THINK AS A HISTORIAN: APPLY CONTEXTUALIZATION

Context helps us to understand a person, place, document, or period in history by grounding it with a time, a place, or surrounding circumstances. For example, a treaty's significance becomes clearer if we know how, when, and where it was created, what concessions the various parties made, and who signed it. Imagine you are a citizen of a distant past reading the day's newspaper. *Which THREE of the headlines below provide the most context?*

1. Sultan Sends Army to Egypt

2. Ali Debuts First Official Newspaper in Islamic World; Insists on Arabic, Not French

3. Workers Paid in Cash, Not Goods, as Post-War Wealth Grows

4. Much New Weaponry Is Produced Quickly

5. Religious Groups Protest New Laws That Ignore Shariah

WRITE AS A HISTORIAN: WRITE A STRONG FIRST SENTENCE

A fundamental rule of writing is that if you want to be read, you must capture the reader's attention. *In the pairings below, choose the more compelling first sentence.*

1. Sultans and Reform

   a. Sultan Abdulhamid II signed a constitution but then dissolved the parliament created by that very constitution: Why?

   b. In the Ottoman Empire, it was not unusual for sultans to block reforms.

2. The Significance of Clothing

   a. Ottomans adapted to Islam in various ways, including in their clothing.

   b. Strangely, Ottoman adaptation to Islam can be illustrated by a change in military headgear from a cap to a fez (because a cap with a bill did not allow a soldier's head to touch the ground in prayer).

3. Decline of the Ottoman Empire

   a. After France took Algiers and Britain captured Cyprus, the once-mighty Ottoman Empire held only a small strip of land in Europe.

   b. The Ottoman Empire grew smaller and weaker just as the Roman Empire did, and in some of the same ways.

Global Links and Imperialism, 1750–1900

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

—Rudyard Kipling, "The White Man's Burden"

The speaker in this poem by Rudyard Kipling, an English writer who spent his youth in British colonial India, views the whites of Western countries as superior and that they should take on the "burden" of colonizing and training the "half-devil" and "half-child" nonwhite peoples of the world. Whether Kipling actually supported imperialism is debatable, but the ideas in his poem were used to justify it. Countries built global empires upon such imperialistic and racist premises. During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, a number of Western European countries targeted lands in Africa and Asia to add to their empires. The United States became an imperial power in Latin America, the Caribbean, and the Pacific. Russia continued its expansion eastward and southward. The Russian-British rivalry for power in Central Asia was known as the *Great Game.* Japan concentrated its expansionist efforts in East Asia. Although ideological motives for imperialism were compelling, economics and politics primarily drove European countries to conquer more than 80 percent of the Earth's surface by the end of the nineteenth century.

Economic Motives for Imperialism

Though several motives drove imperialism, most historians agree that economics overrode all others. As you read in Chapter 22, Britain industrialized rapidly during the 1700s and 1800s. In order to feed industries' desires for raw materials, such as cotton, copper, and rubber, Europe looked to Asia and Africa. The people of these continents were also potential consumers of European manufactured goods. Finally, Europeans used colonial peoples as labor for

large-scale projects, such as building railroads or telegraph lines. Colonial workers were paid meager wages for difficult and dangerous labor. In short, natural resources, new markets, and cheap labor drove economic imperialism.

Agricultural Resources from Colonies Instead of serving their own economic interests, colonies were turned into *export economies*, which meant that the goods they produced were not meant for domestic use but sent to colonial powers to sell for profit. The thirst for natural resources led to the development of *cash crops* within the colonies, such as tea, cotton, sugar, palm oil, rubber, and coffee. Imperial demand for cash crops had a deleterious effect on subject nations. For example, if a crop was particularly profitable, the colonized nation was forced to produce that crop in mass quantities. Farmers were allowed to raise only cash crops, such as sugar, cocoa, or groundnuts, at the expense of other agricultural products. This use of land led to *monocultures*, or a lack of agricultural diversity, particularly in African nations. The land's fertility quickly declined. Moreover, crop diseases and pests spread more easily when there was only one crop planted in an area. Today, many former African colonies have been unable to rediversify their land because the development of monocultures has badly damaged croplands. Many African nations must import basic agricultural goods in order to feed their people.

For centuries, India had been the world's number one supplier of finished cotton textiles. By the late eighteenth century, British traders from the British East India Company, who wanted a monopoly on the textile market, had pushed independent Indian textile artisans out of business. By the end of the nineteenth century, India was producing only raw cotton for Britain, not cotton textiles. After Britain's textile factories processed India's cotton, the colonial government sold some of its factory-made or "finished" textiles back to the Indian subcontinent at inflated prices.

Another example of economic imperialism involved opium, a harmful and hallucinogenic drug. It grew easily on South Asia's fertile lands, and selling it to the Chinese became quite profitable for Britain. The Chinese objected to the importation of opium, resulting in the Opium War. (For more information on the Opium War, see page 448.)

The Dutch East India Company first brought *tea* from China to Europe in 1610. Later, it became another profitable crop for the British, who introduced tea plantations to South Asia in the early nineteenth century. Tea became a cash crop in southern India and in Ceylon, modern-day Sri Lanka.

Railways in Colonies Europeans often pointed to their railroad projects as evidence that imperialism helped the peoples of Asia and Africa. However, providing new transportation technology to the colonies primarily served the interests of the colonizers. In India, the British built a complex railway network that stretched from the interior to the coasts in order to ship raw materials out of the country more easily. In Africa, a map of the railway system reveals that while many railroad tracks began in the interior of Africa, all lines reached the coasts.

British-born *Cecil Rhodes,* founder of De Beers Diamonds, was an especially enthusiastic investor in a railroad project that was to stretch from Cape Town, in modern-day South Africa, to Cairo, Egypt. Connecting all of the British-held colonies with a transportation network could make governance easier and aid in conducting a war, if necessary. The project was never completed because Britain never gained control over all the land on which such a railroad was to be built. The overwhelming majority of railway workers in Africa were natives who were paid far lower wages than their European counterparts. Thus, railroad technology was a means of extracting as many resources as possible from subject lands while paying colonial laborers as little as possible.

De Beers was one of many large transnational companies that emerged in the nineteenth century. Many, such as United Fruit Company, produced food or minerals. Others, such as Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, focused on finance.

Japan Industrial countries outside of Europe also desired colonies. Japan, a small island nation with few natural resources and little arable land, sought lands and natural resources to fuel its own growth. It set up an empire in East Asia that included parts of China, Korea, Southeast Asia, and islands that lasted from the 1890s until World War II ended.

Labor Systems The desire for cheap labor was inextricably linked to the exploitation of natural resources in the system of economic imperialism. Although the African slave trade collapsed by the early nineteenth century, the demand for the agricultural goods that slaves had produced did not. Thus, European nations recruited new laborers to work on sugar and pineapple plantations. Indentured laborers came primarily from India and, to a lesser extent, from China and Japan. Indian laborers worked in British colonial possessions in the Caribbean as well as in Fiji and Dutch Guiana, present-day Suriname. Chinese and Japanese laborers migrated to Hawaii and later to Peru and Cuba. Their labor produced enormous wealth for the imperial nations.

Indentured laborers agreed to work for a period of years, during which time they sent money to their families and looked forward to returning home. However, most indentured laborers stayed in their new country. Some chose to stay and sent for their families to join them, while others simply could not afford the return journey. Regardless, indentured laborers brought their home cultures to their new lands and altered the demographics of these lands. For example, the cultures of Mauritius (in the Indian Ocean southeast Africa), Fiji (in the South Pacific), and Trinidad (in the Caribbean) show a strong Indian influence, and people of Asian descent form the majority of Hawaii's population.

Australia A different kind of labor system developed in Australia. In the late 1700s, Great Britain established a *penal colony*. The British government shipped *convicts* from England, Scotland, and Ireland as well as British colonies such as India to Australia, where they performed hard labor and suffered harsh treatment. Australia also attracted free settlers, especially after gold was discovered there in 1851. Some 50,000 Chinese came during this gold rush. Australia became one of Britain's most successful settler colonies.

Actual imprisonment of the convicts was rare. Most performed labor for free settlers, worked for the government in record keeping, or worked on government projects such as road and railway building. The majority of convicts earned their freedom after a prescribed number of years of service. Some were never allowed to return to Great Britain. In addition, because transportation back home was expensive, the majority decided to stay in Australia. By 1850, the British government ended the transport of convicts to Australia, largely because a stay in Australia was not considered much of a punishment.

The coming of the Europeans spread diseases among the indigenous *Aborigines* of Australia just as they had among Native Americans. In addition, the white settlers took over most of the lands of the Aborigines, dispersing them throughout the continent. A similar process took place in another British settler colony southeast of Australia, New Zealand. During the nineteenth century, the native *Maori* lost about 75 percent of its population to disease and warfare with the British. Although Australia was vastly underpopulated, the country was not open to immigrants from all parts of the world. The *White Australia Policy*, in effect from 1901 until 1973, restricted the immigration of nonwhites. (Test Prep: Write a paragraph comparing the effects of European settlement on Australian Aborigines to its effect on Native Americans. See pages 302–309.)

Political Motives for Imperialism

In Western Europe, revolutions, the rise of nationalism, and the creation of nation-states characterized much of the 1800s. Building an empire was one way for a country to compete for power and assert its national identity in the global arena. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century, Europe's "*Scramble for Africa*" epitomized such competition for colonies. European countries claimed African colonies, largely out of economic desires, but also in attempts to outdo each other. European nations most active in the scramble for territory included Great Britain, Germany, France, Belgium, Italy, Portugal, and the Netherlands. While Spain had led the quest for colonies in the first wave of imperialism during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, its power was greatly diminished by the nineteenth century. It did not play a dominant role in this second wave of imperialism.

Japan asserted its nationalist pride through incursions into Korea. This irritated China, a country that had exerted a strong presence in Korea for centuries. The conflict grew into the Sino-Japanese War (1894–1895). Japan's victory gave it control of Korea and Taiwan, which was known as Formosa from the time of Portuguese colonization in the sixteenth century until the end of World War II.

Ideological Motives for Imperialism

The Kipling quotation that opens this chapter epitomizes the racist attitudes shared by imperialism's proponents. Referring to colonized peoples as children makes colonizers seem like benevolent protectors rather than rapacious thieves. White racists' condescending attitudes toward the "darker corners of the earth" (Theodore Roosevelt, 1909) was not a reason for imperialism, but a justification for it.

The Misuse of Science Pseudoscientists strengthened racist justifications for conquest by claiming to have scientific proof of the intellectual and physical inferiority of nonwhite races. *Phrenologists*, people who studied skull sizes and shapes, claimed that a smaller skull size proved the mental feebleness of Africans, indigenous Americans, and Asians.

Legitimate science was also subverted for racist purposes. British scientist *Charles Darwin*'s nineteenth-century theory of evolution by natural selection stated that over the course of millions of years, biological competition had "weeded out" the weaker species in nature and that the "fittest" species were the ones that survived. Advocates of *Social Darwinism*, including British philosopher *Herbert Spencer,* used the "survival of the fittest" theory to justify European and U.S. dominance. Supporters of this theory claimed that whites had used their "biological superiority" to compete victoriously with the other races of the world. Writers and politicians used Social Darwinism to justify the actions of imperial powers around the world.

The Role of Missionaries Missionary work often combined humanitarian and religious motives. Some Christian missionaries, such as *David Livingstone* from Scotland, traveled to Sub-Saharan Africa where they worked to end the illegal slave trade. Others provided improved medicines and medical care in Africa. Most missionaries set up schools for instruction in religion and secular subjects. Missionaries spread their own religion and converted many non-Christian believers among Sub-Saharan Africans, who generally practiced ancestor veneration and animism.

Missionaries were sometimes criticized as supporters of imperialism. Because they tried to persuade people to give up their own sacred beliefs and adopt the faith common among Westerners, missionaries sometimes paved the way for others who were more focused on economic gain.

## Imperialism in South Asia

In India, the British East India Company had established a commercial relationship with the Mughal Empire beginning in the seventeenth century. Britain did not have exclusive access to India, however. Portugal controlled a coastal trading post in the southwestern state of *Goa*, and France controlled *Pondicherry*, a city in the southeastern state of Tamil Nadu. During the mid-eighteenth century, France and England, along with their respective allies, competed for power on five continents in the Seven Years' War. Britain's victory in that war in 1763 drove the French out of India. The Portuguese remained in India until driven out in the mid-twentieth century.

Since the Mughal Empire was weak, the British East India Company easily encroached inland, using small forces of British soldiers to protect the firm's employees. As the British crept into India's interior, the British government

began recruiting native Indians to join the British colonial army. By the mid-nineteenth century, *sepoys*, Indian soldiers under British employ, composed the majority of the British armed forces in colonial India. In 1857, the *Sepoy Mutiny* erupted among soldiers who believed that their rifle cartridges had been greased with the fat of cows and pigs. Hindus, who view the cow as sacred, and Muslims, who refuse to slaughter pigs, were both furious. They were convinced that the British were trying to convert them to Christianity. Their rebellion spread throughout cities in northern India, where the sepoys lashed out violently against British settlers and officials.

The British colonial government's response to the revolt was forceful and brutal. British counterinsurgency not only resulted in the deaths of thousands of Indian soldiers, but it also led the British government to take a more active role in governing India. Because of his involvement in the mutiny, the last Mughal emperor was imprisoned and exiled, marking the end of the empire. From 1858 until India finally won its independence in 1947, the British *Raj*, the colonial government, took its orders directly from the British government in London.
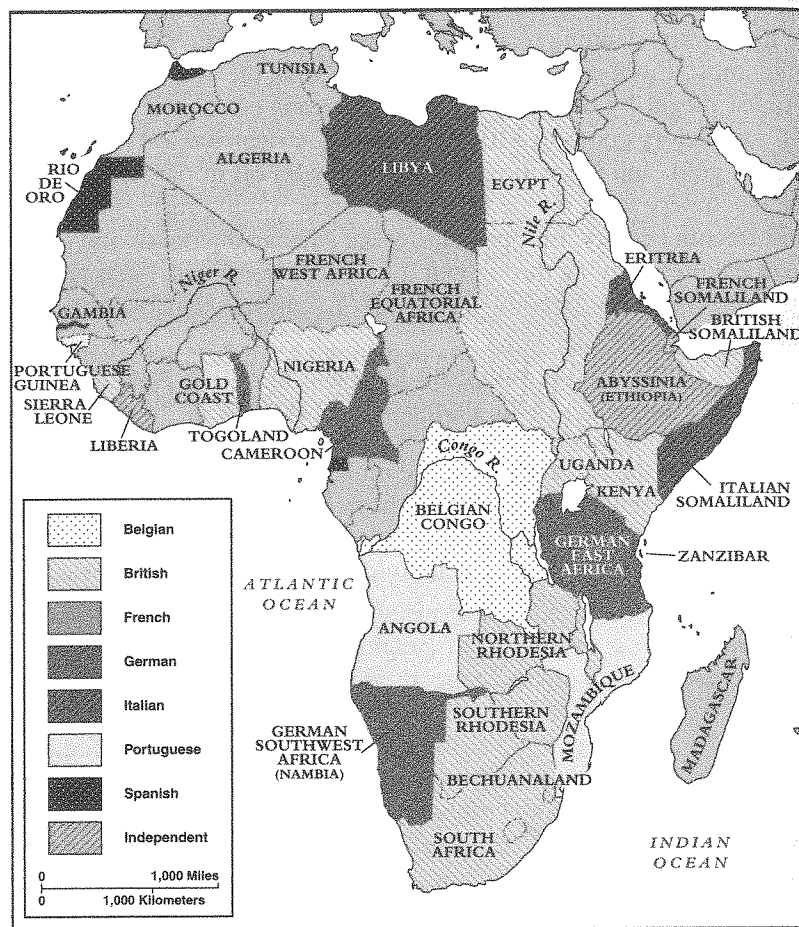
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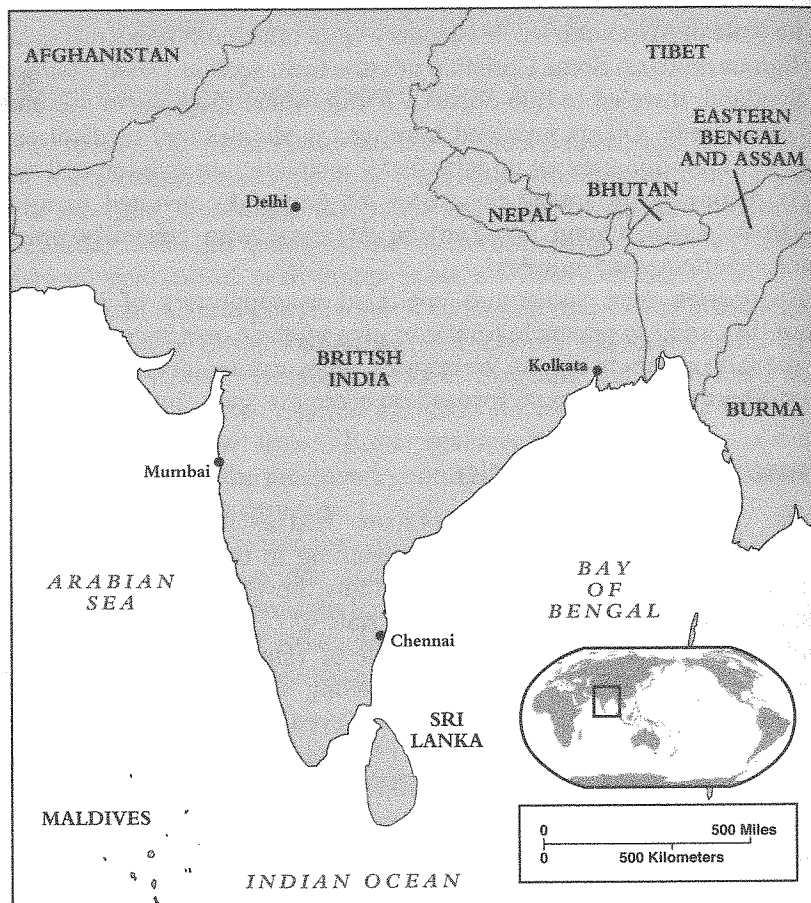
Imperialism in Africa

Europe had a long-standing relationship with Africa because of the slave trade. Although most European countries had declared the importation of slaves from Africa illegal by the early 1800s, Europeans continued to export guns, alcohol, and factory goods to Africa and import African natural resources, such as palm oil, gold, and ivory. England desired palm oil in particular because it kept the machinery in its textile factories from becoming rusty. In the last part of the nineteenth century, European tastes for African diamonds and ivory kept European empires thriving throughout the African continent. (Test Prep: Write a paragraph connecting late-nineteenth-century imperialism with the African slave trade. See pages 323–327.)

For most of the 1800s, European presence in Africa was minimal. The French seized Algeria in 1830, supposedly to prevent pirate attacks. Dutch immigrants had lived in South Africa since the 1600s; the British came to South Africa in 1806. In the second half of the nineteenth century, European nations expanded their presence in Africa with the help of better military technology; the discovery of *quinine*, a medicine that treats the tropical disease malaria; the steamship; and the early trips of individual explorers and business owners.

Congo By 1875, Western European nations were poised to penetrate Africa's interior. *King Leopold II* of Belgium (ruled 1865–1909) oversaw the invasion and pacification of the Congo, in central Africa. Unlike other European rulers, King Leopold owned the colony personally. That meant he kept the profits made by the *Congo Free State*, which totaled some $1 billion. Visitors to the colony reported on the terribly brutal conditions for the laborers who were forced to harvest ivory and rubber. For example, Leopold's agents severed the hands of Congolese workers in order to terrorize others into submission. Workers who could not meet their quotas were beaten or killed, while others were worked to death. Although the term "slavery" was not commonly used when describing imperial activities, laborers in the Congo often received no payment for their backbreaking work, and their spouses were held captive so that the workers would not run away. Overall, three million to eight million people perished under King Leopold's reign of terror in the Congo. In 1908, Belgium took over control of the Congo as a regular colony, and conditions improved. (Test Prep: Create an outline comparing conditions in the Congo with conditions in European colonies in South America. See pages 305–309.)

Suez Canal Europeans had long dreamed of dramatically shortening the route to Asia by building a canal connecting the Red Sea with the Mediterranean. This feat was finally accomplished when the *Suez Canal* was completed in 1869 by a French company using Egyptian *corvée laborers*. As many as 1.5 million of these unpaid workers were forced to work on the project, with thousands dying over the course of ten years. In 1882, Britain took over control of Egypt, still nominally part of the Ottoman Empire, because of unrest there that threatened British commercial interests. Britain also wanted to guarantee that the Suez Canal remained open.

AFRICA IN 1914

Belgian
British
French
German
Italian
Portuguese
Spanish
Independent

0   1,000 Miles
0   1,000 Kilometers

Scramble for Africa Fierce competition among European nations led to the *Berlin Conference* of 1884–1885 on the future of Africa. The purpose of this conference, held in Berlin, Germany, was not to divide Africa among the major Western powers but to set rules for establishing colonies there. However, it was clear that European powers were preparing to seize more land in Africa for colonies. No African representatives were invited to the conference.

By 1900, the only African countries unclaimed by Europeans were *Abyssinia*, modern-day Ethiopia, and *Liberia*, a country founded by formerly enslaved people from the United States. Because Liberia had a dependent relationship with the United States, it was not fully independent. Italy attempted to conquer Abyssinia in 1895, but the native forces were too strong for the Italians.

For the remainder of the continent, the new borders were merely artificial lines that meant little to the people who lived within them. Eventually, however, the borders became significant. Borders tore apart unified societies or placed rival groups under the same colonial government. For example, the Portuguese colony of Angola "united" ten major ethnic groups, including the Ambo, the

Herero, and the Kimbundu. The borders remained, even after African states won independence in the twentieth century. Although leaders have tried to develop a sense of nationalism, the borders have served to increase division instead of national unity. The lines drawn from afar set the stage for twentieth-century civil wars and created hundreds of thousands of refugees.

South Africa During the Napoleonic Wars (1799–1815), the British replaced the Dutch in the Cape Colony in the southernmost part of Africa. The British introduced the use of English but allowed people to use the Dutch language as well. Many of the Dutch-speaking *Afrikaners*, the descendants of seventeenth-century Dutch settlers, moved east of the Cape Colony, where they came into conflict with indigenous groups, including the Zulus, with whom they fought several wars.

From 1811 to 1858, the British fought the native Xhosa people, who did not want to be ruled by Europeans, whether Dutch or English. In 1856–1857, in the region east of the Cape Colony, some of the cattle of the local Xhosa were getting sick and dying, perhaps from catching an illness from the cattle of the British settlers. The Xhosa began to kill their cattle and destroy their crops in the belief that these actions would cause spirits to remove the British settlers from their lands. Some 400,000 head of Xhosa cattle may have been killed. The immediate result of the *Xhosa Cattle Killing Movement* was famine and the deaths of thousands of people; the British were not driven out of the area.

In 1849, the British sent a ship full of Irish convicts to the Cape Colony. This caused an uproar among the European settlers there, who did not want the land to become a convict colony like Australia. The British gave in and sent the ship on to Tasmania, an island south of Australia.

In the 1870s, the British fought the *Zulu Kingdom*, located on the South African coast of the Indian Ocean. At first, this *Anglo-Zulu War* went in favor of the Zulus, but eventually the British defeated them, and their lands became part of the British colony of South Africa.

Boer Wars Throughout the rest of the nineteenth century, the British and Afrikaners continued to fight over land. This conflict came to a boil in the *Boer Wars* (1880–1881, 1899–1902). These conflicts were bloody and brutal. In the end, the British army drove the Afrikaners and the Africans from their lands, forcing many into refugee camps. These settlements, which were segregated by race, came to be known as *concentration camps*. Medical care and sanitation were very poor, and food rations were so meager that many of the interned died of starvation. Once news arrived in Britain about the wretched conditions of the camps, activists tried to improve the lives of displaced refugees. However, white camps received the lion's share of attention, while conditions in black camps remained despicable. It is estimated that of the 100,000 blacks interned in concentration camps, nearly 15,000 perished.

By the end of the Boer Wars, the British had absorbed the settler colonies of British and Afrikaner peoples and the black Africans in the southern tip of Africa into its empire. Millions of Afrikaner and black African farmers had been displaced onto poor land, making it hard for them to earn a decent living.

Imperialism in China

China did not experience imperialism in the same way that South Asia or Africa did. Although the British were the first to establish a sphere of influence there with their victory in the Opium Wars (1839–1842), by 1898 other European countries had also set up spheres of influence in China. These "spheres" gave foreign powers exclusive trading rights and access to natural resources within their particular region. Internal problems within the Qing government, such as the Taiping Rebellion, made it easier for foreign countries to dominate the economic affairs of China. (Test Prep: Create a timeline tracing European imperialist actions in China between 1750 and 1900. See pages 447–454.)

Imperialism in Southeast Asia

The Dutch in Southeast Asia European imperialism in Southeast Asia began with a private company, just as it had begun in South Asia with the British East India Company. Dutch mariners arrived in the so-called "Spice Islands," modern-day Indonesia, and set up several trading posts on the archipelago. The Dutch East India Company, the VOC, extracted spices from the islands that became wildly popular in Europe. Although the trade was very profitable for the VOC, corruption caused the company to go bankrupt by 1800. Once the VOC folded, the Dutch government itself took control of the Dutch East Indies. By the middle of the nineteenth century, the islands were producing cash crops in order to support the Dutch economy.
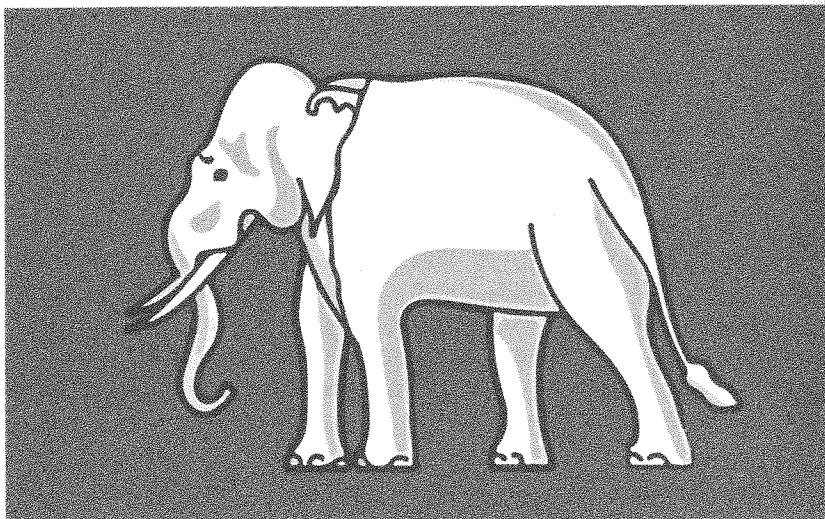
Source: Library of Congress

The southeast Asia country of Siam was one of the new states that people created in the nineteenth century in response to imperialism. Its flag featured a symbol of royal authority: an elephant.

Plantations produced tea, rubber, and sugar for export purposes, a situation that limited rice cultivation and eventually created enormous hardship for Indonesian farmers who relied on rice cultivation to survive. Although critiques of this agricultural policy forced the Dutch government to implement humanitarian reforms, the reforms were insufficient to meet the needs of the Indonesian people.

The French in Southeast Asia The French government also wanted an imperial presence in Asia. After it defeated China in the Sino-French War of 1883–1885, France gained control of northern Vietnam. France later pressured Siam to cede control of the territory of modern-day Laos to the French. By the 1890s, France controlled Cambodia, Laos, and all of modern-day Vietnam. French motives for imperialism were no different from those of the Dutch—a desire for cash crops. Soon rubber plantations began to dot the landscape of Cambodia and Vietnam. Dutch and French control of Southeast Asia continued until after World War II, when nationalist movements forced out the European powers.

One nation, Siam—modern-day Thailand—managed to escape the clutches of nineteenth-century European imperialism. Siam's monarchs deftly handled diplomatic relations with the British and French, whose colonies bordered Siam to the west and the east, respectively. The Siamese government also instituted a series of modernizing reforms, similar to Japan's Meiji reforms. The government began to industrialize by building railroads, and it set up Western-style schools in order to create an educated populace who would one day fill the ranks of an efficient government bureaucracy.

United States Imperialism in Latin America and the Pacific

The United States was not an established world power on the scale of Britain or France during most of the nineteenth century, but the Second Industrial Revolution brought newfound prosperity to the young republic. Economic considerations, as well as feelings of nationalism and cultural superiority, drove Americans' desire for territorial conquest. In 1823, President James Monroe issued the Monroe Doctrine, which stated that European nations should not intervene in the affairs of the countries in the Western Hemisphere. Although the doctrine on its face looks like an assertion of independence, it in fact masked the United States desire to be an imperial power in the Americas. This was borne out in the U.S. war with Mexico, 1845–1848, as a result of which the United States gained vast territories in the Southwest from Mexico.

Fifty years later, in 1898, the U.S. victory in the Spanish-American War brought Guam, Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines under U.S. control. President Theodore Roosevelt, a proponent of Social Darwinism and a believer in white cultural superiority, was especially eager to expand U.S. influence throughout the Western Hemisphere. The 1904 *Roosevelt Corollary* to the

Monroe Doctrine stated that if countries in Latin America demonstrated "instability," the United States would feel free to intervene. Indeed, in 1904 Roosevelt sent U.S. troops to occupy a Caribbean island nation, the Dominican Republic, until it repaid its foreign debts.

Comparing Three Types of Imperialism

Type of Imperialism	Examples	Features	Outcomes
State-Run Colonies	• British West Africa • Belgian Congo	• Western education and political structures gradually replace the local culture • Often defended by claims of helping the indigenous population	Exploitation of indigenous labor; loss of indigenous culture; creation of non-native elite and mixed native and non-native middle class; imperialist countries rule by corporations or states modeled by Western policy
Settler Colonies	• British South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand • French Algeria	• Focus on control and use of land • Settlers remove or dominate the indigenous population • Often follows contact with sparsely populated lands	Loss of indigenous culture; genocide; spread of disease; forced conversion to Western business, political, and religious ideas; exploitation of indigenous labor; forcing indigenous populations into extreme poverty and addiction
Economic Power	• British in China • French in China • United States in Latin America	• People, raw materials, and refined materials are main resources exploited • Cash crops and mineral resources are taken out on large scale	Social destabilization based on economic exploitation; Opium Wars in China; monoculture and lack of agricultural diversity caused by cash crops; soil depletion; long-range environmental damage

Responses to Imperialism

Nationalist movements emerged in response to imperialism in South Asia, China, and Africa. In each area, elite groups of Western-educated intellectuals led resistance to imperialism. Elite groups of Asians and Africans were educated in European schools and developed a deep understanding of Enlightenment ideals such as natural rights, sovereignty, and nationalism. Though they often worked in official posts in colonial government, elites eventually used the education that imperialism provided them to drive out their conquerors. In South Asia, such intellectuals established the *Indian National Congress* in 1885. Though it began as a forum for airing grievances to the colonial government, by the turn of the twentieth century the Congress began to fight for self-rule.

Organized African resistance to imperialism developed later than Indian resistance. Historians have different theories to explain this difference in timing. One theory is that European powers had been in India much longer than they had been in Africa. Another states that British colonial governments in India were partially run by Indians, while colonial governments in Africa were largely run by military officials from Europe. However, by the end of the First World War (1914–1918), Western-educated Africans had developed a sense of shared identity and nationalism known as *Pan-Africanism*.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES: WHAT WAS IMPERIALISM'S IMPACT?

Historians still debate imperialism's overall impact. Many argue that imperialism did irreparable damage to colonial peoples, while some historians assert that imperialism overall was a positive development.

While many South Asians pushed the British to abandon their empire, some did not. One defender of British imperialism was Indian writer Nirad Chaudhari. His memoir, *Autobiography of an Unknown Indian* (1951), was hugely controversial when it was published—just four short years after India gained its independence. Chaudhari believed that the British Empire was not a source of India's problems, but had, in his opinion, brought the gift of British culture and civilization to his home country.

Rather than focus on one country and one colony, historian and political activist Walter Rodney, in *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa* (1972), looked broadly at imperialism by several countries in several regions. Rodney, from the South American country of Guyana, criticized the exploitation of African resources by imperialist powers and argued for Pan-African unity and socialism to solve post-colonial problems.

An even broader approach can be seen in *Orientalism* (1979) by Palestinian-American literary scholar Edward Said. He exposed the ideology of Western imperialism through close study of language that Western scholars use to describe the so-called "Orient." These scholars, Said says, assumed that Arabs and other Asians were backward and exotic, assumptions that justified European imperialism. Pro-imperial and pro-Western biases are evident even in contemporary Western scholarship about "Eastern" cultures, according to Said. His controversial work has influenced scholars to become more critical readers of historical texts.

Niall Ferguson, an economist and historian, defended British imperialism in his book *Empire: How Britain Made the Modern World* (2004). Ferguson said that Great Britain helped its colonies because it spread the rule of law, introduced the idea of parliamentary government, and built railroads. Most importantly, according to Ferguson, the British Empire was a force for globalization and free-market capitalism.

KEY TERMS BY THEME

GOVERNMENT
Great Game
imperialism
Scramble for Africa
sepoys
sepoy mutiny
Raj
King Leopold II
Congo Free State
Berlin Conference
Abyssinia
Liberia
Zulu Kingdom
Anglo-Zulu War
Boer Wars
Roosevelt Corollary
Indian National
   Congress
Pan-Africanism

ECONOMICS
export economies
cash crops
Tea
Cecil Rhodes
Goa
Pondicherry
corvée laborers
indentured laborers
penal colony
convicts

ENVIRONMENT
monocultures
quinine
Suez Canal
Charles Darwin

CULTURE
phrenologists
Social Darwinism
Herbert Spencer
David Livingstone
Afrikaners
Xhosa Cattle Killing
   Movement
concentration camps
Aborigines
Maori
White Australia Policy

MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS

Question 1 refers to the map below.

GLOBAL MIGRATIONS

1. European
2. African (slaves)
3. Indian
4. Chinese
5. Japanese
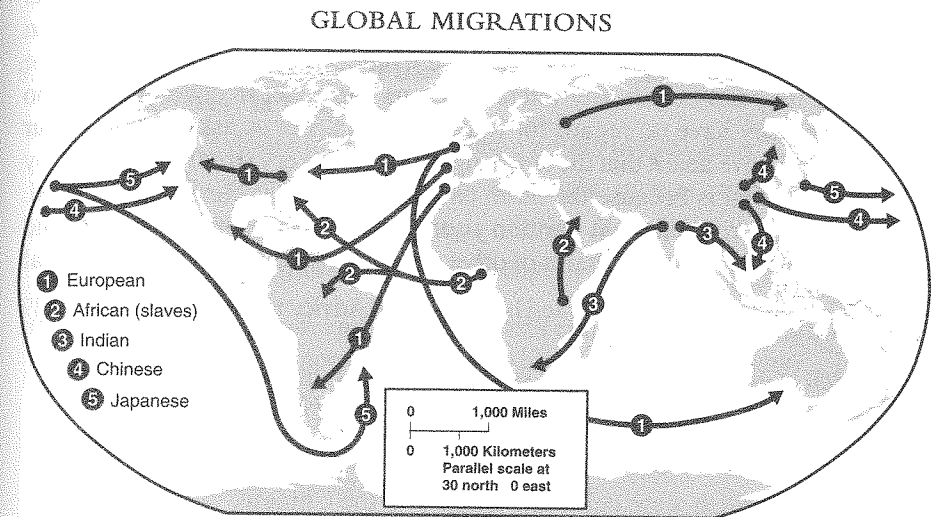
1. The migration from West Africa to the Americas was largely a forced migration. Which of these had elements of forced migration?
   (A) Migration 1: Britain to Australia
   (B) Migration 3: India to South Africa
   (C) Migration 4: China to Korea
   (D) Migration 5: Japan to North America

2. An economic motive for imperialism in the nineteenth century was a desire by industrialized countries
   (A) for natural resources, new markets, and cheap labor
   (B) for prestige among other nations
   (C) to improve health and living conditions of people around the world
   (D) to spread Christianity around the world

3. Which of the following was a long-lasting effect of the "Scramble for Africa" in the late nineteenth century?
   (A) Advances in self-government in African countries
   (B) Development of a more sustainable agricultural system
   (C) Growth of the United States as an imperial power
   (D) Creation of new borders that often led to conflict

Questions 4 and 5 refer to the excerpt below.

We find your country is sixty or seventy thousand li [three li equal about one mile, ordinarily] from China. Yet there are barbarian ships that strive to come here for trade for the purpose of making a great profit. The wealth of China is used to profit the barbarians. That is to say, the great profit made by barbarians is all taken from the rightful share of China. By what right do they then in return use the poisonous drug to injure the Chinese people? Even though the barbarians may not necessarily intend to do us harm, yet in coveting profit to an extreme, they have no regard for injuring others. Let us ask, where is your conscience? I have heard that the smoking of opium is very strictly forbidden by your country; that is because the harm caused by opium is clearly understood. Since it is not permitted to do harm to your own country, then even less should you let it be passed on to the harm of other countries—how much less to China!

—Lin Tse-Hsu, "Letter of Advice to Queen Victoria," 1839

4. Which statement would Lin Tse-Hsu agree with most strongly?
   (A) The British right to free trade should not be limited.
   (B) The British needed to sell opium in China.
   (C) The British were culturally inferior to the Chinese.
   (D) The British applied the same principles at home and in China.

5. What happened after the delivery of this message?
   (A) Britain stopped importing opium into China.
   (B) The United States and Germany began trading with China.
   (C) Relations between China and Britain worsened.
   (D) The Boxer Rebellion began in hopes of expelling foreign influence.

6. Which of the following was a major effect of the Sepoy Mutiny?
   (A) The abolition of the Indian caste system
   (B) The creation of the Indian National Congress
   (C) The withdrawal of British troops from India
   (D) The collapse of the Mughal Empire in India

7. In contrast to other nations in Southeast Asia, Siam
   (A) had no resources of interest to Western powers
   (B) used diplomacy to remain independent of Western control
   (C) defeated French and British forces with a strong military
   (D) refused to trade with Western countries

8. Which statement is true about British experience in its colonies?
   (A) British faced European rivals for power only in West Africa.
   (B) Britain encountered indigenous resistance to its power only in India.
   (C) British citizens settled in large numbers only in South Africa.
   (D) Britain defended the principle of free trade only in China.

9. Which motive best explains the reason for the actions of the British East India Company in India?
   (A) Britain's desire to control strategic points in East Asia
   (B) British industries' need for raw materials, such as cotton
   (C) The Raj's plan to develop large military forces
   (D) India's willingness to trade with British merchants

10. During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the United States attempted to be an imperial power in which group of locations?
    (A) Latin America, the Caribbean, and the Pacific
    (B) The Caribbean, Africa, and the Pacific
    (C) Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean
    (D) India, Japan, and Latin America

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE-OVER-TIME ESSAY QUESTIONS

Directions: You are to answer the following question. You should spend 5 minutes organizing or outlining your essay. Write an essay that:

- Has a relevant thesis and supports that thesis with appropriate historical evidence.
- Addresses all parts of the question.
- Uses world historical context to show continuities and changes over time.
- Analyzes the process of continuity and change over time.

1. Analyze continuities and change in the response of native peoples to imperialism in ONE of these regions between 1750 and 1900:
   - India
   - Sub-Saharan Africa

Questions for Additional Practice

2. Analyze continuities and change in the role of technology in the development of Western colonial empires from the sixteenth century through the end of the nineteenth century.

3. Analyze continuities and change in British intervention in ONE of the following regions during the nineteenth century:
   - Sub-Saharan Africa
   - South Asia
   - China

COMPARATIVE ESSAY QUESTIONS

Directions: You are to answer the following question. You should spend 5 minutes organizing or outlining your essay. Write an essay that:
   - Has a relevant thesis and supports that thesis with appropriate historical evidence.
   - Addresses all parts of the question.
   - Makes direct, relevant comparisons.
   - Analyzes relevant reasons for similarities and differences.

1. Analyze similarities and differences between Western intervention in Africa and in ONE of the following regions between 1750 and 1900:
   - South Asia
   - Southeast Asia

Questions for Additional Practice

2. Analyze similarities and differences in the colonial labor systems in TWO of the following regions between 1750 and 1900:
   - the Caribbean
   - South Asia
   - Australia

3. Compare the first wave of colonialism in the sixteenth century to the second wave of colonialism in the nineteenth century in one of the following regions:
   - the Caribbean
   - North America
   - Africa

THINK AS A HISTORIAN: APPLY THE SKILL OF INTERPRETATION

To interpret history is not only to tell what happened in the past but also to explain how the past is viewed today. *In the sentences below, identify the verb that serves as a cue that you are reading interpretation.*

1. The words of Rudyard Kipling's poem "The White Man's Burden" are seen as racist today.

2. There were many motives for imperialism—among them acquisition of land and the quest for power—but most historians observe that economics overrode all of the others.

3. Europeans often claimed to undertake railway projects to benefit people in Asia and Africa; in retrospect, their motive can be perceived as pure self-interest.

4. The Berlin Conference of 1884–1885 on the future of Africa was ostensibly held for Western powers to set rules, but it appears to have been a buildup to a land grab.

5. Although the Monroe Doctrine looked like an assertion of independence, it masked the United States desire to be an imperial power.

WRITE AS A HISTORIAN: REVIEW THE MAIN POINTS

When you are writing about a multifaceted subject, it is a good idea to review the main points for the reader, who may be taking in the information for the first time. *Which THREE of the examples below best review the main points?*

1. Theodore Roosevelt is remembered as one of America's most colorful presidents, which is why many high schools are named for him.

2. Revolutions, nationalism, and the creation of nation-states were the chief characteristics of empire building in the 1800s.

3. During the imperialist era, legitimate science was subverted for racist purposes such as falsely claiming that whites were biologically superior.

4. The things that drove America's desire for territorial conquest were threefold: economic considerations, the rise of nationalism, and a feeling of cultural superiority.

5. In the second half of the nineteenth century, European nations were able to expand their presence because of better medical technology, the discovery of quinine to treat malaria, and the adventures of explorers and profiteers.

PERIOD 5: Review

Thematic Review

Directions: Briefly answer each question in paragraph form.

1. **Interaction Between Humans and the Environment** How did industrialization rely upon natural resources? What effect did industrialization have on the environment?

2. **Development and Interaction of Cultures** Explain how the ideas of Enlightenment thinkers compared to traditional religious beliefs.

3. **State-Building, Expansion, and Conflict** Describe similarities and differences in resistance to imperialism in India, China, and Africa in the nineteenth century.

4. **Creation, Expansion, and Interaction of Economic Systems** Explain how industrialization changed the nature of business in Britain.

5. **Development and Transformation of Social Structures** Analyze the causes and effects of the end of feudalism in Japan in the late nineteenth century.

6. **Development and Transformation of Social Structures** Explain the reasons for the social distinctions among various ethnic groups in Latin America in the nineteenth century.

TURNING POINT: WHY 1900?

The year 1900 marks the beginning of a new century. By that date, industrialization had spread globally, and Western imperialism was at its peak. The world was united into a tight economic network. Among the industrialized countries, faith in progress and reason was high. However, this faith would soon be shattered by World War I, which began in 1914. The British historian Eric Hobsbawm, using 1914 as a turning point, coined the phrase "the long nineteenth century" to describe the period from the start of the French Revolution in 1789 to the start of World War I. For historians who see the battle between capitalism and communism as the defining issue of the modern era, the success of the Communists in the 1917 Russian Revolution might be the turning point. Some historians even point to 1945 as the true turning point. Europe was the dominant world power in 1900, but by 1945, at the end of World War II, the continent had lost that status to the United States.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

Direction: The following question is based on the accompanying Documents 1–9. (The documents have been edited for the purpose of this exercise.)

This question is designed to test your ability to work with and understand historical documents. Write an essay that:

- Has a relevant thesis and supports that thesis with evidence from the document.
- Uses all of the documents.
- Analyzes the documents by grouping them in as many appropriate ways as possible; does not simply summarize the documents individually.
- Takes into account the sources of the documents and analyzes the author's point of view.
- Identifies and explains the need for at least one additional type of document.

You may refer to relevant historical information not mentioned in the documents.

1. Using the following documents, analyze the similarities in the role of women in Japan and Argentina in the period from the 1850s to the 1920s. Identify an additional type of document and explain how it would help your analysis of women's roles in these countries.

Document 1

Source: P. F. Siebold, *Manners and Customs of the Japanese in the Nineteenth Century,* 1852.

The position of women in Japan is apparently unlike that of the sex in all other parts of the East, and approaches more nearly their European condition. The Japanese women are subjected to no jealous seclusion, hold a fair station in society, and share in all the innocent recreations of their fathers and husbands. The minds of the women are cultivated with as much care as those of men; and amongst the most admired Japanese historians, moralists, and poets are found several female names. But, though permitted thus to enjoy and adorn society, they are, on the other hand, during their whole lives, kept in a state of tutelage; that is, of complete dependence on their husbands, sons, or other relatives. They have no legal rights, and their evidence is not admitted in a court of justice. [The husband] . . . also has the power of divorce, which may be considered unlimited . . . At home, the wife is the mistress of the family; but in other respects she is treated rather as a toy for her husband's amusement, than as the rational, confidential partner of his life.

Document 2

Source: Brian Platt, "Educational Reform in Japan (nineteenth century)," *Children and Youth in History.*

	Enrollment in Japanese Primary Schools			
Date	Number of Schools	Percentage of Boys Enrolled	Percentage of Girls Enrolled	Percentage of All Children Enrolled
1873	12,597	40	15	28
1880	28,410	59	22	41
1890	26,017	65	31	49
1900	26,857	90	72	81

Document 3

Source: Oki Takato, Japanese Minister of Education, 1891.

If the aim of regular education is to make known the proper relations between man and man, to make the Japanese people understand their proper role, and to raise the quality and the welfare of Society and Nation, every person who lives in this country must receive a regular education. The country has the responsibility for achieving this end; but it is also the responsibility of each individual to dedicate himself completely, and every city, town, and village must—as they have been ordered—provide school facilities out of public funds, supervise all people involved, and see to it that children attend school . . .

Educational errors bring about harm—they may cause children to hate their family's occupation, despise their parents, acquire an appetite for luxury, seek to escape, and avoid work. Moreover, even poor people must attend school during their best years and if they fail to husband their resources and waste their time, they stir up unhappiness not only for themselves and their families but bring harm to the country as well. Therefore we must be careful that education not bring harmful effects, that girls, for example, do not lose their chastity and feminine ways (literally, beautiful manners), that children do not grow up incapable of doing proper work, or deficient in the ability to look after their households.

Document 4

Source: Baron Kikuchi, minster in the Japanese government, speech in 1907.

Our female education, then, is based on the assumption that women marry, and that its object is to fit girls to become good wives and wise mothers. . . . The house was, and still is, . . . the unit of society, not the individual . . . the object . . . of female education—in a word, to fit girls to become good wives and mothers, proper helpmates and worthy companions of the men of Meiji, and noble mothers to bring up future generations of Japanese.

Document 5

Source: Journalist describing the lives of female silk workers in Japan, 1898.

When I encountered silk workers I was even more shocked than I had been by the situation of weaving workers.... At busy times they go straight to work on rising in the morning, and not infrequently work through until 12.00 at night. The food is six parts barley to four parts rice. The sleeping quarters resemble pigsties, so squalid are they. What I found especially shocking is that in some districts, when business is slack, the workers are sent out into service for a fixed period, with the employer taking all their earnings... Many of the girls coming to the silk districts pass through the hands of recruiting agents. In some cases they may be there for two to three years and never even know the name of the neighboring town. The local residents think of those who have entered the ranks of the factory girls in the same manner as tea house girls, bordering on degradation. If one had to take pity on just one group among all these workers, it must be first and foremost the silk workers.

Document 6

Source: *International Statistics Annual,* 1920. All numbers are estimates.

	Enrollment in Argentinian Schools		
Year	Total Number of Boys	Total Number of Girls	Total Number of Students
1896	150,000	130,000	280,000
1900	200,000	180,000	380,000
1905	290,000	170,000	560,000
1910	370,000	330,000	700,000
1915	480,000	450,000	930,000

Document 7

Source: Josefina Pelliza de Sagasta, "Women Dedicated to Miss Maria Eugenia Echenique," 1876.

Women should be educated; give them a solid education, based on wholesome principles, cemented with moral and sensible beliefs; they should have a general knowledge of everything that awakens ingenuity and determines ideas, but not for them are the calculation and egotism with which they instruct English women, not for them the ridiculous ideas of North American women who pretend in their pride to be equal to men, to be legislators and obtain a seat in Congress or be university professors, as if it were not enough to be a mother, a wife, a housewife, as if her rights as a woman were not enough to be happy and to make others happy, as if it were not enough to carry out her sacred mission on earth: educating her family, cultivating the tender hearts of her children making them useful citizens, laborers of intelligence and progress, with her words and acts, cultivating love in her children and the sentiments that most enhance women: virtue, modesty and humility. Girls, women someday, be tender and loving wives, able to work for the happiness of your life's partner instead of bringing about his disgrace with dreams and aspirations beyond your sphere.

Document 8

Source: Maria Eugenia Echenique, writing in response to Josefina Pelliza de Sagasta, 1876.

Every day we see men with unscrewed-on heads who have no love for order nor true affection for their families, who spend their lives on gambling and rambling around; cold-bloodedly, they leave their children on the street, because their wives, whose sphere of action is reduced only to love and suffering, do not know how to oppose forcefully the squandering nor how to stop in time the abuses from their husbands nor save in this way the interests of their children.

Emancipation protects women from this catastrophe. A woman, educated in the management of business, even if she does not make a profession of it, knows how to prevent or remedy the problem once it has occurred. She does not go through the pain of seeing her children begging for bread from door to door, because she has a thousand resources to satisfy their needs honorably. She goes to work, and thus she raises her children without the need for others' support that could lead her to corruption and to spend a miserable and humiliating life. Love can dry tears and sweeten the bitterness of life, but it cannot satisfy hunger nor cover nakedness. Love cannot be developed on a sublime and heroic level unless one is prepared to work, to put sentiment into practice.

Emancipation, conceding to women great rights, instills in them a great heart that takes them closer to the true perfection to which men can aspire here on earth. A woman who, to her physical beauty and spirituality, adds education and the ability to act for good in her vast sphere, is the ideal type imagined by Christianity, and she is going to carry out progress in this century.

Document 9

Source: The director of Argentinian census writing about women in the workplace, 1914.

Today women work for the city, the post office, customs, the telegraph company and in diverse public areas. The telephone service is almost exclusively their responsibility. This whole census was compiled by feminine hands. Beyond their mission as teachers, for which they are admirably prepared, women are each day making progress in industry, commerce, the professions. The job of typist is almost reserved for her. . . . There are women doctors, masseuses, translators, lawyers, professors, accountants, notaries, etc.