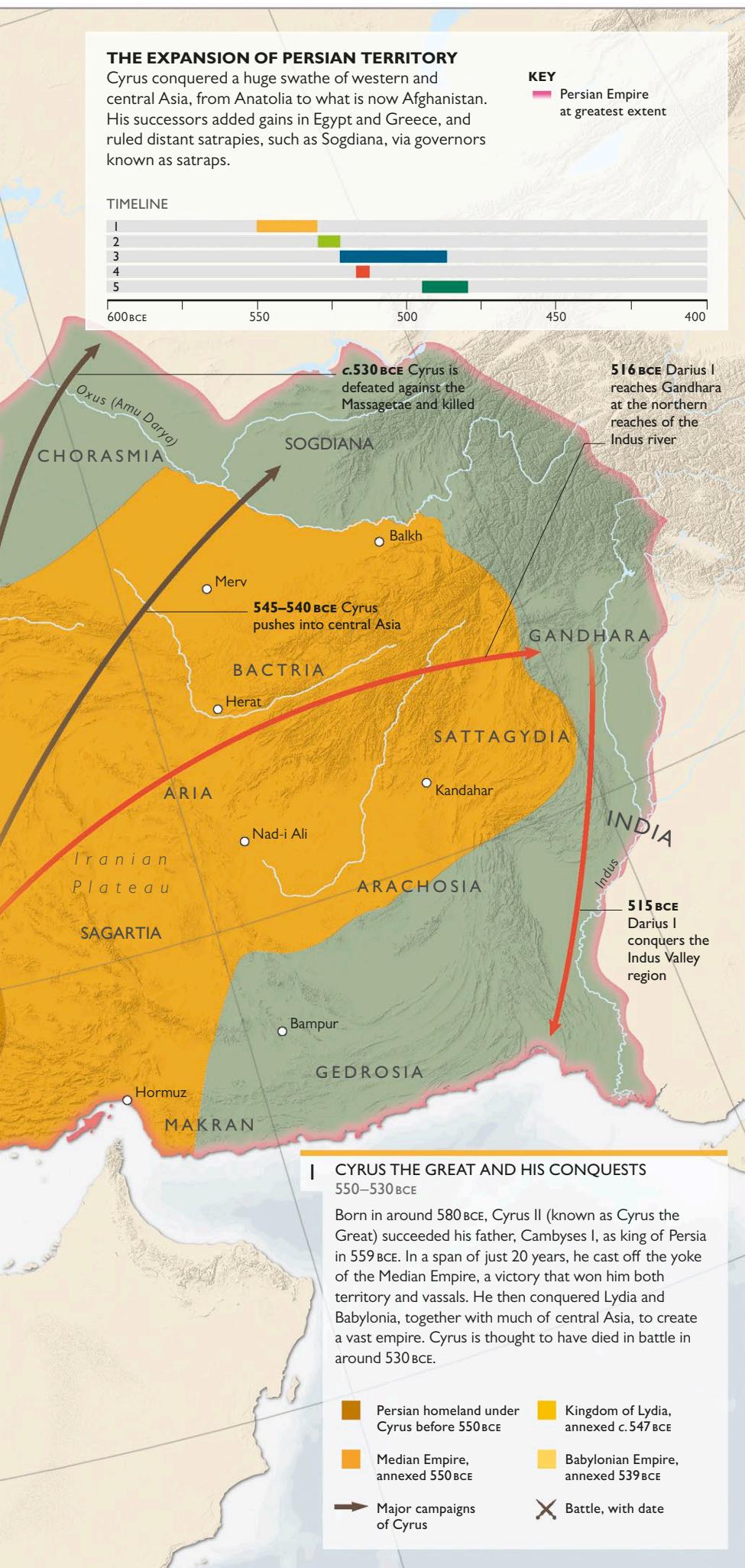
☆ Ashur

From c.900 BCE
The port of Tyre is a key link in the trade between the Middle Eastern empires and the Mediterranean, controlling the shipping routes from Cyprus to southern Spain

586 BCE When Nebuchadnezzar II conquers Jerusalem, the temple of Yahweh is destroyed and the people taken to Babylonia

671 BCE Assyrian king Esarhaddon captures Memphis and rules Egypt through native princes

Anatolia

Tarsus

Aleppo

Cyprus

Hama

Byblos

Sidon

Damascus

Tyre

ISRAEL

Samaria

Mediterranean Sea

Jerusalem

Gaza

Lachish

JUDAH

Dead Sea

EGYPT

Memphis

Sinai Peninsula

Nile

Red Sea

605 BCE At Carchemish, Babylonian forces defeat the combined armies of Assyria and its ally Egypt, ending centuries of Assyrian power

706 BCE Sargon II moves the royal court and central administration to a new capital, an ideal city created on the drawing board that shared his name: "Fortress of Sharrukin" (Sargon is the Biblical spelling)

3 ASSYRIA BECOMES AN EMPIRE 883–859 BCE

Ashur was the Assyrian capital until King Assurnasirpal II transformed his realm from kingdom to empire. In 859 BCE, he moved the court to Kalhu (Nimrud). The new capital was designed to put the ruler, rather than the god Ashur, centre-stage as the master of the world. This was also the case for the later, even bigger capital cities of Dur-Sharrukin (Khorsabad), founded by Sargon II (721–705 BCE), and Nineveh, transformed by Sennacherib (704–681 BCE).

■ Extent of Assyrian Empire 859 BCE

4 HEIGHT OF ASSYRIAN POWER
680–630 BCE

In the 7th century BCE, the directly administered territories reached their largest extent under King Esarhaddon. His son, Assurbanipal, did not expand these provinces, but greatly increased dominion over indirectly controlled states, such as Egypt and Elam. After his death, succession wars plagued the royal house. Babylonia and the Medes broke free and captured Ashur in 614 BCE and the capital Nineveh in 612 BCE.

■ Additional extent of Assyrian Empire by 669 BCE

5 THE BABYLONIAN EMPIRE 626–539 BCE

In the wars marking the collapse of the Assyrian Empire, Nabopolassar (626–605 BCE) and his son Nebuchadnezzar II (605–562 BCE) forged the Babylonian Empire. The goal to control the caravan routes across the Arabian desert led to the conquest of Judah and long wars against Arab tribes. Before these plans came to fruition, the people of Babylon turned against the last king, Nabonidus (556–539 BCE), and hailed Cyrus of Persia as the new King of Babylon, ending Babylonian independence.

■ Extent of Babylonian Empire 539 BCE

612 BCE Nineveh is surrounded by a 12-km- (7.5-mile-) long fortification wall with 15 monumental gates; when the Babylonian and Median armies attack, much of the fighting takes place in and around these gates

648 BCE The capital of the Kingdom of Elam is conquered by Assyrian forces; an ancient stele with Hammurabi's laws, brought here in the 12th century BCE, survives the assault intact

556–539 BCE A usurper, Nabonidus, seeks to legitimize his rule as Babylonian emperor by resurrecting ancient royal traditions, such as appointing his daughter the consort of the moon-god of Ur. The city of Ur was even more ancient than Ashur or Babylon and, as such, was revered

◁ **Palace guardian**
Since Assurnasirpal II built his new palace in Kalhu (Nimrud), giant statues of divine guardians protected the gates of Assyrian royal palaces. The so-called lamassu have a human head, the body of either a bull or a lion, often partially covered with fish scales, and eagle's wings. They correspond to the Biblical cherubim. This one is a copy from Sargon II's throne room at Dur-Sharrukin.

MESOPOTAMIAN CITIES AND EMPIRES

The oldest cities of Mesopotamia, such as Uruk and Ur, were mainly in the southern part of the region (see pp.32–33). Life there centred around a temple whose patron deity was thought to delegate power to the ruler. The Assyrians and Babylonians stood firmly in this tradition, but their outlook was more expansive. First the Assyrians and then the Babylonians built empires that extended from the Zagros Mountains in the east to the Mediterranean in the west.

KEY

----- Present day coastline/river

TIMELINE

2000 BCE · 1500 BCE · 1000 BCE · 500 BCE · 1 BCE · 500 CE

4 THE CAMPAIGNS OF DARIUS I 516–513 BCE

In 516 BCE, Darius I began a military campaign in central Asia that took him through Bactria and Gandhara. From here he conquered the lands by the Indus River and engaged the Greek explorer Scylax of Caryanda to survey the Indian Ocean. Darius fought campaigns to stamp out a series of revolts across the empire, most notably in Babylonia and in Scythia (in Eastern Europe), where he asserted Persian dominance, before beginning his attempted conquest of Greece.

→ Major campaigns of Darius I

3 THE EMPIRE UNDER DARIUS I 522–486 BCE

Darius ascended to the throne in 522 BCE and carried out many reforms. He introduced a new monetary system, adopted Aramaic as the administrative language, and organized the empire into provinces under governors (satraps). Darius built canals and roads (including the famous royal road linking Susa to Assyria and Anatolia); he erected monuments and temples; and he built royal palaces in the cities of Susa and Persepolis.

— Persian Royal Road from Sardis to Susa

2 CAMBYSES II AND THE CONQUEST OF EGYPT 529–522 BCE

The conquest of Egypt became the goal of Cyrus's successor, Cambyses II. To do so, he made alliances with Arabian leaders and gained the support of the Greeks, who had formerly been allies of Egypt. Cambyses defeated Egypt at Pelusium in 525 BCE; however, his troops were unable to cross the desert to Sudan, so he failed to make conquests further south.

■ Kingdom of Egypt, annexed 525 BCE
→ Major campaigns of Cambyses II
✕ Battle, with date

480 BCE A small Greek force resists the Persian army at Thermopylae but is eventually overcome; Athens falls soon afterwards

513 BCE Darius I invades Scythia

492 BCE Darius I invades Macedonia

550–547 BCE Cyrus's campaign to conquer Lydia

547 BCE Cyrus defeats the Lydian king, Croesus

THRACE

Black Sea

MACEDONIA

Pella

Byzantium

Sinope

ARMENIA

Caspian Sea

Cyrus

Granicus

SEA TERRITORIES

Halys

LYDIA

CAPPADOCIA

Pteria

Lake Van

Tureng Tepe

Thermopylae

479 BCE Plataea

490 BCE Marathon

Corinth

Athens

480 BCE Salamis

Sardis

Lake Urmia

Elburz Mountains

MEDIA

PARTHIA

GREECE

IONIA

479 BCE Mycale

Miletus

Issus

Harran

Nineveh

Taurus Mountains

ASSYRIA

Aleppo

Euphrates

MESOPOTAMIA

Tigris

Ecbatana

Crete

Rhodes

Cyprus

SUSIANA

494 BCE An uprising against Persian rule is quelled at the siege of Miletus

547 BCE Cyrus captures the Lydian capital, Sardis
c.500 BCE The Persian Royal Road is completed

Cyrene

Sidon

Damascus

Tyre

ARABIA

Syrian Desert

Babylon

BABYLONIA

Zagros Mountains

Susa

549 BCE Pasargadae

PERSIS

Mediterranean Sea

Nippur

PERSIAN EMPIRE

525 BCE Pelusium

Jerusalem

539 BCE Cyrus takes Babylon; he soon allows Israelites exiled from Jerusalem to return home

Persepolis

522 BCE Once the capital city of Elam, Susa becomes an important Persian administrative centre

Memphis

Sinai

550 BCE Cyrus defeats his maternal grandfather, Astyages, king of the Medes
546 BCE The construction of Pasargadae begins; it becomes the capital of Cyrus's empire

EGYPT

Red Sea

5 THE GREEK WARS 492–479 BCE

Darius I, angered by Athenian support for revolts against the Persian empire, vowed to take the whole of Greece, but his army of 20,000 was defeated at Marathon by an Athenian-led force. After Darius's death in 486 BCE, his successor, Xerxes, tried again to conquer Greece. He took control of the mainland north of Corinth and destroyed Athens, but withdrew most of his army after losing the Battle of Salamis in 480 BCE.

→ Persian campaigns against Greece
■ Other territories annexed by Darius I and Xerxes I
✕ Battle, with date

Nile

Thebes

c.520 BCE Darius I orders work to start on a new capital city, Persepolis

◁ **Oxus treasure**
This model of a gold chariot was part of a find of Persian metalwork near the river Oxus, modern Afghanistan. Dating back to the 5th century BCE, it shows the refinement of Persian art and technology.

THE EXPANSION OF PERSIAN TERRITORY

Cyrus conquered a huge swathe of western and central Asia, from Anatolia to what is now Afghanistan. His successors added gains in Egypt and Greece, and ruled distant satrapies, such as Sogdiana, via governors known as satraps.

KEY

■ Persian Empire at greatest extent

TIMELINE

1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
600 BCE	550	500	450	400	

Oxus (Amu Darya)

c.530 BCE Cyrus is defeated against the Massagetae and killed

516 BCE Darius I reaches Gandhara at the northern reaches of the Indus river

CHORASMIA

SOGDIANA

Balkh

Merv

545–540 BCE Cyrus pushes into central Asia

GANDHARA

BACTRIA

Herat

SATTAGYDIA

ARIA

Kandahar

Iranian Plateau

Nad-i Ali

INDIA

Indus

ARACHOSIA

515 BCE Darius I conquers the Indus Valley region

SAGARTIA

Bampur

Hormuz

GEDROSIA

MAKRAN

I CYRUS THE GREAT AND HIS CONQUESTS
550–530 BCE

Born in around 580 BCE, Cyrus II (known as Cyrus the Great) succeeded his father, Cambyses I, as king of Persia in 559 BCE. In a span of just 20 years, he cast off the yoke of the Median Empire, a victory that won him both territory and vassals. He then conquered Lydia and Babylonia, together with much of central Asia, to create a vast empire. Cyrus is thought to have died in battle in around 530 BCE.

■ Persian homeland under Cyrus before 550 BCE
■ Kingdom of Lydia, annexed c. 547 BCE
■ Median Empire, annexed 550 BCE
■ Babylonian Empire, annexed 539 BCE
→ Major campaigns of Cyrus
✕ Battle, with date

RISE OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE

The Persian Empire was enormous, stretching from Europe to India, and lasted from the military victories of its founder, Cyrus the Great, in the mid-6th century BCE until it was conquered by Alexander the Great some 200 years later.

In 612 BCE, the Assyrian city of Nineveh was destroyed by an alliance of the Assyrians' former subject peoples, including the Babylonians and Medes. The Medes and Persians were Indo-European peoples originally from central Asia, who occupied respectively the area southwest of the Caspian Sea and lands north of the Persian Gulf. To begin, the Medes were the dominant power, but c. 550 BCE the Persians, under a series of dynamic kings, began a series of conquests that created the largest empire the world had seen to date.

"Brevity is the soul of command. Too much talk suggests desperation on the part of the leader."

ATTRIBUTED TO CYRUS IN *CYROPEDIA*, *c.* 370 BCE

The Persians were tolerant conquerors – Cyrus the Great respected the beliefs and customs of the people he ruled and famously freed the Israelites who had been taken captive in Babylon. The Persians invested in organization, appointing local governors known as satraps to rule each province, and built roads and canals to enable troops and traders to move with ease. This organization, and their ability to deploy their armies quickly, enabled them to maintain their vast territories. The Persian Empire was still a major power when it was conquered by Alexander the Great in the 4th century BCE.

PASARGADAE
THE FIRST PERSIAN CAPITAL

In around 546 BCE, Cyrus the Great began to build the first Persian dynastic capital at Pasargadae, near the modern city of Shiraz. Its royal remains, which include the palace, audience hall, gatehouse, and the tomb of Cyrus himself, are some of the most impressive of the Persian Empire, and show the influence of the peoples that Cyrus conquered. Later, Cambyses II founded another capital at Susa and Darius built a third, at Persepolis.

Protective winged spirit
This 5th-century BCE relief decorated a door in the ancient city of Pasargadae.

FIRST CITIES IN THE AMERICAS

The first city-based cultures in the Americas emerged from around 3500 BCE in coastal Peru, pre-dating the first cities in southern Mexico and North America by about two millennia. All early American urban cultures built grand sites of worship and engaged extensively in trade.

CARAL
THE AMERICAS' FIRST URBAN CIVILIZATION

A substantial city by 2600 BCE, Caral was part of Peru's Norte Chico civilization. Other Norte Chico cities may be even older. Like many later pre-Columbian cities, Caral featured monumental architecture, such as platform mounds and plazas. These remains of a sunken plaza in Caral, 40m (130ft) across, were discovered in the late 1990s. The plaza is thought to have been used for communal acts of worship.

From around 5000 BCE, agricultural practices started replacing the hunter-gatherer lifestyle in the Americas, giving rise to the first settlements.

The Norte Chico culture in the Supe Valley region of coastal Peru emerged as the earliest known urban civilization on the continent, around 4000 BCE. The civilization included more than 30 large settlements, and it established its first major city around 3500 BCE. It thrived for more than 2,000 years. Early civilizations in other regions of the Americas include the Olmecs of southern Mexico, and the Adena and Hopewell Mound Builder cultures of the upper Mississippi and Ohio valleys.

Unique cultures evolved in all these ancient communities, each defined by its arts, crafts, and religious practices, though they all built large-scale earthworks – platforms, pyramids, or mounds – mainly for ceremonial purposes. The towns and cities also traded, using rivers and other routes along coastal plains to transport goods.

EARLY CIVILIZATIONS IN AMERICA

From about 1500 BCE, farming cultures flourished in central America, and the Olmecs built their first cities. In North America, the Adena culture were among the first Mound Builders to emerge from about 1000 BCE, followed 800 years later by the Hopewells.

KEY
◆ Major urban centres

TIMELINE

	2000 BCE	1000 BCE	1 CE	1000 CE
1				
2				
3				
4				

MESOAMERICA'S ANCIENT CULTURES

By 1000 BCE, much of Mesoamerica was inhabited by farming communities, which grew into cities through trading in essential and exotic goods.

2 EARLY MAYA 1000 BCE–250 CE

From 1000 BCE, the Maya began forming complex urban settlements with an elite class and entrenched religious practices. These settlements also featured ceremonial sites in the form of plazas and earthen mounds. Maya artwork during this period drew influence from the Olmecs.

— Area of influence to 1000 BCE ◆ Preclassic sites
— Additional area of influence 800 BCE

1 OLMECS 1500 BCE–400 BCE

The Olmecs are known for their monumental earth platforms and mounds, fine jade artefacts, and giant head sculptures. Archaeological evidence suggests that the Olmecs created the first writing system and calendar in Mesoamerica. From their heartland in San Lorenzo, they traded widely into western Mexico and established trade relations with many Maya sites along the southern coast.

— Area of influence → Trade route
◆ Olmec sculpture site ◆ Olmec settlement

1000–700 BCE Ceramics produced in Tlatilco bear an Olmec influence

300 BCE Preclassic Maya construct among the earliest giant pyramid temples, bearing large stucco masks depicting the deities of Maya mythology

1200–900 BCE San Lorenzo is a major centre for Olmec culture

300 BCE Monte Albán is among the fastest-growing cities in Mesoamerica, with a population of more than 5,000

Sierra Madre Oriental
Gulf of Mexico
Yucatan Peninsula
Isthmus of Tehuantepec
Sierra Madre del Sur
Valley of Oaxaca
PACIFIC OCEAN

Pavón · El Trapiche · El Viejón · Tlatilco · Tlapacoya · Remojadas · Cuicuilco · Gualupita · Cerro de las Mesas · Taxla · Chalcatzingo · Las Bocas · Tres Zapotes · Mezcala · Laguna de los Cerros · San Lorenzo · Oxtotitlán Cave · Juxtlahuaca Cave · San José Mogote · Zanja · Monte Albán · Dainzú · Cerro de la Bomba · Boca del Río · Pijijiapan · Aquiles Serdán · Altamira · La Victoria · La Blanca · Chalchuapa

Dzibilchaltún · Komchén · Yaxuna · Loltún · Edzná · Dzibilnocac · Aquacatal · Becan · Cerros · Cuello · Calakmul · Kichpanha · Colta · Balancán · El Mirador · Waкná · Lamanaí · La Venta · Nakbé · Palenque · Tintal · Tikal · Barton Ramie · Tayasal · Santa Cruz · Chiapa de Corzo · Seibal · Perseverancia · Xoc · Padre Piedra · El Porton · Izapa · Kaminaljuyu · El Baúl · Copán · Izapa · San Isidro Piedra Parada · Abaj Takalik · Las Victorias · Ilopango

3 ADENA CULTURE 1000 BCE–400 CE

The Adena peoples became seasonal settlers in the Ohio River valley once they introduced farming to their hunting and fishing lifestyle. Each social group comprised about 100 people, made up of between 4 and 6 clans. Using only digging sticks and baskets, the Adena created impressive earthworks, which were sacred ritual sites or where the elites were buried. The Adena traded in raw materials such as barite, marine shells, and copper, used to make tools and ornaments.

■ Adena area of influence

◗ Burial mound sites

4 HOPEWELL CULTURE 200 BCE–500 CE

Most likely influenced by Adena, the Hopewell culture was made up of independent villages that shared a common culture based on their distinctively styled artefacts. Besides conical mounds, the Hopewells also built some of the most elaborate earthen architecture of the Eastern Woodlands, including platform mounds in Fort Ancient, Marksville, and Pinson as well as effigy mounds, which were often shaped like an animal such as a bear or a bird.

■ Hopewell area of influence

◗ Burial mounds   ▶ Effigy sites

THE MOUND BUILDERS

The Adena and Hopewell, known as Mound Builders for their extensive earthworks, were the earliest of several cultures to emerge in North America from 1000 BCE. The giant mounds they constructed are thought to have served as ceremonial centres or burial sites for the society elites.

Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie

New York

Boucher

Vine Mound

Squawkie Hill

Rosenkrans

Howard Lake

Trempealeau
Menasha Mounds
Trempealeau
High Cliff
Man Mound
Goodall
Devils Lake
Lizard Mound
University
Pikes Peak
Panther Intaglio
Muscoda Mounds   Mendota Mounds

Norton

Boone

Campbell Mound   Newark

Grave Creek Mound

St. Jones River

Toolesboro Mounds

Miamisburg   Adena   *Ohio*

Mound City

400 CE Fort Ancient – the largest known mound in North America – is built over 400 years

Marietta

West River

Sandy Hill

1–500 CE Mound site at Renner is inhabited by peoples of the Kansas City Hopewell culture

Havana

Havana

Fort Ancient
Turner
Serpent Mound

Harness
Hopewell
Criel Mound

Bedford

Tremper

Knight

Renner

Portsmouth

Crab Orchard

Cato

Appalachian Mountains

Armstrong

Kansas City

Mann

Adena Park

250–150 BCE Grave Creek Mound is among the largest conical-type burial mounds built by the Adena people

Crab Orchard

Cooper

Missouri
Kansas

Pinson

Miller

Miller

Copena

Bynum

Arkansas

Jaketown

Mississippi

Red River

Porter

400 CE Burial mounds built at the Marksville site are surrounded by a horseshoe-shaped earthen embankment about 910 m (2,985 ft) long

Marksville

Porter

Marksville

Tennessee

Gulf of Mexico

▷ **Hopewell figurine**
This clay figurine of a woman was found in Turner Mound, near Cincinnati. Besides pottery for domestic use, it was common for the Hopewell culture to make pottery for ornamental and ceremonial purposes.

THE PHOENICIANS

In the first millennium BCE, the Phoenicians were the leading seafaring merchants of the Mediterranean. Expert craftworkers, they specialized in luxury goods, including carved ivory, metalwork, and textiles.
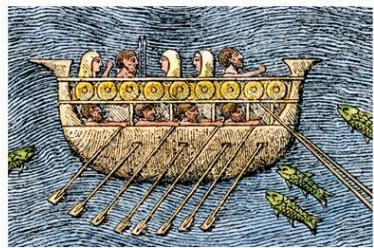
△ **Phoenician warship**
This Phoenician warship is a bireme, propelled by two rows of oars. Although the bireme was later improved by the ancient Greeks, it may have been invented by the Phoenicians. A row of shields protects the upper deck.

The Phoenicians lived in port cities in what is now Lebanon. Among these, the most significant were Byblos, Tyre, and Sidon, each ruled by a king. It was the Greeks who named these people "Phoenicians" after their most expensive product, a non-fading purple (*phoinix* in Greek) dye, derived from the murex sea snail.

The mountains of Lebanon were covered in cedar forests, which supplied the Phoenicians with long, straight timber. They used the cedar to build their ships and also exported it to Egypt, Greece, and Mesopotamia, which were all short of good timber. Their cities were also centres of craft production, producing purple textiles, glassware, engraved bronze bowls, and wooden furniture decorated with ivory panels. The craftworkers were influenced by Egyptian art, which the Phoenicians spread across the eastern Mediterranean and Mesopotamia. Alongside their own products, they traded in tin and silver from Spain, copper from Cyprus, Arabian incense, African ivory, Egyptian papyrus, Indian spices, and silk from Persian merchants.

Colonies and exploration

From the 10th century BCE, the Phoenicians founded colonies, as trading stations, across the Mediterranean. One such colony, Carthage (in North Africa), later became the centre of a great empire. Searching for new markets, the Phoenicians became the greatest navigators of the ancient world. Beyond the Mediterranean, they explored the Atlantic coast of Europe and, around 600 BCE, circumnavigated the whole of Africa. Their lasting legacy is their alphabet, which had just 22 letters. Adapted by the Greeks, the Phoenician alphabet formed the basis of all western writing systems.

▷ **Cultural influences**
This Phoenician ivory carving shows a human-headed winged animal, Mesopotamian in origin, wearing an Egyptian royal headdress.

Cedar for the royalty
Assyrian kings imported cedar from Lebanon to build their palaces. A frieze from the palace of King Sargon II (722–705 BCE) shows Phoenicians bringing cedar logs, towing them alongside their ships.

ANCIENT GREECE 700–338 BCE

Until Alexander the Great and his father united Greece in 338 BCE, the land was composed of hundreds of city-states, of varying sizes. Many were rivals, none more so than Athens and Sparta.

KEY

- ■ Athenian homeland
- ■ Spartan homeland
- ○ Greek city-state

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4

800 700 600 500 400 300

338 BCE Philip II of Macedonia (Alexander's father) leaves his capital of Aegae and sweeps through Greece, defeats Athens and Thebes, and attempts to unify Greece under the League of Corinth

4 GREECE WEAKENED 404–338 BCE

The Peloponnesian War spelled an end to stability and a blow to prosperity in Greece. From this point on, power ebbed and flowed between city-states and leagues. The constant fighting began to open an opportunity for an outside power – Greek-speaking Macedonia to the north – to expand and take control of the region.

- ● Macedonian capital

I GREEK UNITY 700–338 BCE

All Greek cities looked towards certain common places of "Pan-Hellenic" significance throughout the Greek, or Hellenic, world. These included Mount Olympus, the seat of the gods; Delphi, where an oracle spoke for all Greeks; and venues of Pan-Hellenic festivals, such as Olympia.

- ● Pan-Hellenic site

431–404 BCE Control of the narrow strait of the Hellespont – the route to Athens ally, Byzantium and the Black Sea – is key in the Peloponnesian War

422 BCE The Peloponnesian War moves north as Spartans march through Thessaly and Thrace to capture Amphipolis

454 BCE Athenian general Pericles moves the Delian League treasury from Delos to Athens, ostensibly to protect it from Persian attack, but uses League funds to build the Parthenon

478 BCE The tiny island of Delos is chosen as the seat of the treasury of the league led by Athens, giving its name to the Delian League

415 BCE Athens unwisely sends an expedition to attack Syracuse in Sicily, allowing Sparta to capture the entire Athenian navy; Athens now stands little chance of winning the war

3 PELOPONNESIAN WAR 431–404 BCE

Although Sparta formed an alliance with Athens to fight Persia, it now headed the rival Peloponnesian League and objected to Athens high-handed imperialism. When war broke out between Sparta and Athens, most of Greece leapt to either one side or the other. Sparta emerged victorious, but the conflict plunged the region into disarray.

- ✕ Athenian victory
- ✕ Spartan victory
- → Athenian expedition
- ● State involved in war
- ■ Athenian allies
- ■ Spartan allies

424 BCE Athens captures Cythera from Sparta during the Peloponnesian War

416 BCE Neutral island of Melos is taken by Athens and – in an act that shocks many at home in Athens – all the inhabitants are massacred or enslaved

Map labels

THRACE
Abdera · Maronea · Aenus
Thasos
Samothrace
Parium
Lampsacus
Cherronesita · Arisbe
Imbros
Abydus
Dardanus
Scepsis
Cebren
Hephaestia
Lemnos
Myrina
Lemnos
Assos

MACEDONIA
Pella
Strepsa
Dicaeopolis
Stolos · Acanthus
Aenea
Mecyberna
Methone
Spartolus · Dion · Singus · Thyssus
Olynthus · Sermylia
Potidaea · Aphytis · Torone
Aegae
Mende · Scione
Mount Olympus

Larissa
Thessaly
Pherae
Pagasae
Pharsalus
Peparethus

Antissa · Mytilene
Pyrrha
Eressus
Lesbos
Cyme
Phocaea

Skyros
Oreos
Euboea
Clazomenae
Erythrae
Haerae
Chios

Ambracia
Argos
Olpae
Leucas
AETOLIA
Chalcis
Boeotia
Eretria
Delphi · Styra
Koronela · Thebes · Tanagra
Naupactus
Carystus
Oiniadai · Calydon
ATTICA
Patrae · ACHAEA
Megara · Athens
Piraeus
Cephallenia
Corinth
Aegina · Coressus · Tenos · Myconos
Andros
Ceos · Delos
Oenoe
Karia
Elis · ARCADIA
Mantinea
Argos
Olympia · Dipai
Cythnos · Cyclades · Naxos
Peloponnese
Serifos
Zacynthus
Bassae
Sifnos
Ios · Astypalaea
MESSENIA · Sparta
Melos
LACONIA
Thera
Methone
Cythera

Aegean Sea
Gulf of Corinth
Mediterranean Sea
Kydonia · Knossos
Crete

THE GREEK CITY-STATES

In a seminal period for Western civilization, the Greek people spread through the Mediterranean, exporting their culture as they went. But they were never unified politically. Leagues of independent city-states became close-knit only when faced with a common threat.

The cornerstone of Greek civilization was the *polis*, or city-state. These self-governing communities, frequently isolated by Greece's rugged terrain, were based on walled cities with outlying villages and farmland. Despite being fiercely independent, these hundreds of city-states, scattered around the Mediterranean, had language, religion, and many cultural practices in common. Even remote colonies strove to express their identity with the building of temples and theatres and the output of fine ceramics. The Greek world was also more or less united at times in loose confederations, never more so than when the need arose to repulse the invading Persian Empire (see pp.58–59). The major alliance that arose in the aftermath of the Persian Wars, the Delian League, became dominated by Athens – to the annoyance of not only many other league members, but also of other leagues – principally that headed by Sparta. Athens' ruthless leadership of what had effectively become its empire sucked it into conflict with Sparta at a time when they were both great nations. By the end of the war, they were weakened and depleted, leaving a power vacuum for others to fill.

◁ **Bust of Pericles**
The so-called "first citizen of Athens", Pericles led Athens during the Peloponnesian War. Although a strong proponent of democracy at home, he made many enemies abroad.

"The strong exact what they can, and the weak suffer what they must."

THUCYDIDES, HISTORY OF THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR, 400 BCE

Map labels

Byzantium
Chalcedon
Astacus
Selymbria
Perinthus
Sea of Marmara
Proconnesus
Cyzicus
Phrygia
Mysia
PERSIAN EMPIRE
Anatolia
Magnesia
Sardis
Lydia
Colophon
Ephesus
Ionia
Pygela
Samos
Priene
Myus
Miletus
Pedasa
Latmus
Iasus
Cindye
Mylasa
Hydissus
Idyma
Cyllandioi
Caria
Madnases
Syangela
Termera
Halicarnassus
Calydnioi
Calynda
Telandria
Cos
Telmessus
Cnidus
Nisyros
Ialysus
Bricindarioi
Camirus
Lindus
Dodecanese
Rhodes
Carpathos

2 DELIAN LEAGUE 478–431 BCE

In the wake of the Persian Wars (492–480 BCE), many Greek cities formed a league of cooperation, whose leaders met annually on the tiny, central island of Delos. Athens emerged as the leader of this league but became ever more heavy-handed in its leadership, sparking innumerable revolts, which it crushed ruthlessly.

● States within Delian League
✊ States in revolt against Athens

478–470 BCE Ephesus and the other cities of Ionia join the Delian League to protect themselves from Persia, swelling league numbers to around 200 cities

MEDITERRANEAN COLONISTS

In 800–300 BCE, two cultures spread across the Mediterranean. Greek colonists looked for fertile land, since their homeland had little – first in western Anatolia, then the Black Sea shores, Sicily, Italy, and France. The Phoenicians went in search of metals and trade; they began colonizing copper-rich Cyprus, and reached as far as Gades and its silver mines.

Greeks establish Massalia (Marseille) around 600 BCE

Gades (Cadiz)

Carthage, a Phoenician colony, grows to command a trading empire in its own right, challenging the power of Rome

SCYTHIA
IBERIA
ITALY
MACEDONIA
THRACE
Black Sea
PERSIAN EMPIRE
Sicily
Anatolia
NUMIDIA
Mediterranean Sea
Crete
Cyprus
PHOENICIA
LIBYA
EGYPT

GREEK AND PHOENICIAN INFLUENCE BY 338 BCE

KEY

■ Greek homeland
■ Region of Phoenician home cities
■ Greek colonization
■ Phoenician colonization
● Greek cities
● Phoenician cities

7 BATTLE OF PLATAEA 479 BCE

The two opposing armies met at Plataea, Boeotia, in August 479 BCE. The Greeks, as at Marathon eleven years earlier, employed superior military tactics to overcome a much larger Persian force. On the very same day the Persian fleet in Anatolia suffered a heavy defeat at Mycale. The two defeats ended Xerxes' ambitions to overrun Greece.

✕ Battle

6 BATTLE OF SALAMIS 480 BCE

In September 480 BCE, the Greeks once more faced a much larger enemy force at Salamis. The Athenian general Themistocles employed a bold tactic: he lured the Persian fleet into the narrow straits and then launched an all-out assault from all sides. His victory forced the remaining Persian ships to retreat to Anatolia.

✕ Battle

5 BATTLE OF THERMOPYLAE 480 BCE

Although outnumbered by Persian forces, the Greeks held the narrow pass at Thermopylae for three days as Spartan King Leonidas mounted a last-ditch defence with a small force of Spartans and other Greek soldiers. Ultimately, the Persians took control of the pass, but Leonidas's glorious defeat instilled belief into the Greeks that they were capable of prevailing against the Persians.

✕ Battle

492 BCE A storm drives Mardonius's fleet on to rocks off Mount Athos, wrecking most of the ships and killing 20,000 men

491 BCE Mardonius's fleet reaches Thassos, where the people submit to Persian rule

492 BCE Mardonius's army annexes Macedonia – previously a vassal state of the Persian Empire

Jul 480 BCE Persian fleet inflicts heavy losses on the Greek allied fleet at the Battle of Artemision

Aug 480 BCE Following the Persian victory at Thermopylae, the state of Boeotia falls

Jun 479 BCE Spartan forces break the Persian line and kill Persian general Mardonius

Sep 480 BCE Helped by its position in the narrow straits of Salamis, the Greek navy defeats the much larger Persian fleet

◁ **Fallen warrior**
This detail is from a statue of a fallen Greek warrior, exhibited on the East Pediment of the Temple of Aphaia, Aegina, Greece, c. 500–480 BCE.

Oct 480 BCE The Persian army sacks Athens and burns the city

THRACE
Abdera
Thasos
Eion
Therma
Stagira
Pella
Methone
Olynthus
MACEDONIA
Pydna
Torone
Mt. Athos
Lemnos
Aegae
Potidaea
EPIRUS
Kasthanaia
Aegean Sea
Larissa
Skiathos
Dodona
Pherae
Skyros
Pharsalus
THESSALY
480 BCE Artemision
Korkyra
480 BCE Thermopylae
EUBOEA
Kassope
Ambracia
Chalcis
Eretria
Olpae
PHOCIS
Thebes
Leucas
ACARNANIA
AETOLIA
Delphi
BOEOTIA
490 BCE Marathon
Naupactus
479 BCE Plataea
Calydon
ACHAEA
Megara
Athens
Patrae
Corinth
480 BCE Salamis
ATTICA
Cephallenia
Phlius
ELIS
ARGOLIS
Zacynthus
Elis
ARCADIA
Argos
Olympia
Tegea
MESSENIA
Sparta
Messane
LACONIA
Methone
Cythera

Epidamnus
Adriatic Sea
Apollonia

GREECE AND PERSIA AT WAR

Following a series of revolts in its western provinces, the vast Persian Empire pushed westwards in 492 BCE in an attempt to conquer the Greek city-states and colonies around the Aegean Sea. This led to a destructive series of wars in which their superior military tactics and some timely good fortune helped the Greeks halt the much larger Persian forces.
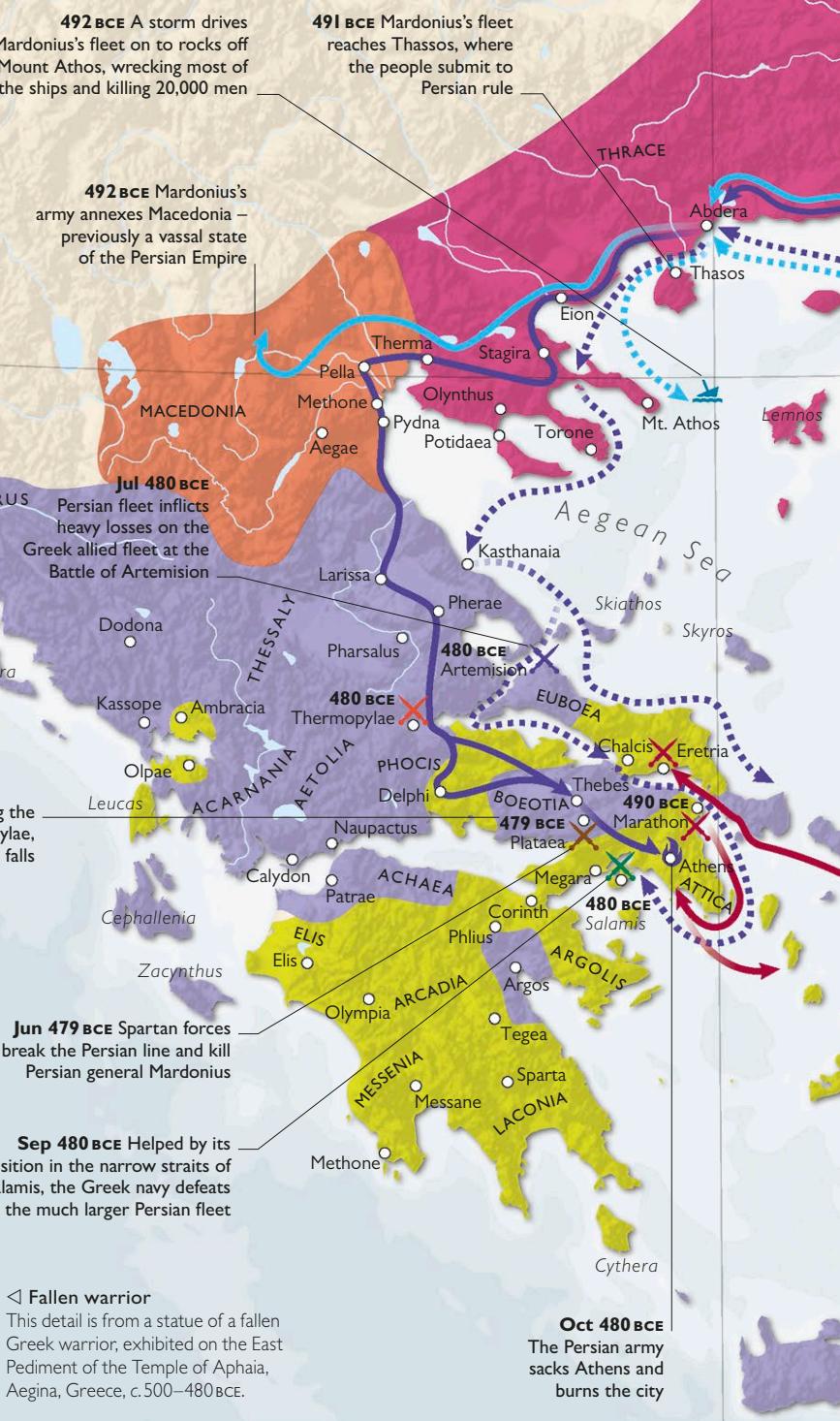
By about 550 BCE, the Persian Empire had expanded westwards, moving into Anatolia, where its armies had defeated the powerful king of Lydia, Croesus, and conquered numerous Ionian cities, which until then had been colonies of Greece. In 499 BCE, however, the Ionian Greeks in the city of Miletus rebelled against Persian rule, triggering uprisings not only in Ionia but also in cities across the Persian western frontier.

The Persian military response precipitated the first wave of hostilities, in which the Persian forces took five years to crush the Ionian rebellion, finally recapturing Miletus in 494 BCE. Then, in retaliation for the support the Greek city-states of Athens and Eretria had given to the Ionian cities during their revolt, Persia's King Darius (r. 522–486 BCE) launched a military invasion of Greece in 492 BCE. The attack was two-pronged: a land and naval campaign directed at Thrace and Macedonia, headed by the Persian general Mardonius,

Map labels

Odryses
Byzantium
Chalcedon
Astacus
Perinthus
Proconnesus
BITHYNIA
Cyzicus
Sestus
Lampsacus
Abydus
MYSIA
Ilium
Antandrus
Assos
Adramyttium
Pergamum
Lesbos
Mytilene
Pitane
LYDIA
Phocaea
Sardis
Smyrna
Clazomenae
Chios
IONIA
Colophon
Ephesus
Tralles
Samos
CARIA
Karia
Mylasa
Anatolia
Miletus
Halicarnassus
Physcus
Xanthus
Myconos
Dodecanesa
Kos
Cnidus
Naxos
Amorgos
Ios
Astipalea
Anafe
Thera
Rhodes
Lindus
Crete
Kelainai
Targos
Cyprus

Spring 480 BCE After crossing the Hellespont, Xerxes' army marches into Thrace and Macedonia

PERSIAN EMPIRE

498 BCE Greek forces catch the Persians unaware. A fire breaks out and destroys the lower city

492 BCE A Persian fleet led by Mardonius sets sail to launch a direct attack on the Greek city-states

479 BCE Mycale
492 BCE Miletus
494 BCE Lade

1 IONIAN REVOLT 499–494 BCE

Backed by the Greek city-states of Athens and Eretria, the governor of the Ionian city Miletus, Aristagoras, led a revolt against Persian rule in 499 BCE. The uprising spread to many cities along Persia's western frontier. In 498 BCE, allied Greek forces destroyed the Persian provincial capital Sardis, but the Persian fightback culminated in a victory at Lade (494 BCE), which ended the revolt.

- Revolt
- City sacked
- Key battle

2 FIRST PERSIAN INVASION 492–490 BCE

In 492 BCE, Persian King Darius (r. 522–486 BCE) ordered an attack on Miletus. Under Mardonius's command, the Persian fleet sailed into the Aegean Sea and destroyed the Ionian fleet. Meanwhile, the army recaptured Miletus and subjugated Thrace and Macedonia, but the expedition met an unlikely end when the fleet was struck by a storm.

- Land army campaign route
- Naval campaign route
- Recapture of Miletus
- Persian fleet destroyed

3 DEFEAT AT MARATHON 490 BCE

Led by Datis and Artaphernes, a second Persian fleet sacked Naxos and prevailed in its siege of Eretria. At Marathon, the fleet faced a smaller but well-drilled Athenian force who, having waited for several days for Spartan help, attacked the larger Persian army. The assault forced Persian troops to flee to their ships.

- Datis and Artaphernes' campaign route
- City sacked
- Key battle

4 THE SECOND INVASION 480–479 BCE

Darius's son, Xerxes, launched his campaign against the Greeks in 480 BCE. Xerxes made extensive preparations to invade mainland Greece by building depots, canals, and a boat bridge across the Hellespont. In response, many Greek city-states formed an alliance to defend themselves against the Persian force.

- Xerxes' campaign route
- Key battle
- Naval fleet under Xerxes
- City sacked

GRECO-PERSIAN WARS

Following the Ionian Revolt in 499 BCE, the Persian Empire launched two major invasions between 492 and 480 BCE in an attempt to conquer mainland Greece.

KEY
- Persian Empire
- Persian vassal states
- Greek allies
- Greek neutral states

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

500 BCE   490   480   470

---

and a second led by Datis and Artaphernes. The missions brought many Greek cities under Persian control and also turned Macedonia into a client kingdom. But, the Persian armies were eventually forced to withdraw as a storm wrecked Mardonius's fleet off the coast of Mount Athos. The second Persian army suffered a loss against the smaller, but more tactically astute, Athenian army at the Battle of Marathon in 490 BCE.

Ten years later, Darius's son and successor, Xerxes I (r. 486–65 BCE), re-started hostilities against Athens, having spent several years planning his campaign. Once more, the Persian forces outnumbered their Greek counterparts, in part because Athens could not always persuade other Greek states (in particular, the militaristic city of Sparta) to join them in battle. Nevertheless, the Persians were unable to exploit this advantage, and the Greek city-states ensured their independence with victories at Salamis and Plataea.

DARIUS I
550–486 BCE

Darius I was the third Persian king of the Achaemenid Empire, during whose reign the empire reached its peak. His administrative skill combined with his strong and intelligent leadership earned him the title of Darius the Great. He also built the magnificent city of Persepolis and left behind inscriptions telling the story of his successes.

Great King Darius
The king sits on his throne in a bas-relief exhibited in Persepolis, c. 500 BCE.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT

The young king of Macedonia, Alexander III, ascended to the throne in 336 BCE following his father's death, inheriting a highly efficient army. Within 10 years he conquered the vast Persian Empire, creating a realm that stretched from Greece to the River Indus. Although the empire fell soon after his death, it left a lasting cultural mark throughout the region.

On his succession to the Macedonian throne in 359 BCE, King Philip II (r. 359–36 BCE) transformed his army into the world's most effective fighting machine – based on the heavy infantry phalanx armed with long pikes. During his reign, his armies mounted efficient sieges to gain control of Thessaly, Illyria, and Thrace, and asserted control over the Greek mainland despite Greek hostility. However, just as Philip was preparing to invade Persia in 336 BCE, he was assassinated by one of his bodyguards.

Alexander becomes king

Philip's 21-year-old son, Alexander III, immediately claimed the throne and wielded his military force to suppress the revolts that had erupted in Greece and the Balkans following Philip's death. Thereafter, Alexander set out to realize his late father's ambitions, leading an army of 30,000 soldiers and a 5,000-strong cavalry on a masterfully drilled military campaign to conquer the Persian Empire. Alexander swept through the Persian territories of Anatolia, Syria, and Egypt without losing a single battle. He then marched east to the Persian homeland, waging a tireless campaign, and by 327 BCE

THE CONQUESTS OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT

From 336 to 323 BCE, the young Macedonian king Alexander III conquered many foreign lands and founded a unified empire under the combined rule of Macedonian and local officials.

KEY

- Kingdom of Macedonia
- Dependent regions
- Alexander's Empire
- Persian Royal Road
- ✕ Major battle
- ☆ Macedonian capital

TIMELINE

1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
336 BCE	333	330	327	324

1 CONQUEST OF ANATOLIA   334–33 BCE

Alexander confronted the Persian army for the first time at the Granicus River (in modern Kocabaş, Turkey) in the early summer of 334 BCE. The Persian army's plan to kill Alexander backfired because of its inability to hold its front line against the Macedonian cavalry. By spring 333 BCE, 30 cities in Anatolia had surrendered to Alexander.

→ Alexander's route through Anatolia

Spring 333 BCE Alexander cuts the legendary Gordian Knot – a sign that he would conquer the rest of Asia

Summer 334 BCE Alexander defeats a Persian force augmented by Greek mercenaries

Winter 331 BCE Oracle of Ammon proclaims Alexander the legitimate pharaoh of Egypt

Summer 334 BCE Alexander takes Halicarnassus after a siege. He appoints the local queen, Ada of Caria, to rule on his behalf

2 LIBERATOR OF EGYPT   332–31 BCE

In 331 BCE, Alexander reached Egypt, where the Persian satrap surrendered peacefully. Alexander was seen as a liberator who had freed the country from Persian rule, and was proclaimed son of the Egyptian god Amun. He also founded the city of Alexandria, later the capital of the Greek kingdom of Egypt.

→ Alexander's route through Egypt

Spring 332 BCE Siege of Tyre results in both sides suffering a high number of casualties

331 BCE Macedonian army transports military equipment along the Persian Royal Road during the conquest of Persia

◁ **The Alexander Sarcophagus**
Stone sarcophagus adorned with bas-relief carvings of Alexander the Great in battle. Housed in the Royal Necropolis of Sidon, Lebanon.

Map labels: Tyras, Danube, Istrus, Odessus, Apollonia, Philippopolis, Lissus, ILLYRIA, Pella, MACEDONIA, Aegae, EPIRUS, THRACE, Byzantium, Black Sea, Heraclea, Sinope, Phasis, PAPHLAGONIA, Amisus, Trapezus, AETOLIA, Thebes, Granicus, 334 BCE, Nicomedia, BITHYNIA, Troy, Pergamum, MYSIA, Gordium, GALATIA, Ancyra, ARMENIA, HELLAS, Smyrna, Sardis, LYDIA, CAPPADOCIA, Corinth, Athens, Ephesus, Aphrodisias, PHRYGIA, Miletus, Apamea, LYCAONIA, Sparta, Halicarnassus, CARIA, Perge, PISIDIA, Tyana, Melitene, Gaugamela, 331 BCE, Cnidus, LYCIA, Lystra, Nisibis, Knossos, Xanthus, Side, ISAURIA, CILICIA, Issus, Nineveh, Crete, Nagidus, Tarsus, 333 BCE, Antiochia, MESOPOTAMIA, Arbela, Cyprus, Salamis, Carrhae, Nicephorium, BABYLONIA, 331 BCE, Cyrene, Aradus, Thapsacus, Paphos, Heliopolis, Emesa, Palmyra, Euphrates, Byblos, PHOENICIA, Sidon, SYRIA, Tyre, 332 BCE, Damascus, Syrian Desert, Tigris, Samaria, Jerusalem, Babylon, Alexandria, Paraetonium, Gaza, PALESTINE, Pelusium, Memphis, Heliopolis, Sinai, Sahara, Sanctuary of Ammon (Siwa Oasis), Oxyrhynchus, Nile, EGYPT, Red Sea, Thebes, Syene

crushed the Achaemenid Dynasty – rulers of the first Persian Empire. Alexander forged an empire that stretched from Greece to the River Indus and introduced Greek culture to the vast realm. In addition, he was an astute diplomat and encouraged the mixing of cultures, adopting Persian customs in an attempt to unify his empire and establish trade routes between Asia and Europe.

Alexander set his sights on invading India next, but his weary troops refused to fight on, forcing their king to lead them home. Alexander survived a perilous journey across the Makran desert, but in 323 BCE – at the age of 32 – he died in Babylon of a fever, exhaustion, or possibly from being poisoned. A tussle for power ensued after his death and led to the break-up of his vast empire.

> *"… the end and object of conquest is to avoid doing the same thing as the conquered."*
>
> ALEXANDER III, FROM *LIVES* BY PLUTARCH, c.100 CE

THE EMPIRE FRAGMENTS

Following Alexander's death, his generals and associates, known as the Diadochi, disputed the succession, which led to the division of the empire. The Seleucids, descendants of Alexander's general Seleucus I Nicator, ruled the lands from Thrace to Persia. The Greek Ptolemaic kings claimed Egypt, while the dynasty of General Antigonus I Monophthalmus – the Antigonids – took sovereignty over Macedonia and parts of Greece.

KEY

- Antigonid Kingdom
- Kingdom of Pergamum
- Ptolemaic Empire
- Independent Greek states
- Graeco-Bactrian Kingdom
- Hellenized non-Greek Kingdom
- Seleucid Empire

3 FIGHT AGAINST PERSIA 333–30 BCE

Alexander's first direct engagement with Persian king Darius III had occurred at the Battle of Issus (333 BCE), where he emerged victorious and forced Darius to flee the battlefield. Alexander went on to capture Persepolis – the Persian ceremonial capital. A weak Persian Empire was all but wiped out when King Darius was killed by his satrap, Bessos, who then met his own fate at the hands of Alexander.

→ Alexander's route through the Persian Empire

4 HELLENISM 330–27 BCE

After the fall of the Persian Empire, Alexander conquered the remaining northeastern provinces between 330 and 327 BCE. Throughout his conquests Alexander founded many cities. These were planned along classical lines and featured the works of Greek artists, to ensure that both the Greek language and the Hellenistic culture of his homeland spread across his empire.

→ Alexander's route through Persian provinces

○ Hellenic city founded by Alexander the Great

Autumn 326 BCE Following the Battle of Hydaspes, Alexander's troops stage a mutiny, refusing to engage in any more battles

5 THWARTED BY MUTINY 326 BCE

In 326 BCE, Alexander turned his attention to India. He conquered Punjab in one great battle at the River Hydaspes (326 BCE), but the subsequent mutiny by his war-weary troops forced Alexander to head home. While his commander Craterus guided a section of the army and Nearchus took charge of the naval fleet, Alexander led his battalion across the Makran Desert, an error that resulted in a large number of deaths.

→ Route of Alexander
→ Route of Nearchus
⋯► Return route of Craterus

325 BCE Under Nearchus's command, Alexander's fleet sails back up the Persian Gulf

325 BCE Many troops in Alexander's battalion perish in the heat of the Makran desert

THE CLASSICAL AGE

Conventionally, the term "classical civilization" has been used to define the two different but related cultures that developed in the Mediterranean world from about 800 BCE to 400 CE. The first of these emerged in and around Greece, and the second rose in Rome, from where it spread across the entire European world.

△ **Iconic design**
This bronze helmet from the 6th century BCE was first worn by soldiers of the city-state Corinth but later gained popularity throughout Greece.

The immense contribution of Greece to western civilization is universally recognized. Although Athens has traditionally been given the greatest credit for this advance, modern historians believe that there is far more to the story.

Rise of the city-states

It was during the Archaic Period (800–479 BCE) of Greek history that the seeds of Greek civilization were sown. It was an age of experimentation and intellectual ferment. City-states such as Athens, Sparta, Corinth, Argos, Eleusis, Thebes, Miletus, and Syracuse emerged. The population expanded, and by classical times, it is estimated that there were more than 1,000 communities scattered across the Greek world.

Art and architecture flourished, and cities along the coast of Anatolia (modern-day Turkey) became important centres of early philosophical and other intellectual developments. The great plays of Sophocles, Euripides, Aeschylus, and Aristophanes were first staged at the Theatre of Dionysus Eleutherus on the southern slopes of Athens' Acropolis. Herodotus and Thucydides were the first great historians. Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle revolutionized philosophy, all three founding their own philosophical schools. Other notable figures of the time included the statesmen Solon and Pericles, the generals

△ **Greek art**
The Greeks used vases for storage and at occasions such as weddings. The painting on this vase, which dates from 530 BCE, depicts the hero Hercules.

Alcibiades and Themistocles, the poets Pindar and Sappho, the sculptor Phidias, and the physician Hippocrates – the father of modern medicine.

Success in war cemented these achievements. The defeat of the invading Persians at the town of Marathon in 490 BCE and at the island of Salamis 10 years later are regarded as pivotal moments in world history. Had the Persians emerged victorious, it is likely that the Greek achievements, which form the building blocks on which modern Western civilization is founded, would have been stifled at birth.

Spread of Greek influence

Greek city-states lost most of their power following the conquest of Greece by Philip II of Macedon in 338 BCE; however, Greek culture did not come to an end. Rather, it was spread across the eastern Mediterranean and far into Asia by the Macedonians. While the vast empire created by Alexander the Great (the son of Philip II) did not survive his death in 323 BCE – his generals divided it among themselves – what survived was the notion of "Greekness", which permeated every aspect of daily life. Almost everyone in the former empire spoke a form of colloquial Greek. The rulers encouraged the growth of learning in the empire. In Egypt, under the Macedonian general Ptolemy I, the university at Alexandria became home to the mathematicians Euclid, Eratosthenes,

POWERFUL CIVILIZATIONS

Various civilizations rose and fell in the Mediterranean region during the so-called Classical period of world history. However, the Greek and Roman civilizations emerged as the most dynamic during this era. The Etruscan civilization is also included in this timeline because of its close links with the early days of Rome. The city of Rome itself has a long history but played a relatively minor part until the Romans expanded their influence in the 3rd century BCE.

800 BCE The Etruscan civilization begins in Italy

594 BCE Athenian statesman Solon lays the foundations of democracy in Athens

497–479 BCE The Persian War is fought between the Greek city-states and Persia

430 BCE The Plague spreads in Athens; Pericles falls victim to it

395 BCE Socrates is tried and executed for impiety

312 BCE The Aqua Appia, Rome's first aqueduct, is constructed

ETRUSCANS

GREECE

ROME

800 BCE   600 BCE   400 BCE

776 BCE The first pan-Hellenic games are held at Olympia in Greece

753 BCE Rome is founded

509 BCE The Roman republic is founded

437 BCE Romans defeat the Etruscans at Veii

323 BCE Alexander the Great dies
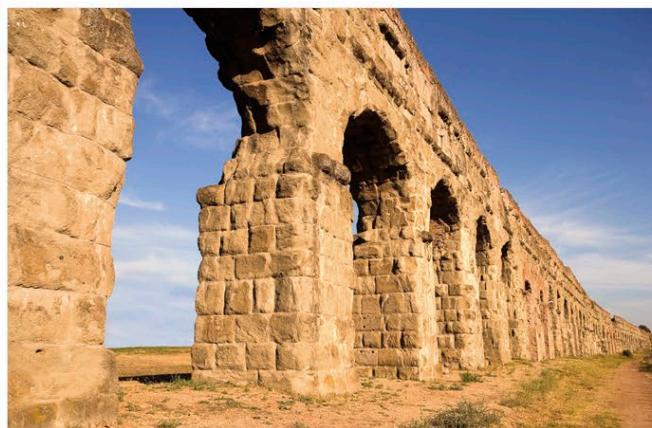
◁ **Public works**
The Aqua Appia was the first aqueduct built to supply Rome with drinking water. It dropped only 10m (33ft) in height along its length of 16km (10 miles). Commissioned in 312 BCE, it was an early sign of the skill and ambition of Roman infrastructure projects.
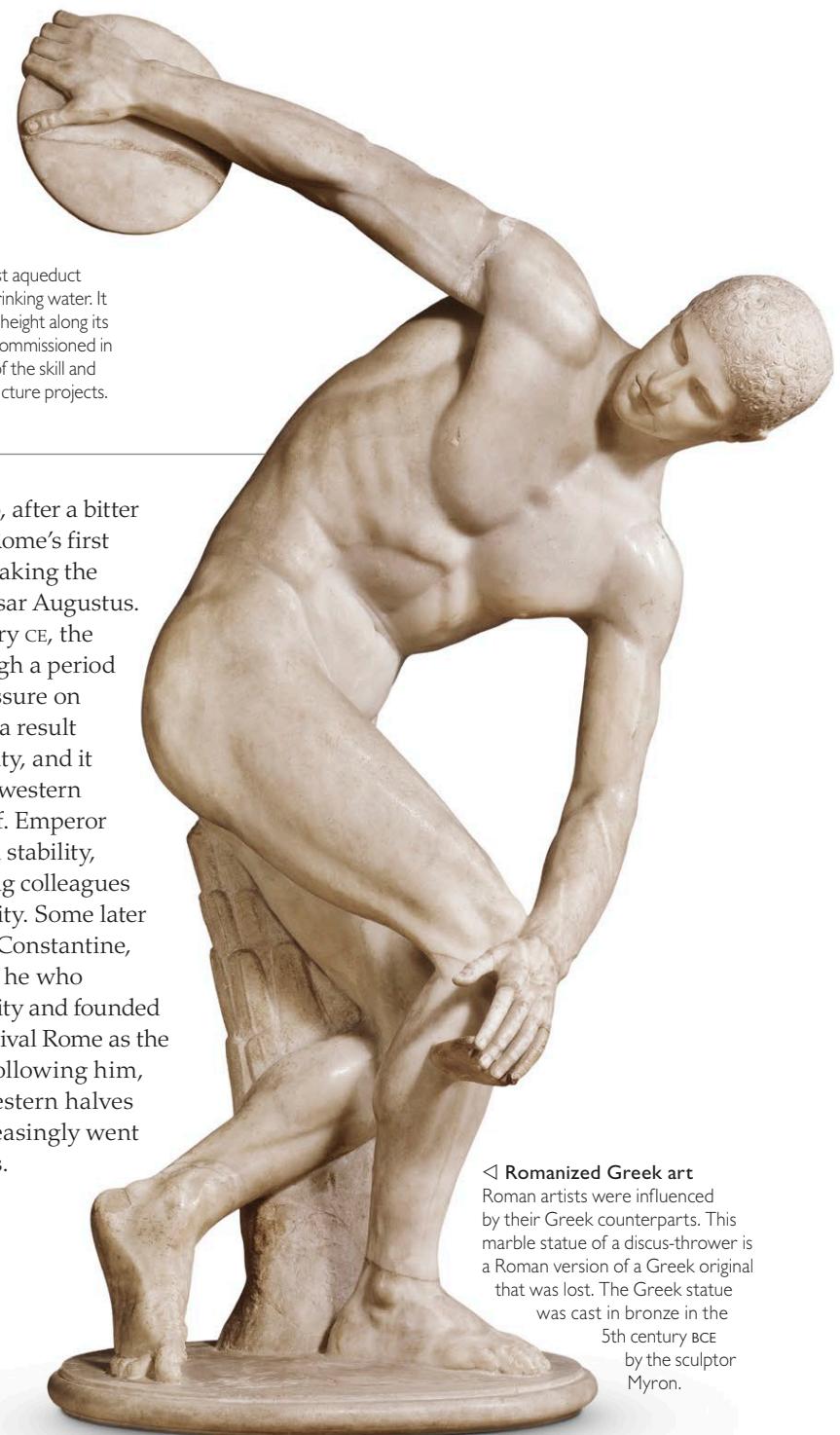
and Archimedes, along with the inventors Heron and Ktesibios. The great library there came to be a wonder of the ancient Mediterranean world.

Rise and fall of Rome

Rome arose from a small trading settlement on the banks of the River Tiber. Initially, it came under the influence of the powerful Etruscan civilization to its north. The last Etruscan king, Lucius Tarquinius Superbus, was driven out by the Romans in 509 BCE, after which Rome became a republic, ruled by a senate and two consuls, elected annually.

It was war that made the republic great. Its increasing dominance in Italy brought it into conflict with its Mediterranean rival city Carthage. The defeat of the Carthaginians ensured Roman dominance of the western Mediterranean. The successful wars that the Romans fought against the Macedonians and others in the east gave Rome control over the entire Mediterranean region.

In the 1st century BCE, Rome was still a republic with powerful senators such as Julius Caesar. Whether he would have made himself emperor had he not been assassinated must remain a speculation. It was Octavian, his adopted great-nephew, who, after a bitter civil war, became Rome's first emperor in 31 BCE, taking the title Imperator Caesar Augustus.

In the 3rd century CE, the empire went through a period of crisis due to pressure on its frontiers and as a result of political instability, and it was divided into a western and an eastern half. Emperor Diocletian restored stability, partly by appointing colleagues to share his authority. Some later emperors, notably Constantine, ruled alone. It was he who legalized Christianity and founded Constantinople to rival Rome as the imperial capital. Following him, the eastern and western halves of the empire increasingly went their separate ways.

"Freedom is the sure possession of those alone who have the courage to defend it."

PERICLES, ATHENIAN STATESMAN, 495–429 BCE

◁ **Romanized Greek art**
Roman artists were influenced by their Greek counterparts. This marble statue of a discus-thrower is a Roman version of a Greek original that was lost. The Greek statue was cast in bronze in the 5th century BCE by the sculptor Myron.

146 BCE Carthage is destroyed by Rome

146 BCE Greece comes under Roman rule

31 BCE Octavian becomes Emperor Augustus of Rome

79 CE Mount Vesuvius erupts, causing the Roman city Pompeii to become entombed

285 CE Emperor Diocletian splits the Roman Empire in two

410 CE Rome is attacked and sacked by Visigoths

476 CE The Western Roman Empire falls

1 BCE | 200 CE | 400 CE | 600 CE

155 BCE Athens sends delegates of its three great schools of philosophy to Rome

44 BCE Julius Caesar is assassinated

80 CE The Colosseum is built in Rome

313 CE Emperor Constantine I legalizes Christianity

THE PEOPLES OF ITALY IN 500 BCE

Before Rome's expansion, Italy's most influential people were the Etruscans. A number of independent Italic-speaking peoples, such as the Aequi, occupied compact territories in central Italy.

1 THE ETRUSCANS c.700–270 BCE

From around 700 BCE, the Etruscan civilization developed in three centres: the heartland of Etruria (modern Tuscany, Lazio, and Umbria), the valley of the Padus (Po) River, and in Campania to the south. The Etruscans became one of the most influential civilizations in the Mediterranean until their eventual displacement by the professional armies of Rome and their absorption into the Roman administration.

🟥 Etruscan heartlands

8th century BCE onwards
The Carthaginians hold many coastal areas of Sardinia and encourage cereal farming inland

2 THE ETRUSCAN LEAGUES c.700–400 BCE

To consolidate their power and strengthen their trading links, individual Etruscan cities formed alliances, or leagues. There were small alliances among the Etruscans of the Padus Valley and Campania, but the largest of them was the Etruscan League in Etruria. Twelve city-states belonged to the league, and they met annually, probably at their sacred sanctuary in Volsinii, to elect a leader.

◯ City of the Etruscan League

3 MAGNA GRAECIA c.700–250 BCE

Much of southern Italy was occupied by Italic-speaking peoples, such as the Sabini and the Samnites, but there were also Greek colonies in the south and in Sicily. The Greek presence was so strong that the Romans called the area Magna Graecia ("greater Greece"). Greek cities such as Naples and Syracuse were very powerful and brought Greek culture – including the Greek alphabet – to Italy. The Romans took over the area in the 3rd century BCE.

🟩 Greeks

8th century BCE
Tarquinii emerges as one of the great Etruscan trading cities

396 BCE The Etruscan city of Veii finally falls to the Romans after frequent clashes with its neighbour

c.600 BCE The Etruscans found the city of Capua, which is surrounded by rich farmland

8th century BCE Motya is established as a Phoenician colony; it later becomes a key Carthaginian centre on Sicily

c.734 BCE Syracuse is colonized by Greeks from the area around Corinth, and forms alliances with Corinth and Sparta

ETRUSCAN ART
TOMB DECORATIONS

The Etruscans developed art in various forms, including realist figurative sculpture in bronze and terracotta, engraved gems, vase paintings, and frescoes (right). Much of this art was strongly influenced by the Greeks. Most of the best surviving examples of frescoes and terracotta sculptures are from tombs, especially those found in Tarquinia, Italy.
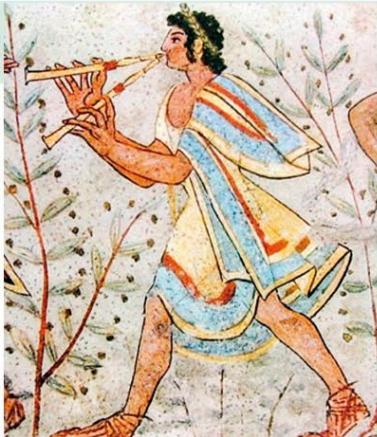
SHIFTING POWER IN ITALY, 500–200 BCE

In 500 BCE, the Italian peninsula was home to many different tribes, as well as colonies founded by the Carthaginians of north Africa and the Greeks. By the end of the 2nd century BCE, Rome was the dominant presence in Italy and was continuing to expand.

KEY

🟦 Italic-speaking peoples

🟥 Italic-speaking peoples and Etruscans

🟧 Carthaginians

TIMELINE

	800 BCE	600 BCE	400 BCE	200 BCE	1 CE
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
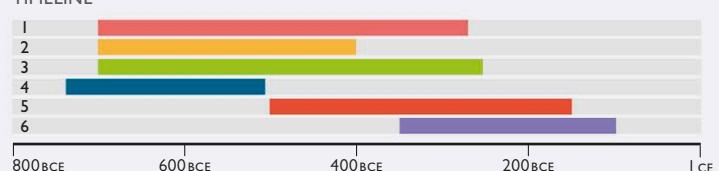
ETRUSCANS AND THE RISE OF ROME

By about 800 BCE, the dominant people in northern Italy were the Etruscans – people who lived in city-states and spoke a unique, non-Indo-European language. One of the cities they ruled was Rome, which began to grow into a major power from 500 BCE, annexing its neighbours and founding colonies throughout Italy.

The Etruscan civilization most probably grew out of an interaction between migrants from the eastern Mediterranean and the Villanovans, iron-age people who lived between the Padus (Po) River valley and the site of Rome.

The Etruscans flourished in this part of northern Italy, which they called Etruria, and in the area of Campania, around modern Naples. They built cities, developed distinctive styles of art – especially mural painting and sculpture – and formed trading alliances.

Rome was originally a settlement in Latium. Central Italy was home to a number of Italic peoples – the Umbri, Sabini, and others – who spoke Indo-European languages. Up until 509 BCE, Rome was ruled by kings of Etruscan origin. Rome then became a republic, governed by two annually elected magistrates, known as consuls. The Roman Republic expanded its territory, first into Latium, then into Etruria and the south. It did this through military victories over the Sabini and Aequi peoples of central Italy, and by defeating Veii, an Etruscan city northwest of Rome. The Romans consolidated their position by founding colonies that gave them dominance over much of Italy. By the early 3rd century BCE, Rome had nearly 300,000 citizens, distributed across the Italian peninsula. Roman culture was influenced by its contact with both the Etruscans and the Greeks.

4 THE FOUNDING OF ROME
753–509 BCE

Legend tells that Rome was founded in 753 BCE by the twins Romulus and Remus. Archaeological evidence suggests that its origins lie in a number of prehistoric villages near the Tiber, which expanded and eventually joined to form the city. The original local inhabitants merged with the Etruscans to produce a powerful city that formed a republic in 509 BCE and began to expand its territory soon afterwards.

--- Roman territory when Republic established

5 CITIZEN COLONIES   500–150 BCE

To consolidate its control of conquered territory and to secure strategic locations, Rome planted colonies across Italy. These colonies generally had about 300 Roman citizens and their families, each of whom was allocated a plot of land confiscated from the defeated locals. These colonies were often set up at existing cities, as a kind of garrison, rather than being independent cities.

● Roman colonies   ○ Other settlements

ITALY IN 240 BCE
Rome's colonies stretched from Ariminum (Rimini) in the north to Brundisium (Brindisi) in the south: their dates of foundation, BCE, are shown here in bold type. A network of roads built by the Romans spread their influence over much of Italy.

Map labels

Ariminum **268**
Sena Gallica **c. 283**
Ancona
Faesulae
Pisae
Arnus
Volaterrae
Arretium
Sena Iulia
Sentinum
Firmum **264**
Populonia
Perusia
Asculum
Clusium
Castrum Novum **283**
Spoletium **241**
Hadria **289**
Vetulonia
Saturnia
Narnia **299**
Cosa **272**
Sutrium **c. 382**
Reate
Alba Fucens **303**
Castrum Novum
Carsioli **298**
264 BCE The maritime colony of Castrum Novum is set up to help defend the coast north of Rome
Castrum Novum **264**
ROME
Signia **495**
Sora **303**
Ostia **c. 338**
Ardea **442**
Antium **468**
Setia **c. 383**
Fregellae **328**
Aesernia **263**
Larinum
Teanum Apulum
Luceria
Arpi
314
4th century BCE The colony at Ostia is of vital importance, guarding the mouth of the Tiber River
Circei **393**
Teanum
Beneventum **268**
Ausculum
Barium
Sinuessa **295**
Caudium
Venusia **291**
468 BCE Rome takes the city of Antium (modern Anzio) from the Italic Volsci people
Cumae
Neapolis
Nuceria
Genusia
Tarentum
Pontiae **313**
Pithecusae
Metapontum
Paestum **273**
Grumentum
Heraclea
Capreae
Velia
Thurii
Cosentia
Croton
Caulonia
Locri
Rhegium

Veneti
Ligures
Apennines
Tiberis
Via Flaminia
Picentes
Vestini
Sabini
Marrucini
Frentani
Marsi
Samnites
Apuli
Hirpini
Via Appia
Peucetii
Lucani
Sallentini
Bruttii
Adriatic Sea
Ionian Sea
Via Clodia
Etruscans

3rd century BCE The Greek settlement of Brundisium (modern Brindisi) is conquered by the Romans

Brundisium **246**

△ **The Capitoline Wolf**
This statue shows the legendary founders of Rome being nursed by a she-wolf. The bronze wolf may date back to Etruscan times; the twins are a Renaissance addition.

6 LATIN COLONIES   350–100 BCE

Not all colonists retained their rights as full Roman citizens; some were given the same status as the inhabitants of Latium who had earlier been conquered by Rome. The people of these "Latin" colonies had legal rights under Roman law but no right to vote in elections or stand for office. Most of Rome's *socii* (allies by treaty) were granted neither full citizenship nor Latin rights, which eventually led to an uprising.

■ Roman citizens, 240 BCE
◆ Latin colonies, 240 BCE
■ Allies (*socii*) of Rome, 240 BCE
— Roman road

3rd century BCE The Romans capture the Greek colony of Paestum after their war with King Pyrrhus, ruler of Epirus on mainland Greece

340 BCE The Romans fight a coalition of their neighbours – the Latini, Campani, Volsci, and others – at the Battle of Mount Vesuvius

ROME BUILDS ITS POWER BASE

As the Roman Republic expanded in the 3rd century BCE, it came into conflict with the well-established Carthaginian civilization. Rome's victory in the three ensuing Punic Wars gave it hegemony over the western Mediterranean, and further Roman victories in Greece pushed Roman power eastwards as well.

In the early 3rd century BCE, Rome's power was confined mainly to its colonies in Italy. In 264 BCE, it began to expand its influence, first and foremost by fighting a series of wars with Carthage, then the most powerful city in the western Mediterranean.

Carthage had been founded by the seafaring Phoenician civilization (*Punicus* in Latin, hence Punic Wars), which had thrived in the eastern Mediterranean from around 1500 BCE. Carthage was not a formal empire but the pre-eminent city in a league of cities that defended one another and maintained trading networks. Located on the coast of what is modern Tunisia,

it built up formidable sea power, with a fleet of around 350 ships by the year 256 BCE. To defeat Carthage and its allies, Rome not only had to fight skilled Carthaginian generals in land battles but had to build and equip its own navy. Roman victories against Carthage brought it many provinces: Sicilia (Sicily), Corsica, and Sardinia after the first Punic War (264–241 BCE); two Spanish provinces after the second (218–201 BCE); and the province of Africa (northern Tunisia), on the site of Carthage itself, in the third (149–146 BCE). Further victories in Greece gave Rome the dominant position in the Mediterranean that it would hold until the 5th century CE.

"I have come not to make war on the Italians, but to aid the Italians against Rome."

HANNIBAL AT THE BATTLE OF LACUS TRASIMENUS, 217 BCE

THE ROMANS IN GREECE
Greece was riven by political tensions because the most powerful cities, such as Corinth and Athens, wanted independence from the main powers in the region – the Macedonians and the Seleucid empire of Persia. This gave Rome the chance to move into the area. After a number of military victories, beginning with the Battle of Corinth in 146 BCE, Rome was to gain many Greek cities and later set up provinces, which they called Macedonia, Achaia, and Epirus.

ROMAN PROVINCES IN GREECE *c.*100 BCE

CARTHAGE AND ITS TERRITORIES
814–146 BCE
From its origins as a trading post set up by the Phoenicians in 814 BCE, Carthage grew into a major power with outposts that extended along the North African coast, into southern Spain, and to parts of islands such as Corsica, Sardinia, and Sicily. The city's formidable naval power made it seem strong against Rome, which in the early 3rd century BCE had no navy.

209 BCE The Romans surround and defeat the Carthaginian base of Carthago Nova, forcing the Carthaginians to leave the eastern coast of Spain

◁ **War elephants** The army that Hannibal took across the Alps reportedly included 37 war elephants, an innovation that came to the Mediterranean from India, and that is depicted on this 3rd-century BCE Italian dish.

THE PUNIC WARS
This series of three wars took place over more than a century and involved the Carthaginians in long, gruelling marches through difficult territory. Both sides lost many soldiers, but Carthage was eventually weakened by the power of Rome.

KEY
- Carthaginian territory 264 BCE
- Carthaginian territory 200 BCE
- Roman territory 264 BCE
- Roman gains by 241 BCE
- Roman gains by 202 BCE

TIMELINE

218 BCE In the first major battle of the Second Punic War, Hannibal defeats the Romans under Tiberius Sempronius Longus, inflicting severe losses

5 THIRD PUNIC WAR 149–146 BCE

When Rome refused to stop its ally Numidia from raiding Carthage's borders, Carthage went to war in defence. The Carthaginians agreed to surrender when Rome sent an army in 149 BCE but revolted against Rome's increasing demands, especially that the city be moved inland. Rome launched a siege that the Carthaginians resisted for two years, until Roman commander Scipio Aemilianus captured the city in 146 BCE and utterly destroyed Carthage.

▬ Numidia   ✕ Battle

217 BCE Hannibal wipes out the Roman force under Gaius Flaminius in the largest ambush in military history

216 BCE Hannibal wins a major victory by trapping a much larger Roman force in a pincer movement

215–03 BCE Unable to engage the Romans in a decisive battle, Hannibal is finally forced to abandon his campaign in Italy

262 BCE The Romans defeat a Carthaginian force at Agrigentum, before destroying the city and taking the inhabitants as slaves

264 BCE The Romans land at Messana, with only minimal opposition

202 BCE Hannibal is ordered home to North Africa to defend Carthage, but is defeated by Scipio Africanus

149–46 BCE Carthage is besieged and finally crushed by the Roman army

260 BCE In a naval battle at Mylae, the Romans seize numerous Carthaginian ships, forcing a Carthaginian retreat

256 BCE The Romans build a large fleet, which the Carthaginians try unsuccessfully to defeat at Ecnomus. However, the Romans' subsequent invasion of North Africa is unsuccessful

Corsica to Rome **238**

Baleares ceded to Rome **202,** finally pacified **121**

Sardinia to Rome **238**

Sicily to Rome **241**

Map labels: Tolosa, Narbo, Massalia, Pisae, Placentia, Trebia, Ariminum, River Metaurus, Lacus Trasimenus, Perusia, Rome, Ostia, Rhodae, Emporiae, Tarraco, Dertosa, Saguntum, Aleria, Olbia, Carales, Cannae, Capua, Tarentum, Thurii, Croton, Cartenna, Iol, Saldae, Utica, Carthage, Zama, Hadrumetum, Panormus, Motya, Lilybaeum, Agrigentum, Ecnomus, Syracuse, Messana, Mylae, Rhegium, Leptis Magna

Geographic labels: *Pyrenees, Alps, Apennines, Iberus, Tyrrhenian Sea, Adriatic Sea, Mediterranean Sea, Pityusae, Aegates, Melita, Strait of Messina, NUMIDIA*

Route labels: 218, 210, 207, 204, 203

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2 FIRST PUNIC WAR 264–241 BCE

The first of the wars originated from a local conflict on Sicily that soon drew in the two great powers. In 264 BCE, Carthaginian forces arrived in Sicily; the Romans responded, taking the city of Messana (Messina) and pushing back the enemy. The Romans could not press home their advantage because they lacked sea power, but from 260 BCE they built up their fleet and devised new, successful tactics for naval warfare, briefly establishing a presence in North Africa. By 241 BCE, the Romans had taken Sicily, Corsica, and Sardinia from a weakened Carthage.

✕ Battle

3 HANNIBAL AND THE SECOND PUNIC WAR 218–201 BCE

After the First Punic War, Carthage increased its influence in Spain, and in 218 BCE their general Hannibal took Saguntum, a city under Roman protection. Hannibal's army then marched over the Alps, winning in northern Italy before heading for Rome. Another Carthaginian force led by Hasdrubal followed, but was defeated by Rome. Hannibal could not take Rome without reinforcements and returned to defend Carthage.

➤ Hannibal 219–202 BCE   ✕ Battle
➤ Hasdrubal 208–207 BCE   ▬ Carthaginian gains in Iberia to 218 BCE

4 SCIPIO IN SPAIN 210–202 BCE

Roman forces continued to attack Carthaginian strongholds in Spain. In 206 BCE, the Roman general Scipio Africanus defeated the Carthaginians at Ilipa, forcing them to leave Spain. He sailed to Africa in 204 BCE to pressurize the Carthaginians into agreeing to peace terms, but there they reneged, hoping to overcome Scipio in battle. The two sides fought at Zama in 202 BCE; Carthage was defeated and had to give up its Mediterranean islands to Rome and pay a war indemnity.

➤ Scipio 210–202 BCE   ✕ Battle

Caledonia

*c.*142 The Romans extend the northern frontier to the Antonine Wall, before withdrawing later back to Hadrian's Wall

Antonine Wall
c. 145 CE

Hibernia

Hadrian's Wall
c. 125 CE

9 CE Rome loses territory south of the Elbe after a defeat by Germanic tribes

3 THE CONQUEST OF BRITAIN 55 BCE–*c.* 50 CE

Julius Caesar unsuccessfully attempted to invade Britain in the 50s BCE, but the country was conquered from 43 CE onwards, under the emperor Claudius. The Romans took the southeast easily after a major battle, but encountered resistance elsewhere, especially in Wales and the north, so the country took decades to bring under imperial control. During the second century the Romans established a northern border by building Hadrian's Wall.

▬ Roman Britain

Deva
Eburacum
BRITANNIA
Lindum

North Sea

Isca Silurum
Verulamium Camulodunum
Isca Dumnoniorum
Londinium
Noviomagus Dubrae
Portus Itius
Vetera

121 BCE Gallia Narbonensis (Languedoc and Provence) becomes the first Roman colony in France

Germania
Burgundians

Iuliobona Bagacum
Rotomagus GERMANIA INFERIOR
Darioritum Durocortorum Bonna
Portus Namnetum Lutetia Mogontiacum
Juliomagus GERMANIA SUPERIOR
Caesarodunum Argentoratum

Elbe

1st and 2nd centuries CE The Romans gradually absorb Spain into the empire, assimilating local tribes and putting down rebellions

58 BCE Julius Caesar reaches the River Rhine; the river becomes the Roman Empire's northern frontier

Colonia Agrippina

Marcomanni
Quadi

Brigantium
Lucus Augusti
Bracara Augusta
Asturica
Legio VII Gemina
Mediolanum
Augustodunum
AQUITANIA
Burdigala
Lugdunum
Augusta Vindelicorum
Iuvavum Carnuntum
Vindobona
RAETIA NORICUM Aquincum
Curia Brigetio Savaria
Octodurum Virunum
ALPES GRAIAE ET POENINAE
PANNONIA INFERIOR
Vienna

Gallia
NARBONENSIS
Salamantica
TARRACONENSIS
Hispania
Pyrenees
Scallabis
Olisipo *Tagus*
LUSITANIA
Caesaraugusta
Segusio
Placentia
Cremona
Aquileia
Sarmizegethusa
Apulum
DACIA
PANNONIA SUPERIOR
Sirmium
Singidunum Viminacium
Roxolani
Troesmis

Massilia
Cemenelum
Ravenna
Narbo
Forum Julii
ALPES COTTIAE
Pisae
Florentia
Ancona
Salonae
DALMATIA
MOESIA SUPERIOR
Oescus Novae
Tomi
Durostorum

Pax Julia
Toletum
Emerita Augusta
Dertosa Tarraco
ALPES MARITIMAE
Corsica
Arretium
ITALIA
Corfinium
ILLYRICUM
Serdica
Oescus
THRACIA

BAETICA
Corduba
Valentia
Baleares
Aleria
SARDINIA ET CORSICA
Ostia Rome
Capua
Neapolis
Dyrrhachium
Stobi
Heraclea
Nicopolis
Hadrianopolis
Byzantium
Nicomedia

Gades
Hispalis
Carthago Nova
Sardinia
Carales
Misenum
Brundisium
MACEDONIA
Thessalonica
Cyzicus Prusa
ASIA
Tingis
Carteia
Tarentum
EPIRUS
Nicopolis
Pergamum

2 NORTH AFRICA 33 BCE–44 CE

In 33 BCE, the Berber kingdom of Mauretania became a Roman client kingdom. It was later annexed by Rome, and from 44 CE, was ruled directly as the provinces of Mauretania Caesariensis and Mauretania Tingitana. Further east, Octavian defeated his rival Mark Antony and his lover Queen Cleopatra VII of Egypt, creating the province of Aegyptus in 30 BCE. North Africa became a valued supplier of corn, marble, slaves, and other goods to Rome.

▬ Roman provinces in North Africa

Rusaddir
Cartennae Caesarea
MAURETANIA TINGITANA
Portus Magnus
MAURETANIA CAESARIENSIS
Sitifis
Numidia
Lambaesis
Thugga
Hippo Regius
Utica
Carthage
Hadrumetum
Thapsus
Lilybaeum
Panormus Messana
Agrigentum Rhegium
SICILIA
Syracuse
Actium
Delphi
Corinth
ACHAIA
Athens
Ephesus
Miletus
Cnidus
Rhodus
Sparta

31 BCE Octavian defeats Mark Antony and Cleopatra at the Battle of Actium, giving Rome control of Egypt

Creta Gortyn

27 BCE The ancient Greek city of Ephesus is made capital of the province of Asia by Augustus

49–44 BCE The city of Carthage, destroyed during the Punic Wars, is rebuilt by the Romans: it becomes an important "granary" of the empire

Mediterranean Sea
Sabratha
Leptis Magna
AFRICA
Ptolemais
Cyrene
CYRENE ET CRETA
Alexandria

80 BCE The city of Alexandria formally passes into Roman hands; it remains an important centre for shipping grain across the Mediterranean

◁ **The Arch of Trajan**
This relief shows the Emperor Trajan being greeted by Roman citizens. It is part of the decorative scheme on an arch built in his honour in 114–17 CE in Benevento, southern Italy.

1 THE CONQUEST OF GAUL 58–50 BCE

The Romans had annexed the southern parts of Gallia (Gaul) in 121 BCE, but the whole territory (the extent of modern France and Belgium) was conquered between 58 and 50 BCE by Julius Caesar. As well as opening up sources of raw materials, including lead and silver, this conquest allowed Rome to take advantage of the River Rhine as a line of communication. It also won Julius Caesar popularity and his army's loyalty.

▬ Roman Gaul

THE ROMAN EMPIRE UNDER HADRIAN

By the time of the emperor Hadrian (r. 117–138 CE) the Roman Empire had reached a size that would last until the late 3rd century. Organized into provinces, such as Cappadocia, its frontiers stretched from Spain to Syria.

KEY

- Extent of Roman Empire c. 120 CE
- Legion headquarters
- Major naval base
- Provincial capital
- Major road
- Fortified frontier

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5

100 BCE — 1 CE — 100 CE — 200 CE

Sarmatians

4 TRAJAN'S CONQUESTS 98–117 CE

The emperor Trajan (r. 98–117 CE) sought to expand the empire, especially in the east, with conquests in Dacia and Nabataea (which became the province Arabia). Trajan then restored a client king in Armenia, who had been deposed by the Parthians. In 113 CE, he sacked Ctesiphon, the capital of the Parthian Empire (territory previously ruled by the Persians and Seleucids), bringing Mesopotamia under Roman control.

■ Territories conquered by Trajan

BOSPORAN KINGDOM

17 CE Cappadocia becomes a Roman province under Emperor Tiberius

Black Sea

BITHYNIA ET PONTUS
Sinope

Caucasus

ARMENIA

Caspian Sea

Trapezus
Zela
Satala
GALATIA
CAPPADOCIA
Melitene
Caesarea
Samosata
LYCIA
Tarsus
Cyrrhus
Euphrates
PARTHIAN EMPIRE
CILICIA
Seleucia
Antioch
SYRIA
Tigris
ASSYRIA
MESOPOTAMIA
Laodicea
Salamis
Raphanaea
Dura Europos
Ctesiphon
CYPRUS
Tripolis
Damascus
Tyrus
Caparcotna
Caesarea
Bostra
Maritima
Jerusalem
(Aelia Capitolina)
JUDAEA
ARABIA
Petra

1st century CE The city of Antioch is rebuilt by the Romans, who see it as an eastern capital

68 BCE The Roman leader Pompey besieges Jerusalem, defeating the Jews and making Judaea into a client kingdom

Memphis

AEGYPTUS
Red Sea
Nile

5 THE ROMAN–PARTHIAN WARS 113–197 CE

Trajan annexed parts of the Parthian Empire in 113 CE both to defend Rome's client kingdom Armenia and to consolidate the eastern frontier. Trajan's successor, Hadrian, reversed this move and set the boundary of the empire back at the Euphrates. The Parthians, however, again tried to take Armenia, prompting a Roman counter-attack in 161 CE. The Romans sacked the capital Ctesiphon again in 197 CE.

■ Parthian Empire

ROMAN EMPIRE AT ITS HEIGHT

Rome's territories expanded steadily during the period of the Republic. By the time of the accession of the first emperor, Augustus, in 27 BCE, Rome controlled all of the Mediterranean. By 120 CE, the empire's borders were settled and it entered the period of its greatest stability.

The Roman Republic grew by military conquest and by establishing client kingdoms that accepted Roman domination in return for stability and good trading relations. The first emperor, Augustus, adopted a policy of not expanding Roman boundaries, which was followed by many later emperors, with exceptions such as Trajan, who added substantial but short-lived provinces in the east.

Guarding this huge empire was the job of an army of some 300,000 men, mostly based in camps along the empire's boundaries. The Roman navy protected shipping on the Mediterranean that carried the trade on which the city depended – everything from raw materials and slaves to foods such as grain and olive oil. Relations with the provinces were usually harmonious: the Roman way of life proved very attractive, helped to stimulate further trade, and encouraged people of conquered territories to become "Romanized" and accept imperial rule. The resulting balance of military power and economic prosperity kept the area relatively stable and peaceful in the first 200 years of the empire.

"You cheer my heart, who build as if Rome would be eternal."

AUGUSTUS CAESAR

FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE
POWER STRUGGLES IN ROME

When Julius Caesar seized power as a dictator in 49 BCE, it set Rome on a path from republic to empire. After Julius Caesar's assassination in 44 BCE, Mark Antony, Lepidus, and Octavian ruled the Republic as a triumvirate, but they vied for power and a series of disputes and civil wars ensued. Octavian ousted Lepidus in a political manoeuvre and then defeated Antony in battle, becoming the first emperor, under the name Augustus Caesar, in 27 BCE.

Bust of Julius Caesar
Julius Caesar was a powerful military leader and politician. His actions helped bring about the end of the Republic.
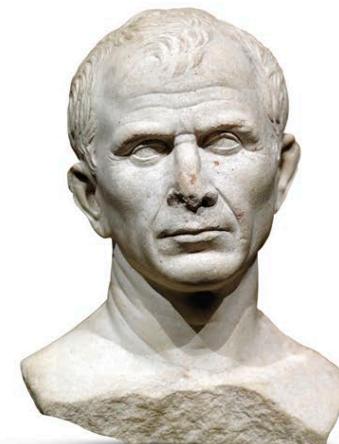
THE ROOTS OF INDIAN HISTORY

In the second millennium BCE, after the decline of the Indus Valley civilization, a people calling themselves *Arya* (noble ones) migrated from the Iranian plateau into northwest India. They spoke Sanskrit, an Indo-European language.

What is known of this time in the Indian subcontinent comes mostly from the Indo-Aryans' sacred texts – the four *Vedas* (from the Sanskrit word for knowledge) – composed and passed on orally. Mostly liturgical texts, used while offering sacrifices to deities such as Indra, the god of war, the Vedas also provide evidence of social structures. This period is called the Vedic Age. The early *Rig Veda*, composed from 1500 BCE onwards, shows the Indo-Aryans as nomadic pastoralists – chariot-riding tribal warriors, raiding each other for cattle. From around 1100 BCE, they moved east to the Ganges plain, where they became settled farmers.

△ **Delicate pottery**
From 1000 to 600 BCE, distinctive painted greyware pottery, decorated with simple lines or geometric designs, spread across northern India. It was so thin and delicate that it must have been a luxury or ritual item.

Many villages appeared, where people grew rice, wheat, and barley. Later, several large towns, fortified with ditches and embankments, developed. Marking the beginning of India's caste system, social classes appeared: the priestly *brahmins*, who composed and memorized the *Vedas*; the *kshatriyas*, or noble warriors; the *vaishyas*, or traders; and the *shudras*, or servants. The society changed from a tribal system, where assemblies of chieftains chose a king, or *raja*, to hereditary kingship. New kings received their legitimacy from sacrificial rituals overseen by the *brahmins*, which imbued each new king with divine power.

THE FIRST INDIAN KINGDOMS

From 1100 BCE, several powerful kingdoms developed across northern India, each with a fortified capital. These kingdoms, which became known as *Mahajanapadas* (great realms), were frequently at war with each other. The earliest recorded kingdom was Kuru, in the north. Later, power shifted south and east, to the kingdoms of Panchala and Kosala.

KEY

■ Extent of four notable *Mahajanapadas*

Epic war
A war for the throne of Kuru is the subject of the later Hindu epic, the *Mahabharata*. This scene shows the warrior Karna (centre) using a magical weapon to kill Ghatotkacha, who is half-human and half-demon.

THE NANDA AND MAURYAN EMPIRES

The Mauryan Empire was preceded by the Nanda Empire, which ruled in the 4th century BCE. The core of both was the Ganges River plain, which was the seat of earlier powers, such as Magadha. The map shows how populations were displaced at the end of the period.

TIMELINE

600 BCE	500 BCE	400 BCE	300 BCE	200 BCE	100 BCE

1
2
3
4
5

---

5 INVASIONS FROM THE NORTH 2ND CENTURY BCE

In the 2nd century BCE, the powerful Chinese Han dynasty (see pp.82–83) expanded its boundaries. This put pressure on peoples in areas such as Gansu; they moved south, in turn displacing local Scythian populations. The result was the movement of people across the Indus, deep into areas such as Saurashtra, which helped to undermine already weakening Mauryan power.

➤ Displaced Northern Shaka people (mid to late 2nd century BCE)

➤ Movement of central Asian populations (c.165–100 BCE)

➤ Displaced Shaka people (110–100 BCE)

---

c.250 BCE Sarnath, where the Buddha preached his first sermon, is visited by the Mauryan emperor Ashoka

c.563 BCE or 480 BCE The Buddha is born in Lumbini, according to Buddhist tradition

3rd century BCE Tosali is probably the capital of the eastern province of the Mauryan Empire

c.261 BCE Kalinga is taken by Ashoka; he becomes a Buddhist after witnessing the death of thousands in the fighting there

317 BCE Taxila is taken over by the Mauryans; it becomes a centre of arts, crafts, and learning and the capital of the Mauryan Empire's northern province

4th century BCE The kingdom of Avanti, with its capital at Ujjayini, is annexed by Chandragupta Maurya

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4 EDICTS OF ASHOKA c.260–232 BCE

The Mauryan emperor Ashoka converted to Buddhism after seeing the carnage that accompanied the conquest of Kalinga in 261 BCE. Ashoka set up pillars and had rocks inscribed with his edicts – announcements of his conversion to Buddhism and commitment to Buddhist teachings. The edicts cover subjects ranging from religious tolerance and justice to kindness to animals.

⌐ Ashokan pillar edicts

⊟ Ashokan rock edicts

Map labels:

Khotan

Plateau of Tibet

Karakoram Range

Pamirs

Northern Shakas

Hindu Kush

SOGDIANA

Bactra

From Chinese province of Gansu

BACTRIA

Scythians

Shakas

Dasht

Alexandria

ARACHOSIA

Kapishi

UTTARAR PATHA

Puranadhisthana
Shrinagara

Taxila

Chenab
Ravi
Sutlej
Indus

Thar Desert

Patala

SINDHU

SAURASHTRA

Ginnagara

Surparaka

APARANTA

Pratishthana

DAKSINA PATHA

Deccan

Narmada
Vindhya Range
Satpura Range
Godavari

Bhrigukachchha

Ujjayini AVANTI

Vidisha
Sanchi

Mathura

Yamuna
Ganges

Kapilavastu
Lumbini

Sarnath

Prayaga

Gaya

Pataliputra
Rajagriha
Devapattana

MAGADHA

PRACHYA

ANGA

Pundra

VANGA

Pragjyotishpura

Bay of Bengal

Tamralipti

Tosali

Samapa

KALINGA

Ghats
Mahanadi

Himalayas

I N D I A

MAGADHA   c. 558–c. 365 BCE

1

The state of Magadha in northeastern India became dominant during the time of the Buddha, who spent much of his life there. Magadha expanded under its ruler Bimbisara (c. 558–c. 491 BCE), who took over the state of Anga to the east of his homeland and bolstered his power with marriage alliances, so preparing the way for later rulers of Magadha to extend their territories.

NANDA EMPIRE   c. 365–321 BCE

2

Nanda, the first northern Indian empire, began in Magadha and expanded westwards in the 4th century BCE. It was governed by a network of ministers, and trade was eased by a standardized system of weights and measures. The Nanda rulers imposed their power with a vast army. They were famous for their great wealth, and their capital at Pataliputra was especially lavish.

■ Maximum extent of Nanda Empire, 321 BCE

MAURYAN EMPIRE   c. 321–185 BCE

3

In 321 BCE, Chandragupta Maurya conquered the Nanda Empire, gaining support from Nanda factions who resented their rulers' wealth. He extended his empire westwards into the edges of the area previously occupied by Alexander the Great; Chandragupta's son and successor, Bindusara, later added territory in southern India. The empire was the largest India had seen, and lasted until 181 BCE.

■ Maximum extent of Mauryan Empire, 185 BCE

3rd century BCE Suvarnagiri is the southern Mauryan capital. It is a trading centre at the meeting point of several routes

3rd century BCE The peoples of the south, such as Cholas, Pandyas, and Cheras, have friendly relations with the Mauryans

▽ **Gateway to the Sanchi stupa**
Emperor Ashoka commissioned the Great Stupa at Sanchi – the domed structure in the background, which contains relics of the Buddha. The ornate gateway, which shows stories from the life of the Buddha, was added in the 1st century CE, during the Satavahana period.

ASHOKA PILLARS
ANNOUNCEMENTS OF BUDDHIST FAITH

Twenty pillars inscribed with Ashoka's edicts still survive, including one (below) at Sarnath near Varanasi. Most of the inscriptions are written in the Brahmi script, a form of writing that became widespread during the Mauryan period and was used throughout India. Dozens of later south Asian scripts derive from Brahmi, including Devanagari, often used to write the Sanskrit language.

MAURYAN INDIA

India's largest ancient empire was founded by Chandragupta Maurya in c. 321 BCE. The Mauryan emperors – particularly the great Ashoka – worked to unite India for the first time, to increase prosperity through agriculture and trade, and to promote non-violence through Jainism and, especially, through the Buddhist faith.

India was a patchwork of independent states until the 6th century BCE, when one state, Magadha, began to take over its neighbours, creating an empire on the plain of the Ganges River. Magadha formed the basis of a larger empire that emerged under the Nanda dynasty in the mid-4th century. However, India's great Mauryan Empire came into being when Chandragupta Maurya filled a vacuum in the northwest caused by the death of Alexander the Great. He formed an army, marched on Magadha, defeated its king, and was made emperor. At the end of his life, he converted to Jainism, encouraging social awareness and non-violence.

The Mauryans came to rule all of India except the far southern tip. They maintained power using a system of provincial governors and a well organized civil service. Traders were taxed, and the government collected tolls from roads and river crossings.

Ashoka, who ruled as emperor c. 268–32 BCE, eventually renounced war and became a committed Buddhist, building and repairing stupas, sponsoring Buddhist missionaries, and passing laws in line with the compassionate tenets of the faith. Mauryan rule lasted until the 180s BCE, when the last emperor was assassinated.

THE QIN DYNASTY 221–206 BCE

From 350 BCE, the Qin state's superior army allowed it to defeat the other Warring States, and in 221 BCE, the Qin united the whole region to form the first Chinese empire.

KEY

Qin state 350 BCE

☆ Qin capital

TIMELINE

350 BCE　300　250　200

XIONGNU

DONGHU

218 BCE Qin Shi Huang orders that old defensive walls such as the Yan and Zhao walls be fortified and connected

Long wall of Zhao

Long wall of Yan

Xiangping

222 BCE

YAN

Yanmen

Shanggu

222 BCE Ji

221 BCE

Youbeiping

ZHONGSHAN

Dukang

210 BCE Qin Shi Huang dies mysteriously in Shaqiu Palace

ZHAO Daijun

Gobi

Yellow River

Ordos Desert

Shang

Lin

Jinyang

Eyu

Hao

Shaqiu

Pingyuan

Bo Hai

Lai

Lishi

Handan

Linzi

Shandong

Jimo

WEI

210 BCE Qin Shi Huang is buried with an army of 8,000 terracotta warriors in the palace tomb near Fengjing (modern day Xi'an)

Long Wall of Wei

Pingyang

WEI

Zhongmou

LU TENG

Qufu

Ju

Langye

Yellow Sea

Xie

Teng

Tari

Anyi

Chenggao

Daliang

228 BCE

225 BCE

XIE

Shangqin

Qin

Ping

QIN

Luoyang

Xinzheng

☆ Xianyang

230 BCE

Yong

HAN

Pingyang

Fengjing (Xi'an)

Yiyang

Chen

SONG

Nanzheng (Hanzhong)

Ye

Juyang

Shouchun

Jiangcheng

Wan (Nanyang)

223 BCE

SHU

221 BCE China's first emperor Qin Shi Huang establishes the Qin Empire and makes Xianyang its capital

Shangyong

Wall of Chu

223 BCE

220 BCE Transport reforms enable the creation of a road network radiating from the capital

Yanying (Ruo)

N

Danyang

Kuaiji

Wu

Shu (Chengdu)

Danyang

Henan

CHU

214 BCE The imperial army marches south to conquer the southern tribes

Qiantang

Ba

Nan

Hengshan

Guiji

C

Ying

Yangtze

H

Pengli

Dongting Hu

Poyang Hu

Minzhong

DIAN

221 BCE The Qin divides China into 40 commanderies (local districts), each managed by an administrative centre, such as Pengli

YUE

East China Sea

Lingling

Guiyang

MINYUE

208 BCE Qin Shi Huang continues his military campaigns after unification in a bid to expand Qin territory

NANYUE

South China Sea

◁ **Qin Shi Huang**
This painting of China's first emperor of the Qin Dynasty originally appeared in a 19th-century Korean manuscript depicting famous historical figures.

1   QIN EXPANSIONISM   350–206 BCE

Originally a small state on the western borders, Qin defeated neighbouring states during the Warring States period and took control of a large swathe of western and southern China. Victory over the Han state in 230 BCE gave Qin the impetus to conquer the remaining states within a decade. In 221 BCE, Qin leader Ying Zheng took the title of Qin Shi Huang (The First Emperor) and ruled from Xianyang.

- → Route of Qin campaign
- ■ Qin expansion by 288 BCE
- ■ Qin conquests by unification, 221 BCE
- ■ Qin conquests to 206 BCE

KOREA

2   REIGN OF QIN SHI HUANG   221–210 BCE

Qin Shi Huang introduced a series of reforms to strengthen the unity of China. These included the abolition of feudalism (to eliminate the traditional local and family loyalties that could threaten central power) and the establishment of a new system of administrative districts. He unified China economically by standardizing weights and measures across the realm.

- ● Administrative centre

3   FORTIFYING DEFENSIVE WALLS   218–206 BCE

Faced with the threat of attacks from nomadic people in the north and west, Qin Shi Huang mobilized a labour force numbering thousands to construct a unified fortification out of the defensive walls, built by several Chinese rulers during the Warring States period. The Great Wall would become the Qin Dynasty's most famous legacy.

- ⊞ Early sections of the Great Wall

4   QIN TRANSPORT NETWORKS   220–214 BCE

Another major construction to begin during Qin Shi Huang's reign was a complex road system to allow easier travel between cities and encourage trade nationwide. The emperor also ordered the construction of a major canal linking the Xiang and the Li Jiang Rivers, to ferry supplies to the army.

- — Imperial roads

5   THE FALL OF QIN   210–206 BCE

In 210 BCE, Qin Shi Huang died while on a tour of eastern China. The people were told that he was making the trip to inspect the empire, but it was in fact a quest to find an elixir of immortality. Civil disorder erupted following the emperor's death and ended with the Qin dynasty collapsing in 206 BCE.

- → Qin Shi Huang's tour
- ● Town visited during Qin Shi Huang's tour

CHINA'S FIRST EMPEROR

After a period in which numerous Chinese states fought for supremacy, it was the Qin state that eventually triumphed and unified China in 221 BCE. The Qin emperor, Qin Shi Huang, established a strict and highly centralized form of rule – a system that would become the model for China's future governance.

Between the 11th and 8th centuries BCE, China was made up of a mosaic of city-states loyal to the Zhou Dynasty, which employed a form of feudalism to rule the land. However, following the Warring States period (475–221 BCE), in which the Qin state triumphed over the Zhou Dynasty and six other rival states, the Qin leader, Ying Zheng, unified China under his leadership.

As the Qin's first emperor, Ying Zheng took the name Qin Shi Huang and replaced the old kinship-based government with an efficient bureaucratic system. He proved a formidable ruler with a clear vision for the realm, establishing a ruthless penal code to enforce his despotic rule. He actively suppressed philosophies – by the burning of books – that he felt either criticized or challenged his authority. His untimely death in 210 BCE, however, preceded the swift decline and end of his dynasty in 206 BCE. Although the Qin Empire lasted only 15 years, it had set up institutions that paved the way for Liu Bang to form the more enduring Han dynasty (see pp.82–83).

"I am Emperor; my descendants will be numerous ... ... my line will never end."

EMPEROR QIN SHI HUANG

THE WARRING STATES PERIOD

China was a patchwork of states each ruled by high-ranking nobles who swore allegiance to the Zhou kings. But as the Zhou's authority waned, the stronger states saw their opportunity and fought one another to gain control of China. In what historians call the Warring States period (475–221 BCE), six major states – Chu, Han, Yan, Qi, Qin, and Zhao – fought one another for dominance over the region.

KEY
- — State boundary
- ⌁ Wall
- ■ Imperial state
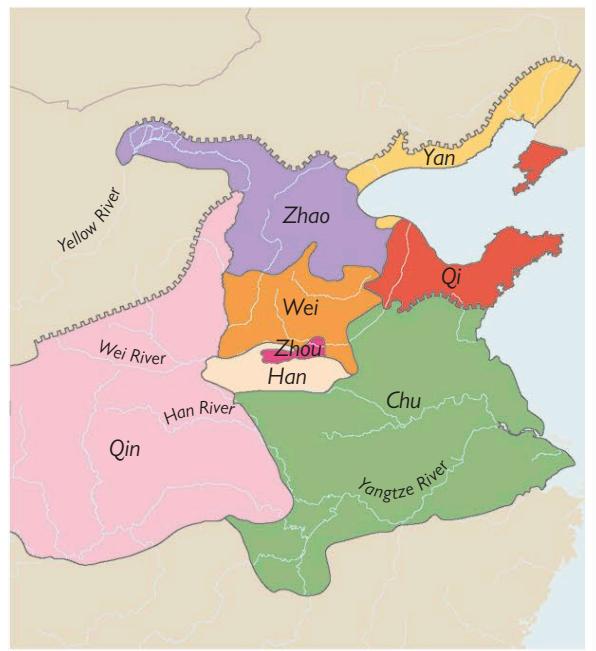
TERRACOTTA ARMY

In 1974, farmers digging wells in Xi'an, China, unearthed the first of four vast pits containing an army of terracotta figures. About 7,000 life-size warriors, 150 cavalry horses, 130 chariots, and 520 chariot horses were found.

△ Warrior's face
The warriors' heads were made in moulds, with features such as facial hair added by hand modelling. No two faces are the same.

The army had been buried in 210 BCE to protect Qin Shi Huang, the First Emperor of China (see pp.74–75), who lies in his tomb under a vast artificial mountain. According to Sima Qian, a historian from the early Han Dynasty (see pp.82–83), the tomb was built by 700,000 men and held a model of China, with its palaces. The tomb has still not been excavated, partly because of the archaeological challenge it presents but also because of the awe in which the First Emperor is still held by the Chinese.

Ruling from the afterlife

The First Emperor had planned to continue ruling from his tomb for eternity, so he was buried with everything he might need. He was accompanied by terracotta civil servants and entertainers – acrobats, wrestlers, and musicians. The army was there to protect him in the afterlife from the vengeful ghosts of all the men he had killed while on Earth. Nearby pits held suits of armour made of stone plates, as well as 40,000 bronze weapons whose blades remained razor sharp. They had been plated with chromium oxide to protect them from corrosion, a technique only reinvented in the 20th century.

Before the First Emperor, there had been no tradition of life-size realistic statues in China. A theory suggests a Greek inspiration, but the style of the terracotta army remained distinctively Chinese.

▽ Eternal transport
This half life-size scale model of a chariot pulled by horses is made of bronze. It provided the emperor with transport for tours of his kingdom in the afterlife.

Standing guard
For more than 2,000 years, the terracotta warriors have been standing to attention in massed ranks. They face east, with the tomb they are protecting directly behind them.

ANCIENT CULTURES OF MESOAMERICA

The pre-Columbian cultures of Mesoamerica were based around cities featuring monumental ceremonial centres. The cities shared cultural influences through trading with one another.

200 BCE Settlement founded. El Teul is continually inhabited for about 1,800 years until European arrival in 1531

600 CE Teotihuacán becomes the largest city in Mesoamerica

1 TEOTIHUACÁN 300 BCE–600 CE

The multi-ethnic city of Teotihuacán was the centre of a distinctive culture based on intensive agriculture, polytheism, and the ritualized practice of human sacrifice. The city's remarkable ruins, such as the large pyramids and multi-family compounds, bear testament to its stature. The city also traded extensively – obsidian tools and pottery originating in the city have been unearthed in many places across Mesoamerica.

- Core area
- Capital
- Direction of influence

Gulf of Mexico

c. 450 BCE Zapotec capital and a major ceremonial centre

c. 400 CE Key site for the production of ceramic pottery used for domestic, ceremonial, and funerary purposes

PACIFIC OCEAN

△ **Zapotec bird man**
This figure of a bird man, possibly a Zapotec deity, dates back to about 300 CE. The terracotta sculpture was found in the archaeological site of Monte Albán, Oaxaca.

2 THE CLASSIC MAYA 250 CE–900 CE

During their Classic era, the Maya built grand cities inspired by Teotihuacán. The Maya also interacted with other neighbouring cultures, in particular engaging with them in a ball game that ended with ritual sacrifice, sometimes of the losing team. Many Maya temples featured panels on the platform walls bearing giant stucco masks of deities.

- Classic Maya area
- Giant stucco mask site
- Monumental architecture
- Trade routes

3 ZAPOTEC CULTURE 500 BCE–900 CE

The Zapotecs emerged in the valleys in and around Oaxaca. They constructed an impressive cultural hub in Monte Albán, which featured grand terraces, plazas, and a ceremonial platform shaped like the base of a pyramid located centrally on a hilltop. By 700 CE, Monte Albán had grown into a city-state of about 25,000 people and interacted with other Mesoamerican regional states.

- Core area
- Capital
- Direction of influence

Map labels: El Teul, Etzatlán, Itztepetl, Xiuhquilpan, Apatzingán, Mexiquito, Tanganhuato, Acapulco, Tamuín, Panuco, Tula, Tepexic, Teotihuacán, Lake Texcoco, Ixcaquíztla, Acatlán, Tzilcayoapan, Tehuacan, Monte Albán, Villa Alta, El Tajín, Remojadas, Cerro de las Mesas, Tres Zapotes, Matacapan Piedra, Tuxtepec, San Lorenzo, San Miguel, Comalcalco, Chiapa de Corzo, Tehuantepec, Tonalá, Izapa, El Jobo, Sierra Madre del Sur, Balsas, Popaloapan, Grijalva, Mezcalapa

ANCIENT AMERICAN CIVILIZATIONS

In the period 250–900 CE, increased agricultural productivity in Mesoamerica led to the rise of the great cities of Teotihuacán and Monte Albán. The cities influenced Maya city-states to the east, ushering in a time of prosperity known as the Classic Maya period. Meanwhile, the mastery of irrigation techniques allowed a succession of empires to rule the Andean region of South America.

Teotihuacán and Monte Albán (the Zapotec capital) were Mesoamerica's two most powerful trading centres in the early Classic era. Teotihuacán traded with the first Classic Maya cities to form in the highlands, and its influence reached other similar independent Maya states that were emerging in the Yucatan peninsula at this time. The Maya culture would reach its high point during the Classic period, evident in the architecture, the widespread use of written inscriptions, and the complex Maya calendar.

All three cultures based their cities around ceremonial zones, often with pyramidal temples that served as sites of rituals, including human sacrifice. They also built recreational ballcourts and sculpted stelae to glorify their rulers.

600 CE The Maya build a giant step pyramid at Chichén Itzá, known as El Castillo, or Temple of Kukulcan, which forms the centrepiece of the ancient city

PRE-COLUMBIAN AMERICA
The ancient cultures of Central America were made up of large city-states, which traded with one another. The civilizations on the Andean coast of South America, meanwhile, built large empires through conquests.

KEY

▼ Irrigated river valley

△ Major settlements

◆ Other archaeological sites

TIMELINE

1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			

500 BCE   1 CE   500   1000

Chichén Itzá △
△ Uxmal
Labná △

Isla de Cozumel

MAYA
TOLTEC

Yucatan Peninsula

Becan ◆

Candelaria

△ Cerros

LOWLAND MAYA
El Mirador
Lamanai △

Usumacinta

Tikal △
Peten

Bonampak ◆
Caracol ◆
△ Seibal

Chamá ◆
Nebas ◆

Motagua

HIGHLAND MAYA
Zacualpa ◆
Utatlán ◆
△ Copán

Lago de Yojoa

Kaminaljuyú ◆
El Baúl ◆
Monte Alto ◆
Obero ◆

△ El Trapiche

Caribbean Sea

300–800 CE El Baúl is a key centre for the manufacture of goods made out of volcanic glass called obsidian

In northern Peru, the agriculture-based Moche civilization emerged from about 100 CE. Most probably, the Moche started as a group of autonomous states that came together through sharing a common culture. Around 600 CE, the Moche civilization collapsed – perhaps partly as a result of drought due to climate change – and was superseded by the Tiahuanaco and Huari cultures. These latter civilizations expanded more widely along the northern coast of the Andes. Among the most impressive achievements of the Huari Empire was its construction of a network of roads linking the provincial cities to the capital Huari. The Huari drew inspiration from Tiahuanaco-Huari mythology to develop a new art style, which influenced the regional architecture and pottery.

EMPIRES OF THE ANDEAN COAST
Between 100 and 1000 CE, a succession of cultures – starting with the Moche – mastered irrigation techniques, which formed the foundation of the empires they built along the Andean coast.

Japurá

Putumayo

Napo

Amazon

c. 100 CE Moche people build the Huaca del Sol – an adobe brick temple – in the coastal desert of the Moche Valley of what is now Peru

Piura

El Purgatório △
Moche △

Marañón

Chan chan △

Pañamarca △   △ Willkawain

Manchán △

Paramonga △

Chancay △   △ Cajamarquilla
Ancón △

Pachacamac △

Ucayali

Juruá

△ Huari
Cuzco △
△ Pikilacta

Pucará △

Lake Titicaca

Chuquibamba △
Chucuito △
△ Tiahuanaco

600–800 CE City of Pachacamac is thought to have served as a key administrative centre for the Huari Empire

PACIFIC OCEAN

4 MOCHE SOCIETY   100–600 CE
The Moche people channelled streams flowing down from the Andes into an extensive system of irrigation canals, enabling them to grow corn (maize), beans, and other crops. Iconography on Moche artefacts sheds light on the society's customs, and includes depictions of processions and rituals. The culture collapsed in about 600 CE, possibly at least partly due to environmental factors, such as prolonged droughts.

▬ Moche society   ★ Capital

Amazon Basin

5 HUARI EMPIRE   450–1000 CE
The Huari culture flourished from about 600 CE. It was among the first politically centralized civilizations in the New World that expanded as a result of its economic and military might. The empire constructed a major road network, which allowed its rulers to govern the realm from the capital Huari.

— Huari roads   ▬ Huari Empire

c. 300–700 CE City of Tiahuanaco builds an extensive empire, and by 700 rules over more than 3 million subjects

Beni

Mamoré

△ Alto Ramírez   *Lake Poopó*

Altiplano

Atacama Desert

Humahuaca △
San Pedro de Atacama △

Aguada △△ Hualfín

Salado

6 TIAHUANACO   300–700 CE
By 500 CE, the city of Tiahuanaco had a population of about 40,000. The city centre contained a complex of temples, courtyards, terraces, and statues. The site is best known for its monumental gateways, built with a giant single block of stone as the lintel and carved with cosmic and religious imagery. The rulers must have wielded power over a large workforce for the construction of the city's grand palaces and sophisticated rainwater drainage systems.

▬ Core area

▬ Area of influence

*c.***400** As the Picts move south, Irish Celts settle in the northern parts of the British Isles and become Scots

1 VISIGOTHS 378–418 CE

The Visigoths (western Goths) defeated the Romans at Adrianopolis (Edirne) in 378 before moving west. Led by their king Alaric, they reached Rome in 410 and sacked the city. By 418 they had settled in southern Gaul, allowed to stay by Rome in return for service as mercenaries. This agreement did not last and the Visigoths established their own capital at Tolosa (Toulouse).

⇨ Visigoths   ┅► Goths

2 THE HUNS 370–440 CE

The Huns arrived in what is now southern Russia from central Asia in the 370s. From here they moved west, conquering the territory of the Alans and overwhelming the eastern Goths. Under their powerful leader Attila they established a large eastern European empire, centred on what is now Hungary, near the borders of both the eastern and western Roman Empires.

→ Hun migration to Hungary

ATLANTIC OCEAN

SCOTLAND

Picts

Scots   Picts

Irish Celts

IRELAND

c.441 Germanic peoples from northern Europe begin to settle in Britain
c.457 Britons flee Kent after an Anglo-Saxon victory at Aylesford

BRITAIN

North Sea

Baltic Sea

Angles

457

Thames Londinium

Franks pre-**357**

Rhine

Saxons

GERMANY

453 Attila dies and the Huns' empire disintegrates

Vistula

486 *Scheldt*

456 The Visigoths begin to expand their kingdom in southern Gaul. They conquer most of Iberia by c.500

Meuse

Seine

451 Catalaunian Fields ✕

Lutetia

Borbetomagus

406–07 Alans

Suevi pre-**406**

451

Danube

Carpathian Mountains

Vandals pre-**406**

420

GAUL

414 Athaulf, leader of the Visigoths, marries Galla Placidia, daughter of the late Roman Emperor Theodosius at Narbo

Saône

443

EMPIRE OF THE HUNS

Tisza

c.**420**

Goths pre-**376**

KINGDOM OF THE VISIGOTHS

c.418

418

452 The Huns sack Aquileia, opening a way into northern Italy for Attila

Mediolanum

453

DACIA

376 Thousands of Goths move into Roman territory in Dacia and Lower Moesia

456

Alans, Vandals, Sueves

418

409

414

Tolosa

Narbo

Rhône

Ticinum

Verona

Aquileia

PANNONIA

Po

Patavium

Genua

410

489

Ravenna

492–93 The Ostrogoths under Theoderic besiege Ravenna, the western Roman capital

Danube

Ostrogoths from **450**

Visigoths from **382**

Alans

Douro

Sueves

Tagus

Toletum

WESTERN

Corsica

Rome

455

ITALY

Adriatic Sea

441

Visigoths from **382**

LOWER MOESIA

Constantinople

Philippopolis

378 ✕

THRACE Adrianopolis

IBERIA

Tarraco

ROMAN

Neapolis

EMPIRE

EASTERN

395

Corduba (Córdoba)

Balearic Islands

Strait of Gibraltar

Malaca

Carthago Nova

(From 395)

Sardinia

EASTERN

Thermopylae

429

Panormus

Sicily

GREECE

Corinth

Athens

Ephesus

410 The Visigoth king Alaric dies; the Visigoths abandon their plan to invade Africa

439

Hippo

Carthage

MAURETANIA

Vandals

NUMIDIA

Atlas Mountains

428–29 The Vandals cross the Strait of Gibraltar into North Africa; the kingdom they establish lasts until the 6th century

430 The Vandals take the city of Hippo; St Augustine, church father and bishop of the city, dies during the siege

Crete

396–97 Athens and Corinth are among the cities ravaged by the Visigoths

378 A force of Goths, Alans, and others defeats the army of the Eastern Roman Empire

Mediterranean Sea

A F R I C A

Leptis Magna

c.**456**

7 FRANKISH EXPANSION 357–550 CE

The Frankish tribes who lived along the empire's border on the Rhine sometimes cooperated with their Roman neighbours and sometimes raided their lands. In 357, their large domain was recognized by the empire, and when Roman power collapsed in the 5th century, the Franks, united under the Merovingian dynasty, conquered most of Gaul.

→ Franks

6 OSTROGOTHS 453–493 CE

The Ostrogoths (eastern Goths) were one of the peoples subjugated by the Huns in the 4th century. They settled in the Roman province of Pannonia, and after the death of Attila in 453, moved westwards and then to northern Italy. From there, under their great leader Theoderic, they extended their power across Italy in the 480s and 490s.

→ Ostrogoths

5 THE CAMPAIGNS OF ATTILA 440–453 CE

Led by Attila, the Huns devastated the Balkans and Thrace, attacked Greece, and extracted tribute from the Eastern Roman emperor. They then invaded Gaul, where they were defeated by the Romans at the Battle of the Catalaunian Fields in 451. The Huns moved into Italy, sacking numerous cities, before the Roman Empire sued for peace and Attila finally left Italy.

→ Campaigns of Attila

3 THE GREAT MIGRATION 406 CE

In the winter of 406, a vast group of nomadic peoples – Alans, Vandals, and Sueves – migrated westwards and crossed the Rhine into Roman territory. From here they moved through Gaul and into the Iberian Peninsula, where the Alans and Sueves settled. The Vandals moved on further, crossing the Strait of Gibraltar into North Africa in 429.

- - - → Alans, Vandals, and Sueves   ⟶ Alans

c.370 The Huns make their first appearance in the west, having arrived from central Asia

Volga

Huns
pre-**376**

370 After reaching the Volga across the steppes, the Huns start their rapid movement westwards

Don

Alans
pre-**376**

▷ **Visigothic brooch**
This bronze and garnet brooch, found in southwest Spain, dates from the 6th century. The eagle shape was adapted by the Visigoths from the Roman imperial insignia.

Black Sea

R O M A N   E M P I R E
(From 395)

A S I A   M I N O R

○ Antioch

S Y R I A

Cyprus

4 MIGRATIONS TO BRITAIN c.400–460 CE

By the early 5th century, Rome had withdrawn its troops from Britain in order to fight invaders elsewhere. In 410, Emperor Honorius instructed the cities of Britain to "look to your own defences", marking the end of Roman rule in the province. Abandoned by Rome, Britain was invaded and settled by Picts, Irish Celts, and Angles and Saxons from northern Europe.

→ Irish   → Picts   → Angles and Saxons

MIGRATIONS OF PEOPLES 300–500 CE

The 4th and 5th centuries saw long-distance population movements across western Asia and Europe. These changes weakened the power of the Roman Empire, destroyed major cities such as Rome, and paved the way for the western empire's disintegration at the end of the 5th century.

KEY

▨ Extent of Roman Empire c.390   ✕ Major battle

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

300 CE   400   500   600

AGE OF MIGRATIONS

The decline of the Roman Empire was accelerated in the 4th and 5th centuries by invasions of nomadic peoples from the east. This caused a cascade of movement, with new peoples settling in Europe and North Africa and changing the balance of power.

From the late 4th century onwards, a series of peoples moved into lands previously governed by the Romans. Many of these incomers, such as the Alans and the Huns, originated in central Asia but others, such as the Franks, were people from near the empire's borders. The invaders came for different reasons. The nomadic Huns came to plunder, moving quickly across the landscape and taking whatever they could. Others, facing problems such as famine or displacement due to invasion at home, were desperate to find somewhere new to settle. For example, the Visigoths (western Goths), who had previously been settled in the Danubian Plain near the Black Sea, made agreements with Rome, gaining land in return for supplying mercenaries to the empire's armies.

By the time the invasions began, Roman power was already in decline. There were many reasons for this – famine, unemployment, inflation, and corruption all played their part. So did the empire's size, which made it hard to govern and led to its division into eastern and western halves in 285 CE. The invasions weakened it further, and the leaders of the mercenary forces were well placed to take over parts of the empire in the 5th century after Rome itself fell.

"Attila was a man born into the world to shake the nations, the scourge of all lands."

JORDANES, GOTHIC HISTORIAN, c.551

THE DIVIDED EMPIRE
EASTERN AND WESTERN REALMS

Troubled by enemies to the north and east, and riven by internal strife, Diocletian decided that the empire was too large to rule as one realm. He split it in two in 285, ruling the eastern part himself, with the west governed by Maximian. There were subsequent periods of unification, but the east–west administration system survived for centuries, until the western empire was dissolved in 480.

3rd-century bust of Emperor Diocletian

HAN DYNASTY

Rebel leader Liu Bang reunified China in 206 BCE and founded the Han Empire. He instated a highly effective centralized government based on the system introduced by Qin Shi Huang's former Qin Empire. At the height of the Han's 400-year rule, China was the dominant cultural, political, and economic force in Asia.

The Han era (206 BCE–220 CE) is considered a golden age in Chinese history, during which the realm flourished in the areas of commerce, technology, arts, and politics. Through its conquests, the dynasty also brought a huge swathe of central Asia under its rule, creating an empire that at its height was comparable in size and wealth to its Roman counterpart. To consolidate its power, the Han fortified the Great Wall and set up military garrisons to protect its outposts. These measures allowed the empire to open the Silk Road – a major trade artery – in 130 BCE (see pp.102–03) and establish lucrative commercial links with the wider world, exporting luxury goods such as silk and lacquerwork. Under the Han, technology advanced, the coinage was standardized, Chinese calligraphy evolved into an art, and technological innovations culminated in the invention of cast iron tools, silk-weaving looms, and paper. However, despite the Han's military achievements, the steppe peoples, in particular the Xiongnu, remained a constant threat. In tandem with peasant rebellions in the 2nd century, they played a pivotal role in eroding the empire's authority and bringing about its eventual downfall.

"Where will I find brave men to guard the four corners of my land?"

EMPEROR GAOZU, FROM *SONG OF THE GREAT WIND*, 195 BCE

REIGN OF THE HAN EMPIRE

The Han Empire ushered in a period of prosperity, investing in trade and infrastructure. The Han also expanded its realm, gaining control of tribal territories in the north, Korea to the east, and the states in the south.

KEY
Han territory by 87 CE

TIMELINE

200 BCE	100 BCE	1 CE	100 CE	200 CE

Ozero Issyk-kul'
Tien Shan
Kucha
Turfan
Wubei
Kashgar
Tarim
Western regions
Yarkand
Takla Makan Desert
Cherchen
Khotan
Altun Shan
Kunlun Mountains
TIBET
Plateau of Tibet
Himalayas
Brahmaputra
Bay of Bengal

◁ **Changxin lamp**
This gilded-bronze lamp ornamented by the figurine of a palace maid dates back to c.113 BCE. The lamp is believed to have been used in the Changxin Palace (in Hebei) during the reign of Southern Han Emperor Lui Sheng (r. 920–58).

| **FIRST HAN EMPEROR** 202–195 BCE

Liu Bang defeated the last rebellion at the Battle of Gaixia in 202 BCE, after which he took the name Gaozu as the Han's first emperor, and reunified the realm by 206 BCE. He kick-started economic recovery by cutting taxes and invested in trade by nationalizing the iron and salt industries. He also invested in the country's transport infrastructure, which included the construction of canals in central China.

✕ Battle
⛏ Salt production site
◆ Iron production site
🗔 Silk production site
▭ Imperial canals

KEY
Northern tribes
Wei kingdom
Wu kingdom
Shu kingdom
Major migration of steppe people in 1st century CE
Full extent of Han empire

Steppes
WEI
Chang'an
Luoyang
Chengdu
Jiankang
SHU
WU

DIVISION OF HAN CHINA

Following the fall of the Han in 220 CE, China fragmented into the Three Kingdoms. The tribes of the steppes moved into northern China and founded the Wei Kingdom. Western China fell under the rule of regional warlord Lui Bei and became the Shu Kingdom, while the Chinese aristocracy fled south and formed the Wu Kingdom. Meanwhile, regional tribes such as the Xiongnu, Xianbei, and Wuhuan took control of former Han territories to the north.

6 THE YELLOW TURBAN REBELLION 184–205 CE

The Han resumed its military activity against the northern tribes. The cost of war in tandem with a drought in 184 CE inflicted poverty and famine upon the realm. Large-scale peasant revolts ensued throughout eastern and central China, and led to the rise of the Yellow Turbans – a rebel movement founded on a Taoist sect. The rebellion lasted 20 years and eroded Han authority.

━━ Rebellion areas ➤ Rebellion march into the capital

5 THE LATER HAN 25–220 CE

In 9 CE, former palace official Wang Mang usurped the throne and proclaimed the Xin Dynasty. Wang Mang's reign proved unpopular and prompted peasant rebels to besiege the capital in 23 CE. Thereafter, power returned to the Han lineage, and Luoyang was named the new imperial capital. By forming alliances with the various northern tribes, the later Han gained control of territories to the north and west.

⭐ Imperial capital ▢ Territories added by later Han (25–200 CE)

4 EXTENDING THE GREAT WALL 133–57 BCE

Despite the Han's military successes, tribes such as the Xiongnu, Xianbei, and Wuhuan remained a constant threat, which prompted the government to extend the Great Wall right across China's northern border. The extension not only provided a defence against northern tribes, but also allowed the Han to open a safe passage westwards and establish profitable trade links with the outside world, giving rise to the famous Silk Road (see pp.102–03).

┉┉ Han Great Wall

101 BCE The Great Wall reaches its longest extent during the Han Dynasty, spanning 10,000 km (6,200 miles) in total

206 BCE Han government designates a local administrative centre for each commandery

130 BCE The Han capital Chang'an serves as the eastern terminus of the Silk Road

127 BCE Expansion of the canals eases transport of goods such as salt, timber, and copper

3 WU WAGES WAR 141–87 BCE

Under Emperor Wu Di, the Han carried out extensive military operations to expand the empire's sphere of influence. Han forces took control of key trading cities Cherchen, Kashgar, and Khotan, and through the conquests of Nanyue and Korea, the realm extended its southern and eastern frontiers. Campaigns against the Xiongnu drove the tribe to the Gobi desert.

➤ Han campaigns under Wu Di

━━ Kingdom of Nanyue (206–113 BCE)

112 BCE Forces led by General Lu Bode and Yang Pu bring the kingdom of Nanyue under Han rule

2 CHANG'AN 195 BCE–23 CE

The Han initially chose Luoyang as its capital, but then ordered the construction of a new capital a few miles from the former Qin capital. Chang'an (modern Xi'an) was proclaimed the capital in 195 BCE, with the newly built Weiyang Palace as its centrepiece. The city grew into a bustling cosmopolitan hub with nearly 250,000 citizens – second only to Rome in size and influence.

⭐ Imperial capital ━━ Imperial roads

Map labels:

Gobi
Manchurian Plain
Woju
Xianbei
Sea of Japan (East Sea)
Xiongnu
Wuhuan
JAPAN
Juyan
Wuci
Wulu
Jiaoli
Yalu
Dunhuang
Wuyuan
Yaoyang
Luolang
KOREA
Qilian Shan
Yellow River
Yan
BoHai
Wuwei
Ordos Desert
Hebei
Anping
Gaocheng
Qinghai Hu
Sanshui
Luoling
Linzi
Lanzhou
Xiapi
Yellow Sea
Luoyang
Gaixia
Lintao
Lantian
Chang'an
Guangling
Xi'an
Wan
Huai
Tai Hu
Mekong
Qiang
Chengdu
Yufu
Yiling
Qiantang
Salween
Yangtze
CHINA
East China Sea
Dongting Hu
Hefei
Xingan
Yue
Taiwan
Yelang
Dian
Xi Jiang
Lingfang
Nanhai
South China Sea
Julu
Salween
Mae Nam Yom
Wuqie
Hainan
Mae Nam Ping
Mekong
CHAMPA

THE SPREAD OF BUDDHISM TO 400 CE

The earliest strands of Buddhism spread from what is now the border of India and Nepal. The later Mahayana school spread from Kashmir via trade routes into reach China, Korea, and eventually Japan.

KEY

- 🟥 Buddhist heartland
- 🔱 Major Buddhist centre/monastery
- 🛕 Buddhist rock-carved temple
- ➡️ Spread of Buddhism
- ➡️ Spread of Mahayana Buddhism
- ⋯ Trade routes

TIMELINE

1			
2			
3			
4			

300 BCE   100 BCE   1 CE   100 CE   300 CE

2 BUDDHISM IN KASHMIR
FROM 3RD CENTURY BCE

Buddhism had arrived in Kashmir by the time of India's Mauryan empire in 321 BCE (see pp.72–73). Kashmir became a centre for the faith under Mauryan emperor Ashoka (r. 268–232 BCE). The area was well connected with the rest of the empire, and from there Buddhism spread outwards, finding routes to central Asia, Tibet, and China.

1st century CE The trading settlement of Wuwei on the Silk Road is a stopping point for Buddhist monks on the way into China; many temples and grottoes are built here

2nd century CE Buddhist monasteries are built at Bamiyan, Afghanistan; colossal Buddha statues there are blown up by the Taliban in 2001

c. 654 CE Buddhism established in Tibet

c.528 BCE The Buddha first preaches at Sarnath, which becomes a pilgrimage site and home to thousands of monks in the early centuries BCE

c.528 BCE The Buddha achieves the state of enlightenment

2nd century BCE Rock-cut structures are begun at Ajanta; they are used as Buddhist monasteries and halls of worship

c.600 CE The monastery temple caves at Ellora are begun; they are among the most spectacular Buddhist monuments in the world

▽ Temple of the Tooth
This 16th-century temple in Kandy, Sri Lanka, contains a relic of a tooth of the Buddha. Carvings of elephants adorn the building's entrance.

1 BUDDHISM IN SRI LANKA
FROM 3RD CENTURY BCE

Traditional accounts date the arrival of Buddhism on the island now known as Sri Lanka to c. 236 BCE. It is said that the faith was brought to Sri Lanka by Mahinda, son of Ashoka, and that the emperor's daughter Sanghamittra also moved there to teach the local women. Several monasteries were founded during the reign of King Devanampiya Tissa (r. 307–267 BCE).

3rd century BCE The sacred city of Anuradhapura is established

Map labels

Kuldja · Astana · Turfan · Khocho · Loulan · Samarkand · Aksu · SINKIANG · Dunhuang · Wuwei · Bactra · Kashgar · Rawak · Miran · FERGHANA · Yarkand · Pamirs · Khotan · Niya · Takla Makan Desert · Bamiyan · Hindu Kush · Gilgit · Kabul · Peshawar · Plateau of Tibet · Ghazni · Hadda · Taxila · KASHMIR · Srinagar · Parihasapura · TIBET · GANDHARA · Brahmaputra · KUSHAN EMPIRE · Multan · Indus · Thar Desert · Meerut · Mathura · Kanauj · Himalayas · Sarnath · Pataliputra · Ganges · Bodh Gaya · Arabian Sea · Barbaricon · INDIA · Sanchi · Barygaza · Bagh · Ajanta · Tamluk · PYU · Ellora · Elephanta · PAGAN · MAHARASHTRA · Nagarjunakonda · Irrawaddy · Karle · ANDHRA · Thaton · Masulipatam · Amaravati · Bay of Bengal · Kanchipuram · Nagappattinam · Anuradhapura · Sigiriya · Polonnaruwa · Kandy · ANURADHAPURA

5th–6th centuries CE Buddhist sculptors adorn the Yungang Grottoes near Datong with figures of Bodhisattvas – people who have achieved enlightenment

c. **550 CE** Buddhism introduced to Japan

372 CE Buddhism is established in Korea when a missionary sent by the Chinese emperor Fu Jian arrives in the country

G o b i

Datong

Peking

Hejian

Wuyi

Gaoyang

Ye

Kaifeng

Luoyang

Tianshui

Chang'an

Linhuai

Jiankang

Nanyang

Xinye

Wuxing

Xiangyang

Jiangling

Wuchang

Chengdu

Changsha

Funzhou

NANZHAO

Yangzte

Guangzhou
(Canton)

Cattigara

Hainan

Pyongyang

Kaesong

K O R E A

Yellow Sea

C H I N A

East China Sea

Formosa

Mekong

South China Sea

713–803 CE The Leshan Giant Buddha, at 71 m (233 ft) in height, is built near the city of Chengdu

3 BUDDHISM IN CHINA
FROM 1ST CENTURY CE

Missionaries travelling on the Silk Road probably brought Buddhism to China, and translations of Buddhist writings were being made by 148 CE. These texts placed emphasis on meditation and wisdom, which appealed to a people used to philosophies such as Daoism and Confucianism. Buddhism also adopted the Daoist idea of the sacred mountain – a wild, lonely place, conducive to quiet meditation.

🔺 Sacred Buddhist mountain   •••• Silk Road

4 BUDDHISM IN PAGAN
FROM 3RD CENTURY CE

The first firm evidence of Buddhism in the region is an inscription from the 3rd century CE. From the 9th to the 13th century, the kingdom of Pagan occupied territory that is now known as Myanmar, or Burma. It was during this period that the country became a major centre of Theravada Buddhism, and the Pagan Dynasty supported the building of thousands of temples.

THE SPREAD OF BUDDHISM

From its origins in northern India and Nepal, Buddhism spread through Asia from the 5th century BCE to the 3rd century CE. It won the support of powerful figures, such as the Mauryan emperor Ashoka, which ensured that it took root across the continent.

Buddhism is based on the teachings of Siddhartha Gautama, known as the Buddha (the enlightened one). The Buddha is said to have been born in Lumbini, but his life dates are widely disputed (he may have died in 420–380 BCE). He did not write his teachings down, so initially his ideas were spread by word of mouth, and there were disagreements between his disciples over the exact meaning of his teachings. This led to a number of different early "schools" of Buddhism that spread around India, and across the sea to Sri Lanka and Myanmar, in the centuries after the Buddha died.

One of the earliest schools, which still survives today, is Theravada Buddhism, which emphasizes the individual route to enlightenment. It developed in Sri Lanka, where its sacred writings, the Pali Canon, were compiled in the 1st century BCE. From here, Theravada spread to what is now Myanmar, Cambodia, Laos, and Thailand. The other major branch of Buddhism, Mahayana Buddhism, stressed the importance of helping others to reach enlightenment. It became especially strong in Kashmir and spread across India in the 3rd century BCE. By the 1st century CE the faith had been adopted by the Kushan emperor Kanishka in central Asia and was being carried along the Silk Road to China.

THE ORIGINS OF BUDDHISM
The Buddha travelled mainly in the plain of the River Ganges. He preached to all classes of society that, while life involves suffering, this suffering can be overcome by following the path he described.

KEY

◆ Places visited by the Buddha

•••• Major routes

*c.***537 BCE** The Buddha's renunciation – he chooses to live a holy life

*c.***566 BCE** Birthplace of the Buddha

*c.***486 BCE** The Buddha attains Nirvana – the ultimate spiritual goal of being released from the cycle of rebirth

H i m a l a y a s

Soreyya

Veranja

Kampilya

Kapilavatthu

Shravasti

Lumbini

Ramagama

Mithila

Mathura

Samkashya

Setavya

Alavi

Saketa

Yamuna

Pava

Kusinagara

Bhoganagara

Kitagiri

Vesali

Nadikagama

Isipatana
(Sarnath)

Pataliputra

Campa

Kaushambi

Nalanda

Baranasi

Rajagriha

Kajangala

Sahajati

Uruvela
(Bodh Gaya)

Bhaddiya

Ganges

Brahmaputra

THE RISE OF CHRISTIANITY

Christianity spread across the Roman Empire and some neighbouring areas in the first centuries CE. Its adherents were persecuted until the early 4th century, when the religion gained official recognition, having gradually found more favour among the elite.

Most notable among the missionaries who spread the Christian message in the first century CE were Peter, who according to tradition founded the church at Rome, and Paul, a Jewish convert who made a series of missionary journeys in Asia Minor, Greece, the Aegean, and Italy. They initially addressed Jewish communities but soon won a wider audience. Christian ideas appealed to the poor, but also shared concerns with classical philosophy. Some pagan scholars attacked it, but others recognized its moral value; and by the second century CE, Christian writers were offering a robust intellectual defense.

The excellent communications and administrative framework of the empire gave the Christian faith arteries along which it spread, and a template for church organization. By the end of the 1st century, there were churches all over the eastern Mediterranean and in Rome, and the following century saw churches founded across the whole Mediterranean and beyond. Some emperors saw Christianity as a threat and persecuted believers, but Constantine gave the religion official approval in 313 CE, rooting it strongly in the empire.

"We multiply whenever we are mown down by you; the blood of Christians is seed."

TERTULLIAN (THEOLOGIAN) FROM *APOLOGETICUS*, 197 CE

THE EARLY CHURCH IN ROME
WORSHIP IN THE SEAT OF EMPIRE

The Saints Paul and Peter probably arrived in Rome around 50 CE, and were martyred, most probably under the emperor Nero in c.64 CE. There were bishops in Rome by the late 1st century but, at that time, a church was often a room in a private home, since Christians were widely persecuted. By the early 4th century, their faith was more widely accepted and more churches were built.

Catacombs of Rome
Christians favoured burial over cremation. They decorated the city catacombs where they placed their dead with frescoes.

457 CE According to tradition, St Patrick founds his main church at Armagh

3rd century CE There are some Christians in Britain in the Roman period, especially from the 3rd century onwards

177 CE Reports of persecution at Lugdunum (Lyon) are the first evidence of Christian beliefs in Roman Gaul

1st century CE Christianity probably reaches Spain; there are churches in cities such as Toletum (Toledo) by the late Roman period

2nd century CE There are Christians in Carthage; the city is home to the influential Latin theologian Tertullian

ORIGINS IN PALESTINE *c.30–50 CE*

According to the Acts of the Apostles (the fifth book of the New Testament), Jesus's persecuted followers dispersed from Palestine to set up Christian communities at such centres as Antioch. The faith seems to have spread slowly in the eastern Mediterranean until the work of missionaries, such as St Paul, took it further afield.

THE SPREAD OF THE FAITH
Christianity spread quickly, with churches founded across the Roman Empire from the 1st century onwards. From the 4th century, the diversity of the religion caused the emperor concern, so he convened councils of church leaders to resolve disagreements on points of doctrine.

KEY
- Roman Empire 250 CE
- Christian areas outside Roman Empire

TIMELINE

Map labels: Armagh, Eburacum, Segontium, Deva, Londinium, BRITAIN, North Sea, GERMANY, ATLANTIC OCEAN, Colonia Agrippina, Rotomagus, Augusta Treverorum, Castra Regina, Argentoratum, GAUL, Rhine, NORICUM, Turoni, Vesontio, RAETIA, Bituricae, Alps, Aquileia, Lugdunum, Mediolanum, Vienna, Ravenna, Ariminum, Burdigala, Mutina, ITALY, Rhône, Arelate, Narbo, Pyrenees, Rome, Ostia, Corsica, Bracara, HISPANIA, Tarraco, Sardinia, Toletum, Carales, Sicily, Emerita Augusta, Balearic Islands, Mediterranean Sea, Corduba (Córdoba), Hispalis, Carthago Nova, Carthage, Gades, MAURETANIA, Lambaesis, Volubilis

7 IRELAND 430–92 CE

St Patrick, a Romano-British missionary, is said to have been the first person to bring Christianity to Ireland, probably in the early 5th century; according to tradition he became the first bishop of Armagh. There were certainly Christians in Ireland by 430 CE, because in this year the pope in Rome sent Paulinus to preach to the people there "believing in Christ".

6 CHURCH ORGANIZATION c.300–600 CE

The early church was organized in a similar way to the Roman Empire, with its leaders based in main cities. Patriarchs were the most senior bishops, followed by archbishops. Five patriarchs claimed primacy, but it was the bishopric of Rome that gradually established authority over the churches in the western empire, although it never gained authority in the east.

- ✚ Christian Patriarchate by 600 CE
- ✚ Christian Archbishopric by 600 CE
- ⚓ Other Christian churches by 600 CE

5 CONSTANTINE 306–37 CE

In the early 4th century, the emperor Constantine converted to Christianity. In the Edict of Milan (313 CE) he gave the religion legal status, and in 325 he convened the Council of Nicaea, a meeting of church leaders that agreed key theological issues, such as the divinity of Jesus and the calculation of the date of Easter. This and later councils united the Roman Empire's churches, but also led to schisms that formed branches such as the Oriental Orthodox church.

- ◔ Church council

c.50 CE Paul visits Thessalonica and preaches at one of the city's synagogues

325 CE The Council of Nicaea repudiates Arianism, a heresy that was gaining a substantial following, and produces the Nicene Creed

c.70 CE Antioch becomes a major Christian centre; it is here that adherents are first called Christians

c.50 CE Paul visits Corinth for the first time; he returns to the city in 58 CE

c.52–54 CE Paul lives in Ephesus; the port becomes a centre for missionary activity

c.60 CE Titus, one of Paul's many converts, becomes the first bishop of Crete

4 ARMENIA 301–484 CE

In 301, Armenia became the first country (it was outside the Roman Empire) to adopt Christianity as its state religion. In 428 CE, the Sassanid Persians took over eastern Armenia and tried to impose Zoroastrianism, which provoked rebellion. The Armenians waged a guerrilla war against this oppression, and eventually, in 484 CE, the Persians agreed a treaty granting them religious freedom.

▷ **Constantine the Great**
This marble head formed part of a 12-m- (40-ft-) high statue of the emperor, made in around 315 CE. Constantine awarded Christians new rights and became a patron of the faith.

3 THE COPTIC CHURCH c.150–451 CE

A fragment of St John's Gospel written in the Coptic language found in Upper Egypt shows that Christianity had arrived in the region by the mid 2nd century. Coptic theological views gradually diverged from those of other churches. This came to a head at the Council of Chalcedon in 451 CE, when the Copts split away from the other Christian churches.

2 ST PAUL AND THE EARLY CHRISTIAN CHURCHES c.35–55 CE

St Paul's four missionary journeys took him as far afield as Asia Minor, Greece, Rome, and possibly Spain. He founded churches as he went and encouraged his followers to start yet more. Among the most famous of these 1st-century foundations were the Seven Churches of Asia Minor, mentioned in the Bible's Book of Revelation.

c.340 CE King Ezana of Aksum (Ethiopia) is converted to Christianity by a Syrian Christian named Frumentius, called Abba Salama in Ethiopian literature

ST PAUL'S JOURNEYS

- → First
- → Second
- → Third
- → Fourth
- 🔺 The Seven Churches of Asia Minor

Map labels: Brigetio, DACIA, Sirmium, Danube, Ratiaria, MOESIA, Konjic, Nefertare, Scupi, Scodra, Stobi, THRACE, Adrianople, Constantinople, Chalcedon, Nicaea, Thessalonica, Larissa, Aegean Sea, Pergamum, Smyrna, Sardes, Thyatira, Philadelphia, Iconium, Nicopolis, GREECE, Ephesus, Laodicea, Athens, Perge, Seleucia, Corinth, LYCIA, Myra, Rhodes, Cyprus, Salamis, Crete, Gortyna, Cyrene, LIBYA, Black Sea, Marcianopolis, Amisus, BITHYNIA, PONTUS, Amasia, Gangra, CAPPADOCIA, Ancyra, Caesarea, Caesarea Cappadociae, GALATIA, Synnada, ASIA MINOR, Tarsus, Antioch, SYRIA, Apamea, Sidon, Damascus, Tyre, Diocaesarea, Bostra, Ptolemais, PALESTINE, Jerusalem, Petra, Alexandria, Arabian Peninsula, Memphis, EGYPT, Nile, AFRICA, Red Sea, Mtskheta, Vagarshapat, Dvin, Artashat, ARMENIA, Caucasus, Caspian Sea, SASSANIAN EMPIRE, Nisibis, Arbela, Melitene, Amida, Edessa, MESOPOTAMIA, Tigris, Euphrates, Ctesiphon, Gondeshapur, Rewardashur, Perath, Persian Gulf, AKSUM, Aksum

MIDDLE AGES

IN MEDIEVAL TIMES, 500–1450 CE, THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH KEPT THE STATUS QUO IN EUROPE, WHILE PARTS OF ASIA AND THE AMERICAS REACHED NEW CULTURAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL HEIGHTS.

△ **Golden mask**
This "Mask of the Winged Eyes" from the Sicán culture, at its height in coastal northern Peru around 900–1100, demonstrates pre-Inca mastery of gold working.

THE MIDDLE AGES

The Roman Empire's collapse by the 5th century was followed by a millennium in which Europe became an economic and political backwater, eclipsed by a technologically advanced China and by a powerful Islamic empire.

By the sixth century, large empires that had dominated the classical world fell to attacks by neighbouring peoples. In western Europe, the invaders had begun to build their own states, which retained elements of Roman law and administration but with the infusion of a Christian culture. A form of government known as vassalage developed, in which nobles held lands from their sovereigns in exchange for military service, while the lower orders held theirs in return for their labour, a system known as feudalism. None of the Germanic successors to Rome succeeded in uniting its former territories. The empire of the Carolingian ruler Charlemagne (r. 768–814) came closest, but it fell apart after his death. Islamic armies from North Africa overwhelmed Visigothic Spain in 711.

In Central America, the Maya city-states had collapsed by 900. In the same region, the Aztec Empire emerged in the 14th century, paralleled in South America with the rapid growth of the Inca state in the mid-15th century. In India, Hun invaders had destroyed the Gupta Empire by 606. Stability was only partially restored in the early 13th century by a sultanate based in Delhi.

Islam and the Crusades
Islam first appeared in Arabia in the early 7th century and spread rapidly, creating a vast empire that extended from Spain to central Asia. Its rulers – the Umayyad and, later, the Abbasid caliphs – presided over a prosperous and culturally vibrant realm, but the difficulties of ruling such a vast area proved impossible to overcome. By the 10th century, it had begun to break apart into competing emirates and rival caliphates. Into this fragmented sphere arrived the first European military expedition outside the continent for centuries.

△ **Moorish marvel**
The ornate Court of the Lions, built c. 1370 by the Nasrid Sultan Muhammad V at the Alhambra palace in Granada, is typical of the sophistication of late Islamic Spain.

Europe in the Middle Ages
The Crusades were campaigns to gain control of the holy city of Jerusalem from the Muslims. The Crusaders succeeded in establishing Christian-controlled states in Palestine between 1096 and 1291 but fell to a series of resurgent Islamic powers, including the Mamluks in Egypt and the Seljuk Turks.

The Papacy, which had inspired the crusaders, remained a potent political as well as spiritual force in Europe, and engaged in a long struggle for recognition of its primacy over secular rulers. This led it into a conflict with the Holy Roman Emperors – the German-based rivals to their claim (see pp.116–19).

Europe had been buffeted by further invasions: by the Vikings who preyed on northwestern Europe's coastlines for two centuries from around 800; by the

TURBULENT TIMES
The early Middle Ages – from the 6th to the 10th centuries – was a time of turbulence as the collapse of the major civilizations of the classical world was followed by the emergence of new powers, such as the Franks in western Europe, the Islamic empire in the Middle East, and the Tang Dynasty in China. The 13th and 14th centuries saw renewed instability, as the Mongols created a vast Eurasian empire, and a plague pandemic killed an estimated 25 million people in Europe.

533–35 Byzantine emperor Justinian launches a war to reconquer North Africa and Italy from Germanic kings

618 The Tang Dynasty reunifies China after four centuries of disunity

622 The Hegira – the flight of the Prophet Muhammad and his followers from Mecca to Medina – starts the Islamic era

750 The Abbasids start a new caliphate in Baghdad

RUSSIA AND THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE		
INDIA AND EAST ASIA		
THE ISLAMIC WORLD		
WESTERN EUROPE		
THE AMERICAS		

500   600   700   800

711 The Visigothic kingdom of Spain is overthrown by a Muslim army invading from North Africa

606 India's Gupta Empire finally collapses

800 The Frankish ruler Charlemagne is crowned emperor

◁ **The dance of death**
The 15th-century frieze *Danse Macabre* by German artist Bernt Notke shows the heightened European preoccupation with mortality at the time of the Black Death, when death seemed to strike the rich and poor indiscriminately.

Magyars who established themselves on the Hungarian plain around 900; and by the Mongols, able horseback archers, who descended on eastern Europe in the 1240s.

Rise of the Mongols

The Mongols also conquered China, which had been united by the Sui Dynasty in 589 and then prospered under the Tang Dynasty from 618 and the Song Dynasty from 960.

At the eastern end of the Silk Road, which transmitted wealth and new ideas between east Asia and the Middle East, China pioneered the use of gunpowder, printing, and the marine compass but never succeeded in taming the Mongols, who also attacked Southeast Asia, destroying the kingdom of Pagan in modern Myanmar and threatening the Cambodian state of Angkor. Their armies tried to invade Japan, too, but were twice driven back by storms. Japan continued to be ruled by the shoguns – dynasties of military strongmen backed by clans of samurai warriors whose military ethos dominated the state.

European revival

Despite a global pandemic of plague, and Mongol intrusion on its eastern fringe, Europe survived and prospered. The plague, or Black Death, killed more than one-third of the continent's population. However, it also improved the lot of the peasantry, whose labour was now a scarcer commodity, thus undermining the roots of feudalism.

New ideas now began to emerge in Europe. In Italy, a revived interest in classical art and ideas gave birth to the rich cultural movement of the Renaissance (see pp.160–61).

Italian merchants pioneered methods of banking, and the maritime empires of Venice and Genoa spread across the eastern Mediterranean. By 1450, Europe's ambitions and horizons were beginning to expand again.

▽ **Mongols defeated**
This 19th-century engraving by Japanese artist Kuniyoshi Utagawa shows the Japanese monk Nichiren summoning storms that destroyed Mongol fleets in 1274 and 1281.

"And believing it to be the end of the world, no one wept for the dead, for all expected to die."

CHRONICLER AGNOLO DI TURA ON THE BLACK DEATH IN ITALY, 1348

862 The people of Novgorod invite the Swedish Viking Rurik to rule them

988 Prince Vladimir of Kiev converts to Christianity

1099 Armies of the First Crusade capture Jerusalem

1204 Constantinople is captured by the Fourth Crusade

1258 Mongol armies sack Baghdad

1279 Kublai Khan completes the Mongol conquest of China

1348 The Black Death devastates most of Europe

1453 Constantinople is taken by the Ottoman Turkish Sultan Mehmed II

900   1000   1100   1200   1300   1400   1500

869 Last dated inscription made at the Maya city-state of Tikal, which disappears shortly thereafter

1000 City of Tiwanaku, which ruled over a large empire in South America, is abandoned

1076 Pope Gregory VII excommunicates German Emperor Henry IV as part of a power struggle known as the Investiture Controversy

1206 The Delhi sultanate is established in India

1337 The Hundred Years War between England and France begins

1429 The Aztecs establish the Triple Alliance with other states in the Valley of Mexico, which forms the basis of their empire

1438 Pachacuti begins a series of conquests that establishes the Inca Empire

THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE

In 330, Roman Emperor Constantine moved the capital from Rome to the former Greek colony of Byzantium, which later became Constantinople. In 395, the Empire split in two and in 476 the western half collapsed. The Eastern Roman Empire, however, endured for another 1000 years, helped by the might of Constantinople.

After the last western Roman emperor was deposed in 476, the Eastern Roman Empire (called Byzantine by historians) continued as the sole entity of Roman sovereignty – though predominantly Greek-speaking (unlike its fallen Latin-speaking western counterpart).

By 554, Emperor Justinian I (r. 527–65) had reconquered large parts of the western Mediterranean coast, including Rome itself, which the empire held for two more centuries. To mark his achievements, Justinian ordered the construction of the church of Hagia Sophia, which would later become the centre of the Eastern Orthodox Church while also inspiring a new wave of architecture, in particular across the Islamic world. However, in the 7th century, Byzantium lost North Africa and its Middle Eastern territories to the

rising power of Islam, and much of the Balkans fell to invaders led by the Slavs. Although the Byzantine Empire rallied under the Macedonian Dynasty (867–1056), regaining lost territory, its split from the Church of Rome (1054) and the resulting threat it posed to the Pope's authority led the Venetians to divert the army of the Fourth Crusade to the sacking of the Byzantine capital instead, permanently weakening the empire.

Nevertheless. throughout much of its 1,000-year existence, the Byzantine Empire buffered Europe from newly emerging forces to the east, and its thriving capital exerted great influence upon the fields of art, literature, science, and philosophy – both as an intellectual hub and as custodian of Ancient Greek texts, thereby helping to shape modern European civilization.

RESILIENT EMPIRE

By 500, the Western Roman Empire had fragmented into various Germanic kingdoms. The Eastern half proved more resilient to any similar invasions, with a virtually impenetrable walled capital in Constantinople. A series of able emperors helped the empire to recover, and its thriving economy allowed it to support a substantial army.

1 | JUSTINIAN'S RECONQUESTS 527–65

In 533, under Justinian, the Byzantine Empire launched an invasion of North Africa and conquered it from the Vandals. In 535, Justinian sent an army to fight the Ostrogoths in Italy, seeking the reconquest of the old imperial capital, Rome. The war lasted 18 years, and Byzantine victory eventually came at a huge financial cost. Rome, however, was relinquished to the Lombards two centuries later.

— Justinian's reconquests   ☆ Byzantine capital

✕ Byzantine victory

507–711 Toledo is the Visigothic capital until the Arab conquest of the region

6 | THE FOURTH CRUSADE 1202–04

When the Fourth Crusade hit difficulties raising money, the Venetians offered their financial backing, but as a condition, they diverted the Crusaders into a conquest of Constantinople. The Crusaders looted, terrorized, and vandalized the city. In the aftermath, the empire was divided between Venetians and Crusader lords, while a few Greek areas remained independent, notably the Byzantine state of Nicaea. The sacking reduced the empire to a city-state.

→ Fourth crusade attack route   ⬤ Key siege

RISE AND FALL OF BYZANTIUM

Under Justinian, Byzantium reclaimed Roman provinces for the empire. From the mid-6th century, however, defensive warfare became endemic, as the empire fought invasions from different groups at different times.

KEY

Lands lost 565–1025
Lands lost 1025–1360
Empire in 1360

TIMELINE
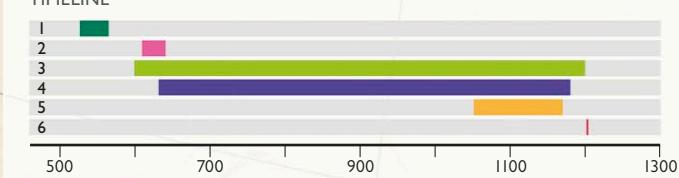
2 DEFENDING AGAINST PERSIA 610–41

Byzantine emperor Heraclius (r.610–41) came to power in the midst of an invasion of the empire by the Sassanid Persians. The Sassanids had already seized control of Egypt and the Levant and attempted a siege of Constantinople. In 627, Heraclius launched a counter-attack into the Persian capital, Ctesiphon, and surrounded the city, eventually forcing a peace deal that subdued the Sassanid threat.

→ Persian invasions

⇢ Heraclius's counter-invasion

★ Persian capital

3 NOMADIC RAIDS 600–1200

In the 10th century, semi-nomadic peoples, such as the Slavs, Avars, and Bulgars, invaded the Balkans – the region between the Greek Peloponnese and the Danube River. In 1014, Byzantine emperor Basil II (r.976–1027) destroyed the Bulgarian kingdom and annexed the territory – a feat for which he earned the nickname "Bulgar-slayer". However, revolts against Byzantine rule in 1185 led to a loss of the Balkans and undermined the Byzantine empire.

→ Nomadic raids

⚔ Byzantine victory

4 ISLAMIC INVASION 629–1180

Under the leadership of the first caliphs, Arab Muslim armies invaded both Sassanid Persia and the Byzantine Empire. At the Battle of Yarmuk in 636, the Byzantine army suffered a huge loss. In the aftermath, first Syria and Palestine and then Egypt were conquered by Arab armies and fell under the influence of Islam. Under the rule of the Macedonian Dynasty (867–1056), the Byzantine Empire managed to recapture territories lost to Muslim conquests in the 7th century.

→ Muslim invasions

⚔ Byzantine defeat

1202 Army of the Fourth Crusade pillages the port of Zara

1014 Basil II defeats Bulgars and annexes Bulgarian Kingdom

1091 Byzantine Empire loses most of Anatolia to Seljuk Turk invasion

1071 Manzikert

552–53 Battle of Mons Lactarius

533 Battle of Ad Decimum. Byzantine victory in Carthage leads to the collapse of the Vandal kingdom

627 Byzantine troops march into the Persian capital to counter the Sassanid invasion

636 Battle of Yarmuk

Map labels: Rhine, Rhone, Burgundians, Alps, Milan, Aquileia, Venice, Ravenna, Zara, Adriatic Sea, ITALY, Corsica, Rome, Naples, Sardinia, Carthage, Sicily, Syracuse, ZEUGI CARTHAGO, Tripoli, Vandals, CYRENAICA, AFRICA, Mediterranean Sea, Crete, Athens, Aegean Sea, LYDIA, Ephesus, Thessalonica (Salonika), MACEDONIA, Kleidion, Durazzo, Barium, Ragusa, DACIA, Brundisium, Danube, Dnieper, Don, Slavs, Bulgars and Avars, MOESIA, THRACE, Adrianople, Serdica, CRIMEA, Cherson, Black Sea, Constantinople, Nicaea, Anatolia, PAPHLAGONIA, Trebizond, PONTUS, CAPPADOCIA, Caesarea, Akroinon, Iconium, Tarsus, PAMPHYLIA, CILICIA, Antioch, Callinicum, Edessa, Dara, SYRIA, Damascus, Cyprus, Caesarea, Jerusalem, Alexandria, EGYPT, Nile, Red Sea, ARABIA, Euphrates, Tigris, Ctesiphon, PERSIAN EMPIRE, Caspian Sea, Seljuks, ASIA

Dates on map: 690, 568, 552–53, 878, 902, 697–98, 643, 823–26, 648, 619, 642,646, 637–38, 634, 615, 614, 639–46, 611–613, 647, 675, 626, 919, 915, 924, 675–81, 918, 712–17, 904, 654, 1014

ZARA

Emperor Justinian

5 BYZANTINE–SELJUK WARS 1048–71

The Seljuk Turks, a group of warriors on horseback from central Asia, invaded the Byzantine Empire in the 11th century. During the Battle of Manzikert (1071), the Byzantine Emperor Romanus Diogenes was taken prisoner. The Seljuk threat to Constantinople forced Byzantium to send a distress call to Rome, which triggered the First Crusade (see pp. 106–07).

⚔ Byzantine defeat

→ Seljuk Turks invasion

Seljuk cavalry armed for battle

▷ **Emperor Justinian**
This mosaic depicting Byzantine emperor Justinian is on the wall of the Basilica of San Vitale in Ravenna. It was completed in 547 after Justinian had reconquered the old imperial capital.
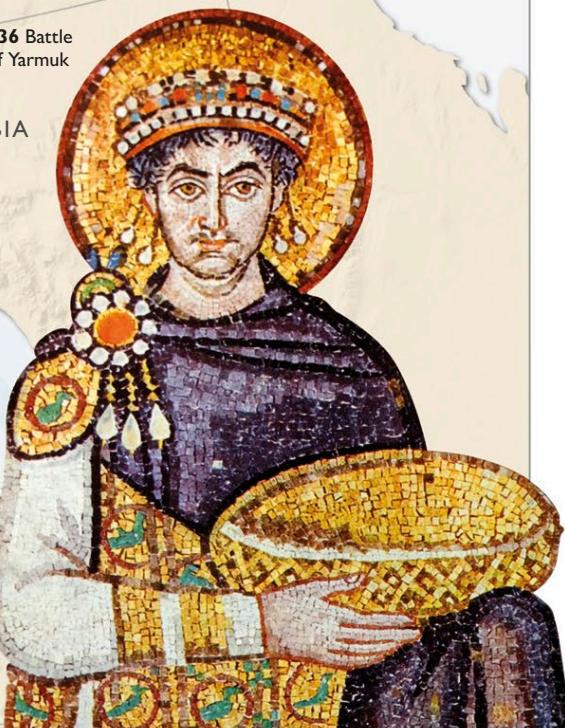
THE ASCENT OF ISLAM

Beginning with a series of revelations received by the prophet Muhammad around 610 CE, the new faith of Islam rapidly gained followers in Arabia. Within a century, armies fighting under its banner had conquered a vast swathe of territory from Persia to Spain.

Muhammad was born around 570 into an influential merchant family in Mecca. From the age of 40, he experienced a series of divine revelations, and from around 613 he began to preach that there was only one God, Allah. His condemnation of polytheism and idol worship was unpopular, and he was forced to flee to the town of Yathrib (Medina). His message of monotheism began to attract followers, and he soon built up an army that captured Mecca.

Under Muhammad's successors, known as caliphs, Muslim forces defeated the Byzantine and Persian empires, which had been severely weakened by a war between them that lasted from 602 to 628. The Byzantine Empire lost Syria, Palestine (including the holy city of Jerusalem), and Egypt to the Muslims, but the Sassanian Persian Empire was conquered in its entirety, bringing the fledgling Islamic state new provinces from Iraq to the borders of India.

The Umayyad caliphs, a dynasty that ruled the Islamic empire from 661 from their capital at Damascus, established a complex administration that made use of the experience of Greek-speaking officials in the former Byzantine provinces. They encouraged the integration into the empire of peoples beyond Arabia; and as ever more people converted to the faith, Islamic armies pushed westwards, conquering the remainder of North Africa and much of Spain by 711. Briefly, in the mid-8th century, all this territory was united under the authority of a single ruler, guided by a faith whose tenets had by now found written form in a sacred book, the Qur'an.

THE GROWTH OF THE ISLAMIC WORLD 610–750

Muslim armies occupied much of the Middle East and North Africa within a decade of their emergence from Arabia, and over the next century advanced to northern Spain and the edge of central Asia. The map shows the date each city was captured or surrendered.

KEY

- → Muslim raid, with date
- ★ New city founded by Muslims
- ⌘ Muslim fortress
- Byzantine Empire c. 610
- Sassanian Empire c. 610
- Muslim lands by 632
- Muslim lands by 656
- Muslim lands by 756

TIMELINE

	600	650	700	750
1				
2				
3				
4				

732 The Frankish army under Charles Martel halts the Arab advance — Poitiers

718 Covadonga
714 Saragossa
712 Toledo
721 Toulouse
720 Narbonne
711 Lisbon
711 Cordova
711 Rio Barbate
Oviedo
Mérida
Fez
Rabat
Tahert

711 Berber general Tariq leads troops into Spain and conquers the Visigothic kingdom

698 Muslim armies capture Carthage
Carthage
Kairouan
Tunis
Sousse
Monastir
Mahdia
647 Tripoli

KINGDOM OF ASTURIAS
KINGDOM OF THE VISIGOTHS
FRANKISH EMPIRE
LOMBARD KINGDOM
AVAR KINGDOM
ATLANTIC OCEAN
EUROPE
AFRICA
Iberian Peninsula
Maghreb
Atlas Mountains
Sahara
TRIPOLI
Rome
Corsica
Sardinia
Sicily
Balearic Islands
Strait of Gibraltar
Rhine
Loire
Garonne
Rhône
Ebro
Douro
Pyrenees
Alps

△ The Dome of the Rock
This Islamic shrine – a landmark in the city of Jerusalem – was built under the fifth Umayyad caliph, Abd al-Malik. Completed in 691, parts (including the dome) have been rebuilt since.

THE DIVISION OF ISLAM 634–661 CE
SUNNI AND SHIA

The question of who should hold political and religious authority within Islam after the death of Muhammad proved incredibly divisive. Many felt the succession should pass through the family of Ali, the son-in-law of Muhammad, and these formed the Shia (the party of Ali), while others, who rejected this view and adhered to the Umayyads in Damascus and their successors, became the Sunni. This division in Islam has persisted until the present day.

Calligraphic succession
In this 18th-century Turkish artwork, the red writing indicates Allah; the central name in blue is Ali, first Imam of the Shia; the green writing gives the name of the prophet Muhammad.

1 · MUHAMMAD, THE HEGIRA, AND THE CONQUEST OF ARABIA 610–32

Many of Muhammad's clan, the Quraysh, saw his rejection of the traditional Arab worship of many gods as a threat to their authority. In 622, he had to flee to Medina – an exodus known as the Hegira, which marks the traditional beginning of the Muslim era. A military as well as a religious leader, Muhammad made alliances and raised an army that took Mecca in 630. By the time of his death in 632 CE, he had conquered most of Arabia.

✖ Battle or capture

751 The Abbasid caliphate (succeeding the Umayyads) defeats the Tang Chinese at the Talas River, consolidating their hold on Transoxiana for the next 400 years

642 Yazdegerd III is defeated at Nehavend, leading to the rapid Muslim conquest of the rest of Persia

647

717

636 Homs

654 Rhodes

654

670, 674, 717

654

636 Damascus

634 Damascus

649

636 At Yarmuk, Khalid ibn al-Walid destroys the main Byzantine field army, leaving the rest of Syria and Palestine open to Muslim conquest

638 Jerusalem

634 Ajnadain

640 Heliopolis

643 Barca

642 'Amr ibn al-As captures Alexandria, the last Byzantine stronghold in Egypt

641 Memphis

624 The Muslim army defeats Meccan forces, beginning the process by which Muhammad conquers the whole of Arabia

643 Isfahan

680

656 Basra

636 Muslim victory against the Persians leads to the conquest of Mesopotamia

661 Ali is assassinated while at prayer, leading to schism between Sunni and Shia Muslims; Muawiya becomes first Umayyad caliph, ruling from Damascus

622 Muhammad and his principal followers are forced to flee to the oasis town of Yathrib (later known as Medina)

630 Muhammad conquers Mecca

610 Muhammad receives revelations from the archangel Gabriel in a cave in hills outside Mecca

2 · UMAR AND THE CONQUEST OF SYRIA AND EGYPT 634–44

Under the second caliph, Umar (who had been a companion of Muhammad), Muslim armies achieved astonishing successes against the Byzantine army, which had been weakened by its long war with Persia. First Damascus, the chief city of Syria, fell to the Muslims, and then they seized Jerusalem. They went on to subdue the Byzantine province of Egypt, where religious divisions among the Christian population undermined opposition to the Muslims.

✖ Battle or capture

3 · THE CONQUEST OF PERSIA AND KHURASAN 636–56

The Sassanian rulers of Persia had almost captured the Byzantine capital of Constantinople by 626, but the effort exhausted their resources. After a Muslim army defeated them in Mesopotamia in 636, the Persians lost their western provinces. The Persian shah Yazdegerd III became a fugitive, and his domains were absorbed into the growing Islamic empire. Within 5 years, much of Khurasan (Khorasan), in central Asia, had been added to the empire, too.

✖ Battle or capture

4 · LATE UMAYYAD CONQUESTS 670–750

The Muslims' expansion west of Egypt was slow until they built a base at Kairouan (in modern Tunisia) in 670. From this stronghold, they captured the remainder of the Byzantine Empire in north Africa, taking its capital Carthage in 698. In 711, an Arab–Berber army crossed into the Christian Visigothic kingdom of Spain and within 20 years had conquered almost all of it. In central Asia, Muslim armies won Transoxiana. In 750, the Umayyads were overthrown by the Abbasid dynasty, who took control of the caliphate.

✖ Battle or capture

THE RULE OF THE CALIPHS

The Umayyads, who had ruled over the Islamic world from 661, fell in 749–50. Their empire was inherited by a new dynasty, the Abbasids, but its integrity was soon challenged as local rulers broke away, leaving the Abbasids with control over little more than Baghdad.

The Umayyad Caliphate (see pp.94–95) collapsed after a brief civil war in 749–50, which was partly caused by their discrimination against non-Arab Muslims. The Abbasids, a dynasty descended from the uncle of Muhammad, rose to power and – from its base in Baghdad – was able to restore stability. However, controlling the vast Muslim empire eventually proved an impossible task. A series of civil wars between 809 and 833 weakened the caliphate, and numerous local dynasties broke away: Spain had already been lost to a branch of the Umayyads in 756 and Ifriqiya (the area around Tunisia) became independent under the Aghlabids from 800. In Egypt, the Tulunids threw off central control in 868, and the Fatimids later grew strong there. The Buwayhids firmly established themselves in Iran from 926, and the Ghaznavids occupied eastern territories from about 977.

As the new dynasties emerged, Abbasid rule withered away until the caliph was a mere cypher, ruling a small sliver of land in Mesopotamia. Even this was swept away by a Mongol invasion in 1258, which sacked Baghdad and put an end to the caliphate.

> "Don't be satisfied with stories. How things have gone with others. Unfold your own myth."
>
> RUMI, 13TH-CENTURY ISLAMIC SCHOLAR AND POET

THE GOLDEN AGE OF ISLAM
SCIENCE AND CULTURE UNDER THE ABBASIDS

Scholars of all types congregated in the Abbasid capital of Baghdad. Accessible from both Europe and Asia, the city became a place to exchange ideas, many of which had re-emerged from the translation of classical works by Arab scholars. Abbasid caliphs, including Harun al-Rashid and his son al-Ma'mun, directly encouraged learning and scholarship in Baghdad by establishing a House of Wisdom.

Games of the Golden Age
Having reached Baghdad from India via Persia, chess became popular in the Muslim world, as shown in this 9th-century illustration.

THE ISLAMIC IMPRINT c.800–1200

The huge Abbasid Caliphate became divided between a number of dynasties (shown below with their dates): some faded away; others, such as the Seljuks (see p.120), later filled the power vacuum in the Islamic world.

KEY

Islamic world c.1000

Further expansion of Islam

TIMELINE
1 2 3 4 5 6
700 800 900 1000 1100 1200 1300

FRANKISH EMPIRE

Iberian Peninsula
Pyrenees
Alps
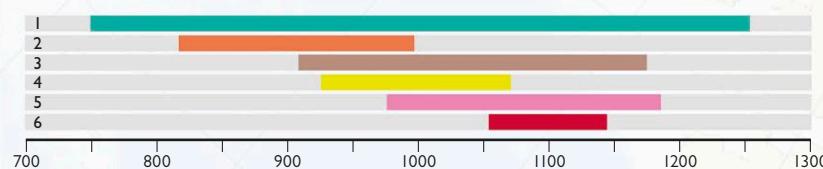
756 The Umayyad prince Abd al-Rahman escapes to Spain where he founds a new emirate, which claims caliphate status in 929

UMAYYADS 756–1031
Cordova
Barcelona
Seville
Granada
Tangier

Mediterranean Sea

ALMORAVIDS 1056–1147
Marrakech
Maghreb
ZIRIDS 972–1148

IDRISIDS 789–926
ALMOHADS 1130–1269
Tunis
Kairouan

AGHLABIDS 800–909

AFRICA

Sahara
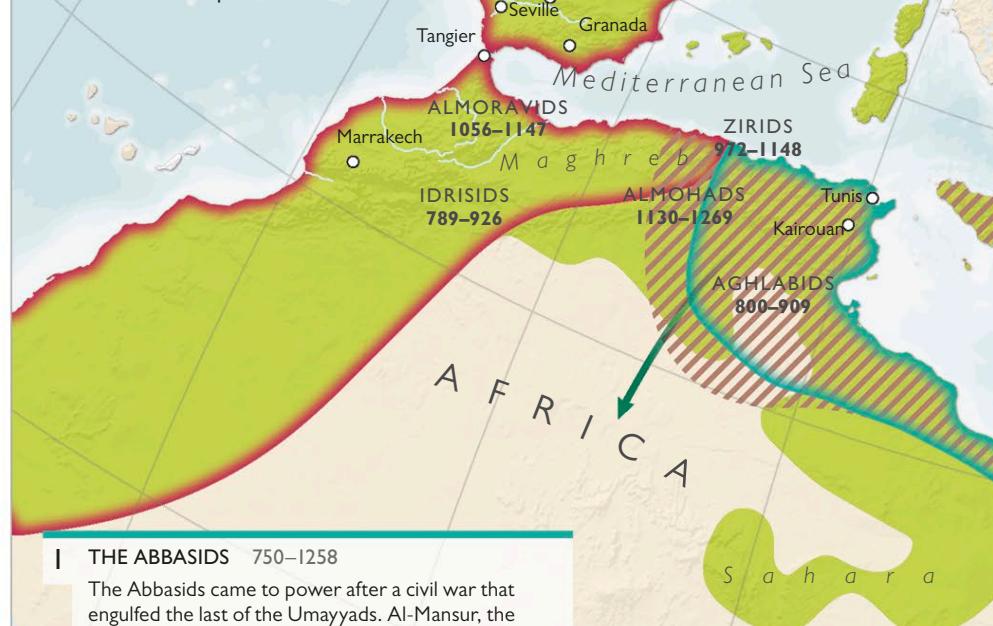
1 THE ABBASIDS 750–1258

The Abbasids came to power after a civil war that engulfed the last of the Umayyads. Al-Mansur, the second Abbasid, established the new city of Baghdad (designed in circular form), which became a cultural and mercantile centre. By the 10th century, Abbasid power had declined, and they were reduced to seeking the protection of other groups, such as the Buwayhids and Hamdanids, to ensure their survival. The last caliph, al-Musta'sim, was killed when the Mongols sacked Baghdad in 1258.

Extent of Abbasid Caliphate c.800

2 THE SAMANIDS 819–999

The Samanids were former Abbasid governors in eastern Iran, who gradually asserted their independence and in 900 captured Bukhara in Khorasan, which became their capital. Their empire prospered economically and culturally, with its artistic production including fine pottery and the *Shahnameh*, the Persian national epic, written by the poet Ferdowsi in around 977. Pressure on their eastern borders undermined the Samanids, and in 999 the Turkic Qarakhanids took Bukhara, bringing their empire to an end.

Extent of Samanid Empire c.900

6 THE ALMORAVIDS 1056–1147

A confederation of Berber tribes, the Almoravids were at the centre of an 11th-century religious revival aimed at purifying Islam. They combined religious fervour with conquest, taking Morocco and founding the city of Marrakech in 1062. Asked by the Islamic kingdoms in Spain to help them resist Christian reconquest (see pp.122–23), the Almoravids crossed into Iberia, where they came to dominate in the south under their leader Yusuf Ibn Tashfin. By 1145, however, they were being forced out of Spain and challenged in north Africa by another revivalist movement, the Almohads, who captured Marrakech in 1147.

■ Almoravid territory c.1100

5 THE GHAZNAVIDS 977–1186

The Ghaznavids, a dynasty of Turkic origin, established themselves in Ghazni, in Khorasan, from 977, and gradually expanded until they took over the western portion of the former Samanid empire by 1005. They then conquered the eastern portion of the Buwayhid empire before a disastrous defeat by the Seljuks at Dandanaqan in 1040 reduced them to a small area of eastern Khorasan, where they ruled until 1186.

■ Ghaznavid territory c.1028

✕ Battle

△ **11th-century Fatimid pendant**
The Fatimids controlled gold mines in Nubia (present-day Sudan) and crafted the metal into jewellery with fine filigree work.

868 The former Abbasid governor, Ahmad ibn Tulun, gains control in Egypt and founds the Tulunid dynasty
969 The Shia Fatimids capture Cairo and establish a new caliphate

945 Baghdad is taken by the Buwayhids, who reduce the Abbasid caliphs to puppets

3 THE FATIMIDS 909–1171

The Fatimids were a Shia dynasty named after Fatima, the daughter of Muhammad, from whom they claimed descent. They established themselves in Tunisia in 909 and claimed the title of caliph in the following year, placing themselves in competition with the Abbasids for the leadership of the Islamic world. Sixty years later, they conquered Egypt and expanded as far as Syria before being driven back by the Seljuks. They were reduced to the status of puppet rulers controlled by a series of military commanders.

▨ Extent of Fatimid Caliphate c.1000

4 THE BUWAYHIDS 926–1055

The Buwayhid (or Buyid) dynasty originated among the Daylamites, a group of recent converts to Islam in northern Iran. They took advantage of the withdrawal of Abbasid troops in 926 to expand and build power in Iran, expanding north and west, taking Baghdad in 945. They made Baghdad their capital and reduced the resident Abbasid caliphs to puppet rulers. By the late 10th century, Buwayhid power had faded, and their last ruler was deposed by the Seljuks in 1055.

▨ Buwayhid territory c.1028

Map labels

EUROPE

VOLGA BULGARIA

Volga

KHAZAR EMPIRE

Danube

Black Sea

Caucasus

Aral Sea

QARAKHANIDS 992–1211

KHWARIZM SHAHS 1077–1231

SELJUKS c.950–1192

TRANSOXIANA

Constantinople

Tiflis

Bukhara   Samarkand

BYZANTINE EMPIRE

Anatolia

Caspian Sea

Amu Darya

ASIA

Manzikert

KHORASAN

1040
Dandanaqan ✕

GHAZNAVIDS 977–1186

Hindu Kush

Kabul

868 The former Abbasid governor, Ahmad ibn Tulun, gains control in Egypt and founds the Tulunid dynasty
969 The Shia Fatimids capture Cairo and establish a new caliphate

HAMDANIDS 945–1004

Mosul

SYRIA   Hamah

Damascus

Mesopotamia

Samarra

NIZARI ISMAILIS 1090–1256

Nishapur

Ghazni

Indus

ABBASIDS 750–1258

Baghdad

Jerusalem

Tigris

BUWAYHIDS 926–1055

Iranian Plateau

SAMANIDS 819–999

Multan

Alexandria

Cairo

Euphrates

PERSIA

SAFFARIDS 867–1495

TULUNIDS 868–905

FATIMIDS 909–1171

Nile

Hormuz

Persian Gulf

INDIA

EGYPT

HEJAZ

Medina

Red Sea

QARMATIANS 894–c.1200

Muscat

NEJD

OMAN

Mecca

Arabian Peninsula

Arabian Sea

YEMEN

ZAIDI IMAMS from 860

Socotra

Aden

THE VIKINGS

At the end of the 8th century CE, the Vikings, a warrior-people from Scandinavia, erupted from their homelands and for the next two centuries spread across Europe and the Atlantic as raiders, traders, and settlers.

Scandinavia in the 8th century was divided into small territories ruled by warlords. Instability grew as these chiefs fought to unite regions, and a growing population put pressure on resources. Attracted by the wealth of trading centres and monasteries in northwest Europe, young men took up raiding and became known as Vikings. What followed was an amazing expansion, enabled by fast and manoeuvrable Viking longships, used for raiding, and sturdier ocean-going knorrs, used for longer trading voyages. Vikings from Norway and Denmark exploited

> *"They overran the entire kingdom and destroyed all the monasteries to which they came"*
>
> ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLE, 869

weaknesses in France, Britain, and Ireland to strike their victims unawares, seizing plunder and exacting tribute. In the 9th century, the Vikings in these areas turned from raids to conquest, carving out territories, which in some cases they ruled for centuries. Their search for land also took them across unexplored waters to Iceland, Greenland, and finally the coast of North America in around 1000.

In the East, Swedish Vikings, in the role of traders, penetrated the navigable rivers of what is now Russia and Ukraine to dominate trade with Constantinople and the Arabs and to extract tribute from Slavic tribes. These Varangians (as the eastern Vikings were called) founded Kievan Rus', the first Russian state.

LEIF ERIKSON
VIKING EXPLORER

Son of Erik the Red – founder of Viking Greenland – Leif Erikson is the star of sagas telling of the exploration of the lands we now know as North America. Other than the archaeological site of L'Anse aux Meadows in Newfoundland, it is difficult to know exactly where Vikings such as Erikson and his crew went, but they must have reached forested lands, south of the tundra-clad Labrador Coast (which they knew as Markland), since they were desperate for timber.

Commemmoration
A modern monument in Iceland recognizes Erikson, the first European known to have reached the Americas.

4 VOYAGES TO VINLAND *c.*1000–1400
Greenland was colonized from Iceland in 986 by Erik the Red, a fugitive fleeing a sentence of outlawry. It was a marginal land, where a few thousand Vikings lived by hunting seal and walrus, and raising cattle, but it was the base for exploring North America, in search of timber, which was in short supply in Greenland. They named the most distant land they reached "Vinland".

NORTH AMERICA

HELLULAND

Davis Strait

c.1000 Helluland, site of seal hunts in Greenlandic sagas, may have been Ellesmere Island

986 Godthåb

c.1000–1400 Greenland Vikings make voyages to collect timber from a place they called Vinland – somewhere south of Markland

986 Julianehåb

c.1000 Viking sagas speak of Markland – probably the Labrador coast of Canada

MARKLAND

St Lawrence

VINLAND

L'Anse aux Meadows

Newfoundland

c.1000 L'Anse aux Meadows is an archaeological site showing a Norse settlement evacuated after 20–30 years under pressure from Native Americans

ATLANTIC

▷ **Longship**
This modern model shows what a Viking longship would have looked like. Its square rig was efficient but made tacking against the wind difficult.

AGE OF THE VIKINGS
European history from 790–1060 was dominated by the Vikings. Although their raids petered out by 1100, territories they established lived on into the 15th century.

KEY

Color	Region
	Sweden
	Norway
	Denmark

••• National borders

— Holy Roman Empire border

→ Viking voyage, coloured according to region

TIMELINE

	1	2	3	4	5	6

700   900   1100   1300   1500

3 THE NORTH ATLANTIC 825–1408

The Vikings were explorers, crossing oceans in search of lands to settle. From the north coast of Scotland, it was a short hop to the Faroes, which were settled around 800. Viking ships ranged westward, sighting Iceland in the 830s and settling it in the 870s. There, they established a republic, with the world's oldest parliament, the Althing – independent until the 1240s.

■ North Atlantic settlements

2 THE BRITISH ISLES 793–1103

The first Viking raids on Britain were in the 790s. The early targets were unarmed monasteries, which the Vikings knew would be full of treasure. The raids became larger in scale, and in 865, the arrival of the Danish "Great Heathen Army" led to the conquest of most of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of England.

■ British and Irish settlements

1 THE SWEDES AND KIEVAN RUS' 750–988

Swedish Vikings pushed east, raiding and settling in lands now called Russia, Belarus, and Ukraine. Sometimes known as Varangians, this people's other name, Rus, gave Russia its modern name. The Rus founded the first state in Russia – a confederation of Slavic peoples named Kievan Rus' after one of the cities they established – Kiev.

■ Area of Varangian (Viking) influence

GREENLAND

875 Norwegian Vikings take control of the northern British islands and establish the Earldom of Orkney; it is ceded to Scotland in 1468

873 Reykjavik ICELAND *c. 860*

c. 860

c. 800 Faroe Islands

793 Vikings make their first overseas raid, on the rich monastery on Lindisfarne Island in the kingdom of Northumberland

Shetland Islands

Orkney Islands

Lewis

SCOTLAND

866–954 Jorvik (York) is capital of the Danelaw – a Viking kingdom in northern England

793 Lindisfarne

IRISH KINGDOMS

841 Dublin

866 York

860–902 Vikings occupy the fortified port they built in Dublin

836 Limerick ENGLAND

DANELAW

London

WELSH PRINCIPALITIES

911 Frankish king Charles the Simple grants lands in Normandy to the Vikings

841 Rouen

NORMANDY

BRITTANY

845 Paris

843 Nantes

842 Noirmoutier

857 Vikings push into southwest France and ally with Frankish ruler of Aquitaine, Pippin II

844

FRANCE

BURGUNDY

LEÓN

CASTILE NAVARRE

844 Lisbon

CALIPHATE OF CORDOVA

844 Seville

859 *Balearic Islands*

859–862

Sardinia

Pisa

Rome

PAPAL STATES

VENETIAN REPUBLIC

CROATIA

Tunis

Sicily

O C E A N

Trondheim

NORWAY

Kaupang (Skiringssal)

Sigtuna

Birka

SWEDEN

DENMARK

Ringsted Lund

Ribe

Hedeby

845 Hamburg

Jomsborg (Wolin)

Truso

Paviken

Baltic Sea

North Sea

834 Dorestad

HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

845 Vikings sack Paris and exact tribute from the Franks

BOHEMIA-MORAVIA

HUNGARY

BULGARIA

750 First Viking settlement outside Scandinavia, Staraya Ladoga, is founded

750 Staraya Ladoga (Aldeigjuborg)

Novgorod (Holmgard)

Gnezdovo

862 Rurik the Viking founds the city of Novgorod, meaning "new town"

KIEVAN RUS'

882 Kiev (Könugard)

988 Grand Prince Vladimir of Kiev converts to Christianity

VOLGA BULGARIA

Bulgar

Volga

950 Viking raids extend down river Volga, eventually reaching Arab-ruled Azerbaijan

Itil

KIEVAN RUS

Sarkel

Caspian Sea

Black Sea

839 Constantinople (Miklagard)

B Y Z A N T I N E   E M P I R E

907 Viking–Byzantine trade treaty helps Vikings to exchange furs – acquired as tribute from the Slavic peoples of the Kievan Rus' – for gold in the markets of Constantinople

Mediterranean Sea

1053 Norman knights, acting as mercenaries supported by the pope, the Lombards, and the Byzantine emperor, take over Sicily

5 VIKINGS BECOME NORMANS 799–1066

The first Viking raids in France were in 799 against a monastery on the northwest coast. At first, the strong rule of the Frankish king Charlemagne held the Vikings at bay, but when he died in 814, the raids increased. In 911 a Viking warlord, Rollo, agreed to stop raids in return for a grant of land in Normandy. The settlers became French-speaking Normans, losing their Viking identity. Normans would go on to conquer England and Sicily.

■ Norman settlements

6 VARANGIAN GUARD 988–1050

The Rus founded small principalities and began to raid further afield, attacking Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine empire, several times. In 988 Vladimir, the prince of Kiev, became a Christian, and relations with Byzantium improved; he even provided a contingent, known as the Varangians, to become the Byzantine emperor's bodyguard – employed in recognition of their fighting qualities. By the mid-11th century, the Viking raids in the area had ceased.

THE NORMANS

Originally, a band of Viking raiders, the Normans acquired land in northern France, where they established a duchy. They then spread more widely and by the mid-11th century had conquered England, Sicily, and much of southern Italy.

Norman abbey
With its arcaded Romanesque nave, the Saint-Etienne Abbey in Caen, France, is a fine example of Norman architecture.

In 911, as marauding Viking armies overwhelmed northern France, the Frankish king Charles the Simple made a pact with a group of Norwegian Vikings led by Rollo. In exchange for land, Rollo agreed to keep other Vikings away. He only partly held to his agreement, slowly expanding his holdings in what became known as Normandy (the land of the Northmen). By the time he bequeathed Normandy to his son William Longsword in 927, a mixed culture had emerged, part-French, part-Scandinavian, and increasingly Christianized. In 1066, William the Conqueror, the great-great-great grandson of Rollo, invaded England to assert a claim to its throne. His success marked the beginning of an Anglo-Norman dynasty whose descendants still rule.

Setting down roots
Elsewhere, ambitious Normans took military service with feuding local autocratic rulers in southern Italy from the early 11th century. Later, led by ruthless warriors such as the de Haubevilles and Robert and Roger Guiscard, they carved out their own fiefdom in southern Italy. In 1060, Roger Guiscard invaded Sicily, conquering much of it within a decade and establishing a kingdom where a hybrid Arab-Norman culture flourished until its conquest by the German Hohenstaufens in 1194.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST

After William the Conqueror won at Hastings in 1066, he consolidated his rule over England, awarding land to his followers. Upon his death, Normandy and England were divided between his sons Robert Curthose and William Rufus. After Robert's defeat by William's successor, Henry I of England, at Tinchebrai in 1106, England and Normandy were reunified.

Cambridge
Hereford
Gloucester
London
Wells
Canterbury
Winchester
Hastings
Dover
Exeter
St-Valéry-sur-Somme
Cherbourg
Fécamp
Rouen
Channel Islands
Bayeux
Dives
Evreux
Caen
NORMANDY
Mont-St-Michel
Tinchebrai
Chartres
Rennes
FRANCE

KEY
→ Invasion route   ▮ Normandy
✕ Battle

CONFOR

HICEST VVILLE

Tapestry of war
In this scene from the Bayeux Tapestry, woven to commemorate the Norman victory over the English at Hastings in 1066, William the Conqueror (right) removes his helmet to show his followers that the rumour that he had been killed was false.

ATLANTIC OCEAN

IBERIA

GAUL

Gades
Tingis

Massilia

Aquileia

ROMAN EMPIRE

Sijilmassa Caesarea

Rome
Ostia

AFRICA

Carthage

Sahara

Leptis Magna

Tamanrasset

Cyrene

Mediterranean Sea

GREECE
Athens

Sardis

Crete

Cyprus

Antioch

1 THE PERSIAN ROYAL ROAD   500 BCE–224 CE

Built in c. 500 BCE, the Persian Royal Road later came to form part of the Silk Road, providing a link to the Roman Empire. However, by the 1st century CE, hostility between Rome and the Parthian Empire (which now ruled Persia) increased the risk of travel along the Royal Road. As a result, more Chinese goods bound for Europe were despatched by alternative routes to Indian ports, where Roman ships picked up the cargo and carried it across the Indian Ocean.

— The Persian Royal Road

2 ZHANG QIAN'S EXPEDITION   138–125 BCE

As an envoy of China's Han government, explorer Zhang Qian returned to the Chinese capital after a 13-year expedition with favourable reports on commercial possibilities with regions west of the Tien Shan mountains. The Han formed alliances with several states in Xinjiang, making the passage through the Tarim Basin far safer for merchants.

→ Zhang Qian's first expedition route

EUROPE

SCYTHIA

Krasnopol'ye

Sovetskove

THRACE

Black Sea

Don

Panticapaeum

Constantinople

Trapezus

Caucasus

Aral Sea

Caspian Sea

Volga

ASIA

60 BCE The Han build a military governor residence in Kashgar

120 BCE–221 CE The oasis city is a key stop for travelling merchants, where they often bought fresh horses or camels

Karabulak

Toprakkale

Tabris

Syr Darya

Tashkent
Kenkol

Kula

TRANSOXIANA

Marakanda

Vrevskiy

Kokand

XINJIANG

Kashgar

6 MONGOLS RULE THE SILK ROAD   1215–1368

Following the 13th-century Mongol conquests, the entire network of roads became part of the vast Mongol realm. The Mongols established a system of fortified post houses to safeguard the passage of trade along the routes, encouraging the exchange of goods and culture between East and West. Italian explorer Marco Polo famously travelled on a branch of the Silk Road to reach China in 1275 (see p.132).

■ Extent of Mongol Empire, 1260

5 TRADE UNDER THE TANG   618–907

The Silk Road became active again in 639, when the Chinese Tang Dynasty (618–907) regained control of the route with the reconquest of Xinjiang. Trade thrived again until the outbreak of the An Lushan Rebellion in northern China in 755. The Tang era also saw the number of Chinese goods increase dramatically in the Persian Gulf and Red Sea, with Arab traders establishing an extensive trade network from the Middle East and Africa's east coast to Chinese ports.

⋯⋯ Maritime silk routes

Tyre

Alexandria
Antinoë

Gaza
Jerusalem
Petra

Damascus
Palmyra
Ctesiphon
Babylon

Dura-Europos
Ecbatana

Hecatompylos

Merv

SOGDIANA
Amu Darya

Bactra

Stone Tower
Yarkand

BACTRIA
Hindu Kush

Charsadda
Taxila

Begram

EGYPT

Panopolis

Susa

Charax
Persepolis

PARTHIA
Iranian Plateau

Alexandria
Areion

Herat

Kandahar

Mathura

Leucecome

Berenice

Nile

KUSH

Meroe

Gerra

Asabon

Ommana

Barbaricon

Indus

Thar Desert

INDIA

600 CE Ctesiphon grows into a rich commercial metropolis and becomes one of the world's largest cities in the early 7th century

Barygaza

Sennar

Adulis
Aksum

Red Sea

Arabian Peninsula

AKSUM

Sana

Moscha

Zenobia

Mandagora

Aden

Cana

113–217 CE During the Parthian Wars, Chinese goods bound for the Roman Empire take an indirect route

Avalites

Emporion

Socotra

Malao

Aromata

Maji

Muziris

EURASIAN TRADE

The Silk Road formed a key trade link between Han China and the Roman Empire. Merchants used the surrounding network of routes to gain access to the flow of trade between East and West.

KEY

■ Extent of Roman Empire (c. 1 CE)

■ Han Empire (206 BCE–221 CE)

■ Xinjiang (Han protectorate 60 BCE–221 CE)

■ Parthian Empire (247 BCE–224 CE)

— The Silk Road

⋯ Other trade routes (100 BCE–221 CE)

Kushites

Sarapion

4 DUNHUANG   104 BCE–1227 CE

While the flow of goods along the Silk Road faltered with the fall of the Han empire in 221 CE, the garrison city of Dunhuang grew into an important centre for Buddhism. Buddhist pilgrims and travellers from India reached the city via the Silk Road to spread the religion. Over a 1,000-year period, they dug the now-famous Mogao Caves in Dunhuang, decorating them with murals depicting aspects of Buddhist culture.

⊙ Dunhuang

TIMELINE

	500 BCE	1 CE	500 CE	1000 CE	1500 CE
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					

△ **Marco Polo's expedition to China**
This illustration from the *Catalan Atlas*, 1375, depicts the caravan of Italian explorer Marco Polo travelling to China along the Silk Road in 1275.

120 BCE–23 CE Caravans bearing Chinese goods start their journey westwards from the Han capital, Chang'an

25 CE Proclaimed the capital of the later Han, Luoyang becomes the new eastern terminus of the Silk Road

126 BCE

138 BCE

366 CE Buddhist pilgrims dig the first of about 1,000 caves, decorating the walls with religous murals

870 CE As a result of extensive international trade, up to 200,000 foreign residents are based in Guangzhou, including Arabs, Persians, Indians, Africans, and Turks

*c.***830 CE** An Arabian dhow carrying 60,000 Tang ceramic pieces bound for the Middle East capsizes. The wreck is discovered in 1998

3   POPULAR HAN EXPORTS   120 BCE–221 CE

During the Han era, merchants based in central Asia introduced goods such as spices, precious stones, and glass into Han markets. Notable Chinese exports included silk thread, textiles, and bronze mirrors. Towards the end of the Han era, Cai Lun invented paper, and it is believed that the technique to produce this revolutionizing invention travelled to the west via the Silk Road.

Archaelogical finds of Han mirrors

Archaeological finds of Chinese silk

THE SILK ROAD

The extension of Han control in China in the 2nd century BCE made communication with the rest of the world easier and safer. The network of roads linking East and West operated for 1,500 years and became famous for the luxurious Chinese silk that travelled along them.

The origin of the Silk Road can be traced back to the Han Empire's conquest of the Tarim Basin around 120 BCE, when its armies banished various tribal groups from the region. This allowed the empire to open a safe passage for trade that stretched from the Chinese capital Chang'an (Xi'an) to a wealth of cities in central Asia and beyond.

The Han engaged in vibrant trading with India, Persia, and the Roman Empire, where Chinese silk was highly coveted by the ruling class. Besides the luxury goods that travelled along the route, including silk, spices, precious stones, and ornaments, the Silk Road was also a conduit for the dissemination of religion, philosophy, technology, language, science, and even disease.

Trade along the route faltered following the collapse of the Han in 221 CE, but revived in the Tang era (618–907) when China partially recovered its central Asian provinces. Trade fell again in the 8th century after the Tibetans and Uighurs took control of Xinjiang, but 500 years later the route experienced a major resurgence following the Mongol conquests (see pp.130–31). The importance of the Silk Road fell again after the Mongol Empire's decline in the 14th century, and in the 16th century it was replaced by maritime trading routes.

"The Seres (Chinese) are famous for the woollen substance obtained from their forests."

PLINY THE ELDER, FROM *NATURALIS HISTORIA*, 79 CE

CHINESE SILK
UNIQUE CHINESE EXPORT

Once China introduced silk to the West in the 1st century BCE, the material became popular among elites in the Roman Empire. The silk-making process was unknown in the West until around 550 CE, when Byzantine Emperor Justinian I persuaded two monks to smuggle silkworms from China inside their bamboo canes.

Silk-making in China
This is a section of a larger 12th-century silk painting that depicts court ladies preparing silk.

12TH-CENTURY RENAISSANCE IN EUROPE

The 12th century saw the establishment of universities and of new monastic orders, and the translation of important scientific manuscripts from Arabic into European languages.

KEY

— Frontiers 1200

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5

700 800 900 1000 1100 1200 1300 1400

1 CHARLEMAGNE'S RENAISSANCE 800–814

The crowning of Charlemagne as "Emperor of the Romans" in 800 brought about a sense that the Roman Empire had been revived in western Europe. Literature, arts, writing, architecture, and scriptural studies flourished under his rule. The cultural gains of Charlemagne's court dissipated soon after his death in 814 and the passage of the imperial title to a series of German nobles.

— Extent of Charlemagne's empire, 814

2 THE CISTERCIANS AND THE NEW MONASTICISM 1098–1153

The Cistercians emerged as the old monastic orders came to be seen as wealthy, self-serving, and distant from their original spiritual missions. Founded in 1098, the Cistercians spread under the influence of St Bernard of Clairvaux, and had over 300 monasteries throughout Europe by his death in 1153. With a rigorous observance of the Rule of St Benedict, the Cistercians became noted for their piety, and offered "the surest road to heaven".

✛ Major Cistercian house with date of foundation

NORWAY

SWEDEN

SCOTLAND

1140 Newbattle
1142 Melrose

North Sea

1143 Alvastra

IRELAND

1142 Mellifont

1150 Jervaulx
1132 Fountains
1147 Kirkstall
1132 Rievaulx

1209 Students fleeing unrest in Oxford help to establish Cambridge University

DENMARK

Baltic Sea

WALES ENGLAND

1160s Student numbers at Oxford University grow; it gains a royal charter in 1248

Oxford
early 12th century London
1128 Waverley
c.1209 Cambridge
Canterbury

Lubeck

1143 Wagrowiec

Elbe

1132 Camp
Cologne

Rhine

KINGDOM OF GERMANY

POLAND

Bec
Rheims

1078 Anselm is elected as Abbot of Bec, which becomes an important theological school

Chartres
c.1200 Paris
c.1236 Orléans
c.1250 Angers
Meung
Tours
1114 Pontigny
1115 Clairvaux
1115 Morimond
1124 Lützel
1127 Ebrach
1135 Eberbach
1348 Prague

Worms

FRANCE

1112 La Ferté
1098 Cîteaux

1137 Heiligenkreuz

Alps

1142 Czikador

LEÓN

ATLANTIC OCEAN

León
1132 Moreruela
NAVARRE
Pamplona

1332 Cahors
1229 Toulouse
1339 Grenoble
Milan
1204 Vicenza
1222 Padua (law)
Venice

VENETIAN REPUBLIC

1308 Coimbra
1148 Alcobaça
1218 Salamanca
Segovia
CASTILE
Tarazona
ARAGON
1300 Lérida
Barcelona

1303 Avignon
Béziers
Narbonne
Montpellier (medicine)
Marseille
12th century
1248 Piacenza
Genoa
Pisa
1088 Bologna (law)
1215 Arezzo
1308 Perugia

1290 Lisbon

1130s A school of translators established by Archbishop Raymond translates many Arabic and Hebrew works

1254 Seville
Cordova
Toledo

Balearic Islands

Corsica

Sardinia

1246 Siena
PAPAL STATES
Rome
c.1140
1245
1224 Naples

SERBIA

ALMOHAD EMPIRE

1088 Bologna, an important centre for legal studies, becomes the first university in Europe

10th century onwards The medical school at Salerno acts as conduit for Arabic medical works

Salerno (medicine)
since 9th century

KINGDOM OF ITALY

KINGDOM OF SICILY

Mediterranean Sea

Palermo

Sicily

△ **Students attending their lessons**
This carving of students at the University of Bologna dates from around 1412 and adorns the tomb of the great teacher and legal thinker Bartolomeo da Saliceto.

5 DEVELOPMENTS IN LITERATURE AND SONG   1100–1200

The 12th century saw an upsurge in literature in the vernacular (local languages), many of them epic poems such as the German sagas the *Nibelungenlied* and Wolfram von Eschenbach's *Parzival*. In southern France troubadours, travelling performer-poets, spread *chansons de geste* ("songs of deeds", tales of romance, heroic deeds, and courtly love), such as the *Chanson de Roland*, which recounted episodes from Charlemagne's campaigns against the Muslims in northern Spain in the 770s.

4 INFLUENCE OF ARAB SCHOLARSHIP   1085–1300

Many scientific and philosophical works by Greek scholars had survived only in the Islamic world, often translated into Arabic and added to by Muslim writers. In the 12th century, these filtered into Europe, through areas such as Sicily and parts of Spain such as Toledo that had recently been conquered from Muslim powers. Manuscripts of many works by Aristotle, Ptolemy, and Euclid were then translated into Latin and helped fuel the 12th-century revival in scholarship.

🕌 Centre of contact with Arab scholarship

▮ Muslim lands reconquered by Christians 1030–1200

▮ Muslim lands reconquered by Christians 1200–1300

3 THE NEW UNIVERSITIES   1088–1348

In the 12th century, scholars such as Abelard (at Paris) and Anselm of Aosta (at Bec) taught classes in theology and logic that attracted large numbers of students. Their schools developed into *studia generalia*, or universities, which offered a wider range of courses. Bologna University was among the first of these institutions.

🏛 University with date of foundation

🏛 Other important theological school

MEDIEVAL RENAISSANCE

The 12th century saw the intellectual, spiritual, and cultural life of Europe undergo a renewal. This encompassed the revival of monasteries, the foundation of schools and universities, the development of new architectural forms, and the acquisition of knowledge through translations from Greek and Arabic manuscripts.

After the fall of the Roman Empire in the West in the 5th century, much classical knowledge was lost, and most remaining manuscripts were confined to monasteries. Although there were local cultural revivals in France under Charlemagne (r. 768–814), in England under Alfred the Great (r. 871–99), and in Germany under Otto I (r. 962–73), they did not long survive the deaths of their royal patrons. However, in the late 11th century a new movement began, in part stimulated by a desire for a return to purer forms of religious observance and in part by the needs of increasingly complex royal bureaucracies. New monastic movements, such as the Cistercians, gave impetus to a revival of spirituality, and schools grew up around cathedrals and abbeys that welcomed lay students and clergy alike. They taught a curriculum that focused on logic, grammar, and rhetoric, but which also encouraged debate and academic disputation. The largest centres, such as Paris and Bologna, attracted students from all over western Europe and developed into universities. Scholars there enjoyed access to works that had been unknown in Europe since the fall of Rome, as well as original Arabic works and translations of classical authors that came via the former Islamic territories in Sicily and Spain.

"By doubting we come to examine, and by examining we reach the truth."

PETER ABELARD, FRENCH THEOLOGIAN, 1079–1142

GOTHIC ARCHITECTURE
A NEW LANGUAGE OF CONSTRUCTION

In the early 12th century, a new architectural style replaced the solid masses and round arches typical of the previous Romanesque tradition. Known as Gothic, its pointed arches, ribbed buttresses, and soaring vaults allowed for higher ceilings and the penetration of more light into buildings (with windows often glazed in decorative stained glass). The style became the predominant one for large churches and cathedrals in western Europe for the next 300 years.

Wells Cathedral
This 12th-century English cathedral is one of the earliest examples of architecture that is wholly Gothic in style.

1149
Jedrzejów

RUSSIAN PRINCIPALITIES

HUNGARY

Danube

BULGARIA

BYZANTINE EMPIRE

1 THE FIRST CRUSADE 1095–99

In answer to an appeal from Byzantine Emperor Alexius I, Pope Urban II preached a crusade, promising the forgiveness of sins to all who took part in an expedition to retake Jerusalem. The main army of 10,000 knights – mostly Frankish nobles, who gave the expedition the name of "Princes' Crusade" – travelled across Anatolia, overcoming stiff Muslim opposition before capturing Antioch and then storming Jerusalem.

- ■ Major areas of recruiting for First Crusade
- → Routes of First Crusade

1095 Pope Urban II preaches the First Crusade at the Council of Clermont

1096 Up to 10,000 knights and men-at-arms head for Palestine in the First Crusade; untrained groups of peasants have already set out

1147 Crusaders help the Portuguese to capture Lisbon from local Muslim rulers

1270 Crusaders led by Louis IX of France attack Tunis but are struck down by disease; Louis dies

THE CRUSADES 1096–1291
Of the many expeditions to the Holy Land over 174 years, a few proved decisive. Thousands of crusaders from western Europe made the journey, urged by the Byzantine Emperor and the Pope.

KEY

■ Muslim territory 1096	✕ Christian victory
■ Byzantine Empire 1096	✕ Muslim victory

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5

1050 1100 1150 1200 1250 1300

2 THE SECOND CRUSADE 1147–49

The fall of the isolated outpost of Edessa to Zengi, the Muslim ruler of Aleppo, caused shock in Europe and led to the preaching of a new crusade by Pope Eugenius III. The crusaders, mainly from Germany and France, travelled largely by sea, but, despite besieging Damascus, achieved little and did not recover Edessa.

→ Routes of the Second Crusade

THE CRUSADES

Beginning in 1095, a series of military expeditions set out from Christian Europe to capture Jerusalem and the Holy Land, which had been part of the Islamic Caliphate since the mid-7th century. These Crusades established states in the area, but once Muslim rulers had overcome their previous disunity, they expelled the crusaders, capturing their last important stronghold in 1291.

Jerusalem fell into Muslim hands in 639, when the Caliphate took the provinces of the Byzantine Empire in Palestine and Syria. In the 11th century, a new Muslim group – the Seljuk Turks – gained more Byzantine territory and threatened the rights of Christian pilgrims to visit Jerusalem. In response to an appeal from the Byzantine emperor, the Pope called for a crusade – an armed expedition – to liberate the Holy City. Thousands of knights responded and marched to Palestine, where they captured many Muslim-controlled cities including Jerusalem itself. The crusaders established states in Palestine, but their numbers were few and Muslim counter-attacks resulted in the fall of Edessa in 1144, a disaster that sparked the Second Crusade. The Third Crusade was inspired by the loss of

3 THE THIRD CRUSADE 1189–92

In 1187, Saladin, the Muslim ruler of Egypt, captured Jerusalem, prompting the calling of a further crusade. A crusader army led by King Richard the Lionheart of England and King Philip Augustus of France succeeded in checking Saladin's advance, and took the important cities of Jaffa and Acre, but was unable to recover Jerusalem – which had been the goal of the expedition.

→ Routes of Third Crusade

4 THE FOURTH CRUSADE 1202–04

Called by Pope Innocent III, the crusade originally set out to reconquer Jerusalem, but its army was diverted by Alexios Angelos, an exiled Byzantine prince, who promised the crusaders a great reward if they helped him recover his throne. Instead, the crusaders sacked Constantinople (the capital of the Christian-controlled Byzantine empire), divided the empire amongst their leaders, and never reached Jerusalem.

★ Capital of Byzantine Empire

5 THE SEVENTH CRUSADE 1248–54

Led by King Louis IX of France, the crusade set out to destroy the Ayyubid dynasty in Egypt and Syria, then recapture Jerusalem (which the Muslims had retaken in 1244). Louis captured Damietta in 1249, but the crusade became bogged down in a siege of Mansurah, in which many crusaders died. Louis was captured and was ransomed, the price of his return being Damietta, leaving the crusade a total failure.

→ Routes of the Seventh Crusade

1204 Crusaders attack Constantinople after intervening in a quarrel between rival claimants to the Byzantine throne

Jul 1097 Attacked by Seljuk Turkish archers as they cross Anatolia, the crusaders under Godfrey of Bouillon fight back and clear the way to reach Palestine

1190 The Holy Roman Emperor Frederick Barbarossa drowns in a river en route to the Holy Land in the Third Crusade

1144 The capture of the County of Edessa leads to calling for the Second Crusade

1097–98 Crusaders besiege Antioch for 7 months, finally capturing its citadel

1148 Second Crusaders besiege Damascus but poor organization forces their retreat

1187 Saladin destroys crusader army at the Horns of Hattin, leaving Jerusalem defenceless

1291 The last major crusader stronghold, Acre, falls to a Mamluk offensive

1099 Jerusalem is captured by the First Crusade; it is retaken by Saladin, briefly recovered by the Sixth Crusade, and falls back into Muslim control in 1244

HUNGARY, Pechenegs, Danube, Sofia, Balkan Mountains, Adrianople, Constantinople, Nicomedia, 1096, Nicaea, Thessalonica, Aegean Sea, Dorylaeum, 1147, 1097, SELJUKS OF RUM, Anatolia, Ephesus, Adalia, Taurus Mountains, Antioch, Armenians, Edessa, GREAT SELJUK EMPIRE, Sinope, Rhodes, Crete, Nicosia, Famagusta, Cyprus, Damascus, Tyre, Hattin, Acre, Jerusalem, 1187, 1099, Ascalon, 1099, 1250, Mansurah, Damietta, Cairo, FATIMID CALIPHATE (Ayyubid Sultanate from 1171), EGYPT, Sinai, BYZANTINE EMPIRE

SELJUKS OF RUM, ARMENIA, CILICIA, Tarsus, COUNTY OF EDESSA, Edessa, Euphrates, Alexandretta, Antioch, KINGDOM OF CYPRUS, Famagusta, PRINCIPALITY OF ANTIOCH, Assassins, EMIRATE OF DAMASCUS, Mediterranean Sea, Tripoli, COUNTY OF TRIPOLI, Homs, Beirut, Baalbek, SYRIA, Sidon, Damascus, Tyre, Acre, Haifa, Lake Tiberias, Caesarea, Arsuf, Jordan, Jaffa, Jerusalem, Ascalon, Dead Sea, KINGDOM OF JERUSALEM, Negev Desert, Sinai, Ailah, Gulf of Aqaba

KEY
- Latin Christian states 1144
- Fatimid Caliphate 1144
- Other Muslim territory 1144
- Byzantine Empire 1144
- Kingdom of Armenia
- Lands recaptured by Saladin by 1190
- Latin Christian states 1229

THE CRUSADER STATES
The Crusaders established states around Jerusalem, Edessa, Antioch, and Tripoli. They were defended by crusading orders of knights, such as the Templars and Hospitallers. Edessa was the first to be recaptured by Muslim rulers, followed by Jerusalem and Antioch, leaving a narrow strip around Tripoli, which survived into the late 13th century.

Jerusalem to Saladin in 1187; while it halted the Muslim advance, it did not recover the Holy City. With no coherent strategy to secure the crusader states, several subsequent crusades were launched to address immediate crises. Jerusalem was eventually recovered in 1229 in the Sixth Crusade, but later expeditions were largely ineffective and aimed at Muslim-controlled regions outside Palestine, such as Egypt in 1249 and Tunis in 1270. The area under crusader control gradually shrank until campaigns by the Ayyubids and Mamluks retook the last of the Crusader castles, ending with the fall of Acre.

▷ **The departure for the Second Crusade**
This 12th-century fresco from a Templar chapel in southwest France shows knights leaving for the Holy Land. Most would be away for years in Palestine and some would settle there.

THE INHERITORS OF ROME

The Western Roman Empire's fall was followed by the rise of several kingdoms of Germanic invaders in former Roman provinces. While the level of continuity with Roman life varied, within 200 years some of their systems harked back, at least in part, to Rome.

△ **Roman elite**
This late 4th-century ivory diptych portrays the Roman general Stilicho and his wife and son. Regent for Emperor Honorius, the part-Vandal Stilicho was one of the Western Empire's most powerful men.

Pressure grew on the Roman frontiers along the Rhine and the Danube Rivers from the 3rd century, as Germanic invaders migrated westwards. In 406, helped partly by problems within the empire, large numbers of Vandals, Alans, and Sueves flooded across the Rhine and fanned out through Gaul and Spain. As the empire's grip on these provinces contracted, its ability to raise taxes to support the army diminished, accelerating the process by which the newcomers had to be accommodated rather than expelled. Other encroachments followed. After some reshaping of the invading ethnic groups, the Western Roman Empire was left with a presence of Visigoths, Ostrogoths, Burgundians, and Franks. The Roman hold on the western provinces had slipped away, not as a result of a single defeat but through simple lack of resources to defend them.

New kingdoms

By 418, a Visigothic kingdom had been established at Toulouse, which expanded to include much of southwestern France and Spain. This displaced the Vandals, who,

▷ **Fortune for the church**
This jewelled cross is part of a cache of votive objects donated by the Visigothic kings of Spain to a church in the 7th century. After the conversion of King Reccared to Catholicism in 589, the Church became a key player in the consolidation of royal power in Spain.

in 429, crossed over into North Africa where they founded their own kingdom (see pp.92–93). Northern France fell out of imperial control in the mid-5th century as Frankish tribes pushed westwards, and finally, in 476, Italy succumbed to an advance led by Odovacer, who was, in turn, supplanted by Ostrogoths under Theoderic the Great in 493. The Roman province of Britain, which had broken away from the empire in 411, suffered complete political collapse as Angles and Saxons mounted invasions across the North Sea.

Europe after Rome

The disappearance of the security that the Roman Empire had guaranteed had profound consequences. Trade reduced, the economy collapsed in many areas, and long-distance communication became more difficult. Urban settlements contracted, disappearing almost entirely in England. Even Rome, which once had a population of more than half a million, shrank to only around 30,000 inhabitants by the 7th century. The new rulers adopted some elements of Roman life. As chieftains of war-bands, they were ill-equipped to rule large, static populations and, in Italy in particular, many of the former senatorial elite took service with their new masters. Statesmen such as Cassiodorus served under Theoderic and attempted to reconcile Ostrogoths and Romans. Gaul retained a centralized administration with tax-levying powers,

THE NEW ORDER

The early 5th century saw Germanic invaders breach the Rhine frontier of the Roman Empire. This was followed by a rapid collapse of imperial control over its western provinces. The Franks established a kingdom in northern France and expanded through the south and east, while the Visigoths overran Spain, and the Vandals occupied Roman North Africa. In these areas, the new Germanic rulers gradually established administrations. England, however, remained divided among smaller kingdoms.

406 Alans, Sueves, and Vandals cross into Gaul

450 Leaders of Britons appeal to Roman general Aëtius to send help against Saxon invaders

456 Visigoths under Theoderic II control Spain apart from Suevic kingdom

506 Visigothic king Alaric II issues the *Breviarium*, a Roman-style law code

511–561 Frankish kingdom divided into four after the death of Clovis; partitioned again in 561, weakening the rule of the Franks

FRANCE			
NORTH AFRICA			
BRITISH ISLES			
SPAIN			
ITALY			

400 · 450 · 500 · 550

429 Roman North Africa is invaded by the Vandals; their kingdom ends with an Eastern Roman reconquest in 533

476 The last Western Roman emperor, Romulus Augustulus, is deposed by his army chief, Odovacer

534 Eastern Roman general Belisarius invades Sicily, beginning the reconquest of Italy

◁ **Holy ruins**
These are the remains of the 12th-century Benedictine priory on Lindisfarne Island, off the northeast coast of Northumbria, England. It was built on the site of an earlier abbey destroyed by the first Viking raid on England in 793.

▷ **Anglo-Saxon helmet**
This reconstruction of a helmet found in an early 7th-century ship-burial at Sutton Hoo, East Anglia, England, shows the great skill of Anglo-Saxon metalworkers.

while in Spain, the Visigoths combined the interests of Romans and Goths, issuing law codes that legislated differently for the two groups. In Britain, however, the prolonged military struggle between the invading Anglo-Saxons and indigenous Britons meant that not even fragments of the old Roman administration survived.

In 533–34, the emperor of the surviving Eastern Roman (Byzantine) Empire, Justinian, launched a military campaign to recover Rome's western provinces and destroyed the Vandal kingdom of North Africa. His campaign in Italy led to a 20-year war that ended with the fall of the Ostrogothic kingdom in 553. It also left the peninsula ravaged, unable to yield any taxes and ripe for a new invasion by the Lombards, who conquered much of the peninsula in 568–72, confining the Byzantines to a series of scattered enclaves.

Recovery and consolidation

Elsewhere, however, despite several civil wars, the 7th century saw a process of consolidation. In England, larger kingdoms emerged, most notably Northumbria in the north, Mercia and East Anglia in central England, and Wessex and Kent in the south. All of these converted to Christianity in the century following a mission in 597 sent by Pope Gregory I and led by one of his monks, Augustine. Lombard Italy stabilized after the invasion period, when Lombard king Agilulf (r. 590–616) made peace with the Franks following a series of invasions. In 643, King Rothari issued a law code setting down the customary law of the Lombards in written form for the first time.

By 700, Visigothic Spain, Frankish Gaul, and Lombard Italy had achieved relative stability. There, and in still-fragmented Anglo-Saxon England, the persistence of Latin as a means of formal written communication and the spread of the Christian Church provided living reminders of continuity with the late Roman world. If the invaders who settled in the Roman Empire discarded some of what they found there, they also inherited much from their Roman predecessors.

"This King Rothari collected … the laws of the Lombards … and he directed this code to be called the Edict."

PAUL THE DEACON, FROM *HISTORY OF THE LOMBARDS*, c.790

568 Lombard invasion of Italy begins

664 Dispute between Celtic Christians in Anglo-Saxon kingdoms and those from Rome settled by Synod of Whitby

698 Muslim Arab army captures Carthage

600   650   700   750   800

597 Sent by Pope Gregory I to convert the English, Augustine arrives in Canterbury

633 Penda of Mercia defeats and kills King Edwin of Mercia to begin a 160-year Mercian supremacy among the English kingdoms

711 Arab Muslim army crosses from North Africa and conquers the Visigothic Kingdom

774 Lombard kingdom comes to an end after invasion by Frankish-Carolingian ruler Charlemagne

THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR

A conflict between the kings of England and of France over the English rulers' claim to the French throne began in 1337 and lasted for 116 years. While at times the English managed to conquer large parts of France, by the end of the conflict in 1453 they retained only the port town of Calais.

Edward III of England had a claim to the French throne through his mother, the sister of Charles IV of France. When Charles died without an heir, Edward laid claim to the French throne against his rival, Philip. This, combined with Edward's earlier refusal to pay homage to the French monarch for land he held, led to war. The conflict fell into three phases. In the initial phase (1337–60) under Edward III, the English won significant victories. This phase came to an end with the Treaty of Brétigny, which left England with enlarged holdings in France. In the second phase

(1369–89), the English initially made large gains but were pushed back. This phase ended in a truce, with England retaining only Calais and small areas around Brest, Bordeaux, and Bayonne. In the early 1400s, France was in a state of virtual civil war between supporters of the Duke of Burgundy and the Armagnacs. Taking advantage of this disruption, Henry V of England resumed war with France in 1415. At first, English forces took huge areas. However, inspired by Joan of Arc, the French fought back, and by the end of the war England held only Calais.

Map legend and details

1 ORIGINS OF THE WAR 1154–1337

During the reign of Henry II of England (1154–89), his realm included large areas in France, although by the time Edward III came to power in 1327 these had been reduced to Gascony alone. Edward, who was related to Charles IV of France, refused to pay homage to the French king for Gascony, and also laid claim to the French throne after Charles died, leading to war.

- Held by England at outbreak of war in 1337
- Under English influence at outbreak of war in 1337

2 THE CRÉCY CAMPAIGN 1340–46

In 1340, Edward engaged the French fleet off Sluys, defeating it conclusively. Later, he also sent forces to Bruges and Brittany, but the expeditions were inconclusive. In 1346, Edward returned with a larger army, which, equipped with longbows, crushed the French at Crécy.

- Campaigns of Edward III 1340–46
- Battle

3 TREATY OF BRÉTIGNY 1360

Conflict resumed after a hiatus during which the Black Death was rampant throughout Europe. In 1356, the Black Prince – the son of Edward III – won a major victory at Poitiers during which King John II of France was captured. Edward III himself soon returned to France, unsuccessfully laying siege to Rheims. England and France negotiated a treaty at Brétigny in 1360 under which England received more land in southwest France and a large ransom for King John II of France.

- Battle
- Land gained by England in Treaty of Brétigny
- Campaign of Edward III 1359–60
- Campaigns of Black Prince 1355–56

4 THE FRENCH ASCENDANCY 1369–89

The Treaty of Brétigny did not establish lasting peace, and in 1369 Charles V of France declared war again. Charles fought ably, using guerrilla tactics and avoiding major pitched battles. Despite years of campaigning by Edward III's heir, the Black Prince (who became side-tracked in a war in Spain), the English were driven out of areas they had gained in the treaty.

- Battle
- Remained under English control in 1389

THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR TO 1400
The first two decades of the war saw victories and territorial gains for England, but the French regained much of this land over the next 40 years of sporadic fighting.

Map labels: Rhine, Sluys 1340, Bruges, Antwerp, Ghent, Brussels, FLANDERS, Calais, St Omer, Tournai, Crécy 1346, Cambrai, St Quentin, Luxembourg, English Channel, Cherbourg, Caen, Rouen, Rheims, NORMANDY, Poissy, Paris, Nancy, Brest, BRITTANY, Seine, Brétigny, Chartres, Troyes, Orléans, Tonnerre, Vannes, FRANCE, Loire, Tours, Romorantin, Nantes, Bourges, BURGUNDY, Poitiers, Niort, MARCHE, La Rochelle, Limoges, Lyon, AUVERGNE, Périgueux, Bordeaux, Bergerac, La Réole, VENAISSIN (governed by Pope), DAUPHINÉ, Bay of Biscay, GUYENNE, ORANGE, Avignon, GASCONY, Toulouse, Montpellier, Bayonne, LANGUEDOC, Béziers, BÉARN, Narbonne, CASTILE, NAVARRE, Pyrenees, Carcassonne, ANDORRA, Mediterranean Sea, HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

1340 Edward III destroys the French fleet, giving him control of the English Channel

1356 The Black Prince defeats and captures King John II

1372 Castilian fleet helps to break an English siege of La Rochelle, the first major English naval defeat of the Hundred Years War

1355 The Black Prince launches a series of raids, devastating much of southwest France

5 THE AGINCOURT CAMPAIGN 1415–20

In 1415, Henry V of England resumed the war, sailing to France and besieging Harfleur. At Agincourt he won a victory in which the French knights were decimated by English and Welsh longbowmen. Henry swept through northern France and by the Treaty of Troyes (1420) was recognized as heir to the French throne.

→ Campaign of Henry V 1415   ✕ Battle
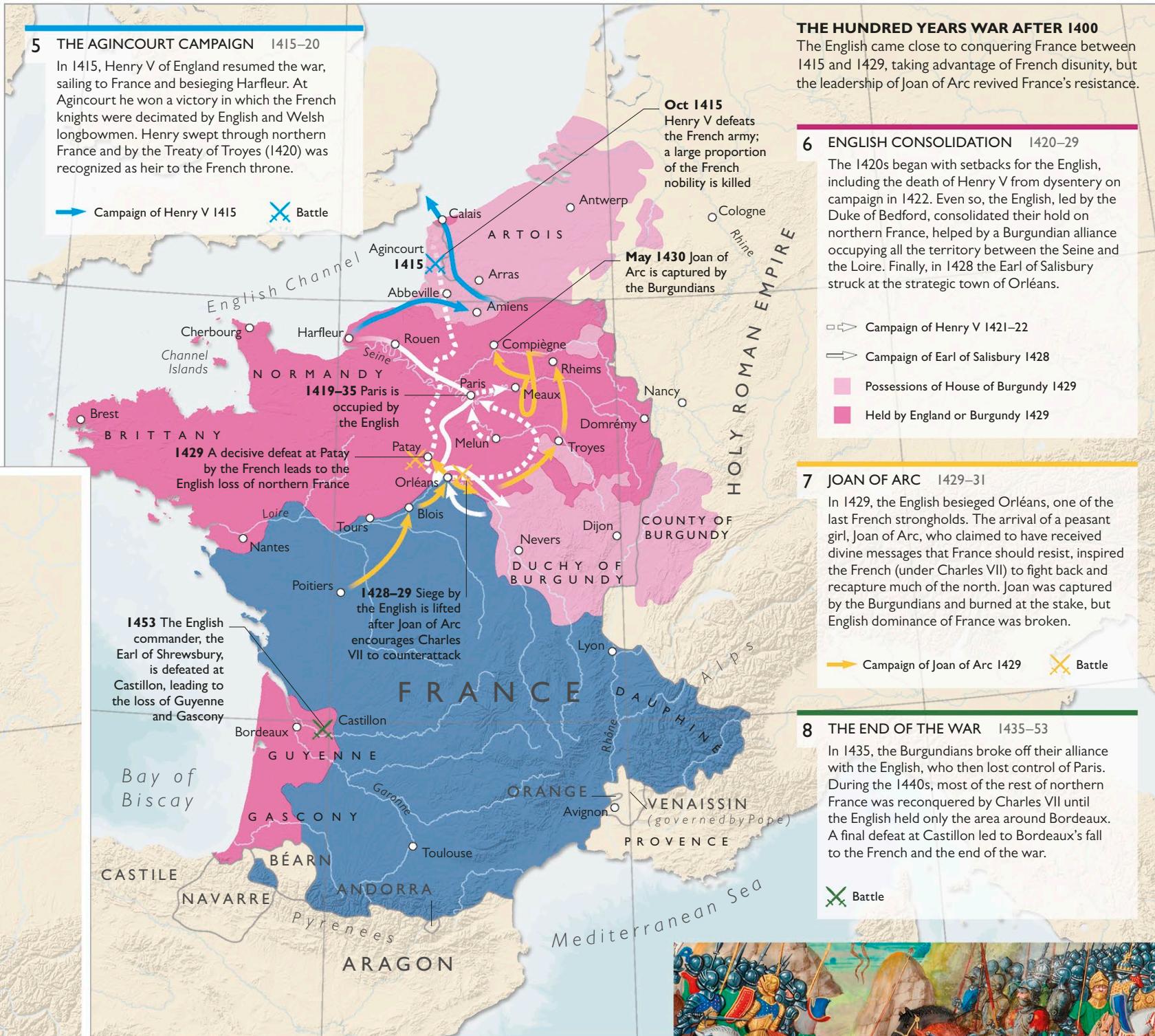
Oct 1415
Henry V defeats the French army; a large proportion of the French nobility is killed

May 1430 Joan of Arc is captured by the Burgundians

1419–35 Paris is occupied by the English

1429 A decisive defeat at Patay by the French leads to the English loss of northern France

1453 The English commander, the Earl of Shrewsbury, is defeated at Castillon, leading to the loss of Guyenne and Gascony

1428–29 Siege by the English is lifted after Joan of Arc encourages Charles VII to counterattack
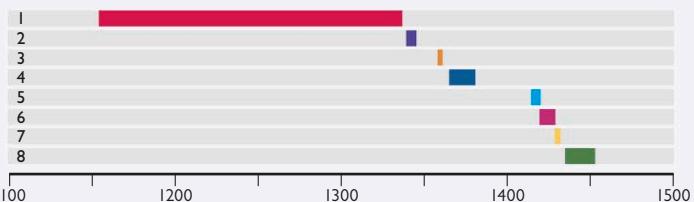
THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR AFTER 1400

The English came close to conquering France between 1415 and 1429, taking advantage of French disunity, but the leadership of Joan of Arc revived France's resistance.

6 ENGLISH CONSOLIDATION 1420–29

The 1420s began with setbacks for the English, including the death of Henry V from dysentery on campaign in 1422. Even so, the English, led by the Duke of Bedford, consolidated their hold on northern France, helped by a Burgundian alliance occupying all the territory between the Seine and the Loire. Finally, in 1428 the Earl of Salisbury struck at the strategic town of Orléans.

▢⇨ Campaign of Henry V 1421–22

⇨ Campaign of Earl of Salisbury 1428

▮ Possessions of House of Burgundy 1429

▮ Held by England or Burgundy 1429

7 JOAN OF ARC 1429–31

In 1429, the English besieged Orléans, one of the last French strongholds. The arrival of a peasant girl, Joan of Arc, who claimed to have received divine messages that France should resist, inspired the French (under Charles VII) to fight back and recapture much of the north. Joan was captured by the Burgundians and burned at the stake, but English dominance of France was broken.

→ Campaign of Joan of Arc 1429   ✕ Battle

8 THE END OF THE WAR 1435–53

In 1435, the Burgundians broke off their alliance with the English, who then lost control of Paris. During the 1440s, most of the rest of northern France was reconquered by Charles VII until the English held only the area around Bordeaux. A final defeat at Castillon led to Bordeaux's fall to the French and the end of the war.

✕ Battle

CONFLICT OVER THE FRENCH THRONE

In the 14th and 15th centuries, the English kings attempted to assert their claim to the French throne in a series of intermittent campaigns. Although treaties in 1360 and 1420 awarded them large parts of France, ultimately they lost all but Calais.

KEY

▮ French territory

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8

1100   1200   1300   1400   1500

△ **The Battle of Crécy**
This illustration from a 15th-century chronicle depicts action at the Battle of Crécy, in which the English longbow proved its superiority over the crossbow, which was slower to load and had a shorter range.

5 THE VENETIAN EMPIRE 850–1500

Venice first became a trading power in the mid-9th century and soon afterwards established bases on the Adriatic. By the 14th century, the Venetians had surpassed their longtime rivals in Genoa and gained land in the Aegean from the Byzantine Empire. But rivalry from Spanish, Dutch, and Portuguese merchants helped to cause the collapse of their empire by the 16th century.

- ■ Venetian possession, 1400
- ···· Principal Venetian trade route

6 THE GENOESE EMPIRE 950–1409

The port of Genoa began its rise to prominence as a maritime power around 950 and became the centre of a trade network that encompassed North Africa and the western Mediterranean. Defeat by Venice in the War of Chioggia dented Genoese aspirations and in the early 15th century the city fell under the sway of the Visconti of Milan.

- ■ Genoese possession, 1400
- ···· Principal Genoese trade route

7 THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE 1265–1669

In 1265, a group of towns agreed to meet annually to discuss common business. They soon grew into the Hanseatic League, containing up to 200 towns. The League grew powerful enough to enforce its will on states. The Thirty Years' War, and increased Dutch competition, broke the group's dominance, and its council last met in 1669.

- ● Principal members of the Hanseatic League
- ···· Principal Hanseatic trade route

4 JEWS IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE 1100–1492

By the 12th century, there were large Jewish communities (around 100,000) in Germany and France. Jewish merchants gained a high profile from money-lending and, combined with their status as religious outsiders, this made them vulnerable to prejudice. Jews suffered legal restrictions and massacres (especially during the Crusades and the Black Death), and by 1492 were expelled entirely from England, France, and Spain.

- ■ Region with significant Jewish population, 1200
- ⊗ Expulsion of Jewish population, with date

1255 18 Jews executed after being charged with a ritual murder

1265 Treaty with Visby forms the basis of the Hanseatic League
1669 Hanseatic League Council meets for the last time

1281 Church Synod forbids Jews from holding public office

1127 Guildhall first mentioned as craft guilds become organized

1137 Charter first granted for a fair by Duke of Champagne

1348 Jewish quarter suffers pogrom

1492 Expulsion of Jews pushes communities to North Africa

1370 Treaty allows complete freedom of trade in Germany for Hanseatic merchants

1349 Jewish population is expelled after being blamed for the Black Death

Late 15th century Population of Milan reaches 85,000

697 First Venetian Doge (Duke) elected

1345 Collapse of the Bardi and Peruzzi banks
1378–82 Ciompi Uprising of urban labourers and artisans not represented by the guilds
1397 Medici bank first established

1349 Venetians inflict major naval defeat on Genoa

1132 City of Pisa receives political rights over villages in its environs

3 BANKING 1100–1500

In the early 12th century, Italian merchants began to finance their ventures through bills of exchange. Banks specializing in providing this credit emerged, such as the Peruzzi and then, most prominently, the Medici from 1397. By the late 15th century, the Medici had been eclipsed by competitors who had grown rich on lending to the Austrian Habsburgs.

- ⬡ Branch or agency of the Peruzzi company

2 FAIRS AND LOCAL TRADE 1100–1300

During the 12th century, large trading fairs were established in Germany and France to cater for the growing number of long-distance merchants. The greatest of all were the six held annually at four locations in the County of Champagne; the weight system used at Troyes was accepted as a universal standard in Europe.

- 🚐 Important fair

Map labels:
Bergen, Oslo, Stockholm, Reval, Dorpat, Pskov, Visby, Riga, TEUTONIC ORDER, Western Dvina, Königsberg, Kovno, Copenhagen, Kiel, Stralsund, Danzig, Rostock, Stettin, Brandenburg, Thorn, Gnesen, Kampen, Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, Lüneburg, Osnabrück, Magdeburg, Hildesheim, Goslar, Dortmund, Münster, Cologne, Leipzig, Breslau, Lublin, POLISH STATES, LITHUANIA, L'vov, Frankfurt, Mainz, Prague, Cracow, Rhineland, Nuremberg, Strassburg, Augsburg, Linz, Besançon, St Gotthard Pass, Brenner Pass, Buda, HUNGARY, HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE, Milan, Verona, Cremona, Venice, Genoa, Bologna, Ravenna, Lucca, Pisa, Florence, Ancona, Dubrovnik, SERBIA, BULGARIA, Adriatic Sea, Rome, Capua, Barletta, Naples, Taranto, Apennines, Bari, Corsica to Genoa, Sardinia, Alghero, Iglesias, Cagliari, Trapani, Palermo, Messina, Sicily, Syracuse, Negroponte, Phocaea, Modon, Aegean Sea, Crete, Mediterranean Sea, Tripoli, Tunis, HAFSIDS, Bône, Bougie, Algiers, Ténès, Oran, Honein, ZAYYANIDS, MARINIDS, Ceuta, AFRICA, Strait of Gibraltar, Málaga, Almería, GRANADA, Granada, Murcia, Alicante, Jaén, Córdoba, Jerez, Cádiz, Seville, Badajoz, Lisbon, PORTUGAL, Guimarães, Douro, ATLANTIC OCEAN, SPAIN, CASTILE, Toledo, Zaragoza, ARAGON, Barcelona, Gerona, Valencia, Palma, Balearic Islands, Medina del Campo, Pyrenees, Toulouse, Montpellier, Marseille, St Gilles, Avignon, PROVENCE, Chambéry, Geneva, Lyon, Chalon-sur-Saône, FRANCE, Bordeaux, Poitiers, Loire, Bourges, Bar, Troyes, Provins, Lagny, Paris, St Denis, Rouen, Arras, Lille, Ypres, Ghent, Bruges, Deventer, FLANDERS, Southampton, Exeter, Bristol, Oxford, London, Boston, ENGLAND, Shrewsbury, Chester, Lincoln, York, Newcastle, Dublin, IRELAND, Edinburgh, SCOTLAND, North Sea, NORWAY, SWEDEN, DENMARK, Baltic Sea

Dates on map: 1290, 1281, 1182, 1306, 1394, 1497, 1492

1492 Expulsion of Jews pushes communities to North Africa

TRADE IN EUROPE

New industries emerged in Europe from the early 12th century, and a web of trading routes expanded. Towns and their populations grew rapidly, and new techniques such as banking were developed by companies like the Peruzzi.

KEY

···· Main overland route

🧵 Major textile town

○ Other trading centre

TIMELINE

	800	1000	1200	1400	1600	1800
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						

○ Novgorod

RUSSIAN
PRINCIPALITIES

Moscow ○

1 THE GROWTH OF TOWNS   1100–1358

Rapid economic development meant that by 1300 Milan, Genoa, Naples, Florence, and Palermo had over 100,000 inhabitants and Paris perhaps 200,000. Many towns developed governments or merchant guilds. But increasingly, crowded towns bred political unrest, disease, and intolerance. Urban populations became restive, with major uprisings in Flanders in 1348–59 and Paris in 1358.

● Town with population over 50,000

○ Vitebsk

Smolensk ○

○ Mogilev

○ Kiev

KHANATE OF
THE GOLDEN
HORDE

Dnieper

Dniester

to New Sarai

Tana

New Sarai, at present-day Kolobovkan in Russia, is one of the largest cities of the medieval world

○ Moncastro

Kaffa ○

Black Sea

○ Varna

Trebizond ○

Anatolia   TREBIZOND

Pera ○

○ Constantinople

1182 Venetian merchants massacred during a riot, due to their domination of the city's maritime trade

to Tabriz

B Y Z A N T I N E
E M P I R E

RUM

SELJUK
STATES

○ Ephesus

Taurus Mountains

LITTLE
ARMENIA

IL-KHANATE

to Baghdad

Aleppo ○

Antioch

○ Rhodes

Famagusta

Cyprus

○ Beirut

○ Acre

Jerusalem ○

○ Damietta

1218–19 Genoese fleet besieges Damietta as part of the Fifth Crusade

○ Alexandria

Nile

MAMLUKS

Cairo ○

1492 Many Jews expelled from Spain settle in North Africa and the eastern Mediterranean

MEDIEVAL EUROPEAN TRADE

From the 12th century, Europe experienced a period of economic and population growth. Guilds and town councils threatened royal monopolies of power, and merchants pioneered new methods of banking. Yet not all shared the fruits of this prosperity, and Jewish communities suffered increasing persecutions.

Europe saw a renewed flourishing of urban life in the 12th century. New towns were built under royal patronage in England and France, and others expanded significantly in size. Fairs sprang up, where merchants travelled from across the continent to acquire goods and hawk their wares. Cities became more important, too, as many places acquired

their own councils not always amenable to royal persuasion, while in Italy a network of independent city-states developed. The area became a fertile ground for innovation in finance, including the establishment of the first trading banks. The wealth generated by their merchants enabled Genoa and Venice to establish maritime empires in the Mediterranean and become international powers in their own right. Similarly, in northern Europe the Hanseatic League – a federation of trading cities – developed after 1265 and dominated trade in the Baltic and North Seas for two centuries. Jewish communities, however, were expelled from much of western and southern Europe. They had previously played a central role in providing moneylending services, but by 1500, main centres of Jewish life on the continent had shifted to eastern Europe, Italy, and the lands under Muslim control.

△ **Jewish wedding ring**
This ornate ring comes from Colmar, in northeastern France, which had a thriving Jewish community by the 13th century.

CLOTH TRADE
THE FIRST GREAT EUROPEAN INDUSTRY

Cloth was the first commodity in medieval Europe whose production grew into a great industry. The main centres were in Flanders, England, and Italy, which all had access to important sources of wool. The spinning, weaving, fulling (cleansing the cloth and making it thicker), and dyeing processes provided employment to large numbers of artisans and incomes for merchants. Guilds, associations of artisans and merchants, were established in major cities, and merchants used their wealth to endow lavish cloth-halls – where cloth was sold.

Textile workers dyeing cloth
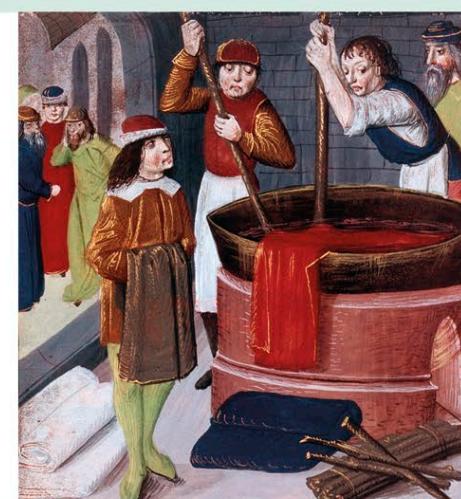
6 THE BLACK DEATH REACHES BRITAIN 1348–50

The plague travelled furthest and fastest by sea, so Britain and other maritime nations were affected before inland northern and eastern Europe. The plague entered Britain in July 1348 and reached London 6 months later. Crowded, filthy streets made ideal breeding grounds for plague rats and their fleas. About 40,000 people died – half the city's population.

5 ARRIVAL IN ITALY 1347–48

Genoese refugees from plague-hit Caffa brought the Black Death to Italy in late 1347. From the ports where the victims landed – including Venice, which lost three-quarters of its inhabitants – the disease spread inland. Thousands of bodies were pitched into communal graves. In Florence, many of the banking families who had made the city prosperous went out of business.

4 THE PLAGUE IN EUROPE 1346–47

In 1346 the Black Sea port of Caffa came under siege by the Tatars, a Mongol group, who were keen to push out its Genoese garrison. According to some sources, the Tatar army became infected with the plague, and their commander, Khan Janibeg, had the corpses of dead plague victims catapulted inside the city. Soon the Genoese caught the disease too, and sufferers on a ship fleeing Caffa transmitted it further west.

1349 Plague spreads into Scandinavia, carried by ships from England to Bergen in Norway

Spring 1347 Plague reaches the Byzantine capital of Constantinople and spreads to western Anatolia and the Balkans

1346 The Tatar siege of Caffa allows the spread of the Black Death

Jan 1348 Plague arrives in north Italian ports and spreads throughout Italy, Anatolia, and the Balkans

1346 Between 10,000 and 15,000 people die each day at the height of the plague in Cairo

1348 Pilgrims performing the haj to Mecca carry the plague into Arabia

1347 Plague breaks out in an army besieging Tabriz and sweeps through Persia

THE SPREAD OF THE BLACK DEATH

During the main phase of the Black Death, from 1347 to 1350, almost all of Europe was touched. The Middle East and North Africa, in particular Egypt, were also very badly affected. Routes of trade and pilgrimage were key in spreading the disease.

KEY

- - - - Arab trade route
- - - - Chinese trade route
- - - - Genoese trade route
- - - - Main Hanseatic trade routes
- - - - Silk Road
- - - - Venetian trade route
- - - - Other trade route
- - - - Principal route of Hajj pilgrimage to Mecca
→ Progress of bubonic plague

Area of earliest outbreak of bubonic plague

Area of outbreak of bubonic plague

☠ Recorded outbreak of bubonic plague with date

TIMELINE

1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6

1330   1340   1350

3 THE BLACK DEATH IN THE MIDDLE EAST 1335–48

The Black Death reached Persia by 1335. It spread from there to the rest of the Middle East, affecting large, crowded urban centres, such as Damascus in Syria and Cairo in Egypt, particularly badly. The famous Moroccan scholar Ibn Battutah reported 2,000 people a day dying of the disease in Damascus.

Map labels:
SCANDINAVIA · 1349 · Stockholm · Novgorod · Nizhniy Novgorod · Moscow · MUSCOVY 1351 · Irtysh · ASIA · Edinburgh 1350 · Dublin 1349 · BRITAIN · London 1348 · Bruges · Cologne 1349 · GERMANY · POLAND · Kiev · Dnieper · Ural · KHANATE OF THE GOLDEN HORDE · North Sea · Baltic Sea · Riga · Danzig · Lübeck · Paris · Augsburg · FRANCE · EUROPE · 1349 Buda · Cracow · Don · Rostov · Dana · New Sarai · Volga · Venice 1348 · Danube · 1346 Caffa · Black Sea · Caucasus · Caspian Sea · Aral Sea · Syr Darya · Lake Balkhash · Lake Issyk-Kul · Balasaghun · Tashkent · Bordeaux 1348 · Marseille 1347 · Genoa · 1348 · ITALY · Naples · Constantinople · Trebizond · Tabriz · Rayy · Fergana Valley · Tien Shan · Bukhara · Samarkand · Merv · Takla Makan · Kashgar · Cherchen · SPAIN 1348 · Messina 1347 · GREECE · Athens · ANATOLIA 1348 · Aleppo · Balkh · Hindu Kush · Khotan · Lisbon 1349 · Palermo 1347 · Sicily · Tunis · 1348 · Mediterranean Sea · Damascus · Euphrates · Baghdad · PERSIA · Herat · Kabul · Leh · Ceuta · Algiers · Fez · Melilla · Atlas Mountains · Tripoli 1348 · 1347 Alexandria · 1347 · 1347 · Basra · Isfahan · IL-KHANATE · Multan · Himalayas · Marrakesh 1349 · ATLANTIC OCEAN · Sahara · EGYPT · Cairo · Nile · Shiraz · Hormuz · Delhi · Indus · Ganges · Patna · Wadan · AFRICA · Aydhab · Jedda 1348 Mecca · 1347 · Muscat · Cambay · INDIA · Puri · Timbuktu · Red Sea · Arabian Peninsula · Arabian Sea · Persian Gulf · Hodeida · Aden 1351 · Gulf of Aden · Socotra · Calicut · Zeila · Quilon · Ceylon · Mogadishu · INDIAN OCEAN

1330s Major outbreaks of plague occur in western China

△ **Jewish scapegoats**
This woodcut from 1493 depicts the Jewish doctors being burned alive. They had been blamed for spreading the plague by poisoning wells. Many Jewish quarters were wiped out in a spate of persecution.

Karakorum

MONGOLIA

Gobi

Anxi

Ningxia

Lanzhou

MANCHURIA

Shangdu

Yellow River

Beijing

Taiyuan

1345

1351 **1354**

Luoyang

Sea of Japan (East Sea)

JAPAN

Nagasaki

Xian

1335

Kaifeng

1351

1332

1351

1323

Chengdu

Wuchang

1320

Hangzhou

Yongtze

Changsha

Nanchang

1345

1356

CHINA

Zaitun

PACIFIC OCEAN

1356

Irrawaddy

Yunnan

Guangzhou

1354

Pagan

before 1320

Nanning

BURMA

Pegu

ANNAM

CHAMPA

Mekong

Thon Buri

SIAM

Angkor

South China Sea

Brunei

Malacca

Sumatra

Palembang

Java

1 ORIGINS IN CHINA
1331

Chinese historians kept records of plagues as far back as 244 BCE; they noted symptoms similar to those of bubonic plague in an outbreak in 642 CE. The Black Death probably began in Hebei province in 1331, where it killed up to 90 per cent of the population and hastened the end of Mongol rule in China.

2 SPREAD THROUGH CENTRAL ASIA
1330s

A series of poor harvests, earthquakes, floods, and swarms of locusts – all of which weakened the population – was followed in 1338 by an outbreak of plague around Lake Issyk-Kul to the west of China. Whole communities died, and from there the Black Death spread westwards along the Silk Road trade routes towards Europe.

THE BLACK DEATH

In 1347 a new disease entered Europe from China and central Asia. The bubonic plague, or Black Death (after the black spots it caused on the skin), spread rapidly, and, with no cure available, killed around 150 million people – roughly one-third of the world's population.

The Black Death was transmitted through the bite of infected rat fleas, so it spread quickly in the crowded, unsanitary conditions of medieval towns. It moved along trade routes once it reached Italy in 1347, and over time developed into more virulent forms. Doctors prescribed sweet-smelling posies, complex brews of herbs and spices, and the fumigation of rooms, only the last of which – by killing the fleas – had the slightest effect in stopping the epidemic's course. Those who tried to flee simply spread the disease to new areas.

The disease caused terror and an outpouring of mysticism, and also had profound social consequences. There was a huge rise in crime – the murder rate in England doubled – as people broke faith with traditional values. Peasants, now scarce in number, could demand better conditions and pay from their feudal masters.

By the end of 1350, the Black Death had mainly run its course, but there were many recurrences; even today there are occasional cases all over the world.

> *"They sickened by the thousands daily, and died unattended and without help."*
>
> GIOVANNI BOCACCIO, FROM THE *DECAMERON*, 1348–53

SPREAD IN EUROPE
The Black Death probably originated in China in the 1320s and at first moved slowly west along trade routes. Once it reached Constantinople in 1347, its spread became rapid. Striking much of Italy in early 1348, by the summer the plague had reached England. By the following year it penetrated even northern Scandinavia. Only certain areas were spared, notably central Poland.

Oslo

Copenhagen

London
Brunswick
Bruges
Magdeburg
Warsaw
Prague

Frankfurt
Vienna

Paris

Milan
Bucharest

Marseilles
Florence
Rome

Barcelona
Constantinople

Toledo
Athens

Granada

Mediterranean Sea

KEY

■ 1347	■ 1350	
■ Mid-1348	■ 1351	
■ Early 1349	■ After 1351	
■ Late 1349	■ Relatively unaffected	
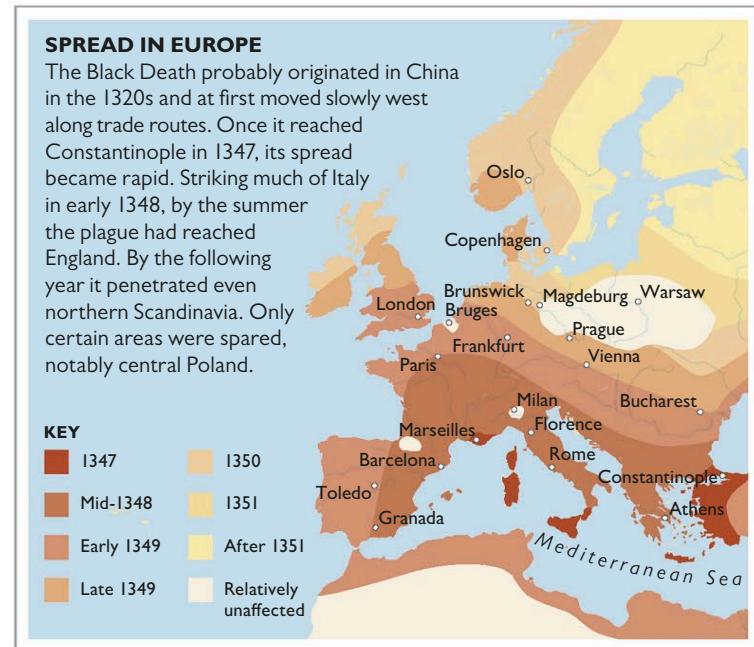
Coronation and excommunication
This painting shows Pope Innocent III both conferring the imperial crown on Frederick II (on the right) and removing it from Otto IV (on the left). It demonstrates the power of a pope to make and unmake emperors.

THE EMPEROR AND THE POPE

During the 11th and 12th centuries, relations between popes and rulers of the Holy Roman Empire were fraught with tensions, as both laid claim to supreme authority within the empire. It was only when imperial authority declined within Germany that the struggle between them finally subsided.

From the 10th century – with the empire extending across what is now Germany, the Czech Republic, and parts of France – there was a tussle for power between popes and emperors. While popes maintained that ultimate authority should rest with them as heads of the Church, emperors vigorously defended their position as supreme secular rulers. The struggle, known as the Investiture Controversy, focussed on the monarch's right to invest bishops, who in turn had to pay homage to the emperor for their lands. Pope Gregory VII refused to accept this, and excommunicated Emperor Henry IV twice, first in 1076 and again in 1080. The Investiture Controversy was resolved in 1122 through a compromise whereby bishops in the empire could have a dual investiture, once by the Emperor for their lands, and once by the Pope for their spiritual position.

△ **Crowning glory**
The ornamental crown seen here was used for the coronation of Holy Roman Emperors from the late 10th century.

Shift in the seat of power

Popes continued to interfere in imperial succession until 1356, when a document known as the Golden Bull decreed that emperors would be chosen by a college of electors – three bishops and four, later six, German princes. This gave German princes more power in their territories. Also, the shift of the power base of the Habsburg emperors towards Austria and Spain in the 15th and 16th centuries, the rise of specifically German imperial institutions such as the Imperial Diet, and the weakening of the Catholic Church in Germany after the Reformation (see pp.166–67) meant that by the 17th century the Papal–Imperial rivalry had become largely irrelevant.
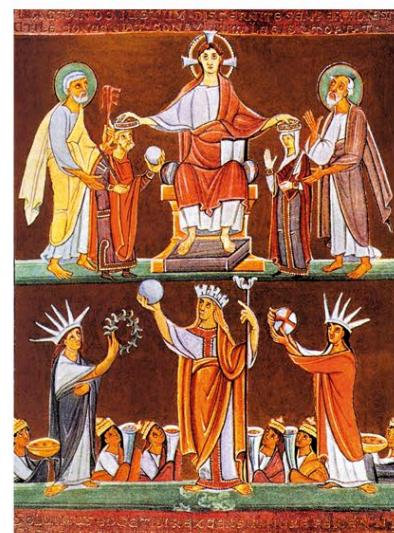
◁ **Divine coronation**
This 11th-century miniature depicts Christ crowning Emperor Henry II. The idea that an emperor's power was bestowed by God undermined claims of papal authority.

THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

The crowning of the Frankish ruler Charlemagne as emperor in 800 marked the birth of an institution that came to be called the Holy Roman Empire. Although it survived for over a millennium, the empire's territorial core contracted until it became largely German and a sometimes chaotic mosaic of multiple and overlapping jurisdictions.

When Pope Leo III offered a new imperial title to Charlemagne, the ruler of the Franks, it was partly through nostalgia for the lost stability of the Roman Empire and a desire for protection. Having conquered much of northwest Europe since his accession in 768, he seemed an appropriate successor to the Caesars of old. However, the disintegration of the Frankish empire into civil war after Charlemagne's death in 814 meant that imperial power was often short-lived. Sometimes there was no recognized emperor until the Ottonian family acquired the title "Emperor of the Romans" in 962 – an event most now regard as the true beginning of the empire. Thereafter the empire became mainly a German affair, passing through the hands of successive dynasties: the Ottonians, Salians, Hohenstaufen, Luxembourg, and Habsburgs. Imperial lands were ceded to local princes and towns while the emperor was in Italy or on crusade,

or when he was preoccupied with campaigning. This caused a general weakening of imperial control. Stronger emperors, such as Henry IV, tried to assert imperial authority, clashing with the Papacy over the right to appoint bishops. But his humiliation in being excommunicated and forced to make penance in 1077 demonstrated the limit of the imperial writ.

The empire briefly reached a new apogee under Frederick II in the early 13th century, when Sicily came into the imperial orbit. But, a long domination by the Habsburgs from 1438, who also had lands outside the Holy Roman Empire to rule, contributed to a further withering of imperial power. The settlement at the end of the Thirty Years' War (see pp.168–69) in 1648 gave the German states almost complete independence, and the forced abdication of the last emperor, the Habsburg Francis II, in 1806 ended a defunct institution.

KEY

- — The Empire of Charlemagne in 801
- Papal possessions

PARTITION OF FRANKISH EMPIRE BY TREATY OF VERDUN, 843

- Kingdom of Charles the Bald
- Kingdom of Louis the German
- Kingdom of Lothar

800 Charlemagne crowned by Pope Leo III

ORIGINS OF THE EMPIRE

Charlemagne's coronation in 800 was the first occasion a ruler was crowned "Emperor of the Romans". After his death in 814, civil wars and partitions in 843 and 870 led to the emergence of Frankish-controlled kingdoms based in France, Italy, and Germany. The last of these became the core of the Holy Roman Empire.

| THE OTTONIAN EMPIRE 919–1024

Duke Otto of Saxony was chosen by the Pope as emperor in 962, in return for protection from another marauding king. Otto's son, Otto II (r. 967–83), married a Byzantine princess, and officially adopted the title *Imperator Romanorum* ("Emperor of the Romans"). Otto II's efforts at extending imperial power brought him up against the Byzantine Empire and the Fatimid Caliphate, both of which held territory in southern Italy.

- Kingdom of Otto I, 936

POLAND-LITHUANIA

Vistula

Cracow

△ **Imperial pomp**
Matthias (r. 1612–19), shown here in his coronation robes, was King of Hungary, and then Bohemia, before becoming Holy Roman Emperor.

4 RISE OF THE HABSBURGS 1438–1806

Originally comparatively minor nobles in Switzerland, by the 13th century the Habsburgs had obtained lands in Austria. These they used as a base from which to acquire the imperial throne, whose occupants were all Habsburgs from 1438. Despite overseeing reforms to the empire, their power base and dynastic interest remained firmly rooted in Austria and their other possessions in the Netherlands and Spain.

— Habsburg possessions 1500

3 THE HOHENSTAUFEN EMPIRE 1138–1250

The election of the first Hohenstaufen, Conrad III, in 1137 gave the imperial crown to an energetic dynasty. New towns were founded in Germany and the imperial border pushed into the east. Frederick I Barbarossa (r. 1152–90) reclaimed many rights for the emperor in Germany. His son Henry VI (r. 1191–97) acquired Sicily, which remained attached to the empire through the joint rule of his son, Frederick II, to 1250.

■ Kingdom of Sicily under Hohenstaufen control

O T T O M A N   E M P I R E

SILESIA

1273 Rudolf, first Habsburg to hold the Imperial throne, is elected emperor

LANDS OF THE BOHEMIAN CROWN

MORAVIA

Prague

BOHEMIA

AUSTRIA

Vienna

Buda

Danube

HUNGARY

Zágráb

STYRIA

Graz

CARINTHIA

CARNIOLA

Regensburg

Salzburg

Nuremberg

Munich

Ulm

Innsbruck

TYROL

Zürich

Constance

Schloss Habsburg

SWISS CONFEDERATION

Alps

Milan

Turin

ITALIAN STATES

Po

Strasbourg

Metz

Luxembourg

Frankfurt

Mainz

Worms

Rhine

R O M A N   E M P I R E

FRANCE

Dijon

FRANCHE COMTÉ

BURGUNDY

CHAROLLES

Geneva

Lyon

Rhône

Avignon

Nice

REPUBLIC OF GENOA

Pisa

Florence

Canossa

Rome

PAPAL STATES

VENETIAN REPUBLIC

Venice

Adriatic Sea

Zara

Ragusa

REPUBLIC OF RAGUSA

MONTENEGRO

Durazzo

KINGDOM OF SICILY

Naples

Mediterranean Sea

1235 Imperial laws published in German for the first time

1122 Agreement made to end Investiture Controversy

Hereditary seat of Habsburg family

1077 Emperor Henry IV forced to do penance to the Pope over Investiture Controversy

Papal States, or States of the Church, were territories under direct sovereign rule of the Pope

962 Coronation of Otto I as emperor marks real beginning of the Holy Roman Empire

1268 Conradin, the last Hohenstaufen ruler, is executed on the orders of Charles of Anjou

2 DISPUTES WITH THE PAPACY 1075–1122

"Emperors of the Romans" often vied with the Papacy. In the 11th century, the Investiture Controversy, by which Henry IV tried to assert control over the right to appoint bishops, led to his excommunication in 1076. In 1122, it was agreed that the emperor could invest bishops with authority over their secular lands, but the Pope would invest them with their spiritual authority.

■ Papal states and notional dependencies 1500

LONG-LIVED EMPIRE
The Holy Roman Empire survived for just over 1,000 years. Over this time, it was ruled by many dynasties and began to develop institutions of its own.

KEY
— Frontiers 1500
▬ Notional frontier of Holy Roman Empire 1500

TIMELINE

700   1000   1300   1600   1900
1
2
3
4

RISE OF THE OTTOMANS

In the late 13th century, the Ottoman Turks were one of several emirates fighting on the borders of the Byzantine Empire. By 1500, they had conquered much of Anatolia and parts of the Balkans, and had taken Constantinople. Their sultanate stretched from Hungary to Mesopotamia.

As the Byzantine Empire weakened in the 11th century, new Muslim groups surged into Anatolia, principal among them the Seljuk Turks. Within a century they, too, had fragmented, leaving a large number of small, competing Islamic states. In the 1290s one of them, the Ottomans, took advantage of their position right against the Byzantine border to expand and attract warriors eager for glory.

By the 1350s, Ottoman armies had crossed into Europe; they soon occupied most of what was left of Byzantine territory, defeating Serbia, Bulgaria, and Hungary, the main Christian principalities of the Balkans. In 1402 the Ottomans suffered a defeat by the Mongols, but they soon recovered and in 1453 Sultan Mehmed II seized the prize of Constantinople, the Byzantine capital. From there, the Ottoman sultans ruled and, over the next two centuries, continued to expand their domain into a huge multinational empire. Eventually, however, the Ottoman expansion was brought to an end by the Safavids in Persia and the Habsburgs in Europe (see pp.172–73).

RISE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

From their origins as a small emirate in northwest Anatolia in around 1300, the Ottomans rose rapidly, conquering most of the Byzantine Empire's possessions in Asia by 1400. Within 60 years, they had captured Constantinople and overrun most of the Balkans.

KEY
— Holy Roman Empire c. 1480
--- Frontiers in 1481
◐ Siege, with date

TIMELINE

1200	1300	1400	1500

1
2
3
4
5
6

◁ Mehmed II
This Turkish miniature from around 1585 shows the great sultan who conquered Constantinople and extended the Ottoman Empire.

THE SELJUKS

Even before the Ottoman expansion, Byzantine control over Anatolia had been weakened by the Seljuks, a Turkic people who had migrated west from central Asia. They defeated the Byzantines at Manzikert in 1071, after which they overran most of Anatolia and established the Sultanate of Rum, which survived until 1308.

KEY
- ▮ Byzantine frontier in Asia c. 1025
- ▮ Byzantine Empire 1095
- ▮ Seljuk Empire c. 1095
- ▮ Byzantine territory overrun by Seljuks by 1095
- ▮ Other Muslim dynasty
- ✕ Battle

BYZANTINE EMPIRE
Black Sea
Constantinople
Nicaea
Anatolia
Konya
SELJUKS OF RUM
Taurus Mountains
Aleppo
ARMENIAN RULERS 1080–1137
Mediterranean Sea
PALESTINE
Damascus
Jerusalem
SYRIA
FATIMID CALIPHATE 909–1171
Cairo
EGYPT
Red Sea
GEORGIAN STATES
Trebizond
Tiflis
Caucasus
1071
Manzikert
Tabriz
MESOPOTAMIA
Mosul
Baghdad
GREAT SELJUK EMPIRE 1038–1194
PERSIA
Basra
Shiraz
Zagros Mountains
Persian Gulf
Arabian Peninsula
Aral Sea
KARAKHANIDS 922–1211
KHWARIZM
Caspian Sea
SHIRWAN
KHURASAN

HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
Danube
Zagreb
Venice
SLAVONIA
CROATIA
Dalmatia
Adriatic Sea
BOSNIA
Ragusa
PAPAL STATES
Rome
NAPLES
Naples

3 THE OTTOMANS IN THE BALKANS 1354–89

In 1354, the Ottomans crossed over to Gallipoli, establishing a toehold in Europe. Under Murad I they occupied much of Thrace, making Edirne (Adrianople) their new capital. The defeat of Serbia at the Battle of Kosovo (1389) marked the beginning of Ottoman supremacy in the Balkans.

- ▮ Conquests of Murad I, 1362–89
- ✕ Battle
- ● Ottomans enter Europe 1354
- ★ Ottoman capital 1369

2 THE CONQUEST OF ANATOLIA 1326–1402

Under Orhan, the Ottomans conquered most of the remaining Byzantine cities in northwest Anatolia, leaving only isolated outposts. Anatolia was later unified under Ottoman control by Orhan's grandson (the son of Murad I), Bayezid I, who conquered the beyliks in the southwest soon after he became Sultan in 1389.

- ▮ Conquests of Orhan, 1326–62
- ▮ Conquests of Bayezid I, 1389–1402

4 MONGOL THREAT 1400–05

In 1400–01, the Mongol prince Timur, angered by Bayezid I's demands for tribute from one of his vassals, invaded the Ottoman Empire. At Ankara in 1402, Timur crushed the Ottomans, causing many of the former beyliks of Anatolia to break away from Ottoman rule. Only Timur's death in 1405 saved the Ottomans from further losses.

⏶⏶ Ottoman eastern frontier following Timur's invasion 1402

⚔ Battle

5 THE SIEGE OF CONSTANTINOPLE 1451–53

By the time Mehmed II became Ottoman sultan in 1451, the Byzantine Empire consisted of little more than the city of Constantinople. Mehmed throttled the city's supply lines and laid siege to it in April 1453. The Byzantine emperor Constantine XI resisted for nearly 8 weeks before the Ottomans finally took the city. The Byzantine Empire was at an end and the Ottoman Empire had a new capital.

⭐ Ottoman capital 1453

6 CONQUESTS OF MEHMED II 1460–81

Having captured Constantinople, Mehmed II dealt with the remaining fragments of the Byzantine Empire, capturing Morea in 1460 and the breakaway Empire of Trebizond in 1461. The defeat of Bosnia in 1463 and the reduction of Wallachia and Moldavia to vassal status meant that resistance to Ottoman rule in the Balkans was confined to a few scattered fortresses and the Venetian possessions in Greece and along the Adriatic coast.

▮ Vassal of Ottoman Empire by 1481

▮ Further Ottoman conquest by 1481

▮ Under Venetian control c. 1460

POLAND

Buda

HUNGARY

1389 Ottoman victory at Kosovo leads to the conquest of Serbia

1456 The failure of a siege by Mehmed II puts an end to Ottoman advance into Hungary

Belgrade

TRANSYLVANIA

Dniester

LITHUANIA

Dnieper

Don

MOLDAVIA

Sea of Azov

KHANATE OF THE CRIMEA

Kefe (Kaffa)

Argesh

Bükres (Bucharest)

WALLACHIA

Danube

1444 An attempted crusade to prevent Ottoman expansion is defeated

Black Sea

HERZEGOVINA

SERBIA

Kosovo

Nicopolis

Varna

1453 The capture of Constantinople after a siege marks the end of the Byzantine Empire

1402 Bayezid defeated by Timur

1461 Ottomans conquer Empire of Trebizond, a breakaway Byzantine region

Sofia (Sofya)

Balkan Mountains

BULGARIA

OTTOMAN

Durazzo

1430 Salonica is captured by the Ottomans

Edirne (Adrianople)

1326 Bursa becomes the first Ottoman capital

Trebizond

ALBANIA

THRACE

Istanbul (Constantinople)

Iznik (Nicaea)

Selânik (Salonica)

Gallipoli

Bursa

Söğüt

Ankara

Erzurum

Corfu

Aegean Sea

EMPIRE

KARASI

OTTOMANS

Anatolia

Izmir (Smyrna)

SARUHAN

GERMIYAN

Athens

MOREA

AYDIN

HAMID

Duchy of Naxos

MENTEŞE

KARAMAN

1 THE ORIGINS OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE 1280–1326

After the collapse of the Seljuk Empire, western Anatolia was divided into a number of competing states, known as beyliks. One of them, based around the small town of Söğüt, began to expand in the 1280s under Osman. His son, Orhan, captured the important Byzantine town of Bursa in 1326 and made it his capital. From here he conquered much of the rest of Anatolia and sent the first Ottoman army into Europe.

▮ Ottoman territory, 1326

▮ Anatolian beyliks, c. 1300

⭐ Ottoman capital, 1326

Monemvasia

Rhodes

TEKE

Crete

Cyprus

Mediterranean Sea

THE RECONQUISTA

Islamic armies overran the Iberian peninsula in the early 8th century. Christian rulers slowly reversed this process in the Reconquista ("reconquest"), which culminated with the fall of Granada in 1492 and the expulsion of most of Spain's Muslim population.

The Visigothic kingdom of Spain rapidly fell to an Islamic army that crossed from Muslim-held North Africa in 711, and by 718 only a small area in the remote Asturian mountains remained unconquered. The subsequent reconquest of the Muslim-ruled parts of Spain and Portugal (al-Andalus) by Christian states took nearly eight centuries. First, the far northeast was recaptured by the armies of the Frankish ruler, Charlemagne, rather than by the comparatively weak Spanish Christian kingdoms. Gradually, though, Castile and Leon in the west and Navarre and Aragon in the east gathered strength and pushed southwards.

The emergence of crusading ideology from the late 11th century accelerated the Reconquista, as Christian armies were now infused with the sense of fighting a religiously justified war. The political fragmentation of the Umayyad caliphate also weakened the Muslim hold on central Spain, leading to the loss of the strategic city of Toledo in 1085. An influx of new groups from North Africa, first the Almoravids and then the Almohads, reunited al-Andalus, but a crushing defeat by Alfonso VIII of Castile in 1212 reduced the Muslim-held area to Granada. By then, a much shorter process of reconquest had taken place in Portugal.

Granada survived as an Islamic emirate until 1492, when Ferdinand II of Aragon and Isabella of Castille sent an army to besiege the town. Its fall, after a brief resistance, marked the end of Islamic Spain and the completion of the Reconquista.

THE INQUISITION
THE FIGHT AGAINST HERESY IN SPAIN

For centuries, Muslims, Jews, and Christians coexisted in Spain, but by the late 14th century a desire for religious unity grew in the country. Jews and Muslims were forcibly converted to Christianity, and the converts became targets for persecution. In 1478, Pope Sixtus IV authorized the establishment of the Inquisition, which led to public tests of faith and execution of "heretics". The accused were dressed up and paraded in an Auto da fe ceremony (right) while their guilt and punishment were decided.

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1 ORIGINS OF THE RECONQUISTA 711–900

In 711, an Arab-Berber army led by Tariq ibn Ziyad was sent by the Umayyad caliph into Spain, where it defeated Roderick, the Visigothic king. Within 5 years Muslim forces had conquered all but the northern fringes of Spain. Their advance was halted in around 718, when Asturian chieftain Pelayo defeated a Muslim army at Covadonga. Gradually, the Asturian kingdom consolidated as the nucleus of Christian resistance.

▬ Limit of Umayyad Caliphate 732

2 CHRISTIAN ADVANCES 1030–80

By the early 11th century, the ruling Umayyad caliphate had broken down into dozens of small emirates (or taifas). The taifas were less able to resist Christian advances, particularly those of the kingdoms of Léon and Castile in the west and Aragon in the east. Many taifas were forced to pay tribute to the Christian kingdoms.

3 THE ALMORAVIDS 1086–1165

In 1085, Alfonso VI of Léon-Castile captured Toledo, the old capital of Visigothic Spain, leaving Islamic Spain vulnerable to Christian advances. In desperation, the rulers of the taifas appealed to Yusuf, the emir of the Almoravids, a strict Islamic sect from North Africa. He defeated Alfonso at Sagrajas and swept through central and eastern Spain, undoing many recent Christian advances.

→ Almoravid campaigns 1086–1115   ▬ Frontier of Almoravid Empire 1115

4 THE ALMOHADS 1165–1228

In 1165, an African Muslim group, the Almohads, entered Spain and renewed Islamic opposition to Christian encroachments. In 1195, they won a stunning victory against Alfonso VIII of Castile at Alarcos, opening up southern Spain to Almohad dominance. In 1212, Alfonso struck back, destroying the Almohad army at Las Navas de Tolosa and weakening the Muslims' military capacity.

▬ Frontier of Almohad Empire 1180

1147 The Crusading army helps Alfonso Henriques to capture Lisbon

1139 Portuguese count Alfonso Henriques defeats the Muslim army

1249 The Muslim enclave of Faro is captured, marking the end of the Reconquista in Porgual

Santiago de Compostela

Oporto

Coimbra

Santarém

Évora

1147 Lisbon

1217 Alcacer

Ourique

Algarve

Silves

1249 Faro

PORTUGAL
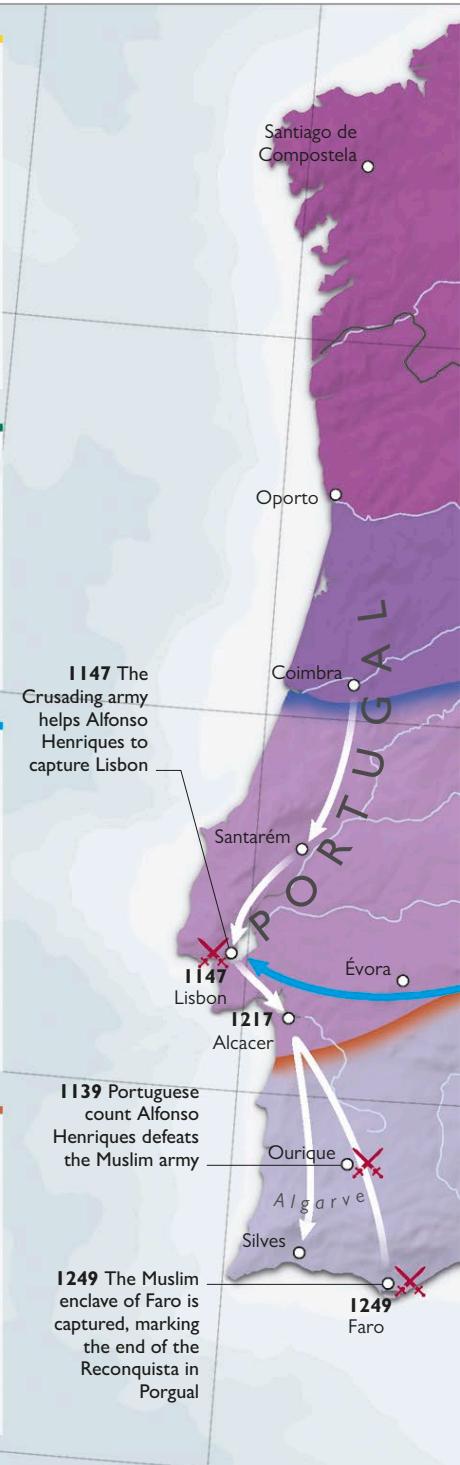
THE RECONQUEST OF SPAIN

The Reconquista, by which the Christian kingdoms of Spain reconquered the Iberian Peninsula, took over 700 years to complete. Progress was slowest when the Muslims united around movements such as the Almoravids and Almohads.

KEY

✕ Muslim victory with date
✕ Christian victory with date

EXTENSION OF CHRISTIAN CONTROL

By 1030
By 1115
By 1180
By 1280
By 1492
— Frontiers 1493

TIMELINE

	600	800	1000	1200	1400	1600
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						

Governed
by France

Oviedo

Covadonga

718 Asturian chieftain
Pelayo defeats Muslim
general al-Qama
and establishes an
independent kingdom

León

F R A N C E

Toulouse

BÉARN

Carcassonne

N A V A R R E

Pamplona

P y r e n e e s

ANDORRA

A s t u r i a

L e ó n

Burgos

Valladolid

Huesca

C a t a l o n i a

Gerona

1118
Saragossa

Lérida

A R A G O N

1238

Barcelona

Tarragona

801 Barcelona is captured by
Frankish forces, marking the
re-establishment of Christian
rule in northeastern Spain

Douro

Salamanca

Ávila

1086 The
Almoravid emir
Yusuf defeats the
Castilians, halting
advances beyond
the Tagus

1085 Alfonso VI
captures Toledo,
pushing Christian
control to the
River Tagus

Teruel

1148
Tortosa

Ebro

1229 Jaume of
Aragon captures
Mallorcan capital
of Palma

Alcántara

Tagus

Toledo

1238 The capture of
Valencia leaves most of the
southeast in Christian hands

Valencia

1096
Cuarte

1089–99 Rodrigo
Díaz, "El Cid",
establishes an
autonomous region,
resisting advances
by both the
Almohads and the
Christian kingdoms

Palma

M a l l o r c a

1229

*B a l e a r i c
I s l a n d s*

Sagrajas

Badajoz
1230

C A S T I L E

Ibiza

1248 The capture
of Seville by
Ferdinand III
leaves Granada
isolated

Calatrava
Alarcos

Las Navas de Tolosa

1195 A major Almohad victory
establishes control over southern
Spain, halting Christian advance

Alicante

1212 Alfonso VIII of
Castile's victory
shatters the
Almohad caliphate

1243
Murcia

Cordova

Jaén
1246

1489

Guadalquivir

A n d a l u c i a

1488
Lorca

M e d i t e r r a n e a n   S e a

Seville

Antequera

Granada
1492

1488

1485

1231
Jerez

1262
Cádiz

1487
Málaga

Almería

1491–92 Granada is besieged
and falls to Ferdinand II of
Aragon and Isabella I of Castile

1292
Tarifa

Ceuta

1236 Ferdinand III conquers
the former Umayyad capital

Tangier

Governed
by Portugal

W a t t a s i d s

▷ St James the Moor-slayer
In Spanish legend, the apostle James
was depicted as a Moor-slaying knight
at the mythical battle of Clavijo.

Z a y y a n i d s

5   THE GREAT RECONQUEST 1212–48

After defeating the Almohads at Las Navas de
Tolosa, the armies of Castile and Leon pushed
further southwards. Weakened, the Almohad
caliphate fractured into three parts, helping
Ferdinand III of Castile to capture Cordova in
1236 and Seville in 1248. The loss of these cities
was a blow to Islamic Spain, and soon only the
emirate of Granada survived under Muslim control.

⇨ Major campaigns of
reconquest, with date

**6   THE RECONQUISTA IN
PORTUGAL** 1139–1249

In 1139, Count Alfonso Henriques won an
overwhelming victory over the Muslims at
Ourique. Lisbon was captured in 1147 with the
help of crusaders on their way to the Second
Crusade. The conquest of the Algarve was begun
in the 1190s, but an Almohad resurgence pushed
back the Portuguese forces and the Reconquista
was not completed there until 1249.

7   RECONQUEST OF GRANADA 1469–92

The 14th and early 15th centuries saw a lull in
the Reconquista, but the union of Aragon and
Castile created by the marriage of Ferdinand II
and Isabella I in 1469 gave it new impetus. Their
armies nibbled away at the emirate of Granada,
capturing Málaga in 1487. Finally, they laid siege to
Granada, which resisted for 18 months before its
ruler, Boabdil, surrendered and went into exile.

◎ Granada
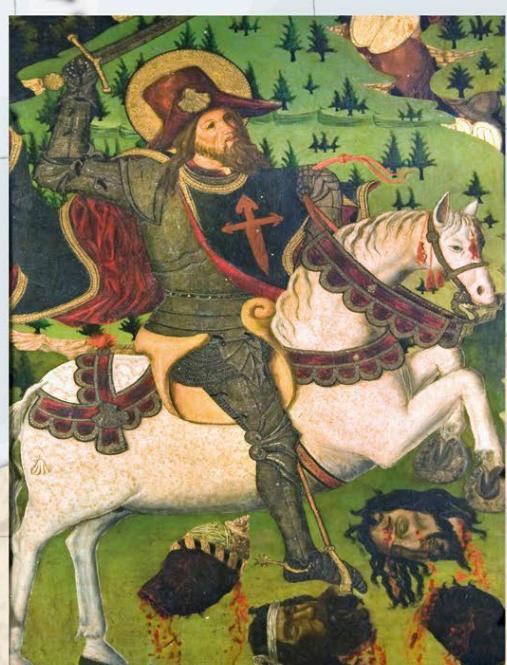
MEDIEVAL EAST ASIA

China was the dominant power in east Asia in the 6th–15th centuries. Its form of government was imitated widely in the region, from Japan to Korea and Vietnam. However, just like the other states of the period, China too suffered long periods of disunity and conquest by foreign powers.

In China, the division that followed the collapse of the Han dynasty in 220 ended only when the Sui dynasty captured Nanjing, the capital of six successive Southern dynasties, in 589. The Sui, and their successors the Tang, intervened repeatedly in neighbouring states, and Chinese rule expanded deep into central Asia. Although economically strong, Tang rule was undermined by fighting among factions, a defeat at the hands of an Arab army in 751, and a major revolt 4 years later. A weakened Tang dynasty limped on until 907, when China fell apart again, to be restored in 960 by the Song, whose rule saw a period of economic and technological progress. However, by 1127 the Jurchen, a nomadic group from the north, had reduced the Song to a southern kingdom based in Nanjing. This in turn fell in 1251–79 to the Mongols, whose leader

◁ **Off to work**
A merchant rides a camel in this Tang-era terracotta figurine. Bactrian camels – hardy species capable of carrying heavy loads – were ideal for the Silk Road trade through central Asia.
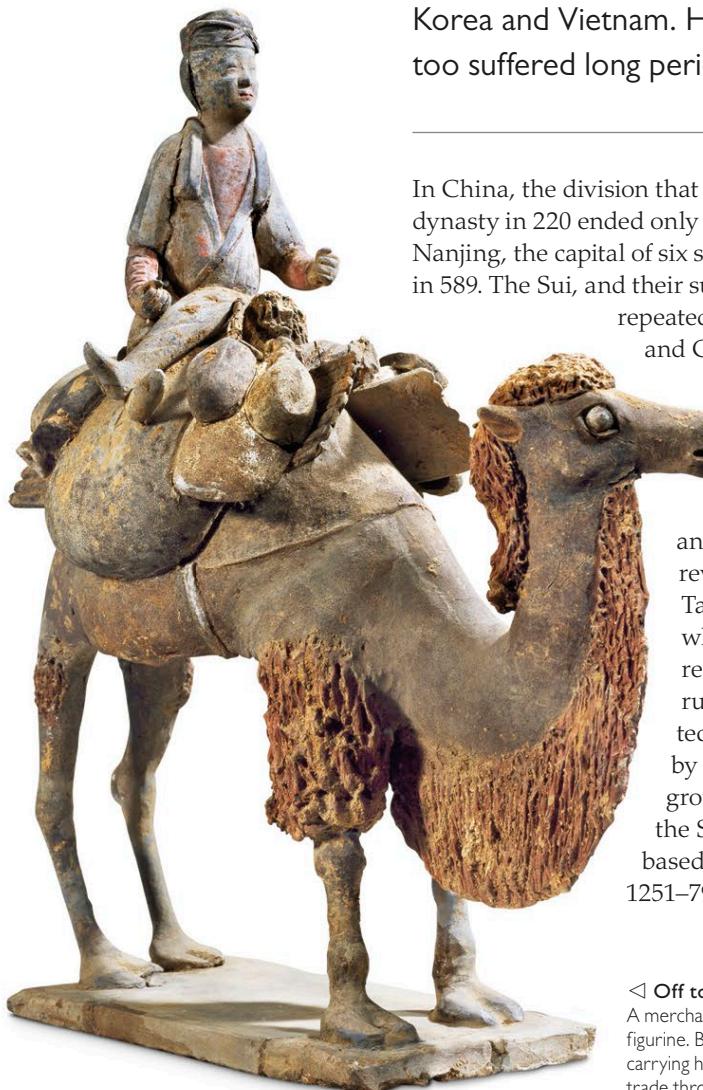
▷ **Symbol of peace**
This 11th-century wooden statue from Japan shows a seated Buddha. The hand gesture symbolizes peace and the protection of believers from fear. Buddhism was the state religion during the Nara period.
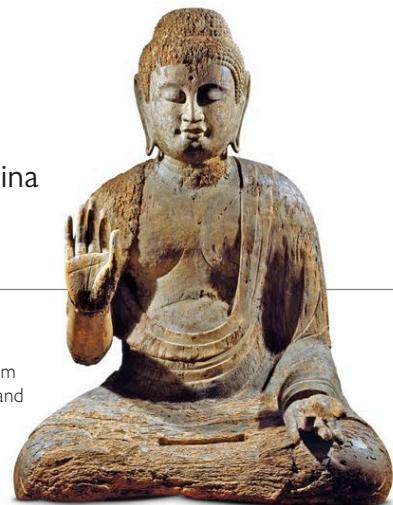
Genghis Khan established the Yuan, the first non-Chinese dynasty to rule China. In time, Mongol rule weakened, and in 1368, the rebel general Zhu Yuanzhang captured Beijing, declaring himself the first emperor of the Ming dynasty.

Japan and Korea

A centralized Japanese state emerged during the Nara period (710–94), with a Chinese-style bureaucracy, a system of provinces, and the dominance of Buddhism. In 794 the imperial court moved to Heian (modern-day Kyoto) to reduce the influence of Buddhist monks, but over time, powerful aristocratic families such as the Minamoto and Taira took real power away from the emperor. Rivalry between them led to the Genpei war in 1180–85, ending with the defeat of the Taira and the establishment of a Minamoto military government, or shogunate, at Kamakura. The emperors became symbolic leaders – although Emperor Go-Daigo did spark a revolt in 1331, in an attempt to assert imperial power. The shoguns, first the Kamakura and then the Muromachi, became the real rulers. By the mid-15th century, however, the shogunate in turn lost power to the daimyo, local warlords, as Japan fragmented into a series of warring statelets.

POWER SHIFTS IN EAST ASIA

The medieval period saw the process of state formation in Southeast Asia and Japan, both of which were strongly influenced by Chinese models of government and by Buddhism. In China itself, a period of disunity was followed by the re-establishment of strong central control under the Tang and Song dynasties. India, in contrast, fragmented after the collapse of the Gupta Empire in the 6th century, and many separate dynasties ruled the north and south of the subcontinent.

589 Sui forces capture Nanjing to complete the reunification of China

701 Taiho code divides Japan into provinces, districts, and villages and decrees a six-yearly census

708–12 A new Japanese capital is built at Nara

SOUTH AND SOUTHEAST ASIA			
CHINA			
KOREA			
JAPAN			
	600	700	800

Mid-6th century The Gupta Empire declines, and northern India disintegrates into several smaller states

630 Tang emperor Taizong defeats the eastern Turks, extending Chinese power into central Asia

668 Silla forces defeat Goryeo to complete the unification of Korea

751 Tang forces suffer defeat at the hands of an Abbasid Arab army at Talas River, which ends their westward expansion

◁ **Heavenly dancers**
This intricate carving from the 12th-century Angkor Wat temple complex in Cambodia depicts four *apsaras*, or heavenly dancers, who provided entertainment to gods and granted favours to humans in the heaven of the Hindu god Indra.

After the departure of Chinese administrators in 313, the Korean peninsula was divided between three warring states: Goryeo, Silla, and Paekche. China tried to reconquer Korea, but Silla exploited Chinese attacks on the other two states to reunite Korea under its rule in 668. Unified Silla installed a Chinese-style bureaucracy but collapsed amid a wave of revolts around 900. In 935, Wang Kon founded the Goryeo dynasty, reuniting Korea, but Mongol invasions from 1231 reduced Korea to a vassal (subordinate) state until King Kongmin reasserted its independence in 1356. Chinese pressure continued, until in 1388 Yi Song-gye defeated the Ming and established the Choson dynasty, which ruled Korea until 1910.

Kingdoms of Southeast Asia

The period from the 9th to the 11th centuries saw a series of strong territorial states being established in Southeast Asia. The Pagan kingdom under Anawrahta united most of what is now Myanmar, while the Angkor kingdom (in today's Cambodia) under Suryavarman II reached the height of its power. In 1181, the Angkor Empire under Jayavarman VII defeated the Champa Empire, which had ruled southern

"Baekje [Paekche] is at full moon, Silla is at half moon."

PROPHECY PREDICTING THE RISE OF SILLA, 669

Cambodia since the 7th century and had also sacked Angkor in 1177. However, the Southeast Asian kingdoms suffered under Mongol attacks, which weakened Pagan and nearly defeated the Vietnamese kingdom of Dai Viet. By the late 15th century, the great medieval kingdoms were crumbling: the Champa capital Vijaya was captured by Dai Viet, and Angkor was sacked by the Thai kingdom of Ayutthaya.

Smaller states had risen in northern India after the fall of the Gupta Empire in the mid-6th century. These were united by Harsha Vardhen of the Pushyabhuti dynasty, but his kingdom fell apart after his murder in 647. It was only after the invasion of Muhammad of Ghur in 1192 and the founding of the Delhi Sultanate in 1206 that northern India was reunited once more. The south of India developed separately; the Chola Empire expanded in the 10th–11th centuries, occupying northern Sri Lanka and ports along the Malay peninsula, but it collapsed in the 12th century. The kingdom of Vijayanagara, founded in 1336, dominated southern India until its conquest by the Mughals in the 17th century.

▽ **Divine architecture**
The 10th-century Muktesvar Temple in Odisha, southern India, forms part of a larger complex of temples there. Dedicated to the Hindu god Siva, it was built under the Somavanshi dynasty, which ruled parts of southeastern India between the 9th and 12th centuries.

960 Former palace guard commander Zhao Kuangyin becomes Taizu, the first Song emperor, restoring Chinese unity

1127 The Song Empire is confined to southern China after defeat by the Jurchen

1270 Mongols establish a government in Korea; the Goryeo court survives only on an offshore island

1279 Mongols complete the conquest of the southern Song region and establish the Yuan dynasty

1388 Yi Seong-gye overthrows Goryeo rule to establish the Choson dynasty

1441 The assassination of shogun Ashikaga Yoshinori sparks the Onin Wars and 150 years of Japanese disunity

1000 1100 1200 1300 1400 1500

935 Wang Kon reunites Korea under the Goryeo dynasty after a 30-year period of division following the collapse of Silla

1044–77 Anawrahta unites Burma under the rule of Pagan

1185 The battle of Dan-no-Oura marks Minamoto victory in the Genpei War and establishes the Kamakura shogunate

1206 The Delhi Sultanate is established in India

1336 Emperor Go-Daigo's revolt to restore imperial power fails and he is expelled from Kyoto

1431 Angkor is abandoned after attacks by the Thai kingdom of Ayutthaya

1471 Dai Viet forces capture the Champa capital Vijaya

TANG AND SONG CHINA

After a long period of disunity following the fall of the Han dynasty, China was reunited under the Sui, and then the Tang and Song dynasties. China prospered and Chinese power prevailed across central Asia before the Song were finally conquered by the Mongols.

Following the end of the Han dynasty in 220 CE, China broke apart. The Sui dynasty (581–618) reunified China, but after a rebellion in 618 Li Yuan took the throne. He and his son, Li Shimin, established the Tang dynasty, enacting reforms that brought order to the provinces of China. In 639, Li Shimin (by now Emperor Taizong) sent armies into Turkestan, establishing Tang control over a string of strategic trading settlements such as Dunhuang.

In 755, the dynasty was weakened by a revolt led by general An Lushan; and although imperial forces regained control, a series of weak rulers later led to the Tang's collapse in 907. A dozen rival kingdoms vied for power until the Song dynasty subdued the others and established rule over the whole country by 960. In this resurgent China, trade guilds emerged, paper money was adopted on a large scale, and inventions such as gunpowder and the magnetic compass came into widespread use. By the early 12th century, the dynasty had begun to weaken; nomadic Jurchen tribes conquered the north of China, confining the Song to the south of their former territory.

TANG CHINA

After unifying China, the Tang defeated the Eastern and Western Turks. From the 750s, rebellions and weakened government led to a decline in Tang influence.

751 Tang forces are defeated by Arabs at the Talas River

657 The Tang defeat the Western Turks and control the area until a rebellion in 665

UNIFICATION AND FRAGMENTATION

The Tang dynasty expanded to its furthest extent by 742. The influence of Chinese culture also spread during this time, assisted by the imperial highways, which centred on the capital Chang'an. When China fragmented once again, the Song dynasty arose in northern China.

KEY

- Area of Chinese cultural influence
- ● Metropolitan prefecture
- ● City of over 300,000 population
- ○ Other major city
- 🐉 Under China's influence
- ≡ Great Wall
- ═ Imperial highway

TIMELINE

SONG CHINA

The Song dynasty was founded in 960 by Zhao Kuangyin (later Emperor Taizu), a general under one of the "Five Dynasties" that ruled northern China after the Tang. The dynasty is usually divided into two distinct periods, Northern and Southern. The Song suffered constant pressure from the Khitan Liao and the Jurchen in the north, finally losing the whole of the north of China to the Jurchen in 1126.

1279 Mongols defeat the Song fleet; the last Song emperor, seven-year-old Zhao Bing, drowns

5 THE NORTHERN SONG DYNASTY 960–1126

From 960, Emperor Taizu conquered and reunited much of the land that had once belonged to the Han and Tang empires. He imposed high taxes on the peasantry, and when Jurchen nomads invaded the north they faced little resistance. In 1126, the Jurchen took the Song capital, Kaifeng, and the Song court fled to southern China.

■ Under Northern Song rule

6 THE SOUTHERN SONG DYNASTY 1127–1279

From 1127, the surviving Song governed from Hangzhou in southern China, while the Jurchen (as the Jin dynasty) ruled the north. In 1233, the Southern Song allied with the Mongols to attack the Jurchen. But, after destroying the Jurchen, the Mongols then invaded the south, in 1268. They took Hangzhou in 1276 and three years later defeated the last Southern Song forces.

■ Under Southern Song rule
→ Mongol attacks from 1268

1 THE UNIFICATION OF CHINA 590–628

After the fall of the Han, China broke apart as a series of dynasties, many originating in nomadic groups from the north. Unity was briefly restored in 590 when the Sui dynasty took control, but their expensive wars against Korea and the Turks led to the dynasty's collapse in 618. After a period of chaos, the young general Li Shimin restored order and placed his father on the throne as Gaozu, the first Tang emperor. By 628, China was united once more.

■ Tang Empire

2 THE CENTRAL ASIAN EMPIRE 629–751

Turkic invasions threatened China in the first years of the Tang, but in 629, Emperor Taizong defeated the Eastern Turks. He later sent armies into central Asia, establishing protectorates in the western regions as far as Kashgar. The Tang lost some territory in the 680s, and their expansion westwards was halted when a Tang army was defeated by the Arabs at the Talas River in 751.

■ Western Turks
■ Eastern Turks
■ Areas of temporary Tang control

8th–9th centuries The Kingdom of Bohai is a tributary state to the Tang Empire

660–68 A major Tang invasion conquers most of the Korean kingdom of Silla, but the Chinese are forced to withdraw in 676

645–769 Dzungaria occupied by Tang China

c. **600** Tibet is unified and begins rapid expansion
750 The Tibetans lose much of their territory to China, only to regain it and expand again from the 780s

*c.***700** Nanzhao is unified and begins expansion

679 Tang protectorate of Annam established

▷ **Tang ceramics**
The Tang produced brightly coloured ceramic figures of animals and civic officials, which were used as burial ware.

4 THE TANG COLLAPSE 763–907

After the An Lushan rebellion, local military governors gained more power, despite efforts by the Emperor Xianzong (r. 805–820) to stabilize finances and subdue rebellion. Thereafter, court eunuchs – castrated men who were employed as imperial servants – gained dominance over the bureaucracy and army, and factional strife crippled the government. In 907, Zhu Wen, a military governor, deposed the last Tang emperor, Ai Wen, and established the Later Liang dynasty.

3 THE AN-LUSHAN REVOLT 755–63

Discontent grew in the Chinese army following a series of military failures in central Asia. In 755, a revolt broke out under An Lushan, a general who captured the imperial (or "Western") capital at Chang'an in 756. Although he was assassinated the following year, it took until 763 to defeat the last rebel army, by which time Tang control over the provinces had been seriously weakened.

⭐ Tang capital captured
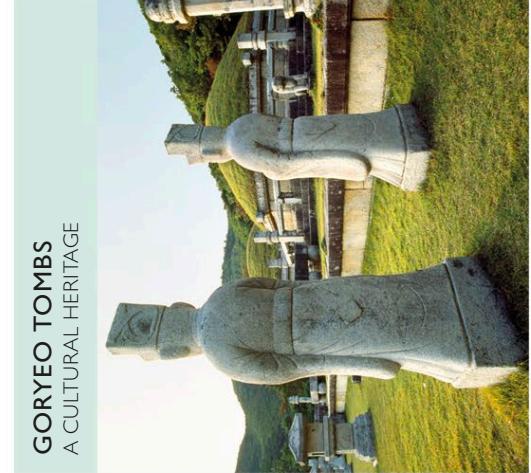
MEDIEVAL KOREA AND JAPAN

Korea and Japan both began developing a centralized bureaucratic monarchy in the 8th century, drawing strong influence from the Tang Dynasty of neighbouring China. In addition, the cultural landscapes of both states were largely shaped by the arrival of Buddhism from China in the 4th century.

In the mid-7th century, the Korean state of Silla enlisted the military support of Tang China to defeat the rival kingdom of Koguryo and Paekche to unify the country under its leadership. After ruling for almost three centuries, Silla disintegrated in the ensuing chaos following the fall of China's Tang Dynasty in 906. Thereafter, the Goryeo state (founded in 901 by former Koguryo leaders) reunified Korea in 936 and presided over a period of economic and cultural

" ... my armour and helmet were my pillow; my bow and arrows were my trade ... "

YOSHITSUNE MINAMOTO, MINAMOTO GENERAL, c.1189

prosperity. However, a series of Mongol attacks from 1231 eventually resulted in Goryeo's fall and, from 1270, it became a vassal state of the Mongol Yuan Empire for the next 80 years.

In Japan, the introduction of Buddhism in 538 coincided with the fall of Yamato rule, as powerful clans and regional kingdoms fought for power. The Taiku Reforms of 646 paved the way for Japan to unify under a centralized government based on the Chinese model.

The emperors of the Nara period slowly lost power, first to the Fujiwara family in the 10th and 11th centuries, and then to the samurai, who supported a military dictatorship called the Shogun. The powerful Kamakura shogunate thwarted two Mongol invasions, but it was eventually toppled by a rival clan, and thereafter power ebbed to the local daimyo, or domain lords, leading to a century-long civil war (see pp. 180–81).

GORYEO TOMBS
A CULTURAL HERITAGE

The best-known remains of the Korean Goryeo kingdom are the tombs of its society's elites. Built of stone and covered by stone or earthen mounds, these tombs are customarily adorned with wall paintings. In the complex of tombs around Gaegyeong (modern Kaesong), the Goryeo capital, among the most famous is the Hyonjongrung Royal Tomb of King Kongmin. The twin mounds contain the remains of the monarch and his wife – the Mongolian princess Noguk.

STATE CREATION IN KOREA AND JAPAN

Regional wars between the 4th and 7th centuries led to the unification of the Korean peninsula under first the Silla and then the Goryeo kingdom. Meanwhile, in Japan, a succession of powerful clans brought the country's mosaic of chiefdoms under a single rule.

TIMELINE

6 RISE OF THE SAMURAI 900–1868

From the early 900s, weak Heian rule caused disaffection to spread across the provinces. Nobles began hiring warriors to safeguard their own interests, giving rise leading to the early samurai. By the 1100s, provincial lords were fighting one another for supremacy, which culminated in the Minamoto clan seizing power after defeating the Taira clan in the Genpei War (1156–85).

Minamoto campaign
Minamoto victory
Minamoto defeat

AREAS OF CONTROL, 1180
Fujiwara
Minamoto
Taira

7 THE KAMAKURA SHOGUNATE
1192–1333

Minamoto Yoritomo founded the Kamakura shogunate in 1221. The shogunate re-established contact with China, which resulted in Japan absorbing new sects of Buddhism, in particular Zen Buddhism. The shogunate appointed its own military governors, or *shugo*, as heads of each province and named stewards to supervise the individual estates into which the provinces had been divided, thereby establishing an effective national network to maintain stability.

Buddhist temple c.1200

Hokkaido
Nie
Kuriyagawa
Hiraizumi
Tamatsukuri
POHAI

1189 Minamoto defeats the Fujiwara clan

1189

1180 Ishibashi-yama

Taga
Okuma
Atsugashi-yama
Miyanouchi
Utsunomiya
1181 Yokotagawahara
1180 Odawara
Numazu
1180 Fujiwara
Kiso
1184 Sunomata
1184 Ichigodani
Ichinotani **1184**
1183 Kurikara-tani
1183 Shinohara
Misasa
1184 Awazu
Uji-gawa
Osaka
1180
Helan-kyo
Fukuhara
Nara
Iya
Tokushima
1185
Yokokurayama
Yashima
Mizu-shima
Hososhima
1185
Matsuura
Dazaifu
Hakata
1185 Dannoura
Shibushi
KYUSHU
SHIKOKU
H o n s h u
J A P A N

Sea of Japan (East Sea)

PACIFIC OCEAN

1183 Victory at the Battle of Kurikara-tani turns the tide of the Genpei War in favour of the Minamoto clan

668 Tang and Silla siege of Pyongyang forces Koguryo rulers to abandon the city

Kyongju
Seorabeol
SILLA
Koyahan
GAYA
Masan
Ungjin
Sabi
Puyo
660 Hwangsanbeol
PAEKCHE
Baekgang
663
Hanseong
KOREA
Gaegyeong
Daifang
668 Pyongyang
Fuyu
KOGURYO
Cholsan
Bakjak
Ansi
Geonan
Shi
Yuli
Bisa
Liaoxi
Jeju
Ningpo
Wendeng
Dengzhou
Laizhou

663 Tang and Silla army crushes the Paekche with a victory in Baekgang

▽ **Gilt bronze Bodhisattva**
Buddhism reached Korea via China in the 4th century and inspired a distinctive tradition of Buddhist art. Buddha sculptures were typically given Korean facial characteristics.

5 JAPAN: HEIAN PERIOD 794–1189
Emperor Kanmu (r.781–806) moved the Japanese capital to Heian-kyo (Modern-day Kyoto) in 794 CE, marking the start of the Heian era, which saw the noble Fujiwara family rise to power. The family presided over a period of great artistic and literary achievement, during which Japan broke away from Chinese influences and established its own culture.
★ Heian capital

4 JAPAN: NARA PERIOD 710–94
In the early 8th century, Japan adopted a Confucian bureaucracy based on the Chinese model, which included a centralized revenue-collection system. Under Empress Genmei (r. 707–15), a new capital was built in Nara, replicating Chang'an – the Chinese Tang capital. Besides Chinese influence, Buddhism also shaped Japanese culture during the Nara era.
★ Nara capital

3 GORYEO KOREA 935–1392
The demand for luxury goods increased and the local handicraft industries grew during the Goryeo era. The capital Gaegyeong grew into a major trade hub, with overseas links to the rest of east Asia. Goryeo also adopted the Seon branch of Buddhism, which it proclaimed the "religion of the state". In 1270, Goryeo rule fell to a Mongol invasion and the peninsula became a vassal state of the Yuan Empire.
┅┅ Trade route ★ Capital

2 THE RISE OF GORYEO 889–935
After two centuries of Silla rule, rebellions led by provincial warlords caused the Korean peninsula briefly to divide into three parts (Later Three Kingdoms). In this new era, the reformed Koguryo state, Goryeo (which has given its name to modern Korea), possessed the strongest military. In 935, Goryeo commander Wang Geon captured Kyongju, the Silla capital, and reunited the peninsula.
▬ Goryeo state (901–18) ★ Capital

1 KOREA: THE UNIFICATION WARS 370–668
From the 4th century, the kingdoms of Paekche, Koguryo, Silla, and the Gaya Confederacy were fighting to gain control of Korea. Exploiting the Chinese Tang Dynasty's rivalry with Koguryo, Silla forces enlisted the help of the Tang Army to crush Paekche, and in 668 CE, they took the Koguryo capital Pyongyang, uniting Korea under King Munmu.

Paekche (17–660) Gaya (42–532)
Koguryo (37–668) Silla (57–668)
Silla Dynasty (670–935) ✕ Major battle ⦾ Siege
➜ Tang and Silla campaigns

3 DEFEAT AT AIN JALUT 1251–59

Under Great Khan Möngke, the Mongols overthrew the Abbasid Caliphate, brutally sacking Baghdad and destroying the city's Grand Library. Möngke's death in 1259 prompted part of the army to return home, and the rest suffered defeat at the Battle of Ain Jalut against the Mamluks – an Islamic army of slave soldiers who ruled Egypt and Syria from 1250 to 1517.

→ Möngke's campaign route

2 ÖGEDEI KHAN INVADES EUROPE 1229–41

Following Genghis Khan's death in 1227, Ögedei officially ascended the throne in 1229. Ögedei directed the Mongol campaign into Europe. In 1236, Mongol forces captured and destroyed major towns including Vladimir and Moscow. In 1241, the Mongol army crushed Poland, Hungary, and Bulgaria. It was the untimely death of Ögedei in 1241 that stopped the Mongol army from advancing into western Europe.

→ Ögedei's campaign route

1241 A 30,000-strong Mongol cavalry crosses the frozen Vistula River to invade Poland

1241 Mongols destroy a Polish-German army, opening the way for further conquest in Europe

4 KUBLAI KHAN TAKES CHINA 1251–94

The grandson of Genghis Khan, Kublai Khan, overthrew the Song Dynasty in 1279 and conquered the whole of China to establish the Yuan Dynasty. He gained the loyalty of his Chinese subjects by employing many in his administration. In 1277, he launched campaigns against Burma and Vietnam, in what was a decade-long war against the Pagan Empire.

→ Kublai Khan's campaign route

5 THE FOUR KHANATES 1259–1411

A single Mongol ruler could not govern the vast imperial realm. In 1259, the empire was divided into four khanates. Each of the four realms was ruled by a descendant of Genghis Khan: the Khanate of the house of Chaghatai, the Il-khanate of Hulagu, the Golden Horde of Berke Khan, and what became the Yuan Empire of Kublai Khan.

▬ Khanate borders

▽ **Genghis Khan in battle**
This 14th-century illustration from the chronicles of Rashid al-Din depicts Genghis Khan leading the charge agianst China's Jin forces at the Battle of Yehuling (1211).

1260 A better knowledge of the terrain helps the Mamluks inflict first defeat on the Mongol army

1258 A 12-day siege ends with the brutal sacking of Baghdad – the capital of the Abbasid Caliphate

1221 Mongols pursue Mamluk leader Jalal ad-Din and defeat him at the Battle of Indus

THE MONGOL CONQUESTS 1206–94
Between 1206 and 1227, Mongol leader Genghis Khan built an empire that spanned from China to Persia. Although his successors brought more territories under Mongol rule, in 1260 the empire split into four different realms, or Khanates, and political and cultural differences between them grew.

KEY

- Mongol homeland 1206
- Mongol Empire c.1227
- Greatest extent of Mongol empire
- ✕ Major Mongol victory
- ✕ Major Mongol defeat
- 🔥 City sacked by Mongols
- ◎ City captured by Mongols

TIMELINE

1100   1200   1300   1400   1500

Map annotations (Genghis Khan Conquers Asia)

GENGHIS KHAN CONQUERS ASIA 1206–27
Under Genghis Khan, Mongol raids into northern China turned into a full-scale campaign in 1211. Meanwhile, Mongol forces marched westwards, besieging the Kara Khitai cities of Balasaghun and Kashgar. When a Mongol envoy to the Khwarazm Empire was slaughtered in Otrar, the Mongols sacked the major cities of the Islamic empire. In 1219, Genghis Khan chose his third son Ögedei as his successor.

→ Genghis Khan's campaign route

1209 After defeating a Western Xia force led by Kao Liang-Hui outside Wu-ta-hai, Genghis Khan captured the city and pushed up along the Yellow River

1215 Mongol siege starves the Jin Chinese capital's inhabitants into submission

1293 Kublai's campaign against the Javanese Kingdom of Singhasari ends in defeat and the loss of 3,000 elite soldiers

THE MONGOL CONQUESTS

The Mongols were a mix of Mongolian and Turkic-speaking tribes who united under the leadership of Temujin in the early 13th century. From their homeland in modern-day Mongolia, the fierce Mongol warriors then swept across Asia and Europe, creating the largest land empire in history.

Chosen as the Mongol leader at a tribal meeting in 1206, Temujin took the name Genghis Khan (meaning universal ruler) and united all the tribes under his leadership. In command of a formidable army of warriors on horseback, Genghis Khan organized his army and embarked on a conquest that lasted more than 20 years and resulted in the majority of Asia falling under his rule.

In 1211, Mongol armies invaded northern China, raiding and sacking many Chinese cities. In a long and hard-fought battle, the Mongols took the Chinese capital, Zhongdu, and forced the Jin emperor to flee south.

In 1218, Genghis Khan defeated the Kara Khitai Empire in central Asia after besieging the capital Balasaghun. He then redirected his army against the Islamic world and overwhelmed the lands of the Khwarazm Shah, wreaking great destruction upon the cities of Bukhara and Samarkand. The Mongol army's expertise at traversing long

distances and fighting on horseback, combined with its brutal reputation, struck terror into most adversaries. Although Genghis Khan died in 1227, while on a campaign in China, the empire continued to grow under his son Ögedei, who eliminated the Jin Empire in China in 1234 and also fought campaigns in Russia and eastern Europe. The expansion of the empire slowed after Ögedei died in 1241, and ended in 1260 following the Mongols' first major defeat by the army of the Mamluk Sultanate (1250–1517) at Ain Jalut in Palestine. Soon afterwards, the empire fragmented, with separate khans ruling China, Persia, central Asia, and the Russian Principalities.

A century later, a last Mongol resurgence took place under Timur – ruler of a Mongol principality in Transoxiana (a remnant of the Chagatai Khanate). He briefly conquered a vast territory across central Asia, but was unable to consolidate the empire.

TIMUR, THE LAST GREAT MONGOL

KEY
- Timur's empire
- → Timur's campaign route

In 1383, Timur – the Mongol ruler of Transoxiana – set out on a mission to restore the great empire of Genghis Khan. After 30 years, he ruled a realm that stretched from Syria to northern India. However, Timur's failure to set up an effective administration caused his empire to crumble soon after his death in 1405.
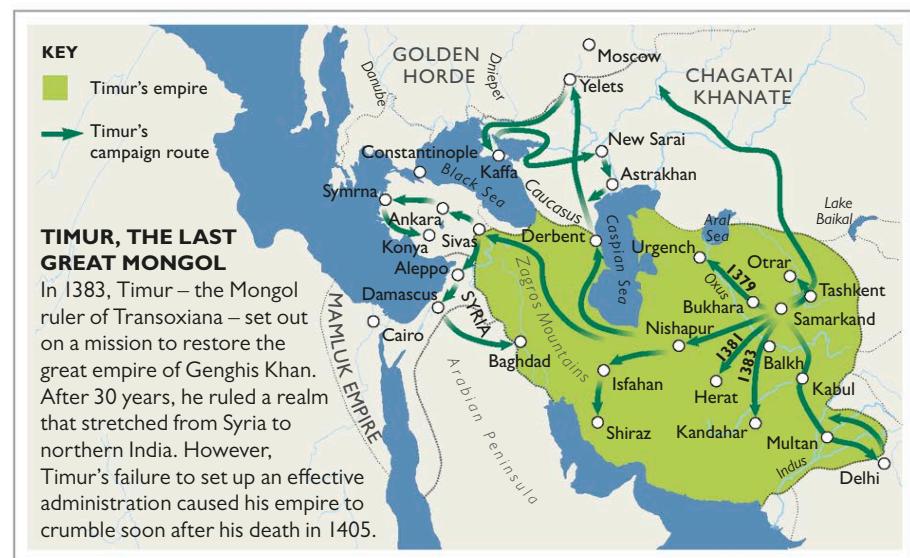
1 MONGOL CONQUEST OF CHINA
1211–93

A series of Great Khans overcame China in stages. Genghis Khan conquered the non-Chinese powers occupying northern China – the Western Xia and the Jurchen people who had founded the Jin Dynasty. Genghis's grandson Mönke Khan then took the Dali kingdom (which later became the Yunnan province of Yuan China). Finally, Mönke's successor Kublai Khan overthrew the entirety of Song China, becoming the first non-native emperor of all China.

⇨ Mongol campaigns against the Jin Dynasty of northern China (1209–34)

➡ Yuan campaigns against the Dali kingdom and Song dynasty of southern China (1253–93)

✕ Key battle

1253 Mongol leader Möngke Khan dispatches Prince Kublai to take the Dali kingdom (Yunnan province)
1273 Kublai appoints a governor to ensure taxes are collected for the Yuan

2 THE YUAN DYNASTY 1272–1368

Kublai Khan proclaimed that 1272 was the first year of the Yuan dynasty, with newly built Khanbaliq, or Dadu (modern-day Beijing) its capital. After construction was completed in 1293, Dadu featured a grand palace and huge fortress walls around its perimeter. Meanwhile, Kublai retained links with the Mongolian heartland by making Shangdu the empire's summer capital.

⭐ Imperial capital
--- External and internal Yuan borders

3 TRADING WORLDWIDE 1279–1368

The Yuan Empire opened China to the outside world, resulting in the realm engaging in more extensive foreign trade than ever before. While the move saw a resurgence of the Silk Road (see pp.102–03), technological advances in shipbuilding and navigation led to the opening of new sea-lanes to Southeast Asia. The city of Guangzhou became the most important trade port during the Yuan era.

···· Maritime trade routes

1215 Genghis Khan destroys the Jurchen (Jin) capital of Zhongdu
1264 Kublai Khan orders reconstruction of the future Yuan capital

1368–1420 Ming capital

1281 Yuan fleet on a mission to conquer Japan comprises 3,500 ships with up to 100,000 soldiers

1293 Mongol forces return after unsuccessful invasion of Java

▷ **Kublai Khan**
This ink-on-silk image of Kublai Khan (as he would have looked in c. 1260) was painted by Nepalese artist and astronomer Anige in 1294, following the death of the great Yuan leader.

MONGOLIA

Karakorum

Gobi

GANSU

Dunhuang

Suzhou

Ganzhou

Ningxia

1236

SHAANXI

Plateau of Tibet

TIBET

Plateau of Tibet

Lhasa

Chengdu

1253

Fengyuan

1273

SICHUAN

Changde

Tianlin

Hengzhou

Chongqing

YUNNAN

Dengchong

1277

Irrawaddy

PAGAN

Tamluk

Pagan

MIAN

Pegu

SHAN STATES

Sukhothai

Phetchaburi

M I A N

KHMER EMPIRE

Mekong

Kedah

Terrengganu

Yellow River

Khanbaliq (Dadu, later Beijing)

Zhending

ZHONGSHU

Yidu

Qingjiang

Kaifeng

Bianliang

1276

Anfeng

Luzhou

HENAN

I'chang

Zhongxing

Wuchang

Changde

Longxing

Ji'an

HUGUANG

Jingjiang

Xi Jiang

1285

Guangzhou

1279 Yashan

1285

Hanoi

Hainan

ANNAM

Indrapura

CHAMPA

Shangdu

Daning

LIAOYANG

1236

Liaoyang

Amur

Bo Hai

Kaekyong

1274–81

KORYO

1274, 1281

Hakata

1281

1281 Hirado

Yellow Sea

Nanking

Taiping

Changzhou

ZHEJIANG

Hangzhou

1277–78

JIANGZHE

Dingzhou

Zhangzhou

JIANGXI

Taiwan

1293

South China Sea

Yangtze

1253

4 LUCKLESS IN JAPAN   1274–81

In 1274, Kublai Khan dispatched a fleet to conquer Japan. Despite scoring some early victories, the Mongols were forced to retreat when a storm destroyed hundreds of ships, many of which were flat-bottomed river vessels. A second invasion in 1281 met a similar fate, as the Mongol armada was unable to penetrate the Japanese defence wall and perished when it was struck by a typhoon.

INVASION ROUTES
→ 1274   ⚔ Key battle, 1274
→ 1281

5 THE GRAND CANAL   1281–93

The Yuan rounded up 4 million peasants to work on a new, direct route for the Grand Canal, the oldest parts of which dated to the 6th century BCE. The labourers carved a passage hundreds of miles long through hill country, linking the capital to Hangzhou. This allowed grain transport to the north, further disenfranchizing the populace.

— Grand Canal

6 RED TURBAN REBELLION   1351–68

A series of floods and droughts in the 1340s was interpreted by the Chinese as divine signs of the Yuan having lost the "Mandate of Heaven". Revolts broke out across the realm and gave rise to the Red Turban Rebellion. Led by Zhu Yuanzhang, the rebels drove out the Yuan court and seized the capital in 1368.

✊ Provincial capital affected by peasant revolt

7 EARLY MING   1368–98

Zhu Yuangzhang became the Hongwu emperor – the first ruler of the Ming dynasty, which would rule China for the next three centuries. He took personal control of the organs of government and restored order throughout the country. He instituted public work projects and introduced reforms to redistribute land to the peasants.

— Ming Empire   ★ Imperial capital

RISE AND FALL OF THE YUAN EMPIRE
The Mongols eliminated the Jin Empire in 1234 and took control of northern China. Under the leadership of Kublai Khan, the Yuan Empire conquered the southern Song lands in 1279. After ruling China for 89 years, the Yuan dynasty fell to peasant revolts and was replaced by the native Chinese Ming dynasty.

KEY

- ■ Yuan Empire to 1279
- ■ Yuan expansion 1280–1368
- ■ Area under loose or temporary Yuan control

TIMELINE

	1200	1250	1300	1350	1400
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					

YUAN CHINA TO THE EARLY MING

In 1272, Genghis Khan's grandson, Kublai Khan, founded China's first foreign-led empire, the Yuan, and 9 years later he wrested control of the whole realm. However, a system of rule that repressed the Chinese eventually gave rise to widespread rebellion that led to the empire's downfall 89 years later.

Kublai Khan ruled China as an independent realm of the Mongol empire. He enforced a rigid racial hierarchy, placing the Mongols at the top while denying the Chinese any roles in the government or the military.

Kublai made Dadu (Beijing) the Yuan capital, encouraged trade links with the outside world, and brought paper money into common circulation. Kublai's successors, however, faced a populace that was increasingly aggrieved over rising inflation and the oppressive taxes borne out of the

dynasty's discriminatory social policies. Moreover, the arrival of the Black Death in the 1330s (see pp.114–15), along with a spate of natural disasters, wrought great hardship upon the poorer classes. From the 1340s, revolts broke out in every province, giving rise to a movement known as the Red Turban Rebellion, led by Zhu Yuanzhang.

In 1368, Zhu seized Dadu and expelled the Mongol rulers. He founded the Ming Dynasty, and introduced reforms that improved the prospects of the peasant classes.

"... one can conquer the empire on horseback, but one cannot govern it on horseback."

KUBLAI KHAN, YUAN DYNASTY EMPEROR, 1271–94

MARCO POLO TRAVELS TO CHINA
Mongol control of Eurasia ushered in a period of peace and stability, known as "Pax Mongolica", which allowed Italian merchant and explorer Marco Polo to embark along the Silk Road on a trade mission to China. According to his travel writings, Marco Polo spent 17 years in China serving emperor Kublai Khan as a government official.

KEY

- → Route of Marco Polo 1271–95
- ■ Khanate of the Golden Horde
- ■ Empire of the Great Khan
- ■ Chagatai Khanate
- ■ Il-Khanate

TEMPLE STATES OF SOUTHEAST ASIA

The kingdoms that emerged in Southeast Asia from the start of the 1st millennium CE were strongly influenced by their powerful neighbours. Forms of government and religious ideas were imported via trade routes from India, while China's diplomatic and commercial strength shaped the formation of states in the east.

Organized states appeared in Southeast Asia around the 2nd century CE, with the Indian-influenced kingdom of Funan in Cambodia's Mekong Delta among the earliest. They imported key ideas from India, most notably in art, government, and religion. Buddhism reached the Mon kingdom of Burma (modern-day Myanmar) by the late 3rd century and Funan by 375. Hinduism, too, spread rapidly, reaching Borneo by 400 and becoming the favoured religion of the Angkor kingdom (in modern-day Cambodia). Rulers took on the characteristics of god-kings (sometimes using the title *cakravartin*, or universal ruler, borrowed from India) and built lavish capitals adorned with Buddhist and Hindu temples. While Indian cultural influence predominated in the west, direct Chinese political influence touched the eastern states. These sent diplomatic missions to Tang China and, in the case of Vietnam,

suffered direct military interventions. By the 9th century, a constellation of large states had emerged from Pagan in Myanmar, to Champa and Angkor in Cambodia, and Dai Viet in modern Vietnam. The Sailendra Empire of Srivijaya, based on Sumatra, dominated the Indonesian archipelago.

In 1287, the Mongols invaded (see pp.130–31), and captured Pagan. Invasion and growth of new competitors, notably the Dvaravati kingdoms of Thailand, shook the stability of the temple kingdoms. By the late 15th century, Angkor, Pagan, Champa, and Srivijaya had all collapsed, leaving a fractured system of regional states by the time Europeans reached the region a century later.

▷ **Pyramid temple**
The Bayon temple at Angkor was built *c.* 1200 for Jayavarman VII, one of the empire's kings. Some of its towers feature carvings of Jayavarman's face, while others have faces of Buddhist gods.

HINDUISM
RELIGIOUS INFLUENCE ACROSS SOUTHEAST ASIA
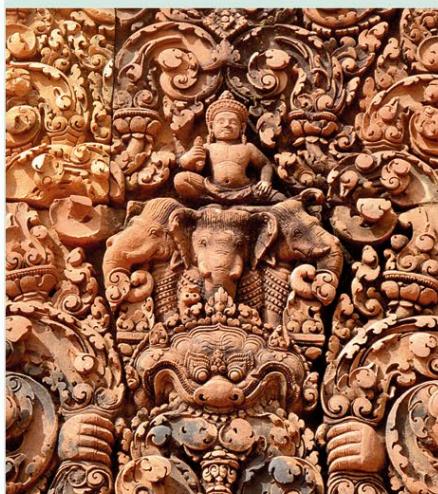
Hinduism developed in the 2nd millennium BCE, when its most ancient texts, the *Rig-Veda* hymns, were composed. The worship of many gods – all aspects of a single divine truth – within a temple-based system produced an extremely diverse religion. By the time of the Gupta Empire in the 3rd century CE, the principal forms of Hinduism were Vaishnavism (focused on the worship of Vishnu) and Sivaism (worship of Shiva, the god of creation and destruction), both of which spread widely in Southeast Asia.

Hindu carvings
This 10th-century temple shows the influence of Sivaism in Angkor.

KINGDOMS OF SOUTHEAST ASIA
Indian culture from the Gupta Empire initially spread via trade routes and then grew across the lands of the southeast. The newly formed states there were consumed by a complex struggle for political dominance, with Pagan, Dai Viet, Champa, Angkor, and Srivijaya emerging as the main regional powers.

TIMELINE

1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		

0   500 CE   1000 CE   1500 CE

1 GUPTA EMPIRE 320–500

Founded by Chandra Gupta I in 320, the Gupta Empire became wealthy from trade with Southeast Asia. Merchants carried Indian culture and religion overland and across maritime routes around Malaysia. Continual warfare to subdue rebellious provinces and defeat at the hands of Hephthalite Hun invaders in 455 hastened the empire's decline and disappearance in the mid-6th century.

▪ Maximum extent of Gupta empire c. 550

→ Indian influence

2 THE KINGDOM OF FUNAN 243–700

Funan, the earliest recorded state in the region of Southeast Asia, appeared around the 2nd century in the Mekong Delta. It maintained close trading links with China through an emporium at Oc Eo on the coast, sending an embassy there in 243. Although Buddhism was strong in the kingdom, Chinese records describe a king called Chan-t'an who sent tribute in 357 as a Hindu.

▪ Areas influenced by India

3 THE RISE AND FALL OF ANGKOR 802–1431

The Kingdom of Angkor began in 802 when Jayavarman II proclaimed himself *cakravartin* and founded a new capital near the later site of Angkor. Subsequent kings established new royal cities nearby, each adorned with Hindu temples. Jayavarman VII (r. 1181–1218) instead promoted Buddhism, but Angkor returned to Hinduism and survived until its collapse in the 15th century.

▪ Core area of Angkor

▪ Outermost limit of Angkor

4 THE BUDDHIST KINGDOM OF PAGAN 849–1287

Pagan was established in 849 by Burmese-speaking people. Its power grew until in 1044 Anawrahta brought much of modern Burma under his control, finally defeating the Mon of Thaton in 1057. His descendants ruled for two centuries, but alienation of land to support its temples weakened Pagan and it fell easily to the Mongols in 1287.

▪ Core area of Pagan

▪ Outermost limit of Pagan

5 THE MARITIME STATE OF SRIVIJAYA 671–1045

Unlike the land-based states, Srivijaya depended on control of maritime routes and domination of trading ports and cities for its success. Based at Palembang on Sumatra, Srivijaya had close links with China and sent frequent embassies there. The appearance in the 11th century of rivals in Java, notably Kadiri, ended Srivijaya's empire.

▪ Core area of Srivijaya ▪ Core area of Kadiri

▪ Outermost limit of Srivijaya ▪ Outermost limit of Kadiri

6 CHAMPA AND DAI VIET c. 300–1471

The Cham people established the Hindu kingdom of Champa in southern Vietnam in the 4th century. They waged frequent wars against their northern neighbours the Vietnamese, who overran their capital Vijaya in 1471. The Vietnamese Dai Viet kingdom developed in a region long overshadowed by China, achieving independence under Ngo Quyen in 939.

▪ Core area of Champa ▪ Core area of Dai Viet

▪ Outermost limit of Champa ▪ Outermost limit of Dai Viet

938 Vietnamese under Ngo Quyen defeat Southern Han to preserve independence of Dai Viet

1287 Pagan falls to the Mongols

875 Cham capital established

1471 Vijaya captured by the Vietnamese, marking end of Champa kingdom

1130–50 Suryavarman II orders the building of Angkor Wat, grandest of the Angkor temples
1177 Angkor captured by Cham army under Jaya Indravarman IV

*c.***700 CE** Kingdom of Chenla becomes predominant following the collapse of Funan

441 Tribute from port of Kan-t'l'li (location unknown) is first mention of Srivijaya in Chinese records
671 Visiting Chinese pilgrim records presence of 1,000 Buddhist monks

CHINA

Dali

Brahmaputra

Red River

DAI VIET

Dai-la

Gulf of Tongking

Hainan

South China Sea

Philippines

CHANDRA

PEIKTHANOMYO PAGAN

Pagan

Shrikshetra

SHRIKSHETRA

Pegu

Bay of Bengal

Irrawaddy

Salween

Mekong

Indrapura

DVARAVATI

CHENLA

CHAMPA

Vijaya

Nakhon Pathom

Angkor

Isanapura

FUNAN

KAMBUJADESHA

Oc Eo

TUN-SUN

Andaman Sea

Gulf of Thailand

Kedaram

Malay Peninsula

KAMPE

KO-LO

Strait of Malacca

Sumatra

MALAYU

Malayu

SRIVIJAYA

Palembang

TARUMA

Java

Sunda Strait

Borobudur

KADIRI

PO-LI

Java Sea

VIJAYAPURA

BORNEO

Macassar Strait

Sulawesi

TAN-TAN

Bali Lombok Sumbawa

Flores Sea

1 EMPIRE OF AKSUM 100–c.715 CE

The Aksum Empire grew into a wealthy trading power through its control of the Red Sea trading port of Adulis. The kingdom's rulers erected huge stelae in the capital (columns that probably served as burial markers). Aksum became Christian around 328 under King Ezana. From the 7th century, Aksum grew increasingly isolated as Islamic influence advanced into Egypt, and it went into decline.

◼ Aksumite kingdom

c. 1000–1240 The rulers of the Ghanaian Empire use slaves to mine salt in the city of Taghaza

989 CE Sankore Mosque is founded in Timbuktu; and becomes the heart of the city's university, a centre of education and learning

2 ANCIENT GHANA 500–1200

Ghana had become an important kingdom by about 800 CE, dominating the area around the upper Niger and Senegal River. The kingdom's control of the local gold and iron resources enabled it to establish lucrative trade relations with north Africa. However, the Almoravids of Morocco invaded the kingdom in 1060, leading to its demise by 1200.

▨ Kingdom of Ghana

3 NUBIA 500–1500

The ancient Nubian empire fell under Christian influence in the 540s with the arrival of Byzantine missionaries. Three Christian kingdoms emerged as a result: Nobatia, Makuria, and Alwa. Bedouin Arabs, however, pushed south, eventually destroying the Nubian kingdoms and spreading Islam.

◼ Christian Kingdoms

4 KANEM-BORNU 800–1380

The kingdom of Kanem was founded around 900 by Kanuri-speaking nomads. Under Humai ibn Salamna (1068–80) they settled down and became Muslim. Kanem's power declined in the 12th and 13th centuries, and around 1400 it was forced to move its main centre to Bornu by the Bulala people.

◼ Kanem-Bornu

From 400 CE Berber tribes pioneer long-distance trade routes across the Sahara in search of salt, ivory, gold, exotic animals for the Roman circus, and slaves

100 CE City of Adulis is Aksum's major trading port, with some traders travelling from distant lands, such as the Roman Empire and India, to acquire goods

Early 1400s Gao becomes so prosperous it attracts the attention of the Mali Empire and its rulers

River Niger provides Benin City with a route for trading goods with other African kingdoms

c. 1000 Maritime Kilwa is a centre for Muslim traders

900s Maritime trading proliferates between the east coast of Africa, Arabia, and India

1180s Kilwa seizes Sofala, gaining control of gold trade with Great Zimbabwe

△ **Queen Mother**
This finely sculpted bronze head is of Idia, mother of Oba Esigie, ruler of the state of Benin from 1504 to 1550. She was said to have led several of her son's campaigns.

AFRICAN EMPIRES AND TRADE

Islamic influence spread throughout northern Africa from the 7th century. The new trade with Muslim merchants brought wealth to some African kingdoms, allowing them to grow and flourish.

KEY

○ Major trading cities   ••• Muslim trade routes   ▮ Spread of Islamic influence, 1500

GOODS TRAVELLING ON TRADE ROUTES

Copper   Ivory   Slaves

Gold   Salt   Spice

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8

1 CE   500   1000   1500   2000

AFRICAN PEOPLES AND EMPIRES

By 1000 CE, Africa's great range of environments and differing access to natural resources had led to a huge diversity of societies. State-formation accelerated in the Middle Ages, a process in part provoked by the spread of Islam into the continent.

Africa's cultures ranged from the Islamic caliphates in the north to hunter-gatherer bands in the southern Kalahari desert, with chiefdoms and complex trading states in between. Islam spread into east Africa and was carried by Muslim merchants into west Africa. States that already existed there, such as Ghana, became rich and their rulers were able to extend their sway across the Sahel belt, south of the Sahara. Increased wealth also sparked competition for resources. Ghana suffered attacks from the Almoravids of Morocco in the mid-11th century and was finally snuffed out by the rival Sahel state of Mali, which was in turn supplanted by Songhai in the mid-14th century. By this time a new Islamic sultanate had arisen at Borno, in modern Chad, sustained by its control of salt mines in the desert basins.

Not all state formations were the result of Islamic influence, however. In the northeast a variety of Christian kingdoms formed in the aftermath of the break-up of Aksum in the late first millennium CE. The kingdom of Zimbabwe, and the iron-working kingdom of Benin in west Africa, which flourished from the 14th century, both imported artefacts and raw materials from abroad but were not subject to direct Islamic influence.

"They exchanged gold until they depressed its value in Egypt and caused its price to fall."

MANSA MUSA DESCRIBED BY ARAB HISTORIAN AL-UMARI, C. 1350

8 SONGHAI EMPIRE   1464–1591

Under Sonni Ali (1462–92), Songhai conquered most of Mali and established a new capital at Gao. The gold fields of the Niger River were integral to the empire's wealth and power. At its height, the rulers stationed a 200,000-strong army in the provinces to ensure trade was safe and secure.

▮ Songhai Empire

7 KINGDOM OF ZIMBABWE   1220–1450

The largest of the early hilltop towns in southern Africa was Great Zimbabwe, a huge settlement with massive dry stone walls. It flourished from the 11th to the late 15th centuries CE. Its population was around 30,000 and its rulers grew rich on foreign trade, with exotic imports including pottery from China.

▮ Kingdom of Zimbabwe

6 MALI EMPIRE   1235–1660

Mali had its origins in a Mande clan called the Keita on the upper Niger and became a significant power under its founder, Prince Sundiata Keita. The empire grew immensely rich through trade with the Arab world, and it won fame for all the gold its later ruler Mansa Musa carried during his pilgrimage to Mecca (see pp.138–39).

▮ Mali Empire

5 KINGDOM OF BENIN   1180–1897

The Benin kingdom established itself in the 11th or 12th century. Its territory increased dramatically during the reign of Oba (king) Ewuare (r. 1440–73), under whom the capital, Benin, became a large walled town. Benin craftsmen were prized for their skills, particularly in producing ivory masks and bronze plaques, which adorned the royal palace.

▮ Kingdom of Benin

KEY

▮ Bantu homeland, 2000 BCE

▮ Northwestern Bantu by 500 CE

▮ Eastern Bantu by 500 CE

▮ Western Bantu by 500 CE

→ Spread of Bantu

BANTU MIGRATION

From their homeland in modern-day Nigeria, the Bantu-speaking peoples migrated across the southern half of Africa. They are thought to have spread agricultural practices and metallurgy, which gave rise to settlements supplanting the foragers, herders, and hunter-gatherers.

On his way
This 17th-century print gives an impression of the sheer scale of Mansa Musa's caravan. He was said to have brought 60,000 followers – including 12,000 slaves – and 80 camels, to carry the vast quantity of gold needed to fund his expedition.

MANSA MUSA

In 1324, Mansa Musa, the ruler of Mali, made a pilgrimage to Mecca that became famous for its lavishness. The vast quantities of gold the king brought with him were a sign of the prosperity of Islamic west Africa.

Islam was brought to central Africa by merchants and by the 11th century had reached west Africa, where a series of kingdoms grew rich on trade in gold and slaves. By the early 14th century, the Sundjata Kingdom of Mali, ruled by Mansa Musa (r. 1312–37), had become the most powerful kingdom in west Africa. Musa extended its boundaries further, reaching as far as northern Nigeria and Timbuktu.

△ **Great mosque**
One of Africa's greatest Islamic monuments, the Djingareyber mosque was built in 1327 by Abu Ishaq al-Sahili, an architect Musa met in Mecca.

The famous pilgrim

As a show of his power, in 1324, Musa set off to perform his duty as a devout Muslim by undertaking the *hajj*, or pilgrimage to Mecca, taking with him thousands of followers and chests full of gold. His spending was so extravagant that it caused a sudden inflation of prices in Cairo, and when he paid back his debts on his return the price of gold plummeted. He brought Islamic scholars and architects back with him, founding dozens of Quranic schools and encouraging the growth of a university at Timbuktu, which had more than 1,000 students. The fame of his pilgrimage caused Mali to become known even in Europe. However, after his death the Sundjata Kingdom went into decline, collapsing in 1433 after Timbuktu fell to the Songhai Empire of Gao (see pp.136–37).

△ **Wealth and fame**
Mansa Musa, holding a golden sceptre and a gold nugget, is prominent in west Africa in this atlas compiled in Spain in 1325. News of his lavish spending, which included a gift of 50,000 dinars to Egypt's sultan, spread far beyond the Islamic world.

1 ORIGINS AND EARLY MIGRATIONS
c. 4000–c. 1400 BCE

DNA evidence indicates that the Polynesians originated somewhere in Southeast Asia, probably in Taiwan. Their migration southwards began around 4000 BCE. It remains uncertain whether they moved slowly, spending long periods in areas such as New Guinea, absorbing the indigenous culture, or whether they migrated rapidly, possibly reaching Tonga as early as around 1400 BCE.

2 THE LAPITA CULTURE *c. 1500–c. 1000 BCE*

From 1500 BCE, settlers from the central Philippines spread a new type of pottery. Red-glazed and often decorated, it was the product of what is now called the Lapita culture. The Lapita people engaged in long-range trade, especially in obsidian, which was prized for the blades it could create. They spread eastwards, reaching Samoa by about 1000 BCE, and are considered to be the immediate ancestors of the Polynesians.

Lapita pottery site   Source of obsidian

3 THE GREAT VOYAGES *c. 200–c. 1200 CE*

The Polynesians sailed huge distances – often against prevailing winds and currents – without navigation aids. From around 200 CE they engaged in a phase of great expansion, moving east from Samoa to the Marquesas and then settling on island groups to the north, southwest, and east. On some islands the crops and animals they brought did not flourish, which is why there were no pigs on Easter Island or breadfruit on New Zealand.

200 CE The use of pottery in Samoa ceases

1500 BCE Lapitan pottery reaches Fiji

PACIFIC MIGRATIONS

From Southeast Asia, a wave of migration spread across the Pacific over a period of more than 5,000 years. The people took with them animals, plants, and the culture that was to become Polynesian.

KEY

		MIGRATIONS	
Polynesia	Yams	→	Early migrations
Micronesia	Sweet potato	⇨	2000 BCE–1000 BCE
Melanesia	Rice	→	1000 BCE–1 CE
Area of cultivated breadfruit	Sugar cane	→	1 CE–500 CE
Taro	Bananas	→	500 CE–1400 CE
Cassava	Coconuts		

6 THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW ZEALAND
c. 1200– c. 1400 CE

The last major island group to be colonized by the Polynesians was New Zealand (or Aotearoa), which they reached in around 1200 CE. The initial settlement was on North Island, and the Maori (as the Polynesians of New Zealand became known) were able to supplement their diet with moa (a flightless bird) and shellfish that were abundant there.

TIMELINE

	4000 BCE	2000 BCE	1 CE	2000 CE
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				

TAIWAN

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

INDONESIA

NEW GUINEA

AUSTRALIA

PACIFIC OCEAN

Mariana Islands

c. 1500 BCE

Yap Islands

Caroline Islands

Ponape

Marshall Islands

c. 1–500 CE

Kiribati

c. 1000 BCE–1 CE

Elouae Island

Admiralty Islands

Bismarck Archipelago

Arawe Islands

Kandrian

Yule

New Ireland

Feni Islands
Green Islands
Sohano Island

Duke of York Islands

New Britain   Watom

Normanby   Bellona Island

Rennell

Guadalcanal

Solomon Islands

Santa Cruz Islands — Anuta

c. 1500 BCE

Malo   Eretoke
Éfaté

c. 1500 BCE

Viti Levu

Fiji Islands

Vanuatu

Lapita

New Caledonia

Île des Pins

c. 2000 BCE

Coral Sea

Phoenix Islands

Tuvalu

Uvea
Futuna

Samoa Islands

c. 1500–1000 BCE

Niuatoputapu

Lau Group

c. 1500–1000 BCE

Tonga Islands

c. 1000 CE

Kermadec Islands

c. 1200 CE

Aotearoa (New Zealand)

c. 1400 CE

Chatham Islands

4 THE SETTLEMENT OF TAHITI   *c.600–c.700*CE

The Polynesians reached Tahiti in around 600CE. The society that they founded there became layered, with classes of chiefs (*ari'i*), lesser chiefs and landowners (*ra'atira*), and commoners (*manahune*) that did not intermarry. They built great stone cult platforms (*marae*) for the worship of theirgods and developed new technologies, such as fishing gear and adzes with tangs to make attaching hafts easier.

Hawaiian Islands

Hawaii

▷**Drua canoe**
The Polynesians travelled in robust, double-hulled canoes called druas that were capable of carrying the seed crops and animals they would need for food.

c. 400 CE

Line Islands

c. 200 CE

Marquesas Islands

*c.*200CE The Marquesas Islands are settled from Samoa

c. 600 CE

c. 300 CE

Society Islands

Tuamotu Archipelago

Cook Islands   *Tahiti*

c. 600 CE

c. 600 CE

c. 800 CE

Austral Islands

Îles Gambier

*c.*1200CE The Polynesians erect monumental stone statues on Raivavae in the Austral Islands

c. 300 CE

5 EASTER ISLAND   *c.300–c.1500*CE

The most easterly outpost of Polynesian settlement was Easter Island (Rapa Nui). After reaching there around 300CE, the Polynesians built large stone platforms and then enormous cult statues (*moai*). Overpopulation, the effort needed to make the *maoi*, and severe depletion of natural resources led to war among the islanders, toppling of the *maoi*, and eventually collapse of the island's population.

Rapa Nui (Easter Island)

1770s Most *moai* statues are overthrown as Easter Islanders replace the Moai cult with that of the Bird Man

THE POLYNESIANS

An island people of the central Pacific, the Polynesians originated in Southeast Asia. By around 1000 BCE, they had reached Tonga and Samoa. They then embarked on a great migration to reach previously unpopulated islands as distant as Easter Island and New Zealand.

The Polynesians' original ancestors probably came from Taiwan, and they spoke Austronesian languages similar to those heard in present-day Indonesia and the Philippines. From about 4000 BCE, they spread southwards and eastwards, passing through the Philippines and areas settled more than 20,000 years earlier by Melanesians (an ethnic group related to modern Australian aboriginals). The eastward spread of their early culture (called Lapita) to Tonga and Samoa can be traced through the remains of its distinctive red-glazed pottery.

The Polynesians developed double-hulled voyaging canoes with balancing outriggers that allowed them to reach distant island groups, including the Cook and Marquesas islands, Hawaii, and New Zealand. With them they took taro, yams, sweet potatoes, breadfruit, and bananas that they would cultivate on the islands, and chickens and pigs they would raise for meat. The far-flung nature of their island settlement meant that their societies diverged significantly from one another, with less stratified societies to the west, and more complex ones to the east, especially in Hawaii, where a monarchy and centralized government emerged.

EASTER ISLAND *MOAI*
STATUES OF THE SPIRITS

The *moai*, monumental stone statues up to 10m (33 ft) high, were erected on Easter Island between 1200 and 1600. They are thought to represent protective ancestral spirits. More than 900 *moai* were erected, but the effort required to quarry and haul 80-tonne (88-ton) blocks from the interior of the island and to set them up on *ahau* (platforms) facing out to sea was a major drain on the Easter Islanders' resources. By 1700, the island was almost completely deforested, and its inhabitants could not even build new canoes to fish. In the second half of the 18th century, the Moai cult was superseded by the Bird Man cult and the *moai* statues were pulled down.
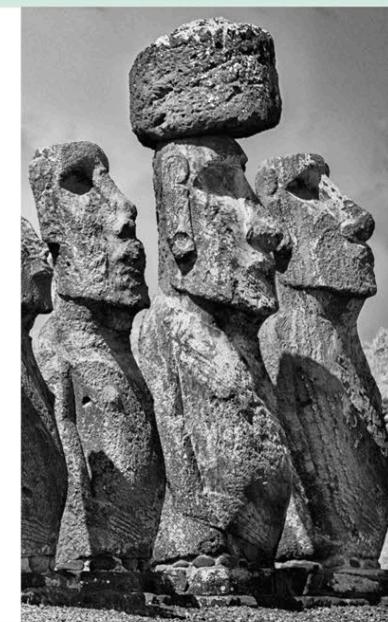
NORTH AMERICAN CULTURES

From 500 to 1500, many diverse cultures flourished in North America, including complex chiefdoms. Various nomadic groups turned to farming, including the Puebloan cultures in the southwest, evolving into large communities that traded extensively. Meanwhile, a new wave of Mound Builder cultures emerged to the east.

The ancient cultures of North America were shaped largely by the environment and available food resources.

In the southwest, the adoption of maize followed by the development of irrigation practices – as conditions became drier around 1000 BCE – forced hitherto nomadic groups to adopt complex social structures to ensure their survival, giving rise to the early Puebloan settlements. By 400 CE, these settlements had developed into complexes of cliff-dwellings or small towns, which clustered around a large centre featuring low platform mounds and ceremonial ball courts (which hint at Mesoamerican influences). These communities made pottery and basketware, and also mined turquoise, which they traded with the great

Mesoamerican cities to the south. Several distinct cultures emerged, and each dominated at different times and in different regions of the southwest.

Elsewhere, the introduction of maize, later supplemented by beans, led to the birth of the Mississippian Mound Builder cultures, following the decline of the Adena and Hopewell (see pp.52–53). The various Mississippian sub-groups flourished between 800 and 1500, each ruled by chiefs residing in fortified centres featuring mounds that served as foundations for temples. Some Mississippian centres grew into towns, the largest of which, Cahokia, thrived from 1050 to 1250. With up to 20,000 inhabitants, these settlements each had a palisaded centre, ringed by large earthen platform mounds.

> "… a group of mounds… at a distance resembling enormous haystacks scattered through a meadow."

WRITER HENRY MARIE BRACKENRIDGE ON SEEING CAHOKIA, 1811

MESA VERDE
GREAT ANCIENT PUEBLOAN SETTLEMENT

From about 700 CE, many of the Ancient Puebloans of the southwest began constructing settlements high in the cliffs, which offered protection. The largest of these was Mesa Verde, comprising 4,500 residential sites, of which 600 were cliff dwellings: villages built into the giant alcoves of the mesa walls. By about 1200, the population of Mesa Verde proper reached about 30,000 people, most of whom lived in dense settlements at the heads of the area's canyons.

◁ **Warrior relief**
This Mississippian copper ornament depicting a warrior or a chief in relief was unearthed in the Caddoan settlement at Spiro, which thrived between 800 and 1450.

575 Ancient Puebloans first settle in Mesa Verde. By 1100, population grows to about 2,500

490 Farming settlements start evolving as a result of increased rainfall, and grow into a large cultural complex comprising 2,000 sites and 14 towns

Great Salt Lake

Calf Creek

Mesa Verde

Chaco Canyon

Petroglyph Canyons

Topoc Maze

Mesa Grande

Mogollon

Casa Grande

Mimbres Valley

Casas Grandes

Rocky Mountains

NORTH AMERICA

Gulf of California

500–1100 Built in seven phases, Snaketown becomes the centre of the Hohokam culture

1100 Mimbres peoples build single-storey settlements, each containing up to 150 rooms

After 1350 Settlement develops larger multistorey dwellings and is an important location on trade routes for spread of Mesoamerican ideas to the north

SOUTHWEST COMMUNITIES   50–500

Following the introduction of maize in the southwest, disparate groups of semi-nomads changed to a more settled agrarian lifestyle and began living in pit-dwellings (earthen houses partly dug into the ground). By 500 CE, a network of small villages had emerged. These clustered around larger centres, whose chiefs controlled a system of irrigation canals which permitted higher agricultural yields to sustain the area's growing population.

2 THE MOGOLLON 250–1350

Small hamlets comprising several pithouses made up the earliest Mogollon villages. Settlements were built near mountain streams or along ridges, offering defence from raiders. The Mogollon made distinctive red-on-brown ceramics with intricate designs. A subgroup of the Mogollon culture, the Mimbres, made pottery with beautiful black-on-white geometrical patterns.

▬ Area of influence

3 THE HOHOKAM 300–1450

Between 1100 and 1450, the Hohokam people built a settlement at Snaketown featuring a series of large mounds. The settlement was home to about 1,000 people and also had two ball-courts, similar to those of Mesoamerican cultures, from whom they imported exotic products such as copper bells and macaws.

▬ Area of influence   ■ Hohokam centre

4 CHACO CANYON 700–1500

The peoples of the southwest began to build complexes of houses set into sheltered rock-faces. The Ancient Puebloans constructed towns, notably at Chaco Canyon, with an extensive road network connecting them. They managed water resources carefully, but around 1130, overpopulation (aggravated by droughts) strained the area's resources and the Chaco culture collapsed.

▬ Area of influence

5 MIDDLE MISSISSIPPIAN 600–1400

From 600 CE, peoples in the Midwest started shifting to farming maize, beans, and squash. By 1000 they had organized a complex settlement-based society, typically featuring large ceremonial mounds encircled by ditches and ramparts. The largest was based in Cahokia, where about 100 earth mounds were grouped around open plazas.

■ Area of influence   🔺 Temple mound site

6 LATE MISSISSIPPIAN MOUND CULTURES 1000–1600

After 1000 CE, maize cultivation spread widely throughout the east, giving rise to a variety of temple mounds subcultures. It is thought that the subgroups were organized as chiefdoms composed of people with either "elite" or "commoner" social ranking. The Mississippians did not have writing, but representations of their beliefs were preserved in engravings on stone figurines, shells, ceramic designs, effigy smoking pipes, and stone tablets.

CULTURAL AREA AND TEMPLE MOUND SITE

🔶 Oneota		🔷 Caddoan	
🔶 Fort Ancient		🔷 South Appalachian	
🔶 Plaquemine			

500 Measuring 380 m (1245 ft), Great Serpent Mound is built in the shape of a snake with its jaws clamped around the mound

900–955 Construction begins on Monks Mound, the largest pre-Columbian earthwork

1300 Caddoan settlement in Spiro becomes a large ceremonial centre with a chamber filled with offerings

1000–1550 Cultural centre of the South Appalachian people, where its elites are buried along with ornamental copper plates

1000–1550 Moundville is among the largest Mississippian settlements, featuring 20 large platform mounds and covering an area of about 300 acres

500–1100 Southwestern cultures trade extensively with Mesoamerican cities and trade centres

PRE-COLUMBIAN CULTURES OF NORTH AMERICA

North America's prehistoric farming cultures included the Ancestral Puebloans in the southwest, who lived in semi-subterranean dwellings and made baskets and pottery. The Mississippian cultures to the east built giant ceremonial mounds in the heart of their settlements.

KEY

▬ Mississippian cultures' area of influence

◇ Archaeological site   – – Trade route

TIMELINE

	1 CE	500	1000	1500	2000
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					

Map labels: Kathio, Mississippi, Lake Michigan, Lake Huron, Lake Ontario, ONEOTA, Aztalan, Lake Erie, Missouri, Platte, Dickson, Fort Ancient, FORT ANCIENT, Old Fort, Utz, Cahokia, Kansas, Angel, Ohio, Tennessee, Appalachian Mountains, Arkansas, Kings Mounds, Towosahgy, Mound Bottom, Town Creek, Chucalissa, Hiwassee Island, SOUTH APPALACHIAN, Spiro, Florence, Scotts Lake, CADDOAN, MIDDLE MISSISSIPPIAN, Etowah, Hollywood, Belcher, Owl Creek, Moundville, Ocmulgee, Rock Eagle, Winterville, Lamar, PLAQUEMINE, Grand Village, Kolomoki, Chattahoochee, Emerald Mound, Lake Jackson, Pecos, Rio Grande, ATLANTIC OCEAN, Gulf of Mexico, Chichén Itzá, Calixtlahuaca, Matacapan, Cacaxtia, Huaxacoc, MESOAMERICA

AZTEC AND INCA EMPIRES

Two large empires emerged in the Americas in the 14th century. In Mesoamerica, the Aztec culture grew into a major civilization, famous for its tribute system, warfare, art, and architecture. Meanwhile, starting in Peru's Cuzco valley, the Inca people created a vast realm along the Andes and asserted their rule using a sophisticated bureaucracy and a sprawling network of roads.

The Aztecs originally settled on an island in Lake Texcoco, and founded the city of Tenochtitlán in 1325. The culture privileged the training of a warrior elite, and within half a century amassed a formidable army. Following the Triple Alliance – a partnership the Aztecs formed with the cities of Texcoco and Tlacopan – the Aztecs engaged in a phase of conquests. Their army invaded neighbouring communities, overthrew the local chieftains, and turned these territories into vassals. Aztec officials were then appointed to ensure that tributes – the main source of revenue for the empire – as well as captives for human sacrifice were sent to the capital, where the rulers pooled the resources into building monuments and artworks.

The Incas emerged as the predominant group in Peru's Cuzco valley after settling in the region in about 1250, developing techniques to farm on mountain terraces. The Incas began a phase of conquests in 1438; by the early 1500s, they had overthrown powerful neighbours the Chimú and the Chancas, and extended their rule to Quito in the north and the Araucanian desert of Chile to the south. The Incas instituted a strong administrative structure and built a complex road network to help them govern the vast empire.

AZTEC EMPIRE
The Aztecs expanded their empire in the 15th century to cover a great expanse of Central America. Toltec migration gave rise to a new wave of independent Maya states in the northeastern region of the isthmus.

c. **1150** Aztecs construct artificial islands, known as chinampas, around Lake Texcoco to boost agricultural productivity

3 THE POST-CLASSIC MAYA 900–1524
A new phase of Maya culture evolved in the Yucatan peninsula following the arrival of the Toltecs from central Mexico. They first went to Chichén Itzá then established a new capital at Mayapán. Post-classic Maya society was more secular and industrious. Warfare was also a prevalent feature of this period.

▮ Independent northern states   ◆ Major post-classic Maya centre

1520 The Aztec capital is the largest city in pre-Columbian America with a population of at least 300,000

1455–1520 The Tlaxcala frequently engage in ritual wars, known as Flower Wars, against the Aztec Triple Alliance cities

METZTITLÁN
Zimapan
Lake Cuitzeo
Tzintuntzan
MICHOACÁN (TARASCAN)
Lake Texcoco
Texcoco
Tenochtitlán
Tlacopan
Tlaxcala
TLAXCALAN
Bay of Campeche
Gulf Coast
Mixtlan
TEOTITLÁN DEL CAMINO
Balsas
Teloapan
Monte Albán
Sierra Madre del Sur
YOPITZINCO
Quetzaltepec
Isthmus of Tehuantepec
Grijalva
Sierra Madre

2 AZTECS' RAPID EXPANSION 1440–68
Moctezuma I extended the empire to the Gulf Coast and established the tribute system by which the conquered people were obliged to supply goods to the Aztec elite in the capital. He also introduced the "Flower Wars" – ceremonial battles against rival city-states. The captives from these battles were brought to the city temples and sacrificed to the Aztec gods (to ensure that the Sun would keep rising each day).

Ayutla
TOTOPEC (MIXTEC)
Gulf of Tehuantepec
SOCONUSCO

1486 The Aztecs invade the cacao-rich Soconusco region and secure cacao tributes to the capital

▮ Empire expansion under Moctezuma I (1440–69)
▮ Empire expansion under Axaycatl (1469–81)
▮ Empire expansion under Ahuitzotl (1486–1502)
▮ Empire expansion under Moctezuma II (1502–20)
◇ Provincial centre for tribute collection

1 AZTEC ALLIANCE 1427–40
Aztec expansion gained momentum during the reign of Itzcoatl, who in 1428 formed key partnerships, known as the Triple Alliance, with the cities of Texcoco and Tlacopan. The alliance allowed the Aztecs to overthrow the powerful Tepanecs and become the principal power in Mesoamerica.

▮ Empire expansion under Itzcoatl 1427–40   ● Members of the Triple Alliance

PACIFIC OCEAN

AZTEC AND INCA CONQUESTS

The Aztec and Inca Empires, as well as the independent post-classic Maya states, were the largest urban civilizations in Central and South America before the Europeans' arrival in the 16th century. In particular, the Aztecs and Incas were territorial and embarked on a phase of conquests to absorb other societies and extend their rule over a larger area.

KEY

O Major urban centres

TIMELINE

	800	950	1100	1250	1400	1550
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						

INCA EMPIRE

At its height, the Inca Empire extended from modern Ecuador to the southern city of Talca in modern-day Chile. A vast network of roads connected the major Inca cities.

4 THE BIRTH OF THE INCA EMPIRE 1438–71

Led by Cusi Yupanqui, in 1438 the Incas defeated the Chancas, who had attacked the Inca stronghold in Cuzco. Yupanqui took the name Pachacutec and became the Sapa Inca (Inca ruler). He then waged a series of wars that resulted in Inca expansion and culminated with victory in Chan Chan, the capital of the Chimú civilization, in 1470.

◼ Empire expansion under Pachacutec (1438–71)

◼ Chimú civilization

1471 The sacred Huari site of Pachacamac is taken over by the Incas. A temple dedicated to the Inca sun deity is built

***c.*1470** Incas conquer the Chimú capital Chan Chan and bring back many craftsmen to work on Inca constructions in Cuzco

1438 Inca ruler Yupanqui defeats the Chancas to control the Cuzco Valley and further expand the Inca Empire

5 INCA CAPITAL 1250–1525

The Sapa Inca ruled the empire from Cuzco, which sat at the centre of a 20,000-km (12,500-mile) road network. The Sapa Inca imposed a realm-wide taxation system (paid in kind), controlled trade, and drew on a large peasant labour force for construction projects.

▬ Imperial roads   ★ Inca capital

6 EXPANDING SOUTH 1471–1525

Under Tupac Yupanqui (1471–93) and Huaya Capac (1493–1525), the Inca completed the conquest of Ecuador and pushed far south into modern Chile. With the prospect of sharing the plunder won in subsequent conquests, male captives often became Inca soldiers, which further strengthened Inca dominance. At its height, the Inca Empire ruled as many as 12 million people.

◼ Inca expansion under Tupac Yupanqui (1471–93)

◼ Inca expansion under Huayna Capac (1493–1525)

1224 City is abandoned by the Toltecs. A people known as the Uicil-abnal, which later takes the name Itzá, settles in the desolate city

***c.*1200** Mayapán becomes a vast and powerful Maya political centre

▷ **Serpent mask of Tlaloc**
This turquoise mosaic mask in the form of two intertwined serpents is associated with Tlaloc, the Aztec god of rain, water, and earthly fertility.

THE EARLY MODERN WORLD

AS HORIZONS WIDENED IN 1450–1700, CONTACT BETWEEN EAST
AND WEST MADE TRADE AND CULTURAL EXCHANGE GLOBAL
AND THE WORLD RECOGNIZABLY MODERN.

THE EARLY MODERN WORLD

Between 1450 and 1700, European explorers reached the Americas and began to explore maritime routes around Africa into Asia. Military and scientific revolutions in Europe also enabled its leading powers to encroach on non-European territories.

△ **Competing for souls**
This 1614 painting by the Dutch artist Adriaen van de Venne is symbolic of the religious rivalry that divided Europe. Here, the "catch" of the Protestants (to the left) is depicted as greater than that of their Catholic rivals.

In 1450, a politically fragmented Europe exerted little influence outside its borders – France and England were still at war, Spain was divided, and the trading city-states of Italy seemed to be the continent's most dynamic powers. It was the impulse to trade that eventually revolutionized Europe's position in the world.

Discovering new worlds

Portuguese mariners inched around the African coastline in search of new routes to the lucrative spice markets of Asia – succeeding in 1498 when Vasco da Gama's fleet reached the Indian port of Calicut (now Kozhikode). By then, however, an even more astonishing discovery had been made – Christopher Columbus had stumbled upon a Caribbean island in 1492. This had opened up the Americas, which had been isolated from the rest of the world for millennia.

Spanish adventurers poured across the Atlantic into the Americas, toppling the native Aztec and Inca empires with surprising ease. They established the first European colonial empire and sent back treasures and silver, which contributed to inflation in Spain but also boosted the country's Habsburg rulers' ability to fight continental wars. This was an invaluable asset at a volatile time;

the religious unity of western Europe had broken down after the German priest Martin Luther had made protests in 1517 against corruption in the Roman Catholic Church. This had prompted a series of reformers to establish alternative Protestant churches, which in turn provoked a spasm of religious warfare. Matters came to a head with the outbreak of the Thirty Years War, in 1618, which pitched German Catholic and Protestant princes against each other and brought in armies from France, the Habsburg Empire, and Sweden, that criss-crossed the continent and left it utterly devastated.

Wars in Europe

The arrival of gunpowder warfare heralded the beginnings of European standing armies, trained in the use of firearms and operating in units far larger than ever before. This military revolution in the 16th century immeasurably enhanced the powers of European monarchs but raised the risks of warfare. England suffered the consequences of civil war when tension between an autocratic monarch and a resentful parliament burst into conflict – resulting in the execution of King Charles I in 1649

◁ **Art flourishes in India**
This beautiful edition of the *Divan*, the collected works of the popular 14th-century Persian poet Hafiz, was compiled in Mughal India – a rich period for both visual art and literature.

EXPLORATION AND SCHISM

The Early Modern period was one of profound transformation. European explorers reached the New World in 1492, precipitating the collapse of previously dominant societies. Although European traders also reached the spice-producing areas of Asia by rounding Africa, the footholds they established there were much slighter. Europe itself was racked by religious conflicts marred by violence that only ended after a century of warfare.

1453 Ottoman Sultan Mehmed II captures Constantinople, putting an end to the Byzantine Empire

1480 Ivan III of Russia establishes the independence of Muscovy from the Mongols

1492 Christopher Columbus makes landfall in the Caribbean

1517 Martin Luther posts his *95 Theses* at Wittenberg, beginning the Reformation

1526 Babur establishes the Mughal Empire in northern India

| | ASIA | EUROPE | THE AMERICAS | 1425 | 1450 | 1475 | 1500 | 1525 |

1453 The Hundred Years War ends with France's recapture of Bordeaux from the English

1455 The *Gutenberg Bible* is printed in Mainz, Germany

1488 Portuguese navigator Bartolomeu Dias sails around the southern tip of Africa

1521 Hernán Cortés completes the conquest of the Aztec Empire

◁ Way of the warrior
During Japan's Edo, or Tokugawa, period, samurai warriors had gained a high ranking in a rigidly followed caste system. This military armour of a samurai warrior dates from the 19th century.

and the establishment of a republic for 12 years, the only one in Britain's history. By the time monarchy was restored in 1660, Britain faced new rivals: a resurgent France under Louis XIV; and the infant Dutch Republic, whose traders displaced the Portuguese and the Spanish in parts of Asia.

Further expansion

France and Britain extended their competition to the Americas, where they ate away at the Portuguese and Spanish duopoly. They also began to encroach upon Asia, but here they faced strong rivals.

The Ottoman Empire had expanded to occupy the whole of Turkey and much of the Middle East and North Africa. The Safavid Empire brought a golden age to Persia (modern Iran), while the Mughals seized Delhi in 1526 and had conquered most of the Indian subcontinent by 1700. In China, the Ming and Qing dynasties, both socially

"The church needs a reformation ... it is the work of God alone ..."

MARTIN LUTHER, GERMAN THEOLOGIAN

▷ Celestial model
With the Sun at its centre, this model, called an armillary sphere, was used to represent the positions of celestial objects.

and diplomatically conservative, regarded the foreigners, who came in increasing numbers, as little more than irritants. In Japan, however, the shogun Tokugawa, who had reunited the country in 1600 after a long civil war, foresaw the dangers posed by foreign powers and gradually excluded them, allowing only the Dutch to persist in a tiny trading enclave off Nagasaki. The Japanese were thus protected from the European tide that began to wash against other Asian powers. They were also insulated from the scientific revolution that began in Europe, which overturned centuries-old orthodoxies and paved the way for new theories, such as Copernicus's Sun-centred Universe and Isaac Newton's work on gravity. As Europe's military power grew, its economic reach widened, and its scientific resourcefulness burgeoned. By 1700, European powers stood on the brink of pulling definitively ahead of their Asian rivals.

1572 King Charles IX of France orders St Bartholomew's Day massacre of Protestants

1600 Tokugawa Ieyasu wins the Battle of Sekigehara to complete the reunification of Japan

1628 Shah Jahan is crowned emperor – the golden age of Mughal India begins

1648 The Thirty Years War ends

1656 Dutch mathematician and physicist Christiaan Huygens constructs the first pendulum clock

1687 English mathematician Isaac Newton publishes the *Principia*, setting out laws of motion and gravity

1550   1575   1600   1625   1650   1675   1700

1555 The Peace of Augsburg treaty brings temporary halt to religious wars that have spread across Europe

1607 Jamestown, the first permanent English colony in the Americas, is founded

1630 Sweden intervenes in the Thirty Years War, turning the tide in favour of the Protestants

1644 The Qing, incomers from Manchuria, overthrow the Ming to establish a new ruling dynasty in China

1690 The English East India Company establishes a trading post in Calcutta, gaining a foothold in India

1 THE VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS 1492–1504

In 1492 Genoese sea captain Christopher Columbus voyaged across the Atlantic in search of a route to China. Columbus hugely underestimated the distance, so when he made landfall on 12 October 1492 in the Bahamas he believed that he had found "the Indies" (or east Asia). Three subsequent voyages explored the Caribbean and part of the South American coastline, but Columbus never accepted that he had found a new continent.

→ Columbus 1492   ⇢ Columbus 1502–04

2 SPANISH EXPLORERS IN NORTH AMERICA 1513–40

Christopher Columbus was soon followed by other Spanish explorers. In 1513 Juan Ponce de Léon landed in Florida and 4 years later Francisco Hernández de Córdoba had sighted Mexico's Yucatan peninsula. The pace of exploration quickened after Hernán Cortés's conquest of the Aztec empire in 1519–21, allowing expeditions deep into the American southwest in the 1540s.

→ Ponce de Léon 1513   ⇢ Hernández de Córdoba 1517

3 THE EXPLORATION OF BRAZIL 1500–31

In 1500, Pedro Álvaro Cabral, who was leading a Portuguese expedition to India, sailed too far westward into the Atlantic and made landfall on the coast of Brazil. Some claimed that this apparent accident had been deliberate, but it helped the Portuguese crown to lay claim over a portion of Brazil. Portugal then established a settlement at São Vicente in 1531, and its South American empire expanded to the whole of Brazil.

→ Cabral 1500

4 THE NORTHWEST PASSAGE 1497–1610

The first expedition commissioned by England to search for a "Northwest Passage" was John Cabot's, in 1497, which discovered Newfoundland. Martin Frobisher followed, reaching Baffin Island in 1576, and Henry Hudson's expedition found Hudson Bay in 1610. These voyages marked the beginnings of British colonization in America.

→ Cabot 1497   ⇢ Frobisher 1576
⇢ Hudson 1610

5 THE EXPLORATION OF CANADA 1534–1607

In 1534 Jacques Cartier of France explored the Gulf of St Lawrence, and on a subsequent expedition in 1535–46 he reached the site of present-day Montreal. Samuel de Champlain extended French knowledge of Canada westwards from 1600, founding the first French settlement at Port-Royal in 1605. By 1607 the French had mapped the whole Atlantic coastline from Cape Cod to Cape Breton.

→ Cartier 1534–36   ⇢ De Champlain 1600–05

Map labels

ARCTIC
Spitsbergen
Greenland
Novaya Zemlya
Iceland
1576 Frobisher
Archangel
Baffin Island
Hudson Bay
1610 Hudson
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Labrador
Newfoundland
EUROPE
ENGLAND
NETHERLANDS
1497 Cabot
St Lawrence
1534–36 Cartier
FRANCE
NORTH AMERICA
Hochelaga (Montreal)
Port Royal
Cape Cod
1600–05 De Champlain
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
1579 Drake sails up west coast of North America, possibly reaching Vancouver
1535–46 Cartier sails down the St Lawrence as far as present-day Montreal
1522 Elcano reaches Spain with 18 survivors of the circumnavigation
1513 Ponce de Léon
1517 de Córdoba
FLORIDA
Bahamas
1492 Columbus
AFRICA
AZTEC EMPIRE
Cuba
1502–04 Columbus
Acapulco
Caribbean Sea
Cape Sierra Leone
1577–80 Drake
Yucatan Peninsula
Panama
Cape Tiburón
Mogadishu
PACIFIC OCEAN
Malindi
1519–21 Magellan expedition
Kilwa
Lima
Recife
1577–80 Drake
1497–98 da Gama
Sofala
Madagascar
SOUTH AMERICA
São Vicente
Cape of Good Hope
Buenos Aires
1500 Cabral
Isla de Chiloé
1488 Bartolomeu Dias rounds Cape of Good Hope
Puerto San Julián
Strait of Magellan
Cape Horn

OCEAN

7 CIRCUMNAVIGATING THE GLOBE 1519–80

In 1519 Ferdinand Magellan led an expedition looking for the sea route to the Indies. They passed through the Strait of Magellan in October 1520 and reached the Philippines 5 months later. There, Magellan was killed in a battle with a local ruler. Under Juan Sebastian Elcano, the expedition returned to Spain in September 1522. A circumnavigation of the globe was not repeated until the Englishman Francis Drake's expedition in 1577–80.

→ Magellan expedition 1519–21
⇢ Continuation of Magellan expedition 1521–22
⋯→ Drake 1577–80

ASIA

JAPAN

Nagasaki

1497 Da Gama reaches India, but hostility of the local sultan means he does not establish trading relations

MING CHINA

Macao

Hainan

ANNAM

PACIFIC OCEAN

INDIA

Goa

Calicut

1509 Voyages to Malacca

Philippine Islands

1519–21 Magellan expedition

1521 Magellan killed in skirmish

1577–80 Drake

Malacca

Moluccas

Borneo

Sumatra

Java

Source of cloves and nutmeg; reached by the Portuguese

New Guinea

INDIAN OCEAN

1521–22 continuation of Magellan expedition

6 THE CIRCUMNAVIGATION OF AFRICA 1488–1512

By 1488 the Portuguese exploration of Africa's coast had reached the southernmost tip of the continent, when Bartolomeu Dias rounded it and entered the Indian Ocean. In 1497–98 Vasco da Gama went even further, succeeding in opening up a direct trade route to Asia, by sailing up Africa's east coast and then across to Calicut in India. Before long the Portuguese had attained the sources of spices – the most valuable of luxury goods – reaching Malacca in 1509 and the Moluccas in 1512.

→ da Gama 1497–98
⇢ Voyages to Malacca 1509

EUROPEAN EXPLORATION

A series of spectacular voyages by European explorers in the late 15th and early 16th centuries opened up vast new areas of the globe to European trade. These would lead to European colonization.

KEY
■ Extent of summer pack ice
■ Additional extent of winter pack ice

TIMELINE

1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — 5 — 6 — 7

1470 — 1520 — 1570 — 1620

VOYAGES OF EXPLORATION

The 15th and 16th centuries saw a massive increase in the reach of European nations. Voyages set out in search of new routes to exploit the trade in luxury goods. Portuguese explorers pushed eastwards, their Spanish counterparts voyaged west, and soon the English, French, and Dutch joined the scramble to find new lands.

The break-up of the Mongol empire in the 14th century and expansion of the Ottoman Turks in the eastern Mediterranean blocked the Silk Road, which had been the traditional conduit for trade from Europe to east Asia. Maritime nations on Europe's western coasts began to explore alternative routes by which to access the rich east Asian trade in luxuries, and in particular spices. From the mid-1420s Portuguese-sponsored voyages edged around the west coast of Africa. It took until 1497, however, for the Portuguese captain Vasco da Gama to circumnavigate Africa and reach the markets of India. By then, the Spanish-sponsored voyage of Christopher Columbus had encountered the coastline of the Americas. The Portuguese established a toehold in Brazil by 1500, and British and French expeditions tried to locate the "Northwest Passage" to access Asia by sailing north around North America.

More ambitious voyages yet circumnavigated the globe, beginning with that led by the Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan in 1519. The consequences of these voyages were profound. Parts of the world that had had little or no communication with each other were now linked by trading routes and by networks of trading outposts. These were either directly state-controlled or governed by great trading corporations such as the British and Dutch East India Companies (founded in 1600 and 1602). Soldiers and settlers soon followed as what had originally been an effort to secure trading routes became the precursor to the establishment of global European empires.

△ **A new world**
This late-17th-century engraving by the Flemish-German publisher Theodor de Bry depicts Christopher Columbus arriving in the Americas and is part of a series that portrayed famous explorers surrounded by allegorical scenes.

SPANISH CONQUESTS IN THE AMERICAS

In the first half of the 16th century, the Spanish established a vast empire in the Americas. Their conquest of the rich native cultures of Mexico and Peru between 1519 and 1533 encouraged Spanish explorers to seize further large tracts of territory. They established an empire that remained in Spanish hands until a series of nationalist revolts in the 1800s.

Following Columbus's discovery of the Americas in 1492, initial Spanish efforts were focused on the Caribbean. However, there were few resources to exploit, and the collapse of the native population pushed Spanish adventurers onto the mainland. The conquest of the Aztec empire by Hernán Cortés from 1519–21 and of the Inca empire of Peru by Francisco Pizarro from 1531–33 (see pp.154–55) transformed the prospects for the Spanish possessions in the Americas. Christian missionaries soon followed in the wake of the conquistadors and made large numbers of converts among the Aztecs and Inca, whose central religious hierarchy had been swept away. These rich, centralized territories fell rapidly into the hands of the conquistadors and formed the nucleus from which

further Spanish expeditions fanned out across the continent – penetrating into Colombia and Venezuela in 1537–43 and northwards into Florida and the southwest of the modern United States in the 1540s.

The Spanish brought new diseases to the Americas (such as smallpox), and the native population had declined to around one-tenth its former level by 1600. However, throughout the 16th century there was also an influx of around 100,000 European settlers, the importation of African slaves to work plantations, and the discovery of rich silver deposits (in Peru in 1545 and in Mexico in 1546). The Spanish empire thrived and developed a distinctive colonial society that lasted until Spanish rule was overthrown by revolutionary nationalists in the early 19th century.

THE TREATY OF TORDESILLAS (1493–1529)

Spain and Portugal were very confident in their future pursuits of new lands. In 1493 the Spanish persuaded Pope Alexander VI to issue an edict that set a dividing line to avoid disputes over any new territories either country might discover. After Portuguese lobbying, the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494) pushed the line westwards, which placed Brazil within their sector. The Treaty of Zaragoza (1529) established an antimeridian demarcating Spanish and Portuguese territory in east Asia.

Zaragoza antimeridian, 1529
Moluccas
Madrid
Lisbon
Cape Verde Islands
Tordesillas meridian, 1494
Line of Pope Alexander VI, 1493

KEY
Portugal's zone of operation
Spain's zone of operation

"I and my companions suffer from a disease of the heart, which can only be cured with gold"

HERNÁN CORTÉS, CONQUEROR OF MEXICO, c. 1520

1 CORTÉS AND MEXICO 1519–24

The expedition of Hernán Cortés to Mexico in 1519 overwhelmed the rich Aztec empire within three years. The centralized nature of the empire meant that the Spanish acquired all of its resources and tribute-bearing provinces, providing them with a base from which to move southwards into the Yucatan Peninsula by 1524.

2 THE CONQUEST OF THE MAYA 1527–1697

The Maya of the Yucatan Peninsula were politically fragmented, and so the Spanish conquistadors had to reduce each Maya city-state individually. Francisco de Montejo began the process in 1527, but he only made significant progress in the 1540s. The last Maya city, Tayasal, finally fell to the Spanish in 1697.

ATLANTIC OCEAN

1509 San Juan
Puerto Rico
1496
Santo Domingo
Hispaniola
1513 Santiago de Cuba
1513 Baracoa
1510 Baracoa
1580 Rancho de Chua
1566 Santa Elena
1565 San Agustín
1566 Santa Lucía
1567 Tegasta
Bahamas
1514 Trinidad
1515 San Cristóbal
1513 Bayamo
Cuba
Greater Antilles
Jamaica
1510–23 Sevilla la Nueva
1567 Tocobaga
1567 San Antonio
1697 Spanish conquer Tayasal, the last Maya city-state
Yucatan Peninsula
Tayasal
MAYA
1542 Mérida
1519 Vera Cruz
1532 Puebla
Mexico (Tenochtitlán)
1528 Tampico
Gulf of Mexico
Mississippi
Savannah
Missouri
Arkansas
Red River
Brazos
Pecos
Rio Grande
Great Plains
Colorado
Gulf of California
1609 Santa Fe
1598 San Juan
1598 Soccorra
1659 El Paso del Norte
1646 Arizpe
1644 Ures
1666 San Ignacio de Otimuri
1632 Batopilas
1601 Guencamé
1660 Rosario
1564 San Juan Bautista
1531 San Miguel de Culiacán
1570 Valle San Bartolomé
1535 La Paz
1563 Durango
1530 Compostela
1531 Guadalajara
1592
1546 Zacatecas
1569 Mazapil
1532 San Luis Potosí
1577 Santiago de Saltillo
1577 Villa San Luis
AZTECS
NEW SPAIN
1535 Capital of Viceroyalty of New Spain
Mexico

3 PIZARRO, PERU, AND INCA RESISTANCE
1527–72

The Inca empire was already weak from civil war when Francisco Pizarro's small Spanish expedition arrived. He seized the Inca capital at Cuzco, effectively taking control of the whole empire. Unlike the Aztecs, the Inca chose a new ruler and resisted until the fall of their last stronghold, Vilcabamba, in 1572.

△ **Indigenous partners**
A Tlaxcalan painting shows Tlaxcalans, a group of indigenous peoples from an area in central Mexico, attacking the town of Michoacan in 1522. They are accompanied by Cristóbal de Olid, one of Cortés's key captains.

ATLANTIC OCEAN

1535 Recife
1549 Bahia
1516 Portuguese establish sugar plantation in Pernambuco area
Porto Seguro
São Francisco
1565 Rio de Janeiro
1531 São Vicente
1500 Probable landfall of Pedro Álvares Cabral
Porto Alegre
1630 Ciudad Real
Colónia do Sacramento
1536 Buenos Aires
1537 Asunción
Paraguay
BRAZIL
Amazon
1545 Silver deposits discovered
1573 Córdoba
1538 La Plata
1545 Potosí
1548 La Paz
RIO DE LA PLATA
1527 Spanish colony established
1561 Mendoza
1533 Cuzco
Andes
1537 Arica
1541 Santiago
Guipó Frontier
Indian Frontier
Islas Malvinas
Patagonia
CHILE
PERU
INCA
1540 Arequipa
1537 Huancavelica
1572
1537 Coquimbo
1541 Valparaíso
1550 Concepción
1552 Valdivia
1535 Lima
1537 Callao
Vilcabamba
1525 Trujillo
1532 Cajamarca
1526 Tumbes
1532 Paita
1534 Quito
1557 Cuenca
1538 Santa Fé de Bogotá
VENEZUELA
NEW GRANADA
1519 Panama
PACIFIC OCEAN

1539–72 Last capital of Inca empire after Spanish conquest of Cuzco
1541 Francisco Pizarro assassinated during civil war with followers of fellow conquistador Diego de Almagro
1543 Capital of Viceroyalty of Peru is established

6 SPANISH COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION
1535–96

In 1535, a viceroyalty of New Spain was set up – based in Mexico City – to govern the Spanish territories in Central America. A Viceroyalty of Peru was established in 1543, based in Lima. Spanish kings issued decrees regarding their governance, and by 1596 some 3,500 of these had accumulated.

★ New capital city

5 THE PORTUGUESE IN BRAZIL   1500–31

Although Pedro Álvares Cabral claimed Brazil for Portugal in 1500, there were no rich empires to conquer and few commodities that were worth trading. Initially the territory was leased to a consortium of Lisbon merchants, before fear of encroachment by the French in the 1520s led to the establishment of the first permanent settlement at São Vicente in 1531.

● Portuguese settlement with date of foundation

Portuguese territory before 1650

Portuguese route of expansion

4 SILVER FROM POTOSÍ   1545–c. 1600

The new American colonies were a drain on Spain, but the discovery of rich silver deposits at Potosí in Peru in 1545 and at Zacatecas in Mexico in 1546 revolutionized Spanish colonial economics. Fleets crossed the Atlantic regularly back to Spain, carrying two-fifths of the silver mined that was due to the Spanish crown, funding wars and other ventures.

⚒ Silver mine

NEW WORLD EXPEDITIONS
Spanish expeditions spread Spanish rule throughout the New World. Only in Brazil did they face competition from the Portuguese and Dutch, and in North America from the English and French.

KEY

Spanish territory before 1650

Spanish route of expansion

● Spanish settlement with date of foundation

⌗ Spanish fort

TIMELINE
1
2
3
4
5
6
1450   1500   1550   1600   1650   1700

THE SPANISH IN AMERICA

Within 25 years of their arrival, the Spanish ruled a vast colonial empire in the Americas. Their astonishing success was enabled by exploitation of the political weakness of indigenous empires, superior weaponry, and the diseases that came in their wake.

△ **Soldier-explorer**
Hernán Cortés had a reputation for ruthlessness. After founding the city of Vera Cruz, he burned his ships to prevent his forces from turning back.

The principal indigenous empires of the Americas, the Aztec of Mexico and the Inca of Peru (see pp.144–45), were highly centralized and dependent on rigid hierarchies and a deeply ingrained respect for their rulers – the Aztec *Tlatoani* in the capital Tenochtitlán and the Sapa Inca in Cuzco. These empires expanded rapidly by conquest in the 14th and 15th centuries, and their hold on recently conquered or peripheral peoples was fragile. When the Spanish arrived, in Mexico in 1519 and in Peru in 1531, the Aztec and Inca leaders underestimated the threat they posed.

In Mexico, the Spanish formed alliances with dissenting groups, and in Peru, rapid and ruthless action led to the capture of the Sapa Inca, Atahualpa. Leaderless, the indigenous empires rapidly collapsed – a process accelerated by epidemics of diseases brought by the Spanish to which native Americans had no resistance. Once embedded, the invaders – known as conquistadors – proved impossible to remove. A constant supply of ambitious, yet landless, men with military training from the Iberian Peninsula allowed the Spanish to absorb the Maya of Central America in the 1540s–50s, push into southern north America, and extend into Amazonian South America. Financed by silver, which was discovered in Peru in 1545, and ruled through viceroys, the Spanish empire in South America would last for over 250 years (see pp.152–53).

CORTÉS'S CAMPAIGNS

Nov 1519 Cortés first enters Tenochtitlán

Dec 1520–Aug 1521 Cortés returns to Tenochtitlán and finally completes recapture

Spanish conquistador Hernán Cortés and his force of 600 men entered the Aztec capital Tenochtitlán in November 1519 and took the *Tlatoani* Moctezuma captive. Although the Spanish were expelled with heavy losses in June 1520, they returned and took the city after an eight-month siege, putting an end to the Aztec empire.

May 1520 Cortés defeats fellow conquistador Panfilo de Narvaez

March 1519 Cempoala

Yucatan

Feb 1519 Leaves Cuba

Tenochtitlán

Vera Cruz   Tabasco

AZTEC   MAYA

KEY
→ Cortés's route

Life after conquest
A mural by Mexican artist Diego Rivera depicts the harsh realities of Spanish rule, with indigenous people labouring under armed conquistadors and friars. The replacement of traditional beliefs by Christianity destroyed the indigenous social fabric.

THE COLONIZATION OF NORTH AMERICA

The Europeans first successfully colonized North America in the early 17th century. While the French and Spanish colonies depended on their crowns for orders, the English colonies – founded by a mix of religious dissidents, merchant companies, and royal initiatives – operated at arm's length, gaining an advantage over their rivals.

In 1585, Sir Walter Raleigh attempted to found Roanoke as the first English colony of the New World, but the colony failed. The first successful English colony was Jamestown, founded in 1607. A century later, around 200,000 British migrants had arrived and the number of British colonies in America had grown to 13. European slave traders also brought close to 175,000 African slaves to America to work on the plantations.

French settlers laid down roots in Quebec, Canada, in 1608, and started populating the St Lawrence River basin and the accessible inland areas. They established forts as far south as New

Orleans, stoking a rivalry with the British that erupted in war in 1689. Meanwhile, the Spanish were unable to develop their fledgling colony in Florida, or to capitalize on their explorations of the American southwest, which had begun in the 1520s. Growing European presence disturbed local power structures, and Native American groups eventually fought to reclaim their lost land, beginning a phase of conflict that would last for almost three centuries. By the mid-1700s, tension was also increasing between the colonists themselves and their overseas rulers in Britain.

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

British colonists founded the Thirteen Colonies along North America's eastern coastline between 1607 (Virginia) and 1733 (Georgia). By 1750, the colonies had developed into discrete political entities and were often grouped into one of four regions, according to their geographical features and the predominant type of trade they engaged in.

KEY
- New England colonies
- Middle colonies
- Chesapeake colonies
- Southern colonies
- Colony border

Claimed by New York and New Hampshire

MAINE (part of Massachusetts)
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
RHODE ISLAND
CONNECTICUT
NEW YORK
NEW JERSEY
PENNSYLVANIA
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA

ATLANTIC OCEAN
PROVINCE OF QUEBEC
Appalachian Mountains
INDIAN TERRITORY

NORTH AMERICA COLONIZED, 1750

By 1750, the French and Spanish empires in North America were territorially larger than that of the British, but were thinly populated, with a limited economic presence. In contrast, migrants were pouring into the British colonies, drawn by their rapidly growing economies.

KEY
- English, Scottish, or British territory, settlement
- Spanish territory, settlement
- French territory, settlement

TIMELINE
1 2 3 4 5 6
1500 1600 1700 1800

1 THE SPANISH IN FLORIDA 1565–1718

Spain were first to establish a European settlement in North America – St Augustine, Florida, in 1565. Their initial colonial efforts had been focused on Mexico and Peru, where there was gold to acquire and empires to conquer. The Spanish were penned into Florida by the growth of English colonies to the north and the arrival of the French in New Orleans to the west in 1718.

→ Spanish migration route

2 NEW FRANCE 1605–1718

The French established a settlement at Port Royal in 1605 and then at Quebec (within the Canada colony – territory along the St Lawrence River) in 1608. When Quebec fell to the English in 1629–32, Scots founded the colony of Nova Scotia. The French had also claimed land along the Mississippi and named it Louisiana. France's North American colonies were known, as a whole, as New France.

→ French migration route

3 THE ARRIVAL OF THE ENGLISH 1620

In December 1620, nearly 100 English settlers, aboard the *Mayflower*, reached American shores seeking religious freedom and founded a settlement in Plymouth. Many perished during a difficult first winter, but the settlement survived with help from the Mashpee Wampanoag tribe. Over subsequent decades, more migrants arrived from Britain to colonize the eastern seaboard.

═ English or British migration route

Hudson Bay
Newfoundland
Labrador

1713 Ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht

1717 Fort Churchill
1682 York Factory
Churchill River

1600–1700 French migrants arrive at a rate of 100 per year

6 EUROPEAN–NATIVE AMERICAN CONFLICTS 1620–78

Rising tensions between the Europeans and local indigenous groups inevitably exploded into fighting, beginning with the First Anglo-Powhatan War around Jamestown in 1620. The most grave one was King Philip's War, fought from 1675 to 1678 between the Wampanoag and the English, which resulted in the burning of many towns and the death of about 3,000 Native Americans.

↯ Conflict with Native Americans

1600–1700 British migrants arrive at a rate of 2,000 per year

5 COLONIES IN THE CARIBBEAN 1624–70

Following in the footsteps of Spain – France and England both began to claim territory in the Caribbean islands. Both nations established settlements on the Island of St Kitt's in 1624, and the English acquired Barbados in 1627. By the 1660s, around 40,000 European settlers had arrived in the Caribbean, many as indentured servants. However, by then, the slave trade was under way as thousands of Africans were shipped over to work on the new sugar plantations.

→ Route of slave trade

1587 First English colony founded by Walter Raleigh, but disappears by 1590

1664 Dutch colony of New Amsterdam captured by the English

1691 Plymouth absorbed into Massachusetts Bay colony

1605 Port Royal

1600–1700 About 1,500 slaves are imported per year to British territories

1600–1700 Spanish migrants arrive at a rate of 2,500 migrants per year

1508 San Juan — *Puerto Rico*

1496 Santo Domingo

1659 French colony established

1635 *Martinique*

1627 *Barbados*

1635 *Guadeloupe*

1664 St Lucia

1650 *Grenada*

1592 *Trinidad*

1632 *Antigua*

Danish *Virgin Islands*

West Indies

Hispaniola

SAINT-DOMINGUE

1567 Caracas

V I C E R O Y A L T Y   O F   N E W   G R A N A D A

Curaçao *Bonaire*

Aruba

1532 Cartagena

Caribbean Sea

1509–1655 *Jamaica*

1655

1665 Captured by Britain from Spain

1519 Panama

1511 Havana

Cuba

1565 St Augustine

1525 Trujillo

MOSQUITO COAST

BELIZE

Gulf of Honduras

1542 Mérida

Yucatan Peninsula

1519 Veracruz

Gulf of Mexico

V I C E R O Y A L T Y   O F   N E W   S P A I N

1521 Mexico City

1535 The Spanish establish the capital of the Viceroyalty of New Spain at Mexico City, during their conquest of South America (see pp.152–53).

Rio Grande

Bahamas

1629

1672

1733 Charleston

1733 Richmond

1607 Jamestown

Roanoke Island

1682 Philadelphia

1733 Savannah

1718 New Orleans

4 TRADING COLONIES 1607–1776

British trading colonies began profiting after 1617 once they ventured into tobacco farming. They also found viable commodities in the exploitation of furs and fisheries in the north. The Crown sought to control this trade and passed a series of laws forbidding the American colonies from trading with anyone but England. However, the laws inflamed the hostilities of American colonists and eventually sowed the seeds of revolution (see pp.190–91).

🍂 Tobacco

🐟 Fisheries

● Fur trading post

⋯ Fur trade routes

Gulf of St Lawrence

Cape Breton Island

ACADIA

NOVA SCOTIA

NEW ENGLAND

1630 Boston

1620 Plymouth

Newport

1608 Quebec

1642 Montreal

Lake Champlain

Lake Ontario

1664 Albany

New York

1608 Founded by French; occupied by English Canada Company in 1629–32; attacked again by English in 1690

C A N A D A

N E W   F R A N C E

Ottawa River

Lake Huron

Lake Superior

Lake Michigan

Lake Erie

1701 Detroit

PAYS DEN HAUT

1700 Michilimackinac

1697 Fort

1717 Fort Kaministiquia

Lake Winnipeg

1670 Fort Albany

1671 Moose Factory

1668 Rupert House

I N D I A N   T E R R I T O R Y

The Illinois Post

L O U I S I A N A

Mississippi River

Missouri River

Ohio River

Arkansas River

G r e a t   P l a i n s

R o c k y   M o u n t a i n s

1609 Santa Fe

Colorado River

Tampico

▽ **The Pilgrim Fathers**
This hand-coloured woodcut shows the arrival of the settlers of Plymouth, Massachusetts, in 1620. The term "Pilgrim Fathers" only entered into common usage two centuries later.

THE AGE OF EXCHANGE

Human migration across the globe and the resulting exchange of food crops and animals started in Neolithic times, but it was not until 1492, when European explorers reached the New World (the Americas), that a biological exchange had such dramatic effects.

The domestication of crops occurred independently in various areas around the world between 11,000 BCE and 6000 BCE. Among the "founder crops" that formed the cornerstone of early agriculture, wheat was the first to be cultivated on a large scale in western Asia in about 9500 BCE, and rice emerged as a staple crop in east Asia 1,500 years later. Farming communities in the Americas, meanwhile, domesticated an entirely different set of crops owing to their complete isolation from the Old World (Africa, Asia, and Europe).

When European explorers reached the Americas in the late 15th century (see pp.150–51), the Old and New Worlds began to embark on an unprecedented level of biological exchange, in what would become known as the Columbian Exchange. Old World staples such as wheat, rice, pigs, cattle, and horses were introduced to the Americas, while New World foods such as tomatoes, maize, potato, and cassava were exported to the rest of the globe. Tobacco and the furs of animals native to the Americas became highly profitable commodities that allowed settlers to finance their new colonies. However, not all aspects of the Columbian Exchange were positive. Disease travelled between the two worlds, with syphilis crossing into Europe, and Old World diseases such as smallpox, measles, and influenza spreading to the Americas, decimating the native population. Consequently, European plantation owners replaced their depleted Native American workforce with slaves procured from Africa – leading to the displacement and deaths of tens of millions.

THE HORSE
THE IMPACT OF THE HORSE ON NATIVE AMERICAN TRIBES

Horses were re-introduced to the Americas in the late 15th century when Christopher Columbus brought a herd of 25 animals with him on his second voyage to the continent. By 1750, the animal had dispersed into an area of 10 states known as the Great Plains, and revolutionized the lives of the people living there. Almost overnight, Plains Indians found a superior animal with which to hunt their main food staple, buffalo.

Native American painting

4 TOBACCO 1528–1700

Traditionally used by Native Americans in spiritual ceremonies, tobacco was taken back to Europe by Spanish explorers in 1528. There, the addictive substance became popular, and colonists used this to fund further expansion in North America. From about 1610, British colonists established tobacco plantations along North America's eastern coast. From the early 1700s, most tobacco plantations maximized their profit by utilizing African slaves.

🌿 Tobacco

1660 Chesapeake Bay area of Virginia exports $35 million worth of tobacco annually across the world

15th–16th century Explorers bring a number of domesticated animals with them, including horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs

1492 Within 150 years of Columbus landing in the Caribbean, around 80–95% of the native population in the Americas perish from new diseases first carried by Columbus's crew

5 SUGAR CANE 1492–1650

Sugar cane was brought to the New World from Southeast Asia via Europe. The labour-intensive crop thrived in Brazil and the Caribbean, and by the 1560s Brazil was the main exporter of sugar to Europe. With local populations reduced by disease, Spanish and Portuguese colonizers transported around 800,000 African slaves to work on sugar plantations by 1650.

🌱 Sugar cane

6 NEW DISEASES REACH AMERICA 1492–1600

Old World diseases including diphtheria, measles, influenza, and smallpox were borne to the Americas by infected Spanish colonists. Between 1520 and 1600, a series of epidemics in both Mexico and Peru killed 90 per cent of the native population. In Europe, syphilis is thought to have been carried back from the New World by Columbus's crew.

✳ Old World diseases

✳ New World diseases

PACIFIC OCEAN

NORTH AMERICA
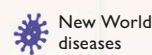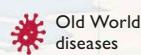
SOUTH AMERICA

3 POTATOES 1570–1774

Indigenous to South America, the potato was first brought to Europe in the late 16th century. The potato was slow to spread across Europe, as many were suspicious of the new plant, but eventually it was accepted. It played a key role in decreasing outbreaks of food shortages; King Frederick II of Prussia, for example, ordered large-scale potato cultivation following a famine in 1774.

🥔 Potatoes

2 HORSES 1493–1800

First domesticated in central Asia between 4000 BCE and 2000 BCE, horses later spread to Europe. They were re-introduced to the Americas in the late 15th century, although they did not become widespread until the 17th century. The Plains Indians were among the first people to obtain and use horses. Colonists relied on the animal's mobility in wars against local populations.

🐴 Horses

1 RICE 1500–1690

Rice was introduced to Europe between the 8th and 10th century, having first been domesticated in Asia approximately 10,000 years ago. It was also separately domesticated in Africa around 3,000 years ago. Rice from both continents was taken to the Americas by European explorers from the early 16th century, and the crop reached South Carolina, North America, by 1690.

🌾 Rice

1570 Traders bring potatoes from South America to Spain, where they become a staple ingredient. Potatoes are also independently brought across to England between 1585–90

EUROPE

ASIA

PACIFIC OCEAN

1495 The first recorded outbreak of syphilis occurs among French troops besieging Naples

1521 Spanish explorers bring foods such as tomatoes and maize from Central America with them when they colonize the Philippines. From here, these New World foods spread throughout Southeast Asia

1500s Portuguese traders introduce cassava to Africa from Brazil

AFRICA

1550s Tobacco pipes are made locally as tobacco use becomes widespread throughout eastern Asia

INDIAN OCEAN

1526 Portuguese traders transport slaves from Africa to Brazil to work on plantations. The slave trade quickly becomes a key part of the Columbian Exchange

ATLANTIC OCEAN

△ **Mexico smallpox epidemic**
This 16th-century illustration by Spanish missionary Bernardino de Sahagún shows a medicine man ministering to an Aztec person with smallpox – a disease contracted from Spanish colonizers.

BIOLOGICAL EXCHANGES ACROSS THE WORLD
With the advent of long-distance navigation in the 15th century, explorers could travel more of the world than ever before, bringing with them new crops, animals, diseases, and ideas.

KEY
ORIGINAL LOCATION AND DIRECTION OF MOVEMENT

🟩➡ Europe	🟦➡ The Americas
🟧➡ Asia	➡ Africa

END LOCATION OF CROPS

🍌 Bananas   🌰 Cassava   🍅 Tomatoes

🌿 Maize   🌾 Wheat

SLAVE TRADE

Slaves   ▪▪▪➡ Slave trade route   ▨ Slave trading regions

TIMELINE

1500   1600   1700   1800
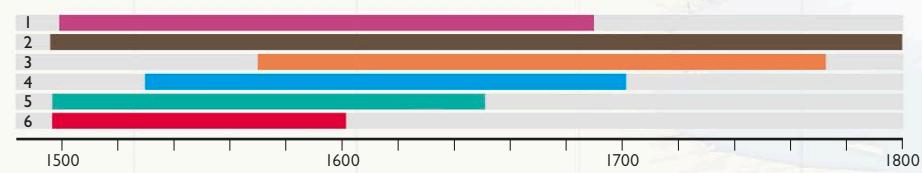
△ **Daring satire**
Written in 1509 by Desiderius Erasmus, *In Praise of Folly* pokes fun at some of the excesses of the contemporary Catholic Church and ends with a call for a return to a purer sense of Christian morality.

THE RENAISSANCE

In 15th-century Italy, a revival of interest in classical learning and secular studies, along with a flowering of artistic production, gave rise to the Renaissance (meaning "rebirth"). The movement soon spread to northern Europe, reshaping the continent's cultural landscape.

Knowledge of classical authors had declined in Europe after the fall of the Roman Empire in the 5th century, although Latin and Greek texts, particularly those dealing with law and the philosophy of Aristotle, had been rediscovered in the 11th and 12th centuries. This renewal, however, was based within the church and focussed on a narrow curriculum designed for the education of clerics. Fourteenth-century Italy was made up of dozens of independent city-states. Most of these, such as Florence and Venice, were republics governed by their more prosperous citizens, made wealthy by the late medieval growth in trade and industry. The growth in secular wealth, uncontrolled by monarchs or the Catholic Church, slowly created a class of patrons whose interests inclined more towards the promotion of their own cities than praise for the Church.

Rediscovering the past
An awareness of past glories led to a thirst to recover the knowledge that had made the Roman Empire great. Scholars such as Poggio Bracciolini scoured the archives of monasteries looking for new texts – a search that yielded eight new speeches by the orator Cicero and a manuscript of the *Ten Books on Architecture* by Marcus Vitruvius Pollio. Although he served as papal secretary, Bracciolini formed part of a new humanist movement, which placed human nature, and not just God, at the centre of its studies, encouraging a wider approach to education.

Artistic renaissance
Accompanying humanism was a new interest in the production of literature in vernacular languages, rather than Latin, which had been the medium of almost all

▷ **Patronage in art**
Florentine artist Sandro Botticelli painted *Primavera* (meaning "Spring") for a member of Florence's ruling Medici family. With its portrayal of Venus, the Three Graces, and Mercury, the painting is typical of the works of art commissioned by rich Italian patrons during the Renaissance.

EUROPE'S REBIRTH
Although there had been periods of cultural renewal in the 9th and 12th centuries, the Renaissance, which began in Italy in the 15th century, was remarkable in the breadth of artistic, literary, educational, and political endeavours it touched. Its first stirrings occurred in the 14th century with paintings by artists such as Titian and Giotto di Bondone, and it continued to exert influence well into the 17th century. However, the key events of this movement took place in the century-and-a-quarter from around 1400.

1345 Italian writer Francesco Petrarca (or Petrarch) rediscovers some letters written by the Roman politician and writer Cicero; their publication is credited with helping to initiate the Renaissance

1401 Florentine artist Lorenzo Ghiberti is commissioned to cast new doors for Florence cathedral's baptistry

LITERATURE

ARCHITECTURE

EDUCATION

PAINTING AND SCULPTURE

1360   1380   1400

1348–53 Giovanni Bocaccio writes *The Decameron*, one of the greatest early works of Italian prose

1417 Bracciolini unearths a manuscript of *De Rerum Natura* ("Of the Nature of Things") by ancient Roman philosopher Lucretius

◁ **A revolution in anatomy**
The central illustration of Flemish anatomist Andreas Vesalius's *Epitome*, which was published in 1543, shows human anatomy in great detail. Vesalius revolutionized the study of the human body.

> *"The first thing I shall do as soon as the money arrives … buy some Greek authors; after that, I shall buy clothes."*

DESIDERIUS ERASMUS, DUTCH SCHOLAR, 1498

scholarship for centuries. The Florentine poet Dante Alighieri was a pioneer in this; his *Divine Comedy* (1320) virtually invented the Italian literary language. By the 16th century, vernacular literatures had been firmly established in many countries, producing works as vibrant as the plays of William Shakespeare in England and the philosophy of Michel de Montaigne in France. The Dutch scholar Desiderius Erasmus pioneered a critical approach to historical analysis and penned *In Praise of Folly*, a satirical attack on religious superstition. An increase in literacy among the affluent and the invention of printing in the 1450s all helped loosen the hold of the Church – whose near-monopoly on the dissemination of manuscripts and on education provided in Europe's universities and theological schools had done much to stifle dissent. This in turn paved the way for the Reformation – a movement that questioned the excesses of the Church as well as Catholic doctrine. By the 15th century, the wealthy patrons of the Italian city-states had begun to enrich their home towns with tangible signs of the new learning.

Italian artists had been experimenting since the early 14th century with new techniques, seeking to endow their work with a fresher and more realistic approach. Florentine artists such as Masaccio, who developed expertise in portraying nature and a depth in landscapes, were followed by generations of painters such as Sandro Botticelli, Leonardo da Vinci, and Raphael, whose works are considered among the greatest masterpieces in artistic history.

Sculptors produced pieces of public art, such as the statue of David created by Michelangelo, which was placed outside the seat of Florence's city government. Architects, too, advanced their crafts, most notably Filippo Brunelleschi, who designed the *Duomo* at Florence, the largest masonry dome ever constructed.

Culmination of the movement

The movement spread rapidly, as Flemish masters such as Jan van Eyck and German scholars like Rudolph Agricola produced works inspired by advances in Italy. Its influence also extended to political thought as Florentine historian Niccolò Machiavelli wrote a series of works examining how rulers should best govern. By the latter part of the 16th century, Italy's wealth and power had declined in comparison to other rising states such as France, England, and the Dutch Republic, and as its status as a cultural power-house waned, the Renaissance drew to a close.

▽ **Architectural feat**
Florence's cathedral, the *Duomo*, started in 1296, was still incomplete in 1418 when Filippo Brunelleschi won the competition to design its dome. He used innovative techniques to spread the dome's weight across the vast span.

1423 Vittorino da Feltre sets up a Latin grammar school in Mantua

1440 Donatello is commissioned to make a statue of the biblical hero David for the Palazzo Medici

1455 Publication of the *Gutenberg Bible*, the first printed book in Europe

1480 Italian painter Piero della Francesca writes a treatise on visual perspective

1502 Portuguese playwright Gil Vicente puts on the first performances of vernacular plays in verse form

1509–11 Raphael produces frescoes for the Vatican Stanza della Segnatura

c.1510 Donato Bramante builds the Tempietto at Rome, based on classical temple architecture

1519 Francis I of France orders the construction of the Château de Chambord in Renaissance style

1440   1460   1480   1500   1520   1540

1436 Brunelleschi completes the dome of Florence cathedral

1453 With the fall of Constantinople, many Byzantine scholars come to Italy, bringing with them Greek manuscripts previously unknown in the West

1495 Aldine Press in Venice publishes the complete works of Aristotle in Greek

1517 Niccolò Machiavelli publishes his *Discourses on Livy*, an examination of political power in a republic

1532 French author François Rabelais writes the comic novels *La vie de Gargantua et de Pantagruel* ("The Life of Gargantua and Pantagruel")

THE COLONIAL SPICE TRADE

The discovery of a sea route from Europe to India in the late 15th century resulted in several European countries swiftly establishing fortified trading posts along the coast of sub-Saharan Africa and in south Asia. In doing so, these countries gained access to sources of spices – a product highly prized in European markets.

During medieval times, Asian spices such as nutmeg, cloves, and pepper reached Europe via overland routes, and in doing so passed through the hands of many traders, which accounted for their high price. The aim of European exploration around the coastline of Africa was to find a route that would bypass Muslim-controlled areas of Asia and secure direct access to the sources of these spices.

Vasco Da Gama's pioneering voyage around Africa in 1497–98 led to Portuguese fleets establishing posts in Mozambique (1505), Goa (1510), Hormuz (1515), and Malacca (1511). Spain, by contrast, largely confined itself to outposts in the Philippines (1565). Under Afonso de Albuquerque's governorship (1509–15), Portugal took control of trade in the Indian Ocean, but was superseded in 1609 by the Dutch, who established posts in the Moluccas (later known as the Spice Islands).

Britain, too, was attracted by the lucrative returns promised by the spice trade, but, unable to break the Dutch monopoly in the Moluccas, turned its attention to India. From 1613, Britain's commercial arm, the British East India Company, set up a series of trading posts and factories in India and gained a foothold that would form the nucleus of its empire in the 18th century.

> "Nutmeges be good for them which have cold in their head and doth comforte the syght and the brain."
>
> ANDREW BORDE, FROM *DYETARY OF HELTH*, 1452

AMBOINA MASSACRE 1623
DUTCH MEASURES TO PROTECT THE SPICE TRADE

By 1621, the Dutch East India Company (VOC) fully controlled the islands in the Moluccas, gaining a monopoly on spices, such as nutmeg, mace, cloves, and pepper, that were cultivated exclusively in the region. In February 1623, the Dutch company allegedly foiled a terrorist plot by British merchants to infiltrate Amboina Island (now Ambon) and sieze the fort. The Dutch proceeded to arrest the guilty party (which also included Japanese and Portuguese personnel employed by the VOC), of which 20 were subsequently tortured and executed for acts against Dutch sovereignty.

1 EUROPEAN COLONIES IN AFRICA 1482–1721

Permanent European presence in sub-Saharan Africa began in 1482 with the Portuguese erecting the Elmina Castle (later a British possession) in modern Ghana, initially for trading gold. Further outposts were added at Kilwa, Mozambique, and Luanda, Angola. As focus shifted to the slave trade, the British, French, and Dutch began setting up posts along the African coastline. The Dutch took control of the Portuguese slave trading port at Delagoa Bay from 1721–30.

▦ Area of European influence

1482 Portugal establishes fort; taken over by the Dutch in 1637

1641–48 Dutch occupy the island before it returns to the Portuguese

1448 Explorer Diogo Cão claims Angola for the Portuguese

7 DUTCH VOC EXERT CONTROL 1602–1796

Founded in 1602, the Dutch East India Company, or VOC (*Verenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie*), financed trading operations throughout Southeast Asia. The VOC reached the Spice Islands in 1602 and dominated the spice trade for the next two centuries, stamping out periodic threats posed by the Portuguese, British, and native Bandanese. The company was nationalized in 1796.

━▶ Dutch trade routes   ◉ Main base of VOC

Map labels: ATLANTIC OCEAN, NETHERLANDS, BRITAIN, London, Paris, FRANCE, EUROPE, VENETIAN REPUBLIC, Danube, Azores, PORTUGAL, Lisbon, SPAIN, Madrid, Ceuta, Melilla, Oran, OTTOMAN, Madeira, MOROCCO, Canary Islands, Sahara, Arguin Island, Cape Verde Islands, St Louis, Gorée, Albreda, FUTA TORO, Fort James Island, Cacheu, Elmina, GOLD COAST, Niger, Assinie, Fernando Po, São Tomé, Congo, ANGOLA, LOZI, Kalahari Desert, St Helena, Cape Town, Cape of Good Hope, DUTCH SOUTH AFRICA

EUROPEAN TRADING COLONIES IN AFRICA AND ASIA 1700

Throughout the 15th century, several European nations vied with one another to control the spice trade in southern Asia. By 1700, these powers had set up fortified trading posts in the region to secure their presence.

KEY

■▲ British colonies and trading posts/forts

■▲ French colonies and trading posts/forts

■▲ Dutch colonies and trading posts/forts

■▲ Portuguese colonies and trading posts/forts

■▲ Spanish colonies and trading posts/forts

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

1400   1500   1600   1700   1800
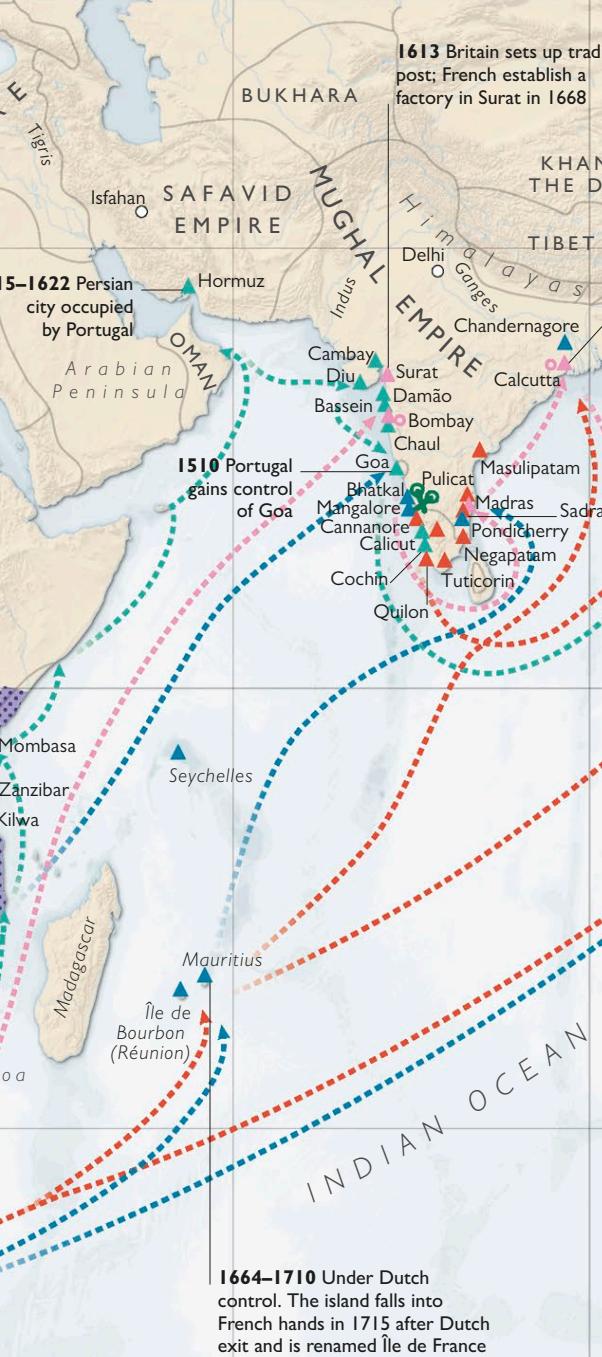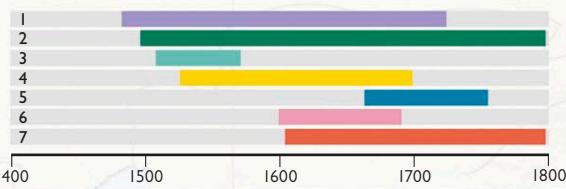
2 THE SPICE ISLANDS 1499–1796

Many of the spices sought by Europeans were found only in the Moluccas. After the discovery of the maritime route to India in 1499, European traders flocked to the islands determined to gain access to spices, the most popular of which could yield a 1,000 per cent profit margin in European markets. The Dutch ousted the Portuguese to gain control of the spice trade in the Moluccas in 1602.

❦ Source of spices

3 THE PORTUGUESE IN EAST ASIA 1511–75

The Portuguese trading empire asserted its dominance in Asia with the seizure of Goa in India in 1510. Two years later, explorer Francisco Serrão reached Hitu island in the Moluccas. He formed ties with the local rulers, allowing the Portuguese to erect posts at Ternate and Amboina. Portugal effectively controlled the Spice Islands until the Dutch arrived in the early 1600s.

➝ Portuguese trade routes

4 THE SPANISH IN THE PACIFIC 1529–1700

The 1529 Treaty of Zaragoza resulted in Spain ceding control of the Spice Islands to Portugal. The Spanish, however, landed in the Philippines in 1565 and by 1571 took control of the Manila region. From 1572, a galleon sailed annually from Manila, carrying silver, which was exchanged with Chinese traders for silk and porcelain.

➝ Spanish trade routes

1613 Britain sets up trading post; French establish a factory in Surat in 1668

1690 Britain establishes trading post in Bengal capital

1515–1622 Persian city occupied by Portugal

1557 Portuguese set up trading base

1571 Spain builds outpost; within a century, Manila becomes home to 150 Spanish households

1510 Portugal gains control of Goa

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

Nerchinsk

Gobi

Manchuria

Amur

BUKHARA

KHANATE OF THE DZUNGARS

QING EMPIRE

KOREA

JAPAN

Kyoto

Nagasaki

Beijing

Yellow River

Yangtze

Formosa

Macao

Manila

PHILIPPINES

EMPIRE

Tigris

Nile

Isfahan

SAFAVID EMPIRE

Hormuz

OMAN

Arabian Peninsula

MUGHAL EMPIRE

Indus

Himalayas

Delhi

Ganges

TIBET

Chandernagore

Cambay
Diu
Bassein
Surat
Damão
Bombay
Chaul
Goa
Bhatkal
Mangalore
Cannanore
Calicut
Cochin
Quilon

Calcutta

Pulicat
Masulipatam
Madras
Sadras
Pondicherry
Negapatam
Tuticorin

BURMA

SIAM

LAOS

Mekong

Malacca

MALAY STATES

Sumatra

Benkulen
Silebar

Batavia

Java

KUTEI

Ternate

Moluccas

Amboina

East Indies

PORTUGUESE TIMOR

Mombasa
Zanzibar
Kilwa

Seychelles

Madagascar

Mauritius

Île de Bourbon (Réunion)

Delagoa Bay

INDIAN OCEAN

1619 Dutch destroy the town of Jakarta and build the VOC headquarters under the name Batavia

△ **The arms of the VOC**
The shield bears the arms of the Dutch East India Company, ornamented with the Roman god Neptune and a mermaid. It was created in c. 1651.

1664–1710 Under Dutch control. The island falls into French hands in 1715 after Dutch exit and is renamed Île de France

6 THE BRITISH IN INDIA 1600–90

Founded in 1600, the investor-funded British East India Company allowed Britain to open its first trading post in India at Surat (1613). With the acquisition of Calcutta, Britain ousted its French rival and secured British presence in Bengal. This formed the main bridgehead for its expansion throughout India in the 18th century.

➝ British trade routes   ⦿ Main bases of the British East India Company

5 FRENCH INDIA 1664–1756

In 1664, the French East India Company was established to compete for trade in Southeast Asia. Colonies were established in India, most notably in Chandernagore (1673) and Pondicherry (1674). Posts were also erected in the Indian Ocean, on the Île de Bourbon (Réunion, 1664), Île de France (Mauritius, 1715), and the Seychelles (1756).

➝ French trade routes

PRINTING

The invention of the printing press revolutionized the spread of knowledge. Books that previously had to be laboriously copied by hand could now be printed in the hundreds or thousands for a wider market.

△ **Antique print**
This is a page from the *Diamond Sutra*, the world's oldest dated printed book. It was produced in 868 CE using wood-block printing techniques, and rediscovered in western China in 1907.

Printing was not a new technology. Engraved wooden blocks had been used for printing in east Asia since the 2nd century CE. In 1041, Chinese inventor Bi Sheng came up with movable type, which meant new pages could be composed rapidly without having to engrave a new block each time. However, the key innovation in printing came in 1439 with German printer Johannes Gutenberg's printing press. By using a long lever and a screw to press down on paper laid over a wooden tray in which inked type was arrayed, it could accurately create printed sheets at a rate of more than 200 per hour.

Reaching a wider audience

Gutenberg set up his printing press in Mainz, Germany, in the early 1440s, and by 1455 he had produced his *Forty-two-line Bible*, one of the most famous works ever printed. From here the technique spread quickly, and by 1500 around 60 German towns had printing presses. Printing reached Italy in 1465, France in 1470, and England by 1476. It made larger editions of books practical, helping the new humanist ideas that were emerging as part of the Renaissance (see pp.104–05) to spread more rapidly. Cheaper in the long run to produce than handwritten manuscripts, these editions were affordable to wider social groups and helped advance literacy. Although Gutenberg could not have known it, he had unleashed a knowledge revolution.
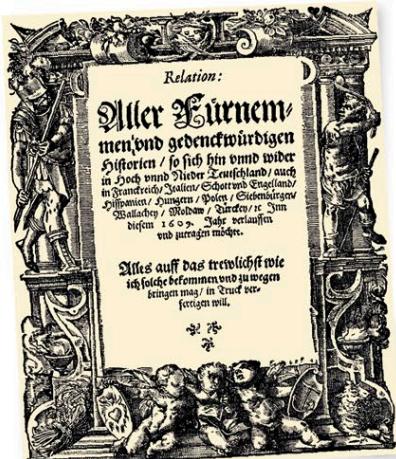
◁ **World's first newspaper**
Relation Aller Fürnemmen und Gedenckwürdigen Historien (Collection of all Distinguished and Commemorable News), probably the world's first newspaper, was printed by German publisher Johannes Carolus at Strasbourg in 1605.

"The present book of the Psalms … has been fashioned by an ingenious invention of printing …"

FROM THE PSALMS PRINTED BY FUST AND SCHOEFFER, 1457
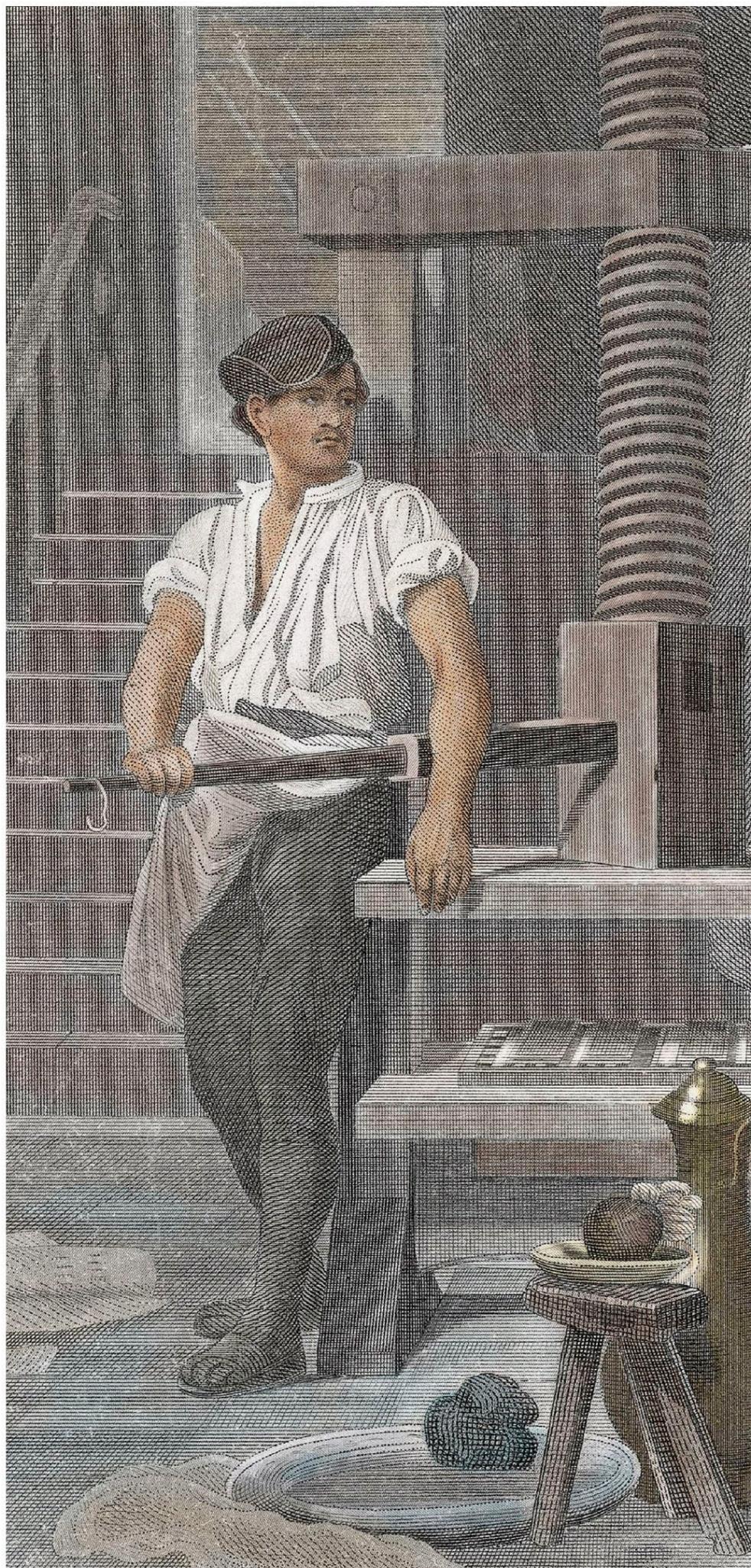
THE REFORMATION

Long-standing dissatisfaction at the conduct of the Roman Catholic Church led to a schism in 1517, causing Reformed (or Protestant) churches to spring up throughout Europe. A period of hostility followed as Catholic states tried to reassert Papal authority.

In 1517, Martin Luther, a German Augustinian monk, composed his *Ninety-five Theses* – a tract condemning many of the practices of the Roman Catholic Church. The Church's hostile reaction forced Luther to reject the Catholic hierarchy and adopt a new theological position. He attracted large numbers of supporters, who formed the nucleus of the Reformed churches which proliferated throughout the German states. Once German princes began supporting this movement, a series of religious wars broke out. Amid the hostilities, more radical Protestant reformers appeared, such as Calvin in Switzerland, while

> *"A simple layman armed with Scripture is greater than the mightiest pope without it."*
>
> MARTIN LUTHER, 1519

the English and Swedish kings either rejected papal authority or even adopted Protestantism, increasing the geographical spread of Reformed churches. In 1542, the Catholic church council at Trent strengthened the education of the clergy and clamped down on its more dubious practices, and in 1555 a peace agreement was brokered at Augsburg, granting limited religious tolerance to Protestants. The peace, however, was brittle at best, and renewed religious conflict broke out in France in the 1560s and simmered elsewhere, too, before exploding anew in 1618 in the Thirty Years' War (see pp.168–69).

ST BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY MASSACRE
A BLOODY EPISODE IN FRENCH HISTORY

On 24th August 1572, on the instruction of the Queen Mother, King Charles IX of France ordered the assassination of Huguenot Protestant leaders in Paris. Among those marked for death was the Huguenot leader, Admiral Gaspard de Coligny, who was brutally beaten and thrown out of his bedroom window just before dawn. The act set off a wave of mass fanaticism as Catholic mobs took to the streets and massacred 10,000–20,000 Protestants throughout the country.

RELIGIOUS MAP OF EUROPE

A powerful force of revivalism swept across Europe following Martin Luther's attack on the Roman Catholic Church in 1517. Secular rulers in Germany and Scandinavia established Protestantism along Lutheran lines. Calvinism became dominant in the Netherlands, Scotland, and Eastern Europe, while Anglicanism emerged in England.

KEY

- Catholic majority areas, 1555
- Protestant majority areas, 1555
- Frontier of the Roman Holy Empire, c. 1570

TIMELINE

1500 — 1520 — 1540 — 1560 — 1580 — 1600
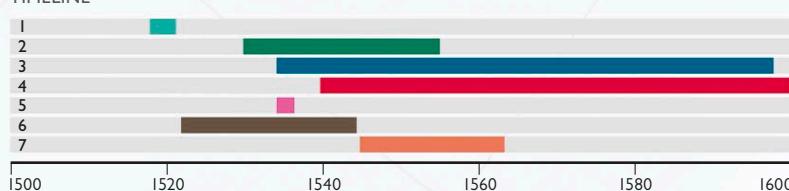
1. THE *NINETY-FIVE THESES* 1517–21

Martin Luther pinned his *Ninety-five Theses*, to the door of Wittenberg Castle Church in October 1517. The document listed 95 complaints against the Church and adopted new theological positions on topics such as salvation and the interpretation of communion. The tract caused a huge stir throughout Europe, and led to his excommunication by the Catholic Church in 1521.

- Birthplace of Lutherism
- Spread of Lutheranism
- Lutheran areas

2. CATHOLIC-PROTESTANT CONFLICT 1530–55

In 1530, the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V ordered all Protestant churches to abandon their reforms, sparking a series of wars in the 1540s and 1550s. Eventually peace was brokered in 1555 at Augsburg, Germany, with the Catholic Church agreeing to accept Protestantism but only in those German states that had already adopted the religion.

- Site of Augsburg Agreement

3. RELIGIOUS CONFLICT IN FRANCE 1534–98

Religious wars initially broke out in 1534 after King Francis I (r. 1515–37) tried to repress Protestantism on French soil. On St Bartholomew's Day in 1572, thousands of Protestants, known as Huguenots, were massacred in Paris. In 1598, Henri IV (r. 1589–1610), a former Huguenot, issued the Edict of Nantes, which tolerated Protestantism in France. Protestants also faced persecution in London and Rome.

- Site of persecution
- Edict of Nantes
- Huguenot centres

4. CALVINISM 1540–1600

The French theologian John Calvin established a Protestant community in Geneva in the 1540s. His movement propounded a theology more radical than that of Luther, emphasizing God's sovereignty and the doctrine of predestination. Calvinism spread rapidly in France, the German states, the Netherlands, Scotland, and many parts of central Europe.

- Calvinism
- Spread of Calvinism

ATLANTIC OCEAN

Lisbon
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Seville
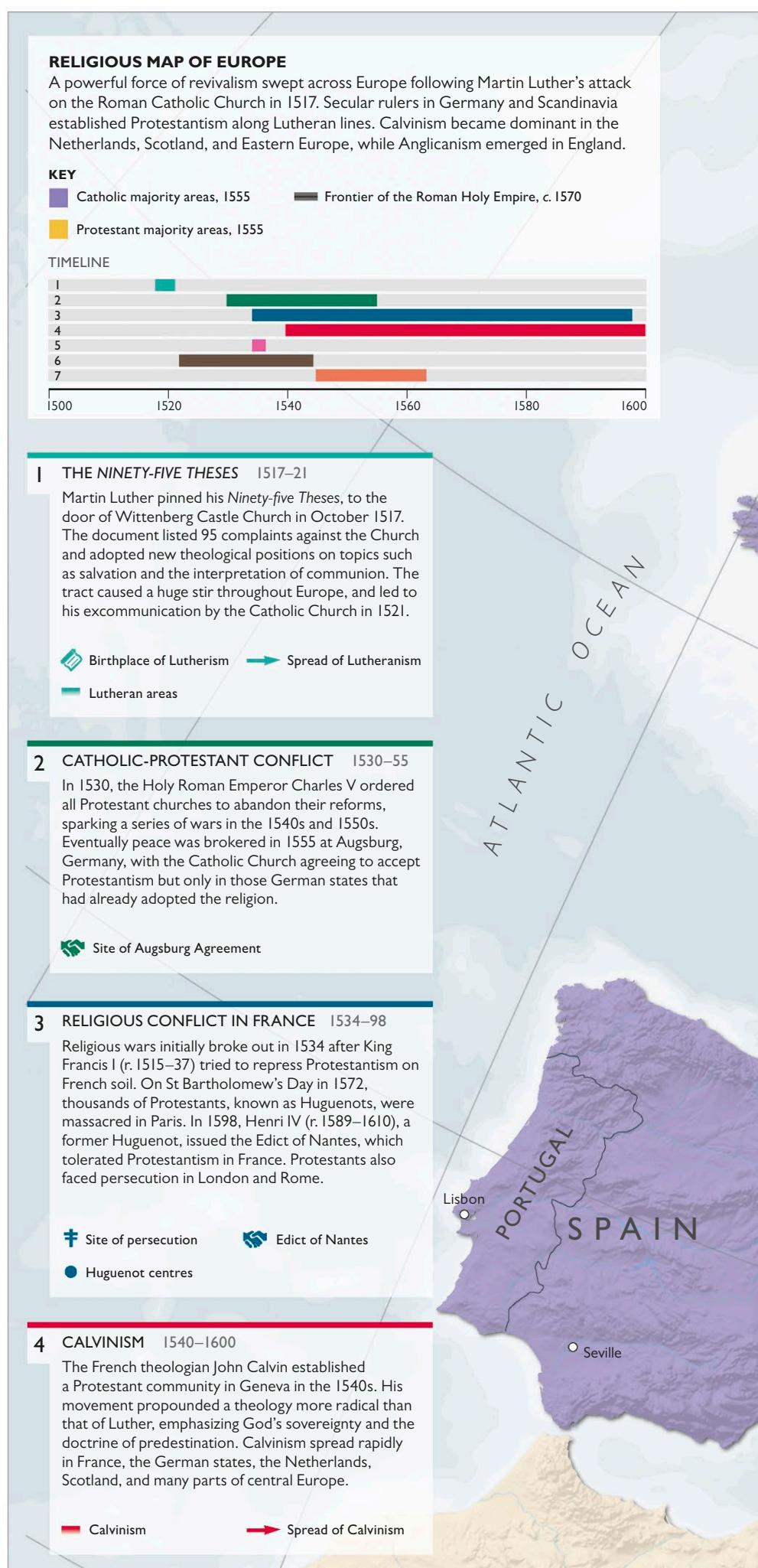
5 THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND 1531–34

The Reformation made little headway in England until King Henry VIII (r. 1509–47) quarrelled with the Papacy over his decision to divorce (an act forbidden by Catholic canon law) his wife, Katherine of Aragon. He rejected papal supremacy and established in 1534, through the Act of Supremacy, the Church of England and introduced Protestantism to England.

━━ Church of England

6 THE REFORMATION IN SWEDEN 1523–44

As Lutheran ideas spread across Sweden, King Gustavus Vasa (r. 1523–60) sought to establish a national church, still in communion with the papacy. However, following an assembly led by refomer Olavus Petri at Västeras in 1527, Catholic Church property was seized. in 1544, Sweden was officially declared a Protestant nation.

❖ Site of Västeras assembly
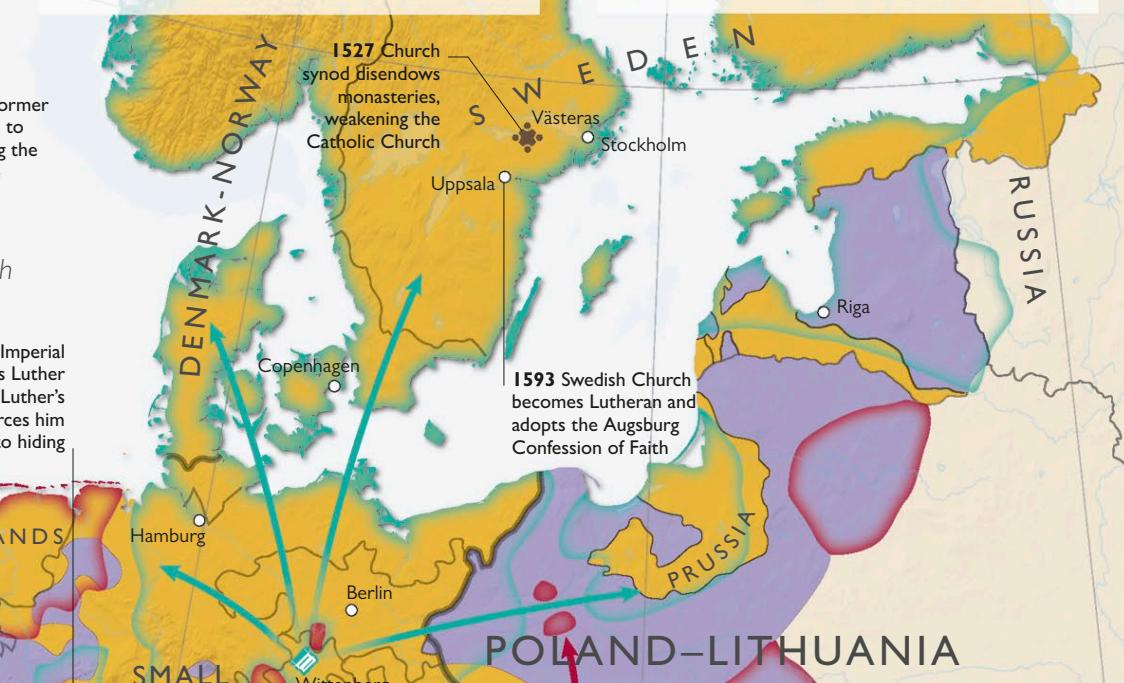
7 THE COUNTER-REFORMATION 1545–63

The three sessions held by the General Council of Trent between 1545 and 1563 was the high point of the Catholic Reformation. The Church hierarchy upheld papal supremacy and core Catholic doctrines, but reformed education of the clergy and banned abuses such as the sale of Indulgences – where a penitent was able to gain absolution for a monetary contribution.

❖ Site of Council of Trent

SCOTLAND

1559 Calvinist reformer John Knox returns to Scotland, beginning the Reformation there

Edinburgh

IRELAND

Dublin

North Sea

1521 Imperial Diet orders Luther to recant; Luther's refusal forces him to go into hiding

DENMARK–NORWAY

1527 Church synod disendows monasteries, weakening the Catholic Church

S W E D E N

Västeras

Stockholm

Uppsala

RUSSIA

Copenhagen

York

ENGLAND

London

1572 St Bartholomew's Day Massacre of Protestants aggravates religious civil war in France

NETHERLANDS

Hamburg

Berlin

Wittenberg

1593 Swedish Church becomes Lutheran and adopts the Augsburg Confession of Faith

Riga

PRUSSIA

POLAND–LITHUANIA

Rouen

Meaux

Paris

Worms

SMALL GERMAN STATES

Nantes

Orléans

Troyes

Prague

AUSTRIA

Cracow

1545 First Session of Catholic Church Council opens the Counter-Reformation

Bourges

FRANCE

Augsburg

Cognac

FRANCHE COMTÉ

SWISS CONFEDERATION

Zürich

HUNGARY

Buda

Debrecen

MOLDAVIA

Bordeaux

Lyon

Geneva

SAVOY

Milan

Trent

Venice

TRANSYLVANIA

Toulouse

Avignon

Genoa

Papal States

Belgrade

WALLACHIA

Aix

Saragossa

Florence

O T T O M A N   E M P I R E

1536 Protestant reformer John Calvin publishes his *Institutes of the Christian Religion*

Adriatic Sea

Barcelona

Balearic Islands

1555 Peace of Augsburg determines that religion in German states be determined by their ruling power

Rome

Naples

SARDINIA

M e d i t e r r a n e a n   S e a

▷ **Martin Luther**
German theologian Martin Luther forever changed Christianity when he began the Protestant Reformation in 16th-century Europe.

Descent into chaos
As Sebastien Vrancx records in his 1620 painting, widespread looting and plundering by soldiers was rife during the Thirty Years War – by both sides – and there are numerous first-hand accounts of the atrocities committed.

THE THIRTY YEARS WAR

When war broke out in 1618, it concerned the rights of Protestant minorities in Bohemia. But the fighting spread, pitting the Catholic rulers of Austria, Bavaria, and the Holy Roman Empire against German Protestant princes and, eventually, several foreign powers.

The Peace of Augsburg in 1555 (see pp.166–67) led to an agreement that each ruler in the Holy Roman Empire should be able to choose between Catholicism or Protestantism as their realm's religion, but a simmering tension still existed between Catholics and Protestants.

The pressure finally boiled over in 1617, when Catholic zealot Ferdinand, Archduke of Styria, was named as King of Bohemia, a primarily Protestant realm. Bohemian Protestants feared for their religious freedom and revolted in May 1618. The conflict that then erupted spread across Greater Bohemia. Imperial forces, supported by Spain, eventually crushed the rebellion at the Battle of White Mountain (1620) and enforced Catholicism as the Bohemian state religion.

Over several years, resentment of the Catholic regime grew and set the stage for neighbouring Protestant states to wage war against the empire, starting with Denmark (1625–29), followed by Sweden (1630–35), and finally France (1635–48), which, though Catholic, fought on the Protestant side.

The Thirty Years War was one of the most intensely fought and devastating wars in European history and reduced the empire's population of 20–25 million by one-third. Peace would finally be brokered in 1648, bringing about an end to widespread Protestant discrimination and the European Wars of Religion.

▷ **King of Sweden (r. 1611–1632)**
Gustavus led his country to military supremacy during the Thirty Years War, smashing the Imperial army at Breitenfeld in 1631 (right) and overrunning much of Germany and Bohemia. His death during Sweden's victory at the Battle of Lützen in 1632 slowed Sweden's progress.

"All the things that happened in this robber-war can barely be described."

PETER THIELE, EYEWITNESS ACCOUNT

BRITISH CIVIL WARS

In the 1640s and early 1650s, the British Isles were engulfed in a series of intertwined wars, as a king with tendencies to be an absolute monarch tried to take on Parliament. What resulted was a short-lived republican revolution, during which radical political groups pushed for radical social and political reforms.

By the 16th century, it had become customary that English monarchs had to seek parliamentary approval for most taxation. Charles I had to pay for wars against France and Spain in 1636–37 and Scotland in 1639–40, but until 1640, he resorted to expedients that did not need parliamentary approval, such as Ship Money, an antiquated naval tax. He avoided summoning parliament from 1629 to 1640, which led to suspicions that he wanted to dispense with it. Meanwhile, a tide of Puritanism, a radical religious strain that opposed the traditional hierarchy of the Church of England, was rising. Parliament

insisted on stronger powers, which complicated negotiations with the king, and in 1642, war broke out between royalists and parliamentarians.

In the First Civil War, parliamentary armies under the guidance of Oliver Cromwell left the royalist side utterly defeated. The King turned to the Scots during the Second Civil War, but a Scottish-backed invasion failed. Charles was tried and executed, then his son, Charles II, was defeated in the Third Civil War. Political radicals then installed an English Republic which, slightly moderated under the rule of Oliver Cromwell as Lord Protector, lasted until 1660.

OLIVER CROMWELL
1599–1658

Oliver Cromwell was a Puritan who became an MP in 1628. He rose to prominence in Britain during the Civil Wars. In 1645, Cromwell became second in command of the New Model Army. This radically new army thrived on its focus on a person's ability, rather than social standing. It was based on light armed cavalry, which greatly increased its speed of attack. Cromwell rose to commander of the Parliamentary army in 1650. During the English Republic he was appointed Lord Protector, a role with quasi-monarchical powers, to stem a rising tide of radicalism. He occupied this position until his death.

"I shall go from a corruptible to an incorruptible Crown, where no disturbance can be"

PARLIAMENTARY UPRISING

Struggles between king and parliament led to three Civil Wars, which involved England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland and ended with a short-lived English Republic. The king gradually lost land to Parliament, leaving him with only isolated strongholds.

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

1630   1640   1650   1660

✖ Events leading to Civil War
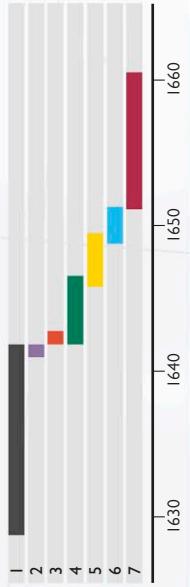
1 | THE BREAKDOWN OF ROYAL AUTHORITY 1629–42

Charles I's financial difficulties worsened with the 1639–40 "Bishops' War" in Scotland, caused by his attempt to impose a Church of England prayer-book on the Scots. When he was eventually forced to summon Parliament to pay for it, a decade of grievances burst out and a tussle between king and Parliament erupted. After a failed attempt to force Parliament's hand, the King fled north, fearing for his safety. When he raised the Royal Standard at Nottingham in August 1642, the Civil Wars had begun.

7 | THE ENGLISH REPUBLIC 1652–60

By 1652 Cromwell was the leading parliamentarian, but radical opponents such as Levellers (who favoured social equality) came to the fore. In 1654, Cromwell took up the quasi-monarchical position of Lord Protector to stem chaos. His son, Richard, succeeded him in 1658, but by then the English Republic was rudderless, and Charles II returned from exile to restore the monarchy in 1660.

⊞ Key events during the English Republic

6 | THE FINAL CIVIL WAR 1649–51

From 1642–49, much of Ireland was controlled by the Irish Catholic Confederation. Charles I's son, Charles II, turned to the Confederates for help in restoring the monarchy. Under the Marquis of Ormonde, the royalist army attempted to eliminate Cromwell's army, but were crushed in 1649. The royalists then made a new pact with the Scottish Presbyterians, but, after a final race towards London, they were defeated at Worcester in 1651.

■ Parliamentary/Protestant-controlled areas, Ireland 1642–49

↑ Royalist campaigns of the Third Civil War

⇢ Parliamentary campaigns of the Third Civil War

✖ Battles of the Third Civil War

Wick

1653–55 Major Royalist rising in the Highlands led by William Cunningham

Inverness

Aug 1640 Scottish Covenanters – Scots opposing imposition of English church practices in Scotland – occupy Aberdeen during Bishops' War

Aberdeen

Sep 1651 Royalist leader Marquis of Montrose defeated and hanged

Dundee

1650 Dunbar

1645 Philiphaugh

Perth

SCOTLAND

Stirling

Edinburgh

1645 Kilsyth

Glasgow

Map annotations

Aug 1640 Scottish Covenanters occupy Newcastle after the Battle of Newburn

1644 Attempt by Prince Rupert, a Royalist commander, to relieve York ends in defeat

22 Aug 1642 King raises the Royal Standard, signalling the start of the Civil War

May 1646 Charles I surrenders to the Scots

1651 Cromwell's Parliamentary forces combine at Warwick and advance to Worcester

1642 First pitched battle of the war ends inconclusively

1649 Leveller mutiny

1648 Colchester

1648 Maidstone

1648 Dover

May 1660 Charles II lands to resume the crown of England

1642 Turnham Green

1643, 1644 Newbury

1643 Cheriton

Nov 1640 Charles I summons the Long Parliament
Jan 1642 Charles I enters House of Commons Chamber to arrest opponents
Jan 1649 Charles I executed
Apr 1649 Leveller mutiny by soldiers stationed in Bishopsgate

1643 Donnington Castle

1643 Burford

1643 Roundaway Down

1645 Langford House

1643 Parliamentary forces repulse Royalists to regain initiative in southern England

1643 Lansdown

1645 Langport

1643 Sir Ralph Hopton wins Royalist victory, opening way to Devon

17 Aug 1648 Scottish Presbyterian-Royalist army defeated

1649 Drogheda sacked by Cromwell, causing large numbers of civilian casualties

25 Aug 1648 Last Scottish cavalry surrender

1651 Charles II flees into exile after last army supporting him is defeated at Worcester

Jul 1643 Captured by Royalist forces
Sep 1645 Surrenders to Parliament

1655 Royalist uprising under Colonel Penruddock crushed

1652 Irish leaders of Royalist forces and civilians deemed disloyal to the English Commonwealth have lands confiscated

1649 Defeat of Marquis of Ormonde ends chances of Royalist revival in Ireland

1642 Defeat of an Irish Confederate army by an English force at Liscarrol means Cork will be a royalist and Protestant stronghold

1650 Clonmel

1649 Londonderry

1643 Braddock Down

Map place labels

Newcastle, Carlisle, Castle Bolton, Marston Moor, Sandal Castle, Newark, Nottingham, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Naseby, Warwick, Edgehill, Worcester, Lichfield, Uttoxeter, Hulme, Preston, Lathom, Raglan, Bristol, South Molton, ENGLAND, WALES, SOMERSET, DEVON, CORNWALL, London, IRELAND, Dublin, Drogheda, Rathmines, Liscarrol, Cork, Coleraine, Londonderry

2 FIRST CIVIL WAR BEGINS 1642

The first, inconclusive engagement of the war took place at Edgehill in October 1642. Neither parliamentary nor royalist forces initially had effective leadership, and the King missed the chance of a thrust from Oxfordshire into London to put an early end to the war. Instead the country divided into a patchwork of areas supporting either side; in the West, Cornwall was initially royalist and Somerset parliamentarian.

✕ Battles of First Civil War (1642–46)

3 THE ROYALIST RESURGENCE 1643

1643 saw fragmentary fighting in which the royalists made strategic gains. Sir Ralph Hopton emerged victorious in the West Country after the Battle of Braddock Down in January, and by July the royalists had captured Bristol. The north, too, fell largely into the hands of the royalists. Only in East Anglia, where Oliver Cromwell was in command, did Parliament hold its own.

- Area controlled by the King, late 1643
- Area controlled by Parliament, late 1643

▽ **Walking to the scaffold**
Flanked by soldiers, King Charles I takes a final walk through St James's Park on his way to his execution on 30 January 1649.

4 PURITANS AND PRESBYTERIANS 1643–46

Many parliamentarians held Puritan beliefs; Puritanism was a strict form of Protestantism. Scotland was mostly Presbyterian, another type of Protestantism, so in 1643 the parliamentary leadership turned to the Scots for aid and in return agreed that the English Church would be reformed on Presbyterian lines. Parliamentary victories led to the fall of most formerly royalist regions.

- Area controlled by the King, late 1645
- Area controlled by Parliament, late 1645
- Royalist strongholds in areas controlled by Parliament, late 1645

5 A SECOND CIVIL WAR 1646–49

In 1646 Charles surrendered himself to the Scots, but was handed over to Parliament, marking the end of the First Civil War. In 1647, the King secretly negotiated a treaty with the Scots and they invaded England on his behalf. Under Cromwell, the strong New Model Army had emerged, which won key victories of the war and defeated the King's army at Preston in 1648. The King was tried and executed.

- Royalist campaigns of the Second Civil War
- Parliamentary campaigns of the Second Civil War
- ✕ Battles of the Second Civil War

1 THE CONQUEST OF THE BALKANS 1453–95

After taking Constantinople in 1453, Mehmed II claimed the remaining Byzantine possessions, finally seizing Morea in 1460. He conquered Serbia in 1454 and annexed Bosnia in 1463. Moldavia and the Republic of Ragusa both yielded peacefully to the Ottomans and became tributary states. Only a failed siege of Belgrade in 1456 halted Ottoman advances further west.

→ Major campaigns   ⭕ Siege

2 SELIM CLAIMS THE CALIPHATE 1512–20

Sultan Selim I (r. 1512–20) began his conquest of Mamluk-ruled Syria and Egypt in 1516. His army swept away the resistance at Aleppo and Damascus, and proclaimed victory by hanging the Mamluk caliph at the Gates of Cairo (1517). By gaining guardianship of the Islamic holy cities of Medina and Mecca, the Ottomans effectively became the fourth major Caliphate after the Rashiduns, Umayyads, and the Abbasids.

→ Major campaigns of Selim I   ✗ Ottoman victory

◁ **Suleyman I holds court**
This 16th-century Ottoman miniature depicts Suleyman the Magnificent receiving an ambassador from the vassal Hungarian state in 1556.

3 SULEYMAN THE MAGNIFICENT 1520–66

Suleyman I, better known as Suleyman the Magnificent (r. 1520–66), ruled the empire during the height of its power. In 1526, he routed the Hungarians at Mohács, reducing the country to a vassal state. The Austrian Habsburg ruler Ferdinand I attempted to recapture the state, but the Ottomans struck back by besieging Vienna in 1529. Suleyman failed to take the Habsburg city, but he remained overlord of Hungary.

→ Major campaigns of Suleyman I   ⭕ Siege
✗ Major victory

4 OTTOMANS' NAVAL WARFARE 1522–71

In 1522, the Ottoman navy expelled the Knights of St John (a Crusader army) from Rhodes, and in 1529, captured Algiers. Following the Ottoman's assault on Cyprus in 1570, European powers formed the Holy League. A year later, the League's fleet, led by Don Juan of Austria, crushed the Ottomans at Lepanto, ending Ottoman naval dominance in the eastern Mediterranean.

→ Major naval campaigns   ✗ Major victory
⇢ Christian counter-offensive   ✗ Major defeat
⭕ Siege

Map labels

NORWAY
SWEDEN
DENMARK
POMERANIA
POLAND-LITHUANIA
BRANDENBURG
UNITED PROVINCES
SMALL GERMAN STATES
SAXONY
AUSTRIA
SPANISH NETHERLANDS
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
BAVARIA
SALZBURG
SWISS CONFEDERATION
FRANCHE COMTÉ
MILAN
SAVOY
FRANCE
REP OF GENOA
FLORENCE
PAPAL STATES
VENETIAN REPUBLIC
Venice
NAPLES
SARDINIA
Sicily
SPAIN
Madrid
Lisbon
PORTUGAL
Oran
Fez
MOROCCO
ALGIERS
Algiers
Tunis
TUNIS
Djerba
Tripoli
TRIPOLI
Malta
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
Don
KHANATE OF THE CRIMEA
Azov
EASTERN UKRAINE
JEDISAN
Dniester
MOLDAVIA
Jassy
BUJAK
Kaffa (Kefe)
CIRCASSIA
GEORGIAN STATES
Caucasus
TRANSYLVANIA
HUNGARY
Mohács
WALLACHIA
Black Sea
Trebizond
SERBIA
BOSNIA
Belgrade
Danube
Sofia
Edirne (Adrianople)
Constantinople
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
REPUBLIC OF RAGUSA
Otranto
Preveza
Lepanto
ATHENS
MOREA
Monemvasia
Crete
ANATOLIA
Rhodes
Cyprus
Taurus Mountains
Aleppo
SYRIA
Tripoli
Damascus
Jerusalem
Mediterranean Sea
Alexandria
Cairo
Suez
EGYPT
Nile
Esztergom (Gran)
Vienna
Buda
Szigetvár

Date callouts

1475 Khanate of the Crimea becomes an Ottoman tributary state

1541 Hungary is annexed by the Ottomans

1504 Moldavia becomes an Ottoman tributary state

1569

1461 Ottomans capture Byzantine stronghold of Trebizond

1683
1529
1543
1526, 1541
1566
1456 Belgrade
1521
1566
1366–1453 Ottoman capital

1453 Ottomans make Constantinople their capital, renaming it Istanbul

1538 Preveza
1571 Lepanto
1687 Athens
1540 Monemvasia
1522 Rhodes
1516 Aleppo
1516 Damascus

1460 Ottomans capture the Byzantine territory of Morea (Peloponnese)

1565 A 3-month Ottoman siege fails to dislodge Crusader army, the Knights of St John

1574 Tunis
1541
1560
1551

1517 Ottoman conquest of Cairo signals collapse of the Mamluk Sultanate – in control of Egypt and Syria since 1250

OTTOMAN EXPANSION

The Ottoman Empire continued to expand during the 16th and 17th centuries as a succession of sultans waged campaigns and won more territory for the empire. The first sign of the empire's decline was its failure to conquer Vienna in 1683.

KEY

OTTOMAN EMPIRE
- Empire in 1451
- Conquest by 1481
- Conquests between 1512–20
- Conquests between 1520–66
- Conquests between 1566–1639

OTHER POWERS
- Austrian Habsburg territory
- Spanish Habsburg territory
- Borders of vassal states

TIMELINE

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1400 1500 1600 1700 1800

1578 Derbent

1583 Baku

1588 Ganja

1554 Nakhichevan

1514, 1534, 1555, 1585 Tabriz

Caldiran

1514 Hamadan

Tehran

SAFAVID EMPIRE

Tigris

Zagros Mountains

1534 Baghdad

Mesopotamia

Euphrates

1538 Basra

Gombrun

Muscat

Persian Gulf

Bahrain

1552 Ottoman fleet under Admiral Piri Reis plunders Portuguese outpost

OMAN

1534 Ottoman invasion forces Safavid government to flee the city

Arabian Peninsula

Medina

Mecca

Red Sea

1517 Following Ottoman victory over the Mumluk Sultanate, Sharif Barakat of Mecca acknowledges Selim I as Caliph

ETHIOPIA

7 THE MOREAN WAR 1684–99

The Venetian republic launched a campaign to conquer Morea in 1684. After taking the peninsula in 1687, the army marched to Athens, where it fired mortars at the Ottoman garrison stationed inside the Acropolis, causing great destruction to the Parthenon. A Venetian win led to the Ottomans signing the Treaty of Karlowitz, ceding Morea and parts of Dalmatia to Venice.

- Venetian Republic and possessions
- ✗ Ottoman defeat

6 THE SIEGE OF VIENNA 1681–83

Commanded by Grand Vizier Kara Mustafa Pasha, the Ottomans attacked Habsburg Austria in 1681, capturing northern Hungary in 1682 and besieging Vienna in July 1683. The Christian states formed a coalition and despatched an army led by the Polish king Jan Sobieski, who liberated Vienna 2 months later. Kara Mustafa was executed for his role in the defeat.

- → Polish counter-attack
- Poland-Lithuania
- ✗ Ottoman defeat

5 GOVERNING THE EMPIRE 1566–1639

The capture of Tunis in 1574 sealed the Ottoman domination of the eastern and central Maghreb. The Ottomans also invaded the western frontier of the Safavid Empire, taking several cities, including Derbent (1578) and Baku (1583) in the north. After the reign of Suleyman I, power struggles between the viziers and the harem (the sultan's personal household) challenged the sultan's authority and weakened the empire.

- → Major campaigns
- ☆ Ottoman capitals
- ✗ Major victory

REIGN OF THE OTTOMANS

The 15th century heralded an era of expansion for the Ottoman Empire, in which it extended its domain in the Balkans, Syria, and Egypt. At the pinnacle of its power, the empire posed a challenge to western Europe, forcing Christian states to form alliances to protect their lands.

With the capture of the Byzantine capital, Constantinople, in 1453, the Ottoman Empire consolidated its position as the principal Islamic power of the modern era. Sultan Mehmed II (r. 1444–46 and 1451–81) proceeded to annex the remnants of Byzantium, lands in the northern Balkans and eastern Anatolia, and bolstered the sultanate's power by earning revenues from these new conquests. In 1481, the Ottomans sent shockwaves across western Europe by launching an attack on Otranto in southern Italy, but Mehmed's untimely death a year later put a stop to the campaign.

Successor Bayezid II (r. 1481–1512) made further gains in the Balkans, and Selim I's (r. 1512–20) conquest of Egypt and the Holy Lands allowed him to lay claim to the caliphate and claim pre-eminence among Muslim rulers. Suleyman the Magnificent (r. 1520–66) ruled an empire at the height of its power, notably invading Hungary in 1526. The Habsburg rulers proved an obdurate foe, but still most of the country was lost to the Ottomans.

From the mid-16th century, the authority of the sultanate began to diminish as internal power wranglings led to military officials taking greater regional control while government ministers, notably the grand vizier, rose to power. Although Murad IV (r. 1623–40) and Mehmed IV (r. 1648–87) made fitful attempts at reform, their efforts proved largely ineffectual. The Ottoman Empire's increasingly dysfunctional leadership was evident in its failed siege of Vienna in 1683, and defeat marked the start of its decline.

OTTOMAN ARCHITECTURE
BYZANTINE INSPIRATION

After the conquest of Constantinople, Sultan Mehmed II headed to the Hagia Sophia church – the centrepiece of the former Byzantine capital – and converted it to a mosque. The majesty of the building inspired great Ottoman architects such as Sinan, who went on to design mosques with soaring domes, vast open interiors, and multiple minarets, such as the Sülemaniye mosque (1558) in Istanbul.

Hagia Sophia
This 16th-century painting shows the church of Hagia (Saint) Sophia transformed into a mosque.

EAST MEETS WEST

The arrival of Europeans in the Indian Ocean in the 15th century began a 200-year-long period in which western travellers, goods, and ideas reached Asia in increasing numbers. In turn, information about the continent and its powerful indigenous empires filtered back to Europe.
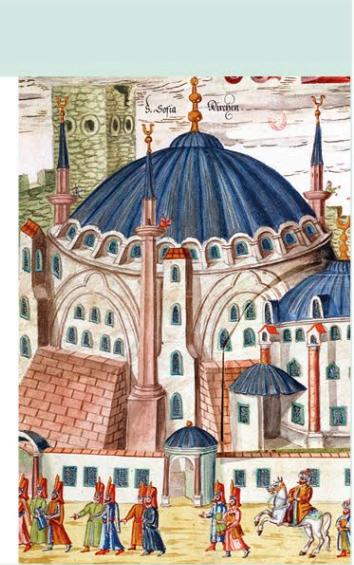
△ **Trading hub**
This 1665 painting shows the Dutch flag flying over the trading station of the Dutch East India Company at Hooghly in Bengal, India. Dutch ships can be seen navigating the Ganges.

Before the late 15th century, European knowledge of Asia had been minimal, derived mainly from the observations of the Venetian merchant Marco Polo about the Mongol Empire. It was the desire to acquire spices such as nutmeg, pepper, cinnamon, and cloves – prized for their culinary and medicinal uses – that drew Europeans to Asia once more. Spices were expensive and could only be sourced along overland routes controlled by the Chinese, Mughal, and Ottoman empires.

To Asia by sea

The Italian explorer Christopher Columbus sailed westwards across the Atlantic in 1492 in an attempt to reach India and China. However, it was the Portuguese captain Vasco da Gama who finally reached Calicut (modern-day Kozhikode) on India's Malabar Coast in 1498 by sailing around Africa and then eastwards into the Indian Ocean. Thereafter, the Portuguese returned in greater force and established a series of trading posts across southern Asia: at Goa, India, in 1510; in Malacca on the Malay peninsula in 1511; and in the Moluccas, in modern-day Indonesia, in 1512.
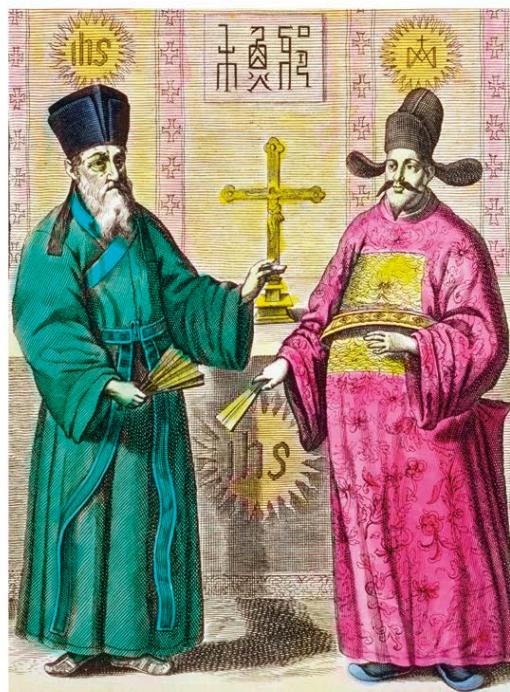
The Portuguese soon lost ground to other European rivals, notably the Dutch, who began to encroach on the Moluccas in 1599, and the English, who established a trading post at Surat in India in 1612. By then, however, Portugal had acquired a trading post at Macao, China, from where European missionaries and merchants travelled into China and Japan. In China, Jesuit missionaries (members of the Catholic order of the Society of Jesus) under the leadership of Matteo Ricci adopted many Chinese customs, including their dress, and established a presence at the Ming court in Beijing. Although they made few converts and only secured formal toleration of Christianity in 1692, the missionaries introduced China to European astronomical, medical, and mathematical ideas. In turn, knowledge of China was transmitted back to the West,

◁ **Adopting local customs**
An illustration from Jesuit Athanasius Kirchner's *China Illustrata* shows Matteo Ricci (left) and another Christian missionary dressed in Chinese-style robes that made their acceptance at the imperial court easier.

MISSIONARIES AND MERCHANTS

The arrival of Vasco da Gama in India was followed by the setting up of Portuguese forts in south and Southeast Asia. From these, traders and missionaries travelled into Asia, particularly India, Japan, and China. By the mid-17th century the Portuguese had largely been supplanted by the Dutch and the British. Although their missionary effort was less notable than that of the Portuguese, their merchants helped to spread European ideas into Asia and transmit knowledge about Asia to the West.

1498 Vasco da Gama reaches Calicut after sailing across the Indian Ocean

1505 Francisco de Almeida becomes the first viceroy of Portuguese India

1549 Jesuit Francis Xavier begins his mission to Japan

1555 First Jesuit mission reaches the Chinese mainland

INDIA				
THE SPICE ISLANDS AND MALAYA				
JAPAN				
CHINA				

1500　　　1520　　　1540　　　1560

1511 The Portuguese seize a base at Malacca, and Portuguese explorer Antonio de Abreu reaches the Banda Islands, a part of the Spice Islands

1557 Portugal acquires a base at Macao, but trade is strictly controlled

◁ Painting foreigners
This painting from the 16th–17th century showing a Portuguese expedition arriving in Japan is in the Nanban style, a Japanese school of art that specialized in the depiction of foreigners and foreign themes.

in works such as the *China Illustrata* (1667), compiled by the Jesuit Athanasius Kirchner, which reproduced Chinese texts for a European audience for the first time.

Japan in the 16th century was mired in internal wars. The shipwreck of two Portuguese sailors in 1543 introduced modern firearms into Japan, increasing the bloodiness of the civil wars. The Jesuit Francis Xavier established a mission in 1549; and its converts included the daimyo lord Omura Sumitada, who gave the Portuguese the site of Nagasaki in 1571, from where they operated a growing trading network.

Although European goods were valued, and the Portuguese introduced copper-plate engraving and painting in oils and watercolours to the Japanese, the increasing number of Christian converts worried the Tokugawa shoguns who ruled Japan after 1600. The Shimabara Revolt of 1637, an uprising that included many Japanese Roman Catholics, proved to be the final straw. Christianity was savagely repressed and the Portuguese expelled; henceforth, the only contact allowed with Europeans was through a trading enclave off Nagasaki run by the Dutch.

Trade and diplomacy in India

In India, rather than winning converts, the English sought to expand their trade by gaining access to the principal centres of power, which in the north meant the court of the Mughals. Although the English East India Company acquired Fort St George (modern-day Chennai) in 1641 and Fort William (modern-day Kolkata) in 1690, they avoided large-scale political commitments that would exhaust their resources.

Trade, though, required knowledge, and the English diplomat Sir Thomas Roe's embassy to the Mughal court from 1615–18 was one of many that reported back on the topography, customs, and politics of India. Indians travelling to the west were limited to servants and *lascars* (seamen of Indian origin) aboard company vessels, though a few high-status Indians also travelled.

By then, the terms of engagement between Asia and Europe were changing. Within a century, the British would directly occupy much of India, the Ottoman Empire would begin to fragment, the Qing Empire would become dependent on trade with Europeans, and Japan would cut itself off from the outside world. East and West, though, would be inextricably intertwined in an increasingly globalized world.

▷ Camouflaged piety
This Japanese ivory figurine depicts the Virgin Mary as Kannon, the Buddhist goddess of mercy, a pretence made necessary by the outlawing of Christianity in Japan from 1614.

1600 English sailor William Adams reaches Japan and is the first European to become a samurai

1612 The English East India Company establishes a base at Surat, India

1615 Sir Thomas Roe begins a diplomatic mission to the court of the Mughal emperor Jahangir

1638 Portuguese and all other Europeans except the Dutch are expelled from Japan

1692 The Edict of Toleration of Christianity is passed in China

1580   1600   1620   1640   1660   1680   1700

1598 The first Dutch fleet to the Spice Islands returns with a profit of 400 per cent

1607 The Dutch East India Company sets up a base on Ternate in the Moluccas

1609 Jesuits claim to have converted 212,000 Japanese to Christianity

1623 The massacre of English merchants on the island of Amboina (in modern Indonesia) leads to English withdrawal from the Spice Islands

1667 Athanasius Kirchner publishes *China Illustrata*

1690 The English East India Company acquires Fort William

RISE OF THE MUGHAL EMPIRE

Babur's conquest of Kabul in the early 1500s heralded the start of Islamic rule in India. Further conquests over the next 200 years extended Mughal rule across the majority of the subcontinent.

KEY

★ Mughal capital

⚑ Mughal conquest, with date

TIMELINE

1 2 3 4 5

1500   1600   1700

1 | THE ORIGIN OF THE MUGHALS 1504–30

Babur seized Kabul in 1504 and used the city as a base to attack the Lodi sultanate of Delhi. His victory at Panipat in 1526 brought northwestern India under Mughal control. He made further conquests, defeating the Rajput confederacy and the Afghans. By 1530, the empire extended from Kabul in the north to Patna in the east.

◼ Babur's domains 1525

◼ Babur's conquests up to 1530

2 | SETBACKS UNDER HUMAYUN 1531–56

Babur's son, Humayun, was forced to share power with his four brothers. In 1539 Sher Shah Suri, a former Lodi commander, deposed Humayun and took the throne in Delhi. Humayan campaigned for a decade and with Persian help, expelled Sher Shah. He died in an accident a year later – before he could regain all the land lost to Sher Shah.

◼ Territory lost under Humayun, to 1556

5 | THE MARATHAS 1650–81

In the 1650s, the Maratha ruler Shivaji Bhonsle (r. 1627–80) carved out a domain along the western coast of India. Although Aurangzeb forced Shivaji to accept his overlordship in 1665, Shivaji rebelled again in 1678, and extended Maratha territory. The defection of Muhammad Akbar – Aurangzeb's son – in 1681 to the court of Shambhaji (Shivaji's son) signalled the start of the Mughal decline.

◼ Maratha Kingdom 1646–80

Map annotations:

1526–71 and 1598–1648 Mughal capital; construction of Taj Mahal is completed in 1653

1526 Superior Mughal cavalry defeats Ibrahim Lodi, the last sultan of Delhi

1586–98 Mughal capital during the second half of Akbar's reign

1589 Akbar accepts surrender of Yaqub Chak, ruler of Kashmir

1555 Humayun defeats Shah Suri and takes north India

1571–84 New Mughal capital built by Akbar

1567 Akbar captures Fortress of Chittorgarh with the use of siege artillery

1586 First Deccan sultanate to come under Mughal rule

1689 Aurangzeb's army captures Sambhaji, son of Shivaji

Place labels and dates on map:
Uzbeks, AFGHANISTAN, SAFAVID EMPIRE, Balkh, Herat, Kabul, KABUL, Qandhar, QANDHAR 1595, QALAT 1595, Qalat, SIND 1574–81, Multan, PANJAB 1556–80, Lahore, Sirhind, KANGRA 1621, KASHMIR 1586–88, Srinagar, Panipat, DELHI 1556, Delhi, Yamuna, KUMAUN 1581, AGRA 1556, Agra, Fatehpur Sikri, AVADH 1556–68, Ajodhya, ALLAHABAD 1556–67, Allahabad, AJMER 1562–78, Ajmer, Chitor, Thar Desert, Aravalli Range, Indus, Sutlej, MALWA 1557–74, ORCHHA 1577, KACH 1573, GUJARAT 1572–75, Ahmadabad, KATHIAWAR 1575–92, KHANDESH 1577–1601, Surat, GONDWANA 1583–84, Plateau of Tibet, Himalayas, Brahmaputra, ASSAM 1612–63, CHATGAON 1666, Chatgaon, BANGALA 1575–87, Murshidabad, Calcutta, Bay of Bengal, BIHAR 1574–75, Patna, JHARKHAND 1589, ORISA 1590–92, BARAR 1596, BIDAR 1596, Bidar, Ahmadnagar, AHMADNAGAR 1596–1600, Junnar, Bombay, Poona, BIJAPUR 1657–88, Kolhapur, Goa, GOLKONDA 1635–87, Golkonda, Hyderabad, Masulipatam, Deccan, Ghats, Arabian Sea

MUGHAL INDIA

In the 1520s, the Mughals, a Muslim group from central Asia, founded an empire in northern India that expanded over the next 150 years to cover most of the subcontinent. A succession of Mughal rulers presided over a culture whose rich legacy includes grand architectural pieces such as the Taj Mahal and the Red Fort in Delhi.

In 1526, Babur, a descendant of the Mongol warlord Timur, defeated the Lodi sultan of Delhi, conquered a swathe of northern India and founded the Mughal dynasty. During his reign, he doubled the size of the empire through further conquests. Babur's son and successor, Humayun, however, lost Mughal territories to rival Sher Shah Suri – and lived in exile for 15 years before enlisting the help of Safavid Persia to regain the throne shortly before his death in 1556. It was Humayun's son, Akbar (r. 1556–1605), who secured the empire's future, extending its boundaries to the south and east,

establishing a well-organized and secular government that brought unity to the realm. The next two Mughal rulers, Jahangir (r. 1605–27) and Shah Jahan (r. 1628–58), presided over brilliant courts and marked the empire's golden age. Shah Jahan's passion for grand architecture led to the building of the Taj Mahal in Agra and the grand mosque, Jama Masjid, in Delhi, but his overzealous military campaigns also drained the empire's wealth. Under Aurangzeb (r. 1658–1707) the empire extended deep into southern India, but his harsher religious policies alienated many Hindu rulers, giving rise to local revolts, such as that of the Marathas, causing imperial borders to start fraying. The encroaching European powers took advantage of the instability and further eroded Mughal power, and by the early 1800s, Mughal rule extended scarcely beyond the suburbs of Delhi.

"Miracles occur in the temples of every creed"

AKBAR THE GREAT, FROM AKBARNAMA, c. 1603

1509 Portuguese defeat the Zamorin of Calicut and conquer the city

1522 Portuguese arrive and build a trading port

SHAH JAHAN AND MUMTAZ
AN EMPEROR'S UNDYING LOVE

This miniature painting depicts the Mughal emperor Shah Jahan embracing his wife, Mumtaz Mahal, who he cherished over his two other wives. In 1631, Shah Jahan was left heartbroken after Mumtaz died during childbirth. The following year, he ordered the construction of the Taj Mahal in Agra – a white marble mausoleum, inlaid with gemstones – as a tribute to his beloved.

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3 THE EMPIRE UNDER AKBAR 1556–1605

Fourteen-year old Akbar came to power after the death of his father, Humayun. Akbar not only restored the Mughal Empire's old boundaries but also expanded the empire through conquests, annexing Afghanistan, Kashmir, Sind, Gujarat, and Bengal, and pushed south into the Deccan. By abolishing the "jiziya" tax on non-Muslims, he won the acceptance of the Hindu territories.

- Akbar's domains, 1556
- Akbar's gains, 1605
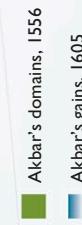
4 AURANGZEB'S REIGN 1658–1707

Aurangzeb seized the throne after a long civil war against his brothers. He reasserted Mughal power in many of the empire's territories, including Bengal, and also muted a Rajput revolt in 1680. He then annexed Koch Bihar, reclaimed the Deccan, and pushed the imperial boundary as far south as Tanjore. His promotion of Islam and restoration of the jiziya tax alienated many Hindus.

- Areas brought under Mughal rule 1658–1707

Coromandel Coast

Madras

Jaffna

KANDY

Ceylon

Eastern

Tanjore
TANJORE
694

Madurai

Nayakas

INDIAN
OCEAN

SIRA
687

Sira

Udaiyars

Western Ghats

Zamorin

Mangalur

Calicut

Cochin

Malabar Coast

Between 1405 and 1433, Admiral Zheng He led seven state-sponsored naval missions, known as the "Ming Treasure Voyages", across the Indian Ocean. With a fleet comprising more than 200 ships and 27,800 crewmen, Zheng He sailed as far as Arabia and the east coast of Africa, establishing new trade links and extending China's commercial influence.

CHINA FROM THE MING TO THE QING
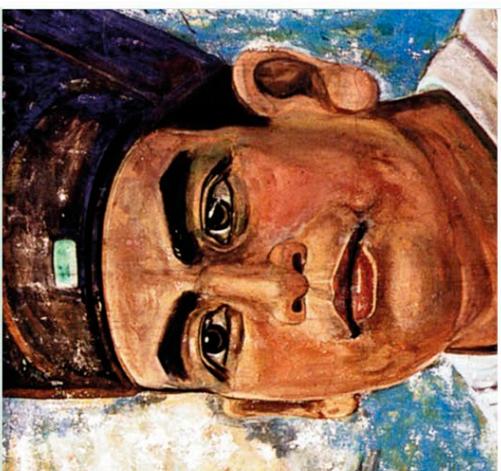
The Ming Dynasty (1368–1644) encouraged industry and foreign trade, heralding a renaissance in China's economy and technological development. However, from 1506, a succession of feckless rulers eroded Ming authority. When civil rebellion broke out across the land following a famine in the 1620s, the non-Han Chinese Jurchen (later known as Manchus) took their opportunity and ousted the beleaguered Ming to become China's new rulers.

The Ming governed the realm according to systems set up long ago by the Qin (see pp. 74–75). China's manufacturing blossomed under the Ming, encouraged by foreign trade. Under Emperor Yongle (r. 1403–24), the Forbidden City was built in the new capital Beijing (which replaced Nanjing as the main seat of imperial residence). He also increased China's trade influence across Asia and Africa.

The later emperors lacked the same vision, which led to a gradual waning of Ming power. Emperor Xuande (r. 1425–35) established a Grand Secretariat to streamline legislation and, in doing so, reduced the burden on his rule. The Ming suffered a shocking blow in 1449 when the young emperor Zhengtong (r. 1435–49 and 1457–64) was taken prisoner by Mongol tribes while leading a battle against them. The second half of the Ming era saw court officials displace the traditional bureaucracy, leading to factionalism and poor governance. The empire's fall was presaged in the 1620s by a severe famine, which triggered lawlessness and peasant rebellions across the realm.

In 1644, the Manchus seized Beijing. Initially, the Chinese ruling classes were excluded from government positions, leading to revolts, but reforms thereafter created stability for Qing rule under emperors Shunzhi (r. 1644–61) and Kangzi (r. 1661–1722).

2 FROM EMPEROR TO PRISONER 1449–57

In 1449, Emperor Zhengtong was captured after leading an ill-advised war against the Mongols. He was released after a year but spent several years battling to return to the throne. Throughout Ming rule, measures were taken to reinforce the northern frontier against any Mongol invasion: the Great Wall was extended and then fortified with a series of garrisons and 1,200 watchtowers.

▲ Great Wall garrison

3 THE MING IN DECLINE 1506–1620

Emperor Zhengde (r. 1506–21) adopted Confucianism – a system of ethics based on mutual responsibility. His successor Jianjing (r. 1521–67), however, favoured the more carefree, nature-based teachings of Daoism. In reaction, he left the governing to court officials and ignored the problem of Japanese pirate raids, devoting himself to sporting pastimes and hosting lavish Daoist ceremonies. Ming authority became even more ineffectual under Emperor Wanli (r. 1573–1620).

➔ Japanese pirate raids   ■ Area affected by the pirate raids

1 GOLDEN AGE OF THE MING 1368–1435

The Ming engaged extensively in domestic and foreign trade, establishing major commercial centres predominantly along China's eastern coast. The country exported manufactured goods such as porcelain, silk cloth, and paper. During this period, the growth in international trade encouraged many Chinese people to settle in cities throughout Southeast Asia.

▲ Major trading centre

1688 The Qing build a system of embankments and ditches, known as the Willow Palisade, to restrict Chinese movement into Manchu territory

MANCHURIA

Mukden
Liaodong
Willow Palisade
Dingliáo

LIAOYANG

INNER MONGOLIA

Mongols

◁ **Chinese porcelain**
During the Ming era, expert potters used local clay and imported Persian cobalt to create beautifully decorated porcelain products. Manufactured only in China, porcelain goods became as highly prized as silk in European and Middle Eastern markets.

4 THE COLLAPSE OF THE MING   1620–44

The last Ming emperor, Chongzhen, presided over a broken administration, failing to control the rise in banditry in the wake of a severe famine that afflicted northern China in 1628. Thereafter, peasant riots erupted in every province and gave rise to several rebel groups. When a rebellion, led by Li Zhicheng, stormed Beijing in April 1644, the beleaguered Emperor committed suicide.

▨ Area controlled by Li Zhicheng, 1641–45

▨ Other rebel-controlled areas, 1644–47

✹ Urban riot

THE RISE AND FALL OF THE MING

The Ming Dynasty revived China's economy by investing in manufacture. The rulers extended the Great Wall as a measure against Mongol invasions. The Ming's fortune changed in the 1620s, when a drought led to widespread riots and rebellion.

KEY

━━ Ming provinces c. 1600 ┈┈ Imperial highway

● Provincial capital ━━ Grand Canal

┅┅ Willow palisade ⌇⌇ Great Wall under the Ming

▨ Ming China ▨ Area of loose Ming control

TIMELINE

	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					

1421 Emperor Yongle orders the construction of the Forbidden City in the new capital Beijing

1646 Former Ming capital Nanjing is captured by the Qing

1449 Zhengtong surrenders to Mongol leader Esen Taijii and is taken captive

1683 Qing forces suppress Ming loyalists in Taiwan

1647 Port city of Guangzhou is captured by the Qing

1557: Portuguese Colony

1681 The last force loyal to the Three Feudatories surrenders to the Qing

5 THE QING TAKE CHINA   1625–44

Following Li Zhicheng's attack on the Ming capital, Ming general Wu Sangui decisively shifted allegiance to the Manchus. He opened the Shanghai Pass, allowing Qing Prince Dorgon to pass the Great Wall, and they allied to defeat Li Zhicheng at the Battle of Shanghai Pass (27 May 1644). On 6 June, the Manchus and Wu entered the capital and proclaimed the young Shunzhi Emperor as Emperor of China.

▨ Area under Qing control 1625

6 THE THREE FEUDATORIES   1647–81

By 1647, Qing forces took control of China's key trading cities along the eastern coast, including Fuzhou and Guangzhou. However, they denied government roles to Chinese officials who refused to adopt Manchurian customs. In 1673, former Ming generals staged the Revolt of Three Feudatories – a mass uprising that forced the Qing to soften their policy.

▨ Area affected by Revolt of the Three Feudatories

East China Sea

TAIWAN

Tanshui

Hainan

Kyoto
Hakata
Hirado
Kyushu
Bonotsu

Hanseong

Niuzhuang
Ozhou
Dagu
Beijing
Dengzhou
Qingzhou
Jinan
Dezhou
Linqing
SHANDONG
Shanghai
Songjiang
Ningbo
Shaoxing
Taizhou
Wenzhou
ZHEJIANG
Hangzhou
Tai Lake
Suzhou
Yangzhou
Nanjing
NANJING
Kaifeng
HENAN
Xiangyang
Yunyang
Chengtian
Wuchang
Hankou
Hanyang
Jingzhou
Yangtze
HUGUANG
Nanchang
JIANGXI
Jianning
Fuzhou
Xinghua
Xiamen
Zhangzhou
Quanzhou
Amoy
FUJIAN
Guangzhou
GUANGDONG
Shantou
Zhaoqing
Macao
Xi Jiang
Guilin
GUANGXI
Yunnan
YUNNAN
GUIZHOU
Guiyang
Chongqing
SICHUAN
Chengdu
Jianchang
Hanzhong
Hanzhong
SHAANXI
Qingyang
Lanzhou
Xuchou
Xi'an
Taiyuan
SHANXI
Yulien
Datong
Tianzhen
Yanghe
Huailai
Xuanfu
BEI ZHILI
MING CHINA
Ningxia
Great wall
Yellow River
Grand Canal
Huai
Jiaozhou
ANNAM
Mekong
Yongchang
Liangzhou
Ganzhou
Suzhou

TOKUGAWA IEYASU
1543–1616

JAPAN UNIFIES UNDER THE TOKUGAWA

Following the Onin War (1467–77) involving Japan's two most powerful families, the daimyo (provincial warlords) fought for supremacy, keeping the country in a state of civil unrest for almost a century. Peace came in stages as a succession of men assumed control, but it was Tokugawa Ieyasu who finally restored long-term stability, establishing a tightly controlled regime that would endure for 265 years.

A dispute between Japan's powerful Hosakawa and Yamana clans in 1467 erupted into a violent conflict over who should succeed Ashikaga Yoshimata as shogun (Japan's military commander). The resulting Onin War raged on for a decade, destroying the capital, Kyoto, and ended with the Yamana yielding.

With the two families left markedly weakened by the ravages of war, the daimyo saw their opportunity to sieze power. Japan was thus thrown into further turmoil as rival daimyo lords battled one

another for supremacy. Daimyo Oda Nobunaga emerged victorious almost a century later, forming alliances to defeat his rivals in a campaign spanning 15 years. On the cusp of becoming Japan's new leader, however, Nobunaga was forced into committing suicide in June 1582, at the hands of his samurai general.

Nobunaga's former ally, Toyotomi Hideyoshi, fought for the next 8 years to defeat daimyos from the Katsuie, Shimazu, and Hojo clans to reunify Japan. His death from ill health in 1598 led to another series of battles, in which Tokugawa Ieyasu (r. 1603–05) scored a decisive victory at Sekigahara (1600) and earned the title of shogun.

Ieyasu introduced strict reforms, which were also enforced by his Tokugawa successors, to curb the powers of the daimyo lords. He also removed the growing threat of Christian wars on Japanese soil by limiting European presence in the port cities of Kyushu, thereby ensuring stability under Tokugawa rule.

"The strong manly ones in life are those who understand the meaning of the word patience."

TOKUGAWA IEYASU, FIRST TOKUGAWA SHOGUN, 1616

Inheritor of the minor Okazaki domain in eastern Mikawa Province (modern-day Aichi Prefecture), Tokugawa Ieyasu began his military training with the Imagawa family. He allied himself with the powerful forces of Oda Nobunaga first and then Toyotomi Hideyoshi, and expanded his land holdings by defeating the neighbouring Hojo family to the east. After Hideyoshi's death in 1603, Ieyasu became shogun to Japan's imperial court and founded the Tokugawa Shogunate.

THE ONIN WAR 1467–77

In 1467, the Ashikaga shogun, Yoshimasa, abdicated power, having failed to quell civil unrest in the wake of a famine. While the Yamana clan supported his chosen heir, the Hosokawa family promoted a rival claimant, and the dispute escalated into a brutal war. Fighting spread beyond the capital, Kyoto, eroding the shogun's power, and ended with the Yamana submitting in 1477.
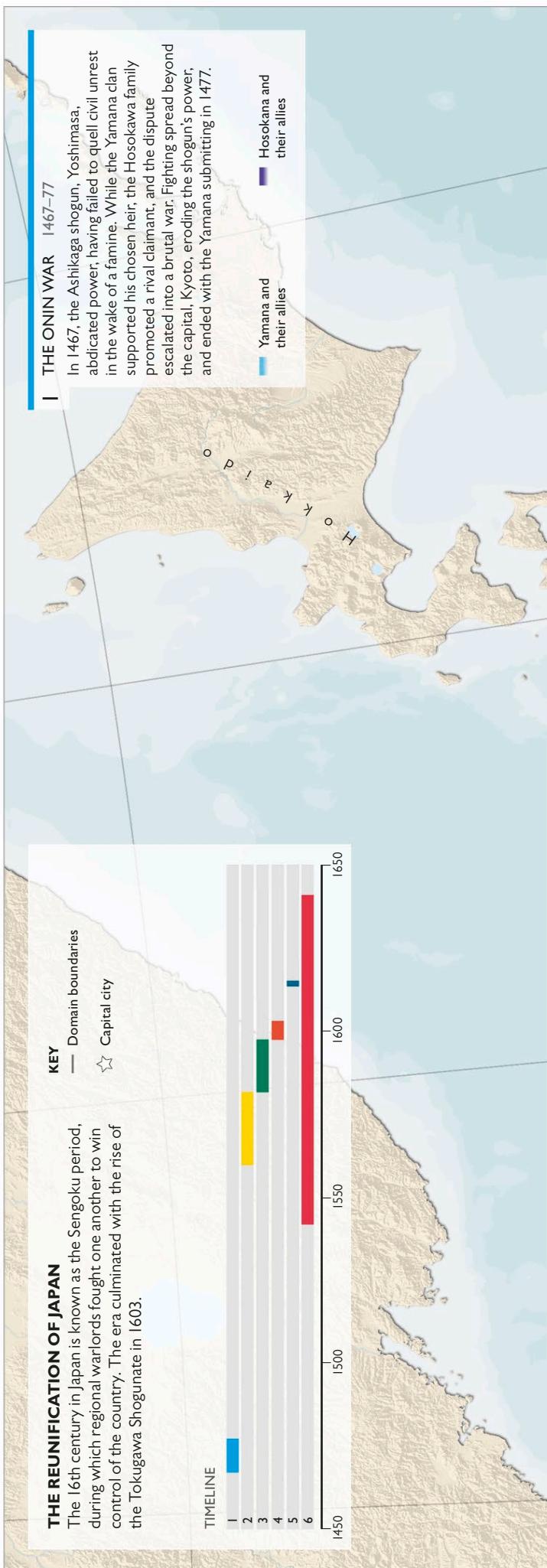
KEY
- Yamana and their allies
- Hosokana and their allies

Hokkaido

THE REUNIFICATION OF JAPAN

The 16th century in Japan is known as the Sengoku period, during which regional warlords fought one another to win control of the country. The era culminated with the rise of the Tokugawa Shogunate in 1603.

KEY
- Domain boundaries
- ☆ Capital city

TIMELINE

1450   1500   1550   1600   1650

2 CAMPAIGNS OF ODA NOBUNAGA 1560–82

In 1560, Oda Nobunaga foiled the attack on his domain by rival daimyo Imagawa Yoshimoto. He then amassed allies and set out to win control of Japan. By 1575, he had subdued his rivals and clamped down on armed militia based around monasteries. Nobunaga was close to securing his rule in Japan, but a disaffected lieutenant forced Nobunaga to commit suicide in 1582.

◼ Area unified by Oda Nobunaga by 1582

✗ Key battle

3 HIDEYOSHI TAKES CONTROL 1582–98

In the chaos that ensued following Nobunaga's death, his former general Toyotomi Hideyoshi took up arms against rival daimyos. Starting with a victory over the Shibata Katsuie at Shizugatake in 1583, he defeated his rivals and, in 1587, became Japan's leader. He ordered the Great Sword Hunt, de-militarizing the countryside and restricting the samurai to towns. His invasion of Korea in 1592 began a 6-year war that ended in failure.

→ Hideyoshi's campaigns of unification

⌗ Fortified castle town

✗ Key battle

4 RISE OF THE TOKUGAWA 1598–1603

Hideyoshi died in 1598, leaving behind a sole heir who was only 5 years old. The resulting power vacuum prompted Hideyoshi's allies to rally around the banner of fellow ally Tokugawa Ieyasu. In 1600, Ieyasu's Eastern Army defeated rival Ishida Mitsunari's Western Army at Sekigahara, and 3 years later, Ieyasu became shogun and founded the Tokugawa shogunate.

◼ Domain under Tokugawa control from 1600

✗ Key battle

5 SIEGE OF OSAKA 1614–15

Although Tokugawa Ieyasu had unified Japan by 1603, the Toyotomi clan, led by Hideyoshi's son, Toyotomi Hideyori, prevented the shogun assuming absolute control of Japan. In the winter of 1614, Ieyasu mounted a large-scale assault on Toyotomi stronghold in Osaka. A series of bloody battles ensued, lasting 6 months, and ended with Toyotomi's defeat.

✗ Key battle

6 FOREIGN TRADE 1542–1641

Europeans began trading with Japan after the Portuguese landed on Tanegashima, south of Kyushu, in 1542. The Dutch set up a trading post in Hirado in 1607. However, in the wake of a pro-Catholic uprising in Shimabara in 1637, the Tokugawa Shogunate expelled the Portuguese, and restricted the Dutch to the island of Dejima, before stopping all trade with Europe.

▲ Foreign trading post

◁ **Oda Nobunaga observes his castle**
Castles provided key bases for daimyo in their domination of the provinces they ruled and were often hard-fought over in Japan's civil wars. Nobunaga's main fortress at Azuchi allowed him to control the approaches to the imperial capital Kyoto.

1600 Ieyasu makes Edo Tokugawa capital

1575 Nobunaga breaks siege of Nagashino Castle by Takeda Katsuyori, relieving Tokugawa Ieyasu, the future shogun

1575 Nagashino Castle

1560 Oda Nobunaga defeats Imagawa Yoshitomo to secure the Owari domain

1600 Tokugawa Ieyasu defeats Ishida Mitsunari to become the shogun of Japan

1583 Hideyoshi defeats Shibata Katsuie, who commits suicide

1582 Nobunaga dies at Honnoji Temple in Kyoto after siege by Akechi Mitsuhide

1638 Uprising of Christian converts in Shimabara is suppressed by Tokugawa forces

1542 First Portuguese trading mission opens in Tanegashima

1641 Dutch traders are confined to Dejima island

1570 Nagasaki opens to European trade

1587

Sea of Japan (East Sea)

Sado

Oki

Tsushima Strait

Inland Sea

Shikoku

Kyushu

Dejima

Ozaki
Edo
Kamakura
1590
Odawara
Aizu
Senpoku
Shonai
Komatsu
Kitanosho
1583
1600
Sekigahara
Okehazama
Nagashino
1582
Yamazaki
1583 Shizugatake
Kyoto
Nara
1582
1615 Osaka
Hyogo
Kochi
1582
Takamatsu
Sendaigawa
Tanegashima
Nagoya
Amakusa
Shimabara
Higo
Nagasaki
Hirado
Matsuura
Ulsan
Pusan
Yamagawa

Master and disciple
This 1892 painting by Italian painter Tito Lessi shows
Galileo Galilei (right), who became blind towards the end
of his life. Galileo is accompanied by his assistant Vincenzo
Viviani, who calculated the speed of sound in 1660 by
observing the sound and light flash from a cannon.

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

In the mid-16th to late 17th centuries, scientists such as Nicolaus Copernicus, Galileo Galilei, and Isaac Newton inspired a revolution that overturned traditional views of the workings of nature and the Universe.
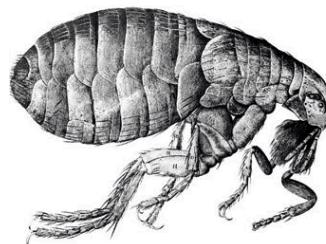
△ **Microscopic observation**
The English naturalist Robert Hooke produced this drawing of a flea in 1665 using the recently invented microscope – another instrument that helped advance scientific observation.

Before 1500, scholars had largely confined themselves to commentaries on the works of ancient writers such as Ptolemy, whose astronomical work in the 2nd century CE described an Earth-centric solar system. In 1543, dissatisfaction with Ptolemy's theory led Polish astronomer Nicolaus Copernicus to propose an alternative – he observed that Earth orbits the Sun. German astronomer Johannes Kepler refined the Copernican system and, in 1619, discovered that planetary orbits are elliptical and not circular. Copernicus's work encouraged others to base their theories on observation rather than orthodoxy. In 1609–10, Italian astronomer Galileo Galilei discovered the four moons of Jupiter using the newly invented telescope. He also made huge advances in dynamics, establishing laws for the acceleration of falling bodies.

Far-ranging efforts

In the field of medicine, the direct observation of patients and dissection of corpses yielded new insights, such as the discovery of blood circulation in the human body by English physician William Harvey in 1628. The culmination of the scientific revolution came in the late 17th century with English mathematician Isaac Newton's three Laws of Motion and Theory of Gravity, which provided a mathematical explanation of planetary orbits. By then, the view that the Universe could be described in mechanical terms, by mathematical formulae rather than theological dogma, had been firmly established.

MAPPING THE WORLD

The voyages of European explorers in the 15th and 16th centuries inspired a revolution in mapping. The Netherlands became a centre of expertise, where, in 1569, the Flemish cartographer Gerardus Mercator produced a world map using a new projection. This became the standard for maps for centuries to come.

THE DUTCH GOLDEN AGE

The Netherlands began to assert its independence from Spain in 1568; a golden age for the new country followed. Abroad, the Dutch East India Company out-competed other European nations in the Spice Islands (see pp.162–63) and constructed a maritime empire.

The revolt of the Netherlands against Spanish rule, in 1568, initially devastated the main rebel areas in the north. On winning their independence these areas became known as the Dutch Republic or United Provinces. After the country had recovered from the war, economic prosperity returned and a "Regent" class emerged. Though wealthy, this class privileged the virtues of self-reliance and hard work, an ethic that their religious leaders applauded. Yet they also provided a pool of patrons in the fields of arts and sciences that made the first century of Dutch independence a golden era.

Together with early forms of maritime insurance, state banks, and stock exchanges, the Dutch Republic pioneered the joint stock company, in which investors pooled their risks (and shared equally in the profits). The most important, the Verenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie (the VOC, or Dutch East India Company) founded in 1602, exploited a favourable investment climate in the spice markets, which included a lack of state interference. The VOC captured Ambon in 1605, at the centre of the spice production region of the Moluccas – also known as the Spice Islands – and it became the VOC headquarters from 1610–19. The VOC expanded its network of forts and outposts until, by the 1660s, the Dutch had built an empire that stretched from Surinam in South America to Cape Town, Ceylon (modern Sri Lanka), and large parts of the Indonesian archipelago.

DUTCH GOLDEN AGE PAINTING
ART AFTER INDEPENDENCE

The growing wealth of the Dutch Republic meant that there were many rich mercantile families who could act as patrons, encouraging the flourishing artistic scene. Their lack of interest in religious subjects meant that the Netherlands' leading artists were masters in history paintings (Rembrandt van Rijn, 1606–69), genre scenes (Johannes Vermeer, 1632–75), landscapes (Jacob van Ruisdael, 1629–82), and portraits (Frans Hals, 1582–1666).

Domestic art
Vermeer's *The Milkmaid* (c.1666) is typical of scenes of domestic tranquillity favoured by many Dutch patrons.

THE DUTCH EMPIRE

Throughout the 17th century, the Netherlands sought to expand its empire, and had to compete with already well-established European empires such as those of Spain and Portugal. The Dutch gained many possessions across the world, including the Moluccas in Indonesia, which helped develop their dominance in the spice trade.

KEY

■ ● ◆ Netherlands possessions or regions held temporarily by Netherlands during 17th century

■ ◆ Spanish possessions, 1700   ■ ● ◆ Other European possessions, 1700

TIMELINE

	1	2	3	4

1550   1650   1750   1850

CANADA
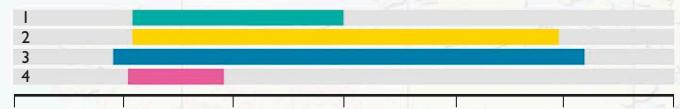
1625 New Amsterdam is capital of New Netherlands region on east coast of America

1664 Taken by British and renamed New York

1667 Ceded to Britain by treaty of Breda

1655 New Sweden captured by Dutch

New Amsterdam (New York)

Dutch **1613–64**

Dutch **1655–64**

Jamestown

VICEROYALTY OF NEW SPAIN

PACIFIC OCEAN

West Indies

Jamaica

ESSEQUIBO DEMERARA **Dutch 1632–76**

BERBICE

SURINAM

VICEROYALTY OF PERU

Lima

INDEPENDENT NETHERLANDS

The Dutch revolt against Habsburg rule in the Spanish Netherlands broke out in 1568. It took 80 years for the seven, largely Protestant, provinces in the north to secure their independence and become the Dutch Republic (or the United Provinces). The southern provinces, which would later become Belgium and Luxembourg, were initially involved in the revolt, but submitted to Spain.

KEY

■ Dutch Republic, 1648

■ Spanish Netherlands

■ Bishopric of Liège

■ Holy Roman Empire

1575 Leiden University founded – educator of many world-leading practitioners in science and technology

1579 Seven northern provinces sign the Union of Utrecht, joining forces against Spanish rule

North Sea

Zuider Zee

Leiden

Amsterdam

Utrecht

Oldenzaal

Groenlo

Lingen

DUTCH REPUBLIC 1648

HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

Mörs

Antwerp

Cologne

Brussels

Maastricht

SPANISH NETHERLANDS

BISHOPRIC OF LIÈGE

Rhine

1 THE DUTCH ECONOMY AND POLITICS
1602–1700

The need to finance foreign trading expeditions led to the foundation of the Amsterdam stock exchange in 1602 and of the Bank of Amsterdam in 1609. Both were able to provide investment funds and loans at much lower interest rates than foreign competitors. Statesmen such as Johan van Oldenbarnevelt (1547–1619) and Johan de Witt (1625–72) provided the able leadership and political stability for the new United Provinces.

2 THE DUTCH EAST INDIA COMPANY
1602–1799

The VOC was established in 1602, financed by 6.5 million florins put in by investors and governed by a board of 17 directors in Amsterdam. The establishment of a base on Java in 1619 and the forceful direction of the VOC's Governor-General in the East Indies enabled it to marginalize the Portuguese in the Spice Islands and dominate the Indonesian archipelago until its dissolution in 1799.

⭐ VOC Headquarters

3 THE DUTCH IN AFRICA 1592–1814

Dutch voyages to West Africa began around 1592. Unsuccessful attempts to seize Elmina, which they finally took in 1637, led to the establishment of Fort Nassau in 1612 – and served as the capital of the Dutch Gold Coast. By the 1640s, the Dutch were threatening the Portuguese base in Angola, and in 1652 an outpost was set up at Cape Town, at the southern tip of Africa. Cape Town received significant numbers of Dutch settlers and remained in Dutch hands until 1814.

Map labels

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

ATLANTIC OCEAN

ENGLAND
London
NETHERLANDS
Paris
FRANCE
Vienna

Azores

PORTUGAL
Lisbon
SPAIN
Madrid
Ceuta
Melilla
Oran
Madeira

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Canary Islands

1605 Dutch establish fort helping them to monopolize textiles trade

Beijing

JAPAN
Kyoto

1641 Dutch trading post established in Bay of Nagasaki, the single place of direct trade between Japan and rest of world during Japan's Edo Period

SAFAVID EMPIRE
Isfahan

Delhi
Gamron

QING EMPIRE

1623 Dutch establish factory in Gamron (Bandar Abbas)

1616 Mughals grant Dutch right to trade in Surat

MUGHAL EMPIRE

Diu
Surat
Bombay
Bhatkal
Cannanore
Cochin
Quilon
Dutch 1637–38

Goa
Masulipatam
Pulicat
Madras
Sadras
Pondicherry
Negapatam

Tuticorin
CEYLON

Manila

Philippine Islands

1607 VOC receives monopoly of the clove trade in the Moluccas Islands, known as the Spice Islands

1605 Fort captured from Portugal, developing Dutch dominance in Spice Islands

Formosa
Dutch 1624–62

Arguin Island
Dutch 1638–78

Cape Verde Islands

Gorée
Dutch 1621–77

Fort Nassau
Elmina

1637–1871 Elmina is captured and becomes the capital of the Dutch Gold Coast

Gold Coast Settlements: 11 Dutch, 7 English

Fernando Po
São Tomé
Principe
1612 Principe occupied by Dutch
Dutch 1641–48

Dutch
1630–54

Recife
BRAZIL

1630–54 Recife is capital of Dutch Brazil until recaptured by Portuguese

1630–54 Pernambuco attacked by Dutch fleet and occupied

1623–25 Salvador captured by Dutch

Luanda
ANGOLA
Dutch 1641–48

1641–42 Luanda captured by Dutch

St Helena
Dutch 1633–51

INDIAN OCEAN

Sumatra
Batavia
Java
East Indies
Moluccas
Ambon

Portuguese Timor

1644 Abel Tasman

Mauritius
Bourbon

1642–43 Abel Tasman

AUSTRALIA

DUTCH SOUTH AFRICA

1652 Dutch settlement established in Cape Town

New Zealand

▽ **Back from Batavia**
A Dutch East India Company fleet returns to the Netherlands in 1648, having rescued a shipwrecked crew at Table Bay – the first Dutch contact with southern Africa.

4 THE DUTCH IN AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND 1606–42

After being the first Europeans to sight Australia's coastline in 1606, the Dutch extensively surveyed its west and north coasts. Willem Janszoon made the first landfall in 1606. In 1642 Abel Tasman sighted Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) and claimed it for the Netherlands. The Dutch made no attempt to establish a colony in Australia.

➤ Voyages of Abel Tasman 1642–44
— Australian coastline surveyed by Dutch, 1644

REVOLUTION AND INDUSTRY

IN 1700–1850, MUCH OF THE WORLD WAS REVOLUTIONIZED BY NEW SCIENTIFIC AND POLITICAL IDEAS. PERHAPS THE MOST FAR-REACHING CHANGE, HOWEVER, WAS THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

THE AGE OF REVOLUTION

The era from 1700 to 1850 could be called by many names – the age of empire, of industry, of nation states, of the Enlightenment, or of Romanticism and Nationalism. It was all these and more – it was the age of revolution, which formed the modern world.

▽ **Fight to the finish**
In one of the decisive naval battles of the Seven Years War, the British took control of the French fortress of Louisbourg (in modern Canada) in July 1758. The victory enabled the British to take over the French North American capital of Quebec the next year.

The overriding and underlying force of this period in world history was growth. An explosion in world population went hand in hand with innovations that, in turn, resulted in a growth in productivity, trade, economies, urbanization, agriculture and industry, literacy and education, and media and technology, among others. The end result was the expansion of some empires and the toppling of others, as different political entities and systems tried – and sometimes failed – to cope with the sudden growth. Some nations thrived, often with brutal economic and human ramifications, as with the British exploitation of global resources, which was underpinned by the slave trade, or with the expansion of the US further into the North American continent (see pp.260–61). Others, from east Asia to western Europe, failed to cope with the pressure, unleashing revolutions with long-term effects.

△ **Party in Boston**
Of all the tea chests thrown into the harbour at the Boston Tea Party in 1773 by Americans protesting against British rule, this is the only chest to have survived.

Reshaping the world

The early 18th century saw change on several fronts. Innovations in agriculture, industry, and other kinds of technology prompted colonization by European settlers in America, Asia, Australia, and New Zealand. The consequences for indigenous populations were horrific – for example, the expansion of the US into Native American territory, or the genocide of Aboriginal peoples in Australia. Advances in technology meant that the scale and lethality of conflicts grew exponentially, whether in Europe where

GROWING CONNECTIONS

As the connections between different parts of the world increased, populations grew, and travel and communication became easier. The consequences were seen in the movement of people, a change in the scale of world economies, and political developments within and between nations, including global conflicts. It was a period that saw immense strides in the development of human understanding of nature and the subsequent ability to control and exploit it.

1700 India, China, and Japan contribute roughly 50 per cent of global GDP

1756 The Seven Years War begins

| ECONOMY |
| POLITICS AND WAR |
| SCIENCE |
| POPULATION |

1700   1720   1740   1760

1701–14 The War of Spanish Succession confirms the separation of the French and Spanish crowns and British control of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland

1735 British clockmaker John Harrison completes his first marine chronometer, greatly improving the accuracy of navigation

1751 Denis Diderot publishes the first volume of his *Encyclopédie*

◁ **Heads up**
An 18th-century etching depicts French revolutionaries displaying the heads of the guards killed during the storming of the Bastille on 14 July 1789 – one of the great symbolic acts of the French Revolution.

the Napoleonic Wars (see pp.208–11) saw the mobilization of huge armies, in New Zealand where muskets transformed traditional Maori warfare, in India where small European forces were able to defeat larger local forces, or in Africa where slaving empires flourished due to new weapons.

Global impacts

The 18th century saw the world's first global war, when the Seven Years War (see pp.192–93), fought between European powers, spread to theatres around the world – from North America to Southeast Asia. As networks of trade and finance reached into every corner of the world, the consequences could be felt everywhere: on the plains of the American Midwest, where coast-to-coast railways led to economic growth but also wiped out buffalo herds that sustained indigenous ways of life; across Africa, where the slave trade resulted in massive depopulation; and in south Asia, where British imperialism eventually resulted in the thorough dislocation of local economies and trade. In China, problems with currency and trade in commodities led to the Opium Wars; while in Australasia, colonial land-grabs resulted in the depletion of indigenous populations.

Such immense transformations inevitably had profound political consequences. In Europe and the Americas, growing middle and artisan classes pushed for change, by revolution if necessary, so that the period 1700–1850 saw a slew of revolutionary conflicts, with the American and French revolutions of the 18th century and the nationalist and political revolutions of the early 19th century in South America. The greatest upheavals came in China, where the 19th century saw near-constant unrest as the country failed to cope with economic, technological, and political changes in the world.

By 1850, the world was vastly richer overall but with greater inequality than ever before. Despite celebrated advances in politics, society, and culture, with revolutionary, liberation, and emancipation movements, the Englightenment, and the Scientific Revolution, it was the global sum of human misery that had grown most of all. Achievements in industry, trade, technology, and culture had been built on foundations of exploitation, slavery, genocide, and injustice.

▷ **Map of the future**
This map was drawn during the Lewis and Clark Expedition (1804–06), which helped open North America to settlement and accelerated the expansion of the US.

Timeline

1776 The American Revolutionary War begins

1790 About 95,000 slaves embark from Africa for the Americas

1800 Italian physicist Alessandro Volta invents the battery

1820 Global GDP reaches c. $700 billion (as calculated in 1990 terms)

1822 Brazil declares independence from Portugal, and Ecuador gains freedom from Spain

1849 Discovery of gold leads to a Gold Rush in California

1853 Height of the Taiping Rebellion in China as rebels capture Nanjing

1780 | 1800 | 1820 | 1840 | 1860

1788 First fleet arrives in Australia from England

1792 Revolution in France topples the monarchy, establishing the French Republic

1815 Napoleon is defeated at Waterloo

1830 Genocide of Tasmanian Aboriginals renders the group extinct

1838–39 Native Americans are forced to relocate from their traditional lands in a journey now known as the Trail of Tears

1861 James Maxwell formulates equations of electromagnetism

1 FRENCH VIE FOR DOMINATION 1700–50

French colonists claimed, and began to settle, a vast expanse of North America – from the Mississippi delta in the south to the northeastern coastline, with the fur trade forming the mainstay of their economy. By 1750, rising tension over British encroachment into midwestern territories abutting the Great Plains had resulted in the French erecting a series of forts. They also formed friendly relations with tribes such as the Huron and Odawa to help them fight the British threat.

⊞ French forts ▲ French trading posts

1704
1708

1704–08 French raid British colonies during Queen Anne's War

1745 French fortress of Louisbourg falls to Americans during St George's war

1758 Fort Louisbourg

1745

1745 French forces and their Native American allies raid and destroy the village of Saratoga, killing up to 100 inhabitants

1710 British troops take the Acadian capital of Port Royal, renaming it Annapolis Royal

1774 The First Continental Congress is held in Philadelphia, in which the colonies decide to boycott British imports as a protest against the 1773 Tea Act

1742

1740

Jul 42 Spanish attempt to invade Georgia at the battle of Bloody Marsh

1700s The forts in fertile Illinois country (Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and Vincennes) became the grain garden of New France

△ The **Boston Tea Party**
In response to new British tax laws including the Tea Act and the Stamp Act – a tax on paper – revolutionaries disguised as Native Americans destroyed the valuable tea cargo of British East India Company ships.

2 QUEEN ANNE'S WAR 1702–13

Allied with Native American groups, French colonists raided British settlements in the New England colonies. In retaliation, the British captured the key French fortress of Port Royal in the French colony of Acadia. Following the war, mainland Acadia, Hudson Bay, and Newfoundland were ceded to Britain under the 1713 Treaty of Utrecht. Part of Acadia became Nova Scotia, so named due to its brief period as a Scottish colony in 1629–32 (see p.156).

→ French campaign ➠ French raid
↠ French and Native American campaign ⋯▸ British campaign
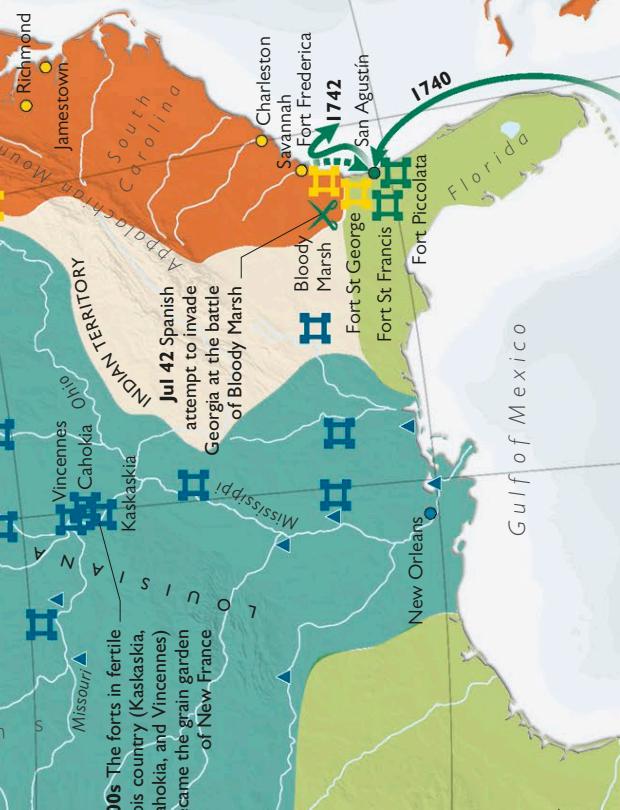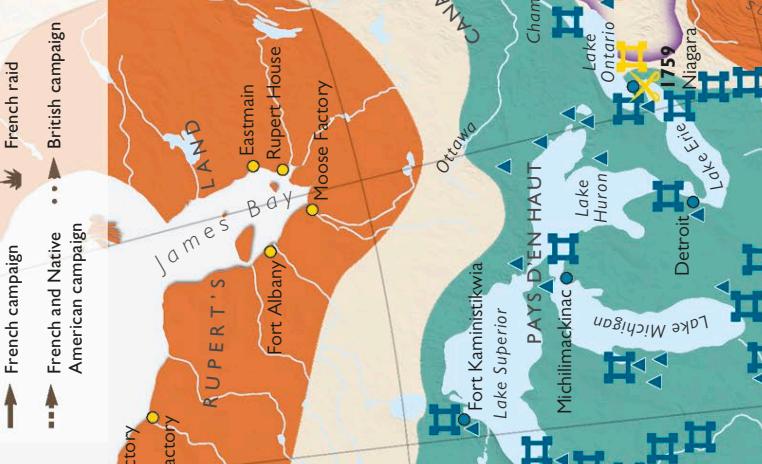
3 THE IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY 1600–1779

In 1722, the Tuscarora tribe, displaced from the Carolinas by European settlement, became the sixth member of a league of nations known as the Iroquois Confederacy, located in upper New York state. The Iroquois successfully defended their territory until 1779 when an American force carried out a systematic destruction of Iroquois settlement and crops.

▮ Iroquois Confederacy territory

4 WAR OF JENKINS' EAR 1739–48

The conflict between the Spanish and English over the land between South Carolina and Florida had been simmering for a century. However, the hostilities found a new edge with English naval captain Robert Jenkins' claim that Spanish coast guards had pillaged his ship and cut off his ear (which he presented to Parliament). This triggered a nine-year war with Spain, which eventually became mixed up with King George's War.

↑ Spanish campaign ✗ Major battle
↑ British campaign

5 KING GEORGE'S WAR 1744–48

In 1744, the French and British were at war in Europe, over the Austrian succession. King George's War was the name given to its French and British theatre in North America. The war resulted in the British-American colonists taking Louisbourg on Cape Breton Island. However, under the terms of the 1748 peace treaty, the British returned to Louisbourg to the French – a move that infuriated the American colonists.

➠ French raid ✗ Major battle
↑ French campaign
⋯▸ British campaign

6 THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR 1756–62

With French military resources committed in Europe, British colonists took advantage, waging war on their French counterparts (see p.192). Key victories in Fort Louisbourg (1758), Quebec (1759), Fort Niagara (1759), and Montreal (1760) ended French territorial claims in North America, with France ceding Louisiana to Spain in the secret Treaty of Fontainebleau (1762).

✗ Major battle

Map labels:

Bonavista
St John
Newfoundland
Gulf of St Lawrence
Cape Breton Island
Halifax
ACADIA
NOVA SCOTIA
Annapolis Royal (Port Royal)
Boston
Newport
NEW ENGLAND
Montreal
Quebec
St Lawrence
Lake Champlain
Philadelphia
Richmond
Jamestown
South Carolina
Charleston
Savannah
Fort Frederica
Fort St George
Fort St Francis
Bloody Marsh
San Agustín
Fort Piccolata
Florida
Gulf of Mexico
CANADA
Lake Ontario
Niagara
Lake Erie
Detroit
Ohio
Appalachian Mountains
Eastmain
Rupert House
Moose Factory
Fort Albany
James Bay
RUPERT'S LAND
Hudson Bay
Fort Churchill
York Factory
Severn Factory
Churchill
Nelson
Lake Winnipeg
Great Plains
Fort Kaministikwia
Lake Superior
PAYS D'EN HAUT
Michilimackinac
Lake Huron
Lake Michigan
Vincennes
Cahokia
Kaskaskia
INDIAN TERRITORY
LOUISIANA
Missouri
Mississippi
New Orleans
Rio Grande
BAHAMAS

Dates on map: 1704, 1708, 1707, 1710, 1745, 1758, 1759, 1740, 1742

BATTLE FOR NORTH AMERICA

In the first half of the 18th century, North America became another theatre for the expression of the imperial rivalries between France, Britain, and Spain. Britain would eventually triumph, but the cost of victory would sow the seeds of revolutionary sentiment into the hearts of the American colonists.

The population of Britain's North American colonies had reached 1.2 million by 1750 – far outnumbering the 65,000 French and 20,000 or so Spanish colonists on the continent.

In contrast, the native population was in rapid decline, ravaged by displacement, massacres, and diseases borne from the Old World. For example, Native American numbers east of the Appalachians had dwindled from about 120,000 at the start of European colonization to just 20,000 in 1750. Moreover, the Native American groups struggled to find unity among themselves to help them withstand the tide of incomers. The French sought to contain the burgeoning British Atlantic colonies by strategically locating their own settlements and forming alliances with Native Americans. The tactic gave rise to skirmishes but could not prevent the British colonies from extending their territory, displacing French colonists in the northeast, and destroying Spanish outposts that threatened to curtail their expansion to the south. The conflicts culminated in the French and Indian War (part of the Seven Years War – see pp.192–93) – a bloody and costly campaign that earned the British a sweeping victory, and which all but ended French territorial claims on the continent. However, in the war's aftermath, the British government imposed laws and taxes to recoup the cost of the war, stoking resentment among colonists about being ruled from afar.

COLONIAL CONFLICTS IN NORTH AMERICA

From 1700, the rapidly growing population of the British Atlantic colonies posed a threat to French-controlled territories. French attempts to assert its own presence led to a series of conflicts that ended in a British victory in 1763.

KEY

- ● British territory or colony, 1750
- ● French territory or colony, 1750
- ● Spanish territory or colony, 1750
- ⌶ British fort
- ⌶ Spanish fort

TIMELINE

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

1740 During the War of Jenkins' Ear, a British-colonial raid on Cartagena results in the death of the majority of the raiding army

7 TAXATION TYRANNY 1763–73

In the years following the French and Indian War, Britain passed a series of taxation laws – not only to earn its share of profits from colonial trade in America, but also to recoup the cost of the war. When Britain attempted to gain a monopoly on the lucrative tea trade by enforcing the Tea Act (1773), a group of colonists boarded British tea ships in Boston and dumped 342 chests of tea into the harbour – an act now known as the Boston Tea Party.

⚔ Boston Tea Party

8 THE FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS 1774

In 1774, delegates from 12 of the 13 colonies (Georgia did not send a representative) convened in Philadelphia for the First Continental Congress. The delegates agreed that colonists were entitled to the rights of "life, liberty, and property", and called on the colonies to stop imports from Britain. As the stance hardened on both sides, the relationship between Britain and the American colonists became irreparable.

❖ First Continental Congress

NORTH AMERICA, 1763

The map of North America changed dramatically following British victory in the French and Indian War (1754–60) as Britain wrested all lands east of the Mississippi from the French. Meanwhile, Spain gained nominal control over Louisiana and ceded Florida to the British. To appease Native American groups, the British government drew up the Proclamation Line of 1763, which forbade colonial settlement beyond the line of the Appalachian Mountains.

KEY

- ■ British territory
- ■ Spanish territory
- ■ French territory
- — Proclamation line

THE SEVEN YEARS WAR

The outbreak of a conflict between Britain and France for colonial domination drew in allies on both sides. With hostilities extending from North America to India and from the Caribbean to Russia, this was the first war on a truly global scale.

The Seven Years War pitted the alliance of Britain, Prussia, and Hanover against the alliance of France, Austria, Sweden, Saxony, Russia, and Spain. The war was driven by commercial and imperial rivalry, and by the antagonism between Prussia and Austria. In Europe, Prussia made a preemptive strike on Saxony in August 1756 after finding itself surrounded by enemies, once France had ended its ancient rivalry with Habsburg Austria and, along with Russia, formed a grand alliance. Britain aligned itself with Prussia, partly so that the British king could protect his German possession, Hanover, from the threat of a French takeover. However, Britain's main aim was to destroy France as a commercial rival, and its attack focused on the French navy and French colonies overseas, particularly in North America. Heavily committed to the European cause, France had few resources to spare for its colonies and consequently suffered substantial losses in North America, the Caribbean, west Africa, and also India (see pp.224–25). Fought simultaneously on five continents, the Seven Years War culminated in 1763 with Britain emerging as the world's largest colonial power.

> *"While we had France for an enemy, Germany was the scene to employ and baffle her arms."*
>
> WILLIAM PITT, BRITISH PRIME MINISTER, 1762

COLONIAL DOMINATION

The Seven Years War tested the military might of European powers – France, Britain, and Spain – in North America as they fought for colonial supremacy. Fighting battles on two fronts, in Europe and in the colonies, strained both resources and colonists' loyalties.

TIMELINE

1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
1750	1755	1760	1765	
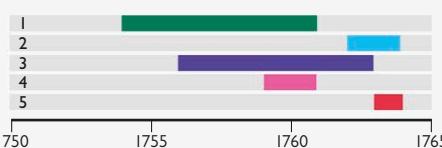
KEY

- ⊞ British fort
- ⊞ French fort
- ⊞ Spanish fort
- ⚓ British naval base
- ⚓ French naval base
- ⚓ Spanish naval base
- ● British possessions
- ● French possessions
- ● Spanish possessions

13 Sep 1759 General James Wolfe is killed capturing Quebec at the battle of the Plains of Abraham

1759 After capturing the key defensive fort of Louisbourg, the British sail up the St Lawrence and begin deporting all the Acadian colonists

1755 At the outbreak of war in the Ohio valley, General Braddock, aided by Virginia militiamen commanded by 22-year-old George Washington, attack Fort Duquesne

2 THE ANGLO-SPANISH WAR 1762–63

As French losses mounted, Spain became increasingly nervous about the British threat to its colonies. But before they could launch an offensive as a French ally, the British laid siege to and seized control of the Spanish colony of Havana, Cuba (1762). A month later, on the other side of the world, the British invaded Manila in the Spanish-controlled Philippines.

- → British campaign
- ✕ British victory

1762 The British, under Admiral Pocock and the Earl of Albemarle, make a preemptive strike on Havana

NORTH AMERICA, 1754–63

The North American theatre of the Seven Years War is known as the French and Indian War in the US and simply as the Seven Years War in English-speaking Canada. It began 2 years earlier than hostilities in Europe.

1 THE END OF ACADIA 1754–60

Fighting broke out in 1754 between French and British colonists over ownership rights to the Ohio River valley (a key fur trade post). Battles raged for several years, with Native American tribes pulled into the conflict. Eventually, the British captured Quebec, gained control of all former French territory, and expelled the French colonists of Acadia.

- → British campaign
- ⇒ French campaign
- ▲▲ French ring of defence
- ✕ British victory
- ✕ French victory

3 PRUSSIA'S INVASION 1756–62

When Prussia's Frederick the Great invaded Saxony, Austria and its allies retaliated on all fronts, but Prussia, aided by British subsidies, scored a string of early victories, notably in 1757 in Leuthen against French troops. However, Prussia suffered a heavy loss to Austria and Russia in 1759 at Kunersdorf. Further Russian advances appeared to seal Prussia's fate, but the death of Russia's warmonger, Empress Elizabeth, earned Prussia a timely reprieve.

- ▬ Prussia and allies
- ✕ Prussia and allies victories
- ▬ Austria and allies
- ✕ Austria and allies victories
- → Initial campaigns by Austria and allies

EUROPE, 1756–63
In Europe, the Seven Years War took place on land in the centre and east of the continent, and in the seas of western Europe.

North Sea

SWEDEN

RUSSIA

1762 Accession of Peter III to Tsar results in peace between Russia and Prussia

Baltic Sea

1763 Peace of Hubertusburg confirms a return to the state existing before the war and for Prussia, its ascendancy to great power status

1761 Kolberg
Danzig

PRUSSIA

POLAND-LITHUANIA

HANOVER

Berlin
1758 Zorndorf

1759 Kunersdorf
Liegnitz

SAXONY

1757 Leuthen
1758 Hochkirch

1760 Prussian victory at Leignitz and Torgau relieves threat to Austria

1756 Pirna
1756 Lobositz
1757 Prague
1757 Kolin

IRELAND

GREAT BRITAIN

Plymouth
Portsmouth
London
Chatham

1758 Howe and Bligh

Cherbourg

Brest

St Malo

Paris

1763 Treaty of Paris

1759 British naval victory at Quiberon Bay (and victory at Lagos) secures maritime supremacy

Quiberon Bay

Hawke

1761 Keppel

1757 Hawke and Mordaunt

Rochefort

FRANCE

AUSTRIA

HUNGARY

Ferrol

Corunha

ATLANTIC OCEAN

Oporto

Lisbon

Madrid

PORTUGAL

SPAIN

MILAN
MANTUA

Adriatic Sea

TUSCANY

Toulon

CORSICA

Danube

1759 Lagos

Cádiz
Gibraltar

Cartagena

1782

1756–68 Frendi
1756

4 THE BRITISH BLOCKADES 1759–61

The French had planned an invasion of Britain, but their fleet was badly battered in defeats in 1759 at Lagos off Portugal (19–28 August) and Quiberon Bay off Brittany (20 November), while the British naval blockades impaired French supply routes to the colonies. These naval victories enabled Britain to gain an advantage over France in its colonial conquests elsewhere.

- ✕ British victories
- ✕ French victories
- → British naval campaigns
- → French naval campaigns

5 PEACE OF PARIS TREATY 1763

The signing of the treaty in Paris confirmed the end of French imperial and colonial ambitions and the ascendancy of Britain as a world empire. In the war's aftermath, saddled with a huge war debt, Britain attempted to draw revenues from its colonies in North America, much against the will of the colonialists, and fomented the beginnings of a rebellion.

- 🤝 Treaty of Paris

△ **Old Fritz**
Frederick the Great of Prussia, pictured here honouring a fallen officer, triumphed against the odds in the Seven Years War and became known affectionately in Germany as "Old Fritz".

△ **New land from the sea**
This illustration from 1705 is one of the most dramatic portrayals of the impact of land reclamation – the Dutch literally enlarged their nation by using dams and dikes to drain land that had previously been below sea level.

THE AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION

The term "Agricultural Revolution" is traditionally associated with the rapid increase in agricultural productivity from the early 18th to the mid-19th centuries. It began mainly in Britain and later spread throughout Europe, the US, and beyond.

Beginning in the early 18th century, innovative British farmers adopted and adapted techniques, crops, and technologies from other parts of the world, particularly the Low Countries (modern-day Belgium and Holland), to achieve a dramatic increase in agricultural productivity. Between 1750 and 1850, grain productivity in Britain tripled, supporting a similar expansion of the population far beyond historically sustainable levels. Many of the practices and ideas involved may have been drawn from continental Europe, but by 1815 British agricultural productivity far outstripped that of any other European country. In the 19th century these innovations spread across the developed world. The four pillars of this revolution in agriculture were: agricultural technology such as seed drills and mechanization; crop rotation; selective breeding to improve livestock yields; and enclosure, reclamation, and other changes in land-use practice.

Innovation and mechanization

In 1701 English farmer and agronomist Jethro Tull developed an improved seed drill – a device that planted seeds in rows, making it easier to weed and tend the crop, and thus increasing labour efficiency. Although initially slow to catch on, the seed drill was emblematic of the potential of technology to greatly improve the productivity of both land and labour. In the US, Cyrus McCormick developed a machine called the reaper; in 1840 he was able to cut 12½ times more wheat with it in a day than was possible with a scythe.

Another source of increasing yields was the use of new crop types, such as high-yielding wheat and barley – which replaced low-yielding rye – and turnips, root vegetables that could be grown without impeding weed clearance. However, perhaps the greatest boost came by overcoming the factor that was primarily limiting yields: the level of biologically available nitrogen in the soil. Although they did not yet understand the underlying biology, farmers in the Low Countries had discovered that crops such as legumes and clover could improve soil fertility and reduce the need for land to be left fallow. This is because bacterial root nodules on such crops can fix, or assimilate, atmospheric nitrogen, fertilizing the soil even as they produce useful food and

▷ **Seed drill**
This relatively simple device greatly improved agricultural productivity by planting seeds with regular depth, spacing, and alignment.

DRIVING THE REVOLUTION

The introduction of high-yielding crop varieties, crop rotation, and the economic impact of non-food cash crops were some of the primary drivers of the Agricultural Revolution. Other milestones included new livestock breeds and how they were brought to market. New areas of land were tilled in the New World even as land use was transformed in the Old World. Shifts in urban and rural demographics changed the labour force, while new technologies boosted productivity.

1700 Continuing a process that started in 1604 and lasted until the early 20th century, the English Parliament passes thousands of enclosure acts to consolidate land ownership

1755 Robert Bakewell breeds the New Leicester sheep

LAND				
TECHNOLOGY				
ANIMALS				
CROPS				
LABOUR				

1700 — 1720 — 1740 — 1760 — 1780

1701 Jethro Tull develops his seed drill

1788 First successful threshing machine patented by Scottish millwright Andrew Meikle
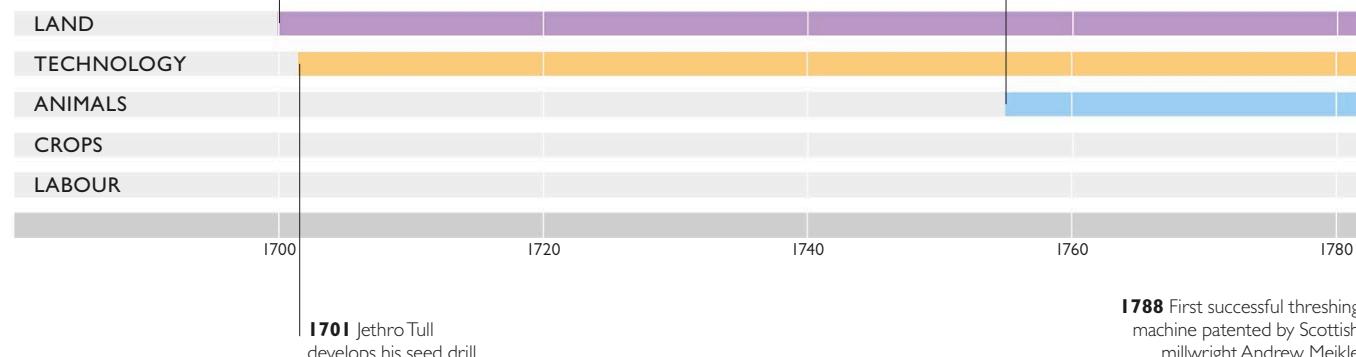
◁ Bakewell's Leicester ram
This engraving shows a Dishley or New Leicester ram, one of the products of Robert Bakewell's extensive programme of selective breeding to create more productive livestock.

fodder crops. In Norfolk, for example, between 1700 and 1850, a switch to clover and the doubling of the cultivation area of legumes tripled the rate of nitrogen fixation.

Changing practices

Meanwhile, changes in the way livestock were reared (stall rearing instead of pasturing, for example) made it possible to collect manure to use as fertilizer. Together, such innovations increased wheat yields by about one-quarter between 1700 and 1800, and then by about half between 1800 and 1850. Eventually, scientific knowledge caught up with empirical wisdom to reveal nitrogen as the key element in fertilizers, and from the mid-19th century imported sources such as guano became important.

Better yields and cultivation of fodder plants resulted in an increase in livestock rearing, and selective breeding led to higher-yielding breeds. Breeds such as the Merino sheep, famous for its wool, radicalized Australian agriculture from 1807; by the 1850s there were 39 sheep for every Australian.

"Agriculture not only gives riches to a nation, but the only riches she can call her own."

SAMUEL JOHNSON, ENGLISH ESSAYIST, 1709–84

In Britain, enclosures – the fencing in of wasteland or common land to make it private property – increased the land available for intensive farming, as did the clearing of woodland, the reclamation of upland pastures, and the reclamation of fenland. From the mid-17th to the mid-19th centuries, nearly one-third of England's agricultural land was affected. Land that had previously been pasture became arable, as pasture was replaced by fodder crops, especially those produced in the crop rotation system. Crop rotation, especially when crops were planted in rows, meant that fields need not be left fallow to allow weeding.

The Agricultural Revolution laid the foundations for the Industrial Revolution (see pp.212–13). It sustained high levels of population growth and increased the productivity of land and workers, freeing up labour from agriculture and the countryside, and driving the growth of cities and industrial workforces.

△ Muck spreading
This pleasant country scene somewhat obscures the true nature of the product being advertised – guano, or fertilizer made from bird droppings.

1800 Norfolk's "four-course crop rotation" becomes standard in enclosed English farms

1815 Cotton replaces tobacco as the most valuable cash crop in southern states of the US

1863 Emancipation Proclamation declares freedom for all slaves in the US; however, slavery is replaced by an iniquitous share-cropping system

1871 Just 4 per cent of arable area in England is left fallow, compared to 20 per cent in 1700

1860–1910 Farms in the US triple from 2 million to 6 million, while the area farmed more than doubles from 160 million to 352 million hectares

1800   1820   1840   1860   1880   1900   1920

1807 October Edict ends serfdom in Prussia; serfdom in western Europe had mostly disappeared in Middle Ages, but it would linger in Russia until 1861

1837 Cyrus McCormick patents mechanical reaper

1867 Joseph McCoy ships cattle from Abilene in Texas to slaughterhouses in Chicago, sparking the "Beef Bonanza"

1874 High-yield squarehead wheat bred by Scottish agronomist Patrick Sheriff arrives in Denmark, from where it will spread across Europe

THE ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE (TAST)

Though not the only slave trade (for instance, the Arab trade in slaves to the Islamic world pre-dated and outlasted TAST), TAST was unprecedented both in scale and profitability, developing from a few voyages to an industrial-scale network.

KEY

TERRITORIES AND SETTLEMENTS

- Portuguese
- Dutch
- British
- Spanish
- Danish
- French

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

1400　1500　1600　1700　1800　1900

| PORTUGUESE INSTIGATORS 1441–55

In the early 15th century the Portuguese raided the west African coast for slaves to labour on the large estates of the Algarve region on the mainland and on the Atlantic islands colonized by Portugal, such as Cape Verde and Madeira. By 1455, around 10 per cent of the population of Lisbon was black.

▸ Early Portuguese slave trade

1695–1807 5,300 voyages are made from Liverpool, Europe's busiest slave-trading port, to Africa

1794 France abolishes slavery in its dominions

CANADA

Quebec
Newfoundland

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Montreal

BRITAIN　DENMARK

NETHERLANDS

Liverpool
Bristol　London　Amsterdam
Paris

FRANCE　EUROPE

Venice

Marseille　Genoa
Rome

1700s Fish from eastern Canada and Newfoudland fed entire Caribbean slave population

By 1455 10 per cent of Lisbon's population is made up of African slaves

PORTUGAL　SPAIN　Barcelona
Lisbon
Seville　Mediterranean Sea
Algiers　Tunis

1865 The Thirteenth Amendment finally abolishes slavery in the United States

New York

Richmond

Salt cod

Furs, tobacco, dyestuffs, sugar, cotton

MOROCCO

Sahara

Tripoli

388,747

Charleston

Mobile
San
Agustín

New Orleans

Gulf of Mexico

Bahama Islands

Silver, sugar, cacao, coffee

Mid-1400s Portugal becomes the first to export slaves from the west African coast

Iron, cloth, shells, guns

Silver, gold, sugar, tobacco, coffee, diamonds

ATLANTIC OCEAN

Arguin

AFRICA

VICEROYALTY OF NEW SPAIN

1,000,000

Mexico City
Acapulco　Veracruz

Cuba
Jamaica
1,019,594　Haiti
Hispaniola
926,285

Guadeloupe
290,000

Martinique
216,910

Cape Verde Islands

Saint Louis
Gorée
Fort James

Timbuktu
Gao

1804 Slave rebellion establishes first black state outside Africa

Barbados
493,163

Middle Passage

Cacheu
SIERRA LEONE
Bance Island

KONG

BORNU

Caribbean Sea

Grenada
128,687

ASANTE
LIBERIA
Axim　Cape
Elmina　Coast

OYO
BENIN
Whydah
New
Calabar
Brass

Congo

1500–1650 Until the mid-16th century, most African slaves are sent to the Caribbean colonies, especially the gold mines of Hispaniola

Cartagena

VICEROYALTY OF NEW GRANADA

c.320,000

Portobelo

Windward Coast (Grain Coast)

Gold Coast

Slave Coast

São Tomé

GUIANA
500,000

SURINAM

KONGO
Loango
Malemba

VICEROYALTY OF PERU

95,000

Callao　Lima

Andes

Amazon

SOUTH AMERICA

BRAZIL
4,300,000

Pernambuco
Salvador (Bahia)

1525 Portugal's *Santa Maria de Bogoña* is the first-known named ship to transport slaves direct from Africa to New World (from São Tomé to Hispaniola)

Luanda
ANGOLA

Benguela

Potosí

1530–1831: 1.7 million slaves arrive at Rio de Janeiro – the world's busiest slave port

Rio de Janeiro
São Paulo

Andes

VICEROYALTY OF RÍO DE LA PLATA

Kalahari Desert

7 THE PLANTATION COMPLEXES 1750–1850

The collapse of most of the trans-Atlantic empires did little to slow TAST, which was now driven by the three primary plantation complexes: cotton in the southern US, coffee in Brazil, and sugar in Cuba. After being run mostly out of British ports, the trade passed back into Brazilian-Portuguese and Spanish hands after the British abolished their slave trade in 1807 (see pp.222–23).

DUTCH SOUTH AFRICA
Cape Town
Cape of Good Hope

Buenos Aires

◁ **The lash**
Life on the plantations of the southern United States was brutal. This graphic illustration, from c.1863, shows an African American slave being whipped.

🫘 Coffee　　Cotton　　🌾 Sugar

2 LABOUR FOR THE NEW WORLD   1500–1866

Europe turned to Africa to supply hardy labour to work in the mines and plantations of the New World colonies. Slave-traders forcibly captured potential workers, including women and children, by the thousands and marched them to fortified centres – called factories – on the coast, before placing them on ships bound for the New World.

→ Routes of traders supplying factories

▮ Export centres for African slaves

▯ Factories

3 THE ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE DEVELOPS   1500–1640

Voyages direct from Africa to the New World started as early as 1500. Initially the slaves were sent to the Caribbean; only later did they go to Brazil. By 1640, two distinct branches of the trans-Atlantic slave trade (TAST) had developed, following the prevailing winds and currents: the northern one to the Caribbean and mainland Spanish America; the southern one to Brazil.

→ Routes of European slave trade

▮ Distribution of African slaves in New World

4 SIX IMPERIAL SYSTEMS   1672–1750

By 1672, six empires (the British, Danish, Dutch, French, Spanish, and Portuguese) operated TAST to feed the labour demands of their plantations and mines. TAST developed its overarching triangular structure of goods moving from Europe to Africa, slaves from Africa to the Americas, and commodities from the Americas back to Europe.

→ Goods exported in exchange for slaves

⇢ Goods exported for slaves

•• ► European exports to Africa

5 EFFECTS ON AFRICAN POLITIES   1700–1900

In the 18th century, goods and weapons traded for slaves drove the rapid expansion of the west African kingdoms of Oyo and Asante. The 19th century saw the rise of Dahomey in Benin and the Chokwe in what is now Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

▮ African kingdoms

6 THE SCALE OF TAST   1790–1830

From the 1790s to 1830 over 74,000 people a year were forcibly removed from Africa in slave ships, up from 3,400 a year in 1640. Over the next two decades a further million people were transported – around 10 per cent of the entire number of slaves traded. The vast majority of slaves were carried to South America (primarily Brazil) and the Caribbean.

⚓ Number of slaves imported

Map labels: ASIA · RUSSIAN EMPIRE · Baghdad · PERSIA · Cairo · EGYPT · Mecca · Muscat · Nile · Arabian Peninsula · Aden · Horn of Africa · ETHIOPIA · Mogadishu · Mombasa · Zanzibar · Mozambique · MOZAMBIQUE · Quelimane · Sofala · Madagascar · Mauritius · Réunion · Inhambane · Delagoa Bay · INDIAN OCEAN

THE ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE

The Atlantic slave trade was an international system of commerce and human misery that saw 12.5 million people forcibly transported to the New World, and at about 2 million killed in the process. The trade transformed the world economy and the nations involved.

Slavery was still a major feature of 15th-century life, especially in Iberia and Italy, with slaves coming from eastern Europe as well as Africa. Though slaves were often domestic servants, this provided a model when the colonization and exploitation of the New World got under way, as the intense demand for labour drove the development of one of the first global systems of large-scale commerce: a triangular system in which manufactured goods from Europe were traded for slaves in Africa, who were then transported to the New World and forced to produce raw materials to be shipped back to Europe.

Slave trading was immensely profitable, so much so that it may have underwritten the entire edifice of Western capitalism. Even as some of the nations that had profited the most sought to stamp out the trade, it continued at high volumes into the early part of the 19th century. The trade had profound effects on the populations and subsequent development of both exporting and importing regions, and constituted one of the greatest forced migration events in history. It was an atrocity on an immense scale, the ramifications of which are still barely acknowledged today.

"The shrieks and groans rendered the whole scene of horror almost unimaginable"

FORMER SLAVE OLAUDAH EQUIANO, 1789

THE MIDDLE PASSAGE
THE JOURNEY AND THE DESTINATION

The journey across the Atlantic was the "middle" leg of the triangular trade, and so was known as the Middle Passage. Slaves, most of whom had never before seen the sea, were shackled and tightly packed together, confined in horrific conditions for 6–8 weeks, or sometimes up to 13 weeks with adverse weather. Disease, murder, and suicide were rampant and 10–20 per cent of slaves died on the voyage.

Packed together
This harrowing deck plan shows the unimaginable way in which slaves were packed together in the hold of a slave ship.
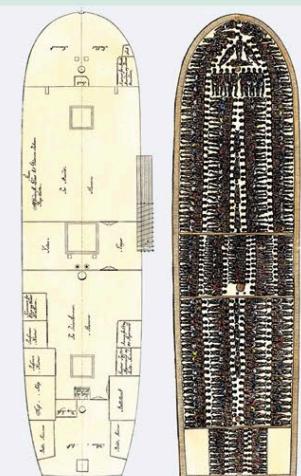
THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Also known as the American War of Independence, the American Revolution was the culmination of increasing tensions between Britain and its colonies in the Americas. The war pitted Patriots (who wanted independence) against Loyalists (who were loyal to the Crown) in a conflict that would forge a new nation in America.

Seeking to defray the costs of war debt, as well as the many expenses of securing the western frontier and protecting colonists from Native Americans, Britain looked to impose more taxation on its 13 colonies. The colonies, however, resented this repressive taxation, as they did not receive any direct representation in British Parliament in return. Fired by Enlightenment ideals of liberty and justice, many colonists resisted the acts of a distant Parliament, staging rebellious stunts such as the Boston Tea Party in 1773, and summoning a Continental Congress in 1774 to press for autonomous rights and liberties.

Growing tension between Patriots and foreign troops spilled over into war when the first shots were fired at Lexington, Massachusetts, in April 1775. The war was as much a civil conflict as a revolution; many colonists remained loyal to the Crown, and

Loyalist militia composed a significant portion of British forces. British efforts to crush George Washington's Patriot army in the north ended in a stalemate, yet the Patriots won key symbolic victories, such as their defeat of a column marched from Canada, which convinced the French to enter the war on the Patriots' side. When the British began to attack from the south, and after a crushing British victory at Charleston, the Revolution looked to be in danger, but slowly things changed in the Patriots' favour, and the British began to feel the strain of fighting a war from such a distance – orders, troops, and supplies could take months to cross the Atlantic. When the French fleet chased off British naval relief in 1781, Washington and his French allies were able to trap the British commander Charles Cornwallis in Yorktown, Virginia, and force the British to agree to a peace treaty.

THOMAS JEFFERSON
1743–1826

A lawyer and plantation owner from Virginia, Thomas Jefferson emerged as one of the prime intellectual powerhouses of the Patriot cause with his 1774 defence of American independence, *A Summary View of the Rights of British America*. He was asked to help write the Declaration of Independence, and his draft was adopted in 1776, with only minor changes. He went on to found the Democratic Party, serve as third President of the US, and oversee major expansion of US territory.

Declaring independence
Thomas Jefferson presents the Declaration of Independence to Congress.

VICTORIES AND LOSSES
The American Revolutionary War had three main phases: a northern phase, in which the British were unable to force a decisive victory; a southern phase, in which initial British gains were slowly reversed; and a central phase, in which the British were finally defeated.

KEY
MOVEMENTS, WITH DATE AND LEADER NAME
→ British   → French   → Patriots

VICTORIES
✗ British   ✗ French   ✗ US
✗ Indecisive outcomes

▥ Fort   –– The Thirteen Colonies, 1775   ···· State lines

TIMELINE
1
2
3
4

1770   1780   1790

Oct 1778 Hamilton

Illinois

INDIAN   Wabash

Feb 1779 American commander George Clark leads an army of 170 men to lay siege to the British fort at Vincennes

St Louis   Cahokia

Vincennes

Kaskaskia

Harrodsburg

RESERVE

4   BIRTH OF A NATION   1782–83
With no realistic prospect of maintaining the war on American soil, the British were forced to recognize American independence. In the Treaty of Paris, the Americans won control of their waters and vast territories, which now extended as far west as the Mississippi River. The treaty was officially signed on 3 September 1783, and approved by the Continental Congress a few months later.

■ US border, 1783

Alabama

3   DEFEAT OF THE BRITISH   1781
In the final stages of the war, the focus shifted to the central region. Costly pyrrhic victories for the British were followed by a decisive intervention by French naval forces from mid-1781. Washington and French General Rochambeau coordinated their forces to trap General Charles Cornwallis, leader of the British expeditionary force, in Yorktown, where he surrendered.

(✗) Siege of Yorktown

CANADA

QUEBEC

Montreal

Ottawa

Fort Chambly
Fort St John's

Aug 1775 Montgomery

May 1776 Thomas

Jun 1777 Burgoyne

Sep 1775 Arnold

DISTRICT OF MAINE
to Massachusetts

Crown
Point

Jun 1777 St Leger

Georgian
Bay

Oct 1777 British General Burgoyne, marching south from Canada to cut off the rebellious northern colonies, suffers a devastating defeat at the Battles of Saragota

Nov 1778 Following a violent storm that damages much of his fleet, French Admiral Charles-Hector d'Estaing departs for the West Indies – a great loss for the Patriots

Jun 1775 Patriots show their determination at the fierce Battle of Bunker Hill, near Boston; the British are forced to evacuate Boston

Lake Huron

Lake Ontario

Fort
Stanwix

Fort
Oswego

Saratoga

Cherry Valley

Albany

NEW
YORK

Bennington

Lexington
Concord
Cambridge
Boston

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Connecticut

RHODE
ISLAND

Nov 1778 D'Estaing

Fort
Niagara

Jul 1778 Butler

Dec 1776 Washington crosses the Delaware and scores a symbolic victory, having suffered a series of defeats in and around New York

Sep 1777 Gates

Hudson

MASSACHUSETTS
Providence

Hartford

Newport

May/Jun 1781 Rochambeau

Fort Detroit

Lake Erie

Fort Malden

Wilkes Barre

PENNSYLVANIA

West
Point

New York

Princeton

White Plains
New Haven
New London

CONNECTICUT

Sep 1778
Washington

Jul 1776 Howe

WAR IN THE NORTH 1775–80

American Patriots faced an experienced British army, but they proved their mettle in initial battles in Massachusetts. General George Washington marshalled his inexperienced Patriot troops through a difficult campaign, avoiding decisive defeats to reach a stalemate in the north, and scoring two morale-boosting successes: Trenton (1776) and at the Battles of Saratoga (1777).

Northern colonies

UPPER OHIO FRONTIER

Fort Pitt
(or Pittsburg)

Fort Henry

Redstone
Fort

Germantown

Wilmington

Philadelphia

Monmouth
Trenton

NEW
JERSEY

MARYLAND

DELAWARE

Aug 1781 Hood/Graves

Aug 1781 De Barras

Jul 1777 Howe

Aug 1781 De Grasse

Jul 1778 D'Estaing

Jul 1778–Feb 1779 Clark

KENTUCKY
FRONTIER

Mar 1781 Costly win proves a pyrrhic victory for the British

Oct 1763 The British issue a proclamation line, declaring lands to the west off limits to colonists, to prevent further expansion into Native American territories

VIRGINIA

Charlottesville

Bedford

Potomac

Lafayette

1781 Washington

Chesapeake Bay

Williamsburg
Yorktown
Norfolk

2 **WAR IN THE SOUTH** 1778–81

The British opened a new front in the south in 1778, and scored a major victory with the capture of Charleston in 1780. But the Patriots refused to give in, and slowly the tide turned against the Loyalists, culminating in an important Patriot victory at Cowpens, South Carolina, in January 1781, which proved that the British southern strategy could be countered.

Southern colonies

Oct 1781 Cornwallis surrenders at Yorktown, effectively ending the war and leading to American independence from Britain

Sep 1781 French fleet chases off British fleet at the Battle of the Capes, depriving Cornwallis of naval support and trapping him in Yorktown

Jul 1781 Tarleton

Richmond
Petersburg

May 1781 Cornwallis

Roanoke

NORTH
CAROLINA

Guilford

Ramsay's
Mill

1781 Gates

Mar 1781 Morgan/Greene

Jul/Aug 1780 Gates

Apr 1781 Greene

Charlotte

Cheraw

Cape Fear

Cape Hatteras

Jan 1781 Patriot victory at Cowpens

Cowpens

Camden

Pee Dee

SOUTH
CAROLINA

Wilmington

Aug 1781 De Grasse

Aug 1781 Cornwallis

Fort Ninety Six

Balfour

Jan 1780 Clinton/Cornwallis

Dec 1778 Campbell

Feb 1779 Lincoln

Augusta

Charleston

Prevost

GEORGIA

Savannah

Mar–May 1780 Major British victory in Charleston threatens to cost the Patriots the south

▽ **Heading for success**
On Christmas Day 1776, Washington's Patriot army crossed the Delaware River to make a surprise attack at Trenton, as commemorated in this 1851 painting by Emanuel Leutze.

2 HAITI 1791–1816

Haiti, the most profitable colony in the Caribbean, previously known as Saint-Domingue, had won its independence through a brutal and protracted slave rebellion from 1791 to 1804. In 1816, Bolívar found an ally in the Haitian leaders, who armed him for a return to Venezuela on the condition that if he was successful, he would free the slaves there. In 1817, Bolívar called for the abolition of slavery in Venezuela.

3 GRAN COLOMBIA 1818–22

Bolívar boldly switched the theatre of conflict to Colombia, marching his army across the Andes into the heart of enemy territory, and, in 1819, defeating the Spanish at the Battle of Boyacá. Back in Venezuela two years later, he gathered his forces, including the savage llanero cavalry, to win victory at Carabobo, allowing him to proclaim the Republic of Gran Colombia and become its president.

→ Bolívar 1818–22   ✕ Bolívar victories

4 BRAZIL 1807–22

Brazil followed a laborious path to independence. It had become wealthier than its parent kingdom Portugal and hosted the Portuguese monarchy when it was displaced by Napoleon in 1807. When John VI returned to Lisbon in 1821, his son Pedro remained behind as regent and, in 1822, declared himself Emperor Pedro I of Brazil, establishing an independent empire that lasted, along with slavery, until 1889.

1 ADMIRABLE CAMPAIGN 1812–15

Venezuela had already become a republic once (1811). The Admirable Campaign (the first with Bolívar in charge) was part of its second attempt, but it also proved short-lived. Bolívar fled to the Caribbean, where he wrote the *Letter from Jamaica* – a revolutionary call to arms.

→ Admirable Campaign   ✕ Battle

6 Sep 1815 Bolívar finishes his *Letter from Jamaica* while in exile

1804 Recognition of Haitian sovereignty and independence is finally achieved after years of bloody struggle

24 Jul 1783 Simón Bolívar is born in Caracas, although he travels to Europe to study

24 May 1822 Ecuador liberated after Sucre's victory at Battle of Pichincha

26 Jul 1822 San Martín is replaced by Bolívar

July 1817 Bolívar creates a base, deep in the hinterland near Angostura, and would use it as a starting point for his campaigns

7 Aug 1819 Bolívar defeats the Spanish at the Battle of Boyacá

1821 A daring naval raid by San Martín, with the help of British allies, help secure the liberation of Peru

9 Dec 1824 Sucre crushes last remnants of Spanish forces at Battle of Ayacucho

26 Oct 1825 After the loyalist forces have been dealt with, Sucre and Bolívar climb the legendary silver mountain together to toast free South America

THE *CAUDILLOS*

The success of the South American independence movement depended largely on the ability of a few *caudillos*, or strong men, to unify disparate forces to defeat Spanish royalist forces.

KEY

- Haiti
- Gran Colombia
- Peru
- Bolivia
- Brazil
- Chile
- United Provinces of La Plata
- Uruguay
- Paraguay
- Spanish territory, 1812
- New national borders, 1830

TIMELINE

Map labels: Puerto Rico, Jamaica, HAITI, Caribbean Sea, Tobago, Trinidad, FRENCH GUIANA, SURINAM, BRITISH GUIANA, Santa Marta, Cartagena, Panama, Maracaibo, Puerto Cabello, Caracas, La Puerta, Cumaná, Valencia, Carabobo, Barquisimeto, Tenerife, Trujillo, Mérida, Calabozo, San Fernando de Apure, Angostura, Orinoco, CAPTAINCY-GENERAL OF VENEZUELA, Cúcuta, Apure, Gámarra, Tame, GRAN COLOMBIA, Tunja, Boyacá, Bogotá, VICEROYALTY OF NEW GRANADA, Buenaventura, Bombóna, Pichincha, Quito, Guayaquil, Andes, BRAZIL, Amazon, Paraguay, Trujillo, PERU, VICEROYALTY OF PERU, Lima, Callao, Huacho, Junín, Ayacucho, Puno, Lake Titicaca, La Paz, BOLIVIA, Chuquisaca (La Plata), Potosí, VICEROYALTY OF CHILE, Tacna, Arica, Desert of, PACIFIC OCEAN, Rio de Janeiro, Bolívar

6 SUCRE, BOLÍVAR, AND PERU 1822–26

Bolívar and his most able general, Antonio José de Sucre, moved south, liberating Ecuador in 1822 after Sucre's victory at Pinchincha, and taking possession of Peru after San Martín retired from the field. Sucre defeated the Spanish forces at the Battle of Ayacucho in 1824. By 1826 all Spanish territory had been liberated.

→ Bolívar 1823–26

✗ Bolívar and Sucre victories

▪▪▶ Sucre 1822–24

5 SAN MARTÍN AND O'HIGGINS 1817–22

In southern South America, revolutionary armies under José de San Martín and Bernardo O'Higgins achieved daring victories over Spanish forces, first at Chacabuco (1817) and then in Peru (1821) after a surprise naval attack. O'Higgins became leader of Chile, while San Martín gave way to Bolívar after meeting him in Guayaquil in 1822.

→ San Martín or O'Higgins 1820–22

✗ San Martín and O'Higgins victories

1811 Paraguay declares itself independent from what would become Argentina

1813 Uruguay declares itself independent from what would become Argentina

1810 Río de la Plata declares independence from Spain, but Buenos Aires is unable to maintain control of the outlying provinces

1817 San Martín leads his army across the Andes in his campaign to liberate Chile from Spanish rule

ATLANTIC OCEAN

PARAGUAY
Asunción
URUGUAY
Montevideo
Paraná
Buenos Aires
Córdoba
UNITED PROVINCES OF LA PLATA
RÍO DE LA PLATA
Tucumán
Mendoza
Salta
Andes
Paso de los Patos
Cancha Rayada
Santiago
Maipú
Valparaíso
Chacabuco
CHILE
Talca
Concepción
Talcahuano
CAPTAINCY-GENERAL
Atacama
Patagonia

△ **The Battle of Chacabuco**
In 1817, General José de San Martín secured a famous victory at the Battle of Chacabuco after surprising Spanish forces by marching his army across the Andes.

SOUTH AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

South American desire for independence from distant Iberian overlords was driven mainly by the creole (American-born) elite and put into action by a handful of charismatic and dynamic revolutionary generals. In the Spanish colonies, after a rocky start in the north, liberation from Spanish rule swept across the continent from south and north, while Brazil forged its own path to independence.

At the start of the 19th century, South America was simmering with political, economic, and racial tension. Creoles – those born in the Americas, often with mixed heritage – controlled most of the wealth and the plantations that produced it. Overall political power, however, came from the Iberian peninsula, representing distant imperial authority that restricted trade and industry. The creoles resented this imposition but feared the consequences that revolution might bring; their fears were heightened by the example of Haiti, a former French colony in which slaves had staged the only successful slave-uprising in the New World.

The tension between patriots and out-of-touch European rulers and those loyal to them resembled that in pre-revolutionary North America, and it would be stoked by men like Simón Bolívar – leading creoles who were steeped in the the liberal nationalism emerging in

Europe. When Napoleon invaded Spain and Portugal in 1808 and 1809 and toppled or exiled the royal families of those countries, contact between Spain and Portugal and their colonies was cut. The blue touch paper of revolution was lit.

Initial attempts to proclaim republican independence were thwarted by the defeat of Napoleon and the restoration of the Spanish crown, which triggered aggressive action to reclaim the colonies. In 1815, the Spanish restored royal control in Venezuela and New Granada. Bolívar went into exile in Jamaica and Haiti, but the impetus of independence would not be checked. In the south, San Martín liberated Chile and Peru, while in the north Bolívar and his lieutenant Sucre liberated Colombia and Ecuador, finally chasing Spanish royalist forces out of South America for good in December 1824.

SIMÓN BOLÍVAR
1783–1830

The greatest hero of the South American liberation movement, Bolívar was born to a wealthy family in Caracas (in what is now Venezuela). He spent time in Europe, where he absorbed liberal ideas, and returned to South America fired with revolutionary zeal. A brilliant military strategist, he won a string of key victories against royalist forces, but post-independence was unable to realize his dream of pan-Latin American unification.

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

Spanning the mid-17th to early 19th centuries, the Enlightenment was a period in which thinkers championed reason over superstition and made significant advances in the sciences, arts, politics, economics, and religion.

△ **Enlightened empress**
As well as modernizing and expanding the Russian Empire during her 34-year rule, Empress Catherine the Great championed Enlightenment ideas and advanced state education for women.

Also known as the Age of Reason, the Enlightenment blossomed in pockets across the western world, advocating rationalism and religious tolerance over superstition and sectarianism.

In Germany, it took the shape of a philosophical and literary movement, known as the *Aufklärung*, which helped invigorate literature and philosophy in eastern Europe. In France, the movement was associated with *philosophes* – men of letters, science, and philosophy – starting with René Descartes, and including Voltaire and Jean-Jacques Rousseau, among others. Their ideas combined rationalism with a desire to bring about social change and overcome inequality and injustice. Their belief in the supremacy of reason, religious tolerance, and constitutional governments formed a critique of a dogmatic church and absolute monarchy in France. Their writings provided an intellectual basis for the French Revolution. The American Founding Fathers drew inspiration from them when framing the constitution of their new nation.

In England, the Enlightenment included thinkers such as John Locke and Thomas Paine, who in turn influenced poets, as well as writers such as Mary Wollstonecraft, while in Scotland, the movement flourished in and around Edinburgh between 1750 and 1800 thanks to writers such as David Hume and Adam Smith. This Age of Reason encouraged not only literary realism and the growth of the novel but also created a cultural reaction in the form of Romanticism – an artistic and literary movement in the late 18th century (see pp.216–17).

THE EXPANSION OF RATIONAL THOUGHT

"Rationalist hotspots" in Europe ranged from Stockholm to Lisbon and from Dublin to St Petersburg. In the United States they included Boston and Philadelphia. The increasing communication between these centres allowed rapid exchange of ideas, mirroring the development of international trade.

KEY
● Main centres of the Enlightenment

Edinburgh
Stockholm
St Petersburg
Dublin
Copenhagen
London
Amsterdam
Paris
Berlin
Vienna
Lisbon

Learning from Voltaire
The guests at this Paris salon in 1755 include
Denis Diderot and Jean Le Rond d'Alembert.
The *philosophes* are gathered around a bust of
Voltaire to hear a reading of one of his plays, in
which blind force and barbarism are defeated by
genius and reason.

THE FATE OF NATIVE AMERICANS

The Native American societies across North America were in transformation even before direct contact with the United States, but the young nation's increasing belief that westward expansion was its destiny would bring drastic change – two centuries of brutal conflict and near-eradication of America's native peoples.

In 1783, the United States became a sovereign nation, no longer bound by the limitations on settlement imposed by Britain. This newfound freedom inspired in the American settlers a belief that they were the natural inheritors of the continent, giving birth to the empowering phrase "manifest destiny" (see below), which drove their expansion westwards.

By 1790, about 500,000 settlers had laid down roots west of the original Thirteen States (see pp.156–57). The expansion gathered pace during the next 50 years as explorers ventured westwards in wagon trains, or sailed to the Pacific Coast to join the Gold Rush. Pioneers paved the way for migrants to settle on the western coast, especially

after railroads replaced the wagon trails. By 1860, approximately 16 million settlers had migrated and settled west of the Appalachians, their arrival displacing and disenfranchising the 250,000 or so Native Americans in the Great Plains and Far West.

Many indigenous groups fought for their lands and mounted some notable defences, but it was only a matter of time before their resistance was crushed by the might and momentum of this Euro-American expansion. By 1890, the remaining Native Americans who had survived the wars were forced out of their homes and herded into specially designated sites called reservations, which amounted to a little more than 2 per cent of the area of the United States.

> *"Kill them all, big and little: nits make lice."*
>
> JOHN CHIVINGTON, US COLONEL, 1864

MANIFEST DESTINY
THE RIGHT TO COLONIZE

Coined in 1845, the term "manifest destiny" encompassed the belief in American settlers in their divine right to inhabit and "civilize" the whole expanse of the continent. Although the hunger for land and opportunities in the west had long been features of American colonization, after independence it evolved into a sense of continental entitlement that drove mass migration westwards. In his painting, *American Progress* (1872), John Gast depicts Columbia – a personification of the US – leading settlers westwards. The figure strings a telegraph wire, implying that the settlers are bringing "light" to the west.

PIONEER TRAILS 1821–61

Settlers organized caravans of ox-drawn wagons and forged new routes westwards across the Great Plains in a bid to settle in new lands. For example, in 1843, about 1,000 settlers made the difficult journey along the Oregon Trail. Other groups, such as the Mormons, were escaping religious persecution, and forged the Mormon Trail, aiming to establish their own community.

EMIGRANT TRAILS
- —— California Trail
- – – – Mormon Trail
- •••• Oregon Trail

SOUTHERN EMIGRANT TRAILS
- —— Santa Fe Trail
- – – – Southern Trail

US EXPANSIONISM 1783–1890

US land claims in Native American territories began in earnest after the War of Independence (1775–83), leading to 200 years of brutal conflict. The wars decimated the indigenous population to about 300,000 and by 1890, the majority were corralled into reservations.

KEY
- Native American territory, 1850
- Native American territory, 1880
- Reservation, 1890

TIMELINE

2 CLAIMING THE OLD NORTHWEST
1783–1850

Following independence, the legal boundary drawn by the British no longer applied, allowing Euro-American settlers to move into the western regions beyond the Appalachians. The settlers dealt with Native American resistance by inflicting a crushing defeat at the Battle of Fallen Timbers in 1794. The last of the resistance in the region fell at the Battle of Tippecanoe in 1811, with some settlers' sights already set further west.

✕ Local wars

3 THE GOLD RUSH 1849–55

The discovery of gold in California set off a frenzied Gold Rush in 1849 as hopeful prospectors poured into the region to profit from this new find, leading to a genocide of the Native American population. Between 1850 and 1860, war, disease, and starvation reduced Native American numbers in California from 150,000 to 35,000. The pattern was repeated when gold was discovered in other parts of North America.

⬛ Major gold sites

△ **Native Americans on horseback**
The Plains Indians in particular learned to be expert horseback warriors. In its attempt to win the Plains Indian War, the US army often massacred entire herds.

DOMINION OF CANADA

1794 Decisive victory for the US ends major hostilities in the Old Northwest until 1811

1825 Lake Erie is linked to the Hudson River via the Erie Canal, forming a northern route into the Mid-West

ATLANTIC OCEAN

STATES OF AMERICA

1863 Big Mound
1873 Stony lake
Bismarck
1863 Whitestone Hill
1876 Powder River
1862 Acton
St Paul
1823 Arickara
1862 Wood Lake
1862 New Ulm
Pierre
1854 Grattan's Defeat
1865 Rush Creek
1865 Fort Sedgwick
1857 Fort Kearney
1873 Massacre Canyon
1864 Sand Creek
Lincoln
Nauvoo
Des Moines
Springfield
Independence
Topeka
Jefferson City
St Louis
1861 Chustenahlah
1864, 1874 Adobe Walls
1859 Crooked Creek
1868 Washita
1868 Soldier Spring
1861 Bird Creek
1874 Palo Duro Canyon
1872 McClellan Creek
1858 Wichita Village
Little Rock
1865 Dove Creek
Austin
San Antonio (San Antonio de Béxar)
Houston
Baton Rouge
Corpus Christi
Matamoros

MEXICO

Gulf of Mexico

Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie
Madison
Lansing
Detroit
Cleveland
Chicago
1812 Stillman's Defeat
1812 Fort Dearborn
1791 St Clair's Defeat
1811 Tippecanoe
Indianapolis
Cincinnati
Columbus
1794 Fallen Timbers
Albany
Buffalo
Trenton
Harrisburg
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Dover
Annapolis
Washington DC
Columbia
Charleston
Richmond
Raleigh
Knoxville
Nashville
Louisville
Frankfort
Savannah
Atlanta
1793 Etowah
1814 Enotachopco Creek
1814 Emuckfaw
1813 Tallasahatchee
1814 Horseshoe bend
1817 Fowltown
Montgomery
1813 Burnt Corn Creek
1813 Fort Minas
Vicksburg
Jackson
Jacksonville
Mobile
1818 Pensacola
1818 St Marks
Tallahassee
1837 Osceola's Capture
1836 Gaine's Battle
1837 Fort Mellon
1814 New Orleans
1837 Taylor's Battle
1835 Dade's Battle
1842 Colee Hammock
1855–58 Big Cypress Swamp

Augusta
Montpelier
Concord
Boston
Providence
Hartford
New York City

Memphis

1830 "Indian Territory" was in present-day Oklahoma and Arkansas

Cuba

4 THE CREEK WAR 1813–14

A regional war between opposing factions of Alabama's Creek Nation turned into a wider conflict as settler militia units became involved. The British and Spanish supplied the arms to the Red Stick Creeks in an effort to curb US expansion. However, superior US firepower led to crushing defeats and the loss of vast swathes of territory in modern-day Alabama and Georgia.

✕ Creek War, 1813–14

5 SEMINOLE WARS 1817–58

Already forced into reservation territory after the first Seminole War (1817–18), the Seminoles of Florida resisted further relocation and under their formidable Chief Osceola launched a guerilla war from hideouts in the Everglades. The US expended much blood and resources attempting to suppress them, only succeeding once Osceola was captured while parleying under a flag of truce.

✕ Seminole Wars, 1816–58

7 PLAINS INDIAN WARS 1850–90

A prolonged phase of bloody conflict between the Native Americans of the Great Plains and the US army centered mainly on the US imperative to secure the transcontinental travel routes from Native American aggression. Tribal chiefs such as Crazy Horse and Sitting Bull fought heroically, but were unable to stop the US hunger for new territory. With the final loss of their lands, Native Americans were forced into designated reservations, to make way for a new nation.

⚔ Battles for the West, 1850–90

6 TRAIL OF TEARS 1830–50

After the passing of the Indian Removal Act (1830), around 16,000 Cherokee of the southeast were rounded up at gunpoint, penned in insanitary camps, and transported to newly designated Indian Territory. Nearly one-quarter perished en route. Many other tribes suffered similar forced relocations, collectively referred to as the Trail of Tears.

➡ Trail of Tears Route

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The French Revolution was actually a series of revolutions accompanied by pan-continental war. Three revolutionary forces converged to drive the transformation of the French state: a liberal aristocratic and bourgeois movement that brought about constitutional change; a popular revolutionary mob in the streets of Paris; and an agrarian revolt by peasants across the country.

In 1789, Louis XVI convoked the Estates-General (for the first time in 175 years) as he sought financial reforms to alleviate France's huge debt. The Estates-General was the Ancien Régime's representative assembly, made up of three estates: clergy (First Estate); nobility (Second Estate); and commoners (Third Estate). In May 1789, the majority Third Estate insisted on greater voting rights. When they were refused, they broke away to form the National Assembly. This triggered a period of great change: a constitutional monarchy was created; and the Declaration of the Rights of Man was drafted, defining a single set of individual and collective rights for all men.

The Assembly, formed out of the National Assembly, pushed through a new constitution and other major reforms, such as the end of feudalism. Factional struggles between the Girondists on the one hand and the Jacobins, headed by Robespierre,

Marat, and Danton, on the other, dominated the Assembly.

The threat posed to France's neighbours by a revolutionary state exporting its ideals prompted a reactionary coalition against France. With enemy armies pressing them on all sides as well as domestic counter-revolutionary uprisings, the revolutionaries panicked. The Revolution descended into a second, extremist phase known as the Reign of Terror. In July 1794, the Jacobins were overthrown in the Thermidor coup. This instituted the third phase of the Revolution, with the more moderate Directory taking power in October 1795 and attempting to restore the liberal, constitutional values of the first phase. By November 1799, however, enemy armies again threatened the Republic's survival. A coup engineered by Napoleon Bonaparte to make himself First Consul is traditionally held to mark the end of the Revolution and the start of the Napoleonic era.

DECLARATION OF THE RIGHTS OF MAN
PRINCIPLES OF THE REVOLUTION

The Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen was a statement of the principles of the Revolution, establishing the sovereignty of the people and the principle of "liberty, equality, and fraternity". Louis XVI was forced to accept it in the 1791 constitution. The painting shows an officer of the National Guard swearing an oath of allegiance before the Altar of the Convention.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION 1789–95
Not everyone accepted the Revolution. Counter-revolutionary centres sprang up, but counter-revolutionaries were crushed. France went to war to spread its revolutionary ideals. Napoleon's successful Italian campaign in 1796 set him on the path to power.

KEY
■ French territory 1789

TIMELINE

1785   1790   1795   1800
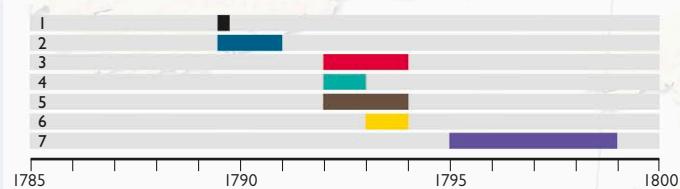
2 THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY   1789–91
The National Assembly abolished feudalism, adopted the Declaration of the Rights of Man, and proclaimed a new, constitutional monarchy. In June 1791, the King was caught fleeing Paris, and radical sentiment was further inflamed when moderates were blamed for the "massacre of the Champ de Mars" on 17 July, in which the National Guard fired upon a crowd in Paris, killing up to 50 civilians.

☠ Massacre

3 THE TUMULT SPREADS ABROAD   1792–94
Shockwaves rippled across Europe, sparking both revolutionary feeling (the Austrian Netherlands revolted and declared independence as Belgium) and reactionary opposition (neighbouring monarchies formed the First Coalition to restore the French monarchy). The Revolutionary Wars began, with France going to war with Austria, Prussia, and most of its neighbours. Panic grew inside France and the revolution became more extreme.

⚔ French victory   ⚔ French defeat

➡ Offensives by French forces 1792–94

┅➤ Offensives by coalition forces 1792–94

■ Territories annexed by France 1792–97

○ Brest

4 THE REPUBLIC   1792–93
The Parisian mob, fearful that Louis XVI was in league with the Prussians, stormed the Tuileries Palace and locked up the royal family. The monarchy was abolished, a republic declared, and a new Year One proclaimed. The Jacobin Convention took over, promulgating in 1792 an Edict of Fraternity espousing the export of revolutionary ideals, and in 1793 the King was executed.

5 LEVÉE EN MASSE   1792–94
Forced mass military conscription prompted a counter-revolutionary uprising in the Vendée and elsewhere. Combined with the threat from a British landing at Toulon, this prompted the Convention in August 1793 to issue a decree of levée en masse – total mobilization of the entire population. The Vendée risings were brutally suppressed and the foreign armies thrown back.
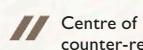
▟ Centre of counter-revolution   ▬ War in the Vendée
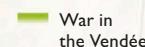
1 STATE OF EMERGENCY
JUN–OCT 1789

Mounting economic and political crisis forced Louis XVI to summon the Estates-General at Versailles in 1789. The Third Estate (the commoners) formed a National Assembly and took the Tennis Court Oath, vowing to remain united until a constitution was established. July 1789 saw the storming of the Bastille, hated symbol of Ancien Régime oppression, marking the acceleration of the Revolution.

✊ Centre of revolution   🏃 Riots

▷ **Leaving for the guillotine**
The reign of the Jacobins ended in July 1794 with the Thermidor coup, and its leaders, including Robespierre (above, centre) were sent to the guillotine.

Jan 1790
The Austrian Netherlands revolt and declare independence as Belgium

7 THE DIRECTORY 1795–99

The Jacobins gave way to the Thermidorian Convention and then, in October 1795, new elections and a suppressed revolt in Paris instituted the reign of the more moderate government called the Directory and a period of relative stability. In 1796, the French general Napoleon Bonaparte launched a successful Italian campaign that would make him the leading man in France.

⟶ Italian campaign of Napoleon

✕ Battle of Napoleon's Italian campaign

6 THE TERROR 1793–94

To stamp out counter-revolutionaries, the Convention instituted the Reign of Terror, with surveillance, denunciations, and mass executions. Maximilien Robespierre seized control of the Terror and had his opponents executed. In July 1794 the Terror reached a fever pitch and eventually consumed its own progenitors with the Thermidor coup. Robespierre's arrest and execution was followed by the end of the Terror.

▪ Centre of execution, with numbers executed

Map labels

North Sea

NETHERLANDS

GERMAN STATES

Hondschoote **1793**
Brussels
Neerwinden **1793**
Cologne
Jemappes **1792**
Liège
Fleurus **1794**
Arras **400**
Wattignies **1793**
AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS
Koblenz
Amiens

English Channel

Le Havre
Rouen
21 Jun 1791 Louis XVI captured while trying to flee
Longwy
Worms
Mainz
Varennes
Verdun
Caen
Seine
Valmy **1792**
Metz
Nancy
Strasbourg
14 Jul 1789 Revolutionary mob storms the Bastille prison
17 Jul 1791 Massacre of the Champ de Mars, Paris
Sep 1792 Massacre in Paris of 1,200 "counter-revolutionary" prisoners presages the Terror to come
Paris **2600**
Versailles
20 Sep 1792 French beat Prussians
Colmar
Rhine
Rennes
2 Sep 1792 Prussians defeat France
1792 Food riots and widespread fear of counter-revolution empowered the most radical elements
Angers **2000**
Orléans
Loire
9 Jul 1789 Tennis Court Oath establishes the National Assembly
Nantes **3500**
Besançon
NEUCHÂTEL
VENDÉE
Bourges
SWISS CONFEDERATION
Poitiers
Cluny
Bay of Biscay
Mar–Dec 1793 Uprising in the Vendée is crushed with several thousand civilians killed
Geneva
Bordeaux **300**
Garonne
1788 Insurrection at Grenoble
Lyon **2000**
SAVOY
Grenoble
PIEDMONT
Milan
Lonato
Bassano
Venice
Rivoli
Arcole
Turin
Lodi
Castiglione
Mantua
Cahors
Orange **300**
AVIGNON
NICE
REPUBLIC OF GENOA
Genoa
Bologna
Toulouse
Nîmes
Montpellier
Mondovi
Dego
Montenotte
Florence
Nice
Marseille **300**
Toulon **300**
Mediterranean Sea
Pau
SPAIN
ANDORRA
Corsica
FRANCE
Rhône
Dijon

1 THE WAR AT SEA 1794–1805

Since the French Revolutionary wars (see pp.206–07) British command of the seas had been a constant thorn in Napoleon's side. British operations as far-flung as the Caribbean and Denmark assured their naval superiority, even before the decisive Battle of Trafalgar ended French ambitions to rule the seas.

→ French forces
✕ French victories
⇢ British forces
✕ British victories

1798 French attempt to stir up Irish rebellion against the British, but fail to land

1801, 1807 British twice bombard Copenhagen to prevent the Danish navy becoming a powerful ally of Napoleon

1807 Prussians forced to sign a humiliating treaty at Tilsit after Fourth-Coalition defeat at Friedland

Aug 1805 Napoleon abandons plans to invade Britain from Boulogne and marches his Grande Armée to confront the Austrians at Ulm

Jul 1805 British commander Horatio Nelson defeats the French under Villeneuve, having outmanoeuvred them in the Caribbean

1 Jun 1794 British victory over a French fleet (which was protecting a grain convoy from the US) on the so-called "Glorious 1 June" allows the British to blockade the French navy in port for years

Sep 1805 Nelson sails on to intercept a Franco-Spanish fleet at Trafalgar

1801 Austria forced to make peace after French victories at Zurich and Hohenlinden

Dec 1799 Napoleon takes his army through St Bernard's Pass in the Alps in midwinter to surprise the Austrians, who are besieging Genoa

14 Jun 1800 Marengo

1799 Zurich

1800 Hohenlinden

14 Oct 1806 Jena-Auerstädt

Oct 1806 Napoleon occupies Berlin after beating the Prussians at Jena-Auerstädt

1807 Friedland

1807 Eylau

2 Dec 1805 Austria makes peace after French victory at Austerlitz

1797 Spanish fleet intercepted off Cape St Vincent by the British before it can join the French in an invasion of Britain

21 Oct 1805 British Navy scores a decisive victory over a French fleet allied with the Spanish; British hero Admiral Nelson is fatally wounded

12 Jun 1798 Malta

NAPOLEON'S SUCCESSES

The period 1794–1809 saw a string of successes for Napoleon as he rose to lead France and expand its influence, briefly, over all of Europe. In 1802 France had not advanced far beyond its historical borders, but it would soon become an empire.

KEY

▮ France in 1802
— National borders in 1802
▬ Border of Holy Roman Empire

TIMELINE

1790 | 1795 | 1800 | 1805 | 1810 | 1815

2 THE EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN 1798–1801

Napoleon set off to control Egypt (and therefore probably to threaten British interests beyond – in India). He evaded Nelson's fleet and landed in Egypt. He won the Battle of the Pyramids against the Mamluks (who ruled Egypt under the Ottoman sultan) and occupied Cairo.

→ French forces
✕ French victories
⇢ British forces
✕ British victories

3 WAR OF THE SECOND COALITION 1799–1802

In 1799, a coalition of nations attacked French interests while Napoleon was in Egypt. Russians beat the French in Italy, and Austrians drove them back over the Rhine. Napoleon returned from Egypt and staged a military coup, becoming "First Consul", before addressing the crisis in northern Italy.

→ French forces
✕ French victories

Map labels: NORWAY, SWEDEN, Stockholm, North Sea, Baltic Sea, DENMARK, Copenhagen, Tilsit, Königsberg, Danzig, SWEDISH POMERANIA, PRUSSIA, Berlin, Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen, HANOVER, Hanover, BATAVIAN REPUBLIC, SAXONY, BOHEMIA, Prague, MORAVIA, Cracow, Killala Bay, Edinburgh, Ireland, Dublin, Bantry Bay, UNITED KINGDOM, Bristol, London, Boulogne, Brussels, Amiens, Rouen, Paris, FRANCE, Strasbourg, Lunéville, Ulm, Munich, BAVARIA, AUSTRIA, Leoben, Vienna, HUNGARY, Buda, Pest, Brest, Cape Finisterre, Corunna, Vigo, Bordeaux, Santander, Geneva, SWISS CONFEDERATION, Great St Bernard Pass, Alps, Milan, Turin, Genoa, Venice, Belgrade, PORTUGAL, Vimeiro, Lisbon, Talavera, Saragossa, Madrid, SPAIN, Barcelona, Pyrenees, Marseille, Cannes, Nice, Toulon, Florence, Bologna, TUSCANY, Elba, Corsica, PAPAL STATES, Rome, KINGDOM OF SARDINIA, Apennines, Adriatic Sea, RAGUSA, Mostar, MONTENEGRO, Cádiz, Gibraltar (to Britain), Seville, Valencia, Cartagena, Mediterranean Sea, Algiers, ALGIERS, Tunis, Naples, KINGDOM OF NAPLES AND SICILY, Palermo, Sicily, Ionian Islands, MOROCCO, Trafalgar, Tangier, Cape St Vincent

NAPOLEON'S EMPIRE, 1812

At its greatest extent in 1812, Napoleon's domain included most of Europe. Only Britain consistently opposed him.

KEY

- French Empire
- French client states
- Independent allies
- Countries at war with Napoleon

4 WARS OF THE THIRD AND FOURTH COALITIONS
1805–07

Austria joined a British-financed anti-French coalition that already included Russia, Sweden, and the Kingdom of Naples. After heavy defeats, Austria agreed peace terms with France and Russia and retreated to Poland. France created the Confederation of the Rhine, as a client state, in the ashes of the Holy Roman Empire. Prussia was threatened by this and made war with France, which ended in Prussian defeat and the creation of another client, the Duchy of Warsaw (Poland), from former Austrian and Prussian lands.

→ French forces

✕ French victories

MOLDAVIA

WALLACHIA

Bucharest

Varna

OTTOMAN

1798 Ottoman Sultan declares jihad on Napoleon in response to his invasion of Egypt

Constantinople

Smyrna

EMPIRE

Mar 1799 Undeterred by losing his fleet, Napoleon presses on and besieges the Ottomans at Acre, who resist him with the help of British guns

Crete

Cyprus

Aug 1798 In the Battle of the Nile, Nelson destroys the French fleet, crippling Napoleon's Egyptian campaign

Beirut

Damascus

Acre

Jaffa

Gaza

Jerusalem

Alexandria

EGYPT

Cairo

Apr 1799 Napoleon wins a battle on his retreat to Egypt

21 Jul 1798 Napoleon defeats the Mamluk rulers of Egypt and captures Cairo

to Aswan

NAPOLEON ADVANCES

Napoleon established his reputation as leader of the French Revolutionary Army with his bold, unexpected manoeuvres against Austria in Italy (1796–97). By 1804, 10 years after France's republican revolution, he had crowned himself emperor. By 1809, he had complete control of central Europe.

From the maelstrom of the French Revolutionary Wars, Napoleon Bonaparte emerged as a young, ambitious general. Among his early remarkable successes, he pushed the armies of Austria and the kingdom of Sardinia out of northern Italy (1796–97). Austrian forces retreated all the way back to Vienna, leaving northern Italy in the hands of the French. By 1809, Napoleon had absorbed the southern Netherlands (Batavia), the west bank of the Rhine, and a large part of Italy into French territory. He had created client states under French control (for example, the Confederation of the Rhine). He had placed family members on thrones all over Europe, married Marie Louise of Austria, and made Prussia and Austria reluctant allies.

Throughout, Britain remained at war with Napoleon. The British established naval superiority, and it was naval power that thwarted Napoleon's ambitions in Egypt and the Middle East. Napoleon retaliated by isolating Britain with a trade blockade called the Continental System. Its aim of destroying British commerce failed, however as it was impossible to enforce compliance throughout Europe, from Portugal to Russia.

◁ **The man and the myth**
Jacques-Louis David's equestrian portrait (1800–01), which pictured Napoleon crossing the Alps, fed into the leader's desired image of a classical hero.

"In war there is but one favourable moment; the great art is to seize it!"

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, 1804

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE
1769–1821

Napoleon rose to prominence during the French Revolution and led several successful campaigns during the French Revolutionary Wars. As Napoleon I, he was endorsed by the Pope as Emperor of the French 1804–1814, and again in 1815 (see pp.210–11). Napoleon dominated European and global affairs for more than a decade while leading France against a series of coalitions in the Napoleonic Wars. He won most of these wars and the vast majority of his battles, building an empire that ruled over continental Europe before its final collapse in 1815.

NAPOLEON'S DEFEAT

Napoleon sought to make one people of Europe with Paris the capital of the world. Setbacks in Spain and Russia in 1812–14, however, made it clear that this ambition was too great.

KEY

- French empire, 1812
- French client states, 1812
- Britain and countries under British occupation, 1812
- National borders, 1812

TIMELINE

1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

1805 — 1810 — 1815 — 1820

FINAL EXILE

After trying to escape to America, Napoleon surrendered on board HMS Bellerophon and was exiled on the remote Atlantic island of St Helena. He passed the time dictating his memoirs and died in 1821. In his will, Napoleon wrote: "I wish my ashes to rest on the banks of the Seine, among the people of France I loved so much."

AFRICA

St Helena

18 Jun 1815 The British under Wellington and the Prussians under General Blücher together ensure Napoleon's last defeat at Waterloo

North Sea

UNITED KINGDOM

16 Jun 1815 In the final victories of Napoleon's career, his Armée du Nord repulse Prussian and British forces separately at Ligny and Quatre-Bras

London

Boulogne

Amiens

Waterloo

Brussels

Rouen

Ligny/Quatre-Bras

12 Feb 1814 Château-Thierry

30 Mar 1814 Paris

9–10 Mar 1814 Laon

13 Mar 1814 Rheims

18 Feb 1814 Montereau

Orléans

10 Feb 1814 Champaubert

11 Feb 1814 Montmirail

14 Feb 1814 Vauchamps

25 Mar 1814 La Fère-Champenoise

Lunéville

F R E N C H   E M P I R E

Strasbourg

1809 Napoleon storms in, scatters Spanish armies, and pursues a British army to the coast, where it has to be evacuated from Corunna (La Coruña)

Mar 1814 In the Defence of France, the allies occupy Paris and force Napoeon's abdication in April

16 Jan 1809 Corunna

Vigo

May 1809 Oporto

Apr 1814 The British cross the Pyrenees and are fighting for Toulouse when Napoleon abdicates

Santander

Sahagun

Bordeaux

Lyon

Geneva

HELVETIA

Jul 1808 Britain lands an army in Portugal under Arthur Wellesley, who defeats the French forces there and mercifully, but unwisely, repatriates them to France

Jan 1812 Ciudad Rodrigo

Jul 1812 Salamanca

Burgos

Jun 1813 Vitoria

Toulouse

1815 On escaping Elba, Napoleon gathers a new army and marches north

Alps

21 Aug 1808 Vimeiro

Lisbon

Apr 1812 Badajoz

PORTUGAL

Jul 1809 Talavera

Madrid

1812 British advance with a series of victories, Salamanca being the most famous; the French abandon Madrid to face Wellington

Saragossa

1796 Mondovi

Turin

Milan

1809 Wellesley becomes Viscount Wellington (later Duke) after victory of the British and Spanish over the French at Talavera, but then withdraws to Portugal

K I N G D O M

Seville

Iberian

Guadalquivir

Tagus

Peninsula

OF SPAIN

Marseille

Toulon

Cannes

Nice

Genoa

Mar 1796 Montenotte

KINGDOM OF ITALY

Cádiz

1808 Bailén

Barcelona

Florence

Tangier

Gibraltar (governed by Britain)

1812 Valencia

Cartagena

Balearic Islands

THE PENINSULAR WAR 1808–14

The French invaded Portugal and Spain and deposed the Spanish monarchy. Years of popular Spanish uprising followed in a period that coined the term "guerilla warfare". Eventually, with Napoleon distracted by crises elsewhere, a concerted effort by the Duke of Wellington forced out the French.

→ French forces
⤑ British forces
✕ French victories
✕ French defeats

Corsica

Elba

Mediterranean   Sea

MOROCCO

KINGDOM OF SARDINIA

Rome

ALGIERS   Algiers

NAPOLEON'S DOWNFALL

Napoleon's efforts to dominate Europe took him to the far eastern and western ends of the continent. After failing to control Spain, Portugal, and Russia, he was met and defeated by a coalition of nations in central Europe. He was exiled first to Elba, then to far-off St Helena.

Napoleon's 1809 defeat of Prussia and the Fourth Coalition (see pp.208–09) seemed to consolidate his hold over Europe, but Britain had not made peace, and he would not rest. His strategy to defeat Britain – a trade blockade called the Continental System – needed the cooperation of Spain, Portugal, and Russia. The Spanish monarchy was sympathetic, but a French army invaded Portugal in 1807 to force the Portuguese hand, and soon also replaced the Spanish king to assert direct control in Spain as well.

In May 1809, a popular revolt in Madrid spread across Spain and began a guerilla war that Napoleon came to know as his "Spanish ulcer". Although the French leader took matters into his own hands early on and chased the British out of Spain, he was distracted by a new declaration of war by Austria in 1809. He beat the Austrians at Wagram, but with huge losses – the cost of controlling Europe was beginning to mount. Napoleon's plans unravelled more profoundly

5 THE HUNDRED DAYS 1815

The monarchy reinstated in France was not popular, and Napoleon was emboldened to land in France and again to gather an army, marching to attack his enemies in Belgium before they could join forces.

→ French forces   ✕ French victories   ✕ French defeats

4 THE DEFENCE OF FRANCE 1814

Allied armies agreed to pursue Napoleon to his total defeat, and they converged on Paris. Napoleon again scored brilliant early victories with another hastily mustered army, but he was soon forced to abdicate. The allies allowed him to be exiled as "ruler" of Elba.

✕ French victories   ✕ French defeats

3 WAR OF THE SIXTH COALITION 1813

Britain, Russia, Portugal, and rebels in Spain were still at war with Napoleon, but after his disastrous Russian campaign, they were joined by Austria, Sweden, Prussia, and other German states to form the Sixth Coalition. The climactic "Battle of the Nations" was Europe's largest prior to World War I.

→ French forces   ✕ French victories   ✕ French defeats

Bremen
Lübeck
Hamburg
Hanover
Elbe

CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE

16–19 Oct 1813 Leipzig

Oct 1806 Berlin

20–21 May 1813 Bautzen

2 May 1813 Lützen

Dresden

23 Apr 1809 Ratisbon

22 Apr 1809 Eckmühl

Prague

May 1813 With fresh forces, Napoleon scores early victories against the Sixth Coalition at Lützen, Bautzen, and Dresden

5–6 Jul 1809 Wagram

21–22 May 1809 Aspern-Essling

May 1809 Vienna

Leoben

Campo Formio

ILLYRIAN PROVINCES

Adriatic Sea

KINGDOM OF NAPLES

Oder

PRUSSIA

Königsberg
Danzig
Tilsit

GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW

Vistula

Warsaw

Oct 1813 The Battle of Leipzig, with 560,000 combatants, is a huge loss for Napoleon, but he refuses the allies' peace terms and escapes with survivors of his army

1809 Campaigning against Austria, although successful, distracted Napoleon from the Peninsular War

Cracow

Buda Pest

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

Jun 1812 Napoleon leaves the Duchy of Warsaw with 600,000 men and 200,000 horses to quickly subdue Russia

Riga

Aug 1812 First major battle, at Smolensk, is indecisive; the Russians continue to retreat

Sep 1812 French achieve victory in a mass slaughter at Borodino; the Tsar refuses to make peace

Sep 1812 French find Moscow deserted and torched; they are forced to retreat

Kovno
Vilna
Apucca
Smorgon'
Studyanka
16–17 Nov Krasnoy
Smolensk
Hecoum

Moscow

24 Oct 1812 Maloyaroslavets

Nov 1812 French army, frozen, starving, and constantly harried by Russian forces, retreats

14 Dec 1812 Only a small contingent of Napoleon's huge army make it safely out of enemy territory

5 Dec 1812 Napoleon abandons the remains of his army and returns to Paris to raise fresh troops

R U S S I A N   E M P I R E

▽ The Battle of Waterloo
A crucial cavalry charge by the British "Scots Greys" regiment is imagined here by Elizabeth Thompson in her painting *Scotland Forever!*

2 THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN 1812

Napoleon's invasion of Russia incurred enormous losses without success. The Russian forces frustrated the French by retreating all the way to Moscow, then deserting the capital. The exhausted French were forced to make the long return march with winter setting in.

→ French forces   ✕ French victories
⇢ Russian forces   ✕ Russian victories

when he attempted to force the cooperation of Russia, which had been persuaded by Britain to renounce the Continental System. In 1812, he invaded Russia with a vast army but retreated with a few ragged, emaciated survivors. The other European powers saw their chance and assembled the largest anti-French coalition yet, which pursued him eventually to Paris and forced him into exile. Although Napoleon escaped for a final flourish at Waterloo, his time was over.

"I used to say of him [Napoleon] that his presence on the field made the difference of 40,000 men."

ARTHUR WELLESLEY, DUKE OF WELLINGTON, 1831

DUKE OF WELLINGTON
1769–1852

Irish-born Arthur Wellesley, later the Duke of Wellington, first distinguished himself fighting the Kingdom of Mysore and the Marathas (people from Maharashtra state) in India. His success in the Peninsular War made him a British national hero, a status enhanced by his leading role in the defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815. Usually a cautious general, he was also capable of bold attacking strokes, as at Salamanca in 1812. He was never careless of his men's lives and took only necessary risks.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Industrialization is probably the single greatest event in world economic history, at least since the advent of agriculture several millennia earlier. The process, which began in the late 18th century, had far-reaching consequences that would reshape the world.

△ **Slave to the machine**
This engraving celebrating American inventor Eli Whitney's cotton gin also reveals the human suffering and exploitation that helped to make the Industrial Revolution possible.

▽ **Flying shuttles**
Patented by John Kay in England in 1733, these shuttles drew threads back and forth on mechanical looms, halving the labour force required to produce cloth.

Before the late 18th century, the Western world's economy was largely static. Although it periodically expanded as populations grew, this population growth tended to outstrip the carrying capacity of the economy, leading to famine, disease, or war and resulting in population crashes followed by economic contraction.

However, from the late 18th century, economic growth broke free of this trap and began to rise continually. What changed was that the efficiency of the economy began to increase relentlessly. Known as the Industrial Revolution, this transformation began in Britain and then spread to the rest of the world.

The Industrial Revolution was not a single event but a series of changes that took place in a piecemeal fashion in different places and different parts of the economy at different times. Some of these changes had already begun well before the 18th century. For example, a miniature revolution in the manufacture of woollen textiles, thanks to water-mill technology, can be traced to the 13th century.

Labour, materials, and technology

Industrialization was underpinned by population growth and enabled by the Agricultural Revolution (see pp.194–95), which dramatically increased agricultural efficiency and output. Another contributor was slavery. The exploitation of slave labour in the New World drove an explosive growth in the production of raw cotton to fuel the textile industries of the era. Slavery also enabled large-scale production of sugar, tobacco, and other raw materials. The profits from the trade contributed to the growing financial might of Europe, and later the US, underwriting the injections of capital that helped transform cottage industries into global ones.

The Industrial Revolution was also powered by changes in technology. The invention of the steam engine provided the power for the textile mills and other factory machinery. The need to fuel these engines created an increased demand for coal that could be met because of improved mining and better distribution, first by canal and later by rail. In the later part of the revolution, improvements in steel-making provided an impetus to change as stronger, more versatile kinds of steel began to replace iron.

A global phenomenon

Although the revolution began in Britain, it was not long before it spread throughout Europe and to America. Industrialization was readily adopted in countries with enthusiastic entrepreneurs and governments open to change. In the US, iron production and shipbuilding were

SEEDING INDUSTRIALIZATION

The Industrial Revolution involved a complex set of factors. Demographics – the growth and distribution of population – influenced the supply of raw materials and demand for products. This in turn drove developments in finance, which provided the capital needed by industries. Innovations in communication, power, and transport – inspired by new materials and the rising social and economic demand – led to a dramatic boost in productivity.

1694 The Bank of England is established, setting the model for most subsequent central banks

1750 Global population of about 715 million, mostly concentrated in south and east Asia, will almost double over the next century with the most growth in Europe and the Americas

FINANCE				
DEMOGRAPHICS				
INNOVATION				
TRADE				
TRANSPORT				
	1690	1710	1730	1750

1720 The South Sea Bubble, rampant speculation in a British Company granted a monopoly to trade with South America, causes a financial crisis
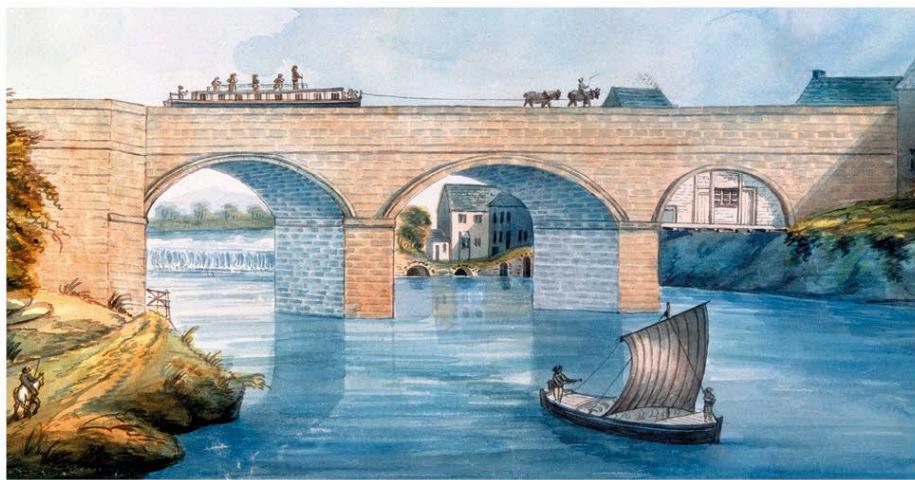
◁ **The Barton Aqueduct**
Part of a coal-shipping canal network that made
Francis Egerton, the Duke of Bridgewater, a
fortune when completed in 1761, this aqueduct
helped to transport raw material from the duke's
mines to market at vastly reduced cost.

the first industries to undergo transformation. In Europe,
Belgium and Prussia led the way as the French Revolution
initially stalled development in France. A fresh wave of
industrialization followed German unification in the 1870s,
and by 1900 industrial output in Germany and the US had
overtaken that in Britain.

The consequences of industrialization

With better transport, it was no longer necessary to build
factories close to the sources of raw materials. Industries
were built in cities, and urban populations grew rapidly.
In 1800, there were 28 cities in Europe with populations
over 100,000; by 1848, there were 45 such cities. However,
conditions for urban workers were harsh. Wages were low,
living standards were poor, and inequality grew, especially
during the early part of the revolution.

As the revolution progressed, new patterns of trade
emerged. Improvements in transport, combined with
the invention of communication technologies such as the
telegraph, led to a rise in global trade. In turn, trade fuelled

*"The process of industrialization is
necessarily painful."*

E. P. THOMPSON, BRITISH HISTORIAN, FROM *THE
MAKING OF THE ENGLISH WORKING CLASS*, 1963

further growth as raw materials could be sourced more
cheaply and markets for finished products expanded. The
Industrial Revolution has many echoes in the present – not
least, the changes in climate we are now experiencing, the
onset of which can be traced to the increased use of fossil
fuels such as coal in the very first wave of industrialization.

▽ **Bessemer converters**
The Bessemer process, which used
vast furnaces such as those installed
at the Krupp Steel Works at Essen
in Germany, transformed industrial
output in Europe.

1771 In Britain, Richard
Arkwright opens the first
modern factory using spinning
machines powered by water

1799 Dutch East India Company
goes bankrupt, unable to cope
with the pressures of increasingly
competitive free trade

1830 George Stephenson's *Rocket*
engine pulls the first passengers
along England's Liverpool and
Manchester Railway

1848 London is the largest city
in the world; its population
increases from 1 million to 2.7
million in less than 50 years

1865 Installation of transatlantic
cable enables simultaneous
commodity trading of cotton
futures across three continents

1790   1810   1830   1850   1870

1769 James Watt patents the
rotary steam engine, marking the
beginning of what is sometimes
known as the Power Age

1776 US ports are opened
to foreign trade by the
Continental Congress

1804 Global population
reaches 1 billion

1844 Samuel Morse sends the first
telegraph message, from Washington,
D.C. to Baltimore, Maryland

1853 Commodore
Perry and his US
fleet force Japan to
open to global trade

1869 The US
Transcontinental
Railroad is completed

JAMES WATT
1736–1819

Born in Greenock, Scotland, in 1736, inventor and engineer James Watt is chiefly remembered for his improvements to steam engine technology. Watt worked to make Thomas Newcomen's 1712 steam engine more efficient by creating a separate condensing chamber to prevent loss of steam. Watt patented his invention in 1769.

INDUSTRIAL BRITAIN

The Industrial Revolution, which began in Britain in the late 18th century, was a period of rapid development in industry that led to changes in politics, society, and the economy. It was in Britain that many of the technological advances occurred that would drive mechanization, urbanization, and capitalism, and lead to the growth of industries such as cotton, coal, and iron.

Many factors contributed to the start of the Industrial Revolution in Britain, as well as to its rapid progression. One significant cause was the Agricultural Revolution (see pp.194–95), which saw improvements to the farming process. Agricultural production became more efficient, and Britain was able to sustain a larger workforce. Fewer agricultural workers were needed to work on the land, and many were now able to move to urban areas to find work in the new factories. The political system in Britain was also conducive to rapid industrialization. As a nation now dependent on trading across the globe, the British government took steps to encourage commercial innovation, such as introducing laws to

protect intellectual property rights. The geographical location of Britain was a key factor, allowing it to communicate and trade with the rest of the world. Britain also had an abundance of natural resources, such as water to power mills and factories, coal to burn for energy, and ores to smelt for metals, which proved invaluable.

Combined with these factors, a series of important technological innovations in the 18th and early 19th century, funded by an increasingly wealthy middle class, revolutionized many industrial processes. By the end of the 19th century, Britain was transformed from a predominantly rural society into an urban one, and almost every aspect of daily life had been altered.

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1 COTTON TEXTILE INDUSTRY 1700–90

Britain's expansion across the globe, and slave labour in its colonies, created a boom in cotton production. It provided the raw material for a new mass-market product – cotton textiles. Richard Arkwright's combination of innovations created the first modern factories, which wove cloth at ever greater levels of productivity, especially with the adoption of steam power. Cotton was seen as a threat to the wool trade, which was slower to mechanize.

🐚 Textile mills, 1870   ➡ Cotton imports from North America and India

🐑 Wool production, 1870

2 STEAM POWER 1712–1802

Steam power was the defining technology of the Industrial Revolution as it provided the energy needed to drive highly productive factories. English engineer Thomas Newcomen's crude steam engines had powered some mines, but improvements by James Watt in the 1770s heralded a new age of steam power. Using Watt's engine, coal could be extracted from deeper levels, making available the fuel source that would power factories, steamships, and railways.

✳ Significant steam engine developments

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN BRITAIN

The textile, coal, and iron industries were transformed during the late 18th and 19th centuries, with heavily industrialized urban areas developing across northern England. A growing network of canals and railways facilitated the movement of goods, people, and ideas.

KEY

⚓ Shipbuilding, 1870   ═══ Canal, 1870

POPULATION, 1851

◉ Over 500,000   ☐ 200,000– 500,000   ◉ 100,000– 200,000   ○ Less than 100,000

TIMELINE

1700	1725	1750	1775	1800	1825	1850	1875

2
3
4
5

SCOTLAND

Mar 1802 William Symington invents the world's first practical steamboat

1807 English mining engineer John Buddle introduces first air pump

May 1812 Mine explosion at Felling Colliery kills 92 workers, leading to advances in mine safety

Sep 1825 Robert Stephenson and Company's *Locomotive No.1* travels on the world's first public steam railway, the Stockton and Darlington line

Dundee
Perth
Greenock
Glasgow
Grangemouth
Edinburgh
Ayr
Stranraer
Berwick
Carlisle
Workington
Newcastle-upon-Tyne
Wallsend
Gateshead
Sunderland
Middlesbrough
Darlington
Stockton

Forth and Clyde

North Sea

1850 Coal production increases tenfold from 1750

Yarmouth

Norwich
Ipswich
Colchester

Feb 1856 The Bessemer converter is invented. It produces steel from iron by burning off carbon impurities

Aug 1771 Richard Arkwright opens Cromford Mill, a water-powered spinning factory

Cambridge

Peterborough

Ely

E N G L A N D

Chatham

London

Thames

Wey and Arun

Brighton
Newhaven

Hull
Great Grimsby
York
Doncaster
Chesterfield
Leeds
Huddersfield
Sheffield
Halifax
Bradford
Manchester
Blackburn
Preston
Blackpool
Liverpool

Leicester

Nottingham
Derby
Cromford

Stafford

Trent and Mersey

Wolverhampton
Tipton
Birmingham
Coalbrookdale
Ironbridge
Stoke
Crewe
Wigan

Northampton

Grand Junction

Oxford

Gloucester
Severn
Hereford
Wye
Kennet and Avon

Fareham
Portsmouth
Southampton
Salisbury
Bath
Thames and Severn
Bristol

1782 The Soho Foundry becomes the first in England to be powered by a Watt steam engine

1784 Wrought iron produced at first iron-rolling mill

Dorchester
Taunton
Exeter
Plymouth

1712 Thomas Newcomen's steam engine pumps water from a coal mine

1708 Abraham Darby uses coke in a blast furnace for the first time, and produces cast iron.

Jan 1708 Abraham Darby uses coke in a blast furnace for the first time, and produces cast iron.

Jul 1779 First cast-iron bridge constructed

Jul 1761 The Duke of Bridgewater Canal, England's first canal, is opened

Liverpool
Birkenhead
Bangor
Holyhead

W A L E S

Merthyr Tydfil
Cardiff
Swansea
Pembroke
Fishguard

Bristol Channel

English Channel

Irish Sea

1750s Factories are mainly located in coal field regions

1792 Scottish inventor William Murdock purifies and stores coal gas, a by-product of coking

Redruth
Camborne

Dec 1801 Engineer Richard Trevithick invents the *Puffing Devil* – the first full-scale steam-powered locomotive

Oct 1829 English engineer Robert Stephenson's *Rocket* wins the Rainhill Trials held by the Liverpool and Manchester Railway

Cotton imports from North America and India

IRELAND

△ **Taking over nature**
Franco-British artist Philip James de Loutherbourg's 1805 painting depicts the iron works at Coalbrookdale, Shropshire. Across Britain, formerly rural areas were transformed by industrial growth.

Stephenson's *Rocket*, 1829

3 COAL 1700–1850

Deforestation had led to charcoal shortages just as demand for fuel was increasing due to the invention of the steam engine, but coal provided an efficient alternative. Initially, in order to avoid transportation costs, industries were limited to coalfield regions. However, this began to change once the bulk transport of coal was made possible, first by canal and later by rail. In 1750, Britain was producing 5.11 million tonnes (5.63 million tons) of coal per year; by 1850 this had increased by more than 1,000 per cent.

■ Coalfields, 1870

4 IRON 1700–1856

The full potential of iron could not be realized until it was possible to smelt iron without introducing too much sulphur, which made it brittle. In 1708, Abraham Darby first used coke (charcoal-like coal) to produce cast iron, while malleable wrought iron was produced in 1784 as a result of Henry Cort's puddling and rolling technique. Steel, which was vital to the development of the railways, became widely available in 1856 when Henry Bessemer invented the air lance.

▲ Iron mining and smelting, 1870

5 RAILWAYS 1801–50

Canals were key to the early stages of the Industrial Revolution. However, they were superseded when advancements in steam power and iron production came together to create a new form of transport – the steam railway. Able to transport raw materials, goods, and people quickly across the country, the railway allowed industry to grow across Britain.

▦ Railways, 1870

ROMANTICISM AND NATIONALISM

Romanticism and Nationalism were intertwined cultural and political movements that spread across the western world from the late 18th to the early 20th centuries, emphasizing emotion and patriotism over reason and cosmopolitanism.

△ **Early Romantic poetry**
The title page of the 1794 poem *Songs of Experience* was written, illustrated, and hand-printed by William Blake – a key early proponent of both Romanticism and Nationalism.

Romanticism was a cultural movement that began in the late 18th century and affected art, literature, music, theatre, and politics. It was a reaction against the rationalism of the Enlightenment (see pp.202–03) and insisted on the primacy of imagination and emotion. The Romantics were fascinated with nature and its relationship with the human psyche. This led to the belief that a land and its people shared a special bond, hence the Romantic enthusiasm for folk culture and legends.

Romanticism became a driving force for the emerging Nationalist movement, which declared the nation state to be the defining unit in politics, culture, language, and history. Aspirations for nationhood, as opposed to sprawling dynasties such as the Austro-Hungarian Empire, became bound up with liberal aspirations for greater rights for citizens.

Romantic Nationalism and culture

Culture was to be at the forefront of Romantic Nationalism, celebrating the unifying legends and arts of traditional culture and creating new ones. Writers collected folk tales and made up their own in literature, drama, and national epics. Painters sought to capture characteristic scenes or create nationalist allegories. Composers incorporated folk songs and country dances into their music, produced stirring new anthems, and, at their most ambitious, sought to create what German composer Richard Wagner called a *Gesamtkunstwerk*, or "total work of art" – a synthesis of arts in the service of the soul of the nation.

Romantic Nationalism shaped the world order in the early 20th century. It can be credited with the creation of independent states in Europe and the birth of populist movements that resulted in claims of supremacy based on ethnic identities. For example, in Germany, the notion of racial superiority of Germans over other peoples contributed to the rise of Nazism.

◁ **Influential composer**
Richard Wagner's *Ring Cycle* of operas was based on Germanic legends and is seen as the high point of Romanticism. It was embraced by German Nationalists as a potential foundational myth.

Revolutionary sentiments
French artist Eugene Delacroix's painting *Liberty Leading The People* (1830), based on an uprising he witnessed, is a classic example of Romantic Nationalist art, symbolizing the revolutionary power of liberal, nationalist aspiration.

THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848

Frustration was growing at the failure of the European ruling classes to modernize, or to answer the aspirations of a wealthier population for greater liberties and rights to nationhood. Tension boiled over in 1848 as a string of revolts and rebellions flared up across the continent, prompting a bloody, reactionary backlash.

The Congress of Vienna in 1815, after the Napoleonic Wars (see pp.208–11), was supposed to create a lasting European settlement. Statesmen from the powers that had brought down Napoleonic France gathered at Vienna to decide how to redraw the borders of Europe. The resulting agreement was essentially conservative: an attempt to stamp out nationalism, a movement centred on the concept of the nation as a legitimate and necessary political and cultural unit, the rise of which, in France, had shattered the old order of Europe. And, for 30 years, it succeeded.

However, major change in the years following the congress continued and even accelerated. The population of Europe had increased by 50 per cent since 1800 and it had urbanized rapidly, with the number of cities having populations over 100,000 increasing from 28 in 1800 to 45 in 1848. In the political arena, the preservation of the Holy Alliance empires – Prussia, Russia, and, especially, Austria – had come at the cost of suppressing and frustrating awakening nationalist sentiment, particularly in Germany, Poland, and Italy.

Social and economic changes had led to the rapid growth of the middle classes. Such growth fostered liberal sentiments that fuelled an appetite for change, with demands for greater representation and freedoms – including the freedom for nations to self-determine.

On Europe's borders, the crumbling of the Ottoman Empire lent impetus to Balkan drives for self-determination, with the Serbs gaining autonomy in 1817 and the Greeks in 1821 (see pp.266–67). Revolutionary sentiment that had convulsed Europe in the Napoleonic era stirred once more, and the growing demand for a more liberal political order meant that many parts of Europe were like a tinderbox, waiting for a spark.

SOWING SEEDS FOR THE FUTURE
THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE 1848 REVOLUTIONS

The 1848 Revolutions ended in failure, harsh repression, and disillusionment among liberals, but they did leave crucial legacies. They led to the formation of different political groups; accelerated the abolition of serfdom and feudal systems; and stimulated political awareness among the masses. Widespread dreams of nationalism may have been stifled momentarily, but they had not been quashed entirely: both Italy and Germany were unified by 1871 (see pp.264–65). The nationalist mood can be seen in this painting from 1860: Germania is seen holding a shield and sword, defending the River Rhine.

△ **Down with the monarchy**
This 19th-century illustration shows people burning the French throne in the Place de la Bastille during the 1848 Revolution in France.

22 Feb 1848 Banquets banned, leading to riots and fighting at the barricades
24 Feb 1848 Louis-Philippe abdicates
26 Feb 1848 Second Republic declared
23 June 1848 Socialist revolt crushed in bloody fighting
10 Dec 1848 Louis Napoleon elected president

IRELAND

UNITED

ATLANTIC OCEAN

GALICIA

PORTUGAL

SPAIN

ANDORRA

Lisbon

Madrid

EUROPE AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

Exhausted by decades of revolutionary turmoil, the great powers of Europe had agreed at the Congress of Vienna a geopolitical dispensation that often cut across linguistic and nationalistic lines, brewing trouble for the future.

KEY

- German Confederation
- Prussia
- Small German states
- Other countries subject to 1848 revolts
- Frontiers 1848

TIMELINE

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

JAN 1848   JULY   JAN 1849   JULY   JAN 1850

1 OUTBREAK OF REVOLUTION IN FRANCE AND SICILY JAN–MAR 1848

In Palermo, Sicily, a revolt broke out against the Spanish Borbón king Ferdinand II, and it soon spread to Naples. In France, King Louis-Philippe suppressed public meetings, triggering riots in Paris. The mob was fired upon, Louis-Philippe fled, and the Second Republic was declared. Unrest erupted across France as workers took to the streets.

⚑ Nationalist revolution   ✊ Republican revolution

♔ Abdication of monarch

2 THE FIRE CATCHES JAN–MAR 1848

Revolutionary sentiment spread across Italy. The Milanese rose up and drove the Austrian soldiers, under Marshal Radetzky, out of the city, appealing to the Piedmontese King, Charles Albert, to take them under his protection. Venice declared itself a Republic, and had the support of a number of surrounding cities, including Treviso and Udine, while Parma revolted. Charles Albert declared war on Austria, but lacked allies to win.

⚑ Nationalist revolution   ✊ Republican revolution

3 A UNITED GERMAN NATION MAR–MAY 1848

The death of King Christian VIII of Denmark in January ignited the Schleswig-Holstein question (see pp.264–65) and prompted an outpouring of pan-German nationalism, with demands for unification under a liberal constitution. Nationalist assemblies in Berlin and Frankfurt called on the Prussian king to unite Germany, and revolts flared up across the German Confederation.

⚑ Nationalist revolution   ♔ Abdication of monarch

4 THE ESTABLISHMENT HANGS IN THE BALANCE MAR–MAY 1848

The fate of the establishment hung in the balance as the forces of reaction fought to cling on. Revolution in Vienna forced foreign minister Metternich to resign and the Emperor to flee; a liberal constitution was granted. Imperial forces crushed a pan-Slav conference in Prague, but failed to prevent nationalist uprisings in Hungary.

⚑ Nationalist revolution   ♔ Establishment victory

♔ Abdication of monarch

5 REACTION ASCENDANT JUN–DEC 1848

Reactionary forces turned the tide. In France, the newly elected Assembly proved to be reactionary, resulting in riots in Limoges and elsewhere and a bloodily suppressed socialist uprising in Paris. Imperial forces subdued Vienna in June, but failed to crush the Hungarian uprising. In Italy, Austrian forces crushed the Piedmontese at Custoza in July.

♔ Establishment victory

6 REPUBLICANISM DEFEATED 1848–49

Republican risings in the Rhineland and southern Germany were put down after the Prussian king refused to unite Germany under his aegis. Rome, where Garibaldi had proclaimed a republic, held out for a month, but was defeated by an army sent from France, where Louis Napoleon had been elected president. Republican outposts in Venice and Tuscany were also crushed, as was the Hungarian uprising.

♔ Establishment victory   ✊ Republican revolution

Edinburgh

North Sea

SWEDEN

Jan 1848 King Christian VIII of Denmark dies

DENMARK

Copenhagen

SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN

Bornholm

Baltic Sea

KINGDOM

Hamburg

Danzig

EAST PRUSSIA

Jun 1848 Bloody repression by Habsburg troops ends efforts for constitutional reform

Amsterdam

London

THE NETHERLANDS

HANOVER

PRUSSIA

Berlin

RUSSIA

Warsaw

Brussels

PRUSSIA

BELGIUM

St Petersburg

Paris

Frankfurt

SAXONY

Prague

POLAND

20 Mar 1848 Uprising in Poland **May** Uprising suppressed by Prussian troops

12 Mar 1848 Metternich resigns

Cracow

15 Mar 1848 Outbreak of revolution; Hungary granted independence **Oct 1949** Hungarians defeated

BAVARIA

WÜRTTEMBERG

Stuttgart

BOHEMIA

GALICIA

BADEN

Munich

AUSTRIA

FRANCE

BAVARIA

Vienna

Geneva

SWITZERLAND

May–Jun 1848 Revolution suppressed

Buda

Pest

24–25 Jul 1848 Austrian forces defeat Piedmontese revolt

23 Mar 1848 King Charles-Albert declares war on Austria **6 Aug 1848** Austrian forces retake Milan

HUNGARY

TRANSYLVANIA

MOLDAVIA

Milan

Custoza

Venice

23 Mar 1848 Republic declared **28 Aug 1849** Re-taken by Austria

PIEDMONT

MODENA

SAN MARINO

Sebastopol

PARMA

WALLACHIA

MONACO

LUCCA

TUSCANY

PAPAL STATES

BOSNIA

Belgrade

Bucharest

Corsica

SERBIA

Black Sea

Rome

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Sardinia

Naples

MONTENEGRO

MACEDONIA

Mediterranean Sea

Nov 1848 Pope flees **Feb 1849** Garibaldi declares Republic **Jul 1849** Republic defeated

Salonica

THE TWO SICILIES

Corfu

GREECE

Ionian Islands

Palermo

Athens

TUNISIA

12 Jan 1848 Revolution breaks out **25 Mar 1848** Sicilian parliament declares independence **15 May 1848** Bourbon troops re-take Sicily

Sicily

Malta

1 POLYNESIAN SETTLEMENT
c. 1000–1800

The date of Polynesian discovery and settlement of New Zealand is contested, although the Maori people themselves speak of the legendary Kupe first visiting the islands around 1000 CE, with colonists following before 1300. Maori settlement was initially coastal, spreading inland in 1400–1500.

▬ Main area of Maori settlement 1800

2 EUROPEAN CONTACT
1642–1840

The first Europeans to make contact with the Maori people were explorers and later whalers and sealers. Seeking supplies, they brought guns and disease, which threw indigenous culture into chaos as armed groups imposed themselves on others, resulting in raids and "Musket Wars".

🐋 Whaling station before 1840

🦭 Sealing station before 1840

● European settlement established by 1850

➤ Maori migration

┅➤ Maori raid on other Maoris

▽ **A chief of New Zealand**
This drawing is one of many that Sydney Parkinson, a natural history artist who accompanied Captain James Cook aboard the *Endeavour*, sketched on the voyage to the South Pacific Ocean.

c.1000 Kupe arrives from Hawaiki (legendary Polynesian homeland)

NEW ZEALAND COLONIZED
European settlements were initially restricted to the coasts, while the Maori people mainly lived in the North Island. Rapid change brought about by immigration, new crops, and guns led to Maori migrations and a series of devastating wars.

1840 Treaty of Waitangi

c.1820 Maori living near stations acquire muskets, leading to intertribal wars

1863–64 British troops occupy Waikato, and vast tracts of land are confiscated from Maori

1642 Dutch explorer Abel Tasman reaches New Zealand's Golden Bay

1820–40 Displaced by conflict in the north, and armed with muskets, Maori groups raid and colonize sparsely settled South Island

1839 British New Zealand company rushes to found Wellington, with chaotic results and dubious land claims against indigenous residents

1843 Clash between settlers and Maori sets off series of conflicts

Bay of Islands · Kororareka (Russell) · Kerikeri · Whangarei · Dargaville · Auckland · Whakatane · Mawhai Point · Motuhora · Opotiki · Kawhia · Gisborne · New Plymouth · Napier · *Tasman Sea* · Wanganui · Kapiti Island · *New Ulster (North Island)* · Collingwood · Otaki · Porirua · Nelson · Wellington · Rocks Point · *To Chatham Islands* · *Kaikoura* · *Open Bay Islands* · Lyttelton · Kaiapoi · *PACIFIC OCEAN* · Jackson Bay · Christchurch · Timaru · George Sound · Moeraki · Waikouaiti · Dusky Sound · Dunedin · Riverton · Port Molyneux · Preservation Bay · *Solander Island* · Bluff · Waikawa · Port William · Ruapuke Island · Port Pegasus · *New Munster (South Island)* · NEW ZEALAND

3 BRITISH CONQUEST   1840–1872

Maori chiefs sought a settlement with the British crown through the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840, but many of the rights promised to them by the treaty were ignored. The Maori people rebelled against land grabs, but a large proportion of the indigenous population were killed and most of their land was confiscated.

✕ Clash between Maori and Europeans

LAND SETTLED BY EUROPEANS
■ by 1830   ■ by 1850   ■ by 1875

NEW ZEALAND AND AUSTRALIA

Motives ranging from whaling to exiling criminals drove European colonization of New Zealand and Australia. This had shocking and often tragic consequences for the indigenous peoples, including warfare and genocide.

Settlement of the land now known as Australia dates back to the earliest days of modern humanity (see pp.18–19). After that, remoteness led to relative cultural isolation for both Australia and for its southern neighbour New Zealand – probably the last habitable place on Earth to be settled by humans.

This would change with the increasing technological reach and territorial appetite of European powers, particularly Britain, in the 18th and 19th centuries. To these powers, the unknown lands of the Antipodes appeared as a blank canvas upon which all manner of colonial and imperial fantasies could be projected. In fact, they were home to a diverse range of cultures and societies. European arrivals in New Zealand began with sealing and whaling

6 COLONIES TO COMMONWEALTH
1825–1901

Penal stations, districts, and free settlements had evolved into six colonies by 1859: New South Wales, Tasmania (originally Van Diemen's Land), Western Australia, Victoria, South Australia, and finally Queensland. Exploration, cattle farming, telegraph lines, gold rushes, and railways opened up the continent, and in 1901 the colonies federated as the Commonwealth of Australia.

SPREAD OF AGRICULTURAL SETTLEMENT

- by 1845
- by 1860
- by 1880
- by 1900

AUSTRALIA COLONIZED

By 1859 the borders of six colonies had been established across the country, with a central region that was administered by New South Wales and later divided up.

1862 McDouall Stuart reaches north coast, completing first south-north exploration of Australia

Timor Sea

Melville Island

Darwin

Katherine

Gulf of Carpentaria

Wyndham

Halls Creek

Tennant Creek

Burketown

Normanton

Cairns

Coral Sea

Townsville

Cloncurry
Mount Isa

Flinders

Hughenden

Port Hedland

WESTERN AUSTRALIA 1890

Mackay

Longreach

QUEENSLAND 1859

Rockhampton

1825–61 Region administered by New South Wales
1861 Part of South Australia

1831 Western Australia receives its own governor

Gladstone

Charleville

Oodnadatta

1824 Founded as penal settlement
1859 Becomes Queensland colony

Maryborough

Ashburton

Carnarvon

Wiluna

SOUTH AUSTRALIA 1836

Cooper Creek

Gympie

Moreton Bay

Murchison

1854 Miners' revolt at Eureka, against colonial authority of Britain, forces the introduction of democratic reforms

Marree

Toowoomba

Darling

Brisbane

Mount Magnet

1858 Population of Victorian goldfields peaks at 150,000

Bourke

Inverell

Grafton

Menzies

Geraldton

Kalgoorlie

Ceduna

Port Augusta

Broken Hill

NEW SOUTH WALES 1788

Cobar

Hillgrove

1829 First settlement in Western Australia

1850–69 Nearly 10,000 male convicts transported to Western Australia

Port Pirie

Gulgong

Port Macquarie

Forbes

Perth

Great Australian Bight

Grenfell

Port Stephens

Fremantle

Port Lincoln

Lambing

Hargraves

Newcastle

Bunbury

Esperance

Adelaide

Echunga

Wellington

Sydney

1788–1852 Over 75,000 convicts landed

Busselton

Albany

Bendigo

Castlemaine

Adelong

1851 Discovery of gold by Edward Hargraves triggers gold rush

Ararat

1851

Ovens

Araluen

4 EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT   1770–1850

In 1770 Captain Cook charted the eastern coast and claimed New South Wales for Britain, and 18 years later the First Fleet brought the first convicts to a new penal colony at Sydney. Exploration, the growth of sheep farms, and then immigration of free settlers drove the spread and expansion of colonies. This brought settlers and squatters into conflict with the Aboriginal peoples.

- Area of Aboriginal resistance
- Penal settlement
- Colony capital

5 GOLD RUSH   1851–1890s

The discovery of gold in 1851 stimulated massive growth in immigration, urban development, and the wider economy. By 1861, Victoria's population had increased sevenfold from 76,000 to 540,000 and the wider Australian population to 1.2 million. Rebellions among the new immigrants, for better rights, led to democratization of politics and the economy.

DISCOVERY OF GOLD MINES
- 1850–60
- 1860–70
- 1860–70

Clunes

VICTORIA

Omeo

Ballarat

Walhalla

Melbourne
Port Phillip

Western Port

Hill End

1834 Illegal settlement becomes Victoria colony

Bass Strait

1803–53 Over 65,000 convicts landed

Beaconsfield

Port Dalrymple

Mount Lyell

Launceston

Macquarie Harbour

Lefroy

Maria Island

1820s Black War leads to genocide of Tasmanian Aboriginal people

Hobart

Port Arthur

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND 1825

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stations, where foreign ships could harvest resources, make repairs, and resupply. In Australia the new arrivals began with the transportation of convicts from Britain and Ireland to penal colonies. The British soon took advantage in regions where the climate was familiar and introduced crops and livestock from home to drive a rapid colonial expansion. Growing numbers of new settlers increased the demand for land and also introduced firearms and unfamiliar diseases to the native peoples. These factors contributed to the severe decline of the populations of both the Maori people in New Zealand and the Aboriginal peoples of Australia.

EUROPEAN COLONIZATION

European settlement of New Zealand and Australia began slowly in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, but accelerated rapidly in the mid-19th century, with consequences for indigenous peoples inhabiting the land that settlers appropriated for farming.

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6

1000   1200   1400   1600   1800   2000
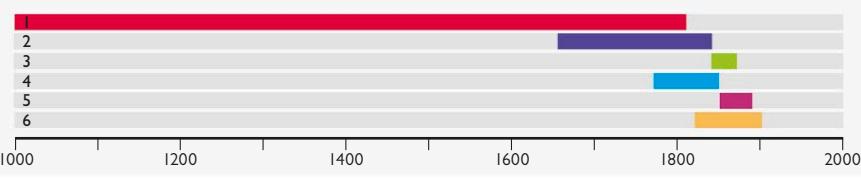
THE ABOLITION OF SLAVERY

The explosive economic growth that brought European powers to global ascendancy was driven in large part by slavery. However, from the 18th century a long process to abolish the global slave trade was set in motion.

△ **Anti-slavery crusaders**
The British Anti-slavery Society, whose emblem is seen here, was a major force in the battle over abolition.

The abolition movement, or abolitionism, was a moral, social, and political campaign to ban the slave trade. It was distinct from, but related to, the movement to emancipate slaves. Abolitionism first took shape among the Quakers, a Protestant Christian group, who in 1787 in Britain set up the Committee for the Abolition of the Slave Trade.

The cause's success was checked when the movement associated itself with radical sentiments following the French Revolution in 1789. Public fears about reprisals that might follow abolition were also stoked by a revolt among Haitian slaves in 1791–1804. Nonetheless, skilful use of propaganda, and alliances with evangelical Christians and women's groups, helped abolitionism gain ground. Although the slave trade was abolished by a Bill of Parliament in Britain in 1807, followed by other European nations such as France, Spain, and Portugal, the practice of slavery continued in many colonies.

The enactment of anti-slavery legislation in Europe boosted the cause of emancipation in America's northern states, fed by a religious revival known as the Second Great Awakening and by voters' resentment of "fugitive slave" laws. Increasing radical responses by both pro- and anti-abolitionists that ensued in the US helped tip the dispute over slavery into civil war (see pp.170–71).

THE ABOLITION OF SLAVERY AROUND THE WORLD

KEY
DATE OF ABOLITION
- 1775–99
- 1800–29
- 1830–59
- 1860–89
- 1890–1919
- 1920–69
- 1970–present
- No data/no modern slavery

Massachusetts and Connecticut in the US were among the earliest places to abolish slavery. Although European nations tended not to practise slavery in their own territories, they were responsible for the trans-Atlantic slave trade. Despite being illegal, slavery is still practised in many parts of the world.

The ceremony of Bois-Caiman
A legendary voodoo ceremony that has become part of the foundation myth of Haiti is depicted here by Haitian painter Andre Normil. The island nation was the site of perhaps the only successful slave rebellion in history.

RISE OF BRITISH POWER IN INDIA

From initial footholds in the southeast and Bengal, the power of the British East India Company, a corporate concern with imperial pretensions, spread across all of India, conquering territory and winning fealty through guile, brutality, and arrogance. Eventually, almost the entire subcontinent came under Company control.

European nations had been trading extensively with India since the 16th century, and by the late 17th century five European powers had trading ports in the subcontinent. Among them was the British East India Company, a commercial organization first chartered in 1600 to profit from trade with the Moluccas (or Spice Islands) in Southeast Asia. Rebuffed by the Dutch, the British East India Company focused instead on trade in textiles and spices with south India, where it had won trading concessions with the Mughal Empire.

Under the Mughals (see pp.176–77), India was a developed, sophisticated polity, with a strong military, and wealth and population outstripping that of Europe. However, the collapse of Mughal rule in the 18th century led to the rise of a mosaic of princely states, confederations, and small kingdoms. With no major, unifying power in India, imperialistic and mercantile European powers had the opportunity to exploit the subcontinent, and it would be the British that took it. Faced with foreign competitors and sometimes hostile hosts, the East India Company developed its own military force to strengthen and protect its interests. Over about the next 100 years, the Company first overcame its competitors and then widened its control of territory, trade, and power in India, using a combination of diplomacy, bribery, and force.

In consolidating its power, the Company faced formidable opponents, including the French, the sultans of Mysore, the Maratha Confederacy, the Sikh kingdom, and the Afghans. The Company was not always victorious, but it was relentless, and it eventually controlled all of India. However, in the wake of a bloody revolt (see pp.244–45), the Company was effectively abolished in 1858. Its possessions and forces were taken over by the British government and direct colonial rule began.

SIR ROBERT CLIVE
1725–74

Commonly known as Clive of India, Robert Clive played a key role in establishing the power of the British East India Company in the subcontinent, gaining honours and wealth in the process. After leading several successful military actions – notably defeat of a French and Mughal force at Plassey in 1757 – he twice served as Governor of Bengal (1758–60, 1765–67). He returned to England in 1767 and died – possibly by suicide – 7 years later in London.

A meeting of allies
Robert Clive meeting Mir Jafar after the Battle of Plassey. Mir Jafar supported Clive in the battle and was made Nawab of Bengal in return for his support.
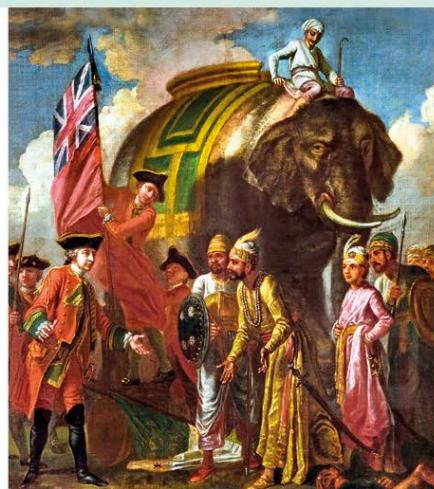
I THE FRENCH THREATEN BRITISH POWER
1740–46

The Dutch and French had their own India companies, which initially vied with the British for supremacy. Dutch ambitions were ended after defeat by forces of the state of Travancore at Colachel in 1741, but in 1746 the French took Madras from the British and then defeated an Indian army, establishing European military supremacy in the subcontinent.

✕ Battle ● French colony

1876 BALUCHISTAN

Karachi

GROWTH OF BRITISH TERRITORY
From its early 19th-century strongholds in the southeast and northeast, Britain gained increasing territorial control through piecemeal acquisition of lands in central and western India and by means of a network of protectorates and vassal states.

KEY

▮ British territory, 1805	▮ British gains by 1857
▮ British gains by 1838	▮ Princely state or protectorate

1856 Date gained by Britain

TIMELINE

1 2 3 4 5 6   1750   1800   1850
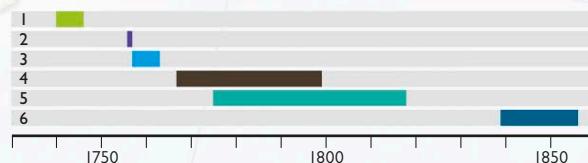
6 LAST DAYS OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY
1839–57

As the Company sought to extend control to the northwest, it fought a series of conflicts in the Punjab and Afghanistan. In 1856, the Company annexed Oudh, which precipitated a revolt in 1857 that eventually led to the British government taking direct control of India. The Company was finished and the era of the British Raj had begun.

✕ Battle

5 MARATHA WARS 1775–1818

Three conflicts between the British and the Maratha Confederacy of Hindu princes (1775–82, 1803–05, 1817–18) effectively marked the last stand for indigenous power against British hegemony over India. As in the Mysore Wars, sometimes humiliating reverses for the British were followed by victories and gradual extension and consolidation of East India Company control.

▬ Maratha territory 1785 ✕ Battle

2 THE BLACK HOLE OF CALCUTTA 1756

In 1756, the British started fortifying Calcutta (Fort William). This alarmed the Nawab of Bengal, Siraj-ud-Daula, who captured the small garrison and confined the garrison's members in a small prison that became famous as the "Black Hole of Calcutta". This gave the British an excuse for retaliation and a chance to exercise their imperial ambitions to the full.

✕ Battle   ⊞ Fort

3 BRITISH ESTABLISH DOMINANCE 1757–64

After exacting revenge on Siraj-ud-Daula at the Battle of Plassey in 1757, the British went on to achieve a string of victories to win the Carnatic Wars – a series of conflicts between the British, French, Marathas, and Mysore for control of a swathe of eastern and southeastern India. The result was an end to French influence, and, by 1764, the establishment of Britain as the dominant power on the subcontinent, with direct control over the rich province of Bengal.

✕ Battle

Kabul ✕

1846 KASHMIR

Peshawar

Chillianwala ✕

1849 PUNJAB

Lahore
Firozpur
Jullundur

Ambala

Saharanpur

1849 The British annex Punjab in the wake of the Second Anglo-Sikh War

Delhi

Bareilly

Farrukhabad

1856 OUDH

Kathmandu

1856 The British annex Oudh, triggering the 1857 revolt

1764 British forces defeat an alliance of the Nawab of Bengal and Mughal forces at Battle of Buxar

T I B E T

N E P A L

BHUTAN

1757 British defeat French-supported Siraj-ud-Daula at Battle of Plassey

I N D I A

1818 RAJPUTANA

Nasirabad

1843 SIND

Erinpura

Agra

Kanpur
Lucknow

Gwalior

Jhansi

Allahabad

Benares

Buxar

Patna

1782 Treaty of Salbai signals end of the First Maratha War

Nimach

1802 Treaty of Bassein triggers the Second Maratha War

Indore

BUNDELKHAND

Jabalpur

Rajghat

BENGAL

Baharampur

Dhaka

U P P E R

B U R M A

1805 Treaty of Rajghat ends the Second Maratha War

ORISSA

Plassey

Frederiksnagar (Serampore)

Calcutta

1756 Siraj-ud-Daulah captures Calcutta from the British and imprisons survivors in the "Black Hole"

GUJARAT

Diu

Nagpur

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY

C E N T R A L   P R O V I N C E S

1826 ARAKAN

LOWER BURMA

Damão

Vasai (Bassein)

Aurangabad

Ashti

Bombay
Talegaon

1818 Marathas defeated by the British

Godavari

BASTAR

1779 British defeated by the Marathas

Narmada

B a y   o f
B e n g a l

1852 Rangoon ✕

GOA (governed by Portugal)

HYDERABAD

Yanaon

Krishna

MADRAS PRESIDENCY

1746 The Carnatic Wars begin when rivals to be Nawab of Arcot become proxies for conflict between the British and French

4 MYSORE WARS 1767–99

The British East India Company fought a series of wars against the sultans of Mysore, beginning in 1767 when Hyder Ali forced the British to make major concessions. His son, Tipu Sultan, also scored early victories but was finally defeated by the British and their regional allies at Seringapatam in 1799. Mysore was dismantled, and the East India Company took control of much of southern India.

✕ Battle

Mangalore

1831 MYSORE

Bangalore

Arcot

Madras

1746 The French take Madras from Britain
1769 Hyder Ali forces the East India Company to make major concessions in the Treaty of Madras

March 1784 The signing of the Treaty of Mangalore ends the Second Mysore War

Seringapatam

Wandiwash

Pondicherry

Mahé

1760 The British defeat French forces at Wandiwash, confining the French to Pondicherry

1760–61 The British besiege and eventually defeat the French at Pondicherry, effectively ending French power in the subcontinent

Tranquebar

Karikal

Kaveri

1792 Tipu Sultan concedes half the territory of Mysore to the British after defeat in the Third Mysore War
1799 Tipu Sultan dies as British forces storm Seringapatam at the climax of Fourth Mysore War

Cochin

TRAVANCORE

▷ **Tipu's Tiger**
This near life-sized automaton of a tiger savaging a British soldier was commissioned by Tipu Sultan, ruler of Mysore (1782–99). It was looted by British soldiers after the fall of Seringapatam in 1799.

Colachel

Colombo

1798 CEYLON

1741 At the Battle of Colachel, Marthanda Varma of Travancore defeats the Dutch, ending Dutch power in the region

Indus
Chenab
Sutlej

THE OPIUM TRADE
CHINA'S ADDICTION, BRITAIN'S FINANCIAL GAIN

Poppy plants were grown and the seed pods dried (see below) in factories in India. Produced and processed by the quasi-governmental British East India Company, the opium was then imported to China by private merchants, allowing the British to wash their hands of the trade's illegality. Chests of opium were unloaded onto floating warehouses off the coast of Guangzhou, where Chinese smugglers bought it with silver and shipped it upriver, paying bribes and spreading corruption to get around official prohibitions.

THE OPIUM WARS
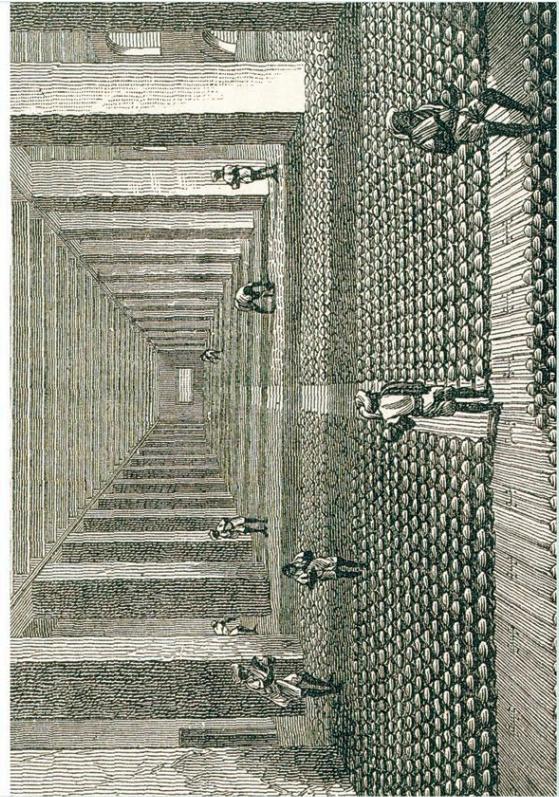
In the early 1800s, opium was being illegally imported into China (mainly by Britain), which eventually sparked confrontations over foreign trade. China's rulers, the Qing dynasty, badly misjudged their strength in relation to Britain, which used "gunboat diplomacy" to force China to open to international trade.

The Chinese imperial court viewed trade as a favour bestowed on foreign tributaries; the British, in contrast, viewed it as the life-blood of international relations and a way to exploit their colonies. Specifically, the British were seeking to monetize their colonization of India, and they saw opium as the key. India produced high-grade cash crop opium, which could be sold in China for silver, which was promptly swapped for tea – a valuable commodity for the domestic British market. The only problem with the arrangement was that it was illegal to sell opium to China. The trade fed massive corruption and a huge black economy, at the same time as contributing to monetary problems that the Qing were suffering

linked to inflation. Tension inevitably flared, boiling over into confrontations between the Chinese and the British, which the latter were happy to exploit.

The "gunboat diplomacy" that followed saw China lose a series of battles across two wars, with the Qing forced to make severe concessions in what became known as the "unequal treaties". These stoked resentment in China and inflicted lasting humiliation that even today affects Chinese relations with Western powers. The damage to the prestige of the Qing dynasty undermined their mandate to rule, instigating the series of colossal rebellions that would convulse and eventually destroy imperial China (see pp.252–53).

GUNBOAT DIPLOMACY

In the First Opium War British forces attacked China, and in the Second Opium War they were supported by France. The Western powers were victorious and forced China to open a string of ports to foreign trade.

⌗ Chinese defensive bases ☐ Qing Empire

TIMELINE

	1835	1840	1845	1850	1855	1860	1865
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							

5 THE OCCUPATION OF BEIJING 1860

Internal pressures led the Emperor Xianfeng to refuse to ratify the Tianjin Treaty and to re-occupy the Taku Forts – a group of forts that had originally been built to protect the Haihe estuary from Western threats. The foreign legations that had been promised entry to Beijing were turned away. An Anglo-French force occupied Beijing and held a convention that pushed the Emperor to accept the Tianjin Treaty.

✗ Battle

May 1858 English-French force ventures north to capture the Taku Forts

1858 Zhifu

May 1858 English-French force attacks the Taku Forts
Jun 1858 Qing Army re-occupy the Taku Forts
Jun 1859 English-French forces attack the forts for a second time

Oct 1860 The English and French enter Beijing

1858 Niuzhuang

Andong

Qinhuangdao

Dairen

Longkou

1860 Tianjin

Beijing

1858, 1859 Taku Forts

Harbin

Vladivostok

Hunchun

Longjingcun

MANCHURIA

KOREA

JAPAN

Sea of Japan (East Sea)

INNER MONGOLIA

Gobi

QING EMPIRE

4 THE SECOND OPIUM WAR 1856–60

Also known as the Arrow War, the Second Opium War was triggered in 1856 when Chinese officials boarded and searched the Arrow, a British ship. The following year the French joined the British in launching a military attack. The Chinese were forced to concede the Treaty of Tianjin in 1858, allowing free travel inland for European merchants and Christian missionaries.

- ● Treaty ports, with date of foreign acquisition
- ✕ Battle
- ↑ Anglo-French forces 1858–60

3 TREATY OF NANJING 1842–44

In August 1842 the Chinese were forced to sign the Treaty of Nanjing, agreeing to pay a $21 million indemnity, ceding to Britain the territory of Hong Kong, and opening five treaty ports – ports where a treaty allowed foreigners to conduct trade. Further treaties, with Britain, the US, and France, followed over the next 2 years, forcing China into more concessions and feeding a growing anti-foreigner movement.

- ● Treaty ports, with date of foreign acquisition

2 THE FIRST OPIUM WAR 1839–42

In June 1840, 16 British warships arrived at sparsely-populated Hong Kong and then menaced China to press their demands. The following year, the British attacked and occupied the walled city of Guangzhou (Canton), receiving a ransom of $6 million and provoking further hostilities. British reinforcements then seized a string of cities, forcing the Qing to surrender.

- → British forces, 1840–42

1 CRACKDOWN ON OPIUM 1836–39

The opium issue became totemic for a cultural-political struggle in the Chinese government. Voices advocating a liberalization of the trade lost out when a radical patriot, Lin Zexu, was appointed imperial commissioner in 1836. Tensions boiled over after Lin confiscated and destroyed more than 20,000 chests of opium – 1,300 tonnes (1,400 tons).

- 🔵 Chests of opium

△ **Second Opium War**
French and British forces landed at the mouth of the Bei River, prior to occupying the Taku Forts, a precursor to their occupation of Beijing.

PHILIPPINES

South China Sea

1858–60 Anglo-French forces

1840–42 British forces

Aug 1841 Henry Pottinger, Britain's new Chief Superintendent of trade in China, arrives at Macau and campaigns northward

Jun 1840 16 British warships arrive in Hong Kong
Aug 1840 The British fleet sails north to the mouth of the Bei River

1840,1841 Chusan
Dinghai
1841 Chinhai

1842 Wusong
1842 Shanghai
1858 Zhenjiang
1842 Chinkiang
1858 Nanjing
1842 Zhapu
1842 Tsekee
1842 Hangzhou
1842 Ningbo
1858 Wenzhou

Keelung
Da'an Harbour
Taiwan

Sandu'ao
1842 Fuzhou

1858 Jiujiang
1858 Hankou
1858 Yichang
Wanxian
Yongtze
Shansi
Yuezhou
Changsha
Beihai
1858 Qiongzhou
Hainan

May 1842 Pottinger takes Wusong, Shanghai, and Zhenjiang

Aug 1842 Treaty of Nanjing ends First Opium War

May 1841 The British attack the walled city of Guangzhou

Mar 1841, May 1841 Guangzhou
1842 Guangzhou
1841 First Bar
1841 Broadway
1840 Barrier
Macau
1842 Xiamen (Amoy)
1842 Amoy
1858 Shantou
1841 Whampoa
1841 Bogue
1841 Hong Kong
1860 Kowloon
1839 Kowloon
1839,1841 Cheunpee

Mar 1839 Lin Zexu destroys chests of opium in Guangzhou

Bei River
Yangtze

BURMA
LAOS
TONGKING
Hanoi
FRENCH INDOCHINA
Mekong
CAMBODIA
Phnom Penh
ANNAM
Saigon
COCHIN CHINA
SIAM
Bangkok
Penang

PROGRESS
AND EMPIRE

THE HIGH TIDE MARK OF IMPERIALISM WAS REACHED IN THE
PERIOD 1850–1914, BUT THE WORLD'S GREAT POWERS WERE
ON AN INEXORABLE PATH TOWARDS GLOBAL CONFLICT.

CITIES AND INDUSTRY

Industrialization shaped every aspect of life in the 19th century. It not only affected where and how people lived, and how they travelled and communicated with each other, but also helped shape public health, politics, and people's attitudes.

△ **Unequal world**
Poverty was rife in many cities, as this photograph of a child in Paris from 1900 illustrates.

Industrialization became a global phenomenon in the second half of the 19th century. Where the industrial advances at the end of the 18th and beginning of the 19th centuries had predominantly benefited Britain (see pp.212–15), the development of heavy industry based on coal, iron, and steel, and the transport revolution of the mid-19th century, re-shaped the world.

As western Europe, Japan, Russia, and the US all began to industrialize rapidly from 1870, they experienced huge social, cultural, and population changes. The world's population grew as land reform and modern farming methods – the utilization of chemical fertilizers, steel tools, and steam-powered machinery – helped sustain more people. Millions moved from the countryside into the cities seeking employment and opportunities. In 1800, 5 per cent of the world's population lived in urban areas; by 1925 that figure had reached 20 per cent, and in the industrialized regions of Europe and the US, 71.2 per cent of the population lived in cities. Millions took advantage of the improved transport offered by ocean-going steamships to migrate overseas (see pp.238–39). The immigrants who travelled to

find gold in the US, Canada, South Africa, and Australia contributed to the creation of a world in which all but a few currencies were convertible to gold. The gold standard – a monetary system that backed paper money with gold – in turn facilitated international trade, stimulating new markets for industrial products and creating a period of great financial stability. The people made rich by industrialization sought new avenues for investment, feeding a wave of imperial activity that saw Africa carved up by the European nations, the ancient Chinese empire come under threat, and Latin America brought within the spheres of influence of Britain and the US.

△ **New horizons**
In this photograph from 1906, immigrants crowd the decks of an Atlantic liner as it approaches Ellis Island – the gateway to a new, better life in the US. Third-class passengers would remain at Ellis Island until they passed health and legal checks.

The modern city

Society developed in multifarious ways in the 19th century – industrialization fuelled the gap between the rich and the poor but also created a middle class comprising lawyers, doctors, businessmen, merchants, civil servants, shopkeepers, and clerks. While a generation of tycoons became wealthy on the back of industry and investment, in the cities where their workers lived, poverty, pollution, and diseases – such as dysentery, tuberculosis, rickets, and cholera – were rife. Work itself involved long hours in hazardous conditions, and many

CITIES OF THE INDUSTRIAL AGE

The technological developments of the 19th century brought with them profound changes in the size and distribution of the world's population. There was a shift away from rural to city life in the industrialized West. Europe outdid Asia for the first time in terms of the number and size of its cities. The population grew rapidly, particularly in Europe. Modern transport meant that the overspill from Europe's cities could move easily to the high-rise cities in the US.

1800 Only 5 per cent of the world's population lives in urban areas; the population of Beijing reaches 1 million

1845 London overtakes Beijing as the world's largest city, with a population of 1.9 million

POPULATION						
TECHNOLOGY						
	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	

1843 The first steamship crosses the Atlantic; by 1907, the crossing takes just 4.5 days

1850–70 Railway tracks in Europe grow from 24,000km (15,000 miles) in 1850 to 103,000km (64,000 miles) in 1870
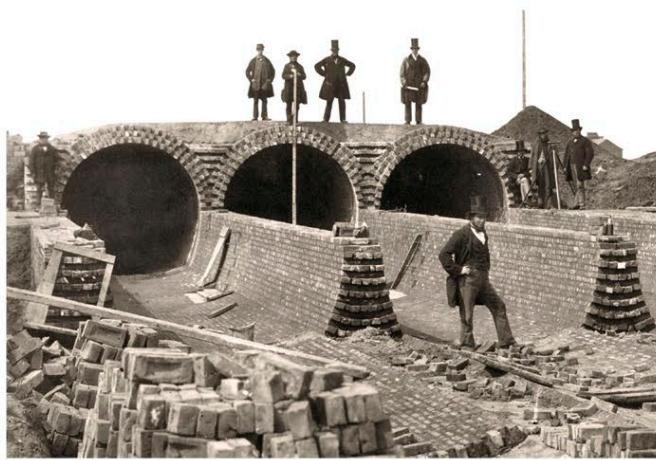
◁ **Cleaning up**
British engineer Sir Joseph William Bazalgette (top right) surveys work on London's sewers. His sanitation systems transformed public health in cities around the world.

children had to work. Yet the cities also provided the means to combat this inequality and solve some of the ills of industrialized society. Migrants from rural areas and other countries arrived into a melting pot of social classes and ethnic backgrounds. Social and religious taboos broke down, and the exchange of ideas gave rise to movements for social change. Various workers' unions came into existence campaigning for better pay and improved working conditions. The demands for suffrage for both men and women also began to increase. Charitable organizations proliferated as both wealthy philanthropists and Christian societies such as the Salvation Army sought to meet the city populations' physical and spiritual needs. A deeper understanding of poverty combined with political activism ensured that by the 20th century, Germany and Britain – the most industrialized nations – had in place the beginnings of a welfare system that would care for the elderly and the sick.

By then, industry and the wealth it generated had also begun to solve some of the practical problems of city life. Steel construction made high-rise living and working a reality; steel-framed buildings provided a way for offices and accommodation to be erected swiftly and made the best use of limited space by reaching upwards. The development of modern sanitation – the use of iron tanks and steam-powered pumping stations – saved city dwellers from the horrors of diseases such as cholera. Underground transport meant that workers could move swiftly around the city, and connections with the railways meant they could escape the city for the suburbs. The speed and breadth of technological change in the 19th century was unprecedented, and even the telecommunications revolution of the 20th century could not match the impact of industrialization on modern society.

"It is from the midst of this putrid sewer that the greatest river of human industry springs up …"

ALEXIS DE TOCQUEVILLE, FRENCH HISTORIAN, FROM *VOYAGES EN ANGLETERRE ET IRLANDE* (JOURNEYS TO ENGLAND AND IRELAND), 1835
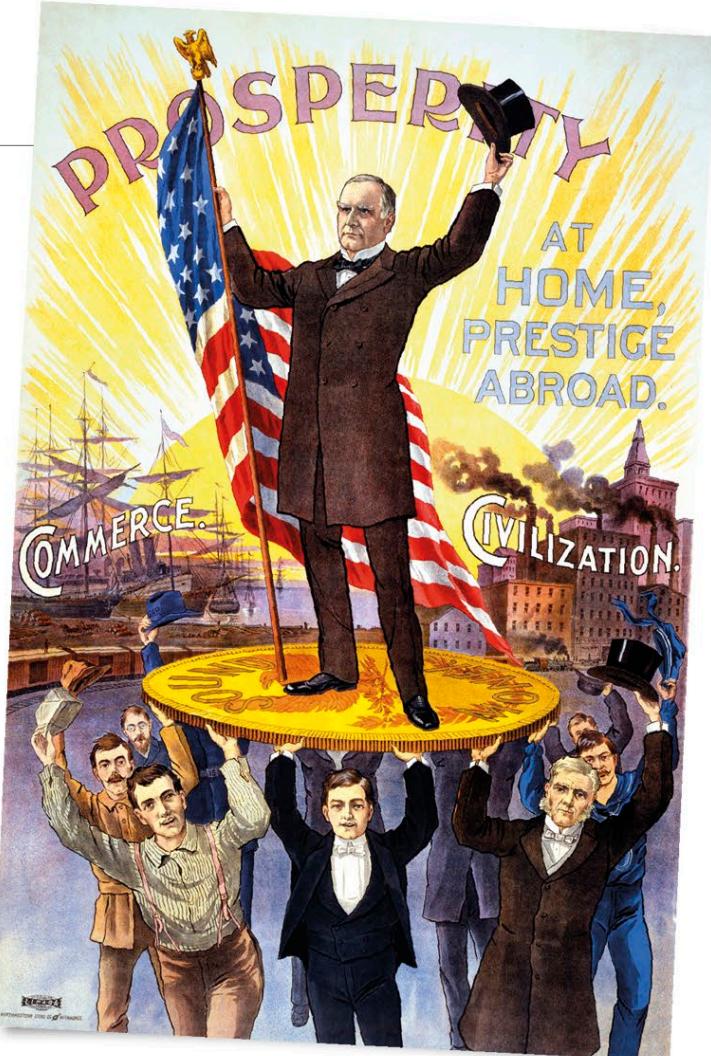
△ **Gold rush**
A presidential election poster from 1900 shows US President William McKinley held aloft on a gold coin, celebrating the prosperity of the Gold Standard era.

1850–1900 Europe's population grows by 41 per cent, rising from 206 million in 1850 to 291 million in 1900

1875 London is the first city to reach a population of 4 million

1900 US population reaches 76.2 million; it was just 5.3 million in 1800

1925 Mass immigration makes New York the largest city in the world, with a population of more than 5 million

1860   1870   1880   1890   1900   1910   1920

1858 The first transatlantic telegraph cables are laid

1863 The world's first underground railway opens in London

1875 London's modern sewage system is completed; it transforms public health there

1855–85 English inventor Henry Bessemer and British metallurgist Sidney Gilchrist Thomas transform steel production; the first steel-framed skyscraper is completed in Chicago in 1885

1913 Global steel output reaches 34 million tonnes (38 million tons) a year

1927 World population reaches 2 billion; it has doubled in 120 years

THE INDUSTRIALIZATION OF EUROPE BY 1914

Concentrations of the natural resources necessary for industrialization – such as coal and iron – allowed for rapid development in places like France, Germany, and Russia. Topography and the lack of these resources meant that Spain, Greece, Scandinavia, and the Balkans were left behind or largely restricted to more traditional industries, such as silk production.
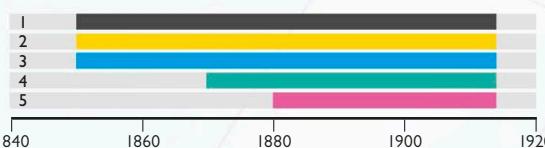
KEY

- Mountain/wasteland
- Agriculture and stock rearing
- Forest
- Industrial area
- Major port
- Frontiers 1914

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY
- Cotton
- Silk
- Linen
- Machinery
- Wool
- Shipbuilding

TIMELINE

1		
2		
3		
4		
5		

1840   1860   1880   1900   1920

5 THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE 1880–1914

Only after the emancipation of the serfs in 1861 was Russia able to produce enough food to sustain an industrial workforce. Work started on the Trans-Siberian Railway in the 1890s, and foreign investment funded factories in St Petersburg, Moscow, and the Donbass region. By 1900, Russia was the world's fourth-largest steel producer.

1878 The internal combustion engine is pioneered by Nikolaus Otto

1845 Engels' *The Condition of the Working Class* is published in England

1871 Krupp becomes the armaments manufacturer for the German Empire

1889 The Eiffel Tower is completed

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1 IRON, COAL, AND OIL   1850–1914

Vast quantities of lignite and coal were used in the smelting of iron ore and in foundries that made cast and wrought iron. These were used in the railways that linked the industrialized cities, carrying their factories' products to ports where iron ships waited to transport them worldwide. Commercial oil extraction began in the late 19th century, but oil remained in the shadow of coal until the rise of the motor car.

- Lignite or coal
- Iron ore
- Iron smelting
- Main railways 1914
- Oil

2 GROWTH OF INDUSTRIAL CITIES   1850–1914

Changes in agriculture had a direct impact on the growth of cities in the 19th century. Inventions such as the threshing machine and the increasing use of fertilizers, including mineral potash, helped to free huge numbers of agricultural workers for work in Europe's cities. Once there, they were exploited as cheap labour, and often faced cramped and unsanitary living conditions in which outbreaks of cholera and dysentery were common.

CITY POPULATION
OVER 500,000
- 1850
- 1890
- 1914

UNDER 500,000
- 1914

- Potash

4 THE RISE OF GERMANY 1870–1914

Germany made rapid progress following unification in 1871. Chancellor Bismarck's economic policies created a secure environment for investment, and the country benefited from the settlement from France after the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71). Plentiful coal from the Ruhr Valley helped to fuel the developing steel, chemical, and electrical industries.

Jan 1905 Moscow is crippled by strikers protesting at working and living conditions and the lack of political reform in Russia

1869 Donetsk company is founded by British businessman John Hughes, who builds steelworks and several collieries in the region

△ **World's Fair**
This poster for the 1900 World's Fair in Paris trumpets the achievements of the industrialized world, such as the Trans-Siberian Railway.

1890s Branobel, set up in Azerbaijan, becomes one of the largest oil producers in the world

3 SOUTHERN EUROPE LEFT BEHIND 1850–1914

Politics, geology, and poverty conspired against southern Europe in the 19th century. In Spain, progress in the mining and steel industries was hampered by the country's dependence on subsistence farming and cultural pressures against entrepreneurship. A lack of iron and coal made industrialization hard in Italy. Only the advent of hydroelectric power late in the century brought much progress, and then only in the north.

INDUSTRIALIZED EUROPE

From 1850, Britain's position as the unchallenged leader of industrialization was threatened as other countries, notably the US and Germany, began to modernize. The industrializing nations of this second revolution pioneered technologies that helped change the world.

In 1851, Great Britain held the Great Exhibition, a showcase of the achievements of British industry, at the Crystal Palace in London's Hyde Park. It marked the pinnacle of Britain's industrial dominance. Britain's success had been built on the mechanization of the textile industry and leadership in the iron industry. But, by 1850, much of northern Europe was catching up, building factories and developing their own exploitation of mineral resources, such as coal and iron. In the second half of the 19th century, social and political changes in Germany, the United States, Russia, and Japan sparked a new wave of industrialization, and the industrial balance shifted in their favour. World industrial output from 1870 to 1914 increased at an extraordinary rate: coal production rose by 650 per cent; steel by 2,500 per cent; and steam engine capacity by over 350 per cent.

This second industrial revolution brought significant innovations in engineering and science: the internal combustion engine, petroleum, communication technologies, armaments, and chemicals all played a part. It also brought new opportunities for the wealthy nations of the West to extend their influence through investment and control of industrial knowledge. However, the developed nations of the late 19th century also had to contend with an increasingly educated and informed urban working class, ready to fight for their rights to better living and working conditions.

EMPIRE AND INDUSTRIALIZATION
The pace of industrialization was, in many countries, determined by the interests of colonial powers. In South America, European investment helped to build railways and shipyards to facilitate exports of coffee and meat. In India – which was both a source of raw materials and a market for Britain's industrial goods – the British saw little to be gained from industrialization.

KEY

■ Major industrial regions c. 1914

✿ Heavy machinery

◢ Iron and steel

🐚 Textile production

SOCIALISM AND ANARCHISM

Socialist ideas of common ownership of resources and production had a long history. However, socialism developed as a political theory in the 1840s; it spread across the world in several forms, including a variant taken up by anarchists.

△ **Fathers of socialism**
A statue of Karl Marx (left) and Friedrich Engels stands in the Marx-Engels Forum, a public park in Berlin, Germany.

In 1848, German thinkers Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels published *The Communist Manifesto*, suggesting that workers would inevitably revolt against capitalists and move towards communism – public ownership and control of production and resources.

The ideas quickly spread. At a meeting in London in 1864, an influential federation of labour groups called the First International was founded. In 1871, the Paris Commune created the world's first, albeit short-lived, socialist government. By 1872, socialists were divided over how to achieve their aims. While moderates developed political parties to work within the parliamentary system, radicals turned to anarchism – a philosophy that deems all governments unnecessary. Anarchism took many forms; some were peaceful, but others came to be associated with terrorism. By the early 1900s, anarchists had bombed several western cities and assassinated King Umberto I of Italy and US President William McKinley.

A revolutionary direction

Socialism took another path in Russia when Vladimir Lenin proposed that workers needed a Revolutionary Party to lead them to communism. In 1922, Russia formed the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) – a socialist state that finally collapsed in 1991.

△ **Violent display of anarchy**
A contemporary illustration shows the anarchist Leon Czolgosz shooting US President William McKinley while the president greets visitors to the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo, New York, on 6 September 1901. The president died 8 days later.
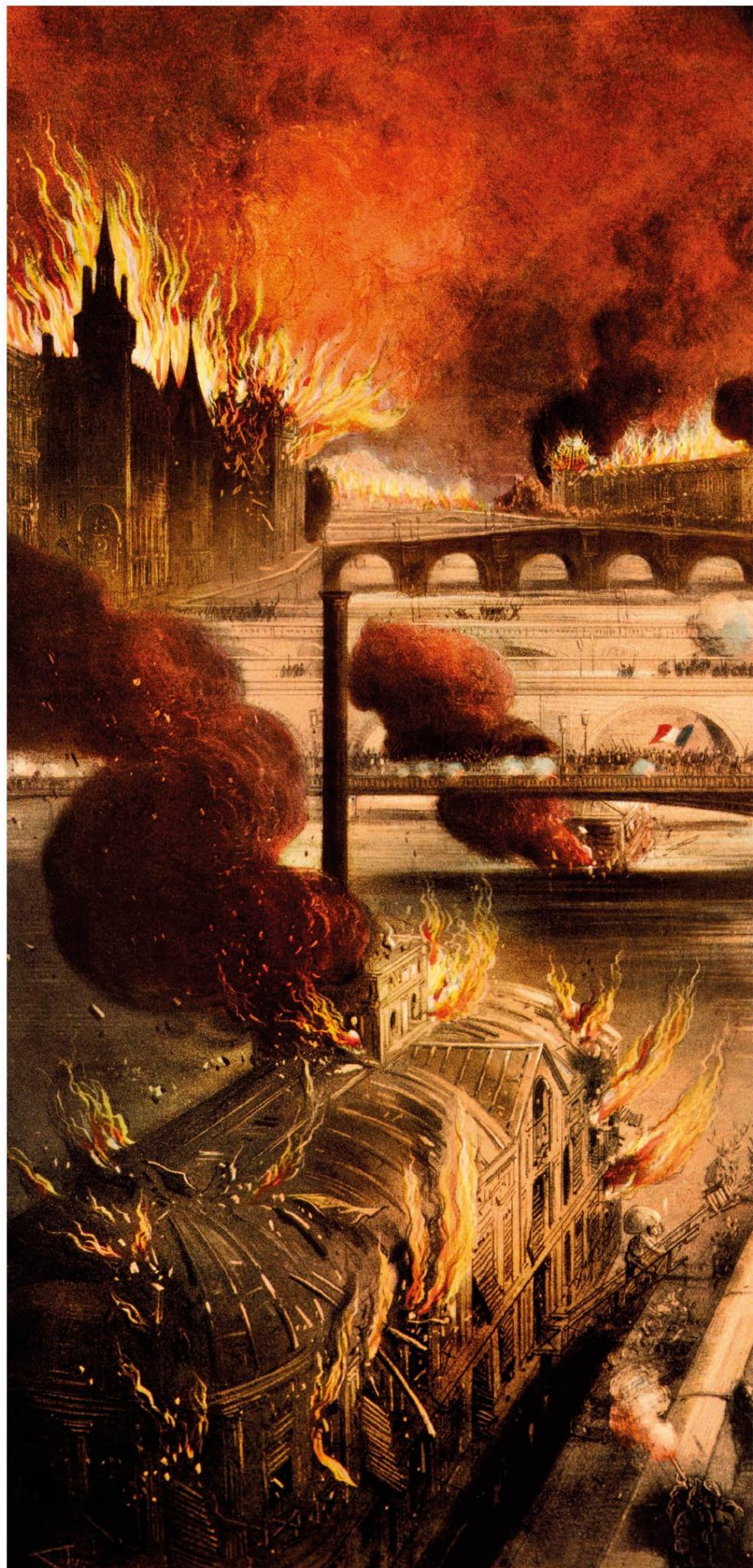
Paris's Bloody Week
This print shows Paris burning after the French National Guard set fire to the Paris Commune's headquarters on 24 May 1871. More than 20,000 supporters of the Commune were killed in the "Bloody Week".

1 CANAL CONSTRUCTION 1825–1914

The Industrial Revolution fuelled a boom in canal building that created thousands of miles of new inland waterways and dramatically reduced journey times along the world's trade routes. The Panama and Suez Canals were impressive feats of engineering, but costly; over 5,000 workers died constructing the $375-million Panama Canal, and 120,000 died building the $100-million Suez Canal.

⌂ Major Canals

2 THE ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH 1844–1914

The electric telegraph allowed messages to travel hundreds of miles. New undersea telegraph cables revolutionized global communication. The first, laid across the Atlantic, cut the time for a message from Europe to reach the US from days to hours. Poor reception on the first cable meant that messages were transmitted at 0.1 words a minute. Undersea cables soon connected the world.

— Underwater telegraph cable route

3 MASS TRANSIT IN THE CITIES 1863–1914

In January 1863, London became the first city to run trains underground. The network transported 38,000 passengers on its first day alone, and its success prompted other cities to develop their own. The underground trains boosted the economy by introducing a more efficient way to transport increasing numbers of workers across the cities.

🚇 Underground train systems

1858 First transatlantic telegraph cable laid between Ireland and Newfoundland
1866 The SS Great Eastern steamship lays a second, more reliable cable

August 1858 Queen Victoria sends first transatlantic telegraph message to President Buchanan; it takes 17 hours to arrive

1895 Manchester Ship Canal links Manchester to the Irish Sea and makes the city one of Britain's busiest ports

1863 First underground train system opens in London

CANADA

1825 Erie Canal links New York and Atlantic coast to the Great Lakes

1901 The United States' first underground railway opens

1907 Mauritania sets new record by crossing the Atlantic in 4.5 days

1895 Kiel Canal links the North Sea to the Baltic Sea, saving a 463-km- (288-mile-) journey around Jutland

Prince Rupert

NORTH AMERICA

UNITED KINGDOM

1896 Glasgow

GERMAN EMPIRE

Moscow

1863 London
1900 Paris

1912 Hamburg
1902 Berlin

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

1896 Continental Europe's first underground system opens in Budapest

Portland

Montreal

1901 Boston
1904 New York

FRANCE

EUROPE

1896 Budapest

Chicago

San Francisco

USA

Washington

1907 Philadelphia

SPAIN

ITALY
Rome

Istanbul

1904 Athens

Los Angeles

Railroads transport beef cattle from western grasslands to the populated east coast

1844 Samuel Morse sends first electric telegraph message in the US

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

1900 The Paris Metro's first line opens less than 2 years after construction began

EGYPT

Arabian Peninsula

Karachi

MEXICO

New Orleans

Mexico City

CUBA

1869 Steamships gain a competitive edge from the faster route offered by the Suez Canal, which is not open to sailing ships

Aden

PANAMA

Conakry

LIBERIA

Lagos

NIGERIA

AFRICA

ATLANTIC OCEAN

INDIAN OCEAN

1914 Panama Canal completed – the fastest route between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans

Guayaquil

Pará (Belém)

SOUTH AMERICA

Mombasa

◁ The Paris Metro
This French cartoon from 1886 mocks plans for an above-ground railway system in Paris; the city's underground railway opened in 1900.

Callao

BRAZIL

Bahia (Salvador)

Luanda

BRITISH EAST AFRICA

Rio de Janeiro

Walvis

Beira

MADAGASCAR

Valparaíso

Santiago

CHILE

URUGUAY

Montevideo

Johannesburg

Lourenço Marques

CAPE COLONY

NATAL

Durban

1913 Buenos Aires

ARGENTINA

Cape Town

1876 First successful export of refrigerated meat from Argentina

4 THE ADVENT OF OCEAN-GOING STEAMSHIPS 1830–1914

Steamships crossed the Atlantic from the early 1830s. Improvements to ships and their engines in the middle of the century increased the distances they could travel before re-coaling, reducing journey times. Steamships were larger and could carry more cargo and passengers, making long-distance trade far more profitable.

- ▪▪➤ North Atlantic shipping route
- ▪▪▪ Other shipping routes

1913 Buenos Aires' Subte becomes first underground system in Latin America

5 TECHNOLOGY AND EXPORT 1876–1914

New, refrigerated ships and the spread of railways opened up new export markets. Cattle raised in America or Australia and New Zealand were sent by train to processing plants on the coast, from which ships carried the meat around the world. Refrigeration also boosted fruit exports, giving rise to the "banana republics" of Central America.

- ▭ Major rail networks c.1914
- 🐑 Lamb and mutton
- 🐄 Beef cattle
- 🍇 Fruit
- 🍃 Tea

THE IMPACT OF ADVANCES

Technological advances in shipbuilding, electric telegraphy, mass transit, canal construction, the railways, and refrigeration contributed to the economic revolution in the 19th century, helping create a worldwide trading system.

TIMELINE

	1820	1840	1860	1880	1900	1920

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

Vladivostok

ASIA

CHINA

Tokyo

Shanghai

1866 The steamship *Agamemnon* successfully sails from London to China with only one stop, substantially out-pacing sailing ships on the route

BURMA

Calcutta

Hong Kong

Manila

1870 Cables between Singapore and Darwin in north Australia complete a telegraphic link between Britain and its furthest dominions

Singapore

PACIFIC OCEAN

Darwin

Broome

AUSTRALIA

Brisbane

Perth

Adelaide

Sydney

Auckland

Melbourne

NEW ZEALAND

Napier

1880 Refrigerated beef and mutton is successfully shipped 24,000 km (15,000 miles) from Australia to London

Dunedin

1879 The *Dunedin* successfully transports the first full cargo of refrigerated meat from New Zealand to London

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

In the 19th century, transport and communications were transformed. In turn, they transformed the world's economy by improving productivity in the cities, speeding up intercontinental communication, and increasing trade profits. Developments in refrigeration and the railways created new export opportunities.

Advances in technology made the world a much smaller place. The sailing ships that had, for centuries, plied the long-distance routes around the globe gave way to steamships, capable of carrying more cargo more quickly and profitably. In the 1830s, steamer journeys across the Atlantic took 17 days. Continued steam engine improvements made the ships ever faster and by 1910, transatlantic journey times had been reduced to just 5 days. The shortcuts provided by the great Canals built during the 19th and early 20th centuries allowed ships to bypass notoriously dangerous passages, like those around the Cape of Africa and the tip of South America. And, as journeys became less risky, insurance costs came down and profits increased further. By the end of the 19th century, even the furthest-flung corners of the world were participating in the global economy. Once refrigeration had been mastered, frozen beef, lamb, and mutton from as far afield as New Zealand and the tip of South America, along with fruit from South Africa and Central America, was crossing the oceans to feed the hungry workforces of Europe's and North America's industrial cities. Electric telegraphy and mass transportation systems ensured that the wheels of commerce in the cities turned smoothly.

"Cunard's liners and the electric telegraph, are… signs that… there is a mighty spirit working among us"

CHARLES KINGSLEY, FROM HIS NOVEL *YEAST* (1851)

SAMUEL MORSE
1791–1872

A successful artist born in Massachusetts in 1791, Samuel Morse began working on improving electric telegraphy in the 1830s after hearing about the newly invented electromagnet on a ship home from Europe. Morse's design used a single telegraph wire to send messages. He created a system for encoding messages, known as Morse Code, using short and long electrical signals to represent letters. These signals were then sent along the wire to a stylus operated by an electromagnet that embossed the code onto a moving paper tape. He completed America's first electric telegraph line in 1844.
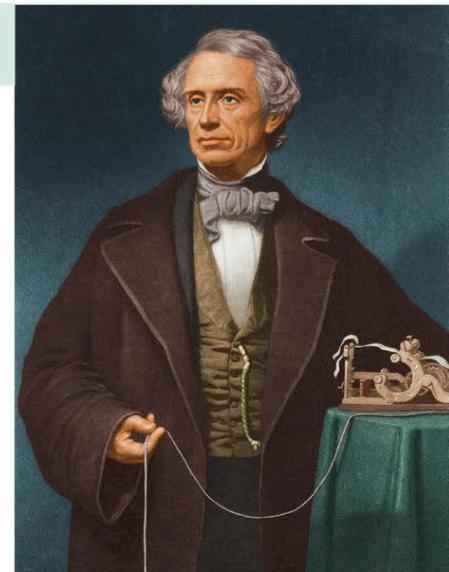
MASS MIGRATIONS

In the 19th century, millions left their home countries in search of stability, freedom, and employment. As they left the Old World behind, flowing out from Russia, Europe, China, and India, the younger countries of the Americas and Australasia saw their populations boom.

The political, social, and economic changes wrought by the industrial revolution, coupled with new forms of mass transport, caused a huge surge in migration in the 19th century. Newly mechanized industries demanded a concentration of labour on a scale never seen before. A ready supply of migrant labour was to be found among those fleeing economic hardship in Europe, India, and China. And with political upheaval and anti-Semitism in central Europe and the Russian Empire swelling the ranks of those seeking a new life, more than 80 million people left their country of origin in the 19th and early 20th centuries.

Many headed for the rapidly-industrializing coastal regions of the United States, due to the end of the American Civil War and the opening up of Native American land to new settlers. The emerging economies of South America drew millions from southern Europe, and hundreds of thousands were attracted by the promise of riches in the gold rush towns of Australia, Canada, and South Africa. That so many could travel so far was a result of the advances brought by the Industrial Revolution: the railroads, faster and safer ships, and new routes through the Panama and Suez canals.

▷ *The Last of England*, 1855
This painting by the English artist Ford Madox Brown shows the apprehension on the faces of emigrants bound for an uncertain future in the gold fields of Australia.
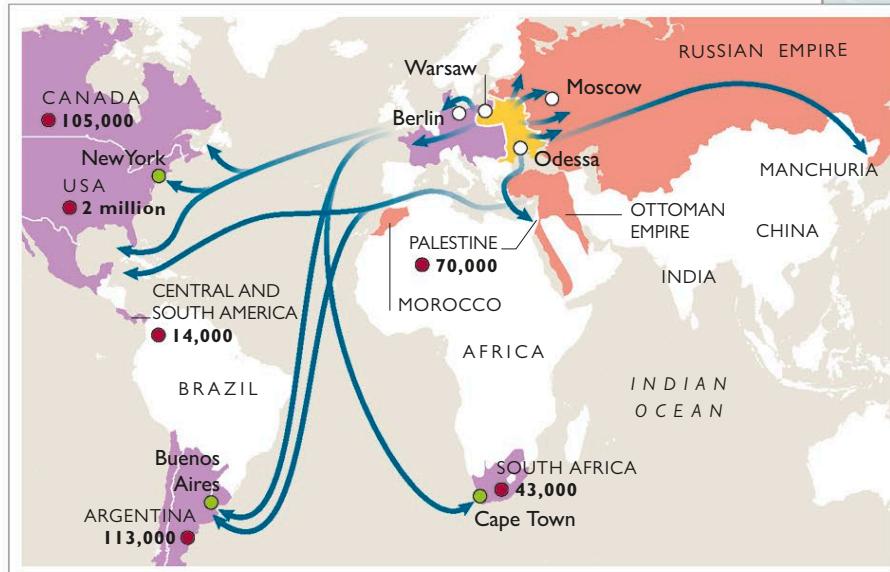
THE AMERICAN DREAM 1800–1914

Over 50 million migrants travelled to North America in the 19th century, the majority of them to the United States, as wave after wave left their homes for the economic opportunities and political and religious freedom offered by the "land of the free". They initially came from northern Europe – Germany, Scandinavia, Britain, and Ireland – but from 1880, migrants from southern Europe, particularly Italy, began to arrive in large numbers.

CANADA

1860–1920 More than 5 million European migrants travel to Canada

1882 The US passes the Chinese Exclusion Act, stopping labour immigration from China

Vancouver
Canadian Pacific **1885** Quebec
Northern Pacific **1869** Halifax
Central Pacific **1883** New York
San Francisco Boston
UNITED STATES
Los Angeles New Orleans
NORTH AMERICA

8 million

Mexico City MEXICO
Cuba
Jamaica Puerto Rico

Panama Canal **1914**

Belém

PERU SOUTH AMERICA
Lima BRAZIL

1850–80 Tens of thousands of Chinese labourers come to work in Peru's guano, sugar, and cotton industries

Rio de Janeiro

1888 Slavery is abolished in Brazil, triggering a large influx of immigrants

Valparaíso URUGUAY
Montevideo
CHILE ARGENTINA Buenos Aires

JEWISH MIGRATION (1880–1914)

The 19th century brought persecution to the world's largest Jewish population, in Russia. When the assassination of Alexander II in 1881 prompted years of government-sanctioned pogroms, the Jews flooded out of Russia, heading for the Holy Land. Some Jews moved towards western Europe and were soon joined by those fleeing anti-Semitism in the Ottoman Empire.

CANADA
● 105,000

New York
USA
● 2 million

CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA
● 14,000

BRAZIL

Buenos Aires

ARGENTINA
● 113,000

Warsaw
Berlin
Moscow
Odessa

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

MANCHURIA

OTTOMAN EMPIRE
CHINA

PALESTINE
● 70,000
INDIA

MOROCCO

AFRICA

INDIAN OCEAN

SOUTH AFRICA
● 43,000
Cape Town

KEY

🟨 Major concentration of Jews in the Russian Empire

🟧 Region with emigrating Jewish population

🟪 Region with substantial Jewish immigration

🟢 Gateway city

→ Jewish migrations

● Number of Jewish immigrants 1880–1914

2 INDENTURED LABOUR 1833–1920

Between 1833 and 1920, millions of Indians travelled to various European colonies as indentured labourers, employed for 3–5 years for the price of their passage and a small wage. Between about 1852 and 1900, at least 2.3 million Chinese also emigrated on a similar basis to North America, Australia, New Zealand, and Southeast Asia, where they often undertook the hard labour of building railways and mining.

3 GOLD FEVER 1849, 1851, 1886, 1896

As deposits of gold were uncovered in the 19th century, hundreds of thousands scrambled across continents and around the world to seek their fortune. Gold fever hit California in 1849, South Africa in 1886, and the Yukon and Klondike in Canada in 1896. In Australia, the population trebled within the decade following 1851, when gold was discovered in Ballarat and Bendigo in Victoria.

◆ Gold rush

4 LATIN AMERICA 1850–1953

From the 1850s onwards, millions of Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian people made their way to South America, attracted by the offer of preferential treatment for Europeans. They headed primarily for the rapidly expanding urban economies of Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina, which were rich with European capital and investment at that time. Brazil alone received 5 million immigrants between 1872 and 1953.

1845–54 1.6 million Irish emigrate, mainly to the US, during the Potato Famine

1850s Emigration from England and Scotland reaches its peak of 50,000 per year

1880s–90s Land exhaustion and famine drive migrants from European Russia east and south into newly gained territories

1900–1910 More than 2 million Italians emigrate to the US and Argentina

1848–49 Political suppression following revolutions in central Europe prompts many liberals to emigrate

1860–90 Indian migrants arrive in east Africa to work as merchants, labourers, and later, as police officers, clerks, and accountants

1834 Indentured labourers from India replace slaves on the sugar plantations of Mauritius

1840 The Treaty of Waitangi gives sovereignty over New Zealand to Britain; around 400,000 British settlers arrive in the following decades

Trans-Siberian Railway **1904**

2.1 million
3.4 million
5.5 million
4.5 million
4.1 million
4.5 million
7 million returnees
3 million (2.5 million British)
1.5 million
4 million
6 million
1 million

MIGRATIONS OF THE 19TH CENTURY

The most significant human migrations in the 19th century were those from Europe and Asia to the Americas. Other important routes ran from India to other parts of the British Empire; from Russia to Asia; and from Europe to Australia.

KEY

- ┈┈ Transcontinental Railway
- ▇ Major exporters of people
- ▇ Major importers of people

ASIAN MIGRATION
- → To the Americas and Australia
- → Russian migration into Siberia
- → Indian inter-colonial migration

TRANSATLANTIC MIGRATION
- → To North America
- → To South America and the Caribbean
- → To Europe from the Americas

OTHER EUROPEAN MIGRATION
- → To North Africa
- → To Australia and New Zealand

TIMELINE

	1750	1800	1850	1900	1950
1					
2					
3					
4					

THE AGE OF IMPERIALISM

In the 19th century, forces of imperialism reshaped the world, as nations sought to gain control of overseas territories that would provide valuable resources, space for growing populations, and power in a competitive world.
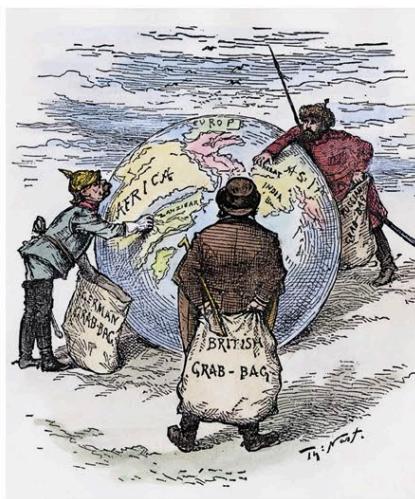
△ **Ravaging their colonies**
Contemporary cartoons frequently satirized the plundering nature of imperialism. In this American cartoon from 1885, Germany, England, and Russia grab pieces of Africa and Asia.

The middle of the 19th century witnessed a dramatic shift in European overseas expansion. For centuries, European activities overseas had been dominated by trade and the creation of a chain of staging posts, by which the riches of the East could be brought to Europe. However, this changed in the 1870s. Countries everywhere scrambled to annex new territories and strengthen their control over existing colonies, and new nations competed with the old colonial powers. By 1900, the world was largely imperial, setting the stage for World War I.

Reasons for imperialism

The shift from colonialism to imperialism was largely driven and facilitated by industrialization (see pp.232–33), which required vast amounts of raw materials. Imperialism gave nations control over raw materials, access to labour and huge new markets, and plenty of investment opportunities.

The colonies offered ample chances for those hoping to make their fortune, and some countries – mainly Britain and France – needed space for their growing populations. The desire to become a "Great Power" also nudged many countries to expand. European countries were keen to reassert themselves or carve out new identities. Britain hoped to recover its stature after losing its American colonies, France wanted to rebuild its power, and Russia continued its push eastwards into the weakening Qing Empire in China. From the 1860s, the young nations of Germany, Italy, and the US sought to become world powers. Emerging from centuries of

isolation, Japan too was keen to gain access to the resources it lacked and living space for its people, while being painfully aware that it was itself vulnerable to imperialism.

In addition to the economic and political benefits of imperialism, there was also a belief in the superiority of the white man. As scientists sought to apply Charles Darwin's theory of evolution to humankind, the perceived "advanced" state of Western society was used to justify imperialism. Many Westerners felt that they had a moral duty to Christianize "native" cultures. It was an attitude neatly summed up in Kipling's 1899 poem "The White Man's Burden", which exhorted Americans to colonize the Philippines. It spoke of a white man's moral obligation to rule the non-white peoples, or the "other", and encourage their economic, cultural, and social progress.

Building empires

The huge empires built in the 19th century were largely made possible by the advances brought about by industrialization. Modern medicine, such as the discovery of quinine as a treatment for malaria, meant that Europeans could push further than ever before into lands rife with tropical disease. Modern communications, such as railways and telegraph lines, allowed large areas to be easily
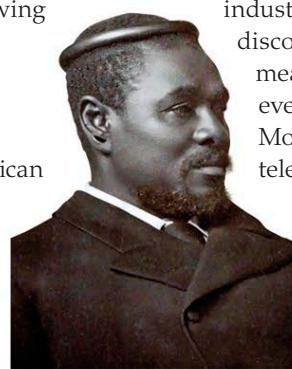
◁ **Resisting imperialism**
Zulu chief Cetshwayo kaMpande led his warriors against the British in 1879. His defeat removed a major threat to British colonial interests in South Africa.

THE IMPERIAL WORLD

Patterns of imperial activity varied around the world. While the colonization of Africa was marked by a scramble in which almost all major European countries took part, India and Southeast Asia were mainly dominated by the British and French, respectively. The decaying Qing Empire provided easy pickings for Japan and Russia. While Britain and the US sought to bring Latin America within their spheres of influence, Latin American countries also embarked on their own expansionist ventures.

1857–58 The Indian Mutiny against the British results in the tightening of British control and the declaration of the "Raj"

1864–70 Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay attempt to carve up Paraguay between them in the Paraguayan War

	1850	1855	1860	1865	1870
ASIA					
LATIN AMERICA					
AFRICA					

1849–52 The British annex Punjab, and occupy Lower Burma; Upper Burma is annexed in 1886

1859–67 France extends control in Southeast Asia, capturing Saigon and establishing protectorates in Cambodia and Cochin China

Built with British expertise, using British materials, the Retiro Railway Station in Buenos Aires is an example of how imperial influence extended beyond official colonies through cultural, financial, and industrial means.

controlled. New mechanized weaponry made it possible to suppress local resistance; this also meant that brutality was a frequent companion of imperialism.

Even countries that were not directly colonized came under the influence of imperialist nations. For example, in Latin America, political and economic intervention helped secure American and British influence in the region. Cultural influence helped the imperialist nations to embed their lifestyles and aspirations both in their colonies and beyond.

"I am an anti-imperialist. I am opposed to having the eagle put its talons on any other land."

MARK TWAIN, WRITER,
NEW YORK HERALD, 1900

▽ **Military might**
Japan destroyed Russia's Baltic Fleet at the Battle of Tsushima in 1905 during the Sino-Japanese War. Japan's victory was proof of her increasing military and imperial power and of Russia's growing weakness.

1876 Queen Victoria is proclaimed the Empress of India

1884–99 Germany creates German New Guinea after annexing territories in the Pacific

1889–96 Italy establishes its first colony in Eritrea but is kept out of Abyssinia by the armies of King Menelik II at the Battle of Adowa

1895 France creates the federation of French West Africa, comprising eight territories

1895–98 The Venezuela Crisis – a border dispute between British Guyana and Venezuela – justifies US intervention in the region

1904–05 Japan defeats Russia to become the first non-European nation to defeat a great European power

1875   1880   1885   1890   1895   1900   1905

1876 Scramble for Africa begins when Belgian King Leopold II begins colonizing Congo

1884–86 Germany acquires parts of southwest Africa, present-day Togo, and Cameroon. It agrees to share east Africa with Britain

1894–95 Japan gains control of the Liaodong peninsula of China and annexes Formosa (modern-day Taiwan)

1898 Victory in the Spanish-American War gives the US Cuba and Puerto Rico

1899–1902 The Second Anglo-Boer War gives Britain control of South Africa, paving the way for the creation of the British Union of South Africa in 1910

THE NEW IMPERIALISM

The 19th century saw a remarkable wave of imperial activity as freedom from war, the second wave of the Industrial Revolution, and the emergence of new countries fuelled the land grab of most of Africa, the Pacific, and southern Asia among European powers.

In 1830, the European colonies were in retreat. The French, British, and Spanish had been swept out of the Americas in a wave of revolution. Only Russia, with its vast empire in north and central Asia, and Britain, holding Canada, Australia, and India, retained significant territory. However, conditions were ripe for the emergence of renewed imperial activity and new forms of imperialism.

Britain made a cautious start. Many of its acquisitions – Singapore (1819), Malacca (1824), Hong Kong (1842), Natal (1843) and Lower Burma (1852) – were driven by a desire to secure the trade routes to the East Indies and protect its position in India. France acquired Algeria (1830s), Tahiti and the Marquesas in the South Pacific (1840s), and gained a toehold in Indochina (1858–59).

By 1870, Europeans had not yet penetrated Africa's interior, and much of Indochina and China remained untouched, but this was not to last far beyond 1880, when the Second Industrial Revolution created a strong demand for raw materials and markets. By then, the unified countries of Germany and Italy – along with the US and Japan – were eager to challenge the older colonial powers. In the last 20 years of the century, the European nations carved up almost all of Africa, while in Asia, the weakness of the Qing dynasty allowed the French, British, Russians, and Japanese to extend their influence deep into China. Between 1880 and 1914, Europe added 20.7 million sq km (8.5 million square miles) to its overseas possessions, and Britain and France ruled more than 500 million people between them.

OVERCOMING RESISTANCE
FORCE AND TRICKERY IN THE COLONIES

Colonists faced almost constant pressure from local uprisings. In Indochina, for example, the French were engaged in a guerilla war from 1883–1913. Brute force was the usual response – the Herero rising against the Germans in Southwest Africa in 1904 ended in genocide – but trickery played a part too, as Cecil Rhodes showed when in 1888, he deceived King Lobengula into signing away mining rights for his territory in Matabeleland.

Cecil Rhodes with the Matabeles
Rhodes, prime minister of Britain's Cape Colony, confronts the Matabele in this contemporary illustration.
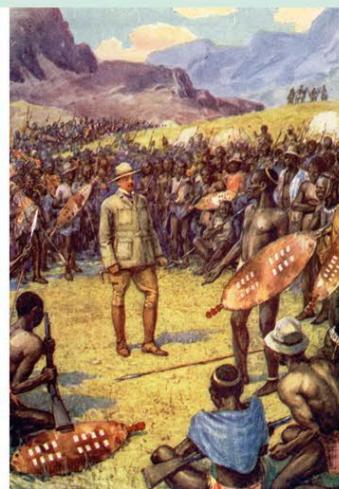
SOUTH ASIA 1825–1876

By 1850, the British East India Company, a private company, was the major power on the Indian subcontinent; French and Portuguese influence in south Asia was limited to isolated pockets; the Danish had sold their colonial holdings there; and the Dutch had left by 1825. During the Indian Revolt of 1857–58 (see pp.244–45), the British crown took control of India and the Raj was created. When the East India Company was finally dissolved in 1876, Queen Victoria became Empress of India.

1898 The Spanish-American War extends the US influence into the Caribbean

1900 The Guianas are the only remaining European colonies in South America

THE WORLD IN 1900

By 1900, Western powers dominated the world. Of the few independent places, many, such as Persia and South America, were subject to Western interference. Others, including Morocco and Burma, were soon also under imperial control.

KEY

	Ottoman Empire		German Empire and possessions
	Britain and possessions		Russian Empire and possessions
	France and possessions		Japan and possessions
	Denmark and possessions		Italy and possessions
	Spain and possessions		US and possessions
	Portugal and possessions		Qing Empire
	Netherlands and possessions		

TIMELINE

1 2 3 4

1800 1820 1840 1860 1880 1900

Map labels

GREENLAND, CANADA, NEW FOUNDLAND, St Pierre and Miquelon, UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, Missouri, Great Lakes, St Lawrence, Chicago, New York, Washington DC, Los Angeles, Bermuda, PACIFIC OCEAN, Hawaiian Islands, Christmas Island, Marquesas Islands, Tahiti, MEXICO, Mexico, Havana, Cuba, Jamaica, Bahamas, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, St Martin, Leeward, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Barbados, Windward, GUATEMALA, BRITISH HONDURAS, HONDURAS, NICARAGUA, Curaçao, WEST INDIES, Trinidad and Tobago, COSTA RICA, VENEZUELA, BRITISH GUIANA, Orinoco, COLOMBIA, DUTCH GUIANA, FRENCH GUIANA, ECUADOR, Lima, PERU, ACRE, BRAZIL, BOLIVIA, Andes, PARAGUAY, CHILE, ARGENTINA, URUGUAY, Santiago, Buenos Aires, Patagonia, Falkland Islands

2 EAST AND SOUTHEAST ASIA 1850–95

Agrarian unrest in China in the 1850s led to rebellion and famine (see pp.252–53) and Western powers were quick to exploit the internal dissent. France and Britain extended their influence deep into China (see pp.226–27), but they faced competition from a rapidly modernizing Japan and Russia. To the southeast of the region, the British expanded into the tin- and rubber-rich lands of Malaya, while the French gained control of Indochina.

3 AFRICA 1876–1900

In 1850, Africa was a patchwork of kingdoms, mostly unknown to Europeans. But in the 1880s, the "Scramble for Africa" began (pp.248–49) with the exploitation of the Congo by Leopold II of Belgium, who ran the country as a private fiefdom. Other European nations raced to secure territory, raw materials, and new markets. Colonization brought the Europeans into conflict not only with the indigenous populations but also with one another. By 1900, as much as 90 per cent of Africa was in European hands.

ICELAND

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

Yenisey
Lena
Volga
Amur

NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
St Petersburg
Moscow

GERMAN EMPIRE
Berlin
DENMARK
NETHERLANDS
BRITAIN
London
BELGIUM
Paris
FRANCE
Vienna
AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE
Budapest
SWITZERLAND
BOSNIA HERZEGOVINA
ROMANIA
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Rome
BULGARIA
Lisbon
Madrid
ITALY
SERBIA Istanbul
Azores
Gibraltar
MONTENEGRO
Athens
GREECE
Madeira
Ceuta
Melilla
Malta
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Tehran
PERSIA
Ifni
MOROCCO
Canary Islands
ALGERIA
Sahara
Kuwait
Bahrain
TUNIS
Suez Canal
EGYPT
Cairo
Bedouins
Gwadar
TRUCIAL OMAN
OMAN
Cape Verde Islands
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
ERITREA
HADHRAMAUT
Socotra
Aden
GAMBIA
GOLD COAST
NIGERIA
Addis Ababa
FRENCH SOMALILAND
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
TOGO
RIO MUNI
ABYSSINIA
BRITISH SOMALILAND
Fernando Po
Sao Tome And Principe
FRENCH CONGO
CONGO FREE STATE
BRITISH EAST AFRICA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
Ascension
NORTHEASTERN RHODESIA
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
Zanzibar
Seychelles
BAROTSELAND-NORTHWESTERN RHODESIA
ANGOLA
BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA
Comoro Islands
Amirante Islands
St Helena
GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
MADAGASCAR
Mauritius
Réunion
BECHUANALAND
to Cape Colony
SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC
NATAL
CAPE COLONY
ORANGE FREE STATE
Cape Town
BASUTOLAND

RIO DE ORO

ATLANTIC OCEAN

1869 Opening of the Suez Canal links the North Atlantic to the northern Indian Ocean via the Red Sea, providing a swifter route for goods

1878–79 Britain and Russia vie for Afghanistan but both fail to add it to their empires

Gobi
QING EMPIRE
Khiva
BUKHARA
AFGHANISTAN
Himalayas
NEPAL
BHUTAN
Beijing
KOREA
Port Arthur
Weihaiwei
Jiaozhou
Nanjing
Shanghai
Tokyo
Yangtze
Delhi
INDIA
Diu
Chandernagore
Damão
BURMA
Bombay
Goa
Yanaon
Madras
Pondicherry
Karikal
Mahé
Taiwan
Hong Kong
Macao
Guangzhouwan
SIAM
Bangkok
FRENCH INDOCHINA
Manila
Guam
Saigon
Ceylon
MALAYA
BRUNEI
Maldive Islands
Chagos Islands
Malacca
SARAWAK
Singapore
BRITISH NORTH BORNEO
Borneo
Dutch East Indies
Sumatra
Batavia Java
Cocos Islands
Christmas Island
Portuguese Timor
New Guinea
PAPUA
KAISER WILHELM'S LAND

1885–86 Third Anglo-Burmese War finally brings the whole of Burma into the Raj and ends French ambitions in the area

1884 Capture of Hong-Hoa in Vietnam helps cement French rule in Indochina

1895 The Qing cede Formosa (Taiwan) to Japan in the Treaty of Shimonoseki

1858 British crown rule in India (the Raj) begins

Mariana Islands
Philippine Islands
Caroline Islands
Marshall Islands
Gilbert Islands
Bismarck Archipelago
Solomon Islands
Ellice Islands
Santa Cruz Islands
New Caledonia
Lord Howe Island
AUSTRALIA
Sydney
NEW ZEALAND

INDIAN OCEAN

1899 The Second Anglo-Boer War begins as the British and descendants of Dutch settlers vie for control in South Africa

1879 British defeat Zulus in Anglo-Zulu War

4 INFORMAL EMPIRES 1870–1900

Financial investment, technical expertise, and control of critical resources such as coal, iron, and steel gave the more advanced, industrialized European countries huge influence over even those territories that that they did not directly rule. Argentina in particular came within the sphere of influence of Britain's informal empire as British investment, engineers, and railwaymen flooded the country, securing Britain preferential trade agreements and changing the country both culturally and socially.
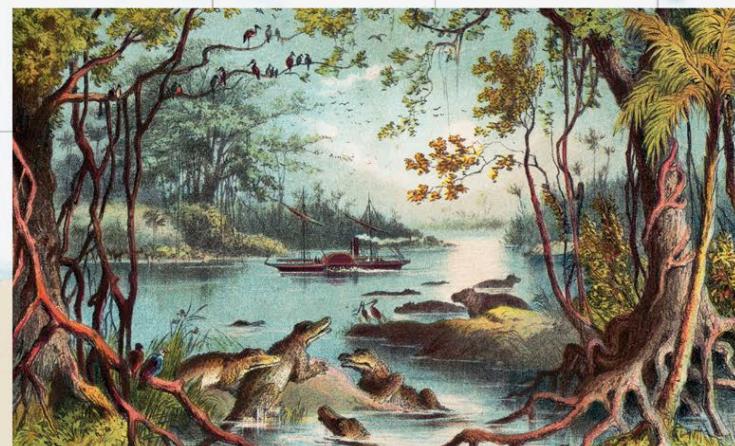
◁ **Zambesi Expedition**
The European media reported the derring-do of explorers, such as the Scottish missionary David Livingstone, who navigated a steamship up the Shire River in 1858 and the Zambezi in 1860.

RESISTANCE AND THE RAJ

In 1857–58, a revolt by Indian soldiers threatened to force the British out of India. Instead, the British increased their control, creating the Raj under the direct rule of Queen Victoria.

Unrest was growing in India in the 1850s. Indians were worried about British expansionism and feared forced conversion to Christianity, suspecting that the British were trying to undermine traditional culture.

In 1857, a rumour spread among the sepoys (native soldiers) employed by the British. They came to believe that cartridges for the new Enfield rifles, which had to be opened with the teeth, were greased with cow or pig fat. This caused offence to both Hindus, who believed cows were sacred, and Muslims, who thought pigs were unclean. In spite of British reassurances that the cartridges were free from animal fat, the sepoys on parade at Meerut on 10 May 1857 refused to use them and mutinied.

△ **Enfield rifle cartridges**
Rumours about the fat used to grease the new Enfield rifle cartridges sparked a mutiny among India's sepoys, which developed into a wide-reaching Indian Revolt.

The mutiny quickly developed into a general revolt, spreading through Bengal, Oudh, and the Northwest Provinces as local princes, such as Nana Sahib and Lakshmi Bai, the Rani of Jhansi, tried to drive out the British. After atrocities on both sides, the British succeeded in quelling the rebellion by the end of 1858. Their position in India was totally changed. The East India Company was abolished, and the last ruler of the Mughal line, Bahadur Shah Zafar, was tried for treason and exiled, opening the way for direct rule by the British over India. The British Raj had been born.

THE REVOLT OF 1857–58

From Meerut, the mutiny soon spread to other sepoy regiments around India and to the general populace. Some princely states remained neutral or loyal to the British, while others seized the chance to rebel. The revolt remained largely centred in northern India.

PUNJAB
Meerut
NORTHWEST
PROVINCES
Lucknow
OUDH
Delhi
NEPAL
Cawnpore
BOMBAY
INDIA
HYDERABAD
MADRAS

KEY

British India

Princely states

Areas affected by the revolt

Posts at which Indian troops mutinied

Main centres of rebellion
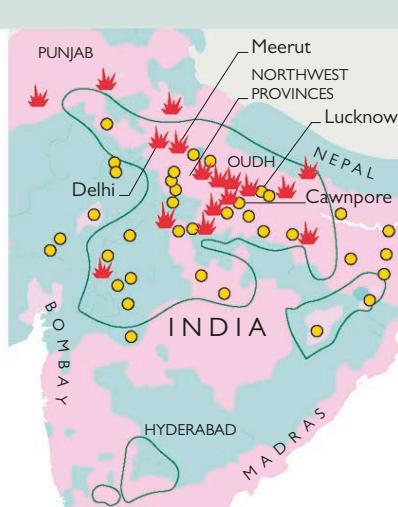
The Siege of Lucknow
Part of the British administrative headquarters, or Residency, in Lucknow, the Chattar Manzil palace was besieged by rebel forces for several months. The siege was eventually broken by the British in March 1858.

△ The *Petropavlovsk* sinks
Russia clashed with Japan over rival imperial ambitions in Manchuria and Korea. The battleship *Petropavlovsk*, shown in this illustration, was a casualty of the Russo-Japanese war in 1904.

1854–55 The Siege of Sevastopol ends Russia's attempt to expand its territories in the Black Sea region

1 THE CONQUEST OF SIBERIA 1600–1812

Russia first tried to find a sea passage from the Arctic to the Pacific Ocean. When this failed, it turned to conquering Siberia in order to gain access to the Pacific coast and to win control over its land, minerals, and fur trade. Military forays and massacres, as well as diseases brought in by Russian trappers and traders, subdued the indigenous peoples. By 1650, Russia had colonized the whole of north Asia. Russia then reached North America, where it founded colonies in Alaska (1784) and California (1812).

2 EXPANSION TO THE WEST 1768–1815

For centuries, the Swedish Empire and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth had limited Russia's western territory. However, the military reforms of two tsars, Ivan V and Peter the Great, helped to bring much of Poland and Lithuania into the empire by 1795. Success against Sweden in the Finnish War (1808–09) gave Russia the Grand Duchy of Finland. A final shuffle of Polish territories after the Napoleonic Wars (1803–15) defined the western limits of the Russian Empire.

3 THE BLACK SEA AND CRIMEA 1768–1856

Under Empress Catherine the Great, Russia moved towards the Black Sea, securing the independence of the Crimean Khanate from the Ottoman Empire in the Russo-Turkish War (1768–74) and then annexing it in 1783. By 1815, Russia had gained control of the entire northern shore of the Black Sea and finally it had a warm-water port. Russia's attempt to occupy the Balkans, however, was swiftly suppressed in the Crimean War (1853–56).

⚓ New Russian port

4 CENTRAL ASIA AND "THE GREAT GAME" 1830–95

As Russia moved south and Britain moved north from its powerbase in India, a series of political and diplomatic confrontations known as "The Great Game" played out, as each side tried to expand their influence in Afghanistan and its surrounding countries. Ultimately, Afghanistan became a buffer zone, but Russia was able to annex the valuable lands of Bukhara, Khiva, and Samarkand.

🚩 Acquired by Russia during "The Great Game"

🟥 Afghanistan

5 RUSSIA AND MANCHURIA 1858–1914

From 1858, a weakening Qing Empire ceded Outer Manchuria to Russia – an area from which it had previously been excluded by the Treaty of Nerchinsk (1689). Russia founded Vladivostok, a relatively ice-free port, and in 1898 leased the Liaodong peninsula from China, gaining the warm-water port of Port Arthur. Alarmed by Japan's growing interest in China, Russia occupied southern Manchuria but was defeated in the Russo-Japanese war (1904–05) and abandoned its imperial ambitions in the area.

⚓ New Russian port

1808 The Treaty of Tilsit between Russia and France allows Russia to move against their common enemy – Sweden – and annex Finland

1709 Swedish defeat in the Battle of Poltava marks beginning of Russian supremacy in eastern Europe

19th century Russia conquers the Caucasus from the Persian Empire

Sep 1895 The Pamir Boundary Commission protocols define the border between Afghanistan and the Russian Empire

SWEDEN

Severnaya Zemlya

Barents Sea

Baltic Sea

Novaya Zemlya

FINLAND

St Petersburg

Moscow

Poltava

Kazan

Ural'sk

Perm

Samara

Yekaterinburg

POLISH-LITHUANIAN COMMONWEALTH

TOBOL'SK

1594 Surgut

YENISEYSK

1587 Tobol'sk

1743 Orenburg

1716 Omsk

1604 Tomsk

1619 Yeniseysk

1628 Krasnoyarsk

RUSSIAN

S

CRIMEAN KHANATE

Sevastopol

Black Sea

Astrakhan

Volga

1730

URAL'SK

Ural

1731

1734

1824

TURGAY

AKMOLINSK

1824

1718 Semipalatinsk

SEMIPALATINSK

1864

1871 SEMIRECH'YE

TOMSK

1652 Irkutsk

1912–21 URYANKHAI

Altai Mountains

Baku

Caspian Sea

Aral Sea

1873

1873 KHIVA

Khiva

Amu Darya

Syr Darya

1854

1864

Tashkent

1868–70 SAMARKAND

Samarkand

1868 BUKHARA

SYR DARYA

Lake Balkhash

Irtysh

TRANSCASPIAN

Ashkhabad

Bukhara

TURKESTAN

FERGHANA

Pamirs

1871–81 ILI

Tien Shan

MONGOLIA

Tehran

PERSIA

1895

AFGHANISTAN

Kabul

Hindu Kush

Himalayas

Takla Makan Desert

XINJIANG

TIBET

QING EMPIRE

INDIA

1784 Alaska

Wrangel Island

Bering Strait

A R C T I C   O C E A N

1728 Under the command of Peter the Great, explorer Vitus Bering navigates what is to become known as the Bering Strait. He fails to sight Alaska due to mist

New Siberian Islands

1733–42 The Great Northern Expedition maps the Arctic coast of Siberia and some parts of North America

S i b e r i a

Lena

1649 Russia reaches the Pacific coast

1697–1732 KAMCHATKA

1649 Okhotsk

1632 Yakutsk

1740 Petropavlovsk

E M P I R E

IRKUTSK

COASTAL TERRITORY

Sea of Okhotsk

1853–75 NORTHERN SAKHALIN

1854–75 *Kurile Islands*

Sakhalin

1858 AMUR

M A N C H U R I A

Amur

1875–1905 SOUTHERN SAKHALIN

Lake Baikal

TRANSBAIKAL

Chita

1658 Nerchinsk

1900–05

Blagoveshchensk

Khabarovsk

P A C I F I C   O C E A N

1860 USSURI

1689 The Treaty of Nerchinsk agrees Russian spheres of influence in east Asia

1860 Vladivostok

Sea of Japan (East Sea)

LIAODONG PROVINCE

Beijing

1898–1905 Port Arthur

1910

K O R E A

J A P A N

RUSSIAN EXPANSION IN ASIA, 1600–1914
Russia gained territory in stages (dates of acquisition in bold). It spread across north Asia, then into Poland, the Baltic region, and south into central Asia. It then gained parts of China, and reached Afghanistan and Persia's borders.

KEY

- Russian Empire, c.1600
- Acquisitions, 1600–1725
- Acquisitions, 1726–1855
- Acquisitions, 1856–1876
- Acquisitions, 1877–1914
- Temporary acquisitions, with dates
- Russian sphere of influence, 1914
- Trans-Siberian railway, built 1891–1917
- Borders, 1914

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5

1600   1700   1800   1900

RUSSIAN EMPIRE EXPANDS

From 1600, Russia set out on a mission to expand its territory. It conquered Siberia, reached North America, drove deep into central Asia, and gained a foothold in the Black Sea region. By the 19th century, Russia's sizeable empire had begun to alarm Europe.

In 1600, the Tsardom of Russia spread from the Ural Mountains in the east to the edge of the great Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth in the west. It was, however, effectively landlocked; the Arctic Ocean was often frozen and the Baltic Sea was controlled by Russia's enemy, Sweden. Consequently, Russia's expansion over the next 400 years was driven, to a great extent, by the search for a warm-water port that would allow it to house a fleet to rival the French and British navies, and that would provide access to international trade.

Russia seized Siberia by conquest, but the growth of the empire was largely achieved by a process of accretion. Territories occupied by Russian migrants were slowly incorporated into the empire, and as the older powers – such as the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, the Ottoman Empire in central Asia, and the Qing Empire in China – weakened, Russia simply took over. Russia's attempts at more aggressive expansion in the Balkans, Manchuria, and to the north of Afghanistan met with varying degrees of success, and, in the end, the limits of Russia's empire were defined by other imperial powers.

"Russia has only two allies: her army and her fleet."

ALEXANDER III, EMPEROR OF RUSSIA, c.1890

IVAN IV VASILYEVICH
1530–84

The Grand Prince of Moscow from 1533–47, Ivan IV Vasilyevich (also known as "the Terrible") became the first tsar of Russia in 1547. A brutal autocrat, his rule is considered to mark the beginning of the Russian Empire, as he set about bringing Russia's aristocracy under his autocratic rule and uniting their lands under a central administration. By the time of his death in 1584, Ivan had not only united Russia's princedoms but also conquered Kazan, Astrakhan, and parts of Siberia, setting the foundation for a vast empire that would span much of Europe and Asia.
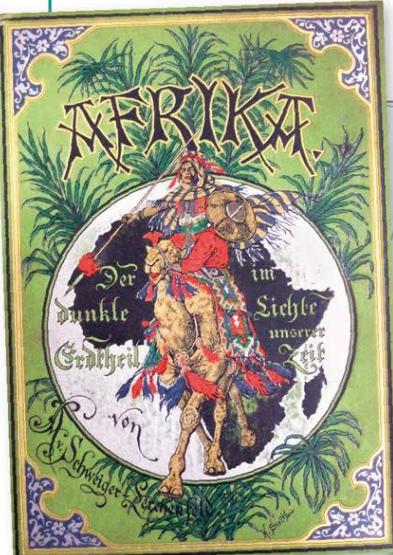
△ **A view from Europe**
The cover of this German book published in 1886 ("Africa. The Dark Earth in the Light of our Time") presents a highly romanticized view of African colonization to its European readers.

1882 Britain occupies Egypt and gains control of the Suez Canal, which provides quicker access to India

1881–98 Mahdiyya jihad against British and Egyptian rule

1881–98 Mahdiyya jihad against British and Egyptian rule

1 Mar 1896 The Battle of Adowa secures Abyssinian independence

1847 Resettled slaves from America declare Liberia an independent republic

5 RESISTANCE TO COLONIZATION 1896

European colonizers often met with resistance, most of which was brutally suppressed. Yet in Abyssinia, Emperor Menelik II was able to play the Europeans off against each other and secure modern weapons that allowed him to crush an Italian invasion at the Battle of Adowa in 1896 and keep Abyssinia independent of European control.

✕ Battle of Adowa

1884–85 The Berlin Conference declares that navigation on the Niger and Congo be free for all

1880 Brazzaville is founded on land given into French protection in 1875

THE SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA

Europe's colonial settlements were at first centred on coastal Africa, but from 1880, colonists pushed inwards, creating new settlements (dates of establishment in bold type) and frequently competing for territory with one another.

KEY

TERRITORIES c.1880

African peoples and powers	French	Portuguese
British	Ottoman Empire	Spanish

EUROPEAN ROUTES OF EXPANSION

Belgian	French	Portuguese	Spanish
British	German	Italian	

COLONIAL SETTLEMENTS

Belgian	French	Italian	Portuguese
British	German	Other settlement	

TIMELINE

1840 1860 1880 1900 1920

1888 King Lobengula is tricked out of his land by missionaries in collusion with Cecil Rhodes

1904–06 The Herero rising against German colonists ends in genocide

1884 A recently unified Germany gains its first colony, Southwest Africa

Map labels:

1830 Algiers
1831 Oran
1831 Casablanca
TUNIS
Tunis
Tripoli
1912 Derna
1912 Benghazi
CYRENAICA
Alexandria
ALGERIA
Laghouat
TRIPOLITANIA
Murzuk
Ghat
EGYPT
Cairo
Madeira
Canary Islands
MOROCCO
Sahara
1902 Tamanrasset
Bilma
1906 Taoudenni
Tushki
1895–98 Wadi Halfa
1885–96 Dongola
Suakin
SUDAN
1885–98
Omdurman
Khartoum
Massawa
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SENEGAL
Kaédi
Nioro
TUKULOR
1894 Timbuktu
Gao
Agadez
1906
THE GAMBIA
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
Kayes
1883 Bamako
Say
Sokoto
Zinder
WADAI
DARFUR
ABYSSINIA
1898 Fashoda
Addis Ababa
SAMORY
1894 Nikki
SOKOTO
KANEM BORNU
BAGIRMI
1903 Kano
Lake Chad
SIERRA LEONE
Liberia
ASANTE
1896 Kumasi
Takoradi
Lomé
Lagos
1859 Lokoja
YORUBA STATES
Porto Novo
DAHOMEY
GOLD COAST COLONY
1850 Accra
Fernando Po
Sao Tomé
1884 Douala
Congo
1890 BUGANDA
Kampala
BUNYORO
Kisumu
1899 Nairobi
1881 Mombasa
Tanga
ANKOLE KARAGWE RWANDA
Lake Victoria
BURUNDI
Ujiji
MIRAMBO
Tabor
Pangani
1885 Zanzibar
Bagamoyo
1887 Dar es Salaam
MLOZI
Lake Nyasa
YAO CHIEFS
1849 Libreville
1896
1880 Brazzaville
Boma
Leopoldville
Luanda
CHOKWE
Benguela
MSIRI
Lake Tanganyika
1905 Lusaka
BAROTSE
1888 Livingstone
Tete
1505 Mozambique
Beira
Salisbury
1890
Bulawayo
BAMANGWATO
1878 Walvis Bay
Windhoek
1885 Mafeking
1883 Lüderitz
ORANGE FREE STATE
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Kimberley
Bloemfontein
BASUTOLAND
CAPE COLONY
Cape Town
1820 Port Elizabeth
1842 Durban
NATAL
SWAZILAND
1879 Isandhlwana
1879 Ulundi
1879 Rorke's Drift
Ladysmith
SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC
1904
1901
AFRICA

4 THE ROLE OF MISSIONARIES 1849–1914

In 1849, Scottish missionary David Livingstone headed for Africa. His expeditions made him a hero, and his assertion that slavery in Africa could only be ended through "Christianity, Commerce, and Civilization" sparked a wave of missionary activity. Some provided valuable health and education services, but others colluded with the companies to defraud local chiefs of their lands.

— Frontier of Christian missionary activities c. 1880

→ Main lines of missionary advance

3 THE CALL OF COMMERCE 1878–90

Africa was commercially attractive because it was a huge market for European manufactured goods; it had vast reserves of raw materials – including coal, metal ores, rubber, gold, and diamonds; and it had plentiful labour to raise cash crops. Many early conquests were funded by commercial interests, such as Cecil Rhodes' de Beers Consolidated Mines company (formed in 1888).

IMPORTANT MINERAL DEPOSITS

🐚 Coal   💎 Diamonds

🧱 Copper   🟡 Gold

2 LEOPOLD II AND THE CONGO 1876–1908

The scramble for Africa began with King Leopold II of Belgium. In 1876, he created the International African Association – a front for his imperial ambitions. He drew the explorer Henry Stanley (who had spent years exploring the Congo basin) into a secret scheme to carve out a Belgian state in the region. By 1885, Stanley had secured for Leopold the Congo Free State (1885–1908).

•••▶ Stanley's route across Africa 1871–77

1 THE STRUGGLE FOR SOUTH AFRICA
1854–1910

In the 19th century, the Boers, British, and Zulus fought for control of South Africa. Since 1852, the Boers (descendants of the first European settlers) had lived independently in the Orange Free State and Transvaal, while British power was concentrated in Cape Colony and Natal. In 1877, the British annexed Transvaal after gold was found there. At the same time, they decisively crushed the Zulu kingdom. In 1910, after two Anglo-Boer wars (1880–81, 1899–1902), Transvaal (by then, the South African Republic), the Orange Free State, and the Zulu lands were subsumed by a new British dominion – the Union of South Africa.

▮ Cape Colony and Natal 1854

▮ Territory under British control 1895

▮ South African Republic 1895

▮ Orange Free State 1895

✕ Battle in Zulu wars

▬ Union of South Africa boundary 1910

INDIAN OCEAN

Mogadishu

1895 Majunga

Tananarive

Madagascar

AFRICA COLONIZED

In 1880, only a few European colonies dotted the African coastline. Much of the north was formally part of the Ottoman Empire, but most of Africa was free of direct control from outside. By 1914, nine-tenths of the continent had been divided between seven nations, each hungry for resources and keen to build their empires.

The shifting balance of power in Europe in the 19th century was to have lasting consequences for Africa, as nationalist, liberal, and commercial interests converged in an orgy of colonization. Having lost their American colonies, Spain and Portugal also lost influence in Africa, but Britain and France were ready to build their empires after the Napoleonic wars, and the newly unified nations of Italy and Germany sought to bolster their international standing. Tales from African explorers about diamonds, gold, copper, and coal stirred Europe's commercial interest, so when news reached Europe in the 1880s that the Belgian king, Leopold II, had made a grab for the Congo, the race to conquer Africa's interior began.

Competition between the colonizers nearly resulted in conflict, so the Berlin Conference (1884–85) was called to settle claims and set rules for partition. Missionaries, companies, and military forces all played a part in the colonization process, but it was also made possible by technological and scientific advances that came out of the Industrial Revolution. Steamships – and the discovery of effective antimalarial treatments – allowed Europeans to navigate deep into the continent's interior. The weapons of local peoples were no match for the breech-loading rifle, and within 20 years Africa had been carved up by European powers, with little regard for the traditions of the indigenous peoples.

KEY

▮ Belgium
▮ Britain
▮ France
▮ Germany
▮ Italy
▮ Portugal
▮ Spain
▮ Nominally Ottoman, under British control
— Borders in 1914

AFRICA BY 1914
By 1914, Africa had been largely divided up by Europe's colonizers. Only a few pockets, such as Abyssinia and Liberia, remained independent. Liberia was a settlement created for former American slaves in 1821 that had declared its independence from the US in 1847.

Mediterranean Sea

Arabian Peninsula

SPANISH MOROCCO
MOROCCO
TUNISIA
RIO DE ORO
ALGERIA
LIBYA
EGYPT
CAPE VERDE ISLANDS (governed by Portugal)
Sahara
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
Lake Chad
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
ERITREA
FRENCH SOMALILAND
BRITISH SOMALILAND
THE GAMBIA
DAHOMEY
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
GOLD COAST
NIGERIA
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
TOGO
CAMEROON
ABYSSINIA
RIO MUNI
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA
UGANDA
BELGIAN CONGO
BRITISH EAST AFRICA
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
Atlantic Ocean
ANGOLA
NORTHERN RHODESIA
NYASALAND
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
BECHUANALAND
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA
MADAGASCAR
SWAZILAND
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
BASUTOLAND
Indian Ocean

FOREIGN POWERS IN CHINA

By the mid-19th century, the Qing Empire in China was facing internal strife as well as pressure from foreign powers. Anger against growing foreign dominance erupted in the Boxer Rebellion, but it was swiftly repressed by a coalition of foreign forces. The subsequent war reparations crippled the empire.

Two hundred years of Qing rule had created a vast empire that flourished economically. Foreign traders were granted access to only one port, Canton (modern Guangzhou), but requests for further concessions were rebuffed.

Western merchants began to bribe officials and pay for goods with opium, which damaged the Chinese economy and led to a rise in opium addiction. The First Opium War (see pp.226–27) resulted in the transfer of Hong Kong and other ports to Britain, and over the next decades parts of the empire fell under the influence of Britain, France, Russia, Germany, Japan, and the US.

△ **Assassination of Baron Ketteler**
In revenge for his having beaten and shot a boy suspected of being a Boxer, German diplomat Baron Clemens von Ketteler was murdered in Beijing on 20 June 1900. His assassin was later beheaded.

The Boxer Rebellion

By 1900, anger at foreign control of trade and at Christian missionary activity made many Chinese join a secret group known as the Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists. Popularly called "Boxers", its members began attacking Westerners and Chinese Christians.

In June 1900, Qing forces and the Boxers besieged the foreign legations in Peking (Beijing). Soldiers from an eight-nation alliance lifted the siege 55 days later, and then demanded war reparations. Damaged by its failure to expel the foreigners and by internal rebellions, the Qing Dynasty could not prevent further losses to foreign powers or stop the spread of revolutionary ideas. In 1912, the last emperor abdicated and China became a republic.
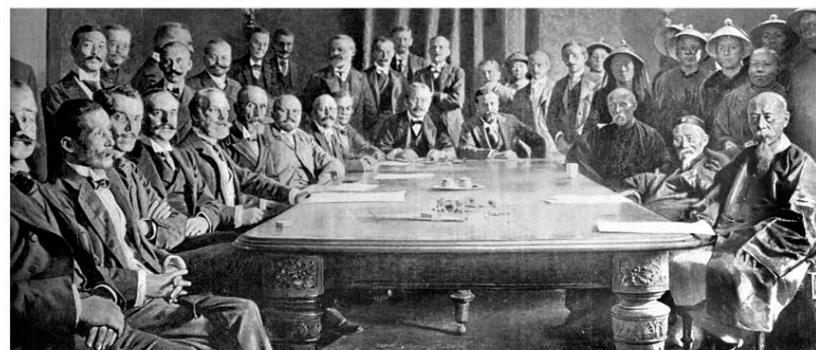
△ **The Peking Protocol**
Having defeated the Boxers, the foreign powers demanded in the Peking Protocol (1901) that China punish those government officials involved in the uprising, pay reparations equivalent to $330 million, and allow foreign troops to be stationed there.
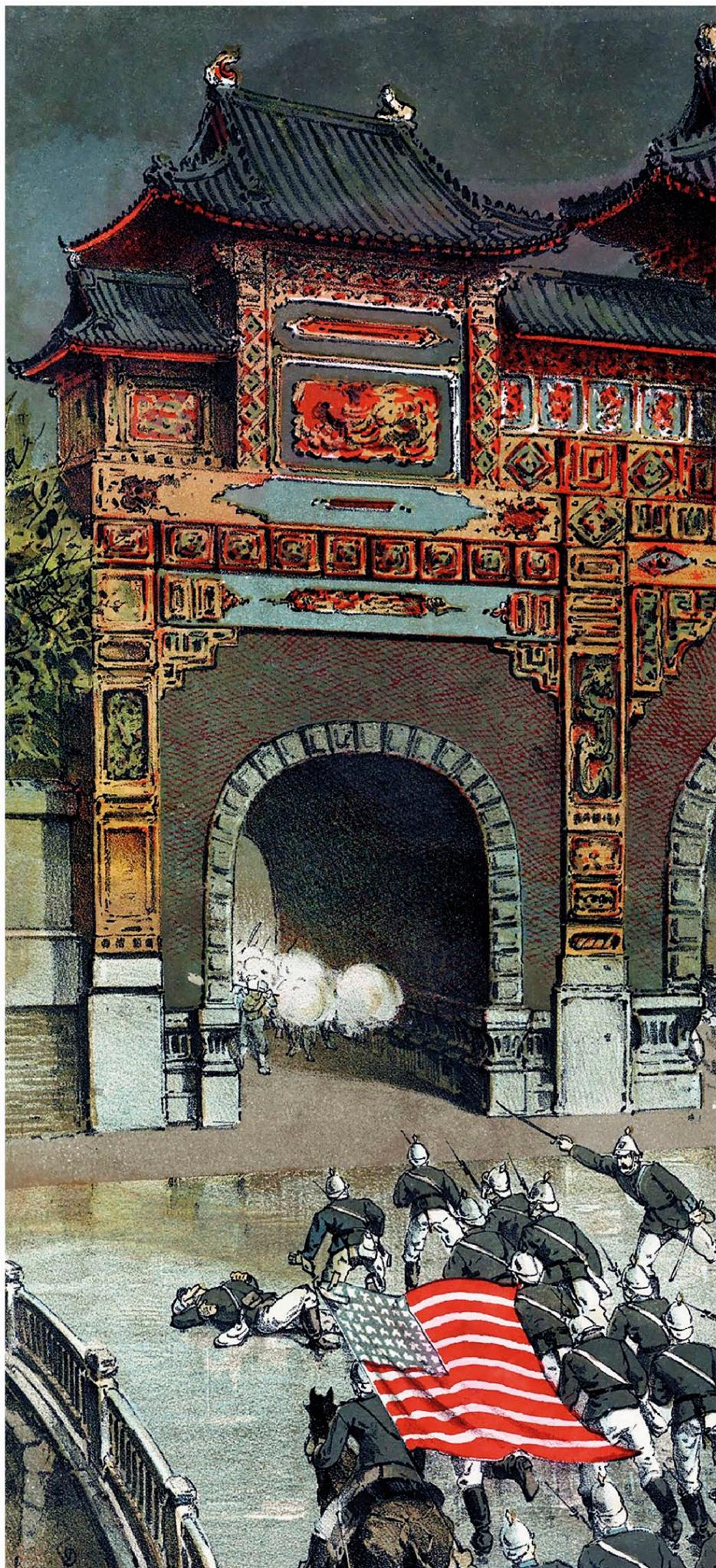
Storming the Imperial Palace
On 14 August 1900, a multi-national force, including British, American, and Japanese soldiers, broke the siege of the Imperial Palace in Peking (modern Beijing) by Qing forces and Boxer rebels.

DECLINE OF QING CHINA

The richest and most populous state in the world, Qing China should have been a major presence on the world stage competing with Western powers. Instead, however, it underwent a long decline from the mid-1800s, racked with rebellions and civil wars and repeatedly carved open by foreign military adventures.

The Qing dynasty was founded by a clan of Manchurians who had seized the Chinese empire and, under a series of forceful emperors (see pp.178–79), enlarged it with conquests in central Asia. But their failure to modernize had exacerbated a series of problems that afflicted China in the 19th century, including population growth and the constant threat of famine; problems with the money supply; failure to open the economy to foreign trade; and failure to keep pace with the technology and military power of foreign states that wanted to impose trade liberalization, and possibly even carve up China between themselves (see pp.250–51).

The humiliations inflicted as a result of the Opium Wars (see pp.226–27) had severely damaged the authority of the Qing and centralized government. In the resulting power vacuum there flourished corruption, smuggling, and "secret societies" – networks of local leaders and low-ranking nobility with diverse cultural, political, and economic agendas. The threat of rebellion was relentless, and the ground was fertile for mass movements to galvanize resistance to the Qing. This febrile atmosphere would spark the greatest civil war in history and eventually bring to an end the Qing dynasty and millennia of imperial rule.

"Heaven sees as the people see; Heaven hears as the people hear… China is weak, the only thing we can depend on is the hearts of the people."

DOWAGER EMPRESS CIXI DURING THE BOXER REBELLION, 1899–1901

PUYI
1906–67

The turbulent life of the last Emperor of China traced the history of 20th-century China. Puyi became emperor in 1908, aged only 2, but was forced to abdicate in 1912 as a result of the Xinhai revolution. He was briefly restored as puppet emperor by a warlord in 1917 and again by the Japanese in 1934. Later, he was captured by the Soviets, then handed over to the Chinese Communists after World War II and re-educated to be a common citizen. He died in Beijing in 1967.

Emperor Puyi as a child
Puyi (seen here aged 3) was proclaimed the Xuantong Emperor by his great-aunt, the Dowager Empress Cixi.

△ **Imperial troops march against the Taiping**
A contemporary image of imperial troops marching to battle against the Taiping rebels. The civil war set off by the rebellion was one of the largest conflicts the world had ever seen.

1 OUTBREAK OF THE TAIPING REBELLION
1844–53

Hong Xiuquan was a quasi-Christian visionary around whom a cult grew in Guangxi province in the 1840s. In 1851, Hong proclaimed a new dynasty, the Taiping Tianguo ("Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace") and assumed the title of Tianwang, or "Heavenly King". Shrugging off imperial assaults, his rebellion gathered strength and made Nanjing its capital.

⇨ Hong's march to Nanjing, 1850–53

QINGHAI

2 THE TAIPING EMPIRE 1853–60

The Taiping Empire presented a challenge to the Qing but infighting and failed military expeditions checked its momentum. In 1856, feuding between the Taiping's top military leaders saw two of them murdered and a third flee with many men. An 1860 attempt to take Shanghai was stopped by the "Ever-Victorious Army", Western-trained and led troops fighting for the Qing.

▮ Area controlled by rebels c.1861   ➡ Unsuccessful northern campaign, 1853–55

THE END OF IMPERIAL RULE
The power of the Qing dynasty started to decline significantly from the 1840s, and a series of uprisings finally ended their rule in 1911–12.

KEY
▮ Qing empire, 1850

TIMELINE

	1840	1860	1880	1900	1920
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					

3 FALL OF THE TAIPING 1861–64

With the capture of Anqing in October 1861 by the Hunan Army (a local militia force fighting for the Qing), the revolutionary cause was doomed. In 1862, Imperial General Zeng Guofan surrounded Nanjing, and in July 1864 the city fell, ending the Taiping Heavenly Kingdom. Including those lost through famine, the greatest civil war in history had cost 25–30 million lives.

➡ Advance of Western troops ⇢ Advance of Qing troops

4 BOXER REBELLION 1899–1901

Economic woes, natural disasters, and growing anti-foreign sentiment sparked an uprising called the Militia in Righteousness (known as the "Boxers" in English). The Boxers killed foreigners and destroyed foreign property. The Qing supported the anti-foreign crusade, but some regional warlords cooperated with foreign powers to crush the uprising, which was ended when an eight-nation military alliance occupied Beijing.

▬ Area of Boxer uprising, 1900–01

5 XINHAI REVOLUTION 1911–12

In 1908 the Dowager Empress Cixi died, leaving the infant Puyi as emperor. Reformist and revolutionary movements then sought to harness domestic discontent. In 1911, the discovery of an anti-imperalist plot in Wuchang triggered open revolt, leading to the formation of a republican government under revolutionary leader Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen) in Nanjing and the end of imperial rule.

✊ Revolution, 1911–12

Sep 1901 International forces defeat the Boxers in Beijing. China agrees to pay swingeing reparations, but US determination to protect its trade interests prevents other Western powers from partitioning China

May 1853 The Taiping leaders send an expedition to northern China. It reaches the neighbourhood of Tianjin but finally collapses in early 1855

Jul 1864 Taiping forces are finally defeated by Qing troops under General Zeng Guofan. Hong, the Taiping's leader, had committed suicide in June
Dec 1911 A provisional republican government is set up in Nanjing, with Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen) as premier

Oct 1911 An anti-imperialist plot is uncovered among army officers in Wuchang, triggering them into an open revolt that quickly spreads, marking the start of the Xinhai revolution

Sep 1851 The Taiping rebels establish a base in Yongan, where they are besieged by the imperial army but emerge victorious

1860 An attempt by the Taipings to regain strength by taking Shanghai is stopped by the Western-trained "Ever-Victorious Army" commanded by the American adventurer Frederick Townsend Ward

Oct 1861 Anqing, the capital of Anhui, is captured by the Hunan Army, severely damaging the Taiping revolutionary cause

Sea of Japan (East Sea)

Gobi

INNER MONGOLIA

Yellow River

ZHILI

Beijing

Tianjin

KOREA

SHANXI

29 Oct

7 Nov

3 Nov

SHANDONG

Yellow Sea

11 Mar 1912

Lanzhou

Kaifeng

JIANGSU

GANSU

22 Oct

HENAN

22 Dec

5 Nov

SHAANXI

Nanjing

8 Nov

3 Nov

Shanghai

22 Nov

HUBEI

ANHUI

SICHUAN

Hankou

Wuchang

Anqing

23 Oct

4 Nov

Hangzhou

Yangtze

10 Oct

East China Sea

Yuezhou

JIANGXI

ZHEJIANG

HUNAN

Jiujiang

Nanchang

23 Oct

4 Nov

22 Oct

31 Oct

FUJIAN

GUIZHOU

9 Nov

30 Oct

Kunming

Guilin

6 Nov

Yongan

YUNNAN

GUANGDONG

Jintian

9 Nov

Canton

GUANGXI

Hong Kong

Macau

South China Sea

PACIFIC OCEAN

HAINAN

JAPAN TRANSFORMED

The restoration of the Meiji ("enlightened rule") emperor in 1868 kick-started a process of modernization that would see Japan transformed from an isolationist, feudal country to an outward-looking industrial nation with an educated population and an army and navy ready to defend and strengthen its position in the world.

By 1850, Japan had endured 200 years of isolation under the Tokugawa shogunate (see pp.180–81). The country was weak compared to foreign powers and was forced to accept unfavourable treaties that undermined its sovereignty.

An alliance of samurai from Japan's western domains began to coalesce around the imperial court in Kyoto, and by 1868 sought to restore imperial power and to modernize Japan. The shogun, Tokugawa Yoshinobu, resigned in an attempt to maintain peace but could not prevent the clash between imperial and government forces in the Boshin War of 1868–69. The imperial faction won the conflict, securing the emperor's position, although not his personal power. A group of ambitious young samurai took control of the country and soon began to implement profound reform. They asked the feudal lords to give up their domains in favour of a centralized state; they placed the nation's defence in the hands of a new imperial army and navy; and they promoted rapid industrialization to transform Japan's economic base.

It was little wonder that many of the older samurai from the most powerful clans balked at the changes and rebelled in 1877. The rebellion (known after its origin in Satsuma Domain) failed, but it forced a reassessment of reform, ensuring that Japanese values were not lost in the race to modernize.

MODERNIZATION OF JAPAN

The modernization of Japan progressed swiftly between 1868 and 1918, as the new government swept away feudal structures and established power bases during the Boshin War and Satsuma Rebellion, paving the way for rapidly developing industrial areas and increasing urbanization.

TIMELINE

2 BOSHIN WAR 1868–69

Civil war broke out between imperial forces and troops loyal to the ex-shogun, Tokugawa Yoshinobu, when Yoshinobu was stripped of all titles and land. The imperial troops won the war's first battle, at Fushimi on 27 January 1868. They then moved east to secure Edo's surrender, before heading north to Hokkaido to defeat the remaining government supporters at Hakodate in June 1869.

→ Route of imperial army   ✕ Battle, with date

■ Imperial alliance

1 MODERNIZATION OF THE ARMY AND NAVY 1868–90

The Meiji government's determination to modernize the military cut across the privileges of Japan's warrior class, the samurai. In 1869, their fleets were subsumed by the new Imperial Japanese Navy, and in 1873 their exclusive right to bear arms was broken by the introduction of conscription. Many samurai became officers in the new regime, where their discipline helped to create the most powerful military force in Asia by the 1890s.

EMERGENCE AS AN INTERNATIONAL POWER

From the 1870s, the Japanese empire sought to expand its territory and influence. While the Imperial Navy swept out to incorporate the islands south of Japan, the successful deployment of both the army and navy in the Sino-Japanese (1894–95) and Russo-Japanese (1904–05) wars gave Japan a substantial foothold on mainland east Asia, Korea, Formosa (Taiwan), and southern Manchuria. By the time the Meiji Emperor died in 1912, it was clear Japan was an international power.

KEY

■ Japan in 1868
◆ Gains by 1894
■ Gains by 1910
■ Spheres of influence by 1918
● Treaty ports allowing Japan–China trade

Feb 1877 Satsuma forces are blocked at Kumamoto and pushed back to Kagoshima

Sep 1877 The last stand of the Satsuma rebels in Kagoshima ends in Saigo's suicide

3 INDUSTRIALIZATION 1871–1918

The abolition of feudalism in Japan freed millions of people to choose their occupation and move around the country. The government encouraged industrialization, building railway and shipping lines, telegraph and telephone systems, and opening mines, shipyards, and munitions, glass, textile, and chemical factories. Many of these were privatized when a European-style banking system was introduced in 1882, leaving the government free to invest in education and the armed forces.

MODERNIZATION UNDER THE MEIJI

- Main industrial areas by 1918
- Railways built 1868–1918

TRADITIONAL INDUSTRIES

- Ceramics
- Textiles
- Silk

INDUSTRIES DEVELOPED AFTER 1868

- Manufacturing
- Shipbuilding
- Machine-building
- Chemicals

4 URBAN GROWTH 1871–1918

By 1871 all of Japan's ancient feudal domains, loyal to the local lord, had been reorganized into prefectures, each with a chief executive answerable to the central government. Initially, Japan's urban prefectures – Tokyo, Osaka, and Kyoto – lost population as people adjusted to the new regime and migrated to other areas. However, by 1883, the work offered through industrialization was driving population growth in the urban prefectures and in emerging cities such as Kobe, Yokohama, Nagasaki, and Hiroshima.

- ◆ City of over 500,000 in 1918
- ● Other major city
- ■ City of over 100,000 in 1918
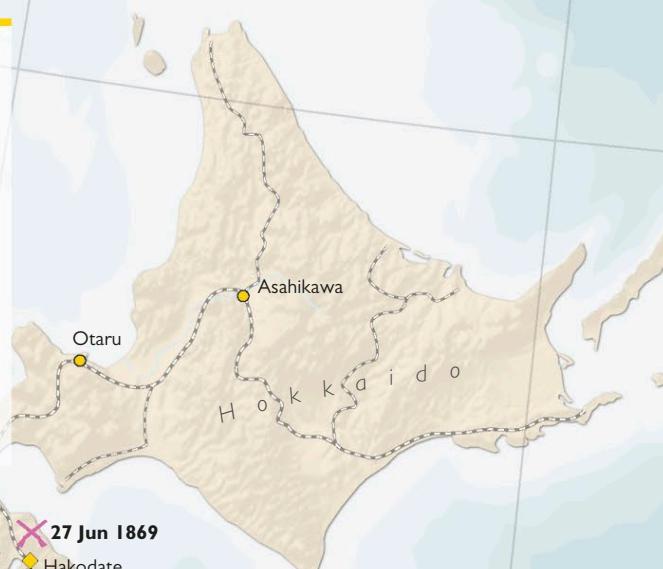
1871 Akita is one of the prefectures – the divisions of the new centralized state created when the feudal domains are abolished

27 Jun 1869

Oct 1868–May 1869 Hakodate is besieged by imperial forces in the final stage of the Boshin War

5 SATSUMA REBELLION 1877

Some samurai felt that the spirit of Japan was being destroyed by rapid reforms. In February 1877, Saigo Takamori, a key figure in the restoration who disliked the changes that were being pressed on the emperor, marched from his base in Satsuma (now part of Kagoshima prefecture), with an army of samurai. They were heading for Tokyo, but their advance was blocked by the Imperial Army at Kumamoto. Forced back to Kagoshima, the rebels were finally defeated in September.

- ✕ Battle

Jan 1868 Meiji Restoration begins at the imperial court in Kyoto

27 Jan 1868

Jan 1868 The city of Edo is renamed Tokyo

1868 The port of Yokohama is developed for the export of silk, predominantly to Britain

1871 Japan's first domestically produced warship, *Seiki*, is completed at Yokosuka Shipyards

Asahikawa
Otaru
H o k k a i d o

Aomori
AOMORI
Akita AKITA Morioka
IWATE
Sakata J A P A N
YAMAGATA MIYAGI
Sado
Niigata Yamagata Sendai
Fukushima
ISHIKAWA NIIGATA FUKUSHIMA
Takaoka
Kanazawa TOYAMA Nagano GUNMA TOCHGII
Fukui NAGANO Taira
FUKUI Maebashi IBARAKI
GIFU SAITAMA
KYOTO Gifu YAMANASHI Edo
TOTTORI SHIGA Nagoya KANAGAWA Chiba
HYOGO Kyoto Fushimi SHIZUOKA AICHI Yokohama CHIBA
OKAYAMA Kobe Shizuoka
Okayama Osaka NARA Ise Toyohashi
KAGAWA Wakayama MIE
TOKUSHIMA WAKAYAMA

Honshu

*S e a o f J a p a n
(E a s t S e a)*

P A C I F I C   O C E A N

▷ **Art under the Meiji**
The Meiji government encouraged Western styles of art, sending Japanese students to study abroad. This woodblock print shows Japanese women wearing Western dresses with bustles.

SOUTHERN SECESSION

In 1861, angry at Lincoln's threat to end slavery, 7 states seceded from the Union, forming the Confederate States of America. Four more states followed later in the year. Disagreement about the legality of slavery in the US Territories led to irreconcilable differences between the Union and Confederate states.

KEY

- Union states
- States seceding from the Union in 1861
- Slavery legal
- US Territories

CANADA

WASHINGTON TERRITORY
OREGON
NEVADA TERRITORY
CALIFORNIA
UTAH TERRITORY
COLORADO TERRITORY
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
MEXICO

DAKOTA TERRITORY
NEBRASKA TERRITORY
KANSAS
Indian Territory
TEXAS

MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
IOWA
ILLINOIS
MISSOURI
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
MICHIGAN
INDIANA
OHIO
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
GEORGIA

MAINE
NEW HAMPSHIRE
VERMONT
NEW YORK
MASSACHUSETTS
RHODE ISLAND
CONNECTICUT
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
FLORIDA

ATLANTIC OCEAN

Gulf of Mexico

1 THE WAR IN THE EAST
APRIL 1861–JULY 1863

In April 1861, Confederate soldiers attacked the US garrison at Fort Sumter. In response, Lincoln called out the militia, and the Civil War began. An early Union victory at Manassas (July 1861) gave way to defeats to superior Confederate forces at Fredericksburg and The Wilderness. Union attempts to reach the Confederate capital at Richmond were also thwarted. Under General Robert E Lee, the Confederates pushed into Union territory in Pennsylvania, but were defeated at Gettysburg and retreated to Virginia.

2 THE WAR IN THE WEST
JUNE 1861– JULY 1863

The Union army under General Ulysses S Grant won a victory at Shiloh in April 1862 before seizing key points on the Mississippi, Tennessee, and Cumberland rivers and moving south to take Vicksburg (July 1863) after a 6-week siege. New Orleans and the Confederate forts at the mouth of the Mississippi had also fallen; the Union had succeeded in splitting the Confederacy in two.

CANADA

Lake Huron
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie
Lake Michigan

NEW YORK
MASSACHUSETTS
RHODE ISLAND
CONNECTICUT
NEW JERSEY

MICHIGAN

Harper's Ferry
PENNSYLVANIA
17 Sep 1862 Antietam (Sharpsburg)
Philadelphia

OHIO
Columbus
Indianapolis
Parkersburg
Cincinnati

21 Jul 1861; 29–30 Aug 1862 Bull Run
Gettysburg
MARYLAND
Washington
DELAWARE
Manassas
1–3 July 1863 Defeat at Gettysburg ends Confederate attempts to take the war into Union territory

Lexington
ILLINOIS
St Louis
INDIANA
Louisville
Frankfort
Richmond
WEST VIRGINIA
8–9 Jun 1862 Staunton
30 Apr 1863 The Wilderness
Richmond
VIRGINIA
Norfolk
13 Dec 1862 Fredericksburg
25 Jun–1 Jul 1862 Seven Days' Battles
26 Jun–2 Jul 1862 Fort Monroe
5 May 1862 Williamsburg

17 June 1861 Booneville
MISSOURI
Cairo
8 Oct 1862 Perryville
KENTUCKY
1–4 May 1863 Chancellorsville

Springfield
10 Aug 1861 Wilson's Creek
16 Feb 1862 Fort Donelson
6 Feb 1862 Fort Henry
Nashville
NORTH CAROLINA
Knoxville

29 Aug 1862 Fort Hatteras
26 Apr 1862 Fort Macon
ATLANTIC OCEAN

Bentonville
5 Jun 1862 Memphis
TENNESSEE
Chattanooga
Wilmington

6–7 Apr 1862 Shiloh (Pittsburg Landing)
Murfreesboro
31 Dec 1862– 2 Jan 1863
SOUTH CAROLINA

ARKANSAS
Charleston
GEORGIA
12 Apr 1861 Attack on Fort Sumter by Confederate troops sparks Civil War

19 May–4 Jul 1863 Vicksburg City beseiged
ALABAMA
12 Apr 1862 Fort Pulaski
Fort Sumter
Port Royal
17 Feb 1862 Union navy establishes base at Port Royal and begins blockade of Confederate states

LOUISIANA
MISSISSIPPI
11 Mar 1862 Jacksonville
2 Mar 1862 Fernandia

TEXAS
9–10 May 1862 Pensacola
Tallahassee
Olustee
9 Mar 1862 St Augustine

27 May–8 Jul 1863 Port Hudson
12 May 1862 Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Fort Pickens
17 Sep 1861 Ship Island

Sabine
Galveston
Fort Jackson
Tampa
FLORIDA

1 May 1862 Union fleet captures New Orleans
Fort St Philip

Gulf of Mexico

◁ **The Battle of Williamsburg**
This 1893 print shows the first large-scale pitched battle in the eastern theatre of the war. It took place in Virginia in 1862.

FIRST PHASE (1861–63)

In the first phase of the war, neither side was decisively superior. However, a Union naval blockade affected the south's supplies and, after capturing Vicksburg, the Union split the Confederacy, forcing it to fight on multiple fronts.

AMERICAN CIVIL WAR

The American Revolution created the United States, but it was the Civil War of 1861–65 that decided its future, forging a nation under one government and ensuring that freedom and equality remained its guiding principles, albeit at a terrible human cost.

After independence in 1783, the US developed into two regions. The rich, libertarian north was dominated by industry and finance, while the south relied on farming driven by slave-labour and was anxious about the north's desire to restrict slave ownership. By 1860, the US – composed of 18 "free" states and 15 "slave" states – was just about held together by the Democratic Party, but after the party split in 1859, and Abraham Lincoln was elected president in 1860 on an anti-slavery platform, the Union collapsed. Several southern states seceded to form the Confederate States of America, and civil war followed. The Confederate armies put up fierce resistance, and it was 4 years before the north's forces finally prevailed. By the time the war ended in April 1865, about 650,000 men had died. Yet America's slaves had also been emancipated, and the states reunited under a supreme federal government.

NORTH VERSUS SOUTH

In two phases, 1861–63 and 1864–65, the north's Union forces moved on several fronts into the Confederate states. Although isolated by the north's naval blockade and often outnumbered, the Confederates won several victories but were ultimately beaten by the Union's superior power.

KEY

UNION FORCES
- Union states 1861
- Union naval blockade
- Union fort
- Union victory
- Union movement

UNION FRONT LINE
- 1861
- 1862
- Dec 1863
- Dec 1864
- Inconclusive battle
- 26 Apr 1865 Date of battle or attack

CONFEDERATE FORCES
- Confederate states 1861
- Confederate victory
- Confederate fort
- Confederate movement

TIMELINE

SECOND PHASE (1864–65)

After defeats at Vicksburg and Gettysburg, the Confederates were increasingly outnumbered and outfought by Union forces under generals Sherman and Grant. In April 1865, Confederate resistance collapsed, ending the war.

3 GENERAL SHERMAN'S ADVANCE JULY–DECEMBER 1864

In 1864, the Union targeted Atlanta, an important Confederate rail and commercial centre, which General William Sherman besieged from July 1864. Its capture in September boosted the north's morale and helped to win Lincoln a second term in office. Sherman then marched south to Savannah and the sea, operating deep in enemy territory without supply lines and destroying Confederate infrastructure, industry, and property as he went.

- Destruction by Sherman's forces

4 THE END OF THE WAR FEBRUARY 1864–APRIL 1865

During 1864, General Grant was put in command of all Union armies. After a series of bloody battles, he forced General Lee's Confederate army into defensive positions around Richmond and Petersburg. On 9 April 1865, Lee fled to Appomattox and surrendered. Soon after, 89,000 Confederate soldiers surrendered at Bennett House, North Carolina, effectively bringing the war to an end.

- Bennett House

At home in her laboratory
French-Polish physicist Marie Curie received
two Nobel Prizes for her work on radioactivity.
Renowned for her efforts at the front during World
War I and for her research into cancer treatments,
her contribution to medical science is invaluable.

SCIENCE AND INNOVATION

In the 19th century, new techniques and improvements in laboratory equipment enabled scientists to make important advances that changed our understanding of the world and revolutionized public health.

△ **Founder of microbiology**
In the 1860s, French biologist Louis Pasteur proved that decay and disease were caused by microbes, or germs; this knowledge changed the course of medicine.

The roots of many of the things that define modern life – such as plastics, fibre optics, and radar – can be traced back to the 19th century. Yet, perhaps the most important discoveries of the time were in the field of medicine. In 1869, Russian chemist Dimitri Mendeleev developed the periodic table, a framework for understanding chemical elements and their reactions. Knowledge of chemistry quickly advanced, creating a new pharmaceutical industry, and soon the use of synthetic drugs, such as aspirin and barbiturates, became commonplace.

Medical breakthroughs

The discovery of X-rays (1895), radiation (1896), and the radioactive elements polonium and radium (1898) revolutionized medical treatment. Radiography made diagnoses more accurate, and radiation therapies were developed for cancer. Combined with the discovery of the electron (1897) and of the source of radioactivity (1901), these findings also paved the way for nuclear power. Louis Pasteur's theory that microorganisms were the transmitters of disease radicalized approaches to disease control. Vaccines for cholera, anthrax, rabies, diphtheria, and typhoid soon followed. Deaths from infection were much reduced by the introduction of carbolic to disinfect both operation theatres and surgeons. Together, these advances contributed to a population explosion in the early 20th century.
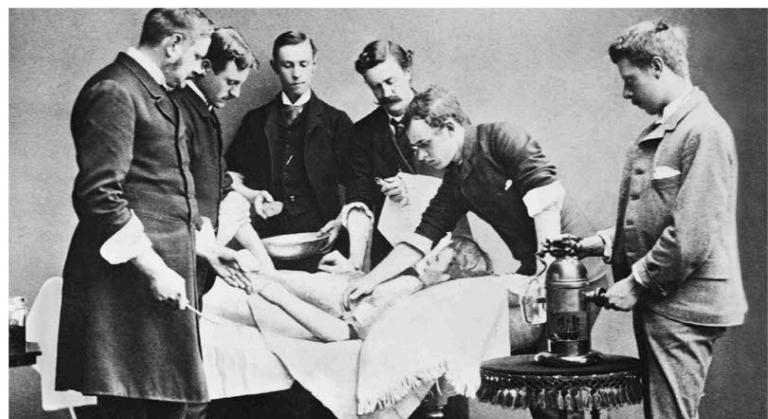
Safer surgery
Building on Pasteur's work, English surgeon Joseph Lister introduced carbolic acid (phenol) to clean wounds and sterilize surgical equipment. His promotion of antiseptic surgery dramatically reduced post-operative infections.

EXPANSION OF THE US

US territory grew in the 19th century through the agencies of war, political agreement, and annexation. Settlement by migrants helped bring new areas into cultivation, while rapid industrialization from the 1870s fuelled urbanization and population growth.

In 1800, the borders of the United States reached only to the Mississippi River, but the next 100 years saw a swift westward expansion as Britain withdrew its claim on Oregon Country and the US annexed Texas and defeated Mexico in the war of 1846–48. By 1900, the country stretched from the Atlantic to the Pacific and covered an area of almost 7.8 million sq km (3 million sq miles).

The promise of cheap land attracted immigrants from abroad who settled alongside American frontiersmen and women. In 1890, the US Census declared the frontier closed – there were no longer any continuous unsettled areas in the west. By then America's cattle barons were driving their herds to railheads that supplied growing cities in the east, where industrialization was taking hold. By 1900, the US was producing more steel than Britain and Germany combined. Cities such as Chicago – just a small town in 1837 – had grown into metropolises of over 1 million people. New York's Ellis Island had become a key entry point for millions of migrants to America's vast cities. The industrial boom of the late 19th century made millions of dollars for a few, but it was punctuated by periods of depression that boded ill for America's rapidly growing population.

IMMIGRATION AND TRADE IN THE US 1860–1920

Cattle, oil, industrialization, and immigration drove the development of the largest American cities in the 19th century, creating heavily urbanized areas in the Midwest and on the Pacific coast.

KEY

— US state boundaries c. 1920

TIMELINE

1867 US purchases Alaska from Russia for $7.2 million
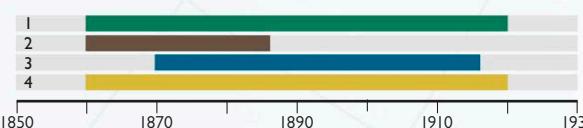
△ Railroad construction crew
This image from 1886 documents one of the many crews employed on the US rail network. The first transcontinental railroad, covering nearly 3,200 km (2,000 miles), was built by three private companies in 1869.

FROM CHINA

1882 Chinese immigration into the US is banned after anti-Chinese sentiment spreads from San Francisco during the economic depression of 1877

TERRITORIAL EXPANSION

The United States grew from just 13 colonies in 1776 to a nation of 48 states in 1912. Territory was acquired through a series of purchases and treaties: France sold a vast swathe of land to the US in the Louisiana Purchase; and the British gave up the northwest territories in the Oregon Treaty. Some regions – including Texas – were annexed, while much of the west was won in the war with Mexico (1846–48) or through subsequent land purchases from the cash-hungry Mexican regime.

KEY

- Thirteen Colonies 1776
- Addition of 1783
- Louisiana Purchase 1803
- Red River Cession 1818
- Purchase of Florida 1819
- Texas Annexation 1845
- Oregon Country Cession 1846
- Mexican Cession 1848
- Gadsden Purchase 1853
- **1788** Date of admission to statehood
- ·········· Modern state boundary

WASHINGTON 1889
OREGON 1859
MONTANA 1889
NORTH DAKOTA 1889
MINNESOTA 1858
VERMONT 1791
MAINE 1820
NEW HAMPSHIRE 1788
IDAHO 1890
SOUTH DAKOTA 1889
WYOMING 1890
WISCONSIN 1848
MICHIGAN 1837
NEW YORK 1788
MASSACHUSETTS 1788
RHODE ISLAND 1790
NEVADA 1864
UTAH 1896
NEBRASKA 1867
IOWA 1846
OHIO 1803
PENNSYLVANIA 1787
CONNECTICUT 1788
NEW JERSEY 1787
CALIFORNIA 1850
COLORADO 1876
KANSAS 1861
MISSOURI 1821
ILLINOIS 1818
INDIANA 1816
WEST VIRGINIA 1863
VIRGINIA 1788
DELAWARE 1787
MARYLAND 1788
KENTUCKY 1792
ARIZONA 1912
NEW MEXICO 1912
OKLAHOMA 1907
ARKANSAS 1836
TENNESSEE 1796
NORTH CAROLINA 1789
TEXAS 1845
MISSISSIPPI 1817
ALABAMA 1819
GEORGIA 1788
LOUISIANA 1812
SOUTH CAROLINA 1788
FLORIDA 1845

Juneau
ALASKA
Vancouver
Victoria
Seattle
Portland
San Francisco
Los Angeles
PACIFIC OCEAN

1 IMMIGRATION AND AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT 1860–1920

Millions of immigrants worked in US industrial towns and cities, but many brought agricultural skills and helped transform land management in the US. Russian Mennonites (Anabaptist Christians of German-Dutch descent), for example, began to cultivate wheat in the prairielands of Oklahoma, Kansas, and Nebraska, while German settlers were among the first to cultivate oranges in California. Migrants also moved between the US and Canada.

🌳 Cotton-growing   🌲 Timber production

→ Immigration to US 1860–1920   → Immigration to Canada 1860–1920

WHEAT PRODUCTION C. 1900

17–87 tonnes (19–96 tons) per sq mile   Over 87 tonnes (96 tons) per sq mile

2 THE CATTLE DRIVES 1860–1886

As demand for beef grew and prices rose in the 1860s, Texan herders began to drive their cattle on long trails north to Denver and into Kansas, where they were loaded on to trains and shipped to Chicago's burgeoning meat-packing industry. By 1887, beef prices had dropped to one-half of their peak. At this point, hit by the overgrazing of the open plains and a particularly harsh winter in 1886–87, the industry collapsed and many of the vast cattle ranges were enclosed by homesteaders.

🐄 Cattle-ranching   ▪▪▪▪ Cattle trails

3 INDUSTRIALIZATION 1870–1916

After the Civil War (see pp.256–57), the US rapidly industrialized, increasing factory output almost tenfold between 1870 and 1916. Industry boomed in the northeast, where coal and iron were easily accessible via the growing railway network, which extended to cities in neighbouring Canada. Banking, finance, and new inventions such as the typewriter and electric light spawned businesses, creating many tycoons.

💧 Oil production   🏭 Major industrial city

–·–·– Main railroads

1894 In Cleveland, riots break out among the unemployed, angry at the city's ineffective relief measures

1871 Sixty die in violent clashes between Irish Protestants and Catholics in New York City
1880s John D. Rockefeller's Standard Oil Trust monopolizes 90 per cent of the oil industry

1872 In Pittsburgh, Andrew Carnegie establishes the first mills in the US to use the Bessemer process for mass-producing steel

1877 Dodge City becomes the largest cattle-shipping town in the US

1901 Huge oil fields are discovered in Beaumont, launching the petrochemical industry in Texas

4 URBANIZATION AND POPULATION GROWTH 1860–1920

Between 1860 and 1920, the population of the US grew from 29 million to 106 million. This drove rapid urbanization as immigrants and rural people moved to the cities. In 1860 only 20 per cent of the population lived in urban areas, but by 1920 it was nearer 50 per cent. City life was cramped and competitive; discontent and tensions between different groups often erupted into violence.

POPULATION LIVING IN URBAN AREAS, 1920

Over 60%   20–40%

40–60%   Less than 20%

Map labels

CANADA

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

MEXICO

Gulf of Mexico

Lake Superior
Lake Michigan

Mississippi

St John's
Charlottetown
Fredericton
Halifax
Quebec
Montreal
Ottawa
North Bay
Toronto
Hamilton
London
Calgary
Winnipeg
Minneapolis
Milwaukee
Detroit
Chicago
Cleveland
Columbus
Buffalo
Albany
Boston
Providence
New York City
Philadelphia
Pittsburgh
Baltimore
Washington, DC
Richmond
Indianapolis
Springfield
Cincinnati
Louisville
St Louis
Kansas City
Salt Lake City
Denver
Dodge City
Raleigh
Nashville
Little Rock
Memphis
Atlanta
Charleston
Savannah
Birmingham
Montgomery
Tucson
Fort Worth
Austin
Houston
Beaumont
New Orleans
Pensacola

JUAN MANUEL DE ROSAS
1793–1877

A charismatic but brutal military dictator, Juan Manuel de Rosas was the archetypal *caudillo*. As governor of Buenos Aires province, Rosas controlled all of Argentina for 17 years and extended the country's territories deep into Patagonia through a violent campaign against the indigenous people there. Ousted from power by a rival general in 1852, he fled to England and died there in 1877.

INDEPENDENT LATIN AMERICA

The decades following liberation in Latin America were marked by the appearance of successive military dictators, civil wars, and battles between states over resources and territories. The shadow of imperialism continued to hang over the region too, as financial investment and military intervention secured American and British influence.

In the aftermath of liberation, many countries in South America saw power seized by *caudillos*, military dictators such as José Antonio Páez in Venezuela and Juan Manuel de Rosas in Argentina. Civil wars were common as new dictators fought for leadership, as happened in Mexico in 1910. Border disputes were also common as the young states sought to extend their territory or gain control of valuable natural resources. Bolivia and Peru both lost lands to Chile

in the War of the Pacific, fought over the Atacama Desert's nitrates, which were used in fertilizers and explosives. Brazil, Bolivia, and Argentina took almost half of Paraguay's territory in Latin America's bloodiest war. The region's economies depended on the export of raw materials and food to feed Europe's burgeoning industries and consumer markets: coffee and rubber from Brazil; copper and tin from Chile and Peru; and salted and frozen meat from Argentina. Access to the Atlantic trade routes gave Argentina in particular an advantage, and the country developed rapidly. Yet foreign power lingered in the region. It was evident in the United States' interference in Central America and the Caribbean – where it annexed Puerto Rico and occupied or made Protectorates of many other countries – and in the large profits made by British and American firms investing in the region's railways and mines.

"I'd rather die on my feet, than live on my knees."

ATTRIBUTED TO EMILIANO ZAPATA, 1913

△ **Mexican Revolution**
A French newspaper's front-page image shows Mexican revolutionaries executed by US revolutionaries, during the US occupation of Veracruz.

Spring 1911 City seized by revolutionary forces; Madero declared President

1910 While in prison after being arrested for encouraging rebellion, Francisco Madero calls for revolt

Apr 1915 Villa defeated in a bloody battle

1914 Landing of US marines sent by President Wilson

1903–39 US protectorate

1912–25 US occupation and financial supervision

Feb 1913 Military coup; Victoriano Huerta assumes presidency with US approval; Madero assassinated
Aug 1914 Carranza declares himself president despite Villa's objections

1916 Mexican government troops defeat US force

1915–34 US occupation

1898 Annexed by US

1916–24 US occupation

1914 Completion of Panama Canal gives America control of fastest trade route between Pacific and Atlantic oceans

FRENCH GUIANA
1817: TO FRANCE

BRITISH GUIANA
1803: TO BRITAIN

TRINIDAD
1797: TO BRITAIN

Map labels

São Luiz do Maranhão

Maceió

Pará (Belém)

Bahia (Salvador)

Santa Cruz

Minas Novas

Diamantina

Victoria

Rio de Janeiro

Belo Horizonte

Ouro Prêto

São Paulo

Pirapora

Goyaz

Santarém

Manáos

1890–1920

1890–1920 Manáos flourishes as centre of rubber boom in Amazon region

Xingu

Tapajós

Madeira

Amazon

Rio Negro

ACRE

Planalto do Mato Grosso

B R A Z I L

Putumayo

COLOMBIA

Iquitos

Tumbes

Quito

ECUADOR

Cuenca

Guayaquil

Trujillo

Yungay

PERU

Andes

Pisco

Islas de Chincha

Lima

Callao

1881–84 Lima and Callao occupied by Chilean forces

Cuzco

Lake Titicaca

La Paz

BOLIVIA

1870–1914 Tin becomes Bolivia's main export

Lake Poopó

Potosí

Santa Cruz

Corumbá

Paraguay

Mollendo

Tacna

Arica

Iquique

TARAPACÁ

1884 Tacna and Arica conquered by Chile

1929 Tacna-Arica area to Peru, Arica area to Chile

20 Oct 1883 Peru and Chile sign Treaty of Ancon, Tarapacá area ceded to Chile

Tocopilla

Punta de Angamos

Antofagasta

ATACAMA

8 Oct 1879 Sinking of a Peruvian ironclad, the *Huáscar*, gives Chile control of the sea

14 Feb 1879 Chilean armed forces occupy Antofagasta

1878 Bolivia demands more tax from the Chilean Antofagasta Nitrate Company working in the Atacama

Salta

Tucumán

Catamarca

Córdoba

Salta

Caldera

Copiapó

La Serena

CHILE

Viña del Mar

Valparaíso

Santiago

Talca

Concepción

Valdivia

Puerto Montt

Mendoza

ARGENTINA

Pampas

Rosario

Buenos Aires

BUENOS AIRES

Mar del Plata

Bahía Blanca

Neuquén

Rio Negro

Patagonia

Punta Arenas

Tierra del Fuego

PARAGUAY

27 Dec 1865 Paraguayans invade Brazil and attack the Brazilian garrison at Nova Coimbra fort

21–22 Dec 1868 Battle of Lomas Valentinas

Corrientes

Santa Cruz

Paraná

Porto Alegre

Rio Grande

URUGUAY

Uruguay

Montevideo

Colonia

La Plata

1870–1914 Brazil's economy becomes heavily dependent on coffee exports

Apr 1866 Argentina's President Mitre invades southwest Paraguay

11 Jun 1865 Brazilian navy defeats Paraguayan flotilla in Battle of Riachuelo on the Paraná River near Corrientes

1884 Work begins on development of Buenos Aires port, funded by the British Barings bank

1850–1914 Argentina's largely British-built railways make large-scale beef exports possible

P A C I F I C   O C E A N

KEY (Timeline box)

KEY

— 1930 international borders

····· Railways

AFTER INDEPENDENCE

Latin America was marked by civil war, competition for resources, and interference from outside; all of which determined its future development.

TIMELINE

1 2 3 4 5

1840 1860 1880 1900 1920

THE PARAGUAYAN WAR 1864–70

In 1864, Paraguay was pitted against an alliance of Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay set on conquest. Outnumbered 10 to 1, Paraguay's army was destroyed at the Battle of Lomas Valentinas in 1868. Guerrilla war rumbled on until 1870, but ultimately Paraguay lost around 140,000 square km (54,000 square miles) of territory and around half its population in the conflict.

✖ Battle   ▮ Former Paraguay

5 CENTRAL AMERICA, THE CARIBBEAN, AND THE UNITED STATES 1895–1920

In 1898, the Spanish–American War finally ended Spanish rule in Latin America. Prefaced by America's support for Cuba's revolt against Spain in 1895, the war left America in possession of Cuba and Puerto Rico and secured its influence in the Caribbean and Central America. The US then intervened across the region, in Honduras, Guatemala, Nicaragua, the Dominican Republic, and, crucially, Panama.

4 EXPORT AND INVESTMENT 1850–1920

As the world entered a second phase of industrialization at the end of the 19th century, South America experienced a series of export booms in nitrates, rubber, copper, and tin. South America also became a major coffee producer, and British investment in the region's railways and ports made wheat and beef viable export products.

Major ports   Tin

Beef   Nitrates

Rubber   Coffee
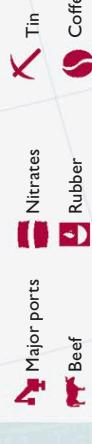
3 THE MEXICAN REVOLUTION 1910–17

In 1910, Francisco Madero challenged Mexico's dictator for the presidency and called for revolution. Armies under Pascual Orozco, Pancho Villa, and Emiliano Zapata all attacked government positions. Successive presidents failed to pacify the country, and the US intervened militarily. A new constitution was agreed in 1917, and Venustiano Carranza became President.

AREA OF LEADERSHIP

Venustiano Carranza   ✖ US/Mexican clash

Pancho Villa   ✊ Major incident in revolution

Emiliano Zapata   → Route of US expedition

Francisco Madero

2 WAR OF THE PACIFIC 1879–83

In 1879 Bolivia, Chile, and Peru went to war over control of the Atacama Desert's nitrate deposits. Chile landed an army at Antofagasta, taking the Bolivian coastline and the southern provinces of Peru. Chilean troops then sailed to attack Lima, and the city was occupied by a Chilean force between 1881 and 1884.

Chile before 1874   Conquered by Chile

Gained from Bolivia   ✖ Battle

Gained from Peru

▷ **Battling hussars**
A painting by German artist Christian Sell the Elder shows a clash between French and German cavalry in the Franco-Prussian War.

UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY

After 1835, powerful German and Italian leaders emerged who contested Austrian power and – in a rapid succession of political and military campaigns from 1850 to 1870 – created the unified nations of Italy and Germany.

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6

1830   1840   1850   1860   1870   1880
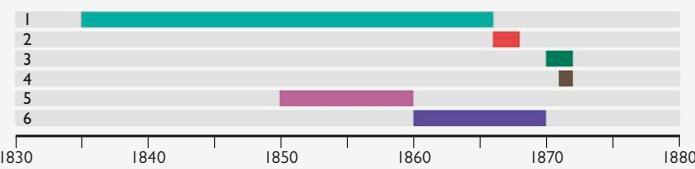
1 AUSTRIA CHALLENGED 1835–66

In 1863, Bismarck engineered an alliance with Austria to claim the provinces of Schleswig and Holstein from Denmark. By October 1864, Schleswig belonged to Prussia and Holstein to Austria. The arrangement was unworkable because Holstein was isolated and hemmed in by Prussia. When Austria sought a resolution to the issue, Prussia used it as a pretext for conflict, beginning the Seven Weeks War (1866).

— Boundary of German Confederation of 1815
→ Austro-Prussian forces in Denmark 1864
■ Prussia in 1815

GERMANY UNIFIED

German unification was achieved in several stages that saw Prussia free the north German states from Austrian authority and then defeat Austria and France to create a new empire in 1871.

1 Sept 1870
Prussia captures Napoleon III at the Battle of Sedan

1871 Prussians march through France to besiege and occupy Paris

May 1871 The French cede Alsace-Lorraine to Germany in the Treaty of Frankfurt

3 July 1866 The Battle of Sadowa gives Prussia a decisive victory over Austria in the Seven Weeks War

2 THE NORTH GERMAN CONFEDERATION 1866–67

Prussia defeated Austria in the Seven Weeks War. Prussia kept the territories it had won in the conflict and formed a North German Confederation, in which each state kept its own laws and sent an elected representative to a federal parliament.

→ Prussian armies in Seven Weeks War 1866
✕ Battle
■ Prussian gains by 1866
■ Other states in North German Confederation 1867
■ Other German states 1866–67
■ Austro-Hungarian Empire 1867

4 UNIFICATION AND EMPIRE 1871

As a result of the war, France lost the region of Alsace-Lorraine to Germany and was forced to pay compensation. The now unified German states adopted a new imperial constitution, with William I as emperor (kaiser). The empire, with Prussia firmly in control, comprised 26 states.

■ Boundary of German Empire 1871

3 FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR 1870–71

Another great power, France, viewed Prussia's growing status with concern. Bismarck engineered a political situation that provoked the French emperor, Napoleon III, into declaring war. This prompted the southern German states to ally with the Northern Confederation. The Germans crushed their French enemies, captured Napoleon III, and took Paris in 1871.

→ Prussian invasion of France 1870–71
✕ Battle

Map labels: DENMARK, SWEDEN, RUSSIA, Baltic Sea, Copenhagen, SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN, Königsberg, Rostock, Danzig, EAST PRUSSIA, Hamburg, Bremen, POMERANIA, MECKLENBURG, WEST PRUSSIA, The Hague, Amsterdam, NETHERLANDS, HANOVER, Elbe, Berlin, BRANDENBURG, POSEN, Posen, Oder, BELGIUM, Brussels, WESTPHALIA, Cologne, THURINGIAN STATES, Breslau, Meuse, Rhine, Luxembourg, Leipzig, SAXONY, SILESIA, Sedan, Nuremberg, Prague, BOHEMIA, Sadowa, Karlsruhe, BAVARIA, Stuttgart, Strassburg, WÜRTTEMBERG, BADEN, HOHENZOLLERN, Munich, Danube, Vienna, Basle, FRANCE, SWITZERLAND, AUSTRIA, HUNGARY, ITALY, PRUSSIA

1866 Italy annexes Venetia

SWITZERLAND

FRANCE

SAVOY

PIEDMONT

LOMBARDY

VENETIA

Magenta
Turin **1859**
Milan
Solferino
1859

Venice

ITALY UNIFIED
Italian unification was driven
by conservative reformers
and revolutionary leaders who
pushed Austria out of the north,
conquered the south, and annexed
Rome and Venice to create the
Kingdom of Italy.

KINGDOM
OF
SARDINIA

Genoa

PARMA

MODENA

ROMAGNA

Bologna

SAN
MARINO

NICE

Florence

TUSCANY

Perugia

Castelfidardo
1860

MONACO

PAPAL
STATES

Pescara

1859 French and Piedmontese
soldiers defeat Austria at the
battles of Magenta and Solferino

Corsica

Rome

Sulmona
Macerone
1860

Adriatic Sea

Teano
Gaeta

1870 Italian
troops take
Rome and the
Papal States

Naples
Salerno

Sardinia

1860 Garibaldi
meets Victor
Emmanuel at
Teano to hand
him half of Italy

5 SARDINIA AND NORTHERN ITALY   1850–60
By the 1850s, Sardinia-Piedmont (consisting of
Piedmont and the island of Sardinia) had emerged
as the most stable and advanced state in northern
Italy. Its prime minister, Count Cavour, provoked a
dispute with Austria, which persuaded the French
that Austria was a threat to regional security. In
1859 – in exchange for the region of Savoy – the
French helped to drive the Austrians out of
Lombardy, which went to the Sardinian king,
Victor Emmanuel. The Sardinian army moved
south to annex the provinces of central Italy.

Tyrrhenian
Sea

KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES

Sardinia–Piedmont

Territory ceded
to France 1860

Territory annexed
1859

Sardinian army
1860

Territory annexed
1860

Battle

Calatafimi
1860

Palermo

Messina

Marsala

Monreale
1860

6 CONQUEST OF THE SOUTH   1860–70
In April 1860, insurrection broke out in the
Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Garibaldi sailed
south with a volunteer force of 1,000 "Redshirts"
and took the island of Sicily. When he entered
Naples, Bourbon rule in the south collapsed. The
Kingdom of Italy was officially proclaimed in
March 1861, and unification completed by the
addition of Venice in 1866 and Rome in 1870.

Battle

Garibaldi and the "Redshirts" 1860

Area annexed by Garibaldi, 1860

Frontier of the new kingdom of Italy

Territory annexed 1866–70

GERMANY AND ITALY UNIFIED

In 1850, Germany and Italy were fragmented. Germany was
a loose confederation of states dominated by Austria, while
Italy was a mixture of duchies and kingdoms with little direction.
By 1870, through war, diplomacy, and a certain amount of
political machination, both had been unified into new nations.

A wave of popular nationalism followed the Napoleonic Wars (see pp.208–11). In
1848–49 this erupted in a series of republican revolutions (see pp.218–19), which
began in Sicily and extended across much of Europe. These revolts were repressed
by armies loyal to their respective goverments; and popular fervour had largely
dissipated by the 1850s, leaving the German and Italian states as fragmented as ever.

The yoke of unification was, however, taken up by conservative
reformers in both Italy and Germany in the 1860s. Afraid of
revolution from below, they took control of reform from above,
seeing in unification a chance to curb Austro-Hungarian power
and carve out strong new kingdoms.

After the Napoleonic Wars, Prussia was one of a confederation of
39 states under the leadership of Austria. It was the only one of these
states powerful enough to compete with Austria-Hungary for control
of the fiercely independent German principalities, so it took the lead
on unification. In 1864, Prussia, led by its formidable prime minister,
Otto von Bismarck, made its move against Austria. Within 7 years,
through a combination of war, political manoeuvring, and luck, the
threat to unification posed by both Austria and France had been
neutralized and Bismarck had forged a unified German empire.
Bismarck became the first chancellor of the Empire in 1871.

In Italy, following the failure of Giuseppe Mazzini's nationalist
revolution in 1848, the prime minister of Sardinia-Piedmont, Count
Cavour, steered the process of unification. By allying with France
against the Austrians in northern Italy and harnessing the talents of
the great nationalist revolutionary Giuseppe Garibaldi to secure the
south, Cavour was able to create a unified kingdom by 1860.

5 THE SECOND BALKAN WAR 1913

In June 1913, tension over the division of Macedonia turned to war when the Bulgarians attacked Greek and Serbian positions in the region. When Romanian and Ottoman forces invaded Bulgaria, looking for gains of their own, Bulgaria soon sued for peace and Macedonia was largely divided between Greece and Serbia.
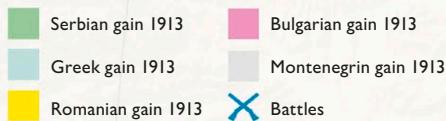
- Serbian gain 1913
- Greek gain 1913
- Romanian gain 1913
- Bulgarian gain 1913
- Montenegrin gain 1913
- ✕ Battles

4 THE FIRST BALKAN WAR 1912–13

In 1912, Russia encouraged Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece, and Montenegro to band together and take Macedonia from Turkey. Montenegro declared war on Turkey and was joined by the other league nations. By May 1913, the war was over and the Ottoman Empire had lost most of its remaining European territories, including Albania.

- ✕ Significant Ottoman defeats
- Albania 1913

3 BOSNIA CRISIS 1908

Fearing that the Young Turks in Constantinople might reinvigorate Turkey, Austria-Hungary decided to annex Bosnia and Herzegovina. When Serbia demanded that they receive compensation for the annexation, Russia supported their claim. But when Austria – backed by Germany – threatened to invade Serbia, Russia was forced to back down and accept the annexation.

- ✕ The Bosnia Crisis
- ▬ Annexation border

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE

Mar 1821 Greek revolutionaries in Moldavia occupy Jassy and call on all Greeks and Christians to rise up against the Ottomans

MOLDAVIA
Jassy

1878 Treaty of Berlin puts Bosnia-Herzegovina under Austria-Hungary's control, although it remains an Ottoman possession

1878 Romania becomes independent and gains Dobruja

7 Oct 1908 Serbia mobilizes its troops and demands Novi Pazar region as compensation

1878 Enlarged by the treaty of San Stefano, Serbia becomes independent

30 Sep 1913 Treaty of Bucharest ends Second Balkan War

ROMANIA

DOBRUJA

Dec 1877 Ottoman garrison at Pleven submits after being besieged by Russian and Romanian force for 5 months

Bucharest

Danube

6 Oct 1908 Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia-Herzegovina

BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA
Belgrade
Sarajevo

SERBIA

DALMATIA

1878 Montenegro doubles its territory and gains independence

MONTENEGRO
Cetinje

Novi Pazar ✕

5 Oct 1908 Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria declares Bulgaria's independence

BULGARIA

Sofia

10 Jul 1913 Romanians occupy Varna

Pleven ✕

Varna

1878–85 Treaty of Berlin returns Eastern Rumelia to Ottoman Empire, but Bulgaria reclaims it in 1885

23–24 Oct 1912 Serbian army defeats Ottomans at Battle of Kumanovo, and joins forces with Montenegrins to enter Skopje

ALBANIA
Tirana

Üsküb (Skopje)

Kumanovo ✕
Bregalnica ✕

EASTERN RUMELIA

30 Jun–8 Jul 1913 Bulgarian army defeated by Serbs at Battle of Bregalnica

Kurdzhali ✕

Edirne ✕

Constantinople ✕

19–20 Oct 1912 Greek army defeats Ottomans and captures Yanitza

MACEDONIA

Yanitza ✕
Kilkis ✕

THRACE

Yesilköy (San Stefano)

21 May 1864 Britain transfers the Ionian islands to Greece as a gesture of support for King George I

Janina ✕

19–21 Jul 1913 Greek victory against the Bulgarians at the Battle of Kilkis

21 Oct 1912 The Bulgarians defeat the main Ottoman forces in Thrace and reach Constantinople

THESSALY

Jan 1878 Russians take Edirne, then known as Adrianople
26 Mar 1913 Edirne falls to the Bulgarians
23 Jul 1913 Ottomans force Bulgarians out of Edirne

6 Mar 1913 Janina falls to the Greeks

Jul 1881 Ottoman Empire cedes Thessaly to Greece following the Russo-Turkish War

Mar 1878 Treaty of San Stefano ends Russo-Turkish War

Jul 1908 Young Turks establish a constitutional government in Constantinople and begin programme of reform

Ionian Islands

Ionian Sea

GREECE

Athens

Epidaurus

Aegean Sea

Navarino

Aug 1826 Ottoman forces capture Athens

20 Oct 1827 British, French, and Russian naval fleets destroy the Egyptian fleet supporting the Ottomans

Jan 1822 Greek National Assembly declares Greece a free and independent state

Crete

Mediterranean Sea

ITALY

CONFLICT IN THE BALKANS

From 1830, a series of conflicts reshaped the Balkans. By 1913, the region was a fragile patchwork of independent states, in which ethnic and religious tensions persisted.

KEY

— International boundaries 1913   ▮ Ottoman Empire

TIMELINE

		1800	1850	1900	1950
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					

○ Sebastopol

B l a c k   S e a

1 GREECE, INDEPENDENCE, AND EARLY DEVELOPMENT   1830–81

Greece was the first Balkan country to gain independence from the Ottoman Empire. The war for independence, from 1821, continued for nearly 10 years before the Ottomans finally accepted Greece's independence in 1830. Greece's territory grew with the addition of the Ionian Islands in 1864 and Thessaly in 1881.

▮ Greece 1864

▮ Greek gain 1881

✊ Key events in Greek fight for independence

2 THE RUSSO–TURKISH WAR   1877–78

In June 1877, 150,000 Russian troops crossed the Danube to support the people of Bulgaria and Bosnia-Herzegovina in their rebellion against Ottoman rule. The San Stefano peace treaty reshaped the Balkans region, creating Bulgaria and bringing independence to Romania, Serbia, and Montenegro.

→ Russian forces in Russo-Turkish War

▮ Montenegro 1878

▮ Serbia 1878

▮ Romania 1878

▮ Bulgaria 1885

O T T O M A N   E M P I R E

A n a t o l i a

▷ **Bulgarian attack**
In this 1913 painting, Czech artist Jaroslav Věšín shows the fierceness with which the Bulgarians fought the Turks in the First Balkan War.

BALKAN WARS

A wave of nationalism swept through the Balkans in the 19th century. As the Balkan countries coalesced and gained independence, often under the influence of the Great Powers, ethnic and religious diversity created conflict, feeding the instability in the region.

The Balkans in the 19th and early 20th centuries endured a series of conflicts as Ottoman power receded and the peoples of the region fought for independence. In 1830, Greece broke away from the Ottoman Empire. There were further conflicts, at the expense of the Ottomans, over the next 80 years. The Great Powers of Russia, Britain, and Austria-Hungary all played a part in these conflicts and regarded the region with an uneasy mix of ambition and anxiety. Russia supported Slavic nationalism, hoping that the Bulgarians, Montenegrins, Bosnians, and Serbs would provide it with allies. Austria-Hungary watched the emergence of Serbia with concern, aware that its own population of Serbs might make a claim for independence. And Britain, wary of Russian influence in the region, sought to bolster the Greeks. But, for all their involvement in peace treaties and territory division, the Great Powers could not solve the problem at the heart of the Balkans: the region's ethnic groups would not be separated neatly into nations. By 1914, Turkey may have lost all but a nub of its European possessions, but few were happy with the outcome of 70 years of struggle. The two Balkan Wars alone resulted in more than half a million casualties, and the conflicts pushed the Great Powers ever closer to a European war.

"A… peninsula filled with sprightly people… who had a splendid talent for starting wars."

C.L. SULZBERGER, FROM *A LONG ROW OF CANDLES*, 1969

EDIRNE
THE IMPORTANCE OF ADRIANOPLE

The city of Edirne (formerly known as Adrianople) was one of the largest in the Ottoman Empire. It guarded the route to Constantinople, the capital of the Ottoman Empire, so was of vital strategic importance to the Ottomans. Heavily fortified with a network of trenches, fences, and twenty massive concrete forts, the fortress at Edirne was believed to be unassailable; its capture by the Bulgarians in 1913 was a huge blow to Ottoman confidence.

Flight from Edirne, 1913
A stream of foreigners flees the Bulgarian attack on Edirne.

1 GERMANY, AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, AND RUSSIA 1871–1918

Germany negotiated alliances with Austria-Hungary and Russia to limit or prevent war. The defensive Austro-German alliance, later joined by Italy (creating the Triple Alliance), prevented Austria siding with Russia in any attack on Germany; Romania secretly joined in 1883. The Three Emperors' Alliance helped to ease the tension between Russia and Austria over the Balkans, and isolated France.

● Austro-German alliance 1879–1918

◆ Three Emperors' Alliance 1881–87

⬟ Triple Alliance 1882–1915

2 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE TRIPLE ENTENTE 1894–1907

After the Three Emperors' Alliance collapsed, Bismarck arranged the Reinsurance Treaty between Germany and Russia. In 1890, Kaiser Wilhelm II refused to renew this treaty, leaving Russia free to ally with France. The Franco-Russian alliance provided reassurances of mutual military support. Britain sought to limit threats to her Empire, and in 1904 allied with France, and then in 1907 with Russia, creating what was called the Triple Entente.

■ Franco-Russian alliance 1894–1917

▲ Anglo-Russian Entente 1907

★ Entente Cordiale 1904

1907 Construction begins on Rosyth naval dockyard

1907 Britain reorganizes its army to create Expeditionary Force of 160,000 troops and a volunteer, part-time force of 300,000 Territorials

Feb 1906 Launch of HMS *Dreadnought*, the first "all-big-gun" battleship, fuels naval race

Mar 1908 Germany launches its first "all-big-gun" dreadnought battleship, *SMS Nassau*

1903 Krupp's dockyard in Kiel completes the first fully functioning U-boat

1887–90 Germany agrees Reinsurance Treaty with Russia, guaranteeing neutrality in any war with a third power, excluding France and Austria
1909–10 Tsar Nicholas II commits around 1 million roubles to construction of a military air force

1910 First aviation school opens in Gatchina

1898–1912 German naval laws signal Germany's ambition to build a navy to rival Britain's

1883–1916 Romania secretly joins the Triple Alliance with Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy

1839 Treaty of London guarantees Belgian neutrality and commits Austria, Belgium, France, German Confederation, the Netherlands, Russia, and Britain to military intervention if neutrality is breached

1908 Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia, driving Serbia closer to Russia

1882 Italy joins the Austro-German alliance to create the Triple alliance

1881–95 Serbia associates with the Triple Alliance through the Austro-Serb alliance

1906 Britain supports France over Morocco at the Algeciras conference, and the two countries begin talks on a military alliance

1905–06 Germany tests the strength of the Anglo-French Entente by recognizing Morocco as independent

NORWAY

SWEDEN

St Petersburg

Baltic Sea

DENMARK

Kiel

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

North Sea

NETHERLANDS

BELGIUM

Wilhelmshaven

Berlin

GERMANY

Warsaw

BRITAIN

London

Chatham

Portsmouth

Plymouth

Brussels

Munich

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

Rosyth

ATLANTIC OCEAN

Paris

Brest

FRANCE

SWITZERLAND

Trieste

Genoa

Belgrade

ROMANIA

Sarajevo

SERBIA

BULGARIA

Constantinople

Toulon

ITALY

MONTENEGRO

ALBANIA

PORTUGAL

SPAIN

Taranto

GREECE

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Algeciras

Tangier

ALGERIA to France

MOROCCO to France

TUNISIA to France

Mediterranean Sea

LIBYA to Italy

EGYPT

THE BALANCE OF POWER IN EUROPE

European relations from 1871 were marked by a shifting pattern of alliances designed initially to keep the peace. From 1890, the balance of power was disrupted by an alliance between Russia and France, which threatened the Central Powers, and by the build-up of military power across Europe.

- Allied Powers 1914
- Central Powers 1914
- Neutral states 1914
- Joined Allied Powers during war
- Joined Central Powers during war

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4

1870   1880   1890   1900   1910   1920

3 ARMS BUILD-UP   1898–1914

Alongside shifting alliances, Europe was building its military capacity; Britain already had the largest navy in the world. Vast numbers of men were conscripted into Europe's armies, and advances in military technology meant that more money was spent on the armies and navies, creating a volatile mix of militarism and mutual suspicion.

1 ICON = 100,000 COMBATANTS

- Allied powers' army strength
- Central powers' army strength
- Allied powers' naval bases
- Central powers' naval bases

4 ALLIANCES ON THE EVE OF THE WAR   1914

By the time war broke out in 1914, Europe was divided into two well-armed camps: the Allied Powers, formed of the Entente powers – Great Britain, France, and Russia – and Montenegro; and the Central Powers of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. Throughout the war, more countries joined each side.

▽ HMS *Dreadnought*
This British ship – more powerful, faster, and with more firepower than any seen before – ushered in a new class of battleship.

1907 Britain and Russia settle disputes over spheres of influence in Persia and create the Triple Entente with France

PERSIA

THE EVE OF WORLD WAR

War between the Great Powers – Austria-Hungary, Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and Russia – was prevented throughout the late 19th century by a series of defensive alliances. However, those alliances were eroded by the crises in the Balkans in the early 20th century and by the rise of militarism.

Since the end of the Napoleonic War in 1815, Europe had maintained a delicate balance of power. The creation of Germany in 1871 (see pp.264–65) brought a powerful new force into play. Yet instead of breaking the balance of power, Germany was instrumental in maintaining it for many years. Under the leadership of Otto von Bismarck, Germany set about allying with the more conservative powers in Europe – Austria-Hungary and Russia. This ensured that the other two would remain neutral if any one of them took military action against any non-allied country, and if Russia attacked Austria, it would have to face Germany as well.

As tensions in the Balkans increased (see pp.266–67), so did the tensions between the Great Powers. Russia moved to ally with France, and Austria's annexation of Bosnia in 1908 humiliated Russia and pushed it closer to Austria's nemesis, Serbia. By then, an arms race had begun that saw millions of marks, pounds, roubles, and francs poured into military reorganization and new technology. In 1913 alone, Germany spent £101.8 million on its military and Britain spent £77.1 million. By 1914, the bond that prevented a major war had been broken, and Europe was divided into two heavily armed blocs, primed for war.

"England, France, and Russia have conspired… to wage a war of annihilation against us."

KAISER WILHELM II, MEMORANDUM WRITTEN 30 JULY 1914

OTTO VON BISMARCK
(1815–98)

Architect of the unification of Germany and its rise as a major power, Otto von Bismarck guided Germany's fate, first as chief minister of Prussia (1862–90) and then as chancellor of the German Empire (1871–90). His skilled diplomacy ensured that there was no major European conflict in the late 19th century; he created an alliance with Austria-Hungary and also kept friendly relations with Russia. However, Kaiser Wilhelm II came to the throne in 1888 with a more aggressive desire to lead the German Empire towards global power, and in 1890 he forced von Bismarck's resignation. Without his hand to steady international relations, Europe moved inexorably towards war.
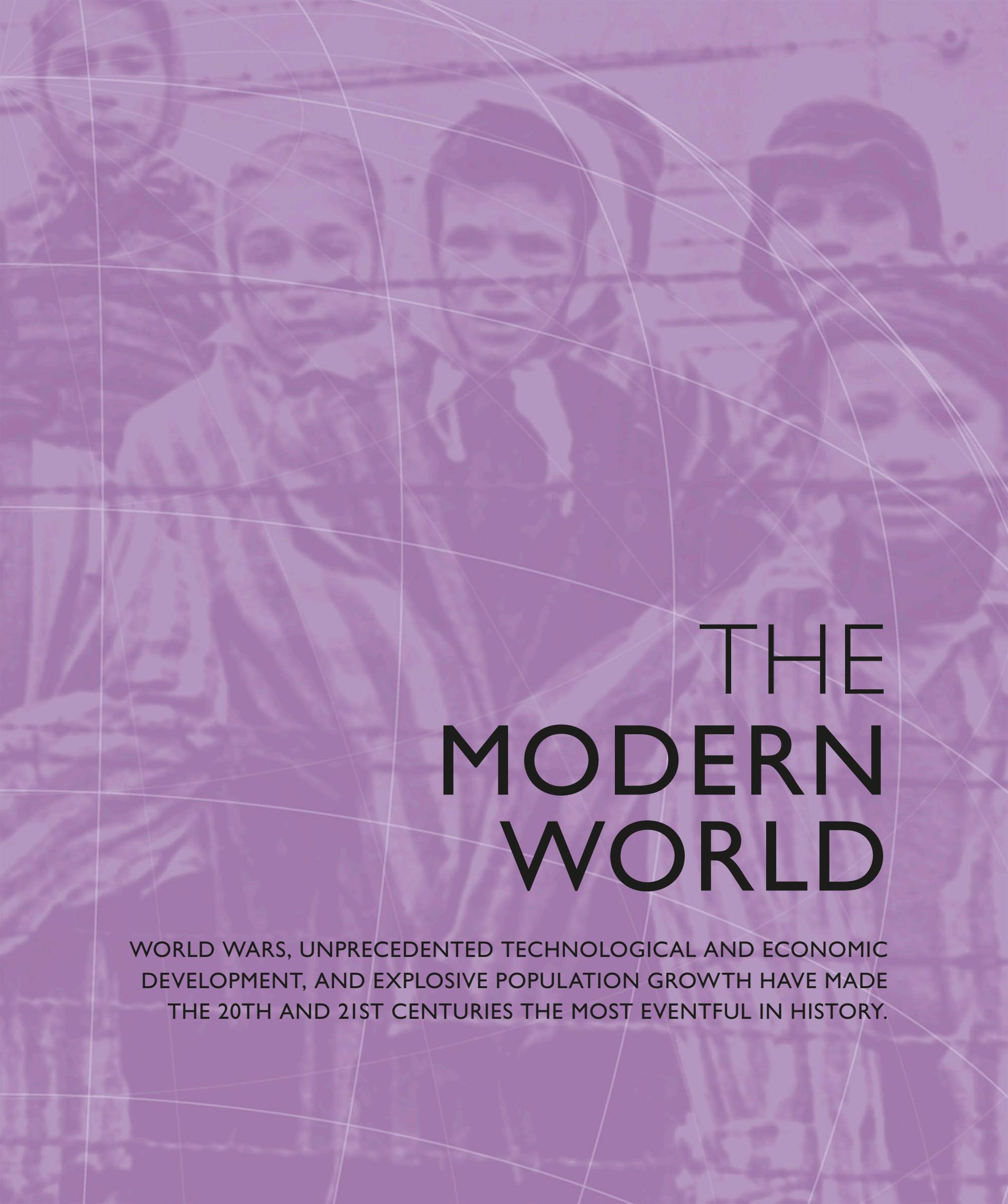
THE MODERN WORLD

WORLD WARS, UNPRECEDENTED TECHNOLOGICAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT, AND EXPLOSIVE POPULATION GROWTH HAVE MADE THE 20TH AND 21ST CENTURIES THE MOST EVENTFUL IN HISTORY.

THE MODERN WORLD

The early 20th century was dominated by extraordinary developments in technology, economics, and new ideologies that transformed societies. However, demands for national independence and a better way of life destroyed old structures, leading to unprecedented violence and turbulence before a new world order was formed.

△ **The face of nationalism**
A Bosnian nationalist, Gavrilo Princip shot Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand on 28 June 1914. The event catapulted the Great Powers into the First World War, a century-defining conflict that caused the downfall of empires.

By the dawn of the 20th century, the old had begun giving way to the new. Although new empires were still being formed in South Africa, Korea, and elsewhere, some established empires were in turmoil as people demanded emancipation from oppression and political exclusion. In Russia, thousands marched against Tsar Nicholas II, demanding reform, while the Tsar's forces were being routed by the Japanese in the Russo-Japanese War. Around the same time, imperial China was crumbling under the pressure of European imperialism and internal strife. By 1912, China had done away with the Qing dynasty and become a republic.

In 1908, the vast Ottoman Empire was shaken when the Young Turks (a Turkish nationalist party) revolted and brought in a constitution and multi-party politics. Taking advantage of these unsettled affairs, a league of Balkan states – Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece, and Montenegro – went to war with Turkey and then squabbled over the spoils, leading to yet another war.

Constant turmoil

The assassination of the Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand by a radical nationalist, Gavrilo Princip, in Sarajevo, Bosnia, set off World War I (see pp. 274–75). Lasting 4 long years, the war became a stalemate at an incalculable cost – a generation of young men was mown down as deadly technological advances saw aircraft, poison gas, tanks, and submarines deployed on a mass scale. By the third year of World

◁ **The cost of war**
Passchendaele (the Third Battle of Ypres) was fought in 1917. It cost the Allies 300,000 lives and brought them a gain of a meagre 8 km (5 miles). It became a byword for the utter futility of war.

TROUBLED TIMES

The early part of the 20th century was dominated by conflict; the timeline shown here ends with the ominous build-up to yet another world war. Unlike Europe and east Asia, North America avoided major turbulence until its involvement in World War I. However, its stock market collapse in 1929 was one of the most damaging events in its, and the world's, history. Despite the convulsions of the period, this era was also one of great technological innovation and productivity.

Dec 1903 American inventors Wilbur and Orville Wright make the first sustained powered flight in an aeroplane

Oct 1908 The first affordable car, the Model T Ford, is manufactured in Detroit, US

1912–13 The Balkan states attack the Ottoman Empire

1914 Japan joins the war on the side of Britain and its allies

	1900	1905	1910	1915
NORTH AMERICA				
EAST ASIA				
EUROPE				

1910 Japan annexes Korea after 3 years of fighting and becomes one of the world's leading powers

1913 American industrialist Henry Ford perfects the moving assembly line, revolutionizing mass production

Jun 1914 Franz Ferdinand is assassinated in Sarajevo, leading to World War I

◁ **Worldwide epidemic**
An outbreak of Spanish flu in 1918–19 infected around 500 million people and killed up to 50 million. Starting in the US, it became a global catastrophe.

War I, Russia was in tatters. Into this chaos stepped revolutionary Vladimir Lenin, who saw his Bolshevik Party to power. By 1919, the Russian, Austrian, and German empires had collapsed. The Ottoman Empire was the last great casualty of the war – the Treaty of Sèvres was signed in 1920, and the empire was dismantled.

Meanwhile, around Easter 1916, an armed uprising in Dublin set southern Ireland on a path to independence from British rule, and the Irish Free State was formed in 1922

Global repercussions

The US had followed an isolationist policy at the start of the war but was drawn into the conflict by German submarine attacks on their commercial ships. During and after the war, Americans embraced and invested heavily in technology, pioneering methods of assembly-line production. Women, who had contributed so much to the war effort, had been granted the vote in 1918 in the UK, Austria, Germany, and Canada. Most American women were given the same privilege in 1920. However, the good times came to a grinding halt with the Wall Street Crash of 1929.

The Great Depression that followed (see pp.286–87) led to mass unemployment and strikes. It became a global crisis, leading to poverty on an unprecedented scale. The 1930s were haunted by violent political extremism. China, in turmoil due to a civil war, was also under attack from Japan. In Germany, more than 40 per cent of industrial workers were unemployed. Already hit severely by the collapse of world trade, a starving Germany suffered, and the time was ripe for an ambitious Adolf Hitler to form the Nationalist Socialist (Nazi) Party. With his promise to restore Germany's status as a great power, he was poised to assume total control.

Totalitarianism and the seeds of war

Other European nations too became seduced by right-wing politics and propaganda. While Germany had *der Führer* (Adolf Hitler), Italy had *il Duce* (Benito Mussolini), and fascist-leaning Spaniards had *el Caudillo* (Francisco Franco). In July 1936, Franco's forces fought the forces of the Spanish Left in a brutal civil war. Aided by Hitler and Mussolini, Franco was victorious in this precursor to the next global war. The First World War – called the Great War – was supposed to have been the conflict to end all conflicts. Instead, the peace treaty that followed in 1919 – the Treaty of Versailles – redrew the map of Europe, breeding discontent and resentment. Together with the Great Depression, it paved the way for the world's bloodiest conflict yet – World War II (see pp.294–95).
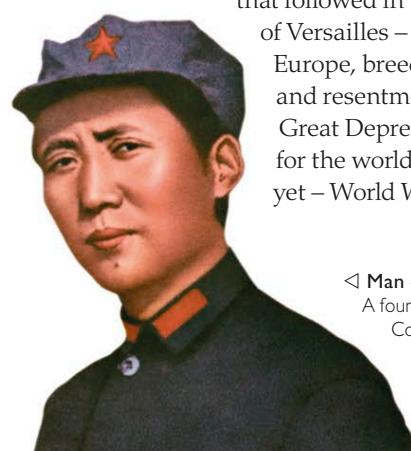
◁ **Man of the masses**
A founding member of the Chinese Communist Party, Mao Zedong went on to become the leader of the People's Republic of China and one of the most influential figures of the 20th century.
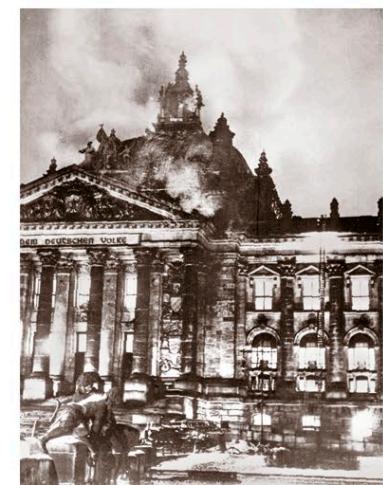
△ **Germany on fire**
The mysterious fire of the German parliament building on 27 February 1933 was a key moment in Nazi history, acting as a stepping-stone to the total dictatorship of Adolf Hitler.

Nov 1918 Germany signs an armistice that marks the end of the war

1918–19 Taking millions of lives, an outbreak of Spanish flu becomes the world's most deadly natural disaster

1927 Civil war breaks out in China

Late 1920s Extreme nationalism begins to take hold in Japan as world economic depression hits; the emphasis is on a preservation of traditional Japanese values and a rejection of "Western" influence

Sep 1931 Japan invades Manchuria, seeking control over northern China

1937 Japan captures Shanghai, Beijing, and Nanjing during the second Sino-Japanese war

1920　　　1925　　　1930　　　1935　　　1940

1917–18 The US intervenes in World War I

Dec 1922 The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) is established

Oct 1929 13 million Americans become unemployed after the Wall Street stock market crashes in the US

1920–33 The sale and manufacture of alcoholic drinks is outlawed in the US with the introduction of Prohibition

Jan 1933 Adolf Hitler becomes Chancellor of Germany

Jul 1937 Japanese army massacres tens of thousands of people in Nanjing, China, during the Sino-Japanese War

North Sea

NETHERLANDS

BRITAIN

Apr–May 1915 Fighting centres on the British-held town of Ypres; at the Second Battle of Ypres, Germans use chlorine gas for the first time

Jul–Nov 1917 325,000 Allied troops and 260,000 Germans die at the Battle of Passchendaele. Just 8 km (5 miles) of land is gained

23 Aug 1914 British land in France and meet the advancing German army at Mons; British are forced back to the River Marne

Ramsgate

Dover

English Channel

Zeebrugge

Bruges
Ostend
Ypres
Courtrai
Passchendaele

Antwerp

Scheldt

Brussels

BELGIUM

EARLY GERMAN ADVANCES 1914

The German plan, conceived by military strategist Alfred von Schlieffen in 1905, was for a rapid march through Belgium to defeat France, then to turn eastwards to Russia. However, Russia mobilized more quickly than anticipated. Now fighting on two fronts, the Germans, heading for Paris, were pushed back by the Allies.

➡ German invasion of France and Belgium, 1914

◣◣ Furthest extent of German advance, 1914

✕ Major battle

THE WESTERN FRONT

One of the major theatres of war during World War I, the Western Front opened when Germany attacked France via Belgium but was stopped by the Allies. For most of the war, the front stretched from the Vosges mountains, through Amiens, to Ostend in Belgium.

Calais

Boulogne

Mar 1915 Neuve-Chapelle

Jun 1917 Messines

Aug 1914 Tournai

Aug 1914 Mons

Liège

Aug 1914

26 Aug 1914 Britain stages a rear-guard action, suffering 7,812 casualties, but it delays the German advance on Paris

Étaples

Sep–Oct 1915 Loos

Oct 1914 May 1915 Arras

Aug 1914 Le Cateau
Maubeuge

Aug 1914 Charleroi

Meuse

4 Aug 1914 The first battle of the war takes place with the German attack on the Belgian city of Liège; the attack brings the British Empire into the war

Somme

Doullens

Aug 1918 Amiens

Jul–Nov 1916 Somme

St Quentin

Ardennes

Mézières

Sedan

LUXEMBOURG

Jul–Nov 1916 British and French forces launch a major offensive at the Somme. Tanks are used for the first time

Rouen

Jun 1918 Montdidier

Sep 1918 St Quentin Canal

May–Oct 1917 Aisne

Chemin des Dames

Aisne

Meuse

Winter 1916 The Germans build the Hindenburg Line, a vast system of defences 140 km (87 miles) long

GERMANY

Mar–Aug 1918 German forces attempt to break the stalemate on the Western Front by launching a series of offensives known as the Spring Offensive, including an attack on Rheims

Chantilly

Oise

Jul–Aug 1918 Rheims

Jul 1918 Château-Thierry

Verdun

Sep 1918 St Mihiel

Meaux

Jun 1918 Belleau Wood

Paris

Montmirail

Épernay

Sep–Nov 1918 Argonne

Marne

Lunéville

6–12 Sep 1914 Allies defeat Germany at the First Battle of the Marne, preventing a German advance on Paris; both sides dig in, marking the start of trench warfare

FRANCE

Feb–Dec 1916 The 300-day Battle of Verdun sees huge losses on both sides

Épinal

Moselle

STALEMATE AND TRENCH WARFARE 1915–17

By Christmas 1914, the two opposing factions were at a stalemate, and dug in along 645 km (400 miles) of zigzag trench lines stretching from the Belgian coast down to the Swiss border. Along this Western Front, troops fought a series of brutal battles that gained little territory. No one had anticipated this static war.

▬ ▬ Germans retreat to the Hindenburg Line in 1917

✕ Major battle

▷ **The new face of war** World War I was the first time tanks had ever been used in a conflict. Invented by the British, they played a vital role in the Allied advances in 1918.

Seine

Belfort

Basle

SWITZERLAND

ALLIED VICTORY 1918

By spring 1917, the Allied forces were exhausted, but US troops were on the way. The Germans launched a surprise attack along the Western Front, but the Allies pushed back. As the exhausted German troops struggled, the Allies began a massive 100-day offensive, breaching the heavily fortified Hindenburg Line. Germany signed an armistice on 11 November 1918.

◣◣ German offensive, Mar–Jul 1918

▬ Line at armistice, 11 Nov 1918

➡ Allied counter attack, 1918

✕ Major battle

WORLD WAR I

World War I was one of the defining events of the 20th century. Bound by the chains of interlocking alliances, and provoked by the massive build-up of battleships and weaponry, governments sent their armies off to face a new kind of warfare.

On 28 June 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, was assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia. Blaming their bitter rival, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Events quickly escalated, and the wider system of alliances (see pp.268–69) got drawn into the war. Russia hurried to the aid of Serbia, while Germany, coming to the support of Austria-Hungary, declared war on both Russia and France. When Germany, on its way to France, invaded neutral Belgium on 4 August 1914, Britain declared war on Germany. Stalemate quickly followed. The Germans, British, and French dug a network of trenches stretching from the Swiss border to the North Sea, and with modern weaponry, the Western Front became a killing field. On the more fluid Eastern Front, the better-equipped German army defeated the Russians, and in December 1917 Russia signed an armistice. The arrival of the US into the war in April 1917 turned the tide in the Allies' favour, and following a series of brutal battles, an armistice was agreed on 11 November 1918. At the start of the war, both the Central Powers and the Allies had been convinced it would be short and decisive; neither was prepared for this long war of attrition.

WAR ON TWO FRONTS
World War I was fought largely on the Western Front (in western Europe) and the Eastern Front (in eastern Europe), although countries from around the world were gradually pulled into the conflict. There were two opposing alliances: the Central Powers (Germany and Austria-Hungary) and the Allies (Russia, France, and Britain). Despite early German successes, the Allies achieved victory in November 1918.

KEY
- Central Powers
- Allies
- Russian Empire and allies

TIMELINE

1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919

THE EASTERN FRONT
Russian forces approached Germany and Austria-Hungary from the east, creating the vast Eastern Front, stretching from the Baltic Sea in the north to the Black Sea in the south.
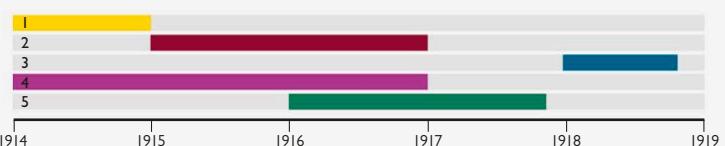
4 WAR OF MOVEMENT 1914–17

Unlike the stalemate experienced on the Western Front, the Eastern Front was the war everyone had anticipated, with large armies making significant breakthroughs. The German and Austro-Hungarian forces faced Russia and its allies, including Serbia, along a front that extended more than 1,600km (1,000 miles). Russia's greatest success was under General Alexei Brusilov. From June to September 1916, he broke Austria-Hungary's lines on the southwestern front. Austria never truly recovered.

- → Russian advances, 1914
- ▲▲ Russian front line, 1914–15
- → Brusilov Offensive, 1916
- ✕ Major battle
- → German landings, 1917–18
- ▲▲ Limit of Central Power advances, 1915–16
- — Armistice line, Dec 1917

5 THE TIDE TURNS 1916–17

Despite early Russian success, by the end of 1916 Germany had gained control of the Eastern Front. The Russian forces were large, but they were disorganized. By 1917, their morale was crumbling, and the October Revolution caused major upheaval. Russia signed an armistice in December and withdrew from the war.

- → German offensives into Russia, 1918
- ▲▲ German penetration into Russia by Jun 1918

Aug 1914 Two Russian armies invade Prussia but are decisively beaten at the Battle of Tannenberg

Jun–Sep 1916 The Brusilov Offensive is Russia's greatest military victory against the Central Powers; Austria-Hungary retreats and is much weakened

FINLAND · Vyborg · Lake Ladoga · Helsingfors · Lovisa · Hangö · Gulf of Finland · St Petersburg · Dagö · Ösel · Gulf of Riga · Pskov · Vindava · Libava · Riga · Mitava · Jakobstadt · Shavli · Dvinsk · Dvina · Memel · Gumbinnen · Vilna · Danzig · Minsk · Mogilev · Tannenberg · Grodno · Thorn · Baranovichi · POLAND · Warsaw · Narev · Pinsk · Pripet · Kalish · Lodz · Brest-Litovsk · Pripet Marshes · Breslau · Oder · Kraśnik · Desna · Komarow · Lutsk · Kiev · Cracow · Tarnow · Przemysl · Brody · Don · Gorlice · Lemberg · Vorskla · Dnieper · Donetz · Stanislau · Yekaterinoslav · Czernowitz · Dniester · Bug · Rostov · Budapest · MOLDAVIA · BESSARABIA · Kishinev · Nikolayev · Sea of Azov · AUSTRIA-HUNGARY · Odessa · Crimea · GERMANY · FRANCE · Baltic Sea · RUSSIAN EMPIRE · Belgrade · ROMANIA · Black Sea · Sevastopol · SERBIA

THE TRENCHES

Much of the fighting in World War I was characterized by the mud and blood of the trenches. The prolonged stalemate between trench-bound enemies was marked by mass killings over just a few yards of land.

△ **Lines of communication**
Telephones were used extensively to give orders directly to front-line troops. A web of telephone and telegraph wires crisscrossed the battlefields.

The German advance across France was halted in the early autumn of 1914. Confronted with deadly machine guns, mortars, and howitzers, both sides reached for their spades to dig rudimentary trenches, from where they could both defend and attack. The era of modern trench warfare had begun.

By mid-October 1914, two lines of trenches faced each other in a meandering line that ran from the Swiss border in the south to the North Sea. It became known as the Western Front. The early Allied trenches were crude and shallow. The German trenches, on the other hand, were more solidly built and on higher ground. Some even had electricity and toilets. Sandbags, wire mesh, and wooden frames were brought in to reinforce the walls.

The human cost

Life in the trenches was appalling. They were filled with rats, flies, and lice and prone to flooding. Frightened young men stood in knee-deep mud waiting for the call to go "over the top". Casualty rates were high, not only from major battles such as Passchendaele (July–November 1917), but also from the ever-present threats of sniper fire, random shells, and poison gas. Diseases, such as typhoid and trench foot, put many out of action. The constant bombardment and sound of enemy fire led to the diagnosis of a new condition called "shell shock", which prompted a range of disabling psychosomatic conditions.

For soldiers trapped in the trenches, there was no way out. Deserters were shot and malingerers penalized. Trench warfare in World War I resulted in a four-year-long deadlock, with soldiers dying from not just new weaponry but horrific living conditions.

△ **Crossing the trenches**
German troops clamber over the top of their trenches and advance across no-man's land – the area that separated the enemy trenches – towards British lines. Soldiers marched into the guns and were mown down in droves.

Battle of the Somme
While a soldier from the 11th Cheshire
Regiment keeps watch during the Battle
of the Somme (July–November 1916),
his comrades catch what sleep they can
amid the rubble of their trench.

THE WIDER WAR

Although the main theatre of battle during World War I (1914–18) was in Europe, the conflict extended across the globe. It was shaped by the major European powers, spreading through a series of alliances, as well as through their empires and colonies.

World War I originated in central Europe. However, since many of the European belligerents were colonial powers, they had valuable assets and troops stationed all over the globe. Millions of soldiers were recruited from colonized countries and brought in to fight on the front lines. As the war spread, new fronts opened up in the Balkans, Mesopotamia, Anatolia (modern Turkey), East Africa, and Salonika. Italy joined the war on the side of the Allies in May 1915, and a series of brutal battles were fought along its border with Austria-Hungary.

In the Balkans, already a volatile region, loyalties were divided. In September 1918, Allied forces attacked from northern Greece, eventually liberating Serbia. The entry of the Turkish Ottoman Empire as an ally of Germany in autumn 1914 brought the Middle East into the conflict. The Turks had initial successes against the British, but struggled against Russia in the Caucasus. In 1916, a widespread Arab uprising against Ottoman rule helped the British cause by tying up Ottoman forces. By the time Turkey sued for an armistice in October 1918, the centuries-old empire had collapsed.

"We were casting them by thousands into the fire to the worst of deaths."

T E LAWRENCE, BRITISH MILITARY OFFICER

T E LAWRENCE
1888–1935

One of the most iconic figures of World War I, Thomas Edward Lawrence – popularly known by his nickname, Lawrence of Arabia – was an Arabic-speaking British archaeologist who travelled and worked in the Middle East. During World War I, he joined the British army and became an intelligence officer in Cairo, Egypt. His daring raids made him an international legend. Lawrence developed a deep sympathy for the Arabs living under Turkish rule, and worked for their emancipation. He died in England in a motorcycle accident in 1935.

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27 Aug 1916 Romania joins the Allies and is then occupied by German forces

28 Jun 1914 Heir to the Austrian throne is assassinated by a Bosnian-Serb nationalist in Sarajevo; Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia

5 Oct 1915 British and French forces land at Salonika, but the Bulgarians hold them off; they remain here until September 1918
15 Sep 1918 The Serbian army defeats the Bulgarians, who sign an armistice 2 weeks later; Serbia is liberated by the Allied forces the following month

Feb–Mar 1916 British and French battleships launch a major attack, but are unable to fight through the narrow strait of Dardanelles to capture Constantinople

WAR IN THE BALKANS 1914–18

In July 1914, Austria-Hungary declared war against Serbia. Serbia resisted initially, but it was overrun when Bulgaria sided against them in 1915, and the Serbian forces retreated. The front stabilized roughly around the Greek border through the intervention of the Allied forces, who landed in Salonika. Romania joined the Allies in 1916, and Greece joined in 1917.

- → Austrian, Bulgarian, and German forces
- ⇢ Allied offensive
- → Retreating Serb forces
- → Anglo-French forces
- ▲▲ Salonika front
- ✕ Major battles

GLOBAL CONFLICT
World War I was fought across Europe and the Middle East. The war in the Balkans spanned the entire period, and a series of military campaigns extended over several years in the Caucasus and the Arabian Peninsula. Major battles also took place in Suez and Anatolia.

KEY
ALLIED POWERS
- Russian Empire
- British Empire
- Allies of Russia/Britain

CENTRAL POWERS
- Austro-Hungarian Empire and Bulgaria
- Ottoman Empire
- ▲▲ Turkish lines at surrender, 1918

TIMELINE

1914 · 1916 · 1918 · 1920 · 1922

Map labels

R U S S I A N   E M P I R E

Black Sea

Caucasus

GEORGIA

Batumi

AZERBAIJAN

ARMENIA

Baku

Trebizond

Sarikamis

Erzurum

Eleşkirt

Muş

Lake Van

Tabriz

Angora

Anatolia

Sivas

Erzinjan

O T T O M A N   E M P I R E

Alexandretta

Aleppo

Taurus Mountains

Mosul

Euphrates

Mesopotamia

Kirkuk

PERSIA

SYRIA

Cyprus

Homs

Beirut

Damascus

Sultanabad

Zagros Mountains

Baghdad

Kut al Amara

Tigris

Megiddo

Amman

Amara

Jerusalem

Gaza

Ma'an

Aqaba

Basra

Cairo

Suez

Kuwait

Sinai

Tabuk

Arabian Peninsula

Mada'in Salih

Medina

Annotations on map

15 Nov 1914 Turkish forces defeat a Russian battalion at a copper mine south of Batumi, but Russia resumes offensive

26 Dec 1914 Turkish 3rd Army is crushed by Russians at the Battle of Sarikamis

7 Nov 1914 Turkish forces stop the Russians at Erzurum

Mid-Sep 1918 Ottomans capture Baku, a city rich in oil; the armistice in November 1918 forces them to withdraw

26 Jan 1915 Turkish forces launch an attack on the Suez Canal

1 Oct 1918 Edmund Allenby and T E Lawrence capture Damascus

11 Dec 1917 Edmund Allenby's forces break through at Gaza; Allenby walks through the Jaffa Gate into Jerusalem

▷ **Australians in Gallipoli** An Australian soldier carries his wounded comrade. Australia and New Zealand's role at Gallipoli is commemorated on Anzac Day.

2 CAUCASUS FRONT 1914–17

The Caucasus Campaign was a series of conflicts between the Ottoman and Russian empires. Russia saw the conquest of the Caucasus front as an opportunity to capture Constantinople (modern Istanbul), as well as to gain possession of Persian oil fields. The Ottomans hoped to regain lost territories. The Turkish Army was decimated.

→ Russian forces
⇢ Turkish forces
⋀⋀ Russian/Turkish front, 1917
✕ Major battle

3 RAID ON THE SUEZ CANAL
26 JANUARY–4 FEBRUARY 1915

The Turkish army advanced through the Sinai Desert to launch an attack on the British-protected Suez Canal in Egypt. The Turkish forces hoped this would cut off Britain's lifeline to India and provoke an Islamic uprising in Egypt against British rule. It failed, but the Turkish threat tied up thousands of British troops in the area.

✕ Major battle

4 GALLIPOLI CAMPAIGN
17 FEBRUARY 1915–9 JANUARY 1916

In February 1915, Allied forces launched a naval operation in the Dardanelles, with the aim of capturing Constantinople and forcing the Ottoman Empire out of the war. The operation failed, so in April, French and British forces, assisted by Australians and New Zealanders, landed in Gallipoli. After months of warfare, they withdrew.

→ Allied fleet
✕ Major battle

7 T E LAWRENCE CAMPAIGNS 1916–18

The tactical guidance of T E Lawrence ensured the success of the Arab Revolt. He directed a guerrilla campaign, using sabotage to blow up the Hejaz railway – a vital Turkish supply route – and took the fort at Aqaba. His forces joined General Sir Edmund Allenby in 1918, playing a crucial role in capturing Ottoman territory.

→ Allied forces under T E Lawrence
⇢ Turkish forces
⋯ Hejaz railway

6 BRITISH CAMPAIGNS 1916–18

After heavy Allied defeats in the Middle East, the tide began to turn. The 1916 Arab Revolt, an uprising against the Ottomans, helped push the Turks out of much of the Arabian Peninsula. Gaza fell in November 1917 and Jerusalem in December. British and Arab armies advanced, capturing the cities of Damascus and Aleppo in October 1918.

→ Allied forces
⇢ Turkish forces
▬ Area of Arab Revolt

5 THE ARMENIAN GENOCIDE 1915–22

Claiming that the Armenians in eastern Anatolia were collaborating with Russian forces, the Turks deported the largely Christian community to the south of the country. There were mass executions and death marches across the Syrian Desert to holding camps. Up to 1.5 million Armenians were killed in the genocide.

→ Deportation routes
⇢ Armenian refugee escape routes

4 CIVIL WAR BREAKS OUT 1917–22

Although the Bolsheviks had gained power, they were a minority in Russia. Lenin started the "Red Terror" – a campaign of intimidation against anyone thought to be a threat to the regime – which was carried out by the new Bolshevik secret police, the Cheka. Meanwhile, a violent civil war broke out between the Bolsheviks (the "Reds") and anti-Bolshevik forces, including the White Army, formed of Tsarist supporters and military officers. Russia's former allies – Britain, France, and the US – supported the Whites, fearing the spread of communism.

3 RUSSIA PULLS OUT OF WORLD WAR I 1917–18

The new Bolshevik government, led by Lenin, signed an armistice with the Central Powers (see p.275) in December 1917. The terms, which were harsh on Russia, were formalized in the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk in March 1918. Russia relinquished control of the Baltic States and the Ukraine, and was forced to pay 6 billion German marks in reparations. Anger at these losses fuelled opposition to the Bolsheviks.

■■ Russian boundary after Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, 1918

2 INDEPENDENT REPUBLICS 1917–21

The Russian Empire was ethnically diverse, and calls for self-determination had been growing among non-Russian nationalities. After the revolution, Finland, Estonia, Poland, Latvia, Lithuania, and Ukraine declared independence, while Armenia, Azerbaijan, and Georgia formed a short-lived republic. Faced with financial crisis and militarily weak, Ukraine and the Caucasus states were later reabsorbed into the USSR.

■ Countries declaring independence from Russia, 1917–18

⚑ Temporarily independent from Russia, 1917–21

Feb 1919–Oct 1920 With growing Bolshevik success in the civil war, Lenin seeks to gain back lost territory in Poland. After initial success, the Bolsheviks are defeated at the Battle of Warsaw

18 Dec 1918 France, an ally of the Whites, enters the civil war by sending troops to Odessa

8 Apr 1919 Allied forces lose Odessa to the Red Army

7–17 Nov 1920 The Siege of Perekop leads to another Red victory, and the Red Army occupy the Crimea

10–13 Apr 1918 At the Battle of Yekaterinodar, the first major battle between the two armies, the commander of the White Army is killed in combat

Mar 1918 Russia moves the state capital to Moscow (from Petrograd), after German soldiers march through Russia virtually unopposed

5–10 Sep 1918 The White Army, allied with the Czechs, suffer a defeat at the Battle of Kazan

16–17 Jul 1918 Tsar Nicholas II is shot by the Bolsheviks, along with his wife, five children, and four royal staff members

Aug 1918 Allied forces offer support to the leader of the White Army, Admiral Alexander Kolchak, who sets up his government in Omsk

5 COSSACK ATTACK 1917–20

The Cossacks, a group who formed self-governing communities, rose to fight against the Bolsheviks, and many anti-Bolsheviks fled to join them in southern Russia. United with the Whites, the Cossacks put the Bolsheviks on the defensive along the Southern Front, wrecking their lines of communication, laying siege to the port city of Tsaritsyn from 1918–20, and briefly occupying the city of Voronezh in September 1919.

■ Don Cossacks   ■ Kuban Cossacks

6 BOLSHEVIK ADVANCES 1917–22

Although the Whites had the support of many countries outside of Russia, the Bolsheviks had a brilliant tactical leader in Leon Trotsky and were better organized. Crucially, they had control of the industrial cities of Moscow and Petrograd, which included much of Russia's railway network. When the civil war ended in October 1922, the Bolsheviks had total control of Russia.

✕ Bolshevik battles   ━ Bolshevik territories, 1919

7 USSR FOUNDED DECEMBER 1922

After the civil war, the country was in tatters. Around 6 million peasants had died from famine between 1921 and 1922, and there was rioting in many cities. Lenin suffered a stroke in May 1922. In December 1922, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) was established, based on one-party rule. Lenin died in 1924, worried about political infighting in his party. His legacy, however, was the world's first socialist state.

■ USSR, 1922

OCTOBER REVOLUTION   OCTOBER 1917

When Lenin returned to Russia in autumn 1917, having been in hiding in Finland, he urged immediate action. The Red Guards seized control of Petrograd, and on 26 October 1917 guards at the Winter Palace – the seat of the Provisional Government – willingly surrendered. Power passed to the Bolsheviks, with Lenin establishing a Marxist one-party state after closing down the Russian Constituent Assembly in January 1918.

● Towns where Bolsheviks gained control

Bering Sea

R

Lena

S

Sea of Okhotsk

May 1918
Allied forces guard the Trans-Siberian Railway to protect their war supplies from Bolshevik attacks and keep the railway running

Lake Baikal

Chita

Blagoveshchensk

Khabarovsk

Jan 1919
Troops from Allied nations are sent to fight with the Whites, largely in Siberia, through the city of Vladivostok

Vladivostok

Ulan Bator

L I A

KOREA

△ **Lenin returns**
A statue of Lenin at Finland Station, in St Petersburg, marks his return from exile and the start of the revolution.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

For centuries, the Russian Empire was ruled by absolute monarchs, or Tsars. However, in one tumultuous year, the people of Russia rose up to topple Tsarist rule. Vladimir Lenin's communist party, the Bolsheviks, took control, and set the stage for the creation of the USSR.

The outbreak of World War I in 1914 briefly united a discontented Russia, but the war did not go well. Huge military losses and food shortages led to increasing resentment against Tsar Nicholas II. On 23 February 1917, a riot broke out in Petrograd, led by women who had waited hours for bread. The riot grew into a general strike. The Tsar was forced to abdicate in March 1917, and a provisional government was put in charge, but it was weak. Meanwhile, the Petrograd Soviet of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies, a council pushing for change, grew in popularity. Lenin, the leader of the Bolshevik faction of the Russian Social Democratic Party, who was in exile for Marxist activities, returned to Russia, convinced it was the time to implement his ideas. However, the Provisional Government leader, Alexander Kerensky, banned the Bolsheviks and ordered the arrest of Lenin, who fled to Finland. By August 1917, the Bolsheviks had taken control of the Petrograd Soviet. Sensing victory, Lenin returned home in the autumn, certain that the Bolsheviks could seize power.

"History will not forgive us if we do not assume power now."

VLADIMIR LENIN, REVOLUTIONARY, SEPTEMBER 1917

LEON TROTSKY
1879–1940

Originally a member of the Mensheviks – a faction of the Russian socialist movement in opposition to the Bolsheviks – Leon Trotsky was in exile in the US for anti-war activities when the Tsar was overthrown in March 1917. He returned to Russia and joined the Bolshevik Party. Trotsky helped to organize the October Revolution and form the Red Army, which he then commanded in the Russian Civil War (1917–22). After Lenin's death in 1924, he clashed with Joseph Stalin. Trotsky was exiled again in 1929 and found asylum in Mexico. In 1940, he was fatally stabbed by a Stalinist assassin.

COUNTRY IN TURMOIL
Russia experienced extreme turbulence from February 1917 to the founding of the USSR in 1922. In a country battered by World War I, the end of the monarchy, revolution, civil war, and famine, Lenin emerged as virtual dictator.

KEY

→ Bolshevik forces
→ Allied forces
⇒ White Army forces
⊨ Railway

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

1917   1918   1919   1920   1921   1922   1923
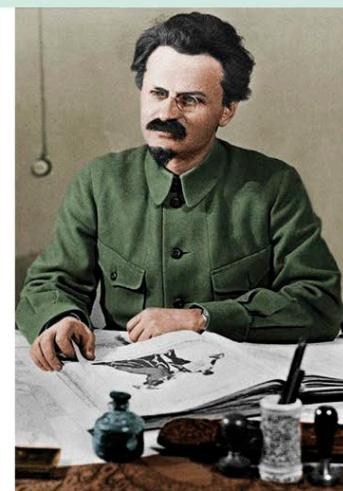
POLITICAL EXTREMISM

World War I left a poisonous legacy. Several nations – including Germany, Italy, and Spain – looked for solutions to their problems in political extremism.

△ **The birth of fascism**
Charismatic Italian dictator Benito Mussolini inspired thousands at mass rallies. His stiff-armed salute became a symbol of fascism.

After World War I, Europe saw a rise in communism, triggering the emergence of extreme right-wing groups. People turned to leaders willing to assume political authority, and Benito Mussolini, who coined the term "fascism" to describe his right-wing movement, became Italy's military dictator in 1922.

Mussolini's mass rallies and use of propaganda influenced Adolf Hitler, the rising star of Germany's Right, and leader of the National Socialist German Workers (Nazi) Party, which was openly racist, anti-Semitic, and anti-communist. The 1930s became a period of extreme turbulence. The Great Depression (see pp.286–87) led to a global economic crisis. Both communism and fascism offered answers to hungry, unemployed people. Authoritarian governments came to power in central and eastern Europe, and democracy was in decline.

Crisis and conflict

In Germany, as Nazi groups battled communists and against a backdrop of economic crisis, Hitler assumed power in 1933. The Spanish Civil War (see pp.292–93) epitomized the antipathy between fascists and the left. Italy and Germany supported fascist General Francisco Franco and used the war to test new weapons and strategies against the Republican government, which was supported with supplies and advisers by the USSR. Europe was once again choosing sides and forming alliances.

▷ **Bombing Guernica**
The bombing of the Basque town of Guernica, Spain, on 26 April 1937 during the Spanish Civil War was carried out by the Nazis in support of General Francisco Franco.

"The truth is that men are tired of liberty."

BENITO MUSSOLINI, ITALIAN DICTATOR, 1934

The rise of the Nazis
Nazi leader Adolf Hitler addresses a rally of paramilitary SA (*Sturmabteilung*) troops in Germany in 1933. Such larger-than-life displays built up support for the Nazi Party to fever pitch.

6 IRELAND 1916–22

The outbreak of World War I interrupted a political crisis in Britain over Ireland's future. The failure to resolve this crisis first caused a wartime insurrection (the Easter Rising, 1916), then a War of Independence (1919–21), when Irish separatists fought to establish an independent Irish Republic. The partition of Ireland in 1922 into Northern Ireland and the Irish Free State led to further unrest.

■ Irish Free State, 1922

7 GERMAN LOSSES 1918–19

The terms set out against Germany by the 1919 Treaty of Versailles were punitive. One-eighth of its pre-war territory was lost, including land in Poland, Denmark, Belgium, and France. It was stripped of its colonial possessions, its armed forces were reduced, and its merchant fleet confiscated. Germany was made to pay war reparations, provoking bitter, long-lasting resentment.

— German border, 1918

1920 Russia recognizes Finnish independence in the Treaty of Tartu

1922 Ireland is divided into two parts: the six mainly Protestant counties of Ulster become Northern Ireland, and are subordinate to London

NORTHERN IRELAND

IRISH FREE STATE

ATLANTIC OCEAN

1921 Under the Treaty of Riga, Russia pledges to respect Latvia's independence

1920 Estonia is liberated from Russia following the Estonian War of Independence

1923 The borders of Poland are finally settled

1920 A peace treaty is signed between Lithuania and Soviet Russia after the Lithuanian War of Independence

1918 The region of Bessarabia is added to Romania

North Sea

DENMARK

BRITAIN

NETHERLANDS

BELGIUM RUHR

LUXEMBOURG

SAAR

ALSACE-LORRAINE

FRANCE

GERMANY

EAST PRUSSIA

POLAND

UPPER SILESIA

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

SWEDEN

FINLAND

ESTONIA

LATVIA

LITHUANIA

Baltic Sea

5 COLLAPSE AND DIVISION OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY 1918–23

After the Habsburg regime collapsed in 1918, new national states were created in Austria, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia. Habsburg territories were also absorbed by the new states of Poland and Yugoslavia. The Austrian army was restricted and reparations imposed, and Hungary lost two-thirds of its old land, principally to Yugoslavia and Romania.

■ Austria-Hungary border, 1914

SWITZERLAND

SOUTH TYROL

1919 Treaty of St-Germain sets the borders for the new state of Austria

AUSTRIA HUNGARY

TRANSYLVANIA

ROMANIA

BESSARABIA

4 PALESTINE 1922–47

In 1922, the British were formally given the mandate to govern the region, having pledged to establish a home for Jews in Palestine. The Arabs rose up against the British, and many were killed in the Arab Revolt (1936–39). The influx of Jewish refugees from Nazi-occupied territories, and the suggestion from the United Nations that Palestine be divided into Arab and Jewish states, exacerbated tensions. Civil war broke out in 1947 (see pp.332–33).

— Mandatory Palestine, 1922

SPAIN

ITALY

YUGOSLAVIA

ALBANIA

BULGARIA

1918 The Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes is formed from parts of the old Austro-Hungarian Empire and Serbia. It is renamed Yugoslavia in 1929

GREECE

EASTERN THRACE

Smyrna

1919 Greece occupies Smyrna, leading to war between Greece and Turkey

Crete

Dodecanese

Mediterranean Sea

3 TURKEY 1922–23

The Turkish War of Independence (1919–22) saw Atatürk and a rebel army fight against the Ottoman sultan and the proxies of the Allied forces. Following the nationalists' victory, a new government was set up in Ankara, and the Treaty of Sèvres was abandoned. The Treaty of Lausanne (1923) legitimized the newly independent Turkish Republic and marked the end of the Ottoman Empire.

■ Turkey after Treaty of Sèvres, 1920
■ Annexed by Turkey, 1921
■ Restored to Turkey after Treaty of Lausanne, 1923

2 BRITISH AND FRENCH MANDATES 1920–46

The Treaty of Sèvres, signed in August 1920, divided parts of the defeated Ottoman Empire into British and French control. The Ottoman government accepted the treaty. However, it was rejected by Turkish nationalists, led by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, who were determined to drive out foreign armies. In Egypt (a British protectorate) the diminishing British military presence after the war allowed the nationalist Wafd Party to launch a revolution. Limited independence was gained in February 1922.

■ French mandate
■ British mandate
■ British protectorate

1922 The growing popular support of the nationalist Wafd Party prompts Britain to grant Egypt limited independence

EGYPT

AFTER WORLD WAR I

The post-war period saw territorial winners and losers. Russia lost the most, with Germany close behind. Many of the old empires had fallen, except for Britain and France, which retained influence and colonies worldwide.

KEY

New states

National borders, 1923

TIMELINE

	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					

△ **The Wafd Party**
Members of the Egyptian nationalist party, the Wafd Party, gather in 1936. The party was instrumental in gaining independence.

RUSSIAN LOSSES 1918–22

The Bolshevik regime could not hold on to its new empire. In the 1918 Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, Russia recognized the independence of the Baltic States, Ukraine, Georgia, and Finland. Ukraine and Georgia both joined the USSR in 1922, and the Baltic States did not achieve true independence until the 1920s.

Russian border, 1918

1915–22 Over 1.5 million Armenians living in Turkey are killed by Turkish nationalists; in September 1922, the Turkish Army enters Smyrna, setting fires and massacring many Armenians, and forcing others to leave the city forever

1920 The Transjordan region is made into a League of Nations mandate to be administered by Britain

1920s Anti-Jewish riots in 1920, 1921, and 1929 reveal the failure of British security forces to maintain order

1920 An uprising against the British briefly unites Sunni and Shia Muslims; more than 100,000 British and Indian troops are deployed to quell the revolt, and thousands of Arabs are killed

USSR

Black Sea

TURKEY

TURKISH ARMENIA

Lake Van

TURKISH KURDISTAN

Anatolia

Adana

Cyprus

LEBANON

SYRIA

Baghdad

PERSIA

IRAQ

Persian Gulf

KUWAIT
to Britain

PALESTINE

Jerusalem

TRANSJORDAN

NEJD

AFTERMATH OF THE GREAT WAR

By the end of World War I, the political landscape of Europe and the Middle East had changed forever. Centuries-old empires and dynasties had collapsed, borders were redrawn, new nation-states created, and the seeds of future conflict were sown.

World War I had a profound effect on global politics, bringing to an end three powerful monarchies – Germany, Russia, and Austria-Hungary. The victorious Allies assembled at the 1919 Paris Peace Conference to draw up a settlement. The main result was the Treaty of Versailles, which punished Germany harshly. Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria also suffered losses, while Italy, which had entered the war in 1915, was given former Habsburg lands in northern Italy. Also to gain were nine new nation-states created in Europe. The Middle East was also hugely impacted by the war. In 1916, the Sykes-Picot Agreement set out the intention to divide the Ottoman Empire's Middle Eastern territory between British and French zones of control. In many areas, the act of being placed under British or French control in 1920 fuelled nationalist sentiments.

The victors of World War I hoped to build a lasting peace, but disputes rumbled on across the globe, and mass unemployment, bitter ideological divisions, fanatical nationalism, and the threat of communism created escalating international tension.

> *"This [the Treaty of Versailles] is not peace. It is an armistice for 20 years."*
>
> FERDINAND FOCH, FRENCH GENERAL, 28 JUNE 1919

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS
1920–46

Proposed by US President Woodrow Wilson, the League of Nations was an international organization set up in Geneva in 1920 to preserve peace. Conflict was to be settled by negotiation, diplomacy, and, if necessary, sanctions. The league relied on international goodwill, but Germany and Russia were excluded, and the US Senate refused to ratify US membership. In 1946, the league was replaced by the United Nations.

President Wilson arrives in Italy to discuss founding the League of Nations.

THE GREAT DEPRESSION

The US stock market crash in October 1929 was part of a worldwide economic recession that crippled the future of an entire generation. As people lost faith in democracy, new extremist politics gained popularity, setting the stage for the horrors of World War II.

The US recovered quickly after World War I. Factories used in the war effort switched to making consumer goods, and industrial growth doubled in the 1920s. Thousands of Americans invested in the stock market, often using borrowed money. A boom time, it became known as the "Roaring Twenties". However, by mid-1929 there were signs of trouble. Unemployment was rising, and car sales had dipped. The crisis broke on 24 October, when the stock market dropped by 11 per cent. Panic set in, and over the next 6 days the market crashed. One-quarter of the US working population became unemployed. In mid-1932, Franklin Roosevelt replaced Herbert Hoover as president and pledged a "New Deal" of social and economic reforms.

The Great Depression spread around the globe, leading to massive poverty. The only country not adversely affected was the USSR. In Germany, the US's demand for outstanding loans to be repaid further impoverished the country, fuelling the popularity of Adolf Hitler's National Socialist (Nazi) Party.

> *"There may be a recession in stock prices, but not anything in the nature of a crash."*
>
> IRVING FISHER, US ECONOMIST, 5 SEPTEMBER 1929

THE DUST BOWL

In 1932, severe droughts hit the US from Texas to the Dakotas. Exposed topsoil turned to dust, and without windbreaks, such as trees, high winds churned the dust into huge storms. Settlers and livestock choked on the dirt. Farmers, already hit by the Great Depression, were forced to migrate west to California, where regular harvests meant more jobs. Many rode along Route 66, which became known as the "road to opportunity".

KEY

- Area of severe damage
- Other areas damaged by dust storms
- → Migration route

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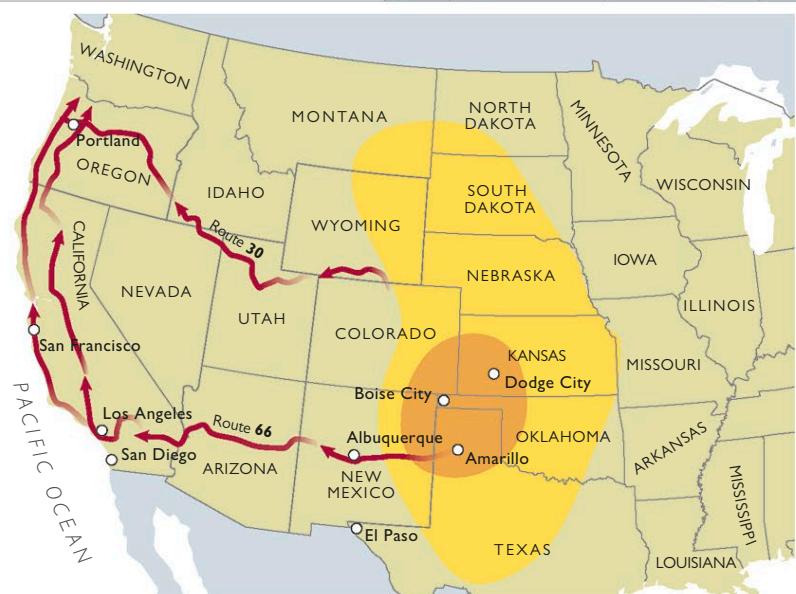
1 STOCK MARKET CRASH AND STRIKES 1929–34

Approximately US$25 billion was lost in the 1929 crash. People became bankrupt, factories closed, trade collapsed, wages fell, and homelessness soared. There were strikes and riots across the country as workers sought protection offered by the unions, as well as greater involvement of the US government in the economy.

▪ Strikes

May–Jul 1934 Dock workers go on strike at ports in San Francisco, as well as all other west coast ports, shutting down about 3,200 km (2,000 miles) of coastline

Oct 1929 The financial bubble bursts and panic hits Wall Street, New York; banks close, bankrupting millions overnight

1931–32 Miners strike in Harlan County, Kentucky; like many strikes at the time, it turns violent

Jul–Aug 1934 Textile workers strike in Huntsville, Alabama; the strike spreads from the south of the country to the north, becoming one of the biggest industrial strikes in US history

2 LATIN AMERICA 1929–33

After the crash, some of Latin America saw a drop of over 70 per cent in exports to the US. In Colombia, this hit its coffee, banana, and oil markets. Brazil's coffee economy also suffered. In Cuba, reliant on its sugar exports, the impact was devastating. Chile, which exported nitrate and copper, was one of the worst-hit countries. Argentina and Venezuela, however, recovered relatively quickly.

1931–32 In Chile, copper exports collapse, and the value of sodium nitrate exports to the US drops from $21 million to $1.4 million

1929–30 In Argentina, exports of wheat and beef drop by more than two-thirds and inflation increases; subsequent political instability leads to a military dictatorship

5 RISE OF THE NAZI PARTY 1929–33

Burdened by the debt of US loans, Germany was destroyed by the Great Depression. In July 1930, Chancellor Brüning cut unemployment pay and wages. When the opposition objected, President Hindenburg used Article 48 to pass the measures by decree. New elections were called, and Adolf Hitler's Nazi Party seized their chance to campaign. Although they lost the 1932 election, Hitler became chancellor in 1933.

4 USSR 1929–33

A communist nation, the USSR's isolationist economic policies protected it from the shocks of international capitalism. The West's interlinked economy meant that a decline in one country's economy created a disastrous ripple effect; the USSR's closed economy, however, meant it was not affected by other countries. In fact, the USSR experienced rapid industrial growth under Stalin's Five-Year Plans (see pp.290–91), and the ambitious targets set for factories by the government ensured that employment was high.

Oct 1936 200 men from the Jarrow dockyards in northeast England march to London to protest unemployment

USSR

UNITED KINGDOM
SWEDEN
London
BELGIUM
FRANCE
GERMANY
AUSTRIA
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
ITALY
SPAIN

MANCHURIA

PEOPLE'S
REPUBLIC
OF CHINA

JAPAN

1931 The collapse of foreign trade leads Japan to invade Manchuria for its natural resources

ATLANTIC OCEAN

NIGERIA

1929–34 In Nigeria, exports such as cocoa and groundnuts drop by over 50 per cent

3 AUSTRALIA 1929–32

In the late 1920s, Australia was already suffering from a prolonged deterioration in trade caused by a fall in the prices of wool and wheat. It had large foreign debts and increasing unemployment. During the Great Depression, the economy collapsed. By mid-1932, 32 per cent of Australians were out of work.

Mar 1932 The new Sydney Harbour Bridge opens after 9 years of construction. It is a rare triumph during the Great Depression, as it spares many men in the city from unemployment

AUSTRALIA

Sydney

◁ **Migrant pea-pickers**
Many migrants fled to California in the 1930s, hoping to secure work and food. However, there were not enough jobs for everyone, and those who were employed were often badly treated.

BOOM AND BUST

The financial crash in the US was not an isolated event. As the US reduced its spending, demand for imported goods fell. Unemployment rose in countries that exported to the US, as businesses cut costs by reducing employees. With falling incomes, demand for goods in these countries declined, and the cycle continued.

KEY

	Percentage decline in exports
■	-70+
■	-65
■	-60
■	-55
■	-50
■	-45
■	-40
■	-35

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5

1925   1930   1935   1940

2 BREAKDOWN OF THE ALLIANCE 1927–36

In the early 1920s, the USSR supported the KMT, seeing it as part of an anti-imperialist revolution. In 1923, they ordered the CCP to join the KMT, but a bitter rivalry between the parties remained. After a temporary alliance, in 1927 Chiang dismissed his Soviet advisors and then turned against the CCP in a savage attack in Shanghai. It marked the beginning of years of violence between the parties.

✊ Clashes between the CCP and KMT, with date

1 THE NORTHERN EXPEDITION 1926–28

Outside the few KMT-controlled provinces, China was ruled by regional warlords. Led by Chiang Kai-shek, and supported by communist USSR, the KMT and CCP combined forces and advanced northwards from Guangzhou to unify China in a campaign known as the Northern Expedition. During the first phase, they seized wealthy and heavily populated southern, central, and eastern areas.

→ Northern Expedition, 1926–28

NATIONALIST CHINA, 1926–37

The Kuomintang (KMT) seized vast amounts of territory from 1926, but their control was challenged by both domestic and international forces keen to seize land.

3 CHINESE REUNIFICATION 1928

During the second stage of the Northern Expedition some warlords allied themselves with the KMT. This new support allowed the KMT to capture the city of Beijing. The Kuomintang became the single most powerful force in China, and Chiang Kai-shek was made president of the Republic of China in 1928.

■ Kuomintang control by 1928

→ Warlords joining the Northern Expedition

▽ **Chiang Kai-shek**
Following the death of its founder, Sun Yat-sen, Chiang Kai-shek became the leader of the KMT in 1926. He attempted to modernize China but struggled to do so in a country beset by internal strife and constant threat from Japan.

1912–45 Chiang is unable to capture Shanxi, which is in the hands of the warlord Yan Xishan; however, in 1927, Yan briefly forms an alliance with Chiang

8 Jun 1928 Beijing falls; an important victory that brings the far north under KMT control

Mar 1927 Captured by Chiang's forces, Nanjing is made the new capital of the Republic of China

12 Apr 1927 Shanghai

20 Apr 1929 Wuhan, which was set up as a capital by rival left-wing elements of the KMT, is captured by Chiang's troops

1 Aug 1927 Nanchang

13 Sep 1927 Changsa

9 Dec 1927 Canton (Guangzhou)

9 Dec 1927 A violent communist uprising occurs after the KMT cuts its alliance with the CCP

4 INCOMPLETE UNIFICATION 1931–37

Despite the success of the Northern Expedition, China was only partly unified. Chiang was unable to defeat all the warlords, especially in the north. Faced with the Japanese invasion of Manchuria in September 1931, he became determined to eliminate domestic conflict. From 1935–37, Chiang brought more provinces under the influence of the Republic of China.

■ Japanese control by 1936

■ Kuomintang control by 1937

Map labels

MONGOLIA
CHAHAR
SUIYUAN
SHANXI
ZHILI
NINGXIA
SHAANXI
GANSU
QINGHAI
Lanzhou
Xi'an
CHINA
CHUANBIAN
SICHUAN
Chongqing
YUNNAN
GUIZHOU
GUANGXI
Guilin
BURMA
FRENCH INDO-CHINA
HAINAN
GUANGDONG
HUNAN
Changsa
JIANGXI
Nanchang
HUBEI
Wuhan
HENAN
Zhengzhou
Taiyuan
Beijing
Jinan
SHANDONG
JIANGSU
Nanjing
ANHUI
Hangzhou
ZHEJIANG
Fuzhou
FUJIAN
Shantou
Canton (Guangzhou)
KIRIN
MANCHUKUO (MANCHURIA)
Mukden (Shenyang)
JEHOL
FENGTIAN
KOREA
Yellow Sea
East China Sea
Taiwan
Shanghai

CHINA AND NATIONALISM

When its last emperor abdicated in 1912 (see pp.252–53), China was torn apart as warlords and China's Nationalist Party rushed to fill the void. After Japan was given territory in China in 1919, political unrest grew, leading to the emergence of the Communist Party. Years of fighting between the two parties and Japan followed, which carried on during the wider conflict of World War II.

The years following the fall of the Qing dynasty were tumultuous. Regional warlords fought among themselves for territory, and the Nationalist Party, the Kuomintang (KMT) (Guomindang in modern Pinyin), which had helped to overthrow the Qing dynasty, battled them for control. After Japan was given land in China following the Paris Peace Conference (1919), a radical group known as the May Fourth Movement demanded change, and the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) emerged.

In 1924, the KMT set up a government in Guangzhou and built up an army. In 1926, the new leader, Chiang Kai-shek, then began a military campaign to crush the warlords and unite China. The CCP initially helped but in 1927, fearing a power struggle, Chiang turned against them, massacring communists in Shanghai. This outburst led to years of civil war (see pp.310–11). The KMT and the CCP came to an uneasy truce in 1937 when Japan invaded the country and began seizing territory.

CHINA
During the first half of the 20th century, China experienced constant turbulence, with battles fought against regional warlords in attempts to unify the vast nation, frequent struggles between the nationalist and communist parties, and the ever-present threat of Japanese invasion.

TIMELINE

1925 — 1930 — 1935 — 1940 — 1945

---

5 IMPERIAL EXPANSION 1931–32
Japan, which had limited land and natural resources, saw China as key to its imperialist ambitions. As China now appeared weak and fragmented, Japan launched a series of invasions to capture territory, annexing Manchuria in September 1931. From here they sought control of the whole of northern China.

■ Japanese control before Sep 1931

■ Captured by Japanese, Sep 1931–Feb 1932

1 Mar 1932 Chinese resistance is sporadic, and by March 1932 Japan has total control of Manchuria, which becomes a puppet state called Manchukuo

18 Sep 1931 Japanese soldiers blow up a strip of Japanese-controlled railway near Mukden. They blame the Chinese, and use it as a reason to invade Manchuria

JAPAN IN CHINA
Japan's rapid industrialization required access to raw materials overseas. It looked to China to expand its empire, and was a constant military aggressor from 1931–45.

17 Apr–25 May 1944 Japan launches its largest military campaign in China – *Operation Ichi-Go* – to link its occupied territories, starting in Henan

Nov 1937–May 1946 Chongqing is the provisional capital of the KMT during the Second Sino-Japanese War

Dec 1937–Jan 1938 Japanese soldiers brutally attack the Chinese population of Nanjing. 260,000–350,000 people are killed and 20,000–80,000 women are raped

28 Jan–3 Mar 1932 Japanese forces bomb Shanghai and the city is briefly occupied
13 Aug–16 Nov 1937 Shanghai is attacked by the Japanese air force. Thousands flee to the countryside

11 Jun–27 Oct 1938 Despite cooperation between the KMT and CCP, Japan wins the Battle of Wuhan, but suffers huge casualties

6 SECOND SINO-JAPANESE WAR 1937–45
In July 1937, following a clash between local Chinese soldiers and Japanese forces in Beijing, full-scale war erupted. Japan seized swathes of northern and eastern China, including the KMT capital, Nanjing, installing puppet regimes. By 1941, much of central China was also under Japanese occupation. Although lacking training and equipment, Chinese nationalists refused to surrender.

→ Japanese advance

■ Japanese control by 1941

■ Japanese control by 1945

7 SECOND UNITED FRONT 1936–41
In 1936, the KMT and CCP formed a second united front following the Xi'an Incident, where Chiang was kidnapped by members of his own party and forced into an alliance. It was a fragile truce, but it meant Chiang had gained allies in the resistance against the Japanese invasion. The parties fought together at the battles at Taiyun (1937) and Wuhan (1938).

■ Region under communist control, 1940

→ Communist offensive against Japanese, 1940

Map labels
MANCHUKUO (MANCHURIA)
Mukden (Shenyang)
Sea of Japan
KOREA
JAPAN
Yellow Sea
Baotou
Beijing
Taiyuan
Yan'an
Lanzhou
Xi'an
Nanjing
Shanghai
Wuhan
Hangzhou
Yangtze
Chongqing
CHINA
East China Sea
Fuzhou
Amoy
Taiwan
Liuzhou
Canton (Guangzhou)
Shantou
Nanning
Hong Kong
BURMA
FRENCH INDO-CHINA
HAINAN

1 GULAGS 1917–53

Gulags – concentration camps for prisoners – were created under Lenin but proliferated under Stalin. They housed a range of convicts, who were exploited to open up remote and forbidding areas of the country, such as the Arctic north and the Siberian east. The population of the gulag camps reached its height in the late 1940s, but the system was run down under Stalin's successors.

✖ Gulag ▬ Isolation camp region

2 COLLECTIVIZATION 1927–53

Stalin deemed Soviet agricultural methods outdated, as they produced too little food for a growing urban population. From 1927, Stalin instigated collectivization, uniting small farms into larger collectives. Food production eventually grew and labour was freed for industry. Few farms volunteered, and terror was used to coerce them into handing over their land. Millions were starved, persecuted, or sent to gulags. By 1939, 99 per cent of land was collectivized.

3 INDUSTRIALIZATION 1928–53

Stalin's main ambition was industrialization on a massive scale. Over 12 million people moved from rural areas to the new factories and towns that had been built or extensively remodelled between 1928–32. They were attracted by the promise of higher wages and training. Life for workers was brutal, but Stalin achieved his goal; under the first Five-Year Plan, which ended in 1934, there was a 50 per cent increase in industrial output.

● New or remodelled towns

Nov 1923 The Solovki prison camp is opened on an island in the White Sea. Political opponents and criminals are incarcerated here

Mar 1918 Fearing invasion from the West, Lenin moves the capital city further east, to Moscow. It undergoes extensive modernization, including the building of the Metro system

1945 After World War I, Kiev becomes a major industrial centre

1921 Novosibirsk is reconstructed after damage done by the Russian Civil War. It becomes the major industrial centre in Siberia

1929 Under Stalin's Five-Year Plans, iron ore-rich Magnitogorsk is extensively remodelled and becomes a one-industry city

1931 Karlag is one of the largest labour camps. Its prisoners include scientists, doctors, artists, and political figures

◁ **"No room for kulaks"**
This Soviet poster from 1930 denounces kulaks as the opponents of the collective farm. People were encouraged to believe that kulaks were the enemy of the working class.

4 FAMINE 1932–33

Grain grown on the collectives was given to the city workforce, leaving little for rural peasants. Hardest hit by famine was the north Caucasus, the Volga region, southern Russia, central Russian Asia, and above all the Ukraine, known as the Soviet "breadbasket". Millions died in the Holodomor ("hunger death"), as Stalin used famine to break Ukrainian resistance to farm reform.

❀ Famine

5 DEPORTATIONS 1942–45

Stalin enforced mass deportations of entire peoples deemed "anti-Soviet". These groups were relocated to underpopulated, inhospitable areas of the country. During World War II, he deported about a dozen nationalities from western regions of the USSR to central Asia, accusing them of collaboration with the invading Nazi army.

➤ Deportations, 1942–45

▬ Areas depopulated by deportations

1922 A series of gulags is set up in the Kolyma region, an area rich in gold and tin

ARCTIC OCEAN

KOLYMA

Yakutsk

Siberia

YUZHSIBLAG

Lake Baikal

SAKHALIN

BURLAG

MANCHURIA

Vladivostok

GOLIA

JAPAN

NORTH KOREA

Dairen

SOUTH KOREA

N

A

THE SOVIET UNION UNDER STALIN

Under Stalin's rule, Russia was transformed. Entire peoples were relocated, land was taken from eastern Europe, and industrialized areas grew across the country.

KEY

■ Pre-World War II Soviet territory

■ Pre-World War II satellite states

■ Territory annexed to USSR, 1939–40

■ Territory annexed to USSR, 1944–45

■ Post-World War II satellite states

TIMELINE

	1915	1925	1935	1945	1955
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					

SOVIET UNION UNDER STALIN

With civil war at an end by 1922, Joseph Stalin had ambitions to transform the newly formed Soviet Union into an industrialized, modern society. He achieved extraordinary economic growth for Russia but became one of the most brutal tyrants of the 20th century.

After the death of Vladimir Lenin in 1924, Stalin manipulated his way to becoming leader of the USSR. Stalin wanted to transform the country into an international power, but this required rapid industrial growth. To achieve this, he launched a series of Five-Year Plans, starting in 1928. He began by taking farms from wealthy peasant landowners (kulaks), combining them into vast farms to be run collectively, providing more crops for the population. When these measures were resisted, he unleashed a wave of terror across the countryside. Millions of kulaks were deported, sent to labour camps, or deliberately starved when their grain was seized.

Ever fearful of dissent, Stalin launched a campaign of terror from 1936–38 to wipe out anyone who might oppose him. During this "Great Terror", the gulag concentration camp system was expanded, with hundreds of thousands executed after a brief trial. Meanwhile, Stalin promoted himself as the "Father of the People". He rallied his troops against a German invasion in World War II (see pp.296–97), and after the war he expanded communism beyond the USSR. By the 1950s, a modern Russia had emerged, but at a terrible cost.

"The death of one man is a tragedy. The death of a million is a statistic."

JOSEPH STALIN, LEADER OF THE USSR

JOSEPH STALIN
1878–1953

Joseph Stalin began his rise to power in 1905 when he befriended Vladimir Lenin. His political career was quite unpredictable; in 1917 he had been a minor figure in the Bolshevik Revolution, but when he was made General Secretary of the Party in 1922 he used this role to expand his power. Once leader, he set about making the USSR a great industrial power. He used propaganda to build a cult of personality, which reached its peak during World War II when he led the USSR to victory over Germany. After the war, Stalin led the USSR into a Cold War with its former allies.

THE SPANISH CIVIL WAR

The Spanish Civil War (1936–39) epitomized the struggle between the old and new political orders. A prequel to World War II, it ushered in a new and horrific form of warfare that would come to define future conflicts in the 20th century.

Spain in the 1930s was a divided country, split between Church and State, rich and poor, town and countryside. Politics was also polarized. On one side was the left-wing Popular Front (Republicans), made up of socialists, communists, liberals, and anarchists. On the other side was the right-wing National Front (Nationalists), supported by the Falange (a Spanish fascist party), monarchists, and some Catholics.

On 16 February 1936, the Republicans narrowly won a general election. Fearing a communist revolution, General Francisco Franco, a career army officer and one of the Nationalist leaders, launched a military uprising in Spanish Morocco and across southwestern Spain. Pro-government groups rallied against the Nationalist rebels, but Franco received significant help from Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy, both keen to stop the spread of communism in Europe. By November 1936, Franco's troops had made it to the outskirts of Madrid, where support for the Republicans was strong. Unable to capture the city, the Nationalists laid siege to Madrid for two and a half years.

The Republicans continued to control eastern Spain and much of the southeast. However, Franco's forces were better coordinated, and areas under Republican control gradually shrank. The Nationalist victory at the Battle of Teruel (December 1937– February 1938) was a turning point in the war, and at the Battle of the Ebro (July–November 1938) the Republican troops were all but wiped out. By spring 1939, the bitter conflict was over, and Franco's government was recognized by most of Europe.

> *"Better to die on one's feet than to live on one's knees."*
>
> DOLORES IBARRURI, REPUBLICAN, 18 JULY 1936

GENERAL FRANCO
1892–1975

Born into a military family, General Francisco Franco became the youngest general in the Spanish Army in 1926. Franco led the Nationalist forces to victory in the Spanish Civil War, and then became the head of state in Spain from 1939 until his death in 1975. Although he sympathized with the Axis powers, Franco kept Spain out of World War II, and under his rule the country became more industrialized and prosperous. However, he was a ruthless military dictator who presided over a totalitarian regime.

1 THE START OF THE WAR   JULY 1936

The Civil War began on 17 July 1936 when Nationalist forces based in Spanish Morocco launched a coup against the newly elected Republican government. Franco assumed command of the Army of Africa – a Moroccan-based group of professional soldiers – on 19 July. From 27 July, Franco's army was flown from Morocco to Spain by German and Italian forces, and fighting soon spread through southwest Spain.

→ Nationalist forces

┅▸ Republican forces

✕ Major battles

2 FOREIGN INTERVENTION   SEPTEMBER 1936

A total of 27 countries, including Britain, France, the USSR, Germany, and Italy, signed a non-intervention pact in September 1936. However, the ideological nature of the war gave it an international element. The Nationalists were aided by soldiers and equipment supplied by Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany. The Republicans were supported by the communist governments of Russia and Mexico, as well as by volunteers from International Brigades. These were groups of left-wing fighters who came from all over the world to fight in a war they saw as a struggle against extreme nationalism and tyranny.

🚢 German support

🚢 Italian support

🚢 USSR support

22 Aug 1936 Portugal allows German ships to dock at Lisbon and from there dispatch war supplies into Nationalist territory

Porto

Lisbon

PORTUGAL

3 CIVILIAN ATROCITIES   1936–39

During the course of the war, both sides committed atrocities against civilians. The Republicans targeted anyone believed to be right wing, including teachers, lawyers, mayors, and landowners. Hatred of the Church meant that many churches were ransacked. Meanwhile, in Guernica, Franco's forces undertook a brutal attack on civilians from the air. This extreme violence stunned the international community.

✝ Republican violence

🖐 Nationalist violence

▽ **Preparing to attack**
Republican soldiers prepare mortar shells to fire at the Nationalist army in 1936. The Nationalists were organized and well-armed.

F R A N C E

26 Apr 1937 Guernica is bombed by Italian and German aircraft on Franco's orders. The war is captured by photojournalists, and images of the devastation spread abroad

Mar 1937 Franco switches his focus to attacking the industrial areas of northern Spain, such as the Basque region, a Republican stronghold

Gijón

Oviedo

Santander

Guernica

San Sebastián

Bilbao

BASQUE COUNTRY

ANDORRA

León

Summer 1936 Spanish-Portuguese border is the point of entry for many supplies

Burgos

25 Jul–16 Nov 1938 At the Battle of Ebro, the Republicans are all but wiped out as a fighting force

Ebro

CATALONIA

1–6 Nov 1936 Republican leader General José Valeria reaches Madrid on 1 November. He is followed by the German Luftwaffe 5 days later, and the Siege of Madrid begins

Valladolid

Duero

Saragossa

Barcelona

Belchite

Tarragona

6 May 1937 Infighting among Republicans leads to prominent anarchists being murdered. Rioting breaks out

14 Aug 1936 German planes bring Franco's troops into southern Spain, where they advance to Badajoz, where thousands of civilians are machine-gunned inside a bullring

Salamanca

6–27 Feb 1937 Jarama

8 Mar 1937 Guadalajara

6–25 Jul 1937 Brunete

Madrid

15 Apr 1939 Vinaròs

Teruel

22 Feb 1938 Nationalists retake the town of Teruel – a bitter blow for the Republicans

Menorca

Tagus

27 Mar 1939 The Nationalists enter Madrid. On 1 April, Franco announces the end of hostilities

Cáceres

Toledo

Castellón de la Plana

Mérida

27 Sep 1936 Nationalists take the Republican stronghold of Toledo, 65 km (40 miles) from Madrid, boosting morale

Valencia

Palma

Majorca

Badajoz

S P A I N

Albacete

5 Jan–4 Feb 1939 Valsequillo

Ibiza

Córdoba

Lopera

Many men joining the International Brigade go to the main training base at Albacete

Alicante

Huelva

Seville

Cartagena

4 THE END OF THE WAR MARCH–APRIL 1939

By May 1937, internal conflict had broken out within the Republican groups in Barcelona. Losses at the battles of Teruel and Ebro further weakened the Republican army, and on 26 January 1939, Franco's army seized Barcelona. Following further Nationalist victories in Catalonia and Vinaròs, the Republic was all but destroyed. The Nationalists marched into Madrid on 27 March 1939, and Franco declared the war over on 1 April.

✕ Major battles

6 Aug 1936 Franco arrives in Seville

Granada

Almería

Oct 1936–Apr 1939 The USSR sends support to the Republicans, including tanks and weapons, to the port of Cartagena

Cádiz

3–8 Feb 1937 Málaga

Dec 1936 Fascist Italy sends supplies to Nationalist rebels, which reach Spain through Cádiz

Tangier

M e d i t e r r a n e a n S e a

Oct 1936–Apr 1939 Huelva and Cádiz are the main ports for German supplies to the Nationalists

NATIONALISM VS SOCIALISM

Franco's Nationalist forces initially gained territory in Spanish Morocco and southwestern Spain, and gradually captured predominantly conservative farming areas of the north by 1937. They seized Republican Catalonia by 1939, cutting off Barcelona from Madrid, and ensuring their victory.

KEY

■ Nationalist land, Jul 1936

■ Nationalist gains, Oct 1937

■ Nationalist gains, Jul 1938

■ Nationalist gains, Feb 1939

■ Republican forces, Feb 1939

■ Temporary independence border

S P A N I S H

M O R O C C O

18 Jul 1936 By the evening, the Nationalist army controls all of Spanish Morocco, and then invades Spain. Fighting soon spreads to Cádiz, Seville, and Málaga

TIMELINE

1					
2					
3					
4					

1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940

WORLD WAR II

A European and Asian conflict that became a global war, World War II (1939–45) was the most brutal conflict in history, engulfing the world in a struggle over ideology and national sovereignty. It was also the costliest war in terms of human life – at least 55 million people were killed, in battle, concentration camps, and in bombed-out cities. The war marked a watershed in world history.

The treaties that were meant to bring peace after World War I (see pp. 274–75) sowed the seeds for future conflict. Germany was made to pay substantial war reparations. In 1923, the currency collapsed, impoverishing millions, and in 1929–32, the Great Depression (see pp.286–87) plunged Germany into severe recession. Here, and elsewhere in Europe, people were disenchanted with liberal politics and weak governments that polarized political opinion into the Right and Left. Right-wing politics prevailed in Italy, Germany, and Japan – known collectively as the Axis powers, although each had its own ambitions for territorial expansion.

The Axis aggression

Japan invaded Manchuria and from there attacked the rest of China; Italy overran Abyssinia (modern Ethiopia); and in Germany, Adolf Hitler pursued his plans to unite all German-speaking people in one country. In March 1938, Germany annexed Austria. The German-speaking districts of Czechoslovakia – the Sudetenland – were occupied next. In September 1939, Hitler invaded Poland, convinced that Britain and France would do nothing. To his surprise, both countries declared war.

The invasion of Poland lasted just over a month. Hitler put aside his hatred of communists to work in cooperation with the Soviets, who attacked Poland from the east. The world watched in shock as Germany attacked Denmark and Norway, then France, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Within 6 weeks, France had fallen. Hitler then turned his sights on Britain. His plans to invade were abandoned, however, after the *Luftwaffe* – the German air force – failed to win the Battle of Britain (1940).

Total war

The European War became a world war. In June 1940, Italy declared war on Britain and France. "Total War" was brought to civilians when bombing raids pulverized European cities. With men joining the army, women were recruited to work on farms and in factories. Europe experienced food shortages, which led to food rationing. Despite having signed strategic pacts with the USSR in the past, Germany invaded Russia in June 1941, and Britain gained a new ally.

As German troops swept into the USSR, they inflicted a campaign of extermination against communists. Then, in December 1941, the US entered the war after its naval

▽ **Paris under siege**
Seen here in front of the iconic Eiffel Tower, Adolf Hitler, flanked by German officials, takes a tour of conquered Paris in June 1940, marking the end of the French Campaign.

△ **Japanese ambitions**
Determined to become a major colonial power, Japan built up the largest navy in the Pacific Ocean. This recruitment poster seeks pilots for its aircraft carriers.

THEATRES OF CONFLICT

World War II became a global war, but had two main theatres – Europe and the Pacific. In Europe, the war started with the Western Front as the German "blitzkrieg" swept through Western Europe into France. The Eastern Front opened when Germany turned on the USSR. The Pacific theatre, fought over by the Allies and Japan, stretched throughout eastern China and Southeast Asia, including the Pacific Ocean and its islands. The role of the US in this arena was pivotal.

1 Sept 1939 Germany invades Poland; Britain and France declare war on Germany two days later

May 1940 Germany invades Belgium, the Netherlands, and then France; France surrenders in June

31 Mar – 27 Nov 1941 The Allies take Tobruk in Libya, and resist German attacks

EUROPE

AFRICA AND ITALY

THE PACIFIC

1939   1940   1941

Aug–Sept 1940 The Battle of Britain is fought between the British and German air forces, but the failure to defeat the British compels Hitler to abandon plans to invade England

7 Dec 1941 The US enters the war as Japan attacks Pearl Harbor, Hawaii

◁ Gateway of death
Millions of unsuspecting Jews arrived by train at the infamous death camp, Auschwitz-Birkenau, where they were gassed. It became a memorial site after the war.

base at Pearl Harbor in the Hawaiian Islands was attacked by Japan. Japan won quick victories in the Pacific and dominated the region. In North Africa, British troops struggled against German and Italian forces. By the summer of 1942, Hitler was at the height of his power, but in November, the German General Erwin Rommel was stopped at El Alamein in Egypt. Soviet victories at Stalingrad and Kursk in 1943 destroyed the German sixth army, which was forced to surrender. This defeat marked the beginning of a retreat that was to end in Berlin.

The tide turns

A strategy was devised by the Allies – Britain, France, the US, and the USSR – in 1943 to free Europe. While the USSR drove the Germans back in the east, and the British and Americans advanced through Italy, a huge Allied force landed in Normandy in June 1944. Almost a year later, it reached the River Elbe in northern Germany. As Soviet troops took Berlin, Hitler committed suicide on 30 April 1945. Germany surrendered a week later. The war was over in Europe but not in the Pacific, where Americans fought island by island. Japan finally surrendered soon after Hiroshima and Nagasaki were destroyed by American atomic bombs in August 1945 (see pp.306–07).

World War II changed the world forever. New military technology had shown the capacity for massive destruction, with U-boats, jet aircraft, and, ultimately, nuclear bombs. Germany's Nazis displayed new, efficient, and horrific methods of mass killing in their genocide of almost 6 million Jews. Countries went bankrupt, major cities were destroyed, and the great European empires were on their last legs. Representatives of 50 nations met in 1945 to form the United Nations in the hope that out of this devastation, a new era of international understanding could begin.

▽ Bombed city
Ferocious bombing raids on major cities defined WWII. This 1945 photograph shows the German city of Dresden, which was among the last to be destroyed in the war.

Feb 1942 Singapore falls to the Japanese

Mid-1942 The mass murder of Jews begins at Auschwitz as part of Hitler's "Final Solution"

8 Sep 1943 Italy surrenders and signs an armistice; immediately after, German troops occupy the rest of Italy

1944 Soviet offensive gathers pace in Eastern Europe

6 June 1944 D Day: the Allied invasion of France; Paris is liberated in August

8 May 1945 VE Day: the Germans surrender to the Allies unconditionally

15 Aug 1945 VJ Day: Japan formally surrenders following the destruction of Hiroshima and Nagasaki

1943   1944   1945   1946

June 1942 American naval victory in the Battle of Midway marks a turning point in the Pacific

July 1942 – Nov 1943 Germany suffers a major setback at the Battle of Stalingrad, and also at El Alamein

May 1943 Major Allied victories in North Africa enable the launch of Italy's invasion, and end the Africa Campaign

Jan 1944 Allies land at Anzio, Italy, and in March bomb a monastery at Monte Cassino, suspecting it to be a German observation post

27 Jan 1945 Auschwitz liberated by Soviet troops

Apr 1945 Russians reach Berlin; Hitler commits suicide, Mussolini is killed by Italian partisans

8 THE BATTLE OF STALINGRAD
AUGUST 1942–FEBRUARY 1943

A new Axis offensive in 1942 brought them to the industrial city of Stalingrad. In one of the largest and bloodiest battles of the war, almost 800,000 civilians and soldiers were killed. It ended with a humiliating German surrender, and this marked a turning point in WWII.

(○) Siege

7 INVASION OF THE SOVIET UNION
JUNE–DECEMBER 1941

Germany, along with its Axis allies, attacked the Soviet Union with 4 million troops, on a front of almost 1,000 miles. In 3 months, the invaders had almost reached Moscow and Leningrad, but here they failed to win complete victories. The advance was halted in December 1941.

(○) Siege

6 BRITAIN UNDER ATTACK
JULY 1940–MAY 1941

Hitler's plans to invade Britain were scuppered when Germany failed to beat Britain in the skies in 1940. Hitler switched to bombing Britain's cities, but he abandoned the campaign in May 1941 in favour of invading the Soviet Union.

✴ German bombing raids

5 ITALY'S CAMPAIGNS
JUNE 1940–FEBRUARY 1942

Italy invaded southern France in June 1940, keen to profit from German successes and to give Italy a place at any later peace conference. To gain control of the Mediterranean, Mussolini then attacked British and British Empire forces in north Africa, and attempted to invade Greece. The Italians were repelled in both Egypt and Greece, and Hitler had to divert German troops in support of his ally.

→ Italian advance   ⇢ Allied offensive

AXIS CONQUESTS 1939–43

Germany launched offensives in both eastern and western Europe, while Italy advanced in the Mediterranean. German forces used armour and aircraft to great effect.

KEY

- Axis powers
- Axis satellites
- Axis conquests 1939
- Axis conquests 1940
- Axis conquests 1941
- Allied powers
- → German advance
- Airborne attacks

TIMELINE

1939 | 1940 | 1941 | 1942 | 1943 | 1944

Apr 1940 German forces enter Norwegian waters, starting a two-month conflict that ends in defeat for the Allies

9 Apr 1940 German paratroopers land in Norway. It is the first airborne attack in history

Sep 1941–Jan 1944 The 900-day Siege of Leningrad by German forces results in over 1 million civilian deaths

7 Sep 1940–16 May 1941 Hitler bombs Britain's cities, in an offensive known as The Blitz

1–27 Sep 1939 Polish forces attempt to defend Warsaw but are outgunned

17 Sep 1939 Soviet forces attack Poland from the east

10 Jul–6 Sep 1940 During the Battle of Britain, the Luftwaffe (German airforce) target airfields and ports along the English Channel

May–Jun 1940 335,000 British and French soldiers are evacuated from Dunkirk

14 Jun 1940 German forces occupy Paris

1940 To Hungary

1940 To Bulgaria

6 Apr 1941 Germany invades Yugoslavia, allowing it to attack, and ultimately seize, Greece

Oct 1940 Italy attacks Greece via Albania, which it had annexed in 1939, but the invasion fails

Jan 1941 Allied forces seize the key port of Tobruk from Italian forces

13 Sep 1940 A second Italian offensive into British-occupied Egypt is a failure

ICELAND
Faeroe Islands
Shetland Islands
North Sea
Narvik
Åndalsnes
NORWAY
SWEDEN
Oslo
Stavanger
Petsamo
Suomussalmi
FINLAND
Helsinki
Leningrad
ESTONIA
LATVIA
LITHUANIA
Königsberg
EAST PRUSSIA
Wilno
Danzig
Baltic Sea
Copenhagen
DENMARK
Belfast
Glasgow
IRELAND
BRITAIN
Liverpool
Manchester
Hull
Birmingham
Bristol
Coventry
Plymouth
Southampton
London
Dunkirk
NETHERLANDS
Rotterdam
Hamburg
Berlin
Essen
BELGIUM
GERMANY
Paris
Sedan
LUXEMBOURG
Prague
Warsaw
POLAND
Kiev
Orléans
FRANCE
Vichy
Lyon
VICHY FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
Munich
BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA
Linz
Vienna
AUSTRIA (OSTMARK)
Bratislava
SLOVAKIA
Cracow
Lwów
UKRAINE
Budapest
HUNGARY
Milan
Alps
Zagreb
CROATIA
Belgrade
ROMANIA
Ploeşti
Bucharest
Madrid
Marseille
Pyrenees
SPAIN
Balearic Islands
Corsica
ITALY
Rome
Sardinia
Sarajevo
YUGOSLAVIA
BULGARIA
Istanbul
Tirana
ALBANIA
GREECE
Aegean Sea
Athens
Ankara
SPANISH NORTH AFRICA
Atlas Mountains
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
Tunis
Malta
Sicily
Crete
Mediterranean Sea
TUNISIA
Tripoli
LIBYA
El Agheila
Benghazi
Tobruk
Sidi Barrani
Alexandria
Cairo
EGYPT
Nile

AXIS POWERS ADVANCE

Between 1939 and 1942, the armies of Nazi Germany and its Axis allies conquered most of mainland Europe in a series of lightning campaigns. Germany was denied total victory by the stubborn resistance of Britain and the Soviet Union.

An agreement between two dictators, Germany's Adolf Hitler and Soviet ruler Joseph Stalin, to divide Poland between them was a prelude to World War II in Europe. When the Germans invaded Poland, Britain and France declared war on Germany but made no practical effort to aid the Poles. The initiative stayed with Hitler, who again took the offensive in spring 1940. Outclassed by the aggression and professionalism of German forces, the Allied armies were defeated on the Western Front. France surrendered, but Britain fought on under a new prime minister, Winston Churchill, surviving air attack and blockade by German submarines.
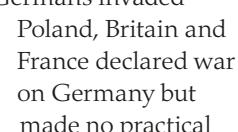
Italian dictator Benito Mussolini belatedly entered the war in June 1940, once it seemed clear Germany was winning, but his forces were of lamentably poor quality. Hitler was drawn into fighting in the Mediterranean zone to save his ally from humiliating defeat by the British.

Hitler's long-term goal, however, had always been to establish the Germans as a master race controlling the Slav lands to the east, so in June 1941 he ordered the invasion of the Soviet Union. He was joined by his allies: Italy, the second Axis power; Finland, which had recently lost land to the Soviets in their conflict of 1939–40; and Hungary, Romania, and Slovakia, whose right-wing governments became allied to the Axis powers, and were pressured into joining the Soviet invasion. Despite further victories that saw his armies occupy vast tracts of Soviet territory, by the end of 1942 it seemed that Hitler had overreached himself. The era of German triumphs came to an end at the Battle of Stalingrad in 1943.

MAP SIDEBAR

1 INVASION OF POLAND SEPTEMBER 1939

Germany invaded Poland from the west on 1 September 1939, and besieged Warsaw with heavy aerial and artillery bombardment. The Soviet Union then attacked from the east. With the fall of Warsaw on 27 September, Polish independence was over and the country was divided between the two aggressors. At least 70,000 Poles lost their lives in 30 days.

✴ Bombing of Warsaw

2 SOVIET CONQUESTS NOVEMBER 1939–JUNE 1940

After Poland, Stalin invaded Finland. The Finns held out for some time, but by March 1940 were made to give up strategically important territories, leaving them bitter for revenge. In June 1940, Stalin annexed Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, countries that Hitler also wanted for Germany.

— Soviet conquests 1939–40

2 Oct 1941–7 Jan 1942 Soviet counter-offensives drive Axis armies back from Moscow

28 Jun 1942–2 Feb 1943 Soviet forces successfully defend Stalingrad city. Axis forces are left exhausted

△ **Messerschmitt Bf 109**
One of the most advanced aircraft in 1939, this fighter plane was key to Germany's early successes. It provided air support for the armoured vehicles that spearheaded Germany's "blitzkrieg", or high-speed, attacks.

3 INVASION OF SCANDINAVIA AND THE LOW COUNTRIES APRIL–JUNE 1940

In the spring of 1940, an emboldened Germany successfully invaded Denmark and attacked Norway with its navy and pioneering paratroop operations. In May, more than 2 million German troops on land and in the air invaded Belgium, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands.

4 THE FALL OF FRANCE MAY–JUNE 1940

France had fortified part of its border with the Maginot Line, and sent its best armies into Belgium and the Netherlands to defend against a German attack. German armoured forces cut them off by an advance through the Ardennes Forest behind them, and defeated the Allies at Sedan. It was a disaster. France, under a new leader, Marshal Philippe Pétain, sued for an armistice on 17 June.

— Maginot Line

Jun 1941 British forces invade Vichy France-held Lebanon and Syria to prevent Axis forces using them as bases from which to attack Egypt

MAP LABELS

Archangel

USSR

Moscow

Orel

Stalingrad

Rostov

Volga

Don

Caucasus

Black Sea

TURKEY

Cyprus to Britain

SYRIA

LEBANON

PALESTINE

TRANSJORDAN

IRAQ

ADOLF HITLER
1889–1945

Hitler was born in Austria, the son of a minor official. He fought in the German army in World War I, and after the war became leader of the small National Socialist (Nazi) Party. The party came to prominence after Hitler attempted a coup in 1923; the coup failed, but the Nazis went on to attract mass support during the Great Depression. Appointed Chancellor of Germany in 1933, Hitler soon assumed dictatorial powers. He re-armed Germany in defiance of the Treaty of Versailles and set out to dominate Europe, but his aggressive policies led to a war that ultimately brought disaster to Germany. He died at his bunker in Berlin in April 1945.

1 GHETTOS 1939–42

Under Nazi occupation, Jewish people living in small towns and villages were transferred to ghettos set up within the cities. The Nazis established over 1,000 ghettos in Poland and the Soviet Union alone. Starvation and disease were rife due to food shortages and poor sanitation. In 1942, after the Nazis decided to kill the Jews, the Germans destroyed many of the ghettos and deported the Jews to death camps.

✡ Ghettos

2 POLITICAL CONTROL 1939–45

Nazi Germany persuaded Hungary, Romania, and Bulgaria to accede to the Tripartite Pact as Axis allies. In Slovakia, Norway, and Croatia, puppet regimes were installed – these countries had their own government but with restricted autonomy and Nazi commissioners in residence. In unoccupied France, the Vichy regime was forced to accept the terms of a German-imposed armistice.

🏛 Puppet regimes

3 LABOUR CONSCRIPTION 1940–45

In all the countries occupied, Germany controlled labour and industry for its war effort; the free deployment of labour was prohibited. Labourers were issued with workbooks, and either worked in plants in the occupied countries or were sent to Germany. By the end of 1944, about 8.2 million foreign civilians and prisoners of war, as well as 700,000 concentration camp prisoners, were workers in the German Reich.

✖ Forced labour conscription

7 EXTERMINATION CAMPS 1942–45

Dedicated death camps did not come into operation until 1942, when the Nazis implemented a policy to exterminate the Jews of Europe. Most victims were killed immediately upon their arrival, in the gas chambers, but a minority were kept as slave labour. Roma people, communists, homosexuals, and other "undesirables" were included in the mass murder.

✖ Extermination camps

6 MASS KILLINGS 1941–43

During the invasion of the Soviet Union, the Nazis deliberately slaughtered large groups of Jews. Einsatzgruppen (mobile killing units) followed the German army as it advanced; they went directly to the home communities of Jews and massacred them. Other massacres, such as Kragujevac in Serbia and Lidice in Bohemia-Moravia, were carried out as reprisals for the killing of Nazi officials by local resistance fighters.

💀 Site and date of massacre

5 CONCENTRATION CAMPS 1933–45

The Nazis established concentration camps in Germany on coming to power in 1933. Designed for the imprisonment of enemies of the state, concentration camps were not initially set up to kill, but victims died by starvation and physical exhaustion. Some of these camps were later converted into extermination camps, such as Majdanek in Poland, which was originally built for Soviet prisoners of war.

✖ Concentration camps

Feb 1942 Vidkun Quisling, a Norwegian Nazi, is installed as head of a puppet regime. His name becomes synonymous with "traitor"

Oct 1939 The first ghetto in Poland is established

1941 More than 20,000 Dutch people die of starvation after farmers are forced to hand over produce to Germany

Dec 1941 First death camp opens at Chelmno

30 Nov and 8–9 Dec 1941 At least 26,000 Jews are shot by German killing squads

1941 Riga

1943 Kaunas

1943 Khatyn

1940–44 Eighty per cent of Belgian children suffer rickets due to malnutrition

1940 Luxembourg is absorbed into Germany

1942 Lidice

1941 Babi Yar (Kiev)

22 Jun 1940 France signs an armistice that preserves a degree of sovereignty in unoccupied southern France, until Germany takes full control in November 1942 after losses in French North Africa

1933 First concentration camp is built at Dachau

Jun 1944 More than 220,000 Jews are expelled from their homes in Budapest

29–30 Sep 1941 More than 30,000 Ukrainian Jews are shot in Babi Yar ravine

Apr 1941 An anti-Axis coup in Yugoslavia prompts Germany to invade the country and set up the "Independent State of Croatia" as a puppet

1941 Kragujevac

20 Oct 1941 2,300 Serbian males are executed at Kragujevac

1941–44 Greece is plundered for the German war machine, and supplies are blocked by the British. An estimated 300,000 die of starvation by the end of the war

ATLANTIC OCEAN

NORWAY

Oslo

SWEDEN

Stockholm

FINLAND

KARELIA

Helsinki

Leningrad

IRELAND

Dublin

DENMARK

Copenhagen

Baltic Sea

REICHSKOMMISSARIAT OSTLAND

Jungerhof

Minsk

NORD

BRITAIN

London

Hamburg

Bergen-Belsen

Ravensbruck

Sachsenhausen

Berlin

POLAND

Warsaw

Treblinka

Bialystok

Maly Trostinets

NETHERLANDS

Essen

Buchenwald

SUDETENLAND

Gross-Rosen

Chelmno

Lublin

Majdanek

Sobibor

Belzec

Lwów

REICHSKOMMISSARIAT UKRAINE

BELGIUM

Drancy

Paris

OCCUPIED FRANCE

Luxembourg

GERMANY

Flossenburg

Theresienstadt

Cracow

Auschwitz-Birkenau

BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA

Dachau

Mauthausen

Munich

SLOVAKIA

Bratislava

Vienna

FRANCE

Vichy

SWITZERLAND

AUSTRIA (OSTMARK)

HUNGARY

Budapest

SPAIN

Bordeaux

VICHY FRANCE

Marseille

Toulon

Milan

Bozen

Fossoli

Trieste

Zagreb

CROATIA

YUGOSLAVIA

Belgrade

ROMANIA

Bucharest

SERBIA

Sofia

MONTENEGRO

BULGARIA

DEMOTIKA

PORTUGAL

Corsica

ITALY

Rome

Sardinia

Tirane

ALBANIA

SALONIKA

Mediterranean Sea

Sicily

GREECE

Athens

FRENCH NORTH AFRICA

MALTA

Dodecanese Islands

Crete

THE GREATER GERMAN REICH

By 1942, the Axis powers and their satellites dominated Europe. Germany and Italy placed some regions under military occupation, while others were absorbed to create the "Greater German Reich".

KEY

- ▮ Greater German Reich, 1942
- ▮ Areas occupied by Germany and Finland
- ▮ Italy and areas occupied by Italy
- ▮ Axis satellites
- ▮ Temporary Axis satellite
- ▮ Allied territories

TIMELINE

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1932 1934 1936 1938 1940 1942 1944 1946

○ Moscow

MITTE

☠ **1941** Kharkov

U S S R

Stalingrad

SÜD

1941–44 Approximately 2.6 million Soviet prisoners die of starvation and disease in German captivity. The people of occupied USSR are forced to eat dogs and rats, and cook their food in paraffin

Caucasus

Black Sea

TURKEY

SYRIA

Cyprus

△ **Holocaust survivors**
The Soviet army discovered the Nazi death camps as they advanced through eastern Europe in 1944–45, including Auschwitz-Birkenau in southern Poland, where the children in this photo were found.

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4 **THE BATTLE FOR FOOD**   1940–45

At least 20 million people died of starvation during World War II. Hitler sought to create a Reich that was self-sufficient and independent of world trade. He regarded the whole of Eastern Europe as an industrial site and a food source, and was prepared to let its people starve in his pursuit of Lebensraum (living space) for German-speaking peoples. In other parts of Europe, Jews and non-Germans were starved, either by deliberate German policy or by Allied blockades.

🟤 Major food shortages

OCCUPIED EUROPE

The Axis occupation of a large area of Europe in World War II brought hardship or death to many millions of the continent's inhabitants. The brutal experience of Nazi rule, and resistance to it, had profound effects on European politics and society.

The German victories early in the war were met with a mixed response in the defeated nations. In all countries, there were both anti-Nazi resistance fighters and also collaborators – those who accepted defeat and sought a role in the new German-dominated Europe. In some places, such as Croatia, Lithuania, and Ukraine, the Nazis were initially welcomed as liberators. The French government, based at Vichy, was a willing collaborator for the Germans.

Some German officials dreamed of a New Order in which all of Europe would flourish under German leadership, but Nazi leader Adolf Hitler was only interested in domination and exploitation. In practice, the Nazis simply plundered the conquered countries for their resources of food and labour, treating collaborators with contempt and suppressing opposition with terror. The worst suffering was in eastern Europe, where Hitler planned to reduce the Slavic peoples to servile status and colonize the land with German settlers in order to achieve his ultimate goal of gaining more Lebensraum (living space) for German-speaking peoples. Germany's borders were expanded and redrawn to create the Greater German Reich (realm). One-fifth of Poland's people were killed during the war, including most of its Jewish population. The only check to the Nazis' extermination of the Jews of Europe was their need to keep Jewish prisoners alive for use as slave labour.

ARMED RESISTANCE
1940 ONWARDS

The hardships of life under Nazi rule inspired armed resistance movements, backed by the Allies. The largest of these forces fought in Poland, Yugoslavia, the western Soviet Union, and northern Italy after German occupation in 1943. Communists played a leading role, and in some places, notably Yugoslavia, there was bitter conflict between communist and non-communist resistance fighters. Armed resistance in France was limited in scale but essential to French pride.

Russian resistance
Women and girls in the occupied western Soviet Union practise shooting guns in a trench, in order to defend themselves.

THE JAPANESE OFFENSIVE 1941–42

In addition to its military bases on Pacific islands and in occupied China, Japan positioned troops in French Indochina after France's defeat by Nazi Germany in 1940. From these bases, Japan launched a series of offensives across Southeast Asia and the Pacific.

KEY

- ⌗ Military bases
- US possessions
- British possessions
- Australia and possessions
- China
- USSR
- Dutch possessions
- Japan and possessions
- Japanese front line, June 1942
- Japanese carrier/air raid
- Allied carrier/air raid
- Under Japanese control 1941

TIMELINE

1	2	3	4	5	6

NOV 1941   JAN 1942   APRIL 1942   JUL 1942

18 Apr 1942 Lt Col Doolittle leads an American air raid on Tokyo in retaliation for Pearl Harbor

23 Dec 1941 Wake Island falls to second Japanese attack
24 Feb 1942 Allied raid is first of many

4 Mar Marcus Island

25 Dec 1941 Hong Kong surrenders

22 Dec 1941 Main invasion force lands on Philippines from Formosa

10 Dec 1941 Japan captures Guam from US

2 Jan 1942 Manila falls to Japan
6 May 1942 Corregidor Island in Manila Bay, the last US stronghold, falls

7 Jan–9 Apr 1942 Bataan

6 Apr 1942 Masulipatam
6 Apr 1942 Vizagapatam

20 Jan 1942 Japanese enter Burma
8 Mar 1942 British retreat allows Japan to take Rangoon

9 Apr 1942 Trincomalee

5 Apr 1942 Colombo

15 Feb 1942 Singapore surrenders to Japan, with the loss of 138,000 troops from the British Commonwealth

23 Jan 1942 Japan takes Rabaul; it becomes their main southern base

10 Mar 1942 Lae
10 Mar 1942 Salamaua

28 Feb 1942 Sunda Strait

18–19 Feb 1942 Lombok Strait

9 Mar 1942 Dutch East Indies surrender to Japan

19 Feb 1942 Darwin is attacked by 188 Japanese planes

19 Feb 1942 Darwin

4–8 May 1942 In the Battle of the Coral Sea, Japanese ships suffer too much damage to continue the invasion of Port Moresby

Java Sea **27 Feb 1942**

△ **Japanese attack Pearl Harbor**
At 8.00am on 7 December 1941, 366 Japanese bombers and fighters struck the American naval base at Pearl Harbor. The attack killed 2,403 Americans, but damaged or destroyed only 18 of 94 warships.

6   ALLIED VICTORIES   4 MAY–6 JUNE 1942

In May, Japan sent a large fleet to capture the Allied base of Port Moresby in New Guinea, a plan that the the Allies thwarted in the Coral Sea. The Allies then deciphered Japanese signal codes that warned them of an attack on the US base on Midway Island. The ensuing battle was an important win for the US Navy, and marked a turning point in the Pacific war.

5   CONQUEST OF THE DUTCH EAST INDIES
FEBRUARY–9 MARCH 1942

The rubber and oil fields in the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia) made it a prime target. In February, Japan made a series of landings, at the same time bombing Darwin, Australia, to cut off Allied reinforcements. The Allies suffered defeat in a series of naval battles and failed to halt the Japanese advance.

→ Japanese advance   ✕ Allied victory   → Japanese advance   ✕ Japanese victory

6–7 Jun 1942 The Japanese take Attu and Kiska in the Aleutian Islands off Alaska, the only American soil they occupied

Aleutian Islands ⌖ Dutch Harbor

Attu *Kiska*

1 PEARL HARBOR   7 DECEMBER 1941

The Japanese planned an attack on the large base of the US Pacific Fleet at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, taking advantage of the US's unpreparedness for war. They sent a note to the Americans breaking off diplomatic relations, but it was delivered after the bombing. The attack was a total surprise to the Americans. The day after, the US and Britain declared war on Japan, and Hitler declared war on the United States on 11 December. The war had become a global conflict.

→ Japanese attack

Midway

4–6 Jun 1942 Japan suffers its first major reverse; four Japanese aircraft carriers are sunk

7 Dec 1941 Japanese torpedo bombers hit the American fleet, followed an hour later by a second wave to finish the attack

Oahu
⌖ *Hawaiian*
Pearl *Islands*
Harbor

2 THE WIDER WAR BEGINS
8 DECEMBER 1941–23 JANUARY 1942

Alongside the Pearl Harbor attack, Japan launched multiple campaigns. Hong Kong and the Pacific islands of Guam, Wake Island, and the Gilbert group fell in quick succession. The attacks continued in the Philippines and down the Malayan Peninsula with amazing speed, humiliating the British, Dutch, and Americans. In January, Japan took the Australian military base at Rabaul, New Guinea.

→ Japanese advance   ⚑ Japanese conquest

1 Feb 1942 Allies strike Japanese base

⌖ *Kwajalein*

Gilbert Islands

3 THE FALL OF MALAYA AND THE PHILIPPINES
9 DECEMBER 1941–6 MAY 1942

To gain dominance in Asia, the Japanese needed to tackle the British presence in Malaya and the Americans in the Philippines. Striking first, they took Manila in January and Singapore in February. US and Filipino troops defended the Bataan Peninsula for 3 months before surrendering.

→ Japanese advance   ⚑ Japanese conquest   ✕ Japanese victory

10 Dec 1941 The Gilbert Islands fall to Japan

4 CONQUEST OF BURMA
20 JANUARY–20 MAY 1942

For Japan, taking Burma would cut off supplies into Nationalist China, opening the way for the Japanese to conquer all of China and place themselves at India's gate. After crossing Siam (Thailand), Japanese troops overcame the small British force in Burma and their Chinese allies by the end of May.

→ Japanese advance

THE WAR IN THE PACIFIC

In 1931, Japan began a project to establish an extensive empire in Asia by occupying northeast China, then launching a full-scale invasion of the country in 1937. This brought Japan into conflict with the United States and the European colonial powers in the region and, in 1941, the war extended to Southeast Asia and the Pacific.

Throughout 1941, the United States tried to force Japan to abandon its invasion of China (see pp.288–89) using a policy of economic blockade. The Japanese responded with a risky plan for a wider war. Their attack on the American naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, was designed to cripple the US Pacific Fleet, leaving the Japanese Imperial Navy in command of the ocean while the Japanese army conquered Southeast Asia, the source of raw materials such as rubber and oil. Initially, the plan worked brilliantly, but the "sneak attack" on Pearl Harbor created such outrage in the US that any future compromise or peace based on acceptance of Japanese domination of Asia became inconceivable. The US entered World War II as a result.

Although Nazi Germany declared war on the United States in support of Japan, the conflicts in the Pacific and Europe remained essentially separate. Japan's defeat of the European colonial powers in Southeast Asia, especially the fall of British Singapore, was a fatal blow to white racial prestige in Asia. But the Japanese proved exploitative rulers and won little support from other Asian peoples in their "Co-Prosperity Sphere". American victory in the naval battle of Midway in June 1942 marked the end of the period of rapid Japanese expansion.

"Before we're through with them, the Japanese language will be spoken only in hell."

US VICE ADMIRAL HALSEY ON THE PEARL HARBOR ATTACK, 1941

GENERAL DOUGLAS MACARTHUR
1880–1964

When he was appointed US Army Commander in the Far East in 1941, Douglas MacArthur already had a distinguished military career behind him, including service in World War I and a spell as US Chief of Staff. Forced to evacuate the Philippines in 1942, he famously promised "I shall return", a promise kept in 1944. As Allied supreme commander, he received the Japanese surrender in 1945 (see pp.302–03) and played a leading role in Japan's postwar political reconstruction. Commanding UN forces in the Korean War (see pp.316–17) from 1950, MacArthur quarrelled with US government policy and President Truman relieved him of his duties in 1951.

GERMANY DEFEATED

Confronted by the combined strength of America, the Soviet Union, and Britain, Germany was overwhelmed in the later stages of World War II. The scale of destruction mounted through the war, leaving Europe a continent of ruins and refugees.

The tide of war turned decisively against Nazi Germany and its Axis allies in the course of 1943. On the Eastern Front, Soviet armies, victorious at Stalingrad (see pp.296–97), began an unstoppable advance westward that would eventually carry them all the way to Berlin. In the Atlantic, the menace of German U-boats was overcome after years of heavy losses of shipping. American troops entered the war against Germany by landing in North Africa. Meeting up with the British in Tunisia, they crossed the Mediterranean to invade Sicily and Italy, bringing about the downfall of Germany's ally Benito Mussolini. But Nazi leader Adolf Hitler remained defiant even after the Western Allies invaded Normandy, France, in summer 1944. Surviving an attempted assassination, Hitler led a fight to the finish. The alliance between the Western powers and the Soviet Union held firm in pursuit of unconditional surrender. After a hard-fought struggle for command of the air, the American and British air forces devastated German cities. In spring 1945, Allied troops, invading Germany from east and west, took possession of a ruined country as Hitler committed suicide in his Berlin bunker.

"We have a new experience. We have victory – a remarkable and definite victory."

CHURCHILL, ON VICTORY AT EL ALAMEIN, 1942

WINSTON CHURCHILL
1874–1965

In May 1940, maverick Conservative politician Winston Churchill took power in Britain at the head of a coalition government. His rousing speeches and fighting spirit sustained morale in Britain, and he worked tirelessly to maintain good relations with his fellow Allied powers, the US and the Soviet Union, during World War II. He was voted out of office in an election 2 months after victory in Europe in 1945.

THE ALLIED INVASION OF EUROPE 1942–45
Victories in North Africa in 1942 provided the Allies with a base from which to invade Italy in 1943. The following year, the Western Allies began an offensive in western Europe while the Soviet army attacked from the east, closing in on Germany.

KEY

AXIS
- Under Axis control by 1942
- Areas occupied by Germany by November 1942
- German offensive from 1942
- Axis satellites

ALLIES
- Allied territory 1942
- Allied offensive 1944
- Allied offensive 1942–43
- Allied offensive 1945
- Allied victory

TIMELINE

1941 — 1942 — 1943 — 1944 — 1945 — 1946

6 GERMANY ON THE ROPES   MARCH–MAY 1945

In the last months of the war, despite tough resistance, Germany suffered only defeats. American troops crossed the Rhine into Germany in March 1945 and proceeded to capture Hanover and Nuremberg. Meanwhile, Soviet forces launched a huge offensive through Poland and eventually captured Berlin on 30 April.

5 INVASION OF NORMANDY   JUNE–JULY 1944

On 6 June 1944, the Allies invaded northern France in what was the largest amphibious attack in history. Five Allied divisions landed on five French beaches, but progress was slow because of thick hedgerows and a fierce German defence. With this invasion, the Allies forced Hitler to fight on two fronts: in both western and eastern Europe.

- D-Day landings

24 May 1943 Admiral Dönitz withdraws German U-boats from the North Atlantic after huge losses

Nov 1942 Allied forces make landings in Morocco and Algeria as part of Operation Torch, a campaign to take control of North Africa

4 STRATEGIC BOMBING   1944–45

During 1944, the bombing of German cities became a significant strategy for the Allies. Attacks on oil supplies and oil fields devastated the German war effort. Some 400,000 German civilians were killed and many cities annihilated. Hitler responded by firing V-1 cruise missiles and V-2 rockets on London.

- Cities severely bombed by Allies
- City severely bombed by Germans

ATLANTIC OCEAN

PORTUGAL
Lisbon
Gibraltar to Britain
Casablanca
MOROCCO

◁ **D-Day landings**
A US landing craft approaches Omaha Beach in Normandy, France on 6 June 1944. Although the Allied invasion succeeded, nearly 3,000 US soldiers were killed or injured during the landing.

1 BATTLE FOR THE ATLANTIC 1942–43

Between 1942 and 1943, millions of tons of Allied shipping was sunk by the German submarine force, or U-boats. Germany concentrated its attacks in the mid-Atlantic, out of range of Allied aircraft, but from 1943, Allied aircraft could fly long range and find the U-boats with radar; Germany was forced to withdraw.

- Allied air cover 1940
- Allied air cover 1943
- Area of U-boat success 1942
- Area of U-boat success 1943

2 THE NAZI–SOVIET CONFLICT 1943–44

After the defeat at Stalingrad in 1943 (see pp.296–97), Hitler gambled on a huge tank battle to decimate the Russians at Kursk. The gamble failed; the Soviet army had a better command structure than the various Axis forces. The Soviet counter-advance into Romania and Hungary brought about the surrender of Hitler's allies.

⚑ Axis surrender 1944

3 THE MEDITERRANEAN 1942–45

In 1942, the defeat of the Axis armies, under Erwin Rommel, at El Alamein in Egypt was a turning point for the Western Allies. They went on to invade Italian Libya and Sicily, then Italy itself in 1943. When the Italians surrendered, the Germans occupied Italy and continued the fight without their main ally until May 1945.

Nov 1943–Apr 1945 One-third of Berlin's houses are destroyed in a long bombing campaign by the Allies

13–14 Feb 1945 The Allies firebomb Dresden, devastating the city and killing thousands of civilians in one of the most controversial acts of World War II

25 Apr 1945 Soviet and American troops meet at the River Elbe. Both allies fight on until unconditional surrender from Germany

25 August 1944 Paris is liberated after the German garrison there finally surrenders

Jan 1944 Soviet Army crosses the old Polish border

Jul 1944 Soviet Army reaches the Vistula River opposite Warsaw; the Germans suffer 850,000 casualties
17 Jan 1945 Soviet troops liberate the Polish city of Warsaw

22 Jun 1944 Stalin orders Operation Bagration, a massive offensive into the Baltic states and western Poland

5 Jul–23 Aug 1943 Axis assault on Kursk is met with 1.3 million soldiers and 3,400 tanks from the Soviet Union; Axis forces are defeated

8 Sep 1943 Italy surrenders to Allied forces
13 October 1943 Italy declares war on Germany

Jul 1943 The Allies capture Sicily and prepare for the invasion of Italy

Nov 1942 The Allies win a clear victory over German–Italian troops at El Alamein

13 May 1943 240,000 Axis forces surrender in Tunisia

Nov 1942 The Siege of Malta is finally lifted. Malta is strategically important for control of the Mediterranean

THE ALLIED COUNTER-OFFENSIVE 1942–1945

The Allies pushed back the Japanese front line in Burma, the Philippines, and the Pacific, until they were close enough to mount major air raids on Japan's home islands and force surrender.

KEY

ALLIED FORCES

- ⛴ Allied amphibious assault
- ⛨ US military base
- ⛨ British military base
- ⛨ Chinese military base

JAPANESE FRONT LINES

- June 1942
- September 1944
- August 1945

JAPANESE FORCES

- ⛨ Japanese air/naval base captured by Allies
- ⛨ Japanese base isolated by Allies
- □ Japan's home islands

TIMELINE

	JUN 1942	FEB 1943	DEC 1943	OCT 1944	SEPT 1945
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					

9–10 Mar 1945 334 American B-29 planes drop incendiary bombs on Tokyo; 80,000 civilians die in the firestorm

23 Feb 1945 US forces capture Mount Suribachi on Iwo Jima amid frenzied fighting; 23,000 Japanese die on the island

19–20 Jun 1944 Japan is defeated at the Battle of the Philippine Sea, losing more than 400 aircraft and 3 aircraft carriers; Japanese Prime Minister Tojo resigns

Apr 1945 Okinawa

Iwo Jima

4 Mar–22 Jun 1944 The Japanese besiege Imphal in India, but cannot capture it

3 May 1945 British–Indian Army captures Rangoon

3 Mar 1945 Manila is secured by the US after a month-long battle

Jan 1945 Luzon

Jun 1944 Saipan

Jul 1944 Guam

Jun 1944 Tinian

Feb 1944 Eniwetok

25 Oct 1944 Leyte Gulf

Dec 1944 Mindoro

May 1945 Mindanao

Sep 1944 Ulithi

Sep 1944 Palau

20 Oct 1944 60,000 US troops land on Leyte

2–3 Mar 1943 Allies bomb a Japanese convoy on its way to Rabaul after deciphering Japanese signal codes

Jun 1945 Brunei

May 1945 Tarakan

12–16 Nov 1942 Guadalcanal

1 OPERATION CARTWHEEL
JULY 1942–MARCH 1943

In July 1942, the Allies began a campaign to neutralize Japan's main southern base at Rabaul, by gaining control of New Guinea and the Solomon Islands. By March 1943, they had secured the Japanese airfield on Guadalcanal island, defeated the Japanese on land in eastern New Guinea, and won some important naval battles, giving them the initiative in the area.

→ Allied advance   ✕ Allied naval victory

2 ISLAND-HOPPING IN THE PACIFIC
NOVEMBER 1943–SEPTEMBER 1944

The capture of Tarawa was the start of a US drive across the Pacific. Despite bitter resistance from Japanese soldiers, the US Marines took the Gilbert Islands, then the Marshalls, then the large Japanese base at Saipan in the Marianas. The Japanese attempted to defend the Marianas at the Battle of the Philippine Sea, but suffered a devastating defeat.

→ Allied advance   ✕ Allied naval victory

3 RECOVERY OF BURMA
MARCH 1944–MAY 1945

For the Allies, the defeat of Burma had to be reversed in order to reopen the route to China. In 1944, seeing the British had strengthened their forces with vital air support, the Japanese took the offensive and advanced into India. The British–Indian, US, and Chinese forces pushed back the Japanese, and Burma was taken by the Allies in 1945.

→ Allied advance   ⇢ Japanese advance

4 LIBERATION OF THE PHILIPPINES
OCTOBER 1944–MAY 1945

The lengthy Allied operation to recapture the Philippines began with the landing of a large force from 750 US ships in Leyte Gulf. The Japanese countered the invasion in Leyte Gulf with sea and air strikes, including kamikaze suicide tactics for the first time. Nevertheless, the overwhelming firepower of the US forces crippled the Japanese Imperial Navy.

→ Allied advance   ✕ Allied naval victory

6 JAPAN UNDER ATTACK
MARCH–AUGUST 1945

Once Iwo Jima was captured, America began incendiary bomb attacks on Japan's major cities, hoping to pound Japan into surrender without risking Allied lives in an invasion. In August, this culminated in the dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki (see pp.306–07), killing tens of thousands of civilians in an instant. The Soviets joined the war against Japan in Manchuria, and the Japanese emperor announced surrender soon afterwards.

☢ Atomic bomb   ⟶ Allied advance

5 IWO JIMA AND OKINAWA
FEBRUARY–JUNE 1945

The capture of Iwo Jima and Okinawa, two islands south of Japan's main islands, provided the Allies with forward bases from which they could bomb or invade Japan. By taking Okinawa, the Allies also cut off Japan's supply lines from its territories in Southeast Asia. These battles were some of the bloodiest in the Pacific theatre of war, with Japanese suicide attacks reaching their peak and thousands of lives lost on both sides.

⟶ Allied advance

Attu
Aug 1943 *Kiska*
May 1943
Amchitka
Aleutian Islands

Midway

P A C I F I C   O C E A N

Pearl Harbor ⬚ *Oahu*
Hawaiian Islands

Marshall Islands

10 Nov 1943
The Americans land on Tarawa but suffer heavy casualties

Jan 1944
Kwajalein

Jan 1944
Majuro

Tarawa
Nov 1943

Gilbert Islands

△ **Kamikaze pilot**
A Japanese pilot prepares for a suicide mission by donning a headband bearing the ensign of the Japanese Imperial Navy. Committed to the idea of "victory or death", Japanese men volunteered to crash aircraft loaded with explosives deliberately into enemy targets.

JAPAN DEFEATED

Mobilizing its superior industrial resources and manpower, the United States overcame extremely determined Japanese resistance in a series of fierce battles in the Pacific from 1942 to 1945. Japan's cities were laid waste by American bombing and its imperial government was forced to sign a humiliating surrender.

By mid-1942 Japan had established a far-flung defensive perimeter in the Pacific to protect its conquests in Asia. Hard fighting continued in China and Burma, but the outcome of the war was decided by an American thrust "island-hopping" across the Pacific, bringing the US within reach of Japan itself. A massive American shipbuilding programme created a powerful fleet of aircraft carriers, while the US Marines developed an unprecedented expertise in seaborne landings. From Tawara to Okinawa, each island was defended by Japanese soldiers to the last man, but the Japanese Imperial Navy was destroyed in a series of large-scale sea battles. Outclassed Japanese aviators were compelled to use "kamikaze" suicide tactics to attack the American fleet, but with limited effect.

By the summer of 1945 it was clear that Japan had lost the war. The Japanese government was split between those who wanted to fight to the death and those who wished to seek a peace deal that might preserve some element of independence. The Americans, however, demanded unconditional surrender. In August, the United States destroyed the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki with atom bombs and the Soviet Union, previously neutral, attacked Japanese forces in Manchuria. The Japanese government finally bowed to the inevitable and surrendered.

"The war situation has developed not necessarily to Japan's advantage."

EMPEROR HIROHITO, SURRENDER BROADCAST, 15 AUGUST 1945

GLOBAL WARFARE
World War II was a truly global conflict, with theatres of war in Europe, Africa, Asia, and the Pacific. America fought all the Axis Powers simultaneously, sending troops all over the globe. Japan and the other Axis Powers, although allies, fought separate wars, failing to coordinate their strategy.

KEY

◼ Maximum extent of Japanese expansion in Asia/Pacific

◼ Maximum extent of Axis powers in Europe/USSR

MOVEMENT OF AXIS TROOPS
⟶ German   ⟶ Japanese

MOVEMENT OF ALLIED TROOPS
⟶ British   ⟶ American
⟶ British Commonwealth   ⟶ Soviet

NEW ZEALAND
AUSTRALIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
JAPAN
CHINA
ARCTIC OCEAN
CANADA
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
USSR
INDIA
INDIAN OCEAN
EUROPE
AFRICA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SOUTH AFRICA
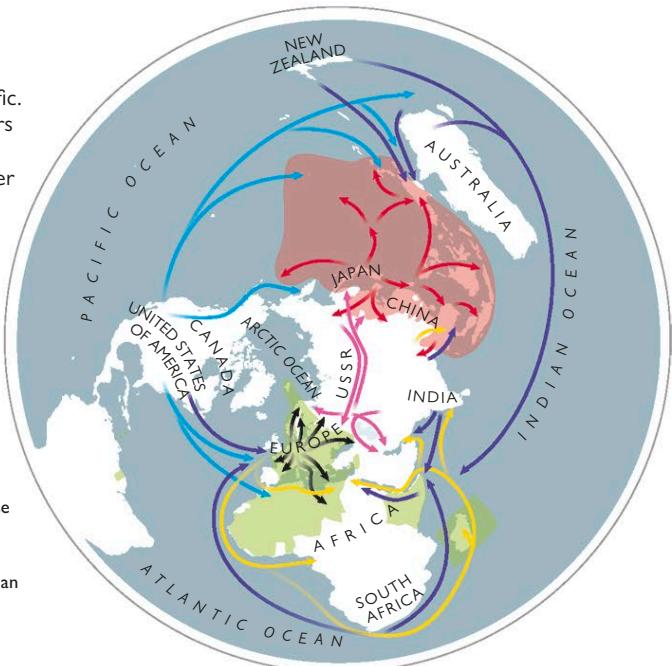
Hiroshima destroyed
Within seconds of detonation of the first atomic bomb, the city of Hiroshima lay in ruins. Nearly 70,000 people are believed to have died immediately. Here, the shattered Nagarekawa Methodist Church stands out.

HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI

In August 1945, America dropped the world's first atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in a bid to end World War II. It led the world to a new, and controversial, nuclear age. For Japan, its impact was cataclysmic.

On 10 May 1945, three days after Germany had surrendered to the Allies and ended the war in Europe, a group of US scientists and military personnel met in Los Alamos, New Mexico. The top minds within the Manhattan Project – the American effort to build an atomic bomb – focused on how to end Japanese resistance in the Pacific. The island-hopping strategy adopted by the US Navy had brought B-29 bombers within range of the Japanese archipelago, and they carried out massive aerial bombing attacks. Yet Japan refused to surrender. US president Harry Truman authorized the use of two atomic weapons against Japan, believing it would be a less bloody way to secure surrender than an invasion.

The final attack
At the meeting at Los Alamos in May, the experts had deliberated on which Japanese cities to attack. The targets needed to have some military significance. Four cities,

△ **Human shadow**
The intense heat of the detonation in Hiroshima left "shadows" of people and objects exactly as they were at 8:15 am on 6 August 1945.

including Hiroshima and Nagasaki, were chosen. Over the summer of 1945, Japanese attempts to negotiate a formula for surrender were rebuffed by the Allies. Then, on 28 July 1945, a demand from the Allies to surrender unconditionally or face destruction was rejected by the Japanese high command.

On 6 August 1945, the crew of the *Enola Gay*, the B-29 bomber assigned to drop the first bomb on Hiroshima, took off. At 8:15 am "Little Boy" was dropped. Three days later, the US dropped "Fat Man" on Nagasaki. Estimates of people killed in the two bombings range as high as

246,000. On 15 August 1945, Japan surrendered. More atomic bombs were planned, although Japan's emperor was also influenced by the Soviet invasion of Manchuria and the starvation that was already widespread. The surrender was formalized on board the USS *Missouri* on 2 September 1945.

The bombings had helped to hasten the end of WWII but launched a nuclear arms race between the US and the Soviet Union that lasted until the 1990s.

▽ **"Fat Man"**
Nicknamed Fat Man, the atomic bomb dropped on Nagasaki on 9 August 1945 created winds of 1,000 km/h (620 mph), and temperatures of 7,050°C (12,700°F).

"I realize the tragic significance of the Atom Bomb … We thank God that it has come to us instead of to our enemies."

HARRY S TRUMAN, US PRESIDENT, 9 AUGUST 1945

1 THE INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS
1885–1947

Founded in 1885, the Congress was created to petition the British for more rights for Indians. It became increasingly radical, especially from 1905 after the British viceroy Lord Curzon proposed to split the province of Bengal in two, a decision opposed by most Indians. From then on, the Congress emerged as the main opposition movement to British rule and formed the first government of India after independence in 1947.

— Bengal, pre-1905 ···· Bengal partition, 1905

2 FOUNDATION OF THE ALL-INDIA MUSLIM LEAGUE 1906–47

The All-India Muslim League was established in Dacca in 1906 to protect the civil rights of Indian Muslims (who had opposed the 1905 division of Bengal). In the 1930s, the League adopted the idea of a two-state future for India, with Muslims having their own independent nation in the majority-Muslim states of northern India.

1930–32 The Congress urges tenant farmers to stop paying rent to landowners, who are loyal to the government

Apr 1919 Amritsar massacre

Feb 1922 Gandhi ends non-cooperation campaign due to violence

Apr 1917 Gandhi achieves his first success supporting indigo-growing peasants

Jan 1948 Gandhi assassinated at Birla House

1918 Gandhi campaigns successfully for Kheda peasants demanding tax relief

Dec 1930 Sir Muhammad Iqbal suggests formation of a single Muslim state in northwest India

Mar–Apr 1930 Gandhi leads the Salt March

Dec 1885 Indian National Congress founded
Jul 1942 Gandhi calls for the British to leave India

Jun 1905 Servants of India Society set up to promote Indian development

Dec 1906 All-India Muslim League founded in Dacca

1946–47 Gandhi tries to restore communal harmony in contested Noakhali and Tippera

1886–1937 Burma becomes a province of India in 1886. It separates in 1937

7 PARTITION AND INDEPENDENCE
1947–50

The British Labour government favoured Indian independence and tried to establish a unified independent state. But faced with rising Muslim agitation for an independent Pakistan, they partitioned India. After much violence, India and Pakistan achieved independence on 15 August 1947. The British colonies of Burma and Ceylon received independence in 1948. By 1950, all the princely states had joined India or Pakistan.

▬ Area of widespread communal riots, 1947–48

✳ Political activities associated with Gandhi

1930–32 Picketing of foreign cloth shops; many women participate in protests

◁ **India's leaders**
Politician and future prime minister Jawaharlal Nehru (far left) talks with Mahatma Gandhi (near left) at an All India Congress Committee meeting in Bombay.

1924–25 Campaign to allow "Untouchables" to use the road leading to the temple at Vaikom

6 QUIT INDIA MOVEMENT 1942–45

Gandhi was opposed to providing help to the British in World War II, as he did not believe India could fight for freedom while it was itself denied freedom. Many Indians disagreed with him and fought in the war. In 1942, Britain sent Stafford Cripps to negotiate India's support in return for more power for the Congress. In response, Gandhi launched the Quit India Movement, which demanded full independence.

// Quit India Movement, 1942

THE INDEPENDENCE STRUGGLE, 1885–1948

After the foundation of the secular Indian National Congress in 1885 and the All-India Muslim League in 1906, the struggle for Indian independence became increasingly fraught, as campaigns were launched to force the British out of India.

KEY

- British India (direct rule)
- Princely states (semi-autonomous areas ruled by Indian princes)
- French India
- Portuguese India
- Major riots

TIMELINE

1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — 5 — 6 — 7

1880 1890 1900 1910 1920 1930 1940 1950

3 THE FIRST CAMPAIGNS AND THE AMRITSAR MASSACRE 1915–19

In 1915, Mohandas Gandhi began to campaign for the Congress. In 1919, the British introduced the Rowlatt Act, allowing indefinite detention of political agitators. In response, Gandhi ordered a *hartal* (general strike), shutting down shops and businesses as a form of civil disobedience. When the British opened fire on thousands of Indians in Amritsar, Punjab, Gandhi called off the protest.

- *Hartal* and Punjab disturbances
- Political activities associated with Gandhi

4 NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT 1919–22

In response to the Amritsar massacre, Gandhi began to argue for *swaraj* ("self-rule") for India, to be achieved through *satyagraha* ("truth force"), an idea developed by Gandhi as a form of non-violent resistance. Despite its peaceful intentions, the campaign turned violent and Gandhi suspended it in 1922.

- Non-cooperation campaign
- Political activities associated with Gandhi

5 GANDHI'S CAMPAIGNS 1924–32

After 2 years in prison for sedition, Gandhi returned to campaign for *swaraj* in 1924. His most successful act was the Salt March of 1930 when, in protest against the British government's monopoly of the salt trade, he led a group of activists to Dandi, on the west coast, where they illegally produced salt – an act that sparked mass civil disobedience across India. Imprisoned again in 1932, Gandhi withdrew from active politics.

- Political activities associated with Gandhi

PARTITION OF INDIA

The campaign to end British rule over its Indian empire was one of the most successful such movements in colonial history. Although marked with occasional and often appalling violence, the campaign stressed non-violent resistance, based on the beliefs of one of its most inspirational leaders, politician and activist Mohandas Gandhi.

Britain's efforts to hold on to India were undermined by a massacre of unarmed Indians by British troops in Amritsar, Punjab, in 1919. In response, Gandhi initiated a non-violent, non-cooperation campaign for independence, which was led mainly by the secular Indian National Congress. However, the religious divide within India, between Hindus and Muslims, complicated matters. The All-India Muslim League began to campaign for an independent Muslim state called Pakistan, which would be created through partition.

After Britain declared war on Germany in 1939 on behalf of India – without consulting Indian leaders – the Congress launched the Quit India Movement, calling for civil disobedience to upset the British war effort. By 1945, Britain was economically drained by the war, and the government began to plan for withdrawal from India. It supported partition reluctantly and, amid a crisis that saw millions of Hindu and Muslim refugees cross the new borders, the divided empire finally achieved its independence on 15 August 1947.

"At the stroke of the midnight hour, when the world sleeps, India will awake to life and freedom."

JAWAHARLAL NEHRU, INDIA'S 1ST PRIME MINISTER, 14 AUGUST 1947

BIRTH OF PAKISTAN

In 1947, India was divided into two independent states: India and Pakistan. Between 1947 and 1948 the two countries fought to secure Kashmir. Pakistan was divided again in 1971, when East Pakistan declared independence and became Bangladesh. The borders of Kashmir are still disputed.

KASHMIR 1949

PAKISTAN (WEST PAKISTAN) 1947

AFGHANISTAN

NEPAL

BHUTAN

PAKISTAN (EAST PAKISTAN) 1947

INDIA 1947

CHINA

BURMA

NORTH VIETNAM

LAOS

THAILAND

CAMBODIA

SOUTH VIETNAM

Arabian Sea

Bay of Bengal

Andaman Islands (governed by India)

Nicobar Island (governed by India)

CEYLON

INDIAN OCEAN

KEY

- India
- Pakistan
- Pakistan-controlled Kashmir
- •••• Partition lines drawn by British

The ruler of communist China from 1949 until his death in 1976, Mao Zedong trained as a teacher in Hunan before travelling to Peking (Beijing). Whilst working as a librarian at Peking University, he became a communist, and he helped to found the Communist Party in 1921. In 1934, Mao guided 86,000 communists on the Long March. He became chairman of the party in 1943. As leader, he modernized China, but his radical policies were ruthless and ambitious, and caused huge loss of life.

THE FOUNDING OF COMMUNIST CHINA

Between 1927 and 1949, an ideological divide split China, as Mao Zedong's Communist Party fought China's Nationalist Party for the future of the country. Eventually, after years of civil war, Japanese occupation, and World War II, Mao emerged as ruler of a new communist China.

The Chinese Communist Party (CCP) was set up in Shanghai on 23 July 1921. At first it collaborated with China's Nationalist Party, the Kuomintang (KMT), but the alliance was severed in 1927 when the KMT, under the rule of a new leader, anti-communist Chiang Kai-shek, turned on their rivals (see pp.288–89). The KMT destroyed the communists in all major cities, and the CCP was forced to retreat to Jiangxi province in southern China, where they established the Soviet Republic of China in 1931. In 1934, they were forced to abandon their base when they were surrounded by KMT forces. Under the guidance of the future Chairman of the Communist Party of China, Mao Zedong, the fragments of the Communist Party

undertook the "Long March" – a year-long trek to the northern province of Shaanxi. It was a good strategic base, being both far away from the KMT and close to supply routes from the USSR.

Japanese invasion during World War II briefly forced the CCP and KMT to collaborate again to some extent. After the war, US negotiators tried to reconcile the two parties, but civil war broke out. The KMT had early victories, but the CCP gained the support of the rural peasantry and their army swelled. They quickly gained ground by splitting the KMT forces into isolated pockets. By 1949, the Kuomintang had collapsed. On 1 October 1949, Mao announced the establishment of the People's Republic of China.

THE LONG MARCH
OCTOBER 1934–OCTOBER 1935

Some 86,000 troops set out from the Communist Party base in Ruijin, Jiangxi, on a journey that covered 6,000km (3,700 miles) and lasted 368 days. The communist troops were under constant attack by Kuomintang forces, facing machine-gun attacks and bombings. The communists travelled mostly at night, splitting up to avoid detection. They crossed mountains and acres of wilderness before reaching the northern province of Shaanxi.

▮ Communist centres, 1934

→ The Long March

◁ **Chairman Mao Zedong**
People gather to celebrate the end of the Chinese Civil War and the founding of the People's Republic of China in this propaganda poster from 1949.

Apr 1946 Harbin

1948 Communists use guerrilla tactics to wear the KMT down in Manchuria

Oct 1948 Changchun

Nov 1948 Mukden (Shenyang)

MANCHURIA

INNER MONGOLIA

MONGOLIA

Gobi

11 Oct 1948 Battle of Jinzhou is a turning point in the civil war; leads to CCP control of the northeast

May 1949 Mao has the support of rural China but needs to capture the cities. Shanghai falls with relatively little collateral damage

1949 As cities such as Hangzhou fall to the CCP, Mao swiftly sends in officers to oversee a smooth takeover

10 Oct 1934 The communists set out from Ruijin, Jiangxi, which has been their power base throughout the early 1930s

May 1949 Qingdao

9 Jan 1949 Communist victory at the Battle of Tianjin persuades 500,000 KMT troops to switch sides

Oct 1948 Jinzhou

Jan 1949 Peking (Beijing)

Jan 1949 Tianjin

1 Oct 1949 Mao announces the establishment of the People's Republic of China

Sep 1948 Jinan

Jan 1949 Xuzhou

Jun 1948 Kaifeng

Apr 1949 Taiyuan

Apr 1948 Luoyang

Oct 1935 Yan'an

10 Jan 1949 Battle of Beijing is a major defeat for the KMT

20 Oct 1935 Communists reach Yan'an, which becomes their headquarters.

16 Sep 1935 The last major hurdle for Mao's forces, they capture Lazikou Pass after climbers are sent up the steep cliff at night to bypass KMT defences

8 Jun 1948 Despite having a larger army, the KMT suffer a quick defeat

May 1949 Shanghai

May 1949 Hangzhou

May 1949 Nanjing

May 1949 Nanchang

May 1949 Wuhan

Aug 1949 Fuzhou

Oct 1949 Xiamen

Nov 1931 Ruijin

Aug 1949 Changsha

Aug 1949 Xi'an

Sep 1949 Xining

Aug 1949 Lanzhou

Nov 1949 Chongqing (Capital of China, 1938–45)

Jan 1935 Zunyi

Nov 1949 Guiyang

25 Nov–3 Dec 1934 The first major battle, the Battle of Xiangjiang River costs Mao's Red Army roughly half of its troops

29 May 1935 At the Battle for Luding Bridge, 22 communist soldiers capture the bridge – a crucial river crossing – despite heavy fire

Jan 1935 During a meeting of the Communist Party in the captured city of Zunyi, Mao emerges as the dominant communist leader

Nov 1949 Guilin

Oct 1949 Guangzhou

HONG KONG (governed by UK)

Apr 1950 HAINAN

EAST CHINA SEA

KOREA

SOUTH CHINA SEA

PHILIPPINES

TAIWAN

CHINA

SHAANXI

HUBEI

JIANGXI

FUJIAN

GUANGDONG

VIETNAM

FRENCH INDOCHINA

BURMA (MYANMAR)

Yellow River

Yangtze

2 FIGHTING RESUMES 1945–48

The communists gained much from the Japanese occupation of China (1937–45); they developed their guerrilla warfare methods and seized weapons from the Japanese. When the civil war resumed in 1945, the CCP used these advantages to move south and seize territory, including the major cities of Luoyang and Kaifeng. By 1948, they controlled over one-third of China.

Communist control by 1946

Area under Japanese control, 1944

Principal communist campaigns

Communist takeover, with date

Major battle

3 COMMUNIST VICTORY 1948–49

As the CCP advanced, the KMT retreated to the south. Many were not prepared to surrender, and the KMT won several battles. However, the CCP split the KMT forces into small groups, weakening them. By January 1949, the Kuomintang were forced to withdraw from Beijing. Mao declared the People's Republic of China in October 1949, and by 1950 the CCP had seized Hainan Island and Tibet.

Communist control by mid-1949

4 TAIWAN DECEMBER 1949

Guangzhou was the last stronghold of the Kuomintang. After it fell to the Communist Party on 14 October 1949, 1.2 million people fled to the island of Formosa (Taiwan), 160 km (100 miles) off the coast of China. Kuomintang leader Chiang Kai-shek left for the island on 12 December 1949 and set up the Republic of China.

Taiwan

LONG MARCH TO VICTORY

Forced from its base in the province of Jiangxi in 1934, the CCP fled north, gaining support along the way. The war against Japan helped the party greatly, allowing them to take control of Japanese-occupied Manchuria and then move south, seizing KMT territory.

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4

1930 1935 1940 1945 1950

SUPERPOWERS

By the end of World War II, two of the Allies, the US and the USSR, had emerged as the world's dominant powers. Owing to their military might and global political influence, they became known as "superpowers". The ideological gulf that separated them generated regular conflict in the era of the Cold War.

△ **Powerful weapon**
On 1 November 1952, the US detonated the first hydrogen bomb, codenamed Ivy Mike. It was a thousand times more powerful than the atomic bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

The USSR had been an unexpected ally in World War II, and Britain and the US made common cause with Stalin's dictatorship in the overthrow of Hitler's European "New Order". As the Red Army advanced into eastern Europe, it became clear that Stalin wanted to dominate the region politically, an ambition that drove a wedge between the wartime allies and opened the way to what was christened the Cold War. The first major conflict came over the future of Berlin, which was inside the Soviet zone of Germany but was controlled by all four major allies: Britain, the US, France, and the USSR. In 1948, Stalin tried to cut Berlin off from the West in order to incorporate it fully in the Communist bloc, but a Western relief effort that came to be known as the Berlin Airlift brought food and supplies to West Berliners, and after 318 days Stalin abandoned the blockade. The battle-line between the two super-powers was now clear.

Growing tensions

By the time of the Berlin crisis, both the USSR and the US had come to realize that there was now no possibility of peaceful collaboration. Soviet influence rapidly spread, and with the triumph of

△ **Anti-Communist propaganda**
The outbreak of war in Korea brought the Cold War to east Asia. Propaganda produced during the period was used to antagonize South Koreans against the communists.

communism in China, North Korea, and North Vietnam, it seemed likely that Soviet power would pose a profound threat to the West. In the US, a wave of anti-communism was unleashed in the early 1950s as the American public came to realize that the Soviet superpower represented a menace to American interests. When communist North Korea invaded the South, the US used its influence in the United Nations to organize an alliance to contain the threat.

The Korean War was only one of a number of proxy wars in which the US and the USSR looked to enhance their global influence as the new superpowers.

At the core of American and Soviet superpower status was the possession of a large arsenal of nuclear weapons. By 1953, both states had tested the hydrogen bomb, whose destructive power eclipsed the atomic bombs dropped on Japan in 1945. As the stockpiles of bombs built up, no other state could match the military potential of the superpowers. Competition between them was symbolized by the Space Race, in which each side sought to outdo the other. The USSR successfully launched the *Sputnik 1* satellite in 1957 and boasted the first man in space, the first woman in space, and the first spacewalk. Only with the American success in sending a manned mission to the Moon in 1969 did the race

DEADLY RIVALRY

In 1945, the emergence of the US and USSR as superpowers was founded on their capacity to build, test, and accumulate nuclear weapons in massive quantities. The Cold War, so called because no direct military action was taken, led to deep divisions and animosity between the two countries and their respective allies. The threat of nuclear annihilation was constant, but after the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962, the rivalry between the two nations played out in the Space Race.

Aug 1945 The US drops atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, starting the nuclear arms race

29 Aug 1949 The Soviet Union tests its first nuclear bomb, and the arms race escalates

24 Jun 1950 The Korean War begins: North Korea invades the south, with Stalin's support

Mid-1950s The USSR and its affiliated communist nations in eastern Europe begin talks for forming the Warsaw Pact, ultimately signed in May 1955

NUCLEAR WEAPONS

THE COLD WAR

THE SPACE RACE

1945

1950

24 Jun 1948–12 May 1949 The first major crisis of the Cold War occurs – Stalin blockades Berlin; an effort from various countries saves Berliners from starvation

4 Apr 1949 NATO is formed between the US and other western nations

◁ **Concrete divide**
An East German worker makes repairs to the hastily built Berlin Wall – a 45-km (28-mile) scar that cut through the German capital, dividing east from west.

> *"Mankind must put an end to war or war will put an end to mankind."*
>
> JOHN F. KENNEDY, US PRESIDENT, 1961

become more equal. The nuclear confrontation in the 1950s did not provoke war between the two superpowers because neither side could risk retaliation. But in 1962, to counter the stationing of American missiles in Turkey, Nikita Khrushchev, the Soviet leader, authorized the establishment of Soviet missile sites in Cuba, the site of Castro's pro-Soviet revolution. In the end, the USSR backed down from President Kennedy's ultimatum to end the project and a more serious crisis was averted.

The coming of détente

From the Cuban crisis onwards, the two superpowers looked for ways to reduce the nuclear risks. A so-called "red telephone" line was installed between leaders in Moscow and Washington so that they could communicate directly during a crisis. In August 1963, the first Test Ban Treaty was signed, and in 1972 talks between the two superpowers produced SALT I, the first serious effort to scale back the nuclear arsenals.

Although both superpowers continued to spend heavily on defence and to play out political battles between them in other parts of the world, there emerged a greater willingness to talk and to avoid the open hostility of the 1940s and 1950s. When the Soviet bloc collapsed in 1989–91, the USSR's status as a superpower disappeared. By the 1990s, the US was, for the time being, the sole superpower.

▽ **The American dream**
This Cadillac convertible epitomizes the growing prosperity of America's middle class, asserting capitalism as superior to communism.
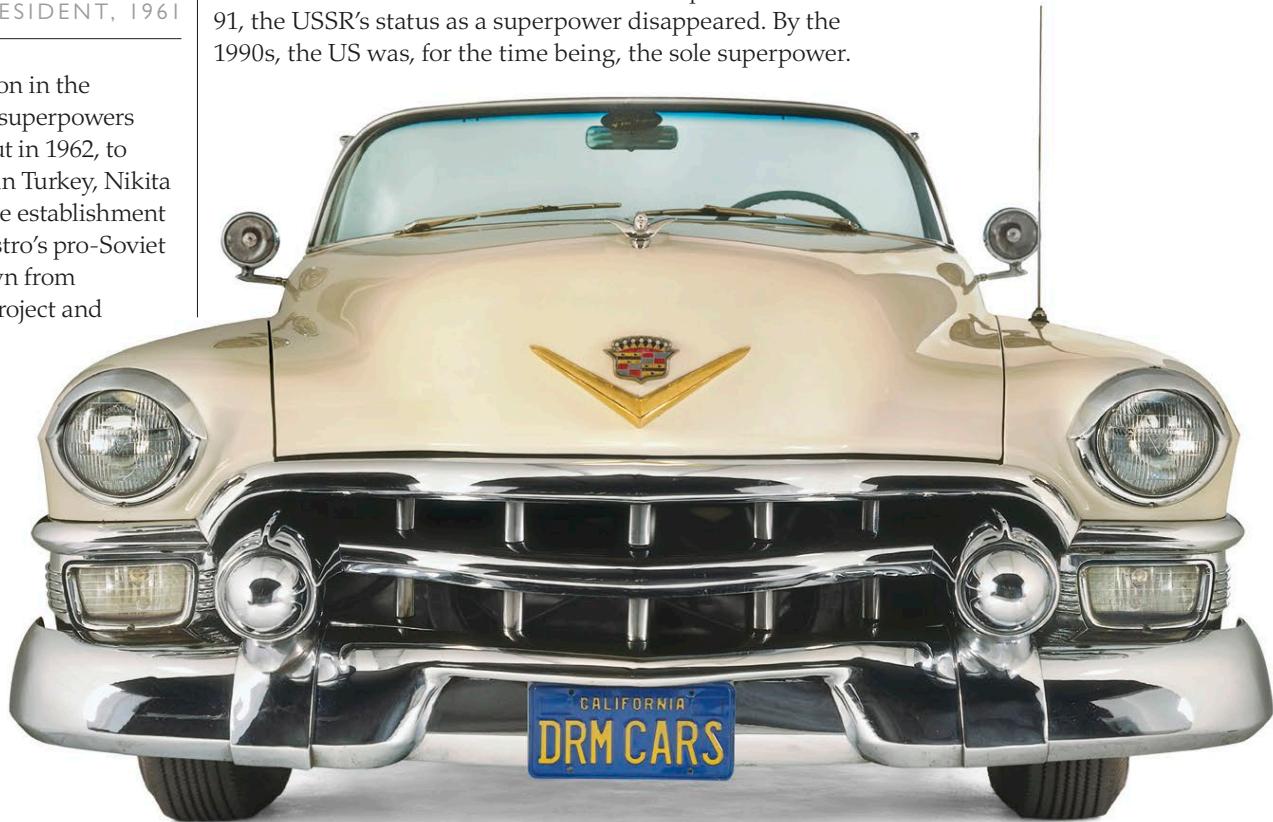
17 Feb 1958 The Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (CND) is formed; its iconic emblem becomes one of the most recognized in the world

5 May 1961 Alan Shepherd, flying on *Freedom 7*, becomes the first American in space

13 Aug 1961 Barbed wire is put up as the first stage of construction of the Berlin Wall, which splits east Berlin from west

18 Mar 1965 Soviet cosmonaut Alexei Leonov makes the first spacewalk in history, beating American rival Ed White by almost 3 months

1 Jul 1968 The Non-Proliferation Treaty is signed to make countries holding nuclear weapons commit to a cautious undertaking to disarm

1960   1965   1970

4 Oct 1957 The USSR launches the world's first man-made satellite, *Sputnik I*; it takes 98 minutes to orbit Earth

12 Apr 1961 Soviet cosmonaut Yuri Gagarin becomes the first human to travel in space in his spacecraft, *Vostok 1*

25 May 1961 US president John F. Kennedy pledges to the American public to put the first man on the Moon

16 Oct 1962 The Cuban Missile Crisis begins – a tense stand-off between the US and USSR in Cuba brings the world to the brink of nuclear war

20 Jul 1969 American astronaut Neil Armstrong becomes the first man to walk on the Moon; the historic event is watched live on television worldwide

THE COLD WAR

After World War II ended in 1945, bitter rivalry between the US and the USSR dominated international affairs and led to many global crises. Known as the Cold War, this period of extreme political tension, which lasted for almost half a century, was as much a conflict of ideology and influence as military action.

The US and the USSR emerged from World War II as the most powerful victors. Although formerly allies, the two nations had major political and economic disagreements about the world's future, with the US promoting democracy and capitalism and the USSR supporting communism. By 1949, communist regions had emerged throughout eastern Europe, and China had emerged as a communist state, intensifying international division. The Western nations set up the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) military alliance, and the Soviet bloc responded with the Warsaw Pact. Competition escalated as first the US, then the USSR, acquired and tested nuclear weapons, initially to be delivered by aircraft, later by missiles and submarines (see pp.324–25).

The Cold War never developed into a direct war because the threat of nuclear retaliation was too great. However, armed conflicts between proxy countries across the globe became frequent. The USSR would back smaller, non-nuclear communist regimes, while the US would retaliate by supporting anti-communist forces in the same conflict. Few countries avoided taking sides, although some did remain non-aligned.

This new style of war was not just a military conflict, however; scientific, technological, cultural, and propaganda wars between the two superpowers were intense. Despite the antagonism between the two major powers, the Cold War did keep a kind of peace in place for almost half a century, although at huge cost to those nations where the conflict became "hot".

"Whether you like it or not, history is on our side. We will bury you."

NIKITA KHRUSHCHEV, SOVIET PREMIER, 18 NOVEMBER 1956

GERMANY DIVIDED

After World War II, the four victorious allies divided Germany and its capital, Berlin, between them. In 1949, the US, French, and British merged their sectors to form West Germany, with a new capital in Bonn; East Germany and East Berlin remained under Soviet control. In 1961, the East Germans built a wall to separate the communist East from capitalist West Berlin.

KEY

- Control point
- Railway line
- Major road

FOUNDATION OF NATO 1949–2017

In the wake of World War II, in 1949, the US, Canada, and 10 European nations signed the North Atlantic Treaty, which established NATO. It was a defensive military alliance, which promised to provide mutual assistance if one nation were to be attacked. Greece and Turkey joined in 1952, West Germany in 1955, and Spain in 1982. After the end of the Cold War, NATO expanded into eastern Europe to become an alliance of 29 states.

1962 World comes close to nuclear war during the Cuban Missile Crisis

1954 The US secretly backs a Guatemalan coup d'état to remove a socialist leader

△ **SR-71 Blackbird**
First flown on 22 December 1964, the SR-71 Blackbird was an aircraft designed in secret by the US to outrun enemy missiles.

2 FOUNDATION OF THE WARSAW PACT 1955–91

The Warsaw Pact was established by the USSR and seven eastern European allies in May 1955 in response to a re-armed West Germany joining NATO. The forces collaborated only once, intervening to end the Prague Spring uprising, which occurred in Czechoslovakia in 1968. The Warsaw Pact collapsed at the end of the Cold War in July 1991.

3 CENTO 1955–79

In 1955, Iran, Iraq, Pakistan, Turkey, and the UK set up the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO), originally known as the Baghdad Pact. Modelled on NATO, the organization's goal was to contain the USSR by linking the states that bordered it to the south. The organization was largely ineffectual, and collapsed after the Iranian revolution of 1979.

☪ CENTO Pact, 1959

1948–49 The USSR cuts off transport links into West Berlin during the Berlin Blockade

1960 A US spy aircraft is shot down in Soviet airspace

1946–53 The USSR attempts to force Turkey to allow it to freely use the Turkish Straits. Turkey refuses, and looks to the US for support

CZECHOSLOVAKIA
1948 Czechoslovak coup d'état
1968 Prague Spring

HUNGARY
1956 Hungarian Uprising

1950–53 Korean War

1954–55, 1958 Led by Mao Zedong, Chinese communist forces attack Taiwan. Taiwan receives support from the US

1958 14 July Revolution

1956 Suez Crisis

1967–75 The US backs the Khmer Republic during the Cambodian Civil War

1946–54, 1955–75 Vietnam Wars

1945–46 Allied forces withdraw from Iran, but the USSR refuses, raising tension
1953 Iranian coup d'état

1977–78 Formally USSR-backed Somalia invades communist Ethiopia. The USSR and Cuba support Ethiopia, and Somalia gains assistance from the US

1961 Western and communist countries begin to support different factions fighting for Angolan independence from Portugal

COLD WAR ALLIANCES

Two rival military alliances emerged during the Cold War: the Western NATO and the communist Warsaw Pact. A short-lived central Asian version of NATO also existed between 1955 and 1979. Both sides built up arsenals of nuclear weapons. A number of countries chose to remain non-aligned in this conflict, and 29 countries – mainly in Africa and Asia – formalized this by creating the Non-Aligned Movement in 1955.

4 WARS BY PROXY 1950–91

The US and the USSR never fought each other directly during the Cold War, as the nuclear stockpiles amassed by each side kept the two power blocs at peace, in a state of permanent deterrence. However, both tried to increase their influence by intervening in conflicts, disputes, and civil wars around the world, notably in Berlin (1948–49), Korea (1950–53), Angola (after 1961), Cuba (1962), and Vietnam (1946–75).

⚡ Cold War flashpoint

KEY

US AND ALLIES

⬛ US and original NATO, 1949

🟩 Later NATO, from 1952

🟨 NATO dependencies, 1960

🟩 Other nations allied to the Western bloc by treaties by 1980

USSR AND ALLIES

🟥 Warsaw Pact, 1955

🟥 Other communist satellite states, from 1924

🟪 China

⚓ Major US fleet

⛫ Major US and NATO overseas bases

↑ US missile base

⚓ US naval base

✈ US bomber base

⛫ Major Soviet overseas base

↑ Soviet missile base

⚓ Soviet naval base

✈ Soviet bomber base

TIMELINE

1940　1960　1980　2000　2020

2 THE UN RESPONSE
SEPTEMBER–OCTOBER 1950

In response to the North Korean invasion, the UN Security Council, boycotted by the USSR, recommended member states support South Korea. In September 1950, UN troops led by US General MacArthur landed at Inchon and then Pusan, in the south. Fearing encirclement, the North's troops withdrew. The UN troops then headed north to capture the capital Pyongyang and neared Chosan on the frontier with China.

➤ UN counter attack

★ Capital city

✕ Major battle

≈ US fleet

◢ UN landings

┅ Extent of UN advance, 25 Nov 1950

3 THE CHINESE INVASION
OCTOBER 1950–JANUARY 1951

China warned the US that it would intervene to support North Korea if troops crossed the 38th parallel. After UN troops crossed this divide, Chinese volunteers began to cross the frontier in October 1950. The main Chinese army crossed the border in November and pushed the UN forces southwards, retaking Seoul and establishing a new frontline across the south of the peninsula.

➤ Chinese attack

✕ Major battle

┅ Extent of Chinese advance, 26 Jan 1951

4 STALEMATE
JANUARY 1951–JULY 1953

In the second half of January 1951, UN forces responded to the Chinese invasion, successfully containing two major Chinese attacks before launching a successful push northwards in May 1951. What had been a mobile war now became static, and by November 1951 the war stabilized along a defensive line slightly north of the 38th parallel. Limited fighting continued for 2 years, until July 1953, when a ceasefire was agreed.

➪ UN counter attack

┅ Ceasefire line, 27 Jul 1953

1 THE NORTH KOREAN ATTACK
JUNE–SEPTEMBER 1950

At dawn on 25 June 1950, North Korean troops launched a surprise attack across the 38th parallel against South Korea, rapidly capturing the South's capital, Seoul, and reaching almost to the south coast. By mid-September 1950, South Korea was reduced to a small pocket of land in the southeast corner of the peninsula known as the Pusan Perimeter.

➤ Main axis of North Korean attack

★ Capital city

┅ Extent of North Korean advance, 15 Sep 1950

✕ Major battle

A WAR WITHOUT WINNERS

The Korean War engulfed the whole of the Korean peninsula, as first the North Korean, then the UN, and then the Chinese armies swept up and down the peninsula. At the end of the war in 1953, the original border between the two countries remained roughly the same.

KEY

NORTH KOREA GAINS, 1950
- 4 Jul
- 25 Jul
- 5 Aug
- 15 Sep

SOUTH KOREA
- Pusan Perimeter

TIMELINE
1
2
3
4
1950 1951 1952 1953 1954

East Sea (Sea of Japan)

Chongjin

Kimchaek

Tanchon

26 Nov–13 Dec 1950 UN forces are encircled by Chinese troops at the Battle of Chosin Reservoir

27 Jul 1953 An armistice line is established close to the 38th parallel

Hungnam

Wonsan

Kosong

Ulchin

Andong

Hyesan

Changbai

Yalu

Manpo

Kanggye

Amu

N O R T H   K O R E A

S O U T H

Seoul

Panmunjom

Inchon

Haeju

Chosan

Pyongyang

25 Nov 1950 Furthest advance of UN troops towards the Chinese border

19 Oct 1950 Pyongyang captured by UN forces

Sinuiju

C H I N A

Dandong

Yellow Sea

38th parallel

15 Sep 1950 40,000 UN troops plus 7,000 South Korean troops launch amphibious assault at Inchon and bombard the city before recapturing Seoul and heading north

Wonju

Map labels

16 Sep 1950 US troops head north from the Pusan Perimeter

16 Sep–24 Oct 1950 UN reinforcements arrive from Japan

15 Sep 1950 Southern limit of North Korea's advance

J A P A N

Pohang

Taegu

Pusan

K o r e a   S t r a i t

Tsushima (governed by Japan)

K O R E A

Taejon

Kunsan

Kwangju

Mokpo

▽ **The victims of war**
A young Korean girl and her baby brother stand in front of an M-26 tank in June 1951. About 2.5 million Korean civilians were killed or wounded during the war, and many were made homeless.

KIM IL-SUNG
1912–94

Born near Pyongyang, Kim Il-Sung was the leader of North Korea from 1948 until his death in 1994. He became involved in communism as a student and in the 1930s joined an anti-Japanese guerrilla group. In 1940, he travelled to the USSR and later became a major in the Soviet Army. At the end of World War II, he returned to Korea intent on creating a unified communist nation.

KOREAN WAR

The Cold War became "hot" in June 1950, when North Korean forces attacked South Korea in an attempt to unite the Korean peninsula under communist control. The war continued for 3 years, with the Chinese supporting the North and the US the South; the expected confrontation between the USSR and the US never happened.

In 1945, at the end of World War II, the US and USSR occupied the Japanese colony of Korea. They divided the country along the 38th parallel, with Soviet forces taking control of the north and the US the south. The intention was to rule jointly for 5 years until Korea became independent, but disagreements between the two countries about Korea's future solidified the division. Both North Korea and South Korea held their own separate elections in 1948, and the USSR and US withdrew their troops the following year. However, North Korea intended to unify the peninsula under communist rule, and with tacit Soviet support, but no promise

of troops, it attacked South Korea in June 1950. The invasion was unexpected, enabling the North Korean troops to occupy almost the entire peninsula. US, South Korean, and Allied troops, endorsed by the UN, responded from July. The frontline then changed as UN troops headed north, only to be met in November by a Chinese invasion. By the middle of 1951, there was a stalemate, which resulted in an agreed armistice in July 1953 to withdraw forces either side of the 38th parallel. That armistice remains in force, as no permanent peace treaty has been signed to end the war.

1 THE PHILIPPINES 1935–46

The US had acquired the Philippines from Spain after success in the 1898 Spanish–American War. The islands were granted Commonwealth or autonomous status in 1935, but were then occupied by the Japanese between 1941 and 1945. After liberation, the Philippines became an independent republic on 4 July 1946.

2 INDONESIA 1945–49

The Indonesian National Party proclaimed the country's independence from the Netherlands on 17 August 1945. After much fighting between the two countries, as well as a communist insurrection, independence was achieved on 27 December 1949, although constitutional links remained with the Dutch crown until 1956.

3 FRENCH INDOCHINA 1945–54

At the end of Japanese occupation in 1945, the Viet Minh nationalist independence coalition, led by Ho Chi Minh, occupied Hanoi and proclaimed a provisional government. The French tried to restore colonial rule, leading to war in 1946. They were defeated, and on 20 July 1954 they granted independence to Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam.

CHINA

TAIWAN

Macao **1999**
Hong Kong **1997**

BURMA **1948**

Dien Bien Phu

LAOS **1954**

Hanoi

Gulf of Tongking

Hainan

Yangon (formerly Rangoon)

Bay of Bengal

THAILAND

1954 French suffer massive defeat at hands of General Giap and the Viet Minh at Dien Bien Phu

Andaman Islands to India

Andaman Sea

CAMBODIA **1954**

VIETNAM **1954**

1954 Vietnam was divided in two at the Geneva Accords, with both parts being granted independence

South China Sea

Manila

PHILIPPINES

Philippine Sea

PACIFIC OCEAN

Nicobar Islands to India

Gulf of Siam

Phnom Penh

Saigon (Ho Chi Minh City)

1946

1984 Brunei gains independence from the UK as an independent sultanate

Sulu Sea

BRITISH NORTH BORNEO (SABAH) **1963**

MALAYSIA

BRUNEI **1984**

MALAYA **1957**

1965 Having joined Malaysia in 1963, Singapore then leaves to become an independent island republic in 1965

SINGAPORE **1963**

SARAWAK **1963**

Celebes Sea

Sumatra

Borneo

Celebes

INDONESIA

1949

Java Sea

Banda Sea

Java

Flores

Sumba

Timor

EAST TIMOR **2002**

1975 Indonesia occupies the Portuguese colony of East Timor, which gains its independence in 2002

Timor Sea

6 HONG KONG AND MACAO 1997–99

In 1997, with the end of Britain's 99-year lease on the New Territories, Hong Kong was handed back to China. Portugal then returned Macao to Chinese rule in 1999, abolishing the last remaining European colony in Asia. The age of European colonialism in Asia was now over.

● Hong Kong   ▲ Macao

5 NEW GUINEA 1949–75

After occupation by Australia in World War I, the northeastern half of New Guinea became an Australian mandate. It remained under Australia's control until 1975, when it became independent as Papua New Guinea. Western New Guinea had been a Dutch colony, but in 1963 it became part of Indonesia under the name of Irian Jaya.

AUSTRALIA

END OF COLONIAL RULE

The imperial powers that had colonies in Southeast Asia slowly granted their former possessions independence after the end of World War II, starting with the US in the Philippines in 1946, and ending with Portugal handing over Macao to China in 1999. The transition was often violent, with fighting particularly intense in Indonesia and French Indochina.

KEY

■ UK	■ Netherlands	■ Portugal	⚑ Independence from colonial rule
■ France	■ US	■ Australia	

TIMELINE

1 2 3 4 5 6

1920 1940 1960 1980 2000
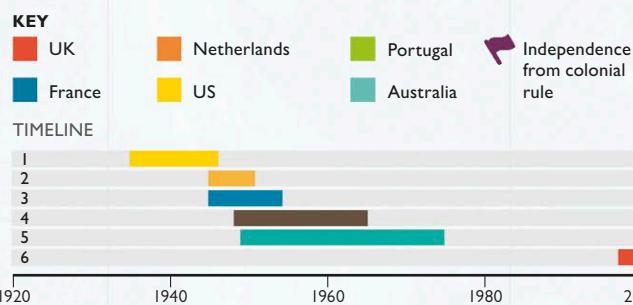
△ **The fight for independence**
Protesters gather in 1975 to support an East Timor independence party. Having gained independence from Portugal in November 1975, East Timor was then occupied by Indonesia 9 days later.

Jayapura

IRIAN JAYA ⚑ **1963**

TERRITORY OF NEW GUINEA

PAPUA NEW GUINEA ⚑ **1975**

TERRITORY OF PAPUA

New Guinea

Coral Sea

Port Moresby

1963
Netherlands hands over Irian Jaya to Indonesia

4   MALAYA 1948–63

The Japanese occupation of Malaya (1942–45) stirred up nationalist sentiment, prompting the British to set up the Federation of Malaya in 1948. The federation united the territories and guaranteed the rights of the Malay people. It gained full independence in 1957. In 1963, the new state of Malaysia was formed, including the Federation of Malaya and the British colonies of Sarawak, Sabah, and Singapore.

DECOLONIZATION OF SOUTHEAST ASIA

In 1945, all of Southeast Asia, except Thailand, was nominally under colonial control. However, it was a time of great change; within 30 years, former empires had disappeared, and what had previously been colonies were replaced by independent states. The final colonial relics were handed over at the end of the 20th century.

During World War II, the Japanese invaded Southeast Asia, driving out the colonial powers. In 1945, at the end of the war, the colonial powers returned. However, their right to rule was now seriously challenged, as they were seen to have been weak in the face of Japanese aggression. Nationalist sentiments, stirred up by the Japanese occupation, were on the rise. Indonesian nationalists proclaimed independence even before the Dutch had time to return to Indonesia, and the Viet Minh, a Vietnamese independence group, surprised the French with their own declaration. One by one, the imperial powers started to leave the region.

The US was the first to go, leaving the Philippines peacefully in 1946, followed by the Dutch from Indonesia in 1949, after much fighting. The French left Indochina in 1954 after losing a major battle in Vietnam, then the British left Malaya between 1957 and 1963, their departure complicated by a communist uprising. The merged state of Papua New Guinea gained its independence from Australia in 1975, while Brunei gained its independence from Britain in 1984. After the British departed from Hong Kong in 1997, Macao, the last European colony in Asia, was handed over by the Portuguese to China, in 1999. The colonial era was over.

"You can kill ten of my men for every one I kill of yours. But even at those odds, you will lose and I will win."

HO CHI MINH, VIETNAM'S LEADER, TO FRENCH COLONIALISTS, 1946

SUKARNO
1901–70

Sukarno was a founder member of the Indonesian National Party, which was formed in 1927. He was jailed for political activities in 1929 and then spent 13 of the next 15 years in prison or exile. Politically astute during the Japanese occupation of 1942–45, he emerged as the de facto president of Indonesia in November 1945. Sukarno steered Indonesia to independence in 1949, and gained great prestige as leader of the non-aligned Bandung Conference in 1955. His increasingly authoritarian tendencies and confrontation with Malaya caused him to lose power to the army leader General Muhammad Suharto in 1967.

AN EXPANDING UNION

The European Union (EU) has gradually grown from its origins of six founding members in 1957 to 28 states by 2018. Its biggest expansion occurred when eight former communist states, plus Malta and Cyprus, joined in 2004.

KEY

- Founding members, 1957
- Members by 1973
- Members by 1986
- Members by 1995
- Members by 2004
- Members by 2013
- Recognized applicants for EU membership (with date of application)

TIMELINE

	1940	1960	1980	2000	2020
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					

1 THE ORIGINS OF THE UNION 1945–57

Post-war discussions between six western European nations led to the founding of the ECSC in 1951. It merged the coal and steel industries of France, West Germany, Italy, and the three Benelux countries. The six went further in 1957, and set up the EEC and Euratom. The Soviet bloc equivalent was the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (COMECON).

- Members of ECSC, EEC, and Euratom
- Members and associate members of COMECON

5 UK DEPARTURE 2016–19

After a referendum in 2016, the UK set out plans to leave the EU in 2019. It is the first member state to leave, although three other countries have withdrawn from the EU following territorial changes: Algeria departed when it ceased to be French territory in 1962, as did the Danish territory of Greenland in 1995, and the French Caribbean island of Saint Barthélemy in 2012.

- Departure from EU, 2019

1958 Struggling to agree on a capital city for the EU, members decide to rotate cities, starting with Brussels

1951 Treaty of Paris, signed by six nations, sets up the ECSC

1986 Single European Act, signed in Luxembourg, establishes the four freedoms of movement for capital, labour, goods, and services

2007 Treaty of Lisbon reforms the legal structure of the EU and provides a mechanism for countries to leave the union

1985 Schengen Agreement abolishes internal border checks across most of the EU

1979 First direct elections held in the European Parliament in Strasbourg

1992 Maastricht Treaty turns the EC into the EU

4 THE EURO 2002–PRESENT

The euro first came into circulation in 2002, replacing 12 national currencies. By 2018, it was used in 19 of the 28 member states, as well as in Andorra, Monaco, San Marino, Vatican City, in several European overseas territories, and in Kosovo and Montenegro, both of which are outside the EU.

€ Countries using the euro

1951 Treaties establishing the EEC and Euratom are signed in Rome

Map labels

ATLANTIC OCEAN

North Sea

Baltic Sea

Mediterranean Sea

NORWAY

SWEDEN 1995

FINLAND 1995

ESTONIA 2004

LATVIA 2004

LITHUANIA 2004

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

BELARUS

POLAND 2004

REPUBLIC OF IRELAND 1973

UNITED KINGDOM 1973

DENMARK 1973

NETHERLANDS 1957

WEST GERMANY 1957

EAST GERMANY 1990

Brussels
Maastricht
Paris
BELGIUM 1957
LUXEMBOURG 1957
Schengen
Strasbourg

CZECH REPUBLIC 2004

SLOVAKIA 2004

UKRAINE

HUNGARY 2004

MOLDOVA

FRANCE 1957

SWITZERLAND

AUSTRIA 1995

SLOVENIA 2004

CROATIA 2013

ROMANIA 2007

PORTUGAL 1986

Lisbon

SPAIN 1986

ANDORRA

Corsica

MONACO

SAN MARINO

ITALY 1957

Rome

BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

SERBIA 2009

MONTENEGRO 2008

KOSOVO

MACEDONIA 2004

ALBANIA 2009

BULGARIA 2007

Sardinia

VATICAN CITY

GREECE 1981

ALGERIA

TUNISIA

Sicily

Malta 2004

Crete

EUROPEAN UNITY

Since the end of the Roman Empire in 476 CE, the dream of a united Europe has existed in some form or other. In 1951, following the mass devastation of World War II, six western European nations began a process that would ultimately lead to a political and economic union of 28 member states.

△ **"Europe united"**
This poster from the Cold War era encourages European countries to unite as protection from the USSR. A key reason the EU was founded was to prevent another outbreak of world war.

2 EXPANSION OF THE UNION 1967–92

In 1967, the ECSC, EEC, and Euratom were merged into the European Communities (EC). The UK, Ireland, and Denmark (including Greenland) joined in 1973, Greece in 1981, and Spain and Portugal in 1986 – the latter three being former dictatorships. East Germany joined when it merged with West Germany in 1990. In 1986, the Single European Act set up the single market in goods and services.

1987 Turkey applies for EC membership; it enters into a customs union with the EU in 1996

Black Sea

TURKEY
1987

3 GROWTH OF THE EU 1992–2013

The Maastricht Treaty, signed in 1992, took European integration further. It launched its plans for economic and monetary union, leading to a single currency and the euro. It marked the end of the EC and the start of the EU. Austria, Finland, and Sweden joined in 1993, followed by an influx of 10 new states from eastern Europe and the Mediterranean in 2004. Bulgaria and Romania followed in 2007, and Croatia in 2013, bringing EU membership up to 28 states.

€ *Cyprus* **2004**

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

World War II was the third time in 70 years that France and Germany had been at war with one another. To end this age-old conflict, and to confront the extreme nationalism that had so recently devastated Europe, French and West German politicians began to plan a new future together. In the 1951 Treaty of Paris, they merged their coal and steel industries with those of Italy and the three Benelux countries (the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Belgium), forming the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC). This union was a precursor to the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom), which were established by the same six countries in the Treaty of Rome in 1957. From then on, the competencies and the membership of the EEC grew. In 1967, it was renamed the European Communities (EC), and in 1992 it became the European Union (EU). Waves of new members joined after 1973, and in 2002 a single currency, the euro, was introduced by 12 member states. All EU member states have been at peace with each other since joining the organization and membership is coveted by former communist states in the Balkans. Only a few European nations are outside the Union. However, 40 years of expansion were dashed in 2016 when the UK announced plans to leave the EU.

"The coming together of the nations of Europe requires the elimination of the age-old opposition of France and Germany."

ROBERT SCHUMAN, FRENCH FOREIGN MINISTER, 9 MAY 1950

ROBERT SCHUMAN
1886–1963

One of the founding fathers of the EU, Robert Schuman was born a German national in Luxembourg. His mother was from Luxembourg and his father, who came from Alsace, was French at birth but became German when the region was annexed by Germany in 1871. In 1919, when Alsace was reunited with France after World War I, Robert Schuman became a French national. As French foreign minister, he helped to set up the Council of Europe in 1949, to enhance human rights, and, together with French economist Jean Monnet, he was a guiding light in setting up the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) in 1951 – the forerunner of the EU.
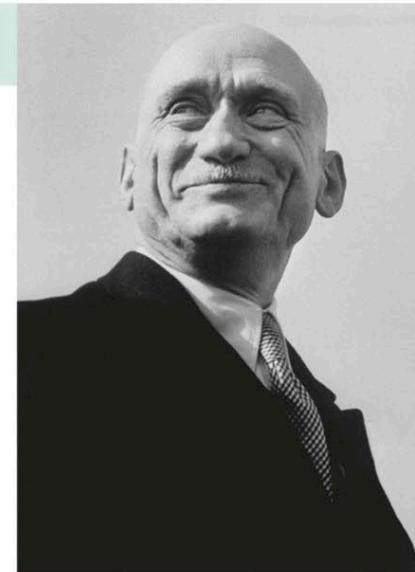
1 APARTHEID 1948–94

In 1948, the white government of South Africa introduced a policy of apartheid ("separateness"), which institutionalized white supremacy and discriminated against black people. Some of the black population was relocated to so-called "tribal homelands". After intense internal resistance, apartheid was abolished in 1994, when free elections resulted in victory for the black majority.

Tribal homelands

Tribal homelands that declared independence

7 NIGERIA AND BOTSWANA 1960–PRESENT

A number of African states have enjoyed great success following their independence. Nigeria, rich in natural resources, is a major oil exporter and was the 23rd richest country by GDP in the world in 2017. Since independence in 1966, Botswana has been consistently democratic and it is now one of the fastest-growing economies. In 2015, Botswana's spending on education was 8 per cent of its GDP, one of the highest rates in the world.

6 WEST AFRICA 1991–2003

West Africa's states are among the weakest on the continent, and civil wars and coups have afflicted the region. In 1989, the warlord Charles Taylor overthrew the government of Liberia and then intervened in the civil war that broke out in Sierra Leone in 1991. Fighting soon spread to Guinea. British troops intervened in Sierra Leone to support the government, ending the civil war in 2002. Taylor was later charged with war crimes.

AFRICA SINCE INDEPENDENCE

On this map, one icon represents up to two instances of an event; two of the same icon indicates that three or four instances of that event have occurred; and three of the same icon shows that there have been more than four events of that kind in the country.

KEY

Civil war Interstate war Successful coup d'état Ethnic and religious conflicts Genocide

TIMELINE

	1940	1960	1980	2000	2020

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

2000 British troops intervene in Sierra Leone to support the elected president

Mid-2000s Nigeria accounts for almost 50 per cent of West Africa's GDP

1998–2000 70,000 killed in border clashes between Eritrea and Ethiopia

2011 Since independence, South Sudan has endured civil war and ethnic violence

1984–85 Massive famine in Ethiopia prompts singers Bob Geldof and Midge Ure to organize Band Aid and Live Aid to raise money for relief

1987 Lord's Resistance Army uses child soldiers to fight government of Uganda

1994 Up to 1 million Tutsis killed by Hutus during the 100-day genocide in Rwanda

1979 Tanzania invades Uganda after its leader, Idi Amin, makes territorial claims against Tanzania

1960–63 Katanga secedes from the Congo

1975–2002 Civil war engulfs Angola as rival armies fight for control

1990 South Africa finally relinquishes control over Namibia, the last colony in Africa

1976–81 Four tribal homelands (Bantustans) become nominally independent from South Africa

Mediterranean Sea

Algiers Tunis TUNISIA Tripoli Cairo Nile Red Sea

Rabat MOROCCO

ALGERIA LIBYA EGYPT

A F R I C A

MAURITANIA Nouakchott

Cape Verde

MALI NIGER CHAD SUDAN Khartoum ERITREA

Dakar SENEGAL Banjul THE GAMBIA Bissau GUINEA-BISSAU Bamako Niger BURKINA FASO Niamey Ouagadougou Ndjamena Addis Ababa

Saahel

Conakry GUINEA Freetown IVORY COAST SIERRA LEONE Monrovia LIBERIA Yamoussoukro GHANA BENIN TOGO Abuja NIGERIA CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC SOUTH SUDAN ETHIOPIA

Accra Lomé Porto Novo Biafra CAMEROON Bangui Malabo Yaoundé

EQUATORIAL GUINEA Libreville GABON REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO UGANDA Kampala KENYA Nairobi

SAO TOMÉ AND PRINCIPE

Congo Brazzaville Kinshasa RWANDA Kigali BURUNDI Bujumbura Dodoma

A T L A N T I C   O C E A N

Luanda ANGOLA Katanga TANZANIA MALAWI Lilongwe

ZAMBIA Lusaka Zambezi

Harare ZIMBABWE

NAMIBIA Windhoek BOTSWANA Gaborone Pretoria MOZAMBIQUE Mbabane SWAZILAND

Bloemfontein Maseru LESOTHO

SOUTH AFRICA

Cape Town

2 DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO
1960–PRESENT

The DR Congo's independence in 1960 created a series of crises. The mineral-rich province of Katanga, hoping to secede, broke out in violence, and the recently elected Prime Minister Patrice Lumumba called on the USSR for support. Fearing communist influence in Africa, the US encouraged Congolese President Joseph Kasa-Vubu to depose Lumumba. The chief of staff of the army, Joseph-Désiré Mobutu, then launched a coup against both leaders, installing a new government. He assumed power in 1965, ruling the country (which he renamed Zaire in 1971) as a dictator.

3 FAMINE 1950–PRESENT

While famine has affected parts of the continent for centuries, from the 1950s increasingly severe desertification; the effects of climate change, such as droughts; and problems caused by civil war caused famine to become more frequent across much of Africa. Millions have died, despite the intervention of international aid agencies.

🐂 Famine

SAUDI ARABIA

DJIBOUTI

SOMALILAND

Ogaden

PUNTLAND

SOMALIA

Mogadishu

1990s Somaliland and Puntland both declare their independence from Somalia

4 EAST AFRICA 1970–PRESENT

From 1970–93, Eritrea fought a long war to free itself from Ethiopia, which had taken control of it following World War II. It eventually won its independence, becoming a one-party repressive state. South Sudan fought for independence from Sudan from 1989–2005, becoming the world's newest state in 2011 when it peacefully gained independence. Central government in Somalia has collapsed since 1991 as rival warlords and Islamic groups have battled for control.

5 GREAT LAKES REGION 1972–94

Conflict has affected much of the Great Lakes region. In 1979, Tanzania invaded Uganda to expel the tyrannical leader Idi Amin, after he tried to annex the Kagera Region in Tanzania. In Rwanda and Burundi, rivalry between two ethnic groups, the Hutu and the Tutsi, has led to ongoing conflict. A genocidal attack by Hutus against Tutsis in Rwanda in 1994 resulted in up to 1 million deaths. Many refugees fled to the DR Congo, where fighting continued.

COMOROS

Mayotte
to France

MADAGASCAR

Antananarivo

▽ **A new dawn**
The election of Nelson Mandela as the first black president of South Africa in 1994 marked the end of apartheid, in force since 1948.

DECOLONIZATION OF AFRICA

The liberation of Africa from European rulers created 54 independent nations, many of them unprepared for the tasks of government and administration. Their recent history has been varied; while some continue to struggle with war and famine, others have been successful politically, socially, and economically.

The move towards decolonization and independence from Europe began in the 1950s, when colonies began to demand self-rule. At that time, only Egypt, Ethiopia, Liberia, and South Africa were independent nations. Libya was the first to gain its independence, in 1951 (from France and the UK), followed by Tunisia and Morocco (from France), and Sudan (from the UK) in 1956. From then on, new African countries appeared almost annually. Most gained independence peacefully, although French resistance to Algerian independence led to a brutal civil war from 1954–62, and Portugal's refusal to hand over its five African colonies led to wars of revolt until 1974. A white-minority revolt in Rhodesia (which became Zimbabwe) delayed its independence from the UK until 1980.

By 1990, every country in Africa was independent, but many faced problems, including numerous changes of government through civil wars, coups d'état, and military dictatorships, as well as issues such as widespread poverty and famine. However, many countries are now experiencing success, including economic growth, increasing political stability, and social reform.

"The best way of learning to be an independent sovereign state is to be an independent sovereign state."

KWAME NKRUMAH, FIRST PRESIDENT OF GHANA, IN A SPEECH TO THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY, 18 MAY 1956

KEY

- Belgium
- France
- Italy
- Portugal
- Spain
- UK
- South Africa

ATLANTIC OCEAN

Arabian Peninsula

AFRICA

INDIAN OCEAN

GAINING INDEPENDENCE
This map shows the borders of present-day Africa, with the colours representing the colonial power that controlled each country before it became independent. Ethiopia and Liberia were never colonized, and Namibia became a South African mandate after World War I.

ROCKETS AND THE SPACE RACE

The development of the nuclear bomb and rocket technology during World War II triggered a post-war arms race between the US and the USSR. As the Cold War escalated, this race also headed into space, as each side used its rocket technology to travel to the Moon and beyond.

On 8 September 1944, Germany deployed the world's first long-range ballistic missile, the V-2 rocket. It was a devastating weapon, capable of travelling up to 320 km (200 miles) and reaching a top speed of 5,760 km/h (3,580 mph). A few months earlier, it had also accidentally become the first artificial object to reach outer space when a test launch went wrong, and the rocket headed vertically off its launch site. From this military beginning emerged the technology both to carry intercontinental ballistic nuclear warheads to their distant targets and to power spacecraft and satellites into space.

At the end of World War II, and with the Cold War escalating (see pp.314–15), the US and the USSR scrambled to seize as much of this new German technology as possible. Some of the German scientists who had developed the V-2 rocket were recruited by the US to work on its military and space programmes, while the Soviets based their missile programme on the German rocket technology they had seized when they took over eastern Germany in 1945. The superpowers now began to fight a war on two fronts. A nuclear arms race started, with the US and the USSR each amassing enough weaponry to destroy the Earth many times over. Only the certainty of mutual destruction prevented all-out war. In a war that was as much about propaganda as weaponry, a race to reach space also began, with each country fighting to earn the international honour of having one of their men become the first person on the Moon.

PROPAGANDA
SOVIET POSTER

The US and the USSR used propaganda to promote their political ideology – capitalism or communism – and to criticize the beliefs of their enemy. Both superpowers were keen to send the first person into space because whoever achieved this victory would be able to use it for propaganda purposes and prove the superiority of their technology. This poster celebrates the USSR's victory, which came in 1961 when it sent Yuri Gagarin into space.

ДЕНЬ КОСМОНАВТИКИ СССР

12 IV 1961

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1 MANHATTAN PROJECT 1939–46

Following the discovery of nuclear fission in 1938, the US set up a secret nuclear weapon programme code-named the Manhattan Project. By 1945, their team of scientists had built three nuclear bombs. After successfully testing the first bomb on 16 July 1945 in Alamogordo, New Mexico, the US deployed the second and third on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August. The unprecedented devastation caused by the bombs forced Japan's surrender in World War II.

☢ First nuclear bomb test   ☢ Attacks on Japan

Kodiak Launch Complex

1942 Los Alamos is chosen as the site for the Manhattan Project

1950–present Nevada Test Site has been used for more than 900 nuclear tests

U S A

Vandenberg Air Force Base

Wallops Flight Facility and Mid-Atlantic Regional Spaceport

Cape Canaveral Air Force Station and Kennedy Space Center

1945 The first nuclear bomb test is carried out in New Mexico. The blast is felt more than 160 km (100 miles) away and the mushroom cloud reaches a height of 12 km (7.5 miles)

FRENCH GUIANA

Guiana Space Centre (operated by ESA)

PACIFIC OCEAN

B R A Z I L

6 RACE TO THE MOON 1958–69

Stung by Soviet success in 1957, the US made its mark in space with the launch of the satellite Explorer 1 in February 1958. Later that year, the US created the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), an agency devoted to space exploration. During the 1960s, the US and USSR raced to be the first nation to send a manned mission to the Moon. The US claimed this victory in July 1969, when Neil Armstrong became the first human to set foot on the Moon.

1970 The European Space Agency (ESA) launches its first satellite from the Guiana Space Centre in Kourou, French Guiana

⚓ US space launch sites

SPACE LAUNCH AND NUCLEAR TEST SITES

Only the US and USSR, and a few other countries, possessed both nuclear weapons and space programmes. The two superpowers have conducted thousands of nuclear tests and space launches since 1945.

KEY

⚓ Other space launch sites

TIMELINE

	1920	1940	1960	1980	2000	2020
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
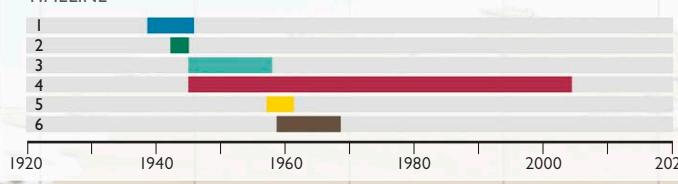
2 BIRTH OF ROCKET POWER 1942–45

In 1942, a team of German scientists, led by Wernher von Braun, developed the V-2 rocket, the world's first long-range guided ballistic missile. During World War II, the Allies had bombed many German cities, so in retaliation Germany launched a total of 3,172 V-2 rockets against Allied cities in Britain, Belgium, France, and the Netherlands, killing 9,000 people. The rockets travelled so fast that the Allies were unable to shoot them down.

🌿 V-2 targeted countries   🚀 V-2 test site

3 ROCKET DEVELOPMENT 1945–57

More than 100 German scientists, including von Braun, surrendered to the US after Germany's defeat in World War II. Many were hired to work on the US weapons programme. The USSR, meanwhile, took over Germany's V-2 production facilities. Both the emerging superpowers then raced to be the first to develop intercontinental ballistic missiles and space rockets. In 1957, the USSR opened the world's first space launch facility, Baikonur Cosmodrome.

🚀 First space launch facility

1957–90 More than 220 tests are conducted at Novaya Zemlya

1949 USSR conducts its first nuclear bomb test at the Semipalatinsk Test Site

1944 V-2 rocket attacks result in about 3,000 fatalities in London and surrounding areas

1966 Many countries claim that Israel has created its first nuclear weapon in December 1966. Israel denies this allegation

2006 North Korea carries out its first nuclear test

1945 US drops the first nuclear bomb over the Japanese city of Hiroshima on 6 August. The blast and its after-effects claim up to 146,000 lives

1954 US conducts first thermonuclear test at Bikini Atoll

1952 US tests its first thermonuclear bomb on the island of Elugelab

1964 China carries out its first nuclear test at Lop Nor. A total of 48 tests are conducted from 1964–96

1952 First British nuclear test conducted on the Montebello Islands, Australia

U S S R

Plesetsk Cosmodrome

Yasny Launch Base

Kapustin Yar

Baikonur Cosmodrome

Svobodny Cosmodrome

Sohae Satellite Launching Station

NORTH KOREA

Jiuquan Satellite Launch Center

Taiyuan Satellite Launch Center

Naro Space Center

Uchinoura Space Center

Tanegashima Space Center

C H I N A

Xichang Satellite Launch Center

Semnan Space Center

ISRAEL

Palmachim Air Force Base

Hammaguir (operated by France)

ALGERIA

PAKISTAN

I N D I A

Satish Dhawan Launch Center

Broglio Space Center (operated by Italy)

SOUTH AFRICA

Omelek

A U S T R A L I A

Woomera (operated by UK)

P A C I F I C O C E A N

A T L A N T I C O C E A N

I N D I A N O C E A N

BRITAIN   NETHERLANDS   GERMANY   BELGIUM   FRANCE

5 SOVIETS REACH SPACE 1957–61

The USSR had early victories in the Space Race. On 4 October 1957, it became the first country to launch an artificial satellite into space. Named Sputnik I, the satellite orbited the Earth for 3 months. In April 1961, the USSR launched its first manned space rocket, Vostok I, which took cosmonaut Yuri Gagarin into space and made him the first human to orbit the Earth. In May 1961, President John F Kennedy responded by declaring that the US would put the first man on the Moon.

🔺 Further USSR space launch sites

4 NUCLEAR PROLIFERATION 1945–2006

Determined to match the US's nuclear firepower, the USSR tested its first nuclear bomb in 1949. The two superpowers went on to enlarge their stocks of nuclear weapons and also developed the even more powerful thermonuclear bomb. Several other countries also acquired nuclear weapons. In 1968, many countries signed a treaty to curb the spread of nuclear weapons.

☢ Nuclear test site   ■ Nuclear superpower

☢ Area of multiple sites   ■ Nuclear weapon state

▷ **American V-2 tests**
This photograph, taken on 24 July 1950, shows American forces testing the Bumper rocket at Cape Canaveral, a US Air Force missile test centre in Florida. The rocket utilized German V-2 technology.

I am a man
Civil Rights protesters walk past the US National Guard, who can be seen with fixed bayonets, on 29 March 1968 in Tennessee. Reverend Martin Luther King Jr was assassinated less than a week later.
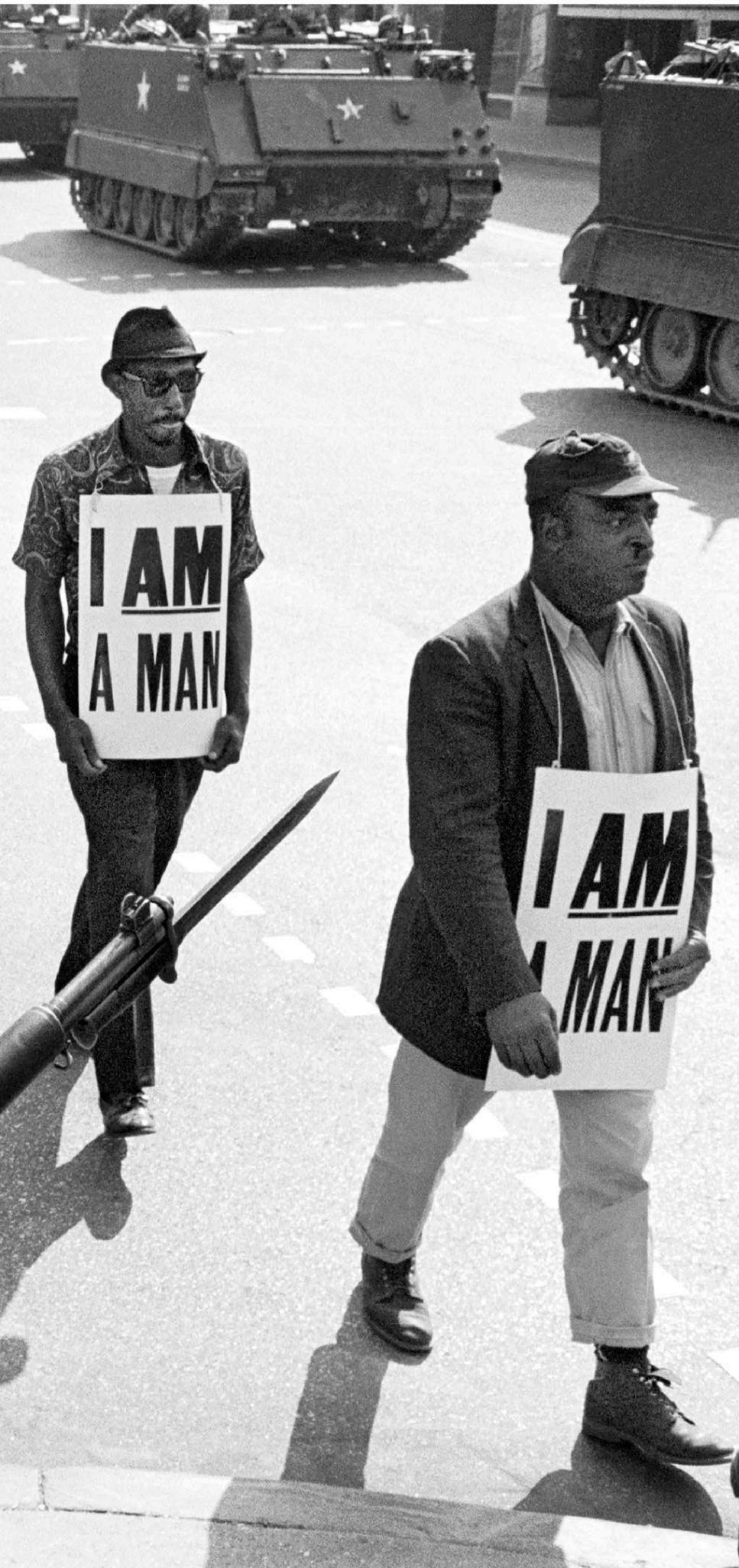
CIVIL RIGHTS AND STUDENT REVOLTS

Activists have campaigned for human rights since the turn of the 20th century. In the 1960s, the US and France in particular saw popular pressure for reform.

From the abolition of slavery to voting rights for women, social movements have been an instrument of change across the world. The US in the 1950s was a country riddled with racial inequality. In December 1955, Rosa Parks, a black civil rights activist, refused to give up her seat on a bus to a white passenger in Alabama, US. Her arrest sparked the modern civil rights movement. In August 1963, Reverend Martin Luther King Jr, a leading proponent of civil rights in the US, gave an inspiring speech to about 250,000 protesters, setting out his vision of a country free of prejudice. Segregation was abolished in 1964; the following year all black people were given voting rights.

The year 1968 became the year of revolutions. Even as there were massive demonstrations in the US against the Vietnam War, student riots in Paris over poor university campus facilities spread across France. About 8 million workers joined the students and went on strike calling for change. This was the defining moment of a year that saw young people across the western world protest against outmoded bureaucracies, oppressive regimes, racial and gender inequality, and prejudice against sexual minorities. Although the protests in France died down, the events of 1968 inspired a generation.

△ **French May**
A poster proclaims the "beginning of a long struggle" during the civil unrest spearheaded by students in May 1968 in France.

DESEGREGATION IN THE AMERICAN SOUTH

In the 1950s, many aspects of life were still racially segregated in the southern states of the US. The states identified on this map all enforced segregation until 1957. By 1964, they had begun to desegregate to varying degrees.

KEY
AFRICAN AMERICANS IN SCHOOLS WITH WHITES, 1964

- 0–1%
- 1.5–6%
- 28–60%

GENERAL GIÁP
1911–2013

Vo Nguyen Giáp is considered to be one of the greatest military strategists of the 20th century, having mastered both conventional and guerrilla war tactics. Leading the Viet Minh resistance against Japanese occupation of Vietnam during World War II, he also led North Vietnamese forces against the French and then the US. His victory at Dien Bien Phu, in March–May 1954, is seen as one of the greatest military victories in modern history.

THE VIETNAM WARS

The two major wars in Vietnam after World War II were by far the most violent conflicts in Southeast Asia in the 20th century. Between them, they lasted almost 30 years and involved several major global powers. Although Vietnam had declared its independence in 1945, it was not fully achieved until 1975, once all foreign forces had left and the country was unified.

Fighting in Vietnam began when the Japanese occupied the French-ruled colony during World War II. The Viet Minh, a nationalist organization, led the resistance from 1941. After Japan was defeated in 1945, the French returned to Vietnam, and again the Viet Minh took up arms against the foreign forces. The ensuing and protracted war between Vietnam and France – known as the First Indochina War – began in 1946, and ended in the decisive defeat of the French at Dien Bien Phu in 1954. The now-independent Vietnam was then divided into the communist north and republican south. After a

partial lull, fighting broke out again in 1956, as the North Vietnamese fought to unite the country under their leadership. The war that then erupted – called the Second Indochina War, or the Vietnam War – was in many ways a proxy struggle within the global context of the Cold War, with the US supporting South Vietnam, and the USSR and China on the side of North Vietnam. The war also spread into Laos and Cambodia. Eventually, in the face of defeat, the US negotiated its way out of the war in 1973, paving the way for an eventual North Vietnamese victory and reunification of Vietnam in 1975.

CONFLICTS IN VIETNAM

The first war in Vietnam began in 1946, between the French rulers and the North Vietnamese, who fought to expel them. After the country's division in 1954, the North Vietnamese fought a second war, mainly against the US, to unify Vietnam under their leadership.

TIMELINE

KEY

- North Vietnam
- South Vietnam
- Laos
- Lao province
- Cambodia

1 WAR WITH FRANCE 1946–54

In 1941, the Vietnamese revolutionary Ho Chi Minh, in exile in China, organized the pro-communist Viet Minh nationalist movement to fight for an independent Vietnam. At the end of World War II, Ho returned home and declared Vietnam an independent republic on 2 September 1945. The French colonial rulers attempted to re-establish their control, leading to a lengthy civil war that started in 1946.

✖ Major battle

🔁 French border posts captured by Viet Minh, 1951

2 FRENCH DEFEATED 13 MARCH–7 MAY 1954

In 1954, the French enticed the Viet Minh into fighting a major battle. They occupied an old military base at Dien Bien Phu and supplied it by air, believing the Viet Minh to have no anti-aircraft guns. General Giáp then encircled the French forces and used his heavy artillery to cut off their airborne supplies, forcing them to surrender.

✖ Major battle
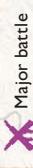
3 THE FIGHT FOR UNITY 1954–64

In 1954, the French signed the Geneva Accords, agreeing to the independence of Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia. Vietnam was divided, with Ho Chi Minh ruling the communist north from Hanoi, and a republic ruling the Western-backed south from Saigon. Elections to unify the country were to be held in 1956, but South Vietnam refused to take part. Viet Minh fighters launched an insurgency to unify the country.

— Demarcation line along the 17th parallel

1951 Viet Minh seize French border posts to open up access to weapons from communist China

1951 French win battle at Vinh Yen after a string of Viet Minh victories under General Giáp

Late 1950s North Vietnamese take control of Lao provinces of Phong Saly and Sam Neua

1954 French lose decisive battle at Dien Bien Phu

1964 Reports of North Vietnamese attacks against US warships in the Gulf of Tonkin prompt the US to support any Southeast Asian country fighting "communist aggression"

1946 French naval bombardment of Haiphong precipitates the first Viet Minh attacks against the French

1965–69 US bombers attack areas of Laos held by pro-Viet Minh Pathet Lao guerrillas

CHINA

Cao Bang
Dong Khe
That Khe
Lang Son
Mao Khe
Haiphong
Vinh Yen
Hanoi
Hoa Binh
Lao Cai

Red River
Black River

NORTH VIETNAM

SAM NEUA
PHONGSALY
Dien Bien Phu

LAOS

Gulf of Tonkin

Hainan

South China Sea

1954 Geneva Accords divide Vietnam along the 17th parallel

1968 Viet Cong and South Vietnamese with US forces fight a long and bloody battle for Hue

1965 First US forces arrive at Da Nang, ostensibly to protect its air base

1968 Notorious massacre of 300–500 South Vietnamese civilians by US soldiers in My Lai

Thang Phong

Qui Nhon

Con Thien

Quang Tri
Dai Do
Hue
Khe Sanh
Hamburger Hill
A Shau
Da Nang

Dak To
Kontum
Pleiku
Ia Drang

SOUTH VIETNAM

Ban Me Thuot

Phan Thiet

Bu Gia Map

Phuoc Long

Loc Ninh
An Loc
Bien Hoa
Xuan Loc
Saigon (Ho Chi Minh City)

Mekong

CAMBODIA

Kompong Thom

Phnom Penh

Kompong Som

Tonle Sap

THAILAND

Vientiane

Can Tho

Ca Mau

Gulf of Thailand

1959–75 Ho Chi Minh Trail allows communist forces to transport supplies from North Vietnam to the south

1966–75 The Sihanouk Trail, like the Ho Chi Minh Trail, allowed communist forces to transport supplies

6 REUNIFICATION 1973–75

Negotiations between the US and North Vietnam led to the Paris Peace Accords of January 1973 and resulted in US forces leaving Vietnam. Without US support, South Vietnam was quickly overrun by Viet Cong and North Vietnamese forces. With the fall of Saigon in 1975, Vietnam was now unified under the control of the North.

★ Capital city, 1976

➤ Spring Offensive, 1974–75

1975 North Vietnamese take Saigon

1976 Renamed Ho Chi Minh City, and becomes capital of unified communist Vietnam

△ **Leaving Xuan Loc, 1975**
Two Chinook helicopters arrive to assist in removing South Vietnamese soldiers of the 18th Infantry Division from Xuan Loc, where they had been fighting the People's Army of Vietnam.

4 WAR WITH THE US 1965–73

In 1964, a reported North Vietnamese attack on US ships in the Gulf of Tonkin led the US to commit ground forces to Vietnam in 1965. They heavily bombed the north, but the North Vietnamese were skilled guerrilla fighters, who infiltrated the south along the Ho Chi Minh and Sihanouk trails. US bombers secretly extended the war to Cambodia and Laos, home of the communist Pathet Lao group.

➤ Ho Chi Minh Trail

⇢ Sihanouk Trail

▲▲ Western limit of Pathet Lao areas, 1967

✈ US forces

MAJOR BATTLES WITH US INVOLVEMENT

✪ 1965–66   ✪ 1967–69

5 MAJOR OFFENSIVES 1968–72

Two major North Vietnamese offensives in 1968 and 1972 seriously weakened US forces. First was the Tết Offensive in January 1968, in which the Viet Cong, or National Liberation Front (the Viet Minh's successor forces based in South Vietnam), struck more than 100 towns and were fought off with many casualties. The Easter Offensive of 1972 saw the regular North Vietnamese army launch three attacks against the South Vietnamese army.

➤ Tết Offensive, 1968

➤ Easter Offensive, 1972

7 HAITI 1994–2004

The lengthy Duvalier family dictatorship was toppled in Haiti in 1986. In 1990, the radical priest Jean-Bertrand Aristide won the presidential election, but he was soon forced out by a military coup. The brutality of the military regime, along with the threat of a US invasion, brought Aristide back to power in 1994. His second term, which began in 2000, was ended by a US-backed coup in 2004, leading to Aristide's exile.

🏃 Military coup   ✈ US troops

6 PANAMA 1977–99

US relations with Panama had been difficult due to American ownership of the Panama Canal Zone since 1903. A treaty was eventually signed in 1977 to hand over the zone by 1999, but in 1989 American troops invaded Panama to seize leader General Manuel Noriega after he was indicted by federal grand juries on charges of drug trafficking, racketeering, and money laundering.

🐟 Guerrilla activity

1983 The US intervenes in Grenada to oust the island's revolutionary government

5 NICARAGUA 1979–90

Installed with US support in 1927, the Somoza family ruled Nicaragua until it was ousted by the socialist Sandinista National Liberation Front (FSLN) in 1979. At first, the US supported the new government, but it suspended aid in 1980 when it came to light that Nicaragua was arming rebels in El Salvador. Under President Ronald Reagan, the CIA supported the Contra rebels who were fighting the Sandinista government. The FLSN were defeated at the polls in 1990.

🔨 Contra rebels   🏴 Revolution

1 GUATEMALA 1954–96

Following a coup in 1944, Guatemala was led by the first two democratically elected presidents: Juan José Arévalo and Jacobo Árbenz. Both based many of their policies on US President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal. The US government believed this new Guatemalan government to be pro-communist, and in 1954 the CIA funded an invasion to overthrow it, installing the dictator Carlos Castillo Armas. Guerrilla activity against the military government increased from the 1960s, leading to a civil war that ended in 1996.

🔫 Military coup

🖐 Guerrilla activity

🖐 Civil war

2 CUBAN MISSILE CRISIS OCTOBER 1962

In 1959, Fidel Castro came to power in Cuba. Initially, the US accepted his regime, but Cuba's links with the USSR soon soured relations. In early 1961, the US cut off diplomatic ties with Cuba, and in April 1961, the US attempted to overthrow Castro with the failed Bay of Pigs invasion. In October 1962, aerial images of Soviet nuclear missiles on board ships travelling towards Cuba convinced US President John F Kennedy to impose a blockade around Cuba. For 13 days, the two superpowers threatened global nuclear destruction. The blockade was eventually lifted after a tacit compromise between the US and the USSR.

▬ Potential range of Soviet missiles
▬ US naval blockade
✈ US air base
⚓ US naval base
✈ Soviet jet and missile bases

1954 CIA-funded force of 480 men invades Guatemala

1960–96 Civil war breaks out between the Guatemalan government and left-wing groups

1980s The US establishes a military presence in Honduras

1961 Cuban exiles supported by the CIA attempt to invade Cuba at the Bay of Pigs

1962 The US enforces a naval blockade of Cuba

1962 The USSR builds missile bases in Cuba

1962 US Task Force 136 patrols the seas in a blockade of Cuba

1984–90 Contra rebels, who are largely based in Honduras, attack the Nicaraguan Sandinista government. They are funded by the US

1999 The US returns control of the Panama Canal Zone to the government of Panama

Map labels

ATLANTIC OCEAN
Caribbean Sea
Gulf of Mexico
PACIFIC OCEAN

New York City
Philadelphia
Washington, DC
Chicago
St Louis
Jacksonville
Mobile
New Orleans
Tampa
Miami
Key West
Havana
Monterrey
Mexico City
Veracruz
Tampico
U S A
MEXICO
BRITISH HONDURAS
GUATEMALA
EL SALVADOR
HONDURAS
NICARAGUA
COSTA RICA
PANAMA
Panama City
Panama Canal
BAHAMAS
CUBA
Guantánamo
JAMAICA
HAITI
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
Santo Domingo
PUERTO RICO
San Juan
VIRGIN ISLANDS
ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA
GUADELOUPE
MARTINIQUE
ST LUCIA
BARBADOS
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO
GRENADA
NETHERLANDS ANTILLES
Caracas
VENEZUELA
GUYANA
COLOMBIA
ECUADOR
PERU
BRAZIL

US INTERVENTIONS IN LATIN AMERICA

Since the 19th century, the US's foreign policies in Central and South America have been geared towards protecting its business interests in the region. Fearful of communist influence, the US has often become involved – covertly and otherwise – in Latin American politics.

In 1823, US President James Monroe announced a formal doctrine that any efforts by nations to take control of independent states in the American continent would be viewed as "the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States". Over a century later, this doctrine enabled the US to exert control over its southern neighbours during the Cold War (see pp.314–15), in order to prevent the spread of communism in the region. As a result, there is barely a country in the region that has remained unaffected in some way by American intervention. Elected governments have been overthrown in Guatemala, Chile, and Haiti; a left-wing government was undermined in Nicaragua; democratic uprisings have been quashed in El Salvador and the Dominican Republic; and authoritarian

governments supported in Honduras and elsewhere. US military intervention to overthrow the convicted drug trafficker and leader of Panama General Manuel Noriega, as well as bringing a recently deposed government back to power in Haiti, reinforces the picture of the US engaging actively in Latin American politics.

The effect on the countries invaded or influenced by the US has been considerable, with many enduring long periods of military or authoritarian rule. The end of the Cold War in 1991, and the resumption of relations between the US and Cuba in 2015 after 54 years, led to a revival of multi-party democracies. These changes also increased political and economic stability in the region, despite a long-running civil war in Colombia and upheavals in socialist Venezuela.

CHE GUEVARA
1928–67

Born in 1928 to a left-wing, middle-class Argentine family, Ernesto Guevara – later known by the nickname Che, meaning "friend" – was a Marxist revolutionary and the leader of the guerrilla army during the Cuban Revolution. As a student, he took two motorcycle journeys around Latin America; the appalling conditions he saw, which he attributed to the capitalist US exploiting Latin America, consolidated his revolutionary ideas.

US INTERVENTION IN CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA

Since the end of World War II, the US has intervened in numerous Central and South American nations, overthrowing elected governments and supporting right-wing or military alternatives. Its interventions in Cuba almost brought the world to the brink of nuclear war.

TIMELINE

1950 — 1970 — 1990 — 2010

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4 CHILE 1970–89

In 1970, Salvador Allende became the President of Chile – the first Marxist to be elected through open elections. Opposition groups soon declared his rule unconstitutional, and he was overthrown by General Augusto Pinochet in a military coup supported by the CIA in 1973. Pinochet's anti-communist dictatorship was marked by numerous human rights violations, but he held on to power until 1989.

🔺 Military coup

◁ **Revolution in Cuba**
Communist rebel leader Fidel Castro and his army celebrate. Castro overthrew the dictatorship of Fulgencio Batistá to come to power in Cuba in 1957. Castro then ruled Cuba as a one-party socialist state for the next 50 years.

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3 DOMINICAN REPUBLIC 1961–65

After the assassination of dictatorial President Rafael Trujillo in 1961, a left-wing democratic government under Juan Bosch led the Dominican Republic. Bosch was overthrown in a military coup in September 1963, but a pro-Bosch revolt soon broke out. Concerned that this situation was similar to events in Cuba, US President Lyndon Johnson sent in troops to crush the uprising and allow a repressive government to take power.

🔺 Military coup   ✈ US troops

BOLIVIA

CHILE

ARGENTINA

● Santiago

◁ **Clashes in Jerusalem**
Although there have been movements towards peace, clashes between the Israeli and Palestinian populations are still a common occurrence, such as in this image from November 2014.

1973 Israelis retake Golan Heights and reach within 56 km (35 miles) of Damascus

1948 Tel Aviv becomes the de facto Israeli capital, although many official buildings are in Jerusalem

2000 Israel begins construction of a border wall in the West Bank to protect itself from Palestinian attacks

1979–82 Sinai Peninsula returned to Egyptian control

1973 Israelis counterattack across the Suez Canal and advance 104 km (65 miles) towards Egyptian capital of Cairo

1973 Egyptian forces cross the Suez Canal and retake ground lost in 1967

1948 Gaza Strip falls under Egyptian control after the 1948 war
2005 Israel withdraws unilaterally from the Gaza Strip

1948 Transjordan (renamed Jordan in 1949) takes control of the West Bank after the 1948 war, annexing the territory in 1950

1994 Israel begins partial withdrawal from the West Bank by handing Jericho over to the Palestinian Authority

1948 Jerusalem divided between Israel and Jordan

100,000

75,000

4,000

280,000

190,000

280,000

7,000

LEBANON
SYRIA
JORDAN
EGYPT
ISRAEL

Beirut
Damascus
Haifa
Nazareth
Tel Aviv
Jaffa
NO MAN'S LAND
Jerusalem
Jericho
Amman
Hebron
Beersheba
GAZA STRIP
Gaza
Rafah
Port Said
Suez
Eilat
Aqaba
Sharm-el-Sheikh

Mediterranean Sea
WEST BANK
Jordan
Golan Heights
Dead Sea
Negev Desert
Sinai
Suez Canal
Gulf of Suez
Gulf of Aqaba

2 PALESTINIAN EMIGRATION 1947–49

The birth of Israel ended the Palestinians' dream of their own state. During the 1948 Palestine War, up to 600 Palestinian villages were sacked by Israeli forces. As a result, more than 700,000 Palestinians – 80 per cent of the total Palestinian population in Israel – fled their homes and went into exile in neighbouring countries. The exodus is known as *al-Nakbah*, or "the catastrophe".

→ Palestinian migration, with number

◆ Palestinian refugee camps

1 ISRAEL 1948–49

The state of Israel was founded on 14 May 1948. In response, five Arab neighbours – Transjordan, Syria, Lebanon, Egypt, and Iraq – invaded. Israel fought back, forcing out the Arab forces. It also enlarged its territory by one-quarter, seizing 50 per cent of the area allocated to an Arab state. A series of ceasefires in January to March of the following year ended the First Arab-Israeli War.

■ Israel, 1949

ARAB-ISRAELI WARS

Israel has had to fight for its existence ever since it was created in May 1948. At war twice in 1967 and then again in 1973, Israel has failed to make peace with its Palestinian population, many of whom have been forced to flee to neighbouring countries.

KEY

--- Disputed border

TIMELINE

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

1940 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2000 2010 2020

UN PARTITION PLAN
In 1947, the UN drew up a partition plan for what was then the British mandate of Palestine. Independent Jewish and Arab states were to exist side by side, with Jerusalem becoming an international zone.

KEY
- Border of British mandate, 1923
- Proposed Arab State, 1947
- Proposed Jewish State, 1947
- Proposed international zone, 1947

ISRAEL AND THE MIDDLE EAST

A Jewish population has existed in Palestine for centuries, but the founding of the Zionist Organization in 1897 marked new efforts to create a Jewish homeland in the region. The state of Israel created such a place but sparked a series of wars.

In November 1947, the United Nations, the overseers of the British mandate over Palestine (see pp.284–85), decided to partition the territory into independent Palestinian and Jewish states, in part as a response to Jewish displacement after the Holocaust. As a result of this declaration, violence broke out between the two sides, and British control broke down. The plan was abandoned, and the British ended their mandate over Palestine on 14 May 1948. The head of the Jewish Agency and future prime minister David Ben-Gurion then immediately declared the foundation of the independent state of Israel. Israeli forces promptly captured swathes of Palestinian territory and drove many of its people into exile in nearby countries. Israel's Arab neighbours became involved in the conflict, while Israel successfully fought back.

After decades of turmoil, both sides began to make steps towards peace. In 1979, Egypt and Israel signed a peace treaty, with Egypt recognizing the state of Israel and Israeli forces withdrawing from occupied Sinai. In 1993, Israel signed an accord with the Palestinian Liberation Organization – which for the first time recognized the existence of Israel – and began to disengage from the Gaza Strip and the West Bank. However, Israel's intention to cede land for peace has proved difficult to put into practice, with the result that relations with Palestinians remain fraught.

3 THE SIX-DAY WAR 5–10 JUNE 1967
Threatened by increasing pressure from its Arab neighbours, including an Egyptian naval blockade in the south, Israel responded in June 1967 with a surprise attack. It destroyed the entire Arab Air Force on the ground and Egypt's tanks in the Sinai. Israeli troops captured the Sinai Peninsula, as well as the West Bank and the Golan Heights.

- Israeli forces
- Occupied by Israel after 1967 war
- Occupied by Israel after 1967 war (reoccupied by Egypt after 1973 war)

4 THE YOM KIPPUR WAR 6–24 OCTOBER 1973
In retaliation for their defeat in the Six-Day War, Egyptian and Syrian forces launched a surprise attack on Israel on the Jewish holiday of Yom Kippur. Egypt made early gains, crossing the Suez Canal, while Syrian forces advanced over the Golan Heights. Israel counterattacked by crossing the Suez Canal and reaching within 104km (65 miles) of Cairo. A ceasefire was arranged by the UN, with forces pulling back the next year.

- Israeli forces
- Egyptian and Syrian forces
- Occupied by Israel after 1973 war
- Demilitarized zone held by UN, 1975–79

5 MOVES TOWARDS PEACE 1979–PRESENT
In 1979, Israel signed a peace treaty with Egypt, and handed back the Sinai Peninsula. The 1993 Oslo I Accord created a Palestinian government, the Palestinian Authority, which was given some jurisdiction in the Gaza Strip and the West Bank. Israel withdrew from Gaza, but has been reluctant to relinquish Jerusalem and the West Bank.

- West Bank
- Gaza Strip

KEY
- 1948–71
- 1972–96

JEWISH MIGRATION TO ISRAEL
The first Jewish migrants to arrive in independent Israel were mainly those fleeing eastern Europe in the aftermath of the Holocaust. Many more arrived in 1972 when the USSR relaxed its exit visa rules.

ECONOMIC BOOM AND ENVIRONMENTAL COST

The world has seen staggering economic growth during the 20th and 21st centuries, leading to unprecedented wealth. The subsequent environmental damage to the planet, however, has led many experts to call for urgent action to prevent an irreversible global crisis.

△ **Fuel crisis**
A sign at a service station informs the public of fuel shortage during the 1973 oil crisis, when oil-producing Arab countries placed an embargo on exports.

In 1944, before World War II had even concluded, delegates from 44 countries met to restructure the world's international finance systems with a focus on introducing a stable system of exchange rates and rebuilding war-damaged economies in Europe. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) was set up to facilitate international currency exchange, and the World Bank was established to make long-term loans to hard-hit nations. In 1947, the US introduced the Marshall Plan, pumping billions of dollars of investment into western Europe. This helped to restore confidence in the world economy and led to extraordinary growth.

Japan in particular benefited from these initiatives, and the country invested in steel and coal, shipbuilding, and car production, turning to high-tech products in the 1960s. Other Asian countries, such as Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia, and South Korea, copied the Japanese model. This collective success became known as "Asian tiger economics".

Crisis and recovery

In 1973, Egypt and Syria invaded Israel, and the Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC) stopped oil being exported to any country supporting Israel. Oil prices trebled, and industrial output

◁ **Booming city**
The Hong Kong night is illuminated by its many skyscrapers. The city is just one of the outstanding economic success stories in the Far East.

THE PRICE OF SUCCESS

Changes to the world economy after World War II led to rapid economic growth. Awareness of the environmental cost lagged some way behind the boom. Publicity about damaging oil spills, pesticides, and pollution led to the first global climate conference in 1979. By this time, economic growth was bringing lower air quality and industrial waste and depleting natural resources. The continuing rise in population has caused particular concern and intensified efforts to tackle global warming and secure food and water supplies.

1944 The International Monetary Fund (IMF) is founded

1947 The Marshall Plan is rolled out, according to which the US offers financial assistance to post-war economies

1960s Total human population reaches the 3 billion mark

ECONOMIC GROWTH

ENVIRONMENTAL COST

1950   1960   1970

1947 The GATT treaty (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade) is formed to boost economic recovery

1950s Japan and Germany both experience exceptional economic growth despite the effects of war

1962 Publication of *Silent Spring* by American biologist Rachel Carson leads to a ban of the insecticide DDT after Carson links it with cancer and damage to the environment

◁ **Toxic air**
A coal-fired power station in England expels pollutants and greenhouse gases. Stricter air-pollution rules in Europe have sounded the death knell for energy production from coal.

in many countries dropped. The embargo lasted until 1974. The oil crisis led to a worldwide global recession, and in response, many countries changed their economic policies.

Control passed from the state to the private sector, and deregulation became the new driving force, allowing free trade to open up. China moved to allow private enterprise and rapidly developed the trappings of capitalism. Over the coming decades, it would become one of the world's largest and most influential economies. India was influenced by the success of the Asian tiger economies, while Brazil and Mexico also embarked on economic reform, drastically improving living standards. The reunification of West and East Germany in 1990 resulted in a new major force in the world economy. Despite a devastating financial crisis in 2008, the world, it seemed, had never been richer.

Environmental cost

This economic success came at a price. On 31 October 2011, the United Nations (UN) announced the birth of the 7 billionth person on Earth, heightening concern about the planet's capacity to support so many people. More crops were needed to feed the growing population, and more resources were needed to support the lifestyle of more affluent citizens. Urbanization and population growth strained the environment, and scientists found evidence that human activity is to blame for recent climate change (global warming).

> *"Population growth is straining the world's resources to breaking point."*
>
> AL GORE, FORMER US VICE-PRESIDENT

Developing nations were urged to reduce carbon emissions, thought to affect climate change, yet in 2015 India was opening a coal mine a month to lift its 1.3 billion citizens out of poverty. Developing nations objected to being told by developed nations to curb their ambitions for growth. In the 2000s, the world saw record levels of rainfall as well as severe drought, melting icecaps, and natural disasters. Scientists warned that humans could pass the threshold beyond which climate change would be irreversible. With 7 billion people on the planet, the drain on natural resources was inevitable. In 2015, world leaders signed the Paris Climate Accord, and 196 nations adopted the first global climate deal, limiting global warming to 2°C (3.6°F).

Today, the UN estimates that by 2050 the global population will reach 9.7 billion. While the last two centuries have brought astonishing opportunities and wealth, challenges from war, pollution, and inequality remain grave.

▽ **Catching the sun**
Around 70,000 solar panels in the Nevada Desert, US, provide 25 per cent of the power used at the Nellis Air Force Base. It is the largest solar power plant in the western hemisphere; such projects are held up as models for renewable energy.

1973–74 The oil crisis creates global recession, leading to new economic policies

1979 The first World Climate Conference is held in Geneva

1980s Phenomenal growth is seen in China's economy

3 Oct 1990 East and West Germany unite, and Germany begins its rise from being the "sick man of Europe" into an economic powerhouse

2007–11 A global financial crisis, which begins in the US, brings many of the world's financial systems close to collapse

2008 China's economic growth inflicts more than a trillion Yuan's worth of damage on its environment each year, increasing pressure on planners to slow China's breakneck speed of development

2017 Total global wealth reaches US$ 280 trillion

1980   1990   2000   2010   2020

1975 France, Italy, Germany, Japan, Britain, and the US form a Group of Six (G6) to develop international trade

1992 At the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, governments agree on the United Framework Convention on Climate Change

1997 Under the Kyoto Protocol, developed nations pledge to reduce carbon emissions by an average of 5 per cent by 2008–12

2007 The IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) and former US vice-president Al Gore receive the Nobel Peace Prize for their work on climate change

2009 China overtakes the US as the world's biggest greenhouse gas emitter – although the US remains well ahead on a per-capita basis

2017 Nations unite in their commitment to tackle global warming after the US pulls out of the Paris Climate Accord

1 POLAND 1980–90

In 1980, after a wave of strikes against economic mismanagement, an independent trade union called Solidarity was set up to demand reform. General Jaruzelski's government imposed martial law in 1981 and arrested Solidarity's leaders. Following further strikes, the government was forced to allow partially free elections in 1989, which were won by Solidarity. Lech Wałęsa, Solidarity's leader, then won the first free presidential election in December 1990.

First free election, 1990

2 HUNGARY 1989–90

Hungary had pursued a policy of economic and political liberalization since 1962. In 1989, the government removed restrictions on other political parties, reconstituted the ruling Communist Party as the Hungarian Socialist Party, and renamed the People's Republic of Hungary the Republic of Hungary. In May 1990, it called free elections. These were won by a right-of-centre democratic coalition.

First free election, 1990

▽ Fall of the Berlin Wall
On 9 November 1989, the East German government announced free movement for its citizens to visit West Germany.

Map labels:
North Sea
SWEDEN
DENMARK
ESTONIA ♟1992
LATVIA ♟1993
Baltic Sea
RUSSIAN FEDERATION
UNITED KINGDOM
NETHERLANDS
BELGIUM
LUXEMBOURG
GERMANY
EAST GERMANY ♟1990
POLAND ♟1990
LITHUANIA ♟1990
1991 Baltic states refuse to join the CIS as they consider their membership of the USSR to have been an illegal occupation
BELARUS ♟1994
WEST GERMANY
CZECH REPUBLIC ♟1992
1993 Czechoslovakia splits amicably into the Czech Republic and Slovakia
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIA
SLOVAKIA ♟1992
UKRAINE ♟1991
HUNGARY ♟1990
1991–2008 Yugoslavia breaks up into seven independent states
MOLDOVA ♟1994
ITALY
SLOVENIA ♟1992
CROATIA ♟1992
ROMANIA ♟1990
SPAIN
SAN MARINO
Corsica
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA ♟1992
SERBIA ♟2006
Sardinia
MONTENEGRO ♟2006
KOSOVO ♟2008
BULGARIA ♟1990
Black Sea
MACEDONIA ♟1990
ALBANIA ♟1991
GREECE
TURKEY
Cyprus

3 GERMANY 1989–90

After World War II, Germany was split into communist East and democratic West. In 1989, mass demonstrations against communist rule forced the East's government to move towards democracy, while the opening of the Berlin Wall in November that year caused a mass exodus to the West. Free elections in March 1990 were followed by the reunification of Germany in October 1990.

East Germany, 1990   First free election, 1990

THE COLLAPSE OF COMMUNISM

The fall of communism in Europe and the dissolution of the USSR were among the most momentous events in modern history. Yet they were also among the least predicted, because it was internal weaknesses, rather than external pressures, that brought about their end. Change came quickly, and the effects were long-lasting.

The election of Mikhail Gorbachev as General Secretary of the Soviet Communist Party in March 1985 promised much-needed reforms in the USSR. He began to restructure the state and pledged economic and political change. Dissidents were released from prison, and private enterprise was encouraged. Crucially, in 1988, he declared the abandonment of the Brezhnev Doctrine, formulated in 1968 by Leonid Brezhnev, under which the USSR asserted its right to intervene militarily in the internal affairs of other communist countries in order to maintain strict communist rule. Relinquishing this doctrine gave the green light to eastern European communist nations to begin political reforms, as they now became aware that they could not rely on Soviet help to maintain their oppressive rule if opposition arose. As the eastern European nations, led by Poland and then Hungary, began to liberalize their political structures, the USSR came under pressure from its increasingly rebellious republics.

7 NEW NATIONS 1991–2008

The collapse of communism saw the emergence of many new, smaller nations. The USSR broke up into 15 independent republics in 1991, while wars in Yugoslavia (see pp.338–39) caused the country to split into seven new nations between 1991 and 2008. On 1 January 1993, the two halves of Czechoslovakia separated peacefully, becoming the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

░░ Yugoslavia to 1991   ▬ Czechoslovakia to Dec 1992

6 COMMONWEALTH OF INDEPENDENT STATES 1991–PRESENT

When the USSR collapsed in 1991, the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) was set up as a loose confederation of former Soviet republics to coordinate trade, finance, and security. The Baltic states refused to join, leaving nine members. Turkmenistan and Ukraine failed to ratify the founding charter.

👕 CIS members

END OF AN ERA

The fall of communism had lasting effects on both Europe and Asia. Soviet dominance over eastern Europe came to an end from 1989 to 1990, the Soviet Union itself fell apart in 1991, and Yugoslavia collapsed. Free elections replaced one-party rule.

KEY

■ Soviet Union to 1991

■ Soviet-dominated eastern Europe to 1989

■ Other communist states before 1991

⚒ Date of first free election

TIMELINE

```
1    ████████
2         ▐
3         ▐
4         ▐
5         ▐
6          ████████████████
7          ███████████
    1980   1990   2000   2010   2020
```

RUSSIAN FEDERATION
⚒ 1993

KAZAKHSTAN
⚒ 1991

KYRGYZSTAN
👕 ⚒ 1991

CHINA

UZBEKISTAN
👕 ⚒ 1991

TAJIKISTAN
⚒ 1992 👕

GEORGIA
⚒ 1991

TURKMENISTAN
⚒ 1992

AFGHANISTAN

PAKISTAN   INDIA

Caspian Sea

AZERBAIJAN
👕 ⚒ 1995
ARMENIA
👕 ⚒ 1995

IRAN

SYRIA

IRAQ

4 ROMANIA 1989–90

The overthrow of communism in Romania was marked with great violence. On 15 December 1989, the government, led by Nicolae Ceauşescu, attempted to arrest Pastor Laszlo Tokes, a champion of the Magyar minority, prompting a national uprising while Ceauşescu was in China. He returned but failed to restore order, and he was executed on Christmas Day 1989. Democratic elections were held in May 1990.

⚒ First free election, 1990   ✊ Revolution

5 BULGARIA 1989–90

The hardline policies of Todor Zhivkov, Bulgaria's communist leader, led to mounting opposition in Bulgaria, forcing him to resign in November 1989. The one-party system was abolished the following month, but the free elections held in June 1990 were won by the former and now-renamed communist party. A further election in October 1991 saw the election of a democratic coalition of non-communist parties.

⚒ First free election, 1990

Gorbachev tried to restructure the Soviet Union as calls grew in the Baltic states and elsewhere for full independence, but he was opposed by demonstrations in Ukraine and by the Russian Federation leader, Boris Yeltsin. Fatally weakened by an attempted communist coup in August 1991 and a decisive vote for Ukrainian independence in December, Gorbachev was forced to resign as president on Christmas Day 1991. The next day, the USSR itself was disbanded, and Soviet communism – founded in 1917 – had ended.

"The threat of world war is no more."

MIKHAIL GORBACHEV, SOVIET PRESIDENT, MAKING HIS FAREWELL SPEECH ENDING THE USSR, DECEMBER 1991

PERESTROIKA AND GLASNOST
RUSSIAN POLICIES

Mikhail Gorbachev became General Secretary of the Soviet Communist Party in 1985 and President of the USSR in 1990. Aiming to secure warmer relations with the West, he set out two new policies: *perestroika* (liberal economic restructuring) and *glasnost* (political openness).

West meets East
Mikhail Gorbachev (right) met US President Ronald Reagan (left) several times to improve East–West relations.

May 2004 Slovenia becomes the first part of former Yugoslavia to join the EU

May 1995 Croat forces seize Western Slavonia from the self-declared Republic of Serbian Krajina during Operation Flash

1 SLOVENIA 1989–91

The ethnically homogeneous Slovenia became a parliamentary democracy in 1989. In 1990, 88 per cent of the electorate voted for independence from Yugoslavia. On 25 June 1991, Slovenia declared its independence. The Yugoslav army invaded and fought a 10-day war in June and July, ending with Slovenian victory. The short conflict marked the start of the Yugoslav Wars.

Jan 1998 Eastern Slavonia, the final remnant of Serbian Krajina, returned to Croatia

Aug 1995 Croat and Bosnian forces retake the Republic of Serbian Krajina during Operation Storm – the largest European land battle since World War II

1992–95 Many Bosniak Muslim areas are ethnically cleansed by Serb forces, with Muslims held and killed in concentration camps

Jul 1995 8,000 Bosniak men and boys massacred by Bosnian Serbs in Srebrenica

1995 The Kosovo Liberation Army begins to attack Serb forces

2 CROATIA 1991–98

On 25 June 1991, Croatia declared independence. Many Serbs living in Croatia opposed this, and sought a new Serb state within Yugoslavia. Serbian forces invaded in July, but failed to occupy Croatia. Serbs in Croatia then founded Krajina. Warfare continued until 1995, when Croatia regained most of its lost territories, with Eastern Slavonia returned by 1998.

→ Serb advances by Dec 1991

▬ Serb controlled regions, 1991–95/98

→ Croat advances, autumn 1995

May–Nov 1993 Tensions between Croats and Bosniaks in Mostar lead to intense fighting; the famous Stari Most bridge is destroyed

1992–96 First Yugoslav, then Serbian, forces besiege Sarajevo for 1,425 days; thousands of civilians and soldiers are killed

Jun 2006 Montenegro becomes independent from Serbia and later applies to join both NATO and the EU

1999 Ethnic cleansing of remaining Serb families in Kosovo intensifies; up to 250,000 leave the country for Serbia

3 THE BOSNIAN WAR 1992–95

Multi-ethnic Bosnia declared its independence on 3 March 1992, but was opposed by Bosnian Serbs under Radovan Karadžić. Muslim enclaves in eastern Bosnia were soon overrun by Serbs, who ethnically cleansed the region and besieged Sarajevo. At the same time, Bosnian Croats fought to take over Mostar. The war ended in March 1994, but it took NATO air strikes in 1995 to end the Serbian attacks. The Dayton Accords, a peace treaty signed in December 1995, partitioned the country.

☐ Secured by Yugoslav army and Bosnian Serb forces, Dec 1992

⣿ Area controlled by Bosnian Croat forces, Dec 1992

⇨ Attacks by Serbian forces, 1993

➡ Attacks by Bosnian Muslims, 1993

🟥 Autonomous Province of Western Bosnia, Sep 1993–Aug 1995

⣿ Area remaining under control of breakaway Serbian forces, Oct 1995

✕ Areas of combat between Croatian Defence Council and Bosnian Muslims

🟩 Muslim secure zone

🟫 Former Muslim-majority areas ethnically cleansed by 1996

Map labels

AUSTRIA

ITALY

HUNGARY

Maribor

Ljubljana

SLOVENIA JUN 1991

Varaždin

Rijeka

Zagreb

Karlovac

Sisak

CROATIA JUN 1991

Sava

WESTERN SLAVONIA

EASTERN SLAVONIA

Danube

Subotica

Sombor

Senta

Osijek

Vukovar

VOJVODINA

Novi Sad

Okučani

Bosanski Novi

Vinkovci

Bihać

Banja Luka

Doboj

Brčko

Sava

Pančevo

Belgrade

Drina

KRAJINA

BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA MAR 1992

Tuzla

Zadar

Zenica

Vitez

Srebrenica

Žepa

Kragujevac

Knin

Sarajevo

Pale

Goražde

Ibar

Livno

Jablanica

Foča

Adriatic Sea

Split

Lim

Braǎ

Hvar

Mostar

Mitrovica

Korčula

Srbica

Trebinje

MONTENEGRO JUN 2006

Peć

Priština

Dubrovnik

Podgorica

KOSOVO FEB 2008

Orahovac

Đakovica

Prizren

ALBANIA

Lake Ohrid

ETHNIC COMPOSITION OF YUGOSLAVIA

Yugoslavia was a multi-ethnic nation, comprising five main groups of people – Bosniaks, Croats, Macedonians, Serbs, and Slovenes – as well as substantial minorities of Albanians, Bulgarians, Hungarians, and Romanians. Most groups were mainly Roman Catholic or Orthodox, while the majority of Bosniaks were Muslims.

KEY

- Serb and Montenegrin
- Croat
- Bosniak (after 1996 "ethnic cleansing")
- Slovene
- Albanian
- Macedonian
- Hungarian
- Bulgarian
- Romanian

TIMELINE

1980 — 1990 — 2000 — 2010

△ **Bosniak refugees**
Millions of Bosniak Muslims were displaced during the Bosnian War (1992–95) as Serbian forces carried out ethnic cleansing. In this photograph, a man and his two grandchildren rest at a United Nations refugee camp in Kladanj.

5 THE FINAL BREAK-UP 1991–2008

Unlike other former republics, Macedonia achieved its independence peacefully in September 1991, with the Yugoslav army withdrawing 9 months later. Serbia and Montenegro formed the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in 1992, renamed Serbia and Montenegro in 2003. In June 2006, Montenegro became independent from Serbia. Finally, Kosovo declared itself independent from Serbia in 2008.

🚩 Independence

Sep 1991 Macedonia (known officially as the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, in recognition of Greece's dispute over its name) declares independence

4 KOSOVO 1990–99

Majority Albanian Kosovo declared its independence in 1990, but it did not receive international recognition. The Kosovo Liberation Army began to fight the Serbs in 1995, leading to full-scale war in February 1998. More than one million Albanian Kosovars fled and thousands more were killed before a NATO bombing campaign in 1999 forced Serbian forces to depart.

Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) stronghold

Serb forces, 1999

WAR IN YUGOSLAVIA

In the 1990s, the multi-ethnic but unified Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia fell apart in the bloodiest series of wars fought in Europe since World War II.

Under the rule of leader Josip Broz Tito (1892–1980), Yugoslavia was a federation of six socialist republics, with two autonomous provinces inside Serbia. After Tito's death, a Serbian nationalist revival, led by Slobodan Milošević, started the country's disintegration by opposing Slovenian and Croatian independence in June 1991. Yugoslav (Serbian) forces moved in, and over the next decade, the nationalist drive to reorganize the territory along ethnic lines led to mass killings of civilians and other atrocities, giving the world a new phrase: "ethnic cleansing".

The conflict spread to Bosnia in 1992, where Serbs ethnically cleansed large areas of Bosniak Muslims. A fragile peace was eventually reached in 1995 with the signing of the Dayton Accords. The final tragedy was fought out in Kosovo, as Serbs tried to crush an uprising by the Kosovo Liberation Army. NATO stepped in, forcing the Serbs out of Kosovo in 1999. By 2008, seven new states had emerged from the once-unified country. The conflicts cost 140,000 lives and displaced nearly 4 million people.

"No country of people's democracy has so many nationalities as this country has."

JOSIP BROZ TITO, LEADER OF YUGOSLAVIA, 1948

BREAK-UP OF YUGOSLAVIA

In 1946, Yugoslavia became a federation consisting of six socialist republics, with Kosovo and Vojvodina being autonomous provinces of Serbia. By 2008, all six republics and Kosovo were independent states, with Vojvodina remaining an autonomous province of Serbia.

KEY

- Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia
- Autonomous provinces

1946

SLOVENIA
CROATIA
VOJVODINA
BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA
SERBIA
MONTENEGRO
KOSOVO
MACEDONIA
Adriatic Sea
ITALY

2008

SLOVENIA
CROATIA
VOJVODINA
BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA
SERBIA
MONTENEGRO
KOSOVO
MACEDONIA
Adriatic Sea
ITALY

GLOBALIZATION

Globalization – the free movement of goods, people, money, knowledge, and culture around the world – was once seen as the answer to worldwide poverty, but inequality and political instability have led to a populist backlash.

Globalization is not a recent phenomenon. Countries have traded with each other for thousands of years; yet after World War II, technological advances, together with the lowering of trade barriers and the communications revolution, transformed the way nations interacted.

△ **Taking to the streets**
Following demonstrations in Seattle in 1999, subsequent WTO meetings in cities around the world became a focus for similar protests, sometimes involving confrontations between security forces and demonstrators.

Globalization promoted economic growth in developing countries, yet in practice this often meant that industries would move from rich countries, where labour was expensive, to poor countries, where it was cheaper. Multinational corporations became increasingly global, locating production plants overseas in order to take advantage of lower costs and taxes. The growth of the internet allowed people to conduct business across the globe without leaving their office. International trade in goods, services, and financial capital became more widespread than ever before, further driven by China's decision to open its economy to the world in the late 80s and the collapse of the Soviet bloc in the early 90s.

Reactions and protests

A backlash against globalization had begun in the early 90s. It instensified in November 1999 as protestors in Seattle, US, took to the streets at the World Trade Organization (WTO) conference. Once applauded by economists, globalization was now fiercely contested as widening the gap between the rich and poor. Ordinary people were portrayed as victims of ruthless corporate domination, with large corporations exploiting the poor in search of new profits. The debate continues today as political parties advancing protectionist and anti-immigration policies, including a return to local economies, have found wide support across much of the Western world.

◁ **Advertising in Asia**
The logos of global corporations have become ubiquitous, even in countries such as China that were until relatively recently closed to foreign trade.

High-productivity industry
With its high-tech production lines, the Japanese car company Nissan's investment in the UK has transformed the UK's car industry. Nissan's factory (seen here) in Sunderland, UK, is regarded as a success story of globalization.

TURKEY

Mediterranean Sea

Cyprus

SYRIA

LEBANON

Beirut

Damascus

Haifa

Tel Aviv

Amman

Jerusalem

ISRAEL

JORDAN

EGYPT

Red Sea

Oct 1984 Iran seizes Iraqi territory in the north in a successful counter-offensive

Diyarbakir

Incirlik

Tigris

Euphrates

Apr 1991–Mar 2003 No-fly zone established by Allied coalition in northern Iraq to protect the Kurds (a minority in Iraq, Iran, and Turkey), who were fleeing from persecution, from Iraqi air attack

Mosul

Arbil

Kirkuk

Bayji

Kifri

IRAQ

Baghdad

Ar Rutbah

2003 Sunni Iraqis launch resistance against Allied occupying troops

Jan 1991 Allied air strikes against Iraq launched from ships in the Red Sea and Mediterranean

Mar 2003 Allied land forces attack Iraq from Kuwait

Aug 1990 Iraq invades and occupies Kuwait

Feb 1979 Exiled religious leader Ayatollah Khomeini returns from Paris

Tabriz

1983–88 Iraq uses chemical weapons against Iranian and Kurdish targets, harming more than 100,000 people

Caspian Sea

Qazvin

Tehran

IRAN

Hamadan

Qom

Kerman

Khorramabad

Mehran

Jan 1991 Iraqi scud missiles fired at targets in Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, and Qatar

Dezful

Sep 1980 Initial Iraqi attacks gain territory at the head of the Gulf

Masjed Soleyman

Ramhormoz

Hawr al Hammar

Basra

Khorramshahr

Shatt al Arab waterway

Fao

Kharg Island

Bushehr

Kuwait

KUWAIT

The

BAHRAIN

Dhahran

QATAR

SAUDI ARABIA

Riyadh

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4 THE GULF WAR 1990–91

In an effort to recoup financial losses incurred by the war against Iran, Saddam Hussein invaded oil-rich Kuwait on 2 August 1990, claiming it as a rightful part of Iraq. Arguments over financial repayments to Kuwait by Iraq, and illegal Kuwaiti oil drilling, added to the tension. The Iraqi invasion quickly succeeded, but in January 1991, a coalition of 29 countries, led by the US, attacked the Iraqis and expelled them from Kuwait in February during Operation Desert Storm.

→	Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, 1990	🚢	US battleship
✈	Iraqi air base	🚢	US aircraft carrier
✈	Allied air base	🚢	Allied amphibious attack
🚙	Scud installation	┅►	Allied airborne attack
┇	Iraqi scud missile attacks	▨	Area of Allied ground combat
☣	Alleged Iraqi nuclear/chemical/biological weapons plant	▨	Kurdish region

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5 THE IRAQ WAR 2003–11

After the Gulf War, continued international pressure was put on Iraq. The US believed that Iraq possessed weapons of mass destruction, despite assurances from UN arms inspectors to the contrary. Together with the UK and others, US forces attacked Iraq in March 2003. Saddam Hussein was overthrown and eventually executed by the Iraqi government in 2006. Iraq soon collapsed into sectarian civil war.

▨▨ Allied air exclusion zone, 1991–2003

→ Allied land campaign, 2003

🌿 Main centres of Iraqi resistance, 2003–04

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3 THE IRAN–IRAQ WAR 1980–88

In September 1980, Iraq's leader, Saddam Hussein, attacked Iran to secure the Shatt al Arab waterway and the oil-rich province of Khuzestan, at the head of the Gulf. Iraq was supported by the US and USSR, as well as most Arab nations, while Iran fought alone. A UN-brokered ceasefire ended the war in August 1988.

➡ Iraqi invasion force, Sep–Nov 1980

┅► Iranian invasion force, Oct 1984

🔥 Air strike, 1980–88

CONFLICT IN THE GULF

Three major wars have been fought in the Gulf since the Iranian Revolution of 1979. The longest, between 1980 and 1988, was prompted by the Iraqi invasion of Iran. The other two, from 1990 to 1991 and in 2003, were centred on Iraq.

KEY

_____ National borders

------ Disputed national borders

TIMELINE

| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |

1970   1980   1990   2000   2010   2020

Apr 1980 A US helicopter, used to rescue 63 hostages held in the US embassy in Tehran, crashes in Tabas

Tabas

Shiraz

△ **On patrol**
During Operation Desert Storm (1991), US and Saudi fighter aircraft patrolled the skies over Kuwait as oil wells set alight by Iraqi forces burned freely below them.

Gulf

Abu Dhabi

U.A.E.

1 THE IRANIAN REVOLUTION 1979

Resistance against the autocratic rule of the Shah of Iran led to demonstrations in the holy city of Qom in 1977 and 1978. Riots soon spread to the capital, Tehran, with demonstrators calling for the return of the exiled Shia religious leader Ayatollah Khomeini. The Shah eventually fled Iran in January 1979; Khomeini set up a religious government, one of only two theocracies in the world alongside the Vatican City.

✊ Revolution in Tehran

2 IRAN AFTER THE REVOLUTION 1979–PRESENT

The new government of Iran, led by Ayatollah Khomeini, became the world's first Shia government. It adopted strong anti-American and anti-Israeli policies and supported radical Shia groups, such as Hezbollah in Lebanon and, more recently, pro-government forces fighting in the Syrian civil war.

IRAN AND THE GULF WARS

The resurgence of Shia Islam in Iran after the revolution of 1979, and the establishment of a Shia clerical government in Tehran, unsettled the Middle East. Between 1980 and 2003, three major wars took place in the Persian Gulf, all of them involving Iraq.

In 1980, Saddam Hussein, the leader of Iraq (which was dominated by Sunnis, although the majority of Iraqis were Shias) invaded neighbouring Iran, still in turmoil after a revolution, to gain land and access to Iranian oil reserves. Thus began a long, bloody, but inconclusive war, which also involved many other countries. This conflict ended when the UN brokered a ceasefire in 1988, which brought to an end the longest conventional war of the 20th century.

Two years later, in what is known as the Gulf War, Saddam invaded Kuwait in order to gain its oil reserves to rebuild his military war machine. A US-led coalition of 29 countries, including many of Iraq's Arab neighbours, evicted the Iraqis from Kuwait in 1991, although Saddam Hussein remained in power. After the war, Iraq was subject to economic and military sanctions. It was also suspected of stockpiling weapons of mass destruction. Despite UN weapons inspectors failing to find such weapons, the US and Britain used their possible existence as justification to attack and invade Iraq in 2003, together with Australia, Poland, Spain, Italy, and Denmark. Unlike the Gulf War, the invasion was not supported by the UN. US forces carried out a search for Saddam, who had fled into hiding, and he was captured in December 2003. The coalition handed him over to Iraqi authorities in June 2004, and in 2006 he was tried and executed by an Iraqi Special Tribunal. Iraq then collapsed into sectarian chaos and civil war, further destabilizing an already unstable region. A civil war in Syria, which broke out in 2011, added to the turmoil in the Middle East, as rival Sunni and Shia forces fought it out.

KEY

🟨 Shia majority

🟨 Sunni majority

TURKEY 10–15%

AZERBAIJAN 80–85%

SYRIA 10–15%

LEBANON 25–30%

IRAQ 60–65%

IRAN 90–95%

AFGHANISTAN 10–15%

KUWAIT 20–25%

EGYPT <1%

SAUDI ARABIA 10–15%

BAHRAIN 65–75%

PAKISTAN 10–15%

QATAR 10%

OMAN 5–10%

UNITED ARAB EMIRATES 10–15%

INDIA 10–15%

YEMEN 35–40%

SHIA POPULATIONS

Although most of the world's Muslims are Sunni, about 12 per cent are Shias. Shias form a majority in Iran, Iraq, Azerbaijan, and Bahrain, with sizeable minorities elsewhere in the Middle East. This map indicates the percentages of Shia Muslims in each country.

THE COMMUNICATIONS REVOLUTION

Advances in technology have brought about profound changes in the social, economic, and political landscape. Nowhere has the impact been felt more than in the field of communication, which is transforming every aspect of our daily lives.

△ **Space Age communication**
The world's first active communication satellite, Telstar 1 was jointly built by the US, French, and British broadcasting agencies.

Until World War II, communications had been limited to messages sent by mail or by telegraph and telephone. During World War II, a surge in new thinking resulted in the forerunner of digital computers – the Electronic Numerical Integrator and Calculator (ENIAC).

The invention of the transistor in 1947 and the microchip in 1958 led to electronic components becoming smaller. Advances in rocket technology allowed satellites to be sent into orbit. In 1962, the Telstar I satellite was launched, sending telephone calls, fax messages, and TV signals flying through space.

During the Cold War, the US Defense Department was concerned about how it might communicate during a nuclear attack. This led to the creation of the Advanced Research Projects Agency Network (ARPANET) in 1969, a system of four computers communicating using standard protocols. By the 1980s, greater and more integrated use of computers, adoption of ARPANET protocols, and advances in communications methods resulted in a widely available and global network of computers: the Internet. The smartphone made the internet a mobile resource. Social networking had an impact on education, healthcare, and culture. It was also used by protesters during the Arab Spring (2011) and has since become an inherent part of politics.

◁ **A connected world**
Smartphones have become an integral part of people's lives. They are used to navigate and send messages, as well as record and share moments on social media platforms.

"The information highway will transform our culture ... as Gutenberg's press did The Middle Ages."

BILL GATES, FROM *THE ROAD AHEAD*, 1995
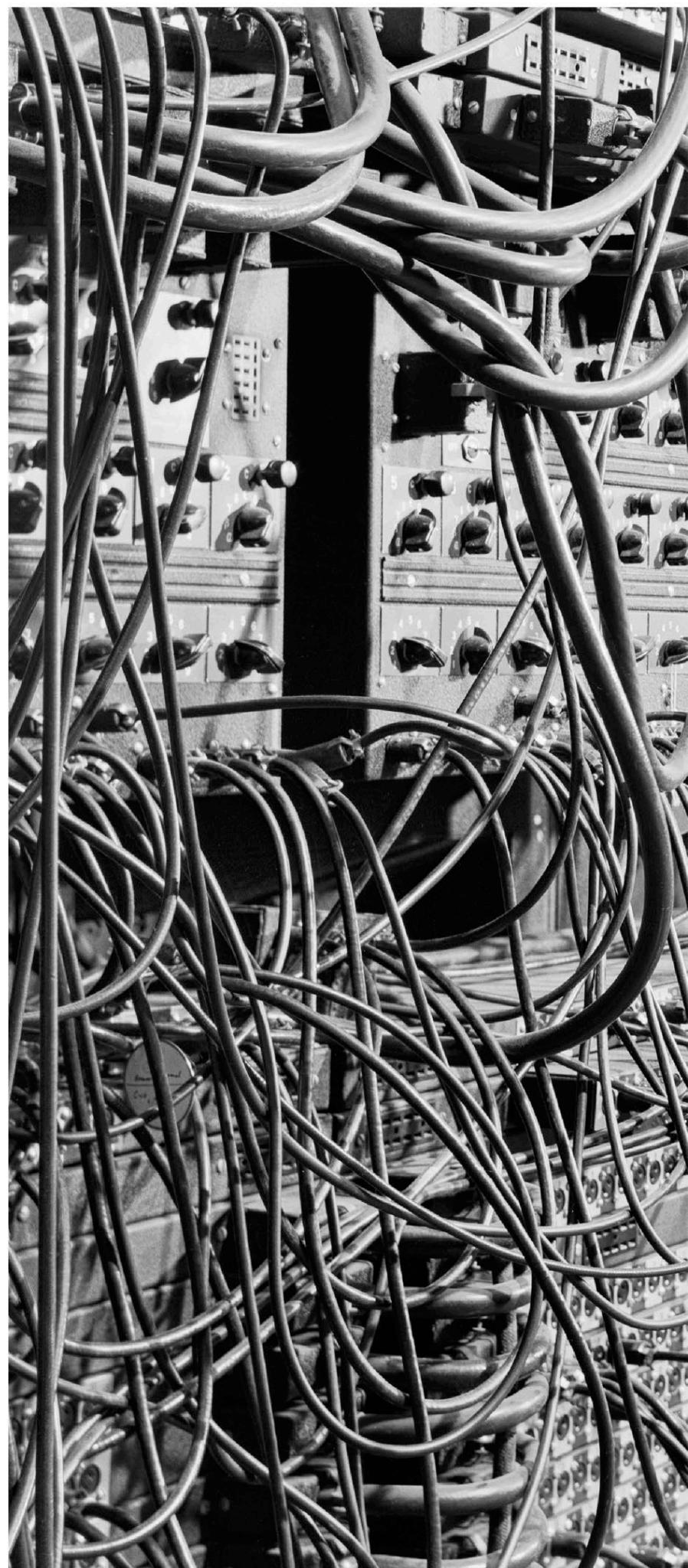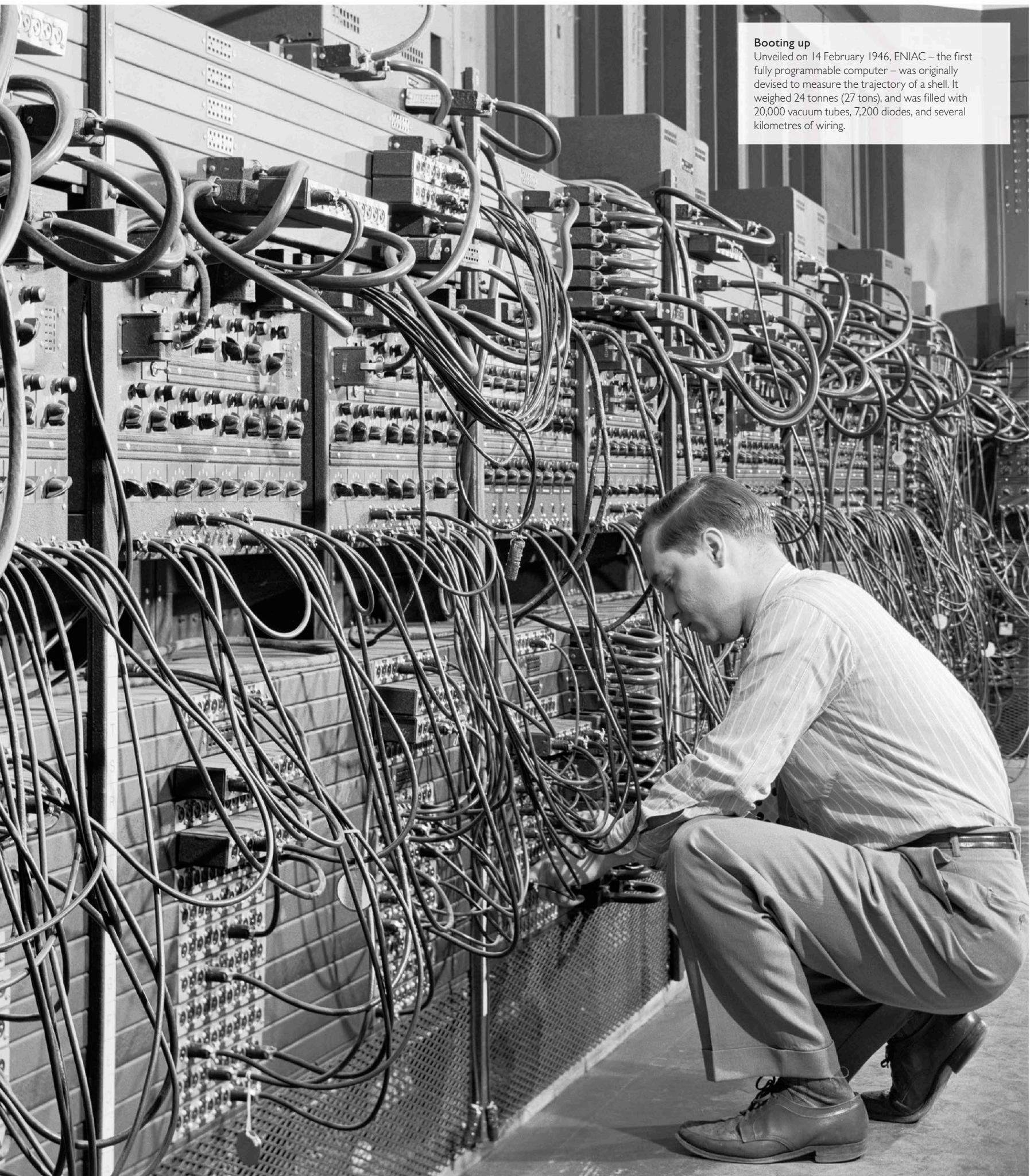
Booting up
Unveiled on 14 February 1946, ENIAC – the first fully programmable computer – was originally devised to measure the trajectory of a shell. It weighed 24 tonnes (27 tons), and was filled with 20,000 vacuum tubes, 7,200 diodes, and several kilometres of wiring.

POPULATION AND ENERGY

After 1950, two of the main problems that faced the world were rising population and increasing energy consumption. Although population growth varies across the continents, the world's total population passed 3 billion in 1960 and then 7 billion in 2011.

China has the largest population in the world, and from 1970–2000 the country's population increased by 50 per cent – an addition of over 444 million people, more than the total population of the US in the year 2000 (282 million).

In 1950, poor, pre-industrialized countries had high birth and death rates, but as they developed, first the death rate declined (particularly in infancy) due to better health care and nutrition, then the birth rate declined in response to lower infant mortality. In the developed world, where these processes had already happened during industrialization, the population barely increased in the late 20th century, unless it was affected by immigration or inflows of migrant workers. In Africa, rapidly rising populations placed an ever-increasing strain on the countries' limited resources, including water, grazing land, and energy.

▷ **Abu Dhabi luxury**
The United Arab Emirates is a prosperous, oil-rich country. It has one of the highest levels of energy use, due to the luxury lifestyle led by its people and use of energy to keep cool in the high temperatures.

THE AMERICAS 1950–2010
In this period, two-thirds of the total population of the Americas lived in just three countries: the US, Mexico, and Brazil. Both the US and Canada supported immigration, increasing their populations, while emigration from the Caribbean islands kept their populations largely static.

1951–2001 Pro-immigration policies more than double Canada's population

1990–2010 Foreign-born population of the US doubles from 20 to 40 million due to immigration

1960 Brazil's rate of population increase begins to decline as rising prosperity causes falls in birth and death rates

1950 Argentina has one of the continent's lowest population growth rates due to its low birth rate

Greenland

Alaska

CANADA

NORTH AMERICA

UNITED STATES

Hawaii

MEXICO

BAHAMAS
CUBA
HAITI
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
BELIZE JAMAICA Puerto Rico
HONDURAS
GUATEMALA
NICARAGUA
EL SALVADOR
COSTA RICA PANAMA
VENEZUELA
SURINAME
COLOMBIA GUYANA
French Guiana
Galápagos Islands
ECUADOR
BRAZIL
SOUTH AMERICA
PERU
BOLIVIA
PARAGUAY
CHILE
URUGUAY
ARGENTINA
Falkland Islands

WORLD ENERGY USE
Energy use varies greatly from country to country. In 2014, wealthy, developed, and oil-rich nations used 50 times more energy per capita than the poorest nations. Latitude was also an important factor, with high-latitude countries, such as Canada, using more energy to keep warm.

Most of Africa is still without grid-supplied electricity

The US consumes 25 per cent of the world's energy, despite having only 4.5 per cent of the world's population

Australia has a high energy consumption due to use of electricity to keep cool

ENERGY USE PER CAPITA, 2014

KG of oil equivalent

0	500	1000	2,500	5,000 +

0	4	7	18	36 +
Barrel of oil equivalent

No data

2 EUROPE 1920–2018

Europe's population remained fairly static in the late 20th century. In 1920, Europe contained nearly one-quarter of the world's people; a century later it contained only one-ninth. Populations began to level off and even decline, sparking fears of an ageing population becoming dependent on a much smaller working-age population. Mass immigration partly offset the decline in some countries.

WORLD POPULATION AND GROWTH

The world's population rose unevenly from 1970 to 2000. Growth in the richer states slowed or in some cases even declined, while growth in the poorer states of Africa continued to race ahead.

KEY

No data

% population increase 1970–2000

-50 0 50 100 150 200 +

TIMELINE

1
2
3
4
5

1900   1950   2000   2050

1994 Russia's population begins a 15-year decline due to low birth rates and high death rates

1989 Bulgaria's population begins declining as communism falls and economic migrants start leaving the country

2005 Japan's birth rate falls below its death rate
2014 Japan has the world's most rapidly ageing population, with over-65s representing more than one-quarter of the total population

1978–2016 China implements a one-child policy to reduce its rapid population growth

1960s India begins a Green Revolution to overcome poor agricultural productivity, leading to massive population growth

1960–2016 Niger's population of 1.7 million rises to 20.67 million due to a fertility rate of more than seven births per woman

2010 The United Arab Emirates has the highest net immigration rate in the world

2011–16 Syria's population falls by 4 million as refugees flee the civil war

1971–2008 Nigeria's population rises threefold from 55 million to 151 million

1990 Eritrea has a rising population of 3.2 million, despite mass emigration due to a repressive government

RUSSIAN FEDERATION
ASIA
EUROPE
AFRICA
AUSTRALIA

3 AFRICA 1950–2018

Africa's population increased rapidly from 229 million people in 1950 to 630 million in 1990. As it rose, it overtook the combined population of the Americas and, by 2000, Europe. Africa's countries were among the poorest in the world. Where people subsisted from the land, the population could outstrip land productivity and availability of clean water. Since 2000, Africa has experienced the world's fastest urbanization.

4 THE MIDDLE EAST 1970–2000

With small local populations and rapid economic growth, the oil-rich countries of the Middle East, notably the Gulf States, solved their labour shortages by mass immigration. The population of many countries doubled from 1970–2000. The United Arab Emirates' population saw the highest percentage increase in the world, multiplying by over 12 times from its 1970 level (from just under 250,000 people to over 3 million).

5 EASTERN ASIA 1978–2016

East Asia includes the world's two most populous nations: China and India. While India's growth rate remained high, China reduced its growth with its one-child policy, implemented in 1978–80, which charged a fee to parents having a second child. It abolished the policy in 2016 as it faced the growing problem of a population with too many men (since the policy led to parents favouring male children) and too many old people.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS