

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-1: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the major factors that facilitated exchanges among groups of people and how exchanges influenced those people in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

Physical geography, ideas, warfare, and financial institutions have shaped the interaction within and among regions around the world. To understand how the interaction of these forces in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries led to the development of modern societies, the student will. . .

MWH-1.1 Describe the diffusion of people and goods between Europe, Asia, and Africa during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to show the networks of economic interdependence and cultural interactions.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Prior to this course, students have had experience with the changing political, social, and economic cultures in Asia, Europe, and Africa during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, specifically the contributions of China, Japan, and India and the origins and fundamental beliefs of Islam, as well as the contribution of the major African civilizations of Ghana, Mali, and Songhai in grade six (6-3.1, 6-3.2, 6-3.3, 6-3.4, 6-4.1, 6-4.2).

Students will have no further standards-based experience with this content after this course.

It is essential for students to know:

As a result of the study of this standard, students should be able to describe the movement of people and goods between the European, Asian, and African continents. Students should be able to describe the geographical, technological, and economic factors that aided exploration and trade. Students should be able to describe the growth of economic interdependence as countries began to trade goods, as well as the cultural changes that resulted in the affected areas.

The foundations of the commercial revolution are rooted in the early trade routes that developed on the Asian, African, and European continents. These trade routes created various networks that fostered economic interdependence and cultural interactions that led to significant economic growth, and political and social change.

The economic interdependence between nations was a direct result of the development of trade between those nations. This economic growth was spurred by the growth of banking system in many European countries that were used to finance trade in those regions.

Cultural interactions led to the spread of religion, political systems, and other social institutions. Students should be able to explain how the diffusion of culture and economic growth was a direct result of the growth of exploration of new regions. Specific attention should be paid to the spread of religions, including Christianity and Islam.

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It is not essential for students to know:

Students need not know specific names of any early traders or explorers who were responsible for economic growth, nor do they need to focus on the political and economic establishments that were created during this period of growth.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the 21st Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Compare the ways that different economic systems answer the fundamental questions of what goods and services should be produced, how they should be produced, and who will consume them.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

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Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Prior to this course, students have had experience with the changing political, social, and economic cultures in Asia, Europe, and Africa during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, specifically the contributions of China, Japan, and India and the origins and fundamental beliefs of Islam, as well as the contribution of the major African civilizations of Ghana, Mali, and Songhai in grade six (6-3.1, 6-3.2, 6-3.3, 6-3.4, 6-4.1, 6-4.2).

Students will have no further standards-based experience with this content after this course.

It is essential for students to know:

As a result of the study of this standard, students should be able to describe the movement of people and goods between the European, Asian, and African continents. Students should be able to describe the geographical, technological, and economic factors that aided exploration and trade. Students should be able to describe the growth of economic interdependence as countries began to trade goods, as well as the cultural changes that resulted in the affected areas.

The foundations of the commercial revolution are rooted in the early trade routes that developed on the Asian, African, and European continents. These trade routes created various networks that fostered economic interdependence and cultural interactions that led to significant economic growth, and political and social change.

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- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
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Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

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Enduring Understanding:

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MWH-1.2 Explain the impact of the Crusades and the Renaissance on European exploration, including the significance of humanism, the revival of learning, and the transfer of knowledge about sailing and ancient philosophy from the Arabs to the Europeans.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Prior to this course, students have studied the conditions that led to the Crusades and should be able to explain the effects of this series of events on the development of feudalism and the spread of Christianity (6-5.3). They should be able to summarize the contributions of the Italian Renaissance, including the development and influence of humanism and the accomplishments of Italians in the fine arts (6-6.1). Students should also be able to identify key figures in the Renaissance and describe their contributions.

Students will have no further standards-based experience with this content after this course.

It is essential for students to know:

It is essential for students to be able to describe the course of the Crusades and the Renaissance and their effects on the development of European exploration. Students must be able to define humanism and explain how its growth led to the revival of classical learning.

Students should understand that the Crusades increased the interaction between the Western and Eastern worlds and between Christianity and Islam and opened the door for new contacts. As a result, Western Europeans gained great wealth and knowledge from the Byzantine Empire. This knowledge took many forms, including architecture, shipbuilding, sailing, and philosophy.

Exposure to Muslim culture in Spain and Italy, as well as the growth of “colonies” established by the Crusaders in the Holy Land made Europeans aware of the goods available in the Muslim world that were not available in Europe. Europeans began to produce items such as pasta, paper, colored glass, and many other products that were previously imported from the Arab world. Translations of ancient Greek philosophical and scientific works, as well as works produced by other cultures of the Middle East provided intellectual stimulation to European thought. Theologians used the work of Aristotle and other ancient philosophers. Important advancements in medicine were also developed as a result of these interactions.

An outgrowth of this movement included the growth of humanism in Western Europe, which ultimately led to the European Renaissance. The Christian humanism of the Renaissance and Reformation period was primarily an intellectual movement that focused on literary and

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philosophical scholarship. Due to its connection to the Renaissance, humanism is closely associated with Italy. Francesco Petrarch, who is known as the “father of humanism” revived the study of ancient Rome. Giovanni Boccaccio, best known for his work *Decameron* was also a leader in the movement. Humanism spread through Italy, primarily as an elitist movement, and gained new momentum in the late fourteenth century when Greek revivalist thoughts took hold in the Western world. Humanism eventually spread north to Germany, then to Spain and England. The Reformation brought an end to traditional Renaissance humanism.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know each of the goals and accomplishments of the specific Crusades; however, focus on a particular Crusade to illustrate the goals, achievements, and or/ failures of a particular campaign may be helpful. The focus on the Renaissance should be on the ideas that were generated by the movement. Special attention does not have to be paid to individuals in the movement; but focusing on an artist or thinker to exemplify the period may extend students’ understanding.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Represent and interpret Earth’s physical and human systems by using maps, mental maps, geographic models, and other social studies resources to make inferences and draw conclusions.*

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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Enduring Understanding:

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MWH-1.3 Analyze the reasons for European interest in Africa, including the significance of the struggle between Muslim and Christian leaders in the Mediterranean and European interest in finding new trade routes to Asia.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Prior to this course, students have studied the impact of Islam on early African civilizations in grade six (6-4.1) and the effects of the exchange of products between Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas. Additionally, students have compared the different ways European nations developed political and economic control in Africa, Asia, and the Americas in grade seven (7-1.5).

Students will have no further standards-based experience with this content after this course.

It is essential for students to know:

This topic should give students a broad view of the economic, political, and religious goals that fostered European interest in Africa. It is important that students focus on the fact that Africa was a continent endowed with resources, as well as geographically situated (Eastern African Coast) to provide raw materials and trade routes for European explorers. Prior to the explorations of early European explorers (e.g. Christopher Columbus), Africa played an important role in the world trade system. By 1450, Africa had a number of large, well developed empires, including the Mameluke Egyptians and Ethiopia. As a result of their trade routes across the Indian Ocean, empires supplied a variety of goods that were sought after by Europeans, including ivory, spices, and porcelain. By the fifteenth century, the Sudanese region of Africa also supplied most of the gold that reached Europe. These products made Africa a favored region for exploration by Europeans, who brought the goods back to their countries to sell.

Development of European Trade Routes in Eastern Africa: The center of the pre-Columbian trade network was the Indian Ocean. These trade routes provided a conduit for many products, including porcelains, silks, various foodstuffs (pepper, cloves, nutmeg, sugar, etc.) cotton, cooper weapons and opium. By the fifteenth century, Europeans regularly visited thriving seaports in Northern Africa on the Mediterranean Sea, as well as the Red Sea and the Eastern African coast.

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Conflicts between Christianity and Islam in the Mediterranean:

As trade expanded from Eastern Africa to Western Africa and other regions of the Mediterranean, so did the expansion of Islam to those regions. Muslim merchants dominated trade, linking ports in East Africa and the Red Sea with those in India and China. Over time, the power of the Islamic Ottoman Empire grew and in 1453, the Byzantine Empire was ended with the fall of Constantinople. The Ottomans already controlled Greece, Bulgaria, and much of the Balkans (except Albania, due to its resistance), and soon also began to spread through North Africa. North Africa had grown wealthy from the trade across the Sahara Desert, but the Portuguese, who, along with other Christian powers, had been engaged in a long campaign to evict the Muslims from Iberia, had found a method to circumvent this trade by trading directly with West Africa.

The growing naval power of the European nation confronted the seemingly rapid Ottoman expansion; however, this only slowed the Ottoman expansion instead of ending it. The island of Cyprus became Ottoman in 1571. The last resistance in Tunisia ended in 1574 and almost a generation long siege in Crete pushed Venetians out of this strategic island in 1669.

By the late seventeenth century, a balance of power existed between European nations, especially Spain and Ottoman Empire. This balance of power lasted until the eighteenth century, each dominating their respective half of Mediterranean. The Ottoman Empire had succeeded in their objective of extending Muslim rule across the North African coast.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the name of specific Islamic or Christian leaders; however, teachers may use examples, such as Sudiata Keita or Mansa Musa to illustrate how Islam spread through Western and Northern Africa. Additionally, it is not essential for students to know specific seaports, but it may be helpful to show them the geographic relationship between Europe and Indian Ocean ports, including Northern and Eastern African.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century

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- Compare the ways that different economic systems answer the fundamental questions of what goods and services should be produced, how they should be produced, and who will consume them.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Analyze

Differentiate

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Organize

Attribute

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

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Enduring Understanding:

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MWH-1.4 Evaluate the impact of the collapse of European feudal institutions and the spread of towns on the transmission of goods, people, and ideas in Europe.

Taxonomy Level: Evaluate/Conceptual Knowledge – 5/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade six, students have studied the development of feudal institutions, not only in Europe, but also in Asia (6-3.2, 6-5.1, 6-5.2, 6-5.3).

Students will have no further standards-based experience with this content after this course.

It is essential for students to know:

Students should be able to explain the causes and impact of the collapse of feudal institutions on the development of the modern state. Events that led to the decline in feudalism include the technological advancements, the Bubonic Plague, the increase in trade, and the growth of the middle class. This discussion should include the effects of the Crusades, the movement from a land-based economic system to a monetary system, various actions of the peasantry (which were the least economically advantaged group in Europe) including the Peasants Revolt, and the development of towns as trade grew. Students should also understand the significance of the Roman Catholic Church in daily life, including the role of the Church in promoting the feudal social structure.

Students should know that the decline in Church patronage contributed to the decline of feudalism. As a result of the study of this standard, students should be able to assess the consequences of the end of feudalism on European political, economic, and cultural institutions, especially the growth of towns as trade increased.

Feudalism emerged as a form of social, economic, and political organization after the fall of the Roman Empire. The system was one of hierarchy in which nobles controlled land and ruled over peasants (serfs), who were permanently tied to the land. During the Middle Ages, feudalism was an institutional and territorial expression of unlimited government under the authority of lords. Lords exercised authority by birth or by appointment and residents of the lord's territory were their subjects. Feudalism as an institution involved all aspects of life. As a fiscal system, subjects were obligated to "pay" their lord using a variety of methods, including labor and military services, direct taxes, and tolls. Feudalism was also a system of local governance; lords appointed agents to administer justice, and collect taxes.

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Feudalism began to decline in Western Europe by the fourteenth century as a result of a number of significant events. The Renaissance and Reformation led to philosophical, social, economic, and political changes in Europe that challenged basic tenets of feudalism. The Reformation and the Thirty Years' War significantly decreased the control of the Catholic Church. As a result, the organization of the feudal state could no longer provide social, economic, and political order and security in Western Europe.

Opposition to feudalism grew as the peasant class began to protest not only the system, but also many of the basic tenets that formed the foundation of the system. Peasants loathed the various taxes levied on them, including the feudal tax and tithe. By the eighteenth century reforming rulers, such as Frederick II of Prussia and Louis XVI, abolished forms of serfdom in their countries.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential that students know specific individuals related to the feudal institutions; however, teachers may wish to focus on topics that students may encounter in future coursework, such as the Magna Carta and the foundations of limited government.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century

- Represent and interpret Earth's physical and human systems by using maps, mental maps, geographic models, and other social studies resources to make inferences and draw conclusions.
- Compare the ways that different economic systems answer the fundamental questions of what goods and services should be produced, how they should be produced, and who will consume them.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Evaluate

Check

Critique

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

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Enduring Understanding:

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MWH-1.5 Explain how the development of banks in Europe influenced the transfer of goods throughout Europe.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have not been exposed to the significance of the banking system prior to this course. Students will receive instruction on the importance of banking and the modern banking system in Economics (ECON-3.2, ECON-3.8).

It is essential for students to know:

As trade grew throughout Europe, the need to borrow money also grew. The first European banks developed in northern Italy in response to an increase in trade across the Mediterranean Sea. At that time, Italian bankers were limited by political and religious restrictions placed by the ruling class and the Catholic Church, which opposed issuing loans. However, at the end of the thirteenth century, Florentine merchants and bankers controlled papal banking in the form of tax collections. Florentine merchant families dominated European banking in various European cities and Northern African ports. The profits from loans and investment spawned industrial and economic growth. The Medici, an important Florentine family is an example of a merchant family who exemplified the ideals of the family.

Italian merchants arrived at a time when England was changing from a feudal community, with virtually all its wealth in land, to a commercial society in which surplus money needed to be stored and used for profit through the issuance of loans. King Henry VIII, who was excommunicated from the Catholic Church, repealed the usury laws established by the Church, which disallowed the lending of money with interest. Future leaders continued the practices established under English rule, namely under King Henry and Elizabeth I. As a result, England was poised for tremendous economic growth as the country moved toward its Industrial Revolution in the mid-eighteenth century.

It is not essential for students to know:

Since it is most important that students understand the significance of banking, as opposed to the individuals who developed the system, it is not essential that students know the names of people who participated in the system. Individuals, such as Sir Thomas Gresham, best known for the development of a borrowing and lending system in England during the rule of Henry VII through Elizabeth I may be discussed. Under his leadership, merchants were able to borrow money and lend money to promote entrepreneurship which led to increased trade.

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Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century

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- Compare the ways that different economic systems answer the fundamental questions of what goods and services should be produced, how they should be produced, and who will consume them.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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MWH-1.6 Evaluate the role the Ming emperors played in extending Chinese influence over East Asia.

Taxonomy Level: Evaluate/Conceptual Knowledge – 5/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have studied the accomplishments of the Ming dynasty, including the golden age of art and literature, the invention of gunpowder and woodblock printing, and the rise of the trade via the Silk Road in grade six (6-3.1).

It is essential for students to know:

The Ming Dynasty (also called The Great Ming Empire) was the ruling dynasty of China from 1368 to 1644. This dynasty followed the Yuan Dynasty and preceded the Qing Dynasty. A peasant revolt established the dynasty after strong feelings against the rule of “the foreigners” (Mongols) led to discord. As a result, the Mongols were expelled from China. This dynasty began as a time of renewed cultural blossoming, with Chinese merchants exploring all of the Indian Ocean. Chinese art, especially porcelain, increased in production. Porcelain was in heavy demand in other markets. Books were also printed using movable type printing presses.

Neo-Confucianism, which promoted obedience to the state, increased in influence under Ming rule. Traditional Confucianism encouraged strict discipline by the individual. Neo-Confucianism, in contrast promoted those same beliefs, but applied to the state. As a result, the Confucian-based civil service exam was reinstated and expanded, although females were still disallowed to participate. Additionally, the leadership established aesthetic standards in areas, such as architecture, painting, and literary works. Censorship was supported by the government as a means of extending control over the populous.

The Expansion of Chinese Authority: Under Ming rule, a vast navy and army was built. Northern China produced vast amounts of iron, which was used to support the production of goods, including weapons. Chinese contact with the outside world, namely Japan, and the growth of foreign trade led to the expansion of Chinese authority in the Indian Ocean. Ming China accepted foreign ambassadors and the Chinese military reconquered lost territory and blocked Mongol expansion. The navy sailed the China Sea and Indian Ocean as far as the Eastern coast of Africa. The Chinese government gained influence over Turkistan and other Asian nations with increased economic growth as trade in those areas grew. The man-made Grand Canal, which connected two important Chinese cities (Beijing and Hangzhou) also increased the economic interdependence of the various regions of China.

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It is not essential for students to know:

Although it is important for students to understand that strong leadership played a significant role in the development of the strength and longevity of the Ming dynasty, it is not important for students to know the names of specific rulers. However, teachers may choose to select a particular ruler, such as Zhū Yuánzhāng (Hongwu Emperor) to illustrate accomplishments and failures.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century

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Assessment Guidelines:

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

Evaluate

Check

Critique

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

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Standard MWH-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the benefits and costs of the growth of kingdoms into empires from the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

As rulers consolidate their power, they often expand their territory, creating empires that have an impact on both the mother country and its colonies. To understand the impact of the creation of empires on the development of modern societies, the student will. . .

MWH -2.1 Evaluate the consequences of the changing boundaries of kingdoms in Europe, Asia, the Americas, and Africa.

Taxonomy Level: Evaluate/Conceptual Knowledge – 5/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade seven, students would have compared the political and economic influences that led to changes in Europe, Asia, the Americas and Africa (7-1.5)

Students will have no further standards-based experience with this content after this course.

It is essential for students to know:

Around 1450, there was significant global transition as China withdrew from global interactions and European countries rose in dominance across the globe. During this time, major European nations developed powerful colonies, the Byzantine Empire fell to the Ottoman Turks, and Russia emerged from Mongol control. New patterns of world interactions formed as countries of the Eastern and Western hemispheres exchanged cultural traditions across the Atlantic Ocean.

During this time, Spain and Portugal developed colonial holdings in the Americas, including conquests in the Caribbean and the Americas. Other European nations, including France and England, developed monarchies that expanded the power of their countries dramatically. These grew in strength through the development of strong armies and bureaucracies, as well as increasing taxes to support wars. Out of these traditions grew the development of the strong European nation-state. These large political units controlled people who shared a common culture, with definite geographic boundaries and sovereignty. These nation-states were controlled by either absolute or parliamentary monarchs. The development of these states led to rivalries between many of the nations.

As these changes occurred in Europe and the Americas, changes were also taking place on the African and Asian continents. As technologies became available to make exploration and travel more accessible, Europeans began to travel to these areas to gather goods and resources. Commercial, political, and cultural expansion drew the region's diverse population together as the Indian Ocean became the world's most critical and richest trading area. Although Europeans were expanding into these territories, most African and Asian were tied to their communities, following their traditional religious and cultural practices.

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It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to map the changing boundaries of the kingdoms in Europe, Asia, the Americas, and Africa, nor is it necessary for students to identify the individuals responsible for the change or any conquests or conflicts. One or more geographic regions or countries may be used to illustrate the consequences of the changes that took place in each of these areas.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the location of places, the conditions at places, and the connection between places.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Evaluate

Check

Critique

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the benefits and costs of the growth of kingdoms into empires from the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

As rulers consolidate their power, they often expand their territory, creating empires that have an impact on both the mother country and its colonies. To understand the impact of the creation of empires on the development of modern societies, the student will. . .

MWH -2.2 Describe the principle routes of exploration and trade between Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas from the late fifteenth century through the sixteenth century.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade three, students would have learned about the principle routes of exploration between Europe, Asia, Africa, and the America at various points in their education. They also learned about early settlements by the Spanish, French, and English in South Carolina (3-2.1). In fourth grade, students studied the accomplishments of early explorers, including the Vikings and Portuguese, Spanish, English and French (4-1.4). In sixth grade, students identified the origin and destination of the voyages of major European explorers (6-6.5), as well as the effects of the exchange of plants, animals, diseases and technology throughout Europe, Asia, Africa and the Americas (6-6.6)

It is essential for students to know:

The period from 1450 to 1750 was one of increased global exchanges due to new technologies that made travel on the sea more efficient. While some regions, such as China, gradually withdrew from long-distance trade, the volume of trade increased in the Indian Ocean trade with the entry of Europeans into the waters that already saw bustling commercial activity among Indian, Muslim and African peoples.

Advances in technology made these voyages possible. A new kind of ship, the caravel, was built which was stronger than earlier ships. It had triangle-shaped sails that allowed it to sail against the wind. Ships could now travel far out into the ocean. The compass allowed sea captains to more accurately stay on course.

The first nation to develop and use these new technologies was Portugal. That nation's Prince Henry was deeply committed to the idea of exploring beyond the seas. In 1419, he started a school of navigation where sea captains, mapmakers, and navigators could meet, learn, and exchange ideas. Over the next few decades, Portuguese captains sailed farther and farther down the west coast of Africa. In 1488, Bartolomeu Dias led the first voyage to reach the southern tip of Africa. Ten years later, Vasco da Gama sailed around Africa, to India, and back. The Portuguese found a sea route to Asia. The Spanish had plans of their own and sponsored Italian sailor Christopher Columbus, who convinced the king and queen that he could reach Asia by sailing west. In 1492, instead of landing in Asia, Columbus touched land in the islands of the Americas, land unknown to Europeans. At first people still thought that he had landed in Asia.

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Spain and Portugal argued over which nation had the rights to the land that Columbus had claimed.

Portugal moved quickly to make travel on the Indian Ocean profitable. In 1509, it defeated a Muslim fleet off the coast of India and thus became the master of Indian trade. Soon, it captured cities in India and the Malay Peninsula. Portugal acquired power over islands that were so rich in desirable spices that they were called the Spice Islands. Spices cost Europeans one-fifth of what they cost before the Spice Island trade routes were developed, making Portugal very wealthy. Other European nations joined in this trade. The English and Dutch entered the East Indies to challenge Portugal in the 1600s. These two nations quickly broke Portuguese power in the area. Then both nations set up an East India Company to control Asian trade. These companies were more than businesses. They were like governments, with the power to make money, sign treaties, and raise their own armies. West Africans were eager to trade with the Portuguese and this relationship gave them new markets for their exports and access to cheaper imports than those that were acquired in the traditional overland routes. Early trading posts in West Africa offered the opportunity to trade commercial and military products.

While the Europeans controlled the trade between Asia and Europe, they had little impact on most people living in those areas. From 1500 to 1800, the people of Asia were largely untouched by the European traders.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to focus on specific voyages; however it would be appropriate for student's research to illustrate the principle routes of exploration and trade in these regions.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Represent and interpret Earth's physical and human systems by using maps, mental maps, geographic models, and other social studies resources to make inferences and draw conclusions.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the location of places, the conditions at places, and the connection between places.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the benefits and costs of the growth of kingdoms into empires from the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

As rulers consolidate their power, they often expand their territory, creating empires that have an impact on both the mother country and its colonies. To understand the impact of the creation of empires on the development of modern societies, the student will. . .

MWH -2.3 Explain the competition between European kingdoms for space and resources, including the Hundred Years' War between France and England, the rise of the Holy Roman Empire in Central Europe, and the response to Islam on the Iberian Peninsula.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have had no previous instruction related to this indicator, nor will they have further instruction related to the indicator.

It is essential for students to know:

During the fourteenth century, European kingdoms began to compete for territory and resources, leading to a number of significant conflicts. These conflicts had a lasting effect on the political structure in Europe and set the stage for conflict that lasted for centuries.

The Hundred Years' War: The Hundred Years War (1337-1453) was a one hundred sixteen year conflict between the King of France and his subjects over control of territory primarily in France and England and served as a key example of the transformation in politics and warfare. This long conflict set the power of the French monarch against the ambitions of his vassals, who included the kings of England (for lands that belonged to their Norman ancestors) and the heads of Flanders, Brittany, and Burgundy. In typical fashion, the conflict grew out of a marriage alliance. Princess Isabella of France married King Edward II of England to ensure that this powerful vassal remained loyal to the French monarchy.

However, when none of Isabella's three brothers, who served in turn as Kings of France, produced a male heir, Isabella's son, King Edward III claimed the French throne in 1337. Edward decided to fight for his rights after French courts awarded the throne to a distant cousin of French descent.

It is important to note that firearms and other military tools became prominent in later stages of the Hundred Years War. Early cannons were better at disturbing the horses than at hitting rapidly moving targets. As cannons grew larger, they proved quite effective in blasting holes through the heavy walls of medieval castles and towns. The first use of such artillery, against the French in the Battle of Agincourt in 1415, gave the English an important victory.

Joan of Arc played an important role in the ultimate defeat of the English. Many believed she was acting on God's instructions when she dressed in knight's armor and rallied the French

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troops, which defeated the English in 1429 just as they seemed close to conquering France. Shortly after this victory, Joan of Arc had the misfortune of falling into English hands. English churchmen tried her for witchcraft and burned her at the stake in 1431. In the final battles of the Hundred Years War, French forces used large cannons to demolish the walls of once secure castles held by the English and their allies. The truce that ended the struggle in 1453 left the French monarchy in firm control.

The Rise of the Holy Roman Empire: Dynastic ambitions and historical circumstances combined to favor and then block the creation of a powerful empire in the early sixteenth century. In 1519, electors of the Holy Roman Empire chose Charles V to be the new emperor. Like his predecessors for three generations, Charles belonged to the powerful Habsburg family of Austria, but he had recently inherited the Spanish thrones of Castile and Aragon. With the vast resources of all these offices behind him, Charles hoped to centralize his imperial power and lead a Christian coalition to halt the advance of Islam into southeastern Europe, where Muslim rulers already controlled most of the Middle East and North Africa.

Charles V and his Christian allies eventually stopped the advance of the Ottomans in Vienna in 1529, although Ottoman attacks continued on and off until 1697. Charles' efforts to build the Holy Roman Empire as the largest and strongest state in Europe were ultimately a failure. King Francis I of France, who had lost to Charles in the election for Holy Roman Emperor, openly supported the Muslim Turks to weaken his rival. In addition, the princes of the Holy Roman Empire's many member states were able to use Martin Luther's religious Reformation to frustrate Charles's efforts to reduce their autonomy. Swayed partly by Luther's appeals to German nationalism, many German princes opposed Charles's defense of Catholic doctrine in the Imperial Diet (assembly). As a result, Luther was excommunicated and Charles V was forced to allow limited religious toleration in German.

Islam on the Iberian Peninsula: The Islamic faith in the Iberian peninsula (Spain and Portugal) dates back to 711 AD when much of the country was conquered by Tariq ibn-Ziyad, who brought the country under Islamic rule. This control lasted until 1492, when Muslims were forcibly removed from much of Spain during the Reconquista. The Reconquista was an almost eight hundred year period in which the northern Catholic kingdoms of Spain succeeded in defeating and conquering the southern Muslim states.

It is not essential for students to know:

Although specific dates are referenced in the essential knowledge portion of this document, it is not essential that students recall any specific dates. The reference to specific dates is available to help contextualize the time period specified in the indicator. Additionally, it is not essential for students to know specific details relating to battles fought or conflicts that arose during the Hundred Years' War or the rise of the Holy Roman Empire. Instruction should focus on the significance of the competition in Europe that led to the conflicts between nations and set the stage for future conflicts in centuries to come.

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Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the location of places, the conditions at places, and the connection between places.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the benefits and costs of the growth of kingdoms into empires from the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

As rulers consolidate their power, they often expand their territory, creating empires that have an impact on both the mother country and its colonies. To understand the impact of the creation of empires on the development of modern societies, the student will. . .

MWH -2.4 Analyze the influence of the Mughal empire on the development of India, including the influence of Persian culture and the Muslim religion on the Hindu culture.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Understanding - 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have had no instruction related to this indicator prior to this course nor will they receive any future instruction.

It is essential for students to know:

The Mughal (or Mogul) Empire was established by Mongol invaders as an outgrowth of the competition for trade in Central Asia. The changes in the pattern of world trade were affecting the dominance of the Silk Road, and power was shifting to European seafaring empires linking the Atlantic with the Indian Ocean.

India had not been dominated by a single ruler since the time of Vardhana, who ruled from 606 AD until 647AD. Muslim destruction of Hindu cultural monuments, the expansion of Muslim territory, and the practice, until Akbar's time, of enslaving prisoners of war and compelling them to convert to Islam horrified the Hindus. But the politically divided Hindus did not provide a combined resistance. The Mughal state, in contrast, inherited traditions of unified imperial rule from both the Islamic caliphate and the more recent examples of Genghis Khan and Timur. Those Mongol-based traditions did not necessarily mean religious intolerance. Seventy percent of the mansabdars (officials holding land grants) appointed under Akbar were Muslim soldiers born outside India, but fifteen percent were Hindus, mostly warriors from the north called Rajputs. One of them rose to be a powerful revenue minister. Their status as mansabdars confirmed the policy of religious accommodation adopted by Akbar and his successors. Akbar, the most illustrious Mughal ruler, differed from his Ottoman and Safavid counterparts—Suleiman the Magnificent and Shah Abbas the Great—in his striving for social harmony and not just for more territory and revenue. When Akbar took command of the government he married a Hindu Rajput princess.

Other rulers might have used such a marriage as a means of humiliating a subject group, but Akbar signaled his desire for Muslim-Hindu reconciliation. A year later he rescinded the head tax that Muslim rulers traditionally levied on non-Muslims. This measure, more symbolic than real, because the tax had not been regularly collected, helped cement the allegiance of the Rajputs. Akbar longed for an heir. Much to his relief, his Rajput wife gave birth to a son in 1569, ensuring that future rulers would have both Muslim and Hindu ancestry. Akbar ruled that in legal

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disputes between two Hindus, decisions would be made according to village custom or Hindu law as interpreted by local Hindu scholars. Muslims followed Shari'a law. Akbar made himself the legal court of last resort in a 1579 declaration that he was God's infallible earthly representative. Thus, appeals could be made to Akbar personally, a possibility not usually present in Islamic jurisprudence.

He also made himself the center of a new "Divine Faith" incorporating Muslim, Hindu, Zoroastrian, Sikh, and Christian beliefs. Sufi ideas attracted him and permeated the religious rituals he instituted at his court. To promote serious consideration of his religious principles, he monitored debates among scholars of all religions assembled in his court. Akbar's religious views did not survive him, but the court culture he fostered, reflecting a mixture of Muslim and Hindu traditions, flourished until his great-grandson Aurangzeb reinstated many restrictions on Hindus.

Mughal and Rajput miniature portraits of political figures and depictions of scantily clad women upset the religious Muslims, who deplored the representation of human beings in art. Most of the leading painters were Hindus. In literature, in addition to the florid style of Persian verse favored at court, a new taste developed for poetry and prose in the popular language.

It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know additional information about the influences of other countries on the Mughal Empire.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the location of places, the conditions at places, and the connection between places.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the benefits and costs of the growth of kingdoms into empires from the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

As rulers consolidate their power, they often expand their territory, creating empires that have an impact on both the mother country and its colonies. To understand the impact of the creation of empires on the development of modern societies, the student will. . .

MWH -2.5 Evaluate the impact of the expansion of the Ottoman Empire into Eastern Europe.

Taxonomy Level: Evaluate/Conceptual Knowledge – 5/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have had no instruction related to this indicator prior to his course nor will they receive any additional instruction.

It is essential for students to know:

The Ottoman Empire was one of the greatest and most powerful civilizations of the modern period. The empire was the largest and most influential of the Muslim empires, and its culture and military expansion crossed over into Europe. As the empire crossed into European territory, Islamic traditions and culture were also transmitted and many of those traditions still exist today. In fact, many of the Muslims currently residing in Eastern Europe (Bosnia, Bulgaria, Serbia, Albania, Romania, and Macedonia) are descendants of the Ottomans.

The Rise of the Ottoman Empire

During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the Ottoman Turks brought much of the Islamic world under the control of their leadership. Initially, Ottomans were subjects of the Seljuk Turks who had given the Ottomans territory in Asia Minor at the border of the Byzantine Empire. Over time, the Ottomans gained control of additional territory. Mehmed II (1451-1481) is considered the founder of the Ottoman Empire. He was responsible for capturing Constantinople in 1453, thus destroying the Byzantine Empire. He rebuilt the city and called it Istanbul, which became the capital of the empire. He encouraged settlement to stimulate trade and culture. Mehmed II's armies took control of territory around the western portion of the Black Sea and the Balkans (Southeast Europe). He unsuccessfully attempted to control Venice; however, he forced the city-state to pay him an annual tax. By 1500, the Ottomans increased their empire to include Syria, Israel, Egypt, and Algeria. The Ottoman Empire also provided protection for many religious groups, including Jews and Muslims from the Inquisition.

The Ottoman Empire reached its peak under the rule of Suleiman I (the Magnificent) who ruled from 1520-1566. Suleiman's military took control of Hungary, Rhodes, and Tripoli. The reign of Suleiman, was the high point of Ottoman culture and history. While Ottoman culture flourished during the reign of his son, the power of the state gradually began to decline over the next three hundred fifty years. Islamic historians believe that the decline was due to two factors: the

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decreased vigilance of the Sultan over the functions of government and their consequent corruption, and the decreased interest of the government in popular opinion.

The Ottoman Empire lasted until the twentieth century, when secularization of Turkey and World War I, and ultimately, World War II led to its decline. While historians like to talk about empires in terms of growth and decline, the Ottomans were a force to be reckoned with, militarily and culturally, up until the break-up of the empire in the first decades of the 1900's.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the specific policies enacted by the various leaders of the Ottoman Empire, but that the policies contributed to the growth and success of the Empire.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the location of places, the conditions at places, and the connection between places.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Evaluate

Check

Critique

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the benefits and costs of the growth of kingdoms into empires from the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

As rulers consolidate their power, they often expand their territory, creating empires that have an impact on both the mother country and its colonies. To understand the impact of the creation of empires on the development of modern societies, the student will. . .

MWH -2.6 Describe the impact of the competition among European countries on the various kingdoms of the Americas and Africa, including the Columbian Exchange and the slave trade.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have previously studied European exploration and colonization in the Americas and Africa in several courses. In fourth grade, students summarized the cause and effect relationships of the Columbian Exchange (4-2.1). In sixth grade, students explained the effects of the exchange of plants, animals, diseases and technology throughout Europe, Asia, Africa and the America (6-6.6). Slave trade is not specifically mentioned in any prior standards; however, students learned about the significance of slavery in the United States in grades three, four and eight.

It is essential for students to know:

Competition among European countries grew significantly as a result of the development of trade routes between Europe, Africa, and the New World (North and South America).

The Columbian Exchange

The Columbian Exchange refers to the transfer of peoples, animals, plants, and diseases between the New and Old Worlds. The European invasion and settlement of the Western Hemisphere opened a long era of biological and technological transfers that altered American environments. Within a century of first settlement, the domesticated livestock and major agricultural crops of the Old World (the known world before Columbus's voyage) had spread over much of the Americas, and the New World's useful staple crops had enriched the agricultures of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Old World diseases that entered the Americas with European immigrants and African slaves devastated indigenous populations. These dramatic population changes weakened native peoples' capacity for resistance and facilitated the transfer of plants, animals, and related technologies as Europeans transported resources and products across the Atlantic (both ways). As a result, the colonies of Spain, Portugal, England, and France became vast arenas of cultural and social experimentation. These cultural and social relationships included a variety of political and social structures, including the use of viceroys (Spanish) and complex relationships between European settlers and native populations.

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The Establishment of Colonial Empires

One significant outcome of European exploration and colonization was the establishment of colonial empires. Examples of these empires include Portugal, France, and England's establishment of trading posts in India; Spain's annexation of the Philippines; and Holland's acquisition of trading posts in the East Indies. In the New World, Portugal settled Brazil and Spain established colonies in the West Indies, Mexico, Central America, South America (excluding Brazil), and the southern part of what is now the United States. Holland, France, and England established colonies in northern regions of North America. It is important to note that the establishment of these colonies led to war as colonial rivalries grew. Ultimately, Great Britain gained dominance at the conclusion of the Seven Years' War (1756-1763). The Seven Years' War was one in a series of wars fought primarily between Great Britain and France over colonial dominance. In North America, the struggle was called the French and Indian War (1754-1763) and at its conclusion, Great Britain acquired French Canada and all French territory east of the Mississippi (excluding New Orleans).

Slave Trade

Europeans initially ventured to the African continent as a result of gold and ivory trade. However, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, slave trade became the motivation for European involvement in the region. Between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries, a massive number of Africans (mainly West Africans) were sold to Europeans as slaves. Portugal was the first nation to purchase slaves in large numbers for use in sugar plantations in Brazil. By the mid-1600's, the Dutch, British, and French developed profitable slave-trading routes. By the 1800's, over ten million Africans were forcibly traded during the slave trade.

The Middle Passage was the term given to the transportation of slaves across the Atlantic Ocean. It is estimated that twenty percent of slaves died during the Middle Passage due to hunger, illness, disease, or suicide. Slaves were also forced overboard if supplies were low on the ship. It is important to note that only a small percentage of slaves transported to the new world actually reached North America. Most spent time in the West Indies and Brazil to support the production of sugar. Slave trade disrupted family life in Africa as males were often considered more valuable than females for labor on plantations. In some regions of Africa, populations declined by half.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the names of specific leaders who were responsible for the increased competition in Europe nor is it essential that students map specific places where goods were distributed during the commercial revolution.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze, interpret, and synthesize social studies resources to make inferences and draw conclusions.
- Explain how an interdependent, specialized and voluntary worldwide trade network affects a nation's standard of living and economic growth.

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the impact of religious movements throughout the world in the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

Religion shaped, and continues to shape, the values and priorities of people, thus influencing political, economic, social, and aesthetic elements of culture. To understand the continuing role that religion plays in modern political, economic, and social issues, the student will. . .

MWH-3.1 Describe the proliferation of religious ideas, including the expansion of Islam, the competition between Protestants and Catholics throughout Europe, and the spread of Buddhism through East and Southeast Asia.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have had limited exposure to this content, specifically related to the Protestant Reformation (6-6.2) and the spread of Islam (6-3.4). Students will have no further instruction following this course.

It is essential for students to know:

During the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries, the expansion of religion and religious ideas spread across Europe and Asia.

The Growth of Islam

Islam developed from a combination of ideas from the Greeks, Romans, Persians, Indians, and Byzantines to create its own specialized civilization. Early in Islamic history, the empire consisted of several smaller regions (Arabia/Iraq, Egypt/Syria, Persia/Central Asia, Spain/North Africa, and Turkey) that were ruled by a variety of leaders. Many of these rulers did not survive long. They were assassinated or lost power due to civil wars. However, at the beginning of the fifteenth century, the Islamic Empire came under the control of the Ottomans. The Ottomans were Muslims from Turkey and they successfully conquered much of the Islamic world. Mehmed II, the Ottoman ruler, wanted to conquer Constantinople, which was the capital of the Byzantine Empire. No Muslim ruler had ever captured the city. In 1453, he succeeded in his goal. As a result of this territorial expansion, Islam's influence expanded in Eastern Europe, North Africa, and South Asia during much of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Islamic soldiers and traders disseminated their religion, as well as goods throughout Western Europe. The influence of the Ottomans lasted for approximately four hundred years, but declined during the early twentieth century as a result of World War I.

The Protestant Reformation

The Protestant Reformation, which began in 1517, was a religious revolution against the authority and doctrine of the Catholic Church. Martin Luther, a German theologian, started the movement as a result of his condemnation of many practices of the Catholic Church at that time, especially the sale of indulgences.

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The causes of the Reformation are various, including the resentment by political leaders of domination that the Catholic Church had in civil matters and the economic control that the Church wielded through taxation. Additionally, Luther and other reformers were critical of what they believed were abuses by the Church, including the increased materialism/consumerism of the clergy, simony (sale of Church appointments) and selling indulgences (accepting money for Church pardons). The success of Lutheranism in northern Germany inspired other Protestant reformers. The work of Ulrich Zwingli (Switzerland-no official change of religion, just an insistence that the Bible, not the pope was the supreme religious authority), John Calvin (Switzerland-Calvinism), and John Knox (Scotland-Presbyterianism) led to reform movements in their respective countries. Anglicanism (Church of England) came to England under the rule of King Henry VIII, who initially supported the Catholic Church and denounced Martin Luther; however, he broke with the Church because the pope refused to grant his divorce from his Spanish wife, Catherine of Aragon (daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain). Henry's break with the Church also led to a tremendous amount of wealth as the throne acquired all of the land wealth of the Church. Anglicanism, a Protestant sect, became the official religion of England and remains so to this day.

The Babylonian Captivity (1309-1377) and the Great Schism (1378-1417) also led to the decline of respect for the church. The Babylonian Captivity was a period of time in which the popes lived in Avignon, France, under the control of French kings. The Great Schism, which was a reaction to the Babylonian Captivity, occurred when rival popes, one at Avignon and one in Rome, each claimed to be the true pope. This led to a struggle for Church supremacy, which lasted until the Council of Constance appointed a new pope in 1415. The development of the printing press and written works produced in the vernacular of the various languages in Europe, allowed the hasty spread of Reformation ideals across Europe.

In an attempt to address the Protestant Reformation, the Catholic Church took a number of actions known as the Catholic Reformation or Counter-Reformation (name given by Protestants). The Council of Trent (1545-1563) reaffirmed the basic doctrines of the Catholic Church, prohibiting Church abuses (simony and indulgence sales). It also required that clergy reject materialism and subscribe to a simple life. The Council created *The Index of Forbidden Books*, which listed books that Catholics were forbidden to read, including Protestant bibles.

The results of the Protestant Reformation included the end of religious unity in Western Europe, an increasing number of religious wars, (including civil wars in Germany and France, the Thirty Years' War, the Dutch War against Spain, and the Spanish War against England) and a profound increase in the strength of civil rule in Western Europe.

The Spread of Buddhism

The decline of Buddhism in India during the eleventh century, as a result of Islamic invasions, had a profound effect on the expansion of Buddhist thought in other regions of the world, especially South-East Asia during the fourteenth through the eighteenth centuries. This area was greatly influenced by both Chinese and Indian civilizations, particularly by the influence of the Buddhist faith. Burma (Myanmar), Siam (Thailand), Malaysia, Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam, and

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Indonesia were all Buddhist strongholds during this period; however, several of these countries were later invaded by Muslims (Ottoman Empire), which led to a weakening of Buddhism.

It is not essential for students to know:

The spread of Islam involves a vast amount of territory. It is not essential for instructors to have students map the spread of Islam during the specified time period, instead the focus of instruction should center on the circumstances that made the spread of Islam possible. It is not essential for students to have an in depth knowledge of the early attempts to reform the Catholic Church through the work of John Wycliffe, John Huss, or Desiderius Erasmus; however, a brief discussion of any or all of these individuals may give students a broader understanding of the issues that led to the Protestant Reformation.

It is not essential to know the different schools of Buddhist thought (Theravada, Mahayana, Vajrayana). It is not essential for students to know the individual countries influenced by Buddhist thoughts.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

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WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the impact of religious movements throughout the world in the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

Religion shaped, and continues to shape, the values and priorities of people, thus influencing political, economic, social, and aesthetic elements of culture. To understand the continuing role that religion plays in modern political, economic, and social issues, the student will. . .

MWH-3.2 Evaluate the impact of religious dissent on the development of European kingdoms during the sixteenth century, including the warfare between peasants and feudal lords in German principalities, the conflict between the nobility of the Holy Roman Empire and the Hapsburg emperors, the creation of the Church of England, and the dynastic and religious competition in France.

Taxonomy Level: Evaluate/Conceptual Knowledge - 5/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade six, students studied the causes, significant events, and results of the Protestant Reformation and the Catholic Reformation (6-6.3 and 6-6.4). Students will have no further instruction related to this indicator following this course.

It is essential for students to know:

European kingdoms experienced tremendous change during the 1500's as a result of religious and political competition.

German Peasants' Revolt

Peasant revolts took place in many parts of Europe during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries as a result of the economic conditions of the period. The economic conditions were generally worse for all members of the peasantry in Europe compared to the economic conditions for members of the nobility. In order to understand the causes of the revolt, it is important to consider the social classes in Germany at that time. The members of the nobility (German princes, lesser nobles), members of the Church, and the middle class (upper-patricians, lower burghers) paid little or no taxes, but levied taxes on the peasant class. Following crop failures in 1523 and 1524, German peasants from the Bavarian (Swabia) region demanded an end to death taxes, new rents, and noble seizure of village common lands in 1525.

Martin Luther initially backed the peasants and the movement was seen as parallel to the Protestant Reformation's aim to bring social, economic, and political rights to all citizens of Germany, free from the control of the Catholic Church. When the peasants turned to violence, Luther encouraged the nobility to suppress the rebellion. Over 100,000 peasants lost their lives during the rebellion and many more were executed for their disloyalty at the conclusion of the revolt. The German Peasants' War of 1525 strengthened the authority of nobility.

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Holy Roman Empire

In 1477, the marriage of Maximilian I of the House of Habsburg and Mary of Burgundy united the Austrian Empire with Burgundy and the Netherlands, making the Habsburgs the strongest ruling family in the Holy Roman (German) Empire. The Habsburg Charles V (1500–1558) inherited Spain, and Spanish possessions in Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia, in addition to the lands mentioned above. In 1519, Charles was elected Holy Roman Emperor. He believed that it was his duty to maintain the unity of Christendom.

Spiritual and material concerns swayed many German princes to convert to Protestantism. The Reformation led to religious wars, first in Switzerland and then elsewhere. In 1530, Charles V called an Imperial Diet at Augsburg to try to halt the spread of religious division. When Charles rejected Protestant demands, Protestant princes formed a military alliance. Numerous outside powers became involved in Germany's political and religious upheaval. In the Peace of Augsburg (1555) Charles accepted the religious status quo in Germany.

Creation of the Church of England

Henry VIII replaced the Roman Catholic Church in England with the Church of England (Anglican Church) when Pope Clement VII refused to grant him a divorce from his first wife, Catherine of Aragon (Catherine was the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain). This move gave Henry greater political control and money. He took over Church land holdings, which added to his wealth and allowed him to reward loyal members of the nobility. Henry's successor, his son Edward VI, continued his father's devotion to the Church of England; however, his sister and successor, Mary I (daughter of Catherine of Aragon, Henry's first wife) reestablished the dominance of the Catholic Church during her short reign. Upon her death, Henry's second daughter, Elizabeth I, reverted to Protestantism and strengthened the Anglican Church. She took decisive actions against Catholic plots that were staged against her and defended England against the Spanish to preserve Protestantism.

French Religious Wars (1562-1598)

By 1518, Martin Luther's religious ideas had spread into much of France; however, John Calvin's work grew in popularity in France over the next two decades. Many French citizens converted to Calvinism and were called Huguenots. Monarchical weakness combined with religious division to create civil war. Popular Calvinism was manifested in iconoclasm, which led to further unrest between Catholics and Protestants. Iconoclasm is the destruction of religious relics. Tensions increased between Protestants and Catholics over the following decades.

Thousands of Protestants were killed in the Saint Bartholomew's Day Massacre (August 24, 1572), an event that sparked a fifteen year civil war. By the 1580's, a growing faction called politiques emerged in France. Politiques were religious moderates who believed that only the restoration of a strong monarchy could save France from collapse. The beginning of the reign of Henry IV in 1589, himself a politique, brought new stability to France. For the sake of peace, Henry converted to Catholicism and issued the Edict of Nantes (1589). An edict is an official decree or order, typically issued by a political or religious leader. The Edict of Nantes was seen as a peace offering to Protestants in Catholic France. The decree granted a degree of toleration to the Huguenots (French Protestants) and led to relative peace between the Catholics and Protestants in France. It is important to note that although the Edict of Nantes brought the

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religious wars to an end, Huguenots still faced political disenfranchisement. During the seventeenth century, several additional wars were fought between Catholics and Protestants.

It is not essential for students to know:

There are a number of significant individuals related to religious and political discontent during this period. It is not essential that students know all of the individuals involved in the period; however, significant individuals may be emphasized during instruction. It is not important that students know specific battles, such as the eight wars fought during the French religious war period; however, battles may be used to illustrate the course of the conflict.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Evaluate

Check

Critique

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the impact of religious movements throughout the world in the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

Religion shaped, and continues to shape, the values and priorities of people, thus influencing political, economic, social, and aesthetic elements of culture. To understand the continuing role that religion plays in modern political, economic, and social issues, the student will. . .

MWH-3.3 Explain the role of Islam on the cultures of the Middle East, North Africa, and Asia, including its methods of expansion, its impact on religious diversity, and reactions to its expansion.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have studied the basic tenets of Islam in grade six (6-3.4). No further instruction will be provided following the content of this course.

It is essential for students to know:

The Muslim culture originated on the Arabian Peninsula, which is located between Africa and Asia. The Arabic people lived in social units called tribes, which were based on kinship along paternal lines. Tribal members were traditionally loyal to each other and to their elected leaders, called sheiks. Until the seventh century, Arabs worshiped many gods, with a priest or holy man who controlled the local shrine dedicated to one of the gods. This changed when the prophet Muhammad began his work in city of Mecca in Arabia. He was a religious reformer who condemned the worship of idols and multiple gods. He was forced to flee to Medina, where the people were more accepting of Islam, as a result of his attempt to bring reform to Mecca. His flight in 622 AD came to be known as the Hegira, and it marks the first year of the Islamic calendar. Muhammad's teachings became the basis of the Quran, the sacred scriptures of Islam

In the years following Muhammad's work, Arab tribes rapidly adopted the Islamic faith. During the seventh through the ninth centuries, the Muslim Empire grew to be the largest and most populous empire of the time. It extended from India to Spain, unified by the Islamic faith and military strength. In order to effectively rule their newly acquired territories, Muslims developed a central government. The government included a caliph (leader) and officials who constituted the caliphate. After a period of decline, the Muslim empire was divided into smaller independent kingdoms under the control of various leaders. However, by the fifteenth century, the leadership of Mehmed II united most of the Muslim Empire under the control of the Ottoman Turks. Mehmed conquered Constantinople, which led to the end of the Byzantine Empire.

As Islam spread, a group of North African people, known as Berbers converted to Islam. The Berbers crossed the Mediterranean Sea into the Iberian Peninsula (Spain and Portugal), during the eighth century, where they were known as Moors. The Moors attempted to invade France, but they were defeated. The Moors continued to control regions of Spain for over three hundred

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years. By 1248, Christian kingdoms pushed the Muslims out of Europe, with the exception of Granada.

Early Muslim invasion in Asia centered on India (between the eighth and tenth centuries) as Arabs conquered territories in the Indus River region in northwest India. These invasions led to the death and enslavement of Hindus, destruction of Hindu temples and works of art, and devastated the economies of rich cities in the region. By the late fourteenth century, Muslim invaders had conquered India's northern region and established a new capital located in Delhi. Muslims attempted to convert their new subjects to Islam through persecution and economic incentives. However, Hinduism survived under Muslim rule for the majority in India. During the sixteenth century, the Mogul Empire became the last Muslim empire in India. Akbar "the Great" (1556-1605) stimulated the Mogul Empire, extending its boundaries, providing a strong government, supporting religious tolerance for Hindus. The Muslim occupation of India led to increased religious diversity; many Hindus converted to Islam, but were distinctly separate from India's majority Hindu population. Although Muslims and Hindus tolerated each other, they generally regarded each other with hostility.

It is not essential for students to know:

There are many Muslim rulers that can be discussed for this indicator, including Tamerlane and Babar. It is not essential for students to know all of the Muslim rulers.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the location of places, the conditions at places, and the connection between places.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the impact of religious movements throughout the world in the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

Religion shaped, and continues to shape, the values and priorities of people, thus influencing political, economic, social, and aesthetic elements of culture. To understand the continuing role that religion plays in modern political, economic, and social issues, the student will. . .

MWH-3.4 Explain the role of Buddhism and its impact on the cultures throughout East and Southeast Asia, including Buddhism's basic tenets, the impact of the local rulers on religious conversion, and the religion's enduring traditions.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge - 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have studied the foundations of Buddhism in sixth grade (6-1.4). They will have no further instruction related to this topic following this course.

It is essential for students to know:

Buddhism is a religion founded by Siddhartha Gautama. Siddhartha, who was a wealthy prince, decided to give up his worldly possessions in order to understand why he was not happy with his life. He told others that he became enlightened and he taught others what he learned. His students called him "the Buddha," which means "the enlightened one." The basic tenets of Buddhism require that followers seek balance in their lives and to find happiness through the "middle way." Buddhists look within themselves to find peace and believe they can find nirvana.

Buddhism follows Four Noble Truths:

1. There is pain and suffering in life.
2. This suffering is caused by people's desires and cravings for unnecessary things.
3. People can end the suffering by stopping doing what causes the suffering.
4. People can stop craving unnecessary things by following the eight-fold path.

Additionally, the Buddha suggested a set of moral behaviors that help people end their desires for excess. This code was called the Eight-Fold Path and included the following beliefs:

1. Right View. The right way to think about life is to see the world through the eyes of the Buddha--with wisdom and compassion.
2. Right Thought. We are what we think. Clear and kind thoughts build good, strong character.
3. Right Speech. By speaking kind and helpful words, we are respected and trusted by everyone.
4. Right Conduct. No matter what we say, others know us from the way we behave. Before we criticize others, we should first see what we do ourselves.

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5. Right Livelihood. This means choosing a job that does not hurt others. The Buddha said, "Do not earn your living by harming others. Do not seek happiness by making others unhappy."
6. Right Effort. A worthwhile life means doing our best at all times and having good will toward others. This also means not wasting effort on things that harm self and others.
7. Right Mindfulness. This means being aware of our thoughts, words, and deeds.
8. Right Concentration. Focus on one thought or object at a time. By doing this, we can be quiet and attain true peace of mind.

Very soon after Buddhism came to China, in the 500s AD, Chinese people developed their own kind of Buddhism, which we call Zen Buddhism. Zen comes from the Sanskrit (Indian) word *dhyana*, which means "meditation." The Chinese philosophy of Taoism might also be an influence on Zen. This is important to note because Taoism was a significant religion in China. Zen philosophy emphasizes meditation and experience instead of words and explanations. Zen Buddhists built big monasteries in China, where both men and women lived as monks and nuns. Many of the powerful women at the T'ang dynasty supported the Buddhist monasteries and helped them get tax exemptions and gave the monasteries money and land. However, by the end of the T'ang Dynasty, the emperor began to persecute Buddhist monks and nuns. Many were killed and many monasteries, temples, literature, and works of art were destroyed. This led to a decline in Buddhism as fear of persecution grew. It was not until the Sung Dynasty began that Chinese Buddhism regained its prominence.

In China, Buddhism became stronger and stronger, even while it was losing ground in India to Hinduism. Soon, most of the Buddhists were in China and not India. This was a direct result of leadership that supported religious tolerance, which was not as evident in areas of India with a growing population of Muslims.

It is not essential for students to know:

With the exception of the Buddha, it is not important for students to know any of the leaders responsible for the promotion of Buddhism in India or China. It is important to know individuals who sought to persecute Buddhist in this region.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Understand

Interpret

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the impact of religious movements throughout the world in the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

Religion shaped, and continues to shape, the values and priorities of people, thus influencing political, economic, social, and aesthetic elements of culture. To understand the continuing role that religion plays in modern political, economic, and social issues, the student will. . .

MWH-3.5 Compare the spread of religion and the development of trade routes and diplomatic connections, including Christian missionary work, Buddhist and Islamic pilgrimages, and the competition between Muslims and Christians for territory.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade six, students studied the foundations of Christianity, Buddhism, and Islam (6-1.4, 6-3.4, 6-5.4). Students will have no further instruction regarding this content following this course.

It is essential for students to know:

As global exploration increased, so did the spread of religion and the development of trade routes. As a result, the need for interaction between nation-states also grew.

Christian Missionary Work

Christian missionary work grew as Europeans expanded into other areas of the globe. The Dutch and English were not as concerned as other European nations with converting individuals of other faiths to Christianity; however, the Portuguese and Spanish made attempts to do so in Asia, Africa, and the Americas.

Christian missionaries found difficulty converting in regions where Islam and Hinduism were dominant; however, there was limited success in areas, such as the northern Philippines. Once conquered, the government turned indigenous peoples over to missionary orders. Converted Filipino leaders led their peoples into European ways, but some traditional beliefs were maintained in the culture. The Jesuit sect of the Catholic Church succeeded in creating many religious schools designed to increase the influence of Christianity.

Buddhist Pilgrimages

Historians believe that Gautama Buddha identified four sites for his followers to visit in order to increase their spiritual awareness. The four places include (1) Lumbini—his place of birth; (2) Bodh Gaya—the place of his Enlightenment; (3) Sarnath—the place where he delivered his first teaching; and, (4) Kusinara—the place where he died. Four additional sites were identified as Buddhism spread. These sites, Sravasti, Rajgir, Sankissa, and Vaishali are sites where the Buddha performed miracles. As Buddhism spread, additional sites for pilgrimages also developed in various places across the globe, including Japan, Nepal, and the United States.

Islamic Pilgrimages

The Islamic pilgrimage to Mecca—the Hajj—is one of the Five Pillars of Islam. It is expected that all able-bodied Muslims attempt the pilgrimage at least one in his/her lifetime. It is considered the most important Muslim Pilgrimage and historically it has been the largest pilgrimage in the world. Additionally, many Muslims undertake pilgrimages to other sites associated with the prophet Muhammad, including mosques, battlefields, mountains, and caves.

Competition between Muslims and Christians

As exploration and trade grew, competition for territory and goods also grew between Muslims and Christians. In Muslim lands, European colonialists created trading posts, replaced Islamic educational systems with secular or Christianity-focused ones, and enslaved the natives of Africa, South Asia and the Middle East. They acculturated the natives to the customs of Europe.

It is not essential for students to know:

There are many individuals who participated in the development of trade routes and missionary work. It is not essential that students know any of these individuals; however, it may help contextualize the content.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-3: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the impact of religious movements throughout the world in the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

Religion shaped, and continues to shape, the values and priorities of people, thus influencing political, economic, social, and aesthetic elements of culture. To understand the continuing role that religion plays in modern political, economic, and social issues, the student will. . .

MWH-3.6 Analyze various indigenous religions practiced in Africa and the Americas and their impact on the culture of the region, including animism and polytheism.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge - 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Prior to this course, students have had no instruction related to the content of the indicator nor will they receive any in the future.

It is essential for students to know:

Animism was once the only religion practiced by indigenous populations in Africa and the Americas until the introduction of Islam from Arab merchants (Africa) and Christianity by European missionaries and colonists (both Africa and the Americas). Animism refers to the belief that individual spirits inhabit natural objects such as land, trees, or mountains.

Animism across the world shares some common features. Animists believe that there is one god or Supreme Being who created the universe. The Supreme Being can be contacted through spirits of nature, lesser gods, and community ancestors. They have no official place of worship, but often worship at shrines. These shrines are often located in places like rivers, mountains, and rock formations. The practices of animist are seldom written, but are often transmitted from generation to generation through oral stories and rituals. Many of these rituals include physical demonstrations, such as dance. Animists believe in the potential for good and evil in all things, both in the living and the spiritual world.

Most cultures that practice Animism include priests, diviners, healers, rain makers, and other significant positions. The priest is responsible for making sure that rituals are carried out properly and the spirit world is respected. Diviners often use special objects and rituals to communicate with the spirit world. They are often responsible for “divining” the future. Healers are trained to use natural remedies, such as medicinal herbs, potions and amulets to heal the ill. These healers typically use objects from the natural environment to complete their task. Rain makers are responsible asking the spirit world to supply the correct amount of rain to ensure a successful harvest. This is important as most cultures that traditionally and currently practice Animism are agriculturally based.

Although Animism was practiced by indigenous populations in the Americas and Africa, much of the practice in the Americas has declined; however, in many parts of Africa, the traditional

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practices still thrive. Approximately fifty percent of the people living in Sub Saharan Africa call themselves Christians with Islam coming in a close second at forty-three percent. Most Africans have not abandoned their ancestral religion but have incorporated elements of the old ways into the new. For thousands of years, Africans have had a deep connection with the land. Almost all Africans lived in small tribal groups that depended on the land to sustain them through hunting, fishing, gathering, and farming small plots of land owned by the community. Africans would try to influence the Supreme Being to provide good weather and health for the people by communicating through a variety of lesser gods, nature spirits, and family ancestors who are believed to walk amongst the living to provide help, or sometimes harm. This belief and communication with lesser gods and spirits is commonly referred to as animism and can be found in many forms on every continent including the Native Americans, the aborigine in Australia, Taoism and Shinto in Asia, and in the Greek and Roman religions.

Polytheism, or the belief in multiple gods (deities), also influenced religions in Africa and the Americas and can be related to the influence of animism in many of these cultures. Although polytheism is typically associated with forms of religion from early history (Bronze Age) through the development of monotheism (one god/deity), it persists today in many cultures, including Hinduism, Buddhism, and Neopaganism.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know all of the indigenous religions of African and the Americas.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

[Type text]

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the conflicts of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia.

Enduring Understanding:

Competition for imperial conquest met with varying degrees of success and resistance in the 1600s and 1700s. To understand the significant role that imperialism played in the development of many modern nation-states during this time period, the student will. . .

MWH-4.1 Explain the changing boundaries in Europe and Asia as a result of the competition between nation-states during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade seven, students have studied the political and economic influences that led to settlement by European nations in Asia, Africa, and the Americas (7-1.5). Additionally, students should be able to explain the ways that industrialization contributed to imperialism in Asia and Africa (7-3.6).

It is essential for students to know:

By the early 1600's European nation-states were engaged in fierce competition as their colonial holdings and wealth grew. As a result these nations entered into many battles over territory, religion and economics.

Louis XIV (1638-1715), who ruled France was considered the most powerful monarch of his time. One of Louis XIV's goals was to expand his country's borders by seizing territory from the surrounding nation-states. Early in his campaign, Louis XIV won many decisive battles, which emboldened him and led him to attempt to acquire more territory. As a result, by 1680, several nations joined together to stop France. Several battles were fought, which caused tremendous financial, social and political costs to France. In fact, the high cost of these wars combined with poor harvests produced serious problems for French citizens. The final war fought in Louis' time lasted from 1700 to 1713. It was called the War of the Spanish Succession. France and Spain attempted to set up united thrones in order to successfully dominate Western Europe. Other European nation-states felt threatened and joined in war against them, with England serving as the leader. Both France and Spain were forced to give up some of their American and European colonies to England, the new rising power.

After a period of turmoil, absolute monarchs ruled Austria and the German state of Prussia. Germany had suffered from religious wars that ended in 1555. Rulers of each state agreed that they would decide whether their lands would be Catholic or Protestant. However, over the following decades, tensions rose and ultimately a new series of battles, the Thirty Years' War began in 1618. In the first half of the war, Catholic forces led by Ferdinand, the Holy Roman Emperor, won. However, Germany suffered, because he allowed his armies to take advantage of the poor peasants, which adversely affected the largest group of German citizens. Ferdinand was

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dealt another blow, when the king of Sweden, who was a Protestant, won several battles against him. In the last years of the war, France helped the Protestants. Although France was a Catholic nation, the French leadership feared growing Hapsburg family power. The Thirty Years' War ended in 1648 with the Peace of Westphalia.

The war was a disaster for Germany. About four million people died, and the economy was in ruins. The peace weakened the power of Austria and Spain and made France stronger. Because of this war, each nation of Europe was seen as having an equal right to negotiate with all the others. While strong states arose in Western Europe, none emerged in Eastern Europe. The economies there were less developed than in the west. Most people were still peasants. This region had not built an economy based in towns. Nobles enjoyed great power, which kept the power of rulers in check. Still, two important powers arose. The Hapsburg family ruled Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia in an empire that linked many different peoples. Maria Theresa, Queen of Austria, managed to increase her power and cut that of the nobles. She was opposed by the kings of Prussia, a new state in northern Germany. Those kings built a strong state with much power given to the large, well-trained army. In 1740, Frederick the Great of Prussia invaded one of Maria Theresa's lands. The queen fought hard to keep the territory, but lost. Still, in fighting this War of the Austrian Succession, she managed to keep the rest of her empire intact. The two sides fought again beginning in 1756.

During the Seven Years' War, Austria abandoned Great Britain for France and Russia. Prussia joined with Britain. The Prussians and British won. In that victory, Britain gained complete control over the overseas colonies of France, included those in Asia.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the names of the European leaders (political or military) who were responsible for the multiple battles that took place due to competition between the nations states. Additionally, it is not important for students to be able to identify territories that changed hands during the conflicts.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify

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- Summarize
- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the conflicts of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia.

Enduring Understanding:

Competition for imperial conquest met with varying degrees of success and resistance in the 1600s and 1700s. To understand the significant role that imperialism played in the development of many modern nation-states during this time period, the student will. . .

MWH-4.2 Explain the changes in European overseas empires during this period, including the waning of the Spanish and Portuguese empires and the struggle between empires and colonists.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade six and seven, students should have studied the colonization of the Americas, Africa and Asia by Europeans including the Colombian Exchange (6-6.6), the colonial claims and expansion of European powers (7-1.1), technological and scientific advances that lead to exploration and colonization (7-1.2), the economic concepts related to exploration and colonization (7-1.3 and 7-1.4) and the trade and settlement patterns (7-1.5). Additionally, students should have experience with the concepts related to imperialism in Asia and Africa (7-3.6).

It is essential for students to know:

Students should know that European expansion during the 1600's and 1700's was driven by economic and technological forces. The economic forces included the development of concepts of mercantilism and capitalism which led to the development of the market economy. The economic growth led to the expansion of European overseas colonies. Technology played a profound role in the expansion of European overseas empires. Advances in cartography (mapmaking), navigation and shipbuilding made travel more efficient.

Christopher Columbus, an Italian sailor, led a voyage on behalf of Spain, with the permission and funding of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, in 1492. His intent was to sail west from Europe to reach Asia, but instead arrived in the Americas. This was territory that Europeans did not know existed. Initially, Columbus still believed he had reached Asia (the Indies). For this reason, he called the indigenous population Indians and claimed the land for Spain. This served as the beginning of a number of European voyages and the colonization of the "New World" (the Americas).

In 1501, Amerigo Vespucci (Spain) explored the eastern coast of South America. Vespucci identified the territory as the new world, not Asia. As a result, mapmakers began to show the lands as a separate continent. Ferdinand Magellan led an expedition from Spain that circumnavigated (sailed completely around) the world; however, Magellan died about halfway through the voyage. In 1519, Hernando Cortes' voyage led him to Mexico where he and his crew defeated the Aztec Empire. The Spanish success in conquering the Aztecs was the result of a number of significant issues, including their (Spanish) advanced weaponry, guns and cannons, and diseases brought to the Americas by the Spanish that severely weakened native populations.

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Natives had no resistance to measles, mumps, and smallpox which killed thousands. Fifteen years later, Francisco Pizarro conquered the Incan Empire for Spain. By the mid-1500's, Spain had created an American empire that stretched from Mexico to Peru. By 1550, the Spanish were also exploring north of Mexico in areas of the future United States. As a result of the exploration of this region, the Spanish acquired vast amounts of gold and silver, which made it one of the richest nations in Europe. Spain had also developed a very strong navy in order to protect its voyages on the high seas. The Spanish developed a pattern of living among the people they conquered, in many cases marrying native women. Very few Spanish settlers were women. The children and descendants were called *mestizo*, which describes individuals with mixed Spanish and Native American blood. The Spanish also used natives as slave labor; however, within a century, they began to use enslaved Africans to meet labor demands.

Although Spain had acquired a great deal of territory in the New World, one large area was under the control of another European nation. In 1500, a Portuguese explorer claimed Brazil on behalf of his country. As this territory developed, Portuguese colonists developed large plantations to grow sugar, a cash crop that was in high demand in Europe.

The French began to explore North America in the early 1500s. Jacques Cartier founded Montreal and Samuel de Champlain sailed to Quebec. Over the next century, the French explored and claimed areas around the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River to the Gulf of Mexico. They called their territory New France. Economic development in this region centered primarily on fur trade.

The English began to colonize North America in the early 1600's. The first permanent settlement, Jamestown, was founded in 1607. The colony struggled at first with many settlers dying due to hunger, disease, and wars with the natives. During the 1620's and 30's, English settlers came to the Americas seeking religious tolerance. These settlers did not agree with the practices of the Church of England (Anglicanism) and wanted to "purify" the church. They called themselves Puritans and they sought to develop model communities that were dedicated to God. Early English settlers began to grow tobacco, which was in high demand in Europe.

The Dutch settled in modern day New York. They called the area New Amsterdam. Like the French, the Dutch economy was based on the fur trade and successful trading routes were developed along the Hudson River. The colony attracted people from other European countries due to the religious tolerance and acceptance of varied cultures.

By the mid-1700's, European powers began to fight for control of North America. First, the English forced the Dutch to give up their colony. New Amsterdam was renamed New York. The English also developed other colonies along the Atlantic coast, from New Hampshire to Georgia. These colonists came in conflict with the French settlers in Canada on many occasions. The final conflict began in 1754 and was called the French and Indian War. The French and Indian War was an extension of the Seven Years' War that was taking place in Europe between England and France. When the war was over in 1763, France was forced to give up all islands in North America to England.

The native peoples responded to these events in many different ways. Many worked closely with the French and Dutch, joining in the fur trade and benefitting from the economic growth. However, natives who lived near the English generally had a more difficult relationship with the

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settlers. More than just trade, the English were interested in acquiring land to settle and farm. This was land that Native Americans would not be able to use for hunting or growing their own food. This conflict erupted into war several times. Natives were unsuccessful in most of these conflicts because of the advanced weapons that colonist had at their disposal.

Over time, the Spanish and Portuguese empires began to wane. The Spanish Empire declined for a number of reasons, including inflation, which was a result of the influx of gold and silver from Spanish colonies. Additionally, Spain did not have a strong middle class to create goods and products that could be used to strengthen the Spanish economy. In fact, policies of the Spanish crown that expelled Jews and Moriscos (Moorish converts to Christianity) further complicated the economic issues in Spain because these populations were the bankers, businessmen, and artisans who could produce exports from Spain. The fact that these populations were persecuted under the Spanish government policies drained the country of talent that could have supported economic growth. Over time, many Spanish citizens left their country and sought refuge in other areas of Europe and the New World.

The Portuguese government did not have the financial strength of other European nations and could not sustain its large empire (that included territories in Asia). Portugal's small population also meant that it did not have the military available to protect its colonies.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know all of the explorers or expeditions by Europeans in their quest for territory in the Americas. Students do not need to know the particular rulers who spurred exploration or whose policies led to the wars and economic decline in their nation.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize
- Infer

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- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the conflicts of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia.

Enduring Understanding:

Competition for imperial conquest met with varying degrees of success and resistance in the 1600s and 1700s. To understand the significant role that imperialism played in the development of many modern nation-states during this time period, the student will. . .

MWH-4.3 Explain the similarities between the Ming and Qing dynasties in China, including foreign relations, culture, and economic practices.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade six, students will have studied the contributions of Chinese civilization from the Qin dynasty through the Ming dynasty, including a focus on the golden age of art and literature, the invention of gunpowder and trade on the Silk Road (6-3.1).

It is essential for students to know:

The Ming Dynasty began in 1368 and lasted until 1644. It followed the Yuan dynasty, which was controlled by the Mongols. The Chinese did not like the foreign control of the Mongols and ultimately a rebellion began and at its conclusion the Yuan dynasty was replaced under the leadership of a man named Zhu Yuanzhang. Zhu Yuanzhang named himself Emperor Hongwu and began the Ming dynasty. Under Hongwu all aspects of society were put under the control of the government. The emperor was the head of state and had a large administration to help him. Confucianism flourished and to become a government official one had to take an exam on Confucian principles. Life for the people of China did not improve a whole lot during this time but the population grew substantially.

The Ming dynasty did not have a successful foreign policy program. The Chinese under Ming leadership spent more time displaying their power and overpowering other nations than developing friendly relations. Financially extravagant voyages were organized during the period of the Ming dynasty, but for the sole purpose of showing off Chinese culture. The West did not like this attitude but preferred to trade with the Chinese as opposed to participating in their self-serving showcases. The Ming Dynasty was not very open to this, but eventually allowed some trade with severe restrictions on the foreigners. During this period China was a massive and powerful empire that fought off every attack that came its way.

Eventually the Ming dynasty declined as rebellion broke out against corruption in the leadership. Additionally Manchus (from Manchuria) attacked the country. The Ming dynasty was not strong enough to defend itself against the internal and external attacks. The Manchus successfully took control of the Chinese government and established the Qing dynasty.

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The first Qing emperor was named Kangxi. He successfully extinguished the internal threats from rebels and created a government that was similar to the former Ming dynasty. The major difference in governance stemmed from the fact that the top positions in the government were held by Manchus, while lower positions were held by the Chinese. He worked to establish an empire that had military strength. During the reign of the Manchu, Chinese society was strictly segregated. The Manchus and Chinese remained separate people. The different groups even dressed differently. The people of the empire prospered as the Qing government favored the well-being of the peasant. During this time China's borders reached their largest size.

At the beginning of Qing rule China was very powerful and was respected by the rulers of the world. Yet the Chinese were very set in their ways and therefore did not change much in the following centuries. As a result the West caught up with them and wanted to trade with them for valuable Chinese goods. China was not very open to this and restricted trade. Several attempts were made by the West to open up trade relations with China but they accomplished very little. Eventually China's isolationist policy led to war with the British. The initial war was the First Opium War which took place from 1839 to 1842. This was followed by a Second Opium War later in the nineteenth century. China lost both of these conflicts because it refused to modernize. The combination of these losses along with rebellion within the empire and corruption caused the downfall of the dynasty in 1911.

The Ming and Qing dynasties had a number of things in common. The first thing they had in common was the way their empires were organized. Both the Ming and the Qing believed in the supreme authority of the Emperor who was helped by a large number of bureaucrats. Both dynasties also expanded their borders far beyond what they had been previously and both dynasties improved the quality of Chinese life for a period of time. The Ming and Qing dynasties also took a similar approach to foreign affairs. Both were very successful in battle and defeated many enemies. Additionally, both empires believed that they were the most civilized nation in the world and made attempts to exhibit their strength to other nations. Both adopted strict isolationist policies and put heavy regulation on trade. They also scorned the West and did not consider it a major power.

Both dynasties also declined due to similar negative issues. A combination of rebellion, corruption, and war led to their decline. With the Ming it was the invasion of the Manchus coupled with rebellion. With the Qing it was the Opium Wars coupled with the Boxer Rebellion among others. Both empires were very powerful but also uncompromising and this led to their downfall.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the names and spellings or specific emperors from the Chinese dynasties, nor do they need to know the expanded borders of the Chinese Empire under the specific dynasties.

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Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interest of society.
- Compare the ways that different economic systems answer the fundamental questions of what goods and services should be produced, how they should be produced, and who will consume them.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

Assessment guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize
- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the conflicts of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia.

Enduring Understanding:

Competition for imperial conquest met with varying degrees of success and resistance in the 1600s and 1700s. To understand the significant role that imperialism played in the development of many modern nation-states during this time period, the student will. . .

MWH-4.4 Evaluate the success of the Ming dynasty in sustaining a prosperous Chinese empire and strengthening Chinese hegemony in Asia.

Taxonomy Level: Evaluate/Conceptual Knowledge—5/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade six, students will have studied the contributions of Chinese civilization from the Qin dynasty through the Ming dynasty, including a focus on the golden age of art and literature, the invention of gunpowder and trade on the Silk Road (6-3.1). Additionally, students should have studied the similarities between the Ming and Qing dynasties in China (MWH-4.3).

It is essential for students to know:

The first Ming emperor, Hongwu sought to improve the lives of the peasants through support of agriculture, the development of public works, opening new and untaxed lands, lowering forced labor demands, and the encouragement of skill-based industries that could supplement household incomes.

The early Ming period was one of economic growth and unprecedented contacts with overseas civilizations. The commercial boom and population increase of the late Song period continued. Chinese manufacturers were in demand throughout Asia and Europe. Europeans were allowed limited trade with the Chinese. Merchants gained significant profits, a portion of them passing to the state as taxes. Much of the wealth went into land, which was considered to be a measure of status in the country. The economic strength allowed generous patrons to support the arts. Painters focused on improving established patterns. Major innovation came in literature, assisted by an increase in availability of books through the spread of woodblock printing, with the full development of the novel.

Chinese Explorations

Between 1405 and 1423, the Ming Dynasty sent a series of expeditions to Southeast Asia, Persia, Arabia, and East Africa under the command of Zheng He. The purpose of these voyages was to demonstrate the Chinese power as compared to other nations. During these trips, countries were expected to show tribute to the Ming Dynasty; however, very little material returns resulted from the costly ventures. Many Chinese argued that the national resources were better spent in defending Chinese borders. Ultimately, the voyages were abandoned in the early 1430s.

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Chinese Hegemony

Hegemony is defined as the social, cultural, ideological, or economic influence exerted by a dominant group resulting in influence or authority over the weaker, less powerful group. During the Ming Dynasty, Chinese hegemony grew in areas of Southeast Asia, India, Arabia, and Africa. The Ming Dynasty's primary goal was to encourage a system of tribute in which the less powerful nation would send gifts to the government to show their recognition of Chinese superiority.

With all of the economic strength, it is important to note that the economic benefits provided by the Ming Dynasty were often overshadowed by the growing power of rural landlords allied with the imperial bureaucracy. Peasants were forced to become tenant farmers or landless laborers. The Ming period continued the subservience of women to men, and youths to elders. Severe laws forced obedience. Adversaries of the ruling parties often had to flee their homes to improve their conditions. Women were confined to the household; their status was tied to their ability to bear male children. Upper class women might be taught reading and writing by their parents, but they were barred from official positions. Non-elite women worked in many occupations, but the main way to gain independence was to become a courtesan or entertainer.

By the late 1500s the dynasty was in decline. Weak leadership allowed increasing corruption and led to administrative decline. The failure of public works projects, especially on the Yellow River, caused starvation and rebellion. Ultimately, the Manchus (from Manchuria) took control of the government and established the last imperial dynasty, the Qing Dynasty.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students do not need to know the names or spellings of the Ming emperors or other individuals related to the dynasty. Additionally, students do not need to know the specific countries that were controlled by China during the Ming Dynasty.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.
- Compare the ways that different economic systems answer the fundamental questions of what goods and services should be produced, how they should be produced, and who will consume them.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Evaluate

- Check
- Critique

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the conflicts of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia.

Enduring Understanding:

Competition for imperial conquest met with varying degrees of success and resistance in the 1600s and 1700s. To understand the significant role that imperialism played in the development of many modern nation-states during this time period, the student will. . .

MWH-4.5 Analyze the factors that contributed to the collapse of the Mughal empire in India, including the role of religious intolerance.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have had no previous instruction related to the content of this indicator and will have no further instruction following this course.

It is essential for students to know:

The Mughal founder and emperor Babur rose to power in 1526, beginning one of the most powerful empires in history. Babur's grandson, Akbar took control in 1556. He raised an army and began to take control of large parts of India. He was a Muslim, but he believed that people should be allowed to follow their own religious beliefs. This belief extended to his hiring practices and he believed in appointing individuals to positions based on their ability, not their religion. Both Hindus and Muslims worked in government jobs. He ended tax practices that traditionally required only non-Muslims to pay. Instead, he taxed food production, which made it easier for peasants to pay their taxes.

Babur had a strong, well-equipped army that helped him conquer and maintain control of territory. During his reign, his empire grew to over one hundred million people. After Akbar's death in 1605, the empire began to decline, in great part due to the end of religious toleration in the empire. Akbar's successors targeted Sikhs (Sikhism is a monotheistic religion founded in the Punjab region of India in the fifteenth century) and Hindus in an attempt to diminish their political, economic and social stature in the Mughal Empire.

Additionally, one Mughal leader, Shah Jahan, raised taxes at the expense of the citizens in order to support his love for the arts. For example, he built the Taj Mahal as a tomb for his wife; however, in order to fund this building, he had to raise taxes. When his son, Aurangzeb took control of the empire, he succeeded in expanding its territory (a positive outcome for the Mughal Empire); however, he continued to punish Hindus, including the destruction of their temples. As a result, Hindus rebelled and they were able to successfully take control of a portion of the empire. At the same time, the Sikhs, who were also persecuted in the Mughal Empire, became skilled fighters and took control of a portion of the empire. In response, the Mughal leadership had to increase taxes. Hindus were taxed but not Muslims. This led to greater discord in the empire. Upon his death, the empire fell apart and local leaders took control of various regions. While there continued to be a Mughal emperor, but he was only a figurehead rather than a ruler with any real power.

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It is not essential for students to know:

Students do not need to know the names of the weak leaders that followed Akbar, including Jahangir (wife Nur Jahan) or Shah Jahan.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the conflicts of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia.

Enduring Understanding:

Competition for imperial conquest met with varying degrees of success and resistance in the 1600s and 1700s. To understand the significant role that imperialism played in the development of many modern nation-states during this time period, the student will. . .

MWH-4.6 Analyze the trade policy of mercantilism and its influence on the relationship between imperial centers and their peripheries.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades six and seven, students have studied the colonization of the Americas, Africa and Asia by Europeans including the Columbian Exchange (6-6.6, 7-1.2), the economic concepts related to exploration and colonization, the development of capitalism and the market economy (7-1.3, 7-1.4). In United States History, students will summarize the distinct characteristics of each colonial region in the settlement and development of British North America, including religious, social, political, and economic differences (USHC 1.1). Students will also evaluate the role of capitalism in the development of the United States (USHC 4.3). In Economics, students will explain concepts related to the development of a market economy (ECON 3.1 and ECON 3.9)

It is essential for students to know:

The settling of the Americas and the growth of trade led to a new set of business practices still followed today. One was the rise of an economic system called capitalism. It is based on private ownership of property and the right of a business to earn a profit. Another new business idea was the joint stock company. Joint stock companies provided financing to explorers, merchants, and traders interested in establishing colonies in the Americas, Africa, and Asia. The joint stock companies were repaid when merchants and traders made profits.

With this, many investors pooled their money to start a business and share in the profits. European governments began to follow an idea called mercantilism. Mercantilism is an economic theory that relied on a number of significant economic goals, including the acquisition of gold and silver (wealth was measured in these metals), establishing a favorable balance of trade, and increasing exports. Mercantilist theory also aimed to discourage imports by placing tariffs on goods entering a country. Mercantilism increased the need for colonial holdings because colonies provided goods that could be sold in trade. Under mercantilist policies, colonies were discouraged, and in some cases forbidden, from trading with any other country except the mother country. Mercantilists believed that colonies existed to benefit the mother country.

As mercantilism grew, capitalism also grew. With the American, African, and Asian colonies, European society saw changes. Merchants grew wealthy and powerful, and towns and cities grew larger. Still, most people lived in the countryside, farmed for a living, and were poor.

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It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to identify or describe colonies that were developed through mercantilist policies, nor is it important to know specific goods that were produced in the colonies

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.
- Compare the ways that different economic systems answer the fundamental questions of what goods and services should be produced, how they should be produced, and who will consume them.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

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WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-4: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the conflicts of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia.

Enduring Understanding:

Competition for imperial conquest met with varying degrees of success and resistance in the 1600s and 1700s. To understand the significant role that imperialism played in the development of many modern nation-states during this time period, the student will. . .

MWH-4.7 Explain the disruption within West African kingdoms as a result of the competition between European countries over slave trade.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

While students have not been instructed regarding the disruption of West African kingdoms due to slave trade, they have studied the slave trade in detail (3-2.5, 8-1.4 and MWH 2.6).

It is essential for students to know:

Slavery existed in African kingdoms for centuries. Many people were enslaved as punishment for their inability to pay debts and as prisoners of war. It was not uncommon for powerful African rulers to own thousands of slaves, especially in Muslim areas of North Africa. In general, African slaves were not treated as cruelly as slaves in other regions of the world. In some cases, slaves were given the opportunity to earn their freedom and often owners worked alongside their slaves doing the same type of labor.

Between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries, a great number of West Africans were sold to Europeans as slaves. In fact, the region between the Gold Coast and the mouth of the Niger River was called the Slave Coast as a result of the prominence of slave trading that took place in that area. It is believed that the Portuguese were the first European nation to buy slaves in large numbers to supply cheap labor for sugar plantations in Brazil. By the mid-1600s, the British, Dutch, and French had slave trading areas in West Africa. Americans and Arabs began trading in the region by the early 1700's. It is important to note that European slave traders needed cooperation from African leaders to participate in slave trading. Often these rulers captured slaves during raids and sold (traded) them to Europeans.

The trade in slaves had a profound effect on West Africa. West Africa became dependent on metal tools, cloth, guns, and alcohol that traders exchanged for slaves. Most historians argued that the increase number of weapons (namely guns) acquired through the slave trade may have encouraged more wars among West African tribes. Additionally, the slave trade decimated the population of young, healthy, men and women who could have provided leadership for their tribes.

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It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the specific tribes that were involved in the slave trade or the geographic location of European slave trading posts.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Explain how groups work to challenge traditional institutions and effect change to promote the needs and interests of society.
- Compare the ways that different economic systems answer the fundamental questions of what goods and services should be produced, how they should be produced, and who will consume them.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the influence of ideas and technology on the development of nation-states and empires in the sixteenth through the nineteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

New ideas and technological developments during this period led to changes in how people viewed the world and how people, in turn, changed their social, economic, and political circumstances. To understand how ideas and technology led to the development of modern society, the student will. . .

MWH-5.1 Explain how the scientific revolution in Europe led to the questioning of orthodox ideas.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade seven, students should have studied the origins and consequences of the scientific revolution, including the major scientific contributions of the period (7-2.2). They will have no further instruction related to this content.

It is essential for students to know:

Prior to the scientific revolution few scholars questioned traditional thoughts about the physical world; most ideas were based either on the work of ancient Greeks and Romans or on biblical teaching promoted by the Roman Catholic Church.

When Christopher Columbus sailed west across the Atlantic Ocean in hopes of reaching Asia, he took the map of the world that Ptolemy had created. Columbus never reached Asia because he ran into North America instead. Within a few years, voyages of exploration made it clear that there was an entire continent that Europeans did not know existed. This discovery stunned Europeans. This continent was not on Ptolemy's map. Observation of the real world had disproved the teachings of an ancient authority. Soon, European scholars began to question the accuracy of other Greek authorities. More and more, observations made by the Europeans did not agree with what the authorities had described. Such observations helped lead to the scientific revolution. Ideas such as geocentrism (belief that the earth is the center of the universe) persisted in the general population well into the sixteenth century. However, by the mid-1500's attitudes began to change as scientists began to question traditional thoughts about the natural world.

Early strides were made in the study of astronomy. In the early 1500s, Nicolaus Copernicus' studies concluded that earth, like the other planets, revolved around the sun (heliocentric view) however, due to his fear of reprisal for his beliefs; he did not publish his findings until shortly before his death. In the early 1600's Johannes Kepler confirmed Copernicus' findings through the use of mathematics. Galileo Galilei created the first telescope and used it to study the planets. As time passed, scholars began to use careful observation and questioning techniques to explore the world around them. The scientific method evolved as a method of observing and questioning

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the natural environment. Many other scientists and philosophers, including Sir Isaac Newton, used the scientific method to develop new theories about the natural world.

Reaction of the Church

The Roman Catholic Church was a powerful force in Europe during the time of the Scientific Revolution and this often led to conflict between scientists and the Church. There were two major issues that led to the conflict between science and the Church. The first was that the new science was putting forth ideas that contradicted the Church's teachings. For example, Copernicus' idea that the earth orbited the sun contradicted the Church teaching that the earth was at the center of the universe. The second issue was related to the first because when individuals contradicted the Church's teachings, it weakened the power and control of the Church. Church officials were afraid that questioning even one Church teaching might lead to more and more questions about the Church. People might even start to doubt key elements of the faith. Church officials feared this would undermine the Church's influence.

For example, when Galileo used his telescope to study the moon, stars, and planets and was able to draw conclusions from his observations. His observations were in direct conflict with the teachings of the Roman Catholic Church. In response, the Church tried Galileo as a heretic (one who goes against the teachings of a church or religious body) at an inquisition. Though he was not excommunicated, or dismissed from the Church, he was found guilty and ordered to refute his claims. As a result of his convictions, he spent the rest of his life under house arrest but this did not keep his ideas from spreading.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the scientists or philosophers who contributed to the Scientific Revolution; however, it may be helpful to include discussions of some of these individuals in the context of the period.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze, interpret, and synthesize social studies resources to make inferences and draw conclusions.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the influence of ideas and technology on the development of nation-states and empires in the sixteenth through the nineteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

New ideas and technological developments during this period led to changes in how people viewed the world and how people, in turn, changed their social, economic, and political circumstances. To understand how ideas and technology led to the development of modern society, the student will. . .

MWH-5.2 Analyze the ideas of social equality, democracy, constitutionalism, and nationalism brought about by the Enlightenment and their effects on institutions.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge – 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade seven, students studied the characteristics of limited government and unlimited government that evolved in Europe in the 1600's and 1700's (7-2.1) that were a result of enlightened thought of the period. Students should have learned the contributions made by enlightened philosophers, including the work of John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Montesquieu and Voltaire (7-2.2, 7-2.3, 7-2.4 and 7-2.5). In United States History, students will study democratic ideals that grew out of the British political system (USHC-1.2) and the fundamental principle of limited government as protected by the Constitution and Bill of Rights (USHC-1.5). In United States Government, students will summarize the core principles of the United States government, including the establishment of a limited government established by the Constitution (USG-2.1, USG-3.1).

It is essential for students to know:

The Age of Enlightenment or Age of Reason was a cultural movement of intellectuals in eighteenth century Europe and America, with the purpose of reforming society and improving knowledge. During this period, new ways of thinking developed in a variety of areas, including science and political and social thought. Many of the ideas developed during the Age of Enlightenment were based on the ideals advanced during the Scientific Revolution.

The Age of Enlightenment had a profound effect on political thought. Two of the most important political thinkers of the period were Thomas Hobbes and John Locke. Thomas Hobbes believed that people formed a social contract in which they gave up their rights to their government. In exchange, the government provided order and security. John Locke, in contrast, believed that all people have the right to life, liberty, and property and the purpose of government was to protect those rights. Locke believed that if the government failed in its responsibility, the people had a right to overthrow the government.

Enlightenment ideas had a strong influence on the American and French Revolutions, which came at the end of the 1700s, but the period also had three other outcomes: 1) it helped spread the idea of progress; 2) by using reason, people thought it was possible to make society better; and 3) these ideas also helped make Western society more secular (less religious or spiritual).

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Enlightenment ideas promoted the idea that the individual person was important. Enlightenment ideas spread through the Western world, and influenced the arts and government. Some Enlightenment thinkers believed that the best form of government was a monarchy in which a ruler respected the rights of people. They tried to influence rulers to rule fairly. Rulers followed these ideas in part but most were unwilling to give up much power. An example of this is the leadership of Frederick the Great, who made significant changes in Prussia. He gave his people religious freedom, improved schooling, and reformed the justice system. Though influenced by the changes brought about by the Enlightenment, he did nothing to end serfdom, which provided peasants slaves to the wealthy landowners.

Although some enlightened thinkers supported monarchies, many also supported the ideals of democracy, especially the concept of individual rights. Ultimately, the Age of Enlightenment contributed to movements for social equality, democracy, constitutionalism, and nationalism.

Social Equality

Social equality is a concept in which all members of a society have equal treatment, opportunity, and access to resources. The idea of social equality is often tied to concepts of egalitarianism. This concept either represents the sense, from a political standpoint, that all people deserve equal rights and treatment, or it is a movement that proposes a society should specifically direct its resources toward promoting equality of wealth. The latter stance is more of a socialistic approach, and the former is one adopted by many countries. It is argued that the two definitions are related, because in so many societies, wealth confers additional power, and without addressing income inequities, there can be no true social equality. It is argued by many social scientists that social equality can never be achieved because there are so many factors that separate individuals in a society. Others argue that social equality may not always be possible, but societies can still find way to minimize inequality.

Constitutionalism

Constitutionalism is a concept in political theory that supports the idea that a government does not gain its power from itself, but through a set of written laws that give the established government certain powers. This concept is in sharp opposition to monarchies, theocracies, and dictatorships, in which the power does not derive from a written legal document. In a monarchy, the power is derived as an inalienable right of the king or queen. In a theocracy, all of the power of a governing party is derived from a set of religious beliefs, which are thought to exist as a result of the will of God, and in a dictatorship, the power is derived from the will of a one person or a group of people and their ideology, which does not necessarily represent the will of the people.

Constitutionalism therefore naturally prescribes a system of government in which the government's powers are limited. Government officials, whether elected or not, cannot act against their own constitutions. Constitutional law is the highest body of law in the land, which all citizens, including the government, are subjected to. Several nations around the world have adopted forms of constitutionalism in their governments. The Constitution of the United States drew on many Enlightenment ideas. From Montesquieu, it put into effect the separation of powers by creating three branches of government. Each branch was able to prevent other branches from abusing their power. From Locke, it put power in the hands of the people. From Voltaire, it protected the rights of people to free speech and freedom of religion. From Cesare

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Beccaria, it set up a fair system of justice. This system would protect the rights of individuals accused of crimes, including setting forth standards for trials and humane, non-abusive treatment. Many of these rights were ensured in a set of additions to the Constitution called the Bill of Rights. Approval of these additions helped win approval of the Constitution as a whole.

Nationalism

Nationalism is the belief that many factors link people to one another. The first is a common nationality, or a common ethnic ancestry. Shared language, culture, history, and religion are also seen as links that connect people. People sharing these traits were thought to have the right to a land they could call their own. Groups with their own government were called nation-states. Enlightenment ideas and a sense of nationalism help spur the American colonies to create a new nation. The British colonies in North America grew in population and wealth during the 1700s. The colonies also enjoyed a kind of self-government. People in the colonies began to see themselves less and less as British subjects. Still, Parliament passed laws that governed the colonies. In July, 1776, the colonies announced that they were independent of Britain. They issued a Declaration of Independence that was based on the ideas of the Enlightenment. From 1775 to 1781, the colonists and Britain fought a war in North America. The colonists had a poorly equipped army and the British were powerful. However, in the end, the American colonists won their independence and established the United States of America.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know all of the philosophers of the Enlightenment, including Voltaire, Montesquieu, or Rousseau. Additionally, students do not have to know how the work of the Enlightenment contributed to changes in each European nation, but instead should understand how this period led to significant changes in the political and social landscape of Europe and the Americas during this period. It is not essential for students to know the individual political or military leaders who participated in the revolutions.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Analyze, interpret, and synthesize social studies resources to make inferences and draw conclusions.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

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Standard MWH-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the influence of ideas and technology on the development of nation-states and empires in the sixteenth through the nineteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

New ideas and technological developments during this period led to changes in how people viewed the world and how people, in turn, changed their social, economic, and political circumstances. To understand how ideas and technology led to the development of modern society, the student will. . .

MWH-5.3 Identify the major technological and social characteristics of the Industrial Revolution.

Taxonomy Level: Remember/Factual Knowledge—1/A

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades five and seven, students have studied the Industrial Revolution, including new inventions and technologies (5-3.1, 7-3.4). Students have also summarized the impact of industrialization, including its influence on the development of political, economic and social changes across the globe (5-3.4, 7-3.5, 7-6.6, 8-5.6). Future study will include the emergence of the Industrial Revolution in the United States (USHC-4.2) and its impact on economic growth (USHC-4.4).

It is essential for students to know:

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain and spread relatively quickly to other areas of the world. One of the most significant causes of industrialization in Great Britain was the Agricultural Revolution that occurred in the early 1700's. During that period, large landowners in Great Britain purchased land that was owned by subsistence farmers and created larger mechanized methods for farming. They used machines, such as the seed drill to plant seeds and utilized techniques, such as crop rotation to increase agricultural outputs. In addition to increases in plant production, there were also advancements made in production of livestock, which resulted in an increase in the size of animals. As a result of these improvements, farms grew and production also increased. More and more healthy food became available, which led to an increase in the population of Great Britain.

Great Britain's economic and social structure made it possible for industrialization to grow rapidly. It had sources of power (coal and water) to power machines, iron ore to make tools and machines, river systems to move people and goods, and excellent ports for shipping exports. Additionally, Great Britain had a strong banking system that could be used to fund new businesses. The country also boasted a strong and stable government, which could support the country's budding industries. The Industrial Revolution began in the textile industry. Several new inventions help to produce cloth quickly. Business leaders built factories that were often powered by steam engines. Improvements in transportation made it more efficient to ship goods and people over long distances. The British also built better roads. By the 1820s, steam driven

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locomotives (trains) profoundly changed the landscape, physically, economically, and socially. The physical changes occurred as small towns developed at railroad stops. Economically, businesses could move their goods to market more quickly and efficiently and new jobs in a variety of industries were created. Socially, many people moved from the country to the cities seeking jobs in industry. As a result the factory system flourished in Great Britain, and over time, other countries began to experience the same changes and growth and industry moved to their nations.

The factory system changed the way people lived and worked, which also created problems. As cities grew due to industrialization, there were many negative effects on the population. It was difficult to find good housing and schools and at times it was very unsafe. Cities were filthy, due to the lack of public sanitation systems, and as a result, sickness and disease was widespread. The life span of individuals in industrialized cities dropped substantially compared to their counterparts in the countryside. Factories were often dark and dank with powerful machines that were extremely dangerous. The average worker spent fourteen hours a day in factories, six days a week. Workers were often killed or seriously injured in accidents.

There were also positive outcomes to industrialization. Many people were able to improve their lives in this new economy. The middle class (skilled workers, professionals, business owners, and wealthy farmers) did well and enjoyed comfortable lives. The middle class grew over time and many people were able to become wealthier than members of the nobility. Additionally, the Industrial Revolution increased the production of goods and services by many nations. This added to the economic wealth of the country. Over time, individuals were able to have better housing, less expensive (but better) clothing, and better diets and health care.

Eventually, other countries were able to develop industry following a path similar to Great Britain. The United States had similar sources of power, including water, coal, and iron, as well as a sizable population available to work in factories. Like Great Britain, industrialization in the United States began primarily within the textile industry. New inventions, including railroads and electric lights spurred industry. Businesses in need of funding sold stock (shares of ownership) in their company. Another significant outcome of industrialization in the United States was the influx of women who joined the workforce.

Industrial growth spread to other parts of Europe as well. Belgium was the first country to adopt the British industrial model. The country had a rich supply of iron and coal and had good waterways. It also had the necessary natural and economic resources. Germany was politically divided until the late 1800s. As a result, it could not develop a broad-based industrial economy. However, west-central Germany was rich in coal and did become a leading industrial site over time. Across Europe, small areas began to adapt to the new industries. Industrial growth did not occur in France until after 1850. Then the government began to build a large network of railroads. Countries, such as Austria-Hungary and Spain, had political and economic problems that stopped them from building new industries.

The Industrial Revolution had a profound effect on the world. Countries that had adopted an industrial economy enjoyed more wealth and power than those that had not. Countries that

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lacked the political, economic, and social features (e.g. stable government, effective economic system, etc.) of the more modern countries, such as Great Britain and the United States were unable to industrialize. As a result, countries of Europe soon began to take advantage of lands in Africa and Asia. They used these lands as sources of raw materials needed for their factories. They saw the people only as markets for the goods they made. They took control of these lands, a practice called imperialism. As imperialism grew, competition between European nations also grew.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the inventions created during the Industrial Revolution or the names of those responsible for the creation of the invention.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze, interpret, and synthesize social studies resources to make inferences and draw conclusions.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Remember

Recognize

Recall

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Standard MWH-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the influence of ideas and technology on the development of nation-states and empires in the sixteenth through the nineteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

New ideas and technological developments during this period led to changes in how people viewed the world and how people, in turn, changed their social, economic, and political circumstances. To understand how ideas and technology led to the development of modern society, the student will. . .

MWH-5.4 Analyze the relationship between the expanding world market economy and the development of industrialization in Great Britain, the United States, Germany, and Japan, including shifts in world demography and urbanization and changing class and race relations.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge– 4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades five and seven, students have studied the Industrial Revolution, including new inventions and technologies (5-3.1, 7-3.4) Students have also summarized the impact of industrialization, including its influence on the development of political, economic and social changes across the globe (5-3.4, 7-3.5, 7-6.6, 8-5.6). In United States History and the Constitution, students will study the emergence of the Industrial Revolution in the United States (USHC-4.2) and its impact on economic growth (USHC-4.4).

It is essential for students to know:

As industrialization grew, nations sought additional markets for their goods, which led to the development of market economies in many countries. A market economy is an economic system in which prices of things are freely set based on the laws of supply and demand, with little or no interference from a government or other outside body.* The Industrial Revolution increased both the supply and demand for certain products globally. As the demand for products grew, industrialized nations, such as Great Britain, the United States, Germany, and Japan began to supply goods to other countries.

*NOTE: There is no such thing as a truly unrestricted market economy; therefore, the term is used to describe economies which are largely dictated by market forces. As a result, there are many debates over whether there are any real examples of a market economy in the world.

Industrialization in Great Britain

Industrialization grew in Great Britain as a result of the Agricultural Revolution that displaced many individuals who traditionally held roles as farmers. Great Britain had the advantage of abundant natural resources, including water power, coal and iron ore (found in Great Britain, as well as in their colonial holdings), favorable geography, political stability, and a stable banking system.

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Industrialization in the United States

The United States saw even more dramatic industrial growth during this period because of its sheer size and plentiful resources. Railroads had been built east of the Mississippi by 1860. The completion of the first transcontinental railroad in 1869 symbolized the opening up of the vast interior west of the Mississippi, with its agricultural and mineral resources. Northern factories grew substantially to support the American Civil War. At the conclusion of the war, the United States was well on its way to becoming an industrial leader.

Industrialization in Germany

Germany's Industrial Revolution was very different from Great Britain's. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Germany was not a unified country; therefore, industrialization was not uniform. However, the Germans borrowed ideas from Great Britain, including the use of railroads to link manufacturing. Germany benefited from large stores of coal and iron ore that could be used to build industry, as well as their military strength. By the late nineteenth century, Germany was unified and the country began to compete directly with industry in Great Britain and the United States.

Industrialization in Japan

Industrialization in Japan began in the Meiji Era under the leadership of Emperor Mutsuhito. The Emperor was concerned about the imperial growth of European nations in Asia and saw modernization as the best way to counteract western influence in Japan. As a result, the Japanese studied industrialization in Great Britain, Germany, and the United States. The government supported the building of railroads and factories, many of which were dedicated to improving Japanese military strength. The Japanese modeled their growing military and educational system after Western nations (Navy—Great Britain; Army—Germany; Educational system—United States).

Shifts in Demography

As a result there were significant population shifts as workers moved to cities, as well as to other countries for better employment opportunities. Additionally, the social class structure changed in many countries as the middle class grew in most industrialized nations.

Urbanization

The increase in urban populations in the second half of the eighteenth century helped industrial expansion by providing a supply of labor and by increased market demand for manufactured products. The inability of traditional modes of production to satisfy the growing needs of expanding populations led to the investment of capital in the technology and organization of industry.

Class Structure and Race Relations

As industrialization spread during the nineteenth century, a strong middle class developed in-between wage-earning workers and their employers. The middle class consisted of professionals, small business people (merchants and specialist manufacturers), and service providers. The middle class enjoyed the profits of expanding markets and wealth though it tended to be protective and unadventurous with its profits. The middle class was an important source of increasing demand that encouraged the expansion of production and markets. It was both willing

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and able to take advantage of the new products, both manufactured goods and agricultural products. The standard of living of the middle classes of western and central Europe and the United States steadily improved in the nineteenth century. The middle class was subject to the uncertain fluctuations of productivity and market conditions as were wage earners, and it was not uncommon for some middle class people to be forced to take jobs that were traditionally held by wage earners during periods of economic difficulty.

On the other hand, wage earners crowded into rapidly growing industrialized cities and experienced lives that were very different from the middle class. Cities were overcrowded with poor living conditions, including limited housing, insufficient sanitation, and little or no health care. Improvements in the lives of workers that resulted from increased wages and the availability of more products were compromised by the rising costs of living. Real wages improved only slightly and continued to fluctuate in response to market forces (costs and profits). The uncertain and difficult lives of the laboring majority (urban workers and peasants) improved only slowly. Inequalities multiplied and were reflected in the vastly different perceptions and experiences of those affected by capitalist industrialism. The benefits of capitalist industrialism were more readily available to businessmen, financiers, and industrialists than to laborers. Benefits were more apparent to Europeans than to others who lived outside of Europe.

Industrialization also affected race relations in many areas as individuals from varied backgrounds moved to the city for better opportunities. As a result, there were conflicts between races.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know about the specific development of the market economy in a particular country.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

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Standard MWH-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the influence of ideas and technology on the development of nation-states and empires in the sixteenth through the nineteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

New ideas and technological developments during this period led to changes in how people viewed the world and how people, in turn, changed their social, economic, and political circumstances. To understand how ideas and technology led to the development of modern society, the student will. . .

MWH-5.5 Compare capitalism with other forms of political and economic ideologies, including socialism, communism and anarchism.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge—2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades five and seven, students have had limited exposure to the concepts of capitalism (7-1.4), socialism (7-4.4) and communism (5-5.1, 7-4.4, 7-5.3) as related to the development of economic, social and political change in Europe, Asia and the United States. United States History and the Constitution will include additional analyses of capitalism (USHC 4.3, USHC 5.1).

It is essential for students to know:

The Industrial Revolution led to a variety of economic, social, and political ideas. Many philosophers and economists began to develop new ways of thinking about the economic and social structure of society, which led to changes in the political system in many areas.

Capitalism is considered to be an economic system that is based on private ownership of the means of production and the creation of goods and services. Goods and services provide profit or income for individuals and corporations. One economist, Adam Smith, argued that eliminating limits on business and trade would help a nation's economy to grow. He believed in *laissez-faire*, or that government should keep its "hands-off" the economy. He supported capitalism and argued that this economic system would provide the greatest benefit for a society.

However, other groups opposed capitalism, arguing that it did not protect the working class and gave too much power to business owners. These groups believed that it was the responsibility of the government to protect the working class, and in fact, the government should do away with practices that led to economic disparity between the rich (typically wealthy business owners) and the poor (typically working class). This view was called socialism. Socialists supported the idea that business should be owned by society as a whole (through the government), not by individuals. By doing this, socialists argued that a small group would not grow wealthy at the expense of the larger population of a country. Socialists argued that the capitalist system was inherently unfair, because it concentrated wealth in a few hands and did nothing to protect the

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welfare of the majority. Under socialism, the state redistributes the wealth of society in a more equitable way, according to the judgment of the individuals or groups that are in charge.

In 1848, a German philosopher named Karl Marx, wrote about a radical form of socialism called Marxism. He believed that factory owners and workers would ultimately oppose each other over a struggle for power. He wrote, with Friedrich Engels, a book entitled *The Communist Manifesto*, in which they argued for communism, a form of socialism in which all production is owned by the public. Private property would not exist and the factors of production would be distributed equally to all members of society. Many social scientists have argued that communism has failed miserably. One of the major problems with communism is that all members of society must be in agreement with the arrangement and must uphold the established regulations. Additionally, corruption has often been a major issue in communist states as leaders take favors or currency in exchange for special treatment.

At the same time that Karl Marx was developing his theories; another school of thought called anarchism began to develop. It developed to a large degree due to the harsh reactions following the revolutions of 1848, in which government quickly suppressed protests by the working class in several European countries. Anarchist theory suggests that all forms of government are oppressive and undesirable and as a consequence, should be abolished. Critics argue that the major problem with anarchism is how to protect the freedom of individuals while offering protection as needed. Without an organized, objective system of law an anarchic society might be at the mercy of the criminal and the powerful elements in society, with only personal protection to rely upon.

In the early 1900s, these ideas inspired revolutions. While thinkers discussed these different ideas, workers took action to try to improve their lives. Many formed into unions that tried to bargain with business owners for better pay and better working conditions.

IMPORTANT NOTE: There are varying degrees of implementation for each of these systems within a given state. It is important for students to understand in comparing these systems, that a nation/government may have aspects of two or more of these philosophies embedded in their political, social and economic structure. For example, much of the economic system in the United States is based on capitalism and thus, individuals can create businesses for profit. However, the government places regulations of businesses to protect the interest of all (e.g. pollution control policies or standards for working conditions).

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to be able to identify the various revolutions that developed over the social, political, and economic struggles that took place as industrialization grew. Students do not have to know the names of preeminent leaders of these political movements, including Mikhail Bakunin (anarchism).

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Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze, interpret, and synthesize social studies resources to make inferences and draw conclusions.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

Interpret

Exemplify

Classify

Summarize

Infer

Compare

Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-5: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the influence of ideas and technology on the development of nation-states and empires in the sixteenth through the nineteenth centuries.

Enduring Understanding:

New ideas and technological developments during this period led to changes in how people viewed the world and how people, in turn, changed their social, economic, and political circumstances. To understand how ideas and technology led to the development of modern society, the student will. . .

MWH-5.6 Analyze Asia's relationship with European states through 1800, including Japan's policy of limiting contacts with foreigners.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge—4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade seven, students have analyzed imperialism in Asia, including European and American involvement in India, Japan, and China (7-3.5).

It is essential for students to know:

As European nations explored and developed colonial holdings in the Americas during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the Portuguese focused their attention on the spice trade in Southeast Asia. The Portuguese had difficulty maintaining a stronghold in Asia due to the large size of their colonial holdings (in Africa, Asia and the Americas) and the small size of the country. By the end of the sixteenth century, other European nations began to explore the Asian continent. Spain, Great Britain, and the Netherlands established trade in the region. These countries were better financed than Portugal and also had a larger population and military to support their exploration and trade routes.

The French and British in India

The first Europeans to arrive in India were the Portuguese; however, the British and the Dutch began to stake their claims by the end of the sixteenth century. Over the first half of the seventeenth century, the British presence in India grew and by the mid-1600's, Great Britain had several trading posts on the Indian coast. The British successfully traded in Indian cotton and spices, which attracted the Dutch and the French. Ultimately the French established their own forts on the eastern coast of India; however, the British restricted their ability to expand their territorial holdings in India. At the conclusion of the Seven Years' War in 1763, the French were forced to give up all of their territorial holdings to the British. At this time, India was ruled by the Mughals who resented European encroachment in their country. However, in 1757, the British defeated a Mughal-led army and received the authority to collect taxes from areas surrounding Calcutta.

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China

A Portuguese fleet arrived in China in 1514 with the intent of establishing trade with the nation. The Chinese, under the Ming dynasty had little interest in establishing trade with Europeans and limited the interactions between their people and foreigners. This policy continued under the Qing dynasty until conflict erupted in the north, where Russian traders developed an interest in the fur trade. By 1689, the Chinese were forced to establish diplomatic relations with Russia to provide regular trade between the countries. By the seventeenth century, the British replaced the Portuguese as the dominant force in European trade in Asia. The British East India Company established a trading post in 1699 and within decades, established profitable trading routes based on the export of tea and silk. However, the Qing dynasty restricted all European traders to a small island outside of the city walls and limited their occupation to only a few months of the year. The British made attempts in the late eighteenth century to expand trade to other cities along the coast of China with no success.

Japan Limits Foreign Interaction

At the end of the fifteenth century, Japan was in the midst of a political and social crisis. However, over the course of the sixteenth century a series of powerful rulers established stability by restoring central authority under the Tokugawa rulers. From the early 1600s to the mid-1800s, Japan was virtually isolated; however, the country did have relations with China and Korea and had limited contact with Dutch traders.

When Portuguese traders landed on the islands of Japan in mid-1500, they were initially welcomed as the Japanese were interested in the various products that the Europeans had to offer. Many of these Europeans were Christian missionaries interested in converting local populations and ultimately this became a problem for the Japanese leadership. In reaction to the success of the Catholic missionaries, who also interfered with local politics, the Europeans were expelled from the country. The government closed the two major foreign trading posts, leaving only a small Dutch port open (the Dutch had not participated in missionary work as the Spanish and Portuguese had); however, restrictions were placed on the Dutch ports, which also limited the amount of time they were allowed in the country.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the names of the European explorers or military leaders responsible for expanding trade in Asia. Students do not need to know the names of specific Asian leaders who promoted or restricted trade in their respective countries.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes on outcomes.
- Analyze and draw conclusions about the locations of places, the conditions at places, and the connections between places.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

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Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

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Standard MWH-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the creation of nation-states in Europe and the struggle by non-European nations to gain and/or maintain sovereignty.

Enduring Understanding:

The self-determination of national groups became an ideal in Western Europe that expanded gradually to Central and Eastern Europe and eventually to colonized peoples. To understand the development of democracy across the globe and the continuing struggle for this ideal in many nations, the student will. . .

MWH-6.1 Explain the impact of English political institutions and attitudes on their North American colonies, and the American Revolution.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge—2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades three, four, and eight, students should have studied the causes, major events, and results of the American Revolution (3-3.1, 3-3.2, 3-3.3, 3-3.4, 4-3.1, 4-3.4, 8-2.2, 8-2.4, 8-2.6.). Students will conduct further analysis of the American Revolution, including its causes and impact in United States History (USHC-1.2, USHC-1.3).

It is essential for students to know:

The influence of English political institutions on the foundation of North American colonies dates back to as early as 1215 when King John was forced to sign the Magna Carta. The Magna Carta is a document that limited the power of the king and allowed the creation of a powerful legislative body, called Parliament. The purpose of the Magna Carta was to restrict the power of the king to protect the interests of the citizens of England. This document established English liberties that were ultimately reflected in the American political system.

When James I became the King of England in 1603, a long series of battles began between the King and Parliament ensued. James I believed in the divine rights of kings, which was the belief that monarchs received their right to rule from the God. As a result, James I did not believe that Parliament had the authority to question his power. Of course, members of Parliament disagreed with James I, especially his religious policies that specifically upset Puritan members of legislative body.

The disagreement between the King and Parliament continued during the reign of Charles I, James' son. Parliament forced Charles to sign the Petition of Right in 1628, which made him acknowledge the power of Parliament; however, in response, Charles dissolved Parliament. When Charles called a new Parliament to help him raise money, as well as an army, the leaders quickly passed laws to limit his power. Charles responded by attempting to arrest its leaders. The result of these events was the start of the English Civil War, which lasted from 1642-1649. Ultimately, Charles I was tried for treason and executed. Oliver Cromwell, a Puritan member of Parliament who led the supporters of Parliament against Charles became a military dictator. Following Cromwell's death, his son unsuccessfully attempted to take control of the government.

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In the end, Parliament stepped in and restored Charles I's son, Charles II, to the throne. His reign was relatively calm, but upon his death, his brother James II assumed leadership and England was once again in disorder. His pro-Catholic policies angered and worried the English, who feared that he would restore Catholicism. In 1688, seven members of Parliament contacted James's older daughter, Mary, and her husband, William of Orange, Prince of the Netherlands who were both Protestants. They wanted them to replace James II on the throne. The event was called the Glorious Revolution, a bloodless revolution that forced James to flee to France. William and Mary agreed, swearing to rule according to the laws made by Parliament. They agreed to accept the Bill of Rights, which guaranteed English people certain rights. From then on, no king or queen could rule England without the consent of Parliament.

The American Revolution

The British colonies in North America grew in population and wealth during the 1700s. The colonies enjoyed a sense of self-government because the British crown and Parliament had practiced salutary neglect for many decades. People in the colonies began to see themselves less and less as British subjects. Still, Parliament passed laws that governed the colonies. One set of laws banned trade with any nation other than Britain. The high cost of the French and Indian War, which ended in 1763, led Parliament to pass laws that put taxes on the colonists. The colonists became very angry. They had never paid taxes directly to the British government before. They said that the taxes violated their rights. Since Parliament had no members from the colonies, they said, Parliament had no right to pass tax laws that affected the colonies. They met the first tax, passed in 1765, with a boycott of British goods. Their refusal to buy British products was very effective and forced Parliament to repeal the law.

Over the next decade, colonists and Britain grew further apart. Some colonists wanted to push the colonies to independence. They took actions that caused Britain to react harshly, which led to conflict in many colonial areas. Eventually, the conflict led to war. Representatives of the colonists met in a congress and formed an army. In July of 1776, they announced that they were independent of Britain. They issued a Declaration of Independence that was based on the ideas of the Enlightenment. From 1775 to 1781, the colonists and Britain fought a war in North America. The colonists had a poorly equipped army and the British were powerful. However, in the end, the colonists won their independence. The British people grew tired of the cost of the war and pushed Parliament to agree to a peace. The Americans were also helped greatly by aid from France. In 1783, the two sides signed a treaty in which Britain recognized the independent United States.

The thirteen states were organized under a new government, outlined by the *Articles of Confederation*, that was very weak. The government struggled for a few years, but states held all the power and the central government had little. In 1787, leaders from the former colonies meet to create a new government. The new Constitution of the United States drew on many Enlightenment ideas. From Montesquieu, it put in effect the separation of powers into three branches of government. Each branch was able to prevent other branches from abusing their power. From Locke, it put power in the hands of the people. From Voltaire, it protected the rights of people to free speech and freedom of religion. From Beccaria, it set up a fair system of

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justice. Many of these rights were ensured in a set of additions to the Constitution called the Bill of Rights. Approval of these additions helped win approval of the Constitution as a whole.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students the leaders of the American Revolution or specific battles that were fought. It is also not essential that students know all of the dates relevant to changes neither in England nor in the American colonies.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize
- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the creation of nation-states in Europe and the struggle by non-European nations to gain and/or maintain sovereignty.

Enduring Understanding:

The self-determination of national groups became an ideal in Western Europe that expanded gradually to Central and Eastern Europe and eventually to colonized peoples. To understand the development of democracy across the globe and the continuing struggle for this ideal in many nations, the student will. . .

MWH-6.2 Analyze the reasons for independence movements as exemplified by the French and Haitian revolutions and eighteenth-century South American rebellions.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge—4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade seven, students studied the influence of the Enlightenment on, as well as the causes and results, of the French Revolution (7-2.5, 7-3.1).

It is essential for students to know:

During the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, a series of revolutions took place in France, Haiti, and several South American countries over social and economic inequalities.

The French Revolution

In the 1700's France was one of the most powerful countries in Europe. It was a center of enlightened thought; however, there were significant disparities that eventually led to a violent revolution. The French were divided into three social classes, called the Three Estates. The organization of the Three Estates dated to the Middle Ages. The First Estate was the Roman Catholic Church and the Second Estate was the French nobility. The Third Estate consisted of the remainder of French society and included three groups; the bourgeoisie (wealthy merchants and skilled workers), the city workers (cooks, servants and other poorly paid workers), and peasants (farm workers).

There were significant economic differences between each of these groups. The First Estate and Second Estate made up two percent of the population; however they owned thirty percent of the land and paid little or no taxes. The members of the Third Estate made up ninety-eight percent of the population, but had limited property rights and paid the majority of the taxes levied by the crown and the Church.

The Enlightenment spread the idea that everyone should be equal. The powerless people in the Third Estate liked that. The French economy was failing. High taxes kept profits low and food was in short supply. The government owed money to its allies. King Louis XVI was a weak and indecisive leader. His wife, Marie Antoinette, spent too much money and was disliked by the French people. In the 1780s, France was deeply in debt and desperately needed money to support the country and defend its borders. Louis tried to tax the nobles. Instead, they forced the King to

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call a meeting of delegates of the three estates to decide tax issues. The meeting began in May 1789 with arguments over how to count votes. In the past, each estate had cast one vote. The top two estates always voted together and got their way. Now the Third Estate delegates wanted to change the system. The Third Estate had as many delegates as the other two estates combined. They wanted each delegate to have a vote. The King and the other estates did not agree to the plan. The Third Estate then broke with the others and met separately.

In June 1789, delegates from the Third Estate voted to rename themselves the National Assembly. They claimed to represent all the people. This was the beginning of representative government for France. Louis tried to make peace. He ordered the clergy and nobles to join the National Assembly. However, trouble erupted. Rumors flew that Swiss soldiers paid by Louis were going to attack French citizens. On July 14, an angry crowd captured the Bastille, a Paris prison. The mob wanted to get gunpowder for their weapons in order to defend the city. A wave of violence called the Great Fear swept the country. Peasants broke into and burned nobles' houses. They destroyed documents that had forced them to pay fees to the nobles. Late in 1789, a mob of women marched twelve miles from Paris to the King's palace at Versailles. They were angry about high bread prices and demanded that the King move to Paris. They hoped he would end hunger in the city. The King and Queen left Versailles and in 1793 they were executed.

Haitian Revolution

Spurred by discontent and Enlightenment ideas, people in Latin America fought colonial rule. In the early 1800s, colonial peoples throughout Latin America followed the example of the French Revolution. In the name of freedom and equality, they fought for their independence. The first to do so was the French colony of Saint Domingue, on the island of Hispaniola. Almost all of the people who lived in the colony were slaves of African origin. In 1791, about one hundred thousand of them rose in revolt. Toussaint L'Ouverture became the leader. By 1801, he had moved to the eastern part of the island and freed the slaves there. In 1804, the former colony declared its independence and renamed the island Haiti.

South American Rebellions

In Latin America most of the nineteenth century rebellions were a result of European imperialism and discontent over the rigid class structure. Most Latin American nations were divided into six social classes of people. The Peninsulares were those who were born in Spain and were considered the highest social class. Peninsulares had most of the social and economic power. The Creoles, the next social class, were individuals of Spanish descent who were born in Latin America. The next social class was called Mestizos, who were of mixed European and Indian ancestry. Below the Mestizo class were Mulattos, who were of mixed European and African ancestry. At the bottom of the social scale, were Native Indians.

The negative feeling erupted when Napoleon overthrew the king of Spain and named his own brother as king. Creoles in Latin America had no loyalty to the new king and revolted. They wished to create a society free from French control and believed that greater equality could be established without imperialism. Even after the former king was restored to the throne, the Creoles and other groups that had joined with them did not give up their fight for freedom.

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Two leaders, Simón Bolívar and José de San Martín, pushed much of South America to independence. Simón Bolívar was a writer, fighter, and political thinker. He survived defeats and exile to win independence for Venezuela in 1821. José de San Martín helped win independence for Argentina in 1816 and Chile in 1818. Bolívar led their combined armies to a great victory in 1824 that gave independence to all the former Spanish colonies.

In Mexico, the Indian and Mestizo populations led the fight for independence. Miguel Hidalgo, a village priest, called for a revolt against Spanish rule. The Creole population joined the Spanish government to suppress the revolt by the lower classes. Battles continued until 1815, when the Creoles won. In 1820, a new government took charge in Spain. Fearing that they would lose their rights this time, the Creoles joined the Rebels and fought for independence. In 1821, Spain accepted Mexico's independence. In 1823, the region of Central America separated itself from Mexico.

In Brazil, independence was achieved very differently than in other areas of Latin America. When Napoleon's armies entered Portugal in 1807, the royal family escaped to Brazil, its largest colony. For the next fourteen years, it was the center of the Portuguese empire. By the time Napoleon was defeated, the people of Brazil wanted their independence. In 1822, several thousand Creoles signed a paper asking the son of Portugal's king to rule an independent Brazil. He agreed, and Brazil became free that year through a bloodless revolt. The wars of independence hurt the societies and economies of Latin America. Turmoil continued in the region. Local leaders disagreed and split the new countries up into smaller units. In 1830, the territory of Gran Colombia divided into Colombia, Ecuador, and Venezuela. In 1841, the United Provinces of Central America split into five republics.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the leaders of the various revolutions that took place in Europe or Latin America.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the creation of nation-states in Europe and the struggle by non-European nations to gain and/or maintain sovereignty.

Enduring Understanding:

The self-determination of national groups became an ideal in Western Europe that expanded gradually to Central and Eastern Europe and eventually to colonized peoples. To understand the development of democracy across the globe and the continuing struggle for this ideal in many nations, the student will. . .

MWH-6.3 Analyze various movements for individual rights, including worldwide abolitionism, the end of slave trade movements in England and Latin America, the liberation of serfs in Russia, and the growing movement for women's rights.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge—4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades three, four, and eight students have studied the end of slavery (3-2.5, 4-3.4, 4-5.5, 4-6.2 8-1.4, 8-4.4) and women's suffrage (8-5.8). United States History and the Constitution will address abolition and the growth of women's rights (USHC-2.4, USHC-4.6).

It is essential for students to know:

At the end of the eighteenth century, a movement to abolish slavery and the slave trade developed in England and areas of Latin America. Early abolitionist argued that the only way to end the suffering of enslaved Africans was to make the slave trade illegal. In 1807, Parliament enacted a law that made the slave trade illegal. The British navy began to enforce this policy in British colonial holdings; however, slave trade in the Caribbean islands continued until 1811.

Spurred by the demands of ordinary people, Great Britain underwent significant democratic reforms in the nineteenth century. Since the 1600s, Britain's government had been a constitutional monarchy. A king or queen ruled the country, but Parliament held the real power. Still, very few people could vote for members of Parliament. Only men who owned property, about six percent of the population, could vote. That changed in the 1800s.

The Reform Bill of 1832 was the first step in this change. The middle class across England protested the fact that they could not vote. Worried by revolutions sweeping Europe, Parliament passed the Reform Bill which gave the right to vote to many in the middle class. It also gave seats in Parliament to the new industrial cities, which had not had any representatives before this period. Over time, Parliament made more changes. By 1884, almost all adult males in Britain could vote.

By 1890, a number of countries with industrial economies had given all men the right to vote. None, however, gave women that right. During the 1800s, women in the United States and Britain peacefully campaigned for the vote. Beginning in 1903, a group called the Women's Social and Political Union began a stronger campaign for women's suffrage in Britain. They held

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rallies and parades. They also disrupted the speeches of government officials and sometimes set fire to buildings. When the leaders were arrested, they went on hunger strikes to gain publicity for their cause. It was not until after World War I, however, that women won the right to vote in both Great Britain and the United States.

Russia was not industrialized in the early 1800s and one of the biggest issues in the nation was the existence of serfdom. Peasants were bound to the nobles whose land they worked. Russia's rulers did not wish to free the serfs. They feared they would lose the support of the nobles. In the 1850s, the Russian army lost a war to take over part of the Ottoman Empire. The new ruler of Russia, Alexander II, decided that Russia's lack of a modern economy caused the defeat. He decided to begin many reforms. The first, in 1861, was to free the serfs. Though it seemed bold, Alexander's move went only part way. Nobles kept half their land and were paid for the half that went to the peasants. The former serfs were not given the land. They had to pay for it, and this debt kept them still tied to the land. The czar's efforts to make changes ended when he was assassinated in 1881. Alexander III, his successor, brought back tight control over the country and moved to make the economy more industrial.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the names of the individuals who participated in reform efforts in Europe and the Americas or their specific accomplishments.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use a knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the creation of nation-states in Europe and the struggle by non-European nations to gain and/or maintain sovereignty.

Enduring Understanding:

The self-determination of national groups became an ideal in Western Europe that expanded gradually to Central and Eastern Europe and eventually to colonized peoples. To understand the development of democracy across the globe and the continuing struggle for this ideal in many nations, the student will. . .

MWH-6.4 Explain the causes of the revolutions of 1820, 1830, and 1848 and the reasons why these revolutions failed to achieve nationalist and democratic objectives.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge—2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In seventh grade, students studied the development of nationalism and its effects on revolutionary movements, including the revolutions of 1830 and 1848 (7-3.2).

It is essential for students to know:

Liberal and nationalist uprisings challenged the old conservative order of Europe. In the first half of the 1800s, three forces struggled for power within the countries of Europe. Conservatives supported the kings who had ruled these lands for many centuries. These were nobles and other people who owned large amounts of property. Liberals wanted to give more power to elected legislatures. They were typically middleclass merchants and business people. They wanted to limit voting rights to people who were educated and owned property. Radicals wanted the end of rule by kings and full voting rights for all people, even the poor. At the same time, another movement arose in Europe (nationalism). This was the belief that a person's loyalty should go not to the country's ruler but to the nation itself. Nationalists thought that people with a common language and culture were a nation and had the right to their own government. This idea grew out of the French Revolution.

The first people to win self-rule during this period were the Greeks. For centuries, Greece had been part of the Ottoman Empire. In 1821, Greeks revolted against this Turkish rule. Rulers in Europe did not like the idea of revolts, but the Greek cause was popular. Other nations gave aid to the Greeks, helping to defeat the Ottoman forces in 1827. The Greeks won their independence by 1830.

In 1830, the Belgians declared their independence from rule by the Dutch. Nationalists began a long struggle to unify all of Italy, which had been broken into many different states. Poles revolted against Russian rule. Conservatives managed to put down these rebellions. However, new disputes broke out again in 1848 among Hungarians and Czechs. Once again, they were put down forcefully.

Events differed in France. Riots in 1830 forced the King to flee and put a new king in his place. A new revolt broke out in 1848 that overthrew the king and established a republic. However, the radicals who had won this victory began arguing over how much France should be changed. Some wanted only political changes. Others wanted social and economic changes that would help the poor. When these forces fought in the streets, the French gave up on the radical program. They introduced a new government with a legislature and a strong president. The new president was Louis-Napoleon, Napoleon Bonaparte's nephew. He later named himself Emperor of France. He built railroads and promoted the growth of France's industry. The economy revived and more people had jobs.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential that students know the names of the leaders of the revolutions of 1820, 1830 or 1848.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize
- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the creation of nation-states in Europe and the struggle by non-European nations to gain and/or maintain sovereignty.

Enduring Understanding:

The self-determination of national groups became an ideal in Western Europe that expanded gradually to Central and Eastern Europe and eventually to colonized peoples. To understand the development of democracy across the globe and the continuing struggle for this ideal in many nations, the student will. . .

MWH-6.5 Analyze the successes and limitations of movements for national unity, including the unification of Germany and Italy and the American Civil War.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge–4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In seventh grade, students studied the German and Italian Unification (7-3.2). In grades three, four, five and eight, students studied the American Civil War (3-4.4, 3-4.5, 4-6.3, 4-6.4, 4-6.5, 7-2.4, 8-4.5, 8-4.6). They will study the causes, course, and impact of the American Civil War in United States History (USHC-3.1, USHC-3.2).

It is essential for students to know:

Nationalism contributed to significant changes in Europe during the nineteenth century. Italians and Germans, displeased with social, economic, and political marginalization took steps to unify based on commonalities.

Italian Unification

Italians used nationalism to build a strong nation. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, large parts of Italy were ruled by the kings of Austria and Spain. Nationalists tried to unite the nation in 1848, but the revolt was beaten down. Hopes rested with the Italian king of the state of Piedmont-Sardinia. His chief minister, Count Cavour, worked to expand the king's control over other areas of the north. Meanwhile, Giuseppe Garibaldi led an army of patriots who won control of southern areas. He put those areas under the control of the king. In 1866, the area around Venice was added to the king's control. Four years later, the king completed the unification of Italy. However, the Italian government could not solve Italy's economic problems.

German Unification

Germany had also been divided into many different states for centuries. These states, or principalities, were ruled by different leaders. In 1815, thirty-nine German states created a union called the German Confederation. Prussia and Austria-Hungary were in charge of this group; however, Prussia rose to become more powerful over time. By the mid-1800's, Otto von Bismarck, a Prussian leader, joined with Austria to gain control of new territories.

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Under Bismarck's leadership, the German military and industry grew substantially. Ultimately, Bismarck turned against Austria in order to gain more territory. By 1850, many northern German states formed a new confederation that Prussia alone controlled.

Bismarck decided to win the loyalty of the remaining German areas in the south. He purposefully angered a weak France so that it would declare war on Prussia. When the Prussian army won, Bismarck reached his goal. The war with France had given the southern Germans a strong sense of nationalism. In 1871, a unified Germany was born with the King of Prussia serving as the leader. As a result, the balance of power in Europe changed. Germany and Britain were the strongest powers, followed by France, Austria, Russia, and Italy.

American Civil War

In the early 1800s, the United States grew in size. It bought land from France known as the Louisiana Purchase. It won a war with Mexico in the 1840s and thus gained even more land. Many said it was “manifest destiny”—the right of the United States to rule the land from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific. As white settlers moved farther and farther west, Native Americans suffered. In the 1830s, many thousands were forced to move from their homes in the eastern states to the present state of Oklahoma. This growth raised serious questions.

The southern states used slave labor to grow crops such as cotton. People in the South hoped to extend slavery to the new western lands. Many in the North, however, believed that slavery was wrong and should be ended. Conflict over slavery eventually led to the Civil War. The southern states seceded, or pulled out of, the Union. When southern forces fired on a Union fort in 1861, war broke out. The fighting lasted four long and bloody years. The North won the war.

During the fighting, President Abraham Lincoln issued the *Emancipation Proclamation*, which prohibited slavery in states that rebelled against the federal government. The United States Constitution was later changed to make this the law of the land and granted African Americans citizenship. In the first few years after the war, newly freed African Americans enjoyed equal rights. Later, whites regained control of the governments of the southern states. They passed laws that took away the rights of blacks and treated them unfairly. It would be many years before African Americans could enjoy equality. The economy of the South was destroyed by the Civil War. Elsewhere, though, the nation saw a surge of industrial growth. The sharp rise in immigration from Europe and Asia helped achieve this growth. By 1914, more than twenty million people had come to the United States.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not important that students know individuals who led unification in Italy or Germany, nor is it important for students to know the military leaders or battles of the American Civil War.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

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- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the creation of nation-states in Europe and the struggle by non-European nations to gain and/or maintain sovereignty.

Enduring Understanding:

The self-determination of national groups became an ideal in Western Europe that expanded gradually to Central and Eastern Europe and eventually to colonized peoples. To understand the development of democracy across the globe and the continuing struggle for this ideal in many nations, the student will. . .

MWH-6.6 Describe the reactions in Asian kingdoms to the Western ideas of nationalism, including the Indian nationalist movement, the Meiji era in Japan, and the Manchu dynasty in China.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge–2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students studied imperialism in India (7-3.5, 7-6.2) as well as the Meiji Restoration in grade seven (7-3.6).

It is essential for students to know:

As the Mughal Empire in India declined in early 1702, Britain controlled almost the entire Indian subcontinent. By the middle of the century, the British East India Company was becoming the most important power in India. It held huge amounts of land. British law forced India to supply raw materials such as tea, indigo (a dye), coffee, and cotton. The law also forced Indian manufacturing out of business. India became even more important when the East India Company built rail lines that linked growing regions in the interior with ports on the coast. India enjoyed some gains from British rule. Its rail system was the third largest in the world and helped make the economy more modern. The British made other improvements including telephone and telegraph lines, dams, bridges, and canals. They also improved sanitation and public health and built schools. More and more Indians learned to read. British rule caused problems as well. Many economic benefits flowed out of India to Britain. Indian industry died out because of British trade laws. The farmers in many villages lost the ability to feed themselves because they were made to grow cash crops. Many peoples died when famines struck.

British racist attitudes damaged Indian culture. By the mid-1800s, many Indians felt growing resentment toward Britain. When Indian soldiers heard rumors that offended their religious feelings, many rebelled. It took British troops a year to end the rebellion. The Indians lost because of their own divisions. Muslims and Hindus did not trust each other. After the revolt, the British government took direct control of British India. Indians tried other ways of resisting British control. Leaders attempted to change traditional Indian practices to make the society more modern. Indian nationalists hoped to free India of foreign control with some of these changes. Indians resented the fact that they were treated unfairly. Two groups were formed, the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League. Both began to push the British to make changes. In the early 1900s, they called for self-government.

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Japan

Japan followed the model of Western powers by expanding its foreign influence. From the early 1600s to the mid-1800s, Japan was virtually isolated. It did have relations with China and Korea and had limited contact with Dutch traders. That changed in 1853 when American steamships, with cannons, entered Japanese waters. The next year, Japan agreed to open up trade. Soon after, it made similar deals with European nations. Many Japanese were upset with the shogun, the military dictator, who had agreed to these new treaties. The Emperor Mutsuhito rallied their support and managed to overthrow the shogun. For the first time in centuries, the emperor ruled Japan directly. He reigned for forty-five years, from 1867 to 1912, in what is called the Meiji era. The name Meiji, which he chose for his reign, means “enlightened rule.” The emperor was determined to modernize his country. He sent government officials to Europe and the United States. From what they saw, they shaped a new Japan. They modeled the government after the strong central government of Germany. They patterned the army after Germany’s and a new navy after Britain’s.

The Japanese adapted the American system of schooling for all children. The emperor also supported changes to Japan’s economy. The country built railroads, mined coal, and constructed factories. These steps had positive results. In just a few years, Japan’s industrial economy equaled almost any in the world. By 1890, it was the strongest military power in Asia. It asked foreigners to give up their special rights in Japan. The countries agreed, and a proud Japan felt equal to them. Now, it wanted to show off its power. Japan began to expand its influence like the European powers. When China broke an agreement not to send armies into Korea, Japan went to war. It drove China out of Korea and gained Taiwan and some other islands as new colonies. In 1904, Japan and Russia fought a war over China’s Manchurian territory. Japan surprised the world by defeating a larger power that was supposed to be stronger. The next year, Japan attacked Korea, and by 1910 it had won complete control. The Japanese proved to be harsh rulers. They shut down Korean newspapers and changed schools so that only Japanese language and history were taught. They took away land from Korean farmers and gave it to Japanese settlers. They built factories to be run by Japanese only. Koreans were not allowed to start new businesses. Koreans bitterly resented these actions. They began a nationalist movement and protested against Japanese rule.

The Manchu Dynasty

Western economic pressure forced China to accept foreign trade and influence. In the late 1700s, China was self-sufficient. It had a strong farming economy based on growing rice. Other crops, introduced from the Americas, helped to feed its large population. Industry made silk, cotton, and ceramics. Mines produced salt, tin, silver, and iron. China needed nothing from the outside world. China allowed only limited trade with European powers, and it all had to come through one port. Britain was anxious; it bought so much Chinese tea that its supply of silver was dwindling.

The British were eager to find something that the Chinese would want in large quantities. In the early 1800s, they found it—the drug opium, shipped mostly from India. Soon millions of Chinese were addicted to opium, and the Chinese government complained. When the British refused to stop the trade, war broke out. Because British ships had more powerful guns, China

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lost the war. As a result, in 1842, the British took possession of Hong Kong. Later, the United States and European nations won the right to trade in five ports. The Chinese resented these treaties but could not stop them.

China also had a lot of internal problems, including a rapid increase in population that made it difficult the stave off starvation in periods of poor weather conditions. China's government was weak and too corrupt to take steps to solve its problems. A leader from southern China, Hong Xiuquan, launched a rebellion that won control of large parts of the south, including the city of Nanjing. The government needed fourteen years to put down this Taiping Rebellion. The fighting left much farmland destroyed.

In the late 1800s, European powers and Japan each won control of areas of China, which were called "spheres of influence." These were regions in which a foreign nation controls trade and investment. The United States opposed these steps. It urged an Open Door Policy, in which all powers had equal access to Chinese markets. Though the country was not divided into colonies, it was clearly dominated by foreign powers. The Empress Cixi ruled China and supported some reforms; she encouraged limited modernization, which included the building of fleets of ships to support Chinese trade. However, her program was not a complete success, and in 1898 when her nephew tried to put in place broader reforms, conservatives protested. As a result, Empress Cixi took back control of the government and limited Chinese modernization. Many Chinese continued to protest foreign influence. A group called the Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists (Boxers) was formed. They wanted to get rid of all Western influence. The Boxers fought not only against foreigners, but also Chinese who accepted Western culture and Christianity.

In early 1900, an army of Boxers surrounded Beijing's European section. After many weeks, they were finally driven out by an army of soldiers from multiple foreign powers. Finally Cixi was forced to accept major reforms, including the development of a constitutional monarchy.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential that students know the names of the revolutionary or nationalist leaders in each of the countries.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret

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- Exemplify
- Classify

- Summarize

- Infer

- Compare

- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-6: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the creation of nation-states in Europe and the struggle by non-European nations to gain and/or maintain sovereignty.

Enduring Understanding:

The self-determination of national groups became an ideal in Western Europe that expanded gradually to Central and Eastern Europe and eventually to colonized peoples. To understand the development of democracy across the globe and the continuing struggle for this ideal in many nations, the student will. . .

MWH-6.7 Explain the causes of the Russian Revolution of 1917, including the reasons that the revolutionary government progressed from moderate to radical.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge –2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have had no previous instruction regarding this content nor will they have any future instruction.

It is essential for students to know:

In the mid-nineteenth century, two Russian czars made compromises with their citizens in an attempt to improve the conditions in the nation. In 1861, Czar Alexander II freed the serfs, purchased land from the nobility, and sold the land to peasant village communities. This was a significant change for the Russian people. Many serfs were still displeased because the nobility retained more than half of the land and they were forced to pay for the land that the Czar purchased from the nobles. The cost placed a tremendous burden on the peasant class.

In 1881, reforms in Russia stopped when the Czar Alexander II was killed by radical students. The new czar, Alexander III, took back control of the Russian government. He cracked down on anyone who seemed to threaten his government. He also oppressed all non-Russian peoples who lived within the Russian empire, especially the Jews. In 1894, his son Nicholas II became czar and continued the strong rule. He launched a program aimed at building up Russia's industry. Russia quickly became a leading producer of steel in the world. However, this rapid industrial growth brought problems. Working conditions were poor, wages were low, and children were forced to work. Workers grew angry and often went on strike.

Revolutionary groups wanted to topple the government. Some followed the teachings of Karl Marx. In 1903, they argued about how to carry out their revolution, and they split into two groups. One group, the Bolsheviks, was led by Vladimir Lenin. He fled Russia a few years later to await a better time to push his ideas. Russia suffered a huge defeat at the hands of Japan in a war that started in 1904.

In early 1905, the Russian army killed hundreds of hungry workers who had peacefully gathered to ask for relief. Strikes spread in protest, and Nicholas was forced to allow some reforms to take place. The reforms including a guarantee of personal liberties, the establishment of a legislature, called the Duma, and universal male suffrage.

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The suffering caused by World War I was the final blow against the czar's rule. In just the first few months of war, Russia had four million soldiers killed, wounded, or captured. As the war worsened, the czar lost control of Russia. Soldiers refused to fight, prices shot sky high, and people starved. In March 1917, almost 200,000 workers took to the streets of one city to protest high prices. Soldiers shot into the crowd. Later they fired at their officers and joined the protest.

Ultimately, the czar was forced to step down. A year later, he and his family were executed. A government led by Alexander Kerensky was formed. Kerensky hoped to keep Russia in the war. The decision cost him the support of soldiers who wanted to fight no longer and workers and peasants who wanted an end to food shortages. Across the country these forces formed local councils called soviets. In some cities, the soviets actually had more real power than the government. In the midst of this unrest, Lenin returned to Russia determined to bring about his revolution. His slogan "Peace, Land, and Bread" was soon taken up by many people. In November 1917, armed workers took control of government offices. The Kerensky reign was ended.

In order to gain support, Lenin ordered that all farmland be given to the peasant class. Workers were also given control of the factories. Soon Lenin agreed to a peace treaty with Germany. It gave away large amounts of Russian land, but it ended the war. Then, forces opposed to Lenin's revolution (supported by the Allies who fought Germany) tried to defeat Lenin's army in battle. The civil war lasted three years. The fighting and the famine that followed killed fifteen million Russians. In the end, Lenin's Red Army won.

In 1921, Lenin launched a new plan to rebuild the Russian economy. It allowed for some private ownership of property, relaxing Lenin's desire for complete state control. He also changed the government to form a new nation—the Soviet Union. It was to be run by the leaders of the Communist Party. By the late 1920s, the Soviet economy had come back. Farms and factories were producing as much as they had before World War I.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the specific individuals who protested against the Russian government, with the exception of Vladimir Lenin.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Evaluate the validity of multiple points of view or biases by using evidence and sound reasoning.

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize
- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-7: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of global warfare in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

World War I (the Great War) and World War II resulted in the destruction of long-standing empires and the realignment of the relationships between former colonies and former empires. To understand the impact of global warfare on the development of social, economic, and political institutions in modern times, the student will. . .

MWH-7.1 Analyze the relative importance of economic and political rivalries, ethnic and ideological conflicts, social class, militarism, and imperialism as underlying causes of World War I and World War II, including the role of nationalism and propaganda in mobilizing civilian populations around the world to support the two world wars.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge—4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades three, five, seven, and eight students should have studied the causes of World War I and World War II, including the role of nationalism, imperialism and militarism (3-5.4, 5-4.1, 5-4.5, 5-4.6, 7-4.1, 7-4.2, 7-4.4, 7-4.5, 8-6.1, 8-6.5). In United States History and the Constitution, students will study the reasons for United States entrance in World War I and World War II (USHC-7.1, USHC-7.2, USHC-7.3, USHC-7.5).

It is essential for students to know:

During the nineteenth century, military buildup (militarism), nationalism and the growth of alliances led to a continental war in Europe. Between the 1840's and the first decade of the 1900s, many countries joined groups to promote peace. While this movement for peace grew, so did the strong sense of nationalism in many of these nations. Nationalism served to unify the people in each country; however, it also led to competition.

By 1900, six nations were in competition for power in Europe. These nations, who were also called the Great Powers, were Great Britain, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Italy, and France. They competed economically and for territory. All these nations were involved in imperialism, which contributed greatly to the competition between the nations. During the nineteenth century, each of the countries was vying for territory in Africa; this competition almost led to war in the early 1900s. As competition on the continent, as well as overseas grew, each country began a rapid build-up of weapons. All of the countries (excluding Great Britain) built a huge army. Military leaders developed plans to mobilize troops quickly, should the need arise. All of these factors made the likelihood of war in Europe probable as tensions grew.

World War I

In 1879, Otto von Bismarck, helped to develop an alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy, called the Triple Alliance. At that time, Wilhelm II became Kaiser, or Emperor, of

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Germany and he did not want to share power. He forced Bismarck out and followed his own policies. In 1879, he let an alliance that was formed with Russia and Austria (called the League of Three Emperors) expire, and Russia quickly allied itself with France. This alliance meant that Germany would have to fight enemies on east and west borders if there were a war with either country. Germany also maintained its alliance with Austria.

Wilhelm II then moved to make the German navy larger. This alarmed Great Britain and in response it began to build more ships. It made a Triple Entente Alliance with France and Russia. The six Great Powers had now formed two camps: Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy against Britain, France, and Russia. Meanwhile, trouble was brewing in the Balkans, in Southeastern Europe. The Ottoman Empire, which controlled this area, was breaking apart. Both Austria-Hungary and Russia wanted some of this land. The kingdom of Serbia, which was in this region, wanted to bring other Slavic peoples who lived in the Balkans under its control. In 1908, Austria-Hungary seized Bosnia and Herzegovina.

These lands had Slavic peoples and the Serbs were angered. However, their Russian allies were unwilling to support them, and they backed down. By 1914, the situation was different. Serbia gained land in other parts of the region and felt strong. Austria worried that Serbia might interfere with its control of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Amid these tensions, a shot rang out. In June 1914, a Serbian shot and killed the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Russia came to Serbia's defense, and soon most of Europe was at war.

World War II

As Germany, Italy, and Japan conquered other countries, the rest of the world did nothing. In the 1930s, the major democracies—Britain, France, and the United States—still faced serious problems at home. Dictators in Germany and Italy took advantage of this and began moving to gain territory. So did Japan which was now ruled by generals. These military leaders had taken power when the Depression struck. They planned to capture China as a part of a Pacific empire. In 1931, the Japanese army captured Manchuria, a part of China. It was rich in coal and iron and as a result provided valuable resources for the Japanese economy.

Other countries protested in the League of Nations but did nothing else. Japan ignored the protests and in 1933 pulled out of the League. It remained in Manchuria. Four years later, Japan invaded China. The strong Japanese Army swept Chinese fighters aside. It killed tens of thousands of Chinese in the city of Nanjing. Chinese forces, both the Nationalists of the government and Communist rebels, continued to fight Japan.

Italy's Benito Mussolini wanted an Italian empire in Africa and in 1935 he invaded Ethiopia. His troops won easy victory. Haile Selassie, the Emperor of Ethiopia, pleaded to the League of Nations for help. The League did nothing. Hitler made moves also. He broke the Versailles Treaty by rebuilding Germany's army. In 1936, he sent troops into an area of Germany that the treaty had forbidden it to enter. France and Britain again refused to stand up to Germany. This move won Hitler more support in Germany. That same year, he signed an agreement with Mussolini and also with Japan. The three nations were called the Axis Powers. In 1936, Spain erupted in civil war as the army revolted against a leftist government. Hitler and Mussolini sent

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aid to the army, which was backed by Spanish Fascists. The Soviet Union sent aid to the government. In 1939, the army won and Francisco Franco became Spain's fascist dictator. In March 1938, Hitler moved his troops into Austria. He made it part of Germany, again breaking the Treaty of Versailles. France and Britain once more did nothing. The next year, Hitler demanded that Czechoslovakia give up part of its land to Germany. The country refused, but Britain and France agreed to allow Germany to take the land. Hitler promised to respect the new borders of Czechoslovakia, but a few months later he took the entire country. In the summer of 1939, Hitler made a similar demand of Poland. That nation also refused to give up land. Britain and France now said that they would protect Poland. But Hitler guessed they would not back this up. Meanwhile, he made an agreement with Soviet dictator Joseph Stalin in which the two countries promised never to attack each other. The strong sense of nationalism espoused by the Spanish, Italians, and Germans, coupled with the lack of action by the British and French ultimately led Europe into war again.

Propaganda Used During 20th Century Wartime

Propaganda refers to ideas that deliberately spread a particular point of view to benefit a cause or to damage an opposing view. Political leaders in Europe, as well as in the United States, used propaganda during World War I and World War II to gain support for their war efforts. For example, the Nazi party used the documentary film *The Triumph of the Will* to glorify the movement. Posters and other visual references were the most commonly used format for propaganda; however, the growth of various technologies also contributed to the spread of propaganda. The first European and American radio stations began to broadcast in the 1920s. Politicians used the radio to influence public opinion. During World War II, President Roosevelt gave informal talks, called *fireside chats* to speak to the nation. Citizens felt a greater connection to their leadership due to the use of these techniques.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential that students know the names of the leaders of the countries or the specific actions they took which contributed to World Wars I and II.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-7: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of global warfare in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

World War I (the Great War) and World War II resulted in the destruction of long-standing empires and the realignment of the relationships between former colonies and former empires. To understand the impact of global warfare on the development of social, economic, and political institutions in modern times, the student will. . .

MWH-7.2 Analyze the ways that the responses of the governments of Britain, France, Germany, and Italy to the economic and political challenges of the 1920s and 1930s contributed to the renewal of international hostilities in the years leading to World War II.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge—4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades three, five, seven, and eight, students studied the period between World War I and World War II, with specific emphasis on the Great Depression (3-5.3, 3-5.4, 5-4.2, 5-4.3, 7-4.3, 7-4.4, 7-4.5, 8-6.3, 8-6.4). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn the United States' reaction to the post World War I period with specific reference to the economy and a return to isolationism (USHC-6.3, USHC 6.4, USHC-7.4).

It is essential for students to know:

An economic depression that began in the United States in 1929 spread across the globe and led to a decade of economic trouble for many nations. After World War I, European countries struggled. There was a great deal of physical damage left from the war and the new republics that formed out of the old empires of Europe were very weak. Even nations that were democracies experienced lots of problems, including instability that made the development of policies to govern almost impossible. In 1929, stock prices in the United States plunged. The Great Depression was on. The American depression hit other countries. Trade between nations dropped, and unemployment grew in many countries. The world suffered, especially countries that were dependent on farming to support the country's income and employment such as Japan and Latin America.

Each country attempted to deal with the economic crisis in a different way. In Great Britain, a new multi-party government took over. It took steps that slowly improved the economy and cut unemployment. By 1937, production was up again in Great Britain. However, in France, the political situation was worse. After several governments lost support, moderates and socialists combined to form a new government. It passed laws to help workers, but companies raised prices to cover their costs. As a result, unemployment was still high and the French government struggled to control the economic situation.

Franklin D. Roosevelt became President of the United States in 1932. He began a program that he called The New Deal. The government spent large amounts of money on building public

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works, including roads, dams, bridges, airports, and buildings. This effort created jobs for millions of United States workers. Businesses and farmers also got help from the government; the American economy got better but the recovery was slow.

Fascism Grows in Europe

Political and economic problems led Italy and Germany to turn to dictators to solve their economic problems. This led to a loss of democracy in countries that had moved towards this form of government after World War I. Citizens believed that strong leaders could solve economic problems. These leaders followed a political system called fascism. Fascist leaders were strongly nationalistic. They supported the idea of a one party system with a strong dictator who controlled all aspects of the government. Fascist leaders built large military forces and gave no rights to their citizens.

Fascism grew in Italy because the citizens were displeased with the results of World War I. Italians believed that they had not received enough territory at the end of the war. Wealthy Italians were fearful that the financial issues in the country would lead to the development of a Communist state like the Soviet state. Benito Mussolini rose to power in Italy when he promised to revive the economy and improve the military.

The situation in Germany proved to be worse than in other European countries. Germany owed a huge debt from the war, as a result of the Treaty of Versailles, and the country was also faced with inflation. German money lost its value; however, with the help of the United States, Germany began to produce as many goods by 1929 as it had prior to World War I. During this time, fascism also grew in Germany under the leadership of Adolf Hitler. Hitler, the leader of the Nazi party, argued that the results of the Treaty of Versailles, which ended World War I, treated the German people unfairly. He believed that Germany deserved additional territory in Eastern Europe and Russia. When the depression reached Germany, the country was not doing well economically or politically. As a result, the German people, like the Italians, sought a strong leader to improve conditions in the country. It is important to note that Hitler was initially elected to the German Chancellorship, but he quickly became a dictator. Those who opposed him were arrested, and in some cases killed. His economic programs put millions of Germans to work; however, it took away their right to unionize or to strike.

Dictators also took control of governments in Hungary, Poland, Yugoslavia, Albania, Bulgaria, and Romania. The only Eastern European country to maintain democratic between World War I and World War II was Czechoslovakia.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the specific names of leaders in European nations during the period between World War I and World War II, with the exception of those specifically mentioned in the essential knowledge section. It is not essential that students know specific programs or policies put into place by the leadership.

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Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD)

Standard MWH-7: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of global warfare in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

World War I, the Great War, and World War II resulted in the destruction of long-standing empires and the realignment of the relationships between former colonies and former empires. To understand the impact of global warfare on the development of social, economic, and political institutions in modern times, the student will. . .

MWH-7.3 Describe major shifts in world geopolitics between 1900 and 1945, including the changing role of the United States in international affairs and the move from isolationism to an increased role as a world power.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge—2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades seven and eight, students have had limited exposure to the United States government's role in World War I and II (7-4.5, 7-4.2, 7-4.4, 7-4.5, 8-6.1, 8-6.5). In United States History and the Constitution, students will study the reasons for United States entrance in World War I and World War II and the country's movement toward dominance in world affairs (USHC-5.1, USHC-7.1).

It is essential for students to know:

When George Washington issued his farewell address in 1789, he encouraged the United States government to take a neutral approach to international affairs in order to avoid future war with other nations. Several United States presidents followed George Washington's proclamation by reaffirming isolationist policies, except in cases where the United States was pulled into the affairs of another nation. When World War I started in 1914, President Woodrow Wilson urged the United States government and citizens to continue the policy of neutrality. In fact, he issued the *Proclamation of Neutrality* reaffirming these standards. However, as the war continued, the United States government found it increasingly difficult to remain neutral. In April 1917, President Wilson asked Congress to declare war on Germany.

The reasons for President Wilson's change in attitude are attributed to a number of issues, including German submarine attacks against the British, which affected American citizens and economic interests. There was also American hostility towards Germans due to their invasion of neutral countries and plots against the United States including the Zimmermann Note incident, in which Germany attempted to pull Mexico into a war against the United States to keep the United States out of the war in Europe. In the end United States idealism, which supported democracy, won out and the United States entered the war in 1917.

American entrance into the war turned the tide of battle in favor of the Allies and broke with the American tradition of isolation. Ultimately, this event marked America's emergence as a world power and eventually a world leader. However, at the end of the war, the United States was still reluctant to assume international responsibilities. The United States government failed to sign the

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Treaty of Versailles or join the League of Nations, which was an organization designed to solve international problems and advance world peace. Ironically, President Wilson proposed the League of Nations; however, he was not able to convince the United States Senate to agree to the terms of the Treaty of Versailles or United States involvement in the League of Nations. In fact, the United States government and most citizens argued for a return to isolationism based on the idea that joining the League of Nations could, in theory, lead to war in the future and it could also lead to the interference of United States domestic policies. Although the United States did not join the organization, it cooperated, in a limited way, by joining the International Labor Organization, working with its agencies to suppress slavery and establish standards for communication and transportation and supporting the League during its crisis over the Japanese invasion of Manchuria (1931-Stimson Doctrine). Additionally, the United States participated in a number of agreements, including naval disarmament talks, international trade pacts, and international peace agreements. However, it is important to note that the United States adopted neutrality legislation (Neutrality Acts of 1935 and 1937) in an attempt to reaffirm isolationist policies and to minimize economic and emotional entanglements that leaders feared would lead to United States involvement in another war.

As the World War II moved closer to inevitable, the United States government continued its policy of isolationism. President Franklin D. Roosevelt encouraged Congress to enact several policies, including the Neutrality Act of 1939 (included the cash and carry policy), Lend-Lease Act of 1941, and the embargo on strategic material to Japan as a means to support France and Great Britain's war efforts. These policies maintained American neutrality, but also offered much needed support to the Allied forces. This changed in 1941, when the Japanese attacked the United States military base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, bringing the nation actively into war. The hope was that the United States would be unprepared for war, especially a war on two fronts (European Theater and the Pacific Theater). However, by 1945, the United States contribution to the war effort led to success in Europe and the Pacific.

At the end of World War II, the United States took a very different stance with regards to their isolationist policies. Many argued that one of the causes of World War II was the United States neutrality. If the United States had been actively involved in world affairs, the fascist regimes of Europe would never have had an opportunity to take root in Europe. As the war raged in Europe, President Roosevelt and other world leaders (Churchill and Stalin) met at various points to establish goals for a post-war world. At one of these conferences, the United Nations was proposed as an organization to maintain international peace and security. After World War II, the United States took an active role in this organization and moved firmly away from the country's traditional isolationist policies.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the policies established by the various United States presidents to reaffirm the practice of isolationism. Additionally, students do not need to know the various pacts (e.g. naval disarmament, economic agreements, and military agreements) made between the United States and European and Asian nations between World War I and II.

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Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use a knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize
- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-7: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of global warfare in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

World War I (the Great War) and World War II resulted in the destruction of long-standing empires and the realignment of the relationships between former colonies and former empires. To understand the impact of global warfare on the development of social, economic, and political institutions in modern times, the student will. . .

MWH-7.4 Explain the origins of the conflict in the Middle East as a result of the collapse of the German, Habsburg, and Ottoman empires after World War I and the creation of the state of Israel after World War II.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge—2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grade five, students learned about United States Humanitarian Efforts in the Middle East (5-6.2), as well as the nationalism that gave rise to the creation of the state of Israel following World War II and relevant conflicts in the region in grade seven (7-4.6, 7-6.3). In United States History and the Constitution students will analyze the impact of the Cold War and subsequent eras, including the conflicts in the Middle East (USHC-7.5, USHC-8.6).

It is essential for students to know:

The Middle East consists of northeastern Africa and southwestern Asia and its importance lies with its geography. This includes its water ways (Suez Canal and Dardanelles); its valuable oil resources in Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Iraq and Iran; and its strategic location at the intersection of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Prior to World War I, the Middle East was dominated by three major empires, the German, Habsburg, and Ottoman empires, which each held interest in the region. With the fall of these empires at the end of World War I, many of these nations fought to eliminate foreign encroachment (imperialism) in the region. Since the late nineteenth century, Great Britain, Germany, Russia, and France have claimed control over various areas of the Middle East. Following World War I, Middle Eastern countries opposed foreign control, which led to a decline in European control of the region. For example, a sense of nationalism, led to protest in Egypt, Iraq, and Cyprus to eliminate British control of their country. By 1944, Syria and Lebanon ended French mandates and became independent Arab republics.

Following World War II, the greatest area of conflict centered on the area of Palestine. During the late nineteenth century, Jews began to settle in the region, arguing that Palestine belonged to them because it had been their home five thousand years earlier. However, Muslims had lived there for over thirteen hundred years. When the British gained control of the region after World War I, they found that the Jews and Muslims did not live together peacefully, which led to much conflict. When the British withdrew from the region at the end of the World War II, the United Nations divided the territory into two regions in an attempt to foster peace between the Palestinians and Jews. It left a portion for the Palestinian people and set aside a portion for Jews.

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Islamic countries and the Palestinians opposed the plan; however, many countries across the world supported the idea of a separate Jewish state in compensation for the suffering experienced by European Jews during World War II. In May 1948, Jews established the separate Jewish nation of Israel. Conflict ensued almost immediately and within a week six Islamic neighbors invaded Israel. Supported by the United States, Israel successfully defeated the invaders within a few months and was ultimately successful in three later wars in 1956, 1967, and 1973. In 1977, Egyptian leader Anwar Sadat signed a peace agreement with Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin. In it, Begin agreed to give the Sinai Peninsula back to Egypt. In return, Egypt recognized Israel as a nation. It was the first Islamic country to give this recognition. This enraged many Arabs, and Sadat was assassinated in 1981 but his successor kept peace with Israel.

This did not bring peace to Israel and the Palestinians. Palestinians living in Israel disliked Israeli rule. They wanted a nation of their own. The Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO), led by Yasir Arafat, became a leading group in the struggle for self-rule. During the 1970s and 1980s, the military arm of the PLO made many attacks on Israel. That nation responded by invading Lebanon to attack bases of the PLO. In the late 1980s, many Palestinian people in Israel began a revolt called the intifada, or “uprising.” It lasted for years. In the early 1990s, the two sides made some progress toward peace. Israel agreed to give Palestinians control of an area called the Gaza Strip and of the town of Jericho. The Israeli leader who signed this agreement, Yitzhak Rabin, was assassinated by a Jewish extremist who opposed giving in to Palestinians. The two sides have yet to achieve lasting peace.

Subsequent issues in the Middle East involve differences between the various Arab Nations. For example, during the Cold War, Libya, Iraq, and Syria were considered more radical than other Middle Eastern countries and tended to be pro-Soviet. In contrast, Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Morocco, Kuwait, and Tunisia were considered conservative and sided with the West. Lebanon was involved in a protracted civil war, which involved many different factions. The factions represented several religious groups, including Christians, Sunni Muslims, Shiite Muslims, and Druses. The fact that the PLO, Syria, and Israel intervened in the conflict added to the disagreement.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the specific conflicts dating from the late nineteenth century through the present in the Middle East.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize
- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-7: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of global warfare in the first half of the twentieth century.

Enduring Understanding:

World War I (the Great War) and World War II resulted in the destruction of long-standing empires and the realignment of the relationships between former colonies and former empires. To understand the impact of global warfare on the development of social, economic, and political institutions in modern times, the student will. . .

MWH-7.5 Explain the impact of collapsing imperial regimes and growing nationalist movements in India, Africa, and Southeast Asia, including Pan-Africanism and the emerging civil rights movement in the United States.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge—2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students have studied the American Civil Rights Movement in grade five and eight (5-5.3, 8-7.2). In United States History and the Constitution, students will further study the American Civil Rights Movement (USHC-8.1, USHC-8.2). Students will evaluate the United States government's role in governance, including the establishment of civil rights in United States Government (USG-1.5).

It is essential for students to know:

From 1763 through the early twentieth century, Great Britain dominated India, having pushed its chief rival, France, from the region. Great Britain's strong military, as well as India's disunity (too many languages, religious division, caste system, and political splits), made British control possible. India was divided linguistically by more than a dozen languages with over two hundred dialects. The nation also had a majority Hindu population, but about twenty percent of the population was Muslim. These groups were constantly in conflict. The Hindu caste system rigidly divided the people and kept them from cooperating with one another. The nation had more than six hundred independent states with their own leaders which was another advantage for British imperialists.

By the early twentieth century, the Indian nationalist movement began. In the 1920s, Mohandas Gandhi led a campaign for independence for India. Gandhi was educated in the West and supported the ideals of democracy and nationalism. He became the spiritual and political leader for many Indians. He wanted to end British rule peacefully or through civil disobedience. His followers boycotted British goods, rejected government services, refused to pay taxes, and disregarded British laws. His political party was known as the Indian National Congress Party. Another nationalist leader, Mohammed Ali Jinnah, led Indian Muslims out of the National Congress Party and created the Muslim League. Jinnah argued that the National Congress Party did not protect the interest of the Muslim community in India.

Following World War I, Indian nationalists intensified their call for Indian independence; however, they did not achieve the right to rule themselves until the British Parliament passed a law granting independence in July 1947. It created the separate Hindu and Muslim nations of

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India and Pakistan. The law gave people only one month to decide which country they wanted to live in and to move there. As millions of people began to move, violence broke out. Muslims, Hindus, and Sikhs—another religious group—killed each other. Gandhi pleaded to end all violence. A Hindu extremist assassinated him for protecting Muslims. Jawaharlal Nehru became the first prime minister of India and he led the country for seventeen years.

Movements for African Independence

During World War II, Africans fought as soldiers along with Europeans. As a result, Africans were unwilling to suffer further domination by colonial European powers after the war. Soon the British began letting Africans take a greater part in the colonial government of its Gold Coast colony. Kwame Nkrumah led a movement to push for Britain to act more quickly. The effort succeeded, and in 1957 the colony became independent. It was the first former colony in sub-Saharan Africa to become independent and the new nation took the name Ghana.

Nkrumah had ambitious plans for building the economy of Ghana. These plans were very expensive and opposition grew. Some people in Ghana criticized him for the time he spent trying to form a group of African leaders. Though the Organization of African Unity was formed in 1963, Nkrumah remained in trouble at home. Finally, the army seized power in 1966. Ghana has been ruled by a military dictator since 1981.

Belgium granted independence to the Congo in 1960. However, the Congolese people were unprepared for self-rule. The new nation was quickly in the midst of a war between two leaders. In 1965, Mobutu Sese Seko took control. He renamed the country Zaire and ruled until 1997. Though Zaire had rich mineral resources, Mobutu's harsh and corrupt rule made it a poor country. He was overthrown in a coup in 1997, when the country's name was changed back to Congo.

A bloody conflict for independence took place in Algeria. About one million French settlers lived there. They were unwilling to give up their property or their control of the colonial government. Violence broke out in 1945 and continued for many years. In 1962, the French finally granted independence to Algeria. About 750,000 French settlers fled the land for France. From 1965 until 1988, Algerians tried to modernize their country and give it an industrial economy. These efforts failed and an Islamic party won elections in 1991. However, the government rejected the vote.

The European colonies in Southeast Asia became independent countries after World War II. In 1946, the United States gave the Philippines independence and gave financial support to rebuild the Filipino economy. In exchange the United States continued their military presence in the country until 1991.

Burma, whose name was changed to Myanmar in 1989, was the first British colony in Southeast Asia to become independent. Since 1962, generals have ruled the country, which has often been torn by conflict. Aung San Suu Kyi won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1991 for her opposition to this military rule; however, during that time the military dictatorship kept her under house arrest. Suu

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Kyi was released from house arrest in 2010 and she was elected to the Burmese Parliament in March 2012.

After World War II, the British moved back into the Malay Peninsula. They tried to form a country, but ethnic conflict between Malays and Chinese who lived in the area doomed the effort. In 1957 independence was given to Malaya, Singapore, and parts of two distant islands. Some years later, Singapore declared independence as a city-state.

Prior to World War II, Indonesia attempted to gain its independence from Japan. After the war, the country declared its independence; however, the Dutch unsuccessfully tried to regain control of its former colony. In 1949, Indonesia gained its independence; however by 1967, the country came under the control of a military dictator.

Civil Rights in the United States

The civil rights movement may refer to several events, political actions, protests, and campaigns throughout the world that worked toward equality among certain peoples, but it most often refers to the civil rights movement in the United States. Most of the events associated with the civil rights movement took place between 1950 and the early 1960s, though the struggle for equal rights has continued throughout the decades. African-Americans struggled for equal rights during this time. Several events took place during these years to promote and ultimately accomplish equal rights, though struggles still remain.

Leaders, such as Martin Luther King, Jr., were pivotal to the success and drive of the civil rights movement. He worked to end discrimination against African-Americans in the United States, particularly in the Deep South where racism was deep-seated. The civil rights movement also aimed to allow suffrage among African-Americans. King's methods involved peaceful, non-violent protests and fiery speeches meant to rally the masses. His influence was pivotal to the partial success of the movement, though he was assassinated before being able to realize most of his goals.

The struggle of African Americans for equality reached its peak in the mid-1960s. After progressive victories in the 1950s, African Americans became even more committed to nonviolent direct action. Groups like the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), made up of African-American clergy, and the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), composed of younger activists, sought reform through peaceful confrontation.

President John Kennedy was initially reluctant to press white Southerners for support on civil rights because he needed their votes on other issues. Events, driven by African Americans themselves, forced his hand. President Lyndon B. Johnson was more successful. Displaying negotiating skills he had so frequently employed during his years as Senate majority leader, Johnson persuaded the Senate to limit delaying tactics preventing a final vote on the sweeping Civil Rights Act of 1964, which outlawed discrimination in all public accommodations. The next year's Voting Rights Act of 1965 authorized the federal government to register voters where local officials had prevented African Americans from doing so. By 1968, one million African Americans were registered to vote in the South. Nationwide, the number of African-American

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elected officials increased. In 1968, the Congress passed legislation banning discrimination in housing.

By that time court decisions, congressional enactments, and federal administrative regulations had achieved many of the goals set forth by the leaders of the movement. The major issues were about equality and access, not about the legality of segregation or disenfranchisement. The arguments of the 1970s and thereafter were over matters such as busing children out of their neighborhoods to achieve racial balance in metropolitan schools or about the use of "affirmative action." These policies and programs were viewed by some as active measures to ensure equal opportunity, as in education and employment, and by others as reverse discrimination.

Ultimately the courts worked their way through these problems with decisions that were often inconsistent. In the meantime, the steady march of African-Americans into the ranks of the middle-class reflected a huge change in the social structure of the United States.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know all of the leaders involved in the civil rights movement.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Analyze and evaluate evidence, arguments, claims and beliefs.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students 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 MWH-8: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of decolonization in the second half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Enduring Understanding:

Newly independent countries sought partners for economic and political alliances as technological developments of the past sixty years made the world more interconnected. To understand the effects of the economic, political, social, and technological changes that shape his or her place in the world, the student will. . .

MWH-8.1 Evaluate the relative importance of factors such as world war, economic depression, nationalist ideology, labor organizations, communism, and liberal democratic ideals in the emergence of movements for national self-rule or sovereignty in Africa and Asia.

Taxonomy Level: Evaluate/Conceptual Knowledge – 5 /B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades three and eight, students studied the Great Depression in South Carolina (3-5.3, 3-5.4, 8-6.3, 8-6.4). Additionally, students studied the causes of the Great Depression in grades five and seven (5-4.2, 5-4.3, 7-4.3, 7-4.4) as well as learning about the spread of communism (5-5.1, 7-4.4, 7-5.3). In United States History and the Constitution, students will study the causes and consequences of the Great Depression (USHC-6.3, USHC-6.4, USHC-7.4).

It is essential for students to know:

World War I and the Great Depression complicated the movement for national independence and unity in Africa. Africans were politically, economically, and socially bound to European countries, which meant these nations were forced into war. Forced recruitment of military personnel led to some rebellion against Europeans. Colonialism consolidated its hold on the African continent and the African economy became tied to the global economy.

Nationalism came to Africa for two main reasons, the economy and World War I. Africa's economy suffered greatly during the Great Depression because Africa had a dependent colonial economy. To manage the African colonies, Europe invested in infrastructure by building many telegraph lines, ports, roads, and railroads. These improvements mainly benefited Europeans and were built with cheap African labor. A large tax hike meant that many Africans had to become cash crop farmers on plantations. Mining became a major industry in Africa after World War I. The African laborers who worked at mining facilities were paid minimum wage. A system of labor migration was established that often left the women behind to feed their families.

World War II also led to the rise of African nationalism. During World War I, many Africans were drafted by the European colonial powers to fight in battles in Africa and overseas. After seeing the destruction caused by European imperialist powers, Africans began to lose faith in their European masters. Many Europeans were also forced to leave the colonies and fight in the war, which left Africa with fewer people to put down nationalist protests and uprisings.

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Additionally, Africans thought that they would have a larger role in their government because the ideological basis of World War II was centered on an anti-imperialist ideal. However, following the war, the colonial system was strengthened. European imperialists tightened their control of colonial possessions, as African economic life became more tightly enmeshed in the global economy. European countries that controlled the export of African products experienced dramatic decreases in trade volume and commodity prices and, consequently, African peoples suffered. Meanwhile, African peoples challenged European imperial authority and developed competing visions of national identity and unity that would come to fruition after World War II.

In Asia, Japan's militarist leaders sought to build national strength through imperial expansion. In China, the Ming dynasty ended, giving rise to a civil war fought between adherents of competing visions of the new Chinese state. Japanese imperial aggression complicated the progress of this war. In India, a strong nationalist movement began to threaten the hold of the British Empire on the subcontinent. Many Asians also served in the armies of the colonial powers against Nazi Germany and Japan during World War II. Also, initial Japanese victories over European powers made Asian nationalists realize that the colonial rulers could be defeated. At the same time, people in Europe began to wonder if it was right for one nation to have another as a colony.

The failure and collapse of communism in Eastern Europe contributed to nationalist movements, especially in the Soviet Union and Eurasia. Communism, which arguably should have brought greater equality to individuals, ultimately failed in this purpose. As a result, groups in Soviet bloc countries began to fight oppressive regimes that controlled their countries. Until early 1989, most of the reforms against communist authority took place in the Soviet Union; however, by early 1989, reform efforts grew substantially in areas, including Poland and Hungary. In fact, Poland had free elections in mid-1989 and later that year, massive demonstrations in East Germany led to the fall of the Berlin Wall, as well as the Velvet Revolution in Czechoslovakia. The Velvet Revolution was a peaceful six-week uprising that involved primarily discontented college students. At the conclusion of the revolution, the communist-led government dissolved the single-party state and the Czech president resigned. Free elections were held in Czechoslovakia in 1990.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the specific conflict or individuals responsible for imperialist dominance of these countries.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Explain how an interdependent, specialized, and voluntary worldwide trade network affects a nation's standard of living and economic growth.

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Assessment Guidelines:

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

Evaluate

- Check
- Critique

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

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Standard MWH-8: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of decolonization in the second half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Enduring Understanding:

Newly independent countries sought partners for economic and political alliances as technological developments of the past sixty years made the world more interconnected. To understand the effects of the economic, political, social, and technological changes that shape his or her place in the world, the student will. . .

MWH-8.2 Explain the rationale for the development of supranational organizations (e.g., the United Nations, the European Union, the African Union, and the Organization of American States).

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge—2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades five and seven, students have studied international political alliances, including the United Nations and the European Union (5-5.4, 7-5.2, 7-6.1). Students will study the expansion of the European Union in United States History and the Constitution (USHC-8.6). Although not specifically referenced in the United States History and the Constitution standards, it is likely that the United Nations will be discussed in the context of the impact of the Cold War (USHC-7.5).

It is essential for students to know:

A supranational union is an organization of states designed to protect the predefined interests of the group of member countries. A supranational organization recognizes the complete independence of the states within its union; however it also exercises a type of federalism that attempts to combine the states into a “super-state.” Within the scope of the predefined goals and expectations of the nation, a supranational union has its own legislative, executive, and judicial authority.

Member states in a supranational organization maintain their sovereignty; however, on particular issues, they cede certain control and/or power to the supranational body. Agreements are made to encourage stability and trust because international agreements cannot be easily broken. Full sovereignty can be reclaimed if a member nation chooses to withdraw from the supranational pact; however, the member state would also lose any advantage offered through the supranational agreement, including political, economic, or security benefits. Since a supranational union is based on agreements between sovereign states, it requires international treaties in order to maintain authority. Many supranational agreements are intergovernmental, which lack the same level of democratic oversight as traditional constitutional efforts. The citizens of the member states retain their nationality, as well as their national citizenship, but they also become citizens of the union. The union has legal authority over its member states to

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the extent that the member states have ceded authority to the supranational organization. Each individual government also has to be sure that they have the support of their citizens.

There are many examples of supranational organizations in existence, including The United Nations, the European Union, the African Union, and the Organization of American States.

The United Nations

In 1945, delegates from fifty nations met in San Francisco to organize the United Nations. The organization was purposed to work for world peace and security and to improve the lives of people across the globe. The United Nations charter called for six essential functions: the General Assembly or legislative body consisting of members from all member countries; the Security Council, charged with keeping the peace; the Secretariat, headed by the Secretary General who manages the day-to-day operations of the organization; the Economic and Social Council, which manages projects to improve the standard of living and health conditions globally; the International Court of Justice which hears disputes that countries bring before the body (parties who ask for an opinion must abide by the judgment); and the Trusteeship Council, which oversees colonies and territories that were controlled by Japan, Germany, and Italy at the end of World War II. The work of this council has been suspended because there are no more territories to oversee. Additionally, the United Nations has created a number of specialized agencies, including the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), The International Labor Organization (ILO), and the World Health Organization (WHO) that are officially independent of the United Nations, but exist by intergovernmental agreement and are overseen by the United Nations.

Since 1945, the United Nations has taken several major actions to illustrate the commitment to their principal goals. For example, the organization created UNICEF or the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund in 1946 to provide food, vitamins, and medicine to needy children as well as training nurses to help mothers learn proper child care. In 1948, the General Assembly approved the *Declaration of Human Rights*, which stated that all human beings are born free and equal and entitled to civil, legal, economic, and social rights.

The United Nations has also taken decisive action to solve international disputes. When Iran argued that Russia had not withdrawn troops stationed on Iranian soil during World War II, the Security Council took on the issue. Russia objected to the complaints, but ultimately removed its troops. During the early 1960s the United Nations Security Council intervened in the Congo Crisis which, similar to the situation in Iran, involved Belgian troops that were stationed in the African nation. The Security Council ordered Belgium to withdraw its troops and authorized a force to restore order in the Congo. Although there was controversy surrounding the actions of the United Nations, ultimately their intervention prevented bloodshed and violence in the region. Other international disputes overseen by the United Nations, include actions in Greece (1946), Palestine (1947-1948), Indonesia (1947-49), Egypt (1956), and the Indian-Pakistani War of 1971.

The European Union

After World War II, several nations in Western Europe suggested that free trade within the region would promote prosperity for all. This movement began in the 1950's; however it gained

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limited traction through the formation of a “common market” involving only twelve European nations. This precursor to the European Union created the European Coal and Steel Community which set a goal of eliminating the possibility of future military actions between member states by pooling the national heavy industries. By 1957, this organization added the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC), the European Economic Community (EEC), and the European Atomic Energy Community to its cooperative efforts.

In 1993, the European Union (EU) was formally established as a plan to encourage political and economic cooperation under a regional government. Within two years, the member nations established a new currency called the Euro. In order to become a member of the EU, a country must have a stable democracy that respects human rights and the rule of law. The country must also have a market economy capable of competition in the union.

The European Union, the only clear example of a supranational union, has a parliament with legislative oversight, elected by its citizens. To this extent, a supranational union like the European Union has characteristics that are not entirely dissimilar to the characteristics of a federal state like the United States of America.

The African Union

As more African nations gained their independence in the years following World War II, more African leaders saw a need for promoting unity among African states. In 1963, thirty-two African countries established the Organization of African Unity (OAU) to end colonialism and promote a common defense. In 2001, the name of the organization changed to the African Union (AU) and it currently has over fifty member states.

The African Union has not been as successful in achieving a number of its goals, including issues of human rights. The organization also has significant financial issues that limit its effectiveness because it cannot force its members to pay dues. However, the AU has made major contributions to maintain peace in Africa. In the 1960s, the organization successfully negotiated peace between Morocco and Algeria and Zaire and Nigeria. It supported the African National Congress' fight to end apartheid and white minority rule in South Africa. It also sent troops to the Darfur province in 2005 to reduce ethnic violence in the region.

Organization of American States

The Organization of American States (OAS) was created in 1948, although history shows that a movement toward this type of organization dates back to the early nineteenth century when Simon Bolivar proposed the creation of a league of American republics that would share a common military union. In 1889, the First Conference of American States convened in Washington, DC with eighteen member nations. This organization met over the following decades to address hemispheric issues. In the mid-1930s, President Franklin Roosevelt organized an inter-American conference in Buenos Aires so that member nations could begin proactive discussions in response to growing tensions in Europe. President Roosevelt wanted the OAS to agree to cooperate if the conflicts that were developing in Europe spread globally.

The OAS is a regional agency designed to work with the United Nations to promote peace, justice, and hemispheric solidarity; to foster economic development; and to defend the

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sovereignty and territorial integrity of the signatory nations. The general secretariat, formerly the Pan-American Union, located in Washington, DC, is the permanent body of the OAS. After 1948, the OAS council set out to enforce the Inter-American Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance, known as the Rio Inter-American Defense Treaty (1947).

The OAS has repeatedly opposed unilateral intervention in the affairs of member countries. It did approve United States intervention in the Dominican Republic's civil war in 1965; however, it refused a similar action during the Nicaraguan Revolution of 1979. Among the many conflicts handled by the council were those between Costa Rica and Nicaragua (1948, 1949, and 1955); the Panamanian-United States conflict over control of the Panama Canal in 1964; elections in El Salvador during their civil war (1984, 1989); the Panamanian-United States conflict (1988, 1989) over the involvement in drug trafficking of the dictator Manuel Antonio Noriega, and subsequent United States invasion (1990); and the Haitian coup that overthrew President Jean Bertrand Aristide (1991, 1992).

A continuing problem for the OAS has been its relationship with Cuba since the Cuban revolution in 1959. In 1962, Cuba was formally expelled from the organization on charges of subversion. Two years later, a trade boycott was imposed on Cuba. By the 1990s, practically all member nations except the United States had resumed trade and diplomatic relations with Cuba.

It is not essential for students to know:

There are many supranational organizations, including those listed in this indicator. It is not essential for students to know organizations not mentioned in the indicator. It is not essential for students to know all of the leaders involved in each event mentioned.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Explain how an interdependent, specialized, and voluntary worldwide trade network affects a nation's standard of living and economic growth.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize

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- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

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Standard MWH-8: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of decolonization in the second half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Enduring Understanding:

Newly independent countries sought partners for economic and political alliances as technological developments of the past sixty years made the world more interconnected. To understand the effects of the economic, political, social, and technological changes that shape his or her place in the world, the student will. . .

MWH-8.3 Illustrate the impact of the Cold War on developing and newly independent countries, including the Soviet, United States, and Chinese involvement in the domestic and foreign affairs of countries such as Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Vietnam, Korea, Chile, Cuba, Guatemala, and the Congo.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades three, five, seven, and eight, students studied the social and economic impact of the Cold War, primarily in South Carolina and the United States (3-5.4, 5-5.1, 5-5.2, 7-5.1, 7-5.2, 8-7.1). In United States History and the Constitution, students will analyze the impact of the Cold War on United States domestic and foreign policies (USHC-7.5).

It is essential for students to know:

The conflicting goals of the United States and the Soviet Union following World War II led to global competition that had a profound effect on the rest of the world. These countries were allies during World War II. After the war, the different political ideologies led to significant political conflict. The United States wanted to promote democracy and free trade. The Soviet Union wanted to promote communism, take advantage of raw materials in Eastern Europe and other areas of the world, and rebuild its economy, which had been destroyed by the war.

Following World War II, Germany was divided into four occupation zones controlled by each of the major Allied Powers (United States, United Kingdom, France, and the Soviet Union). The United States wanted Germany back together as one united nation. The Soviets, on the other hand, wanted Germany to stay divided and weak. As a result of these differences, the United States aimed to block the Soviets from further expansion. The United States adopted the Marshall Plan (1947) which allowed for the donation of food and materials to help European nations rebuild after the war. The Soviet government did not approve of this move because they were interested in spreading communism in Europe. In 1948, Great Britain, France and the United States decided to pull their troops out of Germany to allow their occupation zones to unite as one country. The new country was called West Germany and it was established as a democracy. The Soviet Union refused to leave their zone and under their control, East Germany became a communist state.

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Communism in China

Nationalists and communists fought for control of China in the 1930s. When Japan invaded China prior to World War II, the two sides joined to fight against the invaders. After World War II, the nationalists and communists, no longer fearing foreign encroachment, began to fight each other once again. This war lasted from 1946 to 1949. The communists emerged victorious, in great part due to their superior military tactics and the support of the Soviet Union. Ultimately, most of the nationalists were forced to flee to Taiwan, where the United States helped them form a new government. The nationalists called their territory the Republic of China.

The communists, under the control of Mao Zedong and with the support of the Soviets, began to rebuild China. Under communist control, land was seized and given to peasants, who were forced to work in collective farms to support communism. Communists also took control of China's industries, which expanded under their leadership. With this success, Mao introduced a plan called the "Great Leap Forward," which was supposed to make collective farms larger and more productive. The plan failed for several reasons. Chinese citizens did not support the strong government. It was also very difficult for the government to plan for large collective farms; in fact, government planning was ineffective and inefficient. Complicating these issues was many years of poor weather, which led to a famine that contributed to millions of deaths.

Although industrial production increased to some extent under Mao, he was unable to modernize China as quickly as he had hoped. He grew unhappy with the direction the country was taking and to quiet his critics, he launched the "Great Cultural Revolution" in 1966. Mao tried to revive the revolutionary spirit in China through groups of young students called Red Guards. The Red Guards struck at teachers, scientists, and artists. They shut down schools and sent intellectuals to the country to work on farms. They killed thousands of people who resisted. China was in chaos, with factories shut down and farm production dropping. Mao called an end to the "Great Cultural Revolution" in 1969; however, many groups and individuals continued the practices established during the Revolution until Mao's death in 1976.

Egypt

In 1955, Egypt unsuccessfully attempted to secure an agreement for arms from the United States because the government refused to pledge not to use them for aggressive purposes. Unable to secure support from the United States, Egypt turned to Communist bloc countries and agreed to exchange Egyptian cotton for Communist military equipment and military personnel. As a result, Egypt became allies with Communist bloc nations and hostility grew between the country and the Western world.

Tensions grew between Egypt and the West in 1956 when the Egyptian government seized control of the Suez Canal. The canal was owned by British and French stockholders who wanted to maintain control to protect their oil transportation routes from the Middle East to European markets. The British, French, and Israeli government invaded Egypt to regain control of the Suez Canal. Israel also wanted to stop guerrilla attacks and economic blockades. Most nations disagreed with the invasion. The Soviet Union threatened to provide troops to the Egyptians. The United States did not support the invaders, which led to discord between the United States,

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Britain, and France. The crisis ended when the United Nations General Assembly brought about the withdrawal of the invading forces.

Iran

From 1941 through 1979, Iran was governed by Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi. The Shah enacted policies to modernize Iran, including giving women the right to vote and developing new industries supported by Iranian oil wealth. However, the monarchy exercised absolute control over the nation, which upset many Iranians. Those who were discontent argued that only a limited number of individuals benefited from the post-World War II prosperity in the country. Devout Muslims felt that the government had moved away from traditional Islamic practices. Many were also upset with the Iran's pro-Western foreign policy and the country's special relationship with the United States.

In 1979, a group of Muslim revolutionaries under the leadership of Ruhollah Khomeini ousted the shah. Khomeini was a leading official of Iranian Muslims and replaced the shah as the head of a strict religious government. He was called by his religious title *Ayatollah*. Since the United States supported the shah who was a model for Iran's westernization, followers of the Ayatollah Khomeini disliked Americans. In the same year that the Ayatollah came to power, Iranian militants protested against the United States, attacking and occupying the American embassy. Hostages were held in the embassy until January 1981. Conflict also grew between Iraq and Iran when the Iraqi government, fearing rebellion from Shiites in Iraq and wanting to control a waterway used by both countries to transport oil into the Persian Gulf, attacked Iran in 1980. Tensions in the region continued through the end of the Cold War. Today, the United States and many other nations are concerned about Iran's developing nuclear weapons research.

Iraq

After Iraq achieved independence from the British state, the country experienced several revolutions and in 1968 the leftist Baath party seized control of the government. This regime was opposed to Western democratic ideals, but was friendly towards the Communist bloc. In 1972, the country signed a military treaty with the Soviet Union. By 1980, the country had developed imperialist goals and invaded Iran. The Iraq-Iran War ended without a clear winner, but the Iraqi military was stronger. The growth of the military and the leadership of President Saddam Hussein led to significant conflict in the region in the post-Cold War era. When Iraq invaded Kuwait in 1991, the United Nations sanctioned a coalition force consisting of mostly United States troops, and Operation Desert Storm (1991) began. The coalition force won decisively, due to advanced technology and military tactics.

Vietnam

The United States faced another war against communists in Vietnam. That area had been a French colony until Japan took it early in World War II. When Japan lost, the French returned. A Vietnamese nationalist named Ho Chi Minh wanted to win independence. He drove the French out of Vietnam. A peace conference split Vietnam in two, with Ho taking charge in North Vietnam which he made it a communist state. Communist rebels, the Vietcong, stayed active in the South.

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The United States began sending large numbers of soldiers to South Vietnam because that government was being threatened by communists. By 1968, more than 500,000 United States troops were there. They could not win the ground war. The United States tried bombing and burning forests in the South to stop the Vietcong from hiding. These actions made peasants in the South more likely to support the North. Many in the United States came to oppose the war. In the late 1960s, President Richard Nixon began reducing the number of United States troops in Vietnam. The last troops left in 1973.

Two years later, North Vietnam overran the South and made Vietnam one country again. About one and a half million people fled Vietnam. Today, Vietnam remains communist but is looking for other nations to invest in its economy. Fighting in Vietnam spilled over to Cambodia. Rebels there set up a brutal communist government which killed two million people and imposed its will. In 1978, the Vietnamese invaded the country, overthrowing the rebels. Vietnam withdrew in 1989. In 1993, Cambodia held a free election.

Korea

In Asia, the Cold War flared into actual wars supported by the United States and the Soviet Union. Korea became divided into a Soviet-backed north and an American-supported south at the 38th parallel. In June 1950, North Korean communist forces crossed the 38th parallel, invading South Korea without provocation. President Truman fought this move with the United Nations' help. The United States and other countries sent troops to assist South Korea. At first, the North Korean army captured almost all of South Korea. The United Nations army began a bold counterattack. In just two months, it pushed the North Koreans almost to China. The Chinese then entered the war and drove the United Nations forces back. Fighting continued until 1953 when the two sides agreed to a cease-fire.

The earlier boundary splitting North and South Korea remained the same. North Korea developed as a communist country. It had a strong army and tight government control, but it also had many economic problems. South Korea's economy grew, in part because it received aid from the United States. However, for more than thirty years, dictators ruled the country. Free elections were held only after a new constitution was adopted in 1987.

Chile

Traditionally, Chile was more closely aligned to Britain and Germany than she was to the United States in foreign relations. But after the onset of the Cold War in 1947, Chile's democratic rulers rallied to support United States efforts. As was the case with nearly all other Latin American states, the United States assumed mutual defense obligations on behalf of Chile by virtue of the 1947 Rio Treaty. In this formal alliance with Chile the United States, for a short time, found a congenial friend. Early Cold War era Chilean policies reinforced this burgeoning alliance relationship. Communist parties were banned (1947) and enthusiastic Chilean support was given in the 1950s and 1960s to United States efforts to stem Communists' influence in the region.

In the Eisenhower and Kennedy years, Chile's military quickly adapted to the shift in United States military doctrine, transforming their roles from one of external defense to one of being guarantors of internal security within the nation. After 1961, Chile was rewarded generously: it

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received the largest program in Latin America (per capita) of United States economic aid under President Kennedy's Alliance for Progress program. But despite such cooperation, external aid and political support, Chile's ruling Christian Democrat party found themselves challenged at the ballot box by leftists who appealed to the hopes of Chileans who remained outside the benefits of economic prosperity. By 1970, democratic Chile was on the verge of bringing to power the hemisphere's first elected Marxist government.

In this context, Chilean-United States relations became very strained during 1970-73. Until 1973, Chile had been one of the few nations in Latin America to enjoy democratic government for most of its modern history. The Chilean case presented the United States a dilemma until the values, said to be at the heart of the national interest of the United States, were proven to be most important - the protection of democratic institutions, or the preservation of an anti-communist system of allies.

Cuba

In Cuba, the United States backed a dictator in the 1950s. In 1959, a young lawyer, Fidel Castro, led a successful revolt. Castro then turned to the Soviets for aid. In 1962, the Soviets and Americans almost went to war over Soviet nuclear missiles placed in Cuba. The Soviets finally pulled the missiles out. Over time, the Cuban economy became more dependent on Soviet aid. When the Soviet Union fell in 1991, aid to Cuba ended. It was a serious blow to Cuba's economy.

Guatemala

From the 1950s through the 1990s, the United States government directly supported the military in Guatemala in an attempt to minimize the influence of socialism in the nation. In 1954, the United States Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) participated in the overthrow of the socialist leader. At the time, the CIA was fearful that a socialist government in Guatemala would help the Soviets establish a foothold in the Western Hemisphere. The United States supported the appointment of Colonel Carlos Castillo Armas as president. Although Castillo was a dictator, the United States government supported his leadership because he did not support the spread of communism in his nation. In fact, Castillo issued the Preventive Penal Law Against Communism, which increased the penalties for many "communist" activities, including labor union activities the same year he was appointed to the presidency.

The Congo

One of the first decolonized nations to request aid from Communist bloc countries was the Democratic Republic of the Congo, under Patrice Lumumba. A large number of United Nations peacekeepers from NATO nations and other NATO allies had been in the Congo since independence was established from Belgium in 1960. The United States used them to shut down air traffic and prevent Eastern arms and troops from getting into the country. However, some Eastern weapons managed to get in from other countries. The peacekeepers decided to remove Lumumba and backed Colonel Joseph Mobutu in a coup in which Lumumba was killed. The Congolese crisis had the effect of alienating both the West and the East. Some third world inhabitants saw the East as weak and impotent, and the West unethical and unscrupulous.

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It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students know the individuals responsible for specific Cold War actions.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Explain how an interdependent, specialized, and voluntary worldwide trade network affects a nation's standard of living and economic growth.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize
- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-8: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of decolonization in the second half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Enduring Understanding:

Newly independent countries sought partners for economic and political alliances as technological developments of the past sixty years made the world more interconnected. To understand the effects of the economic, political, social, and technological changes that shape his or her place in the world, the student will. . .

MWH-8.4 Describe the diffusion of aspects of popular cultures, including music, film, art forms, and foodways.

Taxonomy Level: Understand/Conceptual Knowledge – 2/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades five, seven, and eight, students have studied cultural diffusion in the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries (5-6.5, 7-6.5, 8-7.4). Students may also learn about diffusion in World Geography (WG-1.2).

It is essential for students to know:

Changes in technology have made it possible for people to share their cultures with one another. When elements of different cultures are combined, it is known as cultural blending. In recent times, ideas from the United States and Europe have been a major force in this blending. Western nations dominate the mass media and have been particularly influential. As a result, English is now a major world language. About five hundred million people speak English as their first or second language. English speakers are widely spread throughout the world.

Television is one of the main reasons for cultural blending. News broadcasts and television shows provide information and entertainment and allow the spread of varied cultures. Movies and radio also have had an impact in bringing the world closer together. As a result of these mass media, the world's popular culture includes elements from many different cultures. Popular culture includes music, sports, clothing styles, food, and hobbies. Music has also become international; not only can people listen to music on the radio or television, but musicians also travel to many different countries to perform. During the late twentieth century, western clothing styles began to spread across the globe, in some cases creating controversy in nations where conservative dress was the norm.

Computers have transformed the economies of industrialized countries, especially with the growth of the Internet. Large amounts of information can be sent across long distances and information can be accessed instantaneously. Satellite technology has profoundly changed both consumer production and the military. Satellites have been used since the 1960s for surveillance

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and today many are used to transmit television and radio programs. Much of current space technology is dependent on satellites.

Western foods, including fast food staples like hamburgers and soft drinks, are available in most countries in the world. Much fresh produce is no longer grown in the Western world, but shipped from Asia, Africa, and South America. Shifts away from locally produced and consumed food products are a result of improvements in transportation technology that makes the transportation of goods and products more rapid and efficient. As technological advances have increased in Western nations, there has been a shift from agricultural production to other economic areas (e.g. finance and banking; service; medical, etc.). There has been a movement in recent years in some areas of the United States and Europe to encourage local production of food products because of concerns about healthy production (organic production) as well as concerns about the working conditions in agricultural production facilities in third world nations.

Although many of the most evident cultural exchanges have taken place from West to East, it is important to note that exchanges have taken place from East to West. A good example of the less typical movement can be seen in art and literature from Asia and Africa that have become popular in contemporary society. Additionally, many consumer goods and services, including clothing, computers and other technology, and technological services are produced/provided in countries outside of Europe and North America. The people in Europe and North America tend to be the largest consumers of these goods and services.

Some see this growing international culture as a problem. They worry that their own culture will diminish as influences from other nations take hold. In some countries, the use of foreign words is forbidden, as well as wearing certain types of clothing. For example, in China and parts of the Middle East the Internet is banned or censored. In many areas of the world, a revival of traditional aspects of culture has grown as countries attempt to prevent the influence of other cultures while preserving their own. Despite these difficulties, it is clear that the people of the world are dependent upon one another.

Modern art, as a cultural item, has become increasingly international. Advances in transportation and technology have facilitated the sharing of ideas about art and the sharing of actual works of art. Shows and museums throughout the world exhibit art of different styles and from different places. It has become possible to see art from other cultures that had not previously been available to the public. Literature, too, has become internationally appreciated. Well-known writers routinely have their works translated into dozens of languages, resulting in truly international audiences. The list of Nobel Prize winners in literature over the last twenty years reflects a variety of nationalities, including Nigerian, Egyptian, Mexican, South African, West Indian, Japanese, Polish, Chinese, and Hungarian.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know specific music, film, art, or cuisine.

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Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Explain how an interdependent, specialized, and voluntary worldwide trade network affects a nation's standard of living and economic growth.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Understand

- Interpret
- Exemplify
- Classify
- Summarize
- Infer
- Compare
- Explain

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

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-8: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of decolonization in the second half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Enduring Understanding:

Newly independent countries sought partners for economic and political alliances as technological developments of the past sixty years made the world more interconnected. To understand the effects of the economic, political, social, and technological changes that shape his or her place in the world, the student will. . .

MWH-8.5 Analyze the impact of movements for equality in the United States, Africa, and Southeast Asia as well as the varying reactions around the world to equity issues.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge –4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

In grades five, seven, and eight, students have studied issues of equality in the United States, Africa, and Southeast Asia (5-5.3, 7-6.2, 8-7.2). In United States History and the Constitution, students will learn about the reasons for United States entrance in World War I and World War II (USHC-8.1, USHC-8.2).

It is essential for students to know:

After World War II, the movement for equality grew in many countries across the globe.

The Civil Rights Movement in the United States

The Civil Rights Movement may refer to several events, political actions, protests, and campaigns throughout the world that worked toward equality among certain peoples, but it most often refers to the civil rights movement in the United States. Most of the events associated with the civil rights movement took place between 1950 and the early 1960s, though the struggle for equal rights has continued throughout the decades. A number of significant events took place during these years to promote and ultimately accomplish equal rights, though struggles still remain.

Leaders such as Martin Luther King, Jr. were pivotal to the drive and success of the Civil Rights Movement. He worked to end discrimination against African-Americans in the United States, particularly in the Deep South where racism was deep-seated. The civil rights movement also aimed to obtain suffrage for African-Americans. King's methods involved peaceful, non-violent protests, and fiery speeches meant to rally the masses. His influence was pivotal to the partial success of the movement, though he was assassinated before being able to realize most of his goals.

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The struggle of African Americans for equality reached its peak in the mid-1960s. After progressive victories in the 1950s, African Americans became even more committed to nonviolent direct action. Groups like the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), made up of African-American clergy, and the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), composed of younger activists, sought reform through peaceful confrontation.

President Kennedy was initially reluctant to press white Southerners for support on civil rights because he needed their votes on other issues. Events, driven by African Americans themselves, forced his hand. President Lyndon B. Johnson was more successful. Displaying negotiating skills he had so frequently employed during his years as Senate majority leader, Johnson persuaded the Senate to limit delaying tactics preventing a final vote on the sweeping Civil Rights Act of 1964, which outlawed discrimination in all public accommodations. The next year's Voting Rights Act of 1965 authorized the federal government to register voters where local officials had prevented African Americans from doing so. By 1968, a million African Americans were registered to vote in the South. Nationwide, the number of African Americans elected officials increased. In 1968, the Congress passed legislation banning discrimination in housing.

By the late 1970's congressional enactments and federal administrative regulations had achieved many of the goals set forth by the leaders of the movement. The major issues were about equality and access, not about the legality of segregation or disenfranchisement. The arguments of the 1970s and thereafter were over matters such as busing children out of their neighborhoods to achieve racial balance in metropolitan schools or about the use of "affirmative action." These policies and programs were viewed by some as active measures to ensure equal opportunity, as in education and employment, and by others as reverse discrimination.

Ultimately the courts worked their way through these problems with decisions that were often inconsistent. In the meantime, the steady march of African Americans into the ranks of the middle class reflected a huge change in the social structure of the United States.

Movement for Equality in Africa

When Britain and France gave their African colonies independence, they gave them democratic governments. Soon problems arose between rival groups. In South Africa, the conflict was between races, where a White minority controlled a Black majority. In 1948, the White minority put in place a policy called apartheid, which was the strict separation of Blacks and Whites. Black South Africans were denied many basic rights. Laws enacted by White South Africans required that Blacks and the Asian population carry passes, denied them voting rights, and made them subject to arrest at any time.

Many Black South Africans joined a group called the African National Congress (ANC) to fight for their rights. The White South African government responded harshly and cracked down on resistance, putting many ANC leaders in prison. By the late 1980s, several riots had taken place, as Blacks angrily struck back at the system.

Many Western nations placed sanctions on South Africa, including a refusal to buy goods produced in South Africa. As poverty increased in the country, violence between Blacks and

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Whites grew. Many foreign businesses lost confidence in the South African economy and withdrew their investments. They hoped to persuade the government to end apartheid. In 1990, new President F. W. de Klerk took that step. He made the ANC legal and released ANC leader Nelson Mandela from prison. Parliament passed a law ending apartheid.

In April 1994, all South Africans, including Blacks, were able to vote in an election for a new leader. The ANC and Mandela won easily. In 1996, the new government approved a new constitution. It gave equal rights to all South Africans.

Movement for Equality in Southeast Asia

As nationalist movements grew, Europeans returned to a very different Southeast Asia after World War II. Indonesia declared independence in 1945 and subsequently fought a bitter war against the returning Dutch, the Philippines was granted independence by the United States in 1946, Burma secured its independence from Britain in 1948, and the French were driven from Indochina in 1954 after a bitterly fought war (the Indochina War) against the Vietnamese nationalists. The recently established United Nations provided a forum for both nationalistic demands and the claims of new independent nations.

During the Cold War, countering the threat of communism was a major theme in the decolonization process. After suppressing the communist insurrection during the Malayan Emergency from 1948 to 1960, Britain granted independence to Malaya and later, Singapore, Sabah, and Sarawak in 1957 and 1963 respectively within the framework of the Federation of Malaysia. The United States intervention against communist forces in Indochina during a conflict commonly referred to in the United States as the Vietnam War meant that Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia had to go through a prolonged and protracted war in their route to independence. By the war's end in 1975, all these countries were controlled by communist parties. After the communist victory, two wars between communist states, the Cambodian-Vietnamese War of 1975-1989 and the Sino-Vietnamese War of 1979 were fought in the region.

In 1975, Portuguese rule ended in East Timor. However, independence was short-lived as Indonesia annexed the territory soon after. Finally, Britain ended its protectorate of the Sultanate of Brunei in 1984, marking the end of European rule in Southeast Asia.

The Struggle for Women's Rights

During the twentieth century, significant gains were made in the arena of Women's Rights in many nations of the world. During the early twentieth century, women in Great Britain and the United States gained the right to vote; however, these rights have been slow to come to many other nations. In the late twentieth century, women in developed countries, as well as some areas of the developing world, gained a wide range of human rights. However, in most Muslim countries, women are generally forbidden to hold positions of leadership, to vote, inherit property, or travel without appropriate male escort.

During the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, delegates were pleased with many of the achievements that had been made towards equality for women globally. Literacy rates for women were on the rise, women were gaining greater economic equality in many nations, and governments across the globe were paying greater attention to women's rights. However, the delegates also focused on issues that were still problematic, especially issues of human rights in

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Third World Nations. Issues included legal discrimination against women, the selling of women as slaves, unequal employment, and domestic violence.

Women's rights groups have also gained momentum as the number of women in leadership positions has increased in many nations, including Ireland, Germany, China, Indonesia, and the United States.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know all of the individuals responsible for civil rights activities in various countries. Students do not need to know every result of movements towards civil rights in all countries.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

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- Trace and describe continuity and change across cultures.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Explain how an interdependent, specialized, and voluntary worldwide trade network affects a nation's standard of living and economic growth.

Assessment Guidelines:

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

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

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Standard MWH-8: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of decolonization in the second half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Enduring Understanding:

Newly independent countries sought partners for economic and political alliances as technological developments of the past sixty years made the world more interconnected. To understand the effects of the economic, political, social, and technological changes that shape his or her place in the world, the student will. . .

MWH-8.6 Analyze 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.

Taxonomy Level: Analyze/Conceptual Knowledge—4/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students studied the collapse of the Soviet Union in grades five and seven (5-6.1, 7-5.5, 7-6.1). In United States History and the Constitution, students will summarize America's role in collapse of the Soviet Union (USHC-8.6).

It is essential for students to know:

During the 1960s and 1970s, the leaders of the Soviet Union kept tight control on society. In 1985, the Communist Party named Mikhail Gorbachev as the leader of the Soviet Union. He was expected to make minor reforms; however, he launched a revolution. Gorbachev felt that Soviet society could not improve without the free flow of ideas and information. He started a policy called *glasnost* or openness. He opened churches and released dissenters from prison. He allowed books to be published that in the past had been banned. Then he began a new policy called *perestroika* or restructuring. It aimed at making the Soviet economy perform better by lifting the tight control on all managers and workers. In 1987, he opened up the political system by allowing the Soviet people to elect representatives to a legislature.

Gorbachev also changed Soviet foreign policy. He moved to end the arms race and the war in Afghanistan. Gorbachev urged leaders in Eastern Europe to change their policies as well. They resisted, but the people of their countries wanted reform. Protest movements began to build. In Poland, many years of economic problems led the government to lift a ban on a workers' movement called Solidarity. Facing growing unrest, the government was forced to allow elections. The Polish people voted overwhelmingly against the communists and for Solidarity. In Hungary, reformers took over the Communist Party. Then it voted itself out of existence. Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev promoted democratic reforms, which spread to Eastern Europe.

Collapse of the Soviet Union

In the early 1990s, the Soviet Union, Yugoslavia, and Czechoslovakia all broke apart. While freedom was sweeping Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union had serious troubles. People from many different ethnic groups began calling for the right to have their own nation. In 1990, Lithuania declared itself independent. Gorbachev sent troops, and they fired on a civilian crowd, killing a few people. This action and lack of reform cost Gorbachev support among the Soviet people. Many people began to support Boris Yeltsin. Old-time communists, at the same time, were becoming angrier at Gorbachev's changes. They thought the changes made the Soviet Union weaker. In August 1991, they tried to take control of the government. Thousands rallied in the streets. When the army refused to back the coup leaders, they gave up. To strike back, the parliament voted to ban the party from any political activity. Meanwhile, more and more republics in the Soviet Union declared their independence. By the end of 1991, Gorbachev announced that the Soviet Union would no longer exist. Russia and the other fourteen republics were each becoming independent states. Gorbachev lost all power, and Yeltsin became president of Russia. He faced many problems. Efforts to move the Russian economy toward capitalism caused suffering. In addition, rebels in the small republic of Chechnya declared their independence from Russia. Yeltsin refused to allow it. He sent thousands of troops, who were caught in a bloody war for two years.

Changes in Yugoslavia

Yugoslavia was made up of many different ethnic groups and in the early 1990s they began fighting. When Serbia tried to control the government, two other areas declared independence. Slovenia beat back a Serbian invasion, but Serbia and Croatia fought a bloody war. In 1992, Bosnia-Herzegovina also declared independence. Serbs who lived in that region opposed the move. Using aid from Serbia, they fought a brutal civil war with Muslims, the largest group in Bosnia. The United Nations was able to stop the fighting, but peace remains uncertain. The change to democracy and capitalism in Eastern Europe was not smooth. The Polish people were frustrated with how long and painful the process was. In new elections in 1995, they voted the former leader of Solidarity out as president of Poland. In Czechoslovakia, democracy led to a breakup. In 1993, the country split into two separate nations: the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

New Republics Form in Central Asia

With the collapse of the Soviet Union, five countries in Central Asia gained independence: Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. In nearly all the new states, former Communist Party officials retained power. None of the new republics could be considered functional democracies in the early days of independence, although in recent years Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan have made progress towards more open and democratic societies. In contrast, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, and Turkmenistan, have maintained many Soviet-style repressive tactics. Conflicts continue in this region between some ethnic groups. Some countries have been able to minimize disagreement between ethnic groups. In recent years, conflict has also arisen in many of these countries as they attempt to establish stability. For example, in 2010 riots erupted in Kyrgyzstan when protesters who opposed government corruption and increased taxes were met with violence.

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German Reunification

Following World War II, Germany was divided into four occupation zones which were overseen by the four major world powers (the United States, Britain, France, and the Soviet Union). In 1949, the United States, Britain, and France combined their occupation zones and established the Federal Republic of Germany and slowly began to turn over control of the territory to the newly formed West Germany. In 1955, West Germany was granted full sovereignty in domestic and foreign affairs. The Soviets were not interested allowing the same change in East Germany. Although they called themselves a democratic republic, East Germany was in fact a typical Communist dictatorship with severe restrictions on civil liberties, a secret police and one political party.

It took over forty years for things to change in Germany and for reunification to occur. By 1989, a large group of East Germans, discontent with the Communist state fled to Hungary and Czechoslovakia. Demonstrators clashed with the police in East Berlin and other cities.

Thousands of people across the country demanded free elections. Soon the Berlin Wall, which divided East and West Berlin, was torn down. By the end of 1989, the Communist Party was out of power. The next year the two parts of Germany, the East and the West, were united once again. The new nation had to fix the problems in the old East German economy.

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know the names or specific contributions of the individuals who contributed to changes in Europe and Asia during the Cold War.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.
- Explain how an interdependent, specialized, and voluntary worldwide trade network affects a nation's standard of living and economic growth.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Analyze

Differentiate

Organize

Attribute

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

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WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

Standard MWH-8: The student will demonstrate an understanding of the causes and consequences of decolonization in the second half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Enduring Understanding:

Newly independent countries sought partners for economic and political alliances as technological developments of the past sixty years made the world more interconnected. To understand the effects of the economic, political, social, and technological changes that shape his or her place in the world, the student will. . .

MWH-8.7 Evaluate the benefits and costs of increasing worldwide trade and technological growth, including the movement of people and products, the growth of multi-national corporations, the increase in environmental concerns, and the increase in cultural exchanges.

Taxonomy Level: Evaluate/Conceptual Knowledge – 5/B

Previous/future knowledge:

Students studied cultural diffusion in the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries in the fifth, seventh, and eighth grades (5-6.5, 7-6.5, 8-7.4). Students have also studied diffusion in World Geography (WG-1.2).

It is essential for students to know:

Advances in technology after World War II led to increased global interaction and improved quality of life. From the 1950s to the 1970s, the United States and the Soviet Union took their Cold War rivalry to space. The space race also led to an increase in global cooperation and by 1970, the space race became more cooperative.

The computer also provided growth to the technology industry. Consumer goods, such as microwave ovens, telephones, and cars often include computer chips to keep them running. Millions of people around the world use personal computers at work or at home. Many of these people are connected through the Internet, a worldwide network of computers. The Internet allows people to access information and communicate with one another.

New technology has also changed health care. Research into the makeup of genes has helped unlock the secrets of some diseases. Scientists have also used new understanding of genes to develop better foods. They have also made advances in farming. In the “green revolution,” they used better strains of food crops to help farmers grow more food. The result has saved millions of lives.

Economic Development on a Global Scale

The economies of nations are so tightly linked that the actions of one nation affects others. Technology has also changed the world’s economies. In the 1950s, scientists found a new way to make plastics, which came to be widely used. In recent years, industries have begun using robots to make products. These changes require workers to have more and different skills than before.

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The industrialized nations changed the focus of their economies. They came to have more jobs in service and information industries. Manufacturing jobs were more often found in the developing nations where labor costs less. Japan's economy grew dramatically after World War II. By adopting Western technologies, Japanese companies became leaders in the production of cars, electronic goods, and ships. This success was built in part on a workforce that valued education and skills. South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore followed Japan's example. These countries of the Pacific Rim were joined in the 1990s by China and Malaysia as important world economic powers. A global economy linking the economies of different nations developed in the 1980s. In recent years, these links have become even closer. Telephone and computer links connect banks and other financial companies around the world.

Multinational corporations have offices and factories in many countries. Their decisions affect workers all over the world. After World War II, many leaders believed that world economies would best grow if there were free trade. This means there would be no barriers to block goods from one country from entering another country. Many steps have been taken to put free trade in practice. In 1951, some nations in Europe joined together to create free trade among their people. That group, now called the European Union (EU), has grown to become a powerful trading block. To compete, the United States, Canada, and Mexico agreed to the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) in 1994. Another free trade zone was set up in Latin America. Similar groups also exist in Africa and Asia.

Some developing nations still face problems in building their economies. The people in these countries live in extreme poverty, with small homes and little food. Debate goes on over how best to solve this problem. Economic growth puts a great demand on some resources. Manufacturing and trade use huge amounts of energy. Oil has been a major source of this energy. Whenever the flow of oil has been threatened, the world's economies have suffered severe shocks. Another source of conflict has been water needed for manufacturing and for farming. Some nations have come in conflict over water supplies. Growth has also caused problems for the environment. Burning coal and oil has polluted the air. It has caused acid rain and brought about a general rising of temperatures on Earth. The release of some chemicals into the air has weakened the earth's ozone layer. This layer of air blocks out dangerous rays from the sun. Many scientists understand the need to continue to let economies grow. They urge, though, that this growth take place without using the world's resources too quickly. This movement centers on an idea called "sustainable growth."

It is not essential for students to know:

It is not essential for students to know specific technology, corporations, or events that have contributed to global interdependence.

Social Studies Literacy Skills for the Twenty-First Century:

- Examine the relationship of the present to the past and use knowledge of the past to make informed decisions in the present and to extrapolate into the future.
- Assess the relative importance of multiple causes and outcomes.

WORLD HISTORY FROM 1300: THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

- Explain how an interdependent, specialized, and voluntary worldwide trade network affects a nation's standard of living and economic growth.

Assessment Guidelines:

Appropriate classroom assessments could require students be able to:

Evaluate

- Check
- Critique

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