Timeline
8000 B.C.E. First Agricultural Villages, First Cities
4000 B.C.E. Beginning of the cultivation of maize in Mesoamerica
3200 B.C.E Beginning of Sumerian dominance of Mesopotamia
3000 B.C.E. Beginning of Agriculture in South America and New Guinea
3000 B.C.E. – 1000 B.C.E. Indo European Migrations
2600-2500 B.C.E. Pyramid construction in Egypt
2500 –2000 B.C.E. Height of Harappan society in South Asia
2350 B.C.E. Beginning of regional empires in Mesopotamia
2200 B.C.E. Beginning of Chinese dynastic rule
2000 B.C.E. Beginning of the Bantu Migrations
1500 B.C.E. Beginning of Aryan migrations to South Asia
1500 -500 B.C.E. Vedic Age in South Asia
1500 B.C.E. – 700 C.E. Austronesian migrations
1403-221 B.C.E. Invention of Ironworking in sub-Saharan Africa
800 B.C.E. Establishment of Greek poleis
722 B.C.E. Assyrian conquest of Israel
586 B.C.E. New Babylonian (Chaldean) conquest of Judah
509 B.C.E. Establishment of the Roman republic
336-323 B.C.E. Rule of Alexander of Macedon (the Great)
330 B.C.E. Conquest of Achaemenid Empire by Alexander
20 B.C.E. – 180 C.E. Pax Romana
4 B.C.E. – 29 C.E. Life of Jesus Christ
300 -1100 C.E. Mayan civilization
Third-First Centuries B.C.E. Spread of Buddhism and Hinduism from South Asia
206 B.C.E. – 220 C.E. Han Dynasty
320 – 550 C.E. Gupta dynasty
476 C.E. Fall of the western Roman Empire
Key Comparisons

1. Early agriculture in the Eastern Hemisphere versus the Western Hemisphere
2. Pastoral nomadism versus settled lifestyles
3. Political, economic, and social characteristics of the empire of the four river valley civilizations
4. Early civilizations of the Eastern and Western hemispheres
5. Political, economic, and social characteristics of the empires of Rome, Han China, and Gupta India
6. Exchanges in the Indian Ocean versus those in the Mediterranean Sea
7. The expansion and appeal of Buddhism, Hinduism, and Christianity
8. The origins, philosophies, and goals of Confucianism and Daoism
9. The decline and fall of Han China, Rome, and Gupta India
10. Trans-Saharan versus Silk Roads trade
Change from Nomadic life to civilization largely due to cultivation…groups that turned to Ag. Experienced rapid pop. Growth. Started permanent communities.

The Neolithic Era and the Transition to Agriculture

Despite the sophistication of the Neandertal and Cro-Magnon, the paleolithic age people were still limited by their hunting and gathering existence. The discovery of agriculture (and to a lesser extent the domestication of animals) around twelve thousand years ago helped give rise to the neolithic age (“new stone age”). Women may have played the most important role in the development of agriculture. This fundamental discovery changed humans from food gatherers to food producers and helped set the stage for the rise of civilization. The mastery of agriculture ensured a more stable food supply and helped fuel a population explosion.
presents the major milestones in the development of humans from their earliest appearance on earth to the dawn of civilization. This chapter addresses the physical evolution of the species and their migrations throughout the globe as well as the revolutionary transformation from all humans surviving by hunting and gathering to the majority living in agricultural societies. The results of this remarkable transformation include:

- An unprecedented population explosion due to the increase in the food supply
- Permanent settlement in villages and, later, in cities
- The specialization of labor, which led to the development of craft industries and other professions
- The opportunity to accumulate wealth and the resulting emergence of social class differences
- The development of fertility-based religions and the increasing elaboration of religious institutions
Introduction. Because of the agricultural transition, societies could sustain larger populations and could become increasingly complex. Thus urban societies emerged in the fourth millennium B.C.E., particularly in the region known as Mesopotamia (“the land between the rivers”) along the fertile river valleys of the Tigris and the Euphrates. Some of the world’s earliest cities developed and prospered in that region. Mesopotamian prosperity and sophisticated culture attracted many migrants and influenced many neighbors, including the Hebrews, the Phoenicians, and the Indo-Europeans. Some of the characteristics of Mesopotamian societies were:

- The establishment of governmental institutions to provide order and stability and to resolve disputes. These institutions evolved into hereditary kingships and, at times, into empires when states sought to expand their dominion to neighboring lands.
- The emergence of social classes as the result of specialization of labor and accumulation of wealth. The agricultural surplus and the accompanying specialization allowed individuals and groups to produce goods of high quality. The desire for these goods, in turn, helped to stimulate trade with other societies, greatly expanding intercultural contact.
- Distinctive cultural traditions that developed including a system of writing that would endure for thousands of years and more elaborate religious institutions than had previously existed.
CH 2 terms

- Sargon Hammurabi Indo-Europeans
- Aryans Hittites Hebrews
- Phoenicians Akkad Sumeria
- Babylon Assyria Mesopotamia
- Ziggurat Cuneiform
- Lex Talionis Epic of Gilgamesh
- Monotheism polytheism
- Centralized bureaucracy patriarchy
Introduction. At the same time that Egypt and Nubia were becoming increasingly complex societies, the Bantu-speaking peoples to the south were undertaking gradual migrations from their homeland in west central Africa and displacing or intermingling with the foreign peoples of the forests. These migrations, and others, helped to spread both agricultural technology and, after 1000 B.C.E., iron metallurgy throughout sub-Saharan Africa. Cultivation and domestication of animals transformed African cultures, like cultures in southwest Asia, into distinctive societies with more formal states, specialized labor, and more elaborate cultural traditions. The region around the Nile River, Egypt to the north and Nubia to the south supported the fastest growing and most complex societies in Africa. These societies were noted for their

- **Centralized political authority** embodied in the absolute ruler the pharaoh in Egypt and the person of the King in the region of Kush (Nubia)
- **Imperialist expansion** in the second millennium B.C.E. as the Egyptian army pushed into Palestine, Syria, and North Africa and south into Nubia and as the Kushites later conquered Egypt and expanded their influence to the south.
- **Highly stratified and patriarchal societies** based on an agricultural economy
- **Development of industries, transportation, and trade networks** that facilitated economic growth and the intermingling of cultural traditions
- **Writing system**: hieroglyphic, hieratic, demotic, and Coptic scripts in Egypt and the yet-to-be-translated Meroitic inscriptions in Nubia
- **Organized religious traditions** that include worship of Amon and Re, sun gods, the cult of Osiris, pyramid building, and in Egypt, Mummification of the dead
- Menes
- Khufu
- Tuthmosis III
- Hatshepsut
- Akhenaten
- Sudan
- Nile
- Nubia
- Hyksos
- Kush
- Patriarchy
- Bronze metallurgy
- Iron metallurgy
- Hieroglyphs
- Papyrus
- Hieratic script
- Osiris
- Bantu
- Age sets
Introduction. An agricultural economy and its accompanying Neolithic communities emerged on the Indian subcontinent some time after 7000 B.C.E. Eventually some of the Neolithic villages further devolved into urban societies. The earliest such society was Dravidian and was known as the Harappan society. It flourished along the Indus River valley in the third millennium B.C.E. Coinciding with the decline of the Harappan society, large numbers of Indo-European migrants were moving into India from central Asia beginning around 1900 B.C.E. These peoples, known as Aryans, brought with them cultural traditions sharply different from the earlier societies. After a period of turmoil the Aryan and Dravidian cultures merged to generate a distinctive Indian society characterized by:

- **Regional states with kingship** (rajas) as the most common form of government.
- **The caste system**, a complex social class system that served as a vehicle for imparting a powerful sense of group identity, as a stabilizing influence in Indian society and as a foundation for the religious belief system.
- **A distinctive set of religious beliefs** encompassing the doctrines of samsara and karma along with the notion of a universal soul, or Brahman. A rich literary religious tradition based on centuries of oral transmission that included such classics as the Vedas and the Upanishads.
- Indra
- Aryans
- Dravidians
- Harappan society
- Indus River
- Harappa
- Mohenjo-Daro
- Sanskrit
- Pakrit
- Vedas
- Rig Vedas
- Raja
- Punjab
- Ganges River
- caste
- Varna
- Brahmans
- Kshatriyias
- Shudras
- jatis
- patriarchy
- Law book of Manu
- sati
- soma
- Varuna
- Upanishads
- samsara
- Karma
- moksha
- yoga
Introduction. The culture of East Asia had relatively little direct contact with the complex societies to the west; nevertheless, powerful states (the Xia, Shang, and Zhou dynasties), sophisticated technologies, and highly stratified societies developed along the banks of the Huang He and Yangtze rivers in China. These early societies were built on a foundation that would endure for millennia, some of the significant components of which include:

- **The Mandate of Heaven:** The source of legitimacy for all Chinese emperors. Thus the emperor, known as the son of heaven, served as a crucial link between the heavenly powers and the people on earth.
- **The extended family as the primary institution of society:** The patriarchal head of the family wielded tremendous power and shouldered great responsibilities. It was his job to see that appropriate religious rituals were observed in the worship of the family’s departed ancestors. Those ancestors were believed to have control over the living family’s well-being.
- **Literacy:** The development of a writing system that spread widely throughout China and still persists in its basic form, although modified through time. Consequently Chinese society has experienced a virtually uninterrupted literary tradition.
- **Social stratification:** Sharp distinctions and clearly defined roles within the society based on class, gender, and age.
Chapter 6 – Early Societies in the Americas and Oceania

Introduction. The cultures of the Americas and Oceania developed in relative isolation to the other early complex societies. Nevertheless, they too developed an agricultural base sufficient to support growing populations, specialized labour, political institutions, diverse societies, and long-distance trading networks. Less is known of these cultures than those in other parts of the world primarily because their writing systems did not develop or written documents perished or were destroyed. The fragments of writing and archaeological findings indicate that these societies were complex and developed rich cultural traditions.

The early societies in America
- Built elaborate ceremonial centres that reflected both a complex religion and a powerful political economy
- Left a rich artistic legacy that included pottery, sculpture, metalwork, and painting
- Developed sophisticated knowledge of astronomy and mathematics

The early societies of Oceania
- Saw the gradual dissemination of agricultural technology spread by Austronesian seafarers who traded and settled throughout the Pacific
- Formed a well-integrated society known as Lapita that stretched from New Guinea to Tonga
Land Bridges  Olmecs
Maya  Tikal
Chichén Itzá  *Popol Vuh*
Ball game  Teotihuacán
Chavín  Mochica
Austronesians  Lapita
Introduction. This chapter describes the series of empires that arose in Persia (modern-day Iran) and controlled much of the territory between the Mediterranean Sea and India for over one thousand years, from c. 550 B.C.E. throughout 650 C.E. The first empire, founded by Cyrus the Achæmenid, expanded under him and his successors until it became the largest empire the world had ever seen. The four Persian dynasties of this era (Achæmenid, Seleucid, Parthian & Sassanid) were noted for several important developments.

- Tightly governed administration with networks of educated bureaucrats, tax collectors and spies to maintain the order and the authority of the emperor.
- The development of qanats, underground canals, to support the economic foundation of the empires: agriculture
- Sophisticated policies promoting long-distance trade such as standardized coinage, road building, a courier service, accessible marketplaces, and banks and investment companies.
- The emergence and elaboration of Zoroastrianism, a popular and influential religion whose teachings demanded high moral and ethical standards.
Cyrus  Croesus
Darius  Xerxes
Seleucis  Mithradates I
Shapur I  Zarathustra
Achæmenids  Persepolis
Satrapy  Royal Road
Persian Wars  Seleucids
Parthians  Qanat
Zoroastrianism  Ahura Mazda
Magi  Gathas
Avesta
Introduction. This chapter explores the unification and expansion of China during the Qin and Han dynasties (221 B.C.E. to 220 C.E.). A rich tradition of the social and political philosophies of Confucians, Daoists, and Legalists was the foundation on which these and later dynasties rested. Some of the significant elements contributing to the unification of China in this period were:

- The building of a centralized bureaucracy staffed with professional educated in Confucian thought and values
- A prosperous economy based on technological and industrial development and long-distance trade
- The standardization of the written language
Siam Qian  Confucius (Kong Fuzi)
Mencius  Xunzi
Laozi  Shang Wang
Han Feizi Qin Shihuangdi
Liu Bang  Han Wudi
Wang Mang  Confucianism
RenLi
Xiao  Wuwei
Daoism  Legalism
Qin Dynasty  Han Dynasty
Xiongnu  Sericulture
Yellow Turban Uprising
Introduction. This chapter addresses the significant developments in classical India between about 520 B.C.E. and 550 C.E. during which two influential empires emerged in northern India: the Maurya and the Gupta. Although these two state systems were not permanent, they contributed to the growth of long-distance trading networks, the consolidation of cultural traditions, and the promotion of several significant religions. More specifically, India, during this period of one thousand years or so, witnessed the following important developments.

- A high volume of manufacture and trade with regions as far east as China and as far west as the Mediterranean basin.
- The consolidation of the social traditions of patriarchal families and caste distinctions, the latter becoming more elaborated with the appearance of subcastes called jatis usually based on occupation.
- The emergence and spread of salvation-based religions: Jainism, Buddhism, and popular Hinduism.
- Chandragupta Maurya
- Kautalya
- Ashoka
- Kashika
- Chandra Gupta
- Vardhamma Mahavira
- Siddhartha Gautama
- Maurya empire
- Kingdom of Magadha
- Bactria
- Kushan Empire
- Gupta Dynasty
- White Huns
- Caste
- Jainism
- Buddhism
- Nalanda
- Hinduism
Introduction. Although the Greeks did not build a centralized state until the short reign of Alexander of Macedon, they did serve to link the Mediterranean and Black Sea regions through colonization, commerce, and cultural interaction. Through their unprecedented abilities as sea traders, and later through the unification provided by the Hellenistic empires, the Greeks left a rich cultural legacy of politics, philosophy, art, literature, and science that would go on to shape the European and Islamic worlds for centuries. Some of the enduring innovations for which the classical Greek cultures are best known include:

- The earliest form of democracy, the best realization of which was found in Athens under the leadership of the statesman Pericles.
- The establishment of hundreds of cities throughout the Mediterranean basin and southwest Asia.
- Unique contributions to literature in the forms of mythology, poetry, drama, and essays.
- The contributions of the rational philosophical thought of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle and later the Epicureans, the Skeptics, and the Stoics.
Homer  Solon  Pericles  Philip of Macedon  Alexander of Macedon  Menander  Sappho  Socrates  Plato  Aristotle  Euripides  Minoan Society  Knossos  Trojan War  Mycenaean Society  Polis  Delian League  Persian Wars  Peloponnesian War  Hellenistic Age  Forms or Ideas  Cult of Dionysus  Stoicism
Introduction. This chapter traces the growth and development of Rome from its humble beginnings on the banks of the Tiber River through its republican phase and its transformation into a sprawling, cosmopolitan empire encompassing much of Europe and northern Africa. A tight administrative structure and organized trade network promoted the movement of people, goods, and ideas throughout the empire. The Romans had a significant impact on later Mediterranean, European, and southwest Asian cultures. These influences include, but are not limited to,

- The concept of a republican form of government governed by a constitution and a fixed body of law that guaranteed the rights of citizens.
- Elaborate transportation and communications networks with sophisticated roads, sea lanes linking port cities, and an imperial postal system.
- Economically specialized regions, either in the development of cash crops for export or in localized industries.
- New cities built throughout the empire with unprecedented levels of sanitation, comfort, and entertainment opportunities.
- Widespread dissemination of philosophical beliefs and values, like Stoicism, and religions of salvation, like Christianity.
Romulus  Gracchi brothers  Marius
Sulla  Julius Cæsar  Augustus Cæsar
Cicero  Jesus  Paul of Tarsus
Etruscans  Roman Senate  Punic Wars
Twelve tables  Roman roads  Coliseum
Patricians  Plebeians  Stoicism
Mithraism  Cult of Isis  Essenes
Judaism  Christianity  New Testament
Latifundia  Pax Romana  Mare Nostrum
Pater familias  Sermon of the Mount
Introduction. The classical era witnessed the growth and consolidation of vast empires such as Rome, China, and Parthia. The relative political stability, economic prosperity, and close proximity of their borders encouraged an unprecedented growth in long-distance trade. Regular land and sea trading routes, collectively known as the silk roads, became established thoroughfares for the spread of goods from the coast of China to Western Europe. This extensive trading network had several consequences, both intended and unintended.

- Regions began to specialize in certain products that were particularly valuable as trade goods.
- Merchants, traders, mariners, and bankers became much more wealthy and influential than they had ever been before.
- Merchants, travelers, and missionaries carried popular religious beliefs to distant lands via the silk roads. Christianity, Buddhism, Hinduism, and Mithraism in particular became much more widespread.
- Disease pathogens were carried to populations that had no immunities to them, causing widespread epidemics throughout Eurasia. Inadvertently these epidemics contributed to the downfall of the Han and Roman Empires.
- Zhang Qian
- Mani
- Constantine
- Odovacer
- Silk roads
- Yellow Turban
- Visigoths
- Edict of Milan
- Sinicization

- Han Wudi
- Diocletian
- Attila
- St Augstine
- Monsoon system
- Barracks emperors
- Huns
- Edict of Milan
- Council of Nicaea
- tetrarchs
Introduction. While the western half of the Roman empire crumbled and fell, the eastern half, which became known as Byzantium, managed to survive and, mostly, to thrive for a millennium. During its long history, the Byzantine Empire suffered many serious setbacks because of both internal strife and external pressures. Nevertheless, this culture, which blended Roman and Greek traditions, managed to flourish politically, economically, and socially up until the time it began its centuries-long decline culminating in its conquest by the Islamic Ottoman Turks in 1453. Several unique features of the Byzantine civilization contributed to its prosperity:

- A strategically located capital city called Constantinople that was one of the largest, most influential and cosmopolitan urban centers in the world.
- A highly centralized and autocratic governmental structure consisting of an exalted emperor with an aura of divinity and a large and intricate bureaucracy.
- A rich Christian tradition elaborated by the emperor and the patriarchs that eventually evolved into an independent and separate faith referred to as Eastern Orthodox.
- An unusual and effective administration system whereby generals governed over free peasants who received small tracts of land to work in exchange for military service.
- The extension of Byzantine cultural traditions to Eastern Europe and Russia through political, cultural, and economic relations.
- Procopius
- Constantine
- Justinian
- Theodora
- Belisarius
- Leo III
- St Basil of Caesarea
- St Cyril
- Cæsaropapism
- Hagia Sophia
- Corpus iuris civilis
- Theme
- Arianism
- Iconoclasm
- Orthodox Church
- Catholic Church
- Seljuk Turks
- Battle of Manzikert
- Cyrillic
- bezant
Introduction. The religion of Islam emerged on the Arabian Peninsula in the seventh century C.E. as a result of the vision and the teachings of Muhammad. His message attracted a rapidly expanding circle of devout believers, known as Muslims. After Muhammad's death, Arab conquerors spread the word of Islam throughout a vast territory extending from the Indus River to the Iberian Peninsula within one century. This rapid expansion of Islam contributed to the development of a massive trade and communication network in which goods and ideas spread freely. The realm of Islam became one of the most prosperous and cosmopolitan societies of the postclassical world. This new society was characterized by

- Strong commitment to the monotheistic belief system, resting on the Five Pillars of Islam, first articulated by Muhammad and later elaborated on by scholars and mystics.
- The development of overland and maritime trade and communication routes that facilitated the spread of new crops, trade goods, and ideas, from improved techniques in agriculture to the writings of the classical Greek philosophers.
- Engagement with and sometimes adoption of various cultural traditions encountered by the far-flung realm and its trade contacts. Hence elements of Persian, Indian, Christian, and Greek cultures found their place into Islamic society and thought.
Muhammad  Abu Bakr Abu al-Abbas
Ali Harun al-Rashad
Ibn Rushad  Omar Khayyam
Islam  Dar al-Islam  Ulama
qadi (gadi)  Hijira  Sharia
Madrasa  Five Pillars  Hajj
Shia  Caliph  Umayyad
Abbasid  Seljuk Turks
Introduction. After the fall of the Han dynasty, more than 350 years of disruption plagued China. Toward the end of the sixth century, centralized imperial rule returned to China and persisted for almost 700 years under the Sui, Tang, and Song dynasties (589-1279 CE). This period witnessed unprecedented economic prosperity for China. In addition, China, as the “Middle Kingdom,” made its influence felt throughout the surrounding areas, (especially Korea, Japan and Vietnam) creating a larger east Asian society centred on China. This period of east Asian history is characterized by:

- Rapid economic development because of more advanced agricultural practices, technological and industrial innovations, and participation in sophisticated trade networks throughout East Asia and including the revived silk roads.
- The spread of Buddhism beyond its place of origin in India until it became the most popular religious faith in all of east Asia.
- The profound influence of Chinese social organization and economic dynamism on the surrounding cultures of Japan, Korea, Vietnam and central Asia.
Xuanzang  Yang Jian  Sui Yangdi
Tang Taizong  An Lushan  Huang Chao
Du Fu  Song Taizu  Li Bo
Zhu Xi  Murasaki Shikibu
Sui Grand Canal  Tang
Chang’an  Equal-field system  Middle Kingdom
meritocracy  Uighurs  Song
Khitan  Jurchen  Foot binding
Dunhuang  Chan Buddhism  Neo-Confuciansim
Silla  Vietnam  Nara Japan
Heian Period  Tale of Genji  Minamoto
Shogun  Kamakura Muromachi
Samuraibushido  seppuku
Introduction. During the postclassical period there emerged in India no long-lasting imperial authority, as there were in China and the Islamic world. Regional kingdoms were the norm. Nevertheless, Indian society exerted profound influence on the cultures of south and Southeast Asia. Through the extensive trade networks of the Indian Ocean, Indian forms of political organisation, religion, and economic practices spread through the region. Several developments in India during this era gradually spread throughout the larger culture zone.

Dramatic agricultural growth fueled population growth and urbanisation. These phenomena, combined with specialised industrial production and trade, resulted in unprecedented economic growth for the region.

India’s central position in the Indian Ocean basin resulted in it becoming a major clearinghouse for products of the voluminous maritime trade that encompassed east Africa, Arabia, Persia, Southeast Asia and Malaysia as well as the entire Indian subcontinent.

Islam originally appeared in India through a variety of conduits, and it eventually became the primary religion of one quarter of the population. From India, Islam, along with Hinduism and Buddhism, spread to Southeast Asia and the nearby islands.
- Buzurg of Shahriyar
- Harsha
- Mahmud of Ghazi
- Shankara
- Harihara & Bukka
- Raminuja
- Cosmos Indicopleustes
- Guru Kabir
- Sind Sultanate of Delhi
- Chola Kingdom
- Monsoons Dhows
- Kingdom of Axum
- Junks
- Sufis
- Caste system
- Vishnu
- Shiva
- Bhakti
- Funan
- Srivijaya
- Angkor
- Melaka
- Ceylon
- **Bhagavata Purana**
Introduction: While other parts of the world were experiencing unprecedented prosperity during the postclassical era, Europe’s economy underwent a sharp constriction with the fall of the Roman Empire. Long-distance trade did not entirely disappear, significant developments took place in agricultural production, and there were brief periods of government consolidation; nevertheless, early medieval Europe was a world dominated by rural self-sufficiency and political decentralization. In spite of its seeming “backwardness” compared to other great empires of the postclassical world, Europe was laying the foundation for the development of the powerful society that would emerge during the high middle ages. The foundation rested on:

- Hard-won political order, restored out of disruption caused by the fall of the Roman Empire, centuries of destructive invasions, and dramatic depopulation. This order was based on a highly decentralized but flexible system that vested political, military, and judicial authority in local and regional rulers.
- A long, slow process of economic recovery based first on increased agricultural production within the rural manorial system to be followed by gradually increasing trade, industry, and commerce and eventual re-urbanisation of Europe.
- The cultural unity provided by the Christian church based in Rome. During this period Roman Christianity provided the impetus for cultural continuity and unity in western Europe. The office of the papacy and monastic movement were two powerful institutions that helped to preserve Roman traditions and develop and consolidate a uniquely European culture.
- Clovis, Charles Martel, Charlemagne
- Pope Leo III, Gregory of Tours
- Louis the Pious, Alfred, Otto I
- Pope Gregory I, St. Scholastica, St. Benedict
- Franks, Manorial system, Missi dominici
- Retainers, Benefice, Serf
- Heavy plow, papacy, Monasticism
- Aachen, Vikings, Magyars, Benedict’s Rule
Introduction. Nomadic herders populated the steppes of Asia for centuries during the classical and postclassical eras and periodically came into contact and conflict with the established states and empires of the Eurasian land mass. It was not until the eleventh century, however, that the nomadic peoples like the Turks and Mongols began to raid, conquer, and trade with the urban-based cultures in a systematic and far-reaching manner. While these resourceful and warlike nomads often left a path of destruction in their wake, they also built vast trans-regional empires that laid the foundations for the increasing communication and exchange that would characterize the period from 1000 to 1500 in the eastern hemisphere. The success of these nomadic empires in this era can be attributed to:

- Their unmatched skill on horseback. When organized on a large scale these nomads were practically indomitable in warfare. Outstanding cavalry forces, skilled archers, and well-coordinated military strategy gave these peoples an advantage that was difficult for even the most powerful states to counter.
- Their ability to integrate vast territories through secure trade routes, exceptional courier networks, diplomatic missions, missionary efforts, and resettlement programs.
Tughril Beg Mahmud of Ghazi
Chinggis Khan Marco Polo
Khubilai Khan Hülegü
Tamerlane Osman
Sultan Mehmed II
Turks Yurts Kumiss
Shamans Khan Saljuq Turks
Manzikert Karakorum Khanbaliq
Chaghatai Golden Horde Yuan Dynasty
Ilkahnate Ottoman Turks Uighur Turks
Bubonic Plague Istanbul Lamaist Buddhism
Introduction. Agriculture and herding spread gradually throughout the sub-Saharan Africa from about 2000 BCE until the end of the first millennium CE through a process known as the Bantu migrations. After about 500 BCE the knowledge of iron metallurgy was also disseminating throughout Africa. As a result of these movements, of the introduction of new nutritious foods such as bananas, and of long-distance trade, the population of Africa grew dramatically, and increasingly complex forms of government began to emerge. Most sub-Saharan African cultures were kin-based and organized into relatively small villages that were loosely allied into districts governed by a chief. Occasionally larger and more structured kingdoms and empires appeared. These larger states generally consolidated their position through controlling long-distance trade in their regions. In general, the history of sub-Saharan Africa from 1000 to 1500 CE is noted for:

- The introduction and widespread dissemination of the Islamic religion. In many cases the belief in Islam supplemented rather than supplanted traditional religious practices. Some sub-Saharan societies became important centres of worship and learning in the Islamic world.
- A regular and reliable flow of trade goods: gold, ivory, and slaves being the most important exports. These trade networks were both overland – particularly notable was the trans-Saharan camel caravan routes – and maritime, where east African city-states became important stops on the Indian Ocean seaways.
- The emergence and growth of states that became highly influential in the cross-cultural interactions of this period. The states of Kongo, Zimbabwe, Ghana, Mali, and the Swahili city-states became trade and religious centres whose fortunes were clearly tied into those of Eurasia.
- Sundiata Mansa Musa
- Ibn Battuta Ali ibn Muhammad
- Griots Bananas Kin-based society
- Chiefdom Gao Kingdom of Kongo
- Koumbi-Saleh Mali Empire Kingdom of Ghana
- Swahili Kilwa Zimbabwe Age
- Grades Zanj revolt Diviners
- Solomonic Dynasty Axum Kebra Negast
Introduction. Europeans during the high middle ages built a vibrant and prosperous society. Rising from the foundations laid during the early middle ages – lord-retainer relationships, agricultural innovation, and then Roman Catholic Church—Europe emerged from its long period of relative political instability and economic and intellectual stagnation. The hallmarks of high medieval European culture included

- The consolidation and expansion of regional states. These powerful states sometimes were organized by local rulers and based on lord-retainer relationships, as seen in France. Other times, they were supported or encouraged by the Roman church, like the Holy Roman Empire.
- Economic revitalization. With renewed agricultural surplus, the population expanded and Europe began to re-urbanise. Cities grew, and with them grew business, industry, trade, and educational institutions. Long-distance trade networks reappeared, esp. in the Mediterranean and Baltic and North Sea regions.
- Continued presence of the Roman Catholic Christianity in virtually all aspects of high medieval life. Though both traditional church institutions and the mass appeal of popular religious practices, church institutions and the mass appeal of popular religious practices, the church prospered during this period. The Roman church’s influence was felt in education, philosophy, literature, conquest, and travel.
- Marco Polo
- Otto I
- Pope John XII
- Henry IV
- Pope Gregory VII
- Hugh Capet
- Frederick Barbarossa
- Louis IX
- Thomas Aquinas
- William of Normandy
- Eleanor of Aquitaine
- St Dominic
- St Francis of Assisi
- Pope Innocent
- Eric the Red
- Leif Ericsson
- Robert Guiscard
- Roger Guiscard
- Pope Urban II
- Peter the Hermit
- Saladin
- Holy Roman Empire
- Investiture
- Capetian dynasty
- Normans
- Champagne fairs
- Hanseatic League
- Three estates
- Chivalry
- Troubadours
- Guilds
- Cathedral schools
- universities
- Scholasticism
- sacraments
- Saints
- Relics
- Pilgrimages
- Waldensians
- Cathars
- Vinland
- Teutonic knights
- Knights Templar
- reconquista
- Crusades
- Magna Carta
Introduction. This chapter presents the evolution of complex societies in the Americas and the Pacific Islands up through the sixteenth century. Isolation and varied resources led to a wide range of social structure from simple hunting and gathering to settled agricultural villages to the highly complex urban societies like those of the Aztecs and the Incas. Common aspects of these societies include:

- Isolation from one another and from the cultures of the Eastern Hemisphere.
- Absence of metallurgy, although the peoples of Mesoamerica and South America mined gold and silver.
- Few domesticated animals – the llama and alpaca of the Andes Mountains being notable exceptions – and, as a result, no wheeled transport.
- Lack of written language. The Aztec had mathematics, precise calendars, and a symbolic system of record keeping, but no formal written literature. The Inca kept accounts with *quipu*, a system of knotted cord. North American tribes lacked written language.
- Toltec
- Mexica
- Quetzalcóatl Huiztilopochtli
- Pueblo Pahacuti
- Inca Iroquois
- Aztlán Tenochtitlan
- Chinampas henequen
- Chuchito Chimú
- Chanchan Cuzco
- Quipu Inca Road
- Cahokia mound Marae
- Pohnpei Nan Madol
- Ali’i nui kapu
Introduction. This chapter explores the cross-cultural networks that linked Europe and Asia between 1000-1500 CE. The Mongol conquests of the thirteenth century disrupted commerce along the ancient silk route through central Asia, but eventually trade and travel were restored and even strengthened. Although travel was slow and costly, international trade helped spread the bubonic plague, the Black Death, which ravaged much of Eurasia in the mid-fourteenth century. Common elements of these cross-cultural networks include:

- **Diplomacy.** Different states used trade routes to send envoys abroad seeking either to form alliances or to impress rivals.
- **Religion.** Islamic law and culture were common to societies from north and West Africa to Southeast Asia and the Philippines. Travel for Muslim pilgrims and scholars were common under Mongol rule. Christian missionaries also traveled to East Asia, but less frequently.
- **Cultural diffusion.** These routes became an important source for new ideas and information throughout Eurasia. New crops, such as sugarcane, and new technologies, such as gunpowder, the magnetic compass, and the printing press, transformed western societies.
- **European exploration.** Portugal sought to bypass Muslim-controlled trade routes by mounting expeditions to India around the Cape of Good Hope. In 1492, the Spanish attempted to beat the Portuguese at this game by sending Columbus west across the Atlantic.
Ibn Battuta    Marco Polo
Rabban Sauma John of Montecorvino
Hongwu    Zheng He
Prince Henry    Bartolomeu Dias
Vasco da Gama    Ferdinand & Isabel
Christopher Colombus
Qadi    Sufi    Melaka
Little Ice Age    Black Death    Ming dynasty
Reconquista    Renaissance    Humanism
Introduction. Before 1500, there was considerable cross-cultural interaction between Europe and Asia and, to a lesser extent, with sub-Saharan Africa. With the voyages of discovery of the fifteenth century, these contacts accelerated and became global in reach. The impact of European contact on the previously isolated societies of the Americas and the Pacific Islands was profound and devastating and will be discussed in detail in chapter 25. This chapter considers the motives and methods of European trade and exploration between the fifteenth and the eighteenth centuries. Some common themes of this era include:

- **Mixed motives.** European explorers acted from a complex mix of greed, daring, and missionary zeal. Christian princes, such as Prince Henry of Portugal and Ferdinand and Isabel of Spain, underwrote voyages to expand Christianity. Equally compelling were the profits to be made in the spice trade, especially if Arab intermediaries could be eliminated.

- **New technologies used in navigation.** From Arab traders, the Portuguese borrowed the astrolabe and the cross staff and used these tools to determine their north/south position. Other new technologies included the magnetic compass, more flexible combinations of sails, improved shipbuilding, cannons, and more accurate navigational charts.

- **Adventure.** Curiosity and a sense of adventure also drew Europeans out into the world. Between 1500 and 1800, European mariners charted the oceans, seas, and coasts of the entire globe. Important geographic questions were resolved: the circumference of the earth, the quest for a northwest passage across North America, and the patterns of winds and currents.

- **The Columbian Exchange.** Contact with European diseases was a demographic catastrophe for the populations of the Americas and the Pacific Islands, who usually suffered 80 percent to 90 percent mortality within the first generation. The cross-cultural exchange was more beneficial for Europeans, who gained significant new food crops.
Prince Henry  Vasco da Gama
Columbus  Ferdinand Magellan
James Cook  Afonso d’Alboquerque

State in your own words what each of the following terms means and why it is significant to a study of world history.

Reconquista  Lateen sail  Cross Staff
Stirrup  Volta do mar  Horse collar
Seven Years’ War  Columbian Exchange
Astrolabe  Sternpost rudder
Galleons  magnetic compass
Mercantilism  Joint-stock company
English East India Company  VOC
Introduction. This chapter presents the dramatic transformation of Europe between 1500 and 1800 from a sub-region of Eurasia to a dynamic global powerhouse. The expansion of European powers overseas set the stage for this transformation. Here we will examine the internal changes that enabled the nations of western Europe, in particular, to assume such preeminence. This transformation occurred simultaneously and on multiple levels.

Religious transformation. The Protestant Reformation, launched by Martin Luther in 1517 in Germany, successfully challenged the monopoly of the Roman Catholic Church on western Christendom. The printing press, recently introduced to Europe from China, advanced the ideas and texts of the Reformation.

Political transformation. Powerful nation-states evolved with resources and institutions to advance national interests abroad. At the same time, two models for political order emerged, represented by the absolute monarchies of France and Spain and the constitutional monarchies of England and the Netherlands.

Economic transformation. The emergence of capitalism is evident in changes to the structure of banking, finance, and manufacturing. Adam Smith advocated a free market economy, with prices and wages determined through competition.

Intellectual transformation. New technologies and new scientific discoveries of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries fueled debate about the nature of the universe and called into question the authority of the Church in such matters. The discussion eventually led to the Enlightenment of the eighteenth century, an intellectual movement that raised important questions about the nature of humanity, religion, and political authority.
Erasmus  Martin Luther  Ulrich Zwingli
John Calvin  Ignatius Loyola  Henry VIII
Louis XIV  Nicolas Copernicus  Hobbes
Galileo Galilei  Issac Newton  Adam Smith
Voltaire  Charles V  Montesquieu
Locke
Indulgences  Simony  95 Theses
Jesuits  Edict of Milan  Thirty Years’ War
Protestant Reformation  Council of Trent
Spanish Inquisition
Absolutism  Versailles  Capitalism
Putting-out system  Enlightenment
Philosophs
Deism  Humanism  Diet of Worms
Treaty of Westphalia  Act of Supremacy
Introduction. This chapter traces the devastating impact of European exploration and conquest on the societies in the Americas and on the Pacific Islands. Those societies, succumbed very quickly under the combined pressures of European diseases and superior technology. By 1700, most of the western hemisphere had been claimed by western powers. Colonial societies were shaped by a number of considerations:

**Conquest & exploitation.** Conquests of the Aztec empire by Cortes and the Inca empires by Pizarro were swift and brutal. The Spanish empire brought the Indian Empires of Mexico and Peru under royal authority, represented by the viceroy, and a small class of white landowners. Indigenous people were impressed into service in mines and on plantations.

**Slavery.** In Brazil, the Portuguese established a plantation society based on sugar mills (*engenhos*). After the native population died off, African slaves were imported and forced to labor under brutal conditions. In North America, the earliest British and French colonies centered on fur trade and subsistence farming. Plantations in Virginia and the Carolinas were originally worked by indentured servants from Europe, but by the late seventeenth century, planters found African slaves to be a better investment.

**Religious activity.** Catholic missions in Spanish and Portuguese colonies actively sought the conversion of native peoples. In North America, there were fewer contacts and more native resistance to conversion.
Francisco Pizarro  Hernan Cortes
Motecuzoma  Atahualpa
Mestizo  Peninsulares  Encomienda
Creoles  TainoMulattoe
Conquistadores  Quinto  Engenho
Treaty of Tordesillas  Indentured servants
Repartimiento system  Hacienda  Zacatecas
Potosi
Introduction. For thousands of years, sub-Saharan Africa was a remote and isolated region, cut off from much of the outside world by vast oceans and the Sahara Desert. In the eighth century Muslim caravans reached West Africa, and in the tenth century Arab merchant ships began trading with the Swahili city-states of east Africa. These contacts were, for the most part, initially beneficial to both African rulers and Muslim merchants. Traders sought gold, ivory, exotic foods such as kola nuts, and slaves. Africans, in turn, gained horses, salt, and other manufactured goods and were also introduced to the religion, law, and the culture of Islam. Several African societies, such as the Songhay, the Kongo, and the Ndongo, shifted from band level units to larger, more formal kingdoms.

This political evolution was disrupted after the fifteenth century, when Portuguese mariners reached the west coast of Africa. Direct European contact brought rapid and dramatic changes, which profoundly affected all sub-Saharan societies. Some dimensions of that change are:

- **Political upheaval.** In the Kongo, for example, the Portuguese undermined the authority of the king and even assassinated uncooperative elites.
- **Outright conquest and settlement.** Kongo, Ndongo, and South Africa became European settlements that had Africans as the servant class. The Swahili city-states were seized and forced to pay tribute.
- **Intertribal warfare.** Portuguese slave traders encouraged African slavers to make raids on their neighbours and to resist their own rulers. Coastal Dahomey profited from the slave trade, while inland peoples suffered.
- **Economic exploitation.** Indigenous economies were corrupted by the trade, exchanging slaves for manufactured goods such as guns and rum.
- **Social disruption.** Sixteen million able-bodied young Africans were enslaved between 1600 and 1800, two-thirds of them men. This disruption seriously impacted village and family life, especially in West Africa.
Thomas Peters  Sunni Ali
Alfonso I  Nzinga
Dona Beatriz Olaudah Equiano
Songhay  Ndongo (Angola)
Fulani  Antonian Movement
Triangular Trade  Middle Passage
Maroons
Introduction. In the early modern age, powerful dynasties emerged in both China and Japan, featuring centralized, autocratic governments and efficient bureaucracies. In China, the Ming dynasty drove out the Mongols in 1368 and rebuilt the infrastructure of the empire, including the Great Wall, the Grand Canal, and irrigation systems. Ming Emperor Hongwu built a large navy and sponsored expeditions to Southeast Asia and the Indian Ocean. However, later Ming rulers reversed this policy, destroyed the fleet, and restricted foreign contact.

In the mid-seventeenth century, Manchurian tribesman invaded China, overthrew a corrupt Ming state, and established the Qing (Ch’ing) dynasty with a Manchu ruling class. Also in the seventeenth century, the Tokugawa shoguns of Japan broke the power of the provincial lords (daimyo) and created a centralized military government. Although Chinese and Japanese traditions are very different, there are some common elements of the period, including:

- **A centralized bureaucracy.** A hierarchy of Confucian-trained administrators (bureaucrats) ran the Qing Empire from the new capital at Nanjing. The Tokugawa Shogunate required regular attendance by the daimyo at the capital city, Edo.

- **Neo-Confucian values.** Confucian teachings were appropriated by the state, stressing duty, order, and submission to authority. The patriarchal family was the basic social unit. Patriarchal values were grotesquely expressed in China in the practice of binding girls’ feet.

- **Agricultural economies with limited trade.** Peasant farming fed the state, and crafts and luxury goods provided additional wealth. Both states severely restricted foreign trade to a few, carefully controlled port cities.

- **Cultural insularity.** For nearly two hundred years, Chinese and Japanese citizens did not travel abroad and had little knowledge of the outside world. By the eighteenth century, both dynasties had fallen behind the west in terms of science and technology.
- Yongle
- Kangxi
- Qianlong
- Zheng He
- Matteo Ricci
- Leyasu
- Ming dynasty
- Foot binding
- Great Wall
- Neo-Confucianism
- Forbidden City
- Tokugawa Shogunate
- Qing dynasty
- Bakufu
- Scholar-bureaucrats Edo
- Gentry
- Kabuki
Introduction. Three powerful Islamic empires emerged in India and southwest Asia after the fifteenth century. Beginning with the fall of Constantinople to the Ottoman Turks in 1453, Turkish warriors and charismatic leaders established first the Ottoman Empire, then the Safavid dynasty in Persia (1502), and finally the Mughal dynasty in India (1526). Three distinct empires emerged with different cultures and traditions. Yet there are some striking similarities, including:

- **Autocratic rule.** All three empires began as military states in which all power and prestige centered on the person of the ruler. All three were plagued by problems of succession from one ruler to the next.

- **Islamic faith.** All three empires embraced Islam. Sizeable Christian minorities in the Ottoman Empire and a large Hindu majority in India forced those rulers to craft policies of religious toleration. The Safavid dynasty followed the Shiite sect of Islam, which brought them into conflict with their Sunni Ottoman neighbors.

- **Inward-looking policies (isolationism).** Although all three Islamic states maintained power through the military, neither the Safavid nor the Mughal dynasties developed a navy or a merchant fleet. Military resources were concentrated on defending inland borders. The Ottoman did have a powerful navy at one time, but by the eighteenth century, Ottoman armaments were outmoded and usually of European manufacture.

- **Agricultural economies.** Agriculture was the basis of the Islamic empires, and the majority of the population was engaged in raising and processing food. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the Ottoman and Safavid populations grew slowly; the population in India grew more dramatically.

- **Ambivalence towards foreign trade.** All three empires existed along important historic trade routes and derived benefit from their locations. The Safavids actively encouraged foreign trade. However, none of the three states sent merchants abroad or encouraged new industries.

- **Cultural insularity.** The Islamic empires did not seek out new ideas or technologies and proved hostile to innovation by the eighteenth century. Like leaders in the Qing and Tokugawa dynasties, Islamic conservatives feared that new ideas would lead to political instability.
- Shah Ismail  Shah Abbas
- Babur  Akbar
- Aurangzeb  Suleyman the Magnificent
- Ottomans  Safavids  Mughals
- Ghazi  Devshirme  Janissaries
- Twelver Shiism  Sikhism  Taj Majal
Chapter 29 -- The Russian Empire in Europe and Asia

- **Introduction.** This chapter covers the impressive evolution of the Russian empire from a minor city-state in the late fifteenth century to a vast empire by the end of the eighteenth century that stretched from the Baltic Sea across Asia to the Pacific Ocean. The contributions of several forceful rulers—Ivan III, Ivan IV, Peter I, and Catherine II—are discussed in some detail. Russia became, like other Asian empires, autocratic, conservative, and resistant to change; yet in some respects, the Russian state proved more dynamic and innovative. Some aspects of the Russian empire to consider are:
  - **An autocratic state.** Russian rulers were directly involved in the governance of the empire and imposed strict authority over their subjects. There was no tradition of participation in government and no tolerance of dissent.
  - **An agricultural economy.** Wealth and power were linked to land and farming. Nobles forced serfs to work their lands and resisted alternative forms of labor. Peter actively promoted industry, science, and technology but not free enterprise. The structures of capitalism did not emerge in Russia before the nineteenth century.
  - **A rigid social structure.** Russian society was divided between nobles and peasants. Social rank was hereditary and strictly enforced. Between 1500 and 1800, Russian peasants actually lost freedom and status at the very time that peasants in Western Europe were gaining basic legal and civil rights.
  - **Aggressive empire building.** Starting in the fifteenth century, the principality of Moscow was the core of what became an immense empire, first taking over the lands of the Golden Horde, then Siberia, and the Caucasus. In the eighteenth century, Russia pushed to the Pacific Ocean and began to intrude on the Ottoman Empire to the south and Poland-Lithuania to the west.
  - **Ambivalence toward change and innovation.** Peter I imposed sweeping reforms in the military, government, education, and industry, and Catherine continued many of those policies. Russians were forced to accept western models and learning, but these reforms stopped short of significant social changes. By 1800 the momentum for change had ended.
- Ivan III (the Great)    Ivan IV (the Terrible)
- Peter I (the Great)    Vitus Bering
- Patriarch Nikon    Catherine II (the Great)
- Boyars    St. Petersburg    Avvakum
- Cossacks    Novgorod    Serfs
- Oprichniki    Intelligentsia    Annexation
- Law Code of 1649    the Pale of Settlement
- Old Believers    Pugachev’s Rebellion    Partition of Poland
Introduction. The years 1776 and 1789 are pivotal dates in world history. The impact of the American Revolution and the French Revolution extended far beyond the borders of those two countries. Other revolts followed, and in spite of a conservative reaction in Europe, the world was not the same afterward. Some common elements of the revolutionary era:

- **New ideals.** The ideals of freedom, equality, and popular sovereignty first expressed by the philosophes of the Enlightenment were now enacted. John Locke’s theory of government as a contract between rulers and subjects inspired the leaders of the American Revolution. Likewise, Jean-Jacques Rousseau’s concept of a “social contract” based on the “general will” found expression in the National Assembly of France.

- **New governments.** Vastly different governments emerged in the United States, France, and Latin America. However, most revolutionary governments began with written constitutions, statements of individual rights, and elected assemblies. Political power was generally the privilege of men of property. Only Haiti empowered all men regardless of race.

- **New ideologies.** Political theories emerged to address the dramatic changes of the age. Conservatism, liberalism, and later, socialism differed in the understanding of change and authority and came to express the social and economic currents of the nineteenth century.

- **Uneven social progress.** Some changes, such as the abolition of feudal rights and obligations in France, were profound and permanent. Other changes, like the abolition of slavery in the Americas, came more slowly and piecemeal. Equal rights for women did not gain momentum until late in the nineteenth century.

- **Nationalism.** Popular sovereignty gave voice to a new form of identity. Based on notions of a common cultural and historic experience, nationalism was a powerful force in the nineteenth century. Ethnic minorities like the Greeks within the Ottoman Empire demanded national independence, and scattered cultural groups like the Italians and the Germans created new states to house their national identities.
- Olympe de Gouges
- John Locke
- George Washington
- Louis XVI
- Robespierre
- Marie Antoinette
- Napoleon Bonaparte
- Simon Bolívar
- Toussaint L’Ouverture
- John Stuart Mill
- Bismarck
- Camillo di Cavour
- Giuseppe Garibaldi
- Giuseppe Mazzini
- Theodore Herzl
- Mary Wollstonecraft
- Dec. of Independence
- Ancien Regime
- Tennis Court Oath
- FDRMC
- National Assembly
- Jacobins
- Directory
- Civil Code
- Concordat 1801
- Reign of Terror
- Peninsulares
- Creoles
- Liberalism
- Conservatism
- Congress of Vienna
- Zionism
- Nationalism
- Bourgeoisie
- Realpolitik
- Young Italy
Introduction. The dramatic political changes that followed the American and French revolutions parallel the equally profound social and economic changes that accompanied the Industrial Revolution. Beginning in Great Britain in the 1750s, the processes of manufacturing ware transformed. Britain held the lead in industrialization, but eventually the following changes reached Western Europe, the United States, Russia, and Japan.

New Sources of Energy. The coal-fired steam engine replaced traditional sources of power such as wood, wind, and water. Nations with abundant coal—Britain, Germany, the United States—could benefit from the new technology. Railroads and steamships, fired by steam engine, created important links between raw materials, industry, and market.

New Labour-saving technologies. Phases in textile production once done by hand, such as spinning and weaving, were mechanized. Factories replaced cottage industries and became more efficient through the use of interchangeable parts and the assembly line.

Increased Standard of Living. The factory system was tremendously productive. Efficiencies of scale and improved transportation meant cheaper consumer goods for everyone. The accumulation of great wealth provided

New patterns of work. The factory system transformed rural laborers into industrial workers with rigid timetables and strict discipline. Workers faced long hours of tedious and often dangerous work,

New Social Patterns. Industrialisation separated work from home life and created separate spheres for men and women. Women, especially middle class women, were expected to take care of home and children. Men were expected to work and provide for the family.

Urbanisation. Industrial centres grew rapidly through the nineteenth century. Large cities struggled to provide such services as water delivery, sewage disposal, police and fire protection, public education.
- James Watt
- Eli Whitney
- David Ricardo
- Henry Ford
- J.D. Rockefeller
- Herbert Spencer
- Thomas Malthus
- Robert Owen
- Karl Marx
- Sergei Witte
- Bessemer converter
- Luddites
- Social Darwinism
- Socialism
- Cult of Domesticity
- Proletariat
- Communism
- Monopoly
- Trade Unions
- Zaibatsu
- Suffrage
- Demographic Transition
- *Commutist Manifesto*, *New Harmony*
- Temperance Movement
Introduction. In 1800, the United States was a shaky new republic, and the rest of the Americas were controlled by European states. By 1900, the United States and Canada had claimed the entire North American continent, and most of Latin America had broken free of colonial rule. The states that emerged were vastly different from one another. Some of those differences had been apparent since the colonial era (see Ch.25). Events of the Nineteenth century further defined the societies that emerged in the Americas:

**Territorial Expansion.** A booming population and continual immigration impelled American and Canadian settlers to press into the western lands. Railroad construction in the late nineteenth century facilitated that expansion.

**Conflicts with indigenous peoples.** Across the Americas, expansion brought settlers into lands claimed by indigenous peoples. Conflicts between Native Americans and military forces in the United States, Canada, Chile and Argentina invariably ended badly for the natives. Survivors were usually forced onto marginal lands.

**Constitutional issues in North America.** After 1800, the United States became increasingly divided, north and south, over slavery and related issues. The civil war determined that the American “house” would no longer be “divided” and that federal government would be more powerful than state governments. Canada achieved independence within the framework of the British Empire, but had trouble establishing a government that respected both British and French citizens.

**Constitutional issues in Latin America.** Independence left many unresolved questions. What system would best address the inequities between Creole elites and the vast majority of landless peasants? How would order be maintained? How best to advance reforms? Often, the solution seemed to be a military dictator.

**Economic development in North America.** Foreign capital, a stable government, free enterprise, and abundant cheap labor: all contributed to the dramatic economic expansion of the United States in the nineteenth century. Canadian economic expansion was less spectacular but steady, especially after completion of the Canadian Pacific Railroad in 1885.

**Economic Colonialism in Latin America.** With a few exceptions, the economies of Latin America did not develop or diversify. Instead, Latin America continued the colonial pattern of exporting raw materials to industrial powers. While the wealthy elites profited, the peasants saw their standard of living decline.
- John MacDonald
- Benito Juarez  Manuel DeRosas Porfirio Diaz
- Emiliano Zapata  Louis Riel  Miguel de Hidalgo
- Simon Bolivar  Toussaint
- *Gran Colombia*  *Dawes Act*
- *La Reforma*
Introduction. The dramatic economic expansion of Western Europe and the United States in the nineteenth century was not matched by the older empires of Asia. The Ottoman Empire, the Qing Dynasty, the Russian Empire and the Tokugawa Shogunate had all been vibrant and dynamic cultures at one time, but by 1800 had become isolated and backward (see ch27-29) By 1900 all four had been challenged and changed profoundly. Some common dimensions of those changes are:

Conservative autocratic regimes. None of the regimes mentioned here shared in the liberal ideals of the Enlightenment or the revolutionary era. Rulers were absolute; individuals had few rights; and dissent was viewed as dangerous.

Military unpreparedness. Since these regimes failed to modernize, they found themselves outgunned by the western powers. Often this realization followed a humiliating defeat—the loss of Egypt for the Ottomans, The Opium War for China, the Crimean War for Russia, and the Unequal treaty Forced on Japan by the United States. For most Regimes, this led to a radical restructuring of the military.

Weak Economies. All four regimes lacked the basic elements for industrialization: Capital, free workers, and infrastructure. China and Japan had been closed economies and had little contact with the outside world. The Ottoman and Russian Empires had been agricultural societies with large unskilled worker populations.

Imperial Pressures. All four had to fight off the imperialistic encroachments of the industrializing powers. The Qing dynasty was least successful and, by the end of the century, had lost control of its economy and much of its territorial sovereignty. Japan was most successful in competing economically and militarily with the west.

Reform from the top down. Change, when it came, was entirely at the discretion of the rulers. Japanese reformers, for example, perceived that a written constitution would give credibility to their new state, so the Emperor “gave” a constitution that retained all power to the Emperor. The Russian Tsar granted, then rescinded, an elected legislature after the Revolution of 1905.
Muhammad Ali
Mahmud II
Abd al-Hamid
Alexander II
Sergei Witte
Lin Zexu
Hong Xiuquan
Commodore Perry
Dowager
Cixi
Ito Hirobumi
Emperor Mutsuhito
Janissaries
“capitulations”
Tanzimat
reforms
Young Turks
Crimean War
Zemstvos
Soviets
Duma
Cohong
system
Opium War
Unequal treaties
Taiping
Revolution
Spheres of influence
Boxer Rebellion
Self-strengthening Movement
Chapter 34 – The Building of Global Empires
Introduction. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, the industrial powers of Western Europe swiftly extended their control over vast areas of Africa and Asia. This new imperialism was rationalized by theories of racial and cultural superiority; it was made possible by new technologies of warfare. The United States and Japan, and to a lesser extent Russia, were late arrivals on the imperial stage but soon established themselves as well. Modern imperialism is characterized by the following:
**Mixed Motives.** Imperial powers claimed economic necessity, strategic imperatives, and a high-minded “civilizing mission.” Frequently motives were confused, so it became “the white man’s burden” to convert Africans to Christianity while at the same time enslaving them.
Competition between imperial powers. The scramble for Africa and later for the Pacific islands illustrates the intense competition between imperial nations. The United States took over the Philippines in order to be on an equal footing with other imperial powers already in China. Japan seized Korea and Taiwan for the same reason.
Different models of colonial rule. In practice, the new imperialism varied considerably; including settler colonies such as Australia, indirect rule as in British Africa, direct rule as in French Indochina, and even the private fiefdom of Belgium King Leopold II in the Belgian Kongo. In all cases, ultimate authority rested with the imperial state, and local rulers had little real power.
Economic colonialism. The purpose of the colony was to supply cheap raw commodities to the imperialist state and to be a market for manufactured goods. All resources, natural and human, were directed to this effort. Forests were transformed into plantations, and workers impressed into service. There was no effort to develop a colonial industry that might compete with the imperial rule.
Contempt for local cultures. With few exceptions, the imperial powers regarded colonial people as their inferiors and treated them as such. The French made an effort to convert and educate colonial peoples. The British also employed colonials as soldiers and minor civil servants, but made little provision for education. This disrespect contributed to a growing nationalism in India.
Cecil Rhodes  Rudyard Kipling  Leopold II
Queen Victoria  Queen Lili’uokalani
Theodore Roosevelt  Charles Darwin
Imperialism  Suez Canal
Panama Canal  Sepoy rebellion  Boer
Great Trek  Berlin Conference
Social Darwinism
Indian National Congress
Introduction. The Great War of 1914-1919 was a nearly global conflagration that included all the major powers of Europe, their colonies, and overseas allies. The immediate provocation was a relatively minor incident—the assassination of the heir to the Austro-Hungarian Empire—but the causes were long-standing and much more complex. Pressure to seek war and resist compromise had been mounting in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, fed by aggressive nationalism, ambitious militarism, and complex national alliances. The war, when it came, was not what anyone expected.

New kind of warfare: New technologies transformed the experience of war. Offensive battle plans stalled in the trenches, where soldiers were pounded by heavy artillery, trapped by machine-gun fire, and vulnerable to poisonous gas. Casualties were counted in the hundreds of thousands, and victory was measured in yards gained.

Total War: World War I engaged civilian populations to an unprecedented degree. On the home front, women took up the work abandoned by recruits. Governments took control of wartime production, and propaganda campaigns demonized the enemy and glorified the war effort. Civilians

The Russian Revolution: The revolution was triggered by the war but sprang from the long-standing failure of the tsarist government to meet the needs of the Russian people. For a while it seemed that a liberal democracy might emerge, but within months the Bolshevik Party under the direction of Lenin overthrew the provisional government.

Peace and Unresolved Questions: Armistice cam in 1914, shortly after the United States entered the war. At the Paris Peace Conference, the victors, especially Britain and France, dictated harsh terms to the defeated Central Powers, dismantled their colonial empires, and imposed economic penalties. The bitterness engendered by the peace settlement virtually ensured that another conflict would follow
Archduke Ferdinand
Kaiser Wilhelm
T. E. Lawrence
V. I. Lenin
Mustapha Kemal (Ataturk)
Woodrow Wilson
Balkan Wars 1912-1913
Dreadnought
Allies
Central Powers
Schlieffen plan
Gallipoli
Bolsheviks
Lusitania
Treaty of Versailles
League of Nations
Mandate System
Introduction. The decades between the two world wars were neither peaceful nor prosperous. These were anxious, uncertain years. Old certainties were shaken; the liberal ideals of the Enlightenment lost their potency. After 1929, a global depression intensified the social and political unrest, and new extreme ideologies gained momentum. Common elements of the “age of anxiety” include:

- **Disillusionment**: The harsh realities of trench warfare shattered the illusions of many young intellectuals. The culture of the 1920s is characterized by uncertainty and experimentation. Old truths in science, art, and religion were challenged. Nothing seemed certain anymore.

- **Political Extremism**: The momentum of the nineteenth century had been toward democracy and great inclusion of the poor, minorities, and finally women in the political process. In desperate times, many found democracy too inefficient and sought simple solutions in charismatic dictators.

- **Extreme Nationalism**: The Paris peace settlements both aroused and disappointed nationalist hopes, especially in Italy, Japan, and Germany. Nationalists in these countries were frustrated at being denied territory considered rightly theirs. These frustrations were channeled into militaristic parties: the Fascists, the Nazis, and the Japanese militarists.

- **The Communist Alternative**: The world watched, in horror and fascination, as the communist experiment unfolded in the Soviet Union. In spite of appalling losses through civil war, forced collectivization, and political purges, the Soviet Union did appear to deliver a basic living to all citizens. With capitalist nations slumped in depression, this was an intriguing alternative. Communism gained ground in China, but was violently attacked in Italy and Germany.
Albert Einstein  Sigmund Freud  Pablo Picasso
Getulio Vargas  J.M. Keynes  Joseph Stalin
Mohandas Gandhi  Benito Mussolini  Adolf Hitler
Muhammad Jinnah  Mao Zedong  Jiang Jieshi
Franklin Delano Roosevelt
Uncertainty principle  Psychoanalysis  Bauhaus
Smoot-Hawley Tariff  New Deal  New Economic Program
Long March  Five-Year Plan  Collectivization*
Fascism*  National Socialism  Weimar Republic
Mein Kampf  Eugenics  Nuremberg Laws
Kristallnacht  Ahimsa  India Act
Chinese Communist Party (CCP)  Guomintang
Introduction. The Second World War (1939-1945) was indeed a conflagration such as the world had never seen before. There was no precedent for scale of the devastation, the millions of dead, the unimaginable barbarity. World War II was the defining event of the twentieth century. It determined the global powers, the global alignments, and many of the issues for the next generation. Some aspects of the war to consider as you read:

- Appeasement: The causes of the war are complex but most include the failure of western democracies to take seriously the threat of fascism. When Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931, when Italy seized Ethiopia in 1935, when Germany claimed first the Sudetenland and then all of Czechoslovakia in 1938: at every turn, world leaders decided to appease the aggressor rather than risk a war.

- Isolationism: Sunk in the depression, Britain, France, and the United States erected wall of tariffs against imports, which only deepened the global depression. Disillusioned with the outcome of the World War I, the western democracies did not maintain their military strength. When the next war came, they were ill prepared.

- Total War: Like the First World War, the second involved whole populations on an unprecedented scale. Women on both sides performed industrial work and joined auxiliary forces. Civilians were targets of war through aerial attacks, blockades, rape, and internment. Civilian casualties were in the tens of millions.

- Genocide: Certainly the most horrifying aspect of the war was the Nazi attempt to methodically exterminate the entire Jewish population of Europe, along with other “undesirable” populations. Nearly six millions Jews were killed in the death camps.

- An Uneasy Alliance: Capitalist and communist states found common cause in the battle against fascism. By keeping up the pressure on two fronts, the Allies eventually crushed the Axis Empire. However, by the end of the war, the alliance between Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union was frayed and unstable.

- Postwar Uncertainties: At the Yalta conference of 1945, the Allies agreed that the Soviets could establish temporary governments in eastern Europe and eastern Germany in exchange for Stalin’s pledge to help the United States defeat Japan. These puppet states were supposed to be temporary but instead became permanent dependents of the Soviet Union. The postwar conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union was already apparent.
Winston Churchill  FDR  Tojo Hideki
Adolph Hitler  Harry S. Truman  Benito Mussolini
Josef Stalin  Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere
Rape of Nanjing  Comfort women  Munich Conference
Axis Powers  Appeasement  Anschluss
Blitzkrieg  Battle of Britain  Operation Barbarossa
Kamikaze  The “Final Solution”  Nüremburg laws
Non-Aggression Pact  Truman Doctrine
Marshall Plan  NATO  Warsaw Pact
Introduction. Two superpowers emerged from the ashes of the Second World War, the United States and the Soviet Union. Former allies, the two were now actively hostile, but they repeatedly stopped short of a full-out war. The prospect of a nuclear confrontation was too awful to contemplate. The cold war was characterized by the following:

The Arms Race: The logic of the cold war drove both superpowers to stockpile nuclear weapons in order to match one another’s destructive capabilities. The two powers were evenly matched in the 1960s, but by the 1980s the effort had severely strained the Soviet economy.

Bipolar Alliances: The cold war saw new defensive alliances, NATO in the west and the Warsaw Pact of the Soviet satellites. The world was divided into two camps, and the “third world” nations were courted and pressured to join one or the other. Some states, such as France and Yugoslavia, demonstrated that it was possible to avoid such entanglements. The People’s Republic of China turned briefly to the Soviet Union for support, but broke free after 1964.

Aggressive Saber-Rattling: Although the superpowers avoided direct and full-scale war, a number of minor conflicts sapped their energies resources: Berlin, Korea, Hungary, Cuba and Czechoslovakia. The United States fought a long and ultimately futile war in Vietnam. The Soviet Union was likewise drawn into a civil war in Afghanistan. Both these campaigns failed.

The Failure of Communism: As an economic system, Soviet communism provided a shabby equality for all, with few consumer goods and limited opportunities. In contrast, the postwar decades saw unprecedented prosperity in the United States, Europe, and Japan. Overall the standard of living in the capitalist societies improved dramatically, although there were greater extremes of wealth and poverty.

The Collapse of the Soviet Union: The breakdown of the Soviet Union, while a long time coming, was swift and unexpected when it came. Between 1989 and 1991, the Soviet Empire completely unraveled, and the cold war ended.
- Nikita Khrushchev
- Fidel Castro
- John F. Kennedy
- Joseph McCarthy
- Martin Luther King Jr.
- Charles de Gaulle
- Marshal Tito
- Richard Nixon
- Ronald Reagan
- Lech Walesa
- Mikhail Gorbachev
- Boris Yeltsin
- Berlin Blockade
- Berlin Wall
- Truman Doctrine
- Marshall Plan
- Korean War
- Warsaw Pact
- Mutually-Assured Deterrence (MAD)
- Containment*
- Bay of Pigs
- Cuban missile crisis
- Sputnik
- De-Stalinization
- “Prague spring”
- Détente*
- Perestroika
- Glasnost
- NATO
- Hungary (1956)
**Introduction.** One of the most dramatic developments of the postwar era was the rapid breakup of the colonial empires that had dominated the world at the beginning of the century. Between 1945 and 1975, most of the former colonies of Africa and Asia became independent states. (Namibia was the last, in 1990). A number of forces contributed to the process of decolonialism and helped shape postcolonial societies, including:

- **Wars of Liberation:** The road to independence was sometimes amicable, as in Ghana and Morocco, but was often fiercely contested, as in Kenya and Algeria. Colonial powers fought to recover the empires that once attested to their world dominance. Concern for local settler populations also contributed to their resistance. In Vietnam the struggle for national liberation began with resistance to the Japanese during the war and continued afterward against the French.

- **Cold War Politics:** In the global conflict between the United States and Soviet Union (discussed in chapter 38), new states were pressured to choose between the superpowers. Foreign aid and military support were often contingent on an alliance. Stronger nations like India presented a third alternative, nonalignment, with limited success.

- **Ethnic and Religious Conflicts:** Nationalism was a powerful force in postwar independence movements. However, in states where the national identity was defined by religion or ethnicity, this force could lead to internal and regional conflicts. The partition of India into Muslim and Hindu states did little to ease tensions in that region. The Iran-Iraq war was fueled by both religious and ethnic differences. In sub-Saharan Africa, where national boundaries bore little relation to tribal lands, each new nation was a potential hothouse for ethnic conflict.

- **Fragile New Democracies:** Many of the new states were ill-prepared for self-government, lacking both the institutions and traditions that support democracy. In Sub-Saharan states often plunged into prolonged civil wars. South Africa was technically a democracy governed by military regimes until the late 1980s. Notable exceptions to this global retreat from democracy are Mexico and India, both relatively stable and continuous democracies.

- **Creation of Israel:** The creation of a new Jewish state in previously Muslim Palestine eased western guilt over the atrocities of the Second World War. The achievements of modern Israel and undeniable. Lacking significant oil or mineral resources, Israel in nonetheless the most prosperous and democratic state in the region. However, unresolved tensions over the status of Muslim Palestinians and the future of the Occupied Territories continue to threaten the region and elude efforts to find a peaceful resolution.
- Jawaharlal Nehru
- Kwame Nkruma
- Gamal Nasser
- Ho Chi Minh
- Jomo Kenyatta
- Deng Xiaopin
- Indira Gandhi
- Anwar Sadat
- Yasser Arafat
- Ayatollah Khomeini
- Saddam Hussein
- Juan Peron
- Jimmy Carter
- Decolonization*
- Suez crisis
- Bandung Conference
- Balfour Declaration
- Kikuyu
- Great Leap Forward
- Cultural Revolution
- Tiananmen Square
- Islamism
- Jihad*
- Iran-Iraq war
- Sandanistas
- Apartheid
- separation theology*
- Dependency theory*
- PRI
- PLO
- OAU
- ANC
Introduction. Globalization is the unifying concept of this last chapter. The image of a world without borders suggests a world in which economies, technologies, ideas, and cultures are all interconnected. Through mass media, mass production, and mass transportation, the world has become smaller and more integrated. For many societies this process has significantly improved standards of living. However, in other societies, the results have been more mixed. Aspects of the process of globalization include:

Global Institutions: The world is increasingly shaped by multinational agencies and organizations. Global corporations operate apart from the restrictions imposed by anyone government or legal system. Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) try to address international problems without binding themselves to the policies of any single country.

Global Economy: Since World War II, the industrial nations have tried to eliminate barriers to free trade, such as protective tariffs and import duties. Many nations have formed trade associations, such as the EU, NAFTA, and ASEAN, which grant special trading privileges to member states. Free trade favors those states with the cheapest manufactured goods and often undermines indigenous handicrafts.

Global Culture: The products of the global economy have come to dominate consumer tastes all over the world. Consumers increasingly define themselves with reference to brand names and current fashions. The global culture is enhanced through the instant access of telecommunications and the Internet.

Global Migrations: The global economy seeks out the cheapest labor and resources, and as a result, millions of workers have relocated to new industrial centers seeking opportunities. Problems of rapid urbanization and environmental degradation often result. Some migrants have been the unwilling victims of trafficking and even slavery.

Global Inequities: The global economy favors nations with capital and highly developed economies. Those nations that are economically dependent find it difficult to break out of that role, although the Little Tigers of Asia demonstrate that this is possible. New technologies create a “computer divide” between the wealthy and the poorer nations.

Resistance to Globalization: Such dramatic changes have met with resistance from many quarters. Many cultures perceive a threat to their traditions and values. Islamic countries in particular have resisted the sexualized images of western pop culture.
Rachel Carsen  Osama bin Laden  Aung Sang Suu Kyi
Globalization  Free Trade  European Union (EU)
HIV/AIDS  Al-Qaeda  Taliban
Red Cross  Greenpeace  Nuremberg Trials
General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)
World Trade Organization (WTO)  Little Tigers
Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)
Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)
North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)
MAP 3.2 Imperial Egypt, 1400 B.C.E.
Timeline
- 570-632 Life of Muhammad
- 618-907 Tang dynasty in China
- 622 The hijra
- 711-1492 Muslim occupation of Spain
- 750-1258 Abbasid dynasty
- 960-1279 Song Dynasty in China
- 1054 Schism between the eastern and western Christian churches
- 1066 Norman invasion of England
- 1096 First Crusade
- Eleventh-thirteenth century Kingdom of Ghana
- Eleventh-fifteen century Swahili cities in East Africa
- Twelfth-sixteenth century Kingdom of Axum
- Thirteenth century Beginning of chiefdoms in Oceania
- Thirteenth-fifteenth century Empire of Mali
- 1206-1526 Sultanate of Delhi
- 1211 Beginning of Mongol conquests
- 1271-1295 Marco Polo’s travels to China
- 1279-1368 Yuan dynasty
- 1289 Founding of the Ottoman Dynasty
- 1304-1369 Life of Ibn Battuta
- 1325 Founding of Tenochtitlan by the Mexica (Aztecs)
- 1330s Beginnings of bubonic plague in China
- 1337-1453 Hundred Years’ War
- 1347 Beginnings of bubonic plague in the Mediterranean world
- 1368-1644 Ming Dynasty
- Fourteenth-Seventeenth century Kingdom of Kongo
- 1405-1433 Zheng He’s voyages in the Indian Ocean
- 1441 Beginning of the Portuguese slave trade in Africa
Key Comparisons
1. Feudalism in Japan and Western Europe
2. Mongo rule in Russia and China
3. Muslim Spain and feudal Europe
4. The spread of Islam and the spread of Buddhism
5. Chinese and European presence in the Indian Ocean
6. Urban areas in the Islamic world, non-Islamic Europe, and China
7. Acceptance of Islam in Africa and Europe
8. Mesoamerican and Andean civilizations
9. Polynesian, Viking, and Bantu migrations
10. Gender roles in early Islam and under the caliphate
UNIT 3 Summary: Period Three (1450-1750)

Timeline
- 1453 Fall of the eastern Roman Empire
- 1464-1591 Empire of Songhay
- 1492 The Reconquest (Spain), First Voyage of Christopher Columbus
- 1494 Treaty of Tordesillas
- 1497-1498 Vasco de Gama’s voyage to India
- 1517 Beginning of the Protestant Reformation
- 1529-1521 Spanish conquest of Mexico
- 1526-1858 Mughal dynasty (India)
- 1532-1540 Spanish conquest of Peru
- 1545-1563 Council of Trent
- 1588 Defeat of the Spanish Armada
- 1600-1867 Tokugawa Shogunate (Japan)
- 1613 Beginning of the Romanov dynasty of Russia
- 1643-1715 Reign of Louis XIV of France
- 1644-1911 Qing dynasty (China)
Key Comparisons

1. European versus Asian monarchs
2. Empires in Africa, Asia, and Europe
3. European versus Asian economic systems
4. Reactions of Japan versus China to Western influence
5. Slavery versus serfdom
6. Trade in Mughal India versus Ming China
7. Russian versus Ottoman interaction with the West
8. Gender roles in Ming China versus Western Europe
9. Transatlantic versus Indian Ocean trade
10. Western European versus Asian and Ottoman technology
Timeline

- 1750s: Beginnings of the Industrial Revolution in England
- 1756-1763: Seven Years’ War
- 1768-1780: Voyages of Captain James Cook in the Pacific Ocean
- 1775-1781: American Revolution
- 1788: Founding of the 1st European colony in Australia
- 1789-1799: French Revolution
- 1793-1804: Haitian Revolution
- 1799-1814: Rule of Napoleon Bonaparte
- 1805-1848: Rule of Muhammad Ali in Egypt
- 1807: End of the British slave trade
- 1810-1825: Independence wars in Latin America
- 1814-1815: Congress of Vienna
- 1839-1842: Opium War in China
- 1839-1876: Tanzimet Era
1848 Publication of the Communist Manifesto
1850-1864 Taiping Rebellion
1854 Matthew Perry’s expedition to Tokyo
1857-1868 Sepoy Rebellion
1861 Abolition of serfdom in Russia
1861-1865 U.S. Civil War
1865 Abolition of slavery in the United States
1867 Establishment of the Dominion of Canada
1868 Meiji Restoration (Japan)
1869 Opening of the Suez Canal
1870 Unification of Italy
1871 Unification of Germany
1884-1885 Berlin Conference
1888 Abolition of Slavery in Brazil
1898-1899 Spanish-American War
1899-1902 Boer War
1904-1905 Russo-Japanese War
1905 Revolution of 1905 in Russia, Einstein’s theory of relativity
1908-1918 Young Turk era
1910-1920 Mexican Revolution
1911-1912 Chinese Revolution; end of Chinese dynastic rule
1914 Opening of the Panama Canal
Key Comparisons

1. The Industrial Revolution in Europe, Russia, and Japan
2. Revolutions: American, French, Haitian, Mexican (1910), and Chinese
3. Responses to Western influence in China, Japan, India, and the Ottoman Empire
4. Nationalism in Italy and Germany
5. Nationalism in the Austrian Empire and Russia
6. Imperialism in Africa and India
7. Forms of imperialism in Africa and Latin America
8. Roles of European women in upper and middle classes versus women in lower classes
9. Trade in the Atlantic and Indian Ocean basins
10. Trade in Western Europe and Ottoman Empire
UNIT 5 Summary:

- (Period Five (1914-Present)
- Timeline
  - 1914-1918 World War I
  - 1917 Bolshevik Revolution
  - 1918 Treaty of Brest-Litovsk
  - 1918-1919 Influenza Pandemic
  - 1918-1920
  - 1919 Russian civil war, Treaty of Versailles, May 4TH Movement in China
  - 1921-1928 Lenin’s New Economic Policy
  - 1923 End of the Ottoman Empire, Est. of the Republic of Turkey
  - 1928-1932 First of Stalin’s Fiver Year Plans
  - 1929 Beginning of the Great Deression\n  - 1931 Japanese invasion of Manchuria
  - 1933 Hitler’s rise to power in Germany
- 1935 Government of India Act
- 1937 Japanese Invasion of China
- 1939 German invasion of Poland
- 1945 Atomic bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, End of World War II
- 1947 Truman Doctrine, Partition of India
- 1948 Marshall Plan, Creation of Israel, Establishment of apartheid in South Africa, Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- 1949 Division of Germany, Establishment of NATO, Establishment of the People’s Republic of China
- 1950-1953 Korean War
- 1954 Division of Vietnam
- 1955 Establishment of the Warsaw Pact
- 1956 Suez Crisis, Soviet invasion of Hungary
- 1957 Independence in Ghana
- 1958-1961 Great Leap Forward in China
- 1959 Cuban Revolution
1960 Establishment of OPEC
1961 Construction of the Berlin Wall
1962 Cuban Missile Crisis
1964 Sino-Soviet Rift
1967 Establishment of the European Community
1968 Prague Springs
1972 Beginning of Détente, Arab-Israeli War, Beginning of Arab oil Embargo
1975 Fall of Vietnam
1979 Iranian Revolution
1980-1988 Iran-Iraq War
1989 Fall of the Berlin Wall
1990 Reunification of Germany
1990-1991 Gulf War
1991 Fall of the Soviet Union, End of the Cold War
1993 Establishment of NAFTA
1995 Establishment of the World Trade Organization
1997 Transfer of Hong Kong to China
2001 Terrorist attacks on the United States
2003 U.S. Coalition-Iraq war

Key Comparisons
1. Postwar governments of Western nations versus the society bloc
2. Decolonization in Africa versus India
3. The effects of World War I versus the effects of World War II
4. The Russian Revolution versus the Chinese Revolution
5. Reactions of Western versus non-Western nations to U.S. consumer society
6. Female roles in China and the west
7. Patterns of immigration in the Eastern versus the Western hemispheres
8. Patterns of economic development in Africa versus Latin America
9. Global trade in the Pacific Rim versus the West
10. Political and economic conditions in Russia before and after communism