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| PERIOD 1: Technological and Environmental Transformations to c. 600 B.C.E. |
| **Strayer Textbook: Chapters 1-2** |
| *1.1.I. Archeological evidence indicates that during the Paleolithic era, hunter-forager bands of humans gradually migrated from their origin in East Africa to Eurasia, Australia, and the Americas, adapting their technology and cultures to new climate regions.* |
| 1.1.I.A. Humans developed increasingly diverse and sophisticated tools— including multiple uses of fire—as they adapted to new environments. |
| 1.1.I.B. People lived in small groups that structured social, economic, and political activity. These bands exchanged people, ideas, and goods. |
| **1.2 — Beginning about 10,000 years ago, some human communities adopted sedentism and agriculture, while others pursued hunter-forager or pastoralist lifestyles—different pathways that had significant social and demographic ramifications.** |
| *1.2.I. The Neolithic Revolution led to the development of more complex economic and social systems.* |
| 1.2.I.A. Possibly as a response to climatic change, permanent agricultural villages emerged first in the lands of the eastern Mediterranean. Agriculture emerged independently in Mesopotamia, the Nile River Valley, Sub-Saharan Africa, the Indus River Valley, the Yellow River (or Huang He) Valley, Papua New Guinea, Mesoamerica, and the Andes. |
| 1.2.I.B. People in each region domesticated locally available plants and animals. |
| 1.2.I.C. Pastoralism developed in Afro–Eurasian grasslands, affecting the environment in a variety of ways. |
| 1.2.I.D. Agricultural communities had to work cooperatively to clear land and create the water control systems needed for crop production, drastically affecting environmental diversity. |
| *1.2.II. Agriculture and pastoralism began to transform human societies.* |
| 1.2.II.A. Pastoralism and agriculture led to more reliable and abundant food supplies, which increased the population and led to specialization of labor, including new classes of artisans and warriors and the development of elites. |
| 1.2.II.B. Technological innovations led to improvements in agricultural production, trade, and transportation. |
| 1.2.II.C. Patriarchal forms of social organization developed in both pastoralist and agrarian societies. |
| **1.3 — The appearance of the first urban societies 5,000 years ago laid the foundations for the development of complex civilizations; these civilizations shared several significant social, political, and economic characteristics.** |
| *1.3.I. Core and foundational civilizations developed in a variety of geographical and environmental settings where agriculture flourished.* |
| * Tigris and Euphrates River Valleys * Nile River Valley * Indus River Valley * Yellow River (Huange He) Valley * Mesoamerica * Andean South America |
| *1.3.II. The first states emerged within core civilizations in Mesopotamia and the Nile River Valley.* |
| 1.3.II.A. States were powerful new systems of rule that mobilized surplus labor and resources over large areas. Rulers of early states often claimed divine connections to power. Rulers also relied on the support of the military, religious, or aristocratic elites. |
| 1.3.II.B. As states grew and competed for land and resources, the more favorably situated had greater access to resources, produced more surplus food, and experienced growing populations, enabling them to undertake territorial expansion and conquer surrounding states. |
| 1.3.II.C. Pastoralists were often the developers and disseminators of new weapons and modes of transportation that transformed warfare in agrarian civilizations. |
| *1.3.III. Culture played a significant role in unifying states through laws, language, literature, religion, myths, and monumental art.* |
| 1.3.III.A. Early civilizations developed monumental architecture and urban planning. |
| 1.3.III.B. Systems of record keeping arose independently in all early civilizations and writing and record keeping subsequently spread. |
| 1.3.III.C. States developed legal codes that reflected existing hierarchies and facilitated the rule of governments over people. |
| 1.3.III.D. New religious beliefs that developed in this period— including the Vedic religion, Hebrew monotheism, and Zoroastrianism—continued to have strong influences in later periods. |
| 1.3.III.E. Interregional cultural and technological exchanges grew as a result of expanding trade networks and large-scale population movements, such as the Indo–European and Bantu migrations. |
| 1.3.III.F. Social hierarchies, including patriarchy, intensified as states expanded and cities multiplied. |

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| PERIOD 2: Organization and Reorganization of Human Societies c. 600 B.C.E. to c. 600 C.E. |
| **Strayer Textbook: Chapters 3-6** |
| **2.1 — As states and empires increased in size and contacts between regions intensified, human communities transformed their religious and ideological beliefs and practices.** |
| *2.1.I Codifications and further developments of existing religious traditions provided a bond among people and an ethical code to live by.* |
| 2.1.I.A The association of monotheism with Judaism further developed with the codification of the Hebrew Scriptures, which also reflected the influence of Mesopotamian cultural and legal traditions. The Assyrian, Babylonian, and Roman empires conquered various Jewish states at different points in time. These conquests contributed to the growth of Jewish diasporic communities around the Mediterranean and Middle East. |
| 2.1.I.B The core beliefs outlined in the Sanskrit scriptures formed the basis of the Vedic religions — later known as Hinduism, a monistic belief system. These beliefs included the importance of multiple manifestations of brahman and teachings about dharma and reincarnation, and they contributed to the development of the social and political roles of a caste system. |
| *2.1.II New belief systems and cultural traditions emerged and spread, often asserting universal truths.* |
| 2.1.II.A The core beliefs preached by the historic Buddha and collected by his followers in sutras and other scriptures were, in part, a reaction to the Vedic beliefs and rituals dominant in South Asia. Buddhism branched into many schools and changed over time as it spread throughout Asia — first through the support of the Mauryan Emperor Ashoka, and then through the efforts of missionaries and merchants and the establishment of educational institutions to promote Buddhism’s core teachings. |
| 2.1.II.B Confucianism’s core beliefs and writings originated in the writings and lessons of Confucius. They were elaborated by key disciples, including rulers such as Wudi, who sought to promote social harmony by outlining proper rituals and social relationships for all people in China.. |
| 2.1.II.C In major Daoist writings, the core belief of balance between humans and nature assumed that the Chinese political system would be altered indirectly. Daoism also influenced the development of Chinese culture. |
| 2.1.II.D Core beliefs of Christianity were based on the teachings, divinity, and resurrection of Jesus of Nazareth as recorded by his disciples and drew on Judaism as well as Roman and Hellenistic influences. Despite initial Roman imperial hostility, Christianity spread through the efforts of missionaries, merchants, and early saints through many parts of Afro-Eurasia and eventually gained Roman imperial support by the time of Emperor Constantine. |
| 2.1.II.E Greco-Roman religious and philosophical traditions offered diverse perspectives on the study of the natural world, the connection to the divine, and the nature of political power and hierarchy. Some of these perspectives emphasized logic, empirical observation, and scientific investigation. |
| 2.1.II.F Art and architecture reflected the values of religions and belief systems. |
| *2.1.III Belief systems generally reinforced existing social structures while also offering new roles and status to some men and women.* |
| 2.1.III.A Confucianism emphasized filial piety |
| 2.1.III.B Some Buddhists and Christians practiced monastic life. |
| *2.1.IV Other religious and cultural traditions continued and in some places were incorporated into major religious traditions.* |
| 2.1.IV.A Shamanism, animism, and ancestor veneration continued in their traditional forms in some instances, and in others were incorporated into other religious traditions. |
| *2.2.I The number and size of key states and empires grew dramatically as rulers imposed political unity on areas where previously there had been competing states.* |
| 2.2.I.A Key states and empires that grew included:   * Southwest Asia: Persian empires * East Asia: Qin and Han empires * South Asia: Mauryan and Gupta empires * Mediterranean region: Phoenicia and its colonies, Greek city-states and colonies, and Hellenistic and Roman empires * Mesoamerica: Teotihuacan, Maya city-states * Andean South America: Moche * North America: Chaco and Cahokia   [NOTE: Students should know the location and names of the key empires and states.] |
| *2.2.II Empires and states developed new techniques of imperial administration based, in part, on the success of earlier political forms.* |
| 2.2.II.A In order to organize their subjects, in many regions the rulers created administrative institutions, including centralized governments as well as elaborate legal systems and bureaucracies. |
| 2.2.II.B Imperial governments promoted trade and projected military power over larger areas using a variety of techniques, including issuing currencies; diplomacy; developing supply lines; building fortifications, defensive walls, and roads; and drawing new groups of military officers and soldiers from the location populations or conquered populations. |
| *2.2.III Unique social and economic dimensions developed in imperial societies in Afro-Eurasia and the Americas.* |
| 2.2.III.A Imperial cities served as centers of trade, public performance of religious rituals,  and political administration for states and empires |
| 2.2.III.B The social structures of empires displayed hierarchies that included cultivators, laborers, slaves, artisans, merchants, elites, or caste groups. |
| 2.2.III.C Imperial societies relied on a range of methods to maintain the production of food and provide rewards for the loyalty of the elites. |
| 2.2.III.D Patriarchy continued to shape gender and family relations in imperial societies of this period. |
| *2.2.IV The Roman, Han, Persian, Mauryan, and Gupta empires encountered political, cultural, and administrative difficulties that they could not manage, which eventually led to their decline, collapse, and transformation into successor empires or states.* |
| 2.2.IV.A Through excessive mobilization of resources, erosion of established political institutions, and economic changes, imperial governments generated social tensions and created economic difficulties by concentrating too much wealth in the hands of elites. |
| 2.2.IV.B Security issues along their frontiers, including the threat of invasions,challenged imperial authority. |
| *2.3.I Land and water routes became the basis for interregional trade, communication, and exchange networks in the Eastern Hemisphere.* |
| 2.3.I.A Many factors, including the climate and location of the routes, the typical trade goods, and the ethnicity of people involved, shaped the distinctive features of a variety of trade routes, including Eurasian Silk Roads, Trans-Saharan caravan routes, Indian Ocean sea lanes, and Mediterranean sea lanes. |
| *2.3.II New technologies facilitated long-distance communication and exchange.* |
| 2.3.II.A New technologies permitted the use of domesticated pack animals to transport goods across longer routes. |
| 2.3.II.B Innovations in maritime technologies, as well as advanced knowledge of the monsoon winds, stimulated exchanges along maritime routes from East Africa to East Asia. |
| *2.3.III Alongside the trade in goods, the exchange of people, technology, religious and cultural beliefs, food crops, domesticated animals, and disease pathogens developed across extensive networks of communication and exchange.* |
| 2.3.III.A The spread of crops, including rice and cotton from South Asia to the Middle East, encouraged changes in farming and irrigation techniques. |
| 2.3.III.B The spread of disease pathogens diminished urban populations and contributed to the decline of some empires, including the Roman and Han. |
| 2.3.III.C Religious and cultural traditions — including Christianity, Hinduism, and Buddhism — were transformed as they spread partly as a result of syncretism. |

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| PERIOD 3: Regional and Interregional Interactions c. 600 C.E. to c. 1450 |
| **Strayer Textbook: Chapters 7-12** |
| **3.1 — A deepening and widening of networks of human interaction within and across regions contributed to cultural, technological, and biological diffusion within and between various societies.** |
| *3.1.I Improved transportation technologies and commercial practices led to an increased volume of trade and expanded the geographical range of existing and newly active trade networks.* |
| 3.1.I.A Existing trade routes — including the Silk Roads, the Mediterranean Sea, the Trans-Saharan, and the Indian Ocean basin — flourished, and promoted the growth of powerful new trading cities. |
| 3.1.I.B Communication and exchange networks developed in the Americas. |
| 3.1.I.C The growth of interregional trade in luxury goods was encouraged by significant innovations in previously existing transportation and commercial technologies, including the caravanserai, use of the compass, the astrolabe, and larger ship designs in sea travel -- and new forms of credit and the development of money economies. |
| 3.1.I.D Commercial growth was also facilitated by state practices, including the Inca road system; trading organizations, such as the Hanseatic League; and state-sponsored commercial infrastructures such as the Grand Canal in China. |
| 3.1.I.E The expansion of empires — including China, the Byzantine Empire, various Muslim states, and the Mongols — facilitated Afro-Eurasian trade and communication as new people were drawn into their conquerors’ economies and trade networks. |
| *3.1.II The movement of peoples caused environmental and linguistic effects.* |
| 3.1.II.A The expansion and intensification of long-distance trade routes often depended on environmental knowledge and technological adaptations to the environment. |
| 3.1.II.B Some migrations had a significant environmental impact, including migration of Bantu-speaking peoples who facilitated transmission of iron technologies and agricultural techniques in Sub-Saharan Africa, as well as the maritime migrations of the Polynesian peoples who cultivated transplanted foods and domesticated animals as they moved to new islands |
| 3.1.II.C Some migrations and commercial contacts led to the diffusion of languages throughout a new region or the emergence of new languages. |
| *3.1.III Cross-cultural exchanges were fostered by the intensification of existing, or the creation of new, networks of trade and communication.* |
| 3.1.III.A Islam, based on the revelations of the prophet Muhammad, developed in the Arabian peninsula. The beliefs and practices of Islam reflected interactions among Jews, Christians, and Zoroastrians with the local Arabian peoples. Muslim rule expanded to many parts of Afro-Eurasia due to military expansion, and Islam subsequently expanded through the activities of merchants, missionaries and Sufis. |
| 3.1.III.B In key places along important trade routes, merchants set up diasporic communities where they introduced their own cultural traditions into the indigenous culture. |
| 3.1.III.C As exchange networks intensified, an increased number of travelers within Afro-Eurasia wrote about their travels. |
| 3.1.III.D Increase cross-cultural interactions resulted in the diffusion of literary, artistic, and cultural traditions, as well as scientific and technological innovations. |
| *3.1.IV There was continued diffusion of crops and pathogens, including epidemic diseases like the bubonic plague along the trade routes.* |
| **3.2 — State formation and development demonstrated continuity, innovation, and diversity in various regions.** |
| *3.2.I Empires collapsed in different regions of the world, and in some areas were replaced by new imperial states or political systems.* |
| 3.2.I.A Following the collapses of empires, imperial states were reconstituted in some regions, including the Byzantine Empire and the Chinese dynasties (Sui, Tang, and Song), combining traditional sources of power and legitimacy with innovations better suited to their specific local context. |
| 3.2.I.B In some places, new political entities emerged, including those in various Islamic states; the Mongol khanates; new Hindu and Buddhist states in South, East and Southeast Asia; city-states; and decentralized government (feudalism) in Europe and Japan. |
| 3.2.I.C Some states synthesized local with foreign traditions. |
| 3.2.I.D In the Americas, as in Afro-Eurasia, state systems expanded in scope and reach; networks of city-states flourished in the Maya region and, at the end of this period, imperial systems were created by the Mexica (Aztecs) and Inca. |
| *3.2.II Interregional contacts and conflicts between states and empires encouraged significant technological and cultural transfers, including transfers.* |
| 3.2.II.A Technological and cultural transfers were taking place: between Tang China and the Abbasids; across the Mongol Empire; between Muslims and Christians in the Mediterranean region during the Crusades; and during Chinese maritime activity led by Ming Admiral Zheng He. |
| **3.3 — Changes in trade networks resulted from and stimulated increasing productive capacity, with important implications for social and gender structures and environmental processes.** |
| *3.3.I Innovations stimulated agricultural and industrial production in many regions.* |
| 3.3.I.A Agricultural production increased significantly due to technological innovations. |
| 3.3.I.B Demand for luxury goods increased in Afro-Eurasia. Chinese, Persian, and Indian artisans and merchants expanded their production of textiles and porcelains for export; industrial production of iron and steel expanded in China. |
| *3.3.II The fate of cities varied greatly, with periods of significant decline and periods of increased urbanization buoyed by rising productivity and expanding trade networks.* |
| 3.3.II.A Multiple factors contributed to the decline of urban areas in this period, including invasions, disease, and the decline of agricultural productivity. |
| 3.3.II.B Multiple factors contributed to urban revival, including the end of invasions, the availability of safe and reliable transport, the rise of commerce and warmer temperatures between 800 C.E. and 1300, increased agricultural productivity and subsequent rising population, and greater availability of labor. |
| *3.3.III Despite significant continuities in social structures and in methods of production, there were also some important changes in labor management and in the effect of religious conversion on gender relations and family life.* |
| 3.3.III.A The diversification of labor organization that began with settled agriculture continued in this period. Forms of labor organization included free peasant agriculture, nomadic pastoralism, craft production and guild organization, various forms of coerced and unfree labor, government-imposed labor, and military obligations. |
| 3.3.III.B As in the previous period, social structures were shaped largely by class and caste hierarchies. Patriarchy continued; however, in some areas, women exercised more power and influence, most notably among the Mongols and in West Africa, Japan, and Southeast Asia. |
| 3.3.III.C New forms of coerced labor appeared, including serfdom in Europe and Japan and the elaboration of the *mit’a* in the Inca Empire. Peasants resisted attempts to raise dues and taxes by staging revolts*.* The demand for slaves for both military and domestic purposes increased, particularly in central Eurasia, parts of Africa, and the eastern Mediterranean. |
| 3.3.III.D Buddhism, Christianity, Islam, and Neo-Confucianism were adopted in new regions and often caused significant changes in gender relations and family structure. |

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| PERIOD 4 - Global Interactions c. 1450 to c. 1750 |
| **Strayer Textbook: Chapters 13-15** |
| **WHAP Key Concepts** |
| **4.1 — The interconnection of the Eastern and Western Hemispheres, made possible by transoceanic voyaging, transformed trade and religion and had a significant economic, cultural, social, and demographic impact on the world.** |
| *4.1.I. Existing regional patterns of trade intensified in the context of the new global circulation of goods.* |
| A. The intensification of trade brought prosperity and economic disruption to the merchants and governments in the trading region of the Indian Ocean, the Mediterranean, the Sahara, and overland Eurasia. |
| *4.1.II. European technological developments in cartography and navigation built on previous knowledge developed in the Classical, Islamic, and Asian worlds.* |
| A. The developments included the production of new tools, innovations in ship  designs, and an improved understanding of global wind and currents patterns — all of which made transoceanic travel and trade possible. |
| *4.1.III. Remarkable new transoceanic maritime reconnaissance occurred in this period.* |
| 4.1.III.A. Portuguese development of maritime technology and navigational skills led to increased travel to and trade with West Africa and resulted in the construction of a global trading-post empire. |
| 4.1.III.B. Spanish sponsorship of the first Columbian and subsequent voyages across the Atlantic and Pacific dramatically increased European interest in transoceanic travel and trade. |
| 4.1.III.C. Northern Atlantic crossings for fishing and for the purpose of settlement continued and spurred European searches for multiple routes to Asia. |
| *4.1.IV. The new global circulation of goods was facilitated by chartered European monopoly companies and the flow of silver from Spanish*  *colonies in the Americas to purchase Asian goods for the Atlantic markets. Regional markets continued to flourish in Afro–Eurasia by using established commercial practices and new transoceanic shipping services developed by European merchants.* |
| 4.1.IV.A. European merchants’ role in Asian trade was characterized mostly by transporting goods from one Asian country to another market in Asia or the Indian Ocean region. |
| 4.1.IV.B. Commercialization and the creation of a global economy were intimately connected to new global circulation of silver from the Americas. |
| 4.1.IV.C. Mercantilist policies and practices were used by European rulers to expand and control their economies and claim overseas territories, and joint stock companies, influenced by these mercantilist principles, were used by rulers and merchants to finance exploration and compete against one another in global trade. |
| 4.1.IV.D. The Atlantic system involved the movement of goods, wealth, and free and unfree laborers and the mixing of African, American, and European cultures and people. |
| *4.1.V. The new connections between the Eastern and Western Hemispheres resulted in the Columbian Exchange.* |
| 4.1.V.A. European colonization of the Americas led to the spread of diseases that were endemic in the Eastern Hemisphere — including smallpox, measles, and influenza — to Amerindian populations and the unintentional transfer of disease vectors, including mosquitoes and rats. |
| 4.1.V.B. American foods became staple crops in various parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Cash crops were grown primarily on plantations with coerced labor and were exported mostly to Europe and the Middle East in this period. |
| 4.1.V.C. Afro–Eurasian fruit trees, grains, sugar, and domesticated animals were brought by Europeans to the Americas, while other foods were brought by African slaves |
| 4.1.V.D. Populations in Afro–Eurasia benefitted nutritionally from the increased diversity of American food crops. |
| 4.1.V.E. European colonization and the introduction of European agriculture and settlements practices in the Americas often affected the physical environment through deforestation and soil depletion. |
| *4.1.VI. The increase in interactions between newly connected hemispheres and intensification of connections within hemispheres expanded the spread and reform of existing religions and contributed to both religious conflicts and the creation of syncretic belief systems and practices.* |
| *4.1.VII. As merchants’ profits increased and governments collected more taxes, funding for the visual and performing arts, even for popular audiences,*  *increased along with an expansion of literacy and increased focus on innovation and scientific inquiry.* |
| **4.2 — Although the world's productive systems continued to be heavily centered on agriculture, major changes occurred in agricultural labor, the systems and locations of manufacturing, gender and social structures, and environmental processes.** |
| *4.2.I. Beginning in the 14th century, there was a decrease in mean temperatures, often referred to as the Little Ice Age, around the world that lasted until the 19th century, contributing to changes in agricultural practices and the contraction of settlement in parts of the Northern Hemisphere.* |
| *4.2.II. Traditional peasant agriculture increased and changed, plantations expanded, and demand for labor increased. These changes both fed and responded to growing global demand for raw materials and finished products.* |
| 4.2.II.A. Peasant and artisan labor intensified in many regions. |
| 4.2.II.B. Slavery in Africa continued both the traditional incorporation of mainly female slaves into households and the export of slaves to the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean. |
| 4.2.II.C. The growth of the plantation economy increased the demand for slaves in the Americas. |
| 4.2.II.D. Colonial economies in the Americas depended on a range of coerced labor. |
| *4.2.III. As social and political elites changed, they also restructured ethnic, racial, and gender hierarchies.* |
| 4.2.III.A. Both imperial conquests and widening global economic opportunities contributed to the formation of new political and economic elites. |
| 4.2.III.B. The power of existing political and economic elites fluctuated as they confronted new challenges to their ability to affect the policies of the increasingly powerful monarchs and leaders. |
| 4.2.III.C. Some notable gender and family restructuring occurred, including demographic changes in Africa that resulted from the slave trades. |
| **4.3 — Empires expanded around the world, presenting new challenges in the incorporation of diverse populations and in the effective administration of new coerced labor systems.** |
| *4.3.I. Rulers used a variety of methods to legitimize and consolidate their power.* |
| 4.3.I.A. Rulers continued to use religious ideas, art, and monumental architecture to legitimize their rule. |
| 4.3.I.B. Many states adopted practices to accommodate the different ethnic and religious diversity of their subjects or to utilize the economic, political, and military contributions of different ethnic or religious groups. |
| 4.3.I.C. Recruitment and use of bureaucratic elites, as well as the development of military professionals, became more common among rulers who wanted to maintain centralized control over their populations and resources. |
| 4.3.I.D. Rulers used tribute collection and tax farming to generate revenue for territorial expansion. |
| *4.3.II. Imperial expansion relied on the increased use of gunpowder, cannons, and armed trade to establish large empires in both hemispheres.* |
| 4.3.II.A. Europeans established new trading-post empires in Africa and Asia, which proved profitable for the rulers and merchants involved in new global trade networks, but the impact of these empires was limited by the authority of local states including the Ashanti and Mughal empires |
| 4.3.II.B. Land empires—including the Manchu, Mughal, Ottoman, and Russian—expanded dramatically in size. |
| 4.3.II.C. European states established new maritime empires in the Americas, including the Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, French, and British. |
| *4.3.III. Competition over trade routes, state rivalries, and local resistance all provided significant challenges to state consolidation and expansion.* |

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| PERIOD 5 - Industrialization and Global Integration c. 1750 to c. 1900 |
| **Strayer Textbook: Chapters 16-19** |
| **5.1 — The process of industrialization changed the way in which goods were produced and consumed, with far reaching effects on the global economy, social relations, and culture.** |
| *5.1.I. Industrialization fundamentally changed how goods were produced.* |
| 5.1.I.A. A variety of factors led to the rise of industrial production and eventually resulted in the Industrial Revolution |
| 5.1.I.B. The development of machines, including steam engines and the internal combustion engine, made it possible to exploit vast new resources of energy stored in fossil fuels, specifically coal and oil. The fossil fuels revolution greatly increased the energy available to human societies. |
| 5.1.I.C. The development of the factory system concentrated labor in a single location and led to an increasing degree of specialization of labor. |
| 5.1.I.D. As the new methods of industrial production became more common in parts of northwestern Europe, they spread to other parts of Europe and the United States, Russia, and Japan. |
| 5.1.I.E. The “second industrial revolution” led to new methods in the production of steel, chemicals, electricity, and precision machinery during the second half of the 19th century. |
| *5.1.II. New patterns of global trade and production developed and further integrated the global economy as industrialists sought raw materials and new markets for the increasing amount and array of goods produced in their factories.* |
| 5.1.II.A. The need for raw materials for the factories and increased food supplies for the growing population in urban centers led to the growth of export economies around the world that specialized in commercial extraction of natural resources and the production of food an industrial crops. The profits from these raw materials were used to purchase finished goods. |
| 5.1.II.B. The rapid development of steam-powered industrial production in European countries and the U.S. contributed to these increase in these regions’ share of global manufacturing during the first Industrial Revolution. While Middle Eastern and Asian countries continued to produce manufactured goods, these regions’ share in global manufacturing declined. |
| 5.1.II.C. The global economy of the 19th century expanded dramatically from the previous period due to increased exchanges of raw materials and finished goods in most parts of the world. Trade in some commodities was organized in a way that gave merchants and companies based in Europe and the U.S. a distinct economic advantage. |
| *5.1.III. To facilitate investments at all levels of industrial production, financiers developed and expanded various financial institutions.* |
| 5.1.III.A. The ideological inspiration for economic changes lies in the development of capitalism and classical liberalism associated with Adam Smith and John Stuart Mill. |
| 5.1.III.B. The global nature of trade and production contributed to the proliferation of large-scale transnational businesses that relied on various financial instruments. |
| *5.1.IV. There were major developments and innovations in transportation and communication, including railroads, steamships, telegraphs, and canals.* |
| *5.1.V. The development and spread of global capitalism led to a variety of responses.* |
| 5.1.V.A. In industrialized states, many workers organized themselves, often in labor unions, to improve working conditions, limit hours, and gain higher wages. Workers’ movements and political parties emerged in different areas, promoting alternative visions of society, including Marxism. |
| 5.1.V.B. In response to the expansion of industrializing states, some governments in Asia and Africa, such as the Ottoman Empire and Qing China, sought to reform and modernize their economies and militaries. Reform efforts were often resisted by some members of government of established elite groups. |
| 5.1.V.C. In a small number of states, governments promoted their own state-sponsored visions of industrialization. |
| 5.1.V.D. In response to the social and economic changes brought about by industrial capitalism, some governments promoted various types of political, social, educational and urban reforms. |
| *5.1.VI. The ways in which people organized themselves into societies also underwent significant transformations in industrialized states due to the fundamental restructuring of the global economy.* |
| 5.1.VI.A. New social classes, including the middle class and the industrial working class, developed. |
| 5.1.VI.B. Family dynamics, gender roles, and demographics changed in response to industrialization. |
| 5.1.VI.C. Rapid urbanization that accompanied global capitalism often led to a variety of challenges. |
| **5.2 — As states industrialized, they also expanded existing overseas empires and established new colonies and transoceanic relationships.** |
| *5.2.I. Industrializing powers established transoceanic empires.* |
| 5.2.I.A. States with existing colonies strengthened their control over those colonies. |
| 5.2.I.B. European states, as well as the United States and Japan, established empires throughout Asia and the Pacific, while Spanish and Portuguese influence declined. |
| 5.2.I.C. Many European states used both warfare and diplomacy to expand their empires in Africa. |
| 5.2.I.D. In some parts of their empires, Europeans established settler colonies. |
| 5.2.I.E. Industrialized states practiced neocolonialism in Latin America and economic imperialism in some parts of the world. |
| *5.2.II. Imperialism influenced state formation and contraction around the world.* |
| 5.2.II.A. The expansion of U.S. and European influence over Tokugawa Japan led to the emergence of Meiji Japan. |
| 5.2.II.B. The United States, Russia, and Japan expanded their land borders by conquering and settling neighboring territories. |
| 5.2.II.C. Anti-imperial resistance took various forms, including direct resistance within empires and the creation of new states on the peripheries. |
| *5.2.III. In some imperial societies, emerging cultural, religious, and racial ideologies, including social Darwinism, were used to justify imperialism.* |
| **5.3 — The 18th century marked the beginning of an intense period of revolution and rebellion against existing governments, leading to the establishment of new nation-states around the world.** |
| *5.3.I. The rise and diffusion of Enlightenment thought that questioned established traditions in all areas of life often preceded revolutions and rebellions against existing governments.* |
| 5.3.I.A. Enlightenment philosophies applied new ways of understanding and empiricist approaches to both the natural world and human relationships, encouraging observation and inference in all spheres of life; they also reexamined the role that religion played in public life, insisting on the importance of reason as opposed to revelation. Other Enlightenment philosophers developed new political ideas about the individual, natural rights, and the social contract. |
| 5.3.I.B. The ideas of Enlightenment philosophers, as reflected in revolutionary documents influenced resistance to existing political authority, often in pursuit of independence and democratic ideals. |
| 5.3.I.C. Enlightenment ideas influenced various reform movements that challenged existing notions of social relations, which contributed to the expansion of rights as seen in expanded suffrage, the abolition of slavery, and/or the end of serfdom. |
| *5.3.II. Beginning in the 18th century, peoples around the world developed a new sense of commonality based on language, religion, social customs, and territory. These newly imagined national communities linked this identity with the borders of the state, while governments used this idea of nationalism to unite diverse populations. In some cases, nationalists challenged boundaries or sought unification of fragmented regions.* |
| *5.3.III. Increasing discontent with imperial rule propelled reformist and revolutionary movements.* |
| 5.3.III.A. Subjects challenged centralized imperial governments. |
| 5.3.III.B. American colonial subjects led a series of rebellions — including the American Revolution, the Haitian Revolution, and the Latin American independence movements — that facilitated the emergence of independent states in the U.S., Haiti, and mainland Latin America. |
| 5.3.III.C. Slave resistance challenged existing authorities in the Americas. |
| 5.3.III.D. Increasing questions about political authority and growing nationalism contributed to anticolonial movements. |
| 5.3.III.E. Some of the rebellions were influenced by diverse religious ideas. |
| *5.3.IV. The global spread of European political and social thought and the increasing number of rebellions stimulated new transnational ideologies*  *and solidarities.* |
| 5.3.IV.A. Discontent with monarchist and imperial rule encouraged the development of various ideologies , including democracy, liberalism, socialism and communism. |
| 5.3.IV.B. Demands for women’s suffrage and an emergent feminism challenged political and gender hierarchies. |
| **5.4 — As a result of the emergence of transoceanic empires and a global capitalist economy, migration patterns changed dramatically, and the numbers of migrants increased significantly.** |
| *5.4.I . Migration in many cases was influenced by changes in demographics in both industrialized and unindustrialized societies that presented challenges to existing patterns of living.* |
| 5.4.I.A. Changes in food production and improved medical conditions contributed to a significant global rise in population in both urban and rural areas. |
| 5.4.I.B. Because of the nature of the new modes of transportation, both internal and external migrants increasingly relocated to cities. This pattern contributed to the significant global urbanization of the 19th century. The new methods of  transportation also allowed for many migrants to return, periodically or permanently, to their home societies. |
| *5.4.II. Migrants relocated for a variety of reasons.* |
| 5.4.II.A. Many individuals chose freely to relocate, often in search of work. |
| 5.4.II.B. The new global capitalist economy continued to rely on coerced and semicoerced labor migration, including slavery, Chinese and Indian indentured servitude, and convict labor. |
| *5.4.III. The large-scale nature of migration, especially in the 19th century, produced a variety of consequences and reactions to the increasingly diverse societies on the part of migrants and the existing populations.* |
| 5.4.III.A. Migrants tended to be male, leaving women to take on new roles in the home society that had been formerly occupied by men. |
| 5.4.III.B. Migrants often created ethnic enclaves in different parts of the world that helped transplant their culture into new environments and facilitated the development of migrant support networks. w Indians in East and Southern Africa, the Caribbean, and Southeast Asia Illustrative examples, migrant ethnic enclaves: w Chinese in Southeast Asia, the Caribbean, South America, and North America w Irish and Italians in North America |
| 5.4.III.C. Receiving societies did not always embrace immigrants, as seen in the various degrees of ethnic and racial prejudice and the ways states attempted to regulate the increased flow of people across their borders. |

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| PERIOD 6 - Accelerating Global Change and Realignments c. 1900 to the PRESENT |
| **Strayer Textbook: Chapters 20-23** |
| **6.1. Rapid advances in science and technology altered the understanding of the universe and the natural world and led to advances in communication, transportation, industry, agriculture, and medicine.** |
| *6.1.I Researchers made rapid advances in science that spread throughout the world, assisted by the development of new technology.* |
| 6.1.I.A New modes of communication -- including the Internet, radio communication, and cellular communication -- and transportation reduced the problem of geographic distance. |
| 6.1.I.B The Green Revolution and commercial agriculture increased productivity and sustained the earth’s growing population as it spread chemically and genetically modified forms of agriculture. |
| 6.1.I.C Medical innovations, such as vaccines and antibiotics, increased the ability of humans to survive and live longer. |
| 6.1.I.D Energy technologies, including the use of petroleum and nuclear power, raised productivity and increased the production of material goods. |
| *6.1.I During a period of unprecedented global population expansion, humans fundamentally changed their interactions with the environment.* |
| 6.1.II.A As human activity contributed to deforestation, desertification, and increased consumption of the world’s supply of fresh water and clean air, humans competed over these and other resources more intensely than ever before. |
| 6.1.II.B The release of greenhouse gases and other pollutants into the atmosphere contributed to debates about the nature and causes of climate change. |
| *6.1.III Disease, scientific innovations, and conflict led to demographic shifts.* |
| 6.1.III.A Diseases associated with poverty persisted, while other diseases emerged as new epidemics and threats to human survival. In addition, increased longevity led to higher incidence of certain diseases. |
| 6.1.III.B More effective forms of birth control gave women greater control over fertility and transformed sexual practices. |
| 6.1.III.C New military technology and new tactics and the waging of “total war” led to increased levels of wartime casualties. |
| **6.2 — Peoples and states around the world challenged the existing political and social order in varying ways, leading to unprecedented worldwide conflicts.** |
| *6.2.I Europe dominated the global political order at the beginning of the 20th century, but both land-based and transoceanic empires gave way to new states by the century’s end.* |
| 6.2.I.A The older, land-based Ottoman, Russian, and Qing empires collapsed due to a combination of internal and external factors. |
| 6.2.I.B Between the two world wars, European imperial states often maintained control over their colonies and in some cases gained additional territories. |
| 6.2.I.C After the end of World War II, some colonies negotiated their independence, while other colonies achieved independence through armed struggle. |
| *6.2.II Emerging ideologies of anti-imperialism contributed to the dissolution of empires and the restructuring of states.* |
| 6.2.II.A Nationalist leaders and parties in Asia and Africa sought varying degrees of autonomy within or independence from imperial rule. |
| 6.2.II.B Regional, religious, and ethnic movements challenged both colonial rule and  inherited imperial boundaries. |
| 6.2.II.C Transnational movements sought to unite people across national boundaries. |
| 6.2.II.D The Mexican Revolution arose in opposition to neocolonialism and economic imperialism, and movements to redistribute land and resources developed within states in Africa, Asia, and Latin America, sometimes advocating communism or socialism. |
| 6.2.II.E In many parts of the world, religious movements sought to redefine the relationship between the individual and the state. |
| *6.2.III Political changes were accompanied by major demographic and social consequences.* |
| 6.2.III.A The redrawing of old colonial boundaries led to conflict as well as population displacement and/or resettlements, such as the partitioning of India and Pakistan and population displacements following the creation of the state of Israel. |
| 6.2.III.B The migration of former colonial subjects to imperial metropoles (the former colonizing country, usually in the major cities) maintained cultural and economic ties between the colony and the metropole even after the dissolution of empires. |
| 6.2.III.C The rise of extremist groups in power led to the annihilation of specific populations, notably in the Holocaust during World War II, and to other atrocities acts of genocide, or ethnic violence. |
| *6.2.IV Military conflicts occurred on an unprecedented global scale.* |
| 6.2.IV.A World War I and World War II were the first “total wars.” Governments used ideologies, including political propaganda, art, media, and intensified forms of nationalism, to mobilize populations (both in the home countries and the colonies or former colonies) for the purpose of waging war. Governments used ideologies, including fascism and communism, to mobilize all of their state’s resources for war and, in the case of totalitarian states, to direct many aspects of daily life during the course of the conflicts and beyond. |
| 6.2.IV.B The sources of global conflict in the first half of the century varied and included imperialist expansion by European powers and Japan, competition for resources, the economic crisis engendered by the Great Depression, and the rise of fascist and totalitarian regimes to positions of power. |
| 6.2.IV.C The global balance of economic and political power shifted after the end of World War II and rapidly evolved into the Cold War. The democracy of the United States and the communist Soviet Union emerged as superpowers, which led to ideological conflict and a power struggle between capitalism and communism across the globe. This conflict extended beyond its basic ideological origins to have profound effects on economic, political, social and cultural aspects of global events. |
| 6.2.IV.D The Cold War produced new military alliances, including NATO and the Warsaw Pact, and promoted proxy wars between and within postcolonial states in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. |
| 6.2.IV.E Expansions in U.S. military spending and technological development, the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan and economic weakness in communist countries led to the end of the Cold War and the collapse of the Soviet Union. |
| *6.2.V Although conflict dominated much of the 20th century, many individuals and groups — including states — opposed this trend. Some individuals and groups, however, intensified the conflicts.* |
| 6.2.V.A Groups and individuals challenged the many wars of the century, and some such as Mohandas Gandhi, Martin Luther King Jr., and Nelson Mandela, promoted the practice of nonviolence as a way to bring about political change. |
| 6.2.V.B Groups and individuals*,* including the Non-Aligned Movement, opposed and promoted alternatives to the existing economic, political and social orders. |
| 6.2.V.C Militaries and militarized states often responded to the proliferation of conflicts in ways that further intensified conflict. |
| 6.2.V.D Some movements used violence against civilians to achieve political aims. |
| **6.3 — The role of the state in the domestic economy varied, and new institutions of global association emerged and continued to develop throughout the century.** |
| *6.3.I States responded in a variety of ways to the economic challenges of the 20th century* |
| 6.3.I.A In communist states, such as the Soviet Union and China governments, governments controlled their national economies, often through repressive policies and with negative repercussions for their populations. |
| 6.3.I.B Following World War I and the onset of the Great Depression, governments began to take a more active role in economic life. |
| 6.3.I.C In newly independent states after World War II, governments often took on a  strong role in guiding economic life to promote development. |
| 6.3.I.D In a trend accelerated by the end of the Cold War, many governments encouraged free-market economic policies and promoted economic liberalization in the late 20th century. |
| 6.3.I.E In the late 20th century, revolutions in information and communications technology led to the growth of knowledge economies in some regions, while industrial production and manufacturing were increasingly situated in developing economies including the Pacific Rim and Latin America. |
| *6.3.II States, communities, and individuals became increasingly interdependent -- a process facilitated by the growth of institutions of global governance.* |
| 6.3.II.A New international organizations formed to maintain world peace and to facilitate international cooperation. |
| 6.3.II.B Changing economic institutions and regional trade agreements reflected the spread of principles and practices associated with free-market economics throughout the world. |
| 6.3.II.C Movements throughout the world protested the inequality of environmental and economic consequences of global integration. |
| *6.3.III People conceptualized society and culture in new ways; rights-based discourses challenged old assumptions about race, class, gender, and religion. In much of the world, access to education, as well as participation in new political and professional roles, became more inclusive in terms of these factors.* |
| *6.3.IV Political and social changes of the 20th century led to changes in the arts and literature. In the second half of the century, popular and consumer culture became more global* |