

AP[®] WORLD HISTORY

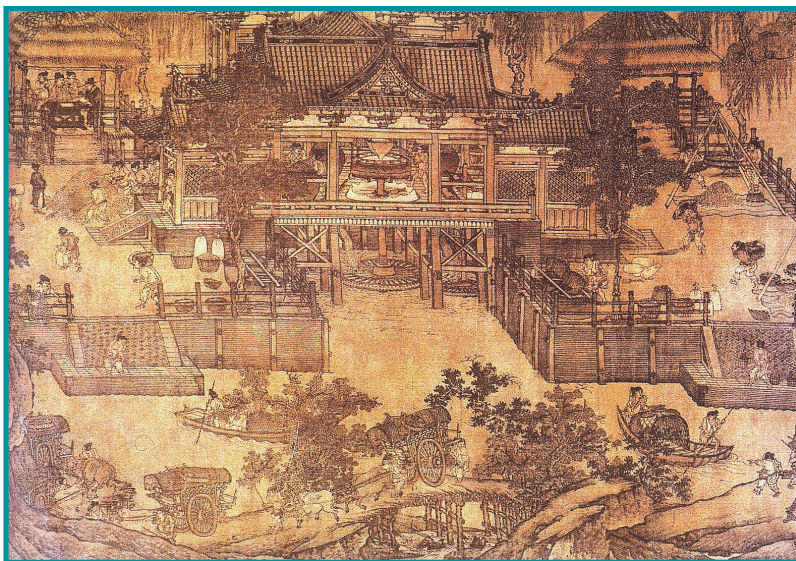
STUDY GUIDE PACK



DEVELOPMENTS IN ASIA

The **Song Dynasty** in China maintained its rule through long-held cultural traditions based in **Neo-Confucian** principles, such as **filial piety**, **Buddhism**, and a system of **imperial bureaucracy**. Chinese belief systems influenced surrounding regions, and Chinese **innovations in agriculture and manufacturing** enabled China to flourish economically and to expand its regional trade networks. Although the Chinese economy grew more commercialized, it remained dependent on the labor of the peasant and artisan classes.

In South and Southeast Asia, societies continued to be strongly influenced by **Hinduism**, **Buddhism**, and **Islam**. In India, the Hindu **caste system** created and maintained a hierarchy of power, and various decentralized kingdoms competed with each other until the emergence of the **Muslim Delhi Sultanate**. Mainland Southeast Asia was dominated by the **Khmer Empire**, which had its capital at the Hindu-turned-Buddhist temple complex **Angkor Wat**. However, many small trading states arose on islands across Southeast Asia, like the Majapahit, a Hindu-Buddhist empire of 98 tributary cities centered on the island of Java.



Song Dynasty Grain Mill



Suleiman the Magnificent

DEVELOPMENTS IN DAR AL-ISLAM

The three largest **Abrahamic religions** (**Judaism**, **Christianity**, and **Islam**) continued to have immense impact upon societies in Africa and Asia. As the **Abbasid Caliphate** began to decline, new Muslim powers emerged in the world of Dar al-Islam and expanded their territories and influence throughout Afro-Eurasia by means of military excursion, trade, and missionary work. The medieval Muslim world was dominated by the **Mamluk Sultanate** and the **Seljuk Turks** who ruled the declining **Abbasid Empire**. Empires and individual states within Dar al-Islam fostered intellectual activity such as **advances in mathematics and medicine** and the preservation of **Greek philosophy** from classical antiquity.

THE GLOBAL TAPESTRY, c. 1200 to c. 1450

DEVELOPMENTS IN EUROPE

Europe continued to be dominated by the same cultural forces that influenced it during the medieval period, notably Christianity. Politically, Europe was decentralized and fragmented into smaller kingdoms or regions; **feudalism** led to distinct social and economic hierarchies, with lords, vassals, knights, and serfs each having particular roles. **Manorialism** was the dominant system of organizing rural economies and often made use of the three-field system.

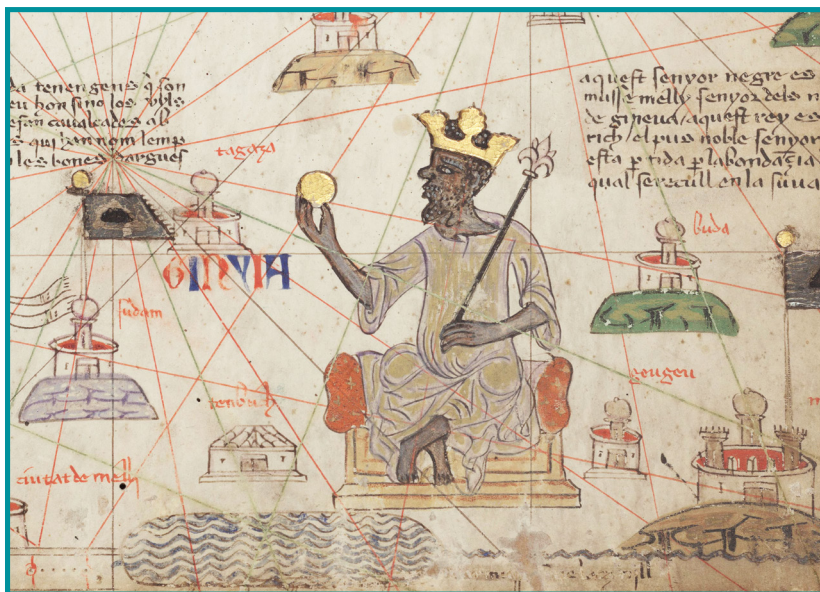
Absolute monarchs were developing more sophisticated forms of government, such as the British Parliament or the French Estates General, while still asserting their Divine Right to rule.



Reeve and Serfs

STATE BUILDING IN THE AMERICAS AND AFRICA

The Americas largely showed continuity in the 13th–15th centuries. Much of North, Central, and South America was tribal and clan-based, but more well-organized political systems existed. In North America, the **Mississippian** cultures exhibited great regional variation; most tribes practiced maize-based agriculture and had defined social hierarchies. The **Aztec Empire** in Mexico thrived in large city-states such as its capital, **Tenochtitlan**, which had impressive architectural monuments and networks of trade. Although they had no written alphabet, the Aztec had a complex system of **ideographs** through which they recorded historical events. In the Andes mountains of South America, the **Inca Empire** developed a united monarchy and a powerful military, thriving during the century leading up to the **Spanish Conquest**.



Manuscript Showing Mansa Musa on Throne

Africa, like the Americas, was primarily tribal and clan-based. In the west, the wealthy **Mali Empire** produced leaders such as **Mansa Musa**, who built magnificent mosques and a library at **Timbuktu**. The regions along the east coast of the continent were united by the arrival of Arab traders, whose language mixed with the native Bantu to create **Swahili**, and merchants traveled throughout Africa and beyond using the trans-Saharan trade routes as well as Indian Ocean maritime routes.

UNIT TWO: NETWORKS OF EXCHANGE, c. 1200 to c. 1450

THE SILK ROADS

Existing trade routes between east and west along the **Silk Roads** experienced an increased volume of trade after the year 1200. Improvements in business practices that benefited traveling merchants, such as the use of **credit** and **caravanserais**, facilitated new markets for luxury goods that crossed regional boundaries. Major trading cities sprung up across Afro-Eurasia, including **Samarkand** and **Kashgar** in Central Asia. In China, there was an increase in **steel manufacturing**, while across the region, artisans expanded their trade in **porcelain** and **textiles**.



Samarkand

THE MONGOL EMPIRE AND THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

The **Mongols**, a nomadic people group from Central Asia, originally consisted of scattered clans. Under the leadership first of **Genghis Khan** in the early 13th century and then others



Battle Between Mongols and Chinese

over the ensuing decades, the Mongols developed through conquest an enormous land-based empire that spread from East Asia to Eastern Europe. Because of its vast size, the empire was split into administrative regions called **khanates** that were each ruled by a **khan**, or leader. The expansive Mongol empire incorporated many different people groups across regions, making trade relatively easy and safe during the **Pax Mongolica**. Commerce was further facilitated by the implementation of **standardized weights and measures**. In addition to trade, the period

of Mongol rule experienced cultural exchange such as the transfer of **Greco-Roman** and **Islamic scholarship** to Europe and intellectual innovations such as the development of the **Uyghur script**.

EXCHANGE IN THE INDIAN OCEAN

After 1200, existing trade routes through the Indian Ocean expanded and new trading cities such as **Gujarat** and the **Sultanate of Malacca**, became powerful centers of commerce. The economic benefits of expanded trade facilitated the rise of powerful new states, including **Mombasa** and **Zanzibar** along the **Swahili Coast** of East Africa. Furthermore, large diaspora communities emerged, especially Arabs and Persians in East Africa and Chinese in Southeast Asia, leading to an increased intermingling of cultural traditions and

NETWORKS OF EXCHANGE, c. 1200 to c. 1450

*Islamic astrolabe*

mutual exchange of ideas. Innovations in technology, for example, the **astrolabe** and **lateen sails**, enabled travelers to more easily navigate maritime routes. A more robust understanding of environmental factors, such as **monsoon winds** allowed navigators to travel more safely and confidently as they built up their networks of exchange.

TRANS-SAHARAN TRADE ROUTES

The growth in interregional African trade between 1200 and 1450 was spurred by improved technology that facilitated transportation, especially along **trans-Saharan** trade routes that connected

sub-Saharan West Africa with North Africa, Europe, and the Middle East. Innovations in **camel saddle** technology, which made long-distance journeys much easier, and the ability of travelers to join groups of **caravans** encouraged interregional trade of **gold**, **salt**, and **slaves**. In addition to goods, trans-Saharan trade routes enabled the **spread of Islam** in Africa and generated wealth for the **Mali**, **Ghana**, and **Songhai Empires**.

CULTURAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONSEQUENCES OF CONNECTIVITY

In addition to shared knowledge of science and technology, the increased connectivity in Afro-Eurasia between 1200 and 1450 led to a spread of literary, artistic, and intellectual traditions. **Buddhism** and **Hinduism** expanded in Asia, and **Islam** expanded in both Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. **Gunpowder** and **paper** technology spread from China to other parts of the world, and an increasing number of travelers such as **Ibn Battuta**, **Marco Polo**, and **Margery Kempe** wrote about their journeys, informing readers far and wide about the cultures they encountered. Connectivity led to diffusion of crops such as **bananas** and **rice** to new regions, but disease pathogens also spread; the **bubonic plague**, which originated in China, spread to Europe through trade routes and killed almost half of Europe's population in the 14th century.

*Sahara desert*

UNIT THREE: LAND-BASED EMPIRES

c. 1450 to c. 1750

EMPIRES EXPAND

The period from 1450 to 1750 witnessed the expansion of land-based empires across the globe. These empires, often referred to as the **Gunpowder Empires**, conducted their expansion in large part through widespread use of gunpowder, cannons, and other technologically sophisticated weaponry. In East Asia, the **Manchu** ethnic group invaded Beijing, removing the ruling **Ming Dynasty** and establishing the **Qing Dynasty** in its place. Three of the dominant empires from this period were Islamic: the **Mughal Empire**, which controlled most of South Asia; the neighboring **Safavid Empire**, which dominated great stretches of land in the Middle East; and further to the west, the **Ottoman Empire**, which controlled territory spanning from Southern Europe to the Middle East and North Africa. Throughout this period, various religious and political conflicts arose, such as the rivalry between the Safavid and Mughal Empires and, in Africa, the **Songhai Empire's** conflict with Morocco.



Islamic Gunpowder Empires

EMPIRES: ADMINISTRATION

Rulers of land-based empires used a variety of methods to legitimize their power, maintain order, and exercise control over vast populations and resources. The Ottomans recruited soldiers and bureaucrats through the practice of **devshirme**, while the Japanese professionalized their military forces by creating a network of **salaried samurai**. Rulers around the world continued long-standing religious practices such as **human sacrifice** in Meso-America and built monumental structures such as the Incan **Temple of the Sun** in **Cuzco**, Peru.

LAND-BASED EMPIRES, c. 1450 to c. 1750

In Europe, rulers promoted a philosophy of the **divine right of kings** and built lavish palaces such as **Versailles** as symbols of their wealth and power. In the Islamic world, leaders of the Mughal Empire built **mausoleums** and **mosques** such as the **Taj Mahal** to remind the citizenry of the religious faithfulness of its leadership. As a way of generating revenue, many empires established new systems of collecting taxes or other revenue. The **zamindars** in South Asia were military leaders whose duties included collecting taxes on behalf of the Mughal Empire, and Ming rulers collected **hard currency** in addition to a percentage of farmers' agricultural product.

*Taj Mahal***EMPIRES: BELIEF SYSTEMS**

The predominant religions of earlier periods—Christianity, Islam, Hinduism, Buddhism, and others—continued to dominate the large land-based empires between 1450 and 1750. During this time period, however, there were dramatic new changes that shaped subsequent belief systems and impacted both political and cultural aspects of global societies. In Europe,

*Martin Luther*

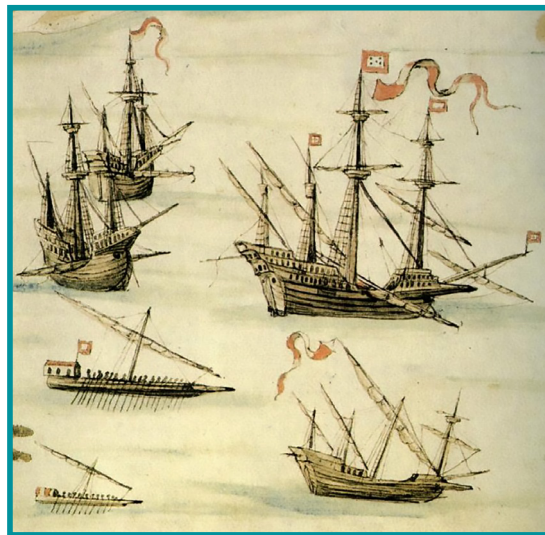
the **Protestant Reformation**—initiated in part through the actions of German monk **Martin Luther**—and subsequent **Catholic Counter-Reformation** reshaped Christianity and highlighted differences in worship practices and theological identities. In the Ottoman and Safavid empires, political and theological differences led to a further divide between **Sunni** and **Shi'a** Muslims. In South Asia, the intermingling of Hindu and Muslim cultures led to the emergence of a new syncretic religion, **Sikhism**.

UNIT FOUR: TRANSOCEANIC INTERCONNECTIONS, c. 1450 to c. 1750

TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS AND EXPLORATION FROM 1450 TO 1750

Numerous technological advances and developments in scientific learning from the Islamic and Asian worlds spread to Europe, facilitating the ease with which explorers were able to navigate the oceans and participate in transregional trade. Using the new ship type **caravel**, the Portuguese were able to explore the West African coast as well as the Atlantic Ocean; similarly, the **carrack** was first used in Mediterranean trade and later in European exploration of Asia before being largely replaced by the **galleon**. Through cross-cultural interactions, navigators in various regions benefitted from more advanced understandings of the **compass** and **astronomical charts**.

European nations were motivated to compete in international exploration in order to gain wealth, promote Christianity, and dominate their political rivals. Spurred in part by **mercantilist ideology**, Portuguese, Spanish, English, French, and Dutch states began to sponsor transoceanic exploration and invest enormous sums of money into the trade race. The Portuguese explorer **Vasco da Gama** was the first European to reach India by sea, and Italian explorer **Christopher Columbus**, sponsored by the Spanish monarchy, was the first European to reach the Caribbean, Central America, and South America. The English, French, and Dutch governments frequently supported trans-Atlantic exploration with the hopes of finding quicker trading routes to Asia.



16th Century Portuguese Ships

COLUMBIAN EXCHANGE

European exploration and subsequent colonization of the Americas led to new connections between the Eastern and Western Hemispheres. The transfer of crops, animals, and diseases became known as the **Columbian Exchange**. Fruits such as **citrus** were brought to the Americas from the Mediterranean, and staples from the Americas such as **maize**, **tomatoes**, and **potatoes** were brought back to Europe. Many cash crops, such as **tobacco**, were grown in the Americas with widespread coerced labor such as **indentured servitude**



Maize

and **slavery**. In addition to slaves, Europeans brought African crops such as **rice** and **okra** to the Americas. The new increase in travel and interaction had devastating effects on the native populations of the Americas, as ships from the Eastern hemisphere carried disease vectors such as **rats** and **mosquitoes**, which led to the spread of **smallpox**, **measles**, **malaria**, and other deadly diseases for which those in the Americas had no immunity.

TRANSOCEANIC INTERCONNECTIONS, c. 1450 to c. 1750**MARITIME EMPIRES ESTABLISHED, MAINTAINED, AND DEVELOPED**

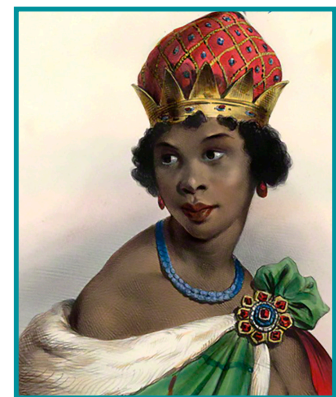
Between 1450 and 1750, European states established profitable maritime trading empires. The Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, French, and British set up outposts and colonies in Asia, Africa, and the Americas. **Ming China** and **Tokugawa Japan** set up restricted isolationist policies in an attempt to hinder western cultural influence and limit the disruptive effect of European economic activities in Asia. The **Asante Empire** in West Africa, which previously had trade dealings with other African regions, began to trade with Europeans in the 15th century. In Central Africa, the **Kingdom of Kongo** similarly had economic relationships with both other African states and with Europeans. Within Africa, **slavery** continued in its traditional forms but now included the exportation of African slaves to the Western Hemisphere, where the growth of **plantation agriculture** led to an ever-increasing demand for labor. In the Americas, European colonial economies were built by incorporating not only slavery and indentured servitude but also the **encomienda** and **hacienda** systems into pre-existing labor practices.

*South American encomienda*

Economically, European rulers were able to control and finance their vast overseas territories by practicing **mercantilism** and establishing **joint-stock companies** that could serve as a resource for explorers sponsored by patrons or investors back home. In large part due to mineral resources from the Americas, Europeans had control over the global flow of **silver**; the Spanish, in particular, had enormous wealth generated from their South American colonies.

CHALLENGES TO STATE POWER FROM 1450 TO 1750

Across the globe, state expansion and power engendered resistance. In the Americas, the **Pueblo Revolts** and **King Philip's War** were emblematic of indigenous resistance to European occupation and exploitation. Fugitive slaves established **Maroon societies** in the Caribbean and Brazil, succeeding in many cases in building remote settlements where they could live independently from Europeans. In Africa, **Queen Nzinga of Ndongo** made an alliance with the Dutch to fight off the Portuguese. The Russians faced internal challenges in this period when the **Cossacks** rose up against the government on behalf of free peasants experiencing economic hardship.

*Queen Nzinga***CHANGING SOCIAL HIERARCHIES FROM 1450 TO 1750**

As populations from different regions became more intermingled, many regions experienced cultural synthesis, and states had to figure out how to deal with increasing diversity of religions and ethnicities. New elites, such as the rulers of **Qing China**, enforced restrictive policies against ethnically **Han** Chinese. In the Iberian Peninsula, **Jews** were expelled by Spanish and Portuguese authorities, while in the **Ottoman Empire**, there existed policies designed to accept, with some restrictions, those of non-Muslim faith.

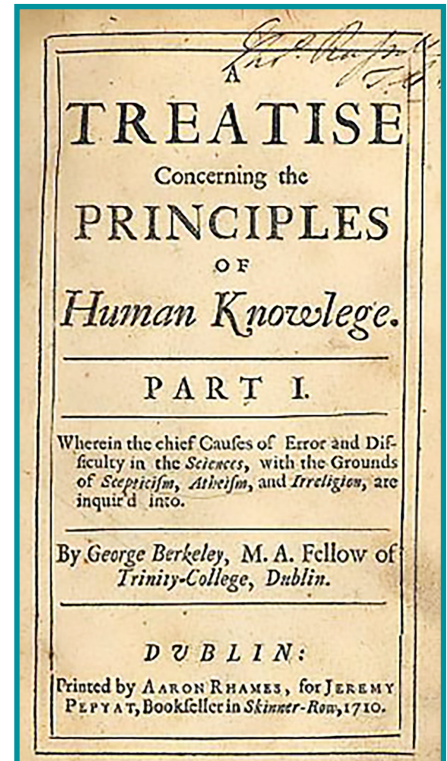
UNIT FIVE: REVOLUTIONS, c. 1750 to c. 1900

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

Ideological shifts revolutionized the Atlantic world between 1750 and 1900 as **Enlightenment philosophies** reexamined the role of religion in public life and instead promoted **empiricist** thinking. As a result of these new ways of thinking, particularly in Europe and the Americas, novel understandings of human rights, the individual, and social hierarchies challenged traditional political and social structures. Reform movements arose that pushed for **women's suffrage**, the **abolition of slavery**, and the **end of serfdom**.

NATIONALISM AND REVOLUTIONS IN THE PERIOD FROM 1750 TO 1900

Governments around the world used people's sense of unity surrounding religion, language, and social customs to promote **nationalistic** ideologies that were manifest in state-building enterprises such as the **German** and **Italian unification** movements. At the same time, **discontent with monarchy and imperialism**, often inspired by liberal democratic ideals, led to rebellions and revolts against existing power structures such as the **American Revolution**, the **Haitian Revolution**, the **French Revolution**, and various **Latin American independence movements**.



Berkley's Treatise Concerning the Principles of Human Knowledge.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTIONS

In the period from 1750 to 1900, a variety of environmental, societal, and technological changes led to growth in industrial production. **Urbanization**, **accumulation of capital**, and other factors accompanied the development of the **factory system** and more sophisticated **specialization of labor**. In the United States and Europe, scientific innovations such as the creation of the **steam engine** led to the dominance of those regions in the manufacturing and industrial sectors, while Middle Eastern, Asian, and African nations lagged behind economically. Alongside the development of new machines, industrializing societies experienced an increased demand for and then reliance upon fossil fuels such as **coal and oil**. The "second industrial revolution" in the 19th century led to further innovations such as advancements in **chemicals**, **steel**, and **precision machinery**.



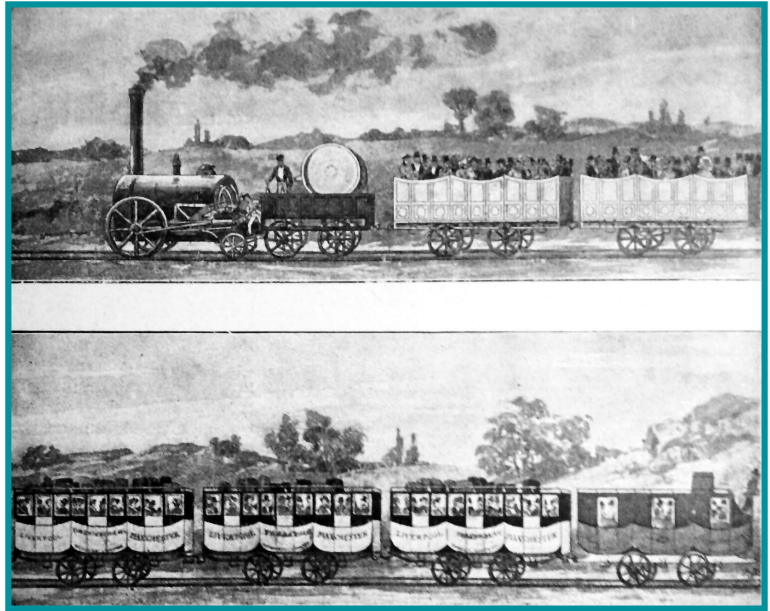
Haitian Revolution

REVOLUTIONS, c. 1750 to c. 1900

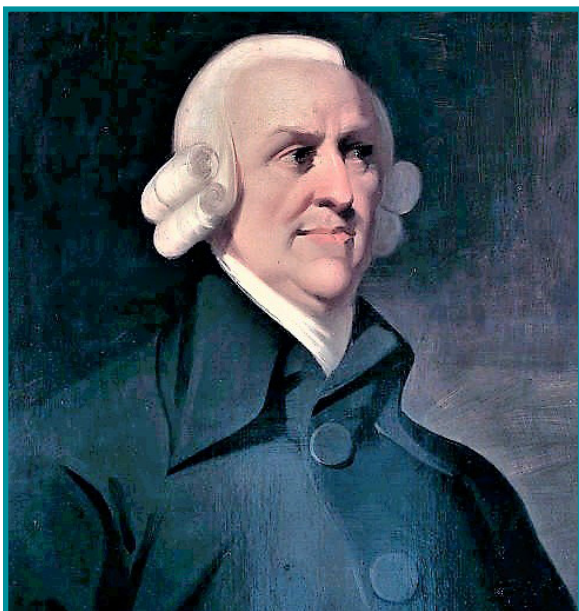
As these technologies became more widespread and readily available, **railroads**, the **steamship**, and the **telegraph** completely changed the ways in which individuals and goods were able to travel around the globe and made communication across regions simpler and cheaper.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS AND INNOVATION IN THE INDUSTRIAL AGE

As they developed, societies began to change their economic ideologies and the ways in which they conducted commerce. In Western Europe, the ideas of **Adam Smith** prompted a move away from long-standing **mercantilist policies** in favor of **laissez-faire capitalism** and **free markets**. Trade became more intertwined across the globe, as evidenced by the rise of international **stock markets** and **transnational businesses**. In industrialized nations, **labor unions** fought for better working conditions and higher wages, while intellectuals such as **Karl Marx** decried the excesses of capitalism and encouraged **socialist** or **communist** political reforms. Some governments, such as those of the **Ottoman Empire** and **Qing China**, sought to modernize their societies amid resistance from some members of traditionalist or elite groups.



First passenger railway in Europe, 1830



Adam Smith

SOCIETAL CHANGES IN THE INDUSTRIAL AGE

As a result of industrialization, new social groups such as the working class and middle class emerged. While men in most regions remained the primary wage earners, both women and children from working class families found low-wage employment in factories and other industrial activities across the globe. While industrialization led to an increased standard of living for many, including a rise in the availability and variety of **consumer goods**, it also had many harmful effects, including **pollution**, **overcrowding**, **poor sanitation**, **crime**, and **housing shortages**.

UNIT SIX: CONSEQUENCES OF INDUSTRIALIZATION, c. 1750 to c. 1900

RATIONALES FOR IMPERIALISM AND STATE EXPANSION FROM 1750 TO 1900

A variety of ideologies were used to rationalize and justify the imperialistic policies and attitudes that served as the foundation for state expansion between 1750 and 1900. **Social Darwinists** believed that **Charles Darwin's** theories had implications beyond biology and that the concept of natural selection and survival of the fittest applied to societal organization and politics. As such, many American and European thinkers thought it appropriate that wealthy, powerful countries should increase their wealth and power at the expense of those that were less developed. Accompanying this worldview was often a belief that Americans and Europeans looking to expand their spheres of influence were acting for the benefit of those they believed to be culturally or civilizationally inferior to themselves, and that their imperialism was part of a **civilizing mission**.



England as imperialist octopus

STATE EXPANSION AND INDIGENOUS RESPONSES FROM 1750 TO 1900

Mechanisms of state power shifted around the world as some nations strengthened control over preexisting colonies and others gained new territories. In the Congo, ownership shifted from **King Leopold II** to the **Belgian Government**, while in **Indonesia**, the **Dutch Government** wrested control from the privately-held **Dutch East India Company**. The **British** and **French** expanded their territories in West Africa, and the **United States**, **Russia**, and **Japan** all conquered and subsequently settled both neighboring territories and



Sioux ghost dance

far-away islands. Around the globe, anti-imperialist and anti-colonial movements formed in response to state expansion, such as **Túpac Amaru II's** unsuccessful uprising against the Spanish in Peru, **Samory Touré's** fight against French colonialists in West Africa, and the **Ghost Dance** religious movement in North America, designed to drive away white settlers and restore traditional pre-European ways of life.

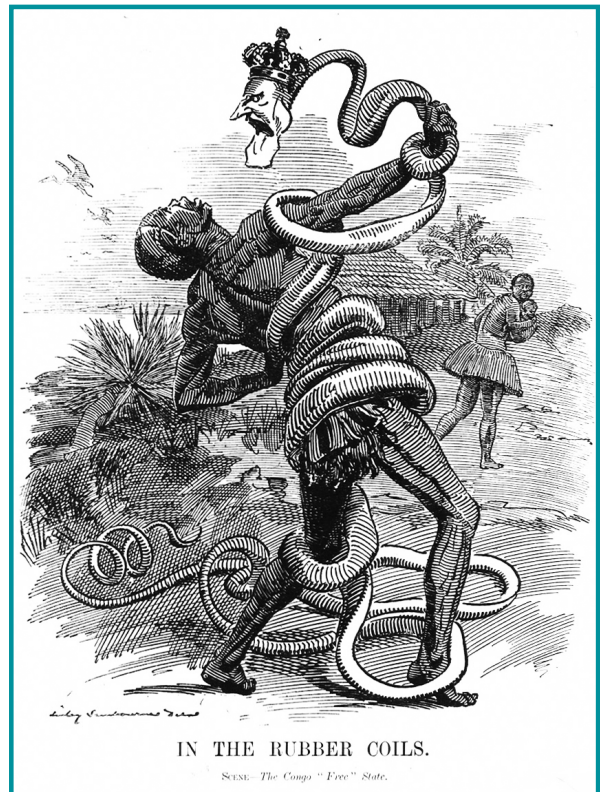
CONSEQUENCES OF INDUSTRIALIZATION, c. 1750 to c. 1900

GLOBAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS FROM 1750 TO 1900

In the industrialized world, demand for **raw materials** and **food supplies** facilitated the growth of export economies, in particular those dealing with **natural resources** and **industrial crops**. Illustrative examples include the development of **cotton production** in Egypt, **rubber extraction** in the Amazon region and Central Africa, the **palm oil** trade in West Africa, and large-scale **meat production** in South America. Economically, the United States and Europe had distinct advantages over other regions.

MIGRATION IN AN INTERCONNECTED WORLD

New modes of transportation in the industrial age made it easier for populations to shift and move to other parts of the globe. In addition to widespread urbanization, the period from 1750 to 1900 was marked by migration to an extent never seen before. **Japanese agricultural workers** moved to other Pacific islands and to the west coast of the United States, **Italian industrial workers** moved to Argentina, and **British engineers** moved to South Asia and Africa. Some migrants



Cartoon depicting King Leopold II as a rubber vine in the Congo

were well-off, while others were forced to migrate due to extreme hardship, such as many of the Irish who moved to the east coast of the United States in large numbers after the **Irish Potato Famine**. In general, migrants tended to be male, leading to new societal roles for women in the places those men had left behind. In many places, migrants created their own ethnic enclaves within other countries, as did the **Chinese** in Southeast Asia and the Americas and **Indians** in east and southern Africa. Cultural intermixing resulted from migration, but **xenophobic**, **nativist**, and **racist attitudes** flourished across the globe, as societies often rejected immigrants and created laws such as the American **Chinese Exclusion Act** to limit the number of migrants from certain regions coming to their soil.



U.S. anti-Chinese cartoon, 1886

UNIT SEVEN: GLOBAL CONFLICT, c. 1750 to c. 1900

CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF WORLD WAR I

Many of the traditional land-based empires that had flourished up to 1900, such as the **Ottoman Empire**, the **Russian Empire**, and the **Qing Empire**, floundered in the 20th century. Many empires faced internal and external challenges, such as the Russian Revolution. These struggling empires turned to a flawed alliance system to try to shore up their global positions. In the short term, this alliance system created a tenuous stability throughout Eurasia. However, this short-term peace came at a cost because countries found themselves dragged into World War I to defend their allies and hold up their end of complex diplomatic treaties. World War I was a total war that required each country to completely commit to the conflict, both on the battlefield and on the home front. New technologies, like gas weaponry and airplanes, led to high casualty levels.



European countries formed military alliances that created the conditions for World War I (1914-1919).

ECONOMY AND UNRESOLVED TENSIONS IN THE INTERWAR PERIOD



This poster from the Soviet Five Year Plan reads "The arithmetic of an industrial-financial counter-plan: 2 + 2 plus the enthusiasm of the workers = 5."

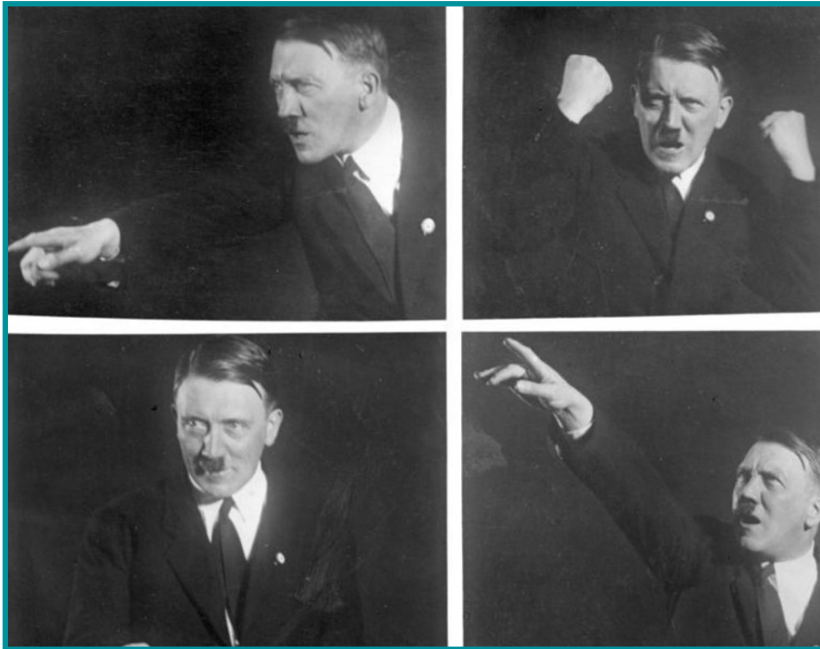
Following World War I, the nations of the world were forced to grapple simultaneously with the devastation of the conflict and the economic volatility of the **Great Depression**. Some governments responded by taking a more active role to pull their countries out of the post-war slump. For example, the Soviet Union pushed through a series of aggressive **Five Year Plans** to force the country to industrialize rapidly in the hopes that they would be able to compete with the more industrial (and less war torn) countries of the West.

Some countries sought stability through colonies in the interwar period. Under the **League of Nations**, Germany's former colonies were parceled out to Great Britain and France—without regards to the will of the colonized people. Japan also increased its colonial holdings in the interwar period by carving out the "Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere" by occupying neighboring nations and installing puppet governments.

GLOBAL CONFLICT, c. 1750 to c. 1900

CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF WORLD WAR II

In the short term, World War II was caused by a breakdown in the global political order that was brought on by the heady combination of global tension in the interwar period, frustrated imperial aspirations (especially on behalf of the Triple Alliance), and the Great Depression.



Adolf Hitler rose to power in Germany by appealing to nationalism.

From a longer-term perspective, these causes only led to another global conflict because they built on nascent and extreme ideas of nationalism. **Nationalism** led **fascist** and **totalitarian** regimes to pursue aggressive military agendas by convincing their citizenry that authoritarian governments were the only way to address the uncomfortable short-term realities of the interwar period. Just like in World War I, World War II was a **total war** in which governments utilized all of their available resources to wage war, including dedicating large budgets to the development of new military technologies.

MASS ATROCITIES AFTER 1900

Mass atrocities in the 20th century developed in disillusioned societies as people increasingly turned against minorities and blamed them for society's problems. In the case of the **Holocaust**, the **Nazi Party** rose to power in Germany by claiming that the Jewish people were responsible for Germany's economic and political problems. Eventually, this political platform targeting the Jewish people turned into the Holocaust, in which Jewish people, political dissidents, homosexuals, disabled persons, and anarchists were rounded up by the German government, sent to labor camps, and killed.



During the Holocaust, Jewish people were forced to wear yellow stars on their clothing to visually mark them off from the rest of the population. The text in this image reads "whoever wears this sign is an enemy of our people."

THE COLD WAR AND ITS EFFECTS

World War II permanently affected the global balance of power by creating sharp divisions between **capitalist** and **communist** nations. The capitalist nations, led by the **Soviet Union (U.S.S.R)**, turned to authoritarian governments and strong top-down leadership to accomplish their goals. Their ideological approach was contrasted with the ideologies of capitalist nations like the United States that extolled the virtues of democracy and the free market. The conceptual differences between these two superpowers were so polarizing that each superpower gradually drew more countries to their side of the **"iron curtain,"** dividing the capitalist counties (represented by NATO) from the communist counties (represented by the Warsaw Pact). Although the United States and the Soviet Union were bitter enemies, they stopped short of declaring war directly on their opponent. Instead, the two superpowers fought through proxy wars in postcolonial locations that were just distant enough from each other to keep the **Cold War** from turning "hot."



Although Churchill, Roosevelt, and Stalin collaborated at the Yalta Conference in 1945, the U.S. and the U.S.S.R. would quickly become bitter ideological enemies.

DECOLONIZATION AFTER 1900 AND NEWLY INDEPENDENT STATES

During the Cold War, non-superpower nations were forced to grapple with questions of what it meant to be either communist or capitalist. Many Asian countries, such as China, embraced the promise of land distribution and resource sharing promoted by communism. Chinese communists seized power and forced through a program to nationalize the

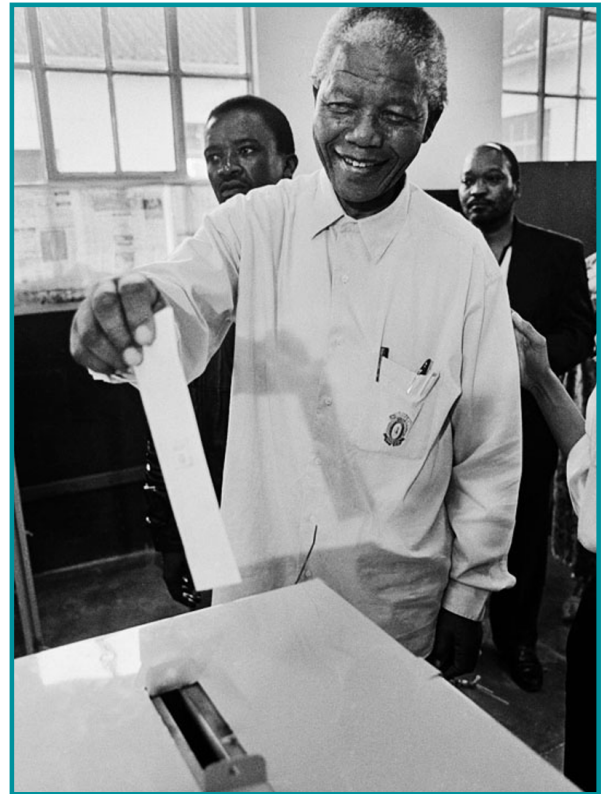


Special trains were used to transport refugees in and out of Pakistan once the area gained independence from Britain.

economy through the **Great Leap Forward**. Similar attempts to redistribute land and resources developed in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. This approach to government often forced these countries to develop a sense of national identity that aligned with the superpower representing their ideological position. In some cases, the spark of nationalism that caused nations to choose their Cold War alignment also led them to seek various degrees of independence. Many new states were created during the Cold War. The creation of these newly independent states was often accompanied with significant violence as a result of population displacement and resettlement.

GLOBAL RESISTANCE TO ESTABLISHED POWER STRUCTURES

Some of the most successful challenges to the Cold War status quo came from political leaders who utilized nonviolent methods to challenge existing political structures. For example, **Mohandas Gandhi** was able to use nonviolent resistance to orchestrate India's independence from British colonial rule. **Nelson Mandela** used a similarly nonviolent model to help South Africa address the obligations it faced as a newly independent nation and the challenges of grappling with its colonial past. The methods used by these leaders represented a change from traditional methods of opposing colonization, such as seen in the Haitian and the French Revolutions, in which local populations would rise up a colonial government through their military strength. Ultimately, the proliferation of nonviolent methods helped resolve some of the most pressing political conflicts that dominated the 20th century.



Nelson Mandela used nonviolent protest methods to affect political change.

THE END OF THE COLD WAR



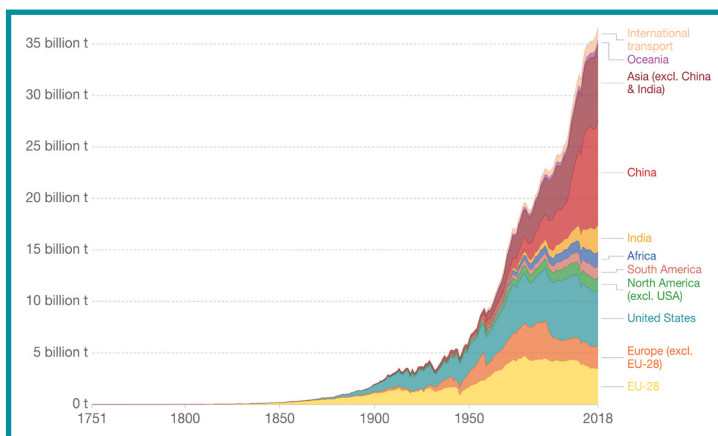
The fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 symbolized the impending end of the Soviet Union.

The Cold War slowly came to an end toward the latter part of the 20th century as a result of internal and external challenges faced by the global superpowers. For the Soviet Union, the high cost of trying to engage in a nuclear arms race without the industrial base to support it began to wear on the country. The failed invasion of Afghanistan was particularly costly and embarrassing for the U.S.S.R. as well. For the United States, political leaders at the highest levels gradually became more interested in working to form diplomatic links with the Soviet Union than in simply trying to contain Soviet influence. The Soviet Union was officially dissolved in 1991.

TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES

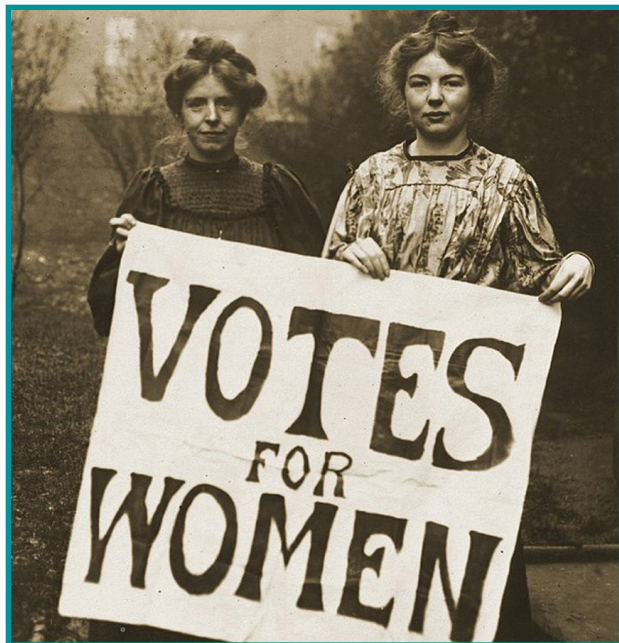
During the 20th century, rapid developments in technology affected almost all aspects of human life by facilitating the speedy (and even instantaneous) exchange of information, energy, and goods. Many technological advances, especially medical innovations, had a clear benefit for mankind. For example, the development of safe and effective **vaccines** and **antibiotics** allowed humans to live longer, while the advent of advanced birth control gave women greater control over their lives and bodies. Similarly, new communication technologies benefited human populations by allowing them to form likeminded communities over the **Internet**.

However, technological innovations came at a cost. Human activity directly damaged the environment and led to decreased air quality, deforestation, pollution of fresh water, and a sharp increase in **greenhouse gases**. The debate over how to best address the **climate change** caused by human action is ongoing.



Annual CO₂ emissions by regions from 1751 to 2018.

CALLS FOR REFORM AND RESPONSES AFTER 1900 ADMINISTRATION

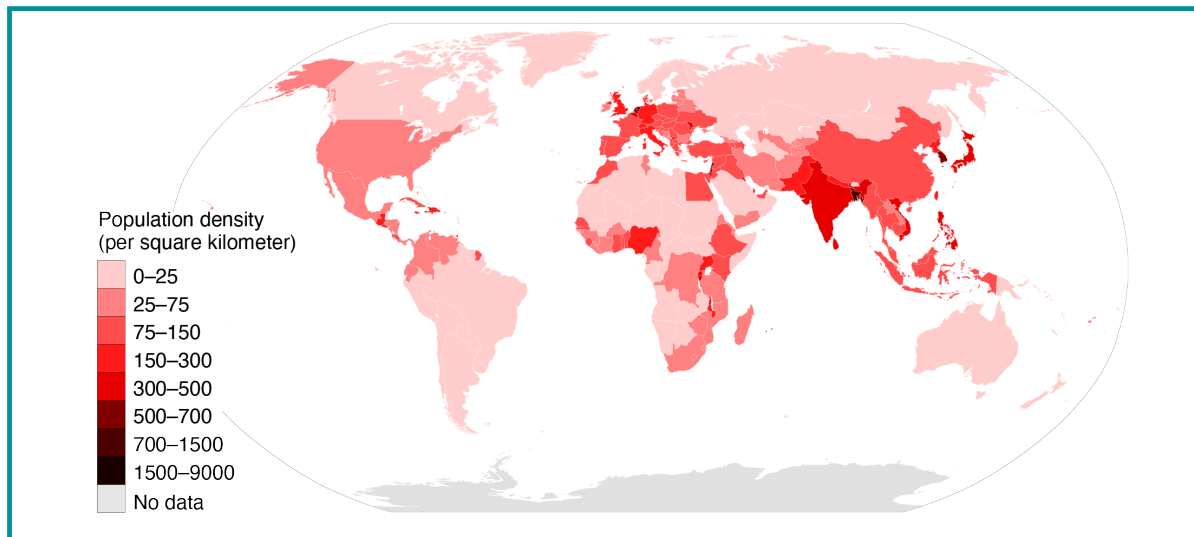


Almost all nations recognized the right of women to participate in the political process in the 20th century.

In addition to innovation in technology, the 20th century saw innovation in social movements that challenged cultural norms and old assumptions about race, class, gender, and religion. Access to education was an important part of these social movements. For example, rising rates of female literacy in this period were coupled with increased female participation in politics and, subsequently, a global feminist movement that challenged long-standing gender norms to advocate for a less hierarchical understanding of gender. Education was also an important part of environmental movements, such as Greenpeace and Professor Wangari Maathai's **Green Belt Movement** in Kenya, that drew connections between environmental exploitation and inequality. With more access to education and political roles, environmental groups were better equipped to protest the environmental and economic consequences of **globalization**.

GLOBALIZATION, c. 1900 to PRESENT**GLOBALIZED CULTURE AFTER 1900**

The 20th century was also notable for how it fostered the development of a shared global culture, especially in the second half of the century. Aided in their search by new technological advances, people around the world clamored for examples of global arts, entertainment, and popular culture. Some aspects of the popular and **consumer culture** of the century represented cultural hybrids, such as the blending of American and Indian movie-making styles in Bollywood or the mix of African musical styles and indigenous Jamaican music in Reggae. Other components, such as global brands like Coca-Cola, were more clearly Western exports that became globally recognized symbols. Many aspects of U.S. culture became ubiquitous around the world in the second half of the 20th century because of globalization.



A map of global population density of countries in 2018.

**INSTITUTIONS DEVELOPING
IN THE GLOBALIZED WORLD**

Globalization in the 20th century also affected international politics. The United Nations was formed in the 20th century as an attempt to try to ensure that increased interconnection was managed in such a way as to try to ensure world peace and international cooperation. The **United Nations** plays an important role in international politics by acting as a mediating authority and as a universally recognized place for formal debate.



Flags outside of the UN Headquarters in New York