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Introduction

The breadth of world history, spanning from the Neolithic to the present, has always posed challenges for AP® teachers to create opportunities for deep conceptual understanding for students while addressing a syllabus largely driven by sheer scope. The revised AP World History course addresses these challenges by providing a clear framework of six chronological periods viewed through the lens of related key concepts and course themes, accompanied by a set of skills that clearly define what it means to think historically. This framework will provide teachers more freedom to tailor instruction to the needs of their students and more flexibility in building upon their own strengths as teachers.

The themes and key concepts are intended to provide foundational knowledge for future college-level course work in history. Command of these course themes and key concepts requires sufficient knowledge of detailed and specific relevant historical developments and processes — including names, chronology, facts and events — to exemplify the themes and key concepts. However, the specific historical developments and processes taught in an AP World History course will vary by teacher, according to the instructional choices each teacher makes to provide opportunities for student investigation and learning for each key concept and theme.

Overview of the Curriculum Framework

The AP World History course content — which itself has not been substantially revised — is structured around the investigation of five course themes and 19 key concepts in six different chronological periods, from approximately 8000 B.C.E. to the present. The framework defines a set of shared historical thinking skills, which will apply to all AP history courses and which will allow teachers to make more informed choices about appropriate ways of linking content and thinking skills. Additionally, the framework defines clear expectations regarding student performance corresponding to the AP Exam scores of 5, 4 and 3. These AP Achievement Level Descriptions provide a summation of expectations for each historical thinking skill at various achievement levels.

The use of key concepts and themes to organize the course facilitates both chronological and thematic approaches to teaching AP World History. Given the vast nature of the subject matter, using both approaches — even alternating between the two — often aids instruction. The key concepts support the investigation of historical developments within a chronological framework, while the course themes allow students to make crucial connections across the six historical periods and across geographical regions.

Additionally, the limited number of key concepts makes teaching each historical period — whose length of time varies from one century to many — more manageable. The three to four key concepts per period define what is most essential to know about each period based upon the most current historical research in world history. The concepts are designed to provide structure for teaching the course, serving as instructional units that
can be addressed separately or in conjunction with other key concepts within any given period. By framing historical processes and developments beyond a perceived list of facts, events and dates, the key concepts help teachers and their students understand, organize and prioritize historical developments within each period. In order to fully illustrate the expectations for specific content knowledge necessary to support each concept, the framework provides clear content outlines organized by key concept.

The new framework gives teachers the flexibility to teach each key concept in a variety of ways, providing greater options and resources in designing instruction. Overall, the changes to AP World History sharpen the focus of the course by developing students’ capacity and ability to think and reason in a deeper, more systematic way, better preparing them for subsequent college courses.

The skills, achievement level descriptions, periodization, course themes and key concepts are explained in detail in the curriculum framework that follows.

**Overview of the Curriculum Framework:**
**A Visual Representation**

The revised AP World History course is composed equally of content knowledge and skills as demonstrated in the figure below. The content knowledge is structured around six historical periods and five course themes. The key concepts are rooted in the chronological framework of a specific historical period, and each concept defines how a basic theme — or combination of themes — is exemplified and developed concretely within that period. In teaching the revised AP World History curriculum, teachers have the freedom to create their own learning objectives based upon the key concepts and the historical thinking skills.
### Historical Periods and Key Concepts

**Period 1.** Technological and Environmental Transformations, to c. 600 B.C.E.
- **Key Concept 1.1.** Big Geography and the Peopling of the Earth
- **Key Concept 1.2.** The Neolithic Revolution and Early Agricultural Societies
- **Key Concept 1.3.** The Development and Interactions of Early Agricultural, Pastoral and Urban Societies

**Period 2.** Organization and Reorganization of Human Societies, c. 600 B.C.E. to 600 C.E.
- **Key Concept 2.1.** The Development and Codification of Religious and Cultural Traditions
- **Key Concept 2.2.** The Development of States and Empires
- **Key Concept 2.3.** Emergence of Transregional Networks of Communication and Exchange

**Period 3.** Regional and Transregional Interactions, c. 600 C.E. to c. 1450
- **Key Concept 3.1.** Expansion and Intensification of Communication and Exchange Networks
- **Key Concept 3.2.** Continuity and Innovation of State Forms and Their Interactions
- **Key Concept 3.3.** Increased Economic Productive Capacity and Its Consequences

**Period 4.** Global Interactions, c. 1450 to c. 1750
- **Key Concept 4.1.** Globalizing Networks of Communication and Exchange
- **Key Concept 4.2.** New Forms of Social Organization and Modes of Production
- **Key Concept 4.3.** State Consolidation and Imperial Expansion

**Period 5.** Industrialization and Global Interaction, c. 1750 to c. 1900
- **Key Concept 5.1.** Industrialization and Global Capitalism
- **Key Concept 5.2.** Imperialism and Nation-State Formation
- **Key Concept 5.3.** Nationalism, Revolution and Reform
- **Key Concept 5.4.** Global Migration

**Period 6.** Accelerating Global Change and Realignments, c. 1900 to the Present
- **Key Concept 6.1.** Science and the Environment
- **Key Concept 6.2.** Global Conflicts and Their Consequences
- **Key Concept 6.3.** New Conceptualizations of Global Economy, Society and Culture

### Course Themes

1. Interaction Between Humans and the Environment
2. Development and Interaction of Cultures
3. State-Building, Expansion and Conflict
4. Creation, Expansion and Interactions of Economic Systems
5. Development and Transformation of Social Structures

### Four Historical Thinking Skills

1. **Crafting Historical Arguments from Historical Evidence**
   - Historical Argumentation
   - Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence
2. **Chronological Reasoning**
   - Historical Causation
   - Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time
   - Periodization
3. **Comparison and Contextualization**
   - Comparison
   - Contextualization
4. **Historical Interpretation and Synthesis**
   - Interpretation
   - Synthesis
The Four Historical Thinking Skills

Overview

History is a sophisticated quest for meaning about the past, beyond the effort to collect information. Historical analysis requires familiarity with a great deal of information — names, chronology, facts, events and the like. Without reliable and detailed information, historical thinking is not possible. Yet historical analysis involves much more than the compilation and recall of data; it also requires several distinctive historical thinking skills.

The four historical thinking skills presented below, along with the descriptions of the components of each skill, provide an essential framework for learning to think historically.

These descriptions are intended to facilitate coordination of the history curriculum at the secondary level to ensure that all AP history courses share a common understanding about historical thinking and that preceding courses lay the foundation in these historical thinking skills. The skills outlined below apply to all three AP history courses (European History, U.S. History and World History).

1. Crafting Historical Arguments from Historical Evidence

Historical Argumentation

Historical thinking involves the ability to define and frame a question about the past and to address that question through the construction of an argument. A plausible and persuasive argument requires a clear, comprehensive and analytical thesis, supported by relevant historical evidence — not simply evidence that supports a preferred or preconceived position. Additionally, argumentation involves the capacity to describe, analyze and evaluate the arguments of others in light of available evidence.

Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Historical thinking involves the ability to identify, describe and evaluate evidence about the past from diverse sources (including written documents, works of art, archaeological artifacts, oral traditions and other primary sources), with respect to content, authorship, purpose, format and audience. It involves the capacity to extract useful information, make supportable inferences and draw appropriate conclusions from historical evidence while also understanding such evidence in its context, recognizing its limitations and assessing the points of view that it reflects.
2. Chronological Reasoning

Historical Causation

Historical thinking involves the ability to identify, analyze and evaluate the relationships between multiple historical causes and effects, distinguishing between those that are long-term and proximate, and among coincidence, causation and correlation.

Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Historical thinking involves the ability to recognize, analyze and evaluate the dynamics of historical continuity and change over periods of time of varying length, as well as relating these patterns to larger historical processes or themes.

Periodization

Historical thinking involves the ability to describe, analyze, evaluate and construct models of historical periodization that historians use to categorize events into discrete blocks and to identify turning points, recognizing that the choice of specific dates privileges one narrative, region or group over another narrative, region or group; therefore, changing the periodization can change a historical narrative. Moreover, the particular circumstances and contexts in which individual historians work and write shape their interpretation and modeling of past events.

3. Comparison and Contextualization

Comparison

Historical thinking involves the ability to describe, compare and evaluate multiple historical developments within one society, one or more developments across or between different societies, and in various chronological and geographical contexts. It also involves the ability to identify, compare and evaluate multiple perspectives on a given historical experience.

Contextualization

Historical thinking involves the ability to connect historical developments to specific circumstances of time and place, and to broader regional, national or global processes.
4. Historical Interpretation and Synthesis

Interpretation

Historical thinking involves the ability to describe, analyze, evaluate and create diverse interpretations of the past — as revealed through primary and secondary historical sources — through analysis of evidence, reasoning, contexts, points of view and frames of reference.

Synthesis

Historical thinking involves the ability to arrive at meaningful and persuasive understandings of the past by applying all of the other historical thinking skills, by drawing appropriately on ideas from different fields of inquiry or disciplines and by creatively fusing disparate, relevant (and perhaps contradictory) evidence from primary sources and secondary works. Additionally, synthesis may involve applying insights about the past to other historical contexts or circumstances, including the present.
Applying Historical Thinking Skills to AP® World History

All historical research and teaching use the historical thinking skills described in the section above. However, different subdisciplines may approach these skills in different ways and emphasize some of the skills more than others. The section that follows highlights some distinctive ways in which each of the skills may be used in world history.

Two main features of world history help explain the uniqueness of world history. First, world history is a relatively new subdiscipline of history. It acquired a distinct identity only in the final decades of the 20th century. Second, world history embraces longer time periods, larger geographical areas and much more of human history than traditional subdisciplines such as U.S. history and European history.

The novelty and scale of world history help explain why fundamental issues, such as the key topics in the field and the best ways of dividing it into periods (periodization), remain matters of debate. There is not a clear consensus about the best ways of organizing or periodizing the material covered in world history. Such a consensus may emerge eventually, but there are still real obstacles to address. For example, the first states emerged in the Americas approximately two thousand years after states had emerged in Afro-Eurasia. Such chronological diversity makes it impossible to discuss the topic of state formation within a single historical period.

These difficulties explain why students will find that different texts and syllabi emphasize different themes and adopt different periodizations; these differences can make teaching world history seem more difficult. However, if these differences are approached not just as challenges, but as opportunities, they provide many ways to help students understand that history is an account of the past constructed by historians — each of whom may see the past differently. This approach also emphasizes historical scholarship’s reliance on diverse sources — each of which may reveal a different facet of the past. Treated as “teachable moments,” the distinctive challenges posed by world history provide wonderful opportunities to help students understand historiography, the study of the different methods or approaches various historians use to construct their accounts of the past.

The large spatial and temporal scope of world history also requires that students be willing to think on many different geographical and temporal scales. Students have to be able to ask what was happening at any one time throughout the world; they also have to be willing to explore large trends that may have developed over centuries or even millennia. For example, the migrations of humans around the world described in Period 1 took perhaps 60,000 years to complete. When studying powerful states in later periods, students will have to learn to compare the histories of several states, rather than just concentrating on one state in one historical era. So, in world history, the skills of seeing and understanding large patterns of change, and learning how to compare historical events over time and space, are particularly significant.
How each of the four historical thinking skills might be approached within the AP World History course is described below.

1. Crafting Historical Arguments from Historical Evidence in World History

Historical Argumentation

In world history, historical argumentation often operates on exceptionally large scales. For example, instead of being asked to consider the causes of World War II, students might be asked to explain why warfare broke out through the entire world in the period from 1931 to 1945. The basic skills of argumentation are similar, but the scale on which they are applied is different.

Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

World history deals with such a diversity of eras, regions and types of society that it must also use a great diversity of sources. In some regions, states appeared before literacy was widespread; therefore, to understand the evolution of states in these regions, scholars have to rely on archaeology or (in recent times) on oral traditions, instead of relying on written sources that provide the main forms of evidence in traditional fields of historical research.

2. Applying Chronological Reasoning Skills to World History

Historical Causation

In world history, arguments about causation are similar to those in other subdisciplines, although they often span much larger periods and regions.

Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

As we have seen, this skill is particularly important in world history. World historians frequently have to look for very large patterns of continuity and change. This scale can make world history seem somewhat abstract because individuals do not loom so large; on the other hand, world history can bring into sharper focus large patterns that cannot be seen clearly at more localized scales.

Periodization

Periodization is peculiarly challenging and peculiarly important in world history because historians do not agree about the best way of dividing up the past on a global scale. The result is that different texts and syllabi may use different periodizations. However, this is an opportunity for teachers to ask questions that are particularly challenging for world history, such as: What is the best way of dividing the history of the world into meaningful periods? What are the consequences of choosing one set of divisions instead of another?
3. Applying Comparison and Contextualization Skills to World History

Comparison

Comparison is also particularly important in world history because world history does not concentrate on any one region or era of the past. Instead, it compares the diverse histories of different regions across large time spans. One of the central questions of world history is: How similar and how different were historical changes in different parts of the world?

Contextualization

What is the “context” for world history? It is the world as a whole. For U.S. history, the most important context is the United States itself, and for European history it is Europe as a whole. However, world historians try to understand events and changes within a much larger context, and the skill of “contextualization” therefore takes on different forms. One of the central questions of world history is: How does the history of this specific region or era fit into the larger story of world history as a whole?

4. Applying Historical Interpretation and Synthesis to World History

Interpretation

The skill of historical interpretation also takes on distinctive forms within world history, which deals with many different societies and cultures, each of which may interpret the past in its own way. World historians have to be alert to these differences and take care not to impose the values and viewpoints of their own societies on the many different societies they are studying.

Synthesis

Synthesis, too, takes distinctive forms in world history because it grapples with such diverse materials. In the history of a particular society or region, it is not too hard to get a sense of the main lines of the historical story. But is there a single narrative in world history that brings together so many different regional histories? This is one of the central historiographical questions raised by world history, and it is a question that students should be challenged to answer in their own way. By doing so, they will better understand their place in an increasingly globalized and diverse world.
AP Achievement Level Descriptions

The AP Achievement Level Descriptions (ALDs) below provide clear expectations for AP student performance at various levels, roughly corresponding to the AP Exam scores of 5, 4 and 3. These descriptions are organized according to mastery of content knowledge and student proficiency in the historical thinking skills described above. The descriptions of student performance expectations will help teachers design skills-based summative and formative assessments by providing targets to facilitate student learning throughout the year. In addition, the ALDs will allow colleges and universities to place AP students based on explicit descriptions of their knowledge and skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content Knowledge</th>
<th>Achievement Level 5</th>
<th>Achievement Level 4</th>
<th>Achievement Level 3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content Knowledge:</strong> History is a sophisticated quest for meaning about the past, beyond the effort to collect information. Historical analysis requires familiarity with a great deal of information — names, chronology, facts, events and the like. Without reliable and detailed information, historical thinking is not possible.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 demonstrates superior knowledge — in terms of both breadth and depth — of historical developments and processes in the specified course content (World History from Foundations to the present).</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 demonstrates a significant knowledge — in terms of both breadth and depth — of historical developments and processes in the specified course content (World History from Foundations to the present).</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 demonstrates an adequate knowledge of historical developments and processes in the specified course content (World History from Foundations to the present).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 demonstrates familiarity with all of the course's key concepts and course themes, requiring few, if any, cues or direction.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 demonstrates familiarity with most of the course's key concepts and course themes, although students performing at this level may need some cues or direction when dealing with more abstract material.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 demonstrates familiarity with some of the course's key concepts and course themes, although students performing at this level will need substantial direction when dealing with more abstract material.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Historical argumentation:</td>
<td>Achievement Level 5</td>
<td>Achievement Level 4</td>
<td>Achievement Level 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Historical thinking involves the ability to define and frame a question about the past and to address that question through the construction of an argument. A plausible and persuasive argument requires a clear, comprehensive and analytical thesis, supported by relevant historical evidence — not simply evidence that supports a preferred or preconceived position. Additionally, argumentation involves the capacity to describe, analyze and evaluate the arguments of others in light of available evidence.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 constructs meaningful interpretations through sophisticated analysis of disparate, relevant historical evidence.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 evaluates conflicting historical evidence in constructing plausible historical arguments.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 describes commonly accepted historical arguments (i.e., formulaic repetition of material provided in texts and classroom instruction) and explains how an argument has been constructed from historical evidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student performance at Achievement Level 5</strong></td>
<td><strong>Student performance at Achievement Level 4</strong></td>
<td><strong>Student performance at Achievement Level 3</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructs meaningful interpretations through sophisticated analysis of disparate, relevant historical evidence.</td>
<td>Evaluates conflicting historical evidence in constructing plausible historical arguments.</td>
<td>Describes commonly accepted historical arguments (i.e., formulaic repetition of material provided in texts and classroom instruction) and explains how an argument has been constructed from historical evidence.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Appropriate use of relevant historical evidence:** Historical thinking involves the ability to identify, describe and evaluate evidence about the past from diverse sources (including written documents, works of art, archaeological artifacts, oral traditions and other primary sources), with respect to content, authorship, purpose, format and audience. It involves the capacity to extract useful information, make supportable inferences and draw appropriate conclusions from historical evidence while also understanding such evidence in its context, recognizing its limitations and assessing the points of view that it reflects.

<p>| <strong>Student performance at Achievement Level 5</strong> | <strong>Student performance at Achievement Level 4</strong> | <strong>Student performance at Achievement Level 3</strong> |
| Consistently analyzes such features as audience, purpose, point of view, format, argument, limitations and social context germane to the historical evidence considered. | Analyzes some of the following features: audience, purpose, point of view, format, argument, limitations and social context germane to the historical evidence considered. | Analyzes at least one of the following features of historical evidence: audience, purpose, point of view, format and argument. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Historical Causation:</th>
<th>Achievement Level 5</th>
<th>Achievement Level 4</th>
<th>Achievement Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Historical thinking involves the ability to identify, analyze and evaluate the relationships between multiple historical causes and effects, distinguishing between those that are long-term and proximate, and among coincidence, causation and correlation.</td>
<td>When examining historical causation, student performance at Achievement Level 5 assesses historical contingency, for example, by distinguishing among coincidence, causation and correlation, as well as critiquing standard interpretations of cause and effect.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 analyzes and evaluates the interaction of multiple causes and/or effects.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 identifies and compares basic causes and/or effects, such as between short- and long-term ones.</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time:</th>
<th>Achievement Level 5</th>
<th>Achievement Level 4</th>
<th>Achievement Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Historical thinking involves the ability to recognize, analyze and evaluate the dynamics of historical continuity and change over periods of time of varying length, as well as relating these patterns to larger historical processes or themes.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 analyzes and evaluates historical patterns of continuity and change over time, making connections to course themes and global processes.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 recognizes and describes historical patterns of continuity and change over time.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 recognizes instances of historical patterns of continuity and change over time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Periodization:</th>
<th>Achievement Level 5</th>
<th>Achievement Level 4</th>
<th>Achievement Level 3</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Historical thinking involves the ability to describe, analyze, evaluate and construct models of historical periodization that historians use to categorize events into discrete blocks and to identify turning points, recognizing that the choice of specific dates privileges one narrative, region or group over another narrative, region or group; therefore, changing the periodization can change a historical narrative. Moreover, the particular circumstances and contexts in which individual historians work and write shape their interpretation and modeling of past events.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 analyzes and assesses competing models of periodization, possibly constructing plausible alternate examples of periodization.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 recognizes competing models of periodization.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 recognizes the model of periodization provided in the curriculum.</td>
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</table>
**Comparison and Contextualization**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement Level 5</th>
<th>Achievement Level 4</th>
<th>Achievement Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparison:</strong> Historical thinking involves the ability to describe, compare and evaluate multiple historical developments within one society, one or more developments across or between different societies, and in various chronological and geographical contexts. It also involves the ability to identify, compare and evaluate multiple perspectives on a given historical experience.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 compares related historical developments and processes across geography, chronology and/or different societies (or within one society), explaining and evaluating multiple and differing perspectives on a given historical phenomenon.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 compares related historical developments and processes across geography, chronology or different societies (or within one society).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 compares related historical developments and processes across geography, chronology and/or different societies (or within one society), explaining and evaluating multiple and differing perspectives on a given historical phenomenon.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 compares related historical developments and processes across geography, chronology and/or different societies (or within one society), recognizing multiple and differing perspectives on a given historical phenomenon.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 compares related historical developments and processes across geography, chronology or different societies (or within one society).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contextualization:</strong> Historical thinking involves the ability to connect historical developments to specific circumstances of time and place, and to broader regional, national or global processes.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 explains ways in which historical phenomena or processes relate to broader regional, national or global processes.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 recognizes ways in which historical phenomena or processes connect to broader regional, national or global processes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Historical Interpretation and Synthesis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement Level 5</th>
<th>Achievement Level 4</th>
<th>Achievement Level 3</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpretation:</strong> Historical thinking involves the ability to describe, analyze, evaluate and create diverse interpretations of the past — as revealed through primary and secondary historical sources — through analysis of evidence, reasoning, contexts, points of view and frames of reference.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 <em>critiques</em> diverse historical interpretations, recognizing the constructed nature of historical interpretation, how the historians’ points of view influence their interpretations, and how models of historical interpretation change over time.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 <em>evaluates</em> diverse historical interpretations.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 <em>recounts</em> diverse historical interpretations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Synthesis:</strong> Historical thinking involves the ability to arrive at meaningful and persuasive understandings of the past by applying all of the other historical thinking skills, drawing appropriately on ideas from different fields of inquiry or disciplines, and creatively fusing disparate, relevant (and perhaps contradictory) evidence from primary sources and secondary works. Additionally, synthesis may involve applying insights about the past to other historical contexts or circumstances, including the present.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 <em>creates</em> a persuasive understanding of the past by applying <em>many</em> of the other historical thinking skills.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 <em>demonstrates</em> an understanding of the past by applying <em>several</em> of the historical thinking skills.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 3 <em>demonstrates</em> an understanding of the past by applying <em>a few</em> of the historical thinking skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 draws appropriately on ideas from different fields of inquiry or disciplines, and by <em>creatively fusing</em> disparate, relevant (and perhaps contradictory) evidence from primary sources and secondary works.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 draws appropriately on ideas from different fields of inquiry or disciplines <em>when presented to them</em> in the form of data and arguments.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 5 <em>applies</em> insights about the past to other historical contexts or circumstances, including the present.</td>
<td>Student performance at Achievement Level 4 <em>sometimes applies</em> understandings about the past to other historical contexts or circumstances, including the present.</td>
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### Working Independently

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement Level 5</th>
<th>Achievement Level 4</th>
<th>Achievement Level 3</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performs well with few or no cues or direction; draws out salient issues beyond direction provided; demonstrates creativity.</td>
<td>Requires cues when dealing with abstract themes and/or less familiar content.</td>
<td>Consistently requires multiple, concrete cues.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Typical Task Verbs

**Typical Task Verbs:** Typical task verbs are used in item construction and assessment. They are meant to target questions to particular applications of skills and levels of achievement. They also represent the types of learning tasks teachers give to students. In particular, they are meant to delineate among applications of historical thinking skills and levels of sophistication within individual skills.

The verbs used at Achievement Level 3 and the actions they represent may also apply to Achievement Levels 4 and 5, based on the complexity of the information or the number of variables associated with them. For example, students at Level 3 might “compare,” as might students at Level 4, but student comparisons at Level 5 would be more complex. Achievement Level 4 verbs also apply to Level 5 in the same regard. Abilities and actions expected at Achievement Level 5, however, do not necessarily apply to Levels 3 and 4. An Achievement Level 5 student performance, for instance, requires the ability to synthesize, while that action would not be required at other levels.

- synthesis, critique, construct, create (as well as all other verbs for Achievement Levels 3 and 4, especially: assess, evaluate, analyze, compare)
- assess, evaluate, contextualize (as well as all other verbs for Achievement Level 3, especially: analyze, compare, relate, explain)
- analyze, compare, relate, explain (as well as other verbs for lower achievement levels, such as: connect, define, demonstrate, identify, describe, recognize)
**AP Achievement Level Descriptions: A Visual Representation**

The revised AP World History course is composed equally of content knowledge and skills; the preceding tables provide a comprehensive look at student performance across both of these elements in Achievement Levels 3, 4 and 5. The figures provided in this section are meant to further differentiate among the levels by highlighting the key words that convey the different degrees of sophistication required at each level. As suggested by the steps, the actions represented at Achievement Level 3 may also apply to Levels 4 and 5, based on the complexity associated with them. The figures are intended to give a quick view of the primary differences between the levels and should not be seen to include all the important elements of achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content Knowledge</th>
<th>Knowledge of Historical Developments and Processes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level 3</strong></td>
<td>Adequate knowledge of historical developments and processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level 4</strong></td>
<td>Significant knowledge — in terms of both breadth and depth — of historical developments and processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level 5</strong></td>
<td>Superior knowledge — in terms of both breadth and depth — of historical developments and processes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Historical Thinking Skill: 1. Crafting Historical Arguments from Historical Evidence

#### Historical Argumentation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Describes historical arguments</td>
<td>Evaluates conflicting evidence to construct plausible historical arguments</td>
<td>Evaluates and synthesizes conflicting historical evidence to construct persuasive historical arguments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analyzes at least one of the relevant historical evidence features</td>
<td>Analyzes some historical evidence features</td>
<td>Consistently analyzes historical evidence features</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Historical Thinking Skill: 2. Chronological Reasoning

### Historical Causation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Identifies and compares basic causes and/or effects</strong></td>
<td><strong>Analyses and evaluates the interaction of multiple causes and/or effects</strong></td>
<td><strong>Assesses historical contingency and critiques standard interpretations of cause and effect</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recognizes historical patterns of continuity and change over time</strong></td>
<td><strong>Recognizes and describes historical patterns of continuity and change over time</strong></td>
<td><strong>Analyses and evaluates historical patterns of continuity and change over time, making connections to course themes and global processes</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Periodization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recognizes the model of periodization provided in the curriculum</strong></td>
<td><strong>Recognizes competing models of periodization</strong></td>
<td><strong>Analyses and assesses competing models of periodization, possibly constructing plausible alternate examples</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Historical Thinking Skill: 3. Comparison and Contextualization

#### Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compares historical developments and processes</td>
<td>Compares historical developments and processes, explaining and evaluating multiple and differing perspectives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Contextualization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recognizes ways in which historical phenomena relate to broader regional, national or global processes</td>
<td>Explains ways in which historical phenomena relate to broader regional, national or global processes</td>
<td>Evaluates ways in which historical phenomena relate to broader regional, national or global processes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Historical Thinking Skill: 4. Historical Interpretation and Synthesis

#### Interpretation

- **Level 3**: Recounts diverse historical interpretations

- **Level 4**: Evaluates diverse historical interpretations

- **Level 5**: Critiques diverse historical interpretations

#### Synthesis

- **Level 3**: Demonstrates understandings of the past by applying a few historical thinking skills

- **Level 4**: Demonstrates understandings of the past by applying several historical thinking skills

- **Level 5**: Creates persuasive understandings of the past by applying many historical thinking skills

- Draws appropriately on ideas from different disciplines when presented to them

- Sometimes applies understandings about the past to other historical contexts

- Applies insights about the past to other historical contexts
Working Independently

Different Achievement Levels Require Different Levels of Direction

Level 3: Consistently requires multiple, concrete cues

Level 4: Requires cues when dealing with abstract themes and/or less familiar content

Level 5: Performs well with few or no cues or direction

Typical Task Verbs

The verbs used at a given performance level also apply to all the levels above it.

Lower Performance Levels

Level 3: analyze, compare, relate, explain

Level 4: analyze, compare, relate, explain

Level 5: analyze, compare, relate, explain

Level 3: assess, evaluate, contextualize

Level 4: assess, evaluate, contextualize

Level 5: assess, evaluate, contextualize

Level 3: connect, define, demonstrate, identify, recognize

Level 4: connect, define, demonstrate, identify, recognize

Level 5: connect, define, demonstrate, identify, recognize

Level 3: synthesize, critique, construct, create

Level 4: synthesize, critique, construct, create

Level 5: synthesize, critique, construct, create
Historical Periodization

The AP World History course content is structured around the investigation of course themes and key concepts in six chronological periods. The six historical periods, from approximately 8000 B.C.E. to the present, provide a temporal framework for the course.

The instructional importance and assessment weighting for each period varies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Period Title</th>
<th>Date Range</th>
<th>Weighting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Technological and Environmental Transformations</td>
<td>to c. 600 B.C.E.</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Organization and Reorganization of Human Societies</td>
<td>c. 600 B.C.E. to c. 600 C.E.</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Regional and Transregional Interactions</td>
<td>c. 600 C.E. to c. 1450</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Global Interactions</td>
<td>c. 1450 to c. 1750</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Industrialization and Global Integration</td>
<td>c. 1750 to c. 1900</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Accelerating Global Change and Realignments</td>
<td>c. 1900 to the present</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note on Global Coverage

The AP World History Curriculum Framework emphasizes global connections and processes throughout the course. Teachers should highlight features of particular regions as well as processes that span the globe. To achieve this balance, AP World History courses should provide balanced global coverage, with Africa, the Americas, Asia, Europe, Oceania and Australia all represented. No more than 25 percent of course time should be devoted to European History. At the same time, it is important that different regions not be studied separately from each other, but within a broad global perspective.
Course Themes

The five course themes below present areas of historical inquiry that should be investigated at various points throughout the course and revisited as manifested in particular historical developments over time. These themes articulate at a broad level the main ideas that are developed throughout the entire span of the course. Each theme includes a list of related key topics as well as a description.

The key concepts were derived from an explicit consideration of these themes, with the goal of making the themes more concrete for the course content within each historical period. This clear connection between themes and key concepts means students can put what is particular about one historical period into a larger framework. In this way, the themes facilitate cross-period questions and help students recognize broad trends and processes that have developed over centuries in various regions of the world.

These themes are unchanged from the current AP World History course.

- Theme 1: Interaction Between Humans and the Environment
- Theme 2: Development and Interaction of Cultures
- Theme 3: State-Building, Expansion and Conflict
- Theme 4: Creation, Expansion and Interaction of Economic Systems
- Theme 5: Development and Transformation of Social Structures

**Theme 1: Interaction Between Humans and the Environment**

- Demography and disease
- Migration
- Patterns of settlement
- Technology

The interaction between humans and the environment is a fundamental theme for world history. The environment shaped human societies, but increasingly human societies also affected the environment. During prehistory, humans interacted with the environment as hunters, fishers and foragers, and human migrations led to the peopling of the earth. As the Neolithic revolution began, humans exploited their environments more intensively, either as farmers or pastoralists. Environmental factors such as rainfall patterns, climate, and available flora and fauna shaped the methods of exploitation used in different regions. Human exploitation of the environment intensified as populations grew and as people migrated into new regions. As people flocked into cities or established trade networks, new diseases emerged and spread, sometimes devastating an entire region. During the Industrial Revolution, environmental exploitation increased exponentially. In recent
centuries, human effects on the environment — and the ability to master and exploit it — increased with the development of more sophisticated technologies, the exploitation of new energy sources and a rapid increase in human populations. By the 20th century, large numbers of humans had begun to recognize their effect on the environment and took steps toward a “green” movement to protect and work with the natural world instead of exploiting it.

**Theme 2: Development and Interaction of Cultures**

- Religions
- Belief systems, philosophies and ideologies
- Science and technology
- The arts and architecture

This theme explores the origins, uses, dissemination and adaptation of ideas, beliefs, and knowledge within and between societies. Studying the dominant belief system(s) or religions, philosophical interests, and technical and artistic approaches can reveal how major groups in society view themselves and others, and how they respond to multiple challenges. When people of different societies interact, they often share components of their cultures, deliberately or not. The processes of adopting or adapting new belief and knowledge systems are complex and often lead to historically novel cultural blends. A society’s culture may be investigated and compared with other societies’ cultures as a way to reveal both what is unique to a culture and what it shares with other cultures. It is also possible to analyze and trace particular cultural trends or ideas across human societies.

**Theme 3: State-Building, Expansion and Conflict**

- Political structures and forms of governance
- Empires
- Nations and nationalism
- Revolts and revolutions
- Regional, transregional, and global structures and organizations

This theme refers to the processes by which hierarchical systems of rule have been constructed and maintained and to the conflicts generated through those processes. In particular, this theme encourages the comparative study of different state forms (for example, kingdoms, empires, nation-states) across time and space, and the interactions among them. Continuity and change are also embedded in this theme through attention to the organizational and cultural foundations of long-term stability, on one hand, and to internal and external causes of conflict on the other. Students should examine and compare various forms of state development and expansion in the context of various productive strategies (for example, agrarian, pastoral, mercantile), various cultural and ideological foundations (for example, religions, philosophies, ideas of nationalism), various social and gender structures, and in different environmental contexts. This theme also discusses different types of states, such as autocracies and constitutional democracies. Finally, this theme encourages students to explore interstate relations, including warfare,
diplomacy, commercial and cultural exchange, and the formation of international organizations.

**Theme 4: Creation, Expansion and Interaction of Economic Systems**

- Agricultural and pastoral production
- Trade and commerce
- Labor systems
- Industrialization
- Capitalism and socialism

This theme surveys the diverse patterns and systems that human societies have developed as they exploit their environments to produce, distribute and consume desired goods and services across time and space. It stresses major transitions in human economic activity, such as the growth and spread of agricultural, pastoral and industrial production; the development of various labor systems associated with these economic systems (including different forms of household management and the use of coerced or free labor); and the ideologies, values and institutions (such as capitalism and socialism) that sustained them. This theme also calls attention to patterns of trade and commerce between various societies, with particular attention to the relationship between regional and global networks of communication and exchange, and their effects on economic growth and decline. These webs of interaction strongly influence cultural and technological diffusion, migration, state formation, social classes and human interaction with the environment.

**Theme 5: Development and Transformation of Social Structures**

- Gender roles and relations
- Family and kinship
- Racial and ethnic constructions
- Social and economic classes

This theme is about relations among human beings. All human societies develop ways of grouping their members as well as norms that govern interactions between individuals and social groups. Social stratification comprises distinctions based on kinship systems, ethnic associations and hierarchies of gender, race, wealth and class. The study of world history requires analysis of the processes through which social categories, roles and practices were created, maintained and transformed. It also involves analysis of the connections between changes in social structures and other historical shifts, especially trends in political economy, cultural expression and human ecology.
Key Concepts with Content Outlines

A key concept is a description of course content knowledge particular to a given historical period. The key concepts and content outlines that follow provide a conceptual framework to help teachers and students understand, organize and prioritize historical developments within each designated historical period. It is not necessary to teach the concepts in the order listed in these outlines, or even in isolation; several key concepts can be taught simultaneously. Through the use of these outlines, the framework clearly indicates the depth of knowledge required for each key concept. By focusing the key concepts on global processes and themes rather than on specific historical facts or events, teachers are free to choose examples that interest them or their students to demonstrate the concept.

Throughout the framework, examples of historical content are provided in parentheses as an illustration or context for the key concept, but they are not required features of the course or required knowledge for the exam. Teachers are encouraged to explore other examples as viable options for teaching the content beyond those mentioned and should feel free to use either the parenthetical examples or their own examples without compromising their students’ ability to perform well on the AP Exam. Although students will need to be able to draw upon detailed, illustrative, factual historical knowledge to be successful in the revised AP World History course and exam, the updated framework provides direction and opportunities to do this more selectively and in greater depth.

**Period 1: Technological and Environmental Transformations, to c. 600 B.C.E.**

**Key Concept 1.1. Big Geography and the Peopling of the Earth**

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 savanna to desert to Ice Age tundra. By making an analogy with modern hunter-forager societies, anthropologists infer that these bands were relatively egalitarian. Humans also developed varied and sophisticated technologies.

I. **Archaeological 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.**

   A. Humans used fire in new ways: to aid hunting and foraging, to protect against predators and to adapt to cold environments.

   B. Humans developed a wider range of tools specially adapted to different environments from tropics to tundra.
C. Religion was most likely animistic.

D. 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

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 life, and later, to 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.

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 hunter-foragers. Because pastoralists were mobile, they rarely accumulated large amounts of material possessions, which would have been a hindrance when they changed grazing areas. The pastoralists’ mobility allowed them to become an important conduit for technological change as they interacted with settled populations.

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

A. 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.

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

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

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

E. 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 overgrazed.
II. Agriculture and pastoralism began to transform human societies.

A. Pastoralism and agriculture led to more reliable and abundant food supplies, which increased the population.

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

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

D. In both pastoralist and agrarian societies, elite groups accumulated wealth, creating more hierarchical social structures and promoting patriarchal forms of social organization.

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

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.

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.

I. 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.

A. Mesopotamia in the Tigris and Euphrates River Valleys

B. Egypt in the Nile River Valley

C. Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa in the Indus River Valley
D. Shang in the Yellow River or Huang He Valley
E. Olmecs in Mesoamerica
F. Chavin in Andean South America

II. The first states emerged within core civilizations.

A. 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.

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

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

D. Pastoralists were often the developers and disseminators of new weapons (such as compound bows or iron weapons) and modes of transportation (such as chariots or horseback riding) that transformed warfare in agrarian civilizations.

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

A. Early civilizations developed monumental architecture and urban planning (such as ziggurats, pyramids, temples, defensive walls, streets and roads, or sewage and water systems).

B. Elites, both political and religious, promoted arts and artisanship (such as sculpture, painting, wall decorations or elaborate weaving).

C. Systems of record keeping (such as cuneiform, hieroglyphs, pictographs, alphabets or quipu) arose independently in all early civilizations.

D. Literature was also a reflection of culture (such as the “Epic of Gilgamesh,” Rig Veda or Book of the Dead).

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

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

**Period 2: Organization and Reorganization of Human Societies, c. 600 B.C.E. to c. 600 C.E.**

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

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 of whom were 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.

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

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

B. The core beliefs outlined in the Sanskrit scriptures formed the basis of the Vedic religions — often known as Hinduisms — which 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.

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

A. 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 Ashoka, and then through the efforts of missionaries and merchants, and the establishment of educational institutions to promote its core teachings.
B. 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.

C. 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 (such as medical theories and practices, poetry, metallurgy or architecture).

D. 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 Emperor Constantine.

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

III. Belief systems affected gender roles (such as Buddhism’s encouragement of a monastic life or Confucianism’s emphasis on filial piety).

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

A. 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.

B. Ancestor veneration persisted in many regions (such as in Africa, the Mediterranean region, East Asia or the Andean areas).

V. Artistic expressions, including literature and drama, architecture, and sculpture, show distinctive cultural developments.

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

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

C. The convergence of Greco-Roman culture and Buddhist beliefs affected the development of unique sculptural developments, as seen in the Gandhara 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

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 relationships 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 their 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 overexploited their lands and subjects and permitted excessive wealth to be concentrated in the hands of privileged classes.

I. The number and size of imperial societies grew dramatically by imposing political unity on areas where previously there had been competing states.

**NOTE:** Students should know the location and names of the key states and empires below.

A. Southwest Asia: Persian Empires (such as Achaemenid, Parthian or Sassanid)
B. East Asia: Qin and Han dynasties
C. South Asia: Maurya and Gupta Empires
D. Mediterranean region: Phoenician and Greek colonization, Hellenistic and Roman Empires
E. Mesoamerica: Teotihuacan, Maya city-states
F. Andean South America: Moche

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

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

B. 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.
C. Much of the success of the empires rested on their promotion of trade and economic integration by building and maintaining roads and issuing currencies.

III. Imperial societies displayed unique social and economic dimensions.

A. Cities served as centers of trade, public performance of religious rituals, and as political administration for states and empires (such as Persepolis, Chang’an, Pataliputra, Athens, Carthage, Rome, Alexandria, Constantinople or Teotihuacan).

B. The social structures of all empires displayed hierarchies that included cultivators, laborers, slaves, artisans, merchants, elites and caste groups.

C. 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.

D. Patriarchy continued to shape gender and family relations in all imperial societies of this period.

IV. The Roman, Han, Maurya 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.

A. Through excessive mobilization of resources, imperial governments caused environmental damage (such as deforestation, desertification, soil erosion or silted rivers) and generated social tensions and economic difficulties by concentrating too much wealth in the hands of elites.

B. External problems resulted from security issues along their frontiers, including the threat of invasions (such as between Northern China and Xiongnu; between Gupta and the White Huns; or among Romans, Parthians, Sassanids and Kushan).

Key Concept 2.3. Emergence of Transregional Networks of Communication and Exchange

With the organization of large-scale empires, the volume of long-distance trade increased dramatically. Much of this trade resulted from the demand for raw materials and luxury goods. Land and water routes linked many regions of the Eastern Hemisphere, while separate networks connected the peoples and societies of the Americas somewhat later. The exchange of people, technology, religious and cultural beliefs, food crops, domesticated animals, and disease pathogens developed alongside the trade in goods across far-flung networks of communication and exchange.
I. Land and water routes created transregional trade, communication and exchange networks in the Eastern Hemisphere, while separate networks connected the peoples and societies of the Americas somewhat later.

NOTE: Students should know how factors, including 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.

A. Eurasian Silk Roads
B. Trans-Saharan caravan routes
C. Indian Ocean sea lanes
D. One of the following: Mediterranean sea lanes; American trade routes; or the north-south Eurasian trade routes linking the Baltic region, Constantinople and Central Asia

II. New technologies facilitated long-distance communication and exchange.

A. New technologies (such as yokes, saddles or stirrups) permitted the use of domesticated pack animals (such as horses, oxen, llamas or camels) to transport goods across longer routes.
B. Innovations in maritime technologies (such as the lateen sail or dhow ships), as well as advanced knowledge of the monsoon winds, stimulated exchanges along maritime routes from East Africa to East Asia.

III. Alongside the trade in goods, the exchange of people, technology, religious and cultural beliefs, food crops, domesticated animals, and disease pathogens developed across far-flung networks of communication and exchange.

A. The spread of crops, including sugar, rice and cotton from South Asia to the Middle East, encouraged changes in farming and irrigation techniques (such as the development of the qanat system).
B. The spread of disease pathogens diminished urban populations and contributed to the decline of some empires (such as Rome or China).
C. Religious and cultural traditions, including Chinese culture, Christianity, Hinduism and Buddhism, were transformed as they spread.
Period 3: Regional and Transregional Interactions, c. 600 C.E. to c. 1450

Key Concept 3.1. Expansion and Intensification of Communication and Exchange Networks

Although Afro-Eurasia and the Americas remained separate from one another, 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. Pastoral or nomadic groups played a key role in creating and sustaining these networks. Expanding networks fostered greater interregional borrowing, while at the same time sustaining regional diversity.

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.

A. Existing trade routes, including the Silk Roads, the Mediterranean Sea, Trans-Saharan and the Indian Ocean basins, flourished and promoted the growth of powerful new trading cities (such as — to mention just a few — Novgorod, Timbuktu, Swahili city-states, Hangzhou, Calicut, Baghdad, Melaka and Venice, or in the Americas, Tenochtitlan or Cahokia).

B. The growth of interregional trade in luxury goods (such as silk and cotton textiles, porcelain, spices, precious metals and gems, slaves or exotic animals) was encouraged by significant innovations in previously existing transportation and commercial technologies, including more sophisticated caravan organization (such as caravanserai or camel saddles); use of the compass, astrolabe and larger ship designs in sea travel; and new forms of credit and monetization (such as bills of exchange, credit, checks or banking houses).

C. Commercial growth was also facilitated by new state practices (such as the minting of coins or use of paper money), new trading organizations (such as the Hanseatic League) and new state-sponsored commercial infrastructures like the Grand Canal in China.

D. The expansion of existing empires — including China, the Byzantine Empire and the Caliphates — as well as new empires (such as the Mongols) facilitated Trans-Eurasian trade and communication as new peoples were drawn into their conquerors’ economies and trade networks.
II. The movement of peoples caused environmental and linguistic effects.

A. 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 (such as the way Scandinavian Vikings used their longships to travel in coastal and open waters as well as in rivers and estuaries, the way the Arabs and Berbers adapted camels to travel across and around the Sahara, or the way Central Asian pastoral groups used horses to travel in the steppes).

B. Some migrations had a significant environmental impact, including the migration of the agricultural Bantu-speaking peoples in forested regions of Sub-Saharan Africa, and the maritime migrations of the Polynesian peoples who cultivated transplanted foods and domesticated animals as they moved to new islands.

C. Some migrations and commercial contacts led to the diffusion of languages throughout a new region or the emergence of new languages (for example, the spread of Bantu languages, the new language of Swahili that developed in East African coastal areas, or the spread of Turkic and Arabic languages).

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

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

B. In key places along important trade routes, merchants set up diasporic communities where they introduced their own cultural traditions into the indigenous culture (such as Muslim merchant communities in the Indian Ocean region, Chinese merchant communities in Southeast Asia, Sogdian merchant communities throughout Central Asia or Jewish communities in the Mediterranean, Indian Ocean basin, or along the Silk Roads).

C. The writings of certain interregional travelers (such as Ibn Battuta, Marco Polo or Xuanzang) illustrate both the extent and the limitations of intercultural knowledge and understanding.

D. Increased cross-cultural interactions resulted in the diffusion of literary, artistic and cultural traditions (such as the influence of Neo-Confucianism and Buddhism in East Asia, Hinduism and Buddhism in Southeast Asia, Islam in Sub-Saharan Africa and Southeast Asia or Toltec/Mexica and Inca traditions in Mesoamerica and Andean America).

E. Increased cross-cultural interactions also resulted in the diffusion of scientific and technological traditions (such as 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 or the spread of printing and gunpowder technologies from East Asia into the Islamic empires and Western Europe).

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

A. New foods were adopted in populated areas (such as bananas in Africa, new rice varieties in East Asia or the Muslim Agricultural Revolution).

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

Key Concept 3.2. Continuity and Innovation of State Forms and Their Interactions

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.

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

A. Following the collapse of empires, most reconstituted governments, including the Byzantine Empire and the Chinese dynasties — Sui, Tang and Song — combined traditional sources of power and legitimacy (such as patriarchy, religion or land-owning elites) with innovations better suited to the current circumstances (such as new methods of taxation, tributary systems or adaptation of religious institutions).

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

C. Some states synthesized local and borrowed traditions (such as Persian traditions that influenced Islamic states or Chinese traditions that influenced Japan).

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.
II. Interregional contacts and conflicts between states and empires encouraged significant technological and cultural transfers, for example between Tang China and the Abbasids, across the Mongol empires and during the Crusades.

Key Concept 3.3. Increased Economic Productive Capacity and Its Consequences

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.

I. Innovations stimulated agricultural and industrial production in many regions.

   A. Agricultural production increased significantly due to technological innovations (such as Champa rice varieties, the chinampa field systems, waru waru agricultural techniques in the Andean areas, improved terracing techniques or the horse collar).

   B. In response to increasing demand in Afro-Eurasia for foreign luxury goods, crops (such as sugar or citrus) were transported from their indigenous homelands to equivalent climates in other regions.

   C. 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.

II. The fate of cities varied greatly, with periods of significant decline, and with periods of increased urbanization buoyed by rising productivity and expanding trade networks.

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

   B. 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.

   C. 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.

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.

A. As in the previous period, the main forms of labor organization included free peasant agriculture, nomadic pastoralism, craft production and guild organization, along with various forms of coerced and unfree labor and government-imposed labor taxes and military obligations.

B. 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.

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

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

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

Key Concept 4.1. Globalizing Networks of Communication and Exchange

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. 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.

I. 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.
II. 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 the 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.

III. Remarkable new transoceanic maritime reconnaissance occurred in this period.

A. Official Chinese maritime activity expanded into the Indian Ocean region with the naval voyages led by Ming Admiral Zheng He, which enhanced Chinese prestige.

B. 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.

C. Spanish sponsorship of the first Columbian and subsequent voyages across the Atlantic and Pacific dramatically increased European interest in transoceanic travel and trade.

D. Northern Atlantic crossings for fishing and settlements continued and spurred European searches for multiple routes to Asia.

E. In Oceania and Polynesia, established exchange and communication networks were not dramatically affected because of infrequent European reconnaissance in the Pacific Ocean.

IV. The new global circulation of goods was facilitated by royal chartered European monopoly companies that 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 by using established commercial practices and new transoceanic shipping services developed by European merchants.

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.

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

C. 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 one another in global trade.

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 peoples.
V. The new connections between the Eastern and Western hemispheres resulted in the Columbian Exchange.

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

B. 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.

C. 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.

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

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.

VI. 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.

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

B. The practice of Christianity was increasingly diversified by the Reformation.

C. Buddhism spread within Asia.

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

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

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

B. Literacy expanded and was 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

Although 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 locations 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 18th 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 semicoerced labor emerged in Europe, Africa and the Americas, and affected ethnic and racial classifications and gender roles.

I. 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.

A. 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).

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

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

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

E. Spanish colonists transformed Amerindian labor systems (such as introducing the encomienda and hacienda systems or changing the Inca mit’a labor obligation into a forced labor system).

F. Europeans used coerced and semicoerced labor (such as indentured servitude or impressment).
II. As new social and political elites changed, they also restructured new ethnic, racial and gender hierarchies.

A. 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).

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

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

D. 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 the 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; this led to the rise of new states and contributed to the decline of states on both the coast and in the interior.

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

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

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

C. States treated different ethnic and religious groups in ways that 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”).

D. 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.

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

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

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

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

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

III. Competition over trade routes (such as Omani-European rivalry in the Indian Ocean or 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.
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 18th and 19th centuries, eventually becoming global.

I. Industrialization fundamentally changed how goods were produced.

A. 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.

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.

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

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 rest of the world (such as the United States, Russia or Japan).

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.

F. 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.

II. 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.

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 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.

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

C. 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 19th century).

D. 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).

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

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

B. 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).

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

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

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

A. 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).

B. In Qing China and the Ottoman Empire, some members of the government resisted economic change and attempted to maintain preindustrial forms of economic production.

C. 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 Movement or Muhammad Ali’s development of a cotton textile industry in Egypt).

D. 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).

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.

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

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

C. 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 their 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 facilitated the spread of transoceanic empires and new states, as well as justified anti-imperial resistance and the formation of new communal identities.

I. Industrializing powers established transoceanic empires.

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

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

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

D. 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).
E. 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).

II. Imperialism influenced state formation and contraction around the world.

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

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

C. 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).

D. New states (such as the Cherokee Nation, Siam, Hawai‘i or the Zulu Kingdom) developed on the edges of an empire.

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

III. New racial ideologies, especially Social Darwinism, facilitated and justified imperialism.

Key Concept 5.3. Nationalism, Revolution and Reform

The 18th 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.

I. 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.

A. 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.

B. Enlightenment thinkers critiqued the role that religion played in public life, insisting on the importance of reason as opposed to revelation.
C. Enlightenment thinkers (such as Locke or Montesquieu) developed new political ideas about the individual, natural rights and the social contract.

D. 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.

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 to unite diverse populations.

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

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

B. 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, and the Jamaica Letter.

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

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

E. Some of the rebellions were influenced by religious ideas and millenarianism (such as the Taiping Rebellion, the Ghost Dance or the Xhosa Cattle-Killing Movement).

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

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

A. Discontent with monarchist and imperial rule encouraged the development of new political ideologies: liberalism, socialism and communism.
B. 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 Woman*, Olympe de Gouges's “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 benefited economically from migration, while other people 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.

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

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

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.

II. Migrants relocated for a variety of reasons.

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

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.

C. 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).

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.

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

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 (such as the Chinese Exclusion Act or the White Australia Policy).

**Period 6: Accelerating Global Change and Realignments, c. 1900 to the Present**

**Key Concept 6.1 Science and the Environment**

Rapid advances in science altered the understanding 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.

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

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

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

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

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

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

**II. Humans fundamentally changed their relationship with the environment.**

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

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

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

A. Diseases associated with poverty (such as malaria, tuberculosis or cholera) persisted, while other diseases (such as the 1919 influenza pandemic, 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 or Alzheimer’s disease).

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

C. 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 20th 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 to 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 the 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.

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 forms of transregional political organization by the century’s end.

A. 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).

B. Some colonies negotiated their independence (such as India or the Gold Coast from the British Empire).

C. Some colonies achieved independence through armed struggle (such as Algeria and Vietnam from the French empire or Angola from the Portuguese empire).
II. Emerging ideologies of anti-imperialism contributed to the dissolution of empires.

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

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

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

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

III. Political changes were accompanied by major demographic and social consequences.

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

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

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

IV. Military conflicts occurred on an unprecedented global scale.

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

B. 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.

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 United States and the Soviet Union emerged as superpowers, which led to ideological struggles between capitalism and communism throughout the globe.

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

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

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.

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

B. 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 protesters that promoted democracy in China; the Anti-Apartheid Movement; or participants in the global uprisings of 1968).

C. 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 buildup of the “military-industrial complex” and arms trading).

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

E. 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 and Culture

The beginning of the 20th 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 relationships between humans and the environment, and the frequency of political conflict all contributed to 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.

I. States, communities and individuals became increasingly interdependent, a process facilitated by the growth of institutions of global governance.

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

B. 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.

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

D. 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.

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

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

II. 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.

A. The notion of human rights gained traction throughout the world (such as the U.N. Universal Declaration of Human Rights, women's rights or the end of the White Australia Policy).

B. 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).

C. 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 or Liberation Theology).
III. Popular and consumer culture became global.

A. Sports were more widely practiced and reflected national and social aspirations (such as World Cup Soccer, the Olympics or cricket).

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