

How to use this Study Guide:

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Period 1: Technological and Environmental Transformations, to c. 600 BCE

Key Concept 1.1 Big Geography & the Peopling of the Earth

- 1.1.1 What is the evidence that explains the earliest history of humans and the planet? What are the theories that interpret this evidence?

The term "Big Geography" draws attention to the global nature of world history. Throughout the Paleolithic period, humans migrated from Africa to Eurasia, Australia, and the Americas. Early humans were mobile and creative in adapting to different geographical settings from savannah to desert to Ice Age tundra. By analogy with modern hunter/forager societies, anthropologists infer that these bands were relatively egalitarian. Humans also developed varied and sophisticated technologies.

- 1.1.2 Where did humans first appear on Earth, and what were their societal structure(s), technology, and culture?

Archeological evidence indicates that during the Paleolithic Era, hunting-foraging 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.

- 1.1.3 Describe earliest humans' technology & tools

Humans used fire in new ways: to aid hunting and foraging, to protect against predators and to adapt to cold environments. Humans developed a wider range of tools specially adapted to different environments from tropics to tundra.

- 1.1.4 What were the earliest humans' religious beliefs and practices?

Religion was most likely animistic.

- 1.1.5 How did the earliest humans' society help them procure enough supplies to survive?

Economic structures focused on small kinship groups of hunting/foraging bands that could make what they needed to survive. However, not all groups were self-sufficient; they exchanged people, ideas and goods.

Key Concept 1.2 The Neolithic Revolution and Early Agricultural Societies

- 1.2.1 How did human societies change during the Neolithic Revolution? What were the long-term demographic, social, political, and economic effects of the Neolithic Revolution?

In response to warming climates at the end of the last Ice Age from about 10,000 years ago, some groups adapted to the environment in new ways while others remained hunter/foragers. Settled agriculture appeared in several different parts of the world. The switch to agriculture created a more reliable, but not necessarily more diversified, food supply. Agriculturalists also had a massive impact on the environment, through intensive cultivation of selected plants to the exclusion of others,

through the construction of irrigation systems and through the use of domesticated animals for food and for labor. Populations increased; family groups gave way to village and later urban life with all its complexity. Patriarchy and forced labor systems developed giving elite men concentrated power over most of the other people in their societies.

- 1.2.2 How did pastoral societies resemble or differ from early agricultural societies? Where did pastoralism persist even after the Neolithic Revolution?

Pastoralism emerged in parts of Africa and Eurasia. Pastoral peoples domesticated animals and led their herds around grazing ranges. Like agriculturalists, pastoralists tended to be more socially stratified than were hunter-foragers. Because pastoralists were mobile, they rarely accumulated large amounts of material possessions, which would have been a hindrance when changing grazing areas. Pastoralists' mobility allowed them to become an important conduit for technological change as they interacted with settled populations.

- 1.2.3 How did the Neolithic Revolution affect human societies economically & socially?

Beginning about 10,000 years ago, the Neolithic Revolution led to the development of new and more complex economic and social systems.

- 1.2.4 Why did the Neolithic Revolution start (at all)? Where did the Neolithic Revolution first transform human populations? (Plural answer)

Possibly as a response to climatic change, permanent agricultural villages emerged first in the lands of the eastern Mediterranean. Agriculture emerged at different times in Mesopotamia, the Nile River valley and sub-Saharan Africa, the Indus River valley, the Yellow River or Huang He valley, Papua-New Guinea, Mesoamerica and the Andes.

- 1.2.5 Where did pastoralism persist even after the Neolithic Revolution?

Pastoralism developed at various sites in the grasslands of Afro-Eurasia.

- 1.2.6 What various crops & animals were developed or domesticated during the Neolithic Revolution?

Different crops or animals were domesticated in the various core regions, depending on available local flora and fauna.

- 1.2.7 What labor adjustments did humans make in order to facilitate the Neolithic Revolution?

Agricultural communities had to work cooperatively to clear land and to create the water control systems needed for crop production.

- 1.2.8 What were the environmental effects of the Neolithic Revolution?

These agricultural practices drastically impacted environmental diversity. Pastoralists also affected the environment by grazing large numbers of animals on fragile grasslands, leading to erosion when over-grazed.

- 1.2.9 What effects did pastoralism & agriculture have on the food supply?

Agriculture and pastoralism began to transform human societies. Pastoralism and agriculture led to more reliable and abundant food supplies which increased population.

- 1.2.10 What were the social effects of the increased food supply caused by increase of agriculture?

Surpluses of food and other goods led to specialization of labor, including new classes of artisans and warriors, and the development of elites.

1.2.11 What technological innovations are associated with the growth of agriculture?

Technological innovations led to improvements in agricultural production, trade, and transportation, including pottery, plows, woven textiles, metallurgy, wheels and wheeled vehicles.

Key Concept 1.3 The Development and Interactions of Early Agricultural, Pastoral, and Urban Societies

1.3.1 What is a ‘civilization,’ and what are the defining characteristics of a civilization?

From about 5,000 years ago, urban societies developed, laying the foundations for the first civilizations. The term civilization is normally used to designate large societies with cities and powerful states. While there were many differences between civilizations, they also shared important features. They all produced agricultural surpluses that permitted significant specialization of labor. All civilizations contained cities and generated complex institutions, such as political bureaucracies, including armies and religious hierarchies. They also featured clearly stratified social hierarchies and organized long-distance trading relationships. Economic exchanges intensified within and between civilizations, as well as with nomadic pastoralists.

1.3.2 How did civilizations develop and grow more complex before 600 BCE? What were the effects of this increasing complexity?

As populations grew, competition for surplus resources, especially food, led to greater social stratification, specialization of labor, increased trade, more complex systems of government and religion, and the development of record keeping. As civilizations expanded, they had to balance their need for more resources with environmental constraints such as the danger of undermining soil fertility. Finally, the accumulation of wealth in settled communities spurred warfare between communities and/or with pastoralists; this violence drove the development of new technologies of war and urban defense.

1.3.3 Where did the earliest civilizations develop, and why did they develop in those locations?

Core and foundational civilizations developed in a variety of geographical and environmental settings where agriculture flourished. NOTE: Students should be able to identify the location of all of the following:

- *Mesopotamia in the Tigris and Euphrates River valleys*
- *Egypt in the Nile River valley*
- *Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa in the Indus River valley*
- *The Shang in the Yellow River or Huang He valley*
- *The Olmecs in Mesoamerica*
- *Chavín in Andean South America.*

1.3.4 What is a “state?” Who ruled the early states, and which segments of society usually supported the ruler?

The first states emerged within core civilizations. States were powerful new systems of rule that mobilized surplus labor and resources over large areas. Early states were often led by a ruler whose source of power was believed to be divine or had divine support, and who was supported by the religious hierarchy and professional warriors.

1.3.5 Why were some early states able to expand and conquering neighboring states?

As states grew and competed for land and resources, the more favorably situated had greater access to resources—including the Hittites' access to iron, produced more surplus food and experienced growing populations. These states were able to undertake territorial expansion and conquer surrounding states.

- 1.3.6 Give four examples of early empires in the Nile & Tigris/Euphrates River Valleys.

Early regions of state expansion or empire building were Mesopotamia and Babylonia—Sumerians, Akkadians and Babylonians—and Egypt and Nubia along the Nile Valley.

- 1.3.7 What role did pastoral civilizations play vis a vis empires?

Pastoralists were often the developers and disseminators of new weapons and modes of transportation that transformed warfare in agrarian civilizations.

- *compound bows*
- *chariots*
- *iron weapons*
- *horseback riding*

- 1.3.8 What methods did rulers use to unify their populations?

Culture played a significant role in unifying states through law, language, literature, religion, myths and monumental art.

- 1.3.9 What architectural forms did early civilizations produce?

Early civilizations developed monumental architecture and urban planning.

- *ziggurats*
- *temples*
- *streets and roads*
- *pyramids*
- *defensive walls*
- *sewage and water systems*

- 1.3.10 Which social strata encouraged the development of art in ancient civilizations?

Elites, both political and religious, promoted arts and artisanship.

- *sculpture*
- *painting*
- *wall decorations*
- *elaborate weaving*

- 1.3.11 What forms of writing developed in ancient civilizations?

Systems of record keeping arose independently in all early civilizations.

- *cuneiform*
- *hieroglyphs*
- *pictographs*
- *alphabets*
- *quipu*

- 1.3.12 What was the relationship between literature and culture?

Literature was also a reflection of culture.

- *the Epic of Gilgamesh*
- *Rig Veda*
- *Book of the Dead*

- 1.3.13 What pre-600 BCE religions strongly influenced later eras?

New religious beliefs developed in this period continued to have strong influences in later periods, including the Vedic religion, Hebrew monotheism and Zoroastrianism.

- 1.3.14 How “big” were the pre-600 BCE trading regions?

Trade expanded throughout this period, with civilizations exchanging goods, cultural ideas and technology. Trade expanded from local to regional and transregional, including between Egypt and Nubia, Mesopotamia and the Indus valley.

- 1.3.15 How did social and gender identities develop pre-600 BCE

Social and gender hierarchies intensified as states expanded and cities multiplied.

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Period 2: Organization and Reorganization of Human Societies, c. 600 BCE to c. 600 CE

Key Concept 2.1 The Development and Codification of Religious and Cultural Traditions

2.1.1 How did religions help strengthen political, economic, and cultural ties within societies?

As states and empires increased in size and contacts between regions multiplied, religious and cultural systems were transformed. Religions and belief systems provided a bond among the people and an ethical code to live by. These shared beliefs also influenced and reinforced political, economic and occupational stratification. Religious and political authority often merged as rulers, some considered divine, used religion, along with military and legal structures, to justify their rule and ensure its continuation. Religions and belief systems could also generate conflict, partly because beliefs and practices varied greatly within and among societies.

2.1.2 How did religions promote a sense of unity?

Codifications and further developments of existing religious traditions provided a bond among the people and an ethical code to live by.

2.1.3 What are the characteristics and core teachings of Judaism?

The association of monotheism with Judaism was further developed with the codification of the Hebrew Scriptures which also showed Mesopotamian influences. Around 600 BCE and 70 CE, the Assyrian and Roman empires respectively created Jewish diaspora communities and destroyed the kingdom of Israel as a theocracy.

2.1.4 What are the characteristics and core teachings of Hinduism(s)?

The core beliefs outlined in the Sanskrit scriptures formed the basis of the Vedic religions—often known as Hinduisms—that show some influence of Indo-European traditions in the development of the social and political roles of a caste system and in the importance of multiple manifestations of Brahma to promote teachings about reincarnation.

2.1.5 What is a “universal religion?” Where did universal religions exist by 600 CE?

New belief systems and cultural traditions emerged and spread, often asserting universal truths.

2.1.6 What are the characteristics and core teachings of Buddhism? How and where did Buddhism spread by 600 CE?

The core beliefs preached by the historic Buddha and recorded by his followers into sutras and other scriptures were, in part, a reaction to the Vedic beliefs and rituals dominant in South Asia. Buddhism changed over time as it spread throughout Asia, first through the support of the Mauryan Emperor Asoka, and then through the efforts of missionaries and merchants and the establishment of educational institutions to promote its core teachings.

2.1.7 What are the characteristics and core teachings of Confucianism?

Confucianism's core beliefs and writings originated in the writings and lessons of Confucius and were elaborated by key disciples who sought to promote social harmony by outlining proper rituals and social relationships for all people in China including the rulers.

2.1.8 What are the characteristics and core teachings of Daoism?

In the major Daoist writings. (such as the Daodejing), 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.

- medical theories and practices
- poetry
- metallurgy
- architecture

2.1.9 What are the characteristics and core teachings of Christianity? How and where did Christianity spread by 600 CE?

The core beliefs preached by Jesus of Nazareth drew on the basic monotheism of Judaism, and initially rejected Roman and Hellenistic influences. Despite initial Roman imperial hostility, Christianity spread through the efforts of missionaries and merchants through many parts of Afro-Eurasia, and eventually gained Roman imperial support by the time of the emperor Constantine.

2.1.10 What are the characteristics and core teachings of Greco-Roman philosophy and science?

The core ideas in Greco-Roman philosophy and science emphasized logic, empirical observation and the nature of political power and hierarchy.

2.1.11 How did religions affect gender roles in their respective societies?

Belief systems affected gender roles.

- Buddhism's encouragement of a monastic life
- Confucianism's emphasis on filial piety

2.1.12 What other religious and cultural traditions were common by 600 CE?

Other religious and cultural traditions continued parallel to the codified, written belief systems in core civilizations.

2.1.13 How did humans' reliance on the natural world influence religion?

Shamanism and animism continued to shape the lives of people within and outside of core civilizations, because of their daily reliance on the natural world.

2.1.14 How did humans relate to their deceased ancestors?

Ancestor veneration persisted in many regions.

- Africa
- Mediterranean region
- East Asia
- Andean areas

2.1.15 How did art and culture develop to 600 CE?

Artistic expressions show distinctive cultural developments

- literature and drama
- architecture
- sculpture

2.1.16 What literary works influenced later eras?

Literature and drama acquired distinctive forms. (• Greek tragedy • Indian epics) that influenced artistic developments in neighboring regions and in later time periods. (• Athens • Persia • South Asia)

2.1.17 How did different societies' architectural styles develop?

Distinctive architectural styles can be seen in Indian, Greek, Mesoamerican, and Roman buildings.

2.1.18 What examples of syncretism reflect the Classical Era to 600 CE?

The convergence of Greco-Roman culture and Buddhist beliefs affected the development of unique sculptural developments, as seen in the Gandharan Buddhas, which exemplify a syncretism in which Hellenistic veneration for the body is combined with Buddhist symbols.

Key Concept 2.2 The Development of States and Empires

2.2.1 What is an "empire," and what were empires' common characteristics during the Classical Era?

As the early states and empires grew in number, size and population, they frequently competed for resources and came into conflict with one another. In quest of land, wealth, and security, some empires expanded dramatically. In doing so, they built powerful military machines and administrative institutions that were capable of organizing human activities over long distances, and they created new groups of military and political elites to manage their affairs. As these empires expanded their boundaries, they also faced the need to develop policies and procedures to govern their relations with ethnically and culturally diverse populations: sometimes to integrate them within an imperial society and sometimes to exclude them. In some cases, these empires became victims of their own successes. By expanding boundaries too far, they created political, cultural and administrative difficulties that they could not manage. They also experienced environmental, social and economic problems when they over-exploited their lands and subjects and permitted excessive wealth to concentrate in the hands of privileged classes.

2.2.2 How did the number & size of Classical empires compare to the Ancient Era?

The number and size of imperial societies grew dramatically by imposing political unity on areas where there had previously been competing states. NOTE: Students should know the location and names of the key states and empires below.

- *Southwest Asia: Persian Empires. (Achaemenid, Parthian, and Sassanid)*
- *East Asia: Qin and Han dynasties*
- *South Asia: Maurya and Gupta Empires*
- *Mediterranean region: Phoenician and Greek colonization, Hellenistic and Roman Empires*
- *Mesoamerica: Teotihuacan, Maya city states*
- *Andean South America: Moche*

2.2.3 What were the most influential of the Classical Era empires?

Empires and states developed new techniques of imperial administration based, in part, on the success of earlier political forms.

2.2.4 What techniques did Classical empires create to administer their territories?

In order to organize their subjects the rulers created administrative institutions including centralized governments, elaborate legal systems, and bureaucracies. (• China • Persia • Rome • South Asia)

2.2.5 What new political methods were created in order to rule the larger empires in the Classical Era?

Imperial governments projected military power over larger areas using a variety of techniques including: diplomacy; developing supply lines; building fortifications, defensive walls, and roads; and drawing new groups of military officers and soldiers from the local populations or conquered peoples.

- 2.2.6 How did imperial governments let their population know that the gov't was "in charge?"
Much of the success of empires rested on their promotion of trade and economic integration by building and maintaining roads and issuing currencies.
- 2.2.7 What role did trade play in creating and maintaining empires?
Imperial societies displayed unique social and economic dimensions. Much of the success of empires rested on their promotion of trade and economic integration by building and maintaining roads and issuing currencies.
- 2.2.8 What unique social and economic characteristics existed in empires?
Cities served as centers of trade, public performance of religious rituals, and political administration for states and empires. • Persepolis • Chang'an • Pataliputra • Athens • Carthage • Rome • Alexandria • Constantinople • Teotihuacan)
- 2.2.9 What function did imperial cities perform?
The social structures of all empires displayed hierarchies that included cultivators, laborers, slaves, artisans, merchants, elites and caste groups.
- 2.2.10 What social classes and occupations were common in empires?
Imperial societies relied on a range of labor systems to maintain the production of food and provide rewards for the loyalty of the elites including corvée, slavery, rents and tributes, peasant communities and family and household production.
- 2.2.11 What labor systems provided the workers for Classical Empires?
Imperial societies relied on a range of methods to maintain the production of food and provide rewards for the loyalty of the elites including corvée, slavery, rents and tributes, peasant communities and family and household production.
- 2.2.12 Describe the gender and family structures of Classical Era empires.
The Roman, Han, Mauryan, and Gupta empires created political, cultural, and administrative difficulties that they could not manage, which eventually led to their decline, collapse and transformation into successor empires or states.
- 2.2.13 What caused Classical Empires to decline, collapse, or transform into something else?
Through excessive mobilization of resources, imperial governments caused environmental damage. (• deforestation • desertification • soil erosion or silted rivers) and generated social tensions and economic difficulties by concentrating too much wealth in the hands of elites.
- 2.2.14 What were the environmental and social weaknesses of Classical Empires?
External problems resulted from security issues along their frontiers, including the threat of invasions. (• between Northern China and Xiongnu; • Gupta and the White Huns; • among Romans, Parthians, Sasanids, Kushan)
- 2.2.15 What external weaknesses contributed to the end of Classical Empires?
Frontier security issues, including the threat of invasions (• between Han China and Xiongnu • Gupta and the White Huns • between Romans and their northern and eastern neighbors)

eventually led to the decline, collapse and transformation of Classical Empires into successor empires or states.

Key Concept 2.3 Emergence of Trans-regional Networks of Communication and Exchange

2.3.1 How did Classical era trade networks compare to Ancient era networks?

Large-scale empires increased the volume of long-distance trade dramatically. Much of this trade resulted from the demand for raw materials and luxury goods. Many land and water routes linked most Eastern Hemisphere regions, while American networks developed later. NOTE: Students should know how the climate and location of the routes, the typical trade goods, and the ethnicity of people involved shaped the distinctive features of the following trade routes.

- Eurasian Silk Roads
- Trans-Saharan caravan routes
- Indian Ocean sea lanes
- One of the following: Mediterranean sea lanes; American trade routes

2.3.2 What forces contributed to the changes between the two eras?

The larger size of post-classical empires encouraged demand for “foreign” goods, as well as new technologies and the desire to spread universal religions.

2.3.3 What was commonly traded along these trade networks?

Examples of trade/exchange include:

- people
- technology
- relig/cultural beliefs
- food crops
- domesticated animals
- diseases

2.3.4 What technologies enabled long-distance overland and maritime trade?

• yokes • saddles • stirrups, all of which together permitted the use of domesticated pack animals. (horses, oxen, llamas or camels) Maritime technologies: • lateen sail • dhow ships • advanced knowledge of monsoon winds

2.3.5 Besides the physical goods, what intangibles also traveled along trade networks?

- changes in farming/irrigation techniques. (e.g. the qanat system)
- religious/cultural beliefs
- food crops
- domesticated animals
- diseases

2.3.6 What crops spread along Classical Era trade networks?

Rice and cotton from South Asia → Middle East

Sugar & citrus from Southeast Asia → South Asia → Middle East → North Africa.

2.3.7 What effects did diseases have on Classical empires?

The spread of disease pathogens diminished urban populations and contributed to the decline of some empires (• Rome • China)

2.3.8 What was the relationship between trade networks and religions?

Religious and cultural traditions were transformed as they spread including Chinese culture, Christianity, Hinduism and Buddhism. (• Mahayana Buddhism • Nestorian Christianity)

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Period 3: Regional and Transregional Interactions, c. 600 to c. 1450 CE

Key Concept 3.1 Expansion and Intensification of Communication and Exchange Networks

3.1.1 How did trade networks in the post-Classical Era compare to the Classical Era?

Though Afro-Eurasia and the Americas remained separate from each other, this era witnessed a deepening and widening of old and new networks of human interaction within and across regions. The results were unprecedented concentrations of wealth and the intensification of cross-cultural exchanges. Innovations in transportation, state policies and mercantile practices contributed to the expansion and development of commercial networks, which in turn served as conduits for cultural, technological, and biological diffusion within and between various societies.

3.1.2 What new technologies, governmental policies, & merchant activities accompanied these developments?

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.

3.1.3 What role did pastoral and nomadic groups play in these trade networks?

Pastoral or nomadic groups played a key role in creating and sustaining these networks.

3.1.4 How did the physical size of post-Classical trade networks compare to the previous era?

Expanding networks fostered greater inter-regional borrowing while at the same time sustaining regional diversity. The expansion of existing empires—including China, the Byzantine Empire, and the Caliphates—as well as new empires like the Mongols—facilitated trans-Eurasian trade and communication as new peoples were drawn into their conquerors' economies and trade networks.

3.1.5 What Classical era trade networks continued during the post-classical era, and which new cities were added during the post-Classical era?

Existing trade routes flourished including the Silk Roads, the Mediterranean Sea, trans-Saharan and the Indian Ocean basin, and promoted the growth of powerful new trading cities. (• Novgorod • Timbuktu • Swahili city-states • Hangzhou • Calicut • Baghdad • Melaka • Venice • Tenochtitlan • Cahokia)

3.1.6 What new technologies enabled the growth of inter-regional trade networks?

- *more sophisticated caravan organization. (• caravanserai • camel saddles)*
- *use of the compass, astrolabe, and larger ship designs in sea travel*
- *and new forms of credit and monetization (• bills of exchange • credit • checks/banking houses)*

3.1.7 What factors encouraged commercial growth in the post-classical era?

- *New state practices (• the minting of coins • use of paper money)*

- *New trading organizations (• the Hanseatic League)*
- *New state-sponsored commercial infrastructures (• Grand Canal in China)*

3.1.8 How did the expansion of empires & trade networks affect the relationship between peoples inside vs. outside those “zones?”

The expansion of existing empires (• China • Byzantine Empire • Caliphates) as well as new empires (• Mongols) facilitated trans-Eurasian trade and communication as new peoples were drawn into their conquerors’ economies and trade networks.

3.1.9 What basic understandings of environment and technology did post-classical traders need to conduct their business?

The expansion and intensification of long-distance trade routes often depended on peoples’ understanding of a particular regional environment and their subsequent technological adaptations to them.

- *the way Scandinavian Vikings used longboats to travel in coastal & open water, rivers & estuaries*
- *the Arabs and Berbers adapted camels to travel across and around the Sahara*
- *central Asian pastoral groups used horses to travel in the steppes)*

3.1.10 What were the environmental effects of migration in the post-classical era?

Some migrations had significant environmental impact.

- *the migration of the agricultural Bantu-speaking peoples in forested regions of Sub-Saharan Africa*
- *the maritime migrations of the Polynesian peoples who cultivated transplanted foods & domesticated animals as they moved to new islands*

3.1.11 What were the linguistic effects of migration in the post-classical era?

Some migrations and commercial contacts led to the diffusion of languages throughout a new region or the emergence of new languages

- *the spread of Bantu languages*
- *the new language of Swahili which developed in East African coastal areas*
- *the spread of Turkic and Arabic languages*

3.1.12 How did trade networks as a whole develop in the post-classical era?

Cross-cultural exchanges were fostered by the intensification of existing or the creation of new networks of trade & communication.

3.1.13 Why and where did Muslim trade networks change in the post-classical era?

Islam expanded from the Arabian Peninsula to many parts of Afro-Eurasia due to military expansion and the activities of merchants and missionaries.

3.1.14 What institutions did merchants create to foster both trade and cultural diffusion in the post-classical era?

In key places along important trade routes, merchants set up diaspora communities where they introduced their own cultural traditions into the indigenous culture.

- *Muslim merchant communities in the Indian Ocean region*
- *Chinese merchant communities in Southeast Asia*
- *Sogdian merchant communities throughout Central Asia*

- *Jewish communities in the Mediterranean, Indian Ocean basin, or along the Silk Roads*

3.1.15 How well did post-classical societies know and understand each other?

The writings of certain inter-regional travelers illustrate both the extent and the limitations of inter-cultural knowledge and understanding. • Ibn Battuta • Marco Polo • Xuangzang

3.1.16 How did post-classical trade affect the diffusion of literary, artistic, and cultural traditions?

Literary, artistic, and cultural traditions diffused.

- *the influence of Neo-Confucianism and Buddhism in East Asia, Hinduism and Buddhism in SE Asia*
- *the influence of Islam in sub-Saharan Africa and Southeast Asia*
- *the influence of Toltec/Mexica and Inca traditions in Meso- and Andean America*

3.1.17 How did post-classical trade affect the diffusion of scientific and technological traditions?

Increased cross-cultural interactions also resulted in the diffusion of scientific and technological traditions.

- *the influence of Greek and Indian mathematics on Muslim scholars*
- *the return of Greek science and philosophy to western Europe via Muslim al-Andalus in Iberia*
- *the spread of printing and gunpowder technologies from East Asia into the Islamic empires and into Western Europe*

3.1.18 What were the biological effects of post-classical trade?

There was continued diffusion of crops and pathogens throughout the Eastern Hemisphere along the trade routes.

3.1.19 What new foods, crops, and agricultural practices diffused in the post-classical era?

- *Bananas in Africa* • *New rice varieties in East Asia* • *Muslim Agricultural Revolution*

3.1.20 What diseases and pathogens also spread via post-classical trade networks?

The spread of epidemic diseases, including the Black Death, followed the well-established paths of trade and military conquest.

Key Concept 3.2 Continuity & Innovation of State Forms and their Interactions

3.2.1 How did state formations develop in the post-classical era?

State formation in this era demonstrated remarkable continuity, innovation and diversity in various regions. In Afro-Eurasia some states attempted, with differing degrees of success, to preserve or revive imperial structures, while smaller, less-centralized states continued to develop. The expansion of Islam introduced a new concept—the caliphate—to Afro-Eurasian statecraft. Pastoral peoples in Eurasia built powerful and distinctive empires that integrated people and institutions from both the pastoral and agrarian worlds. In the Americas, powerful states developed in both Mesoamerica and the Andean region

Empires collapsed and were reconstituted; in some regions new state forms emerged.

3.2.2 How did post-classical states avoid the mistakes of classical empires in the regions where classical empires collapsed?

Most reconstituted governments following the collapse of empires, (• Byzantine Empire • Sui, Tang, & Song Chinese dynasties) combined traditional sources of power and legitimacy. (• patriarchy

• religion • land-owning elites) with innovations better suited to the current circumstances. (• new methods of taxation • tributary systems • adaptation of religious institutions)

3.2.3 What new forms of governance emerged in the post-classical era?

In some places, new forms of governance emerged, including those developed in various Islamic states. (• Abbasids • Muslim Iberia • Delhi sultanates • Mongol Khanates • city-states (• in the Italian peninsula • East Africa • Southeast Asia))

3.2.4 How & where did governmental diffusion occur in the post-classical era?

Some states synthesized local and borrowed traditions. (• Persian traditions influencing Islamic states • Chinese traditions influencing Japan)

3.2.5 How did states in the Americas develop in the post-classical era?

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.

3.2.6 What technological and cultural exchanges did states encourage in the post-classical era?

Inter-regional contacts and conflicts between states and empires encouraged significant technological and cultural transfers. (• between Tang China and the Abbasids • across the Mongol empires • during the Crusades.

Key Concept 3.3 Increased Economic Productive Capacity and Its Consequences

3.3.1 What were the overall worldwide economic trends in the post-classical era?

Changes in trade networks resulted from and stimulated increasing productive capacity, with important implications for social and gender structures and environmental processes. Productivity rose in both agriculture and industry. Rising productivity supported population growth and urbanization but also strained environmental resources and at times caused dramatic demographic swings. Shifts in production and the increased volume of trade also stimulated new labor practices, including adaptation of existing patterns of free and coerced labor. Social and gender structures evolved in response to these changes.

3.3.2 What new innovations affected agriculture in the post-classical era?

*Agricultural production increased significantly due to technological innovations.
• Champa rice varieties • chinampa field systems • waru waru raised field cultivation in Andean areas • improved terracing techniques • horse collar)*

3.3.3 How and why did crops migrate during the post-classical era?

In response to increasing demand in Afro-Eurasia for foreign luxury goods, crops were transported from their indigenous homelands to equivalent climates in other regions.

3.3.4 How did textile and porcelain production develop in the post-classical era?

Chinese, Persian, and Indian artisans and merchants also expanded their production of textiles and porcelains for export; industrial production of iron and steel expanded in China.

3.3.5 Why did some post-classical urban areas decline?

Factors that contributed to declines of urban areas in this period included invasions, disease, the decline of agricultural productivity, and the Little Ice Age.

3.3.6 Why did some post-classical urban areas prosper and grow?

Factors that contributed to urban revival included the end of invasions, the availability of safe and reliable transport, the rise of commerce and the warmer temperatures between 800 and 1300. Increased agricultural productivity and subsequent rising population and greater availability of labor also contributed to urban growth.

3.3.7 What roles did cities play in their societies during the post-classical era?

While cities in general continued to play the roles they had played in the past as governmental, religious and commercial centers, many older cities declined at the same time that numerous new cities took on these established roles.

NOTE: Students should be able to explain the cultural, religious, commercial and governmental function of at least two major cities.

3.3.8 What pre-existing labor systems continued through the post-classical era?

*• free peasant agriculture • nomadic pastoralism • craft production • guild organization
• coerced/unfree labor • government-imposed labor taxes & military obligations*

3.3.9 How did social and gender hierarchies develop in the post-classical era?

As in the previous period, social structures were shaped largely by class and caste hierarchies. Patriarchy persisted; however, in some areas, women exercised more power and influence, most notably among the Mongols and in West Africa, Japan and Southeast Asia.

3.3.10 What new labor forms developed in the post-classical era?

*New forms of coerced labor: • serfdom in Europe and Japan • elaboration of mit'a in Inca Empire
Free peasants resisted attempts to raise dues and taxes by staging revolts. (China & Byzantine Empire)
The demand for slaves for both military and domestic purposes increased particularly in central Eurasia, parts of Africa and the eastern Mediterranean.*

3.3.11 Why did some gender roles and family structures change in the post-classical era?

The diffusion of Buddhism, Christianity, Islam and Neo-Confucianism often led to significant changes in gender relations and family structure.

How to use this Study Guide:

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Period 4: Global Interactions, c. 1450 to c. 1750

Key Concept 4.1 Globalizing Networks of Communication and Exchange

- 4.1.1 Describe the degree of global 'interconnection' after 1500 CE compared to before 1500.

The interconnection of the Eastern and Western Hemispheres made possible by transoceanic voyaging marked a key transformation of this period. Technological innovations helped to make transoceanic connections possible.

- 4.1.2 What were the overall effects of this change in global interconnectedness?

Changing patterns of long-distance trade included the global circulation of some commodities and the formation of new regional markets and financial centers. Increased transregional and global trade networks facilitated the spread of religion and other elements of culture as well as the migration of large numbers of people. Germs carried to the Americas ravaged the indigenous peoples, while the global exchange of crops and animals altered agriculture, diets and populations around the planet.

- 4.1.3 How did the global trade network after 1500 CE affect the pre-existing regional trade networks? (Indian Ocean, Mediterranean, trans-Saharan, Silk Routes)

In the context of the new global circulation of goods, there was an intensification of all existing regional trade networks that brought prosperity and economic disruption to the merchants and governments in the trading regions of the Indian Ocean, Mediterranean, Sahara, and overland Eurasia.

- 4.1.4 What technical developments made transoceanic European travel & trade possible? Where did those developments originate?

European technological developments in cartography and navigation built on previous knowledge developed in the classical, Islamic and Asian worlds, and included the production of new tools. (such as astrolabe or revised maps), innovations in ship designs. (such as caravels) and an improved understanding of global wind and currents patterns, all of which made transoceanic travel and trade possible.

- 4.1.5 What were the major notable transoceanic voyages between 1450-1750 CE?

Remarkable new transoceanic maritime reconnaissance occurred in this period.

- **Zheng He:** Official Chinese maritime activity expanded into the Indian Ocean region with the naval voyages led by Ming Admiral Zheng He which enhanced Chinese prestige.
- **Portugal:** Portuguese development of a school for navigation led to increased travel to and trade with West Africa and resulted in the construction of a global trading-post empire.

- **Spain:** Spanish sponsorship of the first Columbian and subsequent voyages across the Atlantic and Pacific dramatically increased European interest in transoceanic travel and trade.
- **European, general:** Northern Atlantic crossings for fishing and settlements continued and spurred European searches for multiple routes to Asia.
- **Oceania:** In Oceania and Polynesia, established exchange and communication networks were not dramatically affected because of infrequent European reconnaissance in the Pacific Ocean.

4.1.6 What new financial and monetary means made new scale(s) of trade possible? What previously established scale(s) of trade continued?

The new global circulation of goods was facilitated by royal chartered European monopoly companies who took silver from Spanish colonies in the Americas to purchase Asian goods for the Atlantic markets, but regional markets continued to flourish in Afro-Eurasia using established commercial practices and new transoceanic shipping services developed by European merchants.

4.1.7 Describe European merchants overall role in world trade c. 1450-1750.

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.

4.1.8 What role did silver play in facilitating a truly global scale of trade?

Commercialization and the creation of a global economy were intimately connected to new global circulation of silver from the Americas.

4.1.9 What new mercantilist financial means developed to facilitate global trade?

Influenced by mercantilism, joint-stock companies were new methods used by European rulers to control their domestic and colonial economies and by European merchants to compete against each other in global trade.

4.1.10 What were the economic and social effects of the Atlantic trading system?

The Atlantic system involved the movement of goods, wealth, and free and unfree laborers, and the mixing of African, American and European cultures and peoples.

4.1.11 What were the unintentional biological effects of the Columbian Exchange?

European colonization of the Americas led to the spread of diseases endemic in the Eastern Hemisphere. (such as smallpox, measles or influenza) among Amerindian populations and the unintentional transfer of pests. (such as mosquitoes or rats)

American foods. (such as potatoes, maize or manioc) became staple crops in various parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa while cash crops. (such as cacao or tobacco) were grown primarily on plantations with coerced labor and were exported mostly to Europe and the Middle East in this period.

Afro-Eurasian fruit trees, grains, sugar, and domesticated animals. (such as horses, pigs or cattle) were deliberately brought by Europeans to the Americas while other foods. (such as okra) were brought by African slaves.

Populations in Afro-Eurasia benefitted nutritionally from the increased diversity of American food crops.

European colonization and introduction of European agriculture and settlements practices in the Americas often affected the physical environment through deforestation and soil depletion.

The increase in interactions between newly connected hemispheres and intensification of connections within hemispheres expanded the spread and reform of existing religions and created syncretic belief systems and practices.

The practice of Islam continued to spread into diverse cultural settings in Asia and Africa.

The practice of Christianity was increasingly diversified by the Reformation.

Buddhism spread within Asia.

Syncretic forms of religion developed. (such as African influences in Latin America, interactions between Amerindians and Catholic missionaries, or Sikhism between Muslims and Hindus in India and Southeast Asia)

As merchants' profits increased and governments collected more taxes, funding for the visual and performing arts, even for popular audiences, increased.

Innovations in visual and performing arts were seen all over the world. (such as Renaissance art in Europe, miniature paintings in the Middle East and South Asia, woodblock prints in Japan or post-Conquest codices in Mesoamerica)

Literacy expanded accompanied by the proliferation of popular literary forms in Europe and Asia. (such as Shakespeare, Cervantes, Sundiata, Journey to the West or kabuki)

Key Concept 4.2 New Forms of Social Organization and Modes of Production

While the world's productive systems continued to be heavily centered on agricultural production throughout this period, major changes occurred in agricultural labor, the systems and location of manufacturing, gender and social structures, and environmental processes. A surge in agricultural productivity resulted from new methods in crop and field rotation and the introduction of new crops. Economic growth also depended on new forms of manufacturing and new commercial patterns, especially in long-distance trade. Political and economic centers within regions shifted, and merchants' social status tended to rise in various states. Demographic growth—even in areas such as the Americas, where disease had ravaged the population—was restored by the eighteenth century and surged in many regions, especially with the introduction of American food crops throughout the Eastern Hemisphere. The Columbian Exchange led to new ways of humans interacting with their environments. New forms of coerced and semi-coerced labor emerged in Europe, Africa and the Americas and affected ethnic and racial classifications and gender roles.

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.

Peasant labor intensified in many regions. (such as the development of frontier settlements in Russian Siberia, cotton textile production in India or silk textile production in China)

Slavery in Africa continued both the traditional incorporation of slaves into households and the export of slaves to the Mediterranean and Indian Ocean.

The Atlantic slave trade increased demand for slaves and altered male/female ratios in Africa.

The purchase and transport of slaves supported the growth of the plantation economy throughout the Americas.

Spanish colonists transformed Amerindian labor systems. (such as introducing the *encomienda* and

hacienda systems or changing the Inca *mita* labor obligation into a forced labor system)

Europeans used coerced and semi-coerced labor. (such as indentured servitude or impressment)

As new social and political elites changed, they also restructured new ethnic, racial and gender hierarchies.

Both imperial conquests and widening global economic opportunities contributed to the formation of new political and economic elites. (such as the Manchus in China, Creole elites in Spanish America, European gentry or urban commercial entrepreneurs in all major port cities in the world)

The power of existing political and economic elites. (such as the zamindars in the Mughal Empire, nobility in Europe or daimyo in Japan) fluctuated as they confronted new challenges to their ability to affect the policies of the increasingly powerful monarchs and leaders.

Some notable gender and family restructuring occurred including the demographic changes in Africa that resulted from the slave trades (as well as dependence of European men on Southeast Asian women for conducting trade in that region or the smaller size of European families)

The massive demographic changes in the Americas resulted in new ethnic and racial classifications. (such as *mestizo*, *mulatto* or *creole*)

Key Concept 4.3 State Consolidation and Imperial Expansion

Empires expanded and conquered new peoples around the world, but they often had difficulties incorporating culturally, ethnically and religiously diverse subjects and administrating widely dispersed territories. Agents of European powers moved into existing trade networks around the world. In Africa and the greater Indian Ocean, nascent European empires consisted mainly of interconnected trading posts and enclaves. European empires in the Americas moved more quickly to settlement and territorial control responding to local demographic and commercial conditions. Moreover, the creation of European empires in the Americas quickly fostered a new Atlantic trade system that included the trans-Atlantic slave trade. Around the world, empires and states of varying sizes pursued strategies of centralization, including more efficient taxation systems that placed strains on peasant producers, sometimes prompting local rebellions. Rulers used public displays of art and architecture to legitimize state power. African states shared certain characteristics with larger Eurasian empires. Changes in African and global trading patterns strengthened some West and Central African states—especially on the coast, led to the rise of new states and contributed to the decline of states on both the coast and in the interior.

Rulers used a variety of methods to legitimize and consolidate their power.

Visual displays of political power. (such as monumental architecture, urban plans, courtly literature or visual arts) helped legitimize and support rulers.

Rulers used religious ideas to legitimize their rule. (such as European notions of divine right, the Safavid use of Shiism, the Mexica or Aztec practice of human sacrifice, the Songhay promotion of Islam or the Chinese emperors' public performance of Confucian rituals)

States treated different ethnic and religious groups in ways that both utilized their economic contributions while limiting their ability to challenge the authority of the state. (such as the Ottoman treatment of non-Muslim subjects, Manchu policies toward Chinese or the Spanish creation of a separate "República de Indios")

Recruitment and use of bureaucratic elites, as well as the development of military professionals. (such as the Ottoman devshirme, Chinese examination system or salaried samurai), became more common among rulers who wanted to maintain centralized control over their populations and resources.

Rulers used tribute collection and tax farming to generate revenue for territorial expansion.

Imperial expansion relied on the increased use of gunpowder, cannons and armed trade to establish large empires in both hemispheres.

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 also affected the power of states in interior West and Central Africa.

Land empires expanded dramatically in size, including the Manchus, Mughals, Ottomans and Russians.

European states, including Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands, France and Britain, established new maritime empires in the Americas.

Competition over trade routes. (such as Omani-European rivalry in the Indian Ocean and piracy in the Caribbean), state rivalries. (such as the Thirty Years War or the Ottoman-Safavid conflict), and local resistance. (such as bread riots) all provided significant challenges to state consolidation and expansion.

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Period 5: Industrialization and Global Integration, c. 1750 to c. 1900**Key Concept 5.1 Industrialization and Global Capitalism**

Industrialization fundamentally altered the production of goods around the world. It not only changed how goods were produced, as well as what was considered a “good,” but it also had far reaching effects on the global economy, social relations and culture. Although it is common to speak of an “Industrial Revolution,” the process of industrialization was a gradual one that unfolded over the course of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, eventually becoming global.

Industrialization changed fundamentally how goods were produced.

A variety of factors led to the rise of industrial production: Europe's location on the Atlantic ocean; the geographical distribution of coal, iron, and timber; European demographic changes; urbanization; improved agricultural productivity; legal protection of private property; an abundance of rivers and canals; access to foreign resources; and the accumulation of capital.

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.

The development of the factory system concentrated labor in a single location and led to an increasing degree of specialization of labor.

As the new methods of industrial production became more common in parts of northwestern Europe, they spread to other parts of Europe and the rest of the world. (such as the United States, Russia or Japan)

The “second industrial revolution” led to new methods in the production of steel, chemicals, electricity and precision machinery during the second half of the nineteenth century.

The changes in the mode of production also stimulated the professionalization of sciences. (such as medicine or engineering) and led to the increasing application of science to new forms of technology.

New patterns of global trade and production developed that further integrated the global economy as industrialists sought raw materials and new markets for the increasing amount of goods produced in their factories.

The need for raw materials for the factories and increased food supplies for growing population in urban centers led to the growth of export economies around the world that specialized in mass producing single natural resources. (such as cotton, rubber, palm oil, sugar, wheat, meat or guano) The profits from these raw materials were used to purchase finished goods.

The rapid development of industrial production contributed to the decline of economically productive, agriculturally-based economies. (such as textile production in India)

The rapid increases in productivity caused by industrial production encouraged industrialized states to seek out new consumer markets for their finished goods. (such as British and French attempts to “open up” the Chinese market during the nineteenth century)

The need for specialized and limited metals for industrial production, as well as the global demand for gold, silver and diamonds as forms of wealth led to the development of extensive mining centers. (such as copper mines in Mexico or gold and diamond mines in South Africa)

To facilitate investments at all levels of industrial production, financiers developed and expanded various financial institutions.

Financial instruments expanded. (such as stock markets, insurance, the gold standard or limited liability corporations)

The global nature of trade and production contributed to the proliferation of large scale transnational businesses. (such as bicycle tires, the United Fruit Company or the HSBC-Hong Kong & Shanghai Banking Corporation)

The ideological inspiration for these financial changes lie in the development of laissez-faire capitalism and economic liberalism associated with Adam Smith and John Stuart Mill.

There were major developments in transportation and communication including railroads, steamships, telegraphs and canals.

The development and spread of global capitalism led to a variety of responses.

In industrialized states, many workers organized themselves to improve working conditions, limit hours and gain higher wages while others opposed capitalist exploitation of workers by promoting alternative visions of society. (such as Utopian socialism, Marxism or anarchism)

In Qing China and the Ottoman Empire some members of the government resisted economic change and attempted to maintain pre-industrial forms of economic production.

In a small number of states, governments promoted their own state-sponsored visions of industrialization. (such as the economic reforms of Meiji Japan, the development of factories and railroads in Tsarist Russia, China’s Self-Strengthening program or Muhammad Ali’s development of a cotton textile industry in Egypt)

In response to criticisms of industrial global capitalism some governments attempted to prevent rebellions by promoting various types of reforms. (such as state pensions and public health in Germany, expansion of suffrage in Britain or public education in many states)

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.

New social classes, including the middle class and the proletariat, developed.

Family dynamics, gender roles and demographics changed in response to industrialization.

Rapid urbanization that accompanied global capitalism often led to unsanitary conditions, as well as to new forms of community.

Key Concept 5.2 Imperialism and Nation-State Formation

As states industrialized during this period, they also expanded existing overseas colonies and established new types of colonies and transoceanic empires. Regional warfare and diplomacy both resulted in and were affected by this process of modern empire-building. The process was led mostly by Europe, although not all states were affected equally, which led to an increase of European influence around the world. Other parts of the world, for example the United States and Japan, also participated in this process. The growth of new empires challenged the power of existing land-based empires of Eurasia. New ideas about nationalism, race, gender, class and culture also developed that both facilitated the spread of transoceanic empires and new states, as well as justifying anti-imperial resistance and the formation of new communal identities.

Industrializing powers established transoceanic empires.

States with existing colonies. (such as the British in India or the Dutch in Indonesia) strengthened their control over those colonies.

European states. (such as the British, the Dutch, the French, the Germans or the Russians) as well as the Americans and the Japanese established empires in throughout Asia and the Pacific, while Spanish and Portuguese influence declined.

Many European states used both warfare and diplomacy to establish empires in Africa. (such as Britain in West Africa or Belgium in the Congo)

In some parts of their empires, Europeans established settler colonies. (such as the British in southern Africa, Australia and New Zealand, or the French in Algeria)

In other parts of the world, industrialized states practiced economic imperialism. (such as the British and French expanding their influence in China through the Opium Wars or the British and the United States investing heavily in Latin America)

Imperialism influenced state formation and contraction around the world.

The expansion of U.S. and European influence over Tokugawa Japan led to the emergence of Meiji Japan.

The United States, Russia and Qing China emulated European transoceanic imperialism by expanding their land borders and conquering neighboring territories.

Anti-imperial resistance led to the contraction of the Ottoman Empire. (such as the establishment of independent states in the Balkans, semi-independence in Egypt. French and Italian colonies in North Africa or later British influence in Egypt)

New states. (such as the Cherokee nation, Siam, Hawai'i or the Zulu kingdom) developed on the edges of empire.

The development and spread of nationalism as an ideology fostered new communal identities. (such as the German nation, Filipino nationalism or Liberian nationalism)

New racial ideologies, especially Social Darwinism, facilitated and justified Imperialism.

Key Concept 5.3 Nationalism, Revolution, and Reform

The eighteenth century marked the beginning of an intense period of revolution and rebellion against existing governments and the establishment of new nation-states around the world. Enlightenment thought and the resistance of colonized peoples to imperial centers shaped this revolutionary activity. These rebellions sometimes resulted in the formation of new states and stimulated the development of new ideologies. These new ideas in turn further stimulated the revolutionary and anti-imperial tendencies of this period.

The rise and diffusion of Enlightenment thought that questioned established traditions in all areas of life often preceded the revolutions and rebellions against existing governments.

Enlightenment thinkers. (such as Voltaire or Rousseau) applied new ways of understanding the natural world to human relationships, encouraging observation and inference in all spheres of life.

Enlightenment thinkers critiqued the role that religion played in public life, insisting on the importance of reason as opposed to revelation

Enlightenment thinkers. (such as Locke or Montesquieu) developed new political ideas about the individual, natural rights and the social contract.

Enlightenment thinkers also challenged existing notions of social relations which led to the expansion of rights as seen in expanded suffrage, the abolition of slavery and the end of serfdom.

Beginning in the eighteenth 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 to unite diverse populations.

The spread of Enlightenment ideas and increasing discontent with imperial rule propelled reformist and revolutionary movements.

Subjects challenged the centralized imperial governments. (such as the Wahhabi rebellion against the Ottomans or the challenge of the Marathas to the Mughal Sultans)

American colonial subjects led a series of rebellions which facilitated the emergence of independent nation-states in the United States, Haiti and the mainland nations of modern Latin America. French subjects rebelled against their monarchy. These revolutions reflected the ideals of the Enlightenment in writings: the Declaration of Independence, the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen or the Jamaica Letter.

Slave resistance. (such as the establishment of Maroon societies) challenged existing authorities in the Americas. (such as in Brazil, Cuba or the Guyanas)

Increasing questions about political authority and growing nationalism contributed to anti-colonial movements. (such as the Indian Revolt of 1857, the Mahdist Revolt or the Boxer Rebellion)

Some of the rebellions were influenced by religious ideas and millenarianism,. (such as the Taiping Rebellion, the Ghost Dance or the Xhosa cattle killing)

Responses to increasingly frequent rebellions led to reforms in imperial policies. (such as the Tanzimat movement, Self-Strengthening or Bismarckian reforms)

The global spread of Enlightenment thought and the increasing number of rebellions stimulated new transnational ideologies and solidarities.

Discontent with monarchist and imperial rule encouraged the development of new political ideologies: liberalism, socialism and communism.

Demands for women's suffrage and an emergent feminism challenged political and gender hierarchies. (such as Mary Wollstonecraft's "A Vindication of the Rights of Women," Olympe de Gouges' "Declaration of the Rights of Women and the Female Citizen" or the resolutions passed at the Seneca Falls Conference in 1848)

Key Concept 5.4 Global Migration

Migration patterns changed dramatically throughout this period and the numbers of migrants increased significantly. These changes were closely connected to the development of transoceanic empires and a global capitalist economy. In some cases, people benefitted economically from migration, while other peoples were seen simply as commodities to be transported. In both cases, migration produced dramatically different societies for both sending and receiving societies and presented challenges to governments in fostering national identities and regulating the flow of people.

Migration in many cases was influenced by changes in demography in both industrialized and unindustrialized societies that presented challenges to existing patterns of living.

Changes in food production and improved medical conditions contributed to a significant global rise in population.

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 nineteenth century.

Migrants relocated for a variety of reasons.

Many individuals. (such as manual laborers or specialized professionals) chose freely to relocate, often in search of work.

The new global capitalist economy continued to rely on coerced and semi-coerced labor migration, including slavery, Chinese and Indian indentured servitude and convict labor.

While many migrants permanently relocated, a significant number of temporary and seasonal migrants returned to their home societies. (such as Japanese agricultural workers in the Pacific, Lebanese merchants in the Americas or Italians in Argentina)

The large scale nature of migration, especially in the nineteenth century, produced a variety of consequences and reactions to the increasingly diverse societies on the part of migrants and the existing populations.

Due to the physical nature of the labor in demand, migrants tended to be male, leaving women to take on new roles in the home society that had been formerly occupied by men.

Migrants often created ethnic enclaves, (such as concentrations of Chinese and Indians in different parts of the world) which helped transplant their culture into new environments and facilitated the development of migrant support networks.

Receiving societies did not always embrace immigrants, as seen in various degrees of ethnic and racial prejudice and the ways states attempted to regulate the increased flow of people across their borders. (such as the Chinese Exclusion Act or the White Australia Policy)

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Period 6: Accelerating Global Change and Realignment, c. 1900 to present**Key Concept 6.1 Science and the Environment**

Rapid advances in science altered understandings of the universe and the natural world and led to the development of new technologies. These changes enabled unprecedented population growth, which altered how humans interacted with the environment and threatened delicate ecological balances at local, regional and global levels.

Researchers made rapid advances in science that spread throughout the world, assisted by the development of new technology.

New modes of communication and transportation virtually eliminated the problem of geographic distance.

New scientific paradigms transformed human understandings of the world. (such the theory of relativity, quantum mechanics, the Big Bang theory or psychology)

The Green Revolution produced food for the earth's growing population as it spread chemically and genetically enhanced forms of agriculture.

Medical innovations. (such as the polio vaccine, antibiotics, and the artificial heart) increased the ability of humans to survive.

New energy technologies. (such as the use of oil or nuclear power) raised productivity and increased the production of material goods.

Humans fundamentally changed their relationship with the environment.

Humans exploited and competed over the earth's finite resources more intensely than ever before in human history.

Global warming was a major consequence of the release of greenhouse gases and other pollutants into the atmosphere.

Pollution threatened the world's supply of water and clean air. Deforestation and desertification were continued consequences of the human impact on the environment. Rates of extinction of other species accelerated sharply.

Disease, scientific innovations, and conflict led to demographic shifts.

Diseases associated with poverty. (such as malaria, tuberculosis, or cholera) persisted, while other diseases. (such as 1919 influenza epidemic, ebola or HIV/AIDS) emerged as new epidemics and threats to human

survival. In addition, changing lifestyles and increased longevity led to higher incidence of certain diseases. (such as diabetes, heart disease and Alzheimer's disease)

More effective forms of birth control gave women greater control over fertility and transformed sexual practices.

Improved military technology. (such as tanks, airplanes or the Atomic Bomb) and new tactics. (such as trench warfare or firebombing) led to increased levels of wartime casualties. (such as Nanjing, Dresden or Hiroshima)

Key Concept 6.2 Global Conflicts and their Consequences

At the beginning of the twentieth century, a European-dominated global political order existed, which also included the United States, Russia and Japan. Over the course of the century, peoples and states around the world challenged this order in ways that sought to redistribute power within the existing order and restructure empires, while those states in power attempted to maintain the status quo. Other peoples and states sought to overturn the political order itself. These challenges to and attempts to maintain the political order manifested themselves in an unprecedented level of conflict with high human casualties. In the context of these conflicts, many regimes in both older and newer states struggled with maintaining political stability and were challenged by internal and external factors, including ethnic and religious conflicts, secessionist movements, territorial partitions, economic dependency and the legacies of colonialism.

Europe dominated the global political order at the beginning of the century, but both land-based and transoceanic empires gave way to new forms of transregional political organization by the century's end.

Older land-based empires. (such as the Ottoman, Russian or the Qing) collapsed due to a combination of internal and external factors. (such as economic hardship, political and social discontent, technological stagnation or military defeat)

Some colonies negotiated their independence. (such as India and the Gold Coast from the British empire)

Some colonies achieved independence through armed struggle. (such as Algeria and Vietnam from the French empire or Angola from the Portuguese empire)

Emerging ideologies of anti-imperialism contributed to the dissolution of empires.

Nationalist leaders. (such as Mohandas Gandhi, Ho Chi Minh or Kwame Nkrumah) in Asia and Africa challenged imperial rule.

Regional, religious, and ethnic movements challenged both colonial rule and inherited imperial boundaries. (such as Muhammad Ali Jinnah, the Quebecois separatist movement or the Biafra secession movement)

Transnational movements sought to unite people across national boundaries. (such as communism, pan-Arabism or pan-Africanism)

Within states in Africa, Asia, and Latin America, movements promoted communism and socialism as a way to redistribute land and resources.

Political changes were accompanied by major demographic and social consequences.

The redrawing of old colonial boundaries led to population resettlements. (such as the Indian/Pakistan partition, the Zionist Jewish settlement of Palestine or the division of the Middle East into mandatory states)

The migration of former colonial subjects to imperial metropolises. (such as South Asians to Britain, Algerians to France or Filipinos to United States) maintained cultural and economic ties between colony and metropole even after the dissolution of empires.

The proliferation of conflicts led to genocide. (such as Armenia, the Holocaust, Cambodia and Rwanda) and the displacement of people resulting in refugee populations. (such as Palestinians or Darfurians)

Military conflicts occurred on an unprecedented global scale.

The First and Second World Wars were the first “total wars.” Governments used ideologies, including fascism, nationalism and communism, to mobilize all of their state’s resources, including peoples and resources both in the home countries and the colonies or former colonies. (such as the Gurkha soldiers in India or the ANZAC troops in Australia) Governments also used a variety of strategies to mobilize these populations, including political speeches, art, media and intensified forms of nationalism.

The varied sources of global conflict in the first half of the century included: imperialist expansion by European powers and Japan, competition for resources, ethnic conflict, great power rivalries between Great Britain and Germany, nationalist ideologies and the economic crisis engendered by the Great Depression.

The global balance of economic and political power shifted after the end of the Second World War and rapidly evolved into the Cold War. The United States and Soviet Union emerged as superpowers which led to ideological struggles between capitalism and communism throughout the globe.

The Cold War produced new military alliances, including NATO and the Warsaw Pact and promoted proxy wars in Latin America, Africa and Asia.

The dissolution of the Soviet Union effectively ended the Cold War.

Although conflict dominated much of the twentieth century, many individuals and groups— including states—opposed this trend. Some individuals and groups, however, intensified the conflicts.

Groups and individuals challenged the many wars of the century. (such as Picasso’s Guernica, the anti-nuclear movement during the Cold War or Thich Quang Duc’s self-immolation) and some promoted the practice of nonviolence. (such as Tolstoy, Gandhi or Martin Luther King) as a way to bring about political and change.

Groups and individuals opposed and promoted alternatives to the existing economic, political and social orders. (such as the non-aligned movement which presented an alternative political bloc to the Cold War, the Tiananmen Square protests that promoted democracy in China, the Anti-Apartheid Movement or the global uprisings of 1968)

Militaries and militarized states often responded to the proliferation of conflicts in ways that further intensified conflict. (such as the promotion of military dictatorship in Chile, Spain, and Uganda, the United States promotion of a New World Order after the Cold War or the build up of the “military-industrial complex” and arms trading)

More movements used terrorism to achieve political aims. (such as the IRA, ETA, and Al-Qaeda)

Global conflicts had a profound influence on popular culture. (such as Dada, James Bond, Socialist Realism or video games)

Key Concept 6.3 New Conceptualizations of Global Economy, Society, & Culture

The beginning of the twentieth century witnessed a great deal of warfare and the collapse of the global economy. In response to these challenges, new institutions of global governance emerged and continued to develop throughout the century. Scientific breakthroughs, new technologies, increasing levels of integration, changing relationship between humans and the environment and the frequency of political conflict all contributed to a global developments in which people crafted new understandings of society, culture, and historical interpretations. These new understandings often manifested themselves in and were reinforced by new forms of cultural production. Institutions of global governance both shaped and adapted to these social conditions

States, communities and individuals became increasingly interdependent, a process facilitated by the growth of international organizations.

New international organizations. (such as the League of Nations or the United Nations) formed to maintain world peace and to facilitate international cooperation.

New economic institutions. (such as the IMF, World Bank or WTO) sought to spread the principles and practices associated with free market economics throughout the world.

Humanitarian organizations. (such as UNICEF, the Red Cross, Amnesty International, Doctors Without Borders or the WHO) developed to respond to humanitarian crises throughout the world.

Regional trade agreements. (such as the European Union, NAFTA, ASEAN or Mercosur) created regional trading blocs designed to promote the movement of capital and goods across national borders.

Multi-national corporations. (such as Royal-Dutch Shell, Coca-Cola or Sony) began to challenge state authority and autonomy.

Movements throughout the world protested the inequality of environmental and economic consequences of global integration.

People conceptualized society and culture in new ways; some challenged old assumptions about race, class, gender and religion; often using new technologies to spread reconfigured traditions.

The notion of human rights gained traction throughout the world. (such as the UN Declaration of Human Rights or the end of the White Australia Policy)

Increased interactions among diverse peoples sometimes led to the formation of new cultural identities. (such as negritude) and exclusionary reactions. (such as xenophobia, race riots or citizenship restrictions)

Believers developed new forms of spirituality. (such as New Age Religions, Hare Krishna or Falun Gong) and chose to emphasize particular aspects of practice within existing faiths and apply them to political issues. (such as fundamentalist movements and Liberation Theology)

Popular and Consumer Culture became global.

Sport was more widely practiced and reflected national and social aspirations. (such as World Cup soccer, the Olympics or cricket)

Changes in communication and transportation technology enabled the widespread diffusion of music and film. (such as reggae or Bollywood)