NEWS FROM Hemispheres

THE INTERNATIONAL OUTREACH CONSORTIUM
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

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IN THIS ISSUE: 15 Minute History

In this issue, we're featuring **15 MINUTE HISTORY**, our new podcast series—with supplementary materials—about World and US history. This is a joint project of Hemispheres and *Not Even Past*, a website with articles on a wide variety of historical issues, produced by the History Department at the University of Texas at Austin. This podcast series is devoted to short, accessible discussions of important topics in World History and US History. The discussions are conducted by the award winning faculty and graduate students at the University of Texas at Austin.

Our topics are drawn from the new World History and US History Standards—The Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS)—for K-12 social studies courses in Texas, and are tied to specific objectives and goals set in the standards to help educators prepare their students for the State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness, or STAAR™ exams. They are meant to be a resource for both teachers and students. Each podcast is accompanied by documents and readings for people who want to learn more about the topic. This issue features extracts from four of the episodes of *15 Minute History* along with examples of their supporting documents.

Episodes of *15 Minute History* can be downloaded through iTunes, or by visiting the Web site at: **blogs.utexas.edu/15MinuteHistory**

STAFFING CHANGES

It is with a combination of great regret and considerable pride that we announce that **Natalie Arsenault** has accepted a position as Associate Director of the Center for Latin American Studies at the University of Chicago.

Natalie served as Director of Outreach / Public Engagement at the Teresa Lozano Long Institute of Latin American Studies at UT-Austin for 12 years, and was one of the most visible faces of Hemispheres in that time. Over the years, she helped to build a program of the highest caliber, with a special emphasis on curriculum development and training for K-12 teachers. She took her leadership across the University and throughout the country in her areas of expertise and developed a national reputation for her work at LLILAS and with Hemispheres. Natalie's last day with us was Friday, March 22, 2013.

We are deeply sorry to see her go, but wish her well in her new position.

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Islamic Extremism and the Modern World

Featuring Christopher Rose, Outreach Director, Center for Middle Eastern Studies

The standard mentions the "impact of radical Islamic fundamentalism … including Palestinian terrorism." This is a problem, because until the 1980s, Palestinian terrorism was actually secular in nature, usually Marxist. The idea that the Israeli-Palestinian conflict is seen as a holy war is actually an idea that's held in the West, but only by the extremists on both sides on the ground there.

Right now, the West Bank is controlled by the Palestinian Authority, which is the successor to the Palestine Liberation Organization, or PLO. The PLO is a secular group that was founded in the 1960s and was associated with Yassir Arafat. Arafat, for the record, may have given lip service to Islam, but his religious devotion ended around happy hour.

Its main rival for decades was the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine, which was a Marxist organization run by George Habash. The PFLP fizzled out in the 1970s, and was replaced as a key actor by Hamas, which is the Palestinian chapter of the Muslim Brotherhood. Hamas took off in the 1980s with support from Hizbollah in Lebanon, and they now control the Gaza Strip.

It does bear mentioning that there are small Jewish extremist groups at work in Israel that also fuel the conflict. Yitzhak Rabin was assassinated by a young right-wing Jewish man in 1995, which was a huge shock to many Israelis.

The Ba'athist movement that is the dominant political force in Syria currently — this is the ideology that is espoused by the current Asad regime — as well as espoused by Saddam Hussein in Iraq is another secular movement. It was actually a political philosophy first proposed by a Lebanese Christian, Michel 'Aflaq, as an alternative to the Pan-Arab movement that was espoused by Egyptian president Gamal Abdul Nasser. 'Aflaq wanted to propose a pan-Arab ideology that used less Islamic terminology so that Arab Christians wouldn't feel threatened or left out. It was adopted as a state ideology in both Iraq and Syria — then, of course, both countries decided they were practicing it properly and the other was doing it wrong, so the two regimes never got along.

Secular	Sunni	Shi'i
Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO)	Muslim Brotherhood (Egypt, Pal., Jordan, Syria, Sudan, etc.)	Hizb'allah (Lebanon)
Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (PFLP)	Hamas	Jaysh al-Mahdi (Iraq) & Sadrist Movement
Ba'athism	Salafism / Wahhabism	
Pan-Arabism	Al-Qaeda	
Libyan Socialism	FIS (Algeria)	

Saddam Hussein suddenly decided to start working in Islamic symbols into his government in 1990 after the invasion of Kuwait in a misguided attempt to rally the world's Muslim population to his side against the allied forces who were preparing to launch a military strike against him. It didn't work–the pictures of him sharing lots of alcohol with various state leaders, rumors of many mistresses, etc, were too strong for him to be credible as a religious man. Also, many people just didn't like him.

Al-Qaeda is an outgrowth of the Salafist movement, which claims to be seeking a return to "pure Islam" as it was practiced under the prophet Muhammad and immediately afterward. Salafist practice discards a lot of what they feel is "innovation," or practices or theologies that were added in the centuries afterward. Salafist ideology is essentially constructed on the notion that only their (the Salafis) version of Islam is correct; everyone else is misguided and, anyone who rejects the Salafist ideology is not actually Muslim. This is why al-Qaeda had no problem attacking Muslim targets–according to their own ideology, those guys weren't actually Muslim. And they didn't have any problem attacking Muslim targets–Osama bin Laden was responsible for the deaths of many more Muslims than non-Muslims over his tenure as head of al-Qaeda.

Finally, I just want to take a moment to talk about why extremism seems to be so popular. The ultimate problem in the Middle East is that freedom of expression is extremely limited. In 2011, Freedom House listed only one country in the entire region as politically free, and that was Israel (Israel proper, not including the West Bank and Gaza). Morocco, Kuwait, Lebanon, and Turkey were listed as "partly free" – Turkey keeps going back and forth between free and partly free – and all of the other countries were "not free."

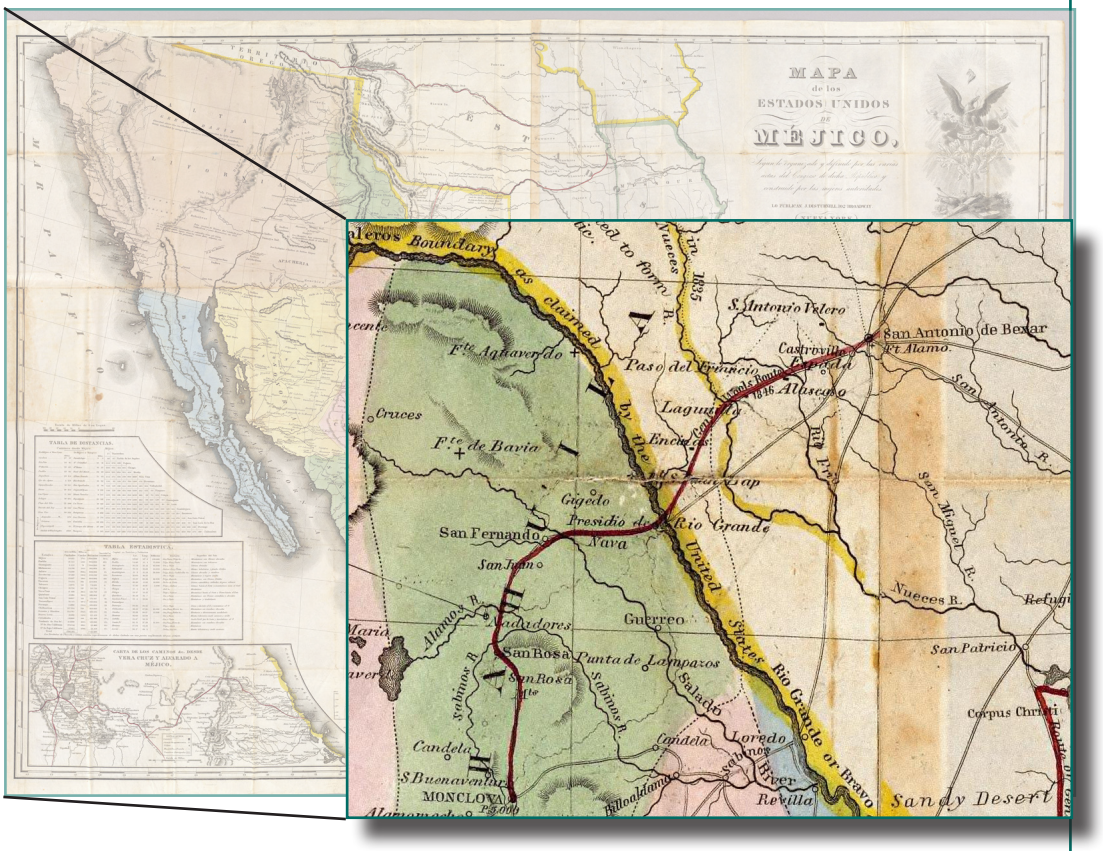
This, combined with a population that is growing rapidly and is increasingly younger — half of Iran's population is under thirty, as is two thirds of Saudi Arabia's — means that you have a young, reasonably well educated population coming into adulthood with no chance that their standard of living will match that of their parents. Unemployment is extremely high, college graduates frequently work in the informal economy or in manual labor (if they can find work at all), and they have absolutely no chance to register their disappointment at the ballot box. They quite literally can't do anything to change their situation, and this breeds frustration.

For years, these extremist groups — odd as it may seem — were frequently popular with younger people just because it seemed like they were doing something to change the status quo. And we are talking about people who feel as if they can't control their futures and that they are powerless.

Mapping Perspectives of the Mexican-American War

Featuring Chloe Ireton, Graduate Student, Department of History

This episode looks at US perceptions of Mexico through map making during the US / Mexico War. It looks at number of maps that were published in the US, mostly New York between 1846 and 1850. Some of them were reissued annually to reflect ongoing progress in the Mexican-American war, but historians and military analysts alike have ignored them until recently.



J. Disturnell was one of the most prolific map publishers in the US during the mid nineteenth century. The publisher focused mostly on tourist guides and maps of North American states and regions. Disturnell published at least three separate maps of Mexico between 1846 and 1848, each of which he revised and republished almost annually during and in the aftermath of the war years.

A defining feature of Disturnell's Mexico maps was that he copied the cartography from older map publications, but added annotations and inserted other notes and sketches, which served to visually represented North American gains during the war. This process of adding details as they happened and republishing, illustrated the new literal and figurative definitions of the American nation almost in real time to his audience.

Disturnell inserted key symbology into his 1847 map and the 1850 revised edition of the map in order to strengthen a sense of US national identity. The most obvious purpose of Disturnell's maps was to redraw the boundaries of the US nation. When comparing Disturnell's 1847 map and the original 1837 version that he copied, it is clear that Disturnell altered the border.

In the 1837 version, Texas was represented as part of Mexico and therefore not independent, even though Texas had declared itself a republic in 1836. In the 1847 copy, Disturnell altered this, portraying Texas as independent from Mexico. As a result, Disturnell changed the US-Mexican national boundary too; clearly drawing the border between the two nations as running across the Rio Grande.

It is important to remember that this was an anticipatory move – in 1847 neither side had reached a formal agreement about the border. It was not until the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848 that both sides finally agreed that the course of the Rio Grande would define the new national boundaries.

Aware of the fact that the border had not yet been formally agreed, Disturnell inserted the text, Boundary As Claimed by the United States (*see inset*). In spite of this text, his portrayal of the "new" border would have made the contentious border a reality in the minds of viewers of the map, since the border is clearly drawn at the Rio Grande.

As an example of the power of maps and the boundaries that they portray, in a fundamental study on the politics involved in mapping the US-Mexico border after the war, Paula Rebert, has illustrated how the political negotiators in both nations during the 1848 border treaty negotiations mistakenly used the seventh edition of Disturnell's highly inaccurate 1847 map. Rebert argued that this caused severe conflicts between the cartographers from both nations, as the cartographical representations did not reflect the geographical realities on the ground, thereby causing difficulties in plotting the new border.

When taking into account the power of visual representations, it is worth asking whether Disturnell's anticipatory drawing of the new border, which in effect made a reality of something that had not yet been realized in a treaty, affected the political choice of where the border would run when politicians did actually negotiate the treaty.

Russia's October 1917 Revolution

Featuring Joan Neuberger, Professor, Department of History, and Editor, *Not Even Past*

How did a party that no one took seriously in February 1917, a group so radical it was on the very far-left fringe of the political landscape—How did this party, the Bolshevik Party, come to power in October?

Let's start in March 1917, right after the tsar abdicated and left a power vacuum in Petrograd. The first crisis is a crisis of governance. Moderate liberals immediately set up a Provisional Government in Petrograd, the capital. Why Provisional? Because as liberals they believed government should be based on the will of the people, that representatives of the people should write a constitution that would lay out the basic rules for governance and for civil rights, and then they should hold elections to create a new government. Problem was, in March 1917, the country was at war and the people in power didn't think they could withdraw from the war and abandon their allies, or stop to hold a constitutional convention. So they created an interim "Provisional Government" until they could end the war.

At this point, the political system was dominated by liberals, moderates, and some conservatives. Although there were socialists in the Tsarist government, they played a much smaller role and really, the radical parties were out on the streets organizing workers, organizing peasants, but they didn't as large a role in the government. At this point, though, they decided that it was their turn to pick up some of the power that was lying around in the streets.

Some political leaders who represented peasants and workers didn't trust the Provisional Government to respect the rights of the majority of the people, and most of those people wanted an end to war and some signs of egalitarian distribution of power, now not later. Most of these leaders were socialists, which were by far the most popular political parties of the time, even though they'd been out of power up until this time.

Socialists followed the theories of Karl Marx who claimed that a socialist revolution could only take place after the liberals and capitalists had been in power long enough to establish a rule of law, and that the workers would be impoverished,

and wealth would be concentrated in the hands of a small minority of people. So the socialists weren't ready to come to power yet themselves—they didn't believe that it was their time to take power—but they didn't want to cede all power to the liberals either. So they set up a kind of watchdog institution called the Soviet. "Soviet" is the Russian word for "council." These councils of peasants and workers and soldiers' representatives had sprung up earlier, in 1905, and they sprang up again in 1917. The Soviet in Petrograd was a watchdog for the Provisional Government. The result was what we call Dual Government. The Provisional Government was too weak to prevent the Soviet from forming, but the Soviet was too weak to come to power now—the result was a kind of gridlock that added to the chaos of life in 1917.

At this point the Bolsheviks were too radical to play prominent roles in the Provisional Government, which they didn't really want anything to do with. There were representatives of the Bolsheviks in the Soviet, although they weren't the majority at the beginning of 1917. And their leader was still in exile.

Vladimir Lenin, the acknowledged leader of the Bolshevik party, arrived back in Russia in April 1917. At that point, he made a speech that was barely noticed at the time but, in retrospect, was one of the most important events of the year. At the time, this speech shocked even his closest supporters. He said that the Bolsheviks didn't need to follow Marx's historical prescription; we've waited long enough for the liberals and capitalists, there's no reason not to seize power now. "All power to the Soviets!" was his slogan. Lenin recognized a power vacuum when he saw it.

"All Power to the Soviets!" turned out to be a popular slogan. Soviets sprang up all over the country, replicating dual government in cities and towns all over the Empire. In Petrograd all sorts of grass roots institutions also sprang up in addition to the Soviets. The Provisional Government was dragging its feet on creating democratic government, on instituting workers' control of factories, and on instituting land reform, so ordinary people began holding elections for factory councils and neighborhood militias. Socialists dominated these local elections from the very beginning.

The war was so unpopular that, during the summer of 1917, soldiers were deserting from the ranks by the thousands. What had been a trickle in February became a flood during the summer as soldiers not only deserted the front but came home to seize the land they considered their own. At this point, the only political party outside the power structure was the Bolshevik party, who were also the only party to encourage peasant land seizures. Lenin made speeches all over the country calling for peasants to seize land. We can look at these speeches in two different ways. One, it was responding to the will of the people and politically it was a brilliant move, but, on the other hand it was a highly irresponsible contribution to illegal and disruptive land settlement. The upshot of this is that it won the Bolsheviks a lot of support.

The End of Colonialism in South Asia

Featuring Snehal Shingavi, Assistant Professor, Department of English

Asia was always an important place for Europe. It's been interested for at least 500 years in commerce, in resources, in its mineral wealth, and also in its people. Over the course of the 17th, 18th, and 19th century, began to consolidate its naval routes into Asia, all of which centered on India being a primary place where ships would stop and either trade or refuel. By the middle of the 19th century, the British East India Company has acquired enough political and economic power that they actually have to fight some fairly substantial political campaigns. The largest of these was the 1857 battle, what is called in India "The War for Independence," but is usually referred to by the British and Americans as the Sepoy Mutiny, where soldiers who were paid by the East India Company to be their armed forces rebelled against the East India Company. At that point, the British government sought fit to take over control of India from the British East India Company and consolidated then what is called the British Raj. They began to run the country from England for the next 90 years.

How was Britain able to maintain this power from such a great distance? Was it manpower–people that they sent over–was it the use of local elite classes, or some combination of the above?

This is the question that has always befuddled Indian nationalist historians: how so few British men–less than 100,000 British men–were able to control a country of over 300 millian people. Part of the way the British were able to do this has to do with three things.

The first is economic and industrial superiority that the British had because of the industrial revolution very early on. It allows them the technological capacity to send troops over whenever they need to, but also to run supply lines for their own military.

The second thing, and this is the most important thing, I think, from an historical standpoint, is that India is not one nation when the British arrive. It's actually divided up into smaller princely states, many of which are at war with each other. The British are able–pretty successfully–to pit smaller states against one another, and to design treaties with larger states, and the larger political infighting allows Britain to consolidate its power much more easily than it would have been able to if it had to do this entirely on its own.

The third thing, importantly for British military rule, is that they are able to siphon off a class of Indians from the middle layers to become ambassadors for British rule in India. It's a class of ambassadors who are trying to think about industrialization, education, modernization, who see the advances that Europe has made and want similar things in India, and they began to support British rule.

These three things help the British substantially in maintaining rule over a very large country for quite some time.

India is famously called the Jewel in the Crown of the British empire, and it has three basic things that it provides to the British that strategically make it important enough that the British held onto it for as long as they did with such a tight grip. The first and the most important thing that it provides is naval routes into the rest of Asia. Because Britain holds India, it's able to send its navy, its air force, and its troops all over the Indian Ocean, everywhere from the tip of Africa to Southeast Asia.

The second thing it provides is human labor power. Labor, not only in the sense of Indians who were sent to work on plantations starting in the middle of the 19th century when Britain outlaws slavery — slaves started to be replaced by Indian indentures workers in areas under British colonial possession. Most of the places in the Caribbean, Africa, and Southeast Asia where you see large South Asian populations, they're the result of this indentured migration — but also in the sense of military recruitment. India provides one million soldiers for the British during World War I, and two million during World War II to fight in the European theater and also in the Middle East. Famously, the British campaign in Mesopotamia / Iraq is done by Indian soldiers *(pictured above)*.

The third thing it provides is massive amounts of economic resources for the British. It provides markets for their industrial goods, it provides raw materials that they need to process, and it allows Britain to essentially become a premier economic power. In fact, its industrial capacity and success depends in large part on its control over the economic success of India.

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