

COMPETENCY 1.0 KNOWLEDGE OF HISTORY

Skill 1.1 Identify major historical events and how they are related by cause and effect.

The **Renaissance** ushered in a time of curiosity, learning, and incredible energy sparking the desire for trade to procure these new, exotic products and to find better, faster, cheaper trade routes to get to them. The work of geographers, astronomers and mapmakers made important contributions and many studied and applied the work of such men as Hipparchus of Greece, Ptolemy of Egypt, Tycho Brahe of Denmark, and Fra Mauro of Italy.

The **Scientific Revolution** was characterized by a shift in scientific approach and ideas. Near the end of the 16th century, Galileo Galilei introduced a radical approach to the study of motion. He moved from attempts to explain why objects move the way they do and began to use experiments to describe precisely how they move. He also used experimentation to describe how forces affect non-moving objects. Other scientists continued in the same approach. Outstanding scientists of the period included Johannes Kepler, Evangelista Torricelli, Blaise Pascal, Isaac Newton and Leibniz. This was the period when experiments dominated scientific study. This method was particularly applied to the study of physics.

The **Agricultural Revolution** occurred first in England. It was marked by experimentation that resulted in increased production of crops from the land and a new and more technical approach to the management of agriculture. The revolution in agricultural management and production was hugely enhanced by the Industrial Revolution and the invention of the steam engine. The introduction of steam-powered tractors greatly increased crop production and significantly decreased labor costs. Developments in agriculture were also enhanced by the Scientific Revolution and the learning from experimentation that led to philosophies of crop rotation and soil enrichment. Improved systems of irrigation and harvesting also contributed to the growth of agricultural production.

The **Industrial Revolution**, which began in Great Britain and spread elsewhere, was the development of power-driven machinery (fueled by coal and steam) leading to the accelerated growth of industry with large factories replacing homes and small workshops as work centers. The lives of people changed drastically and a largely agricultural society changed to an industrial one. In Western Europe, the period of empire and colonialism began. The industrialized nations seized and claimed parts of Africa and Asia in an effort to control and provide the raw materials needed to feed the industries and machines in the "mother country". Later developments included power-based electricity and internal combustion, replacing coal and steam.

Skill 1.2 Analyze examples of primary source documents for historical perspective.

Primary sources include the following kinds of materials:

Documents that reflect the immediate, everyday concerns of people: memoranda, bills, deeds, charters, newspaper reports, pamphlets, graffiti, popular writings, journals or diaries, records of decision-making bodies, letters, receipts, snapshots, etc.

Theoretical writings which reflect care and consideration in composition and an attempt to convince or persuade. The topic will generally be deeper and more pervasive values than is the case with “immediate” documents. These may include newspaper or magazine editorials, sermons, political speeches, philosophical writings, etc.

Narrative accounts of events, ideas, trends, etc. written with intention by someone contemporary with the events described.

Statistical data, although statistics may be misleading.

Literature and nonverbal materials, novels, stories, poetry and essays from the period, as well as coins, archaeological artifacts, and art produced during the period. Guidelines for the use of primary resources:

1. Be certain that you understand how language was used at the time of writing and that you understand the context in which it was produced.
2. Do not read history blindly; be certain that you understand both explicit and implicit referenced in the material.
3. Read the entire text you are reviewing; do not simply extract a few sentences to read.
4. Although anthologies of materials may help you identify primary source materials, the full original text should be consulted.

Secondary sources include the following kinds of materials:

- Books written on the basis of primary materials about the period of time
- Books written on the basis of primary materials about persons who played a major role in the events under consideration
- Books and articles written on the basis of primary materials about the culture, the social norms, the language, and the values of the period
- Quotations from primary sources
- Statistical data on the period
- The conclusions and inferences of other historians
- Multiple interpretations of the ethos of the time

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Guidelines for the use of secondary sources:

- Do not rely upon only a single secondary source.
- Check facts and interpretations against primary sources whenever possible.
- Do not accept the conclusions of other historians uncritically.
- Place greatest reliance on secondary sources created by the best and most respected scholars.
- Do not use the inferences of other scholars as if they were facts.
- Ensure that you recognize any bias the writer brings to his/her interpretation of history.
- Understand the primary point of the book as a basis for evaluating the value of the material presented in it to your questions.

Skill 1.3 Identify cultural, political, social, economic, and technological contributions made by civilizations in Africa, the Americas, Asia (including the Middle East), Europe, and Oceania.

For example:

Renaissance

Art - The more important artists were **Giotto** and his development of perspective in paintings; **Leonardo Da Vinci** was not only an artist but also a scientist and inventor; **Michelangelo** was a sculptor, painter, and architect; and others include **Raphael, Donatello, Titian, and Tintoretto**

Political philosophy - the writings of **Machiavelli**

Literature - the writings of **Petrarch** and **Boccaccio**

Science - Galileo

Medicine - The work of Brussels-born **Andrea Vesalius** earned him the title of "father of anatomy" and had a profound influence on the Spaniard **Michael Servetus** and the Englishman **William Harvey**

In Germany, Gutenberg's invention of the **printing press** with movable type facilitated the rapid spread of Renaissance ideas, writings and innovations, thus ensuring the enlightenment of most of Western Europe. Contributions were also made by Durer and Holbein in art and by Paracelsus in science and medicine.

*The effects of the Renaissance in the Low Countries can be seen in the literature and philosophy of **Erasmus** and the art of **van Eyck** and **Breughel the Elder**. **Rabelais** and **de Montaigne** in France also contributed to literature and philosophy. In Spain, the art of **El Greco** and **de Morales** flourished as did the writings of **Cervantes** and **De Vega**. In England, **Sir Thomas More** and **Sir Francis Bacon** wrote and taught philosophy and were inspired by **Vesalius**. **William Harvey** made important contributions in medicine. The greatest talent was found in literature and drama and given to mankind by **Chaucer**, **Spenser**, **Marlowe**, **Jonson**, and the incomparable **Shakespeare**.*

The Renaissance ushered in a time of curiosity, learning, and incredible energy sparking the desire for trade to procure these new, exotic products and to find better, faster, cheaper trade routes to get to them. The work of geographers, astronomers and mapmakers made important contributions and many studied and applied the work of such men as Hipparchus of Greece, Ptolemy of Egypt, Tycho Brahe of Denmark, and Fra Mauro of Italy.

Skill 1.4 Relate major historical events and movements to physical and human geographic factors.

Genocide is defined by the **Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide** (CPPCG):

Article II: In the present Convention, genocide means any of the following acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious group, as such:

- (a) Killing members of the group;
- (b) Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group;
- (c) Deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part;
- (d) Imposing measures intended to prevent births within the group;
- (e) Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group.

Notable instances of genocide have occurred throughout history and throughout the world.

In the United States, efforts to claim and expand the territory of the new nation and its perceived rights to settle the nation led to the attempted extermination of the Native American peoples. To be sure, many died from diseases introduced by European settlers against which the Native Americans had no acquired or natural resistance. The Native Americans were, however, systematically pushed west—out of the way of progress and national development. They were relocated to undesirable lands where many starved. The most systematic efforts, however, occurred in the Indian Wars when entire villages and tribes were wantonly slaughtered. The massacre at **Wounded Knee** (1890) is a memorable example of this policy.

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During the reign of the Ottoman Empire, the government of the Young Turks, 1915-1917 forced the mass evacuation of over one million Armenians. Many died or were executed in the process. This is referred to as the **Armenian Genocide**, and indeed the term was coined to describe the event. The Armenians were Christians in a Muslim empire. When the Russians defeated the Ottoman Empire in 1915, the Young Turks placed the blame on the Armenians.

The **Holocaust** was an effort at ethnic cleansing of Germany and Europe by Adolf Hitler and the Nazi government. Millions of Jews and other “undesirables” were gathered from throughout Europe as the German army advanced and sent to concentration camps where they were either used for medical experimentation, slave labor, or exterminated. Most of the world was slow to believe that this kind of genocide could be occurring, and therefore slow to respond. Hundreds of thousands of Jews were murdered in the gas chambers of the camps.

The genocides in **Bosnia-Herzegovina** and **Rwanda** were two sides of the same story, one of the oldest in the world, that of one ethnic group trying to eliminate another solely because of its ethnicity. The disparity between the number of people killed in these two modern **genocides** in no way reflects any difference in ferocity with which these people were murdered.

The Bosnian Genocide, as it is usually called, took place during the Bosnian War, which lasted from 1992 to 1995. It was part of a larger conflict that stemmed from the breakup of Yugoslavia, which was itself a confederation of ethnic societies held together by not much more than an iron fist for most of its life. Bosnia-Herzegovina and Serbia were once and again their own countries, and their ethnic conflict stretched back for ages. With modern weapons, however, the “ethnic cleansing” that the Serbs practiced on their Bosnian neighbors reached new heights of efficiency.

The worst group of mass murders on record is that at **Srebrenica**, in 1992, when, international observers estimate, Serbs murdered more than 8,000 Bosnians. The people of Bosnia-Herzegovina say that Srebrenica was just one of many such instances of genocide. Some reports have deaths numbering in the hundreds of thousands, with millions forced to flee their homes.

Serbia also maintained detainment camps during this war that practiced cruel and unusual punishment of prisoners. Photos of some of these detainees made the rounds in international circles during the war, strengthening Bosnia’s case against Serb oppression.

As more and more details of the Serb atrocities leaked out, the international outcry over such events grew stronger and stronger. United Nations forces were eventually sent to restore order.

In the end, Serbia was made to stop its “cleansing.” The reason given for such atrocities was multi-faceted, but they were all facets of the same basic cause: one ethnic group determined to stamp out another.

The same was true in **Rwanda**, where Hutus systematically murdered close to a million Tutsis. This staggering number included fellow Hutus who were sympathetic to the Tutsi cause. Most shocking of all, this genocide took place in about 100 days, in the spring and summer of 1994. Perhaps world opinion was too much divided over how to respond to the Serbian problem; perhaps no one cared “because it’s only Africa.” Whatever the reason, it took other nations of the world a relatively long time to respond to such savagery.

The Rwandan Genocide was more a matter of geography and economics, as Hutus coveted land owned and worked by Tutsis. Rwanda then, as now, was also a densely populated country, but only in certain areas. The ownership of much of those areas was in dispute, a dispute that spanned centuries of cohabitation and colonization.

International opinion eventually focused on Rwanda, however, and the killings were brought to a halt—not before the aforementioned million people died, however. Again, the impetus for the killings was competing ethnicities.

Another tremendously oppressive ethnic conflict is taking place in the **Darfur** region of **Sudan**. An organized campaign of Janjaweed militia has been persecuting members of ethnic groups Fur, Zaghawa, and Massalit, among others. Some estimates put the death toll higher than two million and the number of displaced people higher than four million. The killing goes on in Darfur, with little repercussion from the outside world.

The African genocides fly in the face of Pan-Africanism, the belief that all Africans are one and that they should expand their solidarity under that maxim. The philosophy is a rather old one that has seen new life in recent decades, most notably in Ethiopia and South Africa. Many social scientists argue that if this doctrine were followed, such genocides as those in Rwanda and Sudan would not take place. These social scientists would argue that Africans should respect the lives, intentions, and ethnicities of their fellow Africans.

The same sort of cultural nationalism can be found in the doctrine of Pan-Arabism, which is the call for Arab peoples to unite as Arabs and put political, ethnic, and religious differences behind them in favor of a unity based on joint heritage and shared tradition. This doctrine was in force much more prominently in the early days of Islam and saw its zenith during the Crusades. Even then, though, divides in the Muslim world were deep for many Arabs. Those rifts have widened as the centuries have gone by, and many social scientists question whether Pan-Arabism would gain many adherents in the modern, fragmented world. Indeed, many would argue that Pan-Africanism is more likely to succeed than Pan-Arabism, simply because of geography.

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At the turn of the twenty-first century, the world witnessed unprecedented strides in communications, a major expansion of international trade, and significant international diplomatic and military activity.

Globalism is defined as the principle of the interdependence of all the world's nations and their peoples. Within this global community, every nation, in some way to a certain degree, is dependent on other nations. Since no one nation has all of the resources needed for production, trade with other nations is required to obtain what is needed for production, to sell what is produced or to buy finished products, and to earn money to maintain and strengthen the nation's economic system.

Developing nations receive technical assistance and financial aid from developed nations. Many international organizations have been created to promote and encourage cooperation and economic progress among member nations. Through the elimination of barriers to trade such as tariffs, trade is stimulated, resulting in increased productivity, economic progress, cooperation, and understanding on diplomatic levels.

Nations not part of an international trade organization not only must make economic decisions of what to produce, how and for whom, but must also deal with the problem of tariffs and quotas on imports. Regardless of international trade memberships, economic growth and development are vital and affect all trading nations. Businesses, labor, and governments share common interests and goals in a nation's economic status. International systems of banking and finance have been devised to assist governments and businesses in setting the policy and guidelines for the exchange of currencies.

The global economy had its origins in the early twentieth century, with the advent of the airplane, which made travel and trade easier and less time-consuming than ever. With the recent advent of the Internet, the world might be better termed a global neighborhood.

The speed of airplanes results in not only shorter tourist trips but also shorter trade trips, meaning that goods (especially perishable foods) can travel farther and wider than ever before. Being able to ship goods quickly and efficiently means that businesses can conduct business overseas much more efficiently than they ever could.

Trucks, trains, and ships carry cargo all over the world. Trains travel faster than ever, as do ships. Roads are more prevalent and usually in better repair than they have ever been, making truck and even car travel not the dead-end option that it once was.

With all of this capability has come increasing demand. People traditionally had exchanged goods using their own means of transportation or from traders who lived nearby. As technology improved, trade routes expanded and imports from overseas grew. This demand feeds the economic imperative of creating more supply—and vice versa. As more people discover goods from overseas, the demand for those foreign goods increases. Because people can get goods from overseas with relative ease, they continue to get them and demand more. Suppliers are only too happy to supply the goods.

An incredible increase in demand for something is not always a good thing, however, especially if what is being demanded is in limited supply. The precious rainforests are disappearing at an alarming rate, especially in South America and Indonesia. Not only do rainforests provide products, but they are an essential part of the global weather system.

Nonrenewable resources such as coal and oil are in worldwide demand these days, and the supplies won't last forever. Making it easier to ship goods all over the world has made demand grow at an unbelievable rate, raising concerns about supply. Because resources like this have a limited supply (even though the day when that limit is reached seems far away still), they are in danger of becoming extinct without being replaced.

Globalization has also brought about welcome and unwelcome developments in the field of epidemiology. Vaccines and other cures for diseases can be shipped relatively quickly all around the world. For example, this has made it possible for HIV vaccines to reach the remotest areas of the world, for example. Unfortunately, the preponderance of global travel has also meant that the threat of spreading a disease to the world by an infected person traveling on an international flight is quite real.

Technology contributed to globalization with the development of the **Internet**. Instant communication between people thousands of miles apart is possible just by plugging in a computer and connecting to the Internet. The Internet is an extension of the telephone and cell phone revolutions; all three are developments in communications that have brought faraway places closer together. All three allow people to communicate no matter the distance. This communication can facilitate friendly chatter, remote business meetings, and distant trade opportunities. Cell phones and the Internet are often required to do business nowadays. Computer programs enable the tracking of goods and receipts quickly and efficiently.

Globalization has also brought financial and cultural exchange on a worldwide scale. Many businesses have investments in countries around the world. Financial transactions are conducted using a variety of currencies. The cultures of the countries of the world are increasingly viewed by people throughout the world via multimedia developments. Not only goods but also belief systems, customs, and practices are being exchanged.

With this exchange of money, goods, and culture has come an increase in immigration. Many people who live in less-developed nations see what is available in other places and want to move there, in order to fully take advantage of all that those more-developed nations have to offer. This can create an increase in immigration. Depending on the numbers of people who want to immigrate and the resources available, this could become a problem. The technological advances in transportation and communications have made such immigration easier than ever.

Skill 1.5 Identify significant historical leaders and events and their influence on world civilizations.

The Age of Exploration actually had its beginnings centuries before exploration actually took place. The rise and spread of Islam in the seventh century and its subsequent control over the holy city of Jerusalem led to the European so-called Holy Wars, the Crusades, to free Jerusalem and the Holy Land from this control. Even though the Crusades were not a success, those who survived and returned to their homes and countries in Western Europe brought back with them new products such as silks, spices, perfumes, new and different foods—luxuries that were unheard of and that gave new meaning what may have to colorless, drab, dull lives.

New ideas, new inventions, and new methods also went to Western Europe with the returning Crusaders, and from these new influences was the intellectual stimulation which led to the period known as the Renaissance. The revival of interest in classical Greek art, classical Greek architecture, classical Greek literature—and developments in science, astronomy, medicine along with increased trade between Europe and Asia—and the invention of the printing press helped to push the spread of knowledge and stimulated more global exploration.

For many centuries, mapmakers made many maps and charts, which in turn stimulated curiosity and the seeking of more knowledge. At the same time, the Chinese were using the magnetic compass in their ships. Pacific islanders were going from island to island, covering thousands of miles in open canoes navigating by sun and stars. Arab traders were sailing all over the Indian Ocean in their dhows. The trade routes between Europe and Asia were slow, difficult, dangerous, and very expensive. Between sea voyages on the Indian Ocean and Mediterranean Sea and the camel caravans in central Asia and the Arabian Desert, the trade was still controlled by the Italian merchants in Genoa and Venice. It would take months and even years for the exotic luxuries of Asia to reach the markets of Western Europe. A faster, cheaper way had to be found. A way had to be found which would bypass traditional routes and end the control of the Italian merchants.

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Prince Henry of Portugal (also called the Navigator) encouraged, supported, and financed the Portuguese seamen who led in the search for an all-water route to Asia. A shipyard was built along with a school that taught navigation. New types of sailing ships were built which would carry the seamen safely through the ocean waters. Experiments were conducted in newer maps, newer navigational methods, and newer instruments. These included the astrolabe and the compass enabling sailors to determine direction as well as latitude and longitude for exact location. Although Prince Henry died in 1460, the Portuguese kept on, sailing and exploring Africa's west coastline. In 1488, Bartholomew Diaz and his men sailed around Africa's southern tip and headed toward Asia. Diaz wanted to push on but turned back because his men were discouraged and weary from the long months at sea, extremely fearful of the unknown, and unwilling to travel any further.

However, the Portuguese were finally successful ten years later in 1498 when Vasco da Gama and his men, continuing the route of Diaz, rounded Africa's Cape of Good Hope, sailing across the Indian Ocean, reaching India's port of Calicut (Calcutta). Although, six years earlier, Columbus had reached the New World and an entire hemisphere, da Gama had proved Asia could be reached from Europe by sea.

Columbus' first trans-Atlantic voyage proved his theory that Asia could be reached by sailing west. It could be done—but only after figuring how to go around or across or through the landmass in between. Long after Spain dispatched explorers and her famed conquistadors to gather the wealth for the Spanish monarchs and their coffers, the British were searching valiantly for the "Northwest Passage," a land-sea route across North America and open sea to the wealth of Asia. It wasn't



until after the Lewis and Clark Expedition when Captains Meriwether Lewis and William Clark proved conclusively that there simply was no Northwest Passage..

However, this did not deter exploration and settlement. Spain, France, and England along with some participation by the Dutch led the way with expanding Western European civilization in the New World. These three nations had strong monarchical governments and were struggling for dominance and power in Europe. With the defeat of Spain's mighty Armada in 1588, England became undisputed mistress of the seas. Spain lost its power and influence in Europe and it was left to France and England to carry on the rivalry, leading to eventual British control in Asia as well.

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Spain's influence was in Florida, the Gulf Coast from Texas all the way west to California and south to the tip of South America and to some of the islands of the West Indies. French control centered from New Orleans north to what is now northern Canada including the entire Mississippi Valley, the St. Lawrence Valley, the Great Lakes, and the land that was part of the Louisiana Territory. A few West Indies islands were also part of France's empire. England settled the eastern seaboard of North America, including parts of Canada and from Maine to Georgia. Some West Indies islands also came under British control. The Dutch had New Amsterdam for a period of time but later ceded it into British hands.

For each of these three nations—Spain, France, and especially England—the land claims extended partly or all the way across the continent, no matter that others claimed the same land. The wars for dominance and control of power and influence in Europe eventually extended to the Americas, especially North America.

The importance of the Age of Exploration was not just the discovery and colonization of the New World, but better maps and charts and newer and more accurate navigational instruments increased knowledge and great wealth. Furthermore, new and different foods and other items previously unknown in Europe were introduced. A new hemisphere became accessible as a refuge from poverty and persecution—a place to start a new and better life. The proof that Asia could be reached by sea and that the earth was round meant that ships and sailors would not sail off the edge of a flat earth and disappear forever into nothingness.

A nation-state is a political state where territorial and national boundaries coincide. Prior to the development of the nation-state, people banded together based on similar culture and language in what could be called a nation of people. The areas where these nations of people lived might be widespread or narrow, with no political boundaries—or loose boundaries that fluctuated. Eventually, the idea arose that a nation of people could claim a specific defined territory with boundaries within which that nation's laws and customs were sovereign. In addition, this sovereign nation held an individual identity in relation to other similar nations. This pairing of national identity with political identity is what defines a nation-state.

How the nation-state came in to existence is a subject debated among social scientists. However, there are some important historical events that point to its development. The **Peace of Westphalia**, in 1648, refers to the signing of two treaties that ended longtime warring among the peoples of Europe. The treaties spelled out several principles that are now thought of as crucial components of the modern nation-state:

- States had the right of self-determination and were sovereign
- States were equal in regard to one another
- States should not interfere with the internal affairs of other states

These principles are still at the core of international relations. The modern system of sovereign states is still referred to as the "Westphalian System."

Capitalism is closely tied to the principle of the nation-state, and some theories tie the development of the nation-state to the rise of capitalism. As industry replaced agriculture in the economic realm, the nation-state arose to meet the needs of industry, such as the construction of roads and ports and the abolishment of tariffs and trade restrictions within its borders. The concept of national sovereignty over a specific territory had a corollary for the individual: personal property rights. A nation-state with laws protecting private property is essential for the growth of capitalism.

The concept of the nation-state has been the basis of important political movements that have had widespread impact on world history. In the 19th century, Prussia, under the leadership of Otto von Bismarck and Wilhelm I, rallied the various Germanic states of Europe around the notion of a sovereign territory in opposition to the Austria-Hungary Empire. This growing surge of nationalism among the sovereign nation-states of Europe eventually led to the complex series of treaties and agreements that unraveled to produce the First World War. Later in the twentieth century in Germany, Adolf Hitler claimed sovereignty over adjoining territory based on the national character of the nation-state, leading to the Second World War.

The period from the 1700s to the 1800s was characterized in Western countries by opposing political ideas of democracy and nationalism. This resulted in strong nationalistic feelings and people of common cultures asserting their belief in the right to have a part in their government.

The **American Revolution** resulted in the successful efforts of the English colonists in America to win their freedom from Great Britain. After more than one hundred years of mostly self-government, the colonists resented the increased British meddling and control. They declared their freedom, won the Revolutionary War with aid from France, and formed a new independent nation.

The American colonists were striking back against British unwanted taxation and other sorts of "government interference." The French people were starving and, in many cases, destitute. They rebelled against an autocratic regime that cared more for high fashion and "courtly love" than food and health for the people..

- The American Revolution involved a year-long campaign, of bloody battles, skirmishes, and stalemates. The French Revolution was bloody to a degree but mainly an overthrow of society and its outdated traditions.
- The American Revolution resulted in a representative government, which marketed itself as a beacon of democracy for the rest of the world. The French Revolution resulted in a consulship, a generalship, and then an emperor—probably not what the perpetrators of the Revolution had in mind when they first rose against King Louis XVI and Queen Marie-Antoinette.

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The major turning point for **Latin America**, already unhappy with Spanish restrictions on trade, agriculture, and the manufacture of goods, was Napoleon's move into Spain and Portugal. Napoleon's imprisonment of King Ferdinand VII made the local agents of the Spanish authorities feel that they were agents of the French. Conservative and liberal locals joined forces, declared their loyalty to King Ferdinand, and formed committees (*juntas*). Between May of 1810 and July of 1811, the *juntas* in Argentina, Chile, Paraguay, Venezuela, Bolivia, and Colombia all declared independence. Fighting erupted between Spanish authorities in Latin America and the members and followers of the *juntas*. In Mexico City another *junta* declared loyalty to King Ferdinand and independence.

Society in Latin America was sharply distinguished according to race and the purity of Spanish blood. **Miguel Hidalgo**, a 60-year-old priest and enlightened intellectual, disregarded the racial distinctions of the society. He had been fighting for the interests of the Indians and part Indian/part white citizens of Mexico, including a call for the return of land stolen from the Indians. He called for an uprising in 1810.

Simon Bolivar had been born into Venezuela's wealthy society and educated in Europe. With Francisco de Miranda, he declared Venezuela and Columbia to be republics and removed all Spanish trading restrictions. These leaders also removed taxes on the sale of food, ended payment of tribute to the government by the local Indians, and prohibited slavery. In March 1812 Caracas was devastated by an earthquake. When the Spanish clergy in Caracas proclaimed the earthquake God's act of vengeance against the rebel government, they then provided support for the Spanish government officials, who quickly regained control.

When Ferdinand was returned to power in 1814, it was no longer possible for the rebel groups to claim to act in his name. Bolivar was driven to Colombia, where he gathered a small army that returned to Venezuela in 1817. As his army grew, Spain became concerned, and the military moved into the interior of Venezuela. This action aroused the local people to active rebellion. As he freed slaves, Bolivar gained support and strength. Realizing that he did not have the strength to take Caracas, he moved his people to Colombia. Bolivar's forces defeated the Spanish and organized "Gran Colombia" (which included present-day Ecuador, Colombia and Panama), and he became president in 1819. When Ferdinand encountered difficulties in Spain, the soldiers assembled to be transported to the Americas revolted. Several groups in Spain joined the revolt and together, drove Ferdinand from power. Bolivar took advantage of the opportunity and took his army back into Venezuela. In 1821, Bolivar defeated the Spanish, took Caracas, and established Venezuelan freedom from Spanish rule.

In Peru, **San Martin** took his force into Lima amid celebration. Bolivar provided assistance in winning Peru's independence in 1822. Bolivar now controlled Peru. By 1824, Bolivar had combined forces with local groups and rid South America of Spanish control.

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In 1807, Queen Maria of Portugal fled to escape Napoleon. The royal family sailed to Brazil, where they were welcomed by the local people. Rio de Janeiro became the temporary capital of Portugal's empire. Maria's son Joao ruled as regent. He opened Brazil's trade with other nations; gave the British favorable tax rates in gratitude for their assistance against Napoleon; and opened Brazil to foreign scholars, visitors and immigrants. In 1815, he made Brazil a kingdom that was united with Portugal. By 1817 there was economic trouble in Brazil along with unrest over repression (such as censorship). This discontent became a rebellion that was repressed by Joao's military.

When Napoleon's forces withdrew from Portugal, the British asked Joao to return. Liberals took power in Portugal and in Spain and both drafted liberal constitutions. By 1821, Joao decided to return to Portugal as a constitutional monarch. He left his oldest son Pedro on the throne in Brazil. When Portugal tried to reinstate economic advantages for Portugal and restrict Brazil, resistance began to grow. Pedro did not want to be controlled by Portugal and was labeled a rebel. When he learned that Portuguese troops had been sent to arrest him, he prohibited the landing of the ship, sent it back to Portugal, and declared independence in 1922. In a little more than a month he was declared Emperor of Brazil.

Until the early years of the twentieth century Russia was ruled by a succession of Czars. The Czars ruled as autocrats or, sometimes, despots. Society was essentially feudalistic and was structured in three levels. The top level was held by the Czar. The second level was composed of the rich nobles who held government positions and owned vast tracts of land. The third level of the society was composed of the remaining people, who lived in poverty as peasants or serfs.

There was discontent among the peasants. There were several unsuccessful attempts to rebel during the nineteenth century, but they were quickly suppressed. The **Russian Revolutions** of 1905 and 1917, however, were quite different.

The causes of the 1905 Revolution were:

- Discontent with the social structure
- Discontent with the living conditions of the peasants
- Discontent with working conditions despite industrialization
- General discontent aggravated by the Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905) with inflation and rising prices. Peasants who had been able to eke out a living began to starve.
- Many fighting troops killed in battles as Russia lost a war to Japan (Russo-Japanese War) because of poor leadership, lack of training, and inferior weaponry
- Czar Nicholas II refused to end the war despite setbacks.
- In January 1905 Port Arthur fell.

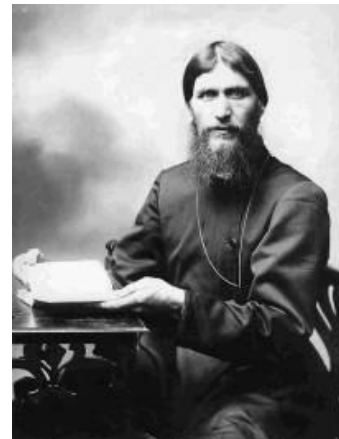
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A trade union leader, Father Gapon, organized a protest to demand an end to the war, industrial reform, more civil liberties, and a constituent assembly. Over 150,000 peasants joined a demonstration outside the Czar's Winter Palace. Before the demonstrators even spoke, the palace guard opened fire on the crowd. This destroyed the people's trust in the Czar. Illegal trade unions and political parties formed and organized strikes to gain power.

The strikes eventually brought the Russian economy to a halt. This led Czar Nicholas II to sign the October Manifesto, which created a constitutional monarchy, extended some civil rights, and gave the Parliament limited legislative power. In a very short period of time, the Czar disbanded the Parliament and violated the promised civil liberties. This violation further stirred discontent and rebellion.

Causes of the 1917 Revolution were:

- The violation of the October Manifesto
- Defeats on the battlefields during WWI caused discontent, loss of life, and a popular desire to withdraw from the war.
- The Czar continued to appoint unqualified people to government posts and handle the country with general incompetence.
- The Czar also listened to his wife's (Alexandra) advice. She was strongly influenced by Rasputin. This caused increased discontent among all levels of the social structure.
- WWI had caused another surge in prices and scarcity of many items. Most of the peasants could not afford to buy bread.



Workers in Petrograd went on strike in 1917 over the need for food. The Czar again ordered troops to suppress the strike. This time, however, the troops sided with the workers. The revolution then took a unique direction. The Parliament created a provisional government to rule the country. The military and the workers also created their own governments, called soviets (popularly elected local councils). The Parliament was composed of nobles, who soon lost control of the country when they failed to comply with the wishes of the populace. The result was chaos.

The political leaders who had previously been driven into exile returned. Lenin, Stalin, and Trotsky won the support of the peasants with the promise of "Peace, Land, and Bread." The Parliament, on the other hand, continued the country's involvement in the war. Lenin and the Bolshevik Party gained the support of the Red Guard and together overthrew the provisional government. In short order, they had complete control of Russia and established a new communist state.

The most significant differences between the 1905 and 1917 revolutions were the 1) formation of political parties and their use of propaganda, and 2) the support of the military and some of the nobles in 1917.

Declaration of Independence and the Declaration of the Rights of Man.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) was one of the most famous and influential political theorists before the French Revolution. His most important and most studied work is *The Social Contract* (1762). He was concerned with what should be the proper form of society and government. However, unlike Hobbes, Rousseau did not view the state of nature as one of absolute chaos. The problem as Rousseau saw it was that the natural harmony of the state of nature was due to people's intuitive goodness not to their actual reason. Reason only developed once a civilized society was established.

Rousseau's most direct influence was upon the **French Revolution** (1789-1815). The **Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen** (1789), explicitly recognized the sovereignty of the general will as expressed in the law. In contrast to the American **Declaration of Independence**, it contains explicit mention of the obligations and duties of the citizen, such as assenting to taxes in support of the military or police forces for the common good. In modern times, ideas such as Rousseau's have often been used to justify the ideas of authoritarian and totalitarian socialist systems.

The three most basic rights guaranteed by the Declaration of Independence are "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." The first one is self-explanatory: Americans are guaranteed the right to live their lives in America. The second one is basic as well: Americans are guaranteed the right to live their lives *free* in America. (This principle, however, has been violated many times, most notably with Native Americans and African-Americans.) The last basic right is more esoteric, but no less important: Americans are guaranteed the right to pursue a happy life. First and foremost, they are allowed the ability to make a life for themselves in America, "the Land of Opportunity." That happiness also extends to the pursuit of life free from oppression or discrimination, two things that, again, African-Americans, women, and non-white Americans have suffered from to varying degrees throughout the history of the country.

The Declaration of Independence is an outgrowth of both ancient Greek ideas of democracy and individual rights, and the ideas of the European Enlightenment and the Renaissance, especially the ideology of the political thinker **John Locke**. Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826), author of the Declaration, borrowed much from Locke's theories and writings. John Locke was one of the most influential political writers of the seventeenth century. He put great emphasis on human rights and put forth the belief that when governments violate those rights, people should rebel. He wrote the book "Two Treatises of Government" in 1690, which had tremendous influence on political thought in the American colonies and helped shape the U.S. Constitution and Declaration of Independence.