

AP World History 2nd Semester Exam Study Guide

1. Absolute Rule:

Absolute rule, or absolute monarchy, is a monarchical form of government in which the monarch exercises ultimate governing authority as head of state and head of government; his or her powers are not limited by a constitution or by the law. An absolute monarch wields unrestricted political power over the sovereign state and its people. Absolute monarchies are often hereditary but other means of transmission of power are attested. Absolute monarchy differs from limited monarchy, in which the monarch's authority is legally bound or restricted by a constitution.

In theory, the absolute monarch exercises total power over the land and its subject people, yet in practice the monarchy is counter-balanced by political groups from among the social classes and castes of the realm: the aristocracy, clergy, bourgeoisie, and proletarians.

2. Louis XIV:

Louis XIV (5 September 1638 – 1 September 1715), known as Louis the Great or the Sun King (French: le Roi-Soleil), was a Bourbon monarch who ruled as King of France and Navarre. He holds the distinction of being the longest-reigning king in European history, reigning for 72 years and 110 days.

Louis began his personal rule of France in 1661 after the death of his chief minister, the Italian Cardinal Mazarin. An adherent of the theory of the divine right of kings, which advocates the divine origin and lack of temporal restraint of monarchical rule, Louis continued his predecessors' work of creating a centralized state governed from the capital. He sought to eliminate the remnants of feudalism persisting in parts of France and, by compelling the nobility to inhabit his lavish Palace of Versailles, succeeded in pacifying the aristocracy, many members of which had participated in the Fronde rebellion during Louis's minority. By these means he consolidated a system of absolute monarchical rule in France that endured until the French Revolution.

During Louis's reign France was the leading European power and fought three major wars: the Franco-Dutch War, the War of the League of Augsburg, and the War of the Spanish Succession, as well as two lesser conflicts, the War of Devolution and the War of the Reunions. Louis encouraged and benefited from the work of prominent political, military and cultural figures such as Mazarin, Colbert, Turenne and Vauban, as well as Molière, Racine, Boileau, La Fontaine, Lully, Le Brun, Rigaud, Bossuet, Le Vau, Mansart, Charles and Claude Perrault, and Le Nôtre. Upon his death just days before his seventy-seventh birthday, Louis was succeeded by his five-year-old great-grandson, Louis XV.

3. Nicolaus Copernicus:

Nicolaus Copernicus was a Polish monk and astronomer. Copernicus adopted the lunar model as his own, virtually without revision. He then proposed the model of lunar movement developed under the Il-khans (Mongol State) as the proper model for planetary movement as well—but with the planets circling the sun. His model with the planets circling the sun is called the Heliocentric Model.

4. Law of Universal Gravitation:

Developed by Isaac Newton, this principle expresses the force of gravitational attraction between two bodies as a function of their mass and their distance. Expressed mathematically, $F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{d^2}$ where F is the force in Newtons, m_1 and m_2 are the masses of the bodies in kilograms, G is the gravitational constant, and d is the distance between the bodies in meters. Newton's Principle of Gravitation is an example of an inverse square law.

5. *The Social Contract*:

The English political philosopher John Locke (1632–1704) argued in 1690 that governments were created to protect life, liberty, and property and that the people had a right to rebel when a monarch violated these natural rights. Locke's closely reasoned theory began with the assumption that individual rights were the foundation of civil government. In *The Social Contract*, published in 1762, the French-Swiss intellectual Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778) asserted that the will of the people was sacred and that the legitimacy of the monarch depended on the consent of the people. Although both men believed that government

rested on the will of the people rather than on divine will, Locke emphasized the importance of individual rights, and Rousseau envisioned the people acting collectively because of their shared historical experience.

6. Baroque:

Baroque style relates to or denotes a style of European architecture, music, and art of the 17th and 18th centuries that followed mannerism and is characterized by ornate detail. In architecture, the period is exemplified by the palace of Versailles and by the work of Bernini in Italy.

7. Thomas Jefferson:

Thomas Jefferson was the 3rd President of the United States, chief drafter of the Declaration of Independence, made the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, and sent out the Lewis and Clark Expedition to explore it.

8. The Declaration of Independence:

The Declaration of Independence was a statement adopted by the Continental Congress on July 4, 1776, which announced that the thirteen American colonies, then at war with Great Britain, regarded themselves as independent states, and no longer a part of the British Empire. John Adams put forth a resolution earlier in the year which made a formal declaration inevitable. A committee was assembled to draft the formal declaration, to be ready when congress voted on independence. Adams persuaded the committee to select Thomas Jefferson to compose the original draft of the document, which congress would edit to produce the final version. The Declaration was ultimately a formal explanation of why Congress had voted on July 2 to declare independence from Great Britain, more than a year after the outbreak of the American Revolutionary War. The Independence Day of the United States of America is celebrated on July 4, the day Congress approved the wording of the Declaration.

After ratifying the text on July 4, Congress issued the Declaration of Independence in several forms. It was initially published as a printed broadside that was widely distributed and read to the public. The most famous version of the Declaration, a signed copy that is usually regarded as *the* Declaration of

Independence, is displayed at the National Archives in Washington, D.C. Although the wording of the Declaration was approved on July 4, the date of its signing has been disputed. Most historians have concluded that it was signed nearly a month after its adoption, on August 2, 1776, and not on July 4 as is commonly believed. The original July 4 United States Declaration of Independence manuscript was lost while all other copies have been derived from this original document.

9. Geocentric Theory:

The Geocentric Theory was the theory that the Earth was the center of our solar system. However it was disproved later on.

10. Enlightenment:

The belief that human reason could discover the laws that governed social behavior and were just as scientific as the laws that governed physics energized a movement known as the Enlightenment. Like the Scientific Revolution, this movement was the work of a few “enlightened” individuals, who often faced bitter opposition from the political, intellectual, and religious establishment.

11. The Philosophers:

Philosophy is the study of the fundamental nature of knowledge, reality, and existence. Famous Philosophers include Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle (Aristotle was taught by Plato). These Philosophers lectured and wrote about topics such as politics, philosophy, ethics, logic, poetry, rhetoric, physics, astronomy, meteorology, zoology, and psychology.

12. The French Estates:

French society was divided into three groups. The clergy, called the First Estate, numbered about 130,000 in a nation of 28 million. The Catholic Church owned about 10 percent of the nation’s land and extracted substantial amounts of wealth from the economy in the form of tithes and ecclesiastical fees. Despite its substantial wealth, the church was exempted from nearly all taxes. The clergy

was organized hierarchically, and members of the hereditary nobility held almost all the upper positions in the church.

The 300,000 members of the nobility, the Second Estate, controlled about 30 percent of the land and retained ancient rights on much of the rest. Nobles held the vast majority of high administrative, judicial, military, and church positions. Though traditionally barred from some types of commercial activity, nobles were important participants in wholesale trade, banking, manufacturing, and mining. Like the clergy, this estate was hierarchical: important differences in wealth, power, and outlook separated the higher from the lower nobility. The nobility was also a highly permeable class: the Second Estate in the eighteenth century saw an enormous infusion of French Society and Fiscal Crisis wealthy commoners who purchased administrative and judicial offices that conferred noble status.

The Third Estate included everyone else, from wealthy financier to homeless beggar. The bourgeoisie, or middle class, grew rapidly in the eighteenth century. There were three times as many members of this class in 1774, when Louis XVI took the throne, as there had been in 1715, at the end of Louis XIV's reign. Commerce, finance, and manufacturing accounted for much of the wealth of the Third Estate. Wealthy commoners also owned nearly a third of the nation's land. This literate and socially ambitious class supported an expanding publishing industry, subsidized the fine arts, and purchased many of the extravagant new homes being built in Paris and other cities.

Peasants accounted for 80 percent of the French population. Artisans and other skilled workers, small shopkeepers and peddlers, and small landowners held a more privileged position in society. They owned some property and lived decently when crops were good and prices stable. By 1780 poor harvests had increased their cost of living and led to a decline in consumer demand for their products. They were rich enough to fear the loss of their property and status, well-educated enough to be aware of the growing criticism of the king, but too poor and marginalized to influence policy.

13. Bastille Day:

Bastille Day is the name given in English-speaking countries to the French National Day, which is celebrated on the 14th of July each year. In France, it is formally called La Fête Nationale (The National Celebration) and commonly le quatorze juillet (the fourteenth of July). It commemorates the 1790 Fête de la Fédération, held on the first anniversary of the storming of the Bastille on July

14, 1789; the anniversary of the storming of the Bastille fortress-prison was seen as a symbol of the uprising of the modern nation, and of the reconciliation of all the French inside the constitutional monarchy which preceded the First Republic, during the French Revolution. The Fête de la Fédération on the July 14, 1790 was a huge feast and official event to celebrate the uprising of the short-lived constitutional monarchy in France and what people considered the happy conclusion of the French Revolution. Festivities and official ceremonies are held all over France. The oldest and largest regular military parade in Europe is held on the morning of July 14, on the Champs-Élysées avenue in Paris in front of the President of the Republic, French officials and foreign guests.

14. Reign of Terror:

The Reign of Terror (5 September 1793 – 28 July 1794), also known simply as The Terror (French: la Terreur), was a period of violence that occurred after the onset of the French Revolution, incited by conflict between rival political factions, the Girondins and the Jacobins, and marked by mass executions of "enemies of the revolution." The death toll ranged in the tens of thousands, with 16,594 executed by guillotine (2,639 in Paris), and another 25,000 in summary executions across France.

15. Creoles:

The Creole ethnic group consists of white people born in America to European parents. Creoles gained a higher status as time went on.

16. Industrial Revolution:

Prior to the Industrial Revolution, most Europeans worked on farms, at home, or in small shops. Even after Britain started importing huge amounts of cotton from its American colonies, most of the cotton was woven into cloth in homes or small shops as part of an inefficient, highly labor-intensive arrangement known as the domestic system. Middlemen would drop off wool or cotton at homes where women would make cloth, which would then be picked up again by the middlemen, who would sell the cloth to buyers. All of this was done one person at a time.

However, a series of technological advancements in the eighteenth century changed all this. In 1733, John Kay invented the flying shuttle, which sped up the weaving process. In 1764, John Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny, which was capable of spinning vast amounts of thread. When waterpower was added to these processes, notably by Richard Arkwright and Edward Cartwright in the late eighteenth century, fabric weaving was taken out of the homes and was centralized at sites where waterpower was abundant. In 1793, when Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, thereby allowing massive amounts of cotton to be quickly processed in the Americas and exported to Europe, the textile industry was taken out of the homes and into mills entirely.

Although industrialization hit the textile industry first, it spread well beyond into other industries. One of the most significant developments was the invention of the steam engine, which actually took the work of several people to perfect. In the early 1700s, Thomas Newcomer developed an inefficient engine, but in 1769, James Watt dramatically improved it. The steam engine was revolutionary because steam could not only be used to generate power for industry but also for transportation. In 1807, Robert Fulton built the first steamship, and in the 1820s, George Stephenson built the first steam-powered locomotive. In the hands of a huge, imperial power like Britain, steamships and locomotives would go a long way toward empire-building and global trade. Because Britain had vast amounts of coal, and because the steam engine was powered by coal, Britain industrialized very quickly.

The Industrial Revolution permitted the creation of thousands of new products from clothing to toys to weapons. These products were produced efficiently and inexpensively in factories. Under Eli Whitney's system of interchangeable parts, machines and their parts were produced uniformly so that they could be easily replaced when something broke down. Later, Henry Ford's use of the assembly line meant that each factory worker added only one part to a finished product, one after another after another. These developments helped further industrialize the world.

17. Urbanization:

Urbanization can be defined as the rapid and massive growth of, and migration to, large cities. Both positive and negative consequences can result.

18. Stockholder:

Stockholders (or Shareholders) are individuals, or companies that own shares of a profit corporation. The individuals own a specific number of shares, which they each purchased at a specific price. The stockholders have invested their money to purchase these shares and they gain in two ways: (1) through dividends paid on these shares due to the corporation's profits; (2) by selling their shares at a profit.

The rights of the shareholders are subordinated (placed under) the rights of bond-holders, so that shareholders lose the value of their shares if the corporation becomes bankrupt. Shareholders may also lose some or all of the value of their shares if the stock price is lower when they sell than the price when they bought.

19. Laissez-faire Economics:

Translated from French to English, Laissez-faire means, "Let them do." Promoted by Adam Smith, laissez-faire economics called for the economic system to be based on a free market system (or capitalism). In a free market system, people good buy and sell goods and services freely, without the intervention of the government.

20. Collective Bargaining/Unions:

Collective bargaining is a process of negotiations between employers and a group of employees aimed at reaching agreements that regulate working conditions.

21. Emancipation Proclamation:

Before and during the American Civil War, slavery was very common in the South. This is because the slaves did their owner's work, such as planting, growing, and making products. Cash crops were crops that were very popular and widely used among the United States. Tobacco and cotton were the biggest of the cash crops.

The North was a more of an industrious region. The North also did not have slavery nor approved of it. Nonetheless, they were forced to return any runaway slaves they came across. There are many different theories as to why people believed the North was against slavery. The most common belief is that the North realized that slavery was morally wrong. Another belief is that the North did not need slavery, due to the nature of the work being more industrious as opposed to farming in the South

But, in 1860, the South began to secede from the North when President Lincoln became a player on the board. Though not the main cause for the civil war, the South wanted to preserve slavery as well as not be controlled by the North. In 1861, the Civil war began. The South, in a way, dragged the North into battle; fore the North did not come after the South. It was actually the South that came after the North. When the North entered the war, they were fighting for preservation of the Union. For the first half of the Civil War, the North was losing to the South. But, when fighting on their own ground, the North began to change the tide of the war.

To crush the Confederate forces and to bring them back to the Union, Lincoln gave the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863. This document was created to free slaves from, of course, slavery. Some of these freed slaves then joined the Union army for two main reasons: to thank the North and to get back at the South. Lincoln chose to give this document at that time and not any earlier because then it would look like an act of weakness. He also believed that slavery was morally wrong and was unethical.

22. Darwin's Theory of Evolution:

Darwin's Theory of Evolution is a theory of organic evolution claiming that new species arise and are perpetuated by natural selection.

23. World War I Great Powers:

World War I consisted of all the great powers in the world: Italy, France, Germany, Great Britain, Austria-Hungarian Empire, Russia, and the United States.

24. Treaty of Versailles:

On June 28, 1919, the German delegates reluctantly signed the Treaty of Versailles, putting an official end to World War I and its conflicts. Germany was forbidden to have an air force and was permitted only a token army and navy. It gave up large parts of its eastern territory to a newly reconstituted Poland. The Allies made Germany promise to pay reparations to compensate the victors for their losses, but they did not set a figure or a period of time for payment. A “guilt clause,” which was to rankle for years to come, obliged the Germans to accept “responsibility for causing all the loss and damage” of the war. The Treaty of Versailles left Germany humiliated but largely intact and potentially the most powerful nation in Europe. Establishing a peace neither of punishment nor of reconciliation, the treaty was one of the great failures in history.

25. League of Nations:

In early 1919 delegates of the victorious powers met in Paris. The defeated powers were kept out until the treaties were ready for signing. Russia, in the throes of civil war, was not invited. From the start, three men dominated the Paris Peace Conference: U.S. president Wilson, British Prime Minister David Lloyd George, and French premier Georges Clemenceau°. They ignored the Italians, who had joined the Allies in 1915. They paid even less attention to the delegates of smaller European nations and none at all to non-European nationalities. They rejected the Japanese proposal that all races be treated equally. They ignored the Pan-African Congress organized by the African-American W. E. B. Du Bois to call attention to the concerns of African peoples around the world. They also ignored the ten thousand other delegates of various nationalities that did not represent sovereign states—the Arab leader Faisal, the Zionist Chaim Weizmann, and several Armenian delegations—who came to Paris to lobby for their causes. They were, in the words of Britain’s Foreign Secretary Balfour, “three all-powerful, all-ignorant men, sitting there and carving up continents.”

Each had his own agenda. Wilson, a high-minded idealist, wanted to apply the principle of self-determination to European affairs, by which he meant creating nations that reflected ethnic or linguistic divisions. He proposed a League of Nations, a world organization to safeguard the peace and foster international cooperation. His idealism clashed with the more hard-headed and self-serving nationalism of the Europeans. To satisfy his constituents, Lloyd George insisted that Germany pay a heavy indemnity. Clemenceau wanted

Germany to give Alsace and Lorraine (a part of France before 1871) and the industrial Saar region to France and demanded that the Rhineland be detached from Germany to form a buffer state.

26. Militarism:

Militarism is when a government is run mainly by the military or by armed forces. Japan had been militaristic during World War II. The United States worried that if Japan was run by the military, then it would soon start another war or attack another country. America sent Douglas MacArthur to reform the Japanese government. He abolished militarism and replaced it with a democratic government.

27. Nationalism:

Nationalism is when the people devote themselves to and have pride for their country. Nationalism is one of the major contributors to World War I and World War II. During the World Wars, women in the United States took jobs in factories while the men were at war. These women helped build the supplies needed for the war and gave them to the soldiers (all of this devotion is an example of nationalism).

28. Fascism:

The Russian Revolution and its Stalinist aftermath frightened property owners in Europe and North America. In the democracies of Western Europe and North America, where there was little fear of Communist uprisings or electoral victories, middle- and upper income voters took refuge in conservative politics. Political institutions in southern and central Europe, in contrast, were frail and lacked popular legitimacy. The war had turned people's hopes of victory to bitter disappointment. Many were bewildered by modernity—with its cities, factories, and department stores—which they blamed on ethnic minorities, especially Jews. In their yearning for a mythical past of family farms and small shops, increasing numbers rejected representative government and sought more dramatic solutions. Radical politicians quickly learned to apply wartime propaganda techniques to appeal to a confused citizenry, especially young and unemployed men. They promised to use any means necessary to bring back full employment, stop the spread of communism, and achieve the territorial

conquests that World War I had denied them. While defending private property from communism, they borrowed the communist model of politics: a single party and a totalitarian state with a powerful secret police that ruled by terror and intimidation.

The first country to seek radical answers was Italy. World War I, which had never been popular, left thousands of veterans who found neither pride in their victory nor jobs in the postwar economy. Unemployed veterans and violent youths banded together into *fasci di combattimento* (fighting units) to demand action and intimidate politicians. When workers threatened to strike, factory and property owners hired gangs of these *fascisti* to defend them. Benito Mussolini (1883–1945) had been expelled by the Socialist Party for supporting Italy's entry into the war. A spellbinding orator, he quickly became the leader of the Fascist Party, which glorified warfare and the Italian nation. By 1921 the party had 300,000 members, many of whom used violent methods to repress strikes, intimidate voters, and seize municipal governments. A year later Mussolini threatened to march on Rome if he was not appointed prime minister. The government, composed of timid parliamentarians, gave in. Mussolini proceeded to install Fascist Party members in all government jobs, crush all opposition parties, and jail anyone who criticized him. The party took over the press, public education, and youth activities and gave employers control over their workers. The Fascists lowered living standards but reduced unemployment and provided social security and public services. On the whole, they proved to be neither ruthless radicals nor competent administrators. What Mussolini and the Fascist movement really excelled at was publicity: bombastic speeches, spectacular parades, and signs everywhere proclaiming "Il Duce [the Leader] is always right!" Mussolini's genius was to apply the techniques of modern mass communications and advertisement to political life. Movie footage and radio news bulletins galvanized the masses in ways never before done in peacetime. His techniques of whipping up public enthusiasm were not lost on other radicals. By the 1930s fascist movements had appeared in most European countries, as well as in Latin America, China, and Japan.

29. Kaiser Wilhelm II:

Wilhelm II or William II (27 January 1859 – 4 June 1941) was the last German Emperor (Kaiser) and King of Prussia, ruling the German Empire and the Kingdom of Prussia from 15 June 1888 to 9 November 1918. He was a grandson of the British Queen Victoria and related to many monarchs and princes of

Europe. Crowned in 1888, he dismissed the Chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, in 1890 and launched Germany on a bellicose "New Course" in foreign affairs that culminated in his support for Austria-Hungary in the crisis of July 1914 that led to World War I. Bombastic and impetuous, he sometimes made tactless pronouncements on sensitive topics without consulting his ministers. He was humiliated by the Daily Telegraph affair in 1908 and lost most of his power. His generals dictated policy during World War I with little regard for the civilian government. An ineffective war leader, he lost the support of the army, abdicated in November 1918, and fled to exile in the Netherlands.

30. President Wilson's Fourteen Points:

The Fourteen Points were proposals in a speech given by United States President Woodrow Wilson to a joint session of Congress on January 8, 1918. The address was intended to assure the country that the Great War (World War I) was being fought for a moral cause and for postwar peace in Europe. People in Europe generally welcomed Wilson's intervention, but his Allied colleagues (Georges Clemenceau, David Lloyd George and Vittorio Emanuele Orlando) were skeptical of the applicability of Wilsonian idealism.

31. Triple Alliance:

The Triple Alliance was the alliance (1882–1915) of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.

32. Triple Entente/Main Allied Powers:

The Triple Entente is an early 20th-century alliance between Great Britain, France, and Russia. They fought the Triple Alliance during World War I (Allied Powers). – Other countries such as the United States fought alongside the Allies.

33. Central Powers:

The Central Powers were Germany, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the Ottoman Empire, and the Kingdom of Bulgaria. They fought the Allied Powers during World War I. (NOTE: the Central Powers did not include Italy!)

34. Treaty of Brest-Litovsk:

The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk was a peace treaty signed on March 3, 1918, at Brest-Litovsk (now Brest, Belarus) between the Russia and the Central Powers, marking Russia's exit from World War I.-By the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, Russia lost territories containing a third of its population and wealth. Poland, Finland, and the Baltic states (Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania) became independent republics. Russian colonies in Central Asia and the Caucasus broke away temporarily.

35. Albert Einstein:

Albert Einstein is a famous German physicist (1879–1955). In 1916, Einstein announced that not only is matter made of insubstantial particles, but that time, space, and mass are not fixed but are relative to one another (Theory of Relativity). Other physicists said that light is made up of either waves or particles, depending on the observer, and that an experiment could determine either the speed or the position of a particle of light, but never both.

36. The Great Depression:

In 1929 the normalcy of the twenties fell apart. Stocks plummeted; businesses went bankrupt; prices fell; factories closed; and workers were laid off. As the Great Depression spread around the world, governments turned against one another in a desperate attempt to protect their people's livelihood. Even wholly agricultural nations and colonies suffered as markets for their exports shriveled. The thing that ultimately stabilized the country was World War II because it offered more jobs to the unemployed, thereby stimulating the unemployment rate and the economy.

37. Franklin Delano Roosevelt (FDR):

Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1882-1945) was the 32nd President of the United States and was elected a total of four times. He instituted the New Deal (stimulus) to try and counter the Great Depression. He was still president during World War II.

38. The New Deal:

The New Deal was the stimulus package introduced by Franklin Delano Roosevelt that was to stimulate the economy during the Great Depression.

39. The “Final Solution”:

The “Final Solution” was the Nazi program of annihilating the Jews during World War II.

40. The Truman Doctrine:

The Truman Doctrine expresses the principle that the US should give support to countries or peoples threatened by Soviet forces or communist insurrection. First expressed in 1947 by US President Truman in a speech to Congress seeking aid for Greece and Turkey, the doctrine was seen by the communists as an open declaration of the Cold War.

41. World War II – The Causes and the Conclusion:

World War II began in September 1939 when Britain and France declared war on Germany following Germany's invasion of Poland. Although the outbreak of war was triggered by Germany's invasion of Poland, the causes of the war are more complex. Some of the causes include Nationalism, Communism, Imperialism, Fascism, and of course the “Final Solution.”

Essay Question: Explain the impact of cold war policies on the civil war in El Salvador in the 1980's. Consider the following points as you write your answer:

- Domino Theory
- Liberation Theology
- U.S. Intervention
- Soviet Aid to Cuba
- The Role of the Catholic Church

Domino Theory:

This is the basic understanding that once Communism overturned one country (such as it did in Nicaragua), that it would spread to nearby countries- in this case, nearby South American countries. This was interconnected to the Soviet Union policies because the U.S. did not want communist ideas to spread throughout nearby governments because it contrasted their American capitalist ideas.

Liberation Theology and the Role of the Catholic Church:

Liberation theology was the overall argument and division between the Catholic Church as to whether the church would or wouldn't serve as a political institution for the communist rebellions in South America. This argument was further divided into if the Church would have any political role, whether it would support the communist rebellions and serve the interest of the poor or aid the United States by stopping the domino effect of communism from spreading throughout the rest of South America.

U.S. Intervention:

The main reason why the U.S. got involved when it did was because there was a communist rebellion in Nicaragua that replaced the government with a leftist form of government, which made the U.S. worry about the possibility of it spreading to El Salvador. The United States' reaction to this was to arm "freedom fighters" in Nicaragua. These "freedom fighters" were soldiers who were kicked out of the military by communist revolutionaries, and believed in fighting for capitalist ideals. The U.S. also

set up military bases and trained the El Salvadorian military to fight off the rebellion. All of this was based off of the idea of stopping the spread of Communism.

Soviet Aid to Cuba:

During the Cuban missile crisis (in which Castro declared himself a communist connected to the Soviet Union), the Soviet Union was heavily funding the Cuban military due to their allied connections. This resulted in the U.S. fearing that if the El Salvadoran government was overturned by communism, then there could be alliance between El Salvador and the Soviet Union, which would further spread Communism through South America, hurting the U.S. interest.