

Chapter 30
Glossary
UNIT ONE
Foundations

Homo Sapiens – “Human that thinks” appeared about 250,000 years ago.

Demographics – The study of populations – “demos” means people

Migration – The movement of people from one area to another

Cultural Diffusion – The spreading of culture to a different area, includes religion, diseases, languages, etc.

Division of Labor – Different genders doing different work such as women being the gatherers and men being the hunters

Horticulture – Farming using hand tools

Pastoralism – Domesticating animals by semi-nomadic people

Paleolithic – “Old Stone” age. The time when people used simple tools. Ended about 10,000 B.C.E.

Neolithic Revolution – The time period when people transitioned from hunter—gatherers to agricultural-based societies. Lasted from 10,000 B.C.E. until 4,000 B.C.E. Evolved in various locations at roughly the same time with the earliest being in the Middle East.

Neolithic – “New Stone” age.

Specialization – Individuals focusing on specific traits or skills. This is a clear advancement for society.

Catal Hüyük – Neolithic settlement in Anatolia.

Fertile Crescent – The region of rich soil stretching from Iraq to Jordan and so-named because of its crescent shape. The region is considered the “cradle of civilization”.

Mesopotamia – Means “land between two rivers” and refers to the land between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The location of the early Sumer and Akkad societies.

Akkad – The northern half of the Mesopotamian region.

Sumer – A civilization which appeared in Mesopotamia and who practiced agriculture. They also used a division of labor and kept written records. Credited with existing from 3,500 to 2,000 B.C.E. before being succeeded by other major societies.

Babylon – A city-state (often considered an empire) in Mesopotamia created from the Akkad and Sumer regions. Babylonia was a very advanced society with extensive trade routes, sophisticated government and laws.

Ziggurats – Mesopotamian temples built on a raised base.

Hammurabi – King of Babylonia who united Akkad and Sumer and made Babylon one of the greatest cities in the world. Best remembered for his Code of Law.

Hammurabi's Law Code – based on Sumerian law, the Code of Hammurabi allowed all people to see the laws of the empire. Worked on the basis of “an eye for an eye” and covered all aspects of society.

Cuneiform – Earliest writing in Mesopotamia. It involved etching pictures and symbols on to clay tablets with a reed stylus. Similar to hieroglyphics, but not identical.

Yahweh – (Jehovah) The name of God in the Old Testament. Influenced Christianity and Islam.

Torah – The most sacred writings in Judaism. It is divided into five books.

Polytheism - The belief in many deities (as opposed to monotheism). Found in many religions such as Hinduism and Buddhism.

Cataracts – Areas of the Nile River which are rocky and have white-water. These regions are significant obstacles to sailing the river.

Hieroglyphics – A system of writing based on pictures and symbols. Mostly frequently associated with the ancient Egyptians who used hieroglyphics to decorate the pyramids.

Hittite – An empire which spread over most of Anatolia and which was responsible for the fall of Babylon.

Old Kingdom – The oldest period of Ancient Egyptian history – approximately 2,650 B.C.E. until 2,200 B.C.E. The period is best remembered for the creation of the pyramids.

Middle Kingdom – Period from 2,040 B.C.E. until 1,640 B.C.E. during which the Egyptians greatly increased trade with her neighbors.

New Kingdom – Period from 1,550 B.C.E. until 1,070 B.C.E. marked by foreign expansion.

Lateen sail – A triangular-shaped sail which originated with the Arab spice traders.

Pharaohs – Egyptian kings considered gods on Earth.

Menes – generally recognized as the first pharaoh and credited with founding the city of Memphis.

Hyksos – Invaders of Egypt who caused the collapse of the Middle Kingdom.

Kush – North African kingdom that conquered Egypt from 750 to 660 B.C.E.

Achaemenid empire – The first great Persian empire. Founded by Cyrus roughly 550 B.C.E.

Satrap – Governor of a province during the Achaemenid period. Initially they were responsible to the king but later on they became almost autonomous.

Parthians – Persian dynasty from 247 B.C.E. until 224 C.E.

Seleucids – Persian empire from 323 B.C.E. until 83 B.C.E created by Seleucus after the death of Alexander the Great.

Xia Dynasty – Considered one of the first dynasties in Chinese history.

Shang Dynasty – Followed the Xia dynasty. Much of our knowledge comes from oracle bones and bronze artifacts.

Zhou Dynasty – The Zhou dynasty followed the Shang dynasty. Zhou rulers invoked the Mandate of Heaven. Initially the China was decentralized and often considered feudal; however, later the Zhou rule became much more centralized.

Legalism – One of the Chinese philosophies that developed during the Warring States period – the other philosophies being Daoism and Confucianism. Legalism was more of a political philosophy in which the state, ie. The emperor, came first.

Confucianism – A Chinese philosophy associated with the saying and writings of Confucius aimed at living a moral life. These philosophies can be found in the Analects.

Analects – Writing that is the dialogue between Confucius and his disciples. These writings preserved the philosophies of Confucius.

Daoism – A Chinese philosophy which emphasized the right way to live. It developed during the early Han period.

Mandate of Heaven – Rule was sanctioned by the gods. The ruler was required by the gods to rule in a fair and just manner. If the ruler violated this trust then the gods would find another ruler.

Han Dynasty – During the Han dynasty China adopted Confucianism and experienced great prosperity. The Han rulers extended their control to neighboring states including Vietnam and Korea. The Han dynasty is generally divided into two periods.

Han Wudi – (156-87 B.C.E.) A Chinese emperor, who ruled during the most prosperous period of the Han dynasty. He made Confucianism the philosophy of the state. He also developed the Silk Road.

Steppes – Vast treeless plains of central Asia. The homeland for nomadic tribesmen who depended upon horses. The use of the horse was essential to the success of the nomads, especially the Mongols.

Silk Road – Asian trade routes that connect Asia with Europe. Goods such as slaves, silk, and spices were shipped from China and India to the Mediterranean. In addition to goods the Silk Road was also a conduit for ideas and people.

Indo-Europeans – Nomadic tribes from Central Asia who migrated through western Europe and as far south as India. They were responsible for the variety of different languages in Eurasia.

Mohenjo-Daro – One of the greatest Indus River valley civilizations.

Dravidians – The first inhabitants of India. They were conquered by the Aryans.

Buddhism – A philosophy based on Buddha's *Four Noble Truths* to attain freedom from suffering. By following the Noble Eightfold Path, one can eliminate suffering and attain nirvana.

Arthashastra – A political treatise from early India, which stated the relationship between the ruler and the ruled. Created during the Chandragupta Maurya period and stated that war was inevitable.

Vedas – Texts from ancient India, they are written in Sanskrit and are the oldest the oldest texts in Hinduism.

Hinduism – A religious philosophy which developed in India over many years. It is polytheistic and believes in reincarnation. Most Hindus (but not all) follow the Vedas and believe the Brahmin to be the voice of authority.

Caste System – Strict social hierarchy in which all members of a society are assigned a specific caste or rank.

Brahmins – Hindu caste of priests.

Kshatriyas – Hindu warrior or aristocratic caste.

Aryans – Indo-European tribe who settled India roughly 1,500 B.C.E. They merged with the indigenous Dravidians.

Buddha – The term applied to Siddharta Gautama and means “enlightened one”. His philosophies would become the foundation for Buddhism.

Harappa – An ancient civilization which developed in the Indus River valley in present-day India and Pakistan. Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro are the two most significant cities. The cities had roads and streets and drainage.

Mauryan empire – Founded in 321 B.C.E. by Chandragupta Maurya and lasted until 185 B.C.E.

Upanishads – Indian dialogues that became the basis for Hinduism.

Siddharta Gautama – Asian spiritual leader who later became Buddha.

Gupta – Indian dynasty that briefly succeeded the Mauryan dynasty. Lasted from roughly 320 C.E to 550 C.E.

Four Noble Truths – The Noble Truths are taught in Buddhism as the enlightenment of Gautama Buddha. They are the basis of Buddhist philosophy.

Noble Eightfold Path – The final truth of the Buddhists Four Noble Truths and required the disciple to lead a life of balance and contemplation and will led to a cessation of suffering.

Pictographs – A form of writing that uses images to portray meaning. It became the basis for cuneiform.

Rosetta Stone – An Ancient Egyptian stone which helped decipher hieroglyphics. The stone had three languages, one was classical Greek and another was hieroglyphics. It was discovered in Egypt by one of Napoleon’s soldiers and translated by the French scholar Champollion.

Shaman – A person who can communicate with the spirit world.

Theocracy – A form of government in which religion is more significant than political control.

Minoan – An ancient civilization on the island of Crete during the Bronze Age. A mercantilist society the Minoans traded throughout the Mediterranean world.

Mycenaean – A culture that dominated Greece from 1,600 B.C.E. until the start of the Dark Ages in approximately 1,100 B.C.E.

Linear A – Script used by the Minoans.

Linear B – Script used by the Mycenaeans and adapted from Linear A.

Polis – An ancient Greek city-state. Generally an independent political unit that comprised of the city and the surrounding land.

Helots – The term used to describe slaves in Sparta.

Oligarchy – The rule by a few like-minded individuals.

Tyrant – A ruler who claims power and who does rule by the normal rules of the land.

Aristocracy – Rule by the wealthy.

Solon – Greek statesman who wrote the Solonian Constitution. He repealed many of the ideas of Draco and earned a reputation as a great compromiser. He was able to get the oligarchy and the aristocracy to work together before he left office.

Pericles – Athenian statesman during the Golden Age of Athens between the Persian Wars and the Peloponnesian Wars. He was responsible for the construction of the Parthenon and many other Greek buildings. He advocated democracy

Delian League – An association of Greek city-states formed after the Persian Wars. The League was dominated by Athens and the treasury was in Athens. Gradually the League became an instrument for the Athenians. When Naxos tried to secede her people were enslaved and she lost her fleet. Money paid to Athens was spent on the Parthenon.

Trojan War – After Helen of Sparta was kidnapped by Paris of Troy the Greek city-states waged war against the Trojans. The Trojans waited behind their massive fortified walls. The war ended when the Greeks hid inside a massive wooden horse and were pulled into Troy. During the night the Greeks left the horse and opened the city gates.

Alexander the Great – King of Macedonia who conquered Greece and then Persia. His empire stretched from India to Egypt. He died of fever when he was 32 years old having created the greatest empire ever seen.

Plato – A Greek philosopher who founded the Academy. He was a pupil of the great Socrates and he taught Aristotle.

Socratic method – the style of teaching utilized by Socrates in which he answered a question with a question forcing the students to reach their own conclusions.

Latins – Inhabitants of Latium on the Italian peninsula. Small settlements that were gradually controlled by Rome.

Etruscans – Between 900 and 800 B.C.E. the Etruscans settled in the Italian peninsula. They lived in fortified city-states and were ruled by a monarch. Eventually they were taken over by the Romans.

Roman Republic – A period of Roman history from almost 500 B.C.E. to 27 B.C.E. during which a republican form of government replaced a monarchy. The period also saw Rome expand to be a major European power.

Twelve Tables – Early written form of Roman law. Written in response to protests by the plebeians that they were not being treated equally and fairly.

Matrilineal – Lineage is traced through the mother (maternal).

Patriarchy – Lineage is traced through the father (paternal).

Punic Wars – A series of three wars between Rome and the North African city-state of Carthage. Carthage was the greatest naval power in the Mediterranean region and wars established Rome as the new great power. In the first war the Romans gained Sicily. In the second war Hannibal almost captured Rome before being forced to return to North Africa. In the third war the Romans determined to destroy Carthage.

Battle of Zama – Ended the second Punic war when Scipio defeated Hannibal, who had been recalled from Italy to defend Carthage.

Phoenicians – A Mediterranean civilization which evolved in present-day Lebanon. Organized as independent city-states it was a maritime society that lasted from 1500 B.C.E. to 300 B.C. E.

Carthage – North African kingdom that was the main economic competitor of the Romans. The empire was destroyed by the Romans in the Punic Wars.

Pax Romana – “Roman peace” the term used to describe the Mediterranean world in the first and second centuries (roughly 27 B.C.E. to 180 C.E.) when the Roman Empire brought peace and stability to the region. Started with the unifications of Augustus.

Diaspora – The dispersion of a group of people from their homeland.

Spartacus – A slave who led a revolt against the Romans. For almost two years Spartacus led his army of runaway slaves across the Italian peninsula and almost threatened Rome. Eventually an army of 40,000 Romans defeated him. Six thousand slaves were crucified as a result.

Gracchus brothers – Roman politicians who wanted to legislate land reform. Tiberius Gracchus was assassinated in the streets of Rome by a group of opponents. His younger brother, Gaius Gracchus followed his older brother into politics. He too, alienated the wealthy patricians and was accused of being an enemy of the republic. He was forced to commit suicide and after his death hundreds of his followers were killed.

Latifundia – Large estates in ancient Rome.

Plebeians – The common people of Roman society.

Patricians – The aristocracy of Roman society.

Pater familias – Roman term for father of the house. Gave the head of the household absolute control.

Julius Caesar – Military general who won the civil war and made himself the undisputed leader of Rome. He was made dictator for life and set about implementing social reforms. He was assassinated on the Ides of March (March 15,

Pompey – Roman general and politician. When Caesar invaded Italy with his legions from Gaul, Pompey fled to Greece. He eventually fled to Egypt and asked Ptolemy for help. Ptolemy wanted an alliance with Caesar had Pompey killed.

Crassus – A very wealthy Roman politician who gained fame after he suppressed the slave rebellion led by Spartacus. He formed the First Triumvirate with Caesar and Pompey.

Colosseum – Originally known as the Flavian Amphitheater it could seat 45,000 spectators. Then building hosted public games such as gladiatorial contests or even mock naval battles.

Mithras – The central god of the eastern mystic religion Mithraism, which became very popular with the Roman legions.

Judaism – One of the oldest monotheistic religions. Authority comes from Rabbis who translate traditional sacred texts. It began as a covenant between Abraham and God about 2000 B.C.E.

Constantine – Roman emperor credited with founding the “New Rome” at Constantinople. In 313 C.E. he issued the Edict of Milan, which then made Christianity acceptable.

Byzantine – The empire that was centered on Constantinople and was created from the old Roman Empire in the east.

Olmec – The Olmec lived in south-central Mexico. They build huge temples and offered human sacrifices. They also developed an accurate calendar and used hieroglyphics. The Olmec are best remembered for their giant statues of heads, which are located on the sides of mountains.

UNIT TWO 600 C.E. – 1450 C.E.

Bedouin – Nomadic tribesmen of the Arabian Peninsula who were among the first converts to Islam.

Pastoralists – Pastoralists are people to take care of herds of animals such as goats, sheep, or camels. This form of agriculture allows the people to be nomadic and have a constant food supply.

Ka'aba – A massive black meteorite in Mecca. It is the sacred stone of the Islamic religion.

Mecca - The original home of Muhammad. Site of the Ka'ba, and location for Islamic pilgrimages.

Koran – (Qur'an). The Koran is the sacred book of Islam. Under Abu Bakr, the revelations of Mohammed were organized and written down.

Medina – (Yathrib). City northeast of Mecca, which became the home of Muhammad after he fled Mecca.

Hegira – (Hijrah). Refers to the flight of the prophet Mohammed in 622 C.E.

Five Pillars of Islam – These requirements are the foundation of Islam. A profession of faith, prayer, alms (charity), fasting during Ramadan, and a pilgrimage to Mecca.

Hajj – A pilgrimage to Mecca, which all Muslims are expected to make at least once in their lives.

Hadith – Stories or sayings from Mohammed.

Sharia – Laws based on the Koran and the hadith

Imam - a Muslim prayer leader.

Orthodox Caliphs - Following the death of Mohammad, the Muslims community elected as their leaders men who were respected for their devotion to Islam. The title “caliph” translates into “successor” or “deputy.”

Abu Bakr – Abu Bakr was Mohammed's first convert, closest friend, and advisor. Mohammed married his daughter and he accompanied Mohammed on the flight to Medina in 622. When Mohammed died, Abu Bakr was elected the first caliph.

Caliph - supreme political and religious leader of Islam

Jihad - the struggle by Muslims to introduce their religion to other lands. Has come to be a Holy War.

Battle of Yarmuk (636) – The Muslims defeated the Byzantine army, which eventually allowed them to capture Syria.

Umayyad Dynasty - Dynasty that ruled Muslim Empire from AD 661 to 750 and set up a system of hereditary succession. They abandoned the simple life of previous Caliphs, surrounded the mosques with wealth and ceremonies, and moved the religious capital to Damascus.

Shi'ites – A religious division within Islam; the followers of Ali who believed the legitimate caliph must be a member of Mohammed's family. They remain a minority.

Sunni – A religious division within Islam; the followers of the Umayyads. The Sunni Muslims believe that the caliph should be the person most capable of doing the best job, much like when Mohammed was succeeded by Abu Bakr.

Abbasid Dynasty - AD 750-1258. Defeated the Umayyad Dynasty to take control of the Muslim Empire. Developed a strong bureaucracy and served as the main religious authority, but failed to keep complete political control over the empire.

Battle of Tours - A battle in 732 in which Charles Martel stopped the advance of the Moors into Europe.

The Seljuk Turks - Turkish group who migrated into the Abbasid Empire around 970. They established their own empire on Anatolian Peninsula after the Battle of Manzikert in 1071. By 1000, Seljuks converted to Sunni branch of Islam.

Ibn Battuta – A Moroccan traveler who spent most of his life travelling across the Muslim world from Spain to China. He wrote about his travels in a book, which give a remarkable insight into everyday life in Islamic lands.

“New Rome” - Capital of the Byzantine Empire; taken by the Turks in 1453. Also known as Constantinople.

Hagia Sophia – Christian Church in Constantinople built by Justinian. Also known as the Church of Holy Wisdom.

Visigoths - The western division of the Goths led by Aleric, who sacked Rome in 410.

Huns – An tribe of Asian warriors that was responsible for breaking the hold of the Roman Empire in the later part of the fourth century.

Justinian I (482-565) - Byzantine Emperor whose code of law served as the basis for Roman law.

The Ottomans - Turkish Empire following the collapse of the Byzantine Empire. Longest running empire in the history of the Anatolian Peninsula (1258-1918).

Mamluks – Mamluks were slave soldiers who converted to Islam. Eventually they seized power for themselves and at their height they controlled Jerusalem, Mecca, and Medina. The Mamluks defeated the Mongols and stopped the Mongols from moving taking Egypt, but they were eventually defeated by the Ottomans. In 1517 the Mamluk sultanate ended.

Jitza – A tax paid by all non-Muslims in territory controlled by the Muslims.

Dhows – Arab sailing ships with lateen sails which crossed the Indian Ocean.

Suleiman – (Suleyman), Suleiman I also known as Suleiman the Magnificent. He ruled the Ottoman Empire from 1520 to 1566. He threatened Europe by capturing Hungary but was stopped by the siege of Vienna in 1529. He authorized significant changes in the legal, social, and education with the empire as well being a sponsor of the arts.

Holy League – Involved nearly all the Catholic maritime nations and was aimed at breaking the control of the ottomans in the Mediterranean Sea. Victory at the battle of Lepanto in 1571 secured the Mediterranean for the European powers. After Lepanto the League was disbanded.

Habsburg-Valois Wars – A series of conflicts by the major European powers for control of the Italian states, which lasted from 1494 to 1559. They started when Charles VIII of France invaded Italy in 1494 and ended with the treaty of cateau-Cambrésis in 1559.

Silk Roads – An extensive network of trade routes across Asia linking Asia to Europe and North Africa. They were important for the movement of goods, ideas, armies, and diseases.

Sui Dynasty – 580-618 C.E. China was reunited by Sui Wendi who established the Sui dynasty.

Tang Dynasty – 618-907 C.E. Perhaps one of the greatest Chinese dynasties. It was a time when the Chinese were able to expand their empire and spread their culture. However in the end the political weakness led to a break up of the empire and a rise in the power of the warlords.

Middle Kingdom – Created during the Tang dynasty because the Chinese saw themselves as the center of the world.

Foot binding – Developed during the Sui dynasty; upper-class women had their feet tightly bandaged. The bandages usually broke their toes which prevented the women from walking properly or far and thus keeping them close to home and under the supervision of their husband or father.

Song Dynasty – The Song Dynasty (969-1279 C.E.) is broken into two distinct periods – the Northern Song (969-1127 C.E.) and the Southern Song (1127-1279 C.E.).

Genghis Khan - Led his Mongol armies from the steppes to conquer the largest land mass ever consolidated under one person. He was extremely brutal and was responsible for killing millions of people.

Mongols - Central Asian nomadic group who captured Baghdad in 1258 and killed the last Abbasid caliph.

Polo, Marco – A Venetian merchant who was one of the first Europeans to travel the Silk Road to China. Considered by many as a great explorer, but by others as a great story teller; Polo wrote his fantastic experiences in his book – The Travels of Marco Polo.

Kublai Khan – The grandson of Genghis Khan. Commander of the Mongols and responsible for the conquest of China.

Yuan Dynasty – (1279-1368) Established by Kublai Khan. This was the time period when Marco Polo was in China.

Ming Dynasty – (1368-1644) They focused on internal reforms. The Ming dynasty was a period in Chinese history during which time a series of strong rulers solidified and extended Chinese rule across Southeast Asia. During the early part of this dynasty the Great Wall of China was started.

Forbidden City - Imperial center of the royal palace in China. Built during the Ming Dynasty in the early 15th century. Only the imperial family, advisors, and servants were permitted to enter.

Silla Dynasty – One of the three Korean dynasties and the longest in Asian history. An independent Korean kingdom. It was unified in 668 C.E. and lasted until 935 C.E.

Yi Dynasty - Korean dynasty that followed the Koryo dynasty. It was established in 1392 and ruled Korea until 1910 when Korea was annexed by Japan.

Shintoism - Japanese religious cult. Polytheistic, gods represented associated with nature.

The Khmer - They established a kingdom in Cambodia during the 6th century. During the Angkor period the empire saw its greatest extent.

Angkor Wat - Temple structure built under the command of Suryavarman II in Cambodia.

Delhi Sultanate - The first Muslim empire of India. Included most of the subcontinent and started when Mohammed of Ghor defeated Prithvi Raj and captured Delhi in 1192.

Tamerlane - Last of the great conquerors. Led his Mongol armies from Mongolia to the Mediterranean. He died on the way to conquer China.

Pax Mongolia – a western creation to describe the stabilizing effects of the Mongols during the 13th and 14th centuries. The Silk Roads allowed for easy access to and from Asia.

The Great Wall of China - Chinese defensive fortification designed to keep out nomadic invaders from the north. It was started during the Qin dynasty.

The Golden Horde - One of the four regions of the Mongol Empire. The Golden Horde was the region that encompassed Russia.

Mamluks – A slave warriors who converted to Islam. They seized power and ruled Egypt from 1250 to 1570. They defeated the Mongols at Ain Jalut in 1260. This victory was the first decisive lose for the Mongols and halted the advance of the Mongols.

Shogun – Military governor who ruled in place of the emperor.

Daimyos – Powerful warlords in feudal Japan. Like their European counterparts, they built castles and employed knights. The fighting stopped when Tokugawa Ieyasu became the first Tokugawa shogun.

Samurai – Professional soldier who worked for the lord in exchange for food and housing. They were intensely loyal and they followed the bushido. If they failed they committed ritual suicide known as hari-kiri.

Bushido - A code of honor and conduct that applied to the Japanese nobility. It involved absolute loyalty to a superior as well as indifference to pain, and self-sacrifice. After the Meiji Restoration (1868) it became the basis for emperor worship.

Ashikaga Shogunate – A feudal military dictatorship when Japan was controlled by the shoguns of the Ashikaga family. The shogunate came to end when Oda Nobunga forced the last shogun from the Imperial Court at Kyoto in 1573.

Mansa Musa – African leader from Mali who converted to Islam and journeyed to Mecca in 1324. He took so much gold with him that after his pilgrimage Mali started to be recognized as a major trading state.

Songhay Followed Mali as the most powerful state in North Africa in the 15th century.

Sundiata – (Lion-king) Founded the kingdom of Mali in the 15th century. During his reign elaborate trade routes were created across Sub-Saharan Africa.

Hausa states – Powerful African state in the 15th century.

Maya - Civilization during the Classical period of Mesoamerican history that emerged in Central America. Identified with massive stone edifices, written language, calendar, mathematics, and religion. They had intensive farming which included draining swamps and irrigation. They fought a great deal and used captives for human sacrifices.

Toltec – They dominated Central Mexico from the 10th to the 12th centuries. Originally a warring nomadic people they eventually controlled much of Central Mexico. Their empire was destroyed in the 12th century.

Aztecs – An ethnic group located in Central Mexico with a capital at Tenochtitlan, which later became Mexico City. They rose to prominence in the 14th century and was a rich and complex society.

Tenochtitlán – The capital city of the Aztec Empire. The city was built on Lake Texcoco and was destroyed by the conquistadors in the 1520s. The site is now the location of Mexico City.

Chinampas – An agricultural technique developed in Mesoamerica to increase food supply. Small areas of fertile land are created in shallow lake beds. The land is built up using mud dredged from the lake bottom until it is stable enough to support crops.

Meritocracy – A meritocracy is a system in which people are rewarded or promoted on the basis of the work or achievements.

Inca - The Incan Empire was the largest pre-Columbian empire in the New World. It started in the 12th century C.E. and was centered on Cuzco. The Spaniard Francisco Pizarro reached the Incas in 1526 and that signaled the end of the Incas.

Mit'a system - This was mandatory public work in the Inca Empire. In the empire public work was required for the massive projects such as the creation of the road system. The system was maintained by the Spanish conquistadores.

Mestizos – Children of Spanish and Amerindian parents.

Creoles – Spanish or Portuguese children born in the New World.

Hadrian's Wall – Ancient Roman wall over 70 miles long built during the reign of Emperor Hadrian. The wall separated England, which was part of the Roman Empire from the Scots.

Rex Anglorum - The title King of England, first taken by Offa.

Vikings – The Vikings were sailors (some would say pirates) from Scandinavia who between 800 C.E. and 1050 C.E. raided the northern coast of Europe searching for land and plunder. Some Vikings did manage to cross the Atlantic Ocean and established a colony called Vinland in Newfoundland.

Danegeld - The Medieval tax used to pay of the Danes who had invaded England. It later became used for military expenditure. Eventually it became a permanent tax.

Fryd - The army created by Alfred. It had two units, which allowed people to take care of their land and serve in the army. This was an important move since people depended upon the land to feed their families.

Peace of Wedmore - (After the Battle of Edington the Danish leader Guthrum accepted baptism and the separation of England into two spheres, one Danish and one English.

Danelaw - Originally the body of law that applied to the part of England under Danish control.

Alfred the Great (871-99) - The king of Wessex. He agreed to pay off the Danes with a Danegeld. He did defeat the Danes at Edington and forced the Danish leader Guthrum to accept the Peace of Wedmore.

Beowulf - Anglo-Saxon epic whose author is unknown.

The Franks - A group of Germanic tribes. They became allies of the Romans and moved south into Gaul. In the 8th century they established the Carolinian rule. Perhaps the most famous leader was Charlemagne.

Carolingian - A dynasty of Frankish rulers that started with Pepin of Landen in the 7th century and included Charlemagne. It was during this time that some of the

principles of feudalism were formulated and also a close relationship between the church and the monarchy.

Charles “The Hammer” Martel - In 741 he became mayor of the palace (government leader of the Franks in place of a monarch. In 732 he defeated the Muslims at the Battle of Tours, thereby stopping the Muslim advance in Western Europe.

Charlemagne - Frankish king who was grandson of Charles Martel. He stimulated trade and fostered good relations with other monarchs. He was also responsible for the Carolingian renaissance.

Missi dominici - Experts used by Charlemagne to help him govern his empire. These officials came from wealthy and influential families.

Alcuin (735?-804) - English churchman and educator. He was invited to Charlemagne’s court to establish a school. He was the leading figure in the Carolingian renaissance.

Trivium - In Medieval education, part of the seven liberal arts. Included grammar, logic, and rhetoric. Studying the trivium led to a Bachelor of Arts Degree

Quadrivium - In Medieval education, part of the seven liberal arts. Included arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music. Studying the quadrivium led to a Master of Arts Degree.

Vernacular – The native language of a location.

Magyars – Nomadic tribesmen from Eastern Europe. They eventually settled in Hungary.

Feudalism – A political system employed in Medieval Europe and based on a reciprocal relationships between a lord and a vassal. Also developed in Japan.

Vassal - In feudalism, a person who serves another person of higher rank, usually in exchange for land.

Fief - In feudalism, an estate given away in exchange for loyalty.

Manorialism – Manorialism was an economic practice used across most of Medieval Europe. The people who lived on the land – the manor – were obligated to pay the lord a certain amount in exchange for the use of their land. In France the obligation usually meant work on the land for the lord.

Serfs – The vast majority of people in the Middle Ages were serfs. They belonged to the land, but they were not slaves. They had obligations to their lords, limited

access to the law courts, and they could not leave the lord's land without permission. Forms of serfdom existed all over the world and some still exist, but in Europe the system changed as a result of the Black Death.

Pope Urban II – Launched the First Crusade, specifically to regain Jerusalem from the Muslims, when he preached at Clermont, France in 1095.

Council of Clermont – In 1095, Pope Urban II preached to a large crowd at Clermont that the Muslims holding the shrines of Christianity was a disgrace. He advocated that the nobles of Europe stop fighting each other and embark on a Holy war to free the Holy Land.

First Crusade (1095-99) -The First Crusade was a direct result of the appeal by Pope Urban II at the Council of Clermont. The pope promised the crusaders would get full penance and that their homes would be protected while they were away. The crusaders freed Jerusalem from Muslim control in 1099, but then they massacred the Muslims. This was the most successful of all the crusades.

Second Crusade (1147-49) - Led by Conrad III and Louis VII the crusaders pillaged as they made their way to the Holy Lands. By 1149 both leaders had returned home and the crusade was a complete failure.

Saladin - Muslim leader during the Second and Third Crusade. Noted for conquering Jerusalem.

Third Crusade (1189-92) - In 1187 Jerusalem had been captured by Saladin. Richard I of England, Philip II of France, and Emperor Frederick I set out on a joint mission to retake Jerusalem. The crusade was a failure even though a three-year truce was negotiated with Saladin.

William of Normandy - Invaded England in 1066 and became King William I.

Magna Carta - Has become the most important document in British constitutional history. It was signed in 1215 at Runnymede by King John and forced the monarchy to guarantee the liberties of the nobility.

Parliament – The Houses of Parliament is a bicameral legislature that governs the United Kingdom and her territories. The Upper House is the House of Lords and the Lower House is the House of Commons.

Holy Roman Empire – In 962 the Saxon king Otto I was crowned emperor of the Romans. With this title he was able to lay claim to a new Roman Empire, which in reality was the land of the eastern Franks.

Lay Investiture - The practice of secular rulers appointing and inaugurating religious officials.

Babylonian Captivity - From 1309 to 1376, when the popes lived in Avignon, France. For most of the century the papacy was held hostage by the French monarchy, which greatly damaged the credibility and prestige of the pope.

Great Schism - The Great Schism was the time when there were two (and at one time three) separate popes. One pope who lived in Rome, and another who lived in Avignon. This division lasted until 1417 and brought to the forefront the issue of reform.

Saint Thomas Aquinas - Italian philosopher who was the greatest figure in the Scholastic movement. Advocated an Aristotelian philosophy that faith and reason were gifts from God and should be used by man. Wrote Summa Theologica. The Catholic Church adopted his ideas.

Black Death - Also known as the Bubonic Plague. Starting in A.D. 1348 when a Genoese trading ship landed in Italy with the plague. The epidemics swept across Europe wiping out towns and villages and destroying society. Perhaps as many as one-third of the population of Europe died from the disease.

The Hundred Years' War - A conflict between England and France that started in 1337 and ended in 1453. The issue was French land that was controlled by the English crown.

Battle of Crécy - At Crécy in 1346, Edward III of England defeated Philip VI of France. The English were far outnumbered but the English longbow proved to be deadly against the French heavy cavalry. It is also possible that this was the first European battle to witness the use of firearms.

UNIT THREE 1450 C.E. – 1750 C.E.

Absolutism – A political philosophy that was based on the had of state having absolute control over every aspect of the state. It foreshadowed totalitarianism and especially prevalent in Spain and France during the 17th and 18th centuries.

Putting-out system – Raw material was taken to the home of a worker where it was converted into a finished product. Once the product had been finished it was collected by the entrepreneur and sold in the market.

Caravel – Initially designed by the Portuguese, a caravel was a highly maneuverable ship with two or three masts. It was the ship of choice for Portuguese explorers.

African Diaspora – Literally means the spreading of Africans to other parts of the world. The main focus of this migration was to the Caribbean to work in the sugar plantations as slaves. Later, many Africans were forced to work in the cotton fields of the United States. The Diaspora is responsible for spreading African culture to the Americas.

Asante – An empire that developed on the western coast of Africa that was known as the Gold Coast. The basis of their development was trade – the region produced gold and nuts. In the late 17th century they started to control the slave trade.

Benin – Another African kingdom. Benin was close to Asante, but never developed to the same extent.

Janissaries – Ottoman soldiers formed from the abducted children of Christians. They were unique because they were paid year-round. In many ways they were similar to the Mameluks.

Safavid empire - The Safavid empire was created in present-day Iran and lasted from 1501 to 1722. The people were only allowed to practice shiaa Islam – all other forms of religion were outlawed.

Cossacks – Russian peasants who became feared soldiers because of their skills as horsemen.

“Windows on the west” – The name given to St. Petersburg, the new capital city of Russia, built by Peter the Great. It was designed and built by Europeans in a European style, with material transported from Europe.

Table of Ranks – Introduced in Russia in 1722 by Peter the Great, the Table of Ranks was a ranking of people in the government, military, or Court. A person could be promoted or demoted based on their service to the Tsar.

Daimyos – Powerful feudal rulers in Japan from the tenth century.

Toyotomi Hideyoshi – Defeated the power of the Daimyos and by 1590 he had unified Japan. He was never able to complete his dream of a Japanese Empire, but he did establish Japan as a world power.

Tokugawa shogunate – Established after the death of Hideyoshi in 1603 to establish a centralized government with the capital at Edo (now called Tokyo).

Mughals - Established by Babur in India in 1526. The name was taken from Babur's supposed Mongol descent, but there is little indication of any such influence.

Mercantilism – An economic policy that stated the colonies exist for the benefit of the Mother Country.

Capitalism – An economic system based on the private ownership of businesses and goods that could be bought and sold on the open market. For more information see Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations.

Columbian Exchange – The exchange of crops, technologies, ideas, and diseases between the Old World and the New World. Beans, potatoes, and maize went to Europe – wheat, horses, sugar, and smallpox went to the New World.

Indentured servants – Contract workers who were shipped to the American colonies. These workers would work from 4 to 7 years before they were given their freedom. The work was very hard and many died. Eventually this system was replaced by slavery, because slavery was perpetual.

Middle Passage – The part of the triangular trade, which involved carrying, slaves from Africa to the New World.

Gunpowder Empires – A reference to the fact that all successful state use guns to achieve their aims, especially over other states. Includes the states of Russia, Japan, the Mughal and Safavid Empires.

Zheng He – Chinese Muslim sailor who led a huge fleet across the Indian Ocean to East Africa and the Red Sea. Zheng He gave gifts to rulers and took tribute from the people along the way to expand Chinese influence and power. The voyages stopped after the death of Yongle.

Hanseatic League - The Hanseatic League was a trading alliance of northern European who allied to protect their economic interests. The League lasted from roughly the 13th century to the 17th century.

Guilds – Formed by craftsmen and merchants to control trade, regulate production, and set standards.

Commercial Revolution - the Commercial Revolution was a direct result of the age of exploration. Merchants who had made fortunes wanted to further invest their money and increase their wealth, but with limited risk. The king issued charters, which allowed joint-stock companies to be established to defer the risk. These companies would be very important in the colonization of America.

Renaissance – A European movement from the 14th to the 16th centuries, that emphasized the “rebirth” of the classics – Greek and Roman cultures. The movement started in Florence and quickly spread. Scholars studied the classics to see how to become better humans. This field of study led to the development of Humanism.

War of the Roses (1455-85) - A civil war that was waged in England between the Houses of York and Lancaster between 1455 and 1485. Ended with Henry VII killing Richard III at the Battle of Bosworth Field.

Individualism - Individualism stressed personality, uniqueness, genius, and the fullest development of capabilities and talents.

Petrarch - Father of the Renaissance. He believed the first two centuries of the Roman Empire to represent the peak in the development of human civilization.

Vernacular - Everyday language of a specific nation.

Condottieri - Bands of Italian mercenaries. They fought for the highest bidder, which often proved a deadly game.

Sistine Chapel - Named after Sixtus IV and built in 1473 it was the private chapel of the popes in Rome. The ceiling was painted by Michelangelo and represents the history of man and God.

Medici - The Medici’s were a great banking family in Florence in the 15th century.

“New Monarchs” – Monarchies that took measures to limit the power of the Roman Catholic Church within their countries.

Habsburg-Valois Wars - The long struggle between France and Spain, mostly fought in Italy, which was ended in 1559 with the signing of the Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis. While Spain and France were fighting for control of Europe, Protestantism was gaining a foothold in Europe.

Secularism - The belief in material things instead of religious things.

Gutenberg, Johann - Gutenberg is credited with the invention of the printing press in Germany about 1450. The first book printed was the Gutenberg Bible. With the

development of the press printed items were cheap to produce and readily available, which increased the demand for education.

Charles V - Holy Roman Emperor Charles V was perhaps, the most powerful man in Europe during the first part of the sixteenth century. He was king of Spain, but also ruled the vast Habsburg Empire, which included the Netherlands, Austria, much of Italy, Burgundy, and Spain's possessions in the New World. He was considered the "universal monarch" and spent much of his reign defending Catholicism.

Star Chamber – The Star Chamber was an English court of law located at Westminster palace. It was called the Star Chamber because of a large star painted on the ceiling. It was created during the medieval period, but Henry VII is credited with making it powerful and efficient. Sessions were open to the public and even though the court could use torture it could not use the death penalty. It was abolished in 1641.

Politiques - Religious moderates who wanted a strong monarch.

Cortes - Assembly of nobles in Spain. These nobles had the right to review the policies of the monarchy.

Hermamdades - "Brotherhoods" groups of people who had been given the authority to act as a police force in Spanish towns and cities.

Reconquista - The reconquista was the war in Spain waged by the Christians to reclaim the whole peninsula. The objective was to convert or expel the Jews and the Moors.

Inquisition - Religious tribunals, primarily in Spain. In 1478 Pope Sixtus IV gave Ferdinand and Isabella permission to put heretics on trial.

Reformation – The movement which started with Martin Luther posting his 95 thesis to the Church door in Wittenberg. Luther was protesting against the Catholic Church. The result was a split from the Catholic Church and creation of Lutheranism. Subsequently, other Protestant sects developed.

Simony - The selling of church offices.

Usury - The practice of lending money for interest.

Pluralism - The holding of several church offices at the same time.

95 Thesis - The list of grievances posted by Martin Luther on the Church door at Wittenburg in 1517. This was the accepted practice for proposing issues for debate.

Huguenots – French Calvinists.

Anglicanism – Upholding to the teachings of the Church of England as defined by Elizabeth I. Initially advocated 3 sacraments but then accepted only 2: Communion and baptism.

Act of Supremacy (1534) – Declared the king the supreme head of the Church of England.

Theocracy – A community in which the state is subordinate to the church. Best example was Geneva under John Calvin.

Predestination – Calvin's religious theory that God has already planned out a person's life. God already knows who is going to Heaven regardless of their life on Earth.

Presbyterians – Established by John Knox in Scotland. Named after the presbyters who governed the church. The Presbyterians were staunch followers of the Calvinist doctrine.

Catholic Reformation – The Catholic or Counter Reformation involved efforts by the Catholic Church to convince people to return to Catholicism.

Council of Trent (1545) – Called by Pope Paul III to reform the church and secure reconciliation with the Protestants. Lutherans and Calvinists did not attend.

Jesuits – Members of the Society of Jesus, staunch Catholics. Led by Loyola, they were dedicated to removing the abuses of the church and restoring the Catholic Church.

Cuius regio eius religio – The religion of the ruler of a region dictates the religion of the region.

Baroque – Style in art and architecture developed in Europe from about 1550 to 1700, emphasizing dramatic, curving forms, elaborate ornamentation, and overall balance of disparate parts. Associated with Catholicism.

Thirty Years' War - (1618-1648) - A series of four conflicts between Catholics and Protestants that lasted thirty years and devastated Germany. Initially fought for religious reason, but gradually political motives became more important.

Mehmet II – Ottoman sultan responsible for the capture of Constantinople in 1453, and the subsequent destruction of the Byzantine Empire.

Suleiman the Magnificent (1520-1566) – Leading the Turks back into Europe Suleiman seized Belgrade in 1521 and defeated the Hungarians at the Battle of

Mohác in 1526. The Turks advanced as far as Vienna until they were stopped in 1529.

Pueblo Indians – They are Native Americans who live in the southwestern region of the United States. They built adobe houses and lived in towns (pueblo is Spanish for town). The Pueblo Indians are comprised of several groups. They were forced to convert to Catholicism by the Spanish, but still retained their identity.

Iroquois – The Iroquois lived in upstate New York. They formed the Iroquois Confederacy and fought against European incursions. They allied with the English against the French and their Huron allies.

Columbus, Christopher – Perhaps the most famous explorer of the New World. He sailed to find a sea route to East Asia, but landed at San Salvador in 1492. He made a total of four voyages to the New World before he died.

Vespucci, Amerigo – An Italian explorer who sailed along the coast of South America and realized the landmass was a continent. The German cartographer Martin Waldseemüller identified the continent as America in 1507, giving credit to Vespucci.

Treaty of Tordesillas – Spain and Portugal signed the treaty in 1494 to settle the dispute between the two nations over land ownership. Pope Alexander VI declared that Spain would own the land east of the line and Spain would get the land west of the line.

Joint-stock companies – Companies formed to share the risk of expensive commercial ventures. Individuals could participate by owning stock in the company and if the company made a profit the stockholders would get a dividend. If the company went bankrupt then the expense was shared.

Cabot, John – Italian-born navigator explored the coast of New England, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland. Gave England a claim in North America.

Cabral, Pedro – Claimed Brazil for Portugal

Prince Henry the Navigator – Prince of Portugal who established an observatory and school of navigation at Sagres and directed voyages that spurred the growth of Portugal's colonial empire.

Conquistadores – Spanish 'conquerors' or soldier in the new World

Diaz, Bartholomew – Portuguese explorer. First European to reach the southern tip of Africa.

King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella – Monarchs who united Spain; responsible for the reconquista.

Encomienda – Indians were required to work a certain number of days for a landowner, but had their own land to work as well.

Da Gama, Vasco – Sailed from Portugal for India.

Magellan, Ferdinand – Portuguese navigator. While trying to find a western route to Asia, he was killed in the Philippines (1521). One of his ships returned to Spain (1522), thereby completing the first circumnavigation of the globe.

Northwest Passage – A water route from the Atlantic to the Pacific through northern Canada and along the northern coast of Alaska. Sought by navigators since the 16th century.

Repartimiento – Spanish labor system that replaced the encomienda. The natives were supposed to receive fair compensation from their Spanish employers.

Pizarro – Francisco Pizarro was a Spanish conquistador who conquered the Incan Empire.

Creoles – Children born in the New World.

Peninsulares – Spanish or Portuguese children born in the Old World.

Mestizos – Children in the New World who were part Amerindian and part European.

Sovereignty – Possessing a monopoly over the instruments of justice.

Cardinal Richelieu – Became President of the Council of ministers and the first minister of the French crown. Strengthened the absolute power of King Louis XIII.

Louis XIII – Influenced by Richelieu to exult the French monarchy as the embodiment of the French state.

Fronde (1648-53) – Brutal civil wars that struck France during the reign of Louis XIII.

Colbert, Jean-Baptiste – An advisor to Louis XIV who proved himself a financial genius who managed the entire royal administration.

Constitutionalism – Limitation of government by law, developed in times of absolutism. May or may not be written.

Petition of Rights (1628) – Initiated by Sir Edward Coke, it limited the power of Charles I of England: a) could not declare martial law; b) could not collect taxes; c) could not imprison people without cause; d) soldiers could not be housed without consent.

Leviathan (1651) – Written by English philosopher Thomas Hobbes, maintained that sovereignty is ultimately derived from the people, who transfer it to the monarchy by implicit contract. Claimed only absolutism could save society from constant war in which life was “solitary, poor, brutish, and short.”

Cromwell, Oliver – Led the Roundheads. Thought he was chosen by God. He ruled England as Lord Protector by using his New Model Army to control the government. Eventually he ruled as a military dictator.

The Restoration (1660) – Restored the English monarchy to Charles II, both Houses of Parliament were restored, established Anglican Church, courts of law and local government.

Bill of Rights (1689) – Stated no law could be suspended by the king; no taxes raised; no army maintained except by parliamentary consent. Established after The Glorious Revolution.

War of Austrian Succession (1740-1748) – European conflict caused by the rival claims for the dominions of the Habsburg family. Before the death of Charles VI, Holy Roman emperor and archduke of Austria, many of the European powers had guaranteed that Charles’s daughter Maria Theresa would succeed him.

Junkers – Members of the Prussian landed aristocracy, a class formerly associated with political reaction and militarism.

Pragmatic Sanction (1713) – Issued by Charles VI of Austria to assure his daughter Maria Theresa gained the throne.

Streltsi – A large number of soldiers in Moscow who were primarily the palace guards.

Romanovs (1613-1917) – Russian royal family, started with Michael Romanov (1613) and lasted until 1917.

Boyars – Land owning aristocracy in early Russia.

Hohenzollern – German royal family who ruled Brandenburg from 1415 and later extended their control to Prussia (1525). Under Frederick I (r. 1701-1713) the family’s possessions were unified as the kingdom of Prussia.

Aristotelian World View – Motionless earth was fixed at center of universe, God was beyond.

Ptolemy's System – Last great ancient astronomer; there was a place for God. Complicated rules used to explain minor irregularities in the movement of the planets.

Brahe, Tycho – Established himself as Europe's foremost astronomer of his day, made detailed observations of a new star in 1572.

Heliocentric Theory – Sun is the center of the universe. Copernican view.
Geocentric Theory – Earth is the center of the universe. Aristotelian view.

Galilei, Galileo – Created modern experimental method. Formulated the law of inertia. Tried for heresy and forced to recant. Saw Jupiter's moons. Wrote **Dialogue on the Two Chief Systems of the World**.

Natural Law – Universal law that could be understood by applying reason; letting people govern themselves.

Deism – God built the Universe and let it run. Clockmaker theory.

Enlightenment – A time period following the Scientific Revolution which had an emphasis on rational thought. Enlightened thinkers tried to understand the natural laws of the universe and apply them to society.

Copernicus, Nicholas – A Polish monk and mathematician. He discovered the Heliocentric theory, which replaced the Geocentric theory. Because he knew the Catholic Church would attack him and his theory, Copernicus had his work published in 1543, after his death.

Newton, Isaac – English mathematician who discovered the universal laws of gravitation. He wrote **Principia**, which based on natural laws, explained how the laws of the movement applied to the universe.

Locke, John – English philosopher of the 17th century. In his book, Second Treatise of Government, Locke claimed that a “social contract” existed between the ruler and his subjects in which the subjects agreed to be ruled.

Hobbes, Thomas – English philosopher and proponent of Absolutism. He had a very pessimistic view about society.

Enlightened despot – Enlightened ruler. Catherine the Great, Frederick the Great.

The Social Contract (1762) – Rousseau, suggestions in reforming the political system and modeled after the Greek polis.

Smith, Adam – Scottish professor of philosophy. Developed the idea of free enterprise, critical of mercantilism. Wrote *Wealth of Nations*.

“General Will” – Betterment of the community. Founded by Rousseau, he felt that the will of the people determines a country’s course in economics and politics.

UNIT FOUR 1750 C.E. – 1914 C.E.

French and Indian War (1756-1763) – Known as the Seven Years’ War in Europe, it was, perhaps the first global conflict. In the North American continent Britain and France fought for control of the Ohio Valley and Canada. The Algonquians, allied with the French and the Mohawks. Other tribes of the Iroquois Nation allied with the British. Britain won, and gained control of all of the remaining French possessions in Canada, as well as India. Spain, which had allied with France, ceded Florida to Britain, but received Louisiana in return.

Peace of Paris (1763) – Signed by Great Britain, France, and Spain ending the Seven Years’ War (or the French and Indian War as it was known in the United States). The treaty marked the beginning of global dominance by Great Britain who gained all French possessions in Canada and east of the Mississippi River in the United States. Spain gave Florida to Britain, but later gained New Orleans.

Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776) - Based on the ideas of the Enlightenment it declared people had an alienable right to “life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.” It also recognized the compact theory of government. The Second Continental Congress accepted the declaration on July 4, 1776, making the colonies independent from Britain.

Treaty of Paris (1783) – Ended the Revolutionary War between Great Britain and the United States.

Bill of Rights – The first ten Amendments to the United States Constitution designed to protect the rights of the citizens. Created in 1789 and ratified in 1791.

Louis XVI - King of France-executed for treason by the National Convention-absolute monarch-husband of Marie Antoinette.

Ancien Regime – The old order before the Revolution in France

Regicide – The killing of the king.

Marie Antoinette - Louis XVI’s wife and sister of Leopold of Austria. She was executed by guillotine during the Reign of Terror in 1793.

Estates General – Not called since 1614-finally called by Louis XVI at the advice of his financial minister-demanded control over the King’s finances –he refused and dismissed them-sat as three segregated groups.

Bastille – Medieval fortress that was converted to a prison stormed by peasants for ammunition during the early stages of the French Revolution.

Versailles - Site of palace outside Paris. Women marched there to demand action from Louis XVI.

Declaration of the Rights of Man – Written by the National Convention –declared all men could do anything as long as it did not harm others.

Paine, Thomas – English-born propagandist for the American revolutionary movement. Paine believed it was right for the colonies to rebel since they were being taxed without representation. Paine wrote *Common Sense* in which he argued that it was not logical for a small country (England) to control a much larger country (America) as the mother country had lost touch with the colonies.

Robespierre, Maximilien - A very radical Jacobin and member of the National Assembly. He led the Mountains and created the Committee of Public Safety, which he led a dictator. He also began the Reign of Terror during which time he tried to eliminate all opposition. Executed in 1794 during the Thermidorian Reaction.

Guillotine - Fast and relatively humane way of killing suspects by decapitation. Used for mass executions especially during the French Revolution.

Reign of Terror (1793-1794) – The attempt by the Convention, led by Robespierre, to suppress the counter revolution. Hundreds were executed including Danton and Marie Antoinette. Ended with the Thermidorian Reaction.

Committee of Public Safety – Established and led by Robespierre, fixed bread prices and nationalized some businesses. Basically secret police and also controlled the war effort. Instigated the Reign of Terror.

Wollstonecraft, Mary – English feminist author who wrote *Vindication of the Rights of Women*. She went to Paris to witness the Revolution.

Brunswick Manifesto (1792) – Issued by Austria and Prussia during the Revolution and intended to intimidate the people of Paris. The manifesto claimed that if the king was hurt then the people of Paris would suffer. Ironically, it only served to make the people of Paris more determined.

Continental System (1806-12) – French economic plan to cripple Britain. Beginning with the Berlin Decree (1806) Napoleon closed all European ports to British ships. The Continental System was largely a failure since it hurt the European economy as well as the British economy. Napoleon trying to enforce the policy in Spain led to the Peninsula War and Russia's refusal to conform led to the Russian campaign.

The Grand Army – Combined French armies under Napoleon. Virtually destroyed during Napoleon's ill-fated Russian campaign.

Louis XVIII – Tried to issue the Constitutional Charter of 1814, which accepted many revolutionary changes and guaranteed civil liberties

Napoleonic Code (1807) – Laws, especially civil laws, passed by Napoleon. Took away many of the rights gained by women, aimed at reestablishing the “family monarchy”. Modified after Napoleon’s defeat, but still is the basis of continental law.

L’Overture, Toussaint – Haitian general and statesman. He was a slave who joined the revolt against the French in 1791 and declared himself dictator of Haiti in 1801. He was taken prisoner and he died in France.

The Hundred Days – The time from Napoleon’s return from exile on Elba (March 20) to defeat at Waterloo (July 8, 1815).

Embargo Act (1807) – Issued by the United States at the request of President Jefferson who wanted to stay out of the Napoleonic Wars. The act prohibited trade between the United States and other nations and was repealed in 1808.

Industrialization – New inventions, cotton and iron-changed small businesses beyond all recognition. New inventions improved production and abolished cottage industry.

Poor Law (1834) – A series of laws which gave aid to the poor in Great Britain and Wales. Poor laws had been part of English laws for centuries and they would remain until the creation of the welfare state.

Combination Acts – Passed by the English government in 1799, the act outlawed trade unions in England. The fear was that the unions might strike during troubles with Napoleon and force the government to accede. The act was repealed in 1824.

Corn Laws – A series of tariffs passed in England between 1815 and 1846 to protect domestic corn producers.

Habeas corpus – From Latin for “you shall have the body” it refers to a very important part of English law. It is a legal action (a writ) that an individual can instigate to get relief from detention. The prisoner has the right to petition the courts to have the person responsible for the detention, justify the detention. If such an act can not be justified then the prisoner must be set free. The writ of habeas corpus is considered one of the most important safeguards of civil liberty.

Rotten boroughs – refers to a Parliamentary constituency in Britain which has a very small number of electors and thus has a disproportionate amount of representation in Parliament. The Reform Act of 1832 sought to eliminate these areas.

Liberalism – The base ideas of liberty and equality.

Fourier, Charles – French social theorist-criticized capitalism-wanted socialist utopia and emancipation of women.

The Communist Manifesto (1848) – Pamphlet written by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels and became the basis of Socialism.

Engels, Friedrich – Condition of Working Class in England (1845) – society’s problems caused by capitalism and competition. Colleague of Karl Marx.

Bourgeoisie – A person belonging to the Middle Class. According to Marx, they are the property owners.

Enclosure movement – During the 18th and 19th centuries, common land was taken away from the people and enclosed by fences allowing the aristocracy to gain wealth from the land.

Factory system – Developed in England during the Industrial Revolution. Each member of the work force performs a specific task to create a final product. Since it was performed in the same building, products could be produced faster and cheaper.

Monopolies – When one entity, either an individual, corporation, or country controls every aspect of commodity or service and that allows them to control the market.

Proletariat - Usually members of the lowest class who possessed no wealth. Marx used the term to describe the working class.

Volksgeist – Idea created by J.G. Herder to identify the national character of Germany, but soon passed to other countries.

Father Hidalgo – Mexican priest who helped establish the independence movement. Eventually he was captured and executed.

Creoles – Native born descendants of European settlers (primarily French, Spanish, or Portuguese) in Latin America.

Mestizos – People of mixed European and Indian blood.

Mulattoes – The child from a relationship between a black and a white person. Generally a mulatto has light brown skin.

Santa Anna, Antonio López de – Mexican general and politician who was responsible for the capturing of the Alamo in 1836. Santa Anna served as president of Mexico four times.

Mexican-American War (1846-8) – The war between the United States and Mexico which resulted in a humiliating defeat for the Mexicans and the loss of almost half their land to the United States.

San Martín, José de – Argentinean general and politician. He fought in war for independence in Argentina (1814-6). He also led an army across the Andes to liberate Chile and Peru from Spanish control. He is known for abolishing slavery.

Bolívar, Simón – South American political leader who played a major role in the helping Latin American countries gain their independence from Spain.

Battle of Ayacucho (1829) – The battle on the plains of central Peru that ended Spanish control of Peru. Antonio José de Sucre defeated the Spanish Viceroy José de la Serna.

Monroe Doctrine (1823) – Statement issued by the United States that said that any attempt by a European nation to colonize any part of the Americas would automatically be considered a hostile act.

La Reforma – The 19th century liberal reform movement that made Mexico a nation.

Juntas – Groups of military leaders who set up their own government. This form of government became very common in Latin America.

Imperialism – Imperialism is when one country takes over political, social, and economic control of another country. The most obvious example is at the end of the 19th century when European nations competed to control large empires.

Indigenous – Originating in a particular country or region for example: the aborigines of Australia.

Sphere of influence – A territorial area over which a second country yields control. Usually the state, which is being controlled, simply becomes a satellite of the more dominant nation.

Balance of power – Refers to international relations when there is stability caused by the equilibrium of competing powers. In recent years, during the Cold War, there was a balance of power between NATO and the Warsaw Pact.

Settlement colonies – Traditionally colonies which appealed to large numbers of Europeans. These colonies included Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

British North America Act (1867) – An act passed by the British government, which created an independent Canada by creating the Dominion of Canada from the three remaining British colonies in the region (Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Canada). Canada had a government, but the executive power still remained with the British monarchy.

The White Man's Burden (1899) – Rudyard Kipling's poem, "The White Man's Burden," critical about imperialism.

"Scramble for Africa" – Refers to the race to occupy African countries by European powers between 1880 and 1914.

Berlin Conference (1885) – Laid down the rules for the conquest of Africa: 1) European countries holding a coast inland 2) Occupation must be with real troops 3) Must give notice of which countries were occupied 4) Started the scramble for Africa.

Rhodes, Cecil – Played a major political and economic role in colonial South Africa. He was a financier, statesman, and empire builder with a philosophy of mystical imperialism.

Boer War (1899-1902) – A war in South Africa between the English and the Dutch settlers. England won despite early setbacks. Showed that English tactics were no good and needed to be modernized.

Belgian Congo – exploited by Leopold II at Belgium under the Berlin Act, Leopold was supposed to act as a trustee. He violated the agreement and stripped the country of its resources.

Leopold II – King of Belgium, sent Henry Stanley to the African Congo to encourage Belgium interests with African Chieftains.

Battle of Adowa – Fight in 1896 between Italy and Ethiopia. By the 1890s there were only two independent countries on the African continent – Liberia and Ethiopia. Italy, in an attempt to strengthen their colonial possessions went to war with Ethiopia. At the Battle of Adowa the Ethiopians soundly defeated the Italians and won the war. This defeat caused great humiliation for Italy and was one of the reasons Mussolini invaded Ethiopia in 1935.

British East India Company – British trading company used by the government to economically control the colonies.

British raj – refers to British colonial rule over Indian subcontinent.

Sepoy Rebellion – Began as a mutiny of Sepoys of the East India Company in India in 1857.

Indian National Congress – Called in 1885 by a group of educated Indians who wanted to give Indians a greater role within the Civil Service in India. In reality they were not successful.

Opium Wars – The wars that resulted from economic and diplomatic disputes between Britain and the Qing dynasty. Opium was smuggled by British merchants from India into China. Ultimately China was defeated and forced to sign the Treaty of Nanking.

Manchu dynasty – Also known as the Qing dynasty. Founded by the Manchu clan they ruled China from 1644 to 1912.

Boxer Rebellion – An anti-Christian, anti-imperialism movement in China between 1898 and 1901. The Rebellion was led by the Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists (the Boxers) as a response to the growing imperialist influence. The Rebellion was suppressed by a multinational force led by the United States. The main consequence was the weakening of the Qing Dynasty which collapsed in 1911.

Revolutionary Alliance – At the end of the 19th century the Qing dynasty had faced several problems, including losing Hong Kong. A group of revolutionaries organized by Sun Yat-sen successfully overthrew the Qing

Three People's Principles of Nationalism – A political philosophy developed by Sun Yat-sen to make China free and prosperous. It was based on nationalism, democracy, and social welfare.

Meiji Restoration – The political movement that emerged following the overthrow of the Tokugawa Shogunate. During this time period the emperor became supreme, but he was not the real power. The real authority came from a group of oligarchs who used the emperor as a figurehead.

First Sino-Japanese War – A conflict between China and Japan for control of Korea in 1894. Following the revolt by Koreans in 1894 both China and Japan sent troops to Korea. After the revolt the Japanese troops refused to withdraw. A war developed between the Japanese and the Chinese which resulted in an easy victory for the more technologically advanced Japanese.

Queen Liliuokalani – She was the last reigning monarch of the Hawaiian islands. She was deposed in January 1893 by the European and American planters who had formed the Committee of Safety, which was backed by American marines. The queen hoped that her sovereignty would be restored later, but that didn't happen. In July 1894, Sanford Dole proclaimed the Republic of Hawaii, with himself as president.

Spanish-American War – A military conflict between Spain and the United States, which took place in 1898. The American government supported the Cuban movement for independence and sent the USS Maine to Havana. When the battleship blew up, Americans demanded revenge. The war ended December 10, 1898 when Spain signed the Treaty of Paris and gave control of Cuba, Guam, the Philippines, and Puerto Rico to the United States.

Roosevelt Corollary – A declaration in 1904 made by President Theodore Roosevelt based on the Monroe Doctrine. The declaration was to prevent threats to the security of the United States by authorizing American intervention in the affairs of neighboring countries.

Tanzimat – The reorganizing of the Ottoman Empire, which began in 1839. The goal was promote Ottoman culture and strengthen the empire against outside influences.

Universal suffrage – Refers to the process of voting by all adults who are citizens. However, in most countries the right to vote was often restricted and issues of gender, religion, or race were used to limit access to the process. In many modern democracies the right to vote was also restricted to those with property.

Plebiscite – An opportunity for the electorate to vote either for or against a certain issue.

Franco-Prussian War (1870-71) – War between France and Prussia; seen as German victory; seen as a struggle of Darwinism; led to Prussia being the most powerful European nation. Instigated by Bismarck; France seen as the aggressor.

Paris Commune – In the spring of 1871 the Paris Council exercised authority over the whole city. The movement started after the defeat in the Franco-Prussian War. Communards erected barricades throughout the city, but especially in the poorer neighborhoods. The communards were fairly easily defeated by the army and thousands of Parisians were arrested.

Risorgimento – Italian period of history from 1815 to 1850.

Red Shirts – Volunteers in Garibaldi's army

Zollverein – Economic custom union of German states, founded in 1818 by Prussia. Eliminated internal tariffs.

Constitutional monarchy – Monarch rules with limitations by the constitution; written or unwritten.

Reichstag – Popularly elected parliament in Germany. Very little power.

Junkers – A member of the landed aristocracy in Prussia

Realpolitik – Political theory, advocated by Bismarck, that national success justifies any means possible. Very Machiavellian.

Syllabus of Errors – A document issued by Pope Pius IX

Kulturkampf – Refers to Bismarck's struggle with the Catholic Church over appointments and education.

Berlin Congress (1878) – Bismarck acted as the "honest broker" helping the European powers to solve the Eastern question.

Mir – Peasant village assembly responsible to the government.

Revolution of 1905 – Civil unrest that followed the failed Russo-Japanese War and the massacre of Bloody Sunday. Forced Tsar Nicholas to issue the October Manifesto in which he promised to create a Duma.

October Manifesto (1905) – Issued in Russia because of fear of a general strike. Granted full civil rights and a popular parliament- Duma.

Ausgleich (1867) – Refers to the Compromise of 1867, which created the dual monarchy of Austria and Hungary.

Magyars – In 1867 the Hungarian nobility restored the constitution of 1848 and used it to dominate both the Magyar peasantry & the minority population.

Panslavism – A movement to promote the independence of Slav people. Roughly started with the Congress in Prague; supported by Russia. Led to the Russo-Turkish War of 1877.

Disraeli, Benjamin – British politician who served twice as Prime Minister (1868, 1874-1880) who helped create the modern Conservative Party. He had an intense rivalry with William Gladstone (Liberal Party) and he enjoyed a close friendship with Queen Victoria. Although he converted to Anglicanism, he was born Jewish.

Gladstone, William – British politician who led the Liberal Party and served four times as Prime Minister (1868-74, 1880-5, 1886, 1892-4).

Abolitionist – A movement to end the slave trade and wipe out slavery.

Compromise of 1850 – A series of acts passed in 1850 intended to avert the crisis between the slave states and the free states over the issue of land acquired by the acquisition of Texas and through the Mexican- American War.

Scientific racism – The use of science and/or scientific findings to discover the differences between the races or to validate the differences. Scientific racism has been used to justify the persecution various races, most notably used by the Nazis in the persecution of the Jews.

Romanticism – The Romantic movement started as a revolt against the ideals of the Enlightenment. The movement stressed human emotions and the awesome unpredictable power of nature.

Rationalism – A philosophical view that considers reason to be the greatest test of knowledge.

UNIT FIVE 1914 C.E. – Present

Congress of Berlin – A meeting of the major European powers and the Ottomans in Berlin in 1878. The meeting was to reorganize the Balkans following the Russo-Turkish War.

“The Young Turks” – A coalition of groups who favored reform in the Ottoman Empire at the start of the 20th century. They opposed the traditional monarchy of the sultan. The term has since been used to describe any progressive group, usually intellectuals who seeks change.

Magyars – An ethnic group from Hungary.

Princip, Gavrilo – An ethnic Serb who assassinated the Austrian archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife, Sophie in Sarajevo in 1914. Their assassination sparked the First World War.

Black Hand – Ultra Nationalist, Serbian Society formed in 1911. Secretly supported by members of the Serbian government. The goal was to liberate all Slavic people from the control of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The organization is blamed for the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand by Gavrilo Princip in Sarajevo in 1914, and event, which sparked the start of World War One.

Blank check – In July 1914 Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany promised unconditional support for Austria in its conflict with Serbia. The promise of German help emboldened Austria.

Lusitania – Sunk in 1915 by a German submarine. 139 American killed. Forced Germany to stop submarine warfare.

Wilson, Woodrow – U.S. President, who led USA into WWI. He proposed the 14 points. He was received at the Paris Peace Conference at Versailles as the savior of Europe.

Paris Peace Conference (1919) – Post-war conference held in Paris with the 27 victorious nations but dominated by British prime minister Lloyd George, French Premier George Clemenceau, American President Woodrow Wilson and Italian Vittorio Orlando. Germany was not invited, nor was Russia because of the Civil War. The end result was the Treaty of Versailles.

Wilson’s Fourteen Points – President Wilson’s Peace proposal in 1918 stressed national self-determination and the rights of the small countries. Freedom of the seas and free trade.

League of Nations (1919) – Allies worked out terms for peace with Germany at Versailles following World War I. It was a precursor to the United Nations. The

organization enjoyed limited success in the 1920s but was unable to stop the aggression of the 1930s.

Self-determination – The ability to make decisions free from outside influence or interference. Generally used in conjunction with nations be able to determine their own destiny.

Mandate system – The mandate system was developed after World War One because the victorious nations did not want to take over lesser nations. All the old imperial powers had learned that imperialism was costly and rarely beneficial. Consequently the colonial regions of the defeated German and Ottoman Empires were placed under a mandate system, whereby the victorious nations were responsible for the administration of the former colonial possessions.

Duma – Representative assemblies in modern Russia.

Nicholas II – Member of the Romanov family and the last tsar. He ruled from 1894 until he was forced to abdicate in 1917. He was married to. Wanted supreme rule of army and government. Led the armies to defeat. Forced to abdicate in 1917 by the Duma following the February Revolution.

Bolsheviks – Literally means “Majority group” in Russia. They were part of the Marxist Russian Socialist Labour Party which split from the Mensheviks. They were led by Lenin and following the November Revolution in 1917 they changed their name to Communist Party.

March Revolution (1917) – The first of two revolutions in Russia in 1917. The most immediate consequence was the removal of Tsar Nicholas II. The Provisional Government headed by Prince Lvov replaced the tsar. Bolsheviks become the leaders of Russia. The revolution is sometimes called the February Revolution because Russia used a different calendar.

Provisional Government – A provisional government formed after the abdication of Tsar Nicholas II. It was led by Alexander Kerensky who wanted free elections and a Constituent Assembly and was overthrown by the Bolsheviks in November 1917.

Army Order #1 – Issued by the Petrograd Soviet stripped offices of their authority and placed the power in the hands of elected committees of common soldiers.

“Peace, Bread, and Land” – Lenin’s slogan in the Revolution. Peace from the war; Land for the peasants; Food for all.

Mensheviks – ‘Minority group’. They were Social Democrats who opposed Lenin in 1902.

War Communism – The economic system that existed in Russia during the Civil War from 1918-1921. Adopted by the Bolsheviks to keep the Red Army supplied.

New Economic Policy - (NEP) Lenin's successful attempt to reintroduce limited economic freedom to help stimulate the Russian economy following War Communism. Peasants were permitted to sell surpluses on the free market.

Yat-sen, Sun – “Father of Modern China.” He succeeded in overthrowing the Qing Dynasty and became President of the Republic of China in 1912. Established government based on his “three Principles of the People” – nationalism, people's choice, and people's livelihood.

Kai-shek, Chiang – Leader of the Nationalist forces after the death of Sun Yat-sen. He experienced a hot/cold relationship with the Communists and became President Nationalist Republic of China in 1928.

Khaki election – The term is used to describe any election in Britain, which is influenced by post-war policies. The term khaki comes from the color of the uniforms used by the British in the Boer War

George, David Lloyd – Elected Liberal Prime Minister of Great Britain in 1916. He laid the foundation for the welfare state.

MacDonald, Ramsey – British Labor Party politician who served as Prime Minister twice. His first term was in 1924 and the second term was from 1929-1935. The economic effects of the Great Depression caused him to side more with the Conservatives.

Baldwin, Stanley – British Conservative Party politician who served as Prime Minister three times. His first term was from 1923-24; then from 1924-1929; finally, from 1935-1937.

Trades Union Congress – Founded in 1868, the Trades Union Congress is a federation of unions in Great Britain.

Nehru, Jawaharlal – A leading figure in the independence movement, he served as Prime Minister of India from 1947 to 1964.

Government of India Act (1935) – Following the First World War the Indian people started to demand more autonomy. The British government passed the Government of India Act (1919) but kept control of the important financial and economic aspects of the Indian government. The subsequent act in 1935 was a pre-independence Constitution.

Blackshirts - Mussolini's private army used to eliminate political opposition in Italy.

“March on Rome” – The march was the way that Italian dictator Benito Mussolini's National Fascist Party came to power. On October 28, 1922, King Victor Emmanuel III signed over power to Mussolini who was supported by the military, the business class, and the right-wing.

Lateran Agreement of 1929 - Vatican recognized as an independent and sovereign nation, and Roman Catholicism becomes the official religion of Italy.

Cheka – Secret police set up by Lenin-arrested “enemies of the revolution”.

Kulaks – The term means wealthier peasants. This class of society was labeled “enemies of the state” by Stalin who sought to wipe them out.

Five-Year Plan – Economic plan to bring make the Soviet Union economically competitive. The first one started in 1929. One plan simply replaced another until the Soviet Union was dissolved.

Collectivization – Stalin’s policy between 1928 and 1940 in which he tried to consolidate individual farms in the Soviet Union.

Stockmarket Crash – On October 29, 1929 the stock market of the United States collapsed after a record 16 million stocks were sold. This triggered the Great Depression.

Hoover, Herbert – Elected the 31st president of the United States in 1928 after a landslide victory over the Democrats. Hoover was heavily involved in helping Europe rebuild after World War One and served as Secretary of Commerce in the 1920s. However, his inactivity following the Wall Street crash in 1929 compounded the financial problems and helped create the Great Depression.

Roosevelt, F. D. – Democratic President of the United States from 1932 to 1945. Pushed for rapid enactment of new legislation to combat the effects of the Great Depression. He called his economic recovery plan the ‘New Deal.’ Also responsible for legislation which created the welfare state in America.

Long March - A 6,000 mile journey made by Chinese Communists fleeing from Chiang Kai-shek’s Nationalist forces

New Life Movement – Established in China in 1934 by General Chiang Kai-shek. The movement was an attempt to counter western capitalism and communist ideology.

Indian National Congress – A political party founded in India in 1885 and was at the forefront of the independence movement. When India gained independence from Britain in 1947 the INC became the major political party. Until recently the party was dominated by the Nehru-Gandhi faction.

Untouchables – Members of the lowest caste system in India are known as untouchables and they perform the lowest, dirtiest jobs in society.

Muslim League – The Muslim League was a political party in British India, which was instrumental in India gaining independence and the creation of Pakistan as a Muslim state.

Manchuria – A massive area between China and Russia, which borders Siberia, Mongolia, and North Korea.

Nanking massacre – Also known as the Rape of Nanking – When the Japanese forces captured the city of Chinese Nationalist capital of Nanking in 1937 they systematically killed tens of thousands of the inhabitants. In addition they raped thousands of women.

Social Democrats – The Social Democratic party took control of Germany in 1912 and supported the First World War. However, their support for the Bolsheviks caused them to lose a great deal of support in Germany. After the war they were instrumental in working in the Weimar Republic until disbanded by Hitler in 1933.

Weimar Republic (1919-33) - Republic established in Germany following the Treaty of Versailles. Seriously weak from the start, many Germans blamed the Weimar government for the country's defeat and postwar humiliation.

Nazi Party – The main political party in Germany between 1919 and 1945. The party adopted an extreme right-wing agenda, which included the racial superiority of the German people. The last leader was Adolf Hitler.

Treaty of Rapallo – A treaty signed between the Soviet Union and Germany in 1922 which renounced the conditions established by the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. Both countries agreed to normalize relations and to economically cooperate.

Brownshirts – A Private army that was part of the Nazi movement. Identified by their brown shirts they helped to promote Hitler. The Brown Shirts were eliminated in 1934 by the SS because Hitler needed to gain credibility.

Dawes Plan – A plan designed by American banker Charles Dawes to allow the allies to get reparations from Germany following the 1923 default on the loans. The Dawes Plan was replaced by the Young Plan in 1929.

Kellogg-Briand Pact (1928) – An agreement signed that condemned the use of war as a solution for settling disagreements. Also known as the Pact of Paris. Designed by Aristide Briand of France and Frank Kellogg of the United States. Ultimately the pact proved ineffective during the wars of the 1930s.

Guernica (1937) - Picasso's mural inspired by the Spanish Civil War. Condemns the bombing of the town of Guernica by the fascists in which almost a thousand people were killed.

Enabling Act (1933) - Gave Hitler dictatorial powers for four years.

Third Reich – The word 'Reich' in German means the German state. There have been three periods of German history known as Reich. The First Reich was the Holy Roman Empire, which was ruled by Charlemagne. The Second Reich was when the Hohenzollern monarch ruled Germany from 1871 to 1919. The Third Reich was Hitler's dictatorship from 1933 to 1945. Hitler had promised the Third Reich would last a thousand years.

SS - Hitler's personal guard that joined with the Gestapo (*Geheime Staatspolizei*) to control the courts and the concentration camps. Led by Heinrich Himmler.

Nuremberg Laws (1935) - The legal process in Germany that classified Jews based on hereditary factors. Anyone with at least one Jewish grandparent was officially classified as Jewish and stripped of the rights of citizenship. The law also outlawed marriages between Jews and non-Jews.

Rome-Berlin Axis (1936) - Close cooperation between Italy and Germany, and soon Japan joined; resulted from Hitler; who had supported Ethiopia and Italy, he overcame Mussolini's lingering doubts about the Nazis.

Anschluss - The annexation of Austria by Germany in 1938.

Lebensraum - Room to move. Phrase used by Hitler to justify invasion of other countries.

Kristallnacht - Literally means the "night of broken glass." Refers to November 9, 1938 when Nazis looted, burned, and destroyed Jewish property. Thousands of Jews were arrested and/or beaten by Nazi storm troopers in a wave of anti-Semitism. In the wake of the violence the Jewish communities were fined a billion-marks to pay for the damage.

Munich Conference (1938) - Britain, France and other countries (not the USSR); they agreed that Sudetenland should be ceded to Germany; Chamberlain secured peace with Germany.

Appeasement - The policy adopted by Britain in the 1930s in response to the aggression of Hitler. The British government granted Hitler every concession that he demanded in an attempt to avoid hostilities. The British believed that Communism was a Greater threat to Europe and a strong Germany would help deter the Communists.

Russo-German Nonaggression Pact (August 1939) - Hitler and Stalin promised to remain neutral if either country were to become involved in war. Germany violated the pact by invading Russia in 1941. Also known as the Ribbentrop-Molotov Pact.

Sudetenland - Hitler wanted German-speaking people in West Czechoslovakia; this would be given to Germany by France and Britain who refused to stop Hitler.

Luftwaffe – Created in 1935 in violation of the Versailles treaty, the German air force quickly became the most advanced in Europe. By the start of the Second World War the Luftwaffe, commanded by Hermann Goering, was the perfect tool to support Hitler’s blitzkrieg.

Blitzkrieg - “Lightning war” refers to the rapid advancement of German troops across Europe. Hitler realized the usefulness of tanks if air and infantry supported them. In 1939 he launched his blitzkrieg against the unsuspecting Poles, other nations soon followed.

Maginot Line - Line of defense built by France before World War II, from Belgium to Switzerland to protect against German invasion. Named after the French Minister of Defense, the fortifications were intended to buy the French time in the event of a German invasion.

Churchill, Winston – Perhaps the greatest wartime leader; rallied the British with his speeches, infectious confidence, and bulldog determination; known for his "iron curtain" speech; led the British during World War II; agreed Hitler should be conquered; was replaced after the war.

Battle of Britain - In 1940 Germany sought to control the skies over Britain so he could launch his invasion. During the summer thousands of German aircrafts attacked Britain with hundreds being shot down by the RAF and ground defenses. By the end of the year Hitler called off his attacks unable to defeat the British in the air it would be impossible to launch an invasion.

Royal Air Force - (RAF) The name for the British air force.

Great Patriotic War – The term used by the Soviet Union to describe the time following the German invasion of the Soviet Union in 1941 until the end of the Second World War. It is a term only used by the Soviet Union and is geographically specific to the Soviet Union.

Vichy France - The French government led by Marshal Pétain that accepted defeat by the Germans.

Pearl Harbor - December 7, 1941. A Japanese surprise attack on the American base at Pearl Harbor. The Japanese killed over 2,000 Americans and the following day the United States declared war on Japan. In President Roosevelt’s speech he said December 7, 1941 would be a “date which will live in infamy.”

Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere – Created by Japan and intended to unify Japan, China, and Manchuria into Great East Asia, which would be dominated by Japan against western imperialism. The goal would be achieved by military force.

Final Solution – The term used by the Nazis for the elimination of every Jew as part of the Holocaust. The plan was designed by Heinrich Himmler.

Holocaust – Hitler's attempt to systematically annihilate the Jewish race. In late 1938 the Nazi party started slaughtering millions of people who were considered sub-human. By 1945 almost 12 million had been killed. Nearly 6 million of those killed were Jews and they were killed because they were Jewish. Well over 5 million others such as gypsies, homosexuals, and political prisoners were also killed. This event was known as the Holocaust.

Battle of Stalingrad (1942) – The battle for the Russian city of Stalingrad started in 1942 and ended in 1943, it was one of the bloodiest battles of the war and resulted in almost 2 million casualties. Defeat was seen as a turning point for Germany in the war because it was their first large-scale land defeat.

Grand Alliance – In 1942 twenty-six nations agreed to work together to stop the aggression of the Axis powers and not make a separate peace. The big three super powers were Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States.

Teheran Conference (1943) - Meeting between Stalin (USSR), Roosevelt (USA), Churchill (UK) at the Russian Embassy in Teheran; confirmed their defense to crush Hitler. Roosevelt and Churchill also promised to open a second front against Germany to relieve the pressure on the Soviet Union. One of only two meetings involving the Big Three.

Yalta Conference (1945) - On the Black Sea; the Big Three met in February 1945 in southern Russia; it was agreed that Germany would be divided into zones of occupation and would pay heavy reparations to the Soviet Union in the form of agricultural and industrial goods; when the Big Three met in 1945 at Yalta in southern Russia they agreed that east European governments were to be freely elected but pro-soviet.

United Nations - Intended to replace the League of Nations, the United Nations first met in 1946 in New York. The purpose of the organization was to guarantee the security of its members, but it would also become heavily involved in humanitarian and economic problems.

Potsdam Conference (July 1945) - Brought forward many differences over east Europe; Stalin would not allow any type of freely elected government in east European countries; Roosevelt had died and was succeeded by Harry Truman, who demanded free elections.

Iron Curtain Speech (March 1946) - Winston Churchill at Fulton College Missouri; said an "iron curtain" had fallen across the Continent.

Berlin Airlift – In 1948 the Soviet Union cut off the land routes to Berlin. For the next eleven months the Western Allies airlifted all the supplies into the city. Nicknamed ‘Operation Little Vittles’ the Soviets abandoned their plan in May 1949.

NATO - North Atlantic Treaty Organization- formed in 1949 by U.S. anti-Soviet Military alliance of Western Governments.

Warsaw Pact (1955) - Counter to NATO created by Stalin to tighten his hold on satellites. Albania withdrew in 1968 when Czechoslovakia was invaded.

COMECON - The economic association organized by the communist states

Containment - U.S. policy that attempted to contain Communism in areas already occupied by the Red Army as indicated in the Truman Doctrine.

Truman Doctrine - In 1947 President Truman asked Congress for \$400 million to aid Greece and Turkey. With the acceptance of the aid Congress approved the fact that the United States would now be responsible the security of the Western world and the containment of Communism.

Marshall Plan (1947) - U.S. Secretary of State George C. Marshall urged Americans to offer economic aide to post-war Europe. The plan was implemented in 1948, but Stalin refused to participate.

Brinkmanship - International relations involving the deliberate creation of a risk of war to apply pressure on the other party.

Khrushchev, Nikita - Russian premier after Stalin. Led de-Stalinization of Russia. A reformer who argued for major innovations.

"peaceful coexistence" - Khrushchev’s foreign policy; peaceful coexistence with communism was possible.

U-2 – In 1960 the Soviets shot down a U-2 American plane, which had been taking pictures over the Soviet Union.

Bay of Pigs – Site in Cuba of the failed invasion by U.S.-backed Cuban exiles in 1961.

Castro, Fidel - Castro was the guerrilla leader that led the fight for the independence of Cuba. Initially he allied himself to the Soviet Union, but gradually moved to a moderate Marxist stance.

Berlin Wall – Constructed by East Germany, they started construction on the wall in 1961 and when it was finished it completed isolated West Berlin from East Berlin.

The wall stood as the most visible symbol of Communism in Europe until German unification in 1989.

Balfour Declaration – In November 1917, the British issued a document stating that they were willing to support the creation of a homeland for the Jews, but the rights of the Arabs had to be respected.

Brezhnev Doctrine - Soviet Union and its allies had the right to intervene in any socialist country whenever they saw the need.

Suez Crisis (1956) – In 1956 Egypt nationalized the Suez Canal. Britain and France agreed to an Israeli invasion of Egypt to protect access to the canal. An Anglo-French force landed to protect the canal zone. The U.N., the Soviet Union, and the United States, all pressured Israel and Egypt to settle the dispute. The crisis demonstrated that Britain could no longer bully other countries.

Nasser, Gamal Abdul - Took power in Egypt after a 1952 coup and was responsible for forcing the British out of the Egypt. He was president of Egypt from 1954 until his death in 1970. He advocated Arab socialism and took land away from a small number of rich landowners. He also nationalized the banks and industries.

United Arab Republic – A union between Egypt and Syria that was created in 1958 and lasted until 1961, when Syria left.

Eisenhower Doctrine – Announced by President Eisenhower in 1957, the United States offered to help any nation, which asked for help if it was threatened by armed aggression by another state. The Doctrine was aimed specifically at the Soviet Union and the growing threat to peace in the Middle East. It led to American involvement in Lebanon in 1958.

Guomindang (Kuomintang) – The Nationalist Party of the Republic of China (Taiwan). The KMT was founded by Sun Yat-sen after the Revolution in 1912 which overthrew the Manchu dynasty. The Party was led by Chang Kai-shek between the years 1927-49 until the Communists, led by Mao Zedong, forced them out. After 1949 the KMT were located in Taiwan.

Minh, Ho Chi – Communist leader and president of North Vietnam (1954-69). He led the Vietnamese in their successful war for independence from the French.

Dien Bien Phu (1954) – A battle fought in North Vietnam which marked the end of French attempts to regain control of Indochina. It was followed by the Geneva conference (1954) which partitioned Vietnam.

Domino Theory – A political theory that if one state falls it will automatically trigger adjacent countries to fall. This became a major factor in American foreign policy in Asia.

Gulf of Tonkin (1964) – The gulf off the coast of Vietnam where 2 American ships came under attack from North Vietnamese boats. In response the president issued the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, which was the closest the United States came to a declaration of war against North Vietnam. In the resolution it was stated that the United States would do everything in her powers to repel armed attack against her forces.

Tet Offensive – January 31, 1968, the Tet holiday, the North Vietnamese launched a series of surprise attacks across South Vietnam. While the attacks shocked the Americans the North Vietnamese were not able to maintain their hold, largely because of the massive firepower of the United States

Kennedy, John F. - The thirty-fifth president of the United States. Kennedy was sworn in 1961 after defeated Richard Nixon. He was the youngest president and the first Roman Catholic president. The biggest problem he faced was the Cuban issue when, for a short time in 1962 the world stood on the threshold of war. Assisted by his brother Robert, the Attorney General, his Civil Rights reforms gained widespread public support. Unfortunately, Lee Harvey Oswald assassinated President Kennedy in Dallas in 1963.

Pentagon Papers – A secret document that discussed the state of the Vietnam war. Commission in 1968 by Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara, the papers were leaked to the New York Times and published in 1971. The papers clearly identified the United States as being responsible for escalating the war.

Paris Peace Accords – An agreement to end the fighting between the United States and Vietnam. The formal agreement was established in 1973 by National Security Advisor Henry Kissinger and Vietnamese politician Le Duc Tho. Both men shared the Nobel Peace Prize, but Tho refused to accept the award.

Pol Pot - He led the Khmer Rouge when they took over control of Cambodia in 1975. The Khmer Rouge wanted Cambodia to be renamed Kampuchea. Pol Pot was ousted from power in 1978 by Cambodian Communists.

Helsinki Accords – An agreement signed in Helsinki, Finland in 1975 whereby the signatories all agreed to respect the fundamental rights and freedoms of all men.

King Jr., Martin Luther - King was a Baptist minister and Civil Rights activist. He was inspired by the passive-resistance policies of Mahatma Gandhi. In 1964 King was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize. In 1968 James Earl Ray in Memphis assassinated King.

Civil Disobedience – The policy of refusing to obey or carry out laws without resorting to physical violence. The idea was the creation of American author Henry David Thoreau, who in 1849 wrote an essay entitled *Civil Disobedience*, in which he

advocated passive resistance. The practice became synonymous with Gandhi and the independence movement in India.

SALT – Discussions started in 1968 between the Soviet Union and the United States to limit nuclear weapons. The treaty expired in 1970 without violation and was followed by the SALT II talks.

Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) – A cartel of the major oil producing countries, intended to stabilize production and oil prices.

Five-Year Plan – A series of economic plans developed by the Gosplan that replaced the New Economic Policy. Initially implemented in the Soviet Union to create a centralized economy the idea was copied in other socialist countries. The idea was approved by Stalin and first implemented in 1928. Although it proved to be successful for industry, it was not as successful for agriculture because of unrealistic goals and expectations. The plans continued until 1991, when the Soviet Union was disbanded.

Re-Stalinization - Soviet Union started a period of stagnation. Saw de-Stalinization as a dangerous threat.

Prague Spring – A reform movement in Czechoslovakia, led by Alexander Dubcek who advocated “communism with a human face.” Dubcek reduced police repression and permitted freedom of the press. In 1968 the Soviets ended the Prague Spring when they sent 250,000 troops to Czechoslovakia.

Antiballistic Missile Treaty – The treaty was signed in 1972 by President Nixon of the United States and General-Secretary of the Communist Party Leonid Brezhnev of the Soviet Union to limit the number of anti-ballistic missile systems. At the start of the 1960s the United States had a clear nuclear advantage but by the end of the decade the Soviet Union had caught up. The concept of mutually assured destruction forced the United States to initiate limitation talks. The treaty was in effect until 2002, when the United States withdrew.

Gorbachev, Mikhail – Gorbachev was the leader of the Soviet Union from 1985 until 1991. He helped to end the Cold War and his reforms eventually led to the break up of the Soviet Union. During an attempted coup in 1991 he was held under house arrest for three days. Upon being released he found the public had shifted their support to the hardliner Boris Yeltsin.

Perestroika - Economic restructuring by Gorbachev

Glasnost - A newfound openness of government and media.

Yeltsin, Boris – Yeltsin became the president of the Russian Federation in 1991. Famous for his opposition to the 1991 coup, which forced the coup to fail and

reinstated Gorbachev as president. The coup made Yeltsin a national figure and forced Gorbachev to compromise. In 1991 with the break up of the Soviet Union, Yeltsin became president of independent Russia.

KGB – The Soviet secret police, responsible for internal security and intelligence.

Chechnya – When the Soviet Union collapsed the people of Chechnya declared their independence and created the Chechen Republic of Ichkeria. No one has recognized the declaration and civil war has erupted in region between rebels and federal authorities. So far thousands have been killed in the fighting.

Solidarity – Solidarity was the first worker's union in a Warsaw Pact country. It was founded in the Gdansk shipyard and was initially led by Lech Walesa. During the 1980s the organization adopted a sweeping social agenda.

Nonalignment - The policy adopted by countries during the Cold War by which they decided not to take sides.

Bandung Conference (1955) – A meeting in Indonesia in which representatives from over 50 African and Asian countries met to discuss the Cold War in the Third World, economic development, and decolonization.

European Coal and Steel Community (1950) - International organization to control and integrate all European coal and steel production. Consisted of West Germany, Italy, Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg, and France. Number one goal to be economically tied together so that war against them or by one of them would be impossible. Created by French foreign minister Robert Schuman. Began operations in 1952.

Treaty of Rome – Signed in 1957 by West Germany, France, Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg, to create the European Economic Community (EEC).

European Economic Community - Caused by the Marshall Plan. Developed in 1957.

Gaulle, Charles De - Leader of Free French General that resigned in 1946 after re-establishing the free, democratic Fourth Republic.

Maastricht Treaty – The Maastricht Treaty was signed in 1992 by the twelve members of the European Community and most of the members of the European free Trade Association. The treaty eliminated national barriers to the movement of goods and services. Also known as the Treaty on European Union.

Decolonization – The reversal of imperialism as former colonies achieved their independence.

Third World – Originally the term referred to countries that were not in the western – First World; or eastern - Second World. In reality these were the least developed countries in the world. Most are either in Asia or Africa and they share the same problems of high birth rate, a lack of industrialization, and low-level of literacy.

League of Arab States – Also called the Arab League, was a regional organization which aimed to promote cooperation between states in the Middle East and North Africa. It was formed by six nations in 1945. The Arab League has resolved some issues, but its major successes involve social issues like education and the rights of women.

National Liberation Front (FLN) - Nationalist movement in Algeria who waged war of independence against the French in the 1950s.

Sadat, Anwar El - Succeeded Gamel Abdel Nasser as leader of Egypt in 1970. He freed Egypt from Russian influence. In 1973 he secretly attacked neighboring Israel before signing a peace treaty that brought peace to the Middle East.

Mubarak, Hosni - He became the president of Egypt after Sadat was assassinated. Tried to reestablish links between Egypt and other Arab nations that had been weakened by Sadat's friendship toward Israel.

Six Day War (1967) – A war between Israel and her neighbors Egypt, Syria, and Jordan.

Yom Kippur War (1973) – War against Israel by Egypt and Syria. The Israelis were caught by surprise and suffered heavy losses; however, they were able to regroup and recapture much of their lost land. The war was ended by the United Nations.

Palestine Liberation Organization - Formed in 1964, as a confederation of various Palestinian Arab groups, to win recognition for the state of Palestine. However, to create the state of Palestine the state of Israel would have to be eliminated. Recently both sides have agreed to a two-state solution. The leader of the PLO is Yassir Arafat.

Intifada - Literally means “shaking off”. It was the Palestinian resistance campaign.

Arafat, Yassir - Arafat is the Chairman of the Palestinian Liberation Organization. In the 1950s he helped created Al Fatah, a guerrilla movement for the liberation of

the Palestinian state. He was the first representative of a nongovernmental organization to address the United Nations General Assembly in 1974.

Camp David Accords - In 1978 President Carter invited Egyptian President Sadat to meet with Israeli Prime minister Begin at Camp David in Maryland. The agreement signed was the basis of the Arab-Israeli peace treaty.

Begin, Menachem - Israeli politician and Prime minister. He jointly shared the Nobel Peace Prize in 1978, with President Sadat of Egypt.

Fundamentalism - A movement that emphasizes traditional religious practices.

SAVAK - Secret police used by the Shah of Iran.

Khomeini, Ayatollah Ruhollah - Shiite cleric and Islamic fundamentalist who had been exiled by the shah and who returned from exile to take over Iran in 1979.

Hussein, Saddam - President of Iraq in 1979, became a dictator who violently persecuted the Kurds. He led his country into both Gulf Wars. In 2003 he was arrested and placed in prison charged with crimes against humanity

Negritude - The movement that emphasizes the role of the black man in the history of Africa.

Qaddafi, Muammar - He led a military takeover of Libya in 1969. He established a socialist state and tried to spread socialism to other African states.

Organization of African Unity – Established in 1963 to promote unity among the African states. It was disbanded in 2002 and replaced with the African Union. The goal of then organization is to promote human rights, democracy, and economic development throughout the African continent. Modeled on the European Union.

Nkrumah, Kwame - African nationalist, responsible for the first independent state of Ghana in 1957.

Mau Mau - An underground freedom movement in Kenya against British rule.

Kenyatta, Jomo - Led the struggle against the British for the independence of Kenya. Maintained traditional practices and at the same time encouraged modernization. The British imprisoned him for seven years during the Mau Mau rebellion. He was the first elected president after British colonial rule.

Arusha Declaration – An economic policy created by Tanzanian president Julius Nyerere in 1972. His socialist goal, known as villagization, was to relocate people from small rural farms to larger communities where they could be better serviced. Ultimately the aim was to make Tanzania a self-sufficient country.

All African People's Conference – Was actually a political organization which held a series of conferences in the late 1950s and 1960s attended by African nations who were either independent, or who wanted to be independent.

Afrikaner – A native of South Africa who is of European descent.

Native Land Act (1913) - Part of the apartheid legislation of the south African government, the Native Land Act was enacted to limit the amount of land that could be acquired by a “native” South African. The policy was overturned with the removal of apartheid in the 1990s.

Apartheid - Once the official policy of South Africa, which adopted a strict separation of people based on color.

African Nationalist Congress – A political organization in South Africa to represent the blacks and wanted an end to apartheid. Until the 1990s this organization was considered illegal.

Mandela, Nelson - Black South African political figure. The authorities for protesting against apartheid imprisoned him. He was elected president of South Africa in 1994.

Great Leap Forward - Chinese economic policy of Mao that was introduced in 1958 and ended in 1960 after it proved to be a disaster.

Cultural Revolution - A movement in China that was started in 1956 by Mao to reassert his political authority. The movement ended in 1968.

Red Guard – A policy created by Mao in which students left the classroom to form military units known as the Red Guard. The Red Guard was in the forefront of Cultural Revolution.

Xiao Ping, Deng – The leader of China after 1976. Deng had been one of the old revolutionaries like Mao and Zhou. Unlike his predecessors Deng supported new economic policies and was willing to accept a modified form of capitalism. His series of reforms became known as the “Second Revolution.” He was the leader during the student protests in Tiananmen Square.

Enlai, Zhou – One of the founders of the Chinese Communist Party. He opened China to the world by inviting the American table tennis team to his country. In 1971 President Nixon visited Zhou.

Japanese miracle – Refers to the rapid economic growth in Japan following the Second World War. For almost three decades the Japanese economy showed

unprecedented gains. One of the main reasons was American military protectionism, which saved the Japanese from spending on national defense.

Gandhi, Mohandas - Through a life of abstinence and prayer he led the independence movement in India. Known to Indians as “the Great Soul” he was jailed by the British but refused to compromise. A Hindu fanatic assassinated him.

Jinnah, Mohammed Ali - Indian nationalist and founder of Pakistan.

Muslim League - Political organization of India and Pakistan, founded in 1906 to safeguard the political rights of Muslims. In 1940, under the leadership of Mohammad Ali Jinnah it demanded the establishment of a Muslim state (Pakistan.)

Nehru, Jawaharlal - Successor of Gandhi who governed India after independence in 1947.

Gandhi, Indira - Daughter of Jawaharlal Nehru who was Prime minister of India four times. People either loved her or hated her. She was assassinated by Sikh extremists in her own bodyguard.

Marcos, Ferdinand - He led the Philippines between 1965 and 1986. Initially he was very popular but rumors of corruption and protests against him led to his downfall.

Aquino, Corazon - She was elected the leader of the Philippines after Marcos.

Campeños - The name given to poor farmer workers in Latin America. The people migrated to the cities in search of jobs and opportunities.

Perón, Eva - Argentine actress and later politician. She was the wife of President Juan Perón and was loved by the millions of poor people. However she was hated by the military and seen as a socialist threat.

Pinochet, Augusto - He led the government of Chile after the death of Allende in 1973. General Pinochet ended democracy and became a ruthless dictator. He censored the press, and abolished civil liberties, but more significant he had thousands killed.

Salinas de Gortari, Carlos - He was elected president of Mexico in 1988 and began reforms aimed at improving the Mexican economy. Privatized many of Mexico’s industries and reversed the traditionally policy of state-managed industry. He was instrumental in signing NAFTA.

Zapatistas - The name taken by the guerilla army of Native American peasants in southern Mexico. They opposed NAFTA and wanted a greater say in the Mexican government.

Chamorro, Violeta - In 1990 she was elected head of the Nicaraguan government in 1990 with strong support from the United States.

Sandinistas – Originally a rebel group in Nicaragua, which opposed the U.S.-backed Somoza family.

Contras – The opposition to the Sandinistas in Nicaragua. They were backed by the United States. As part of the Reagan Doctrine the United States recruited, trained, and armed the Contras in their fight against the Leftist Sandinistas.

Reagan, Ronald - He was elected president of the United States in 1980 on the promise of reducing the budget deficit. The economy did improve, but increased military spending caused the deficit to increase again.

United Nations Security Council – The most arm of the United Nations. When the Security Council makes a recommendation the other states are required to carry it out. There are five permanent members (based on the victors of World War II – United States, Great Britain, China, France, and the Russian Federation.) Ten other nations are elected to the General Assembly for two-year terms.

North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) - In 1993 Mexico, Canada, and the United States all signed the North American Free Trade Agreement promising to remove trade barriers and quotas between the three countries.

Al Qaeda – Islamic terror organization involved in terrorist activities around the world. Led by Osama bin Laden the organization was responsible for the attacks on the World Trade Center towers in New York and the Pentagon in 2001.

Bin Laden, Osama – Recognized as the head of the Al Qaeda terrorist network. Perhaps the most-wanted man in the world, a bounty of \$50 million has been offered for his capture. He is believed to be hiding in the mountainous region between Afghanistan and Pakistan.

Taliban – Islamic movement that ruled Afghanistan between 1996 and 2001.

Operation Enduring Freedom – Initially called Operation Infinite Justice, later renamed Operation Enduring Freedom is the war against terrorism. It has primarily been centered on Afghanistan and the capture of Osama bin Laden.

Patriot Act – The Patriot act was enacted in response to the attacks on the United States in 2001. The law allows the government to keep suspected terrorists in jail indefinitely and without trial. The act also greatly enhanced the powers of the national security agencies. Criticism has come from the Civil Liberties Union, which claims the act violates the rights of many people, especially with regard to the Fourth Amendment.

Bush Doctrine – After September 11, 2001 the United States changed its foreign policy. The Bush Doctrine stated that there was no difference between a terrorist and those who harbor terrorists. The policy also allows for a pre-emptive attack against a threat to the United States or any nation making weapons of mass destruction.

United Nations Resolution 1441 – This Resolution offered Saddam Hussein one final opportunity to allow weapons inspectors to search for weapons in Iraq. There had been previous Resolutions but they had been ignored. The Resolution was adopted unanimously by the United Nation’s Security Council in November 2002.

Coalition Provisional Authority – Following the overthrow of Saddam Hussein in 2003 the United States established the Coalition Provisional Authority to administer

Iraq until sovereignty was declared in June 2004. The CPA was headed by American Paul Bremer.

Green Zone - A 10-square mile zone in the center of Baghdad, Iraq, which serves as the political and administrative center of the government for the Coalition Provisional Authority

Rabin, Yitzhak - Israeli politician who served as the first native-born Prime minister from 1974-77 and 1992-95. Faced with the intifada, in 1988 Rabin adopted a hard line uncompromising approach to toward the Palestinians. He was assassinated in 1995.

Oslo Accords – A step towards resolving the Palestine-Israeli conflict. Signed in 1993 in the presence of PLO chairman Yasser Arafat, Israeli Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin and US President Bill Clinton. The document was signed by Mahmoud Abbas for the PLO, foreign Minister Shimon Peres for Israel, Secretary of State Warren Christopher for the United States and foreign minister Andrei Kozyrev for Russia.

Wye River Accords – Discussions between Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu and PLO Chairman Yasser Arafat in Maryland, and observed by President Clinton regarding the Gaza Strip and the West bank. The treaty was signed at the White House in 1998. With the outbreak of the Al-Aqsa Intifada in 2000 the Accords were abandoned.

Commonwealth of Independent States – In 1991 the republics that made up the Soviet Union declared their independence. Led by Russia and Boris Yeltsin eleven of the republics formed the Confederation of Independent States.

“Shock Therapy” – Boris Yeltsin’s plan to adopt a much more free-market economy for Russia. He lowered trade barriers, removed price control, and ended subsidies. Initially it led to massive inflation and higher unemployment.

Putin, Vladimir – Putin was elected President of Russia in 2000. he won re-election by a landslide in 2003, but the election was seen by many as unfair and possibly corrupt.

Genocide – The deliberate and systematic destruction of a group of people, usually because of race, religion, or ethnicity.

Ethnic Cleansing - The policy of either killing or removing people of a different culture, religion, or ethnicity from a particular area. Most recently witnessed in the Balkans during the 1990s.

Dayton Accords – In 1995 at Dayton Air Base President Milosevic of Serbia, President Tudjman of Croatia, President Izetbegovic of Bosnia signed an agreement to end the war in Yugoslavia.

Command economy – An economic system in which the prices and supply of products is regulated by the government and not the free market. The former Soviet Union used a command economy.

Tiananmen Square - In April 1989 over 100,000 students demonstrators gathered in Beijing's Tiananmen Square. After several weeks the Chinese government ordered the army to disperse the demonstrators. As the army moved in many students were killed and many more wounded as the government wiped out political dissent.

Maastricht Treaty – The Maastricht Treaty was signed in 1992 and in 1993 it created the European Union (EU) and the Euro.

Single European Act – A revision of the Treaty of Rome the Single European Act was an attempt to create a single European currency and bank. The act went into effect in 1987.

Globalization – Refers to the spread of regional ideas, markets, etc to an interchanging, interconnected, and expanded world view. A great deal of globalization has been fuelled by the development of technology. The main focus for globalization is economic development.

Market economy – An economic system in which the prices and services are determined by a free market system that follows the laws of supply and demand.

Laissez-faire capitalism – Minimal governmental interference in the economic affairs. Espoused by Adam Smith and François Quesnay.

Corporatism – A system in which major businesses with similar interests join together to pass legislation that is intended to benefit the whole entity.

Protectionism – An economic system that limited free trade by using such practices as tariffs, quotas, and regulations.

World Trade Organization – The WTO is an international organization created in 1995 to supervise world trade and compliance with trade agreements.

Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) - A cartel of oil-producing countries that regulate the production and price of oil.

Non-governmental Organizations (NGO's) – Organization that does not have any allegiance to any particular government.

Cultural imperialism – The process whereby one society forces its cultural identity upon another society. Usually the aggressor nation is far more powerful and wealthy and the victim simply cannot prevent the process.