World History

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Kymberli has a BA in history and political science from Alma College, a MA in education from Michigan State University, and a MA in American History and Government from Ashland University. She was named a James Madison Fellow in 2011, was chosen as the Michigan Council for the Social Studies High School Educator of the Year in 2015, and is a two year member of the iCivics Educator Network. Kymberli teaches at her high school alma mater where her courses include Civics, World History, Current Events, Women’s Studies, and World Cultures, as well as serving on the school’s technology committee and school improvement team. Additionally, she teaches Intro to American Government at North Central Michigan College, and will be expanding to teach a history

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Rebecca Bush is currently the Social Studies Consultant at the Ottawa Area Intermediate School District (OAISD), where she assists K-12 social studies teachers in developing curriculum, modeling instructional strategies in social studies literacy, and designing district-level formative and summative assessments. Additionally, as Project Director, she has written and received multiple Teaching American History grants, working with teachers throughout an eight-county radius. She has presented at various national conferences on multiple topics surrounding social studies instruction as well as innovative techniques and topics in formative and summative assessment design. Currently she is Co-Project Director of The Performance Assessments of Social Studies Thinking (PASST) Project and assists with the professional development of teacher writers for the MI Open Book Project where she serves as an editor of several of the project’s texts. Rebecca currently leads
Chapter 11

Does extreme Nationalism Always Lead to Revolution?

1. At what point does the extent of nationalism become harmful to the people of the nation?

2. Does nationalism always precede revolution or is it sometimes an after-effect?

3. What were some of the political, economic, and cultural ways of thinking that lead each of the countries in this chapter to adopt an extreme policy of nationalism?

4. Were the circumstances that brought about nationalism in each of the countries in this chapter similar?

5. What role did the U.S. play in strengthening Latin American nationalism?
QUESTIONs TO GUIDE INqUiry

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TRERS, PEOPLE, PLACES

Nationalism
Self-determination
Economic nationalism
Cultural nationalism
Good Neighbor Policy

Making Sense of “Nationalism”

Often times nationalism is defined as the belief by people of a nation who believe their nation is superior to all other nations. Most often, this sense of superiority has its roots in a shared ethnicity. Some countries build nationalism around a shared language, religion, culture, or set of social values. The nation emphasizes shared symbols, folklore, and mythology. Often, shared cultural characteristics such as music, literature, and sports may further strengthen nationalism.

Frequently, the terms nationalism and patriotism are used interchangeably; because there is rarely a simple, easily understood division between the two terms, it’s no wonder why. Perhaps the most articulated division between nationalism and patriotism came from George Orwell when he wrote:

“Nationalism is not to be confused with patriotism. Both words are normally used in so vague a way that any definition is liable to be challenged, but one must draw a distinction between them, since two different and even opposing ideas are involved. By ‘patriotism’ I mean devotion to a particular place and a particular way of life, which one believes to be the best in the world but has no wish to force on other people. Patriotism is of its nature defensive, both militarily and culturally. Nationalism, on the other hand, is inseparable from the desire for power. The abiding purpose of every nationalist is to secure more power and more prestige,
not for himself but for the nation or other unit in which he has chosen to sink his own individuality.”

Put another way, patriotism is love of country while nationalism is love of country combined with dislike of other countries, their peoples, or their cultures. The definition also includes the dislike of fellow citizens inside a nation who are different. This is why nationalists often support nation-building campaigns of government schooling to assimilate citizens to a state-determined norm, national languages, and other means of creating ethnic, religious, or other types of uniformity.

How Does Nationalism Work?

Nationalists demand to be independent of other countries. They don’t join global organizations or collaborate with other countries on joint efforts. If the people are part of another nation, then they will want freedom and their own state. Because they believe in the superiority of their shared attribute, nationalists often stereotype different ethnic, religious, or cultural groups. The result which is often prejudice, keeps the nation unified. Intolerance can lead to a desire to rid the country of those deemed as "different." In an extreme form, it can lead to ethnic cleansing and genocide.

Those who believe strongly in nationalism work toward a self-governing state. The government controls aspects of the economy in order to promote the nation’s self-interest.

It sets policies that strengthen the domestic entities that own the most if not all of the factors of production: capital goods, entrepreneurship, natural resources, and labor. Nationalists don’t care whether the government or private businesses own the factors of production, as long as they make the nation stronger. Trade policy is based on protectionism which subsidizes domestic industries that are believed to be of national interest, including tariffs and quotas on foreign imports.

Can Nationalism Ever be Neutralized?

Many believed that hostile actions of countries as a result of an extreme sense of nationalism would have been neutralized in the aftermath of WWI. And to help ensure international world peace, one of the ideas behind the League of Nations was the principle of national self-determination that would create a world of independent nation states, free of outside interference. If the basis of each nation’s concerns were only related to external threats (invasion, colonization, etc.) the League of Nations might have been extremely successful. However, many of the nations around the world that experienced division and in many instances, revolution, did so due to the internal strife and the political, economic, and social instabilities that occurred from within. The region of Latin America was one such example.
Strife in Latin America

In the early years of the 20th century, Latin America experienced a booming economy due to its exports largely existing of natural resources and cash crops. In exchange, produced goods were purchased from the industrialized nations from which Latin America was trading. Stable governments such as Argentina and Uruguay (who had democratic governments) helped keep the region’s economy on solid ground. Unfortunately, military dictatorships in some nations and wealthy landowners held the real power. Economic benefits tended to be isolated to the small ruling class while the growing middle class and lower classes (workers and peasants) had no say in their own government. Both political and economic inequalities weighed heavily on many Latin American nations but in Mexico, those inequalities led to situations that eventually brought about an explosive revolution.

The Mexican Revolution

By 1910, the dictator of Mexico, Porfirio Diaz, had ruled Mexico for 35 years, leading Mexico to experience peace and economic growth through the welcoming of foreign investors who improved the extraction of natural resources and transportation systems within the country. However, by 1910, unrest by peasants, workers, and the urban middle class had boiled over. Francisco Madero, a liberal reformer from an elite family demanded free elections. Diaz saw rebellion in several parts of the country and resigned in 1911. A bloody, complicated struggle soon began that engulfed the entire nation. By 1917, Venustiano Carranza was elected president of Mexico who reluctantly approved a new constitution that included multiple land and labor reforms.

Mexico’s revolutionary attempt to reclaim greater control over its natural resources reflected a familiar spirit of nationalism that pervaded Latin America; much of the focus involved ending economic dependence by industrialized nations (mainly the U.S. and Britain), but political and cultural independence were also common goals behind many revolutions of the time that occurred around the globe.

Economic Nationalism

In the decades after WWI, world events greatly impacted economies in Latin American nations. The Great Depression that started in the U.S. and spread throughout the world led to a huge drop in the demand for Latin American exports which in turn led to the decline of Latin American economies. Economic nationalism, the emphasis on domestic control and protection of a nation’s own economy, swept most Latin American nations. The goal of each nation was to develop its own industries to lessen dependence on products from other countries.

Cooperation between business and government leaders was

Interactive 11.1 The Mexican Revolution

This short but comprehensive video does an excellent job of illustrating some of the long-lasting reforms in The Constitution of 1917 that are still in force in Mexico today.
essential for economic nationalism to work. Local entrepreneurs established factories for the production of goods while governments also invested in new businesses with some even taking a more aggressive approach and taking over foreign-owned assets. Although attempts at establishing economic nationalism were partially successful, the unequal distribution of wealth is the factor that held back economic development.

**Political Nationalism**

One effect of the economic crises faced by many Latin American nations was a shift in public opinion with regard to political leadership. Many lost faith in the ruling oligarchies and European, liberal ideas of government. In response, stronger, authoritarian governments of different types replaced liberal oligarchies in the hopes that each country’s economy could be more effectively controlled, directed, and likewise, protected.

**Cultural Nationalism**

During the 1920s, many artists, writers, and thinkers in Latin America began to reject European cultural influences. Instead, cultural nationalism—pride in one’s own country became a unique cultural blend of Western and native traditions. In the 1920s and 1930s, many Mexican muralists (artists who paint murals) such as Diego Rivera, David Alfaro Siqueiros, and Jose Clemente Orozco created spectacular works that portrayed the struggles of Mexicans for liberty.
The U.S. Becomes a Good Neighbor

After WWI, while British investments in Latin America declined, U.S. investments soared. To protect its investments, the United States took on the role of international policeman--restoring order between two arguing factions, when it felt U.S. interests had been threatened. By the 1930s, as anti-American sentiments had increased in Latin America, President Roosevelt took a new approach. Known as the **Good Neighbor Policy**, the U.S. promised to interfere less in Latin American affairs. After the policy was enacted, the U.S. withdrew troops stationed in Haiti and Nicaragua. The Platt Amendment, which had limited Cuban independence, was lifted and the President supported Mexico’s nationalization of its oil companies. The Good Neighbor Policy went a long way toward improving relations between Latin America and the United States along with strengthening Latin American nationalism.
Section 2
Nationalism in Africa and the Middle East

QUESTIONS TO GUIDE INQUIRY

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TERMS, PEOPLE, PLACES

Apartheid
Pan-Africanism
Negritude movement
Pan-Arabism
Balfour Declaration

Resistance of Colonial Rule

By 1914 at the outbreak of WWI, ninety percent of the continent of Africa was under European colonial rule—Ethiopia and Liberia were the only two nations that remained independent. The story of West Africa after the Berlin Conference in 1885, revolved around 5 major themes:

- the establishment of European colonies,
- the consolidation of political authority,
- the development of the colonies through forced labor,
- the cultural transformation of West Africa, and West African Resistance,
- the economic transformation of West Africa and West African Resistance

During the war, more than one million Africans had fought on behalf of their respective colonial rulers with the hopes that their service would be rewarded with more rights and opportunities once the war had ended. Unfortunately, the situation remained the same or in some cases, even worsened. Many continued to be forced to work on plantations or in mines, and in some areas under British
rule. All Africans were forced to carry identification cards, pay taxes, and were subject to restricted travel.

**South African Nationalism and Racial Segregation**

By 1940, whites had strengthened their grip on South Africa through an imposed system of racial segregation to ensure social, political, and economic supremacy. Through newly passed legislation, racial inequity in employment was ensured. Blacks were forced into lower paying and less skilled jobs and were forced to live on reserves that were overcrowded and infertile. In a few provinces, blacks who had at one point owned land and been able to vote saw that right rescinded. When the South African policy of *apartheid*, a policy of rigid segregation of non-whites became law in 1948, previously held rights of blacks continued to be taken away.

**The Impact of Pan-Africanism**

During the 1920s, a movement known as Pan-Africanism began as a way of strengthening the spirit of nationalism as well as resistance movements in Africa. Its emphasis was on the unity of Africans and people of African descent, worldwide. Inspired by Marcus Garvey, W.E.B. DuBois, and later, Malcolm X, delegates from African colonies, the West Indies, and the U.S. established cooperation between African and American leaders to continue to push for rights for Africans.

As culture often reflects the social, political, and economic contexts of the time, the *negritude movement* was no exception. French-speaking writers in West Africa and the Caribbean continued to awaken and strengthen self-confidence among

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**Interactive 11.2 Apartheid Explained**

For a brief, but fairly comprehensive history of this system of rigid segregation that lasted for the better part of 50 years, watch this video clip

Africans through their writings which expressed pride in their African roots and protested colonial rule.

African nationalism brought little immediate political change with the exception of Egypt, where extreme protests, riots, and strikes forced Britain to grant the country its independence in 1922. Independence for many African nations would occur a few decades later as you can determine from the map below.

**Persia and Turkey Modernize**

Nationalist movements were not limited to countries in Europe and Africa; significant changes occurred in the Middle East as well after WWI. During the war, Arabs had helped the Allied powers defeat the Central powers, particularly the Ottoman Empire. In return for their help, Arabs had been led to believe by the Allied powers that they would gain independence after the war. That did not happen. The Ottoman Empire was near collapse by 1918--its Arab lands divided between France and Britain. In Asia Minor, Turks resisted Western control, fighting to build an independent and modern nation. The Treaty of Sevres, signed in 1920, by the reluctant Ottoman sultan, ceded Arab and North African lands as well as some land in Asia Minor, including Greece. As a Greek force landed in the city of Smyrna to claim the land on behalf of Greece, Turkish nationalists overthrew the Ottoman sultan and the Greek force, declaring Turkey a republic and calling for approximately 1.3 million Greeks to vacate the new Turkish lands. Under the leadership of Ataturk and through his radical reforms that included: replacing Islamic law with a European model, replacing a Muslim calendar with a Western (Christian) calendar, shifting the day of rest from Friday to Sunday, closing religious schools and instead opening state schools, forcing the wearing of Western-style clothing, replacing the Arabic language with the Latin alphabet, and giving women the right to vote and to work outside the home, Westernization transformed the nation of Turkey. Industrialized expansion occurred as Ataturk’s government increased infrastructure, established factories, and hired westerners for their advice as to how to help Turkey realize economic independence.

The success of Ataturk’s reforms in Turkey inspired nationalists in Persia. Turkey’s next door neighbors had greatly resented both Britain and Russia’s sphere of influence over Persia by 1907. In 1925, an enthusiastic officer in the Persian army, Reza Khan, led an overthrow of the current shah of Persia—establishing his own dynasty, Khan made himself shah. In a fashion similar to Ataturk, Khan moved quickly to modernize Persia and make it independent. His strengthening of the army, building of factories and development of an infrastructure, in addition to the mandatory wearing of Western clothes, the encouragement of women to take part in public life, and persuasion of British controlled oil producers to give Persia a greater share of profits from Persian oil production, were responsible for economic independence in Persia. Oil would continue to become a major factor, not just in Persia, but throughout the Middle East during...
this time period as foreign countries would begin to move in to exploit large oil reserves.

**Pan-Arabism Grows in the Middle East**

As a result of substantial foreign influence compounded by broken promises by former Allied nations during the war, Arab nationalism grew after WWI and gave rise to Pan-Arabism. Like Pan-Africanism, the nationalist movement was built on the shared heritage, history, and language of Arabs living from the Arabian Peninsula to North Africa. (The area encompassed by growing Pan-Arabism is what today includes the areas of Syria, Jordan, Iraq, Egypt, Algeria, and Morocco.) Pan-Arabism was a movement to free Arabs from foreign domination and unite them in their own state--similar to the goals of the Pan-Africanism movement in Africa. However, another botched promise would soon lead to a huge, bitter struggle in the Middle East.

In 1917, Britain attempted to win the support of Jews in Europe through the issuing of the **Balfour Declaration**. In the declaration, the British supported the idea of the establishment of what was referred to as “a national home for the Jewish people” in Palestine. However, the declaration helped set the stage for a conflict in Palestine because it also noted that “nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights” of communities in Palestine that had already existed. The already-existing communities were Arab and thus began conflict between Jewish and Arab nationalists.

As conflict ensued, the population of both groups multiplied. As anti-Semitism in Europe took hold, thousands of Jews emigrated to Palestine. Meanwhile, the Arab population was also increasing substantially. (See chart below.)

![Jewish Immigration Chart](https://d3n8a8pro7vhmx.cloudfront.net/cjpme/pages/985/attachments/original/1424469711/Jewish_immigration_chart.png?1424469711)

Even though they suffered great hardship, many Jewish settlers helped establish factories as well as farming communities and built new towns. While initially some Arabs welcomed the modern technological skills and wealth that accompanied Jewish newcomers, as Jewish immigration into Palestine exploded, tensions between the Jews and Arabs developed. As Jewish organizations attempted to purchase as much land as possible, Arabs did their best to drastically slow Jewish immigration.
Religious differences greatly increased the level of tension which led to Arab attacks on Jewish settlements with the hope of discouraging Jewish immigrants. In response, Jewish settlers established their own military defense force and for the remainder of the century Jews and Arabs continued to fight over the land that Jews called Israel and Arabs called Palestine.
Section 3

India Strives for Independence

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TERMS, PEOPLE, PLACES

Amritsar Massacre
Mohandas Gandhi
Ahimsa
Nonviolent resistance
Civil disobedience
Untouchables
Boycott

As you have read in a previous chapter, Britain had long held colonial ties to India. Just as nationalist ideals were taking root in countries throughout Eastern Europe, Africa, and the Middle East, the spirit of nationalism brought about much protest throughout the nation of India as well. As riots and attacks on British resident continued to increase in number and severity, one event was particularly impactful. On April 13, 1919, a peaceful, but rather large crowd of Indians had gathered in an enclosed field in the city of Amritsar, a city in northern India. Either ignoring or not
hearing the British commander, General Reginald Dyer’s order that public meetings were banned, many Indian leaders continued to speak. Gen. Dyer and 50 of his soldiers opened fire on the unarmed crowd, killing nearly 400 people and wounding more than 1,100. A turning point for many Indian people, the Amritsar Massacre convinced them that India needed to pursue self-rule.

Similar to broken promises made to both Africans and Arabs by Allied forces during the war, India suffered a similar situation. After the Amritsar Massacre, the Indian National Congress (which had been in existence since 1895) began to press for full independence for the Indian people. But because most of the leaders of the Indian National Congress were middle class, Western-educated elite, they couldn’t convince the masses of peasants that they were fighting for a common cause.

Mohandas Gandhi, who emerged on the scene in the 1920s, was the leader who was able to unite Indians across class lines.

Gandhi’s Push for Nonviolence

Many of Gandhi’s theories and ideas were rooted in Hindu traditions. He often preached the ancient doctrine of ahimsa, or nonviolence and reverence for all life. Emphasizing the power of love, Gandhi believed that people could inspire even the worst culprit to take the right course of action. He also advocated and practiced nonviolent resistance to fight social injustices.

One of the reasons Gandhi was such an inspirational and successful leader in India was his ability to integrate Western as well as Indian influences in his philosophy. He appreciated Christian teachings about the power of love. He believed in Thoreau’s ideas regarding civil disobedience and was also influenced by the Western ideas of nationalism and democracy. He encouraged equal rights for all Indians--both men and women. And from a class standpoint, Gandhi fought to end the harsh treatment of the untouchables--the members of the lowest castes in Indian society.
During the 1920s and 1930s, Gandhi put in motion a series of nonviolent protests against British rule by calling for a boycott—a refusal to purchase British goods, particularly cotton textiles. Gandhi tried to restore honor in the traditional industries that were present in India by making the spinning wheel a symbol of the nationalist movement. His many instances of civil disobedience attracted wide support.

The Salt March and its Impact on India

In addition to promoting the traditional industries of India, Gandhi also encouraged mass support of taking a stand against the British salt monopoly which he saw as an image of British oppression, especially because Indians were only allowed to purchase salt sold by the monopoly. On March 12, 1930, Gandhi and 78 followers embarked on a 240 mile march to the sea. As the group passed through villages enroute, many villagers responded to Gandhi’s message. By the time the group had reached the sea, marchers numbered in the thousands. On April 6th, as Gandhi waded into the surf and lifted a lump of salt he was arrested and jailed. Indians followed his lead as villages located on the coast collected salt and began selling it on the streets. Tens of thousands of Indians were jailed. One result was that Indians in coastal villages started collecting salt and selling it on city streets. The campaign that Gandhi started gained force and tens of thousands of Indians were imprisoned because of their actions during the campaign.

Gandhi’s campaign garnered international attention. Newspapers around the world publicized Britain’s harsh reaction to the protests that had occurred in India, especially the police brutality that ensued when peaceful marchers had tried to occupy a government saltworks. Slowly, Britain was forced to relinquish some of its power to Indians and eventually agreed to meet some demands of the Congress party.

Unfortunately, any progress that had been made toward India’s self-rule during the 1930s, stagnated in 1939 when WWII began. Indian leaders were outraged when they learned that Britain had decided not only to postpone India’s independence but had brought India into the war without India’s consent. Indians were conflicted in their responses. While many angry nationalists were jailed because they launched a campaign of noncooperation, many Indians did help Britain during the war.
Questions to Guide Inquiry

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Terms, People, Places

- Twenty-One Demands
- May Fourth Movement
- Vanguard
- Guomindang

China Faces Many Troubles

From reading previous chapters, you know that China’s Qing dynasty had collapsed in 1911. Sun Yixian, also known as Sun Yat-sen, as the new leader, made little progress as he tried to rebuild the country on the “Three Principles of the People”—nationalism, democracy, and economic security for all. China quickly fell into chaos due to warlord uprisings and imperialism from foreign powers.

Warlord Uprisings

In 1912, Sun Yixian stepped down as president in hopes that a powerful general, Yuan Shikai would be able to create a strong national government. Instead, the ambitious general tried to set up a dynasty. Without the military’s support however, opposition ended up dividing the nation and by the time Shikai died in 1916, China’s disarray worsened as local warlords seized power in provinces. Rival armies battled for control and the economy collapsed. Those who suffered most were the millions of peasants who faced famine and attacks by bandits.

Foreign Imperialism

While China’s government was weak internally, foreign powers (merchants, missionaries, soldiers) soon dominated China’s open ports. You may remember that during WWI, Japanese officials had presented Shikai with the Twenty-One
Demands—a list of demands that would hopefully make China a Japanese protectorate. At the time China had been too weak to resist and Shikai gave in to some (not all) of those demands. In 1919, at the Paris Peace Conference, the Allies granted Japan control over some former German possessions within the country of China which angered China’s nationalists. The result was the May Fourth Movement—a cultural and intellectual movement with the goal of strengthening the country. With a concerted effort to reject Confucian traditions and embrace more Western ideas while employing the assistance of women in campaigning to end many traditional practices, many doors were opened to women in education and in the economy.

Marxism Appeals to Many

While some Chinese turned to the rejection of long-held traditions, some turned to the revolutionary ideas of Lenin and Marx. The Soviets were more than willing to teach and train Chinese students and officers to become the vanguard—the elite leaders of a communist revolution. The Soviets were successful as by the 1920s, there existed a small group of Chinese Communists who had formed their own political party.

Further Struggles for China

In 1921, Sun Yat-sen and his Nationalist Party, also known as the Guomindang, established a government in the southern part of China. His plan was to raise an army to defeat warlords and then spread his rule and that of the Nationalist Party throughout China. After Western democracies refused to help, Sun Yixian enlisted the aid of the Soviet Union to help his Nationalist Party.

Democracy vs. Communism

After Sun Yixian died in 1925, leadership of the Guomindang went to an energetic young army officer named Jiang Jieshi, also known as Chiang Kai-Shek. While determined to end the power of the warlords, he had no interest in establishing either a democratic or communist government. By 1926, Jieshi began what was known as the Northern Expedition in cooperation with the communist party in China. He led forces into the northern China crushing the warlords located there and eventually capturing Beijing. He was able to take control of China under a new government but without communist rule. By 1927, as Jiang saw the Communist Party in China as a substantial threat to his rule, he ordered the Guomindang troops to attack communist party members in several cities. In cities like Shanghai thousands were slaughtered. This massacre was the start of a bitter civil war between the Communists and the Guomindang that would last for 22 years.

One individual who managed to escape Jiang’s brutal attack was a young revolutionary named Mao Zedong, also known as Mao Tse-tung. Mao had come from peasant origins, and believed that the Communists should most seek support from the large peasant masses. Although Jiang’s army continued to pursue
communists throughout the country, Mao remained optimistic and believed that he and Communist Party members would eventually be successful.

The Long March

Determined to destroy the “Red bandits” as he called them, Jieshi led the Guomindang in a series of “extermination campaigns” against the communists. Mao’s army was harassed throughout what became known as The Long March which lasted from 1934 to 1935. The Long March was significant because it was during this series of battles where Mao emerged as the undisputed leader of the Chinese Communist Party. As thousands of young Chinese learned of the heroism and determination of the Communist Party, many traveled far distances to enlist in Mao’s Red army. Combined with Mao’s insistence that the soldiers under his command were to treat peasants politely, pay for all goods, and protect farmlands to win support of the peasant class, Mao’s Red army was widely accepted.

Japan Invades

While Jiang and Mao were fighting for control over China’s government, Japan invaded the northeastern region of China, known as Manchuria in 1931, adding it to the expanding Japanese empire. Eventually, as the Japanese became more aggressive, Mao and Jiang realized that they would need to form a unified front against the Japanese. In 1937, the Japanese struck again which soon became the Second Sino-Japanese War. Jiang Jieshi’s government retreated to an interior region of China, establishing a new capital in the city of Chongqing.

After an extensive siege, the Japanese marched into the former capital of Nanjing, forcing the city to surrender. Afterwards, the Japanese killed hundreds of thousands of Chinese soldiers as well as civilians. The cruelty towards the Chinese and the mass destruction to the city was known as the “rape of Nanjing.” The united front of the Communists and the Guomindang forces fought back along with the assistance of advisors and equipment from the Soviet Union and economic aid from France, Great Britain, and the United States. The united front remained intact until the end of war with Japan in 1945.

Interactive 11.3 China’s Revolutions

The following clip is an important one because it provides a synopsis of China’s political upheavals through time from the events of the Boxer Rebellion through the Long March and the eventual establishment of China’s Communist government under leader Mao Tse-tung.