

Indigenous Responses to State Expansion

There have been repeated outcries directed to me by the indigenous peoples of this and surrounding provinces, outcries against the abuses committed by European-born crown officials. . . . Justified outcries that have produced no remedy from the royal courts.

—Túpac Amaru II, c. 1780

Essential Question: How and why did internal and external factors influence state building between 1750 and 1900?

In response to European imperialism, nationalist movements emerged throughout South America, Africa, and Asia. Often the movements' leaders, such as Túpac Amaru II in Peru, had European style educations. Many had developed a deep understanding of such Enlightenment ideals as natural rights, sovereignty, and nationalism. Some worked in official posts in colonial government. Some colonial elites used the education that imperialism provided them to drive out their conquerors in the 20th century. Anti-imperial resistance often created new states.

Nationalist Movements in the Balkans

At its most powerful, the Ottoman Empire stretched deep into Europe. However, by the early 19th century, it was losing its hold on its remaining European territories in the **Balkan Peninsula**. Inspired by the French Revolution, ethnic nationalism emerged as the peoples of the Balkans sought independence. The growing ethnic tensions in the region set the stage for World War I.

Serbia (1815) and Greece (1832) won independence only after long wars. Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, and Bulgaria all rebelled against Ottoman rule. In 1877, Serbia and Russia came to their aid in what was to be the last and most important Russo-Turkish War. After the war ended in 1878, the Treaty of Berlin freed Bulgaria, Romania, and Montenegro but placed Bosnia and Herzegovina under the control of Austria-Hungary.

Resistance and Rebellion in the Americas

In North America, following the British victory over the French in the French and Indian War, the British issued the **Proclamation of 1763**. This act reserved all the land between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River for Native Americans—the first time a European government had recognized the territorial rights of indigenous peoples. However, the British colonists resented this interference in colonial affairs. After winning independence, citizens of the new United States soon overran the Ohio and Illinois river valleys, displacing Native Americans.

Cherokee Nation After 1800, the Cherokee assimilated to white settler culture, adopting colonial methods of farming, weaving, and building. They developed a syllabic alphabet for writing their language. Within a short time, almost the entire tribe was literate, and the *Cherokee Phoenix* became the first Native American newspaper in the United States. The **Cherokee nation** adopted a constitution based on the U.S. Constitution.

But assimilation did not save the Cherokee from white Americans' greed. After the discovery of gold in 1829 on Cherokee land in Georgia, attempts began to force the Cherokee off their land. After Congress passed the **Indian Removal Act** of 1830, the Cherokee and other Southeast Native American tribes were forced to relocate to what is now Oklahoma. U.S. expansionism continued, affecting many Native American peoples.

Ghost Dance In the northwestern United States around 1869, prophet-dreamers among the Northern Paiute Indians announced that the dead would soon come back and drive out the whites, restoring the lands and traditions of Native Americans. The **Ghost Dance** rituals of dances and songs were meant to hasten this event. The Ghost Dance spread from the Sierra Nevada to the Missouri River and from northern Texas to the Canadian border. It reached the Sioux by 1890, coinciding with the Sioux revolts. Sioux warriors wore “ghost shirts.” However, the Ghost Dance resistance movement fell at the Wounded Knee Massacre in 1890, marking the end of the Indian Wars.

Túpac Amaru II José Gabriel Condorcanqui was a *cacique* (hereditary chief) in southern Peru. He was descended from the last Inca ruler, Túpac Amaru, and took the name **Túpac Amaru II**. Born around 1740, he continued to identify with his Inca heritage in spite of having received a formal Jesuit education. In 1780 he arrested and executed a colonial administrator, charging him with cruelty. This action led to the last general Indian revolt against Spain, which at first was supported by some *criollos* (Spaniards born in America). The revolt spread throughout southern Peru and into Bolivia and Argentina before Túpac Amaru II and his family were captured in March 1781. They were taken to Cuzco, the former capital of the Inca empire. There Túpac Amaru II was forced to watch as his wife and sons were executed before he was tortured and executed himself.



French Intervention in Mexico In 1863 a group of Mexican conservatives conspired with Emperor Napoleon III of France to overthrow the liberal government of **Benito Juárez**, a full-blooded Zapotec. Mexico owed France money, and Napoleon III wanted to further his imperialist ambitions. He offered to make a European noble, Archduke Maximilian, the emperor of Mexico. Maximilian was crowned on June 10, 1864. After three more years of war, Mexicans forced the French to withdraw from Mexico. Maximilian was executed on June 19, 1867, and Juárez resumed the presidency.

South Asian Movements

By the mid-19th century, **sepoys**, Indian soldiers under British employ, made up the majority of the British armed forces in colonial India. Most were Hindus or Muslims. In 1857, the British began using rifle cartridges that had been greased with a mixture of the fat of cows and pigs. Hindus, who view the cow as sacred, and Muslims, who refuse to slaughter pigs, were both furious. Both were convinced that the British were trying to convert them to Christianity. Their violent uprising, known as the **Indian Rebellion of 1857** or the Sepoy Mutiny, spread throughout cities in northern India. The British crushed the rebellion, killing thousands, but the event marked the emergence of Indian nationalism.

After the Indian Rebellion, Britain also exiled the Mughal emperor for his involvement in the rebellion and ended the Mughal Empire. In its place, the British government took a more active role in ruling India. From 1858 until India won independence in 1947, the British **Raj**, the colonial government, took its orders directly from the British government in London.

Under the Raj, many Indians attended British universities. In 1885, several British-educated Indians established the **Indian National Congress**. Though begun as a forum for airing grievances to the colonial government, it quickly began to call for self-rule. (Connect: Compare the motives and outcomes of the Haitian Revolution with those of the Indian Rebellion of 1857. See Topic 5.2.)



Source: Wikimedia Commons

The first meeting of the Indian National Congress in 1885 was dominated by Hindu representatives. As a result, many Indian Muslims were suspicious of it.

Southeast Asian Resistance

By the 1880s, the only independent country remaining in Southeast Asia was Siam (Thailand). The rest of the region was under the control of the Spanish, Dutch, British, and French.

Vietnam From the beginning of French colonialism in the region, many Vietnamese resisted. By 1884, when 12-year-old Ham Nghi became emperor, his top advisers were vocal critics of the French. The French soon tried to assert their control by raiding the royal palace, but the young emperor had been removed for safety. Ham Nghi's supporters continued to resist French rule until he was captured in 1888 and exiled to Algeria. The resistance continued until 1895 under Phan Dinh Phung, who became a hero to future revolutionaries in the Vietnamese resistance movement.

Philippine Resistance The **Philippines** came under Spanish control in the 16th century, but there was no public education there until 1863. However, wealthy Filipinos sent their sons to Europe to study. One of those young men, **José Rizal**, started a reform movement called Liga Filipina (Philippine League) in 1892. Though the Liga was loyal to Spain, the Spanish feared it. They promptly arrested and executed Rizal, an action that shocked many Filipinos.

There had been numerous rebellions throughout the history of Spanish rule, but now, for the first time, Filipinos had nationalist ambitions and the education needed to carry them out. In 1896 several revolts broke out in provinces around Manila, marking the beginning of the **Philippine Revolution**. The **Spanish-American War** broke out in 1898, and after a decisive American victory in the Battle of Manila Bay, exiled Filipino revolutionaries returned. Based on U.S. sympathy for Philippine independence, the rebels expected freedom.

However, the **Treaty of Paris** ending the war merely transferred control of the Philippines from Spain to the United States. By the time the treaty was ratified in February 1899, hostilities had broken out in what was to be known as the **Philippine-American War**. The war ended in a U.S. victory in 1902. An estimated 20,000 Filipino troops were killed, and more than 200,000 civilians died as a result of the war. Of the 4,300 Americans who lost their lives, nearly two-thirds of them died of disease. Organized resistance continued until 1906, but the Philippines remained a U.S. possession until 1946.

Resistance in Australia and New Zealand

The **Aboriginal** people have been in Australia for an estimated 50,000 years and have the oldest continuous culture on Earth. At the time of European settlement, there may have been as many as 1 million people in 500 clans, speaking 700 languages.

Australia In 1788, the British began sending convicts and soldiers to establish colonies in New South Wales. The government instructed the settlers

to treat the indigenous inhabitants kindly. However, the colonial government did not recognize indigenous land ownership. Further, because the indigenous inhabitants were not considered British subjects, they were not protected by law. Thousands of Aboriginal people were killed as they tried to defend their territory and resources from European settlers.

New Zealand Compared to the Aboriginals in Australia, New Zealand's **Maori** were newcomers, having arrived from Polynesia in the 14th century. Under the 1840 **Treaty of Waitangi**, Britain had promised to protect the property rights of the Maori. Within a short time, the Maori became alarmed by British settlement patterns, and the first of a series of **Maori Wars** broke out. The British were eventually able to overcome the Maori in 1846. Relations deteriorated again in the 1850s as the Maori became reluctant to sell more land to settlers, fearing for their future. Ignoring the promise of the Treaty of Waitangi, the government attempted to pressure the Maori to sell land, sending troops in 1861 to dislodge the Maori from the property in question. Another decade of fighting ensued. The war ended in an uneasy peace in 1872, but by 1900 the Maori had lost most of their land.

African Resistance

Organized African resistance to imperialism developed later than Indian resistance. One reason for this difference in timing is that European powers had been in India much longer than they had been in Africa. In addition, British colonial governments in India were partially run by Indians, while colonial governments in Africa were largely run by military officials from Europe. However, by the end of the World War I (1914–1918), Western-educated Africans had a shared identity and nationalism known as **Pan-Africanism**.

Sokoto Caliphate In West Africa in the 18th century, rulers often mixed Islamic and traditional religious practices. In 1804, a group of Muslim intellectuals led by **Usman dan Fodio** (1754–1817) started a drive to purify Islam among the Hausa tribes of the region. He created a caliphate with its seat at the new town of Sokoto. The **Sokoto Caliphate** established the slave trade as a means of economic growth at a time when the British were trying to stop it. The British navy attempted to intercept ships carrying slaves, freeing them and relocating them in their colony Sierra Leone. The Sokoto Caliphate was the largest African empire since the 16th century. It was finally subdued in 1903 when the British made it part of their colony of Nigeria.

South Africa From 1811 to 1858, the British fought the native **Xhosa** people, who did not want to be ruled by Europeans, whether Dutch or English. In 1856–1857, in the region east of the Cape Colony, some of the cattle of the local Xhosa were getting sick and dying, perhaps from diseases caught from the cattle of the British settlers. The Xhosa began to kill their cattle and destroy their crops in the belief that these actions would cause spirits to remove the British settlers from their lands. Some 400,000 head of Xhosa



cattle may have been killed. The immediate result of the **Xhosa Cattle Killing Movement** was famine and the deaths of thousands of people. However, the British were not driven out of the area.

In the 1870s, the British fought the **Zulu Kingdom**, located on the South African coast of the Indian Ocean, which had become a well-organized and centralized state. At first, this **Anglo-Zulu War** went in favor of the Zulus, but eventually the British defeated them, and their lands became part of the British colony of South Africa.

Samory Touré's War In West Africa in 1868, Mande chieftain **Samory Touré** (1830–1900) led a group of warriors to establish a powerful kingdom in Guinea, extending it until the early 1880s. He opposed French attempts to annex West Africa, first fighting them in 1883. The French finally succeeded but offered Samory their protection. When he was unable to extend his kingdom to the east, he again went to war with the French in 1891. After his forces were ejected, he tried to reestablish his kingdom in the upper Ivory Coast. The French finally captured him in 1898 and sent him into exile.



Source: Archives Bordeaux Métropole
Samory Touré after his capture by the French, September 1898.



Mahdist Revolt In East Africa in 1881, a Sudanese Islamic cleric, **Muhammad Ahmad** (1844–1885), declared himself the **Mahdi**, or “guided one,” who would restore the glory of Islam. The Sudanese had resented Egyptian rule for decades, and the arrival of the British in 1873 only fueled their resentment. Ahmad turned the political movement into a religious one, forming an army to fight against Egypt. By 1882, the Mahdist army had taken control of the area around the capital, Khartoum. The next year, a joint British-Egyptian military expedition launched a counterattack against the Mahdists. The Mahdists finally overran the British-Egyptian forces in January 1885. After Ahmad’s death in June of that year, the Mahdist movement disintegrated, weakened by infighting among rival leaders. The British returned to **Sudan** in 1896, and finally defeated the Mahdists in September 1898.

Yaa Asantewaa War Beginning in 1823, the British made several attempts to subjugate the **Asante Empire** in present-day Ghana in West Africa. The first four were unsuccessful. The fifth and final war is known as the Yaa Asantewaa War or the War of the Golden Stool. It began in March 1900, when the British governor of the Gold Coast demanded the Golden Stool, a symbol of national unity. **Yaa Asantewaa** (1840–1921), a mighty warrior queen, led a rebellion against the British. It was the last African war led by a woman, and it resulted in the deaths of 2,000 Asante and 1,000 British. The death toll was higher than in the first four wars combined. The war ended in September 1900 with a British victory. Yaa Asantewaa was exiled, and Asante (as Ashanti) became part of the Gold Coast colony.

KEY TERMS BY THEME		
<p>GOVERNMENT: Rebel Leaders Túpac Amaru II José Rizal Usman dan Fodio Samory Touré Muhammad Ahmad Yaa Asantewaa</p> <p>GOVERNMENT: States Balkan Peninsula Vietnam Philippines Sokoto Caliphate Sudan Asante Empire</p>	<p>GOVERNMENT: Wars and Rebellions Ghost Dance Indian Rebellion of 1857 Philippine Revolution Spanish-American War Philippine-American War Maori Wars Xhosa Cattle Killing Movement Anglo-Zulu War</p> <p>GOVERNMENT: Treaties Treaty of Paris Treaty of Waitangi</p> <p>GOVERNMENT: Relations with Indigenous Peoples Proclamation of 1763 Indian Removal Act</p>	<p>GOVERNMENT: Organizations Indian National Congress</p> <p>CULTURE: Peoples Cherokee nation Aboriginal Maori Xhosa Zulu</p> <p>CULTURE: Ideas Mahdi Pan-Africanism</p> <p>SOCIETY: British in India sepoy Raj</p>

Global Economic Development

Peruvian guano [bird droppings] has become so desirable an article to the agricultural interest of the United States that it is the duty of the Government to employ all the means properly in its power for the purpose of causing that article to be imported into the country at a reasonable price.

—U.S. President Millard Fillmore, December 2, 1850

Essential Question: How did environmental factors contribute to the global economy between 1750 and 1900?

Economics was among the most influential of the several motives driving imperialism. Britain industrialized rapidly during the 1700s and 1800s. In order to feed industries' desires for raw materials, such as cotton, copper, and rubber, Europe looked to Asia and Africa. American agriculture, as noted by President Fillmore, looked to South America for fertilizer. The people of these continents were also potential consumers of European and American manufactured goods. Finally, colonial peoples provided the labor for large-scale projects, such as building railroads or telegraph lines. Colonial workers were paid meager wages for difficult and dangerous labor. In short, natural resources, new markets, and low-wage labor drove economic imperialism.

Technological Developments

The Industrial Revolution did not just take place in factories. It affected transportation and communication as well.

Railroads Before the introduction of **railroads**, transportation from the interiors of colonies to coastal ports was by water or by roads. Most colonies had few roads, and those that existed were usually poorly maintained and often unusable during rainy seasons. Transportation by water was limited to coastal areas and river basins. The introduction of railroads lowered the cost of transporting raw materials for shipment to Europe. At the same time, railroads helped open up colonial markets for manufactured goods.

Europeans often pointed to their railroad projects as evidence that imperialism helped the peoples of Asia and Africa. However, providing new transportation technology to the colonies primarily served the interests of the

colonizers. In India, the British built a complex railway network that stretched from the interior to the coasts in order to ship raw materials out of the country easily.

British-born **Cecil Rhodes** (1853–1902), founder of De Beers Diamonds, was an especially enthusiastic investor in a railroad project that was to stretch from Cape Town, in the Cape Colony of South Africa, to Cairo, Egypt. Connecting all of the British-held colonies with a transportation network could make governance easier and aid in mobilizing for war, if necessary. The project was never completed because Britain never gained control over all the land on which it was to be built. The overwhelming majority of railway workers in Africa were natives who were paid far lower wages than their European counterparts. Thus, railroad technology was a means of extracting as many resources as possible from subject lands while paying colonial laborers as little as possible.

Steamships Because they required huge quantities of coal as fuel, early **steamships** could travel only limited distances. However, steamboats could transport people, mail, and goods on navigable rivers such as the Ganges in South Asia and the Congo in Africa. After the development of more efficient steam engines in 1870, steamships became practical for long distances. In the 1870s, the development of compression refrigeration equipment made it possible to ship perishables such as meat and dairy products across oceans.

Telegraph Invented in 1832, the electric **telegraph** transformed communications. Instead of taking days, weeks, or even months, news could travel instantaneously. Telegraph service was introduced in India in 1850, just five years after it started in Britain. Telegraph lines often followed railroad routes. Submarine (underwater) telegraph cables soon crossed oceans. In 1866 the first permanent transatlantic cable was laid between the United States and England. Telegraph service between England and Australia was introduced in 1872, and in 1874 service between Portugal and Brazil allowed instant communication between Europe and South America.

Agricultural Products

When Europeans arrived in Asia and Africa, they found mainly agricultural economies, with most people raising enough food to live on—subsistence farming—with perhaps a little left over to sell. Subsistence farming is still common throughout Sub-Saharan Africa, Southeast Asia, and parts of Latin America. Under control of imperialist powers, subsistence farmers abandoned their traditional ways and grew **cash crops** instead. These were crops such as tea, cotton, sugar, oil palms, rubber, and coffee that were grown for their commercial value rather than for use by those who grew them. Imperial demands for cash crops had a damaging effect on subject nations. As cash crops replaced food crops, food prices rose.

The growing European middle classes created a demand for meat. Cattle ranches in Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay produced beef for export. Sheep herders in Australia and New Zealand exported lamb and mutton. New technology allowed meat to be shipped over long distances. Meat could be processed and canned in packing plants or shipped fresh or frozen in refrigerated steamships.

Guano, bat and seabird excrement, is rich in nitrates and phosphates. These make it an excellent natural fertilizer. Because of the dry climate in Peru and Chile, vast quantities of guano had accumulated before people began mining it in the 19th century. Between 1840 and 1880, millions of tons of guano were dug by hand and loaded onto ships for export, often by indentured Chinese or Polynesian laborers.



Source: American Museum of Natural History

Guano mining in the central Chincha Islands, off the coast of Peru, c. 1860.

Raw Materials

The demand for raw materials that could be processed into manufactured goods and shipped away—often back to the providers of raw materials—turned colonies into **export economies**. Imperial attention focused on the tropical climates that were conducive to the presence of raw materials, unlike some imperial countries.

Cotton Britain's Parliament banned Indian **cotton** textiles in 1721 because they competed with the native wool industry. Soon after, cotton from Britain's southern colonies in America shifted production. The colonies would provide the raw materials, and England would manufacture textiles. During the Industrial Revolution, Britain's great textile mills got 80 percent of their cotton from the United States.

When the American Civil War erupted, northern warships blockaded Confederate ports, cutting off the supply of cotton. As a result, farmers all over the world, from Australia to the West Indies, replaced food production with cotton to make up for the shortage. Cotton farmers in India were able to benefit from the shortages caused by the Civil War, but Egypt benefited most. Egypt had already developed a fine long-staple variety of cotton and ramped up production. By the end of the 19th century, 93 percent of Egypt's export revenue came from cotton. Raw cotton production from Egypt and India supported the manufacturing of textiles that Britain exported all over the world.

Rubber Natural **rubber** is made from the latex sap of trees or vines. It softens when warm and hardens when cold. In 1839, Charles Goodyear developed a process known as vulcanization that eliminated these problems and helped create the modern rubber industry. Rubber was used to produce tires for bicycles (and eventually automobiles), hoses, gaskets, waterproof clothing, and shoe soles, among other items.

Rubber trees are native to the Amazon rainforest of South America, where they grew wild but widely dispersed. Latex could also be extracted from vines native to Central Africa, though they were destroyed in the process. Each source provided about half the world's rubber supply, but they soon were inadequate to meet the demand as rubber became an important industrial material. In both sources, "rubber barons" forced indigenous people into virtual slavery. In some cases, companies mutilated or killed workers who failed to meet their quotas.

In 1876, the British India Office obtained rubber tree seeds from Brazil. After being propagated in England, the seedlings were sent to Ceylon (Sri Lanka) and Singapore. Before long, thousands of acres of forest were cleared to make room for rubber plantations in Malaya, Indochina, the Dutch East Indies, and elsewhere in Southeast Asia.

Palm Oil The machinery in Europe's factories required constant lubrication to keep it working, creating a demand for **palm oil**, which was



also used for candle making. The oil palm originated in West Africa, where it was used as a staple food product for 5,000 years. Palm oil was so valued that it was used in place of money in many African cultures. Palm oil became an important cash crop in West Africa, where prisoners of tribal war were often enslaved to help with the palm oil crops. European colonists established oil palm plantations in Malaya and the Dutch East Indies.

Ivory The tusks of elephants provide the product **ivory**. Most of the ivory trade was with Africa, since both male and female African elephants have large tusks, which average six feet in length. Ivory was prized for its beauty and durability. It was used primarily for piano keys, billiard balls, knife handles, and ornamental carvings. In the mid-19th century, the European scramble for ivory preceded the scramble for colonies. The Ivory Coast (Côte d’Ivoire) got its name from the fact that the French originally set up trading posts there for the acquisition of ivory and slaves.

Minerals Some of the most valuable products were mineral ores used in manufacturing. They came from around the world:

- Mexico produced silver.
- Chile produced **copper**, which was used for telegraph cables and electrical power lines.
- Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia) and the Belgian Congo produced copper.
- Bolivia, Nigeria, Malaya, and the Dutch East Indies produced **tin**, which helped meet the growing demand for food products in tin cans.
- Australia and South Africa, as well as parts of West Africa and Alaska, produced large deposits of **gold**.

Diamonds Because of his frail health, Cecil Rhodes was sent to South Africa in 1870 to join a brother on a cotton farm. In 1871 the brothers joined the **diamond** rush and went to Kimberley, the center of mining activity. After completing a degree at Oxford University, Rhodes acquired some of the De Beers mining claims and formed the **De Beers Mining Company** in 1880. By 1891, De Beers accounted for 90 percent of the world’s diamond production. Rhodes also had a large stake in the world’s largest gold fields, which were discovered in 1886 on South Africa’s Witwatersrand. (Connect: Analyze Africa’s changes in trade from the trans-Saharan trade, including the effects of the slave trade, through the industrial era. See Topics 2.4 and 4.4.)

By the age of 29, when Rhodes was elected to the Cape Parliament, he was the most powerful man in Southern Africa. He sought to expand to the north, into Bechuanaland (Botswana) and what became known as Rhodesia and is now Zimbabwe and Zambia, with the dream of building a railroad from Cape Town to Cairo—and claiming all the land along the route for the British Empire. In 1890, Rhodes became the prime minister of the Cape Colony where his racist policies paved the way for the **apartheid**, or racial segregation, that plagued South Africa during the 20th century.



Global Consequences

Industrialization was accompanied by the need to find raw materials that could be turned into finished products to be sold globally—often bought with the profits from raw materials. As urban populations grew, the demand for food was increasingly met by imports made possible by new technology such as refrigeration. As the industrialized nations grew wealthier, stock exchanges developed, allowing more people to invest their capital, and the need to protect global markets and investments grew rapidly.

Consequences of Commercial Extraction Farmers were allowed to raise only cash crops, such as sugar, cocoa, or groundnuts, at the expense of other agricultural products. This use of land led to **monocultures**, or a lack of agricultural diversity, particularly in developing nations. Large areas were often cleared of forests to make room for farming, which took its toll on both biodiversity and the climate. Cash crops such as cotton rapidly depleted the soil's natural fertility. Moreover, crop diseases and pests spread more easily when there was only one crop planted in an area.

Today, many former colonies have been unable to rediversify their land use because the development of monocultures has badly damaged croplands. As a result, they often must import basic agricultural goods in order to feed their people.

KEY TERMS BY THEME		
ENVIRONMENT: Natural Resources guano cotton rubber palm oil ivory copper tin gold diamonds	ECONOMICS: People Cecil Rhodes ECONOMICS: Companies De Beers Mining Company ECONOMICS: Activities cash crops export economies monocultures	TECHNOLOGY: Inventions railroads steamships telegraph SOCIETY: Hierarchy apartheid