



Twentieth-Century WORLD HISTORY

WILLIAM J. DUIKER

The Pennsylvania State University



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Belmont, CA • Albany, NY • Boston • Cincinnati • Detroit • Johannesburg • London • Madrid • Melbourne Mexico City • New York • Pacific Grove, CA • Scottsdale, AZ • Singapore • Tokyo • Toronto History Editor: Clark Baxter

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Production: Anne Draus, Scratchgravel Publishing Services

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Printed in the United States of America
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

For more information, contact Wadsworth Publishing Company, 10 Davis Drive, Belmont, CA 94002, or electronically at http://www.wadsworth.com

International Thomson Publishing Europe

Berkshire House 168-173 High Holborn

London WC1V 7AA, United Kingdom

Nelson ITP, Australia 102 Dodds Street South Melbourne Victoria 3205 Australia

Nelson Canada 1120 Birchmount Road Scarborough, Ontario Canada M1K 5G4

International Thomson Publishing Southern Africa Building 18, Constantia Square 138 Sixteenth Road, P.O. Box 2459 Halfway House, 1685 South Africa International Thomson Editores Seneca 53 Colonia Polanco

Text and Cover Designer: Diane Beasley Copy Editor: Margaret C. Tropp

Photo Researcher: Sarah Evertson/Image Quest Compositor: Scratchgravel Publishing Services

Printer: R.R. Donnelley & Sons, Crawfordsville

Cover Image: People's Republic of China calendar illustration, circa 1960.

11560 México D. F. México

Artist unknown.

International Thomson Publishing Asia 60 Albert Street #15-01 Albert Complex Singapore 189969

International Thomson Publishing Japan Hirakawa-cho Kyowa Building, 3F 2-2-1 Hirakawa-cho, Chiyoda-ku Tokyo 102 Japan

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Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Duiker, William J.

Twentieth-century world history / William J. Duiker

p. cm.

Includes bibliographical references and index.

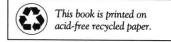
ISBN 0-534-54873-3 (alk. paper)

1. History, Modern—20th century. I. Title.

D421.D86 1999

909.82-dc21

98-39244



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To Kirsten and Zachary, as you face the challenges of the next century

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he twentieth century has been an era of paradox. When it began, Western civilization was a region of squabbling states that bestrode the world like a colossus. As the century comes to an end, the West is prosperous and increasingly united, yet there are signs that-despite the recent financial crisis—global economic and political hegemony are beginning to shift to the East. The era of Western dominance is over. It has been an era marked by war and revolution but also by rapid industrial growth and widespread economic prosperity, a time of growing interdependence but also of burgeoning ethnic and national consciousness, a period that witnessed the rising power of science but also fervent religiosity and growing doubts about the impact of technology on the human experience.

Twentieth-Century World History attempts to chronicle the key events in our revolutionary century while seeking to throw light on some of the underlying issues that have shaped the times. Does the beginning of a new millennium mark the end of an extended period of Western dominance? If so, will recent decades of European and American superiority be followed by a "Pacific Century" with economic and political power shifting to the nations of eastern Asia? Will the end of the Cold War lead to what has been called a "new world order" marked by global cooperation, or are we on the verge of an unstable era of ethnic and national conflict? Why has a time of unparalleled prosperity and technological advancement been accompanied by deep pockets of poverty and widespread doubts about the role of government and the capabilities of human reason? Although this book does not promise final answers to such questions, it can provide a framework for analysis and a better understanding of some of the salient issues of our time.

A number of decisions must be made by any author sufficiently foolhardy to seek to encompass in a single volume the history of a turbulent century. First in importance is whether to present the topic as an integrated whole or with a focus on individual cultures and societies. The world that we live in today is in many respects an interdependent one in terms of economics as well as culture and communications, a reality that is often expressed by the familiar phrase "global village." At the same time, the process of globalization is by no means complete, as ethnic, religious, and regional differences continue to exist and to shape the course of our times. The tenacity of these differences is reflected not only in the rise of internecine conflicts in such divergent areas as Africa, South Asia, and Eastern Europe, but also in the emergence in recent years of such regional organizations as the Organization of African Unity, the Association for the Southeast Asian Nations, and the European Economic Community. Political leaders in various parts of the world speak routinely (if sometimes wistfully) of "Arab unity," the "African road to socialism," and the "Confucian path to economic development."

A second problem is a practical one. College students today are all too often not well informed about the distinctive character of civilizations such as China, India, and sub-Saharan Africa. Without sufficient exposure to the historical evolution of such societies, students will assume all too readily that the peoples in these countries have had historical experiences similar to their own and respond to various stimuli in a similar fashion to those living in Western Europe or the United States. If it is a mistake to ignore those forces that link us together, it is equally erroneous to underestimate those factors that continue to divide us and to differentiate us into a world of diverse peoples.

My response to this challenge has been to adopt an overall global approach to the history of the twentieth century, while at the same time attempting to do justice to the distinctive character and recent development of individual civilizations and regions in the world. The opening chapters focus on issues that have a global impact, such as the Industrial Revolution, the era of imperialism, and the two world wars. Later chapters center on individual regions of the world, although two separate chapters are devoted to the international implications of the Cold War and its aftermath. The book is divided into five parts. The first four parts are each followed by a short section labeled "Reflections," which attempts to link events together in a broad comparative and global framework. The final chapter examines some

of the common problems of our time—including environmental pollution, the population explosion, and spiritual malaise—and takes a cautious look into the future to explore how such issues will evolve in the next century.

Another issue that requires attention is the balance of the treatment of Western civilization and its counterparts in Asia and Africa. The modern world is often viewed essentially as the history of Europe and the Western hemisphere, with other regions treated as appendages of the industrial countries. It is certainly true that much of this century has been dominated by events in Europe and North America, and in recognition of this fact, the opening chapters focus primarily on issues related to the rise of the West, including the Industrial Revolution and the age of imperialism. In recent decades, however, other parts of the world have assumed greater importance, thus restoring a global balance that had existed prior to the scientific and technological revolution that transformed the West in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Later chapters examine this phenomenon, according to regions such as Africa, Asia, and Latin America the importance that they merit as the world prepares to enter a new millennium.

This book seeks balance in another area as well. Many textbooks tend to simplify the content of history courses by emphasizing an intellectual or political perspective or, most recently, a social perspective, often at the expense of providing sufficient details in a chronological framework. This approach is confusing to students whose high school social studies programs have often neglected a systematic study of world history. I have attempted to write a well-balanced work in which political, economic, social, and cultural history have been integrated into a chronologically ordered synthesis. A strong narrative, linking together key issues in a broad interpretative framework, is still the most effective way to present the story of the past to young minds.

To enliven the text, I have included a number of boxed essays that explore key issues within each chapter, citing important works in the field. Extensive maps and illustrations—each placed at the appropriate place in the chapter—serve to deepen the reader's understanding of the text. An annotated bibliography at the end of the book reviews the most recent literature on each period while referring also to some of the older, "classical" works in the field.

The following supplements are available for instructors' use:

- Instructor's Manual and Test Bank—prepared by Dmitry Shlapentokh, Indiana University, South Bend—includes chapter outlines, chapter summaries, identifications, true/false, multiple choice, and essay questions.
- Computerized Test Bank—available in Macintosh and Windows formats. Call-in testing is also available.
- Four-color acetate package—includes all the maps from the text along with a full-page commentary for each image, prepared by James Harrison, Siena College.
- Also, visit our Web site at www.thomson.com/ Wadsworth.html.

I would like to express my appreciation to those reviewers who have read individual chapters and provided me with useful suggestions for improvement: Dmitry Shlapentokh, Indiana University, South Bend; John W. Cell, Duke University; Larry D. Wilcox, The University of Toledo; William J. Brazill, Wayne State University; Constance McGovern, Frostburg State University; and Alexander Rudhart, Villanova University. Jackson Spielvogel, who is co-author of our textbook, World History (now in its second edition), has been kind enough to permit me to use some of his sections in that book for the purposes of writing this one. Several of my other colleagues at Penn State—including Kumkum Chatterjee, On-cho Ng, and Arthur F. Goldschmidt—have provided me with invaluable assistance in understanding parts of the world that are beyond my own area of concentration. To Clark Baxter, whose unfailing good humor, patience, and sage advice has so often eased the trauma of textbook publishing, I offer my heartfelt thanks. I am also grateful to Sharon Adams Poore and Hal Humphrey of Wadsworth Publishing, and to Amy Guastello, for their assistance in bringing this project to fruition, and to Anne Draus of Scratchgravel Publishing for editorial advice. As always, Sarah Evertson has been helpful in obtaining illustrations for the book.

Finally, I am eternally grateful to my wife, Yvonne V. Duiker, Ph.D. Her research and her written contributions on art, architecture, literature, and music have added sparkle to this book. Her presence at my side has immeasurably added sparkle to my life.

William J. Duiker The Pennsylvania State University



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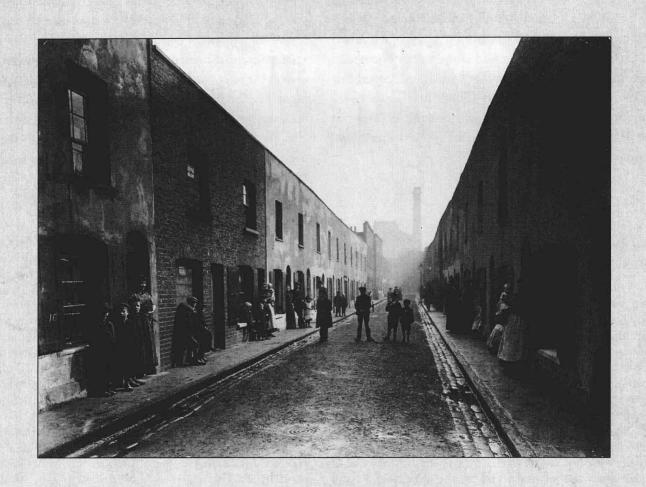


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I New World in the Making





CHAPTER

1

The Rise of Industrial Society in the West

As the twentieth century began, the world appeared to be falling increasingly under the domination of Europe. During the previous century, much of the Asian and African continents had come under European colonial rule. Those areas that had so far escaped European conquest—notably China and Japan—remained under heavy European pressure. The world appeared to be entering a phase of Western global dominance.

The rise of Europe, and the Western world in general, to a position of global hegemony was a product, above all, of the Industrial Revolution. The rise of modern industry began in England in the eighteenth century and spread to the Continent a few decades later. By the beginning of the twentieth century, it had transformed the economic and social structure of Europe and led to a degree of economic and technological achievement that was unprecedented in the history of the world.

The Industrial Revolution in Great Britain

Why the Industrial Revolution broke out in Great Britain rather than in another part of the world has been a subject for debate among historians for many decades. A number of factors certainly contributed to the rapid transformation of eighteenth-century British society from a predominantly agricultural to an industrial and commercial economy. First, improvements in agriculture during the eighteenth century had led to a significant increase in food production. British agriculture could now feed more people at lower prices with less labor; even ordinary British families no longer had to use most of their income to buy food, giving them the potential to purchase manufactured goods. At the same time, a rapid growth of population in the second half of the eighteenth century provided a pool of surplus labor for the new factories of the emerging British industrial sector.

A second factor was the rapid increase in national wealth. Two centuries of expanding trade had provided

Britain with a ready supply of capital for investment in the new industrial machines and the factories that were required to house them. In addition to profits from trade, Britain possessed an effective central bank and well-developed, flexible credit facilities. Many early factory owners were merchants and entrepreneurs who had profited from the eighteenth-century cottage industry. The country also possessed what might today be described as a "modernization elite"—individuals who were interested in making profits if the opportunity presented itself. In that objective they were generally supported by the government.

Third, Britain was richly supplied with important mineral resources, such as coal and iron ore, needed in the manufacturing process. Britain was also a small country, and the relatively short distances made transportation facilities readily accessible. In addition to nature's provision of abundant rivers, from the midseventeenth century onward, both private and public investment poured into the construction of new roads, bridges, and canals. By 1780, roads, rivers, and canals

linked the major industrial centers of the north, the Midlands, London, and the Atlantic coast.

Finally, foreign markets gave British industrialists a ready outlet for their manufactured goods. British exports quadrupled between 1660 and 1760. In the course of its eighteenth-century wars and conquests (see Chapter 2), Great Britain had developed a vast colonial empire at the expense of its leading continental rivals, the Dutch Republic and France. Britain also possessed a well-developed merchant marine that was able to transport goods to any place in the world. A crucial factor in Britain's successful industrialization was the ability to produce cheaply those articles most in demand abroad. And the best markets abroad were not in Europe, where countries protected their own incipient industries, but in the Americas, Africa, and Asia, where people wanted sturdy, inexpensive clothes rather than costly, highly finished, luxury items. Britain's machine-produced textiles fulfilled that demand. Nor should we overlook the British domestic market. Britain had the highest standard of living in Europe and a rapidly growing population. It was the demand from both domestic and foreign markets and the inability of the old system to meet it that led entrepreneurs to seek and accept the new methods of manufacturing that a series of inventions provided. In so doing, these individuals produced the Industrial Revolution.

During the last decades of the century, technological innovations, including the flying shuttle, the spinning jenny, and the power loom, led to a significant increase in production (see box on p. 4). The cotton textile industry achieved even greater heights of productivity with the invention of the steam engine, which proved invaluable to Britain's Industrial Revolution. The steam engine was a tireless source of power and depended for fuel on a substance—namely, coal—that seemed then to be available in unlimited quantities. The success of the steam engine increased the demand for coal and led to an expansion in coal production. In turn, new processes using coal furthered the development of an iron industry, the production of machinery, and the invention of the railroad.

By the mid-nineteenth century, Great Britain had become the world's first and richest industrial nation. Britain was the "workshop, banker, and trader of the world." It produced half of the world's coal and manufactured goods; in 1850, its cotton industry alone was equal in size to the industries of all other European countries combined. No doubt, Britain's certainty about its mission in the world in the nineteenth century was grounded in its incredible material success story.

The Spread of Industrialization

Beginning first in Great Britain, industrialization spread to the continental countries of Europe and the United States at different times and speeds during the nineteenth century. First to be industrialized on the Continent were Belgium, France, and the German states and in North America, the new nation of the United States. Not until after 1850 did the Industrial Revolution spread to the rest of Europe and other parts of the world.

Industrialization on the Continent faced numerous hurdles, and as it proceeded in earnest after 1815, it did so along lines that were somewhat different from Britain's. Lack of technical knowledge was a first major obstacle to industrialization. But the continental countries possessed an advantage here; they could simply borrow British techniques and practices. By the 1840s, a new generation of skilled mechanics from Belgium and France was spreading their knowledge east and south. More important, however, continental countries, especially France and the German states, began to establish a wide range of technical schools to train engineers and mechanics.

That government played an important role in this regard brings us to a second difference between British and continental industrialization. Governments on much of the Continent were accustomed to playing a significant role in economic affairs. Furthering the development of industrialization was a logical extension of that attitude. Hence governments provided for the costs of technical education, awarded grants to inventors and foreign entrepreneurs, exempted foreign industrial equipment from import duties, and in some places even financed factories. Of equal if not greater importance in the long run, governments actively bore much of the cost of building roads and canals, deepening and widening river channels, and constructing railroads. By 1850, a network of iron rails had spread across Europe, although only Germany and Belgium had completed major parts of their systems by that time.

Like Belgium, France, and the German states, the United States experienced the first stages of an industrial revolution and the urbanization that accompanied it during the first half of the nineteenth century. In 1800, society in the United States was agrarian. The new nation had no cities over 100,000, and six out of every seven American workers were farmers. By 1860, however, the population had grown from 5 to 30 million people, larger than Great Britain, and nine American cities had populations over 100,000. Only 50 percent of American workers were farmers.

⇒ Discipline in the New Factories €

he Industrial Revolution led to changes not only in the economic structure of Western society, but also in work habits. The most visible symbol of the Industrial Revolution was the factory, which became the chief means of organizing labor for the new machines. From its beginning, the factory system demanded a new type of discipline from its employees. Once factory owners purchased machinery, it had to be used as much as possible to enable them to profit from their investment. Workers were forced to work regular hours, often in shifts, to keep the machines producing at a steady pace for maximum outbut.

The new system thus represented a massive adjustment for the first generation of factory workers. In the cottage industry that had preceded it, workers spun thread and wove cloth in their own rhythm and time. Now factory workers were forced to adhere to a new and rigorous discipline geared to the requirements of their machines. Typical of the disciplinary regulations enforced in such factories were those that were established for a factory in Berlin, Germany, in the 1840s. Employees at the factory were required to report for work at 6 A.M. precisely. With short breaks for meals, they remained on the job until 7 in the evening.

Regulations for employees at the factory were strictly enforced. All conversation with fellow

workers was prohibited, as was smoking or leaving the premises without permission before the end of the working day. Drunkenness, disobedience, dishonesty, or "repeated irregular arrival at work" were all grounds for immediate dismissal.

During the early stages of the Industrial Revolution, child labor was common, and working conditions for underage workers were often abysmal. According to a report commissioned in 1832 to inquire into the conditions for child factory workers in Great Britain, children as young as six years of age began work before dawn. Those who were drowsy or fell asleep were tapped on the head, doused with cold water, or even strapped to a chair or flogged with a stick. In one case, according to the report,

provided a child should be drowsy, the overlooker walks round the room with a stick in his hand, and he touches that child on the shoulder, and says, "Come here." In a corner of the room there is an iron cistern; it is filled with water; he takes this boy, and takes him up by the legs, and dips him over head in the cistern, and sends him to work for the remainder of the day.

Sources: Sidney Pollard and Colin Holmes, eds., Documents of European Economic History (New York and London: St. Martin's Press, 1968); E. Royston Pike, ed., Human Documents of the Industrial Revolution (London: Unwin Hyman, 1966).

The initial application of machinery to production was accomplished—as it had been in continental Europe—by borrowing from Great Britain. Soon, however, Americans began to equal or surpass British technical inventions. The Harpers Ferry arsenal, for example, built muskets with interchangeable parts. Because all the individual parts of a musket were identical (for example, all triggers were the same), the final product could be put together quickly and easily; this innovation enabled Americans to avoid the more costly system in which skilled craftsmen fitted together individual parts made separately. The so-called American system reduced costs and revolutionized production by saving labor, an important consideration in a society that had few skilled artisans.

Unlike Britain, the United States was a large country. The lack of a good system of internal transportation seemed to limit American economic development by making the transport of goods prohibitively expensive. This difficulty was gradually remedied, however. Thousands of miles of roads and canals were built linking east and west. The steamboat facilitated transportation on the Great Lakes, Atlantic coastal waters, and rivers. Most important of all in the development of an American transportation system was the railroad. Beginning with 100 miles in 1830, by 1860 more than 27,000 miles of railroad track covered the United States. This transportation revolution turned the United States into a single massive market for the manufactured goods of the Northeast, the early center of American industrialization, and by 1860, the United States was well on its way to being an industrial nation.

The Second Industrial Revolution

During the fifty years before the outbreak of World War I in 1914, the Western world witnessed a dynamic age of material prosperity. With new indus-