Course Companion

AP European History

Every topic handout in one volume

全部专题讲义合集

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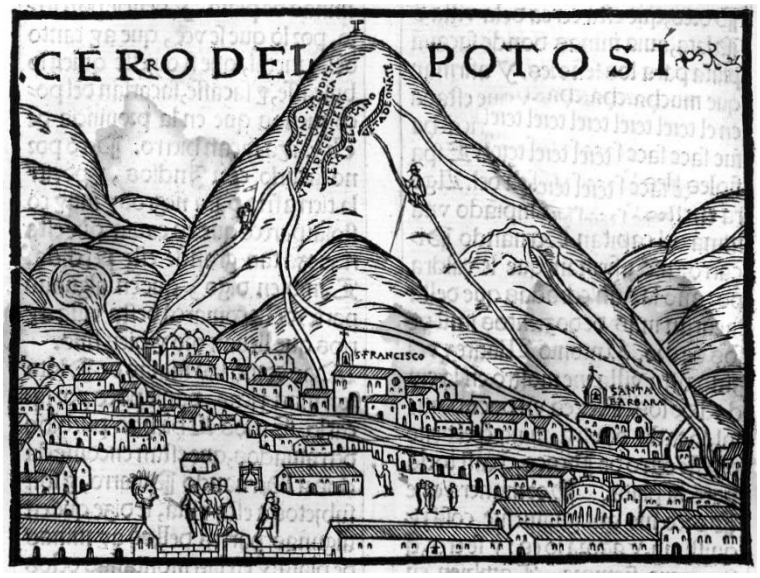
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Renaissance and Exploration

AP European History

Contextualizing Renaissance and Discovery

Why it matters. In 1545 a Spanish expedition found a mountain of silver at Potosí, high in the Andes. Within a lifetime that silver paid for Spanish armies in the Netherlands, pushed up the price of bread in Seville and London, and bought silk and porcelain in China. A century earlier, in Florence, a banking family was paying artists to put its members into religious paintings. The money that flowed to the artists and the silver that flowed across the ocean are the same story: Europe was becoming richer, more curious and more aggressive at once, and this unit explains how.



The silver mountain of Potosí in Cieza de León's chronicle of Peru (1553).

Unit 1 covers roughly **1450 to 1648**, and four changes run through it at once. The CED states them as the unit's key concepts, and almost every question draws on at least two:

- The **rediscovery of classical works** 古典著作 from ancient Greece and Rome, and observation of the natural world, **changed how many Europeans saw their world**.
- Europeans **explored and settled overseas territories**, encountering and interacting with **Indigenous populations** 原住民.
- European society and everyday life were increasingly shaped by **commercial and agricultural capitalism** 商业与农业资本主义, though older traditions persisted alongside it.
- The **struggle for sovereignty** 主权 within and among states produced **varying degrees of political centralisation**.

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That last phrase - *varying degrees* - is a standing instruction for the whole course. European History rewards answers that say how far a change went in one place compared with another.

Italian Renaissance

Italian Renaissance humanists 人文主义者, including **Petrarch** 彼特拉克, promoted a revival of classical literature and created new **philological** 语文学 approaches to ancient texts - reading them critically, in their original languages, as historical documents.



Raphael's School of Athens (1509–11): classical philosophers, linear perspective and a balanced, harmonious design

Why Italy first? Exam questions ask for the political or economic factors that *facilitated* the Renaissance, and four are standard:

- **Wealth from trade and banking.** Italian cities controlled Mediterranean trade with the east, and families such as the **Medici** 美第奇家族 of Florence ran banks across Europe. Their money paid for **patronage** 赞助 of artists and scholars.
- **Competing city-states.** Florence, Venice, Milan and the Papal States competed for prestige, so their rulers spent on art, buildings and learned men.
- **The classical past was visible.** Roman ruins and Latin manuscripts were all around, and Greek scholars arrived from Byzantium, especially after the Ottomans took Constantinople in **1453**.
- **An urban, literate elite** of merchants and lawyers wanted an education useful for public life rather than only for the Church.

Humanism at work - three examples. In about 1440 **Lorenzo Valla** used philology to prove that the *Donation of Constantine*, a document the papacy used to claim

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power over the West, was a forgery: its Latin was centuries too late. Pico della Mirandola's *Oration on the Dignity of Man* (1486) praised human freedom to shape one's own nature, a statement of **individualism** 个人主义. And Machiavelli's *The Prince* (written 1513) judged rulers by results, not by Christian virtue - a **secular** 世俗 model of political behaviour, as Castiglione's *The Courtier* (1528) was for the ideal gentleman.

That revival had three effects the CED names separately:

- Spread by the **printing press** 印刷机, the humanist recovery of Greek and Roman texts **challenged the institutional power** of universities and the Catholic Church.
- Admiration for Greek and Roman **political institutions** supported a revival of **civic humanism** 公民人文主义 in the Italian city-states, producing new works of political thought.
- Rulers and popes concerned with **enhancing their prestige** 提升声望 commissioned paintings and architecture on classical models.

In art, the CED names classical styles, **naturalism** and **linear perspective** 线性透视, the geometric technique Brunelleschi worked out in Florence around 1420 to make a flat picture show depth. Michelangelo's *David* (1504) was set up outside the Florentine town hall as a symbol of the republic; his Sistine Chapel ceiling (1508-12) was painted for Pope Julius II. Same artist, two patrons, two messages - a civic one and a papal one.

The third point is the one students underuse. Renaissance art is examinable as **political** evidence: patronage was a claim to legitimacy, not only a taste in pictures.

Northern Renaissance

As Renaissance ideas moved north, they changed. The **Northern Renaissance retained a more religious focus**, producing a **human-centred naturalism** 以人为中心的自然主义 that considered individuals and everyday life as proper subjects for art.

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Jan van Eyck's Arnolfini Portrait (1434): oil paint, minute detail and a prosperous merchant household

Intellectually, the key development is **Christian humanism** 基督教人文主义, embodied in the writings of **Erasmus** 伊拉斯谟, which put Renaissance learning at the service of **religious reform** 宗教改革. Holding that link makes Unit 2 far easier: the Reformation did not arrive from nowhere.

Erasmus mocked corrupt clergy in *The Praise of Folly* (1511) and published a corrected Greek New Testament (1516): philology, the Italian method, used for a northern, religious purpose. Thomas More's *Utopia* (1516) used an imaginary island to criticise English society. In painting, Jan van Eyck's detailed oil portraits, Albrecht Dürer's prints and Pieter Bruegel's scenes of peasant weddings and harvests show the northern interest in ordinary life.

One difference, stated the way the exam wants it: Italian humanists mainly revived classical texts to improve civic and individual life, while northern humanists such as Erasmus applied the same scholarship to the Bible and the reform of Christian practice.

Printing

The CED gives printing a topic of its own for a reason: **the invention of printing promoted the dissemination of new ideas**.

Printing is best understood as an **amplifier** rather than a cause. It did not create humanism, religious dissent, or political argument - but it changed their speed, reach, and cost, which is what allowed ideas to escape the control of the institutions that had previously governed which texts circulated.

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NEW IDEAS — humanist scholarship, and later reform doctrine × **PRINTING —** identical copies, cheaply, in any quantity → **DISSEMINATION** beyond the universities and the church

A **multiplication**, not a chain: the press supplied no ideas of its own, and the ideas had existed without reaching anyone. Neither factor alone produces the effect

Printing multiplied the ideas rather than supplying them - neither factor works alone



A wooden hand press of Gutenberg's design - the machine behind the amplifier



A compositor's type case - the reusable pieces that made identical copies cheap

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New Monarchies

The **new monarchies** 新君主国 laid the foundation for the centralised modern state by:

- establishing **monopolies on tax collection** 征税垄断权;
- **employing military force** 军事力量 under royal control;
- and taking increasing control of **law and administration**.

Name the rulers. In England, **Henry VII** (r. 1485-1509) ended the Wars of the Roses, used the Court of Star Chamber to discipline overmighty nobles, and kept the crown out of debt. In France, **Louis XI** (r. 1461-83) expanded royal lands and the royal army. In Spain, **Ferdinand and Isabella** joined Aragon and Castile by marriage, set up the **Spanish Inquisition** 西班牙宗教裁判所 (1478) to enforce religious unity under royal control, and in 1492 conquered Granada and expelled the Jews who refused to convert. Each example matches one of the four instruments in the figure below.

Two counterweights are also examinable. **Commercial and professional groups** gained power across Europe and played a greater role in political affairs. And **continued political fragmentation in Renaissance Italy** provided the background for new concepts of the **secular state** 世俗国家 - the theory came from the place where centralisation had failed, not succeeded.

Some monarchs, including **Henry VIII** and **Elizabeth I**, also **initiated religious reform from the top down** to strengthen royal control - a point that belongs to both this unit and the next.

THE INSTRUMENT	TAKEN FROM WHOM	WHY IT MATTERS
a monopoly on **TAX COLLECTION**	local lords and towns that collected their own	money is what the other three run on
MILITARY FORCE under the crown	nobles with private armed followings	a rival can no longer resist by force
royal **LAW AND ADMINISTRATION**	seigneurial and church courts	the king's judgment reaches the subject directly
alliance with **COMMERCIAL GROUPS**	— they are gained, not taken	a counterweight to the landed nobility, and a source of loans

Centralisation is a **transfer**. Say who lost the power the crown gained, and the claim stops being a description

What makes a monarchy 'new': four instruments, each taken from someone specific

Technological Advances and the Age of Exploration

Advances in navigation, cartography, and military technology enabled Europeans to establish overseas colonies and empires. Technology is the *enabling* condition; the CED then gives the motives separately:



A caravel replica - the ship design that made the oceanic voyages possible

- European states sought **direct access to gold, spices, and luxury goods** to enhance personal wealth and state power.
- The rise of **mercantilism** 重商主义 gave the state a new role in promoting commercial development and acquiring colonies.
- **Christianity was a stimulus** 宗教动因 for exploration, as governments and religious authorities sought to spread the faith - and for some it also served as a justification.

Keep enabling conditions and motives in separate categories. A question asking "why" wants motives; a question asking "how it became possible" wants the technology.

Name the technology too: the **caravel** 轻快帆船, a small ship whose triangular sails let it sail against the wind; the magnetic **compass** 指南针 and the **astrolabe** 星盘 for finding direction and latitude; better charts of coasts and winds; and ships that carried cannon. Many of these came from Arab, Chinese or Mediterranean sources - Europe's advantage was in combining them. The usual summary of motives, **"God, gold and glory"**, is a useful memory aid, but a good answer names a specific example for each.

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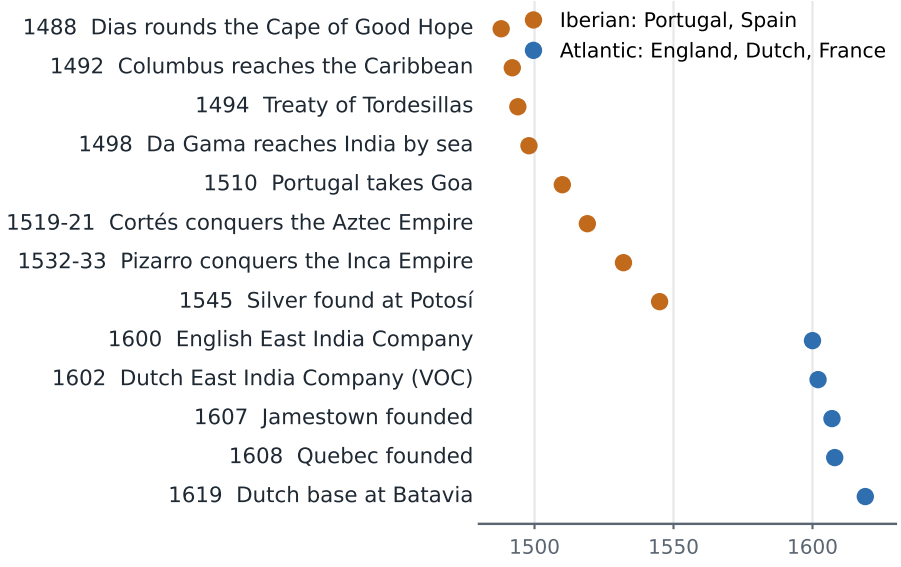
Rivals on the World Stage

Europeans established overseas empires and trade networks **through coercion and negotiation** 强制与谈判 - both, not one. Where local states were strong, Europeans negotiated for trading rights; where they were not, coercion followed.

Competition among European states for these networks reshaped relations at home. Commercial rivalry became a standing cause of European war, which is a continuity that runs all the way to Unit 7.

Portugal and Spain compared. Exam questions ask for both a similarity and a difference, so learn them as a pair:

- **Similarity.** Both were **crown-sponsored** ventures that combined commerce with Catholic missions, and both used force: Portuguese fleets bombarded rival ports, and Spanish conquistadors destroyed empires.
- **Difference.** Portugal built a **trading-post empire** 贸易据点帝国: fortified coastal bases such as Goa (1510) and Malacca (1511) that controlled sea routes for spices, with few settlers. Spain built a **territorial empire** in the Americas, conquering the Aztec (1519-21) and Inca (1532-33) states and ruling millions of people, using the **encomienda** 委托监护制 system, which granted conquerors the forced labour of Indigenous people.
- The **Treaty of Tordesillas** 托尔德西里亚斯条约 (1494) divided the newly found lands between the two along a line in the Atlantic, with papal backing; this is why Brazil is Portuguese-speaking.



Iberian powers led overseas expansion from the 1480s; the Atlantic powers followed from about 1600

The Atlantic powers after 1600. England, the Netherlands and France arrived

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later and did things differently. Instead of crown conquest, they used **joint-stock companies** 股份公司 - private firms that sold shares to investors and received a royal **charter** 特许状 to trade and govern: the English East India Company (1600) and the Dutch East India Company, or **VOC** 荷兰东印度公司 (1602). They founded **settler colonies** such as Jamestown (1607) and trading towns such as Quebec (1608) and Batavia (1619). In the 1600s the Dutch became Europe's leading commercial power, and Amsterdam replaced Antwerp and Seville as its financial centre. That is the "significant change in overseas expansion, 1600-1700" exam questions ask about.

Modelled LEQ thesis. *"The most significant difference between Iberian and Atlantic colonization was who carried it out: Spain and Portugal expanded through crown-directed conquest and missions aimed at gold, silver and converts, while England and the Netherlands relied on private joint-stock companies seeking profit from trade and, in England's case, on settler colonies. This difference explains why Iberian empires extracted tribute and labour from Indigenous peoples while Atlantic empires built commercial networks and transplanted European populations."* It answers the prompt, names the categories of comparison, and gives a line of reasoning.

Colonial Expansion and Columbian Exchange

The **Portuguese** established a commercial network along the African coast and in South and East Asia in the late fifteenth and sixteenth centuries; other states followed.

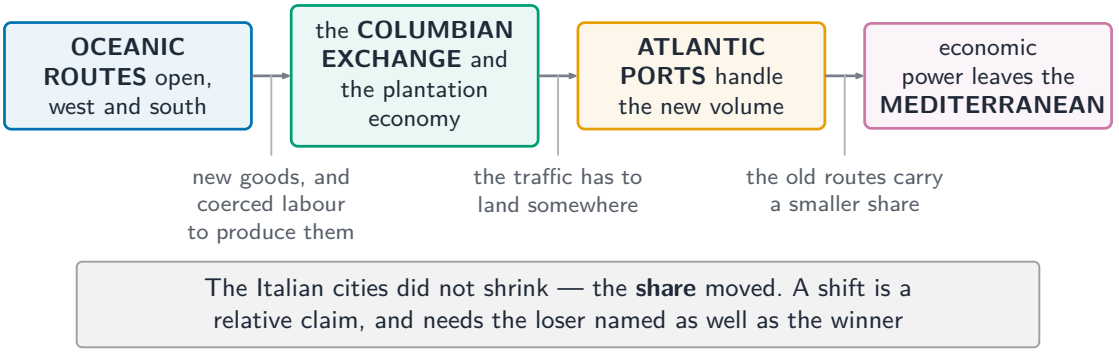
The **Columbian Exchange** 哥伦布大交换 - the exchange of new plants, animals, and diseases - is presented by the CED with deliberate double vision, and both halves are examinable:

- It **created economic opportunities for Europeans**.
- It **facilitated European subjugation and the destruction of Indigenous societies**, chiefly through disease.

Economically, the exchange of goods **shifted the centre of economic power in Europe from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic states**. That shift explains why the leading powers of Unit 3 are not the leading powers of Unit 1.

American silver also caused the **Price Revolution** 价格革命: as silver poured into Spain and spread across Europe, prices rose several times over during the sixteenth century. Landowners who could raise rents and merchants who sold goods gained; wage earners and people on fixed incomes lost. This is a strong answer to "the most significant effect of overseas expansion on the European economy", because it reached people who never saw a colony.

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Why economic power left the Mediterranean - a shift is a relative claim

The Slave Trade

Europeans **expanded the trade of enslaved Africans** in response to the establishment of a **plantation economy** 种植园经济 in the Americas and to demographic collapse among Indigenous populations.

The causal chain is explicit in the CED and should be reproduced as a chain: plantation agriculture demanded labour on a scale the Americas' devastated population could not supply, and that demand was met by an expanded Atlantic trade in enslaved people.

How Most Europeans Actually Lived

The Renaissance and the voyages are the visible half of this unit; the CED also asks for the economic base underneath them, because it is what the later units change.



Bruegel's The Harvesters (1565): most Europeans lived by farm labour, bound to the seasons

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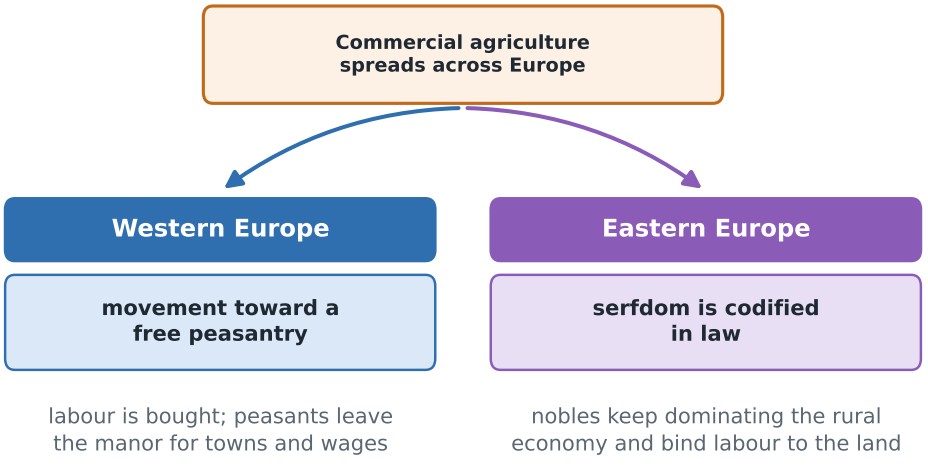
Subsistence agriculture 自给农业 was the rule almost everywhere: a family grew what it ate, with little surplus to sell. Land was worked in open fields and rotated to keep it fertile – a **three-crop rotation** 三圃轮作 in parts of northern Europe, with autumn grain, spring crops and a fallow field, and a **two-crop rotation** 二圃轮作 in some Mediterranean areas, alternating a crop with fallow. These were regional patterns, not rules for every farm. Most peasants did not own the land; they paid **rent** to a landholder, in produce, in money, or in labour service.

That base explains the fragility of the period: a failed harvest could cause a subsistence crisis when poor households could not obtain affordable food. Grain storage and long-distance trade did exist: Baltic grain supplied western European ports, but transport costs, war and unequal purchasing power limited protection against shortages.

Towns grew faster than they could cope. Urban populations rose through the sixteenth century, and **sanitation** 卫生 did not keep pace: waste ran in the streets, water was drawn from contaminated wells, and **overpopulation** 人口过剩 in the poorer quarters made epidemic disease spread quickly. Plague outbreaks stayed a recurring feature of European life for this whole period.

States acted on religion and morality, not only on taxes. Governments and city councils regulated public behaviour: attendance at worship, permitted forms of belief, marriage, drinking, gambling and **morality** 道德 offences generally. This is worth remembering because it is the same instrument the confessional states of the next unit use on a larger scale – the machinery existed before the Reformation gave it a new purpose.

The Commercial Revolution



One economic pressure, two opposite social outcomes - which is exactly why it is asked about.

Commercial agriculture freed peasants in the west and bound them in the east

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Innovations in banking and finance promoted the growth of urban financial centres and a **money economy** 货币经济. **Economic change produced new social patterns, while traditions of hierarchy and status continued** - the two coexisted, which is the CED's own framing.

Most Europeans still **derived their livelihood from agriculture** and organised life around the seasons, the village, or the manor. Within that, a sharp divergence opened:

- Western Europe moved toward a **free peasantry** 自由农民 and commercial agriculture.
- In the east, **serfdom was codified** 农奴制被法典化 as nobles continued to dominate the rural economy.

The same commercial pressure produced opposite outcomes, and that is exactly why it is examinable. Two related consequences: landlords attempting to increase revenues by **restricting traditional peasant rights** provoked **revolt** 反抗; and **migrants to the cities** strained resources and challenged the ability of merchant elites and craft guilds to govern.

Finally, from the late sixteenth century Europeans responded to economic and environmental pressure - including the **Little Ice Age** 小冰期 - by **delaying marriage and childbearing**, a demographic adaptation worth knowing because it is unusual evidence.

Causation in the Renaissance and Age of Discovery

The unit's reasoning skill is **causation**.

> **Worked example.** Try *"Explain one way in which the development of printing affected European intellectual life in the period 1450 to 1648."* A strong answer gives the mechanism, not the fact: *"Printing allowed humanist editions of Greek and Roman texts to be reproduced cheaply and identically, so scholars across Europe could read and compare the same critical editions. This weakened the control that universities and the Church had exercised over which texts circulated, and made it far harder to suppress an argument once it was in print."* Notice the shape: **affected** requires a consequence traced through a process.

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Worked example: a short-answer question

Each part needs only one or two sentences: **answer** the question, **cite** one specific piece of evidence, and **explain** how it supports the answer.

Answer (a), (b) and (c).

(a) Briefly describe ONE way humanism changed education or the arts.

(b) Briefly explain ONE effect of the printing press.

(c) Briefly describe ONE motive for European exploration.

Model answer.

- (a) Humanists studied classical Greek and Roman texts and stressed human achievement, which shaped schools and art focused on human subjects.
- (b) Gutenberg's press (around 1450) made books cheaper and faster to produce, so new ideas, including Reformation writings, spread quickly.
- (c) Europeans sought a sea route to Asian spices that bypassed Ottoman-controlled overland trade.

Exam tips

- "**Varying degrees**" is the CED's own phrase for centralisation. Compare *how far*, not merely *whether*.
- Renaissance art is **political evidence**. Patronage was a claim to prestige and legitimacy.
- Treat printing as an **amplifier**, not a first cause. That framing answers most printing questions.
- Separate **technological enablers** from **motives** for exploration. Questions ask for one or the other.
- The Columbian Exchange has **two sides** - European opportunity and Indigenous destruction. Give both.
- The **east-west divergence** in serfdom is high-value and frequently missed. One cause, two opposite outcomes.

Common mistakes.

- Writing that the Renaissance "rejected religion". Most humanists and artists were Christians; the change was a **new emphasis** on human achievement and classical models, not unbelief.
- Treating the Northern Renaissance as a copy of the Italian one. Name the difference: **religious reform** and **everyday life**.
- Describing Portugal and Spain as the same empire. Portugal = **trading posts**; Spain = **territorial conquest and settlement**.
- Listing "God, gold and glory" without a specific example of each.
- Giving only the European side of the Columbian Exchange, or only the Indigenous side.

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Practice.

1. Describe ONE political or economic factor that helped the Renaissance begin in Italy.
2. Explain ONE way Erasmus's work connected the Renaissance to the Reformation.
3. Describe ONE way in which the new monarchs strengthened royal power in the period 1450-1550.
4. Explain ONE way the colonization efforts of the Netherlands differed from those of Spain in the period 1500-1700.
5. Explain ONE effect of American silver on European society in the sixteenth century.

Answers.

1. Banking and trade wealth, for example the Medici bank in Florence, paid for the patronage of artists and scholars; competition between city-states also encouraged spending on prestige.
2. Erasmus used humanist philology to publish a corrected Greek New Testament (1516) and criticised clerical corruption, encouraging calls to reform the Church from its original sources.
3. Ferdinand and Isabella used the Spanish Inquisition (1478) under royal control to enforce religious unity; Henry VII used the Court of Star Chamber against powerful nobles.
4. The Dutch relied on a private joint-stock company, the VOC (1602), to build a profit-seeking trading network, while Spain conquered and directly governed large Indigenous populations through the crown.
5. Silver inflows caused the Price Revolution: prices rose sharply, helping landowners and merchants but lowering the real wages of labourers.

Vocabulary card meanings

rediscovery of classical works: A renewed reading of ancient Greek and Roman texts in the Renaissance. Indigenous populations: The peoples already living in the Americas before European colonisation. commercial and agricultural capitalism: Market-oriented trade and farming aimed at profit, not only at local subsistence. struggle for sovereignty: Contests over who held supreme authority inside a state. Italian Renaissance humanists: Scholars in Italy who studied classical texts and human dignity. Petrarch: An Italian poet who helped revive the study of ancient Latin literature. printing press: A machine that pressed inked type onto paper, multiplying books. civic humanism: A Renaissance ideal that educated citizens should serve the republic. enhancing their prestige: Rulers and patrons using art and learning to raise their standing. human-centred naturalism: Art that studies the human body and the visible world with care. Christian humanism: A northern movement that joined classical learning with a wish to reform the Church. Erasmus: A Dutch scholar who criticised Church abuses while remaining Catholic. religious reform: Efforts to change doctrine

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and practice in the Christian churches. new monarchies: Late medieval kingdoms that built stronger central taxation and armies. monopolies on tax collection: A ruler's exclusive claim to collect named taxes, which the state may keep or grant to one collector. employing military force: Using armies to impose a ruler's will at home or abroad. secular state: A government whose authority is not based on church rule. mercantilism: A policy of seeking national wealth through a favourable trade balance and state control. Christianity was a stimulus: Religion as a motive for overseas expansion and conversion. through coercion and negotiation: Gaining compliance by force in some cases and by bargaining in others. plantation economy: Large estates producing export crops with coerced labour. Subsistence agriculture: Farming aimed at feeding the household rather than at sale. three-crop rotation: A northern field pattern with an autumn sowing, a spring sowing, and a part of the land left fallow. two-crop rotation: A Mediterranean field pattern that left about half the land fallow each year because the dry summer allowed one sowing. sanitation: Measures that limit disease by managing water and waste. overpopulation: More people than the local food supply and jobs can support. morality: Shared judgements about right and wrong conduct. free peasantry: Rural people who were not legally bound to a lord's land. serfdom was codified: Peasant bondage written into law, especially in eastern Europe. revolt: An uprising against those in authority.

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Age of Reformation

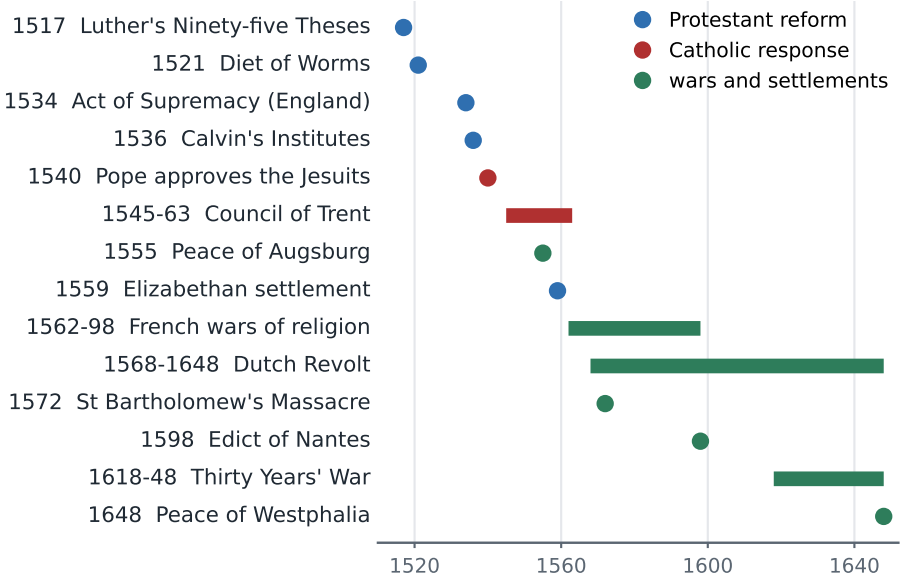
AP European History

Contextualizing 16th- and 17th-Century Challenges

Why it matters. In 1517 a monk in a small German university town posted a list of complaints about the Church. Within a few years an estimated 300,000 copies of his writings had been printed, and within a generation Western Christianity had split for good. The split decided wars, borders, laws about marriage and schooling, and which language people prayed in. It is still visible on a map of Europe's churches today.

Unit 2 covers the **Reformation** 宗教改革 and the **wars of religion** 宗教战争, and the CED frames the whole period around one claim: **religious pluralism** 宗教多元 challenged the concept of a unified Europe.

Two other threads run alongside it and are examined together with religion - the reshaping of daily life by commercial and agricultural **capitalism** 资本主义, and the struggle for **sovereignty** 主权 producing varying degrees of political **centralisation** 中央集权. The unit's characteristic question asks how religious change and political change acted on each other, so keeping them in separate mental boxes is the main way students lose marks here.



Learn the dates in this order. Most essay evidence for Unit 2 sits on one of these rows.

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Luther and the Protestant Reformation

Reformers **Martin Luther** 马丁·路德 and **John Calvin** 加尔文 criticised Catholic abuses and established new interpretations of Christian **doctrine** 教义 and practice. The CED's emphasis is on *interpretation*: what changed was not only conduct but the account of how **salvation** 救赎 works and where religious authority lies.

A second, more social claim is examinable and often forgotten: some **Protestant** 新教 groups **sanctioned the notion that the accumulation of wealth was a sign of God's favour** and a reward for hard work. That is the link between the Reformation and the commercial developments of Unit 1, and it is worth having ready for economic questions.

Luther's core beliefs. These are the answers to "describe one major Protestant belief":

- **Justification by faith alone** 因信称义: salvation is God's free gift, received through faith. It cannot be earned by good works or bought with **indulgences** 赎罪券, the certificates the Church sold to reduce punishment for sin.
- **Scripture alone**: the Bible, not the pope or Church councils, is the final authority. Luther translated the New Testament into German (1522) so ordinary people could read it.
- **The priesthood of all believers**: every Christian has direct access to God. Clergy lose their special status, and Lutheran pastors may marry.
- Only two sacraments, baptism and communion, instead of the Catholic seven.

From protest to break. At the **Diet of Worms** 沃尔姆斯会议 (1521), Emperor Charles V demanded that Luther take back his writings. Luther refused and was declared an outlaw, but Frederick the Wise, ruler of Saxony, protected him. Lutheranism survived because German princes chose to back it. When peasants read Luther's idea of Christian freedom as a call for social justice in the **German Peasants' War** 德国农民战争 (1524–25), Luther sided with the princes against them. From then on, Lutheran churches depended on princes.

Calvin and the Calvinist international. Calvin's *Institutes of the Christian Religion* (1536) taught **predestination** 预定论: God has already chosen who will be saved. In Geneva, where Calvin led the church from 1541, a council of ministers and elders disciplined everyday behaviour. Unlike Lutheranism, Calvinism spread across borders without a prince's backing: to the **Huguenots** 胡格诺派 in France, the Dutch, the Scots under John Knox, and the English Puritans. That is why Calvinists so often became rebels.

Anabaptists baptised only adults who chose faith. Catholics and Lutherans alike persecuted them, especially after radicals seized the city of Münster (1534–35).

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The Castle Church door at Wittenberg, now a bronze 1858 replacement cast with the Ninety-five Theses

Protestant Reform Continues

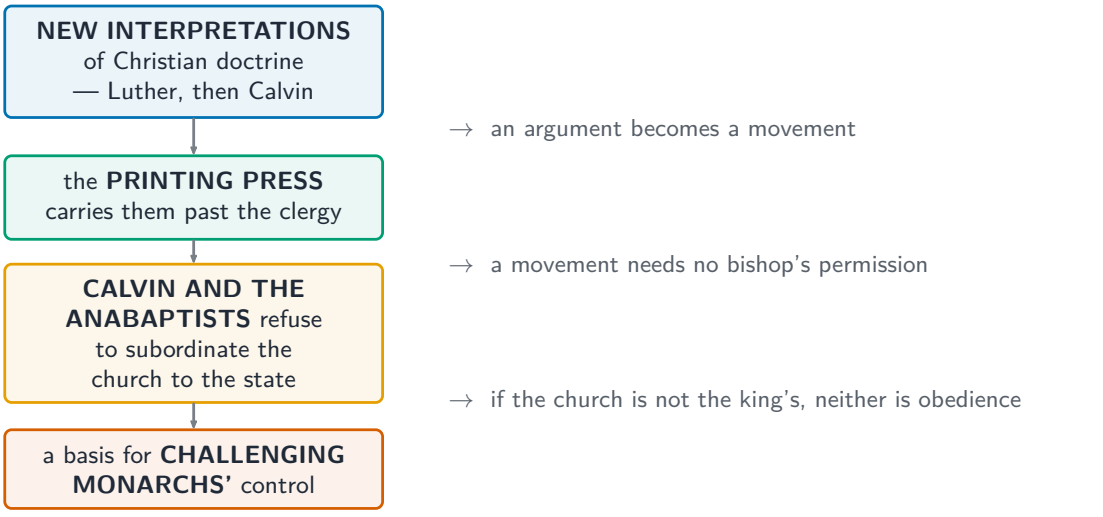
Three developments carry the Reformation past its first generation:

- Protestant reformers used the **printing press** 印刷机 to disseminate their ideas, which spurred reform and helped it become permanent. Printing again functions as the amplifier - it is why this movement did not end as earlier ones had.
- Some Protestants, including Calvin and the **Anabaptists** 再洗礼派, refused to recognise the subordination of the church to the **secular** 世俗 state.
- Religious conflicts **became a basis for challenging monarchs' control** of religious institutions.

The last two are political claims dressed in religious language, and the CED treats them that way. Once religious authority is contestable, so is the authority of whoever claims to control it.

The first settlement. The **Peace of Augsburg** 奥格斯堡和约 (1555) let each prince of the Holy Roman Empire choose Lutheranism or Catholicism for his territory, a principle later summed up as *cuius regio, eius religio* ("whose realm, his religion"). It settled religion by giving the choice to rulers, not to believers. It also left Calvinists out, which helped cause the next war.

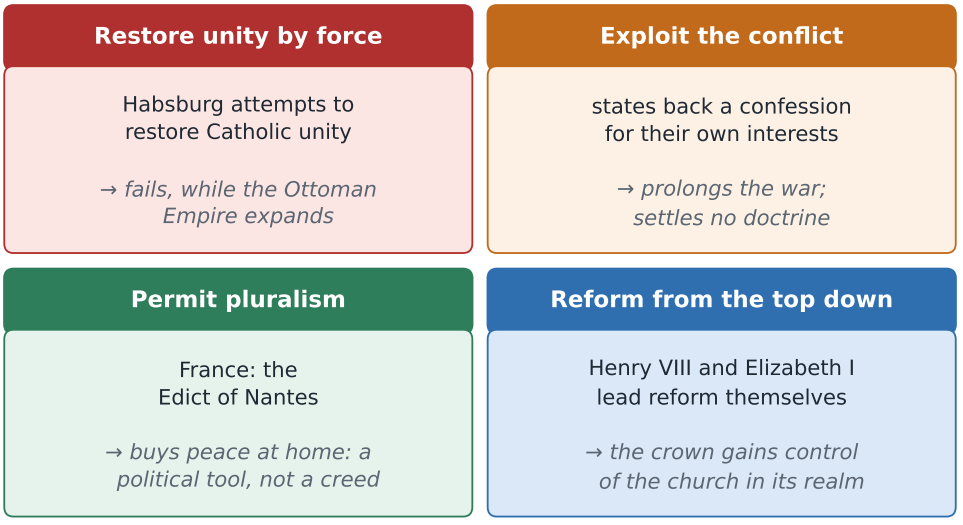
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Doctrine alone threatens nobody. The examinable steps are the **press** and the claim that the church is **not** the monarch's to command

How a doctrinal dispute became a political threat: the press, and the church's independence

Wars of Religion



Westphalia (1648) ends the attempt to restore one Christendom; the sovereign state system takes its place.

Only one of these ends the conflict, and it is not the one most rulers tried first

The CED gives four state responses to religious division, and a strong answer treats

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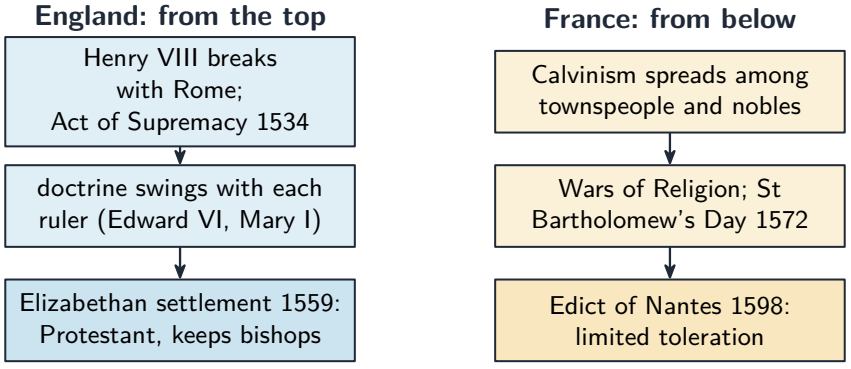
them as a set:

- **Restore unity by force** - **Habsburg** 哈布斯堡 rulers attempted to restore **Catholic unity** across Europe and failed, while simultaneously confronting an expanded **Ottoman Empire** 奥斯曼帝国.
- **Exploit the conflict** - states used religious disputes to **promote political and economic interests** rather than to settle doctrine.
- **Permit pluralism** - a few states, such as France with the **Edict of Nantes** 南特敕令, allowed religious pluralism **in order to maintain domestic peace**.
- **Reform from the top down** - monarchs, including **Henry VIII** and **Elizabeth I**, initiated religious reform themselves to strengthen control over the church within their realm.

■ England and France: one Reformation, two paths

	England	**France**
Who started it	The crown: Henry VIII broke with Rome over his annulment; the **Act of Supremacy** 至尊法案 (1534) made him head of the Church of England	Believers and nobles: Calvinism spread among townspeople and a large minority of nobles, against the crown's wishes
Doctrine	Changed back and forth with each ruler (Edward VI Protestant, Mary I Catholic); the Elizabethan settlement (1559) fixed a Protestant church that kept bishops	Calvinist (Huguenot) churches, at their peak perhaps one French person in ten
Violence	Persecution of dissenters, but no long civil war in the sixteenth century	Eight wars of religion (1562–98); the **St Bartholomew's Day Massacre** 圣巴托洛缪大屠杀 (1572) killed thousands of Huguenots
Outcome	A national church that strengthened royal control	Henry IV converted to Catholicism (1593) and granted the Edict of Nantes (1598): limited toleration to end the war

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One Reformation, two paths

Worked LEQ thesis. *Evaluate the most significant difference between the Protestant Reformation in England and the Protestant Reformation in France.*

> The most significant difference was who drove the Reformation. In England the monarchy imposed reform from above to take control of the church, so religious change strengthened royal power, as the Act of Supremacy (1534) and the Elizabethan settlement (1559) show. In France, Calvinism spread from below among townspeople and nobles against the crown, so religious change produced decades of civil war that ended only when Henry IV granted toleration in the Edict of Nantes (1598).

The thesis makes a claim ("who drove it"), names both cases, and points to the evidence and reasoning the essay will use. Add **complexity** by noting a similarity: in both countries the final settlement was a political decision made by the crown.

After Nantes. The edict was a truce, not a principle. Louis XIV revoked it in 1685 (the Edict of Fontainebleau) and used *dragonnades*, the billeting of soldiers in Protestant homes, to force conversions. Perhaps 200,000 Huguenots fled to the Dutch Republic, England, Prussia and beyond. Protestant prints of the 1680s, such as "The Missionary Soldier" (1686), attacked this policy.

The Thirty Years' War (1618–48). It began when Bohemian Protestants threw the Habsburg king's officials out of a castle window in Prague (1618) and rebelled. It ended as a power struggle: Catholic France, led by Cardinal Richelieu, paid and then fought alongside Protestant Sweden against the Catholic Habsburgs. This is the clearest example of states *exploiting* a religious conflict. Some German regions lost a third or more of their people to fighting, hunger and disease. At Westphalia (1648), Calvinism was recognised alongside Lutheranism and Catholicism, the Dutch Republic and the Swiss Confederation were recognised as independent, and the German princes gained near-sovereign power.

Religious reform also exacerbated conflicts between monarchy and **nobility** 贵族, as in the French wars of religion - religion supplied the language, and existing political rivalry supplied the force.

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The settlement matters as much as the wars: the **Peace of Westphalia (1648)** 威斯特伐利亚和约 marked the effective end of the medieval ideal of **universal Christendom** 普世基督教世界 and accelerated the decline of the **Holy Roman Empire** 神圣罗马帝国. That is the hinge on which Unit 3 opens.

The Catholic Reformation

The **Catholic Reformation** 天主教改革, exemplified by the **Jesuit Order** 耶稣会 and the **Council of Trent** 特伦特会议, **revived the church but cemented the division** within Christianity.

Both halves of that sentence are the answer to a continuity-and-change question. The Church renewed its institutions, doctrine, education, and **missionary** 传教 reach - and its reaffirmation of disputed doctrines deepened the obstacles to reunion. Revival and permanent division were the same act.

What Trent actually decided (1545–63). The council answered the Protestants point by point:

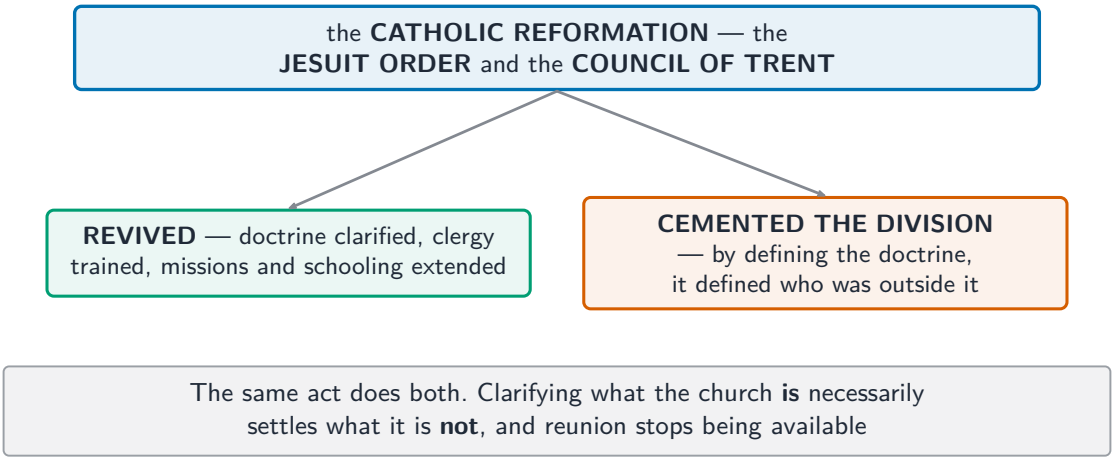
- **Doctrine reaffirmed:** salvation through faith **and** good works; all seven sacraments; Church tradition alongside scripture as authority; the Latin Vulgate Bible as the official text.
- **Abuses reformed:** the sale of indulgences for money was abolished; bishops had to live in their dioceses; every diocese was to train priests in a seminary.
- **Control tightened:** the Roman **Inquisition** 宗教裁判所 (1542) pursued heresy, and the *Index of Prohibited Books* (1559) listed books Catholics must not read.

The Jesuits. Founded by Ignatius of Loyola and approved by the pope in 1540, the Society of Jesus built schools and colleges, served as advisers to Catholic rulers, and sent missionaries across the world. Francis Xavier preached in India and Japan; Matteo Ricci reached China in 1582 and worked in Beijing from 1601, learning Chinese and presenting Christianity through Confucian ideas.

Worked LEQ thesis. *Evaluate the most significant difference between the Protestant Reformation and the subsequent Catholic Reformation.*

> The most significant difference was where each placed religious authority. Protestant reformers located authority in scripture and individual faith, which broke Western Christianity into separate churches that depended on princes and city governments; the Catholic Reformation reaffirmed the authority of the pope, the clergy and Church tradition at the Council of Trent, and enforced it through the Jesuits, the Inquisition and the Index.

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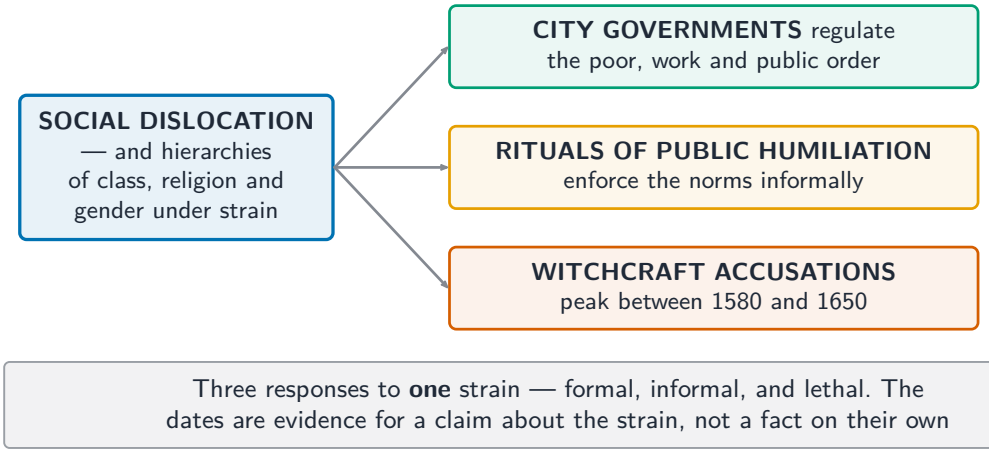
One reform programme, two opposite results - defining the doctrine defined who was outside it

16th-Century Society and Politics

This is the unit's social-history topic, and it is dense with examinable content that essays rarely use:

- Established **hierarchies** 等级制度 of class, religion, and gender continued to define social status in both rural and urban settings.
- Rural and urban **households worked as units**, with men and women engaged in **separate but complementary tasks** 分工互补.
- The Renaissance and Reformation **raised debates about female education** and women's roles in family, church, and society.
- **Social dislocation** 社会失序, together with the shifting authority of religious institutions, left **city governments** to address the problems it created.
- **Leisure** remained organised by the religious calendar and the agricultural cycle, and remained communal.
- Local and church authorities enforced communal norms through **rituals of public humiliation** 公开羞辱.
- Reflecting folk belief and social and economic upheaval, accusations of **witchcraft** 巫术 peaked between 1580 and 1650.

The witchcraft peak is worth holding precisely because of its dates: it coincides with the period of maximum religious conflict and economic strain, which is what makes it usable as evidence rather than as an anecdote.



Three responses to one strain: formal, informal, and lethal

Art of the 16th Century: Mannerism and Baroque

Mannerist 手法主义 and **Baroque** 巴洛克 artists employed **distortion** 变形, **drama** 戏剧性 and **illusion** 幻觉. Monarchies, city-states, and the church **commissioned** 委托创作 these works.



Caravaggio's Calling of Saint Matthew (1599–1600): dramatic light and ordinary people, typical of Baroque religious art

The examinable point is the same as in Unit 1, one step further: art was **commissioned to persuade**. Baroque drama in a Catholic church and Baroque grandeur at a royal court are doing the same work in different directions - asserting the authority of the **patron** 赞助人 in an age when authority was contested.

Evidence to name in an essay.

- **Mannerism** (about 1520–1600): Parmigianino's *Madonna with the Long Neck* (about 1535–40) stretches bodies and space on purpose; El Greco's elongated, glowing figures continue the style in Spain.
- **Catholic Baroque**: Caravaggio's sharp contrasts of light and dark make Bible scenes feel present and physical; Bernini's *Ecstasy of Saint Teresa* (1647–52) turns a mystical experience into theatre in marble. After Trent, the Church wanted art that moved ordinary believers.
- **Protestant north**: Calvinist churches stripped out images (the Dutch iconoclastic riots of 1566). Dutch painters such as Rembrandt and Vermeer sold portraits, landscapes and everyday scenes to private buyers in an open market.

Worked LEQ thesis. *Evaluate the most significant change in European art during the period 1450 to 1700.*

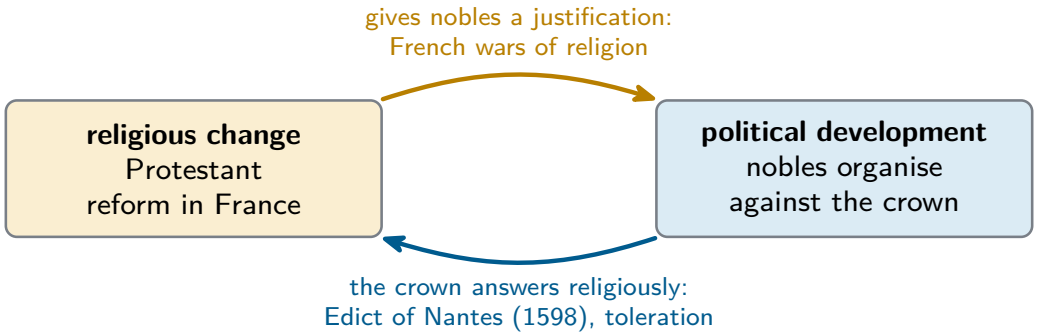
> The most significant change was in art's purpose: Renaissance art used classical balance to display humanist learning and the prestige of its patrons, but after the Reformation, Baroque art was commissioned to persuade, as the Catholic Church used dramatic works such as Bernini's *Ecstasy of Saint Teresa* to win back believers' emotions, and absolute monarchs used grand palaces to display power.

Causation in the Age of Reformation

The unit's reasoning skill is **causation**.

> **Worked example.** Try *"Explain one way in which political developments in the sixteenth century were influenced by religious change."* A strong answer names both sides of the influence: *"Religious reform gave the nobility a language and a justification for resisting royal authority, as in the French wars of religion, where noble families used confessional allegiance to organise opposition to the crown. The monarchy's response - eventually the Edict of Nantes - was therefore a political settlement of a religious dispute, granting* ***toleration*** 宗教宽容 *in order to restore royal control."* Notice that the answer moves in both directions, because the CED's own framing does.

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Causation in both directions: religion shaped politics, and politics settled religion

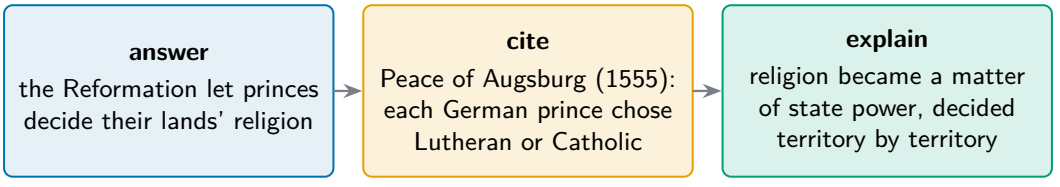
Worked example: a short-answer question

Each part needs only one or two sentences: **answer** the question, **cite** one specific piece of evidence, and **explain** how it supports the answer.

> Answer (a), (b) and (c).
>
> (a) Briefly describe ONE of Martin Luther's criticisms of the Catholic Church.
>
> (b) Briefly describe ONE Catholic response to the Reformation.
>
> (c) Briefly explain ONE political effect of the Reformation.

Model answer.

- (a) In his Ninety-Five Theses (1517) Luther attacked the sale of indulgences, arguing that salvation came through faith, not payment.
- (b) The Council of Trent (1545–1563) reaffirmed Catholic doctrine and reformed abuses, and the Jesuits spread Catholic education.
- (c) The Peace of Augsburg (1555) let each German prince choose his territory's religion, Lutheran or Catholic.



part (c): one or two sentences, with one specific piece of evidence

Answer, cite, explain

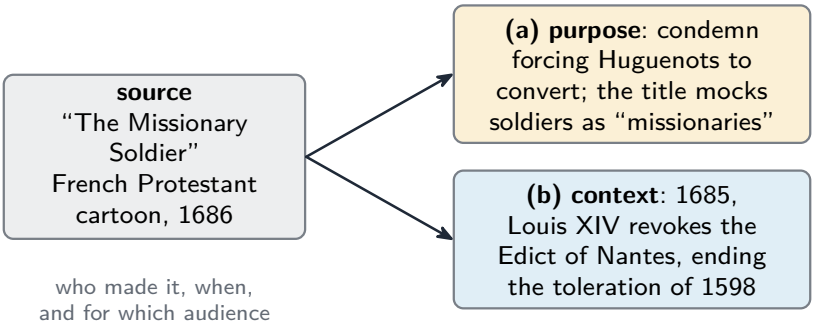
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■ **Worked example: a source-based short answer**

The source is "The Missionary Soldier", a cartoon published by French Protestants in 1686.

(a) Describe a likely purpose of the cartoon.

(b) Describe a relevant religious context for the cartoon.



Purpose comes from the source itself; context from what happened around it

Model answer.

- (a) To condemn Louis XIV's use of soldiers to force Huguenots to convert: the title mocks the idea that soldiers could be "missionaries", presenting forced conversion as violence rather than persuasion and winning sympathy for the refugees abroad.
- (b) In 1685 Louis XIV revoked the Edict of Nantes, ending the legal toleration Henry IV had granted French Protestants in 1598, and dragonnades forced many to convert or flee.

Use **HIPP** to read any source: **H**istorical situation (when and why it was made), **I**ntended audience, **P**urpose, **P**oint of view. Part (a) is a purpose question; part (b) is a historical-situation question.

Exam tips

- Never separate **religion and politics** in this unit. Nearly every question tests the interaction.
- The four state responses - **force, exploitation, toleration, top-down reform** - make an excellent answer skeleton for any wars-of-religion question.
- **Westphalia** is the hinge: the end of universal Christendom, an important settlement in the development of state sovereignty, not the instant birth of a uniform modern state system.
- The Catholic Reformation **revived and divided** at the same time. Both halves earn the mark.
- **Toleration was a political tool**, not a moral position. The Edict of Nantes bought domestic peace.

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- Use the **witchcraft peak (1580-1650)** as dated evidence of social and religious strain, not as colour.
- Learn a date for every claim: 1517, 1521, 1534, 1555, 1559, 1572, 1598, 1618, 1648. A dated example turns a description into evidence.

Common mistakes.

- Saying Henry VIII became a Protestant for theological reasons. His break with Rome was about the annulment and royal control; doctrine under Henry stayed largely Catholic.
- Calling the Edict of Nantes religious freedom. It was limited toleration, granted to end a war and revoked in 1685.
- Describing the Thirty Years' War as purely religious. Catholic France fought the Catholic Habsburgs.
- Writing a thesis that restates the prompt ("there were many differences"). Make one specific, arguable claim.

Practice.

1. (a) Describe ONE major Protestant belief in the period 1517–1650. (b) Explain ONE way the Protestant Reformation affected European politics in that period. (c) Explain ONE way the Catholic Church responded to the Reformation.
2. Write a thesis for: *Evaluate the most significant political or social change during the Reformation period (1517–1650).*
3. Explain ONE cause of the Thirty Years' War and ONE way it stopped being a purely religious war.
4. Explain ONE similarity between the Peace of Augsburg (1555) and the Edict of Nantes (1598).

Answers.

1. (a) Justification by faith alone: salvation is a free gift of God received through faith, not earned by works or bought with indulgences. (b) Princes who adopted Lutheranism took control of church property and appointments, which strengthened them against the emperor; the Peace of Augsburg (1555) made each prince the judge of his territory's religion. (c) The Council of Trent reaffirmed Catholic doctrine (faith and works, seven sacraments) and reformed abuses such as the sale of indulgences.
2. A strong thesis makes one claim with reasons, for example: "The most significant change was the growth of state control over religion: whether through Henry VIII's Act of Supremacy, princes' choice under the Peace of Augsburg or Henry IV's Edict of Nantes, rulers rather than the pope increasingly decided the religion of their subjects."

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3. Cause: the Peace of Augsburg had left Calvinists out, and Habsburg attempts to impose Catholicism provoked the Bohemian Protestant revolt of 1618. Change: Catholic France under Richelieu supported Protestant Sweden against the Catholic Habsburgs to weaken a rival power.
4. Both were political settlements imposed by rulers to end religious war, and both granted rights to rulers or limited groups rather than freedom of conscience to individuals.

Vocabulary card meanings

Martin Luther: The German monk whose protest began the Protestant break with Rome. John Calvin: A reformer who taught predestination and built a strict church in Geneva. used the printing press: Spreading religious arguments quickly through printed pamphlets. Calvin and the Anabaptists: Reformed Protestants and the groups that insisted on adult baptism. expanded Ottoman Empire: The Muslim empire that pushed deep into south-eastern Europe. Edict of Nantes: A 1598 French grant of limited rights to Protestants, later revoked. Peace of Westphalia (1648): The treaties of 1648 that ended the Thirty Years' War and settled religious and political rights among the rulers who signed. universal Christendom: The older ideal of one Christian community under pope and emperor. Catholic Reformation: The Catholic Church's own renewal and response to Protestant criticism. separate but complementary tasks: A gendered ideal that assigned men and women different but paired duties. Social dislocation: The breaking of familiar community ties during war, plague, or economic change. rituals of public humiliation: Punishments meant to shame offenders in front of the community. Mannerist and Baroque: Art styles of distortion and of dramatic, emotional grandeur after the High Renaissance. distortion, drama, and illusion: Visual devices that stretch bodies, heighten emotion, and trick the eye.

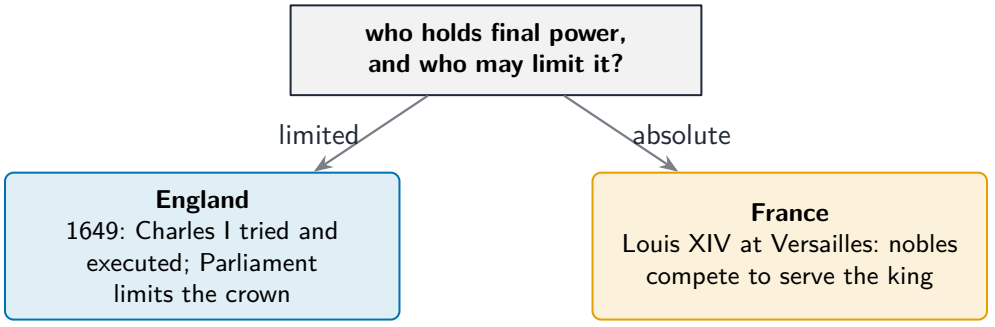
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Absolutism and Constitutionalism

AP European History

Contextualizing State Building

Why it matters. In January 1649 an English court tried King Charles I for treason against his own people and had him beheaded in front of a crowd in London. Forty years later, a French king, Louis XIV, ruled from a palace of 2,300 rooms where nobles competed to hand him his shirt in the morning. The two scenes are the two answers Europe gave to one question: who holds final power in a state, and who may limit it?



centralisation remained uneven: nobles, regions and assemblies defended their powers

Two answers to one question

Unit 3 covers **1648 to 1815**. Different models of **political sovereignty** 政治主权 changed relations among states and between rulers and their subjects. Earlier conflicts, including the English Civil War, provide necessary background.

Rulers sought revenue, armies and greater control. Nobles, regional groups and representative bodies defended their own powers. The Peace of Westphalia is an important context, but it did not instantly produce a uniform system of modern nation-states. Centralisation remained uneven. Religion remained politically important even as dynastic, state and colonial interests became more prominent in diplomacy.

The English Civil War and the Glorious Revolution

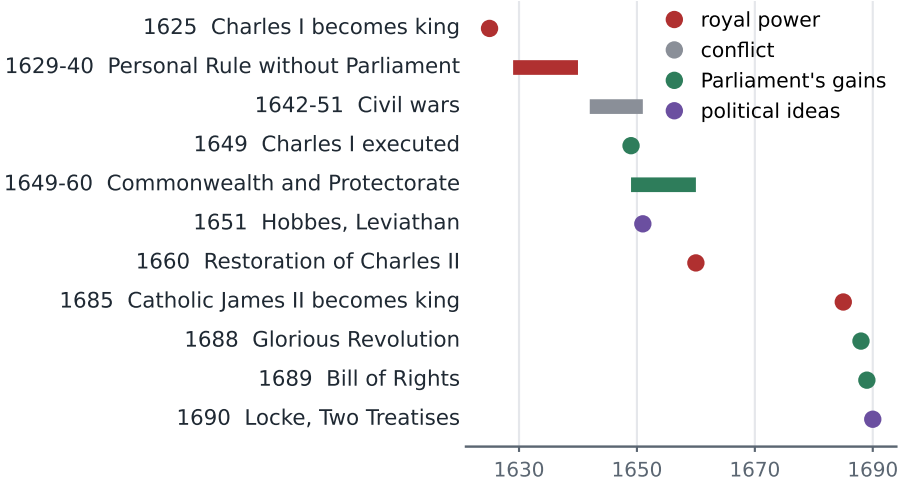
The **English Civil War** 英国内战 involved struggles among the monarchy, **Parliament** 议会 and other elites over taxation, religion and political authority. Charles I's efforts to govern and raise revenue without Parliament increased conflict. The wars also involved soldiers, local communities and religious groups. The CED's focus on elite institutions does not mean ordinary people played no part: the Putney Debates of 1647 included soldiers and Levellers arguing about wider voting rights.

The civil-war period did not lead directly to a stable constitutional monarchy: the

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monarchy was abolished, later restored, and challenged again. The **Glorious Revolution** 光荣革命 of 1688 and the Bill of Rights of 1689 strengthened Parliament's position. The crown could not levy taxation without parliamentary grant. This limited royal authority and protected the gentry and aristocracy against absolutism. It did not establish universal voting rights or equal political participation.

Worked comparison: Charles I's conflicts with Parliament concerned whether the crown could act without parliamentary consent. The 1689 settlement strengthened parliamentary control, including over taxation. This changed the institutional limits on royal action; it did not give every adult a vote.



Read the rows in order: each royal attempt to rule without Parliament was followed by a parliamentary gain.

The sequence to know. Charles I ruled without Parliament from 1629 to 1640 (the Personal Rule), raising money through "ship money" and other non-parliamentary taxes. He recalled Parliament only to pay for a war with Scotland, and civil war followed in 1642. Parliament's New Model Army won; Charles I was executed in 1649, and England became a republic, the Commonwealth, later ruled by Oliver Cromwell as Lord Protector. The monarchy was restored under Charles II in 1660. When the Catholic James II (1685–88) appointed Catholics to office and kept a standing army, leading politicians invited the Protestant William of Orange to invade. James fled, and William and Mary accepted the **Bill of Rights** 权利法案 (1689): no taxation or standing army in peacetime without Parliament's consent, free elections and regular Parliaments.

The ideas behind each side. Divine right 君权神授 held that kings received their power from God and answered only to God; James I and Charles I both claimed it, and Bishop Bossuet later defended it for Louis XIV. Thomas Hobbes's *Leviathan* (1651), written after the civil wars, argued that people give up their rights to an all-powerful sovereign to escape a violent "state of nature", a defence of absolute power

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without divine right. John Locke's *Two Treatises of Government* (1690) argued that government exists to protect life, liberty and property, and that people may resist a ruler who breaks that trust. It was used to justify 1688.

Worked SAQ: a divine-right sermon. *A sermon from early seventeenth-century England claims that "the kingly power is most high" and that no power in the world or the church can restrain it. (a) Describe one relevant context. (b) Explain one way such views were challenged later in the 1600s.*

- (a) The early Stuart kings, James I and Charles I, claimed to rule by divine right and clashed with Parliament over taxation and religion; Charles I's Personal Rule (1629–40) raised money without Parliament's consent.
- (b) The Glorious Revolution of 1688 and the Bill of Rights (1689) made the crown depend on Parliament for taxation and an army, and Locke argued that subjects could resist a ruler who violated their natural rights.

Continuities and Changes to Economic Practice

A **market economy** 市场经济 expanded as more goods and labour were exchanged through markets. Important developments included the **Agricultural Revolution** 农业革命, American crops, changes to traditional restrictions, cottage production and new finance. These developments overlapped and varied by region; they were not an inevitable four-stage sequence.

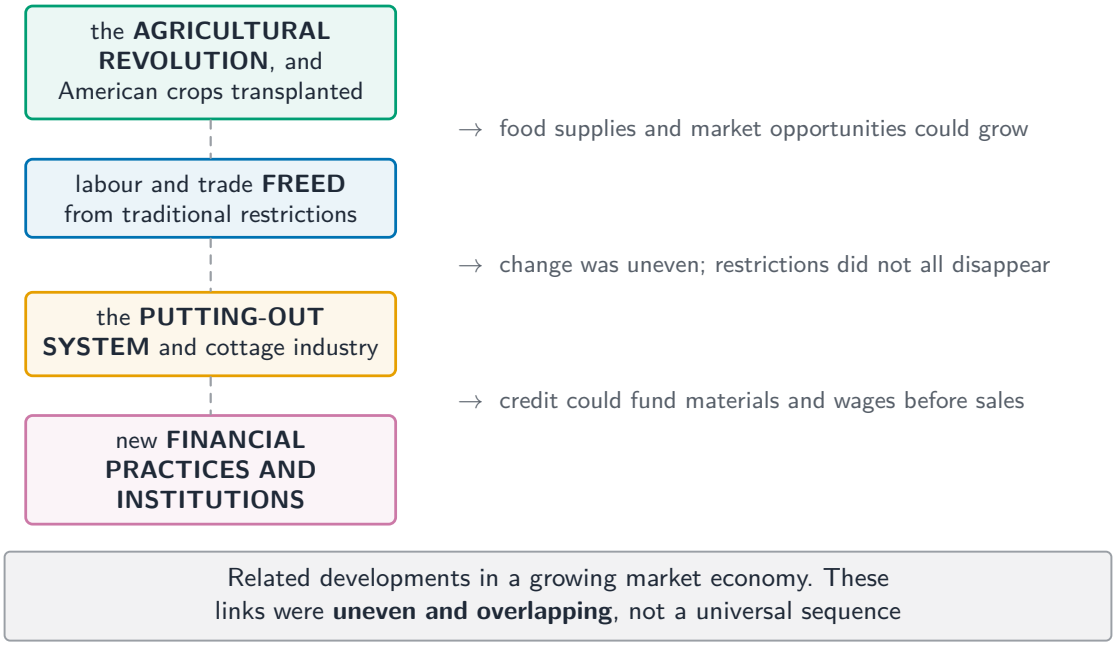
Agricultural improvements raised productivity and food supply. Crops brought from the Americas added to European food supplies. Labour and trade were increasingly **freed from traditional restrictions** 摆脱传统限制 in some settings, but guild rules, legal privileges and dependent labour did not disappear everywhere.

In the **putting-out system** 外包生产制, also called **cottage industry** 家庭手工业, a merchant supplied materials to workers in homes or workshops, collected their output and sold it. This expanded production for markets outside the factory system. Banking, credit and insurance helped merchants fund production and manage risk. Rural work and older social hierarchies continued alongside these changes.

Enclosure 圈地 shows the agricultural change concretely. Landowners in England fenced common fields into private farms, adopted crop rotation with turnips and clover, which restored the soil instead of leaving it fallow, and bred animals selectively. Output per acre rose, but many villagers lost access to common land and had to work for wages, in the putting-out system or later in factories.

Worked mechanism: a cloth merchant supplies wool to households, pays for spinning and weaving, and sells the cloth. Credit helps pay workers before sales income arrives. This connects cottage production and finance without claiming that every household became a factory worker.

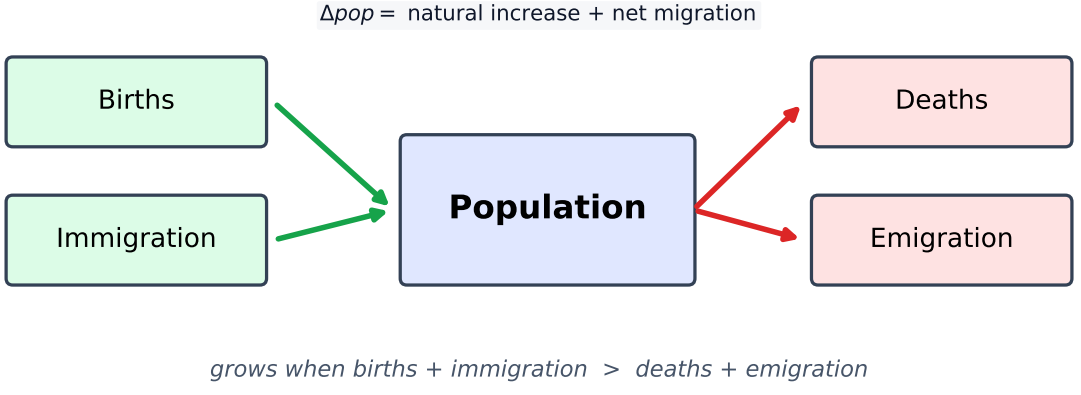
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Related developments in a growing market economy; pathways varied by region

Economic Development and Mercantilism

Mercantilism 重商主义 describes policies through which states sought wealth and power by regulating trade, encouraging exports and drawing resources from colonies. Tariffs, navigation laws and chartered companies were possible tools. Policies varied; the label does not mean every government used every tool.



A country's population grows when births plus immigration are greater than deaths plus emigration

Named tools. England's Navigation Acts (from 1651) required colonial trade to travel in English ships, aimed squarely at Dutch shippers. In France, Jean-Baptiste

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Colbert (controller-general 1665–83) raised tariffs on imported manufactures, subsidised royal workshops making luxury goods, built roads and canals, and founded a French East India Company (1664). Chartered companies such as the English East India Company (1600) and the Dutch VOC (1602) held trading monopolies granted by the state.

Overseas networks supplied raw materials, finished goods, labour and markets. Sugar, tea, coffee and tobacco contributed to European consumer culture. The expansion of plantation products also depended on the growing transatlantic **slave-labour system** 奴隶劳动制度. Enslaved people were forcibly transported and made to produce goods for overseas markets. Consumer growth must be explained together with coercion and unequal benefits.

Practice: explain how European demand for plantation sugar could affect both colonial production and European consumption. **Check:** rising demand encouraged plantation expansion and exploitation of enslaved labour; imported sugar entered European consumption. This is a causal connection, not a claim that every European benefited equally.

Worked SAQ: why new colonial powers fought. *Explain one reason why the rise of new colonial powers such as England, France and the Dutch Republic led to conflicts in the 1600s and 1700s.*

> Under mercantilism each state believed trade and colonies were a fixed amount of wealth to be won from rivals, so commercial competition became military competition. England's Navigation Act of 1651 tried to shut Dutch shippers out of English trade and led directly to three Anglo-Dutch Wars (1652–74). In the Seven Years' War (1756–63), Britain and France fought in North America and India as well as in Europe, and Britain took Canada from France in the Treaty of Paris (1763).

The answer gives the reason (mercantilist competition), a dated example, and the mechanism linking them.

The Dutch Golden Age

The **Dutch Republic** 荷兰共和国 emerged from revolt against Habsburg rule. Its political system was an **oligarchy** 寡头政治 dominated by urban gentry and rural landholders. It protected traditional rights and promoted trade. Commercial shipping, finance and merchant networks supported its economic role.

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Job Berckheyde, The Courtyard of the Amsterdam Exchange (c. 1670): merchants trading in the building where VOC shares changed hands

The republic is an alternative to royal absolutism, but a republic is not automatically a democracy. Power remained concentrated among elites. Religious toleration was comparatively broad in some settings, but it was not universal equality. Use this case to separate political form, social inclusion and commercial success.

Why the Dutch were rich. The Dutch East India Company, the VOC (1602), sold shares to the public, and those shares traded on the Amsterdam exchange; the Bank of Amsterdam (1609) gave merchants a safe, trusted currency. Dutch ships carried much of Europe's bulk trade in grain, timber and fish from the Baltic. Comparative toleration attracted skilled refugees, including Jews from Portugal and Protestants from the southern Netherlands and France.

Balance of Power

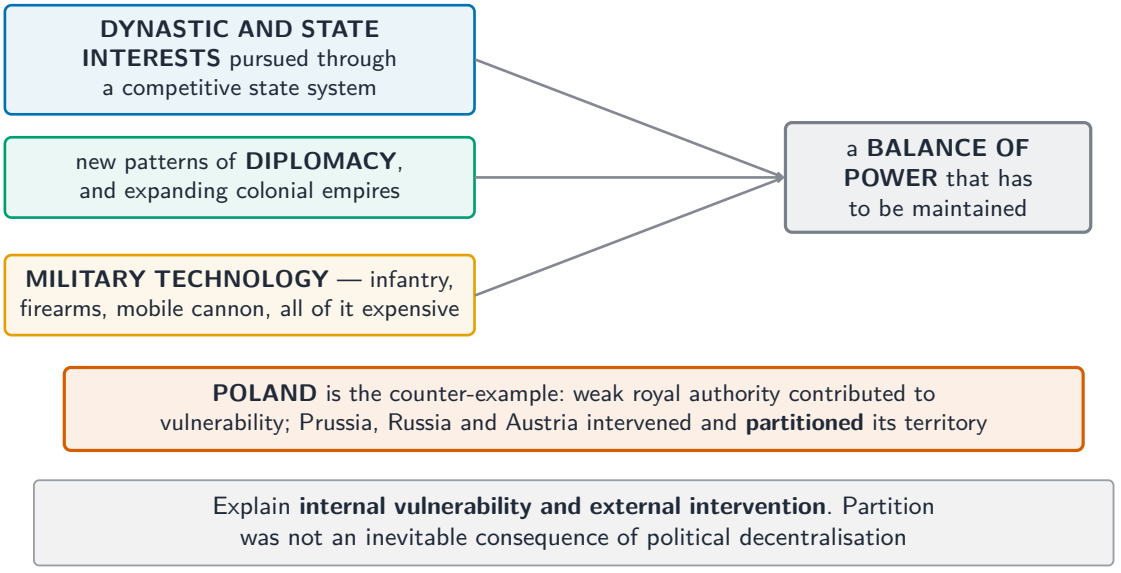
The **competitive state system** 竞争性国家体系 encouraged diplomacy, alliances and costly warfare. A **balance of power** 均势 means preventing one state from becoming dominant. Louis XIV's expansion and dynastic ambitions provoked opposing coalitions. The clearest case is the **War of the Spanish Succession** 西班牙王位继承战争 (1701–14): when Louis XIV's grandson inherited the Spanish throne, Britain, the Dutch Republic and Austria fought to stop France and Spain from being joined under one family. The **Treaty of Utrecht** (1713) let the grandson keep Spain as Philip V on condition that the French and Spanish crowns never unite, and gave Britain Gibraltar and new trading rights in Spanish America. Balance of power had become a stated aim of diplomacy. After the Ottoman defeat at Vienna in 1683, Ottoman westward expansion ceased; this did not mean the Ottoman Empire disappeared.

Military changes included greater reliance on infantry, firearms, mobile cannon and

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elaborate fortifications. These required resources, heavier taxation and larger bureaucracies. States able to mobilise resources gained advantages; this was not a rule that only absolute monarchies could maintain armies.

Poland's monarchy struggled to consolidate authority over its nobility. This weakened its capacity to resist neighbouring powers. **Poland's partition** 波兰被瓜分 was carried out by Prussia, Russia and Austria. Explain both internal vulnerability and the intervention of those powers; partition was not an automatic punishment for failing to become absolutist. The three partitions (1772, 1793, 1795) removed Poland from the map entirely until 1918. A single noble deputy could block the Polish parliament's decisions (the *liberum veto*), and the elected kings had little money or army.



Military costs, diplomacy and territorial rivalry shaped the balance of power

Absolutist Approaches to Power

Absolutism 绝对主义 concentrated authority in the monarchy. **Louis XIV** 路易十四 and **Jean-Baptiste Colbert** 柯尔贝尔 extended the French state's administrative, financial, military and religious control. Royal agents, revenue policies, armed forces and court patronage helped make that authority effective.

How Louis XIV did it. As a child he lived through the Fronde (1648–53), noble and judicial revolts that drove the court out of Paris. As king he:

- moved the court to **Versailles** 凡尔赛宫 (1682), where great nobles lived under his eye and competed for rituals and favours instead of building regional power;
- governed through **intendants** 监察官, royal officials sent to the provinces whom the king appointed and could dismiss, usually from recently ennobled families who owed their rise to the crown, and never called the Estates-General;

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- used Colbert's mercantilism to pay for the largest army in Europe;
- imposed religious unity by revoking the Edict of Nantes (1685).

The limits were real: provincial law courts, tax exemptions for nobles and clergy, and the cost of nearly constant war left the state deeply in debt by his death in 1715.

Absolute monarchs limited independent noble participation in governance while preserving aristocratic social position and many legal privileges. Nobles could still hold offices and serve the monarchy. Absolutism therefore did not mean the complete removal of nobles from government or the elimination of every institutional limit.

Peter the Great 彼得大帝 transformed Russia's military, political, religious and cultural institutions through westernisation. **Catherine the Great** 叶卡捷琳娜大帝 continued aspects of this process. Reform strengthened the state while elite privilege and dependent labour remained important.

Peter the Great in evidence. After touring western Europe (1697–98), Peter (ruled 1682–1725) built a navy and a western-style army, defeated Sweden at Poltava (1709) in the Great Northern War, and founded **St Petersburg** (1703) on the Baltic as his "window on the West". The Table of Ranks (1722) tied noble status to service in the army or bureaucracy; the Holy Synod (1721), led by a state official, replaced the independent patriarch at the head of the Orthodox Church; nobles were taxed for wearing beards. Serfdom deepened, because the state relied on nobles to control peasants. Catherine the Great (1762–96) crushed Pugachev's peasant revolt (1773–75) and confirmed noble privileges in the Charter of the Nobility (1785).

Prussia built absolutism on its army. The Hohenzollern rulers won the loyalty of the landowning nobility, the Junkers, by giving them officer posts and control of their serfs. Frederick the Great (1740–86) used the army to seize Silesia from Austria in 1740.

Worked LEQ thesis. *Evaluate the most significant effect of the centralization of state power in the period 1650 to 1815.*

> The most significant effect of centralization was the growth of permanent, tax-funded armies: Louis XIV's France, Peter the Great's Russia and Hohenzollern Prussia all expanded state bureaucracies chiefly to raise and supply soldiers, which made war between great powers more frequent and more costly and pushed states such as France toward the debt crisis that preceded 1789.

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The Hall of Mirrors at Versailles: court architecture and royal authority

ROYAL CONTROL —
greater central authority

administrative, financial,
military and religious control
increasingly directed by the crown
Louis XIV, Peter the
Great, Catherine the Great

ELITE POSITION —
rank and many privileges

social position
many legal privileges and exemptions
land, and the income from it

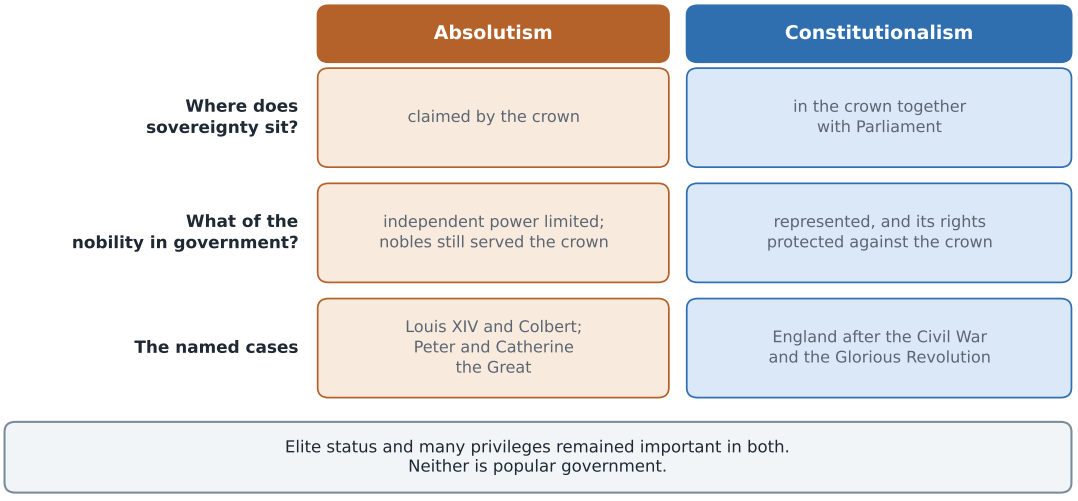
Limited independent noble power did not mean total exclusion.
Nobles could **serve the crown** while retaining privilege

Greater royal control could coexist with aristocratic rank, privilege and service

Comparison in the Age of Absolutism

Compare cases using a shared question: who constrains the ruler, who participates in government, or how resources are raised? Give evidence for both cases and explain the relationship. A third case is useful only when it helps answer the prompt; there is no rule that every answer needs three states.

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Compare institutional authority and elite participation in France and England

Practice: explain one difference and one similarity between France under Louis XIV and England after 1689. Use these facts: Louis XIV extended central state control; the English crown required parliamentary grant for taxation; aristocratic privilege remained important in both societies.

Model reasoning: both governments retained elite social privilege, so stronger institutions did not necessarily mean wider equality. They differed in the constraints on the crown: Louis XIV extended royal control, whereas England's settlement strengthened Parliament's ability to limit royal taxation. The comparison uses the same institutional question for both cases. It is an illustrative response, not a guaranteed mark award.

Worked example: a short-answer question

Each part needs only one or two sentences: **answer** the question, **cite** one specific piece of evidence, and **explain** how it supports the answer.

Answer (a), (b) and (c).

(a) Briefly describe ONE way Louis XIV strengthened royal power.

(b) Briefly explain ONE way the Glorious Revolution limited the English monarchy.

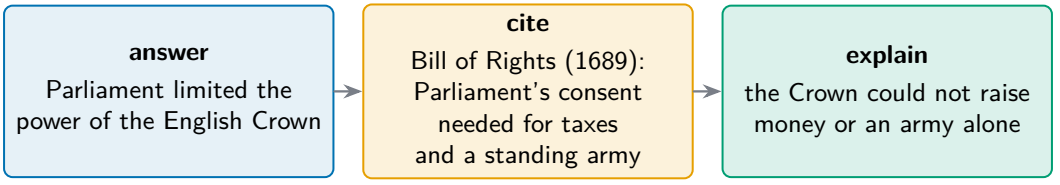
(c) Briefly describe ONE feature of mercantilism.

Model answer.

- (a) Louis XIV kept the nobles at court in Versailles, where they competed for his favour instead of building independent power.
- (b) The Bill of Rights (1689) required Parliament's consent for taxation and a standing army.

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- (c) Mercantilist states such as Colbert's France aimed to export more than they imported, using colonies and tariffs to build national wealth.



part (b): one or two sentences, with one specific piece of evidence

Answer, cite, explain

Exam tips

Read the command and evidence supplied. Explain a mechanism rather than listing unrelated names. Distinguish royal authority from unlimited practical control, a republic from democracy, and a contributing cause from an inevitable outcome. When interpreting an image, state what is visible before explaining what it may suggest; architecture alone cannot prove that a ruler faced no limits.

Common mistakes.

- Saying the English Civil War produced a constitutional monarchy. The monarchy was abolished in 1649 and restored in 1660; the lasting limits came in 1688–89.
- Treating Hobbes as a supporter of Parliament. He defended absolute sovereignty, though not divine right.
- Writing that absolutism removed the nobility. Louis XIV and Peter the Great used nobles; they changed what nobles did.
- Explaining colonial wars only as "greed". Name the mercantilist idea and a dated war.

Practice.

1. Describe ONE way Charles I's policies led to conflict with Parliament.
2. Explain ONE difference between Hobbes's and Locke's views of government.
3. Explain ONE way Louis XIV reduced the independent power of the French nobility.
4. Explain ONE effect of Peter the Great's reforms on the Russian nobility.
5. Explain ONE reason why the Dutch Republic became a leading commercial power in the 1600s.

Answers.

1. During the Personal Rule (1629–40) Charles I raised taxes such as ship money without Parliament's consent, which Parliament saw as a breach of its right to approve taxation.

2. Hobbes argued that people must give up their rights to an absolute sovereign to avoid chaos; Locke argued that government protects natural rights and that people may resist a ruler who violates them.
3. He moved the court to Versailles (1682), where nobles depended on royal favour, and governed the provinces through intendants rather than great nobles.
4. The Table of Ranks (1722) made noble status depend on service to the state, so nobles became officers and officials of the tsar; in return their control over serfs grew.
5. The VOC (1602) and the Amsterdam exchange let investors share risk in long-distance trade, the Bank of Amsterdam (1609) provided trusted money, and Dutch ships dominated Baltic bulk trade.

Sources and practice provenance

Scope: local College Board AP European History Course and Exam Description, Unit 3 topics 3.1–3.8, PDF pages 86–96 (and the continuation of 3.8). Examples and practice above are authored teaching material, not reproduced exam items.

Historical checks: UK Parliament: Putney Debates; House of Commons Library: Bill of Rights; Palace of Versailles: places of power. Photograph: Myrabella, CC BY-SA 3.0, as recorded in the figure metadata.

Vocabulary card meanings

English Civil War: The mid-seventeenth-century conflict between king and Parliament in England. Glorious Revolution: The 1688 overthrow of James II that confirmed Parliament's limits on the crown. Parliament: England's law-making assembly, which came to check royal power. Agricultural Revolution: Changes in farming that raised output before and during industrialisation. freed from traditional restrictions: Labour and enterprise released from guild and feudal limits. Dutch Republic: The independent Protestant state that grew rich on trade in the seventeenth century. competitive state system: European powers rivalling one another rather than forming one empire. Poland's partition: The division of Poland among neighbouring powers in the late eighteenth century. Louis XIV: The French king who embodied absolute monarchy at Versailles. Jean-Baptiste Colbert: Louis XIV's minister who pursued mercantilist industry and trade. Peter the Great: The Russian tsar who forced westernising reforms and built a new capital. Catherine the Great: The Russian empress who expanded the empire and corresponded with Enlightenment writers. putting-out system: Merchants supplying materials for goods finished in rural households. balance of power: A diplomacy that stops any one state from dominating the others. slave-labour system: Production that depended on the forced work of enslaved people. political sovereignty: Supreme authority within a territory. absolutism: Rule in which the monarch claims unchecked central power.

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Scientific, Philosophical, and Political Developments

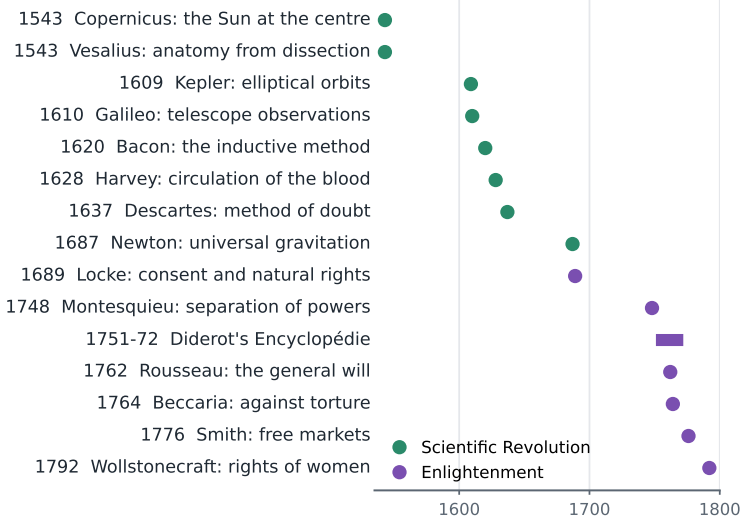
AP European History

Contextualizing the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment

Why it matters. In 1633 the Roman Inquisition put the elderly Galileo on trial for teaching that the Earth moves around the Sun. He was forced to say he was wrong and spent the rest of his life under house arrest. Fifty-four years later, Isaac Newton published one set of laws that explained both a falling apple and the orbit of the Moon, and educated Europeans began to ask a dangerous question: if reason can discover the laws of the heavens, why not the laws of government, trade and punishment? That question is the bridge from the Scientific Revolution to the Enlightenment.

The **Scientific Revolution** 科学革命 developed new ways to investigate nature. The **Enlightenment** 启蒙运动 applied concepts and practices associated with these changes to political, social and ethical questions. This encouraged debate about the individual, government and society. It did not produce one method or one agreed political programme.

Observation, experiment, mathematics, reason and classical learning interacted. Religious belief and inherited authority remained important. Alongside intellectual change, developments in agriculture, disease, migration, consumption and family life changed everyday experience. This unit connects these processes without treating every social change as the direct result of a philosopher's ideas.



The Scientific Revolution came first and asked about nature; the Enlightenment followed and asked about society

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Modelled LEQ thesis for *"the most significant difference between the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment"*: *"The most significant difference was the object of inquiry: Scientific Revolution thinkers such as Galileo and Newton used observation and mathematics to explain the natural world, while Enlightenment thinkers such as Locke, Montesquieu and Beccaria applied the same confidence in reason to human institutions, which made the Enlightenment a direct challenge to absolute monarchy and the established churches in a way the study of planets was not."* Notice that it names the categories, gives examples from both sides and explains why the difference mattered.

The Scientific Revolution

Copernicus 哥白尼, **Galileo** 伽利略 and **Newton** 牛顿 contributed different ideas and evidence to changing understandings of the cosmos. A heliocentric model challenged an Earth-centred account. Mathematical explanation and observation helped challenge inherited authority; these thinkers did not all make the same discovery.

Put the steps in order, because exam excerpts often come from one of them:

- **Copernicus**, *On the Revolutions* (1543): a **heliocentric** 日心说 model, the Sun at the centre, still with circular orbits.
- **Johannes Kepler** (1609) used Tycho Brahe's careful observations to show that planets move in **ellipses**, not perfect circles.
- **Galileo** used the new **telescope** 望远镜 (1609-10) to see mountains on the Moon, moons orbiting Jupiter and the phases of Venus - evidence that not everything circles the Earth. His trial in 1633 shows the Church defending its authority over interpreting nature and Scripture.
- **Newton**'s *Principia* (1687) explained the motion of planets and of objects on Earth with the same law of **universal gravitation** 万有引力, a single mathematical system for the whole universe.

In medicine, **Andreas Vesalius**'s *On the Fabric of the Human Body* (1543) corrected Galen by drawing anatomy from dissection rather than from ancient texts. Science also gained new institutions: the **Royal Society** of London (1660) and the French Academy of Sciences (1666) were **scientific societies** 科学学会 where members shared experiments and published results, often with royal support.

William Harvey 哈维 studied blood circulation and helped present the body as an **integrated system** 整体系统. This challenged inherited accounts associated with Galen. New anatomical and medical knowledge did not instantly remove every older practice.

Francis Bacon 培根 and **René Descartes** 笛卡尔 are associated with contrasting approaches to **inductive and deductive reasoning** 归纳与演绎推理. Bacon emphasised observation and systematic investigation; Descartes stressed methodical doubt and reasoning from clear principles. Neither invented all reasoning of that kind. Both contributed to debates about reliable knowledge.

Bacon set out his method in *New Organon* (1620); Descartes, in *Discourse on Method* (1637), began by doubting everything he could and found one certainty: "I think, therefore I am."

Logic example: several observed heated metal samples become longer. Generalising from these observations is induction; the sample does not prove every material behaves that way. For deduction, assume all objects in box X are metal and object A is in box X. A must be metal if the premises are true and the reasoning is valid. Deduction does not establish the factual truth of the premises by itself.

Alchemy and astrology continued to appeal to some natural philosophers and elites. They shared an interest in a knowable, ordered universe with newer investigations; belief in spiritual forces also continued. This is evidence of continuity, not proof that all older claims were scientifically valid.

BACON — induction

start from **observations**
collect many, look for the pattern
the general claim comes last

DESCARTES — deduction

start from **premises**
reason forward, step by step
derive a conclusion that follows from them

Induction goes beyond observed cases. Deduction can be valid, but the **premises still need justification**

Induction generalises from observations; deduction derives a conclusion from premises



Copernicus's own diagram in De revolutionibus (1543): the Sun (Sol) at the centre, the Earth (Telluris) in third place

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Harvey's experiment in De motu cordis (1628): press a vein and the blood will not flow back past the valves, so it must circulate

The Enlightenment

The Scientific Revolution — *investigating nature*

- observation and experiment
- mathematics as the language
- induction and deduction (Bacon, Descartes)
- authority of the ancients is questionable

↓ **applied to society**

The Enlightenment — *varied arguments about society*

Political	rights and social contract (Locke, Rousseau)
Economic	free trade and markets (Smith)
Religious	deism, scepticism, atheism
Social	salons and print; unequal access

Claims about equality were contested.
Arguments about women's education and political roles differed.

Scientific concepts and practices informed varied arguments about human institutions

Empiricism 经验主义 stresses observation and experience; **rationalism** 理性主义 stresses reasoning; **scepticism** 怀疑主义 questions claims and grounds for belief. These approaches overlapped and differed. Enlightenment thinkers did not simply follow one laboratory procedure to reach identical answers about society.

Political arguments included **Locke** 洛克 and **Rousseau** 卢梭 on **natural rights** 天赋权利 and the **social contract** 社会契约. Locke connected legitimate government with consent and protection of rights, challenging authority based only on divine right or tradition. Rousseau's model was different; sharing the idea of a contract did not make their accounts identical.

Hobbes against Locke - the comparison behind "views challenged later in the 1600s":

	Thomas Hobbes, *Leviathan* (1651)	**John Locke, *Two Treatises of Government* (1689)**
State of nature	A "war of all against all"; life is "nasty, brutish, and short"	People already have natural rights to **life, liberty and property**
Why people form a government	For security, at any price	To protect their rights
Power of the ruler	Absolute; subjects may not rebel	Limited; if the ruler violates rights, the people may replace him

Hobbes wrote after the English Civil War and wanted order; Locke wrote to justify the Glorious Revolution of 1688. In his *Essay Concerning Human Understanding* (1690) Locke also argued that the mind begins as a **blank slate** 白板 filled by experience - so education and environment, not birth, make people what they are. Rousseau's *The Social Contract* (1762) went further: legitimate law expresses the **general will** 公意 of the whole community, an idea later used by both democrats and revolutionaries.

Adam Smith's 亚当 · 斯密 arguments supported **free trade** 自由贸易 and markets against mercantilist restrictions. This does not mean that Smith rejected every governmental function. In *The Wealth of Nations* (1776) he argued that individuals pursuing their own gain are guided, as if by an **invisible hand** 看不见的手, to benefit society, and that the division of labour raises productivity. The French **physiocrats** 重农学派 made a similar case for freer trade in grain. **Voltaire** 伏尔泰 and **Diderot** 狄德罗 illustrate intellectual challenges to religious authority. **Deism, scepticism, and atheism** 自然神论、怀疑主义与无神论 were distinct positions; not every thinker held all three. Religion was increasingly discussed as a private concern, but public religious institutions remained powerful.

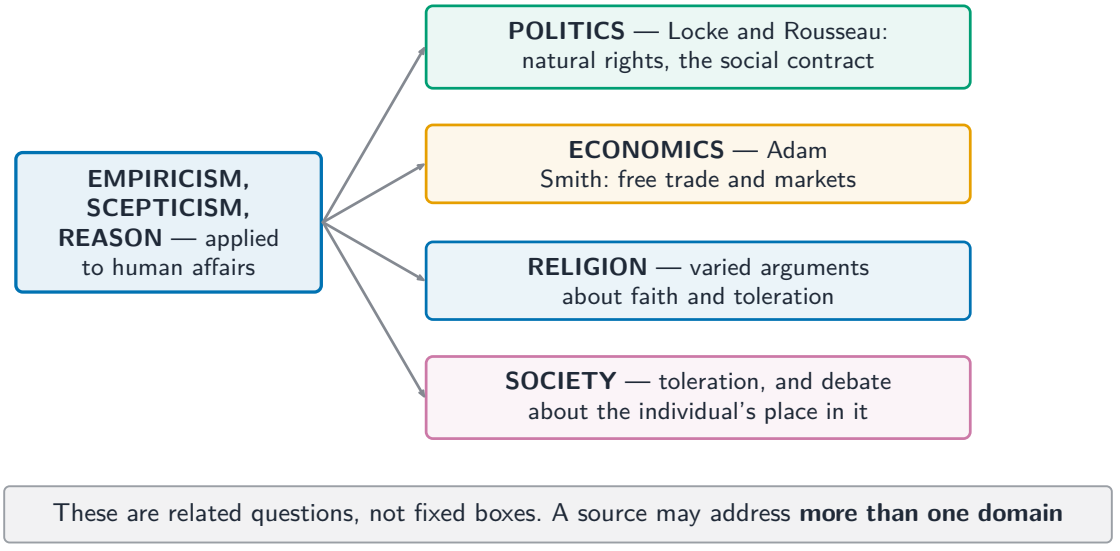
A **deist** believed in a God who created the universe like a clockmaker and then let it run by natural laws, without miracles or a need for a church's authority. Voltaire campaigned for **religious toleration** 宗教宽容: when the Protestant Jean Calas was tortured and executed in Toulouse in 1762, Voltaire's pamphlets helped win his official clearing in 1765. Diderot and d'Alembert's *Encyclopédie* (1751-72), in 28 volumes, gathered knowledge of science, trades and government in a critical spirit and was

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repeatedly banned.

Salons 沙龙, coffeehouses, academies, lending libraries and Masonic lodges spread ideas through conversation and print. Access varied by wealth, literacy, gender and location. A broader public was not the entire population.

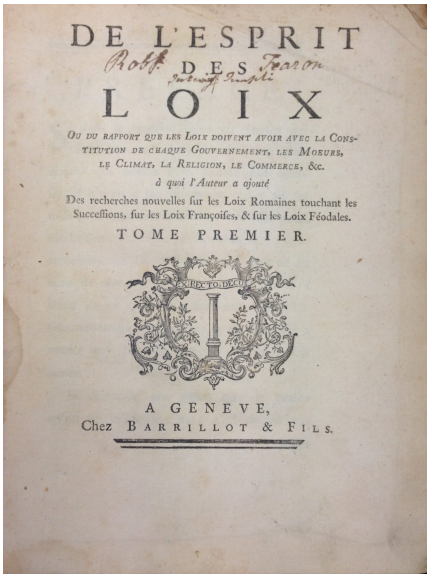
Claims about equality were contested. Rousseau argued for women's exclusion from political life; **Mary Wollstonecraft** 玛丽·沃斯通克拉夫特 challenged unequal education and restrictions on women's development as rational people. Her *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (1792) offers an example of debate within this intellectual world, not simply opposition between reason and unreason.



Political, economic, religious and social questions could overlap

■ Specific examples for explanation

These are useful examples, not a requirement to cite every name or memorise one title per thinker. **Montesquieu** 孟德斯鸠, in *The Spirit of the Laws*, analysed the distribution of political power. **Cesare Beccaria** 贝卡里亚, in *On Crimes and Punishments*, criticised torture and argued for proportionate punishment. **Anne Robert Jacques Turgot** 杜尔哥 attempted economic reforms, including freer grain trade, from inside the French monarchy. Their examples help explain institutional criticism or reform when relevant to a prompt.


DE L'ESPRIT
DES
LOIX
OU DU RAPPORT QUE LES LOIX DOIVENT AVOIR AVEC LA CONSTITUTION DE CHAQUE GOUVERNEMENT, LES MOEURS, LE CLIMAT, LA RELIGION, LE COMMERCE, &c.
à quoi l'Auteur a ajouté
Des recherches nouvelles sur les Loix Romaines touchant les Successions, sur les Loix Françoises, & sur les Loix Féodales.
TOME PREMIER.
A GENEVE,
Chez BARRILLOT & FILS.

The title page of the first edition of Montesquieu's The Spirit of the Laws (Geneva, 1748)

The **revival of German Pietism** 虔敬主义 stressed personal devotion and religious experience. It offers evidence that a greater emphasis on reason coexisted with emotional and spiritual religion. It should not be reduced to a purely anti-rational reaction or treated as the answer every question about the Enlightenment requires.

18th-Century Society and Demographics

In the seventeenth century, small holdings, low agricultural productivity, poor transport and adverse weather could disrupt food supplies and cause subsistence crises. Higher productivity and improved transport later increased food availability and reduced the frequency of such crises. Changes were uneven.

The **agricultural revolution** 农业革命 began in the Low Countries and England. Landowners used **enclosure** 圈地 - fencing off open fields and common land into private farms - to farm more efficiently. New crops such as turnips and clover (which fed livestock and restored the soil) replaced the fallow year, Jethro Tull's seed drill (about 1701) planted seed in rows, and the potato spread across Europe as a cheap, high-yield food. Enclosure raised output but pushed many poor families off the land and into wage labour or the towns.

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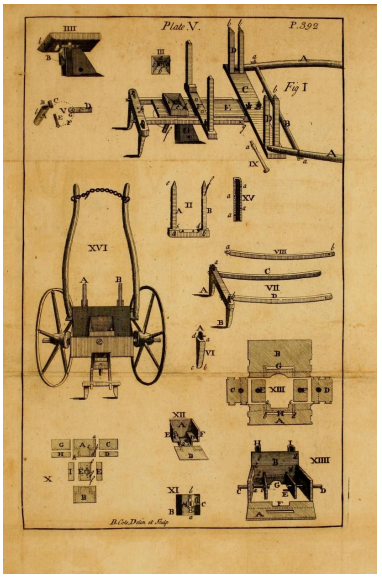


Plate of Jethro Tull's seed drill from his Horse-Hoeing Husbandry: sowing in rows was part of the agricultural revolution

In the countryside, the **putting-out system** 外包生产制, also called **cottage industry** 家庭手工业, grew: merchants delivered raw wool or cotton to rural families, who spun and wove at home and were paid by the piece. It gave families extra income, and it is the stage just before the factories of Unit 6.

Disease patterns also mattered: plague declined as a major epidemic disease, and smallpox **inoculation** 接种 reduced mortality. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu promoted variolation after learning about it in the Ottoman Empire. Variolation deliberately exposed people to smallpox material and carried serious risks. Jenner's later vaccination used a different approach. They should not be treated as the same procedure or as the sole cause of European population growth.

The **European marriage pattern** 欧洲婚姻模式, involving late marriage and a significant proportion never marrying, limited births. In some areas birth-control methods also mattered. Falling infant and child mortality and increasing commercial wealth encouraged greater resources for children, education and domestic comfort.

Agricultural change could reduce demand for rural labour, while cities offered work. Migration increased urban populations, strained services and created challenges over housing, health, poverty and policing. People did not migrate for one identical reason.

Evidence to weigh: London grew from about 575,000 people in 1700 to about 960,000 at the first census in 1801, yet for most of the century its parish registers recorded more burials than baptisms. The growth must therefore have come mainly from people moving in from the countryside. The registers do not show why they came (work, wages, cheaper bread or escape from a failing farm), so other records are needed to weigh those causes.

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18th-Century Culture and Arts

Despite **censorship** 审查, newspapers, books, pamphlets and periodicals reached a growing **literate public** 识字公众 and helped form public opinion. A **public sphere** 公共领域 developed through discussion and print, but unequal access and censorship continued. Representations of peoples outside Europe could challenge accepted norms; they could also reflect European assumptions rather than give neutral descriptions.

Baroque art and music often promoted religious feeling or royal power. Eighteenth-century art and literature increasingly represented private life and commercial society. Neoclassicism expressed ideals of citizenship and political participation. These trends overlapped; religious and royal themes did not suddenly disappear.

The **consumer revolution** 消费革命 increased goods for homes, including porcelain, textiles, mirrors and prints. A growing concern for **privacy** 隐私 shaped domestic spaces and reading about private emotions. Coffeehouses, taverns, theatres and opera houses provided leisure venues. Access to goods and leisure varied with income and social position.



A Paris salon (Lemonnier's 1812 reconstruction of Madame Geoffrin's salon in 1755): ideas read aloud and argued over outside the court and the Church

Enlightened and Other Approaches to Power

Enlightened absolutism 开明专制 describes experiments in Enlightenment-inspired reform under rulers who retained monarchical authority. Frederick II of Prussia and Joseph II of Austria are illustrative cases. Legal, administrative, educational or toleration measures could serve improvement and strengthen the state. Policies varied and met resistance; reform should not automatically be called democratisation, nor assumed to have no effects on existing institutions.

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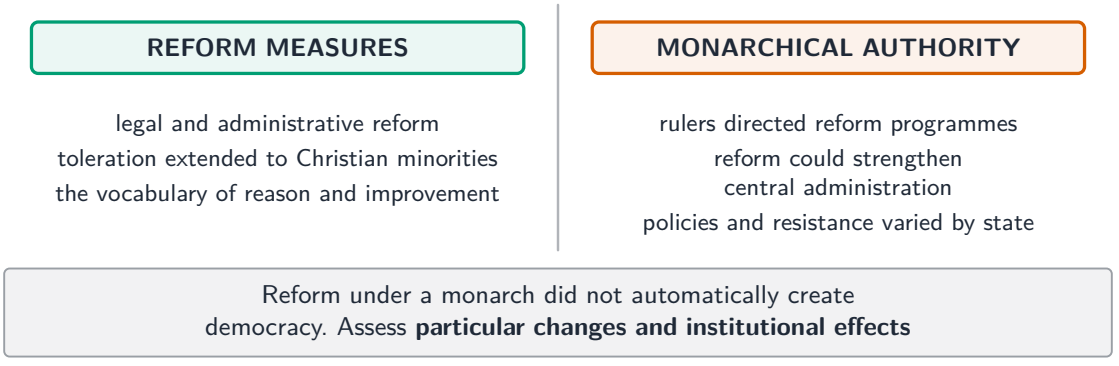
Three cases, with dates:

- **Frederick II** of Prussia (r. 1740-86) called himself "the first servant of the state", abolished most judicial torture and allowed wide religious toleration - but kept the nobility's power over serfs and spent heavily on the army.
- **Joseph II** of Austria (r. 1780-90) went furthest: the **Edict of Toleration** 宽容敕令 (1781) gave Protestants and Orthodox Christians the right to worship, and his Serfdom Patent of the same year ended personal serfdom. Nobles and the Church resisted, and many reforms were withdrawn after his death.
- **Catherine II** of Russia (r. 1762-96) corresponded with Voltaire and Diderot and drafted the *Nakaz* (1767) for a law commission, but after the Pugachev revolt (1773-75) she gave more power to the nobility and serfdom spread.

The pattern is the examinable point: reforms that made the state richer and more efficient survived more often than reforms that threatened the nobility.

By 1800 most governments in western and central Europe had extended toleration to Christian minorities; some states extended civil equality to Jews. Toleration and civil equality are different, and neither means that all groups immediately received equal rights everywhere.

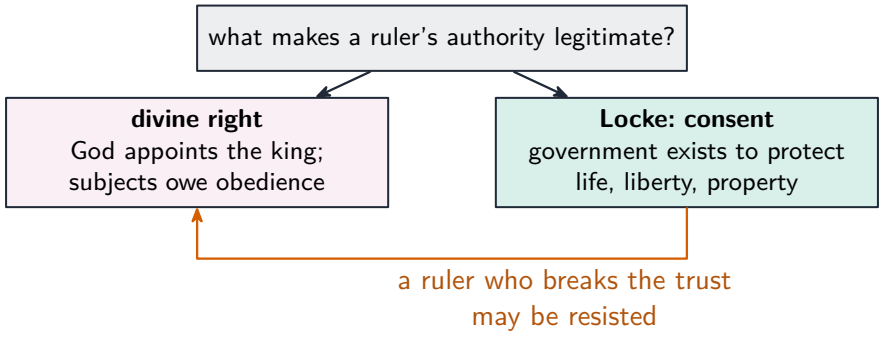
After Westphalia, limits on imperial authority formed part of the context in which **Prussia rose to power** 普鲁士崛起 and the Habsburgs shifted their focus eastward. This was a longer political development, not a direct consequence of Enlightenment philosophy alone.



Reform measures and retained monarchical authority must be assessed separately

Causation in the Age of the Enlightenment

Practice: explain how Locke's account of consent and rights could challenge a claim that royal authority rests on divine right. **Model reasoning:** if government is justified by consent and its protection of rights, a ruler's divine claim alone cannot establish legitimacy. The challenge concerns the basis of authority. It does not show that all people immediately gained a vote or that the idea automatically caused a revolution.



an intellectual challenge, not an immediate vote for all or an automatic revolution

Divine right or consent

For causal explanation, identify the idea or process, explain a link to the outcome, and use specific evidence. Distinguish intellectual challenge from immediate institutional change. Multiple causes can interact; a population total alone does not prove a medical intervention caused the change.

Worked example: a short-answer question

Each part needs only one or two sentences: **answer** the question, **cite** one specific piece of evidence, and **explain** how it supports the answer.

Answer (a), (b) and (c).

(a) Briefly describe ONE way the Scientific Revolution challenged traditional authority.

(b) Briefly describe ONE Enlightenment idea about government.

(c) Briefly explain ONE limit on 'enlightened absolutism'.

Model answer.

- (a) Copernicus and Galileo supported a Sun-centred universe, challenging the Church's teaching and the authority of ancient writers.
- (b) Montesquieu argued for the separation of powers between legislative, executive and judicial branches.
- (c) Rulers such as Frederick II and Catherine II made reforms but kept absolute power, and Catherine tightened serfdom.

Exam tips

Answer the actual command with relevant evidence. Distinguish claim, observation and inference. Explain connections instead of listing names. Discuss continuity, disagreements or limits when they answer the prompt, rather than treating them as automatic scoring additions. Analyse a source's purpose and audience before assuming that its claim describes everyone's experience.

Common mistakes.

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- Writing that the Scientific Revolution "ended religion". Copernicus was a church official, Newton was deeply religious, and most scientists saw nature as God's creation; what changed was **where authority over knowledge came from**.
- Mixing up Hobbes and Locke. Both used a social contract; only Locke allowed the people to replace a ruler.
- Calling every Enlightenment thinker a democrat. Voltaire hoped for reform from enlightened kings, and Rousseau excluded women from politics.
- Treating enlightened absolutism as a contradiction to be dismissed. Explain what changed **and** what the ruler kept.
- Citing the agricultural revolution without saying who gained (landowners, growing towns) and who lost (the rural poor).

Practice.

1. Describe ONE way Galileo's work challenged traditional sources of authority.
2. Explain ONE difference between Hobbes's and Locke's views on the power of rulers.
3. Explain ONE way Enlightenment ideas changed religious practice in Europe in the period 1650-1815.
4. Explain ONE way the agricultural revolution affected European society in the eighteenth century.
5. Explain ONE way Joseph II's reforms reflected Enlightenment ideas, and ONE limit on them.

Answers.

1. His telescope observations, such as the moons of Jupiter, supported a heliocentric universe based on observation, challenging the authority of Aristotle and of the Church, which put him on trial in 1633.
2. Hobbes argued that subjects must obey an absolute sovereign to escape the war of all against all, while Locke argued that government exists to protect natural rights and may be replaced if it violates them.
3. Deism and calls for toleration led states to tolerate religious minorities, as in Joseph II's Edict of Toleration (1781), making religion more a private matter.
4. Enclosure and new crops raised food output and supported population growth, but pushed many rural poor into wage labour or migration to towns.
5. His Edict of Toleration (1781) applied the Enlightenment idea of religious toleration; but noble and church resistance meant many reforms were reversed after his death in 1790.

Sources and practice provenance

Scope: local College Board AP European History Course and Exam Description, topics 4.1–4.7, PDF pages 103–113 and the topic continuation. London figures: E. A. Wrigley, "A Simple Model of London's Importance in Changing English Society and Economy,

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1650–1750", *Past and Present* 37 (1967); the 1801 census.

Historical checks: Royal College of Physicians: Harvey's experiments in circulation; National Library of Medicine: variolation; Jenner Institute: Edward Jenner; Wollstonecraft's 1792 text, public-domain transcription. Teaching paraphrases are labelled and are not quotations from these works.

Vocabulary card meanings

Scientific Revolution: The sixteenth- and seventeenth-century shift toward observation and mathematical laws of nature. Copernicus: The astronomer who proposed that the planets orbit the sun. Galileo: The scientist who used a telescope and defended a sun-centred cosmos. William Harvey: The physician who described the circulation of the blood. integrated system: A view of nature as parts working together under laws. Francis Bacon: The English thinker who urged systematic observation and experiment. inductive and deductive reasoning: Arguing from observations up to a rule, and from a rule down to a conclusion. Locke: The English thinker who argued for natural rights and government by consent. Rousseau: The Genevan thinker who wrote on the general will and inequality. Adam Smith's: The Scottish writer associated with the case for markets coordinating production. Voltaire: A French writer who attacked intolerance and defended free speech. Diderot: An editor of the Encyclopedia, a major Enlightenment reference work. deism, scepticism, and atheism: Belief in a non-intervening creator, doubt, and denial of God. Montesquieu: The French writer who argued for separating powers in government. Cesare Beccaria: The Italian writer who argued that punishment should be proportionate and deter crime. Anne Robert Jacques Turgot: A French reform minister who tried to loosen economic restrictions before the Revolution. revival of German Pietism: A Protestant movement stressing personal devotion over formal orthodoxy. European marriage pattern: A pattern of relatively late marriage and many people never marrying. inoculation: Deliberately giving someone material from a disease such as smallpox, a step that could itself cause serious illness. censorship: State or church suppression of unapproved writing and speech. literate public: A growing audience that could read books, pamphlets, and newspapers. consumer revolution: Wider buying of goods such as cloth, sugar, and printed items. Prussia rose to power: The Hohenzollern state's climb to great-power status through army and administration. René Descartes: The French thinker who made doubt and reason the starting point of knowledge. empiricism: The claim that knowledge is built mainly from sensory experience. rationalism: The claim that reason is the chief source of knowledge. scepticism: Withholding assent from claims that are not well supported. Mary Wollstonecraft: The English writer who argued for women's education and rights. public sphere: The space of debate in print, salons, and coffeehouses, outside the court.

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Conflict, Crisis, and Reaction in the Late 18th Century

AP European History

Contextualizing 18th-Century States

Why it matters. On 14 July 1789 a Paris crowd looking for gunpowder stormed the Bastille, an old royal fortress, and killed its governor. Five years later the same revolution was executing its own leaders. Twenty-six years later the kings of Europe met in Vienna to make sure nothing like it happened again. Few periods change so much so fast, and AP questions return to it constantly: what the Revolution promised, what it delivered, and how the rest of Europe answered.



The storming of the Bastille, 14 July 1789, painted by Jean-Pierre Houël.

Why could a government promise equal rights and then punish political opponents? Unit 5 follows changes in authority during **commercial rivalry** 商业竞争, revolution, Napoleon's rule and the settlement of 1815. **Political sovereignty** 政治主权 means the source of a government's authority. Monarchs, elected representatives and an emperor offered different answers to who should rule.

European trade linked distant regions and helped states fund wars. **Enlightenment** 启蒙运动 arguments questioned inherited privilege. Yet trade, debt and new ideas did not automatically produce a revolution everywhere. In France, these developments interacted with unequal privileges, resistance to tax reform, bread shortages and political choices.

The Rise of Global Markets

European commerce accelerated a worldwide economic network. Atlantic rivalry connected ports, **colonies** 殖民地, **plantation** 种植园 goods and the forced labour of **enslaved people** 被奴役者. States protected trade with fleets and sought colonies and trading advantages; commercial rivalry influenced **diplomacy** 外交 and war. Do not describe this network as free or equal exchange for everyone.



Claude-Joseph Vernet, the port of Bordeaux (1759): Atlantic ports like this tied France to colonial plantation trade

In Asia, Portuguese, Dutch, French and British interests competed. British power became dominant in India, while the Dutch controlled the East Indies. These outcomes developed over time; they do not mean Europeans controlled all Asian trade or territory. Overseas influence mattered alongside land warfare and **alliances** 同盟 within Europe.

Practice. In the 1660s Jean-Baptiste Colbert, Louis XIV's finance minister, founded the French East India Company (1664) and paid for a larger navy to protect colonial trade. Explain a connection between commerce and state power, and identify a limit of the claim that commerce always benefits the state.

Worked reasoning. Naval protection can defend routes and commercial income, helping a state compete with rivals. But fleets and wars cost money. Increased commerce can coexist with higher state debt; benefits to merchants do not prove that the treasury or enslaved workers benefited.

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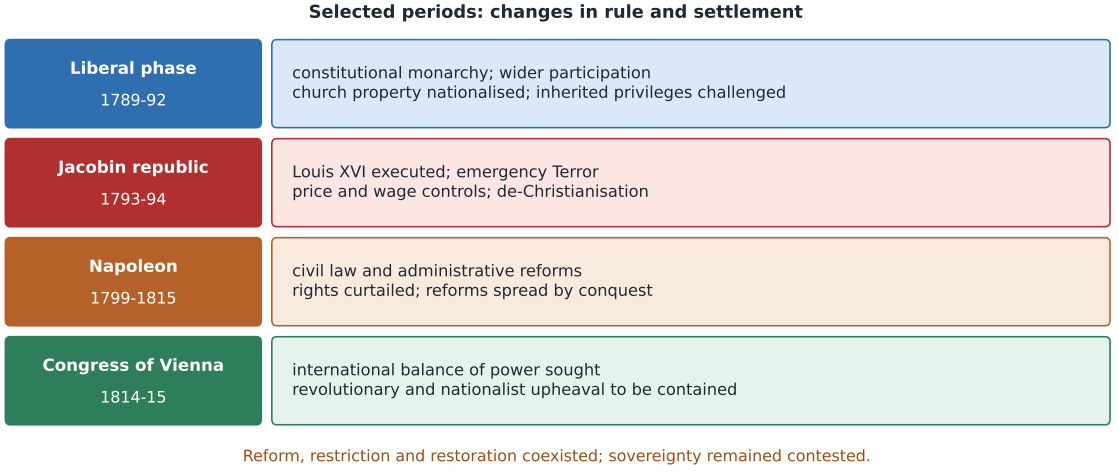
Britain's Ascendency

Rivalry between Britain and France produced wars in Europe and overseas. The **Seven Years' War** 七年战争 strengthened Britain's colonial and naval position. France later supported the American Revolution against Britain. This helped weaken Britain's position in North America but added to French war costs. Britain's growing commercial power did not make every war a British victory.

France entered the 1780s with a **fiscal crisis** 财政危机: the government could not readily meet its financial commitments. War debt mattered, but privileges and resistance to changes in taxation also limited the government's options. These pressures connect international rivalry to the political crisis in France without making debt a complete explanation of revolution.

The French Revolution

The Revolution had several interacting causes. Long-term social and political **grievances** 不满 concerned privileges, taxation and representation. Enlightenment ideas supplied arguments about rights and **legitimate authority** 合法权威. Short-term fiscal and economic crises intensified these tensions: state debt obstructed government action, while expensive or scarce bread increased popular distress. A short-term crisis is a cause too; calling it a **trigger** 导火索 does not remove its causal importance.



An overview of selected periods, not an exhaustive list of revolutionary governments; Vienna was an international settlement

1789, step by step. Louis XVI called the **Estates-General** 三级会议 in May 1789 to approve new taxes. It voted by order, so the clergy and nobles could outvote the **Third Estate** 第三等级 - everyone else, about 97 per cent of the population. On 17 June the Third Estate declared itself the National Assembly; on 20 June, locked out of its hall, it swore the **Tennis Court Oath** 网球场宣誓 not to separate until France

had a constitution. The fall of the Bastille (14 July) and a wave of rural panic, the Great Fear, pushed the Assembly to abolish feudal dues and noble privileges on the night of **4 August**. The Declaration of Rights followed on 26 August.

The **first, or liberal, phase** 自由派阶段 began in 1789. The **National Assembly** 国民议会 challenged inherited privilege and issued the **Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen** 人权和公民权宣言. Church property was **nationalised** 收归国有, and the **Civil Constitution of the Clergy** 教士公民组织法 brought the Church under new state arrangements. The Constitution of 1791 established a **constitutional monarchy** 君主立宪. Participation expanded, but political equality was limited: women lacked equal political rights, and voting arrangements distinguished between men by property or tax qualifications. Abolishing **hereditary privileges** 世袭特权 did not abolish all social inequality.

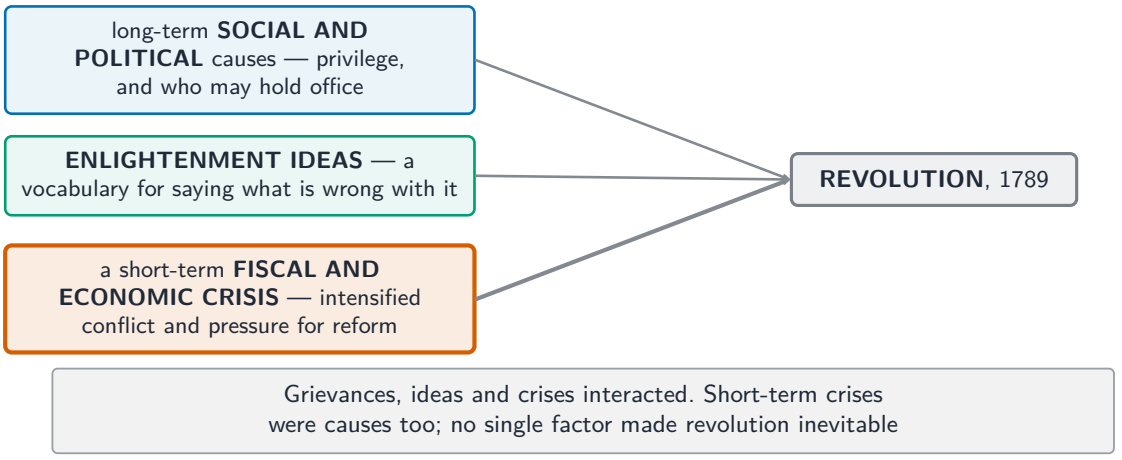
Changes achieved by the liberal phase - the answer bank for "describe one change": the end of feudal dues and tax exemptions (August 1789); equality before the law and careers open to talent; the sale of Church lands and the Civil Constitution of the Clergy (1790); France divided into 83 uniform departments; guilds abolished; and a constitutional monarchy with an elected Legislative Assembly (1791).

The monarchy fell and a **republic** 共和国 was established in 1792; Louis XVI was executed in January 1793. In 1793–1794 the **radical Jacobin republic** 雅各宾共和国, associated with **Robespierre** 罗伯斯庇尔 and the **Committee of Public Safety** 救国委员会, faced foreign war and internal opposition. The **Reign of Terror** 恐怖统治 used emergency **coercion** 强制手段 against suspected opponents. Price and wage controls and **de-Christianisation** 去基督教化 were also features of the radical period. Revolutionary promises and actual political freedoms could conflict.

Mass conscription 大规模征兵, including the levée en masse of 1793, mobilised people and resources for war. Revolutionary armies defended France and carried changes into other territories. Conquest could spread reforms and also provoke resistance. After Robespierre's fall in 1794, the **Directory** 督政府 governed from 1795 to 1799. Napoleon's **coup** 政变 in 1799 led to the **Consulate** 执政府 and later the Empire; these were not simply another Jacobin government.

Women took active roles. The October 1789 march on Versailles joined concerns about bread with pressure on royal authority. Olympe de Gouges demanded recognition of women's rights in 1791. Some legal changes, including revolutionary divorce provisions, improved women's options briefly. However, women did not gain equal national political **citizenship** 公民权, and women's political clubs were closed in 1793. Participation in political action is different from possession of equal formal political rights.

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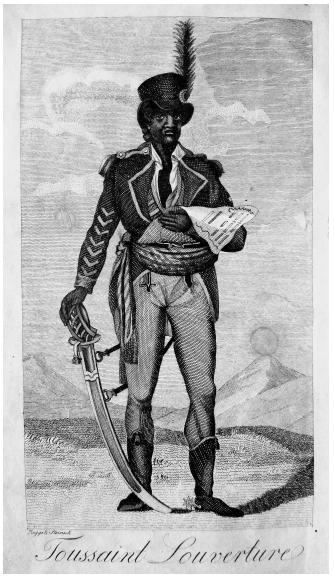
Grievances, ideas and short-term crises help explain both demands and timing; no single factor makes revolution inevitable

Causation task. Use three pieces of evidence: inherited privileges shaped taxation and access to power; French support for the American Revolution added to state debt; bread shortages increased distress. Explain how two factors interacted. Do not merely list them.

Worked reasoning. Debt increased pressure to change taxation, while privileged groups' resistance made reform politically difficult. Bread distress widened popular anger beyond the government's finances. This connects institutional barriers and economic pressures. It does not show that every indebted state had to experience the same revolution.

The French Revolution's Effects

Revolutionary ideals of equality and human rights inspired supporters and exposed exclusions. In Saint-Domingue, the French colony that became Haiti, enslaved people fought for freedom in a revolt beginning in 1791. **Toussaint L'Ouverture** 卢维杜尔 became a leading figure in a struggle involving local groups and foreign powers. Haiti became independent in 1804. Do not reduce this result to French ideas alone: enslaved people's organisation, military resistance and decisions were essential. Nor should Toussaint be described as the person who declared independence in 1804.



Toussaint Louverture in an engraving of 1806.

Supporters welcomed challenges to hereditary privilege and arbitrary authority. Critics such as Edmund Burke condemned revolutionary violence and attacks on inherited institutions. The events strengthened **conservative** 保守的 arguments, but did not invent every defence of tradition. Different observers could support some reforms and reject other actions.

Source-comparison practice. Compare two declarations, given here in paraphrase: A, the 1789 Declaration connects government with equal rights and liberty; B, de Gouges's 1791 declaration argues that women should receive rights denied in practice. Identify a shared principle and a difference in the problem each addresses.

Worked comparison. Both use a language of rights to judge political authority. A proclaims general principles against the old order; B challenges the exclusion of women from the revolutionary settlement. B shows that a general promise is not evidence that every group already enjoyed it. The author's position helps explain the emphasis, but does not by itself prove or disprove the claim.

Napoleon's Rise, Dominance, and Defeat

As first consul and then emperor, **Napoleon** 拿破仑 introduced **enduring domestic reforms** 持久的国内改革. The **Civil Code** 民法典 of 1804 unified civil law and protected property. Central administration, education and careers based on ability strengthened state institutions. The **Concordat** 政教协定 of 1801 reached a settlement with the Catholic Church. These measures preserved or adapted some revolutionary changes.

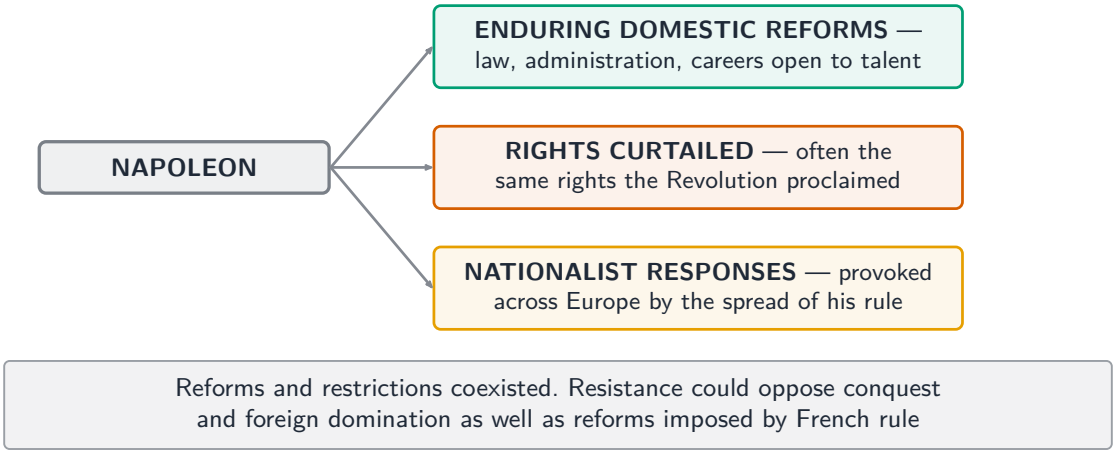
At the same time, **censorship** 审查, secret police and controlled representative institutions limited political liberty. The Civil Code strengthened husbands' authority and restricted married women's legal autonomy. Legal uniformity therefore did not mean

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equal rights for every person. Reforms and restrictions coexisted, but each needs a specific example and explanation.

Continuity with the radical phase. Exam questions ask how Napoleon *continued* the Jacobin republic, not only how he ended it. Strong answers point to: **centralised power** in Paris, with prefects in every department taking orders from the centre as the Committee of Public Safety's agents had; **mass conscription** for constant war; the **suppression of opposition** through police and censorship; and the use of **plebiscites** 全民公决 that claimed popular sovereignty while leaving real power in one person's hands.

Military organisation and tactics helped Napoleon impose direct or indirect control over much of continental Europe. French rule carried legal and administrative reforms, but conquest, demands for resources and foreign domination could provoke opposition. Nationalist responses included resistance in Spain and the German states. Not every opponent had identical aims, and **nationalism** 民族主义 was not caused by legal reform alone. The Russian campaign and subsequent **coalition** 联盟 warfare weakened French power; Napoleon was defeated in 1814 and finally in 1815.



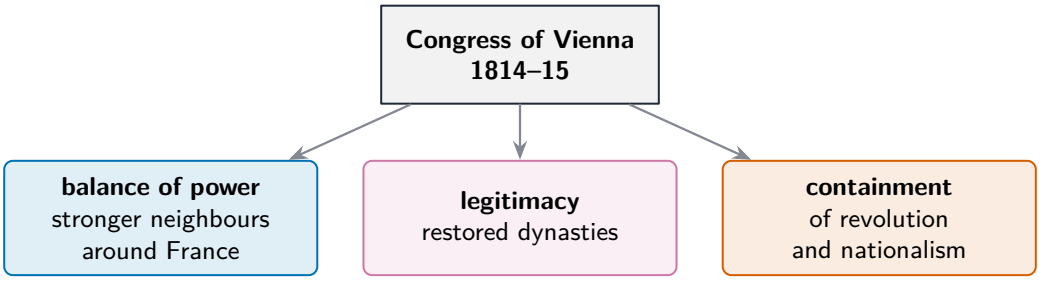
Opposition could respond to conquest and foreign rule as well as to changes imposed by France

Evaluation task. Assess the claim that Napoleon simply ended the Revolution. Evidence supplied: Civil Code and protection of property; censorship and secret police; restrictions on married women; legal changes introduced into conquered territories.

Worked judgement. Napoleon preserved and spread some legal and property changes while restricting political liberty and reinforcing unequal family authority. The claim is too broad because it treats all revolutionary aims as one thing. A defensible answer distinguishes legal reform from political participation and uses the evidence to explain each.

The Congress of Vienna

After Napoleon's defeat by a coalition, the **Congress of Vienna (1814-1815)** 维也纳会议 sought a balance of power and the containment of revolutionary or nationalist upheaval. **Balance of power** 均势 means arranging relations so no single state can easily dominate the others. Territorial settlements and cooperation among major powers served this purpose. Restored **dynasties** 王朝 also asserted traditional **legitimacy** 正统性.



related but distinct: preventing a dominant empire is not granting self-government

Three related aims



Europe after the Congress of Vienna (1815): borders redrawn to restore a balance of power

These aims were related but distinct. Preventing another dominant empire was not the same as granting a population national **self-government** 自治. The settlement did not erase all revolutionary reforms or nationalist ideas, and later challenges did not make every part of it an immediate failure. Do not place Vienna inside a sequence of French revolutionary governments: it was an international settlement.

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Practice. At Vienna in 1815 the powers gave Prussia the Rhineland to stand guard on France's border, and refused Poles and Italians any national government of their own. Explain how these decisions can serve two different aims of the settlement.

Worked reasoning. Strengthening a neighbour can help balance French power. Rejecting self-government can defend dynastic authority and contain nationalism. The two decisions are consistent with the settlement's aims even though a nationalist critic might oppose them.

Concert of Europe 欧洲协调. The great powers agreed to keep meeting to protect the settlement. Its **causes**: fear that revolution would spread again, and memory of how one state (Napoleon's France) had dominated the continent. The Quadruple Alliance (Austria, Prussia, Russia, Britain, 1815) became five powers when France was readmitted in 1818. Austria's foreign minister **Metternich** 梅特涅 led the conservative side.

Its **effects** in the first half of the 1800s:

- **Intervention against revolution.** Austrian troops crushed a liberal revolt in Naples (1821), and the Congress of Verona (1822) approved a French army that restored the absolute king of Spain (1823).
- **Repression at home.** The **Carlsbad Decrees** 卡尔斯巴德决议 (1819) censored the press and watched universities across the German Confederation.
- **Limits and division.** Britain refused to join interventions against revolutions abroad, and Britain, France and Russia supported Greek independence from the Ottoman Empire (recognised in 1830) - nationalism winning with great-power help. The revolutions of 1848 showed the Concert could no longer hold back change, and the Crimean War (1853-56) set the great powers against one another.

The Concert prevented a general European war for about forty years, which is the strongest argument for its success.

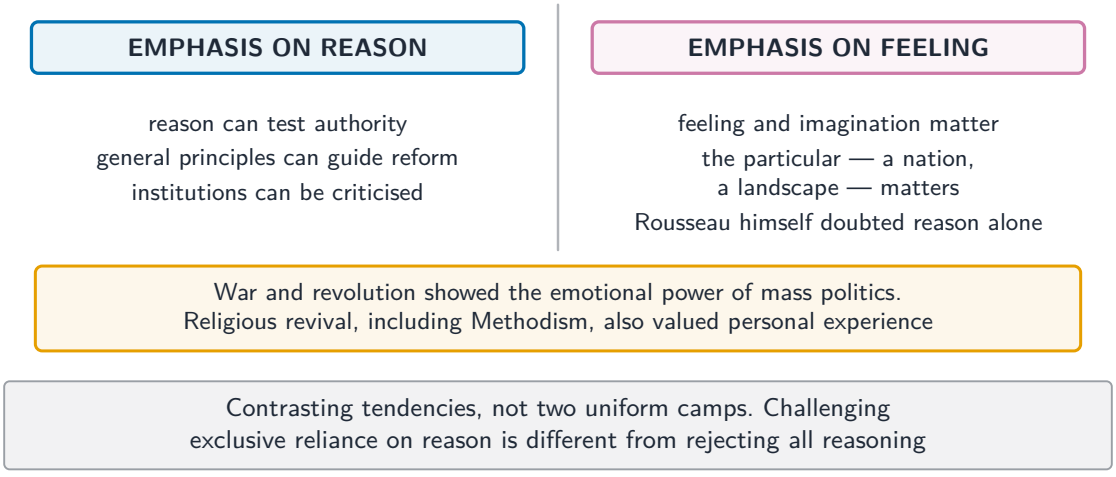
Modelled LEQ thesis for *"the most significant change in international relations, 1789-1815"*: *"The most significant change was the shift from limited wars between dynasties to total wars between nations: the levée en masse of 1793 let revolutionary France field armies of hundreds of thousands, Napoleon used them to redraw the map of Europe, and the coalitions that defeated him responded at Vienna by creating, for the first time, a lasting system of great-power cooperation to keep the balance of power."*

Romanticism

Romanticism 浪漫主义 offered a **challenge to Enlightenment rationality** 对启蒙理性的挑战 by valuing **emotions** 情感, imagination, nature and particular historical or national traditions. Rousseau questioned exclusive reliance on reason and stressed feeling in moral improvement. This shows debate within eighteenth-century thought, not a complete separation of two uniform camps. Romanticism also involved art and literature; it was not only a political argument.

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Religious revival 宗教复兴 included **Methodism** 循道宗, associated with John Wesley. Personal religious experience and communal devotion challenged accounts of human life based only on rational calculation. Such movements overlapped in time with Enlightenment thought; they were not all caused by the French Revolution. War, revolution and rebellion also showed the emotional power of mass politics and nationalism. This is a historical context, not proof that emotion always produces sound political judgement.



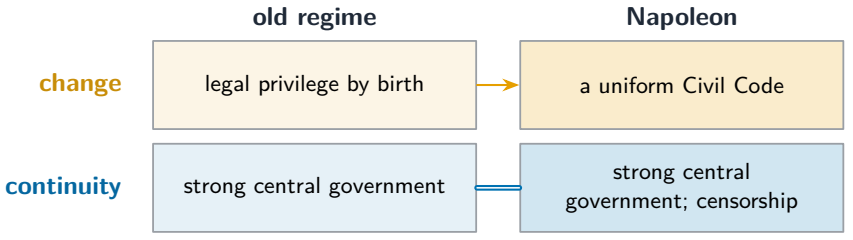
These are contrasting tendencies, not the views of every Enlightenment or Romantic thinker

Interpretation task. Two positions from the 1790s: A, Thomas Paine (*Rights of Man*, 1791), says institutions should be judged by general rational principles; B, Edmund Burke (*Reflections on the Revolution in France*, 1790), says political judgement must also respect feeling and a community's inherited history. Explain a difference and why it does not prove that B rejects all reasoning.

Worked reasoning. Paine stresses general standards; Burke gives more weight to sentiment and particular experience. Saying reason is insufficient is different from saying it is worthless. Connect this distinction to Rousseau and Romanticism, rather than claiming that either side owned reason or feeling.

Continuity and Change in 18th-Century States

Compare a defined starting situation with a later one. Specify the dimension: political participation, legal privilege, state administration, religion or national identity. Change in one dimension can coexist with continuity in another. A question about change does not always require survival beyond its stated end date; follow the actual prompt.



Change and continuity on named dimensions

Practice. Explain one political change and one continuity in France between the old regime and Napoleon's rule. Evidence supplied: challenges to hereditary privilege from 1789; the Civil Code; censorship under Napoleon; continued strong central government.

Worked response. Legal distinctions based on inherited privilege were challenged and replaced by a more uniform civil code, changing the legal basis of authority. Strong central control nevertheless continued, now under a different regime, and censorship limited political expression. This is a comparison of specific features, not a claim that all monarchs and emperors governed identically or that national sovereignty became universally accepted by 1815.

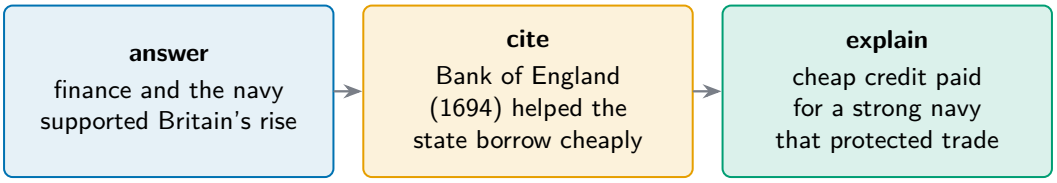
Worked example: a short-answer question

Each part needs only one or two sentences: **answer** the question, **cite** one specific piece of evidence, and **explain** how it supports the answer.

> Answer (a), (b) and (c).
>
> (a) Briefly describe ONE way global markets changed European consumption in the 1700s.
>
> (b) Briefly explain ONE reason for Britain's rise as a great power.
>
> (c) Briefly explain ONE effect of the Agricultural Revolution.

Model answer.

- (a) Goods such as sugar, tea, coffee and tobacco from Atlantic and Asian trade became part of everyday European life.
- (b) A strong navy protected its trade, and institutions such as the Bank of England (1694) helped the state borrow cheaply.
- (c) **Enclosure** 圈地 and new methods such as **crop rotation** 轮作 raised output with fewer workers, pushing rural labourers toward towns and factories.



part (b): one or two sentences, with one specific piece of evidence

Answer, cite, explain

Exam tips

Identify the prompt's period and task. Select relevant evidence and explain how it supports your claim. For a source question, connect purpose or perspective to the source's actual situation; a name alone is not an explanation. Distinguish a promise from its implementation. Use phase labels to organise chronology when useful, not as a guaranteed scoring formula. A short teaching model is not a complete DBQ or a promise of full marks.

Common mistakes.

- Calling the whole Revolution "the Terror". Name the phase: liberal (1789-92), radical (1792-94), Directory (1795-99), Napoleon (1799-1815).
- Saying the Declaration of the Rights of Man gave rights to everyone. Women, the poor (by tax qualification) and, until 1794, enslaved people in the colonies were left out.
- Treating Napoleon only as the end of the Revolution. Show what he kept (equality before the law, Church lands sold) as well as what he ended (political liberty).
- Confusing the Congress of Vienna (one settlement, 1814-15) with the Concert of Europe (the continuing system of meetings afterwards).
- Explaining the Haitian Revolution with French ideas alone, leaving out the enslaved people's own action.

Practice.

1. Describe ONE change in French society achieved by the National Assembly in 1789-91.
2. Explain ONE way the radicalisation of the Revolution after 1792 changed French government.
3. Explain ONE way Napoleon's regime continued policies of the radical phase of the Revolution.
4. Describe ONE cause of the Concert of Europe.
5. Explain ONE way the Concert of Europe affected European politics in the period 1815-1848.

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Answers.

1. On 4 August 1789 it abolished feudal dues and noble tax exemptions, so legal privilege by birth ended.
2. The monarchy was abolished and a republic declared in 1792, and the Committee of Public Safety concentrated power to run the war and the Terror.
3. Like the Committee of Public Safety, Napoleon centralised power, used mass conscription and suppressed opponents through police and censorship.
4. The great powers feared another revolution like 1789 and another single state dominating Europe as Napoleon's France had.
5. It supported intervention against liberal revolts, as when Austria crushed the Naples revolution in 1821, delaying liberal and national movements until 1848.

Sources and demand grounding

Scope: local AP European History CED, topics 5.1–5.9, PDF pages 120–131 (printed 112–123). Local 2025 set 1 FRQ and scoring guidelines were spot-checked: SAQ 2 asks about purpose, context and consequences of Spanish resistance to Napoleon; DBQ 1 evaluates revolutionary ideals in 1789–1794 through contrasting documents.

Further grounding: Office of the Historian: Haitian Revolution, Fondation Napoléon: Civil Code, Château de Versailles: the Revolution at Versailles. The Office of the Historian page is an archived institutional overview.

Vocabulary card meanings

fiscal crisis: A state's inability to raise enough revenue to meet its debts. first, or liberal, phase: The early French Revolution, which sought a constitutional order and civil rights. constitutional monarchy: A king or queen whose power is limited by a constitution. hereditary privileges: Advantages of rank passed down by birth, such as tax exemptions. radical Jacobin republic: The phase of the French Revolution that abolished the monarchy and ruled by emergency terror. Robespierre: A Jacobin leader associated with the most intense period of revolutionary terror. Reign of Terror: The 1793-94 period when the revolutionary government executed perceived enemies. de-Christianisation: Revolutionary campaigns that closed churches and replaced Christian symbols. Toussaint L'Ouverture: A leading figure in the revolt of enslaved people in Saint-Domingue, with independence declared after his death. Napoleon: The French general who seized power and built a European empire. enduring domestic reforms: Changes inside France, such as the law code, that outlasted the empire. Congress of Vienna (1814-1815): The settlement that restored monarchs and tried to stabilise Europe after Napoleon. Romanticism: An artistic movement that prized emotion, nature, and the individual imagination. challenge to Enlightenment rationality: A cultural pushback that doubted reason as the sole guide to truth. emotions: Feelings treated by Romantics as a source of truth and art. religious revival: A renewed intensity of Christian belief in the decades after the Revolution. Methodism: A Protestant movement, begun by the Wesleys, stressing personal conversion.

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Industrialization and Its Effects

AP European History

Contextualizing Industrialization

Why it matters. Manchester had about 75,000 people in 1801 and over 300,000 by 1851, most of them working in or around cotton mills. Visitors called it the first industrial city: rich, smoky, crowded and new. Every argument of the nineteenth century, about who should vote, what workers were owed and whether capitalism could be reformed, was in part an argument about places like Manchester.



Philip James de Loutherbourg, Coalbrookdale by Night (1801): ironworks furnaces light up the Shropshire valley

Unit 6 covers **c. 1815 to c. 1914** and rests on three claims the CED states as key concepts:

- The **Industrial Revolution** 工业革命 spread from Great Britain to the continent, where **the state played a greater role** in promoting industry.
- Everyday experience was shaped by industrialisation **depending on the level of industrial development** in a particular location - so the answer to "what was life like" is always *where, and how far along.*
- Political revolutions and the complications of industrialisation **triggered a range of ideological, governmental, and collective responses**.

That third claim is the unit's spine. Industrialisation created problems; the ideologies and reforms of the nineteenth century are the answers people proposed to them.

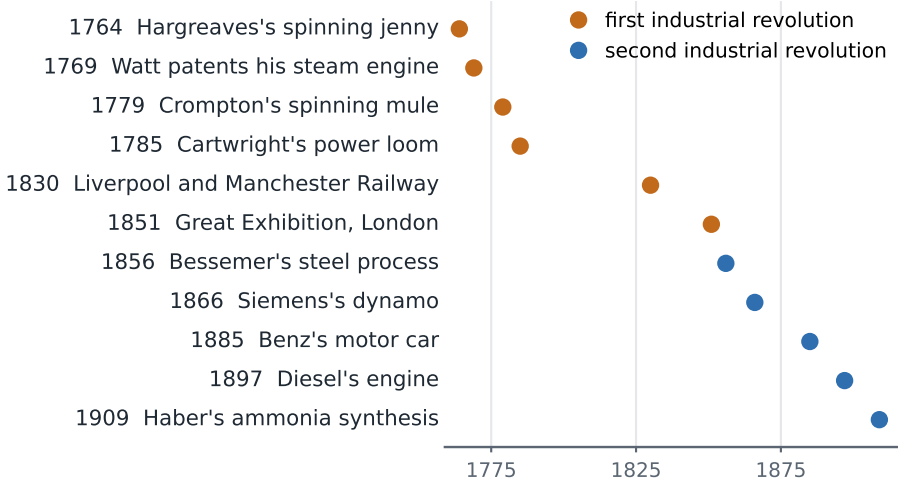
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The Spread of Industry Throughout Europe

Britain led, and the CED gives the reasons as a set:

- Ready supplies of **coal** 煤, **iron ore** 铁矿石, and other **raw materials** 原材料.
- **Mechanisation** 机械化 of **textile** 纺织 production, iron and steel, and the development of **machine tools**.
- Economic institutions and **human capital** 人力资本 - engineers, inventors, and **capitalists** 资本家.
- A **parliamentary government** 议会政府 that promoted commercial and industrial interests because those interests were **represented in Parliament** - the political condition, and the one students leave out.

The inventions, in order. Textiles came first: Hargreaves's spinning jenny (1764), Arkwright's water frame (1769), Crompton's mule (1779) and Cartwright's power loom (1785) moved spinning and then weaving out of homes and into factories powered by water and then steam. James Watt's improved **steam engine** 蒸汽机 (patented 1769) used far less coal than earlier engines and could drive machines anywhere. Coke-smelted iron made machines and rails cheaper. The Liverpool and Manchester Railway (1830), using George Stephenson's locomotives, was the first intercity railway run entirely by steam.



Orange: textiles, steam, iron and rail, led by Britain. Blue: steel, electricity, chemicals and engines, where Germany led as often as Britain.

The continent then diverged, which is the examinable comparison:

- **France** industrialised **more gradually**, with **government support** and with **less social dislocation** 社会失序 than Britain.
- Elsewhere, a combination of geography, lack of resources, the dominance of traditional landed **elites** 精英, and the persistence of serf-like labour relations **slowed industrialisation**. Belgium, with coal and iron near the British model, indus-

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trialised first on the continent. The German states formed a customs union, the **Zollverein** 关税同盟 (1834), which removed tariffs between them, and their governments built or subsidised railways.

- Because more primitive agricultural practices and landholding patterns persisted, **some areas of Europe lagged** behind entirely.

WHAT BRITAIN HAD	WHY OTHERS DIFFERED
coal and iron ore, close together	geography, and a lack of the resources
economic institutions and human capital	the dominance of traditional landed elites
a parliamentary government in which commercial interests were represented	France industrialised more gradually, with government support and less social dislocation

France is not a **failure** — it is a different path, with the state doing what British institutions did. That contrast is the answer

Both halves of the question: what Britain had, and what held others back



A spinning mule - one machine replacing the work of many hand spinners

Second Wave Industrialization

By 1914 mechanisation and the **factory system** 工厂制度 **had become the predominant modes of production**. During the **second industrial revolution** 第二次工业革命 (c. 1870-1914) industrial activity spread across more of Europe, and:

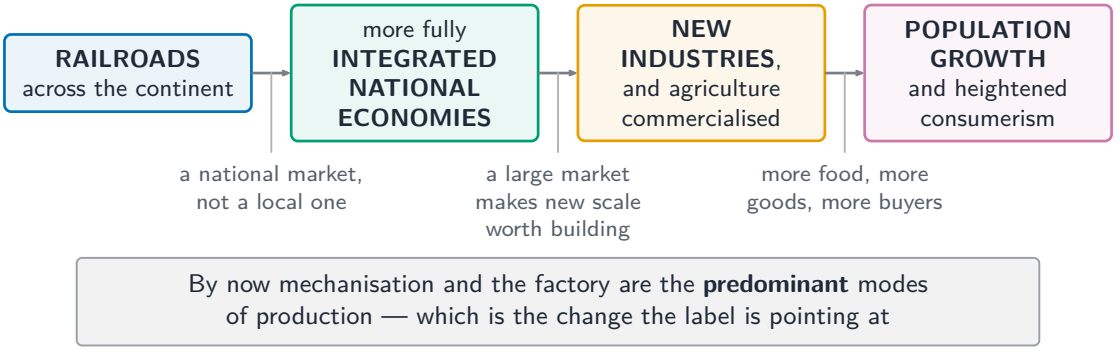
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- New technologies and means of communication and transport - notably **railroads** 铁路 - produced **more fully integrated national economies**.
- Efficient transport and other innovations **created new industries** and improved the distribution of goods.
- Together with better harvests from the **commercialisation of agriculture** 农业商业化, industrialisation promoted **population growth** 人口增长.
- A heightened **consumerism** 消费主义 developed.

What was new in the second wave. Bessemer's process (1856) made **steel** 钢 cheap enough for railways, ships and buildings. Electricity, from Siemens's dynamo (1866) to power stations and electric trams, gave factories and cities a new energy source. The chemical industry produced dyes, fertilisers and explosives; Fritz Haber's synthesis of ammonia (1909) made artificial fertiliser possible. The internal combustion engine powered Benz's motor car (1885) and Diesel's engine (1897). These industries needed scientific research and huge capital, so they grew in large companies and German **cartels** 卡特尔, and Germany overtook Britain in steel production by about 1900.

Worked LEQ thesis. *Evaluate the most significant difference between the first Industrial Revolution and the second Industrial Revolution.*

> The most significant difference was the role of science and large organisations: the first Industrial Revolution was driven by practical inventors and small family firms in British textiles, coal and iron, whereas the second depended on laboratory science and massive investment in steel, electricity and chemicals, organised by large corporations, banks and cartels, which allowed newly unified Germany to overtake Britain in key industries.



The second wave as a chain: rail integrates markets, and the rest follows

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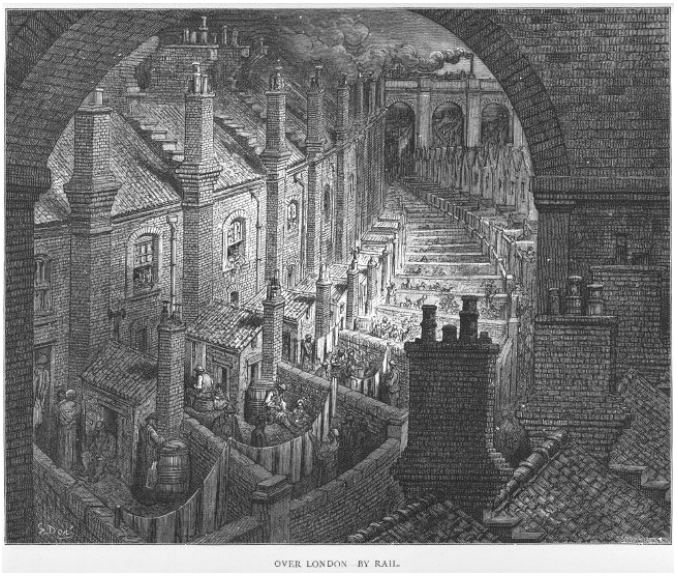


The Crystal Palace, 1851 - iron and glass at a scale only industrial production made possible

Social Effects of Industrialization

- In industrialised western and northern Europe, socioeconomic change created **divisions of labour** 劳动分工 leading to an **entrepreneurial** 创业的 and professional **middle class** 中产阶级 and an industrial **working class** 工人阶级.
- In less industrialised areas, the **dominance of agricultural elites continued into the twentieth century**.
- **Class identity** 阶级认同 developed and was reinforced through participation in **philanthropic** 慈善的, political, and social associations.
- Rural-to-urban migration produced **urban overcrowding** 城市拥挤 while affected rural areas suffered population loss.
- **Bourgeois families** focused on the **nuclear family** 核心家庭 and the **cult of domesticity** 家庭崇拜, with distinct **gender roles** 性别角色.
- By the century's end, higher wages, laws restricting the labour of children and women, **social welfare** 社会福利 programmes, and improved diet **raised living standards**.
- Economic motives for marriage diminished as the middle-class notion of **companionate marriage** 伴侣式婚姻 spread.
- **Leisure time** centred increasingly on the family or small groups, with new activities and spaces built for it.

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Gustave Doré, Over London by Rail (1872): crowded back-to-back housing beside the railway viaduct

Reforms with dates. Britain's Factory Act (1833) banned work for children under nine in textile mills and limited hours for older children; the Mines Act (1842) banned women and girls, and boys under ten, from underground work. Edwin Chadwick's report on sanitary conditions (1842) led to the Public Health Act (1848). In Paris, Baron Haussmann rebuilt the centre (1853–70) with wide boulevards, sewers and fresh water supply. Bismarck introduced sickness insurance (1883), accident insurance (1884) and old-age pensions (1889), partly to win workers away from the socialists.

Medicine. Edward Jenner's smallpox vaccination (1796), Louis Pasteur's germ theory (1860s), Joseph Lister's antiseptic surgery (1867) and John Snow's tracing of cholera to a London water pump (1854) changed how disease was understood. Their effects: falling death rates and population growth, public investment in sewers and clean water, and, with quinine, European survival in the tropics that made the New Imperialism possible.

The Concert of Europe and European Conservatism

The **Concert of Europe** 欧洲协调, or Congress System, sought to maintain the **status quo** 现状 through **collective action** and adherence to conservative principles.

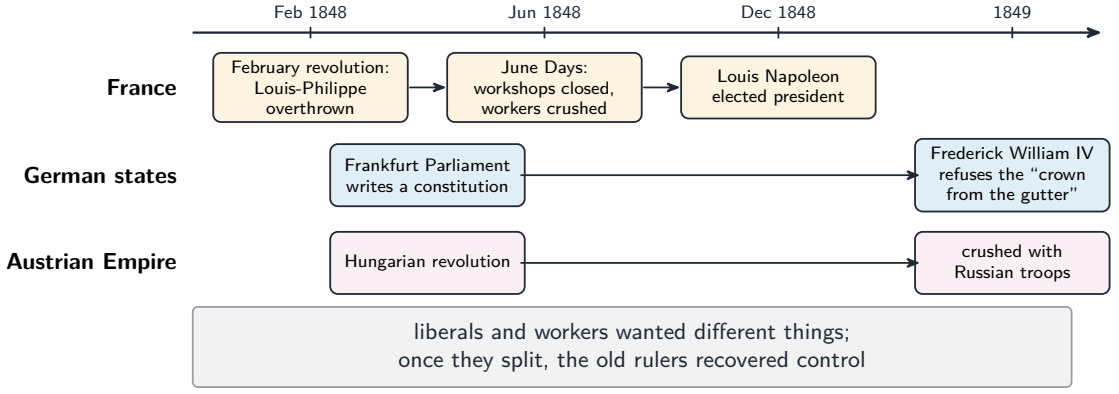
Conservatism 保守主义 in this period is a genuine ideology, not merely resistance: it supported traditional political and religious authorities on the ground that society is an organic whole with a natural **hierarchy** 等级制度, which cannot be redesigned by abstract reason without harm.

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Reactions and Revolutions

In the first half of the nineteenth century, revolutionaries attempted to **destroy the status quo**. The **revolutions of 1848** 1848 年革命, triggered by **economic hardship and discontent with the political order**, challenged conservative power across Europe - and largely failed, which is itself examinable.

1848 in three places. In **France**, the February revolution overthrew King Louis-Philippe; the Second Republic introduced universal male suffrage, but when it closed the national workshops for the unemployed, Paris workers rose and were crushed in the June Days, and Louis Napoleon was elected president in December. In the **German states**, the elected Frankfurt Parliament wrote a constitution and offered the crown of a united Germany to King Frederick William IV of Prussia, who refused a "crown from the gutter" in 1849. In the **Austrian Empire**, the Hungarian revolution was crushed in 1849 with Russian troops. Liberals and workers wanted different things, and once they split, the old rulers recovered control.

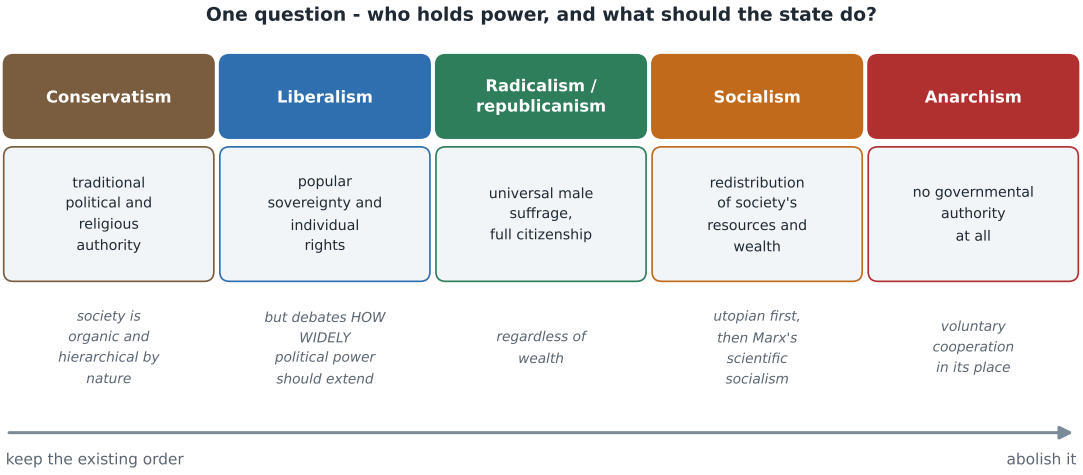


1848 in three places: early success, then a split between liberals and workers that let the old order back in

In **Russia**, **autocratic** 专制的 leaders pushed through **reform and modernisation** from above, including the **emancipation of the serfs** 农奴解放 - reform used as an alternative to revolution rather than a concession to it. Alexander II freed the serfs in 1861 after defeat in the Crimean War exposed Russia's backwardness, and created elected local councils, the *zemstvos* (1864). In the 1890s the finance minister Sergei Witte used state money and foreign loans to build heavy industry and the Trans-Siberian Railway.

Ideologies of Change and Reform Movements

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Questions ask you to distinguish these, so learn them as a set rather than one at a time

The CED names five positions, and they are best learned as answers to one question: *who should hold power, and what should the state do?*

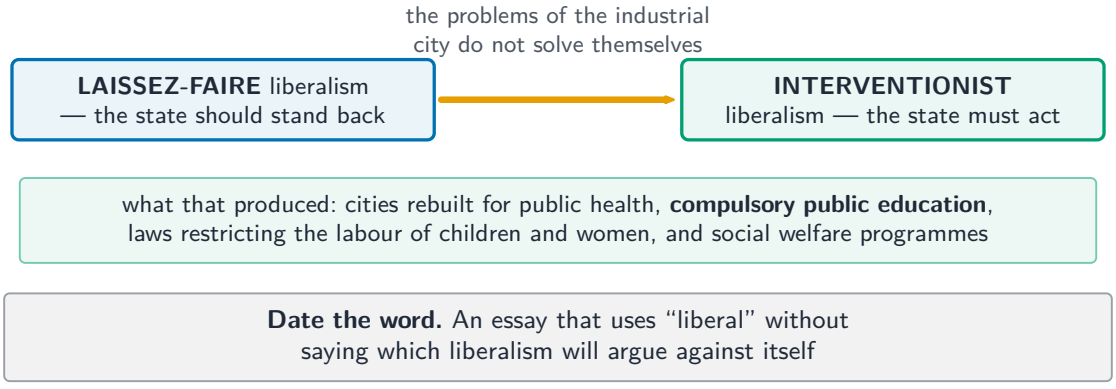
- **Liberals** 自由主义者 emphasised **popular sovereignty** 人民主权, **individual rights** 个人权利, and enlightened self-interest, but debated **how far all groups should share political power**.
- **Radicals** in Britain and **republicans** on the continent demanded **universal male suffrage** 男性普选权 and full citizenship without regard to wealth.
- **Socialists** 社会主义者 called for the **redistribution of society's resources and wealth**, evolving from **utopian** 空想的 to **Marxist scientific socialism**.
- Marx's **scientific socialism** 科学社会主义 provided a systematic critique of capitalism and a deterministic analysis of society and historical change.
- **Anarchists** 无政府主义者 asserted that **all forms of governmental authority were unnecessary** and should be replaced by a society based on voluntary cooperation.

Names to attach. Conservatism: Edmund Burke, *Reflections on the Revolution in France* (1790), and Metternich. Liberalism: John Stuart Mill, *On Liberty* (1859). Utopian socialism: Robert Owen's model mill town at New Lanark and Charles Fourier's planned communities. Marxism: Marx and Engels, *The Communist Manifesto* (1848), which argued that history is driven by **class struggle** 阶级斗争 and that workers would overthrow capitalism. Anarchism: Pierre-Joseph Proudhon ("property is theft", 1840) and Mikhail Bakunin. Workers also organised directly: Britain's Chartists (1838–48), trade unions, Germany's Social Democratic Party (1875) and Britain's Labour Party (1900).

19th-Century Social Reform and Institutional Responses

Political movements and social organisations responded to the problems of industrialisation. The institutional side is equally examinable:

- **Liberalism** 自由主义 shifted from **laissez-faire** 自由放任 to **interventionist** 干预主义的 economic and social policies in response to industrialisation's challenges. This is the unit's most important intellectual change - the ideology that began by wanting the state out ended by using it.
- Reforms **transformed unhealthy and overcrowded cities** by modernising **infrastructure** 基础设施, regulating **public health** 公共卫生, and reforming prisons.
- Reformers promoted **compulsory public education** 义务教育 to advance public order, nationalism, and economic growth. Note all three motives - the CED lists them, and none is purely benevolent.



The same word, two opposite policies - date the term or the essay contradicts itself

Causation in the Age of Industrialization

The unit's reasoning skill is **causation**.

> **Worked example (an authored exam-style question).** Practise the causation skill with this prompt: *"Explain one way in which industrialisation contributed to the development of new political ideologies in the nineteenth century."* A developed answer traces the link: *"Industrialisation created a large urban working class with shared working conditions and limited political power, which gave socialists a constituency and an argument: that the wealth produced by industry was distributed by ownership rather than by labour. Marx's scientific socialism turned that observation into a systematic critique of capitalism, and the concentration of workers in factories and cities made organising around it possible."* Notice that the answer explains **why the idea found an audience**, not only that it existed.

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Worked example: a short-answer question

Each part needs only one or two sentences: **answer** the question, **cite** one specific piece of evidence, and **explain** how it supports the answer.

Answer (a), (b) and (c).

(a) Briefly explain ONE reason industrialisation spread from Britain to continental Europe.

(b) Briefly describe ONE social effect of industrialisation.

(c) Briefly describe ONE response to the problems of industrial society.

Model answer.

- (a) Railways and the copying of British machines, often with state support, spread industry to Belgium, France and the German states.
- (b) Rapid urban growth led to overcrowded, unhealthy housing for a new industrial working class.
- (c) Britain's Factory Act (1833) limited child labour, while Marx and Engels's Communist Manifesto (1848) called for revolution.

Exam tips

- Britain's advantages include a **political** one - industrial interests were represented in Parliament. Most answers list only resources.
- **France industrialised gradually with state support and less dislocation.** That contrast answers many comparison questions.
- Learn the **five ideologies as a set**, distinguished by who holds power and what the state does.
- **Liberalism's shift from laissez-faire to intervention** is the century's key ideological change. Name it.
- Compulsory education had **three motives** - order, nationalism, growth. Give all three.
- Living standards rose **by the end of the century**, after decades of hardship. Timing is the mark.

Romanticism and the Enlightenment. A recurring DBQ asks whether Romanticism maintained a connection to the Enlightenment or challenged it. It did both. It *challenged* the Enlightenment's trust in reason by valuing emotion, intuition, nature and the individual imagination, as in Wordsworth's poetry and Caspar David Friedrich's paintings. It *continued* the Enlightenment's belief in individual freedom and human rights: Romantic writers such as Byron supported the Greek war of independence, and Delacroix painted *Liberty Leading the People* (1830). A strong thesis chooses one side as primary and explains the other as a qualification.

Common mistakes.

- Listing Britain's coal and iron but not its political and financial advantages.

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- Saying the Industrial Revolution made workers' lives better at once. Living standards fell or stagnated for many before rising after about 1850.
- Calling every nineteenth-century liberal a democrat. Many liberals wanted the vote limited to property owners.
- Treating Marx as the only socialist. Name a utopian socialist too.

Practice.

1. Describe ONE significant feature of industrialisation in Europe in the period 1750–1800.
2. Describe ONE significant change in industrialisation in the period 1800–1900.
3. Explain ONE effect of changes in European medicine in the late 1700s and 1800s.
4. Explain ONE way industrialisation affected European politics, 1800–1900.
5. Explain ONE reason why the revolutions of 1848 mostly failed.

Answers.

1. Mechanised spinning and weaving, using inventions such as the spinning jenny (1764) and water frame (1769), moved textile production from homes into factories in Britain.
2. The spread of railways after 1830 integrated national markets and spread industry to the continent; after 1870, steel, electricity and chemicals created new industries led by Germany.
3. Vaccination and germ theory led to public sanitation and lower death rates, which contributed to rapid population growth; quinine also allowed European expansion into tropical Africa.
4. Industrial workers formed trade unions and socialist parties, and governments responded with reforms such as Britain's Factory Act (1833) and Bismarck's social insurance laws (1883–89).
5. Liberal middle-class revolutionaries and radical workers wanted different things; after the June Days in Paris and the Frankfurt Parliament's failure, conservative armies restored control.

Vocabulary card meanings

less social dislocation: A claim that some regions suffered less breakdown of community than others. second industrial revolution: The later wave of industry based on steel, chemicals, and electricity. promoted population growth: Rising food and jobs that allowed more people to survive and marry. heightened consumerism: A stronger habit of buying manufactured goods. Class identity: A sense of belonging based on one's place in the economic order. urban overcrowding: Too many people packed into industrial cities, with poor housing. cult of domesticity: An ideal that praised women's moral role inside the home. companionate marriage: A marriage ideal based on affection and partnership, not only on property. Concert of Europe: The post-1815 cooperation of great powers to prevent revolution and war. Conservatism: A politics of throne, altar, and resistance to rapid change after 1815. revolutions of 1848: A

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wave of liberal and national uprisings across Europe, mostly defeated. emancipation of the serfs: The 1861 Russian reform that legally freed unfree peasants. Liberals: People who wanted constitutions, individual rights, and freer markets. universal male suffrage: The right of adult men, not only property owners, to vote. Socialists: People who wanted collective control of production to reduce class inequality. Marx's scientific socialism: A theory that class struggle would end in a classless society. Anarchists: People who rejected the state itself, not only a particular government. compulsory public education: Schooling the state requires and provides for children.

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19th-Century Perspectives and Political Developments

AP European History

Contextualizing 19th-Century Perspectives

Why it matters. In 1815 "Italy" and "Germany" were names of regions, divided among dozens of states. By 1871 both were nation-states, made not by the revolutionaries of 1848 but by a conservative Piedmontese prime minister and a Prussian aristocrat. In the same decades Europeans took control of almost all of Africa. The ideas that drove both changes, nationalism and the belief in European superiority, led straight to 1914.



The German Empire proclaimed at Versailles, 18 January 1871 (Anton von Werner, 1885); Bismarck stands in white at the centre.

Unit 7 runs over the same years as Unit 6 - **c. 1815 to c. 1914** - but follows politics, empire, and ideas rather than industry. Three key concepts frame it:

- European states **struggled to maintain international stability in an age of nationalism and revolutions**.
- **A variety of motives and methods** led to the intensification of **European global control** and **increased tensions among the Great Powers**.
- European ideas and culture expressed a **tension between objectivity and scientific realism** on one hand and **subjectivity and individual expression** 主观性与个人表达 on the other.

That third tension is the unit's cultural thread, and it explains why Romanticism, realism, positivism, and modern art all belong in the same unit rather than in a

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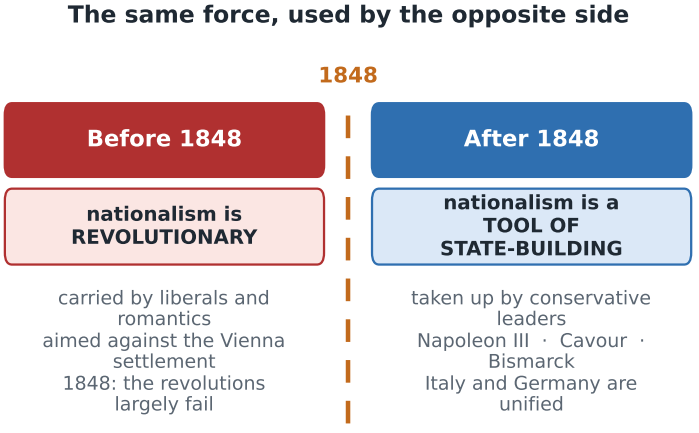
separate art history.

Background: the Concert of Europe. After Napoleon, the great powers met at the **Congress of Vienna** 维也纳会议 (1814–15). Led by Austria's Metternich, they restored monarchs, redrew borders to contain France, and agreed to meet again to settle crises. This **Concert of Europe** 欧洲协调 kept peace among the great powers for nearly forty years, but it also crushed liberal and national movements: Austria put down revolutions in Naples and Piedmont (1821), France restored the Spanish king (1823), and the German states' Carlsbad Decrees (1819) censored universities and the press.

Worked SAQ. *Explain one way the Concert of Europe affected Europe in the first half of the 1800s, and one reason it broke down in the mid-1800s.*

- Effect: the great powers intervened to suppress revolutions, as when Austrian troops ended the 1821 revolution in Naples, so liberal and nationalist movements were held back until 1848.
- Breakdown: in the Crimean War (1853–56), Britain and France fought Russia, and Austria's refusal to support Russia ended their alliance. With the conservative powers divided, no one would enforce the 1815 settlement, so Piedmont and Prussia could change borders by war.

Nationalism



What made it possible: the Crimean War broke the Concert of Europe, so territorial change was no longer blocked.

Before 1848 nationalism threatens the order; after 1848 conservatives build states with it

Nationalists encouraged loyalty to the nation in a variety of ways, including **romantic idealism** 浪漫主义理想, liberal reform, political unification, and racialism - so nationalism has no single political colour and can be attached to very different programmes.

The turn that matters most: a new generation of **conservative leaders**, including **Napoleon III** 拿破仑三世, **Cavour** 加富尔, and **Bismarck** 俾斯麦, **used popular nationalism to create or strengthen states**. Before 1848 nationalism was mainly a revolutionary threat to the settlement of Vienna; after 1848 it became a tool of state-building in conservative hands. If you learn one thing from this unit, learn that reversal.

Two further points are examinable:

- While western European Jews became more socially and politically **acculturated** during the century, **Zionism** 犹太复国主义 - a form of Jewish nationalism - developed in response to continued exclusion.
- The creation of the **dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary** 奥匈二元帝国, which recognised the political power of the largest ethnic minority, was an attempt to manage nationalism within a multi-ethnic empire rather than to suppress it. This Compromise of 1867 gave Hungary its own parliament under the Habsburg emperor, but left Czechs, Slovaks, Croats, Serbs and others without equal standing. Zionism took organised form with Theodor Herzl's *The Jewish State* (1896), written after the Dreyfus affair in France showed how strong antisemitism remained.

	CAVOUR — ITALY	BISMARCK — GERMANY
THE METHOD	diplomacy — bring a great power in on your side	*Realpolitik* — war chosen deliberately, as an instrument
THE OTHER HALF	Garibaldi's popular campaign in the south	Prussian military and administrative strength
WHAT IT COST	a kingdom assembled around Piedmont	a Europe with a new great power at its centre

Conservative leaders using **popular nationalism** to build states — the movement's romantic idealists are not the ones who finished the job

Cavour and Bismarck compared on method - conservatives using popular nationalism

National Unification and Diplomatic Tensions

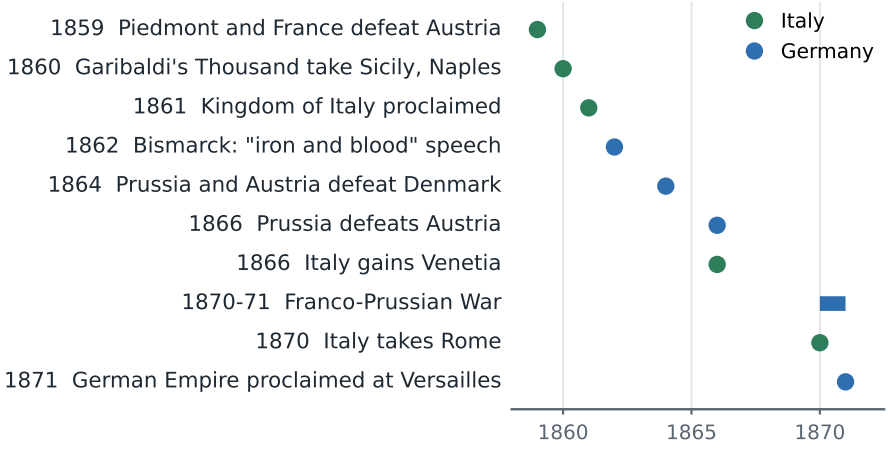
The **Crimean War** 克里米亚战争 demonstrated the weakness of the Ottoman Empire and contributed to the **breakdown of the Concert of Europe** - which is what made unification possible, because the system designed to prevent territorial change no longer functioned.

- **Italy**: **Cavour's diplomatic strategies**, combined with **Garibaldi's** 加里波第 popular military campaigns, led to unification. Diplomacy plus popular movement

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- two mechanisms, and the CED names both. Cavour won Napoleon III as an ally, and together they defeated Austria in 1859, giving Piedmont Lombardy. In 1860 Garibaldi's volunteer "Thousand" conquered Sicily and Naples, then handed them to King Victor Emmanuel II, and the Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed in 1861. Venetia followed in 1866 and Rome in 1870.

- **Germany**: **Bismarck used Realpolitik** 现实政治, employing diplomacy, industrialised warfare and weaponry, and the manipulation of democratic mechanisms to achieve unification under Prussia. In 1862 he told the Prussian parliament that the great questions of the day would be decided "not by speeches and majority decisions … but by iron and blood". Three short wars followed: against Denmark (1864), against Austria (1866), which pushed Austria out of German affairs, and against France (1870–71), which brought the southern German states into the war on Prussia's side. The German Empire was proclaimed in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles in January 1871. Its Reichstag was elected by all adult men, but the emperor appointed the chancellor, who answered to him, not to the Reichstag.



Italy and Germany unified in the same decade, and Italy completed its borders by joining Prussia's wars of 1866 and 1870.

Then the diplomatic consequences, which run directly into Unit 8:

- After 1871 Bismarck attempted to maintain the balance of power through a **complex system of alliances** 联盟体系 aimed at isolating France.
- **Bismarck's dismissal in 1890** eventually produced a system of **mutually antagonistic alliances** 彼此敌对的联盟 and heightened international tension.
- **Nationalist tensions in the Balkans** drew the Great Powers into a series of crises leading up to the First World War.

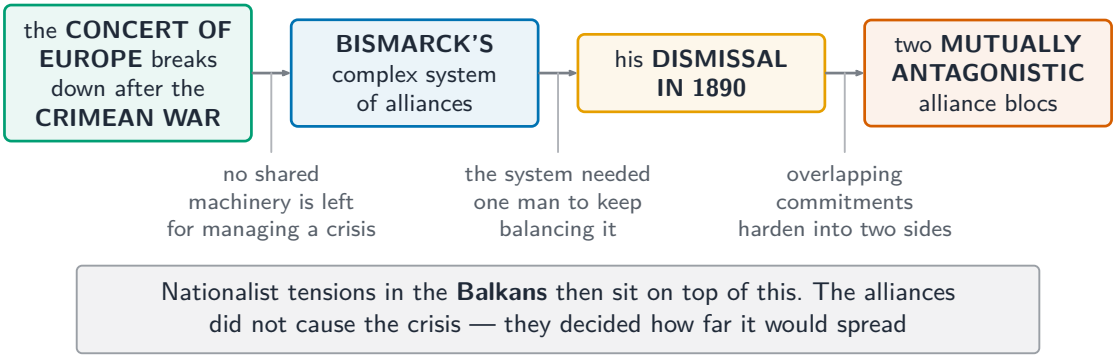
The alliances by date. Bismarck's system: the Dual Alliance with Austria-Hungary (1879), the Triple Alliance adding Italy (1882), and the Reinsurance Treaty with Russia (1887). After Wilhelm II dismissed him in 1890, the Reinsurance Treaty lapsed; France and Russia allied (1894), and Britain settled its colonial disputes with France (En-

tente Cordiale, 1904) and Russia (1907), forming the Triple Entente. In the Balkans, Austria-Hungary's annexation of Bosnia (1908) and the Balkan Wars (1912–13) raised Serbian nationalism to the point where a Bosnian Serb assassinated Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo on 28 June 1914.

Worked DBQ thesis. *Evaluate whether the First World War was primarily caused by popular nationalism or by the decisions of government leaders.*

> Although popular nationalism created the conditions for war, by making Serbian and Austrian publics hostile and leading crowds to cheer the declarations of 1914, the war was primarily caused by the decisions of government leaders: Austria-Hungary's ultimatum to Serbia, Germany's "blank cheque" of support, and Russia's and Germany's decisions to mobilise turned a regional crisis into a general war within a week.

This thesis answers the "primarily" in the prompt, concedes the other side, and names the evidence the documents will support.

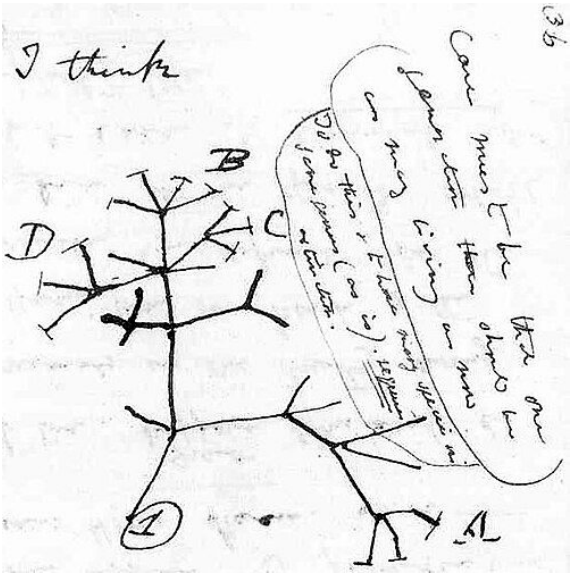


A system built to keep the peace becomes two hostile blocs - the turning point is a dismissal

Darwinism and Social Darwinism

Charles Darwin 达尔文 provided a **scientific and material account of biological change** and of the development of human beings as a species.

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Darwin's 1837 notebook sketch, headed 'I think': one ancestor branching into many species

His theory was then applied well beyond biology. **Social Darwinism** 社会达尔文主义 took the language of competition and selection and used it to justify **racial, national, and class hierarchies** - and, in the next topic, imperial expansion. Keep the distinction sharp in an essay: Darwin's biology and Social Darwinism are not the same claim, and the second does not follow from the first.

Darwin's *On the Origin of Species* (1859) proposed **natural selection** 自然选择: individuals with traits better suited to their environment survive and reproduce more, so species change over long periods. Herbert Spencer, not Darwin, coined "survival of the fittest" and applied it to societies.

The Age of Progress and Modernity

Positivism 实证主义 - the philosophy that **science alone provides knowledge** - emphasised the rational and scientific analysis of nature and human affairs, and represents the confident pole of the century's thinking.

Then, in the later nineteenth century, a **new relativism in values** 价值相对主义 and a **loss of confidence in the objectivity of knowledge** led to **modernism** 现代主义. The two together are the tension named in 7.1: the same culture produced both the belief that science would explain everything and the suspicion that objectivity itself was an illusion.

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New Imperialism: Motivations and Methods

European nations were driven by **economic, political, and cultural motivations** in their new imperial ventures in Asia and Africa.

The CED then gives the **enabling technologies** separately, and there are exactly three:

- **Advanced weaponry** often gave European forces an advantage. It did not guarantee victory: Ethiopia defeated an Italian army at Adwa in 1896.
- **Communication and transportation technologies** 通信与运输技术 made empires possible to create and administer.
- **Advances in medicine** 医学进步 enabled European survival in Africa and Asia - the one students forget, and often the decisive factor.

Name the specific technology: **quinine** 奎宁 against malaria; steamships, the Suez Canal (1869) and the telegraph; breech-loading rifles and the Maxim machine gun. At the **Berlin Conference** 柏林会议 (1884–85), European powers set rules for claiming African territory without a single African ruler present. By 1914 only Ethiopia and Liberia were independent.

The Belgian Congo. At Berlin, King Leopold II of Belgium won recognition of the Congo Free State as his personal possession. To meet European and American demand for rubber, for bicycle and car tyres, his agents forced villagers to collect quotas, punishing failure with hostage-taking and mutilation; millions died from violence, famine and disease. After an international protest campaign, the Belgian state took over the colony in 1908. A source showing the Congo as a place of exotic trade or "civilising" missions reflects the economic demand for raw materials and the European view of Africa as a place to be developed by Europeans.

WHY THEY WANTED TO	WHY THEY NOW COULD
economic — raw materials and markets	advanced weaponry
political — prestige and strategic position	communication and transportation technologies
cultural — a claimed mission, and Social Darwinism	advances in medicine, which made the interior survivable

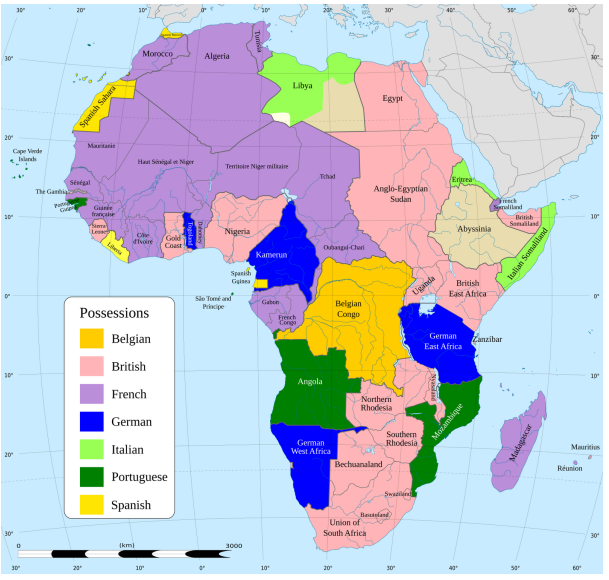
The motives are old; the **capability** is new. Only the right-hand column explains why this happens in the 1870s and not in the 1770s

Motives are old, capability is new - only the second column explains the timing

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Imperialism's Global Effects

Imperial endeavours significantly affected society, diplomacy, and culture in Europe, and **created resistance to foreign control abroad**.



Africa in 1914: almost the whole continent divided among seven European powers; only Ethiopia and Liberia remained independent

Both directions matter. In Europe, empire fed nationalism, shaped popular culture, and turned colonial disputes into Great Power crises. Abroad, it produced organised resistance. An answer that treats imperialism as something Europe did *to* other places, with no return effect and no response, is incomplete on both counts.

Resistance with dates. The Indian Rebellion of 1857 ended rule by the East India Company and led Britain to govern India directly. In China, defeat in the Opium Wars (1839–42, 1856–60) forced open ports to European trade, and the Boxer Uprising (1899–1901) attacked foreign influence. Ethiopia's victory over Italy at Adwa (1896) preserved its independence.

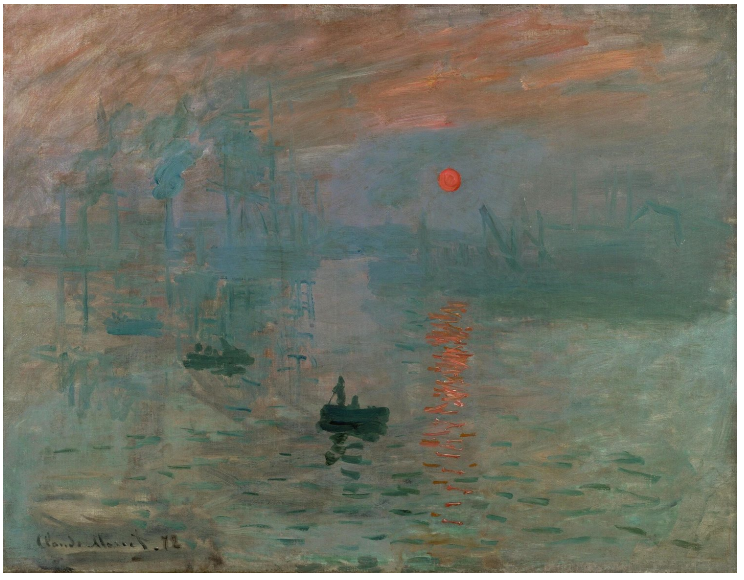
Worked LEQ thesis. *Evaluate the most significant change in Europe's economic relationship with the rest of the world during the 1800s.*

> The most significant change was that industrialisation turned Europe into the world's workshop and banker: Europe imported raw materials such as cotton, rubber and palm oil from colonies and other regions, exported manufactured goods and capital in return, and used empire, from the Opium Wars to the Congo, to force open markets and secure supplies on its own terms.

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19th-Century Culture and Arts

The century's art tracks its intellectual tension exactly:



Monet's Impression, Sunrise (1872) gave Impressionism its name: light and fleeting effect over detail

- **Romanticism** broke with Neoclassical forms and with rationalism, emphasising **intuition, emotion, nature, individuality**, and the supernatural; Romantic writers expressed the same themes while responding to the Industrial Revolution and to political revolution.
- **Realist and materialist** 现实主义与唯物主义 themes influenced art and literature, as painters and writers depicted **the lives of ordinary people**.
- **Modern art - Impressionism, Post-Impressionism, and Cubism** 印象派、后印象派与立体主义 - moved **beyond the representational to the subjective, abstract, and expressive**.

Works to name. Romantic: Delacroix's *Liberty Leading the People* (1830), Caspar David Friedrich's lone figures in vast landscapes, Wordsworth's nature poetry. Realist: Courbet's *The Stone Breakers* (1849), the novels of Dickens and Zola. Impressionist: Monet's *Impression, Sunrise* (1872). Post-Impressionist: Van Gogh, Cézanne. Cubist: Picasso's *Les Demoiselles d'Avignon* (1907).

Worked SAQ: a nationalist painting. If a painting from the early 1800s celebrates a divided nation, such as Italy or Germany, its goal is likely national unity or independence. *Hindered before 1850*: the Concert of Europe and Austria under Metternich suppressed national movements, and the revolutions of 1848 failed. *Helped after 1850*: conservative statesmen such as Cavour and Bismarck used war and diplomacy to unify Italy (1861) and Germany (1871).

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Causation in 19th-Century Developments

The unit's reasoning skill is **causation**.

> **Worked example.** Try *"Explain one way in which nationalism contributed to the unification of Germany or Italy in the nineteenth century."* A strong answer names the mechanism rather than the sentiment: *"Bismarck used popular nationalist feeling as an instrument of Prussian state-building: by presenting wars against Denmark, Austria, and France as national causes, he made the smaller German states' rulers politically unable to resist unification under Prussia, and turned a dynastic expansion into a national one."* Notice the shape: nationalism is shown *doing something*, not merely existing.

Worked example: a short-answer question

Each part needs only one or two sentences: **answer** the question, **cite** one specific piece of evidence, and **explain** how it supports the answer.

Answer (a), (b) and (c).

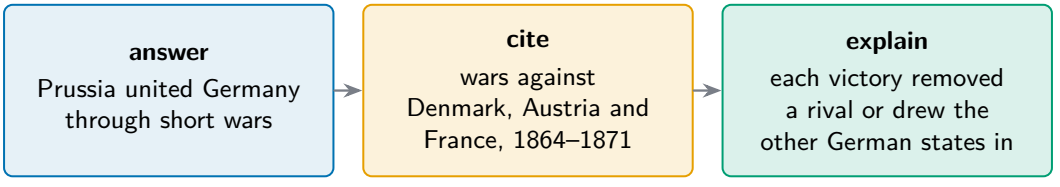
(a) Briefly describe ONE way nationalism changed Europe in the 1800s.

(b) Briefly explain ONE method Bismarck used to unify Germany.

(c) Briefly explain ONE source of diplomatic tension before 1914.

Model answer.

- (a) Italy was unified in 1861, combining many smaller states into one nation under Piedmont-Sardinia.
- (b) Bismarck used realpolitik and short wars against Denmark, Austria and France to unite the German states under Prussia by 1871.
- (c) Rival alliance systems divided the great powers into two camps, so a local crisis could become a general war.



part (b): one or two sentences, with one specific piece of evidence

Answer, cite, explain

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Exam tips

- The reversal is the unit: **before 1848 nationalism threatens the order; after 1848 conservatives use it to build states**.
- The **breakdown of the Concert of Europe** after Crimea is what made unification possible. Name it as the enabling condition.
- Italy needed **both** Cavour's diplomacy and Garibaldi's campaigns. Germany needed Bismarck's **Realpolitik**. Different mechanisms, same outcome.
- Give **three enabling technologies** of imperialism - weaponry, transport and communication, and **medicine**.
- Keep **Darwin** and **Social Darwinism** apart. The second is a use of the first, not a consequence of it.
- Imperialism acted **on Europe as well as abroad**, and it produced **resistance**. Both are examinable.

Democracy and feminism, in dates. Two DBQ and LEQ prompts recur. Britain widened the vote step by step: the Reform Acts of 1832, 1867 and 1884; Chartists (1838–48) demanded votes for all men. France adopted universal male suffrage in 1848, and the German Reichstag from 1871. For women, John Stuart Mill's *The Subjection of Women* (1869) argued for legal equality, Married Women's Property Acts (1870, 1882) let British wives own property, and Emmeline Pankhurst's suffragettes (from 1903) campaigned for the vote with direct action. Finland (1906) and Norway (1913) gave women the vote first; most other countries waited until after 1918.

Common mistakes.

- Calling Bismarck or Cavour liberal nationalists. They were conservatives who used nationalism.
- Dating German unification to 1848. The Frankfurt Parliament of 1848–49 failed; unification came by war in 1871.
- Listing imperial motives without the technologies that explain the timing (quinine, steamships, machine guns).
- Treating the alliance system as the only cause of 1914. Explain a decision or a crisis that used it.

Practice.

1. Explain ONE way the Crimean War made Italian or German unification possible.
2. Describe ONE way Bismarck used war to unify Germany.
3. Explain ONE technological development that enabled the New Imperialism.
4. Explain ONE way industrialisation affected European politics in the period 1800–1900.
5. Write a thesis for: *Evaluate the most significant effect of the spread of democratic ideas on European politics in the 1800s.*

Answers.

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1. The war divided the conservative powers: Austria's failure to support Russia ended their partnership, so neither would defend the 1815 borders, and Piedmont (1859) and Prussia (1866) could defeat an isolated Austria.
2. The Austro-Prussian War (1866) expelled Austria from German affairs and let Prussia lead a North German Confederation; the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71) brought the southern states in.
3. Quinine allowed Europeans to survive malaria in tropical Africa, so armies and administrators could move inland.
4. Industrial workers formed trade unions and socialist parties, such as Germany's Social Democratic Party, and pressure from the new middle and working classes widened the vote, as in Britain's Reform Acts of 1832 and 1867.
5. For example: "The most significant effect was the gradual widening of the vote, which forced even conservative governments, such as Disraeli's in Britain in 1867 and Bismarck's in Germany in 1871, to grant male suffrage in order to win mass support, and which created mass parties that governments had to compete with."

Vocabulary card meanings

subjectivity and individual expression: Art that values a person's inner view over shared rules. romantic idealism: A belief that feeling and heroic will can reshape society. Napoleon III: The nephew of Napoleon who ruled France first as president, then as emperor. Cavour: The Piedmontese statesman who engineered much of Italian unification. Bismarck: The Prussian statesman who unified Germany through wars and diplomacy. Zionism: A late-nineteenth-century movement for a Jewish national home in Palestine. dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary: The 1867 arrangement that gave Hungary its own government under a shared monarch. Crimean War: The 1853-56 war in which Russia lost to an Ottoman-British-French coalition. Garibaldi's: The volunteer military campaigns of the Italian nationalist fighter. Bismarck used Realpolitik: Choosing policy by power and results rather than by ideology. complex system of alliances: The web of treaties that tied European powers together before 1914. mutually antagonistic alliances: Opposing blocs whose commitments made a local crisis into a general war. Charles Darwin: The naturalist who argued that species change by natural selection. Positivism: The view that real knowledge comes from scientific observation of facts. new relativism in values: The idea that moral and cultural standards are not fixed and universal. modernism: Art and literature that broke with traditional forms around 1900. Communication and transportation technologies: New tools such as railways, steamships, and the telegraph that shrank distance. Advances in medicine: Discoveries such as germ theory that cut death from infection. Realist and materialist: Art and thought that depicted ordinary life and explained the world by matter. Impressionism, Post-Impressionism, and Cubism: Painting movements from fleeting light to structured, fragmented form.

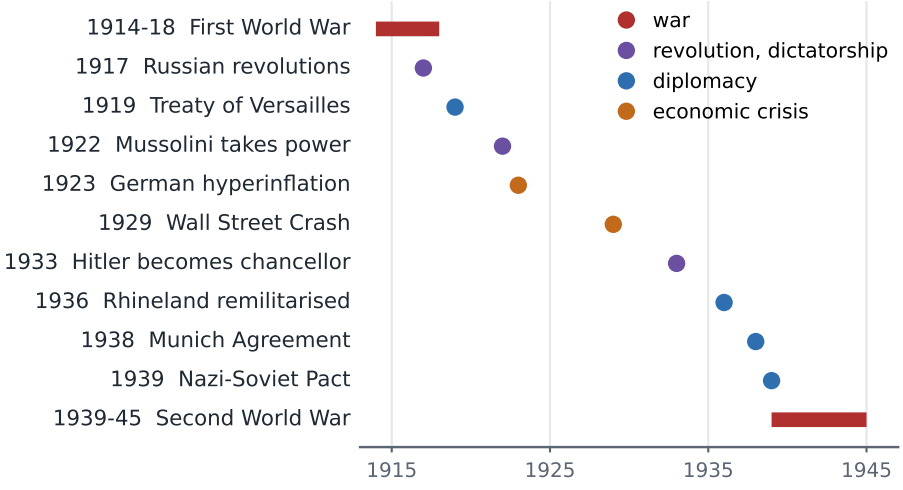
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20th-Century Global Conflicts

AP European History

Contextualizing 20th-Century Global Conflicts

Why it matters. On the first day of the Battle of the Somme, 1 July 1916, the British army suffered about 57,000 casualties, the worst day in its history. Twenty-five years later, Europe was at war again, and this time the killing of civilians was a deliberate aim. This unit asks how a continent that believed in progress produced two world wars, two kinds of totalitarian state and the Holocaust within thirty years.



Read down the rows: war, settlement, economic collapse, radical regimes, failed appeasement, war again.

Unit 8 covers **c. 1914 to the present** as a story of conflict, and four key concepts frame it:

- **Total war** 总体战 and **political instability** 政治动荡 in the first half of the century gave way to a **polarised state order** during the **Cold War** 冷战.
- The stresses of **economic collapse and total war** produced **internal conflicts** within European states and **conflicting conceptions of the relationship between the individual and the state**.
- Diverse intellectual and cultural movements questioned the existence of **objective knowledge** 客观知识 and the authority that had rested on it.
- **Demographic change, economic growth, total war, and competing definitions of freedom and justice** altered the experience of everyday life.

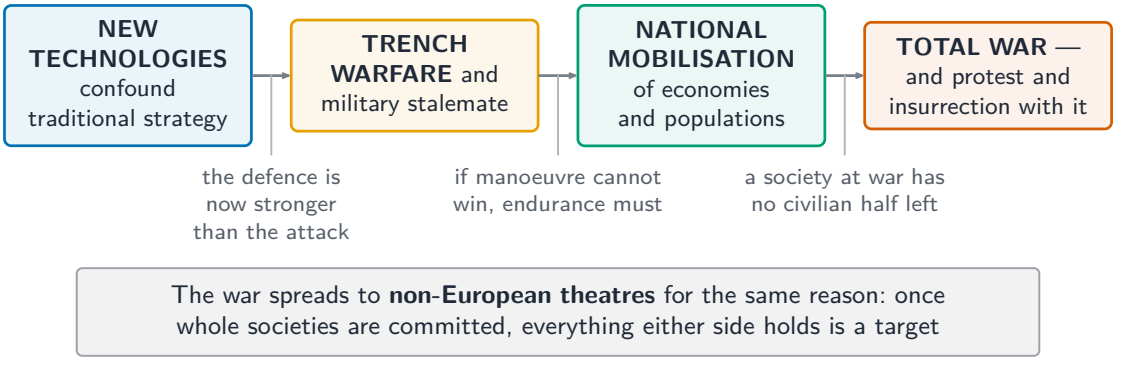
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World War I

The war was **caused by a complex interaction of long- and short-term factors** and produced immense losses and disruption. The CED's specific claims:

- **New technologies confounded traditional military strategies**, leading to **trench warfare** 堑壕战 and massive troop losses.
- The effects of military **stalemate** 僵局, national **mobilisation** 动员, and total war led to **protest** 抗议 and **insurrection** 起义 in the **belligerent** 交战的 nations - the war turned inward on the societies fighting it.
- The war spread quickly to non-European **theatres** 战场, becoming a **global conflict**.
- The relationship of Europe to the world **shifted significantly** with that globalisation, and with the emergence of new powers.

The war in evidence. Germany's Schlieffen Plan aimed to defeat France quickly through Belgium before turning on Russia; it failed at the Marne (September 1914), and both sides dug trenches from the Channel to Switzerland. Machine guns and artillery made attacks across open ground suicidal, so 1916 brought battles of attrition: Verdun and the Somme. Poison gas (from 1915) and tanks (from 1916) did not break the deadlock. The war spread to the Ottoman fronts (Gallipoli, Mesopotamia, Palestine) and to colonies in Africa, and both Britain and France brought in colonial soldiers and workers from India, Africa and Indochina. On the home front, governments controlled industry, rationed food, censored the press and brought women into munitions factories. Strain produced unrest: the Easter Rising in Dublin (1916), mutinies in the French army (1917) and revolution in Russia. The United States entered in 1917; Germany signed the armistice on 11 November 1918.



Why the war became total: technology, then stalemate, then whole societies



A trench on the Somme, 1916 - the stalemate that national mobilisation was the answer to

The Russian Revolution and Its Effects

The **Russian Revolution** 俄国革命 created a regime based on **Marxist-Leninist theory** 马克思列宁主义 - the first state to be founded explicitly on that programme, which is what makes it a turning point rather than a national event.

From tsar to Bolsheviks. Food shortages and military defeats led to strikes in Petrograd, and Tsar Nicholas II abdicated in March 1917 (February in the old Russian calendar). The **Provisional Government** 临时政府 kept fighting the war. Lenin, returning from exile, promised "Peace, Land and Bread", and the **Bolsheviks** 布尔什维克 seized power in November (October) 1917. They made peace with Germany at Brest-Litovsk (March 1918), giving up large western territories, and won a civil war (1918–21) against the "Whites". Lenin's New Economic Policy (1921) allowed small private trade to revive a ruined economy; the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was founded in 1922.

Versailles Conference and Peace Settlement

The **conflicting goals of the peace negotiators in Paris** pitted diplomatic **idealism** 理想主义 against the desire to punish Germany, and the resulting settlement satisfied neither aim fully.

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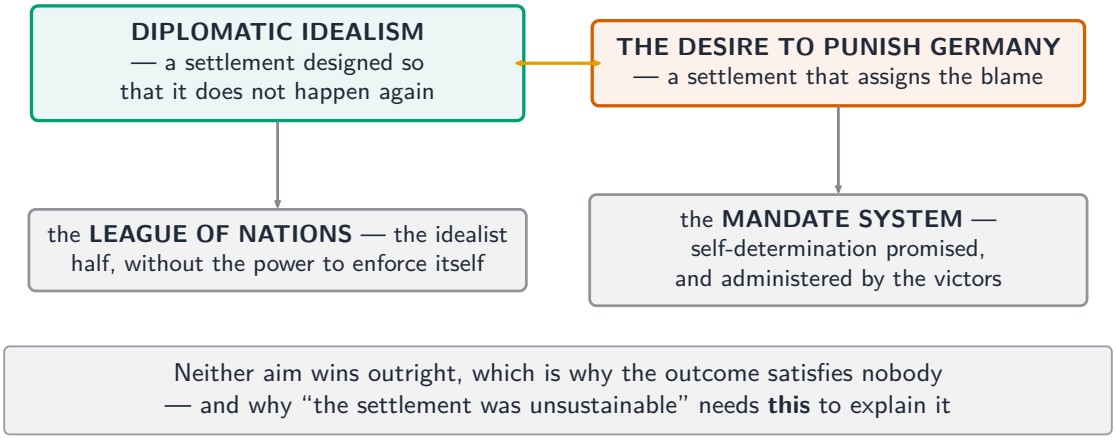


The Depression is the pivot: these movements existed before 1929 but could not win power until it came.

Questions ask about one link; the strongest answers show where it sits in the chain

The **League of Nations** 国际联盟 distributed former German and Ottoman possessions to powers including France, Great Britain, Japan and Belgium, as well as British dominions, through the **mandate system** 委任统治, which extended imperial control under a new name - a point worth making because it connects the settlement to decolonisation later in the course.

The treaty's terms. Wilson's Fourteen Points promised self-determination and a League of Nations; France's Clemenceau wanted security and compensation. The **Treaty of Versailles** 凡尔赛条约 (1919) took Alsace-Lorraine and all colonies from Germany, limited its army to 100,000 men, banned an air force, demilitarised the Rhineland, and through Article 231 (the "war guilt" clause) made Germany accept responsibility for the losses, which justified **reparations** 战争赔款 (set in 1921 at 132 billion gold marks). New states such as Poland, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia appeared, but each contained large minorities. The US Senate rejected the treaty, so the United States never joined the League. Under the mandates, France took Syria and Lebanon, and Britain took Iraq, Palestine and Transjordan.



Two incompatible aims, and the compromises each produced

Global Economic Crisis

The **Great Depression** 大萧条, caused by weaknesses in international trade and in monetary theory and practice, undermined Western European **democracies** 民主国家 and fostered **radical political responses** across Europe.

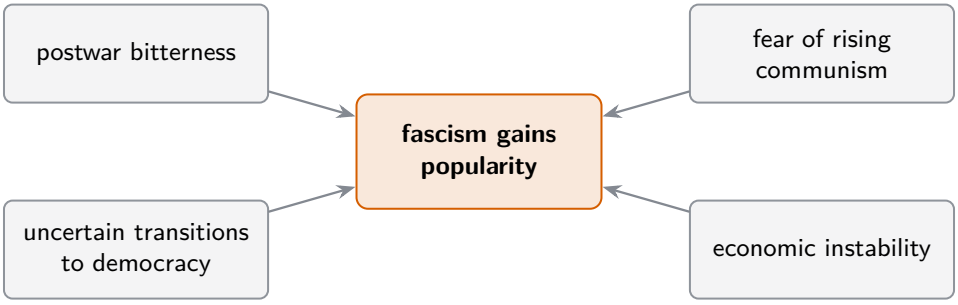
This is the pivot of the unit. The Depression enlarged the political opportunity for movements such as Nazism in Germany. It cannot explain every fascist accession: Mussolini had become Italian prime minister in 1922, before the Depression began.

The mechanism in Germany. After the Wall Street Crash (October 1929), American banks recalled the loans that had financed German recovery under the Dawes Plan (1924). German unemployment reached about six million by 1932. The Nazi vote rose from 2.6 per cent (1928) to 37 per cent (July 1932). This came only a decade after the hyperinflation of 1923, which had already wiped out middle-class savings and trust in the Weimar Republic.

Fascism and Totalitarianism

The ideology of **fascism** 法西斯主义, with roots in the pre-war era, **gained popularity in an environment of postwar bitterness, the rise of communism, uncertain transitions to democracy, and economic instability**. That four-part environment is the CED's own answer to "why then", and it is better than any single cause.

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the four together answer "why then?" better than any single cause

Four conditions, not one cause

On the Soviet side, after Lenin's death **Stalin** 斯大林 undertook a centralised programme of rapid economic **modernisation** 现代化, often with severe **repression** 镇压. The CED states the cost explicitly: modernisation came at a **high price**, including the liquidation of the **kulaks** 富农 and a catastrophic **famine** 饥荒.

The comparison the unit invites is structural rather than ideological: both regimes claimed total authority over the relationship between individual and state, which is the second key concept doing its work.

Fascist Italy. Mussolini's Blackshirts threatened a "March on Rome" (October 1922), and King Victor Emmanuel III appointed him prime minister rather than resist. By 1926 opposition parties were banned. In the Lateran Accords (1929) he recognised the Vatican as a state and made Catholicism the state religion; in the "corporate state" he organised employers and workers into state-controlled corporations instead of free trade unions.

Worked DBQ thesis. *Evaluate whether Italian fascism was a revolutionary or a traditional movement.*

> Italian fascism was revolutionary in its methods but largely traditional in its alliances: it used mass mobilisation, street violence and a one-party state to destroy parliamentary politics, yet it came to power with the support of the king, industrialists and landowners, and it protected their property and made peace with the Catholic Church in the Lateran Accords of 1929.

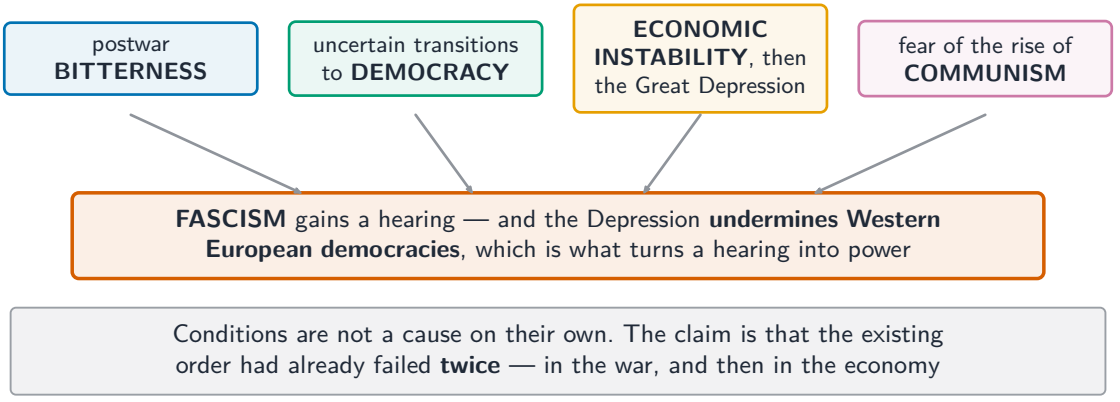
Nazi Germany. Hitler was appointed chancellor in January 1933 through a deal with conservative politicians. After the Reichstag fire, the Enabling Act (March 1933) let him make laws without parliament. The Nuremberg Laws (1935) removed Jews' citizenship, and the Kristallnacht pogrom (November 1938) attacked Jewish homes, shops and synagogues across Germany.

Stalin's Soviet Union. The Five-Year Plans (from 1928) built heavy industry at enormous speed. **Collectivisation** 农业集体化 forced peasants into state-controlled collective farms; resistance was crushed, and the famine of 1932–33 killed millions,

especially in Ukraine. In the Great Terror (1936–38) hundreds of thousands were executed and many more sent to labour camps, the **Gulag** 古拉格.

Worked LEQ thesis. *Evaluate the most significant difference between the Nazi regime in Germany and the communist regime in the Soviet Union.*

> The most significant difference was the basis of each regime's ideology: Nazism divided humanity by race, so it kept private property and big business while directing its terror at Jews and others it defined as racial enemies, whereas Soviet communism divided society by class, so it abolished private ownership of industry and land and directed its terror at "class enemies" such as the kulaks.



Conditions are not a cause on their own - the order had already failed twice

Europe During the Interwar Period

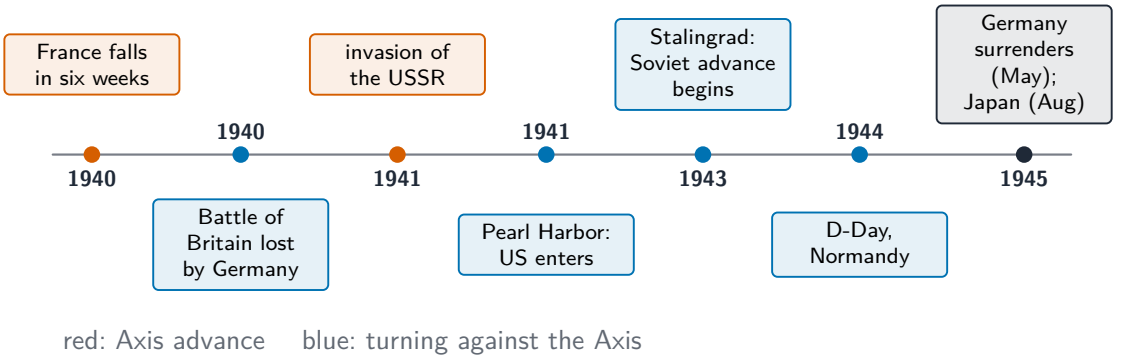
The failure to prevent a second war has named causes:

- **French and British fears of another war**, American **isolationism** 孤立主义, and **deep distrust between Western democratic, capitalist nations and the Soviet communist regime** prevented an effective response.
- Fascism, extreme nationalism, racist ideologies, and the failure of **appeasement** 绥靖政策 resulted in the Second World War.

The road to war in dates. Hitler left the League of Nations (1933), remilitarised the Rhineland (1936) and annexed Austria (the *Anschluss*, March 1938). At Munich (September 1938) Britain and France agreed that Germany could take the Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia; in March 1939 Germany occupied the rest. The Nazi-Soviet Pact (August 1939) secretly divided Poland, and Germany invaded Poland on 1 September 1939. Britain and France declared war two days later.

World War II

- Germany's **Blitzkrieg** 闪电战 warfare in Europe, combined with Japan's attacks in Asia and the Pacific, brought the **Axis powers** 轴心国 early victories.
- **American and British industrial, scientific, and technological power**, cooperative military efforts under strong leadership, and the **Soviet Union's vast manpower and resources** eventually defeated the Axis.
- Military technologies made possible industrialised warfare, **genocide** 种族灭绝, **nuclear proliferation** 核扩散, and the risk of global nuclear war.



Turning points, 1940-1945

Turning points. Germany defeated France in six weeks (May–June 1940), but lost the Battle of Britain in the air (1940). It invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941, and Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor (December 1941) brought the United States into the war. The German surrender at Stalingrad (February 1943) began the Soviet advance west; the Allies landed in Normandy on D-Day (6 June 1944). Germany surrendered in May 1945; Japan surrendered in August 1945 after the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

The Holocaust

Fuelled by **racism** 种族主义 and **anti-Semitism** 反犹主义, Nazi Germany - with the cooperation of some other Axis powers and **collaborators** 合作者 - **used industrial technology and bureaucratic structures to carry out the systematic murder of European Jewish people** and other targeted groups.

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The entrance to Auschwitz I, part of the largest Nazi camp complex, where about 1.1 million people were murdered

The CED's framing is precise and should be reproduced: what distinguishes this from earlier mass violence is the use of the **modern state's own instruments** - industry, bureaucracy, transport, record-keeping - as the means. That is why this topic belongs with the technology and total-war themes rather than standing apart from them.

The demographic consequence is stated directly: the Second World War **decimated a generation of Russian and German men, virtually destroyed European Jewry**, and killed millions of others.

How it happened. Mobile killing units, the *Einsatzgruppen*, shot over a million Jews in the occupied Soviet territories from 1941. At the Wannsee Conference (January 1942), officials coordinated the deportation of Europe's Jews to death camps such as Auschwitz-Birkenau and Treblinka, using railways, registers and the civil service. About six million Jews were murdered, along with Roma, disabled people, Soviet prisoners of war and others.

20th-Century Cultural and Intellectual Developments

- The **belief in progress** characteristic of much nineteenth-century thought **began to break down before World War I** and collapsed after it.
- When the war began, Europeans were **generally confident in the ability of science and technology** to address human needs; the war and then the Depression **undermined that confidence**.
- The **challenge to the certainties of the Newtonian universe** in physics **opened the door to uncertainty** in other fields.
- The war created a **"lost generation"** 迷惘的一代 and fostered **disillusionment** 幻灭 and **cynicism** 犬儒主义.

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- During both wars, **women became increasingly involved** in military and political mobilisation and in economic production.



The Bauhaus building in Dessau (1926): interwar artists and architects broke with tradition through experiment and function

Name the evidence: Einstein's theory of relativity (1905, 1915) and Heisenberg's uncertainty principle (1927) undermined the idea of a fixed, fully knowable universe; Freud argued that irrational, unconscious drives shape behaviour; Erich Maria Remarque's novel *All Quiet on the Western Front* (1929) gave the "lost generation" its voice.

Continuity and Change in an Age of Global Conflict

The unit's reasoning skill is **continuity and change**.

> **Worked example.** Try *"Explain one way in which the peace settlement of 1919 contributed to political instability in Europe in the 1920s and 1930s."* A strong answer traces a mechanism: *"The settlement combined punitive terms against Germany with an appeal to national self-determination it could not deliver consistently. That left a German republic burdened with reparations and blamed for accepting them, which gave nationalist and fascist movements a grievance they could use, and which the economic collapse of 1929 turned into mass support."* Notice that the answer runs the chain forward to the point the question asks about.

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Worked example: a short-answer question

Each part needs only one or two sentences: **answer** the question, **cite** one specific piece of evidence, and **explain** how it supports the answer.

Answer (a), (b) and (c).

(a) Briefly describe ONE cause of the First World War.

(b) Briefly explain ONE effect of the Russian Revolution on the First World War.

(c) Briefly explain ONE cause of the Second World War.

Model answer.

- (a) Militarism and an arms race, especially the Anglo-German naval race, increased tension and readiness for war.
- (b) The Bolsheviks took Russia out of the war with the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (1918), freeing German troops for the Western Front.
- (c) Resentment of the Treaty of Versailles, and Britain and France's policy of appeasement, including the Munich Agreement (1938), encouraged Hitler's expansion.

Exam tips

- Learn the **chain**: war, settlement, economic collapse, radical movements, failed appeasement, war again. Most questions ask about one link.
- The CED gives fascism a **four-part environment** - postwar bitterness, fear of communism, unstable democracies, economic instability. Use all four.
- The **Depression helped Nazism gain support**, but do not apply that chronology to Mussolini's accession in 1922.
- On the Holocaust, the examinable point is the use of the **modern state's own instruments**. State it precisely.
- The **mandate system** is imperial control renamed. Saying so links the settlement to decolonisation.
- The collapse of confidence in **progress and objectivity** connects the political and cultural halves of the unit. Examiners reward that connection.

Worked LEQ thesis: comparing the two wars' economic effects.

The most significant difference was in how the peace was financed: after the First World War, war debts and German reparations tied Europe's recovery to American loans and contributed to the hyperinflation of 1923 and the collapse of 1929, whereas after the Second World War the United States gave aid through the Marshall Plan (from 1948), and western European states cooperated in recovery, leading to rapid growth and the first steps toward economic integration.

Common mistakes.

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- Writing that the Depression brought Mussolini to power. He took office in 1922.
- Describing the Treaty of Versailles only as "harsh". Name a term (Article 231, reparations, the 100,000-man army) and explain its effect.
- Treating Nazism and Soviet communism as the same ideology. Compare their structure (one-party states, terror) but distinguish race and class.
- Using "appeasement" without a date or event. Munich (1938) is the standard example.

Practice.

1. Describe ONE major characteristic of the First World War.
2. Explain ONE way the First World War contributed to political change in interwar Europe.
3. Explain ONE way the Great Depression helped the Nazis gain power.
4. Describe ONE difference and ONE similarity between the challenges faced by European democracies in 1919–39 and in 1945–89.
5. Explain how colonial relationships such as the mandates changed after the First World War.

Answers.

1. Trench warfare on the Western Front: machine guns and artillery made attacks across no man's land extremely costly, producing stalemate and battles of attrition such as Verdun and the Somme (1916).
2. The strain of war brought down the Russian, German, Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman empires; the new democracies, such as the Weimar Republic, began weakened by defeat and the Versailles settlement.
3. When American loans were recalled after 1929, German unemployment rose to about six million; the Nazis offered jobs and national revival, and their vote rose to 37 per cent in July 1932.
4. Difference: interwar democracies faced fascist and communist movements at home and economic collapse, while postwar western democracies had American aid and growing prosperity but faced the Cold War threat of Soviet power. Similarity: in both periods communist parties challenged democratic governments, as in France and Italy after 1945.
5. Former German colonies and Ottoman territories became League of Nations mandates under Britain and France, so imperial control continued under the claim of preparing these territories for self-government; nationalist movements in places such as Syria and Iraq grew in response.

Vocabulary card meanings

trench warfare: Fighting from fortified ditches, typical of the Western Front in the First World War. protest and insurrection: Public opposition that sometimes became armed rebellion. Russian Revolution: The 1917 overthrow of the tsar and the Bolshevik seizure of power. Marxist-Leninist theory: A version of socialism that justified a

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vanguard party and a one-party state. League of Nations: The interwar organisation meant to keep peace through collective security. mandate system: Former Ottoman and German colonies administered by victors under League oversight. undermined Western European democracies: Forces such as depression and extremist parties that weakened parliamentary rule. fascism: Authoritarian nationalism that glorified the state and crushed opposition. Stalin: The Soviet leader who industrialised by force and ran a personal dictatorship. liquidation of the kulaks: The violent campaign against richer peasants during collectivisation. catastrophic famine: Mass starvation, including the one that followed forced collectivisation. American isolationism: A US policy of staying out of European alliances between the world wars. Blitzkrieg: Fast armoured warfare used by Germany early in the Second World War. racism and anti-Semitism: Ideologies of racial hierarchy and hatred of Jews, central to Nazism. "lost generation": Writers and veterans who felt the First World War had emptied old certainties. disillusionment and cynicism: A loss of faith in progress, often turning into bitter distrust.

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Cold War and Contemporary Europe

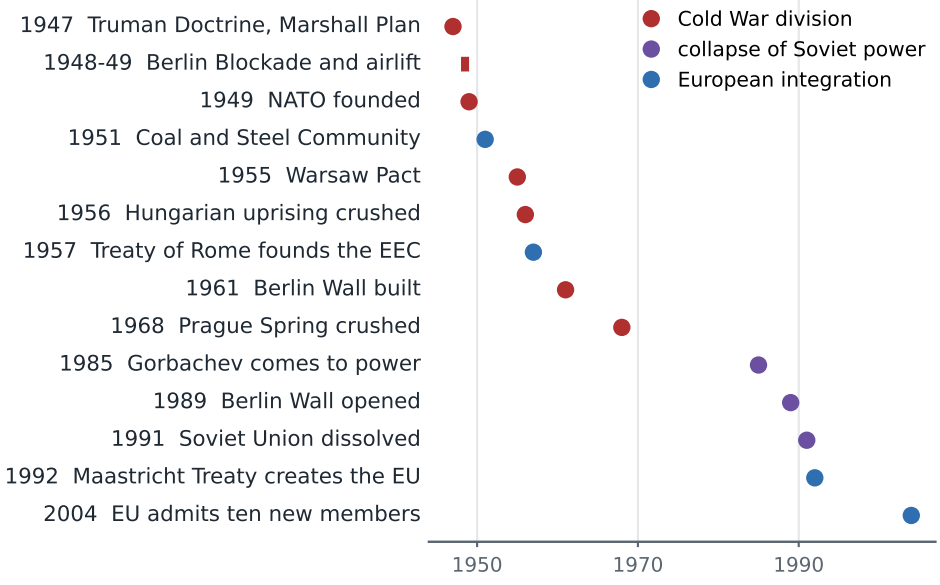
AP European History

Contextualizing Cold War and Contemporary Europe

Why it matters. On the night of 9 November 1989, East German border guards, faced with crowds they had been given no orders to stop, opened the gates of the Berlin Wall. Within two years the Soviet Union itself had disappeared. Meanwhile, countries that had fought three wars against each other in seventy years, France and Germany, were building a shared market and, later, a shared currency. This unit follows both stories: division and integration.

Unit 9 takes Europe from 1945 to the present. The same four key concepts as Unit 8 apply, but the emphasis shifts: a **polarised state order**, competing conceptions of **the individual and the state**, continued questioning of **objective knowledge**, and demographic and economic change reshaping everyday life.

The unit has two halves that must be held together - **division** until 1991, and **integration** running alongside and then beyond it.



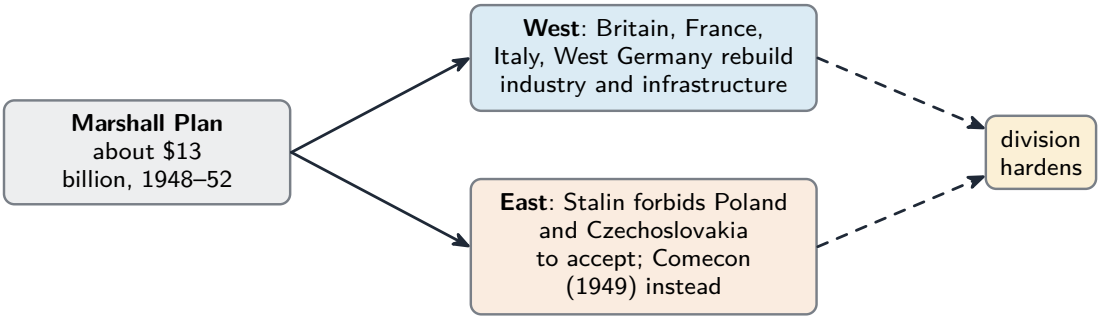
Division (red) dominates the first half of the period, integration (blue) runs through all of it, and the collapse (purple) comes in six years.

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Rebuilding Europe

Marshall Plan 马歇尔计划 funds from the United States financed an extensive reconstruction of industry and infrastructure and stimulated an economic revival in Western Europe.

The Marshall Plan is examinable in two directions at once: it rebuilt Western Europe, and by being refused for the Soviet bloc it helped harden the division that defines the rest of the unit. Between 1948 and 1952 the United States gave about 13 billion dollars, mostly to Britain, France, Italy and West Germany. Stalin forbade Poland and Czechoslovakia to accept it and set up Comecon (1949) to coordinate the eastern economies instead.



The Marshall Plan rebuilt the West and hardened the division

The Cold War

Despite efforts to maintain international cooperation through the newly created **United Nations** 联合国, deep-seated tensions between the two blocs produced the **Cold War**.

The CED lists how it was actually conducted, and the list is worth memorising because questions ask for methods:

- **propaganda campaigns** 宣传战;
- **covert actions** 秘密行动;
- **limited "hot wars"** 有限热战 in other regions;
- an **arms race** 军备竞赛.

Note what is absent: direct war between the principals. The methods list *is* the answer to "how could a conflict this intense produce no direct war".

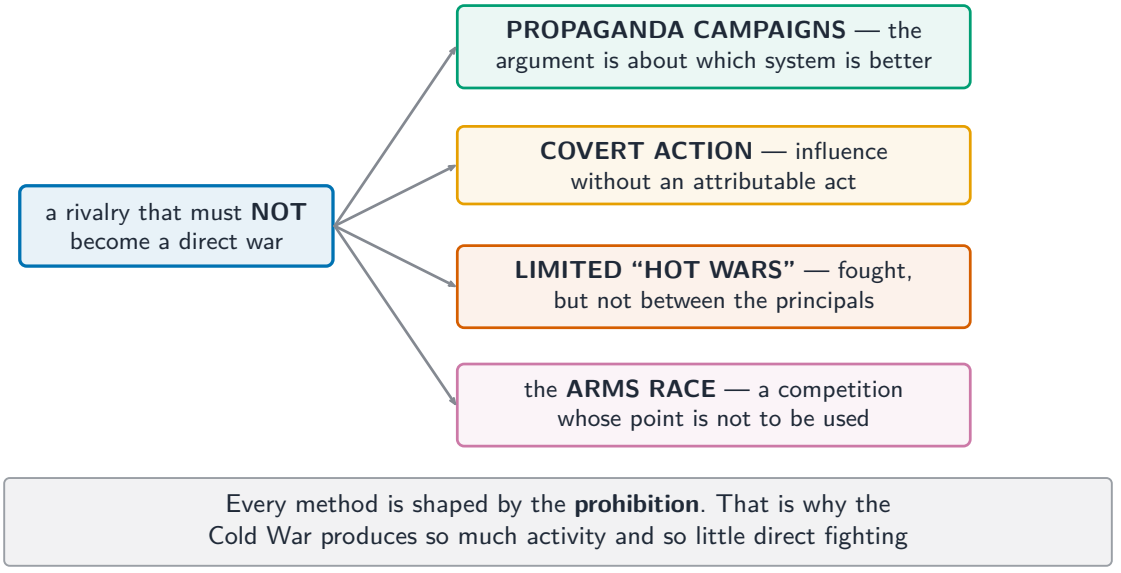
Causes and turning points. At Yalta and Potsdam (1945) the Allies divided Germany into occupation zones, but disagreed over Poland and Eastern Europe, where the Red Army stayed and installed communist governments. In 1946 Churchill described an "iron curtain" across Europe. The **Truman Doctrine** 杜鲁门主义 (1947) promised American support to countries resisting communism, the policy known as

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containment 遏制政策. When the western powers introduced a new currency in their zones, Stalin blockaded West Berlin (1948–49), and the Allies supplied it by air for eleven months. Two German states were founded in 1949. The Soviet Union tested its first atomic bomb the same year, and the arms race began.

Worked SAQ. *Describe one cause of the Cold War, and explain one way it affected Europe in the second half of the 1900s.*

- Cause: the Soviet Union kept its army in Eastern Europe after 1945 and installed communist governments, which the United States saw as expansion to be contained, as stated in the Truman Doctrine (1947).
- Effect: Germany and Europe were divided into two military blocs, NATO (1949) and the Warsaw Pact (1955), and the division became physical when East Germany built the Berlin Wall in 1961.



Every method shaped by one prohibition: no direct war between the principals

Two Superpowers Emerge

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	Western Europe	The Soviet bloc
Rebuilt how?	Marshall Plan funds rebuild industry and infrastructure	central planning, extensive social welfare provision
Aligned with whom?	US military, political and economic influence; NATO	Soviet domination east of the Iron Curtain
What strained it?	growth funded the welfare state; stagnation put it in question	long economic stagnation; repression alternating with reform
How did it end?	integration deepens into the European Union	1989-91: peaceful revolution in most countries, violent conflict in some

Held apart for forty years - and then both halves face the same questions: sovereignty, migration, and what integration costs.

The division holds for forty years, and then both halves face the same questions

- The **United States** exerted strong military, political, and economic influence in Western Europe, leading to the creation of **NATO** 北约.
- Countries east of the **Iron Curtain** 铁幕 came under the military, political, and economic domination of the **Soviet Union**.
- Central and Eastern European nations within the Soviet bloc followed an economic model based on **central planning** 中央计划 and extensive social welfare provision.
- Those nations' relationship with the Soviet Union **oscillated between repression and reform** - which is the CED's own phrase and a better answer than either alone. Reform was repeatedly crushed: Soviet tanks ended the Hungarian uprising in 1956, and Warsaw Pact troops ended the "Prague Spring" reforms in Czechoslovakia in 1968. In Poland, the independent trade union **Solidarity** 团结工会 (1980), led by Lech Wałęsa and supported by the Polish-born Pope John Paul II, showed that communist rule lacked popular support.
- The rise of **new nationalisms** in Central and Eastern Europe eventually brought **peaceful revolution in most countries**, but **violent conflict in some**.

Postwar Nationalism, Ethnic Conflict, and Atrocities

Nationalist and separatist movements, along with **ethnic conflict and ethnic cleansing**, periodically disrupted the post-war order. The examinable point is that 1945 did not end the problem of nationalism in Europe; it suppressed it in some places and postponed it in others.

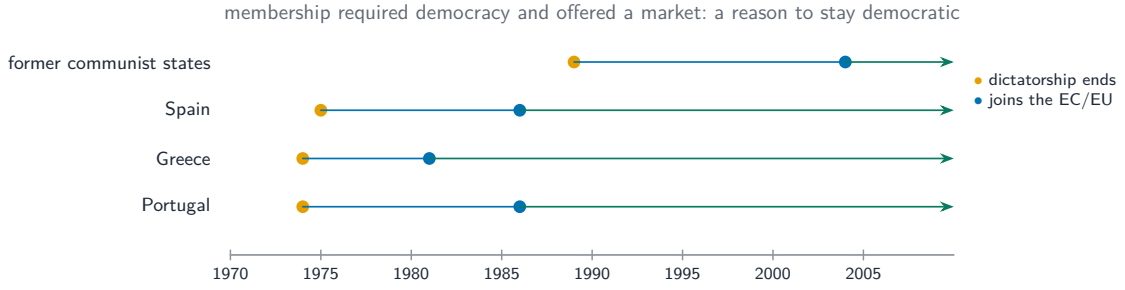
Nationalism, 1950–2000: change and continuity. *Change*: when Yugoslavia broke apart (1991–95), Serbian, Croatian and Bosnian nationalists fought wars that included ethnic cleansing and the massacre of about 8,000 Bosnian Muslim men and boys at Srebrenica (1995), the worst mass killing in Europe since 1945. Czechoslovakia,

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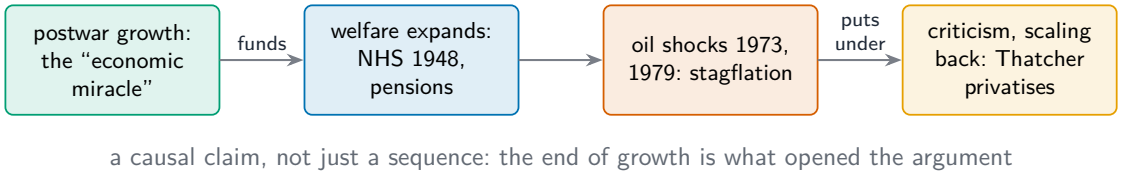
by contrast, split peacefully into the Czech Republic and Slovakia in 1993. *Continuity*: regional separatist movements such as ETA in the Basque Country and the conflict in Northern Ireland (1968–98, ended by the Good Friday Agreement) continued older nationalist demands for self-rule.

Contemporary Western Democracies

Postwar economic growth supported an **increase in welfare benefits** 福利待遇; subsequent **economic stagnation** 经济停滞 led to criticism and scaling back of the **welfare state** 福利国家.



Membership as a reason to stay democratic



Growth funded it; stagnation put it under argument

Hold both halves. Growth funded the welfare state; the end of growth is what put it under argument - which is a causal claim, not just a sequence of events. Britain created the National Health Service (1948), and West Germany's *Wirtschaftswunder*, its "economic miracle", paid for generous pensions. After the oil shocks of 1973 and 1979 brought **stagflation** 滞胀, rising prices with high unemployment, Margaret Thatcher (British prime minister 1979–90) privatised state industries and weakened trade unions.

Why democracy spread, 1975–2000. Dictatorships ended in Portugal (the Carnation Revolution, 1974), Greece (1974) and Spain after Franco's death (1975). Membership of the European Community, which required democratic government and offered access to its market, gave all three a strong reason to stay democratic: Greece joined in 1981, Spain and Portugal in 1986. After 1989 the same pull drew the former communist states toward democracy and, in 2004, into the EU.

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The Fall of Communism

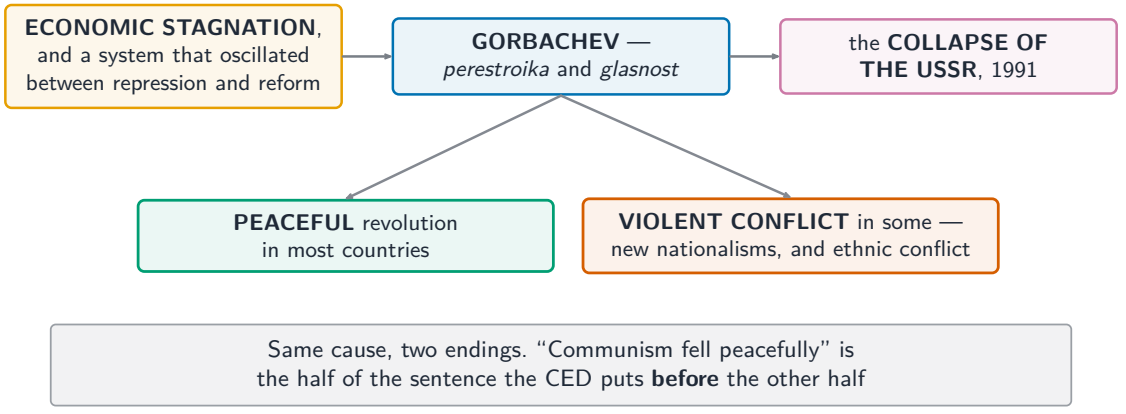
Following a long period of **economic stagnation**, **Mikhail Gorbachev's** 戈尔巴乔夫 internal reforms of **perestroika** 改革 and **glasnost** 开放 - despite being intended to strengthen the system - contributed to its collapse.

The **collapse of the USSR in 1991** ended the Cold War and led to the establishment of capitalist economies throughout Eastern Europe.

The shape of the argument matters: reform intended to save a system helped end it. That is the kind of claim an evaluation question rewards.

The collapse in dates. Gorbachev became Soviet leader in 1985. He withdrew from Afghanistan and abandoned the Brezhnev Doctrine, the claim that the Soviet Union could intervene to save communism in any bloc country. In 1989 Poland held semi-free elections that Solidarity won, Hungary opened its border with Austria, the Berlin Wall opened (9 November), and Czechoslovakia's "Velvet Revolution" removed its communist government peacefully; in Romania the dictator Ceaușescu was overthrown and executed. Germany reunified in October 1990, and the Soviet Union dissolved in December 1991.

Worked SAQ. *Explain one reason the Cold War ended in the late 1900s.* Gorbachev's reforms of glasnost allowed open criticism of the system, and his refusal to use force when Eastern European states rejected communism in 1989 removed the threat that had kept those governments in power since 1956 and 1968.



Same cause, two endings - the CED puts 'peaceful in most' before 'violent in some'

20th-Century Feminism

The lives of women were defined by **family and work responsibilities, economic changes, and feminism**. Across the century: expanding participation in paid work, especially during both wars; the extension of political rights; and organised movements that changed law and expectation in the postwar decades.

Evidence after 1914. Women gained the vote in Britain (1918 for women over 30,

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equal terms 1928), Germany (1918) and France (only in 1944). Simone de Beauvoir's *The Second Sex* (1949) argued that "one is not born, but rather becomes, a woman", inspiring second-wave feminism in the 1960s and 1970s. The contraceptive pill (1960s), the legalisation of abortion in Britain (1967) and France (1975) and equal-pay laws gave women more control over work and family.



Women painting shells at the Chilwell shell-filling factory, 1917: wartime work widened women's place in the paid economy

Worked LEQ thesis. *Evaluate the most significant difference between the status of women in the period 1815–1914 and the period after 1914.*

> The most significant difference was in legal and political rights: before 1914 women in most of Europe could not vote and married women often could not own property, while after 1914 the contribution of women to total war helped win them the vote in Britain and Germany in 1918, and later legal changes on divorce, contraception and equal pay gave them more control over their own lives.

Decolonization

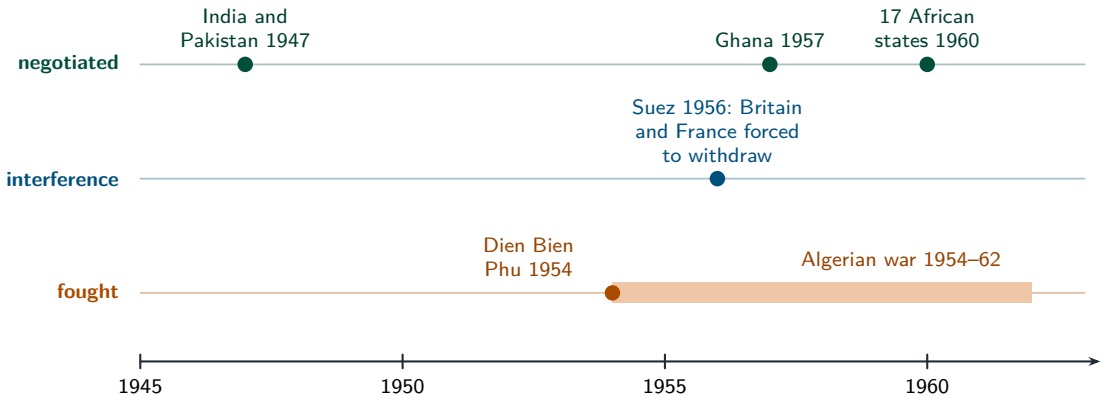
The process of **decolonisation** 去殖民化 occurred over the course of the century with **varying degrees of cooperation, interference, or resistance** from the European imperial powers.

The consequence for Europe itself is the part students omit: losing empire changed what a European state was, and it produced the migration examined two topics below.

The range of decolonisation. *Negotiated*: Britain withdrew from India in 1947, though partition into India and Pakistan caused mass violence and migration; Ghana became independent in 1957, and seventeen African states in 1960 alone. *Fought*: France lost Indochina after defeat at Dien Bien Phu (1954) and fought a brutal war in

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Algeria (1954–62). *Interference*: in the Suez Crisis (1956) Britain and France invaded Egypt and were forced to withdraw by American and Soviet pressure, which showed that they were no longer independent world powers.



Negotiated, fought, or interrupted by outside pressure: the range of decolonisation

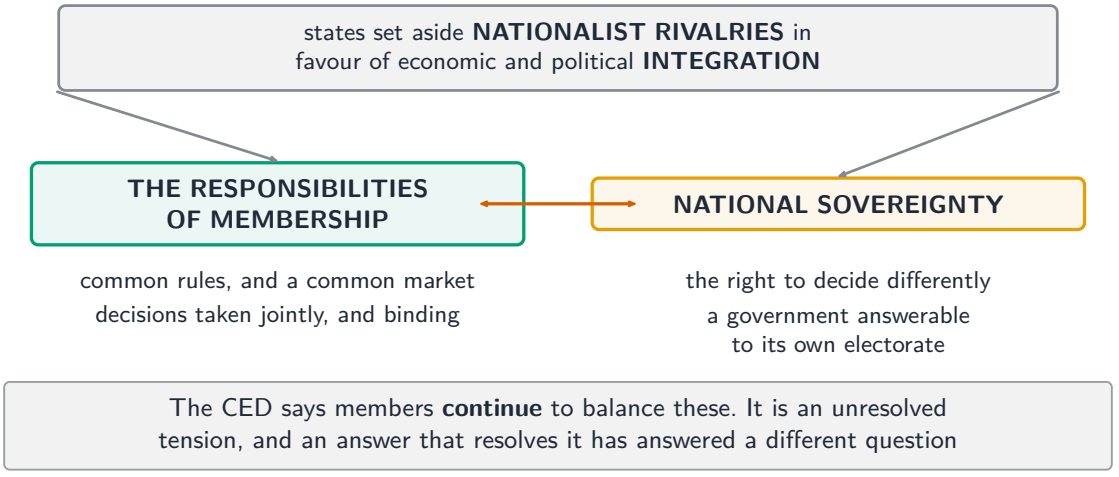
The European Union

European states **began to set aside nationalist rivalries in favour of economic and political integration**, forming a series of institutions that became the **European Union** 欧盟.

And the tension the CED names explicitly: EU member nations **continue to balance questions of national sovereignty against the responsibilities of membership** in an international body. That balance is the examinable issue, not the institutional history.

The institutions in order. The Schuman Plan (1950) proposed placing French and German coal and steel, the industries of war, under a shared authority: the European Coal and Steel Community (1951). The Treaty of Rome (1957) created the European Economic Community, a common market with no tariffs between members. Britain, Ireland and Denmark joined in 1973. The Maastricht Treaty (1992) created the European Union and planned a common currency; the euro was introduced in 1999 and its notes and coins in 2002. Ten states, mostly former communist countries, joined in 2004. Britain voted to leave in 2016 and left in 2020, the clearest example of the tension over sovereignty.

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An unresolved balance - an answer that resolves it has answered a different question

Migration and Immigration

- Because of the **economic growth of the 1950s and 1960s**, **migrant workers** 外来劳工 from southern Europe, Asia, and Africa immigrated to northern and western Europe.
- Increased immigration **altered Europe's religious makeup** 宗教构成, causing debate and conflict over the **role of religion in public life**.

Note the CED's own causal order: economic growth created labour demand, and migration followed it. The debates came afterwards. Examples: West Germany's agreement with Turkey (1961) brought "guest workers" (*Gastarbeiter*) expected to return home, many of whom stayed; the ship *Empire Windrush* (1948) brought Caribbean migrants to Britain; Algerians moved to France.

Technology and Globalization

- **Medical theories and technologies extended life** but posed social and moral questions that **eluded consensus** 未能形成共识.
- Increased imports of **US technology and popular culture** after the war generated **both enthusiasm and criticism** 既受欢迎也遭批评.
- New **communication and transportation technologies** multiplied connections across space and time, transforming daily life.
- **Green parties** 绿党 in Western and Central Europe challenged consumerism and urged **sustainable development** 可持续发展.

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Culture, Arts, and Demographic Trends

- The effects of world war and economic depression **undermined confidence in science and human reason**, giving impetus to new intellectual currents.
- **Organised religion continued to play a role** in European social and cultural life despite these challenges - a continuity worth stating, because answers tend to assume simple secularisation.
- The arts were defined by **experimentation, self-expression, subjectivity**, and increasing global influence.
- **Mass production, new food technologies, and industrial efficiency** increased disposable income and created a **consumer culture** 消费文化.
- With postwar recovery the birth rate rose dramatically - the **baby boom** 婴儿潮 - often promoted by government policy.
- Various movements - **women's movements, political and social movements, gay and lesbian movements** - pressed for rights and recognition.
- **Intellectuals and youth reacted against perceived bourgeois materialism**, most significantly in the movements of the later 1960s. In Paris in May 1968, student protests and a general strike of millions of workers shook de Gaulle's government.

Continuity and Change in the 20th and 21st Centuries

The unit's reasoning skill is **continuity and change**.

> **Worked example.** Try *"Explain one way in which European integration after 1945 represented a change from earlier European international relations."* A strong answer states the change against what it replaced: *"Before 1945 European states pursued national interest through competing alliances and, repeatedly, war. After 1945 states began to set aside those rivalries in favour of shared institutions, accepting binding common rules on trade and law - so a dispute between members became a matter for negotiation within an institution rather than a matter for the balance of power."* Notice that a change claim needs the **prior state of affairs** to be named.

Worked example: a short-answer question

Each part needs only one or two sentences: **answer** the question, **cite** one specific piece of evidence, and **explain** how it supports the answer.

Answer (a), (b) and (c).

(a) Briefly describe ONE way Western Europe was rebuilt after 1945.

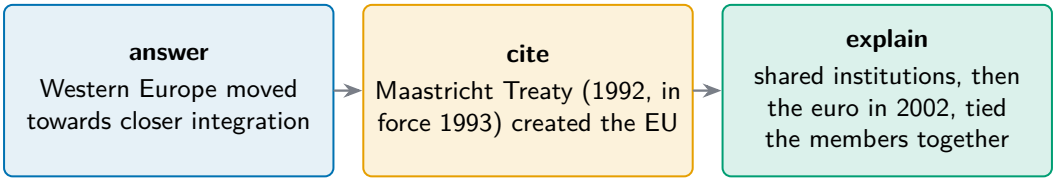
(b) Briefly describe ONE symbol of Cold War division in Europe.

(c) Briefly describe ONE step toward European integration.

Model answer.

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- (a) American aid through the Marshall Plan funded reconstruction and trade in Western Europe.
- (b) The Berlin Wall, built in 1961 and opened in 1989, divided East and West Berlin.
- (c) The Maastricht Treaty, signed in 1992 and effective in 1993, created the European Union, and the euro entered circulation in 2002.



part (c): one or two sentences, with one specific piece of evidence

Answer, cite, explain

Exam tips

- The unit has **two simultaneous stories** - division until 1991 and integration throughout. Weak answers tell only one.
- Memorise the Cold War's **methods**: propaganda, covert action, limited hot wars, arms race. The absence of direct war is the point.
- **"Oscillated between repression and reform"** is the CED's phrase for the Soviet bloc. It beats either half alone.
- Gorbachev's reforms were **intended to strengthen** the system. That irony is what an evaluation question is looking for.
- The **welfare state** grew on growth and was questioned when growth stopped. State the causal link.
- Migration followed **labour demand** created by the postwar boom. Get the causal order right before discussing the debates.

Comparing the two economic systems. Use the same question for both halves of Europe:

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	Western Europe	Eastern Europe (Soviet bloc)
Ownership	Mostly private, with some state-owned industries	State ownership of industry; collectivised farms
Decisions	Markets set most prices and output	Central planners set production targets
Trade	Common market (EEC) and trade with the United States	Comecon, oriented toward the Soviet Union
Outcome by 1980s	High growth to 1973, then stagflation	Stagnation, shortages and growing debt

Worked LEQ thesis. *Evaluate the most significant economic change in Europe during the period 1945–89.*

> The most significant economic change was the integration of western European economies: starting with the Coal and Steel Community (1951) and the common market of the Treaty of Rome (1957), states that had been rivals removed tariffs and coordinated industry, which fuelled the long boom, made war between them economically unthinkable, and widened the gap with the centrally planned East that helped bring down communism in 1989.

Common mistakes.

- Saying the Cold War involved no fighting. It involved no *direct* war between the superpowers; there were wars in Korea, Vietnam and Afghanistan.
- Describing Gorbachev as trying to end communism. He tried to save it through reform.
- Treating the EU as appearing in 1957. The EEC came first; the EU dates from Maastricht (1992).
- Forgetting the violent exceptions: Yugoslavia and Romania in a period of mostly peaceful change.

Practice.

1. Describe ONE cause of the development of the Cold War in the mid-1900s.
2. Explain ONE way the economic system in Eastern Europe differed from that in Western Europe, 1945–90.
3. Describe ONE economic factor that helped European unification efforts, 1945–90.
4. Explain ONE way nationalism led to a change in European politics, 1950–2000.
5. Explain ONE reason democracy spread in Europe between 1975 and 2000.

Answers.

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1. Disagreement over the future of Eastern Europe: the Soviet Union installed communist governments in states occupied by the Red Army, which the United States answered with containment (Truman Doctrine, 1947).
2. Eastern economies were centrally planned: state planners set targets for state-owned industry and collective farms, while Western economies relied mainly on private ownership and markets.
3. Marshall Plan aid required recipients to cooperate in planning recovery, and the Coal and Steel Community (1951) showed that pooling key industries brought growth.
4. Nationalism broke up Yugoslavia (1991–95) into separate states through war and ethnic cleansing.
5. Membership of the European Community required democracy and offered economic benefits, which helped Spain, Portugal and Greece consolidate democracy after their dictatorships ended in 1974–75.

Vocabulary card meanings

Marshall Plan: US economic aid that helped rebuild Western Europe after 1947. United Nations: The international organisation founded in 1945 to maintain peace. propaganda campaigns: Organised messaging meant to shape public belief during the Cold War. covert actions: Secret operations, short of open war, by intelligence services. limited "hot wars": Actual fighting kept local, such as Korea, inside the larger Cold War. arms race: Rival powers competing to build more and deadlier weapons. Iron Curtain: The divide between Soviet-dominated Eastern Europe and the West. central planning: An economy directed by state targets rather than by market prices. increase in welfare benefits: Growth in state payments and services for citizens after 1945. economic stagnation: A long period of weak growth, associated with the 1970s. welfare state: A state that provides broad social security, health care, and education. Mikhail Gorbachev's: The Soviet leader's policies of economic restructuring and greater openness. perestroika: The Soviet programme of restructuring the economy in the late 1980s. glasnost: The Soviet policy of more open speech and publication under Gorbachev. decolonisation: European empires giving up, or losing, their overseas colonies. European Union: The political and economic union that grew from postwar European cooperation. migrant workers: People who move to another country to take jobs. altered Europe's religious makeup: Immigration and secularisation changing which faiths are present. eluded consensus: Issues on which governments and publics could not agree. both enthusiasm and criticism: Responses that welcomed integration and responses that opposed it. Green parties: Political parties organised around environmental protection. consumer culture: A way of life organised around buying goods and brands. baby boom: The sharp rise in births in the years after the Second World War.

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