

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-1: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the growth and impact of global trade on world civilizations after 1600.

Enduring Understanding:

European expansion during the 1600s and 1700s was often driven by economic and technological forces. To understand the influence of these forces, the student will ...

7-1.1 Compare the colonial claims and the expansion of European powers through 1770.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 3, students learned about the initial contact between the Native Americans and European settlers in South Carolina (3-2.3). In grade 4, students learned about the exploration of the New World by Europeans and their accomplishments as well as their settlements (4-1.3, 4-1.4, and 4-2.2). In World History, students will learn about the changing boundaries and empires in Asia, the Americas, and Africa as a result of European exploration and expansions (MWH-2.1, MWH-2.2, MWH-4.1, and MWH-4.2).

It is essential for students to know:

Students should be able to identify the major European nations involved in international expansion, mainly Spain, Portugal, England, France, and the Netherlands, and the areas or regions in which each expanded during the 1600s and 1700s. They should be able to locate on maps the colonial claims of these nations, mainly in the Americas, as well as the overseas exploration to Asia and Africa. Students should be able to compare the colonial claims of the European powers and explain why Spain was able to gain more land in the Americas. Students should be able to utilize maps to identify the key exploration, trade, and settlement routes of the European powers.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the later settlements or expansion associated with imperialism of the 1800s and 1900s. Although Standard 7-1 calls for an emphasis on the 1600s and 1700s, that should not discourage students from identifying European expansion from as early as the late 1400s and through the 1500s when this colonial expansion began.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Select or design appropriate forms of social studies resources to organize and evaluate social studies information.
- Identify the location of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-1: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the growth and impact of global trade on world civilizations after 1600.

Enduring Understanding:

European expansion during the 1600s and 1700s was often driven by economic and technological forces. To understand the influence of these forces, the student will ...

7-1.1 Compare the colonial claims and the expansion of European powers through 1770.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 3, students learned about the initial contact between the Native Americans and European settlers in South Carolina (3-2.3). In grade 4, students learned about the exploration of the New World by Europeans and their accomplishments as well as their settlements (4-1.3, 4-1.4, and 4-2.2). In World History, students will learn about the changing boundaries and empires in Asia, the Americas, and Africa as a result of European exploration and expansions (MWH-2.1, MWH-2.2, MWH-4.1, and MWH-4.2).

It is essential for students to know:

Students should be able to identify the major European nations involved in international expansion, mainly Spain, Portugal, England, France, and the Netherlands, and the areas or regions in which each expanded during the 1600s and 1700s. They should be able to locate on maps the colonial claims of these nations, mainly in the Americas, as well as the overseas exploration to Asia and Africa. Students should be able to compare the colonial claims of the European powers and explain why Spain was able to gain more land in the Americas. Students should be able to utilize maps to identify the key exploration, trade, and settlement routes of the European powers.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the later settlements or expansion associated with imperialism of the 1800s and 1900s. Although Standard 7-1 calls for an emphasis on the 1600s and 1700s, that should not discourage students from identifying European expansion from as early as the late 1400s and through the 1500s when this colonial expansion began.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Select or design appropriate forms of social studies resources to organize and evaluate social studies information.
- Identify the location of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

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Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-1: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the growth and impact of global trade on world civilizations after 1600.

Enduring Understanding:

European expansion during the 1600s and 1700s was often driven by economic and technological forces. To understand the influence of these forces, the student will ...

7-1.2 Explain how technological and scientific advances contributed to the power of European nations.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In the grade 4, students learned about technological factors that led to the exploration of the New World (4-1.3). This will be the last time students will learn specifically about the technological and scientific advances that helped European powers in the 1600s and 1700s.

It is essential for students to know:

Much of the political, military, and economic domination of the European nations during the 1600s and 1700s was due to the scientific and technological innovations of these nations. Students should recognize that improved mapmaking and navigational advances such as the caravel, compass, and the astrolabe improved the Europeans' ability to navigate the open waters, thereby allowing them to dominate travel, trade, and naval operations among the continents. Students should also recognize that the European use of gunpowder in building superior weaponry such as rifles and cannons empowered them to conquer peoples in foreign lands without having superior numbers in those lands. It is critical for students to comprehend that as Europeans expanded their reach through these advantages, it allowed them to spread European political systems and ideas, economic models, and cultural beliefs, which will lead to the students' understanding of subsequent indicators 7-1.3, 7-1.4, and 7-1.5.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the specific nations involved in the development of these advances.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain cause-and-effect relationships.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

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Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-1: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the growth and impact of global trade on world civilizations after 1600.

Enduring Understanding:

European expansion during the 1600s and 1700s was often driven by economic and technological forces. To understand the influence of these forces, the student will ...

7-1.3 Summarize the policy of mercantilism as a way of building a nation's wealth, including government policies to control trade.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time students will learn about the policy of mercantilism, but in grade 4 students learned about economic factors that led to European exploration of the New World (4-1.3). In grade 8, the students will learn about mercantilism in the context of South Carolina history (8-1.5). In World History, students will learn more about the trade policy of mercantilism (MWH-4.6).

It is essential for students to know:

Economic changes began taking place in Europe during the 1600s and 1700s as Europe began colonial expansion and global trade. With the growth of international trade that resulted from improved navigational techniques, the “discovery” and colonization of the New World, and a growing merchant class, the economy became more complex and moved beyond the simple feudal system based on land ownership. In response to these changes, European nations began to develop the system of mercantilism. Under mercantilism, governments sought to control and regulate trade so as to create a favorable balance of trade, i.e., the value of their exports would be greater than the value of their imports. By establishing a favorable trade balance, nations could then build their supplies of gold and silver and thereby build wealth for the mother countries in Europe. Colonies were a critical component of mercantilist practice because they provided inexpensive raw materials and resources for European nations, and colonies also provided a market for finished products made in Europe. The European nations controlled this trade generally by requiring that their colonies only trade with their mother countries and by placing tariffs on goods imported from other nations.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the specific trade pattern, raw materials, or products involved, although students should have a general idea of these patterns and markets.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Explain why trade occurs and how historical patterns of trade have contributed to global interdependence.

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Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Standard 7-1: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the growth and impact of global trade on world civilizations after 1600.

Enduring Understanding:

European expansion during the 1600s and 1700s was often driven by economic and technological forces. To understand the influence of these forces, the student will ...

7-1.4 Analyze the beginnings of capitalism and the ways that it was affected by mercantilism, the developing market economy, international trade, and the rise of the middle class.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/ Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time students will learn about the policy of capitalism, but in grade 4, students learned about economic factors that led to exploration and the expansion of international trade (4-1.3). In World History, students will learn about the world market economy in terms of industrialization and will compare capitalism with other economic ideologies (MWH-5.4, MWH-5.5). In United States History and the Constitution, students will evaluate the role of capitalism and its impact on democracy (USHC-4.3)

It is essential for students to know:

Capitalism is an economic system based upon the private ownership of resources and production that is driven to make a profit. During the 17th and 18th centuries, changing economic activities began to alter the economic structure of Europe and lent itself to the establishment of capitalism. With the growth of international trade that resulted from improved navigational techniques, the “discovery” and colonization of the New World, and a growing merchant class, the economy became more complex and moved beyond the simple feudal system based on land ownership. Mercantilism became the major economic model for European nations as students learned about in indicator 7-1.3; but while the governments sought to regulate trade and foster national wealth, the instrument through which trade operated was private ownership. Merchants and ship owners took the risks and enjoyed the profits of the growing international trade. These merchants and businessmen formed the backbone of a growing middle class in the towns and cities of Europe and contributed to a growing market within Europe. With new wealth, this middle class contributed to the emerging market economy in Europe as individual citizens started private businesses. A market economy is a system in which individual buyers and sellers interact in the marketplace to exchange goods and services. The development of these factors, mercantilism, international trade, rise of the middle class, and the developing market economy, was critical in the creation and advancement of capitalism.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the specific trade patterns, businesses, or jobs involved, although students should have a general idea of these patterns and businesses.

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Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Explain why trade occurs and how historical patterns of trade have contributed to global interdependence.
- Select or design appropriate forms of social studies resources* to organize and evaluate social studies information.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

or any verb from the **Understand, Apply** or **Remember** cognitive process dimensions.

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Standard 7-1: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the growth and impact of global trade on world civilizations after 1600.

Enduring Understanding:

European expansion during the 1600s and 1700s was often driven by economic and technological forces. To understand the influence of these forces, the student will ...

7-1.5 Compare the differing ways that European nations developed political and economic influences, including trade and settlement patterns, on the continents of Asia, Africa, and the Americas.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 4, students learned about the political and economic factors that led to exploration of the New World (4-1.3). In World History, the students will learn about the impact of competition among European countries on the various kingdoms of the Americas and Africa, the changing boundaries in Europe and Asia, the changes in European overseas empires, the disruption within West African kingdoms as a result of the competition between European countries over slave trade, and about Asia's relationship with European states through 1800 (MWH-2.6, MWH-4.1, MWH-4.2, MWH-4.7, and MWH-5.6). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the political, social, and economic development of British North America (USHC-1.1).

It is essential for students to know:

Due to economic forces that drove the European powers and technological forces that enabled them, European expansion developed political and economic influences in Asia, the Americas, and Africa. Students should be able to recognize similarities and differences of this European influence across the regions.

In Asia, interaction was prompted primarily through trade and the beginnings of global European colonization and expansion. As a region, Asia was distinctly different than the New World and Africa in that it possessed highly advanced, prosperous, relatively modern, and militarily strong civilizations. Because of these characteristics, European dealings with Asia were, more or less, based on an association of "equals". This equality prompted Europe and Asia to largely engage in mutually beneficial trade relationships. To facilitate this relationship, European nations were allowed to establish a trade "presence" in Asia which was largely based on building trading posts in port cities and along the coastal regions. This trade led to a change in Asian economies which became more dependent on European trade and markets. Among other things, this trade created a more prosperous merchant class in Asian societies that was closely aligned with Europeans. During most of the 1600s and 1700s there was no significant European colonization in Asia comparable to that which existed in the New World. Students should understand that while Europe did not initially engage in the colonization methods utilized in the New World, it still had a profound impact on the society and culture of Asia. For centuries, Asian civilizations had largely developed in isolation from one another and from the European world. With the opening and eventual expansion of trade relationships this tradition of isolation began to break down and

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the introduction of European ideas transpired, especially the introduction of Christianity as missionaries began travelling with the European merchants. Because of this influence of Christianity, the many Asian governments limited or closed off trade with the Europeans in a return to isolationism in order to protect their cultures.

In the Americas, the motivation for expansion was again economically driven, yet political influences also occurred. In the Americas, unlike in Asia and in Africa, colonization did take place. There were differing colonial structures and settlement patterns among the European colonies established in the Americas. Students should recognize there were various European nations that explored and settled in the New World. Among these nations were Spain, Portugal, England, France, and the Netherlands. In the Spanish and Portuguese colonies where gold and silver were discovered, trade became the primary basis of interaction with the area. Both of these nations also quickly developed plantation systems that depended on native labor, which was later replaced by imported slave labor from Africa. The slavery of Native Americans, as well as the slavery of Africans later, created an economic, political, and social system where Native Americans and Africans were excluded and often mistreated through harsh punishments and working conditions on the plantations. The plantations evolved in the Caribbean and Amazon basin where sugar cane could be grown and sold as a valuable cash crop. The French and the Dutch also developed plantations in the Caribbean. The plantation system was also advanced in the southern English colonies where crops such as tobacco, rice, indigo, and some sugar were grown as plantation crops. France, England, and the Netherlands did not enslave Native Americans, but they did import slave labor from Africa. The British, and the French to a lesser degree, also relied on indentured servants to help with the labor supply needed for the growing plantation system. These indentured servants worked to pay off debts or the costs of traveling to the Americas. For example, a group of indentured servants in the British colonies were known as “redemptioners” who would negotiate their indenture, or terms of work, to pay for their costs to travel and live, upon arriving in the Americas. Another large group of indentured servants, about twenty-five percent, was made up of people convicted of some type of crime that were sent to the Americas to pay their debt to society. The state of Georgia was established based on this idea. After the American Revolution, the British continued this practice by sending convicts to their colony of Australia.

Other types of settlements focused on trade developed in the French and Dutch colonies where gold and silver were not prevalent and plantation farming was not beneficial. The Dutch led the way with early colonization and trading posts in South America. Dutch colonization was not very successful except in their colony of Suriname. French established trading posts with Native Americans in North America. Fur trade was very prosperous and it allowed the French to establish generally good relations with the Indians. As a result of their good relations and to try to prevent the British from taking their land, a majority of the Indians fought alongside the French in the French and Indian War. The British wanted to take over the fur trade from the French and the British colonies wanted to take over French land in the Americas. As a result of the war, the British gained much of France’s land, and France’s power and influence in the Americas began to decline.

In all of these settlements in the Americas, the Europeans made their political presence felt as they took control of these lands and instituted new forms of government. These political styles

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varied as the Spanish and Portuguese ruled their colonies with strong, central monarchy that kept a close watch on its colonies by appointing viceroys or royal representatives to monitor the colonies. The French and Dutch were not as strict in their control, ruling more loosely which allowed for more political decision-making amongst the colonists. The English allowed a representative government system similar to what the mother country had which allowed colonists to elect representatives to participate in decision making.

The last type of settlement in the Americas was the development of what could be considered true colonial settlements. These colonies were created by transporting large numbers of people to live in an area. The first of these colonies was developed by the English at Jamestown. It was established as a trading settlement, but of necessity, soon developed into a permanent colonial settlement. Soon after Jamestown began to flourish, the Pilgrims came to America to establish a colony based on religious freedom. The intent of the Puritans, from the beginning, was to make the settlements they founded into colonies of permanent habitation. The Spanish and Portuguese likewise spread Christianity amongst their settlements, but spread Catholicism rather than Protestantism. Religion, however, was not the emphasis or purpose of Spanish or Portuguese settlement.

In Africa, economic and political influence was based on the slave trade which began as a result of the need for more labor on the plantations in the Americas. To acquire the slaves, the Europeans engaged in trade with African tribes, often exchanging goods the African tribal leaders wanted such as weapons, iron, cloth, and horses in return for the slaves. As the demand for slaves increased, tribal warfare in Africa increased as tribes began capturing other tribes in order to participate in this trade. Some tribes became very powerful through this process while most African societies suffered from the loss of workers being taken and traded to the Europeans. Families and communities were separated, and the major population decrease and loss of workers led to economic problems in Africa. Some Africans began resistance movements to try to stop the European slave trade, either by attacking European slave traders in Africa or by revolting on the slave ships. Like in Asia, there was no significant colonization or political takeover like there was in the Americas.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the names of the explorers, traders, or leaders of Europe, Asia, the Americas, or Africa during this era. While students should be able to recognize the general trade patterns and the establishment of a European presence in Asia, the Americas, and Africa, it is not essential that they be able to identify all the cities and locations engaged in trade. Students also do not need to know the years of settlement in the Americas nor the names of specific groups conquered. They also do not need to know the names of the African nations that participated in the slave trade, the number of estimated people taken from various tribes, which part of Africa slaves came from, or the numbers of slaves who went to various regions in the New World.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Explain why trade occurs and how historical patterns of trade have contributed to global interdependence.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

- Select or design appropriate forms of social studies resources* to organize and evaluate social studies information.
- Identify the location of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the concepts of limited government and unlimited government as they functioned in Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

The relationship between citizens and their government is a fundamental component of political rule. To understand the role of constitutions, the characteristics of shared powers, the protection of individual rights, and the promotion of the common good by government, the student will ...

7-2.1 Analyze the characteristics of limited government and unlimited government that evolved in Europe in the 1600s and 1700s.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/ Conceptual Knowledge - 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 1, the students learned about the fundamental principles of democracy (1-3.1). In grade 2, the students learned about the basic functions of government (2-2.1). In grade 3, the students learned about the structure of state government (3-3.5).

In World History, students will learn about democracy and constitutionalism (MWH-5.2). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the early development of representative government and how the idea of limited government is protected by the Constitution and Bill of Rights (USHC-1.1, USHC-1.5). In United States Government, students will learn about the role and relationship of the citizen to government in democratic, republican, authoritarian, and totalitarian systems and about limited and unlimited governments with regard to governance (USG-1.3, USG-1.5).

It is essential for students to know:

There are fundamental differences between a limited and unlimited government. In a limited government there are restraints placed upon the power and authority of government, whereas in an unlimited government there is virtually no ability to limit the actions of the government thereby reducing the ability to prevent it from being authoritarian or tyrannical in nature. In an unlimited government, individual rights and freedoms are curbed and citizens are expected to display total obedience to the government as the ruler or rulers make all decisions; but in a limited government citizens are given individual rights and can participate in government decisions.

In Europe in the 1600s and 1700s, the absolute monarchies would be classified as unlimited governments since there were no real restrictions to control the actions of the governments against citizens and citizens had no recourse against the government. These monarchies based their power on the idea of "divine right," or the idea that their power came directly from God. Decisions made by the rulers were therefore not questioned by the citizens. France and Russia are two nations that continued to operate under and develop an unlimited government during this time. Both created an absolutist system that concentrated power in the hands of the monarch. Rights and freedoms were severely limited and the few which did exist could be cast aside through the actions of the monarch. Three common ways that France and Russia displayed

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unlimited authority were in raising taxes, in dissolving the legislative body, and in using the military to enforce its policies.

There were changes that began to take place in Europe that began to restrain the power of government and create a structure that was limited in nature. Many of these changes and ideas were built upon the English tradition or model that began when King John signed the Magna Carta (Great Charter) in 1215, acknowledging that the king was no longer above the law. England's government therefore had the beginnings of an unwritten constitution that would later be built upon by the English Bill of Rights signed in 1689 (7-2.4). The most common and successful methods included: constitutionalism and the creation of constitutional monarchies that incorporated the principle of rule of law; democracy which granted people authority in the functioning of government; and separation of powers which distributed the legislative, executive, and judicial powers to several government bodies rather than allowing the concentration of these powers into one body or person.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the names of rulers of European nations during these times nor their specific policies or government practices.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across **cultures**.
- Understand responsible citizenship in relation to the state, national, and international communities.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

or any verb from the **Apply, Understand** or **Remember** cognitive process dimensions.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the concepts of limited government and unlimited government as they functioned in Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

The relationship between citizens and their government is a fundamental component of political rule. To understand the role of constitutions, the characteristics of shared powers, the protection of individual rights, and the promotion of the common good by government, the student will ...

7-2.2 Explain how the scientific revolution challenged authority and influenced Enlightenment philosophers, including the importance of the use of reason, the challenges to the Catholic Church, and the contributions of Galileo and Sir Isaac Newton.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time students will learn about the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment. In World History, students will learn about how the Scientific Revolution in Europe led to the questioning of orthodox ideas (MWH-5.1).

It is essential for students to know:

The Scientific Revolution was born out of the advancements made in the areas of science and math in the late 1500s and early 1600s. Following the age of exploration, new truths and new research challenged previous thought processes and studies. As evidence mounted, scientists began to question ancient theories and the orthodox teachings of the Roman Catholic Church. These scientists began using reason or logical reasoning instead of placing their beliefs in faith and demanding proof or evidence. Ptolemy's theory of planetary motion, the geocentric theory, and church teachings were brought into question by Copernicus's heliocentric theory. Other major achievements included the contributions of Galileo and Newton. Galileo offered support for the heliocentric theory with his experiments concerning motion and his observation of space with use of the telescope. Newton's laws of gravity furthered the laws of motion and continued the challenge of old theories. The scientific method was a major contribution of this time period, establishing a systematic way to find proof using reason. This was the logical procedure for testing theories that included beginning with a question, forming a hypothesis that is then tested through experimentation, and finally analyzing data to reach a conclusion. A significant conflict arose between scientific thought and traditional religious beliefs during this time. The theories and books that were published also led to significant conflict with the church. The Bible, as interpreted by the Roman Catholic Church, served as authority for society prior to the rise of science. The teachings of the church, which were based on faith and revelation, felt significant challenge from science, which offered empirical evidence for its theories. With the publication of these new theories, the teachings of the Bible and the church were called into question. This was a challenge to faith by reason. For the church, political, social, and economic authority was on the line. Scientists like Galileo were called to renounce or stop their teachings and reaffirm the teachings of the church or face excommunication. Galileo was put under house arrest by the church towards the end of his life because of his challenges.

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All of these challenges to authority inspired the philosophers of the Enlightenment to then begin using reason to apply it to the political environment in Europe. Through the use of reason, Enlightenment philosophers began developing ideas that challenged the unlimited governments of the time and influenced the development of limited governments in the 1600s and 1700s.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the contributions of every scientist of this time period, such as Brahe, Kepler, or Edward Jenner, or to have specific knowledge of the works of the scientists, such as Copernicus's *On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Bodies* or Galileo's *Starry Messenger*. Instead, it is more helpful to focus on the broad concepts and major contributions of the time. In that same vein, while there were many contributions made to scientific instruments and medicine during this period, these can be briefly mentioned, for broader understanding but too much time should not be spent in this area. The students also do not need to know the steps of the scientific method.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across **cultures**.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

Assessment guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Standard 7-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the concepts of limited government and unlimited government as they functioned in Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

The relationship between citizens and their government is a fundamental component of political rule. To understand the role of constitutions, the characteristics of shared powers, the protection of individual rights, and the promotion of the common good by government, the student will ...

7-2.3 Analyze the Enlightenment ideas of John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Montesquieu, and Voltaire that challenged absolutism and influenced the development of limited government.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/ Conceptual Knowledge - 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time students will learn about the Enlightenment. In World History, students will learn about ideas that were brought about by the Enlightenment (MWH-5.2). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the ideas of separation of powers and individual rights that are in limited governments (USHC-1.5).

It is essential for students to know:

The Enlightenment was seen as an intellectual movement of the 17th and 18th centuries which sought to apply “reason” to society and thereby better understand and improve society. Politics - its structure, purpose, and execution - was one of the areas where “enlightened” philosophy was applied. To understand the political philosophy of the era, it is important for students to understand absolutism as well as the concepts behind the state of nature philosophy and the social contract theory. Absolutism was the basis of most governments in Europe at that time, and these unlimited governments placed total or absolute power in the hands of the rulers (7-2.1). Most of the governments were absolute monarchies based on divine right, the belief that rulers received their power directly from God, and therefore citizens were expected to respond to all decisions of the rulers without input or challenges. Therefore citizens did not have any guaranteed rights. The political philosophy of the Enlightenment presented a differing view that provided a direct challenge to absolutism and therefore influenced the development of limited government. The state of nature was a positive condition of human existence that preceded social and political organization and was used by philosophers to explain the process by which political organization occurred. The social contract theory was the idea that government was created as an agreement or contract between social groups as a way of structuring themselves in a mutually beneficial manner. These two components are an important part of the “template” used by philosophers during the Enlightenment to examine and classify government. It should be understood that philosophers could and did apply these ideas in different ways.

John Locke of England is considered one of the great political philosophers of the Enlightenment. Influenced by the Glorious Revolution, Locke saw the state of nature as a good place and the social contract as a voluntary agreement to enhance life. Locke believed all humans were born with natural rights, or rights belonging to all, and therefore presented a challenge to absolutism. According to Locke, the social contract was an agreement between the citizens and

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their government, and the government's responsibility was to protect the rights of the people. Locke argued that if the government did not protect these rights, then the people had the right to break the contract by abolishing the government and creating a new one. Locke's ideas developed into the concept of the consent of the governed, or the belief that a government gets its approval or "consent" from the people. Locke's writings had a strong influence on American patriots like Thomas Jefferson in his writing of the Declaration of Independence.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau of France had a similar belief about the state of nature but his viewpoint was different about the role of government. Since Rousseau saw society as the corrupting influence on people, it was the role of government to protect the "general will" of the people. As such, it was the government's duty to implement policies deemed beneficial for the general populace, or by basing decisions on majority rule. Rousseau's view of the social contract would create a limited government as the government's power would be limited by what the majority of citizens wanted. Rousseau's ideas, along with those of Locke, formed the foundation for the idea of popular sovereignty which is used in limited governments today. Popular sovereignty, like consent of the governed, dictates that governments get their power and legitimacy based on what the people or citizens want. American colonists largely rejected Rousseau, but his writings would later provide part of the foundation for totalitarian governments.

Baron de Montesquieu of France focused on governmental organization by promoting the ideas of separation of powers and checks and balances. By creating a separation of powers, a government must be limited as each branch checks the others' powers. Montesquieu greatly admired the English system of limited government from which he garnered these concepts. These concepts did not originate with him, but he was largely responsible for popularizing them and he advocated modifying the English system of the time of having two branches, executive and legislative, to having three branches, the executive (monarch), legislative (Parliament), and judicial (courts). The influence of his ideas is readily apparent in the United States Constitution.

Voltaire, the pen name of François-Marie Arouet of France, focused on civil liberties, mainly freedom of speech and freedom of religion. Voltaire's influence on limited government is mainly in the area of rights of the citizens. He wrote many books and plays to demonstrate the use of reason and voice his views on social reform. He often exhibited his dislike of religious intolerance, advocating a separation of church and state and modeling the right to express personal opinion through free speech.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know where these philosophers were from or the titles of the political writings of these philosophers.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students to be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

or any verb from the **Understand** or **Remember** cognitive process dimensions.

GRADE 7

Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the concepts of limited government and unlimited government as they functioned in Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

The relationship between citizens and their government is a fundamental component of political rule. To understand the role of constitutions, the characteristics of shared powers, the protection of individual rights, and the promotion of the common good by government, the student will ...

7-2.4 Explain the effects of the English Civil War and the Glorious Revolution on the power of the monarchy in England and on limited government.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time students will learn about the English Civil War and the Glorious Revolution. In World History, students will learn about ideas brought about by the Enlightenment and their effects on institutions (MWH-5.2).

It is essential for students to know:

The English Civil War was a major struggle in England between the powers of the people, represented in the form of Parliament, and the monarch, which was an issue that began in England in 1215 with the signing of the Magna Carta. Parliament began making demands to the monarch, King Charles I. Parliament wanted Charles I to allow Parliament to begin making decisions on laws, which would limit the absolute power of the monarch. Parliament was challenging the legitimacy of the divine right of kings philosophy (7-2.1). These challenges were based on political, economic, and religious issues that had been going on since the reign of Charles' father, James I. Politically, Parliament wanted more input in the government, again trying to build on the foundations of the Magna Carta. Charles, like his father, refused to let Parliament meet. In 1629, he physically locked them out of their meeting place at Westminster. They were locked out for eleven years in what was called the Eleven Years Tyranny. Economically, Parliament and Charles argued over issues related to the practice of raising money by levying taxes and allowing men to buy titles. One example occurred when John Hampden, a member of Parliament, refused to pay a new tax called the "Ship Tax" because Parliament had not agreed upon the tax. Hampden was put on trial and found guilty, yet he was a symbol of defiance by standing up to the king's power.

In 1642, as tensions between Parliament and Charles continued to escalate, Charles sent soldiers to arrest five members of Parliament that he considered to be his biggest critics. As Parliament represented the people of England, this action by Charles was seen as an attack on the people. Civil war broke out in 1642 between the supporters of Charles I, the Royalists, and the supporters of Parliament. The supporters of Parliament soon fell under the leadership of Oliver Cromwell and his "New Model Army." The New Model Army was able to claim major victories over the Royalists. In 1646 Charles I surrendered, but in 1647 he escaped, and the next year the civil war resumed with the Royalists being quickly defeated again. In 1649 Charles I was tried for charges of abuses of power against Parliament and the people. He was found guilty and was

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

beheaded. The English Civil War was therefore a major event in challenges to absolute monarchs of the time and served as foreshadowing of John Locke's idea that a government or ruler's abuse of power should lead to its overthrow.

Between the end of the English Civil War in 1649 and the Glorious Revolution of 1688-1689, England's government was in a state of transition. Charles II, son of Charles I, began trying to regain power in Scotland while Oliver Cromwell became "lord protector" of England. Charles II attempted an invasion and takeover of England but failed. After Cromwell died in 1658, his son Richard took over as "lord protector." Unlike his father, Richard Cromwell was a weak leader, and after eight months he resigned. As the political situation in England became unstable, Charles II was invited to retake the throne in 1660. After Charles II died in 1685, his brother James II took the throne.

James II was Catholic and Protestant leaders in England feared he would return England to the turmoil of becoming a Catholic nation after over a century and a half of being Protestant since the establishment of the Church of England in 1535. These Protestant leaders turned to William of Orange for help. He was Protestant and also married to Mary, the oldest daughter of James II. William agreed to Parliament's proposal and came to England with an army in 1688. James II fled to France, and William and Mary took the throne that her father had abdicated in a bloodless revolution known as the Glorious Revolution. Parliament had prearranged with William and Mary that the monarchs would agree to some limits on their power. William and Mary signed the English Bill of Rights in 1689. These measures promoted a limited government in England as the monarch began sharing power by allowing Parliament to make laws and assured the protection of individual rights for the people. These measures are foundational principles of all limited governments that followed and were inspirational to the Enlightenment philosophers.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the names of the battles or the exact dates involved in the English Civil War or Glorious Revolution but instead need to have a general understanding of the storyline of the events. They also do not need to know the history or policies of the rulers of England during this time. Students should be exposed to rulers such as Charles I, Oliver Cromwell, Charles II, James II, William and Mary, but it is not necessary for them to know other examples by name.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across **cultures**.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments **could** require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the concepts of limited government and unlimited government as they functioned in Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

The relationship between citizens and their government is a fundamental component of political rule. To understand the role of constitutions, the characteristics of shared powers, the protection of individual rights, and the promotion of the common good by government, the student will ...

7-2.5 Explain how the Enlightenment influenced the American and French revolutions leading to the formation of limited forms of government, including the relationship between people and their government, the role of constitutions, the characteristics of shared powers, the protection of individual rights, and the promotion of the common good.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 4, students learned about the ideas in the Constitution, the structure and function of the branches of federal government, and how the United States Constitution and Bill of Rights placed importance on the involvement of citizens and protected rights (4-4.1, 4-4.2, and 4-4.3).

In grade 8, students will learn about the basic principles of government as established in the United States Constitution (8-3.3). In World History, students will learn about ideas brought about by the Enlightenment, including constitutionalism (MWH-5.2). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the early development of representative government and how the fundamental principle of limited government is protected by the Constitution (USHC-1.2 and USHC-1.5). In United States Government, students will learn about the role and relationship of the citizen in democratic and republican systems, the organizational structure of government, the role of constitutions, and the organization of government in federal systems (USG-1.3, USG-1.4, USG-1.5, and USG-1.6). Students will also learn about the core principles of United States government (USG-2.1). They will also learn about how the Constitution acts as the written framework of the United States government, the structure of the branches, federalism, and the organization of local and state governments in the United States federal system (USG-3.1, USG-3.2, USG-3.3, and USG-3.4).

It is essential for students to know:

The American Revolution was inspired by the Enlightenment, and the French Revolution, in turn, was inspired by the Enlightenment as well as the success of the American Revolution. These two revolutions, utilizing the ideas of the Enlightenment, led to the formation of limited governments and served as models for future limited governments and constitutions around the world. The Enlightenment presented new beliefs about authority and the role of the individual in government. John Locke presented ideas of natural rights of life, liberty, and property, and he declared that it is the purpose of governments to protect these rights. Furthermore, he stated that if a government fails to protect these rights, it is the right of the people to overthrow the government. The ideas of Montesquieu, Rousseau, and Voltaire can also be seen in the formation of limited forms of government (7-2.3). Based on these Enlightenment ideas, many of these limited governments became representative democracies where the citizens choose other citizens to represent them in the decision-making processes of government.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

These Enlightenment ideas inspired the leaders of the American Revolution, and the ideals and success of the American Revolution served as a model for the French and many other revolutions that followed such as those in Latin America. The American Revolution drew upon Locke's beliefs in the Declaration of Independence. Thomas Jefferson made specific references to Locke's ideas to argue that the colonists were rebelling because their rights had been violated and that they therefore had the right to alter or abolish their government. After gaining independence, the writers of the United States Constitution used Enlightenment ideas to provide the framework for their new, limited government. The American Revolution demonstrated that it was plausible for Enlightenment ideas about how a government should be organized to actually be put into practice. Some American diplomats, like Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson, had lived in Paris where they consorted freely with members of the French intellectual class. A growing number of French citizens had absorbed the ideas of "equality" and "freedom of the individual" as presented by Voltaire and other Enlightenment philosophers. Furthermore, contact between American revolutionaries and the French troops who supported them in the American Revolution helped spread revolutionary ideals to the French people. After the American Revolution, many French citizens began to attack the undemocratic nature of their own government, leading to the French Revolution (7-3.1). Following these revolutions, the ideas of the Enlightenment were used to develop limited governments and constitutions.

A constitution that creates a limited government as the relationship between the people and their government embodies Locke's idea of a social contract, as a constitution is an agreement between the government and the people. According to this agreement, the role of constitutions is to place limits on the government's power by specifically outlining what powers the government does or does not have, or what the government can or cannot do. Therefore, by specifying these powers, the government cannot be unlimited or possess all the power. A constitution is the "law" which establishes the structure and operation of government and details the relationship of the people to their government. Constitutions are critical because they provide the government legitimacy in ruling.

While constitutions can and do address many issues, they generally have provisions pertaining to several key components: they provide the framework for the operation of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches; they establish the relationship between the national government and the regional/provincial governments; and they define the relationship of government to the citizens and the rights of citizens. The characteristics of shared powers are evident in the creation of the three branches: executive, judicial, and legislative. These three branches clearly take influence from Montesquieu's idea of separation of powers. The concept of shared powers is also established by the system of federalism as duties are divided between the federal and state governments. The protection of individual rights is established by the Bill of Rights, which takes influence from Locke's idea of natural rights and also includes some of Voltaire's rights. To promote the common good of the nation, and not just a ruler or the government, the Constitution requires citizen responsibility in electing representatives as well as in becoming representatives. Citizens are held accountable to one another through the guidelines of the Constitution, and this promotion of the common good displays influences from Rousseau's idea of a nation having to do what is best for the majority or ruling by general will. This concept is also known as popular sovereignty (7-2.3).

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Constitutions can be a single written document like in the United States, or a collection of traditions, precedents, legal rulings and documents that together comprise what is known as an unwritten constitution like in England. Both forms of government are legitimate. The United States had the first written constitution and helped set the foundation for what national constitutions generally address. Many of the ideas and principles of the United States Constitution were based upon the traditions and heritage of the unwritten English constitution. The tradition of a government being responsive to the will of the people first occurred when King John signed the Magna Carta (Great Charter) in 1215, acknowledging that the king was no longer above the law (7-2.1). Not all constitutions are legitimate however. It is possible for a government to have a written constitution but not to follow the principles or guidelines set forth in it. The former Soviet Union is an example of this.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the sections or portions of the Declaration of Independence or any other declarations of independence. Likewise, they do not need to know the sections of any national constitution.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across **cultures**.
- Understand responsible citizenship in relation to the state, national, and international communities.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of independence movements that occurred throughout the world from 1770 through 1900.

Enduring Understanding:

The global spread of democratic ideas and nationalist movements occurred during the nineteenth century. To understand the effects of nationalism, industrialism, and imperialism, the student will:

7-3.1 Explain the causes, key events, and outcomes of the French Revolution, including the storming of the Bastille, the Reign of Terror, and Napoleon's rise to power.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This will be the first time the students have learned about the French Revolution. In World History, students will learn about the reasons for independence movements as exemplified by the French Revolution (MWH-6.2).

It is essential for students to know:

The French Revolution was inspired by the Enlightenment and the American Revolution (7-2.5) and was caused by a series of events that together irreversibly changed the organization of political power, the nature of society, and the exercise of individual freedoms. The French Revolution was caused, in part, by the social imbalance of the Old Regime. Under this system, France was divided into three social classes: the First, Second, and Third Estates. The First Estate was the Roman Catholic clergy, who owned fifteen percent of the land and were one percent of the population. The Second Estate, the nobility, was two percent of the population and owned up to twenty-five percent of the land. The rest of the population, the Third Estate; which included lawyers, craftsmen, merchants, and peasants paid the majority of the taxes on the remainder while being underrepresented in government. The French Revolution also was caused by King Louis XVI, who was a weak and extravagant leader in a time of crisis. He had incurred great debts caused by war, including the French alliance in the American Revolution, and his own spending. His people were already highly taxed, and banks refused to loan him any more money. This required him to call together the Estates-General, the French legislative body. After the calling of the Estates-General, the Third Estate insisted on a new power structure that would allow every male citizen a vote instead of each Estate collectively having one vote. This change would guarantee them greater representation in the Estates-General. When their request was denied, they seceded and formed the National Assembly, symbolizing an end to absolute monarchy and the start of representative government in France. When shut out of the proceedings of the Estates General a few days later, the Third Estate gathered on the king's tennis courts to write a new constitution for the government, called the Tennis Court Oath. Shortly thereafter, on July 14, 1789, a mob of peasants stormed the Bastille, a prison and armory. The peasants got weapons from the Bastille and then tore the Bastille down as it was a symbol of the King's power. This event represented the beginning of the revolution and July 14 known as Bastille Day, is a national holiday in France.

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Riots then broke out across the countryside as peasants began raiding the homes of nobles, killing and looting in response to their anger at the unfair Estate System and their increased poverty.

In 1791, a constitutional monarchy was established, significantly weakening the power of the king and granting power to the people in the form of the Legislative Assembly. The revolution became increasingly radical in nature. In late 1791, the Constitution was set aside, the king imprisoned, and the legislature took over in the form of the National Convention. The Convention declared France a republic based on universal male suffrage. The Convention initiated a military draft to raise an army to protect the revolution from the armies of other European monarchs and instituted the guillotine as a way of protecting the revolution from “enemies” within France. Many of the Convention were members of the Jacobins, a radical revolutionary group. From this group, Maximilien Robespierre gained increased power until he became the leader of the Committee of Public Safety in mid-1793. Robespierre gained power as a dictator and began the Reign of Terror in France. During the Reign of Terror, violence escalated with the mass execution by guillotine of 25,000-40,000 citizens deemed “enemies of the Revolution.” Most of those executed were nobles as well as the king and queen. Determining that Robespierre was too radical and fearing for their own lives, members of the National Convention executed Robespierre in July of 1794.

After the execution of Robespierre, the revolution took a more conservative turn. From 1795 to 1799, France was ruled by five moderate men known as the Directory. During this time, Napoleon Bonaparte was making a name for himself in the French army. When the Directory lost favor in France in 1799, Bonaparte staged a coup d'état and took the title of First Consul. As ruler of a country that had been unstable for nearly ten years, Napoleon established a national banking system, set up an efficient taxation system, and ended government corruption. He restored the position of the Catholic Church in France, gaining the favor of the people and of the Pope. He also wrote a uniform system of laws known as the Napoleonic Code. In 1804, with the support of the people, Napoleon crowned himself emperor. Napoleon began his quest for a European empire and by 1812 controlled most of Europe.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know specific details about the American Revolution beyond the influence of the Enlightenment. Additionally, in-depth biographical information about Marie Antoinette is not necessary. Although there are many details to the descriptions of each of the governments leading France between 1789 and 1815, a brief description of each will suffice in order for students to be able to grasp the necessity for the changes. It is not necessary to know specific battles beyond the ones leading to Napoleon Bonaparte's defeat or the other aspects of his rise, regime, and fall.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of independence movements that occurred throughout the world from 1770 through 1900.

Enduring Understanding:

The global spread of democratic ideas and nationalist movements occurred during the nineteenth century. To understand the effects of nationalism, industrialism, and imperialism, the student will:

7-3.2 Analyze the effects of the Napoleonic Wars on the development and spread of nationalism in Europe, including the Congress of Vienna, the revolutionary movements of 1830 and 1848, and the unification of Germany and Italy.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/ Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time students will learn about the Napoleonic Wars and nationalism. In World History, students will learn about nationalism and its effect on institutions, the causes of the revolutions of 1830 and 1848, and the unification of Germany and Italy (MWH-5.2, MWH-6.4, and MWH-6.5).

It is essential for students to know:

Napoleon began his quest for a European empire and by 1812 controlled most of Europe (7-3.1). The Napoleonic Wars began after he declared himself emperor in 1804. Napoleon began leading armies and sending his armies to conquer neighboring countries in Europe, often with much success. The French Empire extended from France into parts of Spain and Portugal to the West and into parts of modern-day Germany and Italy as well as other nations to the East. The stopping point of the Empire at its height was at the English Channel to the West and Russia to the East. Britain and Russia were two places Napoleon was never able to conquer and consequently helped lead to his defeat. Beginning in 1812, Napoleon made three mistakes that led to his downfall, the blockade of Britain (called the Continental System); the Peninsular War; and the invasion of Russia. In 1814, Napoleon surrendered his throne and was exiled to Elba. He escaped from Elba in 1815, gathered his allies, and in the Hundred Days, waged his final attempt at power. Napoleon's final defeat came at Waterloo, after which he was exiled to St. Helena.

The immediate effects of the Napoleonic Wars were the development and spread of Nationalism and further revolutions in Europe. As Napoleon's armies were conquering other nations, his soldiers also began to spread ideas of the Enlightenment, changes in government, and revolution. These ideas indirectly led to Napoleon's defeat as people in Europe began learning about challenges to government as well as new systems of government. Napoleon's armies, who had lived through the French Revolution, shared news of the causes and events of their own revolution, therefore spreading Enlightenment ideas about natural rights, social contract, and limited government. Napoleon's armies even backed revolutionary governments or movements in the lands they conquered. At the same time, Napoleon began trying to impose French customs and culture, and in response, the conquered people began feeling more loyal to their own nations and customs. Citizens of conquered lands such as Austria, Prussia, Italy, and Portugal therefore began wanting to eliminate the French presence in order to gain self-rule, and the idea of

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Nationalism developed and began to spread. Nationalism is the belief that one's greatest loyalty is to a shared culture, including aspects of common history, language, religion, and nationality, rather than to a leader or border. As a result of Napoleon's conquest of Europe, nationalist sentiments were ignited. Enlightenment ideals, which manifested into the French slogan of "*Liberte, Egalite, Fraternite,*" or "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity," became the rallying cry for the masses across Europe and throughout the world in the 1800s, contributing to the growth of nationalism, which in turn caused various revolutions across Europe and Latin America.

The Great Powers at the Congress of Vienna reestablished the balance of power following Napoleon's exile in 1815. At the Congress of Vienna, all lands taken by Napoleon were returned to the nations to which they belonged before Napoleon's rule. The Congress of Vienna also decided to reinstate the absolute monarchs to the thrones in countries that Napoleon had defeated in an effort to reestablish the balance of power in Europe. Because of new ideas that had spread, and growing feelings of Nationalism, people in Europe wanted a change in government, however. These absolute monarchs therefore had to suppress the democratic movement encouraged by the French Revolution. Despite these moves to return conservatives to power, the ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity spread, feeding the nationalist movements of the 1830s and 1840s. The two main aspects of nationalist movements in the 1800s were unification or peoples of common culture from different states joined together, and separation or groups splintered off from their current government to form one that was more representative of their own interests. Liberals and radicals led nationalist movements to create nation-states all across Europe after 1815.

Nationalist movements within Europe began in the Balkans with the Greeks, who rebelled against the Ottoman Empire beginning in 1821. Supported by Britain, France, and Russia, Greece became an independent nation in 1830. Within the next few years, despite the arrangements of the Congress of Vienna, revolutions occurred in Belgium, Italy, and Russia, though most were crushed by the mid-1830s. Led by the liberals, revolutions erupted across Europe in 1848. Most were suppressed by conservative groups by 1849, with the exception of the French uprisings. In France, Charles X had attempted to establish an absolute monarchy in France in 1830 with no success. He was replaced by Louis-Philippe, who ruled until 1848 when he lost favor with the people and was overthrown in favor of a republic. Upon establishment of this republic, the radicals were divided as to what reforms should occur next. This uncertainty allowed the moderates to take control, elect a president, and establish a parliamentary system. Louis-Napoleon (Bonaparte's nephew) was then elected president. Four years later, Louis-Napoleon took the title of Emperor Napoleon III, taking advantage of the political instability of the country. During his reign, he stabilized and industrialized France.

In Germany, nationalism caused leaders to want to unify people that had shared customs and cultures into one nation. The German Confederation was composed of thirty-nine loosely joined states, of which Austria and Prussia were the largest and most powerful. Prussia had a mainly Germanic population, a powerful army, and a liberal constitution, thus giving this state the advantage in the creation of a unified German state. In Prussia, Wilhelm I was in power, supported by the conservative Junkers. Wilhelm appointed Otto von Bismarck, a Junker, as his prime minister. Bismarck took full control of the country, ruling under a policy known as *realpolitik*, meaning "the politics of reality," a style of power politics that leaves no room for

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idealism. Stating that the decisions of the day would be decided not by speeches but rather by blood and iron, Bismarck practiced his *realpolitik* theory and embarked on a campaign of German unification. There were three wars of German unification from 1864 to 1871 with Denmark, Austria, and France respectively. In the first, Austria and Prussia formed an alliance to take land from Denmark. Soon thereafter, Bismarck purposefully created border conflicts with Austria to provoke them into declaring war on Prussia, a war known as the Seven Weeks War. In the final move for unification, Bismarck created an outside threat in an attempt to win the support of the remaining German states. After Bismarck changed the wording of the Ems Telegram to make it appear that Wilhelm I had insulted the French ambassador to Prussia, and published this doctored version to media, the French were provoked to declare war, just as Bismarck had hoped. After the defeat of Napoleon III in the Franco-Prussian War, German unification was complete.

In Italy, like in Germany, nationalism caused leaders to want to unify people that shared similar customs and cultures into one nation. Count Camillo di Cavour led the unification of the Northern Italian states. The kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia was the largest and most powerful of the Italian states, and with its liberal constitution, unification under this state appealed to many Italians of neighboring northern states. With French assistance, Cavour won the Austrian-occupied land of northern Italy. At the same time, Giuseppe Garibaldi, leader of the Red Shirts, captured Sicily in the south. Cavour persuaded Garibaldi to unite the two sections, in 1860 allowing King Victor Emmanuel II to lead the united Italy with Rome as its capital. Soon thereafter, Venetia and the Papal States were added as well.

Four short wars fought between 1859 and 1871 redrew the map of Europe while addressing the questions of German and Italian nationalism. For the next four decades these Great Powers would remain at peace and territorial disputes ceased to divide most of their governments, despite the fact that nationalist grievances continued to fester in some places.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know biographical information about Napoleon Bonaparte. It is not necessary to know specific battles from the Napoleonic Wars or the other aspects of his rise, regime and fall. It is not essential for students to know every country involved in the revolutions of 1848. A visual presentation would suffice to give an image that the revolts were quite widespread. Likewise, students do not need to know specific battles or leaders, other than those mentioned above, of the unification movements.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Interpret parallel time lines from different places and cultures.
- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

or any verb from the **Apply**, **Understand** or **Remember** cognitive process dimensions.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of independence movements that occurred throughout the world from 1770 through 1900.

Enduring Understanding:

The global spread of democratic ideas and nationalist movements occurred during the nineteenth century. To understand the effects of nationalism, industrialism, and imperialism, the student will:

7-3.3 Explain how the Haitian, Mexican, and South American revolutions were influenced by Enlightenment ideas as well as by the spread of nationalism and the revolutionary movements in the United States and Europe.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time the students will learn about these revolutions. In World History, students will learn about ideas brought about by the Enlightenment, the reasons for independence movements in Haiti and South America, and the various movements for individual rights in Latin America (MWH-5.2, MWH-6.2, and MWH-6.3).

It is essential for students to know:

The Haitian, Mexican, and South American revolutions were inspired by the Enlightenment as well as by the American Revolution, the spread of nationalism, and the revolutions in Europe (7-2.5, 7-3.1, and 7-3.2). The ideas of liberty and equality inspired independence from colonial domination in this society driven by social structure.

Similar to the French Revolution, social class struggles and discontent played a large role in Latin American independence movements. The *peninsulares*, the wealthy Spanish-born citizens, constituted the smallest percentage of the population yet occupied the highest political positions in society. The *creoles* were Spaniards born in Latin America who could not hold political office but could be army officers. Together, these two classes possessed the wealth, power, and land in Latin America. Beneath them in the social hierarchy were the *mestizos* (a mixture of European and Indian ancestry), *mulattos* (a mixture of European and African ancestry), and the slave class.

In Haiti, the western third of the island of Hispaniola, the revolution was inspired by the American Revolution in particular. This French colony, which was known as *Saint-Dominique* (French) or *Santo Domingo* (Spanish) prior to its independence, had a large slave population, most of whom were treated brutally and lived in poor conditions. In 1791, a group of 100,000 slaves revolted, and Toussaint L'Ouverture soon became their leader. By 1801, L'Ouverture had gained control of the island and freed all the enslaved Africans. In 1802, France sent troops to deal with the situation and remove L'Ouverture from power. L'Ouverture was sent to France, where he died in a French prison in 1803, but the French were unsuccessful in quelling the rebellion. In 1804, Haiti declared its independence, thus making this the only successful slave revolt in history.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Having been educated in Europe and exposed to Enlightenment and revolutionary ideals, *creoles* led the majority of the independence movements throughout the rest of Latin America. As these ideals spread in Latin America, many *mestizos* and other lower classes were inspired by the ideas of equality and freedom as well. Napoleon Bonaparte's attempts to conquer nations in Europe, and thus extend control over its colonies, caused many *creoles* to worry about foreign domination by an absolute ruler. Similar to what was occurring in Europe, nationalistic feelings intensified desires for self-rule and the revolutionary ideas that were spreading in Europe inspired *creoles* and the other lower classes to begin fighting for the rights and equality not allowed by their class systems. *Creoles* and the other lower classes throughout Latin America therefore used Enlightenment ideas such as Locke's idea of consent of the governed along with nationalistic ideas to justify rebellion against Spain.

In Mexico, the independence movement was initially led by the *mestizos*. Padre Miguel y Costilla Hidalgo (Father Miguel Hidalgo), inspired by Enlightenment ideals, called for rebellion, and a crowd marched toward Mexico City. They were defeated in 1811 by the upper classes, who feared losing their power to the lower classes. Another attempt at revolt four years later also failed. Mexican independence finally was attained in 1821 when Mexican *creoles*, fearing the loss of their power, declared independence from Spain with Agustín de Iturbide as their emperor. In 1823, the nations of Central America (Nicaragua, Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, and Costa Rica) declared their independence from Mexico.

The revolutionary spirit was contagious in South America, as all across Spanish-controlled colonial possessions, nationalist desire for independence from Spain spread. Like his neighbors to the north, Simón Bolívar, a *creole* general, led the independence movements throughout South America beginning in his home country of Venezuela in 1811. Bolívar then moved into Colombia and Ecuador, where he met José de San Martín, who had recently freed Chile. Together, the two men combined forces under Bolívar's command to liberate Peru. Bolívar's dream to unite the Spanish colonies of South America into a single country, known as Gran Colombia, was a reality for a short time as Venezuela, Colombia, Panama, and Ecuador were temporarily united. But political issues soon separated the countries once again into their own independent states.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know specific battles fought in each of these independence movements. Additionally, although it might be helpful to mention other people involved in the independence movements, it is not essential information.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Interpret parallel time lines from different places and cultures.
- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of independence movements that occurred throughout the world from 1770 through 1900.

Enduring Understanding:

The global spread of democratic ideas and nationalist movements occurred during the nineteenth century. To understand the effects of nationalism, industrialism, and imperialism, the student will:

7-3.4 Explain how the Industrial Revolution caused economic, cultural, and political changes around the world.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned how the Industrial Revolution was furthered by new inventions and technologies and the impact of industrialization (5-3.1 and 5-3.4). In grade 8, students will learn about industrial development in South Carolina compared to industrialization in the United States (8-5.5). In World History, students will learn about the major technological and social characteristics of the Industrial Revolution, the relationship between the expanding world market economy and the development of industrialization, and about the economic ideologies of capitalism and socialism (MWH-5.3, MWH-5.4, and MWH-5.5). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the factors that influenced the economic growth of the United States and its emergence as an industrial power, the role of capitalism, the impact of industrial growth, and the causes and effects of urbanization (USHC-4.2, USHC-4.3, USHC-4.4, and USHC-4.5).

It is essential for students to know:

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the late 1700s following the Agricultural Revolution and the early advancements in technology and machinery. The enclosure movement, crop rotation, and advanced agricultural technology increased agricultural yields, which led to increased population and forced small farmers to become tenant farmers or move to the cities. Great Britain had the factors of production needed for industrialization, including natural resources, rivers and harbors, experienced entrepreneurs, rising population, political stability, increasing world trade, and economic prosperity and progress. Following its start in Great Britain, the Industrial Revolution spread to the United States and those countries of continental Europe in which factors of production were available such as Belgium and Germany. Later, in Japan, industrialization began as a response to growing imperialistic threats against the nation. The Industrial Revolution caused major economic, cultural, and political changes around the world.

The Industrial Revolution was an economic revolution, and therefore economic changes were widespread and still continue to impact our world today. These economic changes led to cultural and political changes. Economic changes began with the invention of machines. New textile machines for spinning and weaving, chores that had previously been done by hand increased the production of cloth goods. The modernization of textile technology revolutionized industrialization. The flying shuttle advanced textile production by doubling the amount of

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weaving a worker could do in one day. This machine was soon joined by the more advanced spinning jenny, which allowed one spinner to spin eight threads at a time. At first operated by hand, these machines were soon powered by the water frame. In 1779, the spinning mule was invented as a combination of the spinning jenny and water frame. The mule produced a stronger product than its predecessors. In 1787, the water-powered power loom increased the speed of weaving yet again. The cotton gin significantly increased cotton production following its invention in 1793. As reliance on large, expensive machines increased, factories were built to house the machines, rather than the “cottage industries” of handwork previously done at home in earlier times. Due to the increasing demand for waterpower to drive machines, factories were built near rivers or streams. Therefore, jobs that had previously been done by individuals in the home were moved to factories. These factories were built in existing cities or established towns near water sources. After the development of the steam engine by James Watt, factories began being built away from water sources because the steam engine became the new power source for machines. Coal and iron were the main resources used to power and build these engines and machines, and later, in the second wave of the Industrial Revolution that began in the 1870s, electricity, chemicals, and steel were the main sources for industrial business.

Transportation improved with the development of the steam engine as well. The steam engine was soon used to power steamboats and locomotives, leading to the building of canals and railways for trade and transportation. The railroad boom created new jobs for railroad workers and miners were needed to obtain coal to power the new engines. With less expensive means of trade and transport of goods, industries developed and trade over longer distances grew and travel for humans was easier. With the development of the factory system came the division of labor as individuals were assigned specific tasks, which led to increased worker productivity and increased output of manufactured goods. Through the development of interchangeable parts, where many identical parts were produced rather than the previous process of creating unique items by hand, it became possible to mass produce and repair many goods with the aid of machines and refined them by hand. Mass production allowed goods to be produced for a cheaper price, making them more accessible to an increasing portion of the population. Workers spent long hours in the factories, often fourteen hours a day, six days a week. The working conditions were dangerous and often resulted in injury, but there was no recourse for such injuries. Individuals could earn more in factories than on farms, leading to a large rural-to-urban migration.

Rural-to-urban migration led to many social changes. Unfortunately, the division of labor also made clear the division between the worker and owner classes. Many European cities doubled in population during this period of history. Because of the low pay for workers and because the living conditions in cities were unregulated, housing conditions were often very poor. The working class lived in crowded areas often without basic utilities such as running water. Conditions were often unsanitary due to these circumstances along with increase pollution from the factories. Crime increased due to poverty, however there was often inadequate police protection. The middle and upper classes, usually business owners or other professionals, typically moved to nicer homes in the suburbs, which was a tangible reflection of the growing class divisions.

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Because working conditions were so dangerous and because of the growing class divisions, further economic changes began along with political changes. Laissez-faire capitalism was the foundation of the Industrial Revolution, as this was the economic system in which all factors of production were privately owned and there was no government interference. But capitalism, based on laws of competition, supply and demand, and self-interest, also allowed for great disparity in wealth. Supporters of capitalism opposed the creation of minimum wage laws and better working conditions, believing that it would upset the free-market system and weaken the production of wealth. The working class was increasingly oppressed by the middle and upper classes. This led to rising support of socialism, because of the belief that such a system would provide for the greater welfare of the masses of working class people and allow the government to plan the economy in order to promote equality and end poverty. Socialism at that time offered workers more protection than capitalism and it also promised that it would better distribute wealth according to need. Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, writing in *The Communist Manifesto*, proposed a radical socialism, stating that society was dividing into warring classes. It was proposed that the proletariat, the “have-nots” or the workers, who were oppressed in their current conditions, would overthrow the bourgeoisie, the “haves”, or the owners, and create a “dictatorship of the proletariat.” Although this proletariat revolution did not occur during the Industrial Revolution, Marx provided the fuel for future reforms and revolutions.

In addition to the rise of socialism, labor unions and reform laws came about in the 1800s as a means to correct the disparities between social classes. Unions negotiated for better working conditions, higher pay, and shorter hours, and they would strike if demands were not met. These unions were restricted at first, but over time achieved nominal success. In the 1830s, the British Parliament began regulating mine and factory conditions for women and children, bringing much needed reform. While individual gaps in wealth were problematic at this time, a global wealth gap also was occurring. As industrialized nations gained power over non-industrialized nations, these industrial powers began looking to exploit the weaker nations for resources and markets. Thus, imperialism was born out of the industrial era.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the dates for each invention. Additionally, specific knowledge of each inventor or invention is not necessary. The focus should remain on the overall impact inventions had on economic changes. It is not essential for students to know every invention of the Agricultural or Industrial Revolution. The focus should be on the trends and goals of this time. Similarly, it is not essential to know the names of all manufacturers associated with the Industrial Revolution or the specialized products of every industrialized nation. While some might find it helpful to choose a mill city to focus on in order to paint a picture of industrial life (such as conditions, hours worked, organization, etc.), none of these cities are essential for study. Although the United States is important to highlight in terms of the spread of the Industrial Revolution, this is not essential in terms of a global focus. It is not necessary to know every reform law passed during this time, but instead, focus should be on the general changes made by these acts.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Interpret parallel time lines from different places and cultures.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of independence movements that occurred throughout the world from 1770 through 1900.

Enduring Understanding:

The global spread of democratic ideas and nationalist movements occurred during the nineteenth century. To understand the effects of nationalism, industrialism, and imperialism, the student will:

7-3.5 Analyze the ways that industrialization contributed to imperialism in India, Japan, China, and African regions, including the need for new markets and raw materials, the Open Door Policy, and the Berlin Conference of 1884.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/ Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time the students have learned about imperialism. In World History, students will learn about the relationship between the expanding world market economy and the development of industrialization (MWH-5.4). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the purposes and effects of the Open Door Policy (USHC-5.3).

It is essential for students to know:

Industrialization was the primary economic origin of imperialism (7-3.4) because a wealth gap was created between industrialized and non-industrialized nations. Industrialized nations sought raw materials from these less developed countries and new markets for finished products. Europe, the United States, and Japan were key imperial powers, while countries in Asia and Africa were the most sought after areas to colonize. Supporting the economic drives for imperialism were political and social forces. The race for colonies created a competition among European powers. Nationalist sentiment was stirred, and each country also sought to hold the most competitive posts around the world. Additionally, the belief in Western superiority, driven by Social Darwinism, justified imperial conquests. Rudyard Kipling's *The White Man's Burden* became an anthem for imperialism, stating that it was the duty of the Western powers to take their superior culture to the lesser nations, despite the resistance they might encounter.

In Asia, India became the "jewel of the crown" for Britain after the British East India Company set up trading posts along the Indian coast. After suppressing the Sepoy Rebellion (7-3.6), India officially became part of the British Empire and Britain began to exploit India for its raw materials while setting up markets there to sell British manufactured goods, hurting many Indian industries, such as the cloth industry, that could not compete with British industrialization.

In Japan, the government reopened trade with the West after the United States threatened to attack the capital city of Edo or modern-day Tokyo. Commodore Matthew Perry of the U.S. Navy was sent with warships to the coast of Japan with a treaty that the Japanese government was forced to sign in order to avoid attack. As a result of this treaty, Japanese trade, closed since a return to isolationism that began in the 1600s (7-1.5), was reopened. Industrialized nations of Europe began using Japan to use as a market for their industrial goods as well. As a result of

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

these aggressive actions, the Japanese government decided to industrialize quickly during the Meiji Restoration in order to avoid being imperialized and to begin its own imperialism (7-3.6).

China, like Japan, was forced to open itself to trade by industrial powers. As a result of losing the Opium Wars with Britain (7-3.6), the Chinese government was forced to sign a treaty allowing Britain to begin trading and setting up markets in China. Other European industrial nations, as well as the United States and later Japan also wanted access to China as a source of markets. After the Opium Wars, Britain and other European nations began carving China up into their own “spheres of influence” where they controlled special trading and economic rights within their designated area or section of China. The United States, wanting access to China as well, therefore created the Open Door Policy, stating that China should be open to all nations rather than just one or a few nations having control of the country.

In Africa, Europeans also began exploring and eventually taking over land to get more raw materials that were needed as a result of industrialization. This exploration and increasing interest led to a treaty whereby Belgium gained the Congo. Soon after Belgium claimed a section of Africa, other nations of Europe scrambled to do the same. The Berlin Conference of 1884-85 set forth the rules for the division of Africa. Fourteen European nations met, with no African representation, to divide the continent with little regard to ethnic or linguistic boundaries. With Europe’s advanced technology, primarily in weaponry and steamships, and the cultural disunity of Africa, the African nations were easily dominated. Only Liberia and Ethiopia were not imperialized by 1914. Despite the European agreement to peaceful division, conflicts still arose. In South Africa, for example, the Dutch, British, and Africans fought for land and resources (7-3.6).

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know every land colonized during the period of imperialism, but instead should have a general understanding of areas that industrial powers exploited and why. It would be helpful to focus on the trends seen and why certain areas were desirable over others (the political, economic, and social gains).

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

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- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

or any verb from the **Apply**, **Understand** or **Remember** cognitive process dimensions.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of independence movements that occurred throughout the world from 1770 through 1900.

Enduring Understanding:

The global spread of democratic ideas and nationalist movements occurred during the nineteenth century. To understand the effects of nationalism, industrialism, and imperialism, the student will:

7-3.6 Explain reactions to imperialism that resulted from growing nationalism, including the Zulu wars, the Sepoy Rebellion, the Opium Wars, the Boxer Rebellion, and the Meiji Restoration.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Although students have studied imperialism as it relates to United States History in grade 5 (5-3.5), this is the first time students have learned about nationalist reactions to imperialism. In World History, students will learn about the Indian nationalist movement and the Meiji era in Japan (MWH-6.6).

It is essential for students to know:

The Zulu Wars in South Africa pitted imperial competition for land in South Africa by industrial nations against nationalism (7-3.5). The Dutch, British, and African people all sought the land and resources of the country. In the early 1800s, Shaka Zulu of the Zulu Kingdom in South Africa created a centralized state. The Boers, Dutch settlers known as Afrikaners, began encroaching on lands of the Zulus. In a display of nationalism, Shaka Zulu led the South Africans in attacks against the Boers to protect his empire from Dutch control. His successors, however, were unable to continue his rule as the British exerted an increasing pressure in the area. In the 1880s, the Zulu War was fought against the British as the Zulus sought to retain independence, illustrating their growing nationalism. The Zulu nation, lacking the weaponry of the British, was defeated, and the Zulu nation became part of the British Empire.

The Sepoy Rebellion in India was a result of British imperialism there (7-3.5). The British East India Company dominated India after the decline of the Mughal Empire. To maintain control of British interests in India, the company hired Indian soldiers known as sepoys to protect their trading interests which were extensive at this time. India was the “jewel of the crown” in the British Empire, as it supplied raw materials to Britain’s industries and was viewed as a potential market for the finished products. As Britain increasingly exerted its influence over India, the Indians became more oppressed and discontented in their citizenship. While Britain did build railroads, modern communication systems, and schools in India, they also suppressed the local culture. In 1857, amid rumors that the new gun cartridges were greased with beef and pork fat (the cartridge ends had to be bitten off in order to be used), the Hindu and Muslim sepoys led a revolt known as the Sepoy Rebellion against the British. Following the uprising, which took a year to suppress, the British government took full control of India.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

The Opium Wars and Boxer Rebellion took place in China as a result of imperial interests there (7-3.5). China was self-sufficient in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries and therefore was not interested in buying goods from industrial nations. Britain, determined to open trade with China, found a product that the Chinese citizens willingly bought - opium. China attempted to halt the opium trade, but to no avail. Their defeat in the Opium War signaled the beginning of the increase in foreign influence in China as the British forced the Chinese to sign a treaty allowing Britain to begin trade in China (7-3.5). At the same time, China was undergoing an internal rebellion, the Taiping Rebellion, in an attempt to establish a kingdom in which no one would live in poverty. This rebellion, combined with increasing Western influence, led to increased pressure on the imperial government to reform. The self-strengthening movement was of little success. Taking advantage of the internal struggles, Europe, Japan, and the U.S. increasingly gained economic spheres of influence in this region. In 1899, the United States declared equal trading rights with China with the Open Door Policy (7-3.5). As a reaction to the newly declared Open Door Policy and the Chinese government's failure to respond to internal and external issues, the Righteous and Harmonious Fists, renamed by Europeans as the Boxers, a nationalistic organization which used martial arts to try to remove foreigners from Chinese soil, led the Boxer Rebellion in an effort to rid China of all foreign influence. The Boxers struck out, killing many foreigners and Chinese Christians, while also causing major damage to foreign-owned shops and businesses. The Boxers were defeated by an eight-nation alliance consisting of nations that had economic interests there. The Chinese government was forced to pay the nations involved for damages done by the Boxers in the rebellion, and the eight nations were allowed to maintain their spheres of influence. Although the rebellion was a failure, it did lead to an increasing sense of nationalism and need for reform in China.

The Meiji Restoration in Japan was a response to Japan's growing nationalism and desire to protect itself from imperial aggression it was witnessing (7-3.5). After being forced to open its ports to trade by the United States, the Japanese government decided to take progressive action in order to make its economy and military more like that of the Western powers. In 1868 the emperor of Japan took the title Meiji meaning "enlightened rule." To respond to increasing imperial power in the region, the Meiji government decided to follow a Western model and even sent diplomats to study in Europe and the United States. These actions caused some negative reactions from conservatives in Japan, but the Meiji government continued its pursuits. Following these models, Japan was able to quickly industrialize and therefore began imperial conquests of its own. In 1894, Japan went to war with China in order to try to gain control of trade in Korea so that Japan could have access to raw materials and establish markets for their goods there. China had been in possession of Korea at the time. Japan was able to demonstrate to China and the world its new industrial might by quickly defeating China in the Sino-Japanese War. Japan gained control of Korea as a result.

Ten years later in 1904, Japan was once again able to show its power by quickly defeating Russia in the Russo-Japanese War. Russia wanted access to trade with Korea but Japan was still in control of Korea. As the Russians sent a naval fleet headed to Korea, the Japanese navy met them at sea and destroyed much of the Russian naval fleet. After a short period of fighting, the Russians surrendered in 1905, acknowledging Japan's sole right to Korea. The Meiji Restoration therefore successfully made Japan an industrial nation and changed its status becoming a world power with imperial claims and ambitions that rivaled European nations and the United States.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know details regarding each native government. Focus should remain on the causes and effects of the conflicts.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Interpret parallel time lines from different places and cultures.
- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of independence movements that occurred throughout the world from 1770 through 1900.

Enduring Understanding:

The global spread of democratic ideas and nationalist movements occurred during the nineteenth century. To understand the effects of nationalism, industrialism, and imperialism, the student will:

7-3.7 Explain the causes and effects of the Spanish-American War as a reflection of American imperialist interests, including acquisitions, military occupations, and status as an emerging world power.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the reason for the United States control of new territories as a result of the Spanish American War (5-3.5). In World History, students will learn about the changing role of the United States in international affairs and its increased role as a world power (MWH-7.3). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the development of American expansionism and the influence of the Spanish-American War on the emergence of the United States as a world power (USHC-5.1 and USHC-5.2).

It is essential for students to know:

In 1823, President James Monroe issued the Monroe Doctrine, which stated that the Americas were off limits to further European colonization. One of the strongest tests of the Monroe Doctrine came in the latter part of the century with Cuba's fight for independence from Spain. Cuba declared its independence from Spain in 1868, and fought unsuccessfully for ten years to gain emancipation. During the 1890s, the United States gained economic interests in Cuba. In 1895, Jose Marti launched the second attempt for independence. The Spanish-American War was caused in 1898 when the United States assisted Cuba in their fight for independence, claiming the Monroe Doctrine as justification for involvement. The United States sent the *USS Maine* into Havana Harbor to protect its national interests. The explosion of the *USS Maine*, which the Americans attributed to a Spanish mine, led to the American declaration of war against Spain. This declaration of war delighted the American newspapers, which were scrambling for the most sensational and competitive headlines, a style known as "yellow journalism." The Spanish-American War lasted four months, with the United States first attacking the Philippine Islands, another Spanish possession, resulting in a two-front or two ocean war. Following the war, the United States gained the Philippines, Guam, and Puerto Rico as territories. Rather than recognizing Cuban independence, the United States placed a military government in Cuba and exerted control over the country's affairs, leading to resentment on the part of Cubans. Guantanamo Bay in Cuba was leased by the United States in order to establish a major naval base on the island. Filipinos did not receive independence either. The effect of the Spanish-American War was an increase in United States imperialistic desires. In 1904, President Roosevelt issued the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine, declaring the United States as an international police power in the Western Hemisphere with justification to intervene in Latin America. In an expression of the growing political and economic power of the United States,

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

President Roosevelt sent the United States Navy, known as the Great White Fleet, on a world tour. Soon thereafter, the United States intervened in the affairs of other nations, encouraging a Panamanian revolution against Colombia in exchange for the right to build the Panama Canal. The United States intervened increasingly in the affairs of Latin American countries, leading to an economic imperialism that established United States supremacy in the Western Hemisphere.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know details of the battles of the Spanish-American War. The battle for independence in the Philippines and the construction of the Panama Canal are not essential for this indicator.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7

Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and effects of world conflicts in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

The influence of both world wars and the worldwide Great Depression are still evident. To understand the effects these events had on the modern world, the student will:

7-4.1 Explain the causes and course of World War I, including militarism, alliances, imperialism, nationalism, the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the impact of Russia's withdrawal from, and the United States entry into the war.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the factors that led to United States involvement in World War I and the role of the United States in fighting the war (5-3.6). In grade 8, the students will learn about reasons for the United States involvement in World War I and its impact on South Carolina (8-6.1). In World History, students will learn about underlying causes of World War I and the role of the United States in international affairs (MWH-7.1 and MWH-7.3). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the causes and consequences of United States involvement in World War I (USHC-5.4).

It is essential for students to know:

The acronym MAIN (Militarism, secret Alliances, Imperialism, and Nationalism) is often used to state the causes of World War I. The driving force was nationalism (7-3.2). Not all nations had states; many were included in empires such as the Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman Empires. Many of these people wanted independence from these empires and the creation of their own states. Ethnic and ideological differences also led to conflict within these empires. Nationalism also spurred economic and political rivalries among states that led European nations to establish a complex system of military alliances. Russia, France, and England formed an alliance and Germany, Italy, and Austria-Hungary formed a competing alliance. Newly united countries, such as Germany and Italy, along with established empires, were anxious to establish colonies to gain wealth through the acquisition of natural resources and trade. Imperialism therefore served as another form of competition between nations in Europe. Militarism had been an ongoing process as imperial nations in Europe continued to build up bigger and more powerful armies and navies that allowed them to conquer lands around the world while also protecting their political and economic interests. With these militaries in place and the other underlying causes serving as primers, the scene was set for war. The igniting incident or “spark” of the “Great War” occurred in the “powder keg” of the Balkans with the assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, in Bosnia by a Serbian nationalist. The resulting confrontation between Austria-Hungary and Serbia quickly involved much of Europe in the ensuing conflict because of the entangling pre-war alliances. Nations honored their agreements to back one another in war, beginning with Russia joining in on the side of Serbia and then Germany entering in on the side of Austria-Hungary.

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New weapons and the development of trench warfare made the course of World War I different from previous wars and more deadly. The new technology of the Industrial Revolution led to the development of new weaponry, such as long range artillery, poisonous gases and gas masks, submarines, tanks, machine guns, airplanes, and flame throwers. Although both sides thought the war would be over quickly due to these new weapons and their massive militaries, by 1915 the war eventually bogged down into trench warfare and a costly stalemate.

There were three main fronts in the war: the Western Front, the Eastern Front, and the Italian Front. Most of the trench warfare took place on the Western Front in France. The majority of the fighting was between the French and British on one side and the Germans on the other. This led to an eventual stalemate on the Western front that lasted until 1917 as neither side could force the other into surrendering. On the Eastern front, the majority of the fighting was between the Germans and the Russians, with some involvement from Serbia and other nations trying to break free from imperial rule on the side of the Russians and Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire, and Bulgaria on the side of Germany. On the Italian Front, Italy fought alongside the French against German and Austro-Hungarian troops against the very countries it had allied itself with prior to the war's beginning. Russia withdrew from the war in 1917. This had a major impact on the war because Germany was then able to concentrate its focus on the western front with a stronger potential for victory.

Prior to World War I, Russians began to express discontent over economic, political, and social issues. Russians were discontented over issues like high taxes, working conditions, and political rights. The devastation from World War I increased the discontent felt by the Russian people. Czar Nicholas II was unable to manage Russia's ongoing difficulties and his authoritarianism weakened popular support for his power. As a result, in 1917 revolts of the working class led to the Bolshevik (Russian) revolution. Czar Nicholas II was overthrown and eventually he and his heirs were executed. The Bolsheviks, led by Lenin, withdrew from the eastern front and abandoned their allies in 1918, signing a separate peace treaty with Germany. As a result of the Russian withdrawal from the war, the British and French defenses on the western front became crucial in determining the outcome of the war and allies were sorely needed.

The entry of the United States into the war during the same year as Russia's withdrawal had a major impact on the eventual Allied victory. The United States declared neutrality at the outbreak of the Great War. However, various factors challenged American neutrality and eventually led to the involvement of the United States in the war. The traditional trading partnership with Great Britain and the blockade of German ports by the British navy severely limited American trade with Germany. American businesses made loans to the Allies in order to continue trade. Public opinion was impacted by America's traditional connection to the British. The German's unrestricted use of the submarine affected public opinion against Germany and alienated President Wilson, who was incensed by the loss of innocent lives. The 1915 German U-boat's sinking of the British passenger ship, the *Lusitania*, brought about sharp protests from President Wilson but did not bring the United States into the European war. Instead, Germany pledged to restrict their use of the submarine. Wilson campaigned for reelection in 1916 on the slogan that "He kept us out of war." The interception and publication by the British of Germany's Zimmerman Telegram to Mexico, which offered Mexico a deal to gain land in America in return for their attack on the United States, negatively impacted American public

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opinion towards Germany. The decision of Germany to resume unrestricted submarine warfare in the spring of 1917 led to the sinking of United States merchant ships. These events, along with Wilson's desire to "make the world safe for democracy" prompted Wilson to ask Congress to declare war on Germany in April of 1917. The American Expeditionary Force affected the course of the war by deflecting the last push of the Germans on the western front in France, and the armistice of November 11, 1918 ended the fighting between the Allies and the Central Powers.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the specific dates and strategic details of fighting in World War I or the Russian Revolution.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Select or design appropriate forms of social studies resources* to organize and evaluate social studies information.
- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and effects of world conflicts in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

The influence of both world wars and the worldwide Great Depression are still evident. To understand the effects these events had on the modern world, the student will:

7-4.2 Explain the outcomes of World War I, including the creation of President Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points, the Treaty of Versailles, the shifts in national borders, and the League of Nations.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about United States involvement in World War I and about daily life in America in the post-World War I period, but this is their first real exposure to the outcomes of World War I (5-3.6 and 5-4.1). In grade 8, students will learn about the war's impact on South Carolina (8-6.1). In World History, students will learn about the major shifts in world geopolitics between 1900 and 1945 and about the conflicts as a result of the collapse of the German, Habsburg, and Ottoman empires (MWH-7.3 and MWH-7.4). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the United States involvement in the Treaty of Versailles and the League of Nations (USHC-5.4 and USHC-5.5).

It is essential for students to know:

The major effects of World War I were diplomatic solutions, geographic and political changes, and economic consequences. Students should recognize the Treaty of Versailles as the major peace treaty of World War I and be able to describe the vital components of this Treaty. They should understand that President Wilson brought his proposals, known as the Fourteen Points, to the conference at Versailles to correct many of the problems that caused the Great War and to bring about lasting world peace. Wilson wanted the basis of the Treaty to address the causes of the war. His Fourteen Point Proposal contained many ideas directly intended to undo the MAIN causes. Some of these points included no military build-up, no secret alliances, and the right to self-determination. His fourteenth point included the idea of creating a League of Nations, an international organization designed to resolve disputes between nations and avoid future wars. Unfortunately, the positive proposals of Wilson and the punitive peace treaty that the Allies subsequently constructed were very different. While Wilson wanted to focus on addressing the causes of the war, the major European victors wanted to weaken Germany and maintain, or enhance, their standing in the world. The latter view prevailed and, with the exception of the League of Nations, dominated the Treaty's provisions. In its final format, the Treaty of Versailles (1919) was structured to punish Germany and included, among its foremost features, the "War Guilt Clause" in which Germany accepted responsibility for starting the war; German reparations; military restrictions such as limiting the army to 100,000 soldiers, and no air force or submarines; demilitarization of the Rhineland; and German territorial losses (both internally such as Alsace-Lorraine and all overseas possessions). This emphasis on German retribution created a structural foundation which would contribute to economic and political instability in the years to

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come. Russia, among other nations, negotiated different treaties and was denied a seat at the Versailles negotiations. This lack of input undermined the cohesiveness of the victors and contributed to the inability of the Treaty to provide stability and prevent future wars.

While seen as the crowning achievement of the Treaty of Versailles by many, the League of Nations proved to be ineffectual in achieving its goal of world peace. At its core, the League was very weak and unstructured and was not given the components necessary to bring about its lofty goal. For instance, not all major powers were members of the League. The United States chose not to join, while Germany and Russia were not allowed to join (Germany was finally allowed to join in 1926, but withdrew in 1933, while the Soviet Union finally joined in 1934). Japan and Italy, who were charter members, withdrew, in 1933 and 1937, respectively. The League had virtually no authority or influence with these nations thereby limiting its ability to influence international affairs. Another weakness involved the inability of the League to enforce its directives. The League had to rely upon moral persuasion, a tenuous tool at best. In theory, the League could wage war, but would have to use volunteer troops from member nations, an act that was not going to occur readily. A third weakness of the League was that it required unanimous consent for decisions, an almost impossible directive in most situations. Because of these and other weaknesses, the League never became the international forum for solving disputes among nations that it was intended to become.

It is critical for students to recognize the changes in political boundaries in Europe following World War I. Nationalism, one of the causes leading to World War I, was an issue that needed to be addressed as nations emerged from the conflict. In his Fourteen Points, Wilson proposed self-determination as one of the critical components to be used in determining international borders. This principle would be utilized selectively since it would not be applied to the victorious Allied Powers. The other major principle was to weaken those countries of Central and Eastern Europe that fought with the Central Powers. It is important that students be able to use maps and understand the significant territorial changes in Europe as a result of World War I. The most significant changes included the breakup of the Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman Empires; German territorial losses, including all overseas colonies; the creation of Poland; and Russian territorial losses initially due to the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, the separate peace negotiated between Germany and Russia in 1917, though the Soviets did regain some of this territory after the war.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know Wilson's Fourteen Points or to know all the conditions of the Treaty of Versailles, but they should be familiar with the general differences between the two. It is also not necessary for the students to be able to name all the new nations created after World War I, but they should be able to cite and identify on a map the key pre/post war differences. Students are not required to know the formal organizational structure of the League of Nations, nor are students required to know the names of the various treaties associated with World War I.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
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- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

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or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and effects of world conflicts in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

The influence of both world wars and the worldwide Great Depression are still evident. To understand the effects these events had on the modern world, the student will:

7-4.3 Explain the causes and effects of the worldwide depression that took place in the 1930s, including the effects of the economic crash of 1929.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the causes of the Great Depression and the American government's response to the Great Depression (5-4.2 and 5-4.3). In grade 8, the students will learn about reasons for depressed conditions in the textile mills and on farms in South Carolina and the effects of the Great Depression (8-6.3 and 8-6.4). In World History, students will learn about the responses of the governments of Britain, France, Germany, and Italy to the economic challenges of the 1920s and 1930s (MWH-7.2). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the causes and consequences of the Great Depression and about the New Deal as a response to the economic crisis (USHC-6.3 and USHC-6.4).

It is essential for students to know:

The depression of the 1930s, most commonly referred to as the Great Depression, was international in scope and not limited to the American experience with which most students are familiar. Due to the severe damages caused by World War I and the heavy monetary penalties imposed on Germany by the reparations included in the Treaty of Versailles, serious economic problems developed in Europe. Many European nations were faced with the expense of having to rebuild from the war, and although the Allied nations were using the reparations from Germany to help rebuild, the expenses due to the extreme damages of the war were high. Nations also faced the transition of soldiers returning from the war looking for work or replacing workers who held their jobs during wartime. Along with this transition, wartime spending had stretched many nations financially but had also kept employment high due to jobs created to maintain their militaries. Because of these factors, unemployment therefore rose in many nations after the war. Germany faced the greatest economic challenges due to the high reparations and the loss of some of its prime industrial land and resources imposed by the Treaty of Versailles. While this seemed to support British and French goals for post-war aims articulated in the Treaty of Versailles in order to prohibit and prevent Germany from causing another worldwide war, German economic weakness actually hurt trade and production in Western Europe as well. In 1923, France further sabotaged Germany's ability to become economically viable and thus pay owed reparations by seizing the Ruhr Valley, Germany's main industrial region. Germany's response was to begin printing money that had no economic support, thereby causing hyperinflation and the devaluing of money across the continent. Due to all of these financial difficulties and the necessity to rebuild, European nations were not buying and investing in foreign goods, including goods from the United States.

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Despite economic problems in Europe, the economy of the United States experienced an artificial boom in the 1920s. American companies continued producing goods at the high volume they had achieved during wartime to which they were accustomed expecting beneficial trade to continue. American farmers, who had fed the Allied armies and the people of Europe throughout the war, no longer had the European market and were in depression throughout the 1920s. The wages of industrial workers remained low. For a while, many Americans were able to buy goods on the installment plan; but, by the end of the decade, American consumers were reaching the extent of their buying power. The 1920s seemed like a boom time because many Americans increasingly bought more stock in United States companies, hoping the good times would continue. These stocks were often bought on credit on margin and the investments were risky as they relied on further business growth. This increase in buying stock on margin led to stock values rising quickly, making it appear as though money was there to be easily and quickly made enticing more investors into the risky stock market. When sales of goods slowed because European consumers could not buy and American consumers slowed their purchases, companies began experiencing a surplus of goods with an ever-shrinking customer market. As this surplus rapidly increased, investors began to sell their stock and stock prices began quickly declining in the late 1920s. Creditors began demanding payment for stocks bought on margin, yet investors had no real wealth to make repayments. Investors intensified the selling off of stocks at a high volume and withdrew their money from the banks to meet their financial obligations. All of these activities culminated in a Stock Market Crash. On October 29, 1929, known as Black Tuesday, the United States experienced the biggest loss in financial worth in the stock market. As a result of losses in the stock market and declining consumer demand, companies laid off workers and unemployment rose, furthering the problem of surplus goods because of shrinking demand. The cycle escalated as layoffs increased, sales decreased, and more people went to the banks to withdraw all of their money. These “runs on the banks” affected people nationwide. Even depositors who had not invested in the stock market had their savings wiped out in the panic to retrieve funds because the banks had loaned much of their capital and both the deposits and loans were not protected by bank insurance at the time. At the same time people were losing their savings, banks demanded full payment of their loans known as “calling the loan” because no protections were in place to prevent this occurrence at that time, in order to reinstate their capital and prevent closure, causing citizens with mortgages or other loans to begin losing their homes or other collateral. Unemployment and homelessness continued to increase, banks and businesses closed, and the economic depression in the United States intensified the worldwide depression.

The United States emerged from the economic chaos of World War I and the early 1920s as a creditor of European nations and therefore the European economy was integrally linked to that of the United States. As previously mentioned, European nations were strapped financially as they were trying to rebuild and recover from the war. Many nations borrowed money from the United States. Germany especially relied on United States loans because it was also dealing with the high reparations imposed by the Treaty of Versailles. As the United States economy worsened in the late 1920s, United States investors began calling their loans to European nations while discontinuing the practice of loaning money to Europeans. Without these loans, the economies of European nations began to suffer. Germany’s economy suffered the most as it depended on United States loans. European nations, like the United States, also depended on worldwide trade due to industrialization but due to economic problems in the United States and in Europe, investments in markets in Africa, Asia, and South America decreased. As these investments

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

decreased, the economies in nations of other continents began to suffer and by the early 1930s the worldwide depression had begun.

The effects of this worldwide depression included varied economic responses by governments and enabled the rise of totalitarian governments in some nations (7-4.4). The reaction of most nations was to turn inward to a policy of isolationism by focusing on solving their own nations' economic problems. In democratic nations, the governments worked to improve economic conditions through the passage of laws. In nations that turned to totalitarian leaders, these leaders used their power to begin imperializing to gain raw materials and markets to help stimulate the economy, which would eventually lead to World War II (7-4.4 and 7-4.5).

The United States responded by overwhelmingly electing Franklin D. Roosevelt in the 1932 presidential election. Roosevelt proposed, and Congress approved, programs that together became known as the New Deal. These policies primarily focused on relief and reform in the form of public works programs to increase employment as well as regulations on the stock market, banks, and business and agricultural production. The New Deal greatly enhanced the national government's role in the economy and in the lives of individuals. For the first time in American history, direct relief as provided by the government was a significant component of everyday life. Britain, on the other hand, enacted protectionist policies designed to protect the domestic industries and services from foreign competition such as dropping the gold standard and increased government ownership and/or management of key industries. Britain also raised taxes to loan money to new businesses in the hope of increasing employment.

In Germany, the depression provided the opportunity for radical groups to participate in the political process, a standard reaction in almost all democratic governments, and saw the rise of the Nazi Party in Germany. Adolph Hitler was able to take advantage of economic anxiety, political discontent, and the parliamentary structure of the German government to become the German Chancellor in 1933. He utilized the economic conditions and the ensuing anxiety to eliminate political opponents, consolidate political power, and ultimately establish totalitarian control over the government. The German hatred of the Treaty of Versailles coupled with Hitler's repeated renunciation of the Treaty greatly increased his popularity and advanced his political career. Similarly, the economic depression allowed Benito Mussolini to gain support in Italy and allowed for a military takeover of the government in Japan. The totalitarian governments of Germany, Italy, and Japan would use the economic depression to justify the takeover of other nations in order to help improve their own economies (7-4.4 and 7-4.5).

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the causes of the Great Depression nor its specific economic impact in each of these nations. Students do not have to know the specific programs or how they were implemented in these nations, including the New Deal. While students do not have to know the myriad causes of the Great Depression it would be useful for students to connect the cost of World War I, the Treaty of Versailles (its economic conditions), and increasingly international economies as reasons for its expansion beyond the United States economy.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

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Assessment Guidelines:

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or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7

Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and effects of world conflicts in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

The influence of both world wars and the worldwide Great Depression are still evident. To understand the effects these events had on the modern world, the student will:

7-4.4 Compare the ideologies of socialism, communism, fascism, and Nazism and their influence on the rise of totalitarian governments after World War I in Italy, Germany, Japan, and the Soviet Union as a response to the worldwide depression.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time students will learn about these political ideologies. In Modern World History, students will learn about socialism and communism and about how the responses of the governments of Germany and Italy to the economic challenges of the 1920s and 1930s contributed to the renewal of hostilities in the years leading to World War II (MWH-5.5, MWH-7.2, and MWH-8.1).

It is essential for students to know:

The problems that existed in Germany, Italy, Japan, and the Soviet Union after World War I led to the establishment of totalitarian governments in these countries. Socialism and communism were the main ideologies of the Soviet Union. The Soviet Union became a communist nation after the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917. The focus of communism is to empower the proletariat, or working classes, and decrease the wealth and power of industrial capitalists. In order for this to be accomplished, industry, production, and business must be controlled by the whole society and not a few competing individuals. Wealth would therefore be distributed equally to citizens. Competition and private property would be abolished, and collectivization, or owning property as a group, becomes the focus of the society. Land would be arranged in communes, shared by citizens. Communism also called for social changes such as the end of the need for religion and the establishment of a communal education. For these changes to take place, communism calls for the overthrow of democratic and capitalist societies by the working class and the institution of governments that oversee the establishment of collective ownership of business and property and the equal distribution of wealth. Socialism is based on the economic principles of communism and not on the ideas of violent revolution. The primary focus of socialists is creating an economic system where the working classes could share in the wealth generated by industry and society as a whole, represented by the government, and would therefore collectively own businesses and the means of production. Joseph Stalin used these ideologies to strengthen his totalitarian rule. Stalin became the leader of the Soviet Union in 1928 after having been the General Secretary of the Communist Party. After Lenin's death in 1922, Stalin worked hard to win support from his fellow Communist Party members. He exiled Leon Trotsky, his biggest rival, in 1929; created a totalitarian state; and made the country an industrial power. He had a secret police monitor everything said and written; censored all sources of information; and used propaganda to maintain his power. During the Great Purge, Stalin even terrorized members of the Communist Party, whom he thought were a threat to his power. Stalin persecuted religious

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institutions, primarily the Russian Orthodox Church and had religious leaders killed, forcing religious faith and practice to go underground. As a totalitarian leader, Stalin implemented a command economy, ordering several five-year plans, which focused on heavy industrialization. Industrial production increased dramatically, but there were shortages of light, consumer goods. Stalin also began a policy of *Collectivization* in the country. His government confiscated all farms and combined them into huge government-controlled farms to increase food production. Agricultural production increased by the late 1930s, but many wealthy peasants (kulaks) who protested collectivization, were killed. Stalin improved the economy and education in the Soviet Union, however the people had no political rights.

Fascism became popular in Italy and Germany because people blamed the democratic governments in the two countries for the problems that existed after World War I and during the Great Depression and were consequently willing to try radical, political, and social experiments in the governing of their countries. Fascism was the political movement that emphasized an extreme form of nationalism and power to the state. Named for a Roman symbol of power, a bundle of rods tied with an axe called a *fasces*, Fascist governments denied people their individual liberties and were led by authoritarian leaders. The leaders of Fascist governments used various methods to create unity and spirit and consolidate their power. Such methods included special salutes, military steps and emblems; holding rallies and military parades for the public; and instituting elite military groups that utilized absolute power and terror tactics.

Italy was very dissatisfied with the outcome of World War I in the Treaty of Versailles because the country was not rewarded a large amount of land. Italy's democratic government was blamed for the inflation, unemployment, and economic problems that existed in the country after the war. Benito Mussolini was able to capitalize on the political and economic unrest in the country and gain power by founding the Fascist Party in 1919. He organized a group of supporters called the Black Shirts, based on the color of their uniforms, who started to attack communists and socialists. Mussolini promised to strengthen the economy and was soon able to gain the support of the middle class and industrialists by ending a general strike that paralyzed the country. He seized power in 1922 when his fellow Fascists marched to Rome and told King Emmanuel to make Mussolini the leader of the government. Mussolini was given the title of "*Il Duce*", or The Leader. He set up a Fascist dictatorship and used a secret police and censorship to maintain his power. Once his power was established, Mussolini was able to begin increasing the size of the military. In an attempt to display that Italy was becoming an empire and show dissatisfaction with the Treaty of Versailles, Mussolini used his new military to invade Ethiopia in 1935 and again in 1937.

Nazism, which was based on Fascism, began in Germany. Germany was devastated by World War I and furious with the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, especially the war guilt cause. The high cost of war reparations and the loss of valuable territory coupled with the aftermath of war hastened the onset of the Great Depression which led to political dissatisfaction and the perfect opportunity for a demigod to step in by promising to restore former glory. Adolf Hitler helped to found a fascist group called the National Social German Workers or the Nazi Party. Like the Italian Fascists, the Nazis used mass rallies, special salutes, and special troops called the Brown Shirts and used the swastika as its symbol. Hitler and his group attempted to overthrow the Weimar Republic in 1923, but failed. Hitler was imprisoned, and wrote *Mein Kampf*, in

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which he discussed his goals for Germany. He claimed that the Germans, whom he called “Aryans” were the “master race” and blamed others for Germany’s woes. His book discussed his hatred for the Hebrew people, and his desires to regain lost German lands and unite all German speaking people. The deepening of the Great Depression strengthened support for Hitler and the Nazi Party, which became the largest political party in 1932. Consequently, President Paul von Hindenburg appointed Hitler chancellor. Hitler then gained control of the new government and created a totalitarian state by establishing a secret police called the gestapo, outlawing all other political parties, imprisoning political opponents utilizing censorship and propaganda, banning unions, and controlling the economy. Known as the *Fuhrer*, or leader, Hitler and his government focused on building factories and infrastructure and ignored the stipulations of the Treaty of Versailles, by beginning to militarize Germany. With this strengthened military, Hitler continued defying the Treaty of Versailles and began aggressive actions in Europe by moving troops into the Rhineland in 1936, taking over Austria in 1938, taking the Sudetenland in 1938, and finally claiming all of Czechoslovakia in 1939.

When the Great Depression occurred, Japan was a newly industrialized country still heavily dependent on its export earnings to finance its imports of essential raw materials and fuel. Already suffering from the introduction of artificial silk products, its luxury export sales plummeted during the Depression, causing distrust of the West and its markets. Further compounded by bad harvests in several regions, the Japanese economy reeled and military leaders touted expansionism in the East (Asia) as a solution to address problems of market, shortages of natural resources and farmland deficiencies simultaneously, while building on the nationalists feelings that had made the country a world power just prior to the turn of the century. Military leaders took control of the main operations of the government, leaving the Emperor as mainly a figurehead at the command of the military. The rise of a totalitarian state in Japan therefore took the form of military control. Under this military leadership, the Japanese acted on this policy of expansionism beginning in 1931 with the invasion of Manchuria. The League of Nations could only voice its disapproval of the invasion, and the Japanese responded by withdrawing from the League in 1933. Japan attacked China in 1937, which caused communist and noncommunist forces in China to unite to fight the foreigners.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the specific biographies or legislations of any of the leaders of the countries where these ideologies developed.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

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or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and effects of world conflicts in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

The influence of both world wars and the worldwide Great Depression are still evident. To understand the effects these events had on the modern world, the student will:

7-4.5 Summarize the causes and course of World War II, including drives for empire, appeasement and isolationism, the invasion of Poland, the Battle of Britain, the invasion of the Soviet Union, the “Final Solution,” the Lend-Lease program, Pearl Harbor, Stalingrad, the campaigns in North Africa and the Mediterranean, the D-Day invasion, the island-hopping campaigns, and the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge -2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the principal events related to the involvement of the United States in World War II, the role of key figures during the war, key developments in technology, and the social and political impact of the war on the American home front and the world (5-4.4, 5-4.5, 5-4.6, and 5-4.7). In grade 8, the students will learn about the ramifications of World War II on South Carolina and the United States as a whole (8-6.5). In World History, students will learn about the underlying causes of World War II, the responses to economic challenges in the 1920s and 1930s that led to hostilities in the years leading to World War II, major shifts in world geopolitics between 1900 and 1945 (MWH-7.1, MWH-7.2, and MWH-7.3). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the United States decision to enter World War II, the impact of war mobilization on the home front, controversies among the Big Three Allied leaders over war strategies, and the economic, humanitarian, and diplomatic effects of the war (USHC-7.1, USHC-7.2, USHC-7.3, and USHC-7.4).

It is essential for students to know:

The causes of World War II focus on the military aggression displayed by Germany, Italy, and Japan prior to the war, as well as the discontent caused by provisions in the Treaty of Versailles. All three countries wanted to establish empires, and little was done by the international community, consumed by their own economic woes, to stop them. Italy was very dissatisfied with the outcome of World War I in the Treaty of Versailles because the country was on the victorious side and was not rewarded with a large amount of land. Germany was devastated by World War I and furious with the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, especially the war guilt cause. The high cost of war reparations and the loss of valuable territory coupled with the aftermath of war hastened the onset of the Great Depression, which led to political dissatisfaction and the perfect opportunity for Adolf Hitler’s rise to power (See indicator 7-4.4). Italy and Germany then began military aggression in their drives for empires, which soon led to a second world war. Mussolini attacked Ethiopia in 1935. The League of Nations protested the attack but did nothing to stop the Italians. The League of Nations also failed in preventing Hitler from militarizing his country and then occupying the Rhineland. Germany, Italy, and Japan formed the Axis Alliance in 1936. Germany and Italy also sent troops and weapons to Spain to assist Francisco Franco in winning the Spanish Civil War in 1936. While these events were taking

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place in the 1930s, the United States chose a foreign policy of isolationism, passing a series of Neutrality Acts that prohibited the country from loaning money or selling weapons to countries at war, and thus, hopefully, preventing some of the issues that had led the United States into the Great War. Great Britain and France falsely believed that a policy of appeasement would prevent another world war. This lack of a firm hand against aggression allowed Hitler to annex Austria in 1938, another violation of the Treaty of Versailles. Hitler then demanded the Sudetenland in western Czechoslovakia and during the Munich Conference of 1938, the British and French agreed to allow Hitler the Sudetenland in return for promises that his demands for additional territory would cease. The policy of appeasement was proven a failure in early 1939 when Hitler invaded Czechoslovakia and Italy invaded Albania soon after. World War II began in September 1939 when Hitler invaded Poland and its British and French allies came to its defense, abandoning appeasement.

Japan also engaged in military aggression in its own drive for an empire. When the Great Depression occurred, Japan was a newly industrialized country still heavily dependent on its export earnings to finance its imports of essential raw materials and fuel. As the Japanese economy suffered, military leaders pushed for expansionism as a solution to address problems of markets and shortages of natural resources while building on the nationalists feelings that had made the country a world power just prior to the turn of the century. The Japanese first acted on this policy beginning in 1931 with the invasion of Manchuria. The League of Nations could only voice its disapproval of the invasion, and the Japanese responded by withdrawing from the League in 1933. Japan attacked China in 1937, which caused communist and noncommunist forces in China to unite to fight the foreigners and various countries of the world to respond sympathetically to the aggression with economic sanctions against Japan.

World War II therefore had two theaters of fighting: Europe and Asia. The Germans conducted a *blitzkrieg* or “lightening war” against Poland, and the Soviets (German allies due to the Soviet Non-Aggression Pact signed in 1939) attacked Poland from the west. Denmark and Norway soon fell to Germany, and France surrendered to the Germans in 1940. Hitler then focused on invading Great Britain. During the Battle of Britain (1940-1941), the German air force repeatedly bombed the country. The British, however, used radar to prepare for attacks and had technology that enabled them to decode German secret messages. The British, under the leadership of Prime Minister Winston Churchill, refused to surrender, and Hitler instead had to focus on attacking other areas in Europe. Fighting also occurred in North Africa and in the Balkans. The Germans wanted to control the Suez Canal in order to have access to the oil-rich Middle East. Yugoslavia and Greece fell to the Axis Powers in 1941. Hitler then betrayed his ally, the Soviet Union, and attacked that country in 1941. The Germans were unsuccessful in taking both Leningrad and Moscow and 500,000 Germans died during the invasion.

Despite the passage of several Neutrality Acts between 1935 and 1937, President Franklin Roosevelt recognized the necessity of United States involvement in the war to prevent the defeat of the Allies and subsequent Nazi takeover of Europe. In 1939, Congress amended its isolationist policy of neutrality to allow the United States to sell weapons to the Allies that were paid for with cash and transported known as a cash and carry policy, on their own ships, once again seeking a solution different from that which drew the United States into World War I. This alternative, however, was not enough to help the Allies. In 1941 Congress stepped even further

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away from its professed neutrality when it passed the Lend-Lease Act. Lend-Lease allowed Roosevelt to lend or lease weapons and other supplies to countries that were important to the interests of the United States.

Japan invaded French Indochina in 1941, prompting the United States to place an oil embargo on Japan to prevent further aggression. Japan then attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, and Congress declared war on Japan the next day. The Japanese moved quickly throughout the Pacific taking over Guam, Wake Island, Hong Kong, the Philippines, the Dutch East Indies, and Burma. The tide began to turn in favor of the United States in 1942. The United States defeated Japan in the Battle of Coral Sea, saving Australia from a Japanese invasion. Next, the United States defeated Japan in the Battle of Midway, heavily damaging hundreds of Japanese planes and all of the aircraft carriers on the island. After the Battle of Midway, the United States began to engage in an “island-hopping” or “leapfrogging” strategy, thus bypassing islands heavily secured by Japan in favor of taking islands that were strategically located in the drive reach the main islands of Japan yet easier to seize, thus saving countless American lives. A turning point occurred when the Japanese experienced a devastating loss at the Battle of Guadalcanal, the first offensive against Japan launched by combined allied forces on land, sea, and air.

By the end of 1942, the tide was turning in favor of the Allies in the Mediterranean and along the Eastern Front. Allied forces, led by American General Dwight Eisenhower, defeated German General Rommel’s forces in North Africa. The Germans were also on the defensive, a turning point, after they were defeated by the Russians in the Battle of Stalingrad in February 1943. As the Soviets continued to push the Germans from the east, British and American forces invaded and conquered Sicily in 1943. Allied forces entered Rome in 1944, and Mussolini was killed in 1945 by his own countrymen. The Invasion of Normandy, called D-Day, to liberate German-controlled France and northern Europe began on June 6, 1944 and the Allied forces were able to liberate France by September. Hitler’s final attempt to achieve a victory against Allied forces was at the Battle of the Bulge. Despite breaking through American defenses, the Germans were ultimately pushed back and forced to retreat. Allied troops from both east and west moved into Germany, causing the Germans to surrender (VE Day) on May 7, 1945. The United States then moved closer to defeating Japan by victories at Iwo Jima and Okinawa. Citing the need to hasten the war’s end and save lives that would be lost in an invasion of the island country, President Harry Truman ordered the dropping of an atomic bomb on Hiroshima on August 6, 1945 and over Nagasaki three days later. Six days after the dropping of the second atomic bomb, Japan announced its intention to surrender, formally doing so on September 2, 1945 (VJ Day).

Throughout the war, the Holocaust had been carried out by the German Nazis, claiming the lives of more than six million Jews and numerous others. This will be discussed in the following indicator. (See Standard 7-4.6).

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the specific dates or names of military leaders of all the important battles of the war.

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Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Select or design appropriate forms of social studies resources* to organize and evaluate social studies information.
- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and effects of world conflicts in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

The influence of both world wars and the worldwide Great Depression are still evident. To understand the effects these events had on the modern world, the student will:

7-4.6 Analyze the Holocaust and its impact on European society and Jewish culture, including Nazi policies to eliminate the Jews and other minorities, the Nuremberg trials, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the rise of nationalism in Southwest Asia (Middle East), the creation of the state of Israel, and the resultant conflicts in the region.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/ Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time the students will learn about the Holocaust, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the rise of nationalism in Southwest Asia (Middle East), the creation of the state of Israel, and the resultant conflicts in the region. In World History, students will learn about the origins of the conflicts in the Middle East as a result of the creation of the state of Israel after World War II (MWH-7.5). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the Holocaust, the war crimes trials, and the creation of Israel (USHC-7.4).

It is essential for students to know:

The Holocaust was a systematic plan of persecution and elimination of Jews and others deemed “undesirable” that was coordinated by Hitler’s Nazi (National Socialist) Party of Germany prior to and during World War II. The prejudice that caused the Holocaust was based on anti-Semitism, which was part of the Nazi ideology. Religious and cultural differences coupled with suspicion and envy made the Hebrew people frequent scapegoats during times of crisis throughout the history of Europe. Increased movement by Jews into the mainstream of European life led to increased prejudice as Jews were often stereotypically seen as more intellectual and successful and less nationalistic than others. Hitler’s anti-Semitism could have stemmed from these or numerous other irrational prejudices, but its existence was used as a rallying point to unite the German people in their quest first for economic recovery and later for empire, Aryan glory, and world domination. Nazis claimed that the German people were a “master race” and used the word “Aryan” to describe them. Hitler claimed that all non-Aryan people were inferior, and he wanted to eliminate people he considered inferior, including those of Jewish ancestry, Poles, Russians, Communists, Gypsies, homosexuals and anyone considered physically or mentally deficient. Hitler and the Nazi Party passed the Nuremberg Laws in 1935, which denied German citizenship to Jews and prevented them from marrying non-Jews. Jews were also ordered to wear the Star of David so they could be immediately recognized in public. On November 9, 1938 known as Kristallnacht, or “Night of Broken Glass,” Nazi troops attacked Jewish businesses, synagogues, and homes and killed approximately one hundred Jews. Next, Jews were ordered to move into ghettos and lived in terrible conditions. The worst, however, was yet to come. Hitler’s “Final Solution” forced Jews across Europe into concentration camps, where many died en route in cattle cars, were exterminated in specially designed showers and crematoriums or through brutal experiments, or barely survived in work camps. Most camps

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were located in Germany and Poland. When prisoners arrived at the concentration camps, they were examined by SS doctors. The Nazi soldiers allowed the strong, mainly men, to live in order to serve as laborers while many of the women, elderly, young children, and the disabled were killed soon after arriving at the concentration camps. The genocide killed well over six million Jews, comprising two thirds of the European Jewish population. Estimates of the total number of fatalities range from eleven to seventeen million (See Standard 7-4.5). The Nuremberg Trials, conducted in 1945-1946, saw twenty-two Nazi leaders charged with “crimes against humanity” for these actions, illustrating to the world that such behavior was indefensible and unacceptable regardless of the circumstances and that each individual bears responsibility for his own actions. An International Military Tribunal, representing twenty-three countries, conducted the trials and ten of the Nazi leaders were hanged and their bodies were burned at a concentration camp.

The Zionist movement gained strength in the late 1800s and early 1900s, with many Jews returning to Palestine and calling for a Jewish nation-state. The Balfour Declaration (1917), issued by the British, further increased the tension between the Jews and Palestinians because the British supported the creation of a Jewish state as long as the rights of the Palestinians were protected. With the defeat of the Ottoman Empire in World War I, Palestine became a British mandate. Support for a Jewish state/homeland (Zionism) increased after the depth of the Holocaust’s atrocities were revealed. The United Nations decided to divide Palestine into a Jewish state and a Palestinian state with Jerusalem as an international city. The Palestinians were very upset with the partition plan, since they made up the majority of the population. The country of Israel was founded in 1948 as a response to the Holocaust in addition to the Diaspora of the Hebrew people throughout history. The creation of the state of Israel led to the rise of nationalism and conflicts in the Middle East, beginning with an immediate attack by the Palestinians. Israel defeated the Palestinians and retained control of their land. The Israelis and the Palestinians fought brief wars over the disputed territory in 1956, 1967, and 1973. With its victory in the first war (1948-1949), the Israelis gained half of the land inhabited by the Palestinians. Egypt acquired the Gaza Strip, and Jordan took over the West Bank.

Arab nationalism was further evident in the Suez Crisis of 1956. Egyptian President Gamal Nasser sent troops to take the Suez Canal, which had been built by British investors using Egyptian labor. Nasser was upset that the British did not provide him with financial support in the construction of the Aswan Dam and wanted to rid Egypt of foreign influence. Great Britain wanted to retake the canal and convinced Israel to send in troops, while collaborating with the French to provide air support. Egypt was defeated, but the United States and the Soviet Union forced Great Britain, France, and Israel to give up the land they had captured and return the canal to Egypt.

In 1964, the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO) came into existence in order to promote the creation of a Palestinian state. Yasir Arafat became its leader. Guerrilla groups soon began to gain power within the PLO and claimed that they had to use military force in order to create a Palestinian state. In 1967, Nasser and other Arab leaders prepared for war against Israel. Israel, however, made the first move and attacked Egypt, Jordan, Syria, and Iran, winning the Sinai Peninsula, the West Bank, Golan Heights, and Jerusalem in the Six Day War. The Yom Kippur War occurred in 1973 when the Arabs attacked Israel. A cease-fire was signed several weeks later. The first major peace agreement in the region, the Camp David Accords, was signed by

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Egypt and Israel in 1979. Egypt recognized Israel as a country and received the Sinai Peninsula from Israel. Many Arabs, however, were upset with the peace agreement, and a group of Muslim radicals assassinated Egyptian president Anwar Sadat. Palestinians launched the *intifada* in 1987, which consisted of demonstrations and attacks against Israeli troops. In 1993, progress was made with the Oslo Peace Accords. Israel agreed to give the Palestinians self-rule in the West Bank and Gaza Strip, starting with Jericho. However, Israeli Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin was assassinated by a Jewish extremist and a lasting peace in the area remains elusive to this day.

The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights was also developed as a result of the major atrocities of World War II. The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights set human rights standards for all nations, listing specific rights that every human should have. World organizations, such as Amnesty International, have worked to increase global awareness of human rights violations. Increasingly, issues of human rights are difficult to enforce. In a direct response to the Holocaust, the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights defined genocide, yet it is troublesome for worldwide organizations to determine what role they can or should take in mediating in the affairs of a sovereign nation, even one that seems to be in violation of basic human rights.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the dates of any of the events during the Holocaust or the names of the Nazi leaders who were tried at Nuremberg or their specific punishments. They also do not need to know the dates or the specific military details of the Arab-Israeli Wars. They also do not need to know any of the specific rights listed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Compare the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

or any verb from the **Apply**, **Understand** or **Remember** cognitive process dimensions.

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of international developments during the Cold War era.

Enduring Understanding:

Events during the Cold War affected the world politically, socially, and economically. To understand the significance of the Cold War, the student will:

7-5.1 Compare the political and economic ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union during the Cold War.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the cause and course of the Cold War and its impact on the United States (5-5.1 and 5-5.2). In grade 8, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on South Carolina in comparison to its impact on the nation as a whole (8-7.1). In World History, students will learn about communism and democratic ideals in the emergence of movements for national self-rule or sovereignty in Africa and Asia and about the impact of the Cold War on developing and newly independent countries (MWH-8.1 and MWH-8.3). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on national security and individual freedom (USHC-7.5).

It is essential for students to know:

The political and economic ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union were in direct contrast and competition with one another, which led to the beginning and escalation of the Cold War. Politically, the United States had a limited government in the form of a representative democracy or constitutional government, while the Soviet Union had an unlimited government in the form of a communist state. Economically, the United States had a capitalist economy while the Soviet Union had a socialist economy. All of these political and economic ideas should have been introduced to the students in previous indicators (7-1.4, 7-2.1, 7-2.5, and 7-4.4). These political and economic ideologies are polar opposites, and they served as the source of tension that initiated the Cold War immediately at the end of World War II in 1945. Even before the war was officially over, tensions began to develop amongst the Big Three Allied leaders, Franklin Roosevelt of the United States, Winston Churchill of Great Britain, and Joseph Stalin of the Soviet Union, as they began discussions of the post-war world. Roosevelt and Churchill, representing constitutional or limited governments, wanted lands freed from control of the Axis Powers to be granted self-rule with elections and the establishment of constitutional governments with capitalist systems; Stalin, however, wanted these lands to have the option of becoming communist with socialist systems. Stalin did promise that he would allow elections in the lands in Eastern Europe that the Soviet Union had freed and occupied during the war. After the war, he broke this promise and set up communist governments in these lands. At the end of the war, this competition over political and economic ideologies led to a complete split between the two sides when deciding what to do with Germany. Since the Soviets had invaded Germany from the east, the Soviet Union occupied a large section or “occupation zone” of eastern Germany at the end of the war. Great Britain, the United States, and France each occupied zones in the remainder of

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Germany as they had invaded from the west. After Germany surrendered, the two sides for the Cold War were set: those in support of democratic-style governments with capitalist economies and those in support of communist-style governments with socialist economies. Each side demanded its style be imposed on Germany and the United Nations conference on the matter [prearranged at Yalta] agreed on a division into two countries. By 1949 the American, British, and French occupation zones in the western part of Germany joined together to form the democratically governed nation of the Federal Republic of Germany, informally known as West Germany. Eastern Germany, the Russian sector, had a communist government and became the German Democratic Republic, commonly referred to as East Germany. Berlin, the former capital, was likewise partitioned, although it was located deep in East Germany. The competition between the two ideologies represented in the division of Germany became representative of the political and economic sides taken in the Cold War: capitalistic-democratic vs. socialist-communist. This ideological competition became the basis for the escalating tensions of the Cold War as countries lined up and rallied behind the superpower standard-bearers of each philosophy, the United States of America and the Soviet Union.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the names of the lands the Soviet Union freed or occupied at the end of the war. They also do not need to know the dates of any of the discussions or events concerning the beginnings of these political and economic tensions.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.
- Cite specific textual evidence to support the analysis of primary and secondary sources.

Assessment guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7

Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of international developments during the Cold War era.

Enduring Understanding:

Events during the Cold War affected the world politically, socially, and economically. To understand the significance of the Cold War, the student will:

7-5.2 Summarize the impact of the Truman Doctrine, the Marshall Plan, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the United Nations, and the Warsaw Pact on the course of the Cold War.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the cause and course of the Cold War and its impact on the United States (5-5.1 and 5-5.2). In grade 8, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on South Carolina in comparison to its impact on the nation as a whole (8-7.1). In World History, students will learn about communism and democratic ideals in the emergence of movements for national self-rule or sovereignty in Africa and Asia and about the impact of the Cold War on developing and newly independent countries (MWH-8.1 and MWH-8.3). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on national security and individual freedom (USHC-7.5).

It is essential for students to know:

At the end of World War II, there were tensions that existed as a result of major differences in political and economic ideologies between the United States and other western nations and the Soviet Union. These tensions escalated into the competitions and struggles of the Cold War (7-5.1). At the end of the war, the Soviet Union wanted to spread communism, while the United States wanted to contain the spread of communism and promote democracy. Because the United States was justifiably concerned about the spread of communism throughout Eastern Europe, President Harry Truman instituted a foreign policy based on the containment of communism by giving economic assistance to countries so they would not become communist. Called the Truman Doctrine, the strategy was first utilized to return economic stability and success to the region, thereby preventing communist supporters from offering communism as a viable economic alternative. An infusion of four hundred million United States dollars in assistance to countries in Europe proved to be very helpful. Countries in Western Europe also needed economic assistance after the war. The Marshall Plan provided the region with 12.5 billion dollars in reconstruction funds from Congress. Therefore, the Marshall Plan was instrumental in helping to revive Western Europe after World War II while preventing the spread of communism in the area. Although the U.S. provided economic aid and military supervision to rebuild and democratize Japan after World War II, the program that accomplished the “Japanese Miracle” and created a strong U.S. ally in the same manner as the Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan, was *not* technically a part of either program.

Because the League of Nations failed to prevent another world war, it was replaced in 1945 with the United Nations (UN). The purpose of the UN was the same as the League of Nations, which

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was to serve as an international organization to try to prevent future wars and settle conflicts globally. The UN did differ from the League in few major ways, however. One major difference was that the UN would have the ability to use military force if necessary, and another major difference was that the United States joined the United Nations. The UN became instrumental in getting involved in some of the issues of the Cold War such as the division of Germany into two nations (7-5.1) and the Korean Conflict (7-5.4).

The largest problem of the Cold War was its constant potential to instantaneously turn “hot” in a showdown between the two superpowers that had the great probability of using atomic or nuclear weapons with the capability of world-wide destruction. The first of these “showdowns” occurred in Berlin beginning in 1948. The partitioned German capital city became a political “hot spot” after the Soviets blocked access into West Berlin, the sector of the city occupied by Americans, British, and French, in order to drive Western influences from the city. The three Western Allies responded by airlifting supplies and food to the people of West Berlin for almost eleven months. The Soviets were then forced to lift the blockade. After the experience of the Berlin Blockade and the tension and success of the Berlin Airlift, the United States decided it needed to protect itself and other democratic nations. In 1949, the United States, Canada, and ten western European nations formed a military alliance called the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). The Soviet Union was threatened by the creation of NATO, and consequently built its own military alliance, the Warsaw Pact, which included Poland, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Romania, and Albania.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the specific dates of the Truman Doctrine, the Marshall Plan, the Berlin Airlift, NATO, or the Warsaw Pact. They also do not need to know the amount of money that was provided by the Truman Doctrine or the Marshall Plan or which specific countries received this money. They do not need to know the names of all of the countries involved in NATO or the Warsaw Pact.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

GRADE 7
Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Compare

Explain

Or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of international developments during the Cold War era.

Enduring Understanding:

Events during the Cold War affected the world politically, socially, and economically. To understand the significance of the Cold War, the student will:

7-5.3 Explain the spread of communism in Eastern Europe, Asia, Africa, and Latin America, including the ideas of the satellite state containment, and the domino theory.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the cause and course of the Cold War and its impact on the United States (5-5.1 and 5-5.2). In grade 8, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on South Carolina in comparison to its impact on the nation as a whole (8-7.1). In World History, students will learn about communism and democratic ideals in the emergence of movements for national self-rule or sovereignty in Africa and Asia and about the impact of the Cold War on developing and newly independent countries (MWH-8.1 and MWH-8.3). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on national security and individual freedom (USHC-7.5).

It is essential for students to know:

At the end of World War II, The Soviet Union wanted to spread communism, while the United States wanted to contain the spread of communism and promote democracy. Because the United States was justifiably concerned about the spread of communism throughout Eastern Europe, President Harry Truman instituted a foreign policy based on the containment of communism by giving economic assistance to countries so they would not become communist. Called the Truman Doctrine, the strategy was first utilized to return economic stability and success to the region, thereby preventing communist supporters from offering communism as a viable economic alternative (7-5.2). Meanwhile, the spread of communism continued in the nations of Eastern Europe that the Soviet Union had freed from German control at the end of World War II. The Soviet Union established communist governments and refused to grant elections in Yugoslavia, Romania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Albania, and Hungary. These nations became “satellite” nations of the Soviet Union as they were clustered around the Soviet Union and their political and economic policies orbited within Soviet influence and control. Truman’s policy of containment in Eastern Europe was therefore directed at making sure other nations did not become satellite states.

The Soviet Union began trying to spread its influence of communism in Asia, Africa, and Latin America, often looking in areas where revolutions were already taking place or where revolution was very likely. As revolutionaries began looking for assistance, the Soviet Union would offer help in the form of economics and/or military support in return for cooperation in establishing communist governments in their nations. The Soviet Union also tried to spread communism through political means by sending representatives to nations in these regions to discuss and explain the benefits and successes of communism and would allow visiting delegates from

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interested nations to come to the Soviet Union to examine the successes of their political and economic system.

In Asia, China was the first big victory for the Soviet Union. The Chinese Civil War, which began during World War II, continued throughout the war. During the civil war, the noncommunist Nationalists and the Communists were forced to fight the Japanese together, however, both groups were also focused on vying for political power within China. The Communists, led by Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung), used guerilla warfare against the Japanese while the Nationalists, led by Chiang Kai-shek, had a large army and controlled most of southwestern China. After the Japanese surrendered, ending World War II, the Civil War in China between the Nationalists and Communists resumed (1946), ending three years later with a Communist victory. The Communists took over China in 1949, renaming it the Peoples Republic of China with Mao Zedong as its leader. Communism also spread to Korea. In Korea, a situation similar to what happened in Germany occurred at the end of World War II. As a consequence of surrendering at the end of the war, Japan had to give up all of its colonies. Korea, being a Japanese colony since the Sino-Japanese and Russo Japanese Wars in 1894-1895 and 1904-1905 respectively, therefore gained independence. In the continual competition over political and economic ideologies, the Soviet Union supported the development of communism in Korea while the United States supported the development of a democracy. The United States' policy of involvement became known as the "domino theory." The idea was that if one nation fell to communism, then others, like dominos, around the country would also become communist. The idea of containment spread from Europe to Asia as the United States tried to stop the spread of communism to avoid the domino effect. In order to avoid civil war in Korea over political and economic ideology Korea was divided into two parts, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (commonly referred to as North Korea) as a communist nation and the Republic of Korea (commonly referred to as South Korea) as a democratic nation. This would serve as the main cause of the Korean War (7.5.4). In Vietnam, the spread of communism caused similar scenarios. After World War II Vietnam sought to gain independence from the imperial rule of France. The Soviet Union again sent support to revolutionaries in Vietnam while the United States backed democratic leaders. This struggle would lead to the Vietnam War (7-5.4). Other nations in Asia such as Laos and Cambodia also were influenced by the spread of communism and therefore changed their political system following World War II. The United States fear of all Asian countries falling to communism like dominos did not occur.

In Africa, nations that had been under imperial rule since the 1800s saw World War II as justification for standing up to unfair governments and took this opportunity to begin demanding independence from their European rulers. During these revolutions, the Soviet Union again provided support to nations that would cooperate with establishing communist governments, and once again the United States would do the same in order to try to contain the spread of communism and help foster democratic governments (7-6.2). The Soviet Union gave military support to Angola and Mozambique as well as to the African National Congress in South Africa. The Soviet Union also offered educational scholarships to young Africans, especially in English and Portuguese colonies, in hopes of persuading the youth of Africa to adopt communist ideas. Other nations such as Guinea, Egypt, Congo, Uganda, Ethiopia, Benin, and Somalia also received Soviet military or diplomatic aid. The United States, as well as democratic nations of Europe, tried to prevent the spread of communism into these governments in Africa, continuing

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the idea of containment and preventing the domino effect, by providing military and economic aid.

In Latin America, Cuba was the first nation to establish a communist government under the leadership of Fidel Castro. Castro, with the aid of the Soviet Union, took over the government of Cuba in 1959. Tensions between the United States, the Soviet Union, and Cuba almost led to war in the 1960s with the Cuban Missile Crisis (7-5.4). Castro, with the aid of the Soviet Union, then began trying to spread communism in Latin America in the 1970s and 1980s and the United States tried to prevent this. For example, in El Salvador, troops supported by Castro and the Soviet Union fought troops backed by the United States. In Nicaragua, rebels known as Sandinistas overthrew the government and got aid from Castro and the Soviet Union. The United States then helped a group known as the “Contras,” from the Spanish word against, in their struggle against the Sandinistas.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the dates of all of these events, but should have an overall understanding of how they developed following World War II and how the struggle between communism and containment spread worldwide. They do not need to know the names of all of the nations or leaders involved.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

GRADE 7

Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of international developments during the Cold War era.

Enduring Understanding:

Events during the Cold War affected the world politically, socially, and economically. To understand the significance of the Cold War, the student will:

7-5.4 Analyze the political and technological competition between the Soviet Union and the United States for global influence, including the Korean Conflict, the Berlin Wall, the Vietnam War, the Cuban missile crisis, the “space race,” and the threat of nuclear annihilation.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/ Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the cause and course of the Cold War and its impact on the United States (5-5.1 and 5-5.2). In grade 8, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on South Carolina in comparison to its impact on the nation as a whole (8-7.1). In World History, students will learn about communism and democratic ideals in the emergence of movements for national self-rule or sovereignty in Africa and Asia and about the impact of the Cold War on developing and newly independent countries (MWH-8.1 and MWH-8.3). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on national security and individual freedom and about the development of the war in Vietnam and its impact on American government and politics (USHC-7.5 and USHC-8.3).

It is essential for students to know:

The Korean Conflict was a portion of the Cold War in which the ideological tensions became “hot” and fighting ensued, without troops from the Soviet Union and the United States ever actually fighting each other. After the Japanese were driven out of Korea as a result of their defeat in World War II, the peninsula was divided into two parts at the thirty-eighth parallel. Each part of the country was backed by different Cold War leadership: the northern region was communist and the southern region was not (7-5.3). The Korean War began in 1950 as North Korea invaded South Korea with the hope of uniting the peninsula under one communist regime. The United States, led by President Harry Truman, and the United Nations sent troops to support South Korea. The Soviets assisted the North Koreans by giving them money and weapons, and the Communist Chinese soon joined in sending troops to help North Korea, as well. The war quickly reached a costly impasse and the stalemate ended in 1953, when a cease-fire agreement was signed. Korea remained divided at the thirty-eighth parallel, which was made into a demilitarized zone.

The Soviet Union came to dominate Eastern Europe during the Cold War, splitting Europe into two regions: a democratic Western Europe and a communist Eastern Europe (7-5.1). Prime Minister Winston Churchill aptly coined the phrase “Behind the iron curtain” to describe the area of the continent under communist control (7-5.1). The difference in living conditions between East and West Berlin, East and West Germany and Eastern and Western Europe was marked, due to the lack of many consumer goods, and subsequently led to a much lower standard of living in the communist sectors. This inequity between East and West caused many defections

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from the East to the West, especially in Berlin. Consequently, the Berlin Wall was built in 1961 by the Communists in East Berlin in order to prevent people from going to West Berlin. The Berlin Wall symbolized the iron curtain that separated the democratic West from the communist East.

The Vietnam War was another “hot” extension of the Cold War. The French wanted to reassert their control over Indochina after World War II ended, however, the Vietnamese nationalist movement, led by communist leader Ho Chi Minh, was very strong. The United States gave the French money and weapons to fight the Communists because the superpower was afraid that if one Asian country fell to communism, the rest of the region would also become communist. This idea, known as the domino theory, became the basis of United States foreign policy (7-5.3). However, Ho Chi Minh and his nationalist Communist forces were able to defeat the French in 1954 and achieve independence. After the French were defeated, Vietnam was split into two regions at the seventeenth parallel: the northern part became communist under the leadership of Ho Chi Minh, and the southern part was established as non-communist and led by Ngo Dinh Diem. The Diem regime was corrupt. Ho Chi Minh, who was very popular in the north, invaded the south in order to unify Vietnam under communist rule. Focused on preventing a communist takeover, the United States, began sending weapons and advisors to South Vietnam in the 1950s. In the mid-1960s under President Lyndon Johnson, American troops were sent to help the South Vietnamese. Not only did the Americans fight the North Vietnamese, they also fought against the Vietcong, who were communists in South Vietnam. The Communists were very successful in their use of guerilla warfare against the United States. The South Vietnamese government did not have the support of the people, and the United States could not achieve a victory. The United States withdrew, and the Communists took over South Vietnam and unified the country under communist rule in 1975.

The Cuban Missile Crisis (1962) was another significant Cold War event with the potential of evolving into a nuclear showdown. Fidel Castro became the communist leader of Cuba in 1959 (7-5.3). When an American spy plane flew over Cuba and took pictures of Soviet missiles being assembled on the island, President John F. Kennedy feared the Soviets would use them to attack the United States. Kennedy decided to implement a naval blockade around Cuba and told the Soviets that they would have to remove the missiles. After almost two weeks of intense maneuvering and negotiations at the United Nations and between the United States and the Soviet Union, while the world fearfully anticipated nuclear annihilation, both sides made concessions. The Soviet missiles were removed from Cuba and a direct military confrontation was avoided. In return, the United States removed nuclear missiles that from Turkey seen as a threat by the Soviet Union.

The United States and the Soviet Union also competed for global power through their space and arms races. With the formation of NATO and the Warsaw Pact, both countries strengthened their militaries, increased their armaments, and focused on the buildup of nuclear weapons. Both countries developed hydrogen bombs in the 1950s. The Soviets were the first to launch a satellite (*Sputnik*) into space in 1957. In response to the Soviet lead, the United States strengthened its math and science educational programs and created the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), soon launching its own satellite into space. The Americans were the

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first to land on the moon in 1969. Both the space and arms races continued to escalate until the Cold War's end in 1989.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the dates of each event but should have an understanding of the order in which events took place. They do not need to know the details of the battles that took place during the Korean and Vietnam Wars.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.
- Cite specific textual evidence to support the analysis of primary and secondary sources.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students to be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

or any verb from the **Apply, Understand** or **Remember** cognitive process dimensions.

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Standard 7-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of international developments during the **Cold War** era.

Enduring Understanding:

Events during the Cold War affected the world politically, socially, and economically. To understand the significance of the Cold War, the student will:

7-5.5 Analyze the events that contributed to the collapse of the Soviet Union and other communist governments in Europe, including the growth of resistance movements in Eastern Europe, the policies of Mikhail Gorbachev and Ronald Reagan, and the failures of communist economic systems.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/ Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the cause and course of the Cold War and its impact on the United States (5-5.1 and 5-5.2). In grade 8, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on South Carolina in comparison to its impact on the nation as a whole (8-7.1). In World History, students will learn about communism and democratic ideals in the emergence of movements for national self-rule or sovereignty in Africa and Asia and about the impact of the Cold War on developing and newly independent countries (MWH-8.1 and MWH-8.3). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the impact of the Cold War on national security and individual freedom (USHC-7.5).

It is essential for students to know:

In Eastern Europe, the growth of resistance movements led to the trend of communist governments falling out of power in the late 1980s and early 1990s. In these nations, the desire for political rights led many citizens of these nations to begin protesting against their governments. The economic systems of many of these nations were ineffective as production, income, and standard of living levels continued to decline. As citizens of these nations witnessed the political freedoms and comparatively better economic success of democratic governments in Europe, these protests intensified and defections from these nations increased. In Poland, the labor union Solidarity opposed communist rule and demanded government recognition of their group. Led by Lech Walesa, Solidarity gained popularity through strikes and sit-ins as the government continued to struggle with economic issues. When free elections were held in April 1989, Lech Walesa was elected president. In Hungary, citizens began fleeing to Western Europe in 1989 after cutting a hole in a fence that separated communist Hungary from the democratic West. As the hole continued to get larger, more and more citizens of Hungary and other communist nations including East Germany defected. As resistance movements and protests increased in Hungary, the communist party was overthrown in October 1989. In East Germany, demands for reforms and protest increased along with the demand for political and economic rights. In November 1989, the Berlin Wall began to be torn down, removing a symbol of division between communism and capitalism. After the collapse of the Wall, West and East Germany were reunited into one democratic Germany. As the dividing line between East Berlin and West Berlin, the collapse of the Wall in November 1989 reflected the changes happening throughout the Communist East in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

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The Soviet Union was the primary Communist nation throughout the Cold War (7-5.1). Changes in Eastern Europe were connected to the economic collapse of the Soviet Union due to its inability to bear the continued expense of stopping resistance movements as well as additional challenges. The continued Cold War expenses of supporting the spread of communism and the space and arms races led the Soviet Union to serious economic problems. The decreasing levels of production, income, and standards of living within the Soviet Union made the failures of the communist economic system more apparent. Citizens within the Soviet Union began demanding changes and also wanted more political rights. Following Mikhail Gorbachev's election as leader in 1982, the Soviet Union moved away from its totalitarian style. Gorbachev encouraged economic and social reforms, including *perestroika* (economic restructuring) that allowed for more decision-making and private ownership of businesses and *glasnost* (a policy of openness) that allowed for more public participation and greater individual rights. Gorbachev also began working with United States President Ronald Reagan, symbolizing a decline in tensions of the Cold War. Reagan began his term as president in a defensive and hostile manner towards the Soviet Union so the Cold War sentiments remained high. In 1983 Reagan referred to the Soviet Union as "the evil empire." The Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI) was proposed by Reagan that same year. SDI continued the Cold War trend of competition and animosity between the superpowers. The program was designed to use ground and space systems to protect the United States from a possible nuclear attack. In 1985, Reagan met Gorbachev in person and their relationship began to change for the better. In 1987, Gorbachev and Reagan signed a treaty to begin reducing their numbers of nuclear weapons in an effort to end the arms race and to show greater cooperation between the two nations. That same year Gorbachev introduced a policy called *democratization*, which was the process of creating a government elected by the people. The granting of greater freedom to those within Soviet borders led various nationalist groups to call for independence which, in turn, led to rising ethnic tensions. In March 1990, Lithuania declared independence from the Soviet Union. Gorbachev ordered an economic blockade of the country in an attempt to force it to rejoin the Union, but he eventually had to use force in early 1991 when the blockade proved ineffective. These challenges led to the official end of the Soviet Union in December of 1991 (7-6.1).

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the names of all of the Russian republics. They also do not need to know the dates of all events but should have an understanding of the order in which events took place. The study of Eastern Europe should be focused on analysis of the trends that led to these resistance movements such as desires for rights and changes to failing economic systems.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students to be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

or any verb from the **Apply, Understand** or **Remember** cognitive process dimensions.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the significant political, economic, geographic, scientific, technological, and cultural changes as well as the advancements that have taken place throughout the world from the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 to the present day.

Enduring Understanding:

Since the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, the world's attention no longer focuses on the tension between superpowers. Although problems rooted in the Middle East have captured the world's attention more consistently than the majority of current issues, other concerns have moved to the forefront as well. To understand the modern world, the student will:

7-6.1 Summarize the political and social impact of the collapse/dissolution of the Soviet Union and subsequent changes to European borders, including those of Russia and the Independent Republics, the Czech Republic, and Slovakia; the breakup of Yugoslavia; the reunification of Germany; and the birth of the European Union (EU).

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the changes in world politics that followed the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of Soviet domination of Eastern Europe (5-6.1). In World History, students will learn about the impact that the collapse of the Soviet Union and communist governments in Eastern Europe had on the people and geopolitics of Eurasia, including the balkanization of Yugoslavia, the reunification of Germany, and the creation of the new republics in Central Asia (MWH-8.6). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about America's role in the changing world, including the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the expansion of the European Union (USHC-8.6).

It is essential for students to know:

In December of 1991, the Soviet Union officially collapsed and was dissolved (7-5.5). The process intensified in June 1991, frustrated by the economic difficulties and lack of political rights, the people of the USSR turned to Boris Yeltsin as the first directly elected president of the Russian Federation. Gorbachev remained president of the Soviet Union at this time. In August 1991, conservative communists unsuccessfully attempted to overthrow Gorbachev's government and remove him from power. However, following this unsuccessful coup, the Soviet party lost power. All fifteen Soviet republics declared independence, and these fifteen agreed to form the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) as a loose federation of former Soviet states. The formation of the CIS was the official end of the Soviet Union and Gorbachev resigned as president of the Soviet Union on December 25, 1991.

As president, Yeltsin adopted a plan known as "shock therapy" which was an abrupt and immediate shift to free market (capitalism) economics. By 1993, the plan led to outrageous inflation rates and hardship. Yeltsin faced further difficulties as Chechnya fought to gain independence from Russia, having declared independence in 1991. A cease-fire was declared in 1996, but war continued even as Vladimir Putin took over as Russian president in 1999.

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In Czechoslovakia, the collapse of communism due to economic and political problems led to its eventual split into two nations: the Czech Republic and Slovakia in 1993. Like other communist nations in Eastern Europe, Czechoslovakia faced challenges and demands for reform from its citizens due to a lack of economic success and frustration over lack of political rights under the communist regime. Czechoslovakia was a two-state federation made up of Czechs and Slovaks, and following World War II, the country became a communist nation as a result of Soviet influence and pressure. In this two-state federation, political problems arose due to the lack of cooperation and agreement between these two states. This issue of shared powers was suppressed under the communist rule from 1968 to 1989, but when communist rule collapsed, the political problems immediately surfaced. The political differences between the Czechs and Slovaks appeared in the first democratic elections in 1990. The separation in political agendas became more apparent after the 1992 elections. Along with the lack of compatibility between the two states politically, Czech and Slovak nationalism became stronger and more evident once a democratic system was put in place. In order to address the increasing divisions, the government peacefully negotiated the dissolution of the federation. In 1993, the federation was dissolved, and the nations of the Czech Republic and Slovakia were established.

In Yugoslavia, political differences, economic concerns, and nationalism led to the breakup of Yugoslavia. The breakup of Yugoslavia, however, was not accomplished peacefully. Politically, Yugoslavia had a federal system with six republics: Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Macedonia, and Montenegro. In 1945, Yugoslavia fell under communist rule and President Marshal Tito's government was able to continually suppress democratic reforms and the desire for individual rights that arose from political factions within the republics. With Tito's death in 1980, the stability of the communist government decreased, and challenges from the different republics began to increase. Economically, the republics, like other communist nations in Eastern Europe, sought reforms due to the lack of prosperity. Finally, nationalism amongst the different republics began to grow stronger. Inspired by the communist revolutions of 1989 in places such as Poland and Hungary (7-5.5), the differing nationalist groups within Yugoslavia began increasing protests and demands for change. In 1990, the Yugoslav Communist Party split along ethnic lines and throughout that year political reforms such as instituting elections were introduced in some republics such as Slovenia and Croatia. These reforms were often met with violent attacks from police and military support from the communist regime. Violence increased throughout the 1990s as republics began demanding independence. Slovenia was the first republic to successfully secede from Yugoslavia. Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Macedonia followed. In Serbia and Montenegro, "ethnic cleansing" led to mass atrocities as local militias within the republics came into conflict with nationalist ethnic minorities. One example of this ethnic cleansing occurred under the Serbian leadership of Slobodan Milosevic. After the arrest of Milosevic in 2001, Serbia and Montenegro were recognized by the United Nations once again, and in 2003 they were organized as a two-state federation. In 2006, Serbia and Montenegro split into two independent nations. Ethnic violence also occurred in the former Serbian province of Kosovo as Albanians and Serbs fought for the land.

In East Germany, like other communist nations in Europe, discontent arose over lack of economic prosperity and political rights. Demands and protests intensified in the 1980s, and the revolutions in 1989 in Poland and Hungary served as models of change. In November 1989, the Berlin Wall was torn down, removing a symbol of division between communism and capitalism.

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After the collapse of the Wall, West and East Germany were reunited into one democratic Germany (7-5.5). Independence and, to a greater degree, reunification were difficult to achieve nationalistically, governmentally, and economically.

The birth of the European Union (EU) was based on the former European Economic Community (EEC) that had developed during the Cold War. The EEC, officially created in 1957, sought to strengthen the economies of democratic nations in Europe by allowing for beneficial trade by lowering trade restrictions and increasing trade opportunities. The main idea was to create a “single market” within member states that would get rid of traditional barriers such as tariffs. The EU officially replaced the EEC in 1993 and continued this history of economic cooperation, but began trying to make this union of nations even closer. One step in this direction was with the creation of a single monetary unit, the Euro. Another step in strengthening this union was focusing on non-economic issues such as democratic practices, foreign policy, and common defense policy. With the collapse of communism in the late 1980s and early 1990s, the EU was able to begin expanding beyond its traditional ties to Western Europe. Many former communist nations in Eastern Europe have since joined the EU. Currently there are twenty-seven member states of the EU. The same sort of economic philosophy occurred in the Americas in 1994 with the inception of the North American Free Trade Association (NAFTA). This trade agreement created the world’s largest free trade area among Canada, Mexico, and the United States, marking another step towards true global interdependence and a global economy.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the dates or names of all leaders involved in the areas affected by the collapse of communism but instead should have an understanding of the order in which events occurred. They also do not need to know the names of all the states involved in the EU.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Select or design appropriate forms of social studies resources* to organize and evaluate social studies information.
- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

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Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the significant political, economic, geographic, scientific, technological, and cultural changes as well as the advancements that have taken place throughout the world from the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 to the present day.

Enduring Understanding:

Since the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, the world's attention no longer focuses on the tension between superpowers. Although problems rooted in the Middle East have captured the world's attention more consistently than the majority of current issues, other concerns have moved to the forefront as well. To understand the modern world, the student will:

7-6.2 Compare features of nationalist and independence movements in different regions in the post-World War II period, including Mohandas Gandhi's role in the non-violence movement for India's independence, the emergence of nationalist movements in African and Asian countries, and the collapse of the apartheid system in South Africa.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time the students have learned about the nationalist and independence movements in Asia and Africa. In World History, students will learn about the impact of movements for equality in Africa and Southeast Asia (MWH-8.5).

It is essential for students to know:

Following World War II, nationalist movements in Asian and African countries intensified and independence was achieved in many nations. In Asia, the nationalist movement in India actually gained strength after the First World War and had its roots in the Sepoy Rebellion (7-3.6). Although India would not gain its independence until after the Second World War, it served as a model and inspiration for many other nations in Asia and Africa following World War II.

After World War I, the conflict between the Hindus and Muslims created an obstacle to independence from the British. The Indian National Congress consisted of mainly Hindus, while the Muslims had their own organization called the Muslim League. The Muslims feared that the Hindus would dominate the new government whenever independence was achieved. As the leader of the independence movement, Mohandas Gandhi, focused on using civil disobedience, or nonviolence. He called for boycotts of British goods and encouraged Indians to make their own clothing rather than buying clothing from the British. The British forced the Indians to buy salt from them exclusively, so Gandhi organized the Salt March, in which the Indians collected saltwater from the sea in order to make their own salt. Gandhi also protested British rule by fasting. Gandhi's nonviolent methods were very effective, as the boycotts hurt the British economically. In 1935, the British gave the Indians self-rule and after World War II ended, the British were ready to give India its independence. The colony was expensive to run and the British had to recover economically after the war. The British worried about the animosity between the Hindus and Muslims. As a result, the British decided to divide the Indian subcontinent into two states. India was created for the Hindus and Pakistan was established for the Muslims. The British gave the two nations independence in 1947, and millions of Hindus and

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Muslims moved to their new countries. During the migration, violence occurred between the two groups and approximately one million people were killed. The two countries also fought over the region of Kashmir after independence was granted. India controlled the region, but most of its residents were Muslims. The United Nations eventually enforced a cease-fire between the two countries, gave Pakistan one third of Kashmir, and gave India control of the rest of the region. India and Pakistan continue to disagree over ownership of Kashmir. The country of Pakistan also had strife from within. The country's government was located in West Pakistan, and the people of East Pakistan felt ignored by West Pakistan. East Pakistan declared independence in 1971 and called itself Bangladesh. A civil war then ensued between Pakistan and Bangladesh. Assisted by India, Bangladesh prevailed.

Countries in Southeast Asia also achieved independence after World War II. The Philippines became independent from the United States, as did the British colonies of Sri Lanka, Burma, Malaysia, and Singapore. Indonesia was granted its independence from the Dutch.

There were many similarities and differences between the independence movements in Africa and Asia. In Africa, like in Asia, nationalist movements gained momentum after World War II. Many African colonies wanted to free themselves from European rule and African leaders emerged to lead the independence movements. Ghana was the first African country to receive independence in 1957. Kwame Nkrumah led his people to independence by organizing boycotts and strikes just as Ghandi had done in India. Other nations, however, had to use force in order to gain independence. Algerian independence from the French was violently won. Algerians organized themselves into the Algerian National Liberation Front and fought against hundreds of thousands of French troops who were sent to suppress the nationalists. Algeria prevailed and won independence in 1962. In Kenya, many British settlers were opposed to giving Kenya its independence. Jomo Kenyatta, who was the primary nationalist leader, claimed he had no connection to the Mau Mau, Kenyans who used guerilla warfare tactics to fight the British settlers. The British imprisoned Kenyatta for his lack of criticism of the actions of the Mau Mau. Kenya received independence in 1963, and Kenyatta became its first president. Angola fought to free itself of Portuguese rule. The Congo, on the other hand, is an example of an African country that experienced civil war and social unrest after receiving independence. As had been the practice under imperialism, colonial rule had exploited the colonies' resources, and the Africans had not been trained to run their own political institutions. Rival ethnicities would not cooperate, and civil war erupted, allowing a dictatorship to be established, which brought instability to the region. In South Africa, a major difference is that independence had actually been granted prior to both world wars, but the issue of apartheid remained as a legacy of European rule. South Africa was granted its independence from the British in 1910. In order to maintain power, the minority white population in South Africa, descendants of Europeans, created a social and political system that shut out the black majority. South Africa's black majority was constitutionally denied rights beginning in the mid-1930s. In 1948, apartheid, the legal segregation of whites and blacks, was instituted. In 1959, homelands for black South Africans were created, forcing the majority of the people to live on a small percentage of selected inferior land. Groups formed in opposition to the policy, such as the African National Congress (ANC), but such groups were deemed illegal. Those who spoke out in opposition of apartheid were imprisoned, such as ANC leader Nelson Mandela, while others, such as Stephen Biko, were killed. In 1989, a new president, F.W. DeKlerk was elected. DeKlerk legalized the

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ANC and released Mandela from prison. Soon after, the South African parliament repealed apartheid laws. In 1994, the first universal elections were held, during which Mandela was elected president, a position he held until 1999.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the specific military details of the independence movements in Asia and Africa.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the significant political, economic, geographic, scientific, technological, and cultural changes as well as the advancements that have taken place throughout the world from the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 to the present day.

Enduring Understanding:

Since the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, the world's attention no longer focuses on the tension between superpowers. Although problems rooted in the Middle East have captured the world's attention more consistently than the majority of current issues, other concerns have moved to the forefront as well. To understand the modern world, the student will:

7-6.3 Explain the ongoing conflicts in the Middle East, including the Persian Gulf War, the terrorist attack on September 11, 2001, and the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about the impact of the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks on the United States, including the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan and the home-front responses to terrorism (5-6.3).

It is essential for students to know:

Modern conflicts in the Middle East have their origins in the conflicts that arose at the end of World War II with the creation of Israel (7-4.6). Religious differences and the issues of territorial homelands are also exacerbated by the fact that the region owns and thus controls the greatest supply of fossil fuels (oil) in the world and the United States is the nation most dependent on this energy source. The United Nations as a world moderator has been directly or indirectly involved with many of these conflicts. The United States has also been involved through support of Israel independently or in conjunction with the United Nations and is deeply concerned with issues in the area as they impact national and worldwide economies.

The Persian Gulf War began as a result of Iraq's invasion of Kuwait. On August 2nd, 1990, Iraq invaded its oil-rich neighbor of Kuwait. Saddam Hussein, dictator of Iraq, ordered the invasion based on the claims that Kuwait was rightfully Iraq's territory and that Kuwait's overproduction of oil was hurting the Iraqi economy. The United Nations (UN) responded by demanding that Hussein remove troops from Kuwait. Many nations of the United Nations began trade embargoes against Iraq. A coalition of forces from thirty-two member nations of the UN, led by the United States, took further action. On August 7th, the United States sent troops to Saudi Arabia to protect its oil fields from a possible Iraqi invasion. In November, the UN set a deadline of January 15, 1991 for Hussein to remove all troops from Kuwait. When Hussein refused to meet this deadline, coalition troops began Operation Desert Storm. Under the leadership of the United States, coalition troops entered Kuwait and Iraq and began attacking Iraqi troops and military installations with an assault of air raids followed by ground support. Hussein launched missiles at Israel and Saudi Arabia in an attempt to disrupt coalition attempts. Despite Hussein's efforts, the coalition forces were able to surround Iraqi forces quickly. With most of the Iraqi troops either surrendering or fleeing, United States President George H.W. Bush declared a cease-fire

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on February 28th. Although Kuwait regained its freedom, destruction from Iraqi troops in Kuwait was extensive due to orders from Hussein to set Kuwait's oil fields on fire as they retreated. Iraq also suffered from major destruction. Saddam Hussein was allowed to stay in power in Iraq.

Over a decade later, on September 11, 2001 (9-11), the United States was attacked by terrorists. Members of a terrorist organization called Al Qaeda planned and coordinated these attacks. Al Qaeda leaders, such as Osama Bin Laden developed this worldwide terrorist organization in response to conflicts and developments in the Middle East. Members of Al Qaeda support only Muslim-based practices in the Middle East and demand the removal of all Western ideas and influence from the Middle East. Therefore, in their terrorist attacks, Al Qaeda focused on non-Muslim nations that had supported Israel or had intervened in other affairs in the Middle East. Attacks occurred in places such as India, Britain, Spain, and Japan. Because of its involvement in affairs in the Middle East, the United States also became a target of Al Qaeda. On the morning of September 11, 2001, Al Qaeda terrorists who were living in the United States boarded four planes departing from Boston, Massachusetts. Once in the air, the terrorists took control of the planes using knives to force their way into the cockpits. After killing the pilots, the terrorists, who had been training in air navigation while in the United States, took control and began flying the planes. The first two planes were flown to New York City. There, at 8:46 a.m., the first plane was intentionally flown into the North Tower of the World Trade Center. All five hijackers and all passengers on board were killed. At 9:03 a.m., the second plane was flown into the South Tower. Again, all five hijackers and passengers were killed. Those within the buildings who were not killed upon impact immediately began trying to exit the one hundred ten story buildings and emergency personnel from the New York City police and fire departments began entering the buildings to rescue survivors. However, the explosions of the planes acted like bombs, and the impacts as well as the resultant flames soon caused the buildings to collapse. Although there were some survivors from the buildings, the casualties were still tremendous. Over two thousand civilians died along with hundreds of rescue workers. The area around the towers was also heavily damaged from the debris of the collapsing buildings. President George W. Bush proclaimed the area "Ground Zero." Also hijacked by five Al Qaeda terrorists, a third plane flew to Washington, DC, where, at 9:37 a.m. the plane was flown into the Pentagon. The building was heavily damaged, and one hundred twenty-five workers inside the Pentagon were killed. Four Al Qaeda terrorists hijacked a fourth plane but, unlike the other three planes, the terrorists did not achieve their overall goal of flying the plane into a building or heavily populated area. Through cell phone communication while traveling on United Flight 93, passengers had become aware of what had transpired with the other three previously-hijacked planes. Passengers quickly formulated a plan to foil the hijackers by regaining control of the plane. In the struggle that ensued, control of the plane was lost and the plane crashed in an empty field in Shanksville, Pennsylvania. The hijackers and all passengers on board were killed, yet no other damages or casualties resulted. Although the intended destination of this flight cannot be unequivocally confirmed, the trained hijacking pilot had redirected the plane towards the East Coast and, based on the trajectory of the new route prior to the crash, the target is generally presumed to also be a strategic site in Washington, DC.

In response to the 9-11 attacks, President Bush declared a global "war on terrorism." Bush announced that terrorist organizations within any nation in the world would be hunted by the United States government and that the United States government expected cooperation from nations in this hunt. As Al Qaeda was identified by the CIA as the main cause of the 9-11

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attacks, leaders and members of Al Qaeda became the first target. In Afghanistan, the government was controlled by a militaristic group called the Taliban. The Taliban supported Al Qaeda members. Osama Bin Laden, the leader, was supposedly in hiding in Afghanistan during the 9-11 attacks. The United States demanded that the Afghan government turn over or assist in the capture of Al Qaeda members within its nation; but the Taliban refused. President Bush therefore ordered the invasion of Afghanistan to begin searching for Al Qaeda terrorists. The Taliban government was taken out of power by the United States, and the process of setting up a democratic government began. A transitional government was set up with Hamid Karzai as the American appointed president. Presidential and parliamentary elections were held in 2004. In response to these changes and American efforts, terrorist attacks from Taliban and Al Qaeda supporters against on American troops and the new government have continued. In May 2011 Osama Bin laden was found hiding in a private residential compound in Abbottabad, Pakistan. He was shot and killed by special military forces from the United States.

As part of the “war on terrorism,” the Bush administration began investigations into terrorist connections in Iraq. The Bush administration, along with British support, claimed Iraq’s leader, Saddam Hussein, possessed “weapons of mass destruction” (WMDs) and feared he might supply terrorists with such weapons. Hussein had used chemical and biological weapons against Iran in the Iran-Iraq War of 1980-1981 as well as against Kurds who were living in Iraq in the 1980s. Chemical and biological weapons had also been discovered and destroyed in Iraq following the Persian Gulf War in 1991. The United States therefore asked for assistance from the United Nations in regard to this issue. In response, the United Nations sent a team to investigate these claims in November, 2002 and, after completing the weapons inspections in March 2003, the UN presented its findings. The UN inspection team had found no evidence of WMDs in Iraq. The United States then asked the UN for a use of force against Iraq despite the lack of evidence of WMDs, but the UN denied this request. Because it considered Hussein a possible source of support/supplies to terrorists and thus a threat, the Bush Administration decided to employ a use of force to solve the problem and invaded Iraq on March 20, 2003. The United States military, supported by British troops as well as those from a few other nations, took control of Baghdad and Saddam Hussein went into hiding. The United States government directed the occupation of Iraq, and fighting between United States troops and supporters of Hussein continued throughout the nation. Hussein was captured on December 13, 2003. An American-led transitional government was put in place similar to that in Afghanistan and elections were held in January, 2005 with the goal of writing a constitution for Iraq. Hussein was tried for the murder of Iraqi Shi’ites and he was found guilty and hanged on December 30, 2006. Despite Hussein’s capture and execution, fighting continued as Iraqis who desired the removal of American troops/ intervention attacked American troops in addition to troops, police, and members of the new Iraqi government. During the occupation, a United States led team continued the search for WMDs, but was also unable to find any evidence of their existence. Fighting continued in Iraq until the process of removing all American troops began under the Obama administration in December 2011.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know all of the dates involved in these events but instead should have an understanding of the order in which events occurred and their cause and effect relationship.

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They do not need to know the exact times or number of deaths or casualties related to the September 11 attacks.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Identify and explain the relationships among multiple causes and multiple effects.
- Integrate information from a variety of media sources with print or digital text in an appropriate manner.
- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the significant political, economic, geographic, scientific, technological, and cultural changes as well as the advancements that have taken place throughout the world from the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 to the present day.

Enduring Understanding:

Since the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, the world's attention no longer focuses on the tension between superpowers. Although problems rooted in the Middle East have captured the world's attention more consistently than the majority of current issues, other concerns have moved to the forefront as well. To understand the modern world, the student will:

7-6.4 Compare the social, economic, and political opportunities for women in various nations and societies around the world, including those in developing and industrialized nations and within societies dominated by religions.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

This is the first time students have learned about the social, economic, and political opportunities for women. In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the accomplishments and limitations of the women's suffrage movement and the Progressive Movement in affecting social and political reforms in America (USHC-4.6).

It is essential for students to know:

Women throughout the world have gained social, economic, and political rights from the beginning of the twentieth century to the present day. Women played a significant role during World War I by working in factories and making war materials while men were fighting in the war. Because of their importance on the home front, the women's suffrage movement became stronger and finally achieved a measure of success. After World War I, many countries around the world, including the United States and Great Britain, gave women the right to vote. Turkey, led by Mustafa Kemal, gave women the right to vote and allowed them to hold political office. By the 1920s, more women in democratic and industrialized nations were entering new professions, such as journalism and medicine. Women were more active during World War II, serving on the homefront as well as in war in medical and military capacities. This trend, however, was reversed with the end of the war when the troops returned home in the 1950s. Communist countries such as China and the Soviet Union also provided women more equality. Both countries encouraged women to work outside of the home. The Chinese Communist Party also outlawed the practice of footbinding. In the 1960s, the feminist movement gained strength, especially in the United States, and women began to demand equality and make inroads in the American workforce. Likewise, these social/political inroads continued to grow on a worldwide basis throughout the 1970s to the present. Women, including Indira Gandhi from India, Corazon Aquino from the Philippines, Daw Aung San Suu Kyi from Myanmar, Benazir Bhutto, from Pakistan, and Margaret Thatcher from Great Britain have held top political positions in their countries. Even though women have been given more social, economic, and political opportunities, they still face discrimination in employment and salaries. Women in Arab and Muslim lands and in many developing nations around the world have been denied education and

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have been victims of abuse. The United Nations has sponsored many conferences that focus on women's rights and these issues have illuminated issues of human rights worldwide.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know specific female activists or specific legislation giving women equal rights.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Select or design appropriate forms of social studies resources to organize and evaluate social studies information.
- Explain change and continuity over time and across cultures.
- Evaluate multiple points of view or biases and attribute the perspectives to the influences of individual experiences, societal values, and cultural traditions.

Assessment guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments *could* require students to be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

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or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Contemporary Cultures: 1600 to the Present

Standard 7-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the significant political, economic, geographic, scientific, technological, and cultural changes as well as the advancements that have taken place throughout the world from the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 to the present day.

Enduring Understanding:

Since the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, the world's attention no longer focuses on the tension between superpowers. Although problems rooted in the Middle East have captured the world's attention more consistently than the majority of current issues, other concerns have moved to the forefront as well. To understand the modern world, the student will:

7-6.5 Explain the significance and impact of the information, technological, and communications revolutions, including the role of television, satellites, computers, and the Internet.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about how technological innovations have changed daily life in the United States, including the changes brought about by computers, satellites, and mass communication systems (5-6.4). In World History, students will learn about the benefits and costs of increasing worldwide trade and technological growth (MWH-8.7).

It is essential for students to know:

Advances in science and technology became especially intense during the Cold War era. In the race for space, the Soviets launched Sputnik in 1957. This was followed by the initiation of a United States space program and an increased interest in science and math education that culminated in the first United States lunar landing in 1969. Following these two milestones in space exploration, the United States and the Soviet Union both launched shuttle missions to accomplish various technological and scientific tasks. The International Space Station (ISS) was a joint venture launched in 1998 by sixteen nations to create a working laboratory for experimentation in space.

Other advances occurred in the area of information, technology, and communication in the twentieth century. Beginning in the 1950s, the television became the primary source by which people throughout the world gain access to up-to-date news and global events. This access has fostered greater empathy and understanding in the general public for events in the United States, such as the Civil Rights Movement, and allowed global events such as the Vietnam or Iraqi Wars to become a part of everyday life.

Since the launching of the first satellites, these instruments have been used to increase worldwide communication. Events can be broadcast worldwide, linking countries and people around the world. Satellites today can be used for radios, TV access, and other aspects of pop culture.

Computers, once bulky, room-sized machines that were difficult to use, are now as small as the palm of one's hand and do the work once done by several other machines. Computers are used

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by millions of people around the world to run assembly lines, power modern appliances, and assist in business operations. The Internet further connected businesses and individuals. The Internet is the connection of computer networks around the world, rising in usage beginning in 1995. The Internet allows information to be transferred between individuals over long distances. This is significant because people can now work from home and easily send information to remote locations. Cell phones now offer access to the Internet, further enhancing remote access. The combination of these technologies has created an interdependent global economy that is dependent on modern technology.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know specific dates of each invention, specific details of each invention, or specific people associated with the invention of these technologies. However, they do need to have a generalized understanding of the chronology of the development of these inventions and their relationships to each other.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

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- Integrate information from a variety of media sources with print or digital text in an appropriate manner.
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Assessment Guidelines:

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or any verb from the **Remember** cognitive process dimension.

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Standard 7-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the significant political, economic, geographic, scientific, technological, and cultural changes as well as the advancements that have taken place throughout the world from the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 to the present day.

Enduring Understanding:

Since the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, the world's attention no longer focuses on the tension between superpowers. Although problems rooted in the Middle East have captured the world's attention more consistently than the majority of current issues, other concerns have moved to the forefront as well. To understand the modern world, the student will:

7-6.6 Summarize the dangers to the natural environment that are posed by population growth, urbanization, and industrialization, including global influences on the environment and the efforts by citizens and governments to protect the natural environment.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/ Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade 5, students learned about issues related to the use of natural resources by the United States, including recycling, climate change, environmental hazards, and depletion that requires our reliance on foreign resources (5-6.6). In World History students will learn about the benefits and costs of increasing worldwide trade and technological growth, including the movement of people and the increase in environmental concerns (MWH-8.7).

It is essential for students to know:

The environment has been harmed by population growth, urbanization, and industrialization. Population growth and urbanization have led to an increase in land development, which has harmed or eliminated many animal and plant habitats. The green revolution that began in the 1960s was an attempt to increase food production worldwide through the increased use of fertilizers, pesticides, and new strains of crops. The result was higher yields of crops and lower rates of famine. Increases in agriculture also resulted in an increase in population. A downside to this green revolution, however, was the chemicals released into the environment and increased soil erosion.

With the increase in population came increased urbanization and industrialization. According to the United Nations' World Urbanization Prospects in 1950, it was estimated that approximately 732 million people in the world lived in urban areas. In 2005, this number was estimated to have quadrupled to 3.2 billion. Urbanization often results in problems of increased waste, localized pollution, and increased warming in the cities compared to rural areas. As previously mentioned, some land development and farming techniques have led to increased release of chemicals and soil erosion. The change in the use of the land has also changed wildlife habitats, endangering various species around the world. Urbanization and industrialization play a role in these changes in that cities and businesses require more land and agriculture. Urbanization and industrialization have increased the demand for earth's natural resources and led to changes in the use of the earth's resources, often resulting in pollution and environmental issues. Hydrocarbon emissions from automobiles and carbon dioxide emissions from the burning of fossil fuels such as coal and

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oil for energy have caused air and water pollution, acid rain, damage to the ozone layer, and increased the greenhouse effect. The continued burning of coal and oil has released carbon dioxide into the atmosphere, leading to air pollution and acid rain. The earth's ozone layer, which protects its inhabitants against the sun's ultraviolet rays, has been damaged by the release of chlorofluorocarbons (CFC). Continued loss of ozone could result in increased levels of skin cancer and damage to plant and animal species. Efforts have been made by groups worldwide to curb the emissions of CFCs both by large manufacturers and by small producers. In 1992, many nations of the world signed the Kyoto Protocol, designed to reduce greenhouse gases emitted by each country. Additionally, with increased publicity in recent years, public knowledge about global warming is increasing.

Around the world, citizens and governments have become more involved in trying to protect the natural environment. On the local level, many communities and schools undertake recycling programs in an effort to reduce waste. Increasingly, some citizens are purchasing products made of recycled materials, opting for reusable bags at grocery stores, using more energy efficient light bulbs, and unplugging electrical appliances in an effort to make a small impact. Other changes such as hybrid and electric cars that use less oil and energy efficient appliances that require less power are increasingly being developed and used. The research and development of alternative sources of energy continues to increase worldwide as well. Many alternative and renewable energy sources such as solar and wind are being increasingly used to provide power for homes and businesses. Nuclear energy, a nonrenewable energy source, is also widely used as a power source.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know every aspect of international environmental issues and legislation. They do not need to know what scientists are doing to help protect the environment. It is not necessary for students to know how countries have met to discuss ways to reduce the amount of pollutants emitted into the environment.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

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