Course Companion

AP World History: Modern

Every topic handout in one volume

全部专题讲义合集

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The Global Tapestry

AP World History: Modern

Reading the World in 1200

Around 1200, Hangzhou in Song China probably had about a million people, with paper money, printed books and canals full of boats. London had perhaps twenty or thirty thousand. Unit 1 surveys the world from 1200 to 1450 so that you can compare societies like these: how they were governed, what people believed, and how they made a living.

In this unit you will:

- Explain how the Song dynasty ruled China, and how Chinese culture spread to its neighbours.
- Explain how states rose and Islam spread in **Dar al-Islam** 伊斯兰世界.
- Explain how belief systems shaped states in South and Southeast Asia.
- Describe states in the Americas and Africa.
- Explain how **feudalism** 封建制度 and the Church shaped Europe.
- Compare all of these regions.

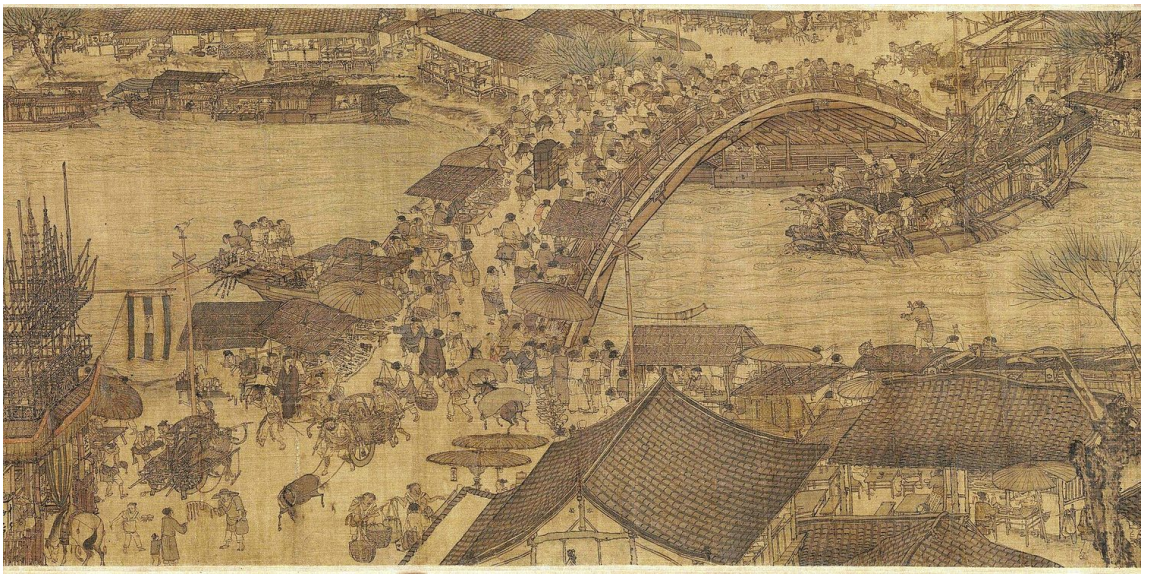
Ask three questions of every region:

- **The state:** who rules, through what officials, and paid for how?
- The **belief system** 信仰体系: what religion or philosophy gives law, education and **legitimacy** 合法性?
- **The economy:** how do people make a living, and who does the work?

East Asia

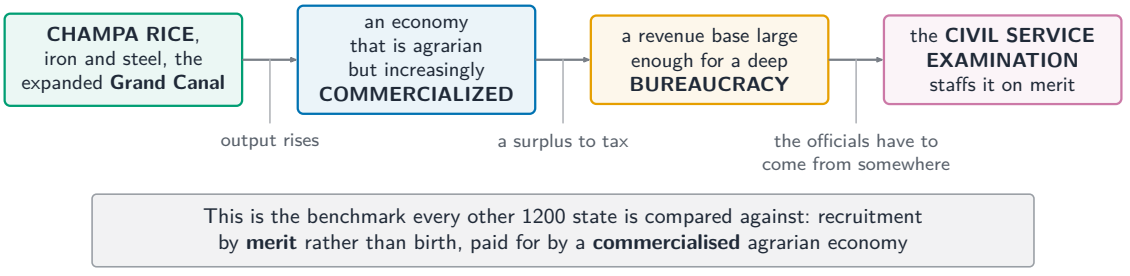
The **Song dynasty** 宋朝 (960–1279) ruled China through a **bureaucracy** 官僚机构 chosen by **civil service examinations** 科举. Candidates studied the Confucian classics for years; those who passed became officials, so power depended more on learning than on noble birth.

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Kaifeng under the Song: boats on the canal, shops and crowds on the Rainbow Bridge – a commercialised economy (Zhang Zeduan, Along the River During the Qingming Festival, 12th century)

- **Neo-Confucianism** 理学: thinkers such as Zhu Xi (1130–1200) joined Confucian ethics with Buddhist and Daoist ideas. It taught **filial piety** 孝道, obedience to parents and rulers, and supported a strict order between men and women; foot binding spread among elite women.
- **Buddhism** 佛教 came from India and changed in China, for example in Chan (Zen) Buddhism. It spread to Korea, Japan and Vietnam, along with Chinese writing and Confucian ideas.
- **The economy grew fast.** Fast-ripening **Champa rice** 占城稻 from Vietnam allowed two harvests a year. The **Grand Canal** 大运河 carried rice and goods north. The state issued paper money, and iron production and porcelain made for export grew.



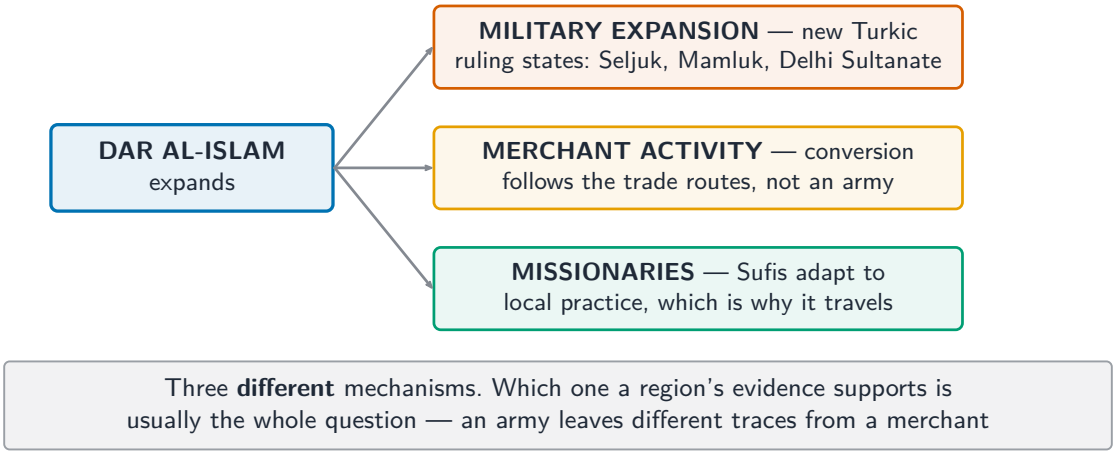
Song China as one chain: agricultural gains pay for the bureaucracy that the examination staffs

Dar al-Islam

Dar al-Islam, "the house of Islam", was the world of Muslim-ruled states. In this period the Abbasid Caliphate lost power, and new **Turkic** 突厥 states took over: the Seljuks, the Mamluks of Egypt (from 1250) and the **Delhi Sultanate** 德里苏丹国 (from 1206). The Mongols destroyed Baghdad in 1258.

Islam spread in three different ways.

- **Military expansion:** the Delhi Sultanate brought Muslim rule to northern India.
- **Merchants** 商人: Muslim traders carried Islam to the Swahili coast of East Africa and to Southeast Asia.
- **Sufi** 苏非派 **missionaries:** Sufi teachers, who stressed a personal experience of God, adapted Islam to local traditions.



Three different mechanisms of expansion - which one the evidence supports is usually the question

Learning grew in Muslim cities. Scholars translated and built on Greek and Indian works. Ibn Sina's *Canon of Medicine* (1025) was used in Europe for centuries, and Nasir al-Din al-Tusi built an observatory at Maragha in 1259.

South and Southeast Asia

Religion shaped states in South and Southeast Asia, and states used religion to show their power.

- **Hinduism** 印度教 changed through the **Bhakti movement** 虔信运动, which taught personal love for one god and was open to all castes.
- **Islam** came to northern India with the Delhi Sultanate, and Sufism spread it further.
- The **Vijayanagara Empire** 毗奢耶那伽罗帝国 (founded 1336) was a Hindu state in southern India.

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Angkor Wat, built by the Khmer Empire in the 12th century: Hindu, later Buddhist, monumental architecture

In Southeast Asia two kinds of state grew.

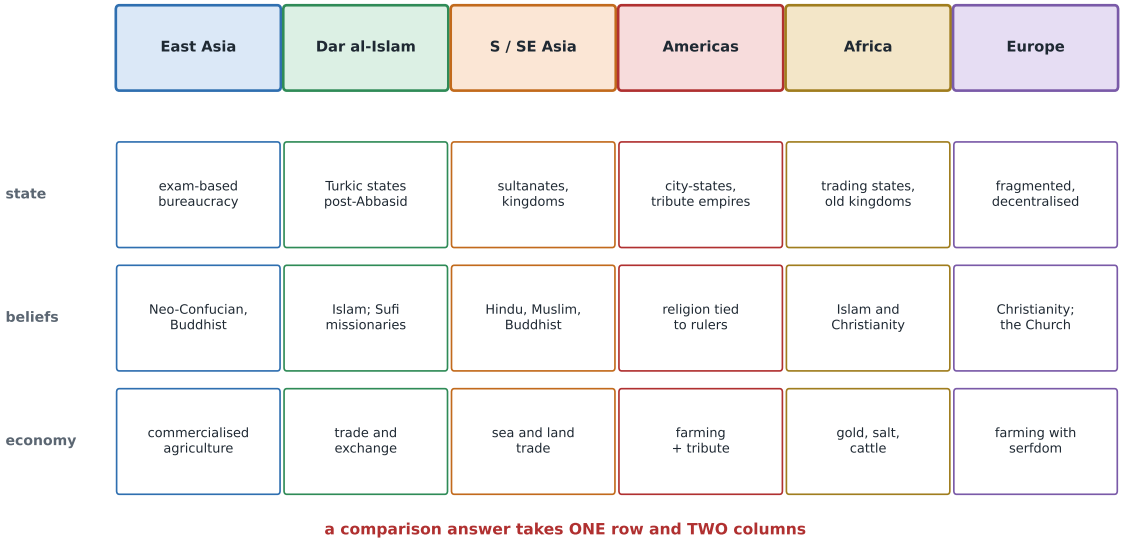
- **Sea-based states:** Srivijaya, on Sumatra, grew rich by controlling trade through the Strait of Malacca; Majapahit (founded 1293) ruled much of Java and the islands around it.
- **Land-based states:** the Khmer Empire built Angkor Wat in the 12th century, first as a Hindu temple and later used for Buddhist worship. Its farming depended on large water systems.

The Americas and Africa

States in the Americas grew without contact with Afro-Eurasia.

- The **Mexica** 墨西加人 (Aztecs) founded Tenochtitlan around 1325 on a lake in central Mexico. They ruled through **tribute** 贡品: conquered cities sent cloth, food and captives.
- The **Inca** 印加 built an empire along the Andes from Cusco under Pachacuti (from 1438). They used **mit'a** 米塔制, compulsory labour on roads, farms and buildings.
- **North America:** Cahokia, near modern St Louis, was the largest city north of Mexico, at its peak around 1050–1200; the Ancestral Puebloans built cliff dwellings at Mesa Verde.

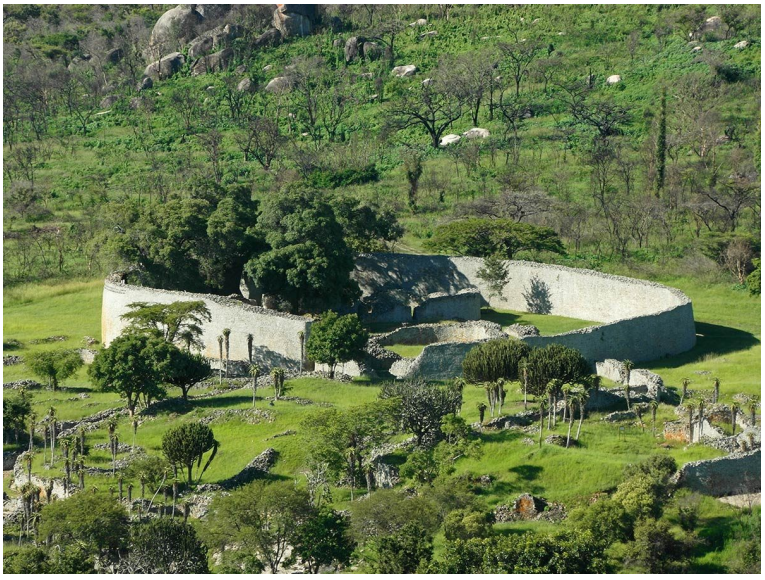
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One framework, six regions: state, belief system, and economic base are what comparison questions actually ask about

In Africa, trade built new states.

- **Great Zimbabwe** 大津巴布韦 (about 1200–1450) grew rich on the gold trade with the Swahili coast; its stone walls were built without mortar.
- **Mali** 马里帝国 controlled gold and salt routes across the Sahara. In 1324 its ruler Mansa Musa went on pilgrimage to Mecca with so much gold that its value fell in Cairo.
- **Ethiopia** 埃塞俄比亚 was a Christian kingdom; under King Lalibela, churches were cut into solid rock in the early 1200s.
- The **Swahili city-states** 斯瓦希里城邦, such as Kilwa, traded across the Indian Ocean.



The outer walls of Great Zimbabwe - dry-stone construction, and a state built on the gold trade

Europe

Europe in 1200 was divided into many small states, and the Catholic Church held them together in belief.



Chartres Cathedral (mainly 1194–1220): the Church was central to law, learning and wealth in medieval Europe

- **Feudalism:** kings gave land to nobles in return for military service. Power was spread out, not centralised.

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- **Manorialism** 庄园制 and **serfdom** 农奴制: most people were peasants, and serfs could not leave the lord's land.
- **The Church:** the Catholic Church ran schools and universities, kept its own law courts and owned much land.
- **Limits on kings:** in 1215 English barons forced King John to accept **Magna Carta** 大宪章, which limited royal power.

The Black Death (1347–1351) killed perhaps a third to a half of Europe's people. Labour became scarce, and many surviving peasants won higher wages and more freedom.

Comparison in the Period

Topic 1.7 asks you to compare how states held power. Compare on one feature at a time.

Feature	Song China	Delhi Sultanate	Europe	Mali
Rule	Emperor and exam-chosen officials	Sultan and Turkic military elite	Kings and nobles, power spread out	Mansa, wealth from trade
Belief	Neo-Confucianism, Buddhism	Islam over a Hindu majority	Catholic Christianity	Islam among the elite
Economy	Rice farming, canals, paper money	Land tax on farmers	Manors and serf labour	Gold and salt trade

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REGION	BELIEF SYSTEM	WHAT IT DID FOR AUTHORITY
Song China	Neo-Confucianism	ordered society by obligation — filial piety, and deference expected of women
Dar al-Islam	Islam	gave rulers of very different origins one shared source of legitimacy
Europe	Christianity, alongside Jewish and Muslim communities	sanctioned a fragmented order in which lords, not a state, held power
South and Southeast Asia	Hinduism, Buddhism and Islam together	bhakti and Sufi devotion crossed the boundaries rulers drew

Name the **function**, not the faith. "They were Confucian" is a label; "recruitment by examination rested on it" is an answer

Belief systems by what they did for authority, not by what they taught

Worked example: a short-answer question

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

(a) Briefly describe ONE way the Song dynasty kept control of China.
(b) Briefly describe ONE way Islam spread in the period 1200–1450.
(c) Briefly explain ONE way trade helped build a state in Africa.

Model answer.

- (a) The Song chose officials through civil service examinations on the Confucian classics, so the state was run by trained scholars loyal to the emperor rather than by noble families.
- (b) Muslim merchants carried Islam along Indian Ocean trade routes to Swahili city-states such as Kilwa.
- (c) Mali taxed the gold and salt trade across the Sahara, and this wealth paid for its rulers' power, as Mansa Musa's 1324 pilgrimage showed.

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Worked example: a comparison

Compare the ways the Song dynasty and European kingdoms governed in the period 1200–1450.

Step 1: one similarity, with evidence. Both used religion or philosophy to support rulers: Song emperors used Neo-Confucian ideas of order and obedience, and European kings were crowned by the Church.

Step 2: one difference, with evidence. The Song state was centralised, with officials chosen by examination and paid by the state. European power was decentralised: nobles held land in return for military service, and in 1215 English barons forced the king to accept Magna Carta.

Step 3: explain the difference. The Song could pay a large bureaucracy because its rice farming and commerce produced high taxes; European kings had less money and depended on nobles to raise armies.

Common errors

- Describing a region without comparing it.
- Saying Islam spread only by conquest: merchants and Sufis spread it too.
- Forgetting that Buddhism, like Islam, changed as it spread.
- Leaving out the Americas and Africa, or describing them without named states.
- Calling medieval Europe centralised.
- Mixing up Unit 1 (states, 1200–1450) with Unit 2 (networks of exchange).

Key terms

civil service examination: A test on the Confucian classics used to choose Chinese officials.

Neo-Confucianism: Confucian thought joined with Buddhist and Daoist ideas, from the Song period.

filial piety: The duty to respect and obey one's parents and elders.

Dar al-Islam: The lands where Muslims ruled and Islamic law applied.

Sufism: A form of Islam that stresses a personal experience of God.

tribute: Goods or labour that a conquered people must give to a ruling state.

feudalism: A system in which land is given in return for military service.

serfdom: A system in which peasants are tied to a lord's land.

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Check yourself

- Name two things that helped the Song economy grow.
- Give three ways Islam spread, each with an example.
- What did the Mexica and the Inca each demand from conquered people?

Answers: For example, Champa rice and two harvests a year; the Grand Canal; paper money. Military expansion (the Delhi Sultanate), merchants (Kilwa, Southeast Asia), Sufi missionaries (adapting Islam in India). The Mexica demanded tribute in goods and captives; the Inca demanded labour through the mit'a.

Sources for this lesson

College Board, *AP World History: Modern Course and Exam Description*, Unit 1, topics 1.1–1.7 (`syllabi/ap/ap_world_history_CED.pdf`). The practice questions are written for this course, not taken from past papers.

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Networks of Exchange

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What Made the Networks Grow

On 14 June 1325 a 21-year-old law student, Ibn Battuta, left Tangier in Morocco on pilgrimage to Mecca. He came home 29 years later, having travelled to Persia, the Swahili coast, India, China and Mali, mostly staying with Muslim scholars and merchants along the way. His journey shows the world of Unit 2: between 1200 and 1450, **networks of exchange** 交流网络 carried goods, people, religions, diseases and ideas across Afro-Eurasia.

In this unit you will:

- Explain why the **Silk Roads** 丝绸之路 grew, and the role of the **Mongol Empire** 蒙古帝国.
- Explain how the **Indian Ocean** 印度洋 trade worked, and the role of the **monsoon** 季风.
- Explain **trans-Saharan** 跨撒哈拉 trade and its link to Mali.
- Explain the cultural and environmental effects of these networks.
- Compare the three networks.

Every network grew because something made trade easier, safer or cheaper.

- **Transport:** the camel saddle, the caravan and the **caravanserai** 商队驿站 on land; ships, the compass and knowledge of the monsoon at sea.
- **Credit** 信贷: bills of exchange, banking houses and Chinese paper money meant merchants did not have to carry heavy coins.
- **Strong states:** empires that protected roads and ports, such as the Mongols and Mali.

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WHAT IMPROVED	THE OBSTACLE ADDRESSED	EXAMPLES
COMMERCIAL PRACTICES	carrying precious metal as payment was costly and risky	money economies, credit, bills of exchange
TRANSPORT TECHNOLOGY	limited carrying capacity and difficult navigation	camel saddle; larger ships; compass and astrolabe
STATE SUPPORT	insecurity and fragmented political control	protection and institutions could support travel

Explain how a change addressed a **specific obstacle**. Its effects varied by route and time; listing an invention does not yet explain trade growth

Each enabler removed a named obstacle - that pairing is what turns description into explanation

The Silk Roads

The Silk Roads were land routes across Central Asia. They carried mostly **luxury goods** 奢侈品, light and expensive enough to be worth the long journey: Chinese silk and porcelain, Indian cotton and spices, horses and silver.

- Trading cities such as Kashgar and Samarkand grew rich, and caravanserais gave merchants a safe place to sleep and store goods.
- Demand for luxury goods made Chinese and Indian manufacturing grow: China produced more porcelain and iron; India produced more cotton cloth.

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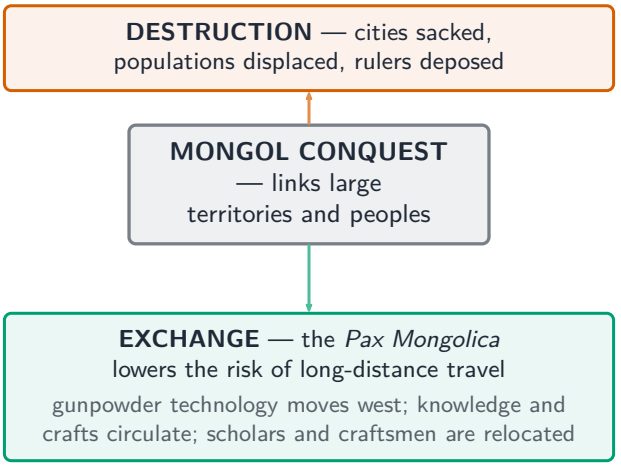
The courtyard of a caravanserai on the Isfahan–Shiraz road, drawn by Eugène Flandin in the 1840s: lodging, water and storage for travelling merchants

The Mongol Empire

In 1206 Temüjin was proclaimed **Chinggis Khan** 成吉思汗, ruler of all the Mongols. Within seventy years his armies and successors had built the largest **contiguous** 毗连的 land empire in history, from Korea to Hungary.

- **Destruction:** the Mongols killed many thousands in cities that resisted; in 1258 they sacked Baghdad.
- **Exchange:** the empire made the Silk Roads safe again. Its **yam** 驿站制度 relay stations carried messages and officials across the empire, and merchants could travel under its protection. This period of Mongol peace is called the **Pax Mongolica** 蒙古和平.
- **Ideas:** the Mongols moved scholars and craftsmen between China, Persia and Central Asia; Persian astronomy and medicine reached China, and Chinese printing and gunpowder knowledge moved west.

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Conquest and exchange could coexist. Explain the effect asked about; khanates differed and peace was not universal

Mongol expansion could cause destruction while facilitating exchange; effects varied

Kublai Khan founded the Yuan dynasty in China in 1271. The Venetian Marco Polo said he served at Kublai's court, and the Mongol monk Rabban Sauma travelled the other way, to Rome and Paris, in the 1280s.

The Indian Ocean

The Indian Ocean network carried more goods than the Silk Roads, and heavier ones: cotton cloth, spices, timber, rice and porcelain.

	What it carried	What enabled it	What it changed
Silk Roads	silk, porcelain, spices high value, low bulk	caravanserai, paper money, bills of exchange	wealthy route cities; artisans expand output
Indian Ocean	textiles, timber, grain bulk and luxury goods	monsoons; compass; astrolabe; larger ships	Swahili states and Malacca; diasporic communities
Trans-Saharan	gold north, salt south	camel saddle, organised caravans	Mali: route protection and taxation

Relative patterns, not exclusive cargo lists or identical outcomes

Compare a common feature using specific evidence from each network

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- **The monsoon:** the winds blow from the south-west in summer and from the north-east in winter, so sailors could plan their voyages by the season.
- **Ships and tools:** the Arab **dhow** 独桅帆船 with its lateen sail, the large Chinese **junk** 中国帆船, the magnetic compass and the astrolabe.
- **Port cities:** Kilwa and Mombasa on the Swahili coast, Calicut and Gujarat in India, and Malacca, which controlled the strait between the Indian Ocean and the South China Sea.
- **Diasporic communities** 侨居社群: merchants settled abroad, such as Arab and Persian traders in East Africa and Chinese merchants in Southeast Asia, and married into local families.



A dhow under lateen sail - the rig that let a ship work across the monsoon system

Between 1405 and 1433 the Ming admiral **Zheng He** 郑和 led seven voyages with fleets of large ships, reaching as far as the coast of East Africa. They displayed Ming power and collected tribute, but the Ming government stopped them after 1433.

Trans-Saharan Trade

Camel caravans 骆驼商队 crossed the Sahara between North and West Africa. New camel saddles let camels carry heavier loads over longer distances.

- **Gold and salt:** West Africa had gold, the Sahara had salt, and North Africa had cloth and horses.
- **Mali** grew rich by taxing this trade. In 1324 Mansa Musa travelled to Mecca with so much gold that its value fell in Cairo for years.
- **Timbuktu** 廷巴克图 became a centre of Islamic learning, with mosques and libraries.

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A camel caravan carrying salt in Mauritania's Adrar region, 1965: salt still crossed the Sahara by camel centuries after the medieval trade

Cultural and Environmental Consequences

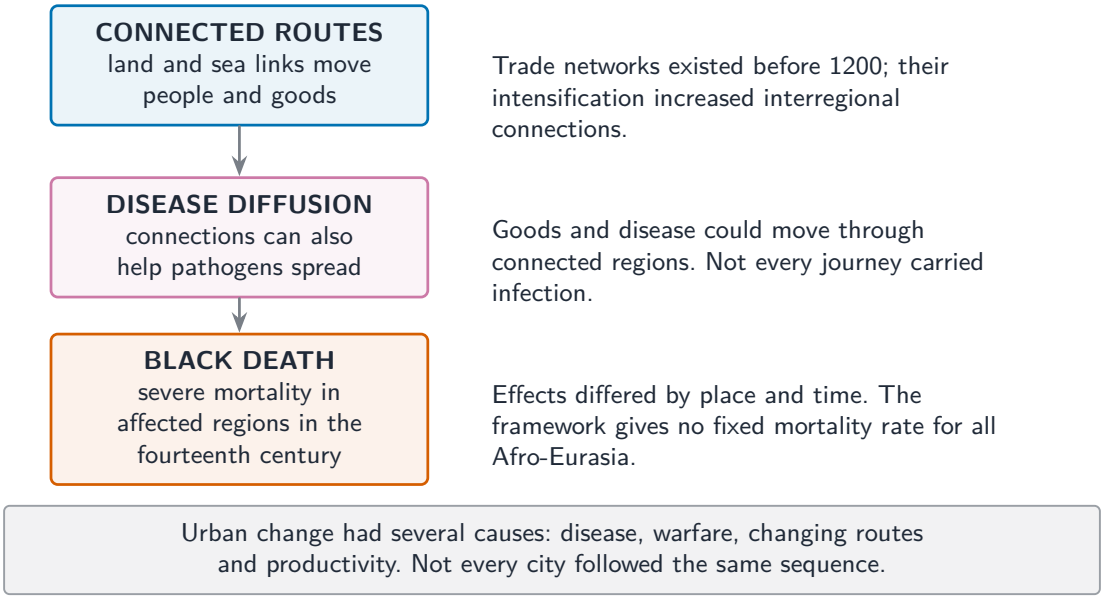
The networks spread religions, technology and diseases.

- **Religion:** Islam spread along all three networks, carried by merchants and Sufis; Buddhism spread in East and Southeast Asia.
- **Technology:** paper, printing, gunpowder and the compass travelled from China to the Islamic world and Europe.
- **Travellers:** Ibn Battuta, Marco Polo and the English pilgrim Margery Kempe left records of the places they saw.

Crops and diseases moved too (topic 2.6).

- **Crops:** Champa rice spread from Vietnam to China, and bananas from Southeast Asia to Africa; sugar and citrus fruit spread across the Islamic world.
- The **Black Death** 黑死病: plague spread from Central Asia along trade routes. It reached the Black Sea port of Caffa in 1346 and Europe in 1347, and killed perhaps a third to a half of Europe's people, and many in the Middle East and North Africa.

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Connected land and sea routes helped epidemic disease spread; local consequences varied

Comparison of Economic Exchange

Topic 2.7 asks you to compare the networks. Compare one feature at a time.

Feature	Silk Roads	Indian Ocean	Trans-Saharan
Main goods	Silk, porcelain, horses: luxuries	Cotton, spices, timber, rice: bulk goods too	Gold, salt, slaves
Key technology	Caravanserai, credit, paper money	Monsoon knowledge, dhow, compass	Camel saddle
States that gained	Mongol Empire	Swahili city-states, Malacca	Mali
Religion spread	Buddhism, Islam	Islam	Islam

A similarity: all three spread Islam, because Muslim merchants were active in each. A difference: the Indian Ocean carried bulk goods by sea, while land routes carried mainly light, valuable goods.

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Worked example: a short-answer question

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

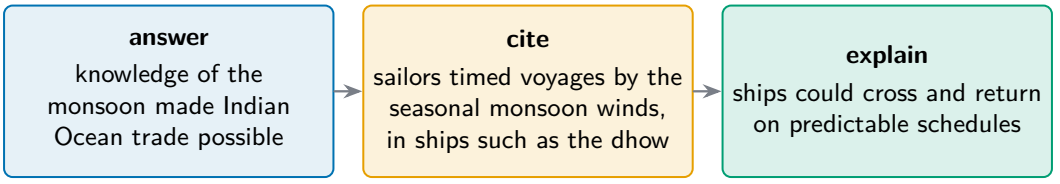
(a) Briefly describe ONE way the Mongol Empire helped trade.

(b) Briefly describe ONE way trade spread a religion.

(c) Briefly explain ONE way environmental knowledge helped Indian Ocean trade.

Model answer.

- (a) The Mongols kept the Silk Roads safe and built yam relay stations, so merchants and messages could cross the empire with less risk.
- (b) Muslim merchants settled in Swahili cities such as Kilwa, and Islam spread among local rulers and traders.
- (c) Sailors knew that the monsoon winds change direction with the seasons, so they could sail to India in one season and return in the next.



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

Answer, cite, explain

Worked example: a comparison

Compare the effects of the Silk Roads and trans-Saharan trade on states in the period 1200–1450.

Step 1: one similarity, with evidence. Both made trading states rich: Samarkand grew on the Silk Roads, and Mali grew by taxing gold and salt.

Step 2: one difference, with evidence. Under the Mongols, one huge empire protected the Silk Roads, while trans-Saharan trade passed through several separate states and peoples, such as Mali and the Berber traders of the desert.

Step 3: explain. Both states gained because they could tax trade passing through their land; but trans-Saharan trade depended on a single route between two products, gold and salt, so Mali's wealth depended closely on controlling it.

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Common errors

- Describing trade routes without saying what made them grow.
- Saying the Mongols only destroyed: they also protected trade and moved knowledge.
- Treating the Indian Ocean as only a luxury trade: it carried bulk goods too.
- Forgetting the monsoon in an Indian Ocean answer.
- Leaving out the Black Death as an effect of the networks.
- In a comparison, describing each network separately without a direct similarity or difference.

Key terms

network of exchange: A system of routes that moves goods, people and ideas between regions.

caravanserai: A roadside inn for merchants and their animals.

bill of exchange: A paper promise to pay, used instead of carrying coins.

monsoon: Seasonal winds that change direction in summer and winter.

dhow: An Arab sailing ship with a lateen sail.

diasporic community: A group of people who settled far from their homeland but kept their culture.

Pax Mongolica: The period of peace and safe trade across the Mongol Empire.

Black Death: The plague pandemic of the 1300s.

Check yourself

- Give two things that made trade easier on the Silk Roads.
- Why could Indian Ocean ships carry heavy goods?
- How did the Black Death spread to Europe?

Answers: For example, caravanserais, credit such as bills of exchange or paper money, and Mongol protection. Ships could carry far more weight than camels, and the monsoon made voyages predictable. It travelled from Central Asia along trade routes to Caffa on the Black Sea in 1346, and by ship into Europe in 1347.

Sources for this lesson

College Board, *AP World History: Modern Course and Exam Description*, Unit 2, topics 2.1–2.7 (`syllabi/ap/ap_world_history_CED.pdf`); the official course page and its fall-2026 clarification. The Metropolitan Museum of Art's Mongol history and collections essay. The practice questions are written for this course, not taken from past papers.

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Land-Based Empires

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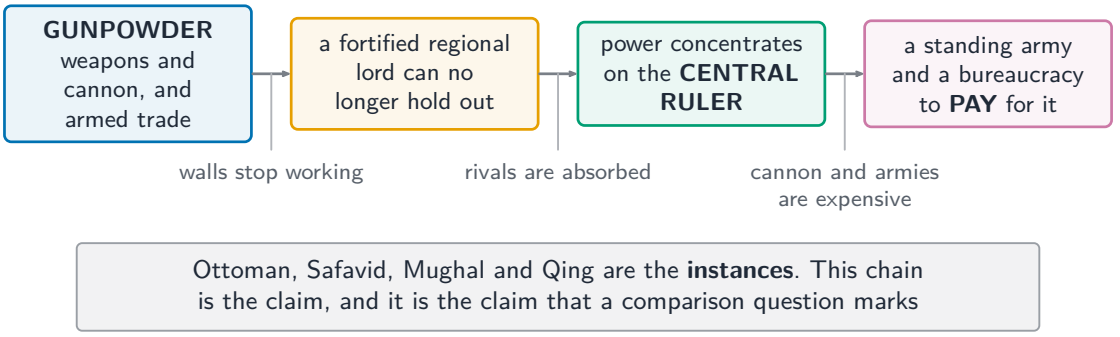
How the Land Empires Expanded

On 29 May 1453 the army of the Ottoman sultan Mehmed II broke into Constantinople. Its walls had stopped attackers for a thousand years, but Mehmed's cannons, one of them cast by a Hungarian founder named Orban, fired stone balls weighing hundreds of kilograms. The Byzantine Empire ended that day. Unit 3 covers 1450 to 1750, when a few large **land-based empires** 陆上帝国 used gunpowder to conquer, and then had to find ways to rule millions of very different people.

In this unit you will:

- Explain how the Ottoman, Safavid, Mughal and Qing empires, and Russia, expanded.
- Explain how rulers ran their empires through **bureaucracies** 官僚机构, armies and taxes.
- Explain how rulers made their power seem rightful, their **legitimacy** 合法性.
- Explain how religious divisions changed states.
- Compare the methods different empires used.

The Ottoman, Safavid and Mughal states are called **gunpowder empires** 火药帝国 because cannons and handguns helped them conquer and helped rulers centralise power. Guns were expensive, so only a strong central state could pay for them, and the guns made that state stronger still.

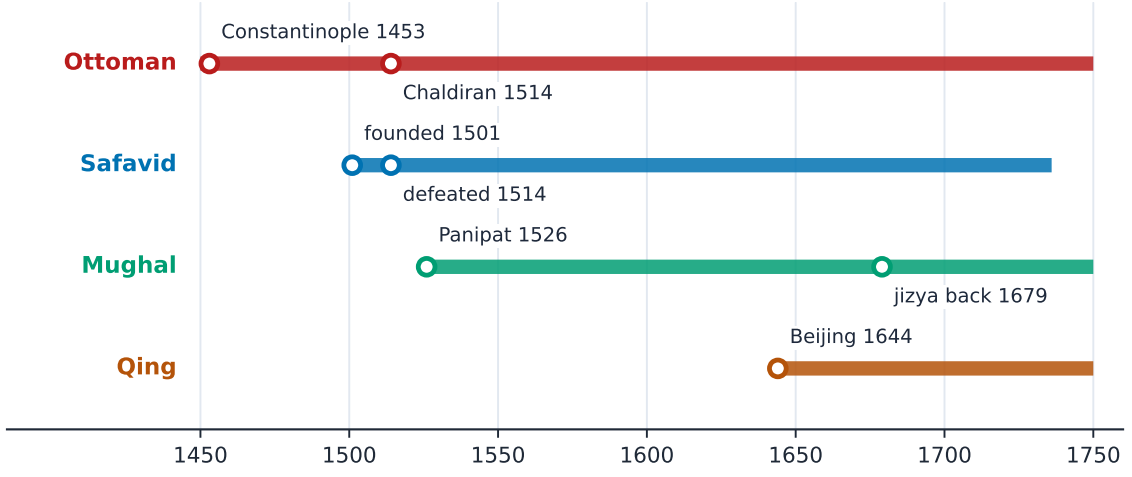


Why they are called gunpowder empires: military technology and centralisation grew together

- **Ottoman Empire:** took Constantinople (1453) and Egypt (1517). At Chaldiran (1514) its guns defeated the Safavid cavalry.
- **Safavid Empire:** founded in Persia (modern Iran) by Shah Ismail I in 1501.

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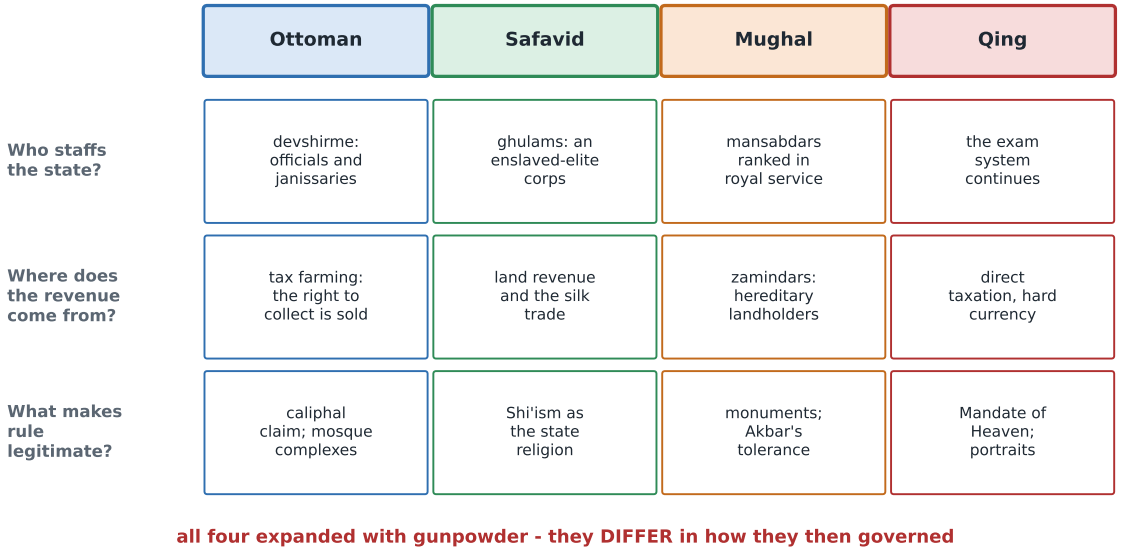
- **Mughal Empire:** founded when Babur used cannons and handguns to win the Battle of Panipat (1526) in northern India.
- **Qing dynasty** 清朝: the Manchus, from the north-east, took Beijing in 1644, then Taiwan (1683) and Xinjiang (1750s).
- **Russia:** Ivan IV took Kazan in 1552, and Russian traders and soldiers reached the Pacific by 1639.



The four empires, 1450-1750: the gunpowder battles that built them and one turning point in religious policy.

Administration

Every large empire had the same three problems: finding loyal officials, raising **revenue** 财政收入 and keeping order over people who were not the ruler's own. Each solved them differently.



The same three problems - staff, revenue, legitimacy - solved differently by each empire

- Ottoman **devshirme** 德夫希尔梅制度: Christian boys from the Balkans were taken, converted to Islam and trained. The best became administrators; others became **Janissaries** 耶尼切里, the sultan's elite infantry. Because they had no family power of their own, they were loyal to the sultan.
- **Qing bureaucracy:** the Manchus kept China's **civil service examinations** 科举, so Han Chinese scholars staffed the government, and many top posts were shared between a Manchu and a Han official.
- **Mughal revenue:** under Akbar (ruled 1556–1605), **zamindars** 柴明达尔 (local landholders) collected land tax, and officials held numbered ranks, the mansab, which set their pay and the number of soldiers they kept.
- Ottoman **tax farming** 包税制: the right to collect taxes was sold to private collectors, who paid the state in advance and kept what they gathered above that.

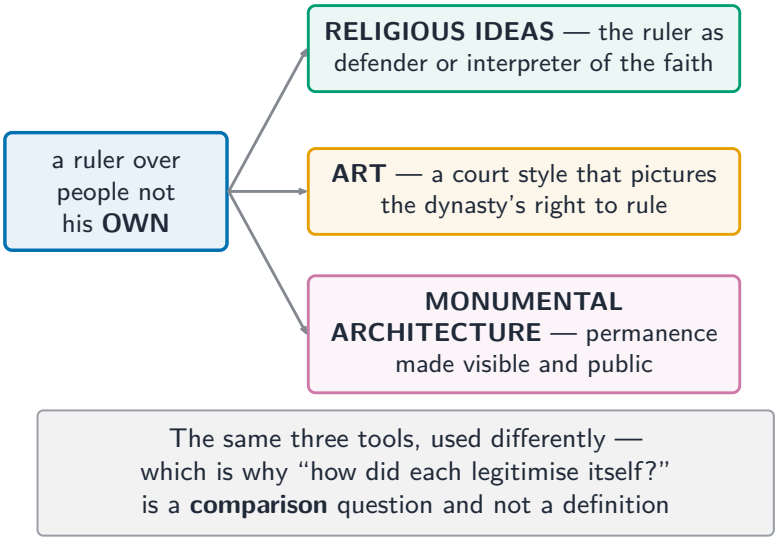
Tribute was another tool. The Aztec state collected cloth, cocoa and feathers from conquered city-states; the Inca used **mit'a** 米塔制, compulsory labour on roads and buildings.

Legitimacy and Belief

Rulers also had to convince people that they had the right to rule.

- **Religion:** Louis XIV of France claimed **divine right** 君权神授, that his power came directly from God. The Qing Kangxi emperor (ruled 1661–1722) supported Confucian scholarship and presented himself as a Confucian ruler.

- **Monumental architecture** 纪念性建筑: Mimar Sinan's Süleymaniye Mosque in Istanbul (1550–1557), Shah Jahan's Taj Mahal (built 1632–1653) and Louis XIV's palace at Versailles all displayed the ruler's power and piety.
- **Rituals and art:** court ceremony, paintings and the rule of who could see the ruler and when.



Three instruments for a ruler over people not his own - used differently by each empire

Religion also divided states in this period.

- The **Protestant Reformation** 新教改革: in 1517 Martin Luther published his Ninety-five Theses against the sale of **indulgences** 赎罪券. Western Christianity split; rulers chose sides, and wars of religion followed. The Catholic **Counter-Reformation** 反宗教改革 (the Council of Trent, 1545–1563) answered with reform and new orders such as the Jesuits.
- **Sunni and Shi'a Islam:** Shah Ismail made Shi'a Islam 什叶派 the state religion of the Safavid Empire, while the Ottomans were Sunni 逊尼派. The split made the Ottoman–Safavid rivalry a religious one too.
- **Sikhism** 锡克教: founded by Guru Nanak (born 1469) in Punjab, it drew on both Hindu and Islamic ideas.

THE DIVISION	WHERE	WHAT IT DID POLITICALLY
The Protestant Reformation	Latin Christendom	broke the single religious authority a ruler could appeal to
The Sunni-Shia split	Ottoman and Safavid	turned a doctrinal difference into the border between two empires
Sikhism	Mughal South Asia	a new tradition inside an empire that ruled a religiously plural population

In this unit a religious division is a **political** fact. Say what it did to a state's authority, not what the two sides believed

Three religious divisions, read for what each one did to a state's authority

Religious policy could hold an empire together or break it. Akbar, a Muslim ruling a mostly Hindu population, ended the **jizya** 吉兹亚税, the tax on non-Muslims, in 1564. His great-grandson Aurangzeb brought it back in 1679, and Hindu and Sikh resistance grew.



The Süleymaniye Mosque - monumental architecture as an instrument of legitimacy

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The Taj Mahal - the same instrument, used by a Mughal ruler over a religiously plural population

Comparison in Land-Based Empires

Topic 3.4 asks you to compare how empires grew and stayed together. Compare on one feature at a time.

Feature	Ottoman	Mughal	Qing
Expansion	Gunpowder conquest: Constantinople 1453	Gunpowder conquest: Panipat 1526	Manchu conquest of Ming China, 1644
Officials	Devshirme, Janissaries	Mansabdars, zamindars	Exam-trained Han scholars beside Manchus
Legitimacy	Sunni Islam, the sultan as caliph, mosques	Tolerance under Akbar, the Taj Mahal	Confucian rule, the Mandate of Heaven
Religious minorities	Taxed but protected	Jizya ended (1564), restored (1679)	Tibetan Buddhism patronised

A similarity is a shared method (all three were ruled by an outside or minority group that adopted local tools). A difference is a method only one used, or the same method used for a different purpose.

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Worked example: a short-answer question

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

> (a) Briefly describe ONE method the Ottoman Empire used to administer its territory.
>
> (b) Briefly describe ONE way a ruler of a land-based empire legitimised their power.
>
> (c) Briefly explain ONE way gunpowder weapons helped land-based empires expand.

Model answer.

- (a) Through the devshirme, the Ottomans took Christian boys from the Balkans and trained them as administrators and Janissary soldiers who were loyal only to the sultan.
- (b) Shah Jahan built the Taj Mahal (1632–1653), a monument that displayed the wealth and piety of the Mughal ruler.
- (c) Babur's cannons and handguns defeated a much larger army at Panipat in 1526, which let him found the Mughal Empire in northern India.

Worked example: a comparison

> Compare the religious policies of the Mughal and Ottoman empires in the period 1450–1750.

Step 1: choose one feature both had. Both were ruled by Muslims over large non-Muslim populations.

Step 2: find one similarity with evidence. Both used the jizya at times: the Ottomans taxed Christians and Jews and allowed them their own communities; the Mughals collected it before 1564 and after 1679.

Step 3: find one difference with evidence. Akbar went further towards equality: he ended the jizya in 1564 and brought Hindu nobles into high office. Aurangzeb then reversed the policy, so Mughal policy changed sharply over time, while Ottoman policy was more stable.

Step 4: explain the reason. Mughal rulers were a small Muslim minority in a mostly Hindu land, so tolerance was a way to keep power; when Aurangzeb ended it, resistance by the Marathas and Sikhs grew.

Common errors

- Calling every land empire a "gunpowder empire": the term is used for the Ottoman, Safavid and Mughal states.
- Describing administration only with the word "bureaucracy" and no named method.

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- Mixing up the devshirme (recruitment of boys) with the Janissaries (one group those boys joined).
- Listing buildings without explaining how they gave legitimacy.
- Saying the Reformation was only about religion: rulers also used it to take church land and power.
- In a comparison, describing two empires one after the other without a direct similarity or difference.

Key terms

gunpowder empire: An empire, such as the Ottoman, Safavid or Mughal, that used firearms to conquer and centralise power.

bureaucracy: A system of appointed officials who carry out the government's work.

devshirme: The Ottoman practice of taking Christian boys to train as soldiers and officials.

Janissaries: The Ottoman sultan's elite infantry, recruited through the devshirme.

tax farming: Selling the right to collect taxes to private collectors.

legitimacy: The belief that a ruler has the right to rule.

divine right: The claim that a monarch's power comes directly from God.

jizya: A tax paid by non-Muslims in some Muslim states.

Check yourself

- Why did the Ottomans use boys from Christian families as officials?
- Give two methods of legitimacy, each with a named example.
- Which battle, and which year, began the Mughal Empire?

Answers: They had no powerful families of their own, so their loyalty was to the sultan. For example, monumental architecture (the Taj Mahal or the Süleymaniye Mosque) and divine right (Louis XIV). The Battle of Panipat, 1526.

Sources for this lesson

College Board, *AP World History: Modern Course and Exam Description*, Unit 3, topics 3.1–3.4 (`syllabi/ap/ap_world_history_CED.pdf`). The practice questions are written for this course, not taken from past papers.

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Transoceanic Interconnections

AP World History: Modern

Why Europeans Sailed

On 20 May 1498 the Portuguese captain Vasco da Gama anchored near Calicut, on India's south-west coast, after sailing around the southern tip of Africa. For the first time a European ship had reached the Indian Ocean spice trade without passing through Venetian or Muslim middlemen. Unit 4 covers 1450 to 1750, when ocean voyages joined the Americas to Afro-Eurasia and Europeans built **maritime empires** 海上帝国.

In this unit you will:

- Explain the technology and motives behind European voyages.
- Explain the causes and effects of the **Columbian Exchange** 哥伦布大交换.
- Explain how maritime empires were built, and the **coerced labour** 强迫劳动 systems they used.
- Explain how empires were kept and how they changed social hierarchies.
- Explain resistance to these empires, and continuity and change in the period.

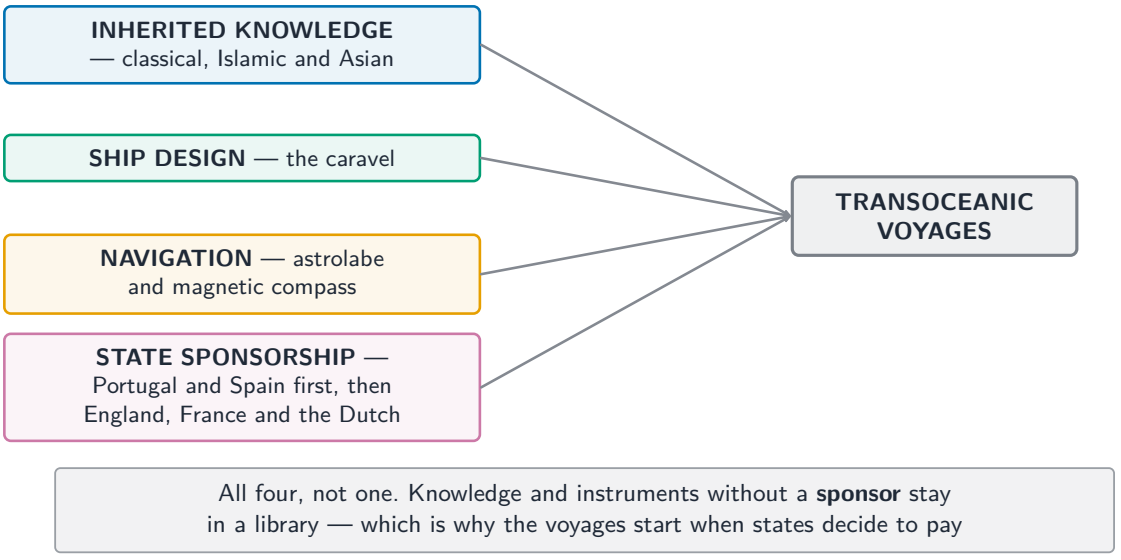
New technology made long ocean voyages possible.

- **Ships:** the small, fast **caravel** 卡拉维尔帆船 and the larger carrack, and later the Dutch fluyt, built to carry cargo cheaply.
- **Instruments:** the **astrolabe** 星盘 measured latitude from the sun or stars; the **magnetic compass** 指南针 came from China.
- **Sails and knowledge:** the triangular **lateen sail** 三角帆, used in the Indian Ocean, let ships sail against the wind; Portuguese sailors learned the wind patterns of the Atlantic.

Motives 动机: rulers paid for voyages to gain wealth (gold, silver and spices bought without middlemen), to spread Christianity, and to win power over rival states.

- **Portugal:** Prince Henry sponsored voyages down the African coast; Bartolomeu Dias rounded the Cape of Good Hope in 1488.
- **Spain:** Columbus reached the Caribbean in 1492. Magellan's expedition (1519–1522) was the first to sail around the world; Magellan died on the way, and Juan Sebastián Elcano completed it.
- **Others:** the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494) divided new lands between Spain and Portugal, so England, France and the Netherlands looked for routes through North America.

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Four necessary conditions, not one motive - knowledge and instruments still need a sponsor

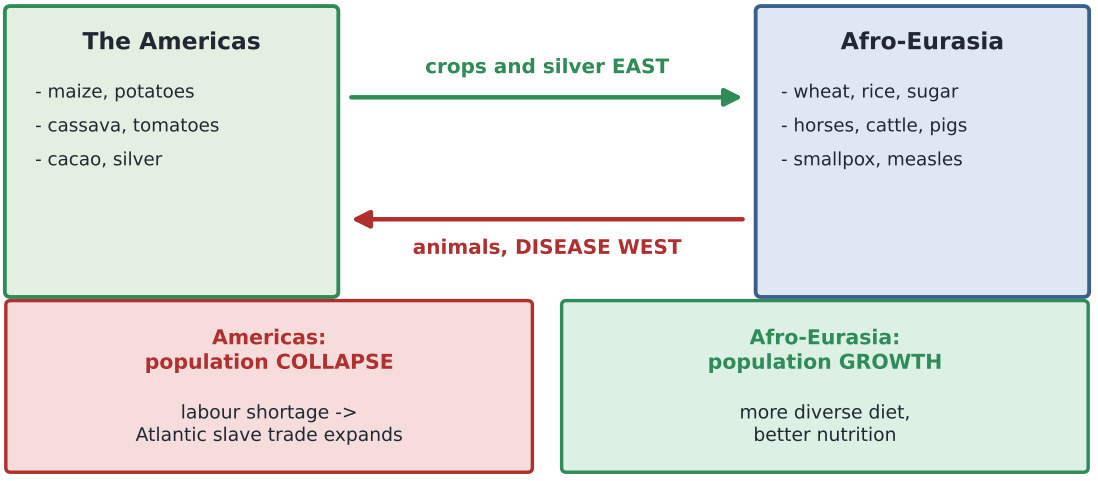


A caravel replica - the ship design that made the oceanic voyages possible

The Columbian Exchange

The Columbian Exchange was the movement of plants, animals, people and diseases between the Americas and Afro-Eurasia after 1492.

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one exchange, opposite demographic outcomes - that asymmetry is the answer

The exchange ran both ways, but the consequences were not symmetrical

To the Americas	To Afro-Eurasia
Smallpox, measles, malaria	–
Horses, cattle, pigs	Turkeys
Wheat, rice, sugar cane, coffee	Maize, potatoes, cassava, tomatoes, cacao, tobacco
Enslaved Africans and European settlers	Silver

- **Disease** 疾病 was the biggest effect. Indigenous Americans had no immunity to smallpox and measles, and populations fell by more than half in most regions, by up to 90 per cent in some.
- **Labour:** as Indigenous people died, Europeans turned to enslaved Africans to work plantations of sugar, which came from the Old World.
- **Food and population:** maize and sweet potatoes helped China's population grow; potatoes did the same in northern Europe; cassava became a staple in Africa.
- **Environment:** horses changed the life of Plains peoples, and forests were cleared for sugar and cattle.

Maritime Empires Established

Europeans built two kinds of empire.

- **Trading-post empires** 贸易据点帝国: Portugal took ports, not land: Goa (1510), Malacca (1511) and Macau (1557).

- **Land conquest in the Americas:** Hernán Cortés took the Mexica capital Tenochtitlan in 1521, and Francisco Pizarro conquered the Inca Empire in the 1530s, helped by disease, steel weapons and Indigenous allies.

Joint-stock companies 股份公司, such as the English East India Company (1600) and the Dutch East India Company, the **VOC** 荷兰东印度公司 (1602), let many investors share the cost and risk of trade, and they had their own armies.

Each empire used **coerced labour**:

- **Encomienda** 委托监护制: Spanish settlers were given the labour of Indigenous people, in return for "protection" and teaching them Christianity.
- **Hacienda** 大庄园: large estates that produced food and animals, worked by Indigenous and mixed-race labourers.
- **Mit'a** 米塔制: the Spanish took over the Inca labour draft to work the silver mines of Potosí, found in 1545.
- **Chattel slavery** 动产奴隶制: enslaved people were owned as property, and so were their children.

SYSTEM	WHO, AND WHERE	WHAT IT SUPPLIED
ENCOMIENDA	Indigenous people, Spanish America	a labour grant attached to a colonist
MITA	Indigenous communities, the Andes	rotating compulsory labour, above all for the mines
PLANTATION SLAVERY	enslaved Africans, the Atlantic world	the workforce for sugar, tobacco and later cotton
SLAVERY WITHIN AFRICA	continues in its traditional forms	incorporation into households — a different institution, and the CED says so

"Coerced labour" is a category, not an answer. Name the **system**, its people and its purpose, and the comparison writes itself

Four coerced-labour systems distinguished by who, where, and what each supplied

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Cerro Rico at Potosi - the mountain the mita labour system was organised to work

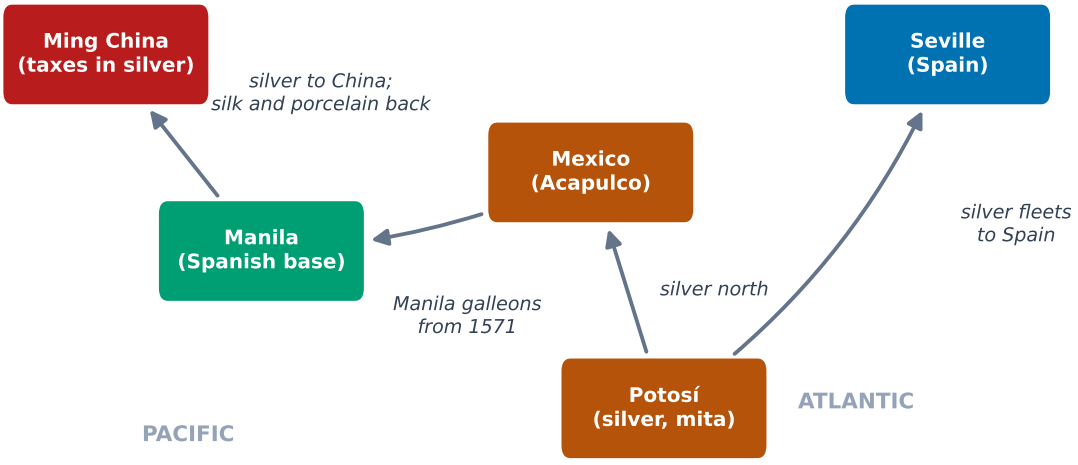
The **Atlantic slave trade** 大西洋奴隶贸易 carried about 12.5 million Africans across the Atlantic between 1501 and 1866; more than one in ten died on the voyage. Most went to the sugar plantations of Brazil and the Caribbean. Some African states, such as Asante and Dahomey, grew powerful by selling captives to European traders.

Maritime Empires Maintained

Silver from the Americas linked the world economy.

- From Potosí and Mexico silver crossed the Atlantic to Seville.
- From Acapulco the **Manila galleons** 马尼拉大帆船 (from 1571) carried silver across the Pacific to Manila, where it bought Chinese silk and porcelain.
- China's Ming government required taxes to be paid in silver from the 1570s, so Chinese demand pulled silver from around the world.

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Silver from the Americas went two ways: east to Spain and west to China.

European states followed **mercantilism** 重商主义: colonies supplied raw materials and bought goods from the home country, so that the home country gained gold and silver.

Some states limited contact with Europeans. Tokugawa Japan expelled Christian missionaries and, from the 1630s, allowed only Dutch and Chinese traders, at Nagasaki.

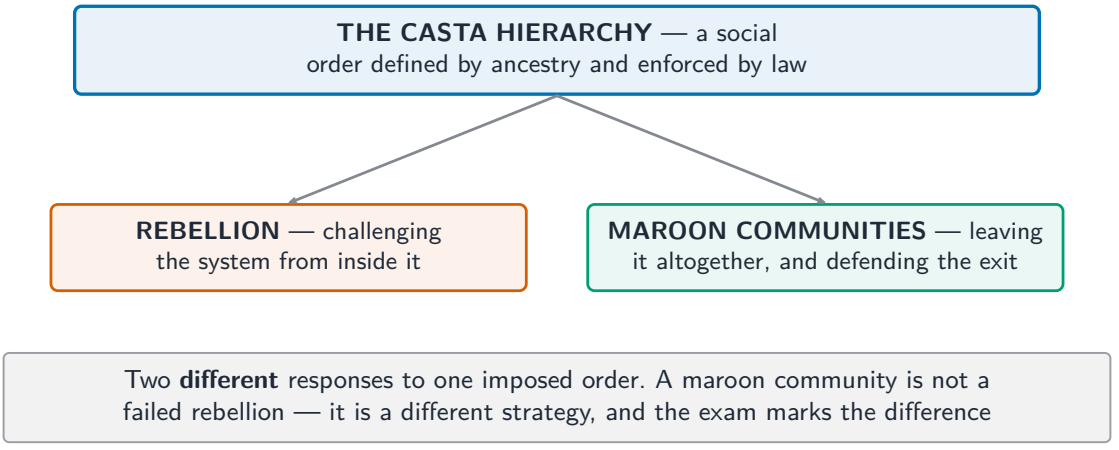
Empires also changed **social hierarchies** 社会等级 (topic 4.7). In Spanish America the **casta system** 种姓制度（卡斯塔制度）ranked people by birth: Spaniards born in Spain (peninsulares) at the top, then American-born Spaniards (creoles), people of mixed European and Indigenous descent (mestizos), people of mixed European and African descent (mulattoes), and Indigenous and enslaved African people at the bottom. Religion mixed too: the Virgin of Guadalupe joined Catholic and Indigenous traditions.

Internal and External Challenges

People resisted the new empires and the states that ruled them.

- The **Pueblo Revolt** 普韦布洛起义 (1680): Pueblo peoples in New Mexico, led by Popé, drove out the Spanish for twelve years.
- **Maroon communities** 逃奴社群: enslaved Africans escaped and built their own settlements; Palmares in Brazil lasted most of the 1600s until it was destroyed in 1694.
- **Queen Nzinga** of Ndongo and Matamba (in modern Angola) fought the Portuguese slave trade for decades, until her death in 1663.
- **Internal revolts** against land-based empires: Shivaji's Marathas rebelled against the Mughals and crowned him king in 1674.

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Rebellion and marronage are two different responses to one imposed order

Continuity and Change from 1450 to 1750

Topic 4.8 asks what changed and what stayed the same.

- **Change:** for the first time trade was global, joining the Americas to Afro-Eurasia; American silver flowed to China; the Atlantic slave trade grew to millions of people.
- **Continuity:** in the Indian Ocean, Asian merchants still did most of the trade; the land empires (Ottoman, Mughal, Qing) remained powerful; most people were still farmers.

Worked example: a short-answer question

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

(a) Briefly describe ONE technology that made European voyages possible.

(b) Briefly describe ONE effect of the Columbian Exchange on the Americas.

(c) Briefly explain ONE way American silver affected Asia.

Model answer.

- (a) The astrolabe let sailors measure their latitude from the height of the sun or a star, so they could navigate far from land.
- (b) Smallpox and measles, carried by Europeans, killed a large part of the Indigenous population, because Indigenous Americans had no immunity.
- (c) The Manila galleons carried American silver to China after 1571, where the Ming state required taxes in silver, so silver bought Chinese silk and porcelain for world markets.

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Worked example: continuity and change

Explain ONE continuity and ONE change in Indian Ocean trade between 1450 and 1750.

Step 1: name the change, with evidence. European states entered the trade by force: Portugal took Goa (1510) and Malacca (1511), and the VOC later controlled the spice islands.

Step 2: name the continuity, with evidence. Asian and Muslim merchants still carried most goods, and Indian textiles and Chinese porcelain were still the main products traded.

Step 3: explain. Europeans had better ships and guns, so they could seize ports, but they were few, and they needed the existing networks of Asian merchants and markets. So European power grew at sea, while most of the trade continued as before.

Common errors

- Giving one motive for exploration when the question wants the technology, or the reverse.
- Treating the Columbian Exchange as equal in both directions: disease made it far worse for the Americas.
- Mixing up the encomienda, the hacienda and the mit'a.
- Saying all European empires conquered land: Portugal's Asian empire was a chain of ports.
- Forgetting that silver connected the Americas to China.
- Describing resistance with no named case.

Key terms

Columbian Exchange: The movement of plants, animals, people and diseases between the Americas and Afro-Eurasia after 1492.

caravel: A small, fast sailing ship used by Portuguese and Spanish explorers.

joint-stock company: A company owned by many investors who share its profit and risk.

encomienda: A Spanish system that gave settlers the labour of Indigenous people.

mit'a: A compulsory labour draft, used by the Inca and then by the Spanish in the silver mines.

chattel slavery: Slavery in which people are owned as property, and their children too.

mercantilism: A policy of using colonies to build up a home country's wealth.

casta system: The ranking of people by birth and descent in Spanish America.

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Check yourself

- Name two effects of the Columbian Exchange, one in the Americas and one in Afro-Eurasia.
- How did American silver reach China?
- Give one example of resistance to a maritime empire, with its date.

Answers: For example, smallpox killed much of the Indigenous population of the Americas; maize and sweet potatoes helped China's population grow. Across the Pacific on the Manila galleons from Acapulco to Manila (and across the Atlantic to Europe and then by trade to Asia). The Pueblo Revolt of 1680 (or Palmares, Queen Nzinga).

Sources for this lesson

College Board, *AP World History: Modern Course and Exam Description*, Unit 4, topics 4.1–4.8 (`syllabi/ap/ap_world_history_CED.pdf`). The practice questions are written for this course, not taken from past papers. Slave trade figures: the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade Database (slavevoyages.org).

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Revolutions

AP World History: Modern

The Enlightenment

In August 1791 enslaved people in the French colony of Saint-Domingue, the richest sugar colony in the world, rose up against their owners. They had heard what the French Revolution was saying in Paris: that "men are born and remain free and equal in rights". Led from 1793 by Toussaint Louverture, a formerly enslaved man, they fought the French, the Spanish and the British. In 1804 the colony became **Haiti** 海地, the first independent state founded by people who had freed themselves from slavery. An idea written in Europe had travelled across the Atlantic and been used by the people its authors had left out.

Unit 5 covers **1750 to 1900**. Two revolutions ran at once: new ideas changed how people justified political power, and industry changed how societies produced goods and lived. Many questions ask you to connect them.

In this unit you will:

- Explain Enlightenment ideas and the reform movements they inspired.
- Explain the causes and effects of the American, French, Haitian and Latin American revolutions, and of nationalism.
- Explain why industry began in Britain and how it spread.
- Explain the role of states in industrialisation and the reactions to it.
- Explain how industry changed society, and what continued.

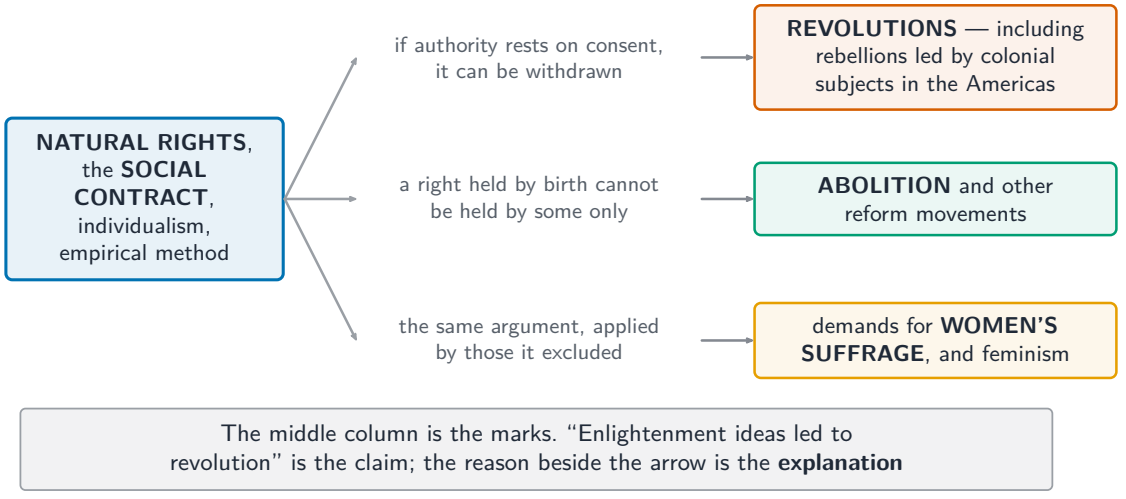
The **Enlightenment** 启蒙运动 of the 1700s used reason and **empirical approaches** 实证方法, observation and evidence, to study both nature and society. Its thinkers questioned the authority of kings and churches:

- **Individualism** 个人主义, **natural rights** 天赋权利, and the **social contract** 社会契约.
- Calls for **religious tolerance** 宗教宽容 and limits on established authority.

These ideas inspired **reform movements** 改革运动: the vote for more men, the abolition of slavery (Britain abolished it in its colonies in 1833), and **demands for women's suffrage** 妇女选举权诉求, as early **feminism** 女权主义 challenged both political and gender hierarchies.

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Thinker	Key idea	Where it was used
John Locke (1689)	natural rights to life, liberty and property; government by consent	the US Declaration of Independence (1776)
Montesquieu (1748)	separation of powers between law-makers, government and courts	the US Constitution (1787)
Rousseau (1762)	the social contract; the "general will" of the people	the French Revolution
Mary Wollstonecraft (1792)	women have the same reason as men and deserve the same education	early feminism; the Seneca Falls meeting (1848) in the USA
Olympe de Gouges (1791)	a Declaration of the Rights of Woman, answering the 1789 declaration	French feminism



Idea, reason, movement - the middle column is where the marks are

Nationalism and Revolution

Nationalism 民族主义 became one of the strongest forces of the period. People came to feel a **commonality** 共同体意识, a shared identity based on language, religion, customs and territory, and they demanded a state of their own.

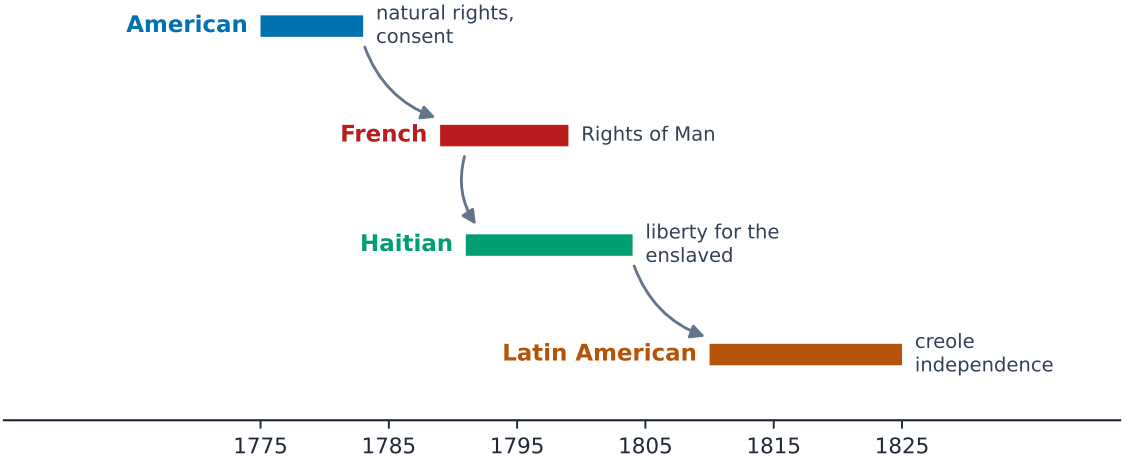
Anger at kings and empires led to **revolution** 革命. Revolutionary documents used Enlightenment ideas to justify it, and colonial subjects in the Americas rebelled one after another.

The pattern to hold: an **idea** (rights, consent, nation) plus a **grievance** (taxation,

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exclusion, slavery, colonial rule) produces a movement. Answers that give only the idea, or only the grievance, explain nothing.

Revolution	Grievance	Idea	Result
American, 1775–1783	British taxes without representation	natural rights; consent (Declaration of Independence, 1776)	independence; slavery kept
French, 1789–1799	royal debt, unfair taxes, privileges of nobles and clergy	the Declaration of the Rights of Man (1789)	the monarchy ended; then Napoleon
Haitian, 1791–1804	slavery and racial hierarchy	liberty and equality, taken literally	independence and the end of slavery
Latin American, 1810–1820s	creoles shut out of top posts by peninsulares	natural rights; Bolívar's *Jamaica Letter* (1815)	independent republics; creole elites kept power

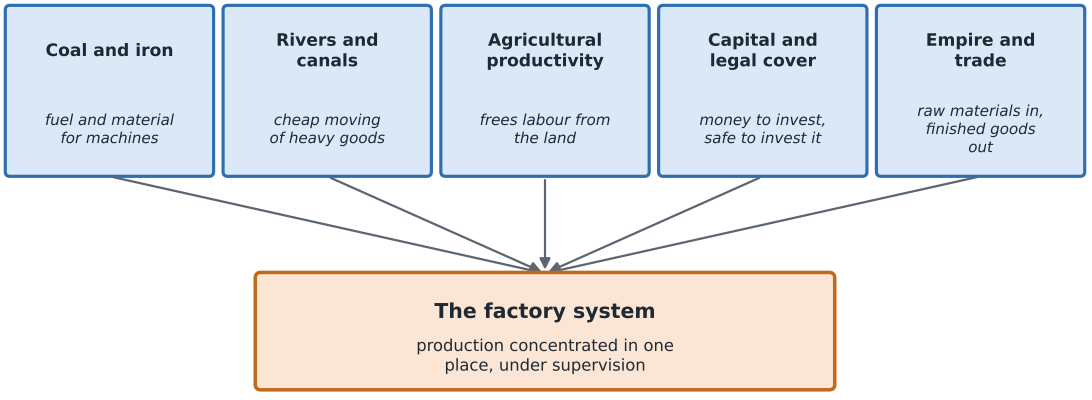


Each revolution borrowed ideas from the one before, and each went further, or less far, than its authors meant.

Nationalism also built new states by joining smaller ones. Italy was unified in 1861, led by Cavour and Garibaldi, and Germany in 1871, led by the Prussian minister Bismarck, through three short wars. Other national movements tried to break away from empires: Greeks won independence from the Ottoman Empire in 1830, and Zionism, from the 1890s, called for a Jewish homeland.

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The Industrial Revolution Begins



Industrialisation needed several conditions at once - which is why the question is always "why here, and why then"

Industrial production began in Britain in the late 1700s because several conditions came together.

- **Coal** 煤炭 and **iron** 铁 lay close together, and rivers and canals carried them cheaply.
- **Agricultural productivity** 农业生产率 rose with new crops and enclosed fields, so fewer farm workers were needed and many moved to towns.
- **Capital** 资本: merchants and banks had money to invest, and the law protected property and patents.
- **Empire and markets:** colonies supplied raw cotton and bought British cloth.

The **factory system** 工厂制度 brought workers and machines together in one building, under supervision and the clock, instead of work spread across homes. Richard Arkwright's water-powered cotton mill at Cromford (1771) is an early example. James Watt's improved **steam engine** 蒸汽机 (patented 1769, made with Matthew Boulton from 1775) let factories be built near coal and cities rather than beside fast rivers.



A Boulton and Watt steam engine - power that does not depend on a river, a wind or an animal

Industrialisation Spreads

Steam-powered 蒸汽动力 industry spread from Britain to Belgium, France, Germany and the United States, and later to Russia and Japan. States that industrialised gained huge advantages in wealth and military power.

- **The first industrial revolution** (from about 1750): textiles, coal, iron and steam.
- The **second industrial revolution** 第二次工业革命 (from about 1870): steel, chemicals, electricity and oil, and the **internal combustion engine** 内燃机. Germany and the United States led it.
- **Transport and communication: railroads** 铁路 (the Liverpool and Manchester line opened in 1830), **steamships** 蒸汽船 and the **telegraph** 电报 (a cable crossed the Atlantic in 1866) let states trade, move armies and rule colonies at a distance.

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	THE FIRST	THE SECOND
WHAT DRIVES IT	coal and the steam engine	electricity, oil, the internal combustion engine
WHAT IT BUILDS	the factory system; textiles and iron	steel, chemicals, and the goods made from them
WHAT IT MOVES	railroads and steamships	the telegraph — information, faster than any vehicle

Date your evidence. A telegraph and a spinning machine are not the same revolution, and a **change** question is asking which one you mean

The first industrial revolution and the second, kept apart so evidence can be dated

Some places lost industry. Cheap British machine-made cloth took markets from hand weavers in India, and India's textile exports fell in the early 1800s.

Government, Economy, and Reaction

Outside western Europe, some states built industry themselves, in **state-sponsored industrialisation** 国家推动工业化, to catch up with industrial powers:

State	What the state did	Example
Egypt under Muhammad Ali (ruled 1805–1848)	built state cotton and weapons factories; grew cotton for export	factories near Cairo making cloth and guns for his army
Meiji Japan (from 1868)	built model factories, railways and a modern army; later sold factories to private companies	the Tomioka silk mill (1872), built with French help
Russia under Sergei Witte (1890s)	borrowed foreign money; protected industry with tariffs	the Trans-Siberian Railway, begun in 1891

Britain led a move from **mercantilism** to **free trade** 自由贸易: it repealed its Corn Laws in 1846. As trade and production became global, **transnational businesses** 跨国企业 grew, such as the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank (HSBC, 1865) and the United Fruit Company (1899) in Central America.

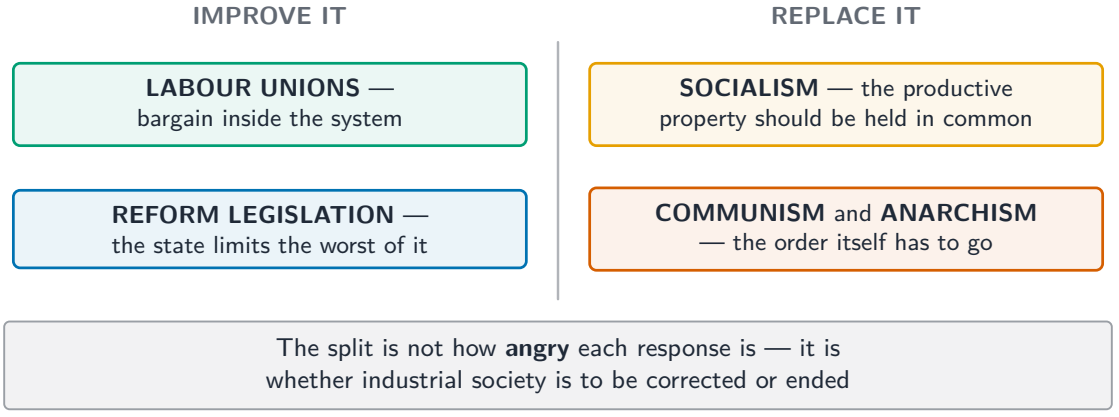
Reaction came from several directions:

- Workers organised, often in **labour unions** 工会, and pressed for shorter hours, safety, and wages.

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- **Alternative visions** of society emerged - **socialism** 社会主义, **communism** 共产主义, and **anarchism** 无政府主义 - as critiques of industrial capitalism.
- Some governments passed **reform legislation** 改革立法 on working conditions, child labour, and public health.
- The expansion of industrialising states led to **internal reform movements** 内部改革运动 elsewhere in Asia, as states tried to respond to new pressure: the Ottoman **Tanzimat** reforms (1839–1876) and China's **Self-Strengthening Movement** 自强运动 (1860s–1890s), which built arsenals and shipyards but kept the old political order.

Worked example: reform by law. In Britain, children of five or six worked long days in cotton mills. The Factory Act of 1833 banned work in textile mills for children under nine, limited the hours of children aged nine to thirteen, and, for the first time, paid inspectors to check that factories obeyed. It shows the reform route: correct industrial society by law, without ending it. Marx and Engels's *Communist Manifesto* (1848) took the other route: end capitalism itself.



Four responses split by one question: correct industrial society, or end it?

Society in the Industrial Age

Industry changed how people lived (topic 5.9).

- New **social classes** 社会阶级: a **middle class** 中产阶级 of factory owners, managers and professionals, and an **industrial working class** 工业工人阶级 who earned wages in factories and mines.
- **Urbanisation** 城市化: Manchester grew from about 25,000 people in 1772 to over 300,000 by 1850, with overcrowded housing, polluted water and cholera.
- **Family structure** 家庭结构: work left the home, so families no longer worked together; middle-class women were expected to stay at home, while working-class women and children worked for wages.

- **Standards of living** 生活水平 rose in the long run, but unevenly, and only after decades of hardship for many workers.

Continuity and Change in the Industrial Age

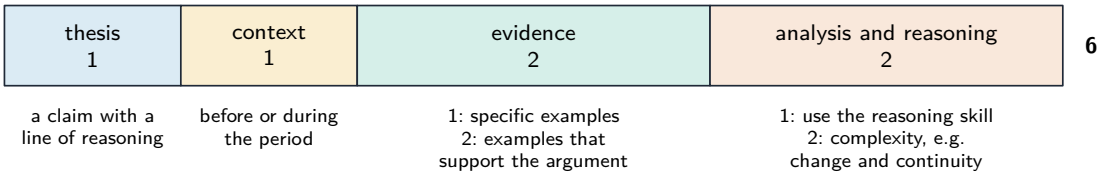
Topic 5.10 asks what changed and what stayed the same. Production and class structure changed completely, while imperial competition, coerced labour in colonised regions and inequality continued in new forms.

> **Worked example.** Try *"Explain one way in which industrialisation changed social structures"* between 1750 and 1900. An illustrative answer names the change and traces it: *"Industrialisation created a large industrial working class, because the factory system concentrated production in single locations and drew rural labourers into cities to work for wages, replacing household production and the rural social order that depended on it."* Notice the shape: **explain** requires the mechanism - factory system, urban migration, wage labour - not just the statement that new classes appeared.

■ Writing the long essay

The **long essay question** (LEQ) gives a choice of prompts and is marked out of **6**:

Point	What earns it
Thesis (1)	a claim that answers the prompt and sets out a line of reasoning, in the introduction or conclusion
Contextualisation (1)	the broader situation **before or during** the period, linked to the prompt
Evidence (2)	1 for **specific** examples relevant to the prompt; 2 when those examples **support** the argument
Analysis and reasoning (2)	1 for using the reasoning skill (causation, comparison, or continuity and change); 2 for **complexity**, such as explaining both change and continuity



The LEQ out of 6: four of the points come from evidence and analysis

Practice prompt. *Evaluate the extent to which industrialisation changed the lives of*

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working people in western Europe from 1750 to 1900.

- **Thesis.** *Industrialisation transformed where and how working people laboured, moving them into cities and factories under wage and clock discipline, but long hours, poverty and a family economy in which women and children earned wages continued until reform laws and unions began to improve conditions late in the century.* It answers "to what extent" (a great deal, but not completely) and names the lines of argument.
- **Context.** Before 1750, most Europeans worked on the land, and manufacturing was done at home under the putting-out system; Britain's coal, capital and colonial markets then allowed mechanised production to begin.
- **Evidence of change.** Textile mills ran machines powered by water and then steam, so workers came to the machine at set hours; towns such as Manchester grew more than tenfold in under a century.
- **Evidence of continuity and reform.** Children still worked, now in mills and mines, until laws such as Britain's Factory Act of 1833 limited their hours; unions and socialist ideas (Marx and Engels, 1848) grew from workers' grievances.
- **Complexity.** Explain both sides: the place and rhythm of work changed sharply, while poverty and family labour continued and improved only slowly and unevenly.

A body paragraph should **start with a claim**, give **two specific pieces of evidence**, and end by **explaining** how they support the thesis, using the words of the reasoning skill (*changed*, *continued*, *because*).

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 Enlightenment idea that influenced revolutions in this period.

(b) Briefly explain ONE significance of the Haitian Revolution (1791–1804).

(c) Briefly explain ONE reason industrialisation began in Britain.

Model answer.

- (a) The idea of natural rights and government by consent, argued by John Locke, appears in the Declaration of Independence and the Declaration of the Rights of Man.
- (b) It was the first successful revolt of enslaved people that created an independent state, which inspired abolitionists and alarmed slaveholders across the Americas.
- (c) Britain had large supplies of coal and iron, capital to invest, and colonial markets for its goods.

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Common errors

- Giving one cause for "why Britain first": coal, agriculture, capital and empire worked together.
- Calling the factory system only a new machine: it was a new way of organising work.
- Explaining a revolution with an idea but no grievance, or the reverse.
- Forgetting that the Haitian Revolution went further than the American and French ones: it ended slavery.
- Leaving out state-led industrialisation in Japan, Russia and Egypt.
- Saying living standards simply rose: they rose slowly and unevenly.

Key terms

Enlightenment: The 1700s movement that used reason and evidence to question tradition and authority.

natural rights: Rights, such as life, liberty and property, that people have by birth.

social contract: The idea that government rests on the consent of the governed.

nationalism: Loyalty to a nation and the demand that it govern itself.

factory system: Production in one building, with machines and supervised wage workers.

second industrial revolution: The later wave of steel, chemicals, electricity and oil, from about 1870.

labour union: An organisation of workers that bargains for better pay and conditions.

Tanzimat: Ottoman reforms of law, the army and education, 1839–1876.

Check yourself

- Give two Enlightenment ideas and one revolution that used each.
- Name three conditions that helped industry begin in Britain.
- Give two different responses to industrial society, one that reformed it and one that wanted to end it.

Answers: For example, natural rights (the American Declaration of Independence, 1776) and the social contract or popular sovereignty (the French Revolution, 1789). Coal and iron, rising agricultural productivity, capital, and colonial markets. Reform: Britain's Factory Act of 1833 or labour unions; end it: Marx and Engels's communism (1848).

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Sources for this lesson

College Board, *AP World History: Modern Course and Exam Description*, Unit 5, topics 5.1–5.10 (`syllabi/ap/ap_world_history_CED.pdf`). The practice questions are written for this course, not taken from past papers.

Consequences of Industrialization

AP World History: Modern

Justifying Empire

On 15 November 1884, delegates from fourteen states met in Otto von Bismarck's official residence in Berlin to agree rules for claiming land and trading in Africa. No African ruler was invited. By 1914 Ethiopia and Liberia were the only African states not under European rule. Unit 6 asks how industrial states built empires like this between 1750 and 1900, how people resisted, how the world economy was reorganised, and why millions of people moved.

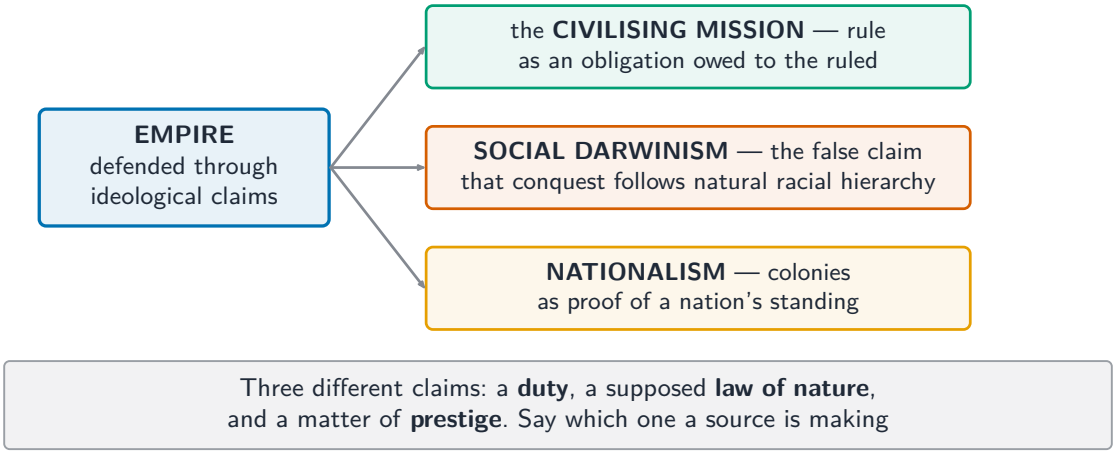
In this unit you will:

- Explain the **ideologies** 意识形态 used to justify **imperialism** 帝国主义.
- Describe how states expanded, and compare **settler colonies** 定居殖民地 with other kinds of rule.
- Explain the forms of anti-imperial **resistance** 抵抗, with named cases.
- Explain how **industrialisation** 工业化 created export economies and **economic imperialism** 经济帝国主义.
- Explain the causes and effects of **migration** 移民, free and coerced.

Imperial powers defended empire with **justifications** 辩护理由: arguments that made conquest sound right. Four appear again and again.

- The **civilising mission** 文明教化使命: the claim that Europeans had a duty to bring their law, schools and religion to others. Rudyard Kipling's poem "The White Man's Burden" (1899) urged the United States to take the Philippines in this spirit.
- **Missionary** 传教 activity: Christian missions built churches and schools. Missionaries such as David Livingstone also made Europeans curious about the African interior.
- **Social Darwinism** 社会达尔文主义: Herbert Spencer's phrase "survival of the fittest" (1864) was misapplied to peoples and nations, as if conquest proved that one race was superior.
- **Nationalism** 民族主义: colonies were treated as proof of a nation's greatness. Germany, united only in 1871, wanted "a place in the sun".

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Three justifications making different claims: a duty, a supposed natural hierarchy, prestige

These ideas were not only excuses. Some people believed them, and they shaped policy: mission schools, racial laws, the choice of who could vote. But they existed alongside profit and strategy. A good answer names the justification and says who used it, when and for what.

State Expansion

Between 1750 and 1900 empires grew in four ways.

- **Tighter control of existing colonies.** After the Indian Rebellion of 1857 the British government took India from the East India Company (1858). The Dutch moved from trading posts to direct rule over most of Indonesia.
- **New territory in Africa and Asia,** through **warfare and diplomacy** 战争与外交. Treaties, **protectorates** 保护国 and agreements on **partition** 分治, such as the Berlin Conference, often decided borders before an army arrived. Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, Portugal and Italy all took African land.
- **Settler colonies,** where many people from the colonising country settled: Australia, New Zealand, French Algeria (from 1830) and South Africa. Settlement brought the **displacement** 驱离 of **Indigenous** 原住民 people from their land.
- **Land empires** that grew over **contiguous** 毗连的 land. The United States moved west across North America, Russia advanced into Central Asia (Tashkent, 1865), and Japan took Taiwan (1895).

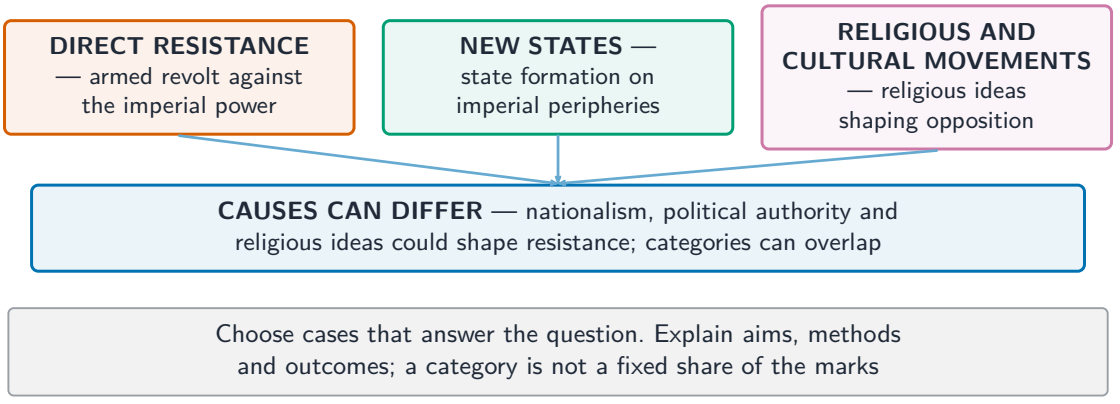
Imperialism was not only European. Japan took Taiwan after defeating China in 1895. The United States annexed Hawaii and took the Philippines, Guam and Puerto Rico in 1898.

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Resistance

People resisted imperial rule in three main ways, and one movement could combine more than one.

- **Direct resistance** 直接抵抗: armed **rebellion** 起义. In the Indian Rebellion of 1857, Indian soldiers rose against the East India Company.
- The **creation of new states** 建立新国家, often by leaders who organised people against outside power.
- **Religious and cultural movements** 宗教与文化运动, which gave people a shared identity and hope against foreign rule.



Resistance could involve armed struggle, new states and religious movements; forms could overlap.

Resistance grew in the late 1800s as colonised peoples questioned the authority of their rulers and as **nationalism** spread there too. Some rebellions failed but forced changes in imperial policy, as the 1857 rebellion did in India.

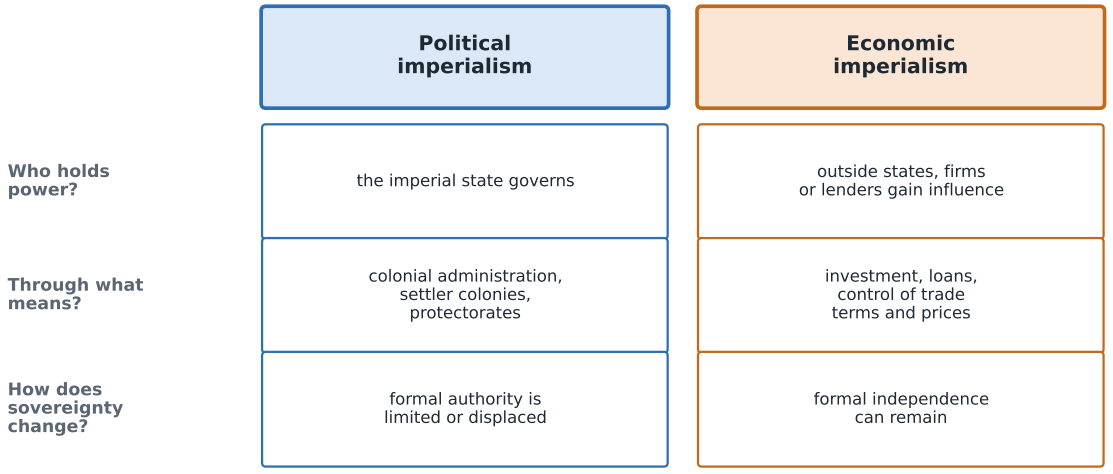
The cases to know

Case	Where and when	What it shows
Samory Touré 萨莫里·杜尔	West Africa, 1882–1898	Direct resistance: he fought French armies for sixteen years before his capture in 1898.
Yaa Asantewaa War 雅阿·阿散蒂瓦战争	Asante (modern Ghana), 1900	Direct resistance: the queen mother Yaa Asantewaa led the fight after the British governor demanded the Golden Stool, the symbol of Asante **sovereignty** 主权.
Sokoto Caliphate 索科托哈里发国	Northern Nigeria, 1804	A new state, founded by Usman dan Fodio's Islamic reform movement.
Ghost Dance	Western United States, 1890	A religious movement among Plains peoples; the US army's fear of it led to the massacre at Wounded Knee in December 1890.



The CED cases in time order

The Congo shows how criticism changed empire. From 1885 the Congo Free State was the private property of King Leopold II of Belgium, not a Belgian colony. Workers who failed to bring in enough rubber were beaten or mutilated. Roger Casement's 1904 report and E. D. Morel's campaign made the **atrocities** 暴行 an international scandal, and in 1908 the Belgian state took the Congo from Leopold. The rubber regime continued, but now under a government that answered to a parliament.



Economic imperialism did not always require political control - which is why the two must be distinguished

Factories needed **raw materials** 原材料, and growing industrial cities needed **food supplies** 粮食供应. Many colonies and poorer regions were turned into export economies: they grew **cash crops** 经济作物 or worked in **extractive industries** 采掘业 such as mining, often at the cost of growing food for local people.

Know these **commodities** 商品 and where they came from:

Commodity	From	Used for
Cotton	Egypt, India	Textile mills in Britain
Rubber	Congo, Amazon	Tyres, machine belts, insulation
Palm oil	West Africa	Soap, machine lubricants
Guano (bird droppings)	Peru	Fertiliser for European farms
Meat	Argentina, Uruguay	City food; possible after **refrigerated shipping** 冷藏运输 began in the late 1870s

Egyptian cotton shows the link. When the American Civil War (1861–1865) cut cotton exports from the United States, Egyptian growers expanded fast to supply British mills. When American cotton returned, prices fell and Egypt was left with heavy debts. Britain occupied Egypt in 1882.

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Tea pluckers on a plantation estate, c. 1900: colonies turned toward export crops for industrial markets

Economic imperialism is control through **investment** 投资, **loans** 贷款 and trade, without necessarily ruling the territory. British firms built Argentina's railways and supported the Port of Buenos Aires, but Argentina stayed independent. After the Opium Wars (1839–1842 and 1856–1860), Britain and France forced China to open ports and accept unequal treaties without making China a colony. Buyers in industrial states held **disproportionate power** 不成比例的权力 over producers, because they set prices and terms.

Migration

Between 1750 and 1900 tens of millions of people crossed oceans. Two changes made this possible: populations grew fast in Europe and Asia, and **steamships** 蒸汽船 and **railways** 铁路 made journeys shorter and cheaper. Some migrants made **temporary or seasonal** 临时或季节性 trips and went home again.

There are two kinds of migration to know:

- **Free migration.** Most migrants chose to move, usually for work or land: Irish people after the famine of 1845–1852, Italians to Argentina and the United States, Chinese workers to California's gold fields.
- **Coerced and semi-coerced labour** 强制与半强制劳动. **Enslavement** 奴役 continued in Brazil until 1888. **Indentured servitude** 契约劳工 replaced it in many places: from 1838 to 1917 more than a million Indians went on fixed-term contracts to plantations in the Caribbean, Mauritius, Natal and Fiji. Britain sent **convict labour** 囚犯劳动 to Australia.

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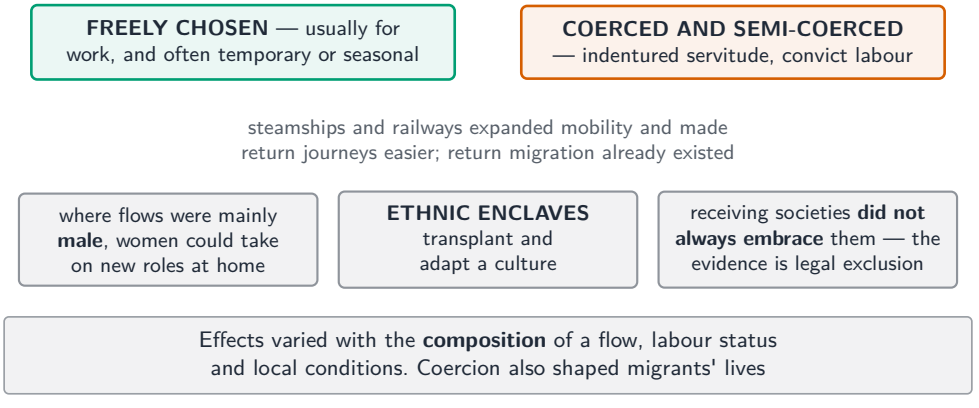


Migrants landing at Ellis Island, New York, c. 1900: steamships made long-distance migration routine

Effects of Migration

Migration changed both the places people left and the places they went to.

- **Home societies:** most migrants were men, so women took on new roles: running farms, businesses and households.
- **Destination societies:** migrants created **ethnic enclaves** 族裔聚居区, such as Chinatowns in San Francisco and Singapore, or Indian communities in Natal, where they kept and adapted their languages, food and religion.
- **Exclusion** 排斥: receiving societies did not always welcome **immigrants** 移入者. The US Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) banned Chinese labourers, and Australia's Immigration Restriction Act (1901) began the "White Australia" policy.



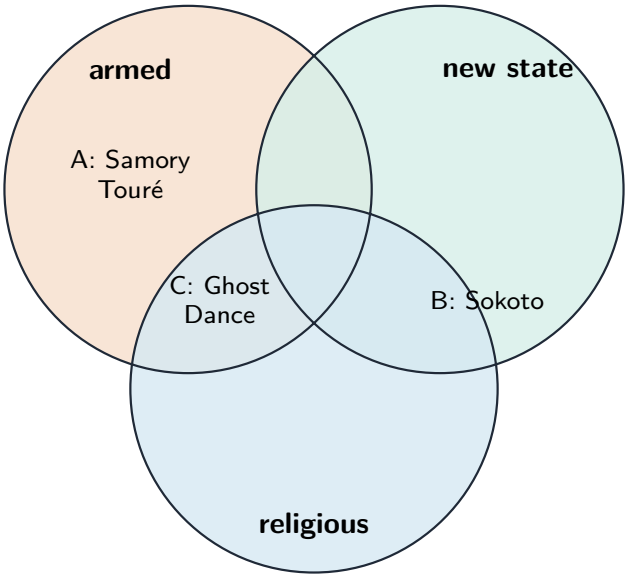
Migration effects depend on composition, labour status and local conditions.

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Causation in the Imperial Age

Topic 6.8 asks which **effects** of imperialism mattered most. Rank effects by asking how many people they touched and for how long.

- **Economic:** export economies tied whole regions to world prices. Egypt's cotton debt led to British occupation in 1882.
- **Political:** new borders drawn in Europe cut across peoples and kingdoms; many of them are still the borders of African states today.
- **Social:** migration created new mixed societies, such as Indian communities in Trinidad and Fiji, and new racial laws.
- **Resistance** shaped later nationalism: the 1857 rebellion and the Yaa Asantewaa War became symbols for twentieth-century independence movements.



The three headings overlap: they are not exclusive boxes

The three forms of resistance overlap. Samory Touré fought battles, but he also built a state; the Sokoto Caliphate was both a new state and a religious movement. When you use a case, say which feature of it matters for the question.

Worked example: a short-answer question

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

(a) Briefly describe ONE way Europeans justified imperialism in the period 1750–1900.

(b) Briefly describe ONE way European states expanded their empires in the period.

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(c) Briefly explain ONE way people resisted imperial rule in the period.

Model answer.

- (a) Social Darwinists misused the idea of "survival of the fittest" to claim that Europeans were a superior race with a right to rule weaker peoples.
- (b) At the Berlin Conference (1884–1885) European powers agreed rules for claiming African land without any African representatives, which allowed the partition of Africa.
- (c) In the Yaa Asantewaa War of 1900, the Asante fought the British after the governor demanded the Golden Stool, defending a symbol of their sovereignty.

Why this scores: each part names a specific case and a date, and (c) explains *why* it counts as resistance, not just *that* it happened.

Worked example: a long-essay thesis

Evaluate the extent to which economic motives drove imperial expansion in the period 1750–1900.

Step 1: list the evidence on each side.

- For economics: demand for cotton, rubber and palm oil; British investment in Argentina; the forced opening of China after the Opium Wars.
- Against: nationalism (Germany's "place in the sun"), the civilising mission and missionary work, and strategy (Britain took Egypt in 1882 partly to protect the Suez Canal route to India).

Step 2: make a judgement, with a reason. Economic motives were the main driver, because industrial demand explains *why* expansion sped up after 1870 just as factories multiplied; but nationalism and strategy explain *where* states expanded and why they took land that made little profit.

Step 3: write the thesis. "Economic motives were the main driver of imperial expansion between 1750 and 1900, because industrial demand for raw materials and markets explains its timing; however, nationalism and strategic rivalry explain why states such as Germany took colonies that earned little."

The thesis answers "to what extent", gives a reason and shows a line of argument with "however". That earns the thesis point and sets up the complexity point.

Common errors

- Confusing **justifications** (civilising mission, Social Darwinism) with **causes** (raw materials, markets, strategy).
- Saying all imperialism needed colonies: economic imperialism worked in independent states such as Argentina and China.
- Treating imperialism as only European: Japan and the United States expanded too.
- Using "resistance" without a named case and date.

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- Calling every migrant free: indentured and convict labour were common.
- Listing effects without ranking them in an "evaluate" question.

Key terms

imperialism: One state extending its control over other territories and peoples.

Social Darwinism: The false use of ideas about evolution to claim that some races or nations were superior.

settler colony: A colony where many people from the colonising country settled, displacing Indigenous people.

protectorate: A territory that keeps its own ruler but is controlled by a stronger state.

economic imperialism: Control through investment, loans and trade without formal rule.

cash crop: A crop grown to sell, often for export.

indentured servitude: Work under a contract for a fixed number of years, often in a distant colony.

ethnic enclave: A neighbourhood where migrants of one group live together and keep their culture.

Check yourself

- Why was the Congo transferred from Leopold II to the Belgian state in 1908?
- Give one example of economic imperialism and explain why it is not a colony.
- Name one law that excluded migrants, with its country and date.

Answers: International outrage over atrocities in the rubber regime, exposed by Casement's 1904 report and Morel's campaign. British investment in Argentina's railways and the Port of Buenos Aires gave British firms influence, but Argentina kept its own government. The US Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 (or Australia's Immigration Restriction Act of 1901).

Sources for this lesson

College Board, *AP World History: Modern Course and Exam Description*, Unit 6, topics 6.1–6.8 (`syllabi/ap/ap_world_history_CED.pdf`). The practice questions are written for this course, not taken from past papers.

Global Conflict

AP World History: Modern

Shifting Power After 1900

On 12 February 1912 the six-year-old emperor Puyi gave up the throne, ending more than two thousand years of imperial rule in China. Within eleven years the Russian, Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman empires were gone too. Unit 7 covers 1900 to about 1945: two world wars, an economic collapse, and killing on a scale never seen before.

In this unit you will:

- Explain why old land empires collapsed after 1900.
- Explain the causes of the First and Second World Wars and how they were fought as **total war** 总体战.
- Explain how states responded to the **Great Depression** 大萧条.
- Explain the tensions the peace treaties left unresolved.
- Describe the **mass atrocities** 大规模暴行 of the period and explain their causes.

Old empires fell for similar reasons: military defeat, **nationalism** 民族主义 among their peoples, and governments that could not modernise fast enough.

- **Qing China:** the 1911 revolution, led in spirit by Sun Yat-sen, ended the dynasty; China became a republic in 1912.
- **Russia:** in 1917 war losses and hunger brought down the tsar (February) and then brought the Bolsheviks to power (October).
- **Ottoman Empire:** defeated in 1918; Mustafa Kemal founded the Republic of Turkey in 1923.
- **Austria-Hungary:** split into new national states in 1918.

The **Mexican Revolution** 墨西哥革命 (1910–1920) also overthrew a long-ruling leader, Porfirio Díaz. Not every empire fell: Britain and France kept their colonial empires, and Japan's grew.

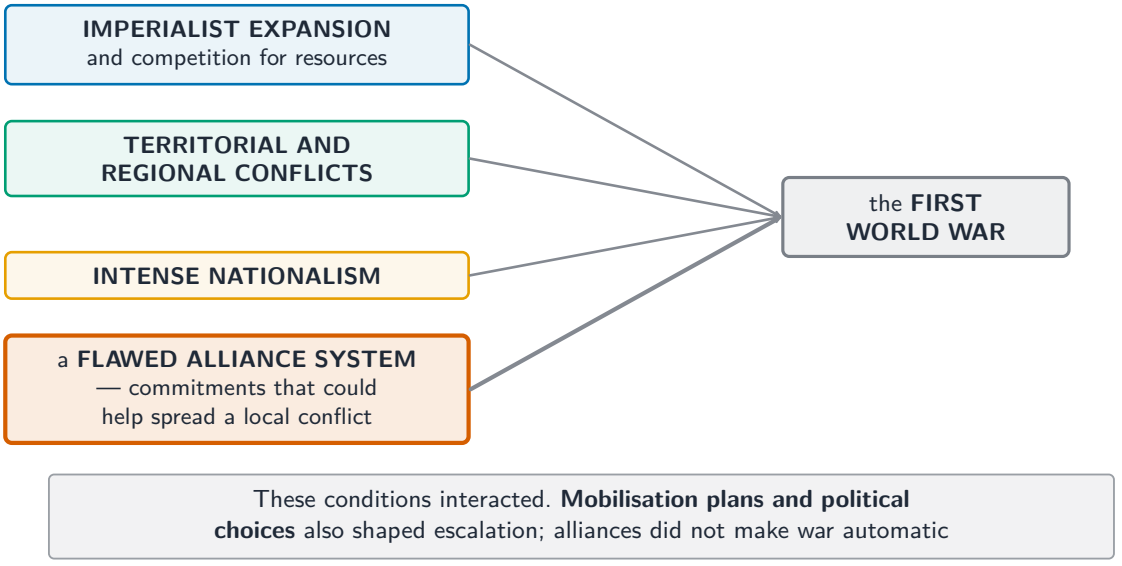
Causes of World War I

On 28 June 1914 Gavrilo Princip, a Bosnian Serb nationalist, shot Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to Austria-Hungary, in Sarajevo. Six weeks later most of Europe was at war. The murder was the trigger; four deeper conditions explain why a local crisis became a world war.

- **Imperialist competition** 帝国主义竞争 for colonies, resources and markets, for example the rivalry of Germany and Britain over Africa and their naval race after 1898.
- **Territorial and regional conflicts,** especially in the Balkans, where Serbian nationalism threatened Austria-Hungary.

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- The **alliance system** 同盟体系: the Triple Entente (France, Russia, Britain) faced Germany and Austria-Hungary.
- **Nationalism,** which made governments and crowds ready for war.



Four interacting conditions: alliances helped spread conflict, but escalation also depended on mobilisation plans and leaders' choices

The chain of July and August 1914: Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia (28 July); Russia mobilised to defend Serbia; Germany declared war on Russia (1 August) and France (3 August); Germany's Schlieffen Plan sent its army through neutral Belgium, so Britain declared war (4 August). Alliances spread the war, but leaders' decisions and military timetables made it spread so fast.

Conducting World War I

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The same four instruments appear in both wars, which is why the comparison question is answerable

In total war a government directs the whole society, not just the army, towards winning.

- **Conscription** 征兵: men were called up by law; Britain began it in 1916.
- **Propaganda** 宣传: posters, films and newspapers kept up support and blamed the enemy.
- **Women's work:** women filled factory jobs, for example making shells in Britain's munitions factories.
- **Colonial troops and workers:** about 1.3 million Indian soldiers served Britain, and France recruited soldiers from West Africa; about 140,000 Chinese workers served in France in the Chinese Labour Corps.

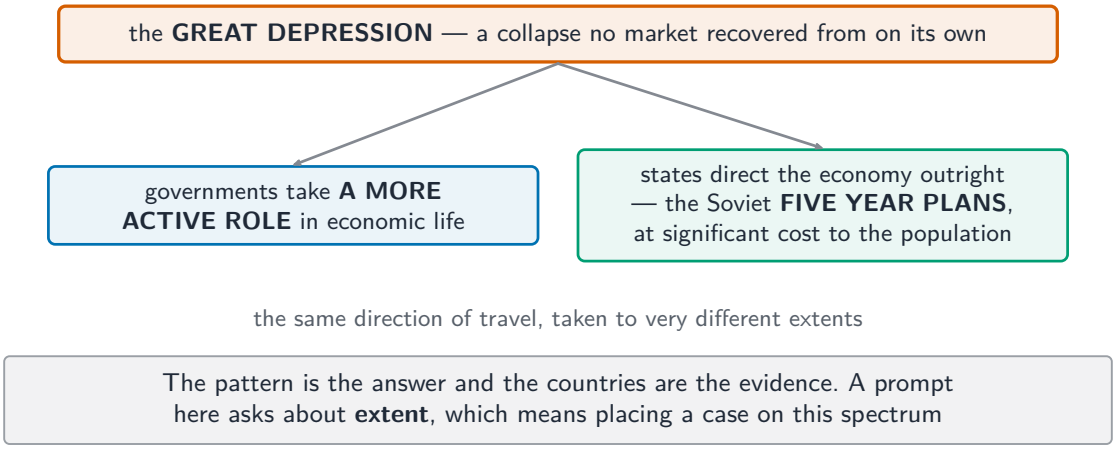
New technology made the war deadly: machine guns, heavy artillery, poison gas (first used on a large scale at Ypres in 1915) and tanks (1916). On the Western Front the armies dug **trenches** 战壕 that hardly moved for four years. On 1 July 1916, the first day of the Battle of the Somme, the British Army suffered about 57,000 casualties.

Economy in the Interwar Period

After the Wall Street Crash of October 1929, banks failed and world trade collapsed. By 1932–1933 about a quarter of American workers and about six million Germans were unemployed. This **Great Depression** changed what governments did.

- More **state intervention** 国家干预 in democracies: Franklin Roosevelt's **New Deal** 罗斯福新政 (from 1933) paid for public works and created social security. John Maynard Keynes argued (1936) that governments should spend to create demand.

- **Planned economies:** the Soviet Union's **Five-Year Plans** 五年计划 (from 1928) built heavy industry fast, at a huge cost in lives during forced collectivisation.
- **Authoritarian answers: fascism** 法西斯主义 in Italy and Germany, and military rule in Japan, promised recovery through national strength and conquest.



The Depression pushed very different states in one direction, to very different extents

Unresolved Tensions After World War I

The 1919 peace settlement left new conflicts.

- The **Treaty of Versailles** 凡尔赛和约 made Germany accept blame for the war (Article 231), lose land and pay **reparations** 赔款, set in 1921 at 132 billion gold marks. Many Germans saw it as a humiliation.
- The **League of Nations** 国际联盟 was founded to keep peace, but the United States never joined it.
- The Ottoman Empire's Arab lands became **mandates** 委任统治地: Britain took Iraq and Palestine, France took Syria and Lebanon.
- Colonial nationalism grew. When the treaty gave Germany's rights in Shandong to Japan, Chinese students protested in the **May Fourth Movement** 五四运动 (1919). In India, Gandhi began non-cooperation with British rule in 1920.

Causes of World War II

- **Unresolved Versailles anger:** Hitler promised to tear up the treaty.
- **The Depression:** it brought Hitler to power (January 1933) and pushed Japan towards expansion.
- **Fascist and militarist expansion:** Japan took Manchuria (1931) and invaded China (1937); Italy invaded Ethiopia (1935); Germany took Austria and the Sudetenland (1938).

- **Appeasement** 绥靖政策: at Munich in 1938 Britain and France let Hitler take the Sudetenland, hoping to avoid war.
- **The Nazi-Soviet Pact** (August 1939) freed Germany to invade Poland on 1 September 1939; Britain and France declared war two days later.

Conducting World War II

Total war returned on a larger scale. Governments again used conscription, propaganda and women's labour; in the United States, women's factory work became famous through the image of "Rosie the Riveter".

- **Industrial power** decided the war: by 1944 the United States was building more aircraft than all the other main powers together.
- **Ideology** 意识形态 was used to mobilise people: Nazi racial ideology, Japanese loyalty to the emperor, Soviet communism, and the Allied cause of democracy.
- **Bombing of cities:** German bombs fell on London; Allied raids on Hamburg (1943), Dresden (February 1945) and Tokyo (March 1945) killed tens of thousands each.
- **Atomic bombs** destroyed Hiroshima (6 August 1945) and Nagasaki (9 August 1945); Japan surrendered on 15 August.

About 70 to 85 million people died, most of them civilians; the Soviet Union alone lost about 27 million.

	THE FIRST WORLD WAR	THE SECOND
MOBILISING A SOCIETY	total war: economies and populations directed to the war	the same, and further
WHO IS DRAWN IN	colonial subjects fight for empires they do not govern	again, and on a wider front
TECHNOLOGY	new weapons raise casualties sharply	new weapons and new tactics — and the atomic bomb
WHO DIES	overwhelmingly soldiers	civilians on a scale without precedent

Above the rule, **continuity**; below it, **change**. "Methods largely similar, scale and technology different" is the sentence this table proves

The two total wars: continuity above the rule, change below it

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Mass Atrocities After 1900

A **genocide** 种族灭绝 is the deliberate killing of a national, ethnic or religious group. Know these cases:

Case	Where and when	Victims
Armenian genocide	Ottoman Empire, 1915–1917	About one million Armenians
Holodomor 乌克兰大饥荒	Ukraine, 1932–1933	Millions starved after Soviet grain seizures
Nanjing Massacre 南京大屠杀	China, December 1937	Japanese troops killed tens of thousands to hundreds of thousands of civilians and prisoners
Holocaust 犹太人大屠杀	Nazi-ruled Europe, 1941–1945	About six million Jews, and Roma, disabled people and others
Cambodian genocide	Khmer Rouge Cambodia, 1975–1979	About 1.7 million
Rwandan genocide	Rwanda, 1994	About 800,000, mostly Tutsi, in about 100 days

The common causes are useful in an essay: **propaganda** that described a group as an enemy or as less than human; war, which hid killing and made it seem necessary; and a state that organised the killing.

Causation in Global Conflict

Topic 7.9 asks you to compare causes and to explain continuity and change between the two wars.

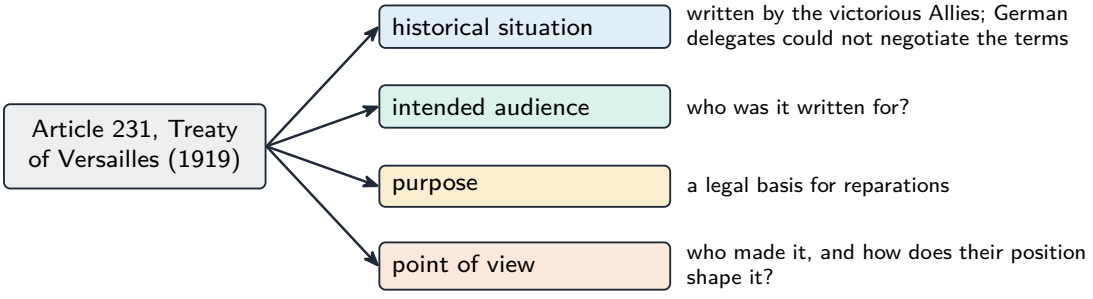
- **Similar causes:** nationalism and imperial competition helped cause both wars.
- **Different causes:** in 1914 alliances turned a local crisis into a general war; in 1939 the Depression and fascist expansion mattered more, and the war began with a deliberate invasion.
- **Continuity:** both were total wars with conscription, propaganda and women's work.
- **Change:** in the Second World War the killing of civilians, by bombing and by genocide, was far greater.

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Worked example: sourcing a document

The DBQ rewards explaining how a document's **historical situation** 历史背景, intended **audience** 受众, **purpose** 目的 or **point of view** 观点 shapes what it says. Take Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles (1919):

> "The Allied and Associated Governments affirm and Germany accepts the responsibility of Germany and her allies for causing all the loss and damage to which the Allied and Associated Governments and their nationals have been subjected as a consequence of the war…"



choose one feature and explain how it shapes the document and why that matters for the argument

Sourcing: choose one feature and explain how it shapes the document

- **Historical situation:** it was written in 1919 by the victors, after four years of war that had devastated northern France and Belgium.
- **Purpose:** it gave a legal basis for the reparations the Allies demanded from Germany.
- **The explanation (the point that scores):** because its purpose was to justify reparations, Article 231 states German responsibility as a legal fact rather than weighing the causes of the war. It shows what the Allies wanted Germany to accept, not a balanced account of why the war began.

Worked example: a short-answer question

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

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

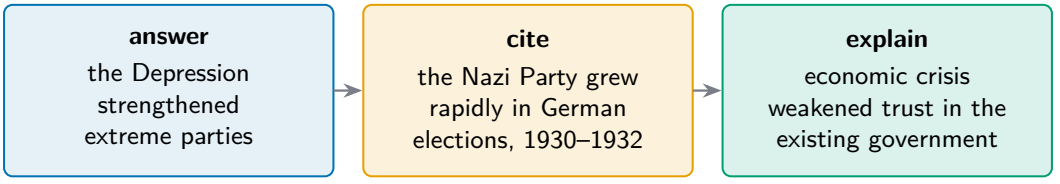
(b) Briefly explain ONE way governments conducted total war in the period 1914–1945.

(c) Briefly explain ONE political effect of the Great Depression.

Model answer.

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- (a) The alliance system turned the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand in June 1914 into a general war, because Russia backed Serbia and Germany backed Austria-Hungary.
- (b) Governments directed whole societies to the war, for example by bringing women into munitions factories in Britain, so that production could continue while men fought.
- (c) The Depression increased support for extreme parties: in Germany the Nazi Party grew from 2.6 per cent of the vote in 1928 to 37 per cent in July 1932, because mass unemployment destroyed trust in the existing government.



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

Answer, cite, explain

Common errors

- Treating the assassination as the cause of World War I: it was the trigger of deeper causes.
- Saying the alliance system alone caused the war.
- Forgetting non-European actors: Indian soldiers, the Chinese Labour Corps, Japan's expansion in Asia.
- Describing the New Deal and the Five-Year Plans as the same thing: both increased state power, but one kept a market economy.
- Writing about "genocide" with no named case, place and date.
- In the DBQ, naming the purpose of a document without explaining how it shapes the content.

Key terms

total war: A war in which a state directs its whole economy and society towards winning.

conscription: The legal requirement for people to serve in the armed forces.

propaganda: Information, often one-sided, used to shape public opinion.

reparations: Payments demanded from a defeated state for the damage of a war.

mandate: A former Ottoman or German territory run by Britain or France under the League of Nations.

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appeasement: Giving in to an aggressive state's demands to avoid war.

fascism: A political movement of extreme nationalism, one-party rule and the use of violence.

genocide: The deliberate killing of a national, ethnic or religious group.

Check yourself

- Give two reasons why a murder in Sarajevo became a world war.
- Name two different responses to the Great Depression, each with a country.
- Give one cause shared by both world wars and one difference.

Answers: The alliance system drew in Russia, Germany, France and Britain; Germany's invasion of Belgium brought in Britain (nationalism and imperial rivalry also count). The New Deal in the United States; the Five-Year Plans in the Soviet Union (or fascism in Germany). Shared: nationalism or imperial competition. Difference: the Depression and deliberate fascist invasion in 1939, against alliances turning a local crisis into war in 1914.

Sources for this lesson

College Board, *AP World History: Modern Course and Exam Description*, Unit 7, topics 7.1–7.9 (`syllabi/ap/ap_world_history_CED.pdf`). The practice questions are written for this course, not taken from past papers.

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Cold War and Decolonization

AP World History: Modern

Setting the Stage for the Cold War

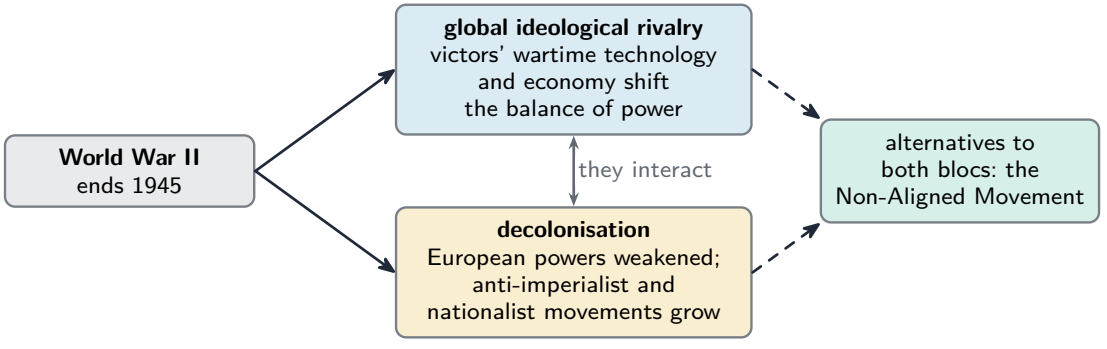
On 5 March 1946, at a small college in Fulton, Missouri, Winston Churchill said that "an iron curtain has descended across the Continent" of Europe. The wartime alliance between the United States and the Soviet Union was over. Unit 8 covers 1900 to the present, but mostly the decades after 1945: the **Cold War** 冷战 between two **superpowers** 超级大国, and the end of the European empires.

In this unit you will:

- Explain why the Cold War began and how it was fought.
- Explain how communism spread and what its policies cost.
- Compare the paths to independence of former colonies.
- Explain the problems of newly independent states.
- Explain resistance movements and why the Cold War ended.

Two processes began together in 1945.

- **A global ideological rivalry.** The Second World War left the United States and the Soviet Union far stronger than any other state, with new **technological and economic gains** 技术与经济进步 such as the atomic bomb, jet aircraft and huge industries.
- **Decolonisation** 去殖民化. Britain, France and the Netherlands were exhausted by the war, and **anti-imperialist sentiment** 反帝国主义情绪 had grown in their colonies.



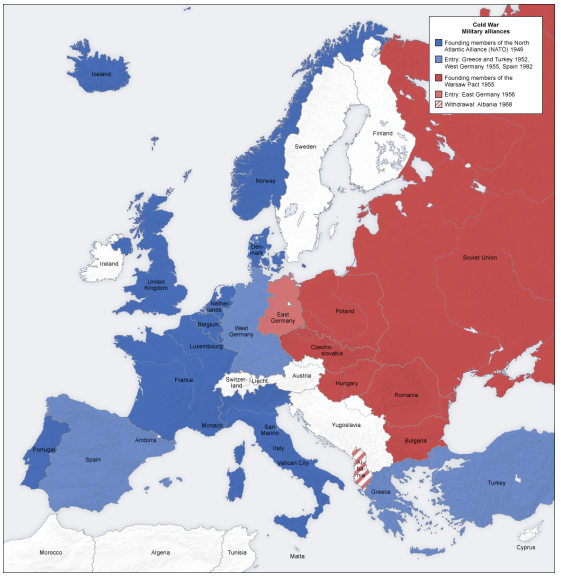
Two processes run through Unit 8 at once, and they interact

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The Cold War

The Cold War was an **ideological struggle** 意识形态斗争: American capitalism and democracy against Soviet communism and one-party rule. The two superpowers never fought each other directly.

- **Truman Doctrine** 杜鲁门主义 (1947): the United States promised to help countries resist communism, starting with Greece and Turkey. This policy of stopping communism from spreading was called **containment** 遏制.
- **Marshall Plan** 马歇尔计划 (1948–1952): about 13 billion dollars of American aid rebuilt Western Europe's economies.
- **Berlin Blockade** (1948–1949): the Soviets cut off West Berlin, and the Allies supplied it by air for eleven months.
- **NATO** 北约 (1949) and the **Warsaw Pact** 华沙条约组织 (1955) divided Europe into two military alliances.



NATO and Warsaw Pact members in Europe: two military alliances facing each other across the Iron Curtain

Not everyone took a side. At the Bandung Conference (1955), Asian and African states met to oppose colonialism, and in 1961 leaders such as Nehru (India), Nasser (Egypt), Sukarno (Indonesia) and Tito (Yugoslavia) founded the **Non-Aligned Movement** 不结盟运动.

Effects of the Cold War

- **New military alliances** 新的军事同盟 spread beyond Europe, for example SEATO in Southeast Asia (1954).

- **Nuclear proliferation** 核扩散: the Soviet Union tested its first bomb in 1949, Britain in 1952, France in 1960 and China in 1964. In the **Cuban Missile Crisis** 古巴导弹危机 (October 1962), Soviet missiles in Cuba brought the world close to nuclear war for thirteen days.
- **Proxy wars** 代理人战争: the superpowers backed opposite sides in other countries' wars, in Korea (1950–1953), Vietnam (to 1975), Angola (from 1975) and Afghanistan (1979–1989).

MILITARY ALLIANCES	NATO and the Warsaw Pact organised military cooperation within rival blocs.
NUCLEAR PROLIFERATION	Weapons spread to more states; threats of retaliation encouraged deterrence and efforts to limit proliferation.
PROXY CONFLICTS	Rival powers supported opposing sides, including in Korea, Angola and Nicaragua. Local aims also mattered.

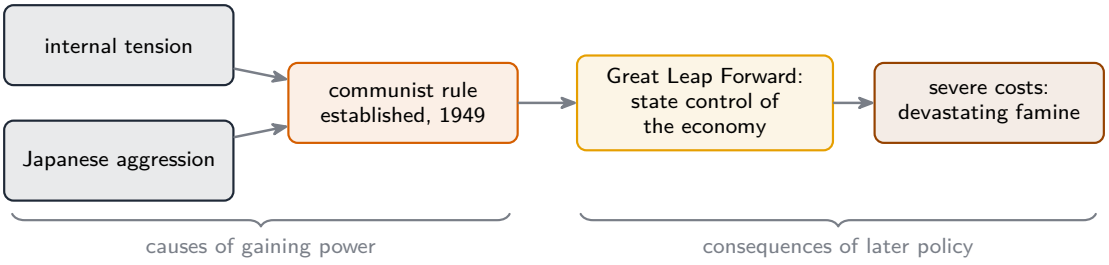
Non-aligned leaders sought room for independent action. States and movements were not merely passive extensions of two superpowers.

Alliances, nuclear proliferation and proxy conflicts were related effects, not a compulsory sequence

Spread of Communism After 1900

Communist parties won power in some countries because of **internal tension** 内部矛盾, inequality and war.

- **China:** the Communists won the civil war, helped by the Nationalist government's failures and by the fight against **Japanese aggression** 日本侵略. Mao Zedong declared the People's Republic on 1 October 1949. Land reform gave land to peasants, but the **Great Leap Forward** 大跃进 (1958–1962), with forced communes and backyard furnaces, caused a famine in which tens of millions died.
- **Cuba:** Fidel Castro took power in 1959 and nationalised land and businesses.
- **Vietnam:** Ho Chi Minh's communists fought France and then the United States; the country was reunited under communist rule in 1975.



Keep the causes of gaining power apart from the consequences of later policy.

Some governments that redistributed land or took over foreign businesses faced opposition backed by the United States. In 1954 a CIA-backed coup overthrew Guatemala's elected president, Jacobo Árbenz, after his land reform took land from the United Fruit Company.

Decolonization After 1900

Between 1947 and 1975 most colonies in Asia and Africa became independent. **Nationalist leaders and parties** 民族主义领袖与政党 took two broad paths, and many movements used both.

- **Negotiation** 谈判: Ghana became independent in 1957, after Kwame Nkrumah's party won elections and organised strikes and boycotts.
- **Armed struggle** 武装斗争: in Algeria the FLN fought France from 1954 until independence in 1962; in Kenya the Mau Mau rebellion (1952–1960) fought British rule.

Negotiation	Political organisation and negotiated transfer of power	India; the Gold Coast; French West Africa
Armed struggle	Anti-colonial fighting played a central role in independence	Algeria; Angola; Vietnam

Methods could overlap. Negotiated transfer did not guarantee an absence of violence.

Compare the process; neither category determines every later political or economic outcome.

Methods could overlap; compare particular processes and avoid automatic outcome claims

India shows how the paths mixed. Gandhi's nonviolent campaigns, such as the Salt March of 1930, built mass support, and Britain, weakened by the war, negotiated

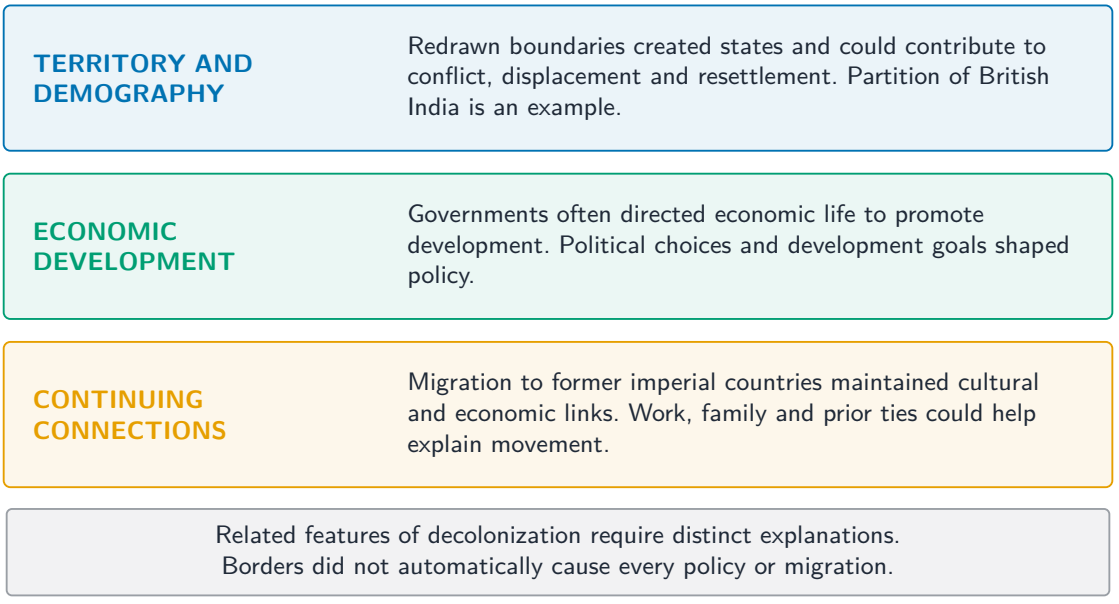
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independence on 15 August 1947. Partition into India and Pakistan was violent: about 15 million people were displaced and perhaps a million died.

Newly Independent States

Independence created new problems.

- **New borders and conflict:** partition divided India and Pakistan (1947); the creation of Israel (1948) displaced about 700,000 Palestinians; East Pakistan became Bangladesh after a war in 1971.
- **Development policy** 发展政策: many new states used the state to direct the economy. Egypt's Gamal Abdel Nasser **nationalised** 国有化 the Suez Canal in 1956; India's Green Revolution (from the mid-1960s) used new seeds and fertilisers to raise grain harvests.
- **Migration** 移民 to the former colonial power: people from the Caribbean and South Asia moved to Britain (the *Empire Windrush* arrived in 1948), and Algerians moved to France.



Territorial change, development policy and migration require distinct causal explanations

Global Resistance to Established Power Structures

After 1945 many movements challenged those in power.

- **Nonviolent resistance** 非暴力抵抗: Martin Luther King Jr. led the Montgomery bus boycott (1955–1956) and the March on Washington (1963). In South Africa the ANC campaigned against **apartheid** 种族隔离; after peaceful protest was banned,

Nelson Mandela helped found an armed wing in 1961. He was jailed from 1962 to 1990 and elected president in 1994.

- **Military states** 军政府 crushed opposition, for example under Pinochet in Chile (from 1973) and in Argentina's "Dirty War" (1976–1983), when thousands of people "disappeared".
- **Groups that attacked civilians:** some movements used **terrorism** 恐怖主义, such as the Shining Path in Peru.

NONVIOLENT CAMPAIGNS	Gandhi and Martin Luther King Jr. used organised nonviolent resistance to challenge established power.
MILITARISED STATES	Military repression and weapons buildups could intensify conflict; these were state responses, not all resistance movements.
MOVEMENTS TARGETING CIVILIANS	Some movements used violence against civilians for political aims. Distinguish their targets and methods from other categories.

Methods could change. Mandela is associated with nonviolence but also helped establish and lead the ANC's armed wing in 1961.

Distinguish nonviolent campaigns, militarised state responses and movements targeting civilians

End of the Cold War

- **Soviet economic weakness:** the planned economy grew slowly, and the arms race and the war in Afghanistan cost huge sums.
- **Gorbachev's reforms:** from 1985 Mikhail Gorbachev introduced **glasnost** 公开性 (openness) and **perestroika** 改革 (restructuring), and he refused to send tanks to keep Eastern Europe communist.
- **The fall:** the Berlin Wall was opened on 9 November 1989, Eastern European communist governments fell, and the Soviet Union was dissolved on 26 December 1991.

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Causation in the Age of the Cold War

Topic 8.9 asks you to explain how the Cold War and decolonisation were connected.

- The Cold War shaped decolonisation: both superpowers opposed old-style European empires, but they also backed rival sides in Vietnam, Angola and the Congo.
- Decolonisation shaped the Cold War: new states joined the Non-Aligned Movement, or won aid by playing the superpowers against each other, as Egypt did over the Aswan Dam.
- Compare causes: the Cold War ended mainly because of internal Soviet weakness; decolonisation happened because of nationalist movements and European weakness after 1945.

Worked example: sourcing a document

The DBQ rewards explaining how a document's situation, audience, purpose or point of view shapes it. In June 1947 the US Secretary of State George Marshall said at Harvard that American policy "is directed not against any country or doctrine but against hunger, poverty, desperation and chaos."

- **Historical situation:** in 1947 Western Europe was short of food and fuel after a very hard winter, and communist parties were strong in France and Italy.
- **Purpose:** Marshall wanted the American public and Congress to support a large aid programme, and European governments to accept it.
- **The explanation:** because he needed broad support, Marshall presents the plan as humanitarian and not aimed "against any country". Yet in the situation of 1947, rebuilding Europe's economies was also a way to reduce communism's appeal, so the speech shows only part of the plan's aims.

Worked example: a short-answer question

(a) Briefly describe ONE cause of the Cold War.

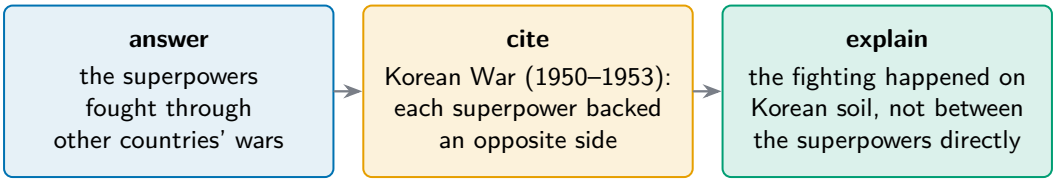
(b) Briefly describe ONE way a colony gained independence after 1945.

(c) Briefly explain ONE way the superpowers competed without fighting each other directly.

Model answer.

- (a) After 1945 the United States and the Soviet Union had opposite ideologies, and Soviet control of Eastern Europe made the United States fear the spread of communism.
- (b) Ghana gained independence in 1957 through negotiation, after Nkrumah's party won elections and led strikes and boycotts.
- (c) They fought proxy wars: in the Korean War (1950–1953) the United States backed the South and the Soviet Union backed the North, so the fighting happened on Korean soil and not between the superpowers.

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

Answer, cite, explain

Common errors

- Saying the United States and the Soviet Union fought each other directly.
- Treating decolonisation as one event: dates and methods varied, from India in 1947 to Angola in 1975.
- Describing armed struggle and negotiation as separate boxes: India and South Africa used more than one method.
- Confusing the causes of communist victory in China with the effects of the Great Leap Forward.
- Ending the Cold War with "Reagan won it": Soviet economic weakness and Gorbachev's choices also mattered.
- Forgetting the Non-Aligned Movement.

Key terms

Cold War: The rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union, 1947–1991, without direct war between them.

containment: The US policy of stopping the spread of communism.

proxy war: A war in which the superpowers backed opposite local sides.

nuclear proliferation: The spread of nuclear weapons to more states.

decolonisation: The end of colonial rule and the creation of independent states.

Non-Aligned Movement: States that refused to join either Cold War bloc.

apartheid: South Africa's system of legal racial separation, 1948–1994.

nationalisation: A state taking ownership of private or foreign businesses.

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Check yourself

- Name two military alliances of the Cold War and their dates.
- Give one example of independence won mainly by negotiation and one mainly by armed struggle.
- Give two reasons why the Cold War ended.

Answers: NATO (1949) and the Warsaw Pact (1955). Negotiation: Ghana, 1957 (or India, 1947); armed struggle: Algeria, 1962 (or Kenya, Vietnam). Soviet economic weakness, including the cost of the arms race and Afghanistan, and Gorbachev's reforms and refusal to use force in Eastern Europe.

Sources for this lesson

College Board, *AP World History: Modern Course and Exam Description*, Unit 8, topics 8.1–8.9 (`syllabi/ap/ap_world_history_CED.pdf`). The practice questions are written for this course, not taken from past papers. The US National Archives' Marshall Plan page has the speech and its context. The Nelson Mandela Foundation's biography covers his turn to armed struggle in 1961. College Board's exam updates describe the current exam format.

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Globalization

AP World History: Modern

Advances in Technology and Exchange

On 8 May 1980 the World Health Assembly declared that smallpox had been eradicated. The disease had killed perhaps 300 million people in the twentieth century alone; its last natural case was a hospital cook in Somalia in 1977. A worldwide vaccination campaign, run through a global institution, had ended it. Unit 9 covers globalisation after 1900: new technology, disease, the environment, the world economy, rights, culture and the institutions that tie the world together.

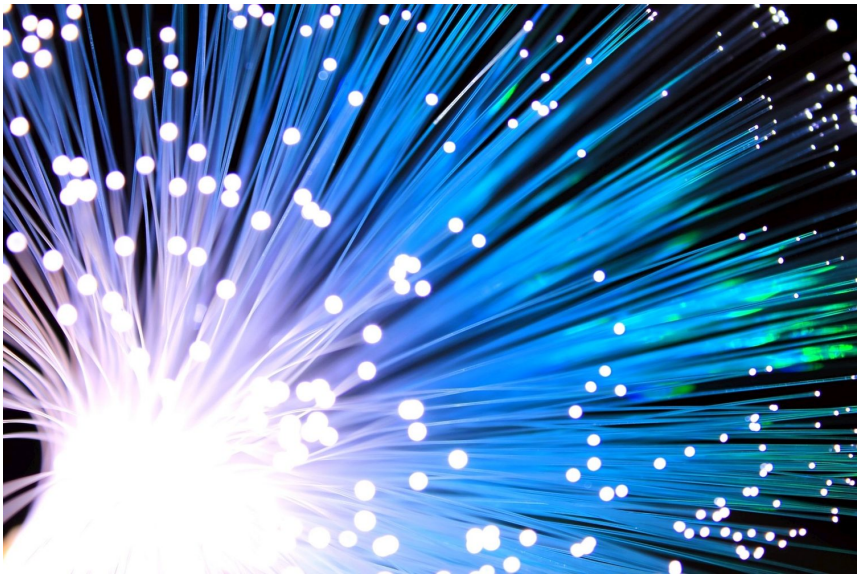
In this unit you will:

- Explain how new technology made **globalisation** 全球化 faster, and where it had limits.
- Explain how medicine changed disease, and which diseases remained.
- Explain the debates about the **environment** 环境.
- Explain the move to **free-market** 自由市场 economic policies.
- Explain calls for rights and reform, global culture, and resistance to globalisation.
- Explain the role of international institutions.

New technology changed how fast people, goods and ideas moved.

- **Communication:** radio and television, then the **internet** 互联网: ARPANET linked its first computers in 1969, and Tim Berners-Lee's World Wide Web opened to the public in 1991. Mobile phones spread across the world after 2000.
- **Transport:** passenger jets made long-distance travel common, and the shipping container (first used in 1956) cut the cost of sea freight.
- **Energy:** oil replaced coal as the main fuel; nuclear power began in the 1950s.
- The **Green Revolution** 绿色革命: new wheat and rice varieties, with fertiliser and irrigation, raised harvests in Mexico, India and elsewhere from the 1960s. Norman Borlaug won the Nobel Peace Prize for this work in 1970.

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Fibre-optic cable carries data as pulses of light: the communications technology behind faster global exchange after 1900

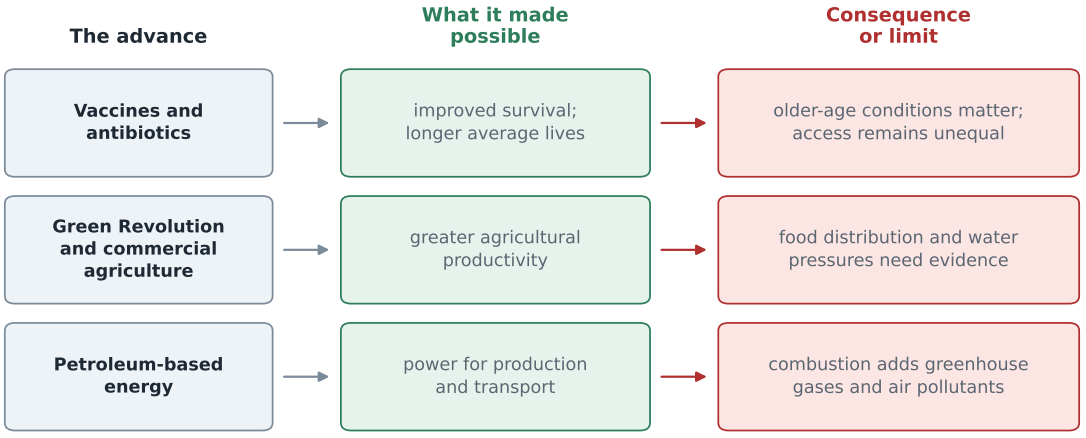
Technological Advances and Limitations: Disease

Medicine saved millions of lives. Penicillin, found by Alexander Fleming in 1928, was mass-produced from the 1940s; Jonas Salk's polio vaccine was licensed in 1955; and smallpox was eradicated by 1980.

But disease still killed millions:

- **Diseases linked to poverty** 与贫困相关的疾病: malaria, tuberculosis and cholera, where clean water and health care were lacking.
- **Epidemics** 流行病 and **pandemics** 大流行: the 1918–1919 influenza killed about 50 million people; HIV/AIDS, identified in the early 1980s, spread worldwide; Ebola struck West Africa in 2014–2016; COVID-19 was declared a pandemic on 11 March 2020.
- **Diseases of longer lives:** as people lived longer, heart disease, cancer and Alzheimer's disease became more common.

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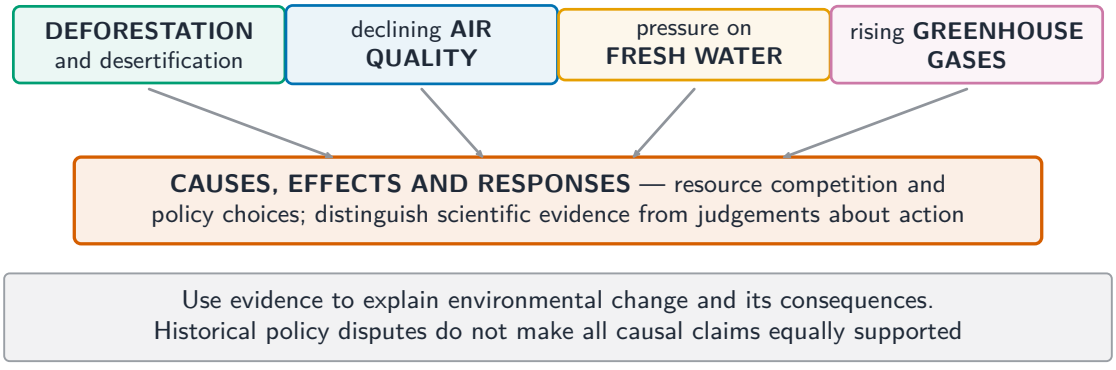
Explain the mechanism; answer the actual task.

Trace an advance to its effects and limits; choose the chain that answers the task.

Debates About the Environment

The world's population grew from about 1.6 billion in 1900 to 6.1 billion in 2000 and 8 billion in 2022. More people, more industry and more farming changed the environment.

- **Deforestation** 森林砍伐 for farms and cattle, especially in the Amazon.
- **Desertification** 荒漠化 in the Sahel, where land dried out after drought and overuse.
- **Air pollution** and **greenhouse gases** 温室气体 from burning coal, oil and gas, which cause **climate change** 气候变化.



Environmental causes and effects inform arguments about responses.

States disagreed about who should act. Industrial countries had produced most of the past emissions, while developing countries wanted to grow. The Kyoto Protocol (1997) set targets only for industrial countries; in the Paris Agreement (2015) almost every

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state set its own targets. The IPCC's 2023 summary states that human activities have "unequivocally caused global warming".

Economics in the Global Age

From the late 1970s many states moved away from state control of the economy towards free markets.

- **Free-market reforms:** Margaret Thatcher in Britain (from 1979) and Ronald Reagan in the United States (from 1981) cut taxes, sold state businesses and reduced regulation.
- **China:** from 1978 Deng Xiaoping opened China to foreign investment, starting with **special economic zones** 经济特区 such as Shenzhen (1980), while the Communist Party kept political control.
- **Trade agreements:** NAFTA (1994) linked the economies of the United States, Canada and Mexico; the World Trade Organization was founded in 1995.



A container terminal - the physical form of the globalized economy

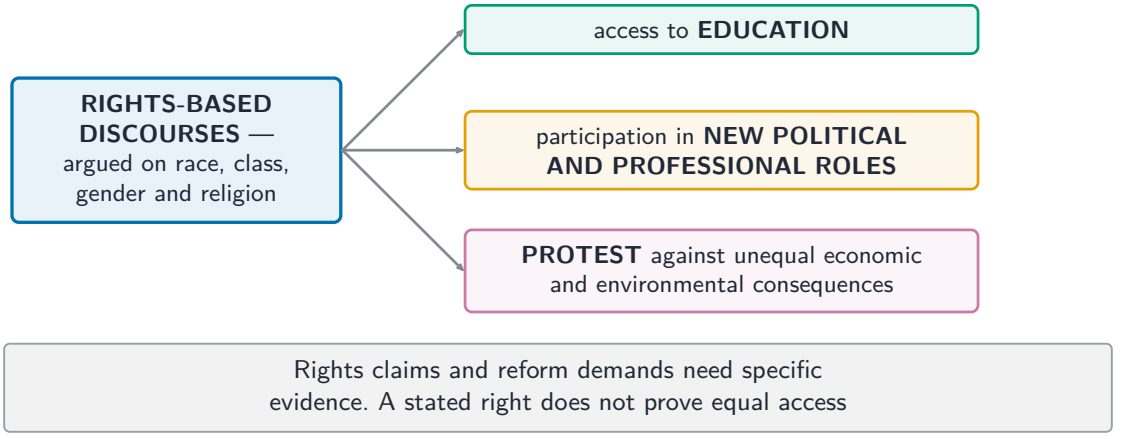
Multinational corporations 跨国公司 now made and sold goods in many countries at once. Global markets also spread crises: the financial crisis of 2008 began in the United States and became a worldwide recession.

Calls for Reform and Responses

After 1945 people around the world demanded equal rights. The **Universal Declaration of Human Rights** 世界人权宣言 (1948) set out rights for every person; its Article 26 says that "everyone has the right to education".

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- **Women's rights:** women won the vote in most countries during the twentieth century, and **feminism** 女权主义 campaigned for equal pay and legal equality.
- **Caste:** B. R. Ambedkar, born a Dalit, led the drafting of India's 1950 constitution, which outlawed "untouchability".
- **Race:** the US civil rights movement and the end of apartheid in South Africa (1994).
- **Religion and reform:** in Latin America, **liberation theology** 解放神学 called on the Catholic Church to stand with the poor.



Rights arguments and reform demands must be connected to specific evidence.

Responses differed: some states changed their laws, while others crushed protest.

Globalized Culture

Popular culture spread across borders through film, music, television and the internet.

- Indian **Bollywood** 宝莱坞 films are watched across Asia, Africa and the Middle East.
- Jamaican reggae, through Bob Marley, and South Korean K-pop found fans around the world.
- Sport became global: the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup are watched by billions.
- **Consumer culture** 消费文化: the same brands and fast-food chains appeared in cities everywhere.

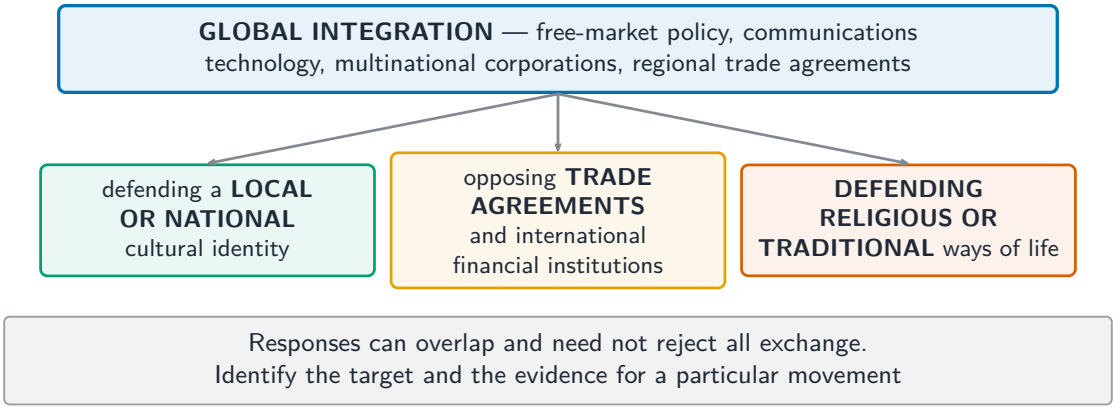
Culture flowed in more than one direction, but critics argued that American products dominated.

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Resistance to Globalization

Some people resisted the effects of globalisation.

- **Protests against free trade:** in 1999 tens of thousands of protesters gathered at the WTO meeting in Seattle.
- The **Zapatistas** 萨帕塔民族解放军 rose in southern Mexico on 1 January 1994, the day NAFTA began, saying it would harm Indigenous farmers.
- **Environmental movements:** Wangari Maathai's **Green Belt Movement** 绿带运动 (founded 1977) planted millions of trees in Kenya; she won the Nobel Peace Prize in 2004.



Different responses target different aspects of integration; they can overlap.

Institutions in a Globalized World

New institutions tried to manage a connected world.

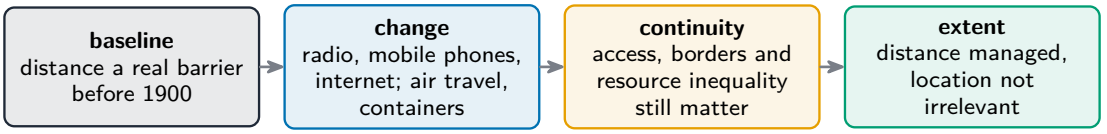
- The **United Nations** 联合国 (1945) was founded to keep peace and promote cooperation; Article 1 of its Charter sets out these purposes.
- The World Bank and the **IMF** 国际货币基金组织 (planned at Bretton Woods, 1944) lend money to states for development and in crises.
- **Regional groups:** the European Union (1993), ASEAN (1967) and the African Union (2002).
- **Non-governmental organisations** 非政府组织 (NGOs), such as Doctors Without Borders (1971), work across borders without being run by states.

Continuity and Change in a Globalized World

Topic 9.9 asks how far globalisation changed the world after 1900.

- **Change:** communication became almost instant, trade grew enormously, and global institutions grew.

- **Continuity:** states still made most decisions; inequality between rich and poor countries continued; diseases of poverty remained.



Baseline, change, continuity, then a judgement of extent.

Worked example: a short-answer question

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

> (a) Briefly describe ONE technological advance that increased global exchange after 1900.
>
> (b) Briefly describe ONE disease that continued to affect large populations after 1900.
>
> (c) Briefly explain ONE way people resisted economic globalisation.

Model answer.

- (a) The internet, opened to the public through the World Wide Web in 1991, let people send information around the world almost instantly.
- (b) Malaria continued to kill large numbers of people in poorer tropical regions, where mosquito control and health care were limited.
- (c) The Zapatistas rose in Mexico on the day NAFTA began in 1994, because they believed free trade would ruin Indigenous farmers.

Worked example: an extent argument

> Evaluate the extent to which globalisation reduced the importance of nation-states after 1945.

Step 1: the baseline. In 1945 states controlled their borders, currencies and trade policies almost completely.

Step 2: the change. States gave up some control: members of the WTO accepted its trade rules, and members of the European Union share laws and, for many, one currency. Multinational corporations and NGOs act across borders.

Step 3: the continuity. States still make the decisions that matter most: they make war, control migration and choose whether to join or leave institutions. Britain voted to leave the European Union in 2016.

Step 4: the judgement. Globalisation reduced the importance of states to a limited extent: they share some economic power with institutions and corporations, but they keep the final say over security and borders.

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Common errors

- Listing technology without explaining how it increased exchange.
- Saying modern medicine ended disease: diseases of poverty and new epidemics remained.
- Writing about climate change with no data, place or date.
- Treating globalisation as only economic: it also changed culture, rights and institutions.
- Forgetting resistance: people opposed free trade and cultural change.
- In an extent essay, giving only one side.

Key terms

globalisation: The growing connection of the world's economies, cultures and peoples.

Green Revolution: New crop varieties and farming methods that raised food production from the 1960s.

pandemic: An outbreak of disease that spreads across many countries.

deforestation: The large-scale clearing of forests.

free market: An economy where prices and production are set mainly by private buyers and sellers.

multinational corporation: A company that operates in many countries.

NGO: A non-governmental organisation that works across borders without being run by a state.

liberation theology: A Catholic movement in Latin America that put the needs of the poor at the centre.

Check yourself

- Give one success and one limit of medicine after 1900.
- Name two free-market reformers and the year their reforms began.
- Give one global institution and say what it does.

Answers: Success: smallpox eradication (1980) or the polio vaccine (1955); limit: malaria, HIV/AIDS or COVID-19. Thatcher (1979) and Reagan (1981), or Deng Xiaoping (1978). For example, the United Nations keeps peace and promotes cooperation; the IMF lends to states in crisis; the WTO sets trade rules.

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Sources for this lesson

College Board, *AP World History: Modern Course and Exam Description*, Unit 9, topics 9.1–9.9 (`syllabi/ap/ap_world_history_CED.pdf`). The practice questions are written for this course, not taken from past papers.