

Transformations Around the Globe, 1800

Connect History *and* Geography

Foreign powers took a major interest in East Asia during the 19th and early 20th centuries. Various countries tried to exploit economic opportunities and increase their influence in the region. As you can see from the map to the right, these countries showed particular interest in China. Use the map to answer the questions below.

1. What foreign powers were involved in China in the late 1800s?
2. What colonies did Japan control?
3. What might explain why certain parts of China were under Japanese, Russian, and French influence?
4. What might explain the areas of British influence in China?

For more information about imperialism . . .



When U.S. Commodore Perry steamed into Edo Bay in Japan with four ships in 1853, the Japanese couldn't ignore them. The belching smoke and exaggerated features of this ship painted by a Japanese artist show his country's fear and mistrust of foreigners.

1823
Monroe Doctrine
U.S. interest in Ar

China Responds to Pressure from the West

TERMS & NAMES

- Opium War
- extraterritorial rights
- Taiping Rebellion
- sphere of influence
- Open Door Policy
- Boxer Rebellion

MAIN IDEA

Western economic pressure forced China to open to foreign trade and influence.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

China has become an increasingly important member of the global community.

SETTING THE STAGE In the late 18th century, China had more people than any other empire in the world. Under the Manchus of the Qing Dynasty, the empire was stable and secure. The people lived by traditions that were thousands of years old.

China Resists Foreign Influence

Out of pride in their ancient culture, the Chinese looked down on all foreigners. In 1793, however, the Qing emperor agreed to receive an ambassador from England. The Englishman brought gifts of the West's most advanced technology—clocks, globes, musical instruments, and even a hot-air balloon. The emperor was not impressed. In a letter to England's King George III, he stated that the Chinese already had everything they needed. They were not interested in the “strange objects” and gadgets that the West was offering them.

China Remains Self-Sufficient The basis of Qing China's wealth was its healthy agricultural economy. During the 11th century, China had acquired a quick-growing strain of rice from Southeast Asia. By the time of the Qing Dynasty, the rice was being grown throughout the southern part of the country. Around the same time—the 17th and 18th centuries—Spanish and Portuguese traders brought maize, sweet potatoes, and peanuts from the Americas. These crops helped China increase the productivity of its land and more effectively feed its 300 million people. Better nutrition, in turn, led to a population boom.

China also had extensive mining and manufacturing industries. Rich salt, tin, silver, and iron mines produced great quantities of ore. The mines provided work for tens of thousands of people. The Chinese also produced beautiful silks, high-quality cottons, and fine porcelain. The Chinese people were essentially self-sufficient.

This 18th-century painted fan depicts Guangzhou in southern China as a cosmopolitan port, flying the flags of its many foreign traders. The rest of China, however, remained firmly isolated until the mid-19th century.



The Tea-Opium Connection Because of their self-sufficiency, the Chinese had little interest in trading with the West. For decades, the only place they would allow foreigners to do business was at the southern port of Guangzhou (gwahng-joh). And the balance of trade at Guangzhou was clearly in China's favor. This means that China earned much more for its exports than it spent on imports. The British imported millions of pounds of tea from China every year and exported goods worth much less. They made up for the difference in silver. This imbalance drained Britain's silver supply.

European merchants were determined to find a product the Chinese would buy in large quantities. Eventually they found one—opium. Opium is a habit-forming narcotic made from the poppy plant. Chinese doctors had been using it to relieve pain for hundreds of years. In the late 18th century, however, British merchants smuggled opium into China for nonmedical use. It took a few decades for opium smoking to catch on, but by 1835, as many as 12 million Chinese people were addicted to the drug.

War Breaks Out This growing supply of opium caused great social, moral, and monetary problems for the country. The Qing emperor was angry. In 1839, one of the emperor's highest advisers wrote a letter to England's Queen Victoria about the problem:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

By what right do they [British merchants] . . . use the poisonous drug [opium] to injure the Chinese people? . . . 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.

LIN ZEXU, quoted in *China's Response to the West*

CONNECT to TODAY

Hong Kong

The Treaty of Nanjing gave the island of Hong Kong to the British. After another conflict in 1899, China leased that territory and parts of the mainland to Britain for 99 years. On July 1, 1997, Hong Kong returned to Chinese control.

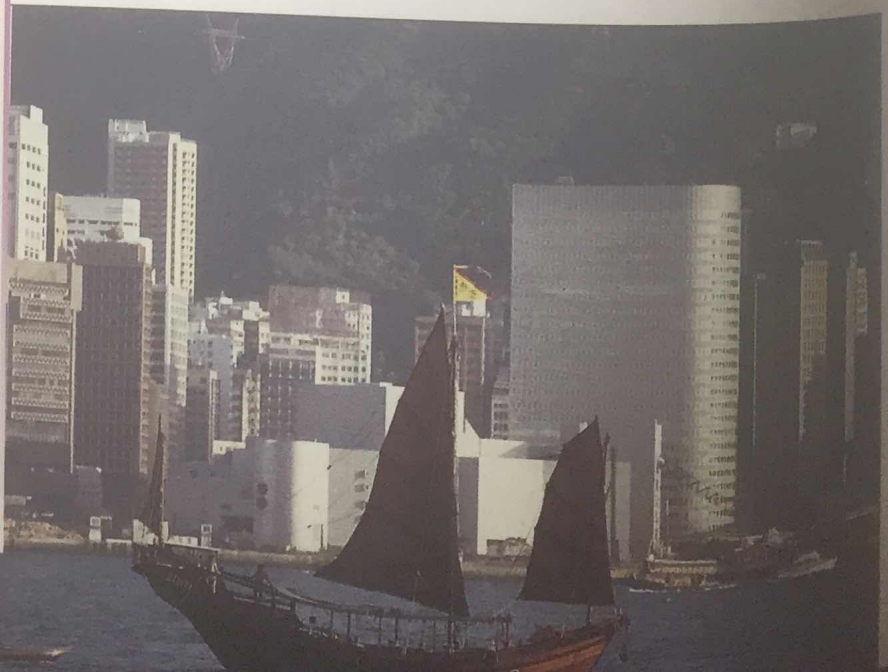
Although the name *Hong Kong* means "fragrant harbor," this bustling economic center is one of the most crowded places on earth. About 15,000 people occupy each square mile.

Nearly all the residents of Hong Kong are Chinese. Most of them are emigrants from Communist mainland China. The major cities, Hong Kong City and Kowloon, are bustling centers of banking, manufacturing, tourism, and trade. High-rise buildings and gaudy neon signs rub shoulders with open-air markets and traditional shops on the cities' winding, narrow streets.

There has been almost a century of exposure to capitalism and British rule in Hong Kong. Integration of the former colony into Chinese society probably will be difficult for everyone.

The pleas went unanswered, and Britain refused to stop trading opium. The result was an open clash between the British and the Chinese—the **Opium War** of 1839. The battles took place mostly at sea. China's outdated ships were no match for Britain's steam-powered gunboats and sophisticated cannons. As a result, the Chinese suffered a humiliating defeat. In 1842, they signed a peace treaty, the Treaty of Nanjing.

This treaty gave Britain the island of Hong Kong. After signing another treaty in 1844, U.S. and other foreign citizens also gained **extraterritorial rights**. These rights provided exemption from Chinese law at four Chinese ports besides Guangzhou. Many Chinese greatly resented these privileges and the foreigners among them. And a bustling trade in opium continued.



Internal Problems Increase

Foreigners were not the greatest of China's problems in the mid-19th century, however. Its own population provided an overwhelming challenge. That population had grown to 430 million by 1850—a 30-percent gain in only 60 years. Yet food production had barely increased. As a result, hunger was widespread, even in good years. In the frequent bad years, the Huang He (Yellow River) broke through its dikes and flooded vast farming areas. Millions starved.

The Chinese government itself was riddled with corruption and could do little to ease its people's suffering. Dikes that might have held back the river had fallen into disrepair. Public granaries were empty. Talented people who were unable or unwilling to bribe state examiners often were denied government jobs. The people became discouraged, and opium addiction rose steadily. As their problems mounted, the Chinese actively began to rebel against the Qing Dynasty.

The Taiping Rebellion The rebellion that was to become China's largest was led by Hong Xiuquan (hung shee-oo-choo-ahn). The Treaty of Nanjing had granted Christian missionaries increased privileges in China. The missionaries greatly influenced this sensitive young man. Hong had mystical visions and wanted to save the world, beginning with China. He dreamed of a "Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace." In this kingdom, all Chinese people would share China's vast wealth and no one would live in poverty. Hong's revolt was called the **Taiping Rebellion**, from the Chinese expression *taiping*, meaning "great peace."

Beginning in the late 1840s, Hong organized an army made up mainly of peasants—both men and women—from southern China. By 1853, 1 million people had joined his rebel forces. That year, Hong captured the city of Nanjing and declared it his capital. The Taiping government controlled large areas of southeastern China.

Over the next ten years, however, the Qing regained control of the country. Imperial troops, local militias, and British and French forces all fought against the Taiping. By 1864, they crushed the 14-year rebellion. But China paid a terrible price. Huge, hungry armies had destroyed fertile farmland in their search for food. At least 20 million—and possibly twice that many—people died.

China Wrestles with Reform

The Taiping Rebellion and other smaller uprisings put tremendous internal pressure on the Chinese government. And, despite the Treaty of Nanjing, external pressure from foreign powers was increasing. At the Qing court, stormy debates raged about how best to deal with these pressures. Some government leaders called for reforms patterned on Western ways. Others insisted on honoring Chinese traditions. The Chinese Empire was conservative overall, though. Clinging to traditional ways and resisting change started at the top.

The Dowager Empress Cixi Resists Change During the last half of the 19th century, there was only one person at the top in the Qing imperial palace. The Dowager Empress Cixi (tsoo-shee) ruled China, with only one brief gap, from 1861 until 1908.

Although she was committed to traditional values, the Dowager Empress did support certain reforms. In the 1860s, for example, she backed the self-strengthening movement. That program aimed to update China's educational system, diplomatic service,

HISTORY MAKERS

Hong Xiuquan
1814–1864

Hong Xiuquan came from a rural family. As a young man, he tried to move up in Chinese society by seeking a government post. However, he kept failing the civil service exam. In his early twenties, Hong had a dream that ordered him to fight evil. From then on, he worked to overthrow the "evil" Qing dynasty and the same Qing system that he had tried so hard to enter. To destroy evil, Hong and his rebel followers destroyed Qing artworks and outlawed such Qing symbols as the pigtail.

Hong slowly developed his own personal vision of Christianity. That vision led him to forbid opium, tobacco, alcohol, and gambling. Under Hong, men and women were treated as equals. Women, for example, could fight for Hong's cause just as men could. However, men and women were divided into separate divisions, and even husbands and wives were not allowed contact.

After winning Nanjing, Hong withdrew into his mystical visions. After years of bloody feuding among his lieutenants, Hong's Taiping government fell. After that defeat, thousands of his followers burned themselves to death rather than surrender to the emperor.



Foreign Influence in China, 1850–1911



GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

- Human-Environment Interaction** Which countries had spheres of influence in China?
- Location** What foreign power shown on the map had access to inland China? What geographic feature made this possible?

China's economy. As shown in the map, many of Europe's main political powers and Japan gained a strong foothold in China. This foothold, or **sphere of influence**, was a region in which the foreign nation controlled trade and investment.

The United States was a long-time trading partner with China. Americans worried that other nations would soon divide China into formal colonies and shut out American traders. To prevent this occurrence, in 1899 the United States declared the **Open Door Policy**. This policy proposed that China's "doors" be open to merchants of all nations. Britain and the other European nations agreed. The policy thus protected both American trading rights in China and China's freedom from colonization. But the country was still at the mercy of foreign powers.

Chinese Nationalism Grows

Humiliated by their loss of power, many Chinese pressed for strong reforms. Among them was China's young emperor, Guangxu (gwahng-shoo). In June 1898, Guangxu's aunt, the Dowager Empress Cixi, was relaxing at the summer palace. Assuming that he had her support, Guangxu introduced measures to modernize China. These measures called for overhauling China's educational system, strengthening the economy, modernizing the military, and streamlining the government. Guangxu asked progressive, creative advisers to help carry out his programs.

Most Qing officials saw these innovations as threats to their power. They reacted with alarm. In September 1899, they called the Dowager Empress back to the imperial court. Guangxu realized too late that he had misjudged her. Striking with the same speed as her nephew, the Dowager Empress Cixi placed him under arrest at the

and military. Under this program, China set up arsenals to manufacture steam-powered gunboats, rifles, and ammunition. By 1875, these ammunition supply and storage facilities were among the largest in the world.

The self-strengthening movement had mixed results, however. The ability to produce its own warships and ammunition was undoubtedly good for China's morale. But the Chinese hired foreigners to run many of its arsenals. These outsiders often didn't feel comfortable working with Chinese resources. So they imported both raw materials and factory machinery from abroad. This practice contributed to both an imbalance in trade for China and a lack of quality control. In addition, the movement lacked support from the Chinese people as a whole.

Other Nations Step In China's weak military technology and its economic and political problems were not a secret from the rest of the world. Throughout the late 19th century, many foreign nations took advantage of this weakness and attacked China. Treaty negotiations after each conflict gave the West increasing control over

palace. She then took back her own power. She reversed his reforms and executed a number of the movement's leaders. Guangxu's Hundred Days of Reform ended without a single long-term change. The Chinese people's frustration with their situation did change, however. It grew.

The Boxer Rebellion This widespread frustration finally erupted. Poor peasants and workers particularly resented the special privileges granted to foreigners. They also resented Chinese Christians, who were protected by foreign missionaries. To demonstrate their discontent, they formed a secret organization called the Society of Harmonious Fists. They soon came to be known as the Boxers. Their campaign against the Dowager Empress's rule and foreigner privilege was called the **Boxer Rebellion**.

In the spring of 1900, the Boxers descended on Beijing. Shouting "Death to the foreign devils," the Boxers surrounded the European section of the city. They kept it under siege for several months. The Dowager Empress expressed support for the Boxers but did not back her words with military aid. In August, a multinational force of 20,000 troops marched toward Beijing. Soldiers from Britain, France, Germany, Austria, Italy, Russia, Japan, and the United States quickly defeated the Boxers.

Despite the failure of the Boxer Rebellion, a strong sense of nationalism had emerged in China. The Chinese people realized that their country must resist more foreign intervention. Most important, however, the government must become responsive to their needs.

The Beginnings of Reform At this point, even the Qing court realized that China needed to make profound changes to survive. In 1905, the Dowager Empress sent a select group of Chinese officials on a world tour to study the operation of different governments. The group traveled to Japan, the United States, Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Italy. On its return in the spring of 1906, the officials recommended that China restructure its government. They based their suggestions on the constitutional monarchy of Japan. The empress accepted this recommendation and began making reforms. Although she convened a national assembly within a year, change was slow. In 1908, the court announced that it would establish a full constitutional government by 1917.

Unfortunately, however, the turmoil in China did not end with these progressive steps. Unrest would continue for the next four decades as the Chinese faced internal and external threats. But as wholeheartedly as China had struggled to remain isolated from the outside world, its neighbor Japan responded to Western influence in a much different way.

Boxer rebels like this one drawn by a 20th-century artist were driven by a strong sense of nationalism. They used their fists, swords, and guns in an unsuccessful attempt to oust the "foreign devils" from China.

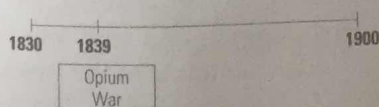


ROUGH HISTORY
 Why did the rebellion fail?

Section 1 Assessment

FORMS NAMES

- Identify
- Opium War
- Extraterritorial rights
- Taiiping Rebellion
- Sphere of influence
- Open Door Policy
- Boxer Rebellion



2. TAKING NOTES

In a flow chart like the one below, list the major events in China's dealings with foreign nations between 1830 and 1900. Include both policies and actual confrontations.

3. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS

Do you think the opium trade was finally more harmful or beneficial to China? Explain.

THINK ABOUT

- the effects of the Opium War
- other Chinese responses to foreign influence
- the aftermath of the Boxer Rebellion

4. THEME ACTIVITY

Cultural Interaction Under the long rule of the Dowager Empress Cixi, China fiercely resisted foreign influence. As a class or in a small group, role-play a debate among the Dowager Empress's advisers. Some should argue for continued isolation, and others for openness to foreign influence and trade.

MAIN IDEA

Japan followed the model of Western powers by industrializing and expanding its foreign influence.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Japan's continued development of its own way of life has made it a leading world power.

SETTING THE STAGE In the early 17th century, Japan had shut itself off from almost all contact with other nations. Under the rule of the Tokugawa shoguns, the society was tightly ordered. The shogun parceled out land to the lords. The peasants worked for and lived under the protection of their lord and his samurai. This rigid system kept Japan free of civil war. Peace and relative prosperity reigned for two centuries.

Daily Life

Japanese Women

Japan not only restricted its citizens' contact with the outside world but it also severely confined its own women. The supreme duty of a woman was to honor the men in her life. Her restrictive dress and footwear helped ensure that she did not stray far from her place in the home.

As a child, she was expected to be obedient to her father, and as a wife, to her husband. Even as a widow, she was expected to submit to her son or sons.

In Japan today, increasing numbers of women work outside the home, most of them as "office

ladies" or "OLs." These secretarial workers have no opportunity to advance, and are arguably no better off than their grandmothers were.

The number of women managers is increasing today, however, and Japanese women are becoming more vocal about playing an active role in their society.



Japan Ends Its Isolation

The Japanese had almost no contact with the industrialized world during this time of isolation. They continued, however, to trade with China and with Dutch traders from Indonesia. They also had diplomatic contact with Korea. However, trade was growing in importance, both inside and outside Japan.

Facing the Demand for Foreign Trade In the early 19th century, Westerners began trying to convince the Japanese to open their ports to trade. British, French, Russian, and American officials occasionally anchored off the Japanese coast. Like China, however, Japan repeatedly refused to receive them. Then, in 1853, U.S. Commodore Matthew Perry took four ships into what is now Tokyo Harbor. The Japanese were astounded by these massive black wooden ships that were powered by steam. They were also shocked by the cannons and rifles. These weapons could have wiped out hundreds of the fiercest samurai in a matter of seconds. The Tokugawa shogun realized he had no choice but to receive the letter Perry had brought from U.S. President Millard Fillmore:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

It seems to be wise from time to time to make new laws. . . . If your Imperial Majesty were so far to change the ancient laws as to allow a free trade between the two countries [the U.S. and Japan], it would be extremely beneficial to both. . . . Our steamships, in crossing the great ocean, burn a great deal of coal, and it is not convenient to bring it all the way from America. We wish that our steamships and other vessels should be allowed to stop in Japan and supply themselves with coal, provisions, and water. They will pay for them, in money, or anything else your Imperial Majesty's subjects may prefer.

MILLARD FILLMORE, quoted in *Millard Fillmore Papers*

Polite as President Fillmore's letter was, Perry delivered it with a threat. He would come back with a larger fleet in a year to receive Japan's reply. That reply was the **Treaty of Kanagawa**, which was signed in 1854. Under the terms of the treaty, Japan opened two ports at which American ships could take on supplies. The treaty

ROUGH HISTORY
How did the
Kanagawa
Japan?

also allowed the United States to set up an embassy in Japan. Once the United States had a foot in Japan's door, other Western powers soon followed. By 1860, Japan, like China, had granted foreigners permission to trade at treaty ports. It had also extended extraterritorial rights to many foreign nations.

Reform and Modernization Under the Meiji Reign The Japanese, however, were angry that the shogun had given in to the foreigners' demands. They feared that he was losing control over the country. The people rallied around Japan's young emperor, Mutsuhito (moot-soo-HEE-toh), who appealed to Japan's strong sense of pride and nationalism. In 1867, the Tokugawa shogun stepped down. He thus ended the military dictatorships that had lasted since the 12th century. Mutsuhito established a new government. He chose the name *Meiji* for his reign, which means "enlightened rule." Only 15 when he took over, Mutsuhito reigned for 45 years. This period of Japanese history—from 1867 to 1912—is called the **Meiji era**.

As part of this new enlightenment, the Meiji emperor realized that the best way to oppose Western imperialism was to adopt new ways. The feudal lords, for example, realized that private ownership of land prevented the entire country from benefiting from it. In one of the first acts of the Meiji era, they gave their land to the emperor.

Another way the Meiji government attempted to modernize Japan was by sending its statesmen to Europe and North America to study foreign ways. The Japanese chose what they believed to be the best Western civilization had to offer and adapted it to their own country. They admired Germany's strong centralized government, for example. And they used its constitution as a model for their own. As in Germany, a small group of men held political power in Japan. They were determined to build a mighty nation.

The Japanese also admired the discipline of the German army and the skill of the British navy. They attempted to imitate these European powers as they modernized their military. Japan adopted the American system of universal public education and required that all Japanese children attend school. Their teachers often included foreign experts. Students could go abroad to study as well.

China and Japan Confront the West



Empress Dowager Cixi
(1862–1908)

China

- Remains committed to traditional values
- Loses numerous territorial conflicts
- Grants other nations spheres of influence within China
- Finally accepts necessity for reform

Both

- Have well-established traditional values
- Initially resist change
- Oppose Western imperialism

Japan

- Considers modernization to be necessary
- Borrows and adapts Western ways
- Strengthens its economic and military power
- Becomes an empire builder



The Meiji Emperor Mutsuhito
(1867–1912)

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts

1. According to this Venn diagram, in what ways did China and Japan deal differently with Western influence?
2. What similar responses did each country share despite the different paths they followed?

The emperor also energetically supported following the Western path of industrialization. By the early 20th century, the Japanese economy had become as modern as any in the world. The country built its first railroad line in 1872. The track connected Tokyo, the nation's capital, with the port of Yokohama, 20 miles to the south. By 1914, Japan had more than 7,000 miles of rails. Coal production grew from half a million tons in 1875 to more than 21 million tons in 1913. Meanwhile, large, state-supported companies built thousands of factories. Traditional Japanese industries, such as tea processing and silk production, expanded to give the country unique products to trade. Developing modern industries, such as shipbuilding and weapons production, made Japan competitive with the West.

Japanese Imperialism Grows

Japan's race to modernize paid off. By 1890, the country had several dozen warships and 500,000 well-trained, well-armed soldiers. It had become the strongest military power in Asia.

Japan had gained military, political, and economic strength. It then sought to eliminate the extraterritorial rights of foreigners. The Japanese foreign minister assured foreigners that they could rely on fair treatment in Japan. This was because its constitution and legal codes were similar to those of European nations, he explained. His reasoning was convincing, and in 1894, Britain and the other foreign powers abolished the extraterritorial rights of their citizens living in Japan. Japan's feeling of strength and equality with the Western nations rose.

As Japan's sense of power grew, the nation also became more imperialistic. Like many European nations, Japan saw empire building as a way of protecting its security and meeting economic needs. As in Europe, national pride also played a large part in this policy. The Japanese were determined to show the world that they were a powerful nation.

Japan Attacks China The Japanese first turned their sights to their Asian neighbors. Japan's neighbor, Korea, is not far from southern Japan (see the map on page 718). In 1876, Japan forced Korea to open three ports to Japanese trade. But China also considered Korea to be important as both a trading partner and a military outpost. Recognizing their similar interests in Korea, Japan and China signed a hands-off agreement. In 1885, both countries pledged that they would not send their armies into Korea.

In June 1894, however, China broke that agreement. Rebellions had broken out against Korea's king. He asked China for military help in putting them down. Chinese troops marched into Korea. Japan protested and sent its troops to Korea to fight the Chinese. The Sino-Japanese War had begun. Within a few months, Japan had driven the Chinese out of Korea, had destroyed the Chinese navy, and had begun taking over Manchuria. In 1895, China and Japan signed a peace treaty. This treaty gave Japan its first colonies—Taiwan and the Pescadores Islands.

Russo-Japanese War Most Western nations had expected China to win the showdown with Japan fairly easily. The Japanese victory surprised them. It also changed the world's balance of power. Russia and Japan emerged as the major powers—and enemies—in East Asia.

Russia and Japan soon went to war over Manchuria. This was a region north of Korea that was under Chinese rule. In 1903, Japan offered to recognize Russia's rights in Manchuria if the Russians would agree to stay out of Korea. But the Russians refused. So, in February 1904, Japan launched a surprise attack. It struck at the

Global Impact

Changing Image of the East

The Japanese victory over the Russians in 1905 exploded a strong Western myth. Many Westerners believed that white people were a superior race. The overwhelming success of European colonialism and imperialism in the Americas, Africa, and Asia had reinforced this belief. But the Japanese had shown Europeans that people of other races were their equals in modern warfare.

Unfortunately, Japan's military victory led to a different form of Western racism. Influenced by the ideas of Germany's emperor Wilhelm II, the West imagined the Japanese uniting with the Chinese and conquering Europe. The resulting racist Western fear of what it called the "yellow peril" influenced world politics for many decades.

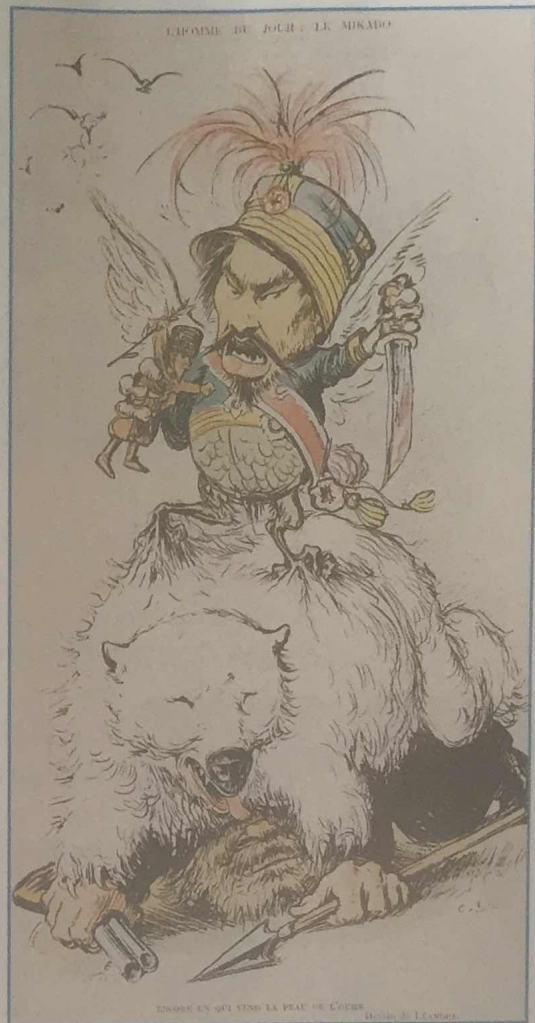
Russian navy, which was anchored off the coast of Manchuria. In the resulting **Russo-Japanese War**, Japan drove Russian troops out of Korea. Japan won brutal land battles and captured most of Russia's Pacific fleet. It also destroyed Russia's Baltic fleet, which had sailed all the way around Africa to participate in the war.

In 1905, Japan and Russia began peace negotiations. U.S. president Theodore Roosevelt helped draft the treaty, which the two nations signed on a ship off Portsmouth, New Hampshire. This agreement, the Treaty of Portsmouth, gave Japan the captured territories. It also forced Russia to withdraw from Manchuria and to stay out of Korea.

Korea Under Japanese Occupation After defeating Russia, Japan attacked Korea with a vengeance. In 1905, it made Korea a protectorate. Japan sent in "advisers," who grabbed more and more power from the Korean government. The Korean king was unable to rally international support for his regime. In 1907, he gave up control of the country. Within two years the Korean Imperial Army was disbanded. In 1910, Japan officially imposed **annexation** in Korea, or brought that country under Japan's control.

The Japanese were harsh rulers. For the next 35 years, they forbade public protest. They shut down Korean newspapers and took over Korean schools. There they replaced the study of Korean language and history with that of Japan. They took land away from Korean farmers and gave it to Japanese settlers. They encouraged Japanese businessmen to start industries in Korea, but forbade Koreans from going into business in their own country. Resentment of the Japanese led to nonviolent protests and to a growing Korean nationalist movement. The Japanese did modernize Korean factories and transportation and communications systems, however. Despite this technological progress, Japan's repressive rule in Korea was an example of imperialism at its worst.

The rest of the world clearly saw the brutal results of Japan's imperialism in Korea. Nevertheless, the United States and other European countries moved ahead with their own imperialistic aims, as you will learn in Section 3.



SKILLBUILDER:
Interpreting Political Cartoons

1. In this cartoon of the Russo-Japanese War, which animal represents Russia and which represents Japan?
2. Whom do you think the Japanese and the Russians are crushing?

Section 2 Assessment

TERMS & NAMES

- Identify
- Treaty of Kanagawa
- Meiji era
- Russo-Japanese War
- annexation

2. TAKING NOTES

In a chart like the one below, list the steps that Japan took toward modernization and the events that contributed to its growth as an imperialistic power.

Modernization	Imperialism

Do you think that Japan could have become an imperialistic power if it had not modernized? Why or why not?

3. FORMING AN OPINION

In your view, was Japan's aggressive imperialism justified? Support your answer with examples from the text.

THINK ABOUT

- reasons for Japan's early isolation
- what Japan could gain from imperialism
- Japan's treatment of conquered peoples

4. ANALYZING THEMES

Empire Building What influences do you think were most important in provoking Japan to build its empire?

THINK ABOUT

- Japan's size and geographical features
- Japan's relations with China and Russia
- the interest of countries such as Britain and the United States in Japan

U.S. Economic Imperialism in Latin America

MAIN IDEA

The United States put increasing economic and political pressure on Latin America during the 19th century.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

This policy set the stage for 20th-century relations between Latin America and the United States.

SETTING THE STAGE Latin America's long struggle to gain independence from colonial domination between the late 18th and the mid-19th centuries left the new nations in shambles. Weeds choked off farm fields. Cities and towns collapsed. The new nations faced a struggle for recovery as difficult as their struggle for independence had been.



The land—and its rich resources—was and is Latin America's major asset. The peasants worked all of their lives in the fields and remained poor and propertyless, as many still are today.

Latin America After Independence

Political independence meant little for most citizens of the new Latin American nations. The majority remained poor, illiterate laborers caught up in a cycle of poverty.

Colonial Legacy During colonial times, most Latin Americans worked for large landowners. The employers paid their workers with vouchers that could be used only at their own supply stores. Since wages were low and prices were high, workers went into debt. Their debt accumulated and passed from one generation to the next. These “free” workers were almost like slaves in a system known as peonage.

The landowners, on the other hand, only got wealthier after independence. Many new Latin American governments took over the lands owned by native peoples and by the Catholic Church. They then put those lands up for sale. Wealthy landowners were the only people able to afford to buy them, and they snapped them up. But as one Argentinean newspaper reported, “Their greed for land does not equal their ability to use it intelligently.” The unequal distribution of land and its poor use combined to prevent social and economic development in Latin America.

Political Instability Political instability also was a widespread problem in 19th-century Latin America. Many Latin American army leaders had gained fame and power during their long struggle for independence. They often continued to assert their power. They controlled the new nations as dictators, or **caudillos**. By 1830, nearly all the countries of Latin America were ruled by caudillos. One typical caudillo was Juan Vicente Gómez. He was a ruthless man who ruled Venezuela for nearly 30 years after seizing power in 1908. “All Venezuela is my cattle ranch,” he once boasted.

There were some exceptions, however. Reform-minded presidents, such as Argentina's Domingo Sarmiento, made strong commitments to improving education. During Sarmiento's presidency, between 1868 and 1874, the number of students in Argentina doubled. But such reformers usually didn't stay in office long. Eventually a caudillo would return to power, forcing the reformer out at the point of a bayonet or gun.

The caudillos found little opposition. The upper classes usually supported them because they opposed giving power to the lower classes. In addition, Latin Americans had gained little experience with democracy under European colonial rule. So the dictatorship of a caudillo did not seem unusual to them. But even when caudillos

Latin America, 1830

Cacao—was used as a medium of exchange as well as a beverage by the Maya and Aztec.

Bananas—have been a staple food in the New World since the 1500s.

Coffee—plant is a source of cattle feed, alcohol, and fuel oil, as well as a beverage.

Wool—used throughout the world as a source of clothing in temperate climates.

Nitrates—disputes over ownership of these deposits led to war between Chile, Bolivia, and Peru in the late 1800s.

Sugar cane—plant is a source of cattle feed, rum, and wallboard, as well as a sweetener.

Wool—the Latin American highlands offer ideal conditions for breeding sheep for their wool.

Natural Resources

-  Bananas
-  Cacao
-  Cattle
-  Coffee
-  Corn
-  Cotton
-  Gold
-  Nitrates
-  Silver
-  Sugar cane
-  Wheat
-  Wool

1825 Year of independence

PACIFIC OCEAN

UNITED PROVINCES OF CENTRAL AMERICA, 1823

MEXICO, 1821

Mexico City

UNITED STATES

Cuba

BRITISH HONDURAS

HAITI, 1803

PUERTO RICO

JAMAICA

Caracas

Bogotá

Quito

Lima

BOLIVIA, 1825

CHILE, 1818

Santiago

Buenos Aires

Asunción

Strait of Magellan

CARIBBEAN SEA

BRITISH GUIANA

DUTCH GUIANA

FRENCH GUIANA

PERU, 1821

La Paz

Potosí

PARAGUAY, 1811

URUGUAY, 1828

Montevideo

UNITED PROVINCES OF RIO DE LA PLATA, 1816

Rio de Janeiro

BRAZIL, 1822

Tropic of Cancer

0° Equator

Tropic of Capricorn

40°S

2,000 Miles

4,000 Kilometers

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

- Region** Which Latin American countries remained under colonial rule in 1830?
- Human-Environment Interaction** Which country had the most different types of natural resources?

ROUGH HISTORY
Why did lower-class Latin Americans face after independence?

were not in power, most Latin Americans still lacked a voice in the government. Voting rights—and so, political power—were restricted to the relatively few members of the upper and middle classes who owned property or could read.

Economies Grow Under Foreign Influence

When colonial rule ended in Latin America in the early 1800s, the new nations were no longer restricted to trading with colonial powers. Britain and, later, the United States became Latin America's main trading partners.

Old Products and New Markets No matter with whom the new Latin American nations were trading, their economies continued to depend on exports. As during the colonial era, each country concentrated on one or two products. With advances in technology, however, Latin America's exports grew. The development of the steamship and the building of railroads in the 19th century, for example, greatly increased Latin American trade. Toward the end of the century, the invention of refrigeration helped increase Latin America's exports. The sale of beef, fruits and vegetables, and other perishable goods soared.

But foreign nations benefited far more from the increased trade than Latin America did. In exchange for their exports, Latin Americans imported European and North American manufactured goods. They therefore had little reason to develop their own manufacturing industries. And as long as Latin America remained unindustrialized, it could not play a leading role on the world stage.

Outside Investment and Interference Furthermore, Latin American countries used little of their export income to build roads, schools, or hospitals. Nor did they

fund programs that would help them be self-sufficient. Instead, they often borrowed money—at high interest rates—to develop facilities for their export industries. Countries such as Britain, France, the United States, and Germany were willing lenders. The Latin American countries often were unable to pay back their loans, however. In response, foreign lenders either threatened to collect the debt by force or to take over the facility it had funded. Foreigners thus gained control of many industries in Latin America. Thus began a new age of economic colonialism.

The United States and Latin America

Long before the United States had a real economic interest in Latin America, it was aware that its security depended on that of its southern neighbors.

The Monroe Doctrine Most of the Latin American colonies had gained their independence by the early 1800s. But their position was not secure. Many Latin Americans feared that European countries would try to reconquer the new republics. The United States, a young nation itself, feared this too. In 1823, therefore, President James Monroe issued what came to be called the **Monroe Doctrine**. This document stated that “the American continents . . . are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.” Britain was Latin America’s

largest trading partner. It agreed to back the Monroe Doctrine with its powerful navy. Until 1898, though, the United States did little to enforce the Monroe Doctrine. Cuba provided a real testing ground.

Cuba Declares Independence Cuba was one of Spain’s last colonies in the Americas. In 1868, Cuba declared its independence and fought a ten-year war against Spain. In 1878, with the island in ruins, the Cubans gave up the fight.

But some Cubans continued to seek independence. In 1895, **José Martí**, a writer who had been exiled, returned to fight for Cuban independence. Martí was killed early in the war, but the Cubans battled on.

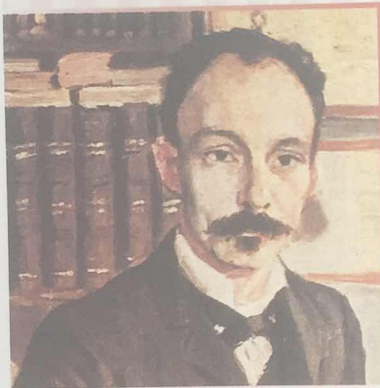
By that time, the United States had developed substantial business holdings in Cuba. Therefore it had an economic stake in the fate of the country. In addition, the Spanish had forced many Cuban civilians into concentration camps. Americans objected to the Spanish brutality. In 1898, the United States joined the Cuban war for independence. This conflict, which came to be known as the **Spanish-American War**, lasted about four months. Years of fighting had exhausted the Spanish soldiers, and they gave up easily.

In 1901, Cuba became an independent nation, at least in name. But the Cubans resented U.S. intervention, the military government the United States had installed, and its preventing Cuba from becoming truly independent. The split that began to develop between the United States and Cuba continues to keep those close neighbors miles apart a century later.

After its defeat in the Spanish-American War, Spain turned over the last of its colonies. Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines became U.S. territories. Having become the dominant imperial power in Latin America, the United States next set its sights on Panama.

The Panama Canal Connects the Oceans Latin Americans were beginning to regard the United States as the political and economic “Colossus of the North.” It was also a huge country geographically. By the 1870s, the transcontinental railroad connected its east and west coasts. Land travel was long and difficult, however. And sea travel involved a trip around the tip of South America. This was a

HISTORY MAKERS



José Martí
1853–1895

José Martí was only 15 in 1868 when he first began speaking out for Cuban independence. In 1871, the Spanish colonial government punished Martí’s open opposition with exile to Spain.

With only a brief return to his homeland in 1878, Martí remained in exile for about 20 years. He lived most of his life in New York City. There he continued his career as a writer and a revolutionary. “Life on earth is a hand-to-hand combat . . . between the law of love and the law of hate,” he proclaimed.

While in New York, Martí helped raise an army to fight for Cuban independence. He died on the battlefield only a month after the war began. But Martí’s cry for freedom echoes in his essays and poems and in folk songs that are still sung throughout the world.

journey of about 13,000 miles. If a canal could be dug across a narrow section of Central America, the coast-to-coast journey would be cut in half. The United States had been thinking about such a project since the early 19th century. In the 1880s, a French company tried—but failed—to build a canal across Panama.

Despite the French failure, Americans remained enthusiastic about the canal. And no one was more enthusiastic than President Theodore Roosevelt, who led the nation from 1901 to 1909. In 1903, Panama was a province of Colombia. Roosevelt offered that country \$10 million plus a yearly payment for the right to build a canal. When the Colombian government demanded more money, the United States responded by encouraging a revolution in Panama. The Panamanians had been trying to break away from Colombia for almost a century. In 1903, with help from the U.S. Navy, they won their country's independence. In gratitude, Panama gave the United States a ten-mile-wide zone in which to build a canal.

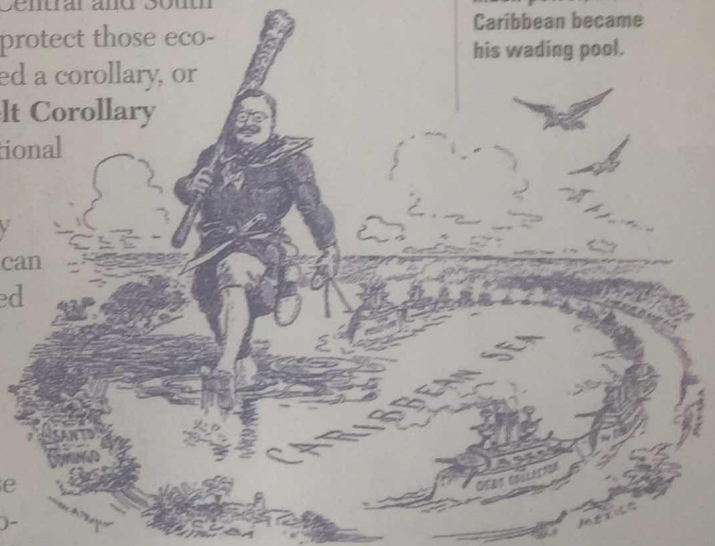
For the next ten years, American engineers battled floods, heat, and disease-carrying insects to build the massive waterway. The United States began a campaign to destroy the mosquitoes that carried yellow fever and malaria, and the rats that carried bubonic plague. The effort to control these diseases was eventually successful. But thousands of workers died during construction of the canal. The Panama Canal finally opened in 1914. Ships from both hemispheres soon began to use it. Latin America had become a crossroads of world trade. And the United States controlled the tollgate.

Roosevelt Corollary The building of the Panama Canal was only one way that the United States expanded its influence in Latin America in the early 20th century. Its presence in Cuba and large investments in many Central and South American countries strengthened its foothold. To protect those economic interests, in 1904, President Roosevelt issued a corollary, or extension, to the Monroe Doctrine. The **Roosevelt Corollary** gave the United States the right to be “an international police power” in the Western Hemisphere.

The United States used the Roosevelt Corollary many times in the following years to justify American intervention in Latin America. The troops occupied some countries for decades. Many Latin Americans protested this intervention by the United States. But they were powerless to stop their giant neighbor to the north.

The U.S. government turned a deaf ear to these protests. It could not ignore the rumblings of revolution just over its border with Mexico, however. You will learn about this revolution in Section 4.

In the view of this political cartoonist, the Roosevelt Corollary gave the U.S. president so much power, the Caribbean became his wading pool.



THE BIG STICK IN THE CARIBBEAN SEA
From the Herald (New York)

Section 3 Assessment

3. FORMING OPINIONS

Do you think that U.S. imperialism was more beneficial or harmful to Latin American people? Explain.

THINK ABOUT

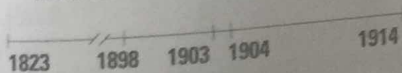
- the benefits provided by U.S.-owned companies
- the harmful effects of foreign economic and political influence

4. THEME ACTIVITY

Revolution It is 1898 and you have been fighting for the independence of your country, Cuba, for three years. The United States has just joined the war against Spain. Design a political poster that shows your feelings about U.S. participation in this war.

2. TAKING NOTES

Using a time line like the one below, list the major events of U.S. involvement in Latin America.



Which event do you think was most beneficial to Latin America? Why?

TERMS & NAMES

- caudillo
- Monroe Doctrine
- José Martí
- Spanish-American War
- Panama Canal
- Roosevelt Corollary