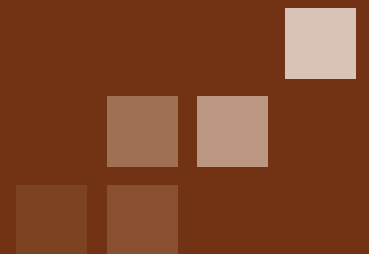




# AP<sup>®</sup> EUROPEAN HISTORY

## Curriculum Framework

### 2015–2016



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The AP European History Curriculum Framework is designed to provide educators with a first look at essential information needed to understand the design and intent of the revised AP European History course in advance of its implementation in schools in the 2015–16 academic year. Please be advised that the information contained in this document is subject to change. The final course and exam information will be available in the *AP European History Course and Exam Description*, which will be published in early 2015.

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# Introduction

The AP® European History course is the product of several years of research into current best practices in history education. The resulting program of study contains clear learning objectives for the AP European History course and exam, emphasizing the development of thinking skills used by historians and aligning with contemporary scholarly perspectives on major issues in European history. The course is designed to encourage students to become apprentice historians who are able to use historical facts and evidence in the service of creating deeper conceptual understandings of critical developments in European history.

The course is structured around the investigation of five course themes and 19 key concepts in four different chronological periods, from approximately 1450 to the present. The key concepts support the investigation of historical developments within a chronological framework, while the course themes allow students to make crucial connections across the four historical periods and across Europe. The key concepts help teachers and their students understand, organize, and prioritize historical developments within each period. The course's organization around a limited number of key concepts allows students to spend more time learning essential concepts and developing the historical thinking skills necessary to explore European history.

The curriculum framework that follows is just that — a framework for presenting the essential skills and understandings that students should be able to demonstrate at the end of their AP European History course. It is not a detailed manual for how to teach the course; rather, it presents a clear set of skills and learning objectives that will be measured on the AP European History Exam. **By helping teachers to prioritize among the possible topics to cover across the scope of European history, the framework seeks to allow teachers to explore certain topics in greater depth.** This curriculum framework thus relieves the pressure on teachers to cover all possible events and details of European history at a superficial level while still preparing students well for the rigors of advanced college-level work in history.

## Overview of the Curriculum Framework

**Section I: Historical Thinking Skills.** The curriculum framework begins by describing the historical thinking skills that are central to the study and practice of history. These are organized into four types of skills: chronological reasoning, comparison and contextualization, crafting historical arguments from historical evidence, and historical interpretation and synthesis. Teachers should develop these historical thinking skills with students on a regular basis over the span of the course.

**Section II: Thematic Learning Objectives.** In this section, the framework presents a set of learning objectives, organized into five major themes, that describe what students should know and be able to do by the end of the AP European History course. These

objectives represent the major historical understandings that colleges and universities want AP students to have developed in order to merit placement out of the introductory college European history survey course (c. 1450 to the present). Students should use a range of historical thinking skills to investigate the thematic learning objectives.

The AP Exam will measure student proficiency in the **historical thinking skills** as well as the **thematic learning objectives**. *Beginning with the May 2016 AP European History Exams, every AP Exam question will be rooted in these specified learning objectives*, relieving teachers of the pressure to cover an unlimited amount of content in their AP European History course.

**Section III: The Concept Outline.** The required course content for each historical period of European history is presented in a **concept outline**.

**Required Content:** The course is organized into four historical periods that run from c. 1450 to the present, and the key concepts, supporting concepts, and historical developments that are required knowledge for each period are presented in an outline. *Beginning with the May 2016 AP European History Exams, no AP European History Exam questions will require students to know historical content that falls outside this concept outline.*

**Optional Content:** Because many of the historical developments in the **concept outline** are broad and can be illustrated or explored in many ways in the classroom, the outline often provides teachers with some “illustrative examples” of specific historical events or figures on which teachers might choose to focus. While taking the AP Exam, students will need to be able to cite historical content as evidence for the arguments they are making, but the exam questions will never focus on one specific illustrative example from this framework. Exam questions will instead provide students with the flexibility to write about whichever illustrative example the teacher has chosen to focus on — whether that is one of the illustrative examples listed in this framework or an example of the teacher’s own selection. In other words, there will never be a multiple-choice question about the illustrative examples. Instead, multiple-choice questions will center upon the learning objectives and the required historical concepts. Similarly, students will never be asked to write an AP Exam essay about one specific illustrative example; instead, the essay questions will correspond to the specific learning objectives for the course. Therefore, students will have the flexibility to draw upon whichever specific examples of that learning objective the teacher chose to focus on. This approach enables teachers to spend less time rushing through historical details and instead provides them and their students with flexibility to study specific historical events or individuals in greater depth.

**Section IV: The AP European History Exam.** This section describes how different parts of the AP Exam will assess students’ achievement of the thematic learning objectives and their use of the historical thinking skills.



# I. Historical Thinking Skills

This section presents the historical thinking skills that are meant to be explored by students throughout the AP European History course. Every AP Exam question will require a student to apply one of the historical thinking skills to one of the thematic learning objectives (see Section II). See Section IV for more details about how the mastery of skills and content will be assessed on the AP Exam.

The AP European History course, along with the AP World History and AP U.S. History courses, seeks to apprentice students to the practice of history by explicitly stressing the development of historical thinking skills while learning about the past. In the section that follows, four types of historical thinking skills are defined for teachers, accompanied by definitions of the specific historical thinking skills that are part of that type.

- The sections on **chronological reasoning** and **comparison and contextualization** focus on “thinking historically,” or the habits of mind that historians use when they approach the past in a critical way.
- The sections on **crafting historical arguments from historical evidence** and **historical interpretation and synthesis** focus on describing the skills used by historians when they construct and test historical arguments about the past.

Each of the skills below is defined and followed by a statement of the proficiency in this skill that students are expected to show on the AP Exam. This is accompanied by discussion of how this skill can be developed in tandem with an exploration of the content of the AP European History course.

Students best develop historical thinking skills by investigating the past in ways that reflect the discipline of history, most particularly through the exploration and interpretation of a rich array of primary sources and secondary texts, and through the regular development of historical argumentation in writing. The skills can also be developed by teachers through explicit attention to historical thinking in individual or group activities, open-ended research and writing assignments, and skills-based formative assessment strategies. Students should practice using these skills to investigate and formulate historical arguments about the major developments in European history.

Skill Type	Historical Thinking Skill
I. Chronological Reasoning	1. Historical Causation
	2. Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time
	3. Periodization
II. Comparison and Contextualization	4. Comparison
	5. Contextualization
III. Crafting Historical Arguments from Historical Evidence	6. Historical Argumentation
	7. Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence
IV. Historical Interpretation and Synthesis	8. Interpretation
	9. Synthesis

## Skill Type I: Chronological Reasoning

### Skill 1: Historical Causation

Historical thinking involves the ability to identify, analyze, and evaluate the relationships among multiple historical causes and effects, distinguishing between those that are long term and proximate, and among coincidence, causation, and correlation.

#### Proficient students should be able to ...

- Compare causes and/or effects, including between short-term and long-term effects.
- Analyze and evaluate the interaction of multiple causes and/or effects.
- Assess historical contingency by distinguishing among coincidence, causation, and correlation, as well as critique existing interpretations of cause and effect.

How could this skill be approached in the AP European History course?

Identifying and analyzing the causes and effects of events and developments is at the heart of historical analysis, and many debates among historians focus on disagreements over cause and effect. For example, historians have long debated the causes of the French Revolution. Like most major historical events, the French Revolution had multiple short- and long-term causes. Long-term causes included the emergence and spread of Enlightenment ideas and institutions that questioned the justifications of traditional authority; the growth of a middle class whose wealth was not matched by political influence or social status; financial mismanagement of government resources, leading to unmanageable debt; government experiments of reform; and a growing sentiment that the king was a man like any other. Short-term causes included the financial fallout from French involvement in the American Revolution, the influence of the American example, bad harvests leading to food shortages in 1788-89, and the refusal of traditional elites to accept reforms to the tax codes without calling for a meeting of the traditional representative institution of the country, the Estates General. While all historians agree that these are all contributing causes of the revolution, different arguments emphasize political, cultural, or economic causes as the most significant. For example, a historian who emphasizes cultural causes might argue that the most significant causes of the revolution were a public accustomed to thinking critically and forming its own opinion, a growing belief that the king was just a man, and the example of the American Revolution. This cultural argument might explain the relative insignificance of the other causes by arguing that while food shortages and the financial problems of the crown constituted a significant crisis, similar crises in previous periods had not brought an end to the monarchy. Historians also debate the relative importance of short- and long-term effects of events and processes. When assessing the impact of industrialization, for example, historians would find that the short-term effects included dramatically fluctuating levels of wages and employment, and urban overcrowding. In the long term, however,



industrialization led to a higher standard of living for workers. Understanding the impact of processes such as industrialization requires students to identify and assess both short- and long-term impacts, just as understanding the causes of an event requires students to think about which causes they would argue are the most significant. Students should learn to formulate claims about cause and effect while assessing the arguments historians have offered about them.

## Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Historical thinking involves the ability to recognize, analyze, and evaluate the dynamics of historical continuity and change over periods of time of varying length, as well as the ability to relate these patterns to larger historical processes or themes.

### Proficient students should be able to ...

- Analyze and evaluate historical patterns of continuity and change over time.
- Connect patterns of continuity and change over time to larger historical processes or themes.

How could this skill be approached in the AP European History course?

While many argue that the discipline of history analyzes change over time, it is equally important for historians to recognize the significance of historical continuity — that which remains the same over long periods of time. Often, change and continuity coexist. This is seen particularly clearly in the theme of “objective knowledge and subjective visions.” This theme traces the evolution from a worldview based on religious faith, communal values, and traditional sources of knowledge to one that was more secular, placed more emphasis on the individual, and believed that knowledge could come from multiple sources. This long historical process was uneven; it affected different groups of the population at different rates. For example, in 18th-century western Europe, most of the population lived in the countryside and had limited access to the books and periodicals that were the main vectors for the expansion of Enlightenment thought. These populations experienced continuity in their worldview; their societies remained highly traditional in that the community was more important than the individual, the authority of the king and church was rarely questioned, and religion played a strong role in daily life. In the cities, by contrast, a growing middle class began to adopt some elements of the Enlightenment worldview. In comparison to the 18th century, by the end of the 19th century a greater percentage of the European population lived in cities, had been educated in public schools, and read books and newspapers. As a result, a more secular worldview in which the individual was more important than the community gained ground. In thinking about patterns of continuity and change, students need to understand this long process of change in worldview and be able to identify which groups at any given time were experiencing these changes and which groups or regions were not.

### Skill 3: Periodization

Historical thinking involves the ability to describe, analyze, evaluate, and construct models that historians use to divide history into discrete periods. To accomplish this periodization, historians identify turning points, and they recognize that the choice of specific dates accords a higher value to one narrative, region, or group than to another narrative, region, or group. How one defines historical periods depends on what one considers most significant in society — economic, social, religious, or cultural life — so historical thinking involves being aware of how the circumstances and contexts of a historian’s work might shape his or her choices about periodization.

#### **Proficient students should be able to ...**

- Explain ways that historical events and processes can be organized within blocks of time.
- Analyze and evaluate competing models of periodization of European history.

How could this skill be approached in the AP European History course?

Historians of Europe often talk about “turning points” — moments when a number of changes coincided to contribute to a major shift in European history. Some of the turning points that are part of this course include 1648, the Age of Enlightenment, the 1848 revolutions, and World War I. As these examples indicate, a turning point can be a specific year (1648) or an era (the Age of Enlightenment). Historians characterize a turning point as a moment when several significant changes occurred that had important long-term consequences, even if not every aspect of European life changed at this particular moment. For example, 1648 is the year the Treaty of Westphalia was signed, which put an end to the Wars of Religion. The consequences of the treaty make it possible to argue that this year was a turning point. After the upheaval caused by more than a hundred years of conflicts over religion, from this point on European rulers were increasingly likely to consider religion a private matter. This change of attitude marked the beginning of religious toleration and pluralism, and also contributed to the growing independence of the individual. The year 1648 also ushered in a new system of diplomacy based on the concept of a “balance of power,” which would shape European diplomacy and warfare until the early 20th century. Within states, the end of the religious wars led to the consolidation of royal power over the population in some states and to constitutional monarchy in others. Students should be able to assess the claim that such changes constituted the dawn of a new era in light of all the aspects of society that did not change, such as the way families managed their affairs. For a historian who focuses on the family, 1648 might not seem like much of a turning point at all.

Periodization also refers to the ways in which historians divide the past into chronological units. For example, historians speak of the Renaissance, the Age of Enlightenment, and the Age of Revolution to refer to long periods of time that shared many characteristics that distinguished them from earlier and later periods. In this case, historians do not always identify a discrete turning point; it is difficult, for example, to pinpoint the exact

beginning of the Renaissance, but in Italy it is clear that at some point early in the 15th century a cultural shift occurred. Still, some groups seem to be less affected by these general types of periodization; for instance, some historians have argued that women, with limited access to education and significant family responsibilities, did not experience a Renaissance. Thus, when considering periodization, students must argue that certain changes were of such significance that they created a new era in the history of the society, and the argument should include what should be considered most significant and why.

## Skill Type II: Comparison and Contextualization

### Skill 4: Comparison

Historical thinking involves the ability to describe, compare, and evaluate multiple historical developments within one society, one or more developments across or between different societies, and in various chronological and geographical contexts. It also involves the ability to identify, compare, and evaluate multiple perspectives on a given historical experience.

#### Proficient students should be able to ...

- Compare related historical developments and processes across place, time, and/or different societies, or within one society.
- Explain and evaluate multiple and differing perspectives on a given historical phenomenon.

How could this skill be approached in the AP European History course?

Comparison helps historians think about what factors and characteristics are common and different between events or conditions in different places or times. For example, comparing the French and Russian Revolutions can help identify what factors make an event a “revolution” rather than, for example, a coup or a change of regime. Comparison can also help us understand why similar causes had different outcomes. For example, why did the devastation of World War I and the Great Depression lead to the rise of fascism in some European countries but not in others? Comparison is an important skill when evaluating historical evidence as well. For example, in order to understand life on a collective farm in the Soviet Union under Stalin, students might be asked to compare an article from the official state newspaper with an excerpt from a diary of someone working on the farm. To practice the skill of comparison, they would be asked to identify similarities and differences in the two accounts and to explain those similarities and differences by taking into account factors such as authorship, intent, and audience. An article written by a journalist, residing in Moscow and in support of collectivization, would most likely differ in significant ways from a diary entry that was not meant to be shared and had been written by someone who was experiencing firsthand the challenges posed by collectivization. To understand a given historical phenomenon, it is important to be able to understand and compare different perspectives.

## Skill 5: Contextualization

Historical thinking involves the ability to connect historical events and processes to specific circumstances of time and place and to broader regional, national, or global processes.

### Proficient students should be able to ...

- Explain and evaluate ways in which specific historical phenomena, events, or processes connect to broader regional, national, or global processes occurring at the same time.
- Explain and evaluate ways in which a phenomenon, event, or process connects to other, similar historical phenomena across time and place.

How could this skill be approached in the AP European History course?

In the previous section, the example of the way in which students might practice the skill of comparison involved identifying and explaining similarities and differences in two accounts of life on Soviet collective farms. One way to explain these similarities and differences is to put the documents into their larger context. To do so, students would need to understand the political and economic reasons for collectivization, the processes by which farms were collectivized, and the violence with which collectivization was carried out. They would also need to understand how peasant communities had changed since 1917 — from the traditional *mir*, or village community, to the emergence of the *kulaks* (relatively well-off peasants) during the period of the New Economic Policy (NEP), to the collective farm. This context would help students explain why an official account of a collective farm might be far more positive than one written by someone who was sent to work on the farm. Contextualization can take on a broader scale as well. For example, when studying why European nations began the process of granting their overseas colonies independence following World War II, it is important to understand the European context (after the war, Europeans lacked the financial and military resources to maintain the colonies; the horrors of the Holocaust highlighted the injustices of denying indigenous populations autonomy because of their ethnicity); the international context (the United States refused to support Europeans' claims to their colonies; the emergence of the Cold War made western Europeans more dependent on the U.S.); and the conditions in the colonies themselves (the war had shown that Europeans were not morally superior; colonial populations had fought for Europeans in the war and demanded independence in return; some colonial territories had been occupied by other powers during the war). Context thus operates on many levels, and practicing the skill of contextualization requires students to identify and evaluate the importance of the various larger trends and processes that shape events.

## Skill Type III: Crafting Historical Arguments from Historical Evidence

### Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Historical thinking involves the ability to define and frame a question about the past and to address that question through the construction of an argument. A plausible and persuasive argument requires a clear, comprehensive, and analytical thesis, supported by relevant historical evidence — not simply evidence that supports a preferred or preconceived position. Additionally, argumentation involves the capacity to describe, analyze, and evaluate the arguments of others in light of available evidence.

#### **Proficient students should be able to ...**

- Analyze commonly accepted historical arguments and explain how an argument has been constructed from historical evidence.
- Construct convincing interpretations through analysis of disparate, relevant historical evidence.
- Evaluate and synthesize conflicting historical evidence to construct persuasive historical arguments.

How could this skill be approached in the AP European History course?

In European history, the skill of historical argumentation often operates in conjunction with course themes that transcend individual periods and with other skills. For example, while working on the theme of “states and other institutions of power,” students might be asked to explain the causes of World War I. To do so, students would need to identify possible causes, such as the competition among European countries for overseas colonies, the development of new military technologies, the European alliance system, the growth of nationalist movements, the cultural climate in which Darwin’s “survival of the fittest” encouraged competition among nations, and/or the political instability in the Balkans. Students would then need to analyze evidence that relates to each of these conditions. Each student would further assess the relative importance of these various factors to formulate a coherent thesis — a statement about the causes of the war — and construct an argument in support of the thesis based on evidence that the student thinks shows that the causal factors he or she chose to emphasize were the most important ones. In framing their argument, students might also take into account competing interpretations by historians, using their own reading of the evidence to decide which interpretations they find most plausible.

## Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Historical thinking involves the ability to describe and evaluate evidence about the past from diverse sources (including written documents, works of art, archaeological artifacts, oral traditions, and other primary sources), and requires paying attention to the content, authorship, purpose, format, and audience of such sources. It involves the capacity to extract useful information, make supportable inferences, and draw appropriate conclusions from historical evidence, while also noting the context in which the evidence was produced and used, recognizing its limitations and assessing the points of view it reflects.

### **Proficient students should be able to ...**

- Analyze features of historical evidence such as audience, purpose, point of view, format, argument, limitations, and context germane to the evidence considered.
- Based on analysis and evaluation of historical evidence, make supportable inferences and draw appropriate conclusions.

How could this skill be approached in the AP European History course?

AP teachers expose students to a variety of sources to help them draw their own conclusions and inferences. To understand an event such as the execution of King Charles I in 1649 during the English Civil War, students would need to analyze the speeches of political leaders such as Oliver Cromwell, drawing conclusions about how Cromwell's religious beliefs shaped and were used to justify his growing conviction that the king had committed treason and should be killed. Other primary sources — such as pamphlets condemning the king on religious and political grounds, the Acts of Parliament that established the court in which the king was tried, and arguments made for and against the king at his trial — could be used to provide other vantage points from which to understand the same event. Other types of historical evidence — such as data showing the numbers of those who died fighting or from disease during the civil war, or a map of territory held by supporters and opponents of the king in the years leading up to the execution — could also be used to provide a larger context for the king's execution. Different sources present different types of information, but all sources reflect a specific point of view and are created for a specific purpose. In crafting a historical argument, students should use the most appropriate evidence to support their thesis. They should also learn to argue that other evidence is less appropriate and to explain why contradictory evidence should be set aside.



## Skill Type IV: Historical Interpretation and Synthesis

### Skill 8: Interpretation

Historical thinking involves the ability to describe, analyze, evaluate, and construct diverse interpretations of the past, and to be aware of how particular circumstances and contexts in which individual historians work and write also shape their interpretation of past events. Historical interpretation requires analyzing evidence, reasoning, contexts, and points of view found in both primary and secondary sources.

#### Proficient students should be able to ...

- Analyze diverse historical interpretations.
- Evaluate how historians' perspectives influence their interpretations and how models of historical interpretation change over time.

How could this skill be approached in the AP European History course?

Historical interpretation is the way in which a historian describes and explains events and developments. It rests on and incorporates historical argument, which the historian builds from the evidence to defend his or her interpretation. Thus, to analyze historical interpretations, students must assess the structure of the arguments built to support them, the nature of the evidence used in the arguments, and the points of view that helped shape them. Interpretation requires students to think consciously, not just about the causes and consequences of specific events but also, and more importantly, about the reasons why historians have interpreted the past in different ways. For example, European historians used to see the process of overseas colonization as one-sided, whereby European technological and military superiority allowed Europeans to impose their culture and institutions on others. Over the past 30 years or so, this interpretation has given way to another view of colonization that — without denying European technical and military advantages — has focused on the ways in which indigenous groups cooperated with Europeans, the limits of European control, and the persistence of indigenous culture and institutions. Students should learn that interpretations of the past change because historians ask new questions, find or discover how to use new sources, employ new methods (such as the application of statistics to historical sources), and acquire new knowledge that affects the way they read the sources (such as bringing new knowledge about diseases to bear on past epidemics). The skill of interpretation becomes particularly important as students progress from identifying and describing the past to reflecting on a variety of historical evidence in terms of contexts and cultural bias. As they learn how historical interpretations are constructed, students should be encouraged to develop their own interpretations of the past.

## Skill 9: Synthesis

Historical thinking involves the ability to develop meaningful and persuasive new understandings of the past by applying all of the other historical thinking skills, by drawing appropriately on ideas and methods from different fields of inquiry or disciplines, and by creatively fusing disparate, relevant, and sometimes contradictory evidence from primary sources and secondary works. Additionally, synthesis may involve applying insights about the past to other historical contexts or circumstances, including the present.

### Proficient students should be able to ...

- Combine disparate, sometimes contradictory evidence from primary sources and secondary works in order to create a persuasive understanding of the past.
- Apply insights about the past to other historical contexts or circumstances, including the present.

How could this skill be approached in the AP European History course?

When a student writes a thoughtful, well-argued, and coherent essay, he or she is doing the same thing as a historian who is writing a book on the Italian Renaissance: using the skill of synthesis. In each case, the writer has gathered and analyzed evidence and put it into appropriate contexts. Each has made decisions about how to begin and end the argument, and whether it should include important turning points. Each author has identified and evaluated the causes and effects of the event or development in question, and each has assessed and used previous interpretations on the subject, including those that seem contradictory. Finally, each has used insights and information garnered from studies of other topics in history and other disciplines, if appropriate. Synthesis requires using all the historical thinking skills. Students practice synthesis when they are given a set of diverse documents and asked to analyze and contextualize them in order to answer a question. They also practice it when they apply what they learn about the past to the present; for example, a thorough understanding of the growing popularity of far-right nationalist political parties in Europe today is only possible when one understands the causes and consequences of the rise of fascism in the 1920s and 1930s. Students also practice the skill of synthesis when they apply methods and insights from other disciplines to history. Drawing upon theories in psychology, for example, may allow students to make new and compelling arguments about the rise of the far right by illuminating the way individuals tend to respond to uncertainty. Synthesis moves historical knowledge forward through the development of new and exciting interpretations of the past.

## II. Thematic Learning Objectives

The content learning objectives for the AP European History course and exam are organized under five “themes,” which are topics of historical inquiry to explore throughout the AP European History course.

1. Interaction of Europe and the World
2. Poverty and Prosperity
3. Objective Knowledge and Subjective Visions
4. States and Other Institutions of Power
5. Individual and Society

These themes focus student understanding of major historical issues and developments, helping students to recognize trends and processes that have emerged over centuries. The following pages include:

- a description of each theme in detail
- three to five overarching questions per theme that can be used to guide student inquiry during the entire course; each question relates specifically to two or more learning objectives
- a table that outlines the course learning objectives for each theme, correlated to the sections of the concept outline.

The learning objectives in this column articulate expectations for student performance on the AP European History Exam.

These numbers refer to specific sections of the concept outline that follows. This refers to Key Concept 1.4, Supporting Concept I.

Each learning objective is supported by historical examples and processes that are explained in the concept outline that begins on page 34. This column describes the correlations between the learning objective and the concept outline.

<b>Learning Objectives</b>	<b>Relevant topics in the Concept Outline:</b>	
<i>Students are able to...</i>		
<p><b>INT-1</b> Assess the relative influence of economic, religious, and political motives in promoting exploration and colonization.</p>	1.4. I	Commercial and religious motivations
	1.4. III	Competition for trade
	2.1. III	Rivalry between Britain and France
	2.2. II	World-wide economic network
	2.2. III	Commercial rivalries
	3.5. I	National rivalries; raw materials and markets
	4.1. VII	Post WWI mandate system
<p><b>INT-2</b> Analyze the cultural beliefs that justified European conquest of overseas territories and how they changed over time.</p>	1.4. I	Christianity
	3.5. I	Cultural and racial superiority
	3.6. II	Social Darwinism
	4.1. VII	Principle of national self-determination

The learning objectives are coded to the corresponding theme (INT) and numbered consecutively.

The information in this column clarifies which topic within the key and supporting concept correlates to the learning objective.

The phrasing of each learning objective presents a particular kind of historical relationship or development; for example, when the learning objective asks students to explain how and why certain factors *affected* a particular phenomenon, it implies that students should reason about this event using thinking skills such as causation and continuity and change over time.

This approach ensures that teachers can continue to teach the course chronologically while still highlighting the relationship between specific historical developments and larger, thematic understandings. Teachers may also investigate world history with their students using themes or approaches of their own choosing, keeping in mind that **all questions on the AP European History Exam will measure student understanding of the thematic learning objectives outlined in this framework.**

## Learning Objectives by Theme: Interaction of Europe and the World (INT)

### Theme Description:

Beginning in the 15th century, European nations sent explorers into the world beyond the Mediterranean, establishing new shipping routes, trading stations, and eventually, colonies in many parts of the globe. The motivations for these enterprises were complex and have been the subject of much historical debate. Were Europeans driven primarily by the desire for more direct and secure trade routes, by the pursuit of new commercial wealth, or by religious zeal — the desire to convert new peoples to Christianity? Whatever the motivations, these explorations created new, complex trade systems that profoundly affected European prosperity, patterns of consumption, commercial competition, and national rivalries. The activities and influence of Europeans varied in different parts of the world. In India and China, centers of high civilizations, Europeans remained on the periphery in trading stations for centuries. In Africa, they also established themselves on the coasts, trading with the indigenous populations of the interior. In the Americas, they created colonies and imposed their religious, social, and political institutions on the native peoples. Europeans also brought new diseases to the Americas, which hastened the collapse of the indigenous cultures on the two continents. However, cross-cultural influence flowed in both directions. The encounters with non-European peoples profoundly affected European trade, social life, and ideas.

With their American colonies and the global reach of their seafarers, Europeans helped to create a truly global trading system, introducing new foods (such as tomatoes, potatoes, peppers, and corn) that changed the food cultures of China, India, and Europe. At the same time as Europe was experiencing the material consequences of its interaction with the world, European intellectuals began to describe and analyze the peoples and cultures with which they came into contact, as well as to collect and catalogue the flora and fauna they discovered. The use of “race” as a primary category for differentiating peoples coincided with the expansion of slavery, as Europeans sought a workforce for overseas plantations; this categorization helped Europeans justify the slave system. From the 16th to the 19th centuries, the transatlantic slave trade became a central feature of the world economy, and millions of Africans were transported via the notorious “Middle Passage” to labor on plantations in the Americas. The vast and cruel slave system began to generate opposition in Europe beginning in the late 18th century. Abolitionists objected to the system on humanitarian and religious grounds. An important strand of Enlightenment thought — the belief in citizenship, popular sovereignty, equality, and liberty — promoted by the American and French Revolutions also contributed to the ideology of the abolitionist movements, and European states abolished the slave trade in the early 19th century. From the late 18th century to the era of decolonization, these Enlightenment principles influenced those who opposed Europe’s global domination.

Yet, this critique of colonialism did not have an immediate effect, given that the 19th century proved to be a period of empire building. Driven by the needs of an industrial economy and nationalism, Europeans expanded their territorial control in Asia and Africa through warfare, the seizure of property, and, in some cases, immigration. In the late 19th century, the scale and pace of conquest intensified because of asymmetries in military technology, communications, and national rivalries among the Great Powers. In conquered territories, Europeans established new administrative, legal, and cultural institutions, and restructured colonial economies to meet European needs. These actions often led to resistance in colonial areas. Within Europe, exposure to new peoples and cultures influenced art and literature, and spurred on efforts to find a scientific basis for racial differences. Competition for colonies also destabilized the European balance of power and was a significant cause of World War I. In the mid-20th century, the rise of the United States as an economic and military power, two world wars, and the four-decades-long Cold War led to a decolonization movement that diminished Europe’s economic and diplomatic place in the world. At the end of the 20th century, Europe sought new ways of defining interactions among its own nations and with the rest of the world. At the same time, the migration of non-European people into Europe began to change the ethnic and religious composition of European society and to create uncertainties about European identity.

**Overarching Questions:**

- Why have Europeans sought contact and interaction with other parts of the world? (INT-1 and 2)
- What political, technological, and intellectual developments enabled European contact and interaction with other parts of the world? (INT-3 and 4)
- How have encounters between Europe and the world shaped European culture, politics, and society? (INT-5, 6, 7, and 8)
- What impact has contact with Europe had on non-European societies? (INT-9, 10, and 11)

<b>Learning Objectives</b> <i>Students are able to...</i>	<b>Relevant topics in the Concept Outline:</b>	
<b>INT-1</b> Assess the relative influence of economic, religious, and political motives in promoting exploration and colonization.	1.4. I	Commercial and religious motivations
	1.4. III	Competition for trade
	2.1. III	Rivalry between Britain and France
	2.2. II	World-wide economic network
	2.2. III	Commercial rivalries
	3.5. I	National rivalries; raw materials and markets
<b>INT-2</b> Analyze the cultural beliefs that justified European conquest of overseas territories and how they changed over time.	1.4. I	Christianity
	3.5. I	Cultural and racial superiority
	4.1. VII	Principle of national self-determination
<b>INT-3</b> Analyze how European states established and administered overseas commercial and territorial empires.	1.4. II	Technological advances
	1.4. III	Commercial networks
	2.2. II	Mercantilism, slave-labor system
	2.2. III	Diplomacy and warfare
	3.5. II	Industrial and technological developments
<b>INT-4</b> Explain how scientific and intellectual advances — resulting in more effective navigational, cartographic, and military technology — facilitated European interaction with other parts of the world.	1.4. II	Technological advances
	3.1. III; 3.5. II	Communication and transportation technologies associated with industrialization
	1.4. IV	Shift of economic power to Atlantic states; economic opportunities
<b>INT-5</b> Evaluate the impact of the Columbian Exchange — the global exchange of goods, plants, animals, and microbes — on Europe’s economy, society, and culture.	2.2. II	Agricultural, industrial, and consumer revolutions in Europe; expansion of slave-labor system
	1.4. I	Access to gold, spices, and luxury goods; mercantilism
<b>INT-6</b> Assess the role of overseas trade, labor, and technology in making Europe part of a global economic network and in encouraging the development of new economic theories and state policies.	1.4. III	Commercial and trading networks
	1.4. IV	Columbian Exchange
	2.2. II	European-dominated worldwide economic network; mercantilism
	2.3. III	Commercial rivalries
	3.1. III	New means of communication and transportation
	3.5. I	Search for raw materials and markets
	4.2. IV	Post-war reconstruction of industry and infrastructure; consumerism
	4.4. I	New communication and transportation technologies



<p><b>INT-7</b> Analyze how contact with non-European peoples increased European social and cultural diversity, and affected attitudes toward race.</p>	1.4. IV	Expansion of slave trade
	2.1. IV	Slave revolt and independence of Haiti
	2.2. II	Expansion of transatlantic slave-labor system
	2.3. II	Increased exposure to representations of peoples outside Europe
	3.5. I	Ideology of cultural and racial superiority
	3.5. III	Imperial encounters with non-European peoples
	4.1. VII	National self-determination
	4.3. III	Increased immigration into Europe
	4.4. III	Anti-immigrant agitation and extreme nationalist political parties
<p><b>INT-8</b> Evaluate the United States’ economic and cultural influence on Europe and responses to this influence in Europe.</p>	4.1. I	Emergence of United States as a world power
	4.1. II	Wilsonian idealism
	4.1. IV	Cold War; world monetary and trade systems and geopolitical alliances
	4.2. III	1929 stock market crash
	4.2. IV	Marshall Plan
	4.3. IV	United States’ influence on elite and popular culture
<p><b>INT-9</b> Assess the role of European contact on overseas territories through the introduction of disease, participation in the slave trade and slavery, effects on agricultural and manufacturing patterns, and global conflict.</p>	4.4. III	Green parties; revolt of 1968
	1.4. IV	Columbian Exchange
	2.2. II	Slave trade and new consumer goods
	3.5. III	Imperial conflicts and alliances
	4.1. I	Cause of First World War
	4.1. IV	Cold War outside Europe
<p><b>INT-10</b> Explain the extent of and causes for non-Europeans’ adoption of or resistance to European cultural, political, or economic values and institutions, and explain the causes of their reactions.</p>	4.1. VII	Decolonization
	2.1. IV	Influence of French Revolution
	3.5. I	Latin American revolutions
	3.5. III	Responses to imperialism
	4.1. VII	Independence movements and mandates
<p><b>INT-11</b> Explain how European expansion and colonization brought non-European societies into global economic, diplomatic, military, and cultural networks.</p>	1.4. I	Exploration motives, and mercantilism
	1.4. III	Establishment of empires
	1.4. IV	Slave trade and new goods
	1.5. I	Money economy
	2.1. III	Colonial rivalry and warfare
	2.1. IV	Revolution across the Atlantic
	2.2. II	Slave trade
	2.2. III	Diplomacy and colonial wars
	3.5. I	Imperialist motives, Racial Darwinism
	3.5. III	Responses and resistance to imperialism
	4.1. I	World War I outside Europe
	4.1. IV	Cold War outside Europe
	4.1. VII	Nationalism and decolonization
	4.3. III	Colonial emigration to Europe
	4.4. III	Guest workers

## Learning Objectives by Theme: Poverty and Prosperity (PP)

### Theme Description:

In the centuries after 1450, Europe first entered and then gradually came to dominate a global commercial network. Building off the voyages of exploration and colonization, the commercial revolution of the 17th and 18th centuries involved a wide range of new financial and economic practices — such as joint-stock companies, widely capitalized banks, and triangular trade — all of which supported an emerging money economy. New commercial techniques and goods provided Europeans with an improved diet and standard of living. Wealth from commerce supported, in turn, the growth of industrial capitalism in subsequent centuries.

Commercial wealth helped transform a preindustrial economy based on guild production, cottage industry, and subsistence agriculture into one driven by market operations. While market mechanisms generated wealth and social position for some, they also destabilized traditional patterns of economic activity, such as when the wages of urban artisans and workers declined in the 16th century because of the price revolution. Still, commercial wealth generated resources for centralizing states, many of which, prior to the French Revolution, justified government management of trade, manufacturing, finance, and taxation through the theory of mercantilism. Mercantilism assumed that existing sources of wealth could not be expanded; accordingly, the only way to increase one's economic power over others was to gain a greater share of the existing sources of wealth. As a result, mercantilism promoted commercial competition and warfare overseas.

Market demands generated the increasingly mechanized production of goods through the technology of the Industrial Revolution. Large-scale production required capital investment, which led to the development of capitalism, justified by Adam Smith through the concept of the “invisible hand of the marketplace.” The growth of large-scale agriculture and factories changed social and economic relations. Peasants left the countryside to work in the new factories, giving up lives as tenants on landlords' estates for wage labor. Improved climate and diet supported a gradual population increase in the 18th century, and then came a seeming breakthrough of the Malthusian trap (the belief that population could not expand beyond the level of subsistence) with a population explosion in the industrial 19th century. Industrialization generated unprecedented levels of material prosperity for some Europeans, particularly during the Second Industrial Revolution (1850–1914), when an outburst of new technologies ushered Europe into modern mass society.

Prosperity was never equally distributed, either geographically or by social class, and despite the wonders of the railroad and airplane, poverty never disappeared. Capitalism produced its own forms of poverty and social subjection. It created financial markets that periodically crashed, putting people dependent on wages out of work and wiping out investors' capital. Its trading system shifted production from expensive to inexpensive regions, reducing or holding down the wages of workers. By the 19th century, conditions of economic inequality and the resultant social and political instability across Europe raised questions about the role evolving nation-states could or should play in the economic lives of their subjects and citizens. Socialism argued for state ownership of property and economic planning to promote equality, and later, Marxism developed a systematic economic and historical theory that inspired working-class movements and revolutions to overthrow the capitalist system.

The devastating impact of two world wars and the Great Depression transformed pre-1914 economic patterns and complicated the task of governments in managing the unstable economic situation. Soviet Russia and its post–World War II satellites represented one path, while nations in western and central Europe modified laissez-faire capitalism with Keynesian budget and tax policies and an expanding welfare state. Consumerism, always an important factor in economic growth, took on even more importance in the second half of the 20th century, although not without criticism. Perhaps the most significant change since

World War II has been the movement toward European economic unity and a common currency. Though policies of unity have supported Europe’s postwar economic miracle, they have also encountered challenges of a stagnating population, financial crises, and growing social welfare commitments.

**Overarching Questions:**

- How has capitalism developed as an economic system? (PP-1, 2, 3, 4, and 5)
- How has the organization of society changed as a result of or in response to the development and spread of capitalism? (PP-6, 7, and 8)
- What were the causes and consequences of economic and social inequality? (PP-9, 10, 11, and 12)
- How did individuals, groups, and the state respond to economic and social inequality? (PP-13, 14, 15, and 16)

<b>Learning Objectives</b> <i>Students are able to...</i>	<b>Relevant topics in the Key Concept outline:</b>
<b>PP-1</b> Explain how and why wealth generated from new trading, financial, and manufacturing practices and institutions created a market and then a consumer economy.	1.4. IV Rise of mercantilism
	2.2. I Market economy
	2.2. II European-dominated worldwide economic network
	2.3. III New economic ideas espousing free trade and a free market
	2.3. V Art and literature reflected the values of commercial society
	2.4. II Consumer revolution of the 18th century
	3.1. I Great Britain’s industrial dominance
	3.1. II Industrialization of continental Europe
	3.1. III The Second Industrial Revolution
	3.2. IV Development of a heightened consumerism
	4.2. IV Postwar economic growth
	4.3. IV Increased imports of United States technology and popular culture
<b>PP-2</b> Identify the changes in agricultural production and evaluate their impact on economic growth and the standard of living in preindustrial Europe.	1.5. II Commercialization of agriculture; codification of serfdom
	2.2. I Agricultural Revolution
	2.2. II Importation of agricultural products from the Americas
	2.4. I Agricultural Revolution
<b>PP-3</b> Explain how geographic, economic, social, and political factors affected the pace, nature, and timing of industrialization in western and eastern Europe.	3.1. I Industrial dominance of Great Britain
	3.1. II Industrialization in Continental Europe
	3.1. III Second Industrial Revolution
	3.2. V Some areas lagged in industrialization
	3.4. II Russian reform and modernization
<b>PP-4</b> Explain how the development of new technologies and industries — as well as new means of communication, marketing, and transportation — contributed to expansion of consumerism and increased standards of living and quality of life in the 19th and 20th centuries.	4.2. I Russia’s incomplete industrialization
	3.1. III New technologies and means of communication
	3.2. IV Mass marketing, efficient methods of transportation, new industries
	4.3. II Medical technologies
	4.4. I Mass production, food technologies, industrial efficiency, communication and transportation technologies
	4.4. II New modes of reproduction

<b>PP-5</b> Analyze the origins, characteristics, and effects of the post–World War II “economic miracle” and the economic integration of Europe (the Euro zone).	4.1. IV	World monetary and trade systems
	4.1. V	European economic and political integration
	4.2. IV	Postwar economic growth and welfare benefits
	4.4. I	Creation of a consumer culture
	4.4. II	Professional careers for women; the Baby Boom
<b>PP-6</b> Analyze how expanding commerce and industrialization from the 16th through the 19th centuries led to the growth of cities and changes in the social structure, most notably a shift from a landed to a commercial elite.	1.2. I	Commercial and professional groups gained in power
	1.5. I	New social patterns
	1.5. III	Expansion of cities; challenges to traditional political and social structures
	2.4. IV	Increased migration to cities
	3.2. I	Development of new classes
<b>PP-7</b> Explain how environmental conditions, the Agricultural Revolution, and industrialization contributed to demographic changes, the organization of manufacturing, and alterations in the family economy.	3.2. II	Migration from rural to urban areas
	3.3. II	Government reforms of cities
	1.5. IV	Family was primary social and economic institution
	2.2. I	The putting-out system
	2.4. I	Agricultural Revolution and population growth
	2.4. III	New demographic patterns; effects of Commercial Revolution
	3.1. III	Mechanization and the factory system
<b>PP-8</b> Analyze socialist, communist, and fascist efforts to develop responses to capitalism and why these efforts gained support during times of economic crisis.	3.2. II	Rapid population growth
	3.2. III	Altered family structure and relations
	3.3. I	Evolution of socialist ideology
	3.3. III	Labor unions
	4.2. I	The Russian Revolution
<b>PP-9</b> Assess how peasants across Europe were affected by and responded to the policies of landlords, increased taxation, and the price revolution in the early modern period.	4.2. II	The ideology of fascism
	4.2. III	The Great Depression
	1.5. II	Commercialization of agriculture and abolition of traditional rights
<b>PP-10</b> Explain the role of social inequality in contributing to and affecting the nature of the French Revolution and subsequent revolutions throughout the 19th and 20th centuries.	2.4. IV	Migration from rural areas to cities
	2.1. IV	The French Revolution
	2.1. V	Napoleon’s domestic reforms
	2.3. I	Challenge of rational and empirical thought to traditional values and ideas
	3.3. I	Development of ideologies
	3.4. I	The Concert of Europe; political revolts and revolutions
	3.4. II	National unification and liberal reforms
	3.6. II	Marx’s critique of capitalism
	4.2. I	The Russian Revolution
	<b>PP-11</b> Analyze the social and economic causes and consequences of the Great Depression in Europe.	4.2. II
4.2. III		The Great Depression
4.3. I		Belief in progress breaks down
<b>PP-12</b> Evaluate how the expansion of a global consumer economy after World War II served as a catalyst to opposition movements in Eastern and Western Europe.	4.2. V	Collapse of the Soviet Union
	4.3. IV	Criticism of United States’ technology and popular culture
	4.4. III	Green parties; revolts of 1968

<p><b>PP-13</b> Analyze how cities and states have attempted to address the problems brought about by economic modernization, such as poverty and famine, through regulating morals, policing marginal populations, and improving public health.</p>	1.5. III	Government regulation of public morals
	2.4. IV	Policing of marginal groups
	3.2. II	Overcrowding in cities
	3.3. II	Government reform of cities
<p><b>PP-14</b> Explain how industrialization elicited critiques from artists, socialists, workers’ movements, and feminist organizations.</p>	4.2. IV	Expansion of social welfare programs
	3.3. I	Socialist critiques of capitalism
	3.3. III	Political movements and social organizations
	3.6. I	Romantic writers’ response to the Industrial Revolution
	3.6. II	Marx’s critique of capitalism; realist and materialist themes in art and literature
<p><b>PP-15</b> Analyze efforts of government and nongovernmental reform movements to respond to poverty and other social problems in the 19th and 20th centuries.</p>	4.3. I	Belief in progress breaks down
	4.3. IV	Criticism of United States’ technology and popular culture
	3.2. III	Labor laws and social welfare programs
	3.3. II	Government expansion of functions
	3.3. III	Response of political movements and social organizations
	4.2. I	The Russian Revolution
<p><b>PP-16</b> Analyze how democratic, authoritarian, and totalitarian governments of the left and right attempted to overcome the financial crises of the 1920s and 1930s.</p>	4.2. IV	Expansion of social welfare programs
	4.2. V	Social welfare programs in Central and Eastern Europe; <i>perestroika</i>
	4.2. I	Lenin’s New Economic Policy; Stalin’s economic modernization
	4.2. III	Dependence on American investment capital; attempts to rethink economic policies

## Learning Objectives by Theme: Objective Knowledge and Subjective Visions (OS)

### Theme Description:

Starting in the 15th century, European thinkers began developing new methods for arriving at objective truth — substituting these methods for appeals to traditional authorities — and then gradually moved away from belief in absolute truths to increasingly subjective interpretations of reality. Although most early modern Europeans continued to rely on religious authority and ancient texts for their knowledge of the world and as a standard of value, an increasing number argued that direct inquiry (philosophical and scientific) was the principal way to formulate truths and representations of reality. Philosophers of the natural world created a new theory of knowledge based on observation and experimentation, along with new institutions to put the new theories into practice. Science came to be viewed as an objective source of truth about the natural world. Artists, musicians, and writers also employed empirical and quantitative methods to abstract the notions of space, time, and sound in new cultural movements, many of which continued to draw on classical subjects and motifs, such as the Renaissance.

During the Enlightenment, educated Europeans came to accept the world as governed by natural laws, accessible through systematic observation and articulated in mathematics. The results of this intellectual movement were impressive, producing a new understanding of the universe (often designated as Newtonian mechanics) and systems to organize and advance the growing body of knowledge of plants, animals, and minerals. Under the influence of the French and Industrial Revolutions, intellectuals and activists attempted to employ a similarly “scientific” approach to the questions of political, social, and economic reform, resulting in the development of such ideologies as conservatism, liberalism, nationalism, socialism, and Marxism. Those in the fine arts and literature both applied and commented on these methods in their depictions of European life during this period of rapid change.

Over time, the new method for acquiring knowledge through observation and experiment raised questions about the relationship between the observer and the observed. Beginning in the 19th century, new theories called into question the supremacy of reason and the possibility of finding objective truth in favor of subjective interpretations of reality and the importance of nonrational forces. In physics, quantum mechanics and Einstein’s theories of relativity, which took the observer into account, challenged Newtonian mechanics, and, in psychology, Freud emphasized the importance of irrational drives in human behavior. Beginning in the 19th century and accelerating in the 20th, European artists and intellectuals, along with a portion of the educated public, rejected absolute paradigms (whether idealist or scientific), replacing them with relative and subjective ones, as exemplified by existential philosophy, modern art, and postmodernist ideas and culture. The emergence of these ideas created a conflict between science and subjective approaches to knowledge. Europeans continued to engage in science and to regard the results of science as being of universal value, while postmodernist thinkers emphasized the subjective component — the role of the actor — in all human activities, including scientific ones.

### Overarching Questions:

- What roles have traditional sources of authority (church and classical antiquity) played in the creation and transmission of knowledge? (OS-1, 2, 3, and 4)
- How and why did Europeans come to rely on the scientific method and reason in place of traditional authorities? (OS-5, 6, 7, 8, and 9)
- How and why did Europeans come to value subjective interpretations of reality? (OS-10, 11, 12, and 13)



Learning Objectives <i>Students are able to...</i>	Relevant topics in the Key Concept outline:	
<b>OS-1</b> Account for the persistence of traditional and folk understandings of the cosmos and causation, even with the advent of the Scientific Revolution.	1.1. IV	Continued appeal of alchemy and astrology; oral culture of peasants
	1.5. V	Popular culture
<b>OS-2</b> Analyze how religious reform in the 16th and 17th centuries, the expansion of printing, and the emergence of civic venues such as salons and coffeehouses challenged the control of the church over the creation and dissemination of knowledge.	1.1. I	New methods of scholarship and new values
	1.1. II	Invention of printing
	1.3. I	Protestant and Catholic reformations
	2.3. II	New public venues and print media
	2.3. IV	Natural religion; religious toleration
<b>OS-3</b> Explain how political revolution and war from the 17th century on altered the role of the church in political and intellectual life and the response of religious authorities and intellectuals to such challenges.	1.2. I	New political systems and secular systems of law
	1.2. II	Concept of the balance of power
	1.3. III	Conflicts among religious groups
	2.1. IV	Nationalization of the Catholic Church; de-Christianization
	2.3. IV	Toleration of Christian minorities and civil rights granted to Jews
	3.4. I	Conservative attempts to strengthen adherence to religious authorities
	4.3. III	Continued role of organized religion
<b>OS-4</b> Explain how a worldview based on science and reason challenged and preserved social order and roles, especially the roles of women.	1.5. IV	Renaissance and Reformation debates
	2.3. I	Arguments over exclusion of women from political life
	3.2. III	Cult of domesticity
	3.3. I	Radical and republican advocates of suffrage and citizenship
	3.3. III	Feminists and feminist movements
	4.4. II	Family responsibilities, economic changes, and feminism
	4.4. III	Gay and lesbian movements
<b>OS-5</b> Analyze how the development of Renaissance humanism, the printing press, and the scientific method contributed to the emergence of a new theory of knowledge and conception of the universe.	1.1. I	Revival of classical texts; new methods of scholarship
	1.1. II	Invention of the printing press
	1.1. III	Visual arts of the Renaissance
	1.1. IV	Science based on observation, experimentation, and mathematics
	2.3. I	Rational and empirical thought
	2.3. II	New print media
<b>OS-6</b> Explain how European exploration and colonization was facilitated by the development of the scientific method and led to a re-examination of cultural norms.	1.4. II	Advances in navigation, cartography, and military technology
	2.3. II	Representations of peoples outside Europe
	3.5. II	Industrial and technological developments
	3.5. III	Imperial encounters with non-European peoples
<b>OS-7</b> Analyze how and to what extent the Enlightenment encouraged Europeans to understand human behavior, economic activity, and politics as governed by natural laws.	2.3. I	Challenge of rational and empirical thought
	2.3. III	Challenge of new political and economic theories
	2.3. VI	Revival of public sentiment and feeling

<p><b>OS-8</b> Explain the emergence, spread, and questioning of scientific, technological, and positivist approaches to addressing social problems.</p>	2.3. I	Application of principles of the scientific revolution to society and human institutions
	2.3. II	New public venues and print media
	3.2. III	Labor laws and social welfare programs
	3.3. I	Liberal, radical and republican, and socialist ideologies
	3.3. II	Government responses to industrialization
	3.3. III	Responses of political movements and social organizations
	3.6. II	Turn toward a realist and materialist worldview
	3.6. III	New relativism and loss of confidence in objectivity of knowledge
	4.3. I	Challenges to the belief in progress
<p><b>OS-9</b> Explain how new theories of government and political ideologies attempted to provide a coherent explanation for human behavior and the extent to which they adhered to or diverged from traditional explanations based on religious beliefs.</p>	4.3. II	Benefits and challenges of science and technology
	1.1. I	Secular models for political behavior
	1.2. I	Concept of sovereign state and secular systems of law
	2.1. I	Absolute monarchy
	2.1. II	Alternatives to absolutism
	2.1. IV	Liberal revolution; radical Jacobin republic
	2.3. I	Political models of Locke and Rousseau
	2.3. III	Political theories such as that of John Locke
	3.3. I	Ideologies
	3.4. I	Political revolts and revolutions
<p><b>OS-10</b> Analyze the means by which individualism, subjectivity, and emotion came to be considered a valid source of knowledge.</p>	4.2. II	Fascist rejection of democracy, glorification of war and nationalism
	1.1. I	Humanists valued the individual
	2.3. V	Emphasis on private life in the arts
	2.3. VI	Revival of public sentiment and feeling
	3.3. I	Liberal, radical and republican emphasis on individual rights
	3.6. I	Romanticism's emphasis on intuition and emotion
	3.6. III	Relativism in values and emphasis on subjective sources of knowledge
	4.3. I	Challenge to confidence in science and human reason
<p><b>OS-11</b> Explain how and why religion increasingly shifted from a matter of public concern to one of private belief over the course of European history.</p>	4.3. IV	Self-expression and subjectivity in the arts
	1.1. I	Humanist secular models for individual and political behavior
	1.3. I	New interpretations of Christian doctrine and practice
	1.3. III	Adoption of religious pluralism
	2.3. IV	Rational analysis of religious practices
<p><b>OS-12</b> Analyze how artists used strong emotions to express individuality and political theorists encouraged emotional identification with the nation.</p>	4.3. III	Continued role of organized religion
	2.3. VI	Revival of public sentiment and feeling
	3.3. I	Nationalism
	3.4. II	National unification and liberal reform
	3.6. I	Romanticism
	3.6. III	Freudian psychology; modern art
<p><b>OS-13</b> Explain how and why modern artists began to move away from realism and toward abstraction and the nonrational, rejecting traditional aesthetics.</p>	4.2. II	Fascist nationalism
	3.6. I	Romantic break with neoclassical forms and rationalism
	3.6. III	Shift to subjective, abstract, and expressive in the arts
	4.3. IV	Experimentation, self-expression, and subjectivity in the arts

## Learning Objectives by Theme: States and Other Institutions of Power (SP)

### Theme Description:

After 1450, the old ideal that Europe constituted a unified Christendom was weakened by the rise of sovereign states. These states asserted a monopoly over law and the management of all institutions, including the church. The growth of secular power played a critical role in the success of the Protestant Reformation, and states gained increasing influence over religious affairs. The military revolution of the early modern period forced states to find new and better sources of revenue, and it spurred the expansion of state control over political and economic functions. In the long view, war became increasingly costly, technologically sophisticated, and deadly. As Europeans expanded overseas, the theaters of European warfare expanded as well.

European polities took a variety of forms — empires, nation-states, and small republics. Absolute monarchies concentrated all authority in a single person who was regarded as divinely ordained, whereas in constitutional governments, power was shared between the monarch and representative institutions. Early modern advances in education, publishing, and prosperity created “public opinion” and “civil society” independent of government, developments that supported and were promoted by Enlightenment theories of natural rights and the social contract. Political revolutions and industrialization shifted governance from monarchies and aristocracies to parliamentary institutions that both generated and embodied the rule of law while gradually widening the participation of citizens in governance through the extension of suffrage. In the late 19th century, as European states became increasingly responsive to public opinion and developed mass political parties, they ironically became impersonal and bureaucratic. After World War I, under the pressure of political and economic crises, totalitarian regimes threatened parliamentary governments.

The European state system, originating in the Peace of Westphalia and structuring interstate relations through World War I, assumed that the continent would be divided into independent sovereign states and that war and diplomacy would be the normal means of interstate relations. In the 19th century, the goal of establishing and maintaining a balance of power was challenged by the revolutionary and Napoleonic wars, the emergence of Italy and Germany as states, the weakening of traditional empires, and shifts in the alliance system. New and hardened alliances between countries driven by overseas competition and the growing influence of nationalism undermined diplomatic efforts to stave off war in the first half of the 20th century. In the 20th century, new international organizations (the League of Nations, the United Nations, NGOs) attempted to develop international law and modes of dispute resolution that would promote peace. After the catastrophe of two world wars, European states returned to the goal of a unified Europe, embodied this time not in Christendom but in the secular institutions of the European Union.

### Overarching Questions:

- What forms have European governments taken, and how have these changed over time? (SP-1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6)
- In what ways and why have European governments moved toward or reacted against representative and democratic principles and practices? (SP-7, 8, and 9)
- How did civil institutions develop apart from governments, and what impact have they had upon European states? (SP-10, 11, and 12)
- How and why did changes in warfare affect diplomacy, the European state system, and the balance of power? (SP-13 and 14)
- How did the concept of a balance of power emerge, develop, and eventually become institutionalized? (SP-15, 16, 17, 18, and 19)

Learning Objectives <i>Students are able to...</i>	Relevant topics in the Key Concept outline:	
<p><b>SP-1</b> Explain the emergence of civic humanism and new conceptions of political authority during the Renaissance, as well as subsequent theories and practices that stressed the political importance and rights of the individual.</p>	<p>1.1. I 1.1. III 1.2. I 2.1. II 2.1. IV 2.3. I 2.3. III 2.3. V 3.3. I 3.3. II 3.3. III 4.3. II 4.4. II 4.4. III</p>	<p>Civic humanism and secular theories Art in service of state Growth of sovereign nation-state Challenges to absolutism French Revolution Enlightenment principles Social contract and capitalism State patronage and new political ideals in art Political ideologies Growth of regulatory state Political movements and parties Industrialized warfare Women’s rights Dissenting groups in politics</p>
<p><b>SP-2</b> Explain the emergence of and theories behind the New Monarchies and absolutist monarchies, and evaluate the degree to which they were able to centralize power in their states.</p>	<p>1.2. I 1.2. III 1.3. II 1.3. III 2.1. I 2.1. II</p>	<p>New Monarchs and rise of nation-state Absolutism and its challengers Control over religion Religious wars Absolutism English Civil War and Dutch Republic</p>
<p><b>SP-3</b> Trace the changing relationship between states and ecclesiastical authority and the emergence of the principle of religious toleration.</p>	<p>1.1. I 1.2. I 1.3. II 1.3. III 2.1. I 2.1. IV 2.1. V 2.3. IV 3.3. I 3.4. I 4.1. VI 4.3. III</p>	<p>Secular political theories State control over religion Reformation and religious conflict Religious wars Absolutist religious policies French Revolution attack on religion Napoleon and Concordat Religious toleration Political ideologies and religion Conservatism Post World War II religious conflicts Second Vatican Council and immigration</p>
<p><b>SP-4</b> Analyze how new political and economic theories from the 17th century and the Enlightenment challenged absolutism and shaped the development of constitutional states, parliamentary governments, and the concept of individual rights.</p>	<p>2.1. IV 2.3. I 2.3. III 3.3. I 3.3. III 3.4. I 3.4. II</p>	<p>French Revolution Enlightenment natural rights Liberalism (Locke and Adam Smith) Ideologies of change Mass political movements and reform Post-1815 revolutions National unification and nation-building</p>

<p><b>SP-5</b> Assess the role of colonization, the Industrial Revolution, total warfare, and economic depressions in altering the government’s relationship to the economy, both in overseeing economic activity and in addressing its social impact.</p>	1.4. I	Colonization and mercantilism
	2.1. IV	French revolutionary equality and warfare
	2.2. II	Commercial Revolution
	3.1. I	British industrialization
	3.1. II	Continental industrialization
	3.1. III	Second Industrial Revolution
	3.3. II	Government regulation and reform
	4.1. V	Post-1945 European unity
	4.2. I	Russian Revolution
	4.2. III	Great Depression
4.2. IV	Economic miracle and welfare state	
4.2. V	Planned economies in Eastern Europe	
<p><b>SP-6</b> Explain how new ideas of political authority and the failure of diplomacy led to world wars, political revolutions, and the establishment of totalitarian regimes in the 20th century.</p>	4.1. I	Causes of World War I
	4.1. II	Versailles settlement
	4.1. III	Appeasement and World War II
	4.2. I	Bolshevik Revolution and Stalin
	4.2. II	Fascism
<p><b>SP-7</b> Explain the emergence of representative government as an alternative to absolutism.</p>	1.2. III	Limits to absolutism
	2.1. II	Constitutionalism
	2.1. IV	French Revolution
	2.3. I	Enlightenment principles in politics
	2.3. III	Social contract and capitalism
	3.3. I	Ideologies of liberation
	3.3. III	Mass movements and reform
	3.4. I	Revolutions from 1815–1848
3.4. II	Nationalism and unification	
<p><b>SP-8</b> Explain how and why various groups, including communists and fascists, undermined parliamentary democracy through the establishment of regimes that maintained dictatorial control while manipulating democratic forms.</p>	4.1. III	Nazi aggression and <i>Blitzkrieg</i>
	4.2. I	Bolshevik Revolution and Stalin
	4.2. II	Rise of fascism
<p><b>SP-9</b> Analyze how various movements for political and social equality — such as feminism, anticolonialism, and campaigns for immigrants’ rights — pressured governments and redefined citizenship.</p>	2.1. IV	French Revolution — women and minorities
	2.3. I	Natural rights
	2.3. IV	Religious toleration (Jews)
	3.3. I	Ideologies of liberation
	3.3. III	Workers, feminists, and reform
	3.5. III	Responses to imperialism (nationalism)
	4.1. VII	Decolonization
	4.2. V	Collapse of communism
	4.4. II	Feminism
	4.4. III	Post-1945 critics and dissenters

<p><b>SP-10</b> Trace the ways in which new technologies, from the printing press to the Internet, have shaped the development of civil society and enhanced the role of public opinion.</p>	1.1. II	Printing press	
	2.3. II	Civil society and literacy	
	3.1. III	Second Industrial Revolution — transportation and communication	
	4.2. II	Mass media and propaganda	
	4.4. I	Total war and higher standard of living	
<p><b>SP-11</b> Analyze how religious and secular institutions and groups attempted to limit monarchical power by articulating theories of resistance to absolutism, and by taking political action.</p>	1.2. III	English Civil War and nobles	
	1.3. II	Religious minorities	
	1.3. III	Religious wars and religious pluralism	
	2.1. II	England and Dutch Republic	
	2.1. IV	French Revolution	
	2.3. I	Enlightenment ideals	
	2.3. III	Locke and Adam Smith	
	3.3. I	Ideologies of change	
	3.4. I	Post-1815 revolutions	
<p><b>SP-12</b> Assess the role of civic institutions in shaping the development of representative and democratic forms of government.</p>	2.3. II	Growth of civil society	
	3.3. III	Mass political movements and parties	
	4.4. II	Women and feminism	
	4.4. III	Post-1945 dissenting groups	
<p><b>SP-13</b> Evaluate how the emergence of new weapons, tactics, and methods of military organization changed the scale and cost of warfare, required the centralization of power, and shifted the balance of power.</p>	1.2. II	Early modern military revolution	
	1.4. II	Exploration and colonization	
	2.1. IV	French revolutionary warfare	
	2.1. V	Napoleonic tactics and warfare	
	3.4. III	Industrialization of warfare	
	3.5. II	Second Industrial Revolution and imperialism	
	4.1. I	Total warfare, 1914–1918	
	4.1. III	World War II	
	4.1. IV	Nuclear weapons and Cold War	
	4.1. VI	Post-1945 nationalist/separatist movements and guerrilla warfare	
	4.3. II	Genocide and nuclear war	
	<p><b>SP-14</b> Analyze the role of warfare in remaking the political map of Europe and in shifting the global balance of power in the 19th and 20th centuries.</p>	3.4. I	Congress of Vienna and Concert of Europe
		3.4. II	Crimean War
3.4. III		Unification of Italy and Germany	
4.1. I		World War I	
4.1. II		Versailles settlement	
4.1. III		World War II	
4.1. IV		Cold War	
4.1. VII		Decolonization	
4.2. II		Fascist aggressions	
4.2. V		Ethnic cleansing in the Balkans	



<b>SP-15</b> Assess the impact of war, diplomacy, and overseas exploration and colonization on European diplomacy and balance of power until 1789.	1.2. II	Peace of Westphalia and balance of power
	1.4. III	Colonial empires
	2.1. III	Dynastic and colonial wars
	2.1. IV	French revolutionary wars
	2.2. III	Commercial rivalries and warfare
<b>SP-16</b> Explain how the French Revolution and the revolutionary and Napoleonic wars shifted the European balance of power and encouraged the creation of a new diplomatic framework.	2.1. IV	French revolutionary warfare
	2.1. V	Wars of Napoleon
	3.4. I	Congress of Vienna settlement
<b>SP-17</b> Explain the role of nationalism in altering the European balance of power, and explain attempts made to limit nationalism as a means to ensure continental stability.	2.1. IV	Fraternité and citizen armies
	2.1. V	Napoleonic warfare
	3.3. I	Post-1815 nationalism
	3.4. I	Congress of Vienna and Metternich
	3.4. II	Conservative <i>Realpolitik</i>
	3.4. III	Unification of Italy and Germany
	3.5. I	Nationalism as motive for imperialism
	3.5. III	Imperial conflicts and colonial nationalism
	4.1. I	Nationalism as cause of World War I
	4.1. II	National self-determination and League of Nations
	4.1. III	Fascism and “new racial order”
	4.1. IV	Cold War and collapse of communism
	4.1. V	European unity
	4.1. VI	Post-1945 nationalist and separatist movements
	4.1. VII	Colonial independence movements
	4.2. II	Fascism and extreme nationalism
4.2. V	Eastern European resistance to communism and Balkan conflicts	
4.4. III	Immigration and anti-immigrant groups	
<b>SP-18</b> Evaluate how overseas competition and changes in the alliance system upset the Concert of Europe and set the stage for World War I.	3.4. II	Crimean War and Conservative nationalism
	3.4. III	Unification of Italy and Germany
	3.5. I	Imperialism
	3.5. III	Imperial rivalries and conflicts
<b>SP-19</b> Explain the ways in which the Common Market and collapse of the Soviet Empire changed the political balance of power, the status of the nation-state, and global political alliances.	4.1. I	Causes of World War I
	4.1. IV	Cold War and collapse of communism
	4.1. V	European unity
	4.2. V	Collapse of communism and Balkan conflicts

## Learning Objectives by Theme: Individual and Society (IS)

### Theme Description:

Early modern society was divided into the three estates: clergy, nobility, and commoners, which included merchants, townspeople, as well as the overwhelming majority, the peasantry. Within those estates, family, religion, and landed wealth shaped social practices, and inequality of wealth prevailed within each estate. The poor were viewed as objects of charity or dangerous idlers requiring social control, such as disciplinary measures or confinement. Social values and communal norms were sanctified by religion. With the advent of the Reformation, new Protestant denominations contested with the Catholic Church and with each other to establish new religious practices and social values.

Marriage and family life were constrained by the values of the community. Men and especially women of all estates followed closely prescribed norms. Gathering resources to create a new household often required young adults to work and save for a period of years, and a late age of marriage for commoners (the European family pattern) tended to limit demographic growth. In preindustrial Europe, women's and men's work was complementary rather than separate, as peasants worked communally to bring in the harvest or artisanal women oversaw journeymen and apprentices, kept the books, and marketed the product. Despite female involvement in movements of cultural and social change, gender norms continued to stress women's intellectual inferiority and their duty of obedience to fathers and husbands, as well as limit access to institutional power. The Protestant Reformation placed new emphasis on the individual's direct relationship to God and the role of women in the family as mothers and assistants in religious instruction and schooling, while excluding them from clerical roles. Social and economic stresses along with negative gender stereotypes led to witchcraft persecution, which victimized elderly women in particular in the 16th and 17th centuries.

Demographic growth spurred social change in the 18th century. The Enlightenment brought a new emphasis on childhood as a stage of life, and the ideal of companionate marriage began to compete with arranged marriages. The French Revolution formally ended the division of society into three estates and continued to challenge traditional society throughout the 19th century, though remnants of the old order persisted into the 20th century. The Industrial Revolution created a division of social classes based on new criteria of capital and labor. The revolutionary emphasis on liberty galvanized many excluded groups to take an active role in politics, and the language of natural rights spurred the development of movements of equality, such as feminism and the end of feudalism and serfdom. The growth of the middle classes in the 19th century tended to anchor men and women in "separate spheres" and the elevation of women's role in the home into "the cult of domesticity." Early industrialism negatively affected the working classes and, more generally, shifted the family from a unit of production to one of consumption.

By the late 19th century, a new mass society had emerged defined by consumerism, expanding literacy, and new forms of leisure. The "woman question" that had emerged in the 17th century took on a new intensity as women sought economic and legal rights. World War I profoundly affected European society by conclusively ending the residual hold of old elites on power and democratizing society through shared sacrifice, represented by female suffrage in many nations. Between the wars Soviet communism theoretically endorsed equality, yet women often performed double duty as laborers and mothers, while kulaks were considered enemies of the state and thus liquidated. On the other hand, fascist regimes re-emphasized a domestic role for women and created states based on a mythical racial identity. After World War II, the

welfare state emerged in Western Europe with more support for families, choices in reproduction, and state-sponsored health care. Economic recovery brought new consumer choices and popular culture. In the Soviet bloc, family life was constrained and controlled by states dedicated to heavy industry rather than consumer goods, though basic needs such as housing, health care, employment, and education were provided within an authoritarian context. The end of the Cold War and the rise of the European Union brought some shared social values to light, as well as contested issues of immigration, guest workers, and the shifting religious and ethnic balance of Europe. Immigrants sometimes challenged secularism in European life and reasserted their religious values. European society has become, with fits and starts, a pluralistic one.

**Overarching Questions:**

- What forms have family, class, and social groups taken in European history, and how have they changed over time? (IS-1, 2, 3, 4, and 5)
- How and why have tensions arisen between the individual and society over the course of European history? (IS-6, 7, and 8)
- How and why has the status of specific groups within society changed over time? (IS-9 and 10)

<b>Learning Objectives</b> <i>Students are able to...</i>	<b>Relevant topics in the Key Concept outline:</b>	
<b>IS-1</b> Explain the characteristics, practices, and beliefs of traditional communities in preindustrial Europe and how they were challenged by religious reform.	1.1. IV	Alchemy and astrology
	1.5. I	Hierarchy and social status
	1.5. II	Subsistence agriculture
	1.5. IV	Family economy, gender roles, European marriage pattern
	1.5. V	Folk culture and communal norms
<b>IS-2</b> Explain how the growth of commerce and changes in manufacturing challenged the dominance of corporate groups and traditional estates.	1.2. I	Rise of commercial and professional groups
	1.5. I	Financial and commercial innovations
	1.5. II	Price Revolution and commercial agriculture
	1.5. III	Urban expansion and problems
	2.2. I	Agricultural Revolution and cottage industry
	2.4. IV	Urban migration and poverty
<b>IS-3</b> Evaluate the role of technology, from the printing press to modern transportation and telecommunications, in forming and transforming society.	3.2. I	Industrialization and bourgeoisie
	1.1. II	Printing press — Renaissance and Reformation
	1.4. II	Exploration and colonization
	2.3. II	Civil society and publishing
	3.1. II	Industrialization
	3.1. III	Second Industrial Revolution and mass production
	3.2. IV	Transportation and consumerism
	3.3. II	Governmental reform of infrastructure
	3.5. II	Industry and empire
4.4. I	Technology as destructive and improving standard of living	
<b>IS-4</b> Analyze how and why the nature and role of the family has changed over time.	1.5. IV	Family, gender roles, and marriage patterns
	2.4. II	Consumerism and privacy in home
	2.4. III	European marriage pattern and new concepts of childhood
	3.2. III	Companionate marriage and domesticity
	4.4. II	Women in workforce, feminism, and Baby Boom
	4.4. III	Feminism and gay/lesbian movements

<p><b>IS-5</b> Explain why and how class emerged as a basis for identity and led to conflict in the 19th and 20th centuries.</p>	3.2. I	New industrial classes
	3.2. III	Protective legislation and leisure
	3.3. I	Socialism and anarchism
	3.3. III	Worker movements and reformers
	3.4. I	Post-1815 revolutions
<p><b>IS-6</b> Evaluate the causes and consequences of persistent tensions between women’s role and status in the private versus the public sphere.</p>	4.2. I	Russian and Bolshevik Revolutions
	1.5. IV	Family economy; Renaissance and Reformation debates on women
	1.5. V	Communal norms and enforcement
	2.1. IV	French Revolution
	2.1. V	Napoleonic Code
	2.3. I	Enlightenment and natural rights
	3.2. III	Companionate marriage and domesticity
	3.3. I	Radicalism and feminism
<p><b>IS-7</b> Evaluate how identities such as ethnicity, race, and class have defined the individual in relationship to society.</p>	3.3. III	Feminism and women in reform movements
	4.4. II	Total war, post-1945 feminism, and political opportunities
	1.4. IV	Slave trade
	1.5. I	New economic elites and hierarchy
	2.1. I	Nobles and absolutism
	2.1. IV	French Revolution attack on feudalism/manorialism
	2.1. V	Napoleon and “meritocracy”
	2.2. II	Expansion of slave trade
	3.2. I	Industrialization and class
	3.2. III	Middle- and working-class families
	3.3. I	Post-1815 ideologies
	3.3. III	Mass political movements and governmental reform
	3.5. III	Interaction with and responses by colonies
	3.6. II	Social Darwinism and Marxism
	4.1. III	Nazi racism and Holocaust
	4.1. VI	Post-1945 nationalist and separatist movements
<p><b>IS-8</b> Evaluate how the impact of war on civilians has affected loyalty to and respect for the nation-state.</p>	4.4. I	Total war and genocide
	4.4. III	Youth, gay/lesbian, immigrant dissenters
	4.1. I	World War I and total war on the home front
	4.2. I	Russian Revolution and Civil War
	4.2. II	Spanish Civil War and World War II
	4.3. I	Destructive effects of technology
	4.4. I	Total war and genocide

<b>IS-9</b> Assess the extent to which women participated in and benefited from the shifting values of European society from the 15th century onwards.	1.5. IV	Renaissance and Reformation
	2.1. IV	French Revolution
	2.1. V	Napoleonic Era
	2.3. I	Enlightenment
	2.3. II	Salons
	2.4. II	Consumerism and family life; privacy
	2.4. III	Commercial Revolution
	3.2. III	Industrialization, protective legislation, and leisure
	3.3. I	Post-1815 ideologies of change
	3.3. III	Mass political movements and feminism
<b>IS-10</b> Analyze how and why Europeans have marginalized certain populations (defined as “other”) over the course of their history.	4.4. II	Military production, economic recovery, and post-1945 feminism
	1.3. II	Religious minorities
	1.4. I	Colonial conquest
	1.5. III	Urban migrants and regulation of morals
	1.5. V	Communal norms and witchcraft
	2.1. IV	Reign of Terror and counterrevolution
	2.1. V	Napoleonic Empire
	3.3. I	Nationalism, anti-Semitism, and chauvinism
	3.2. V	Persistence of serfdom and feudalism
	3.5. I	Racial Darwinism and White Man’s Burden
	3.5. III	Imperial-influenced art and colonial independence movements
	3.6. II	Social Darwinism
	4.1. III	Fascist racism and genocide
	4.1. VI	Post-1945 nationalist and separatist movements
	4.1. VII	Mandates and decolonization
	4.2. I	Kulaks and Great Purges
	4.2. II	Fascist propaganda
	4.2. V	Balkan conflicts and wars
	4.3. III	Guest workers and immigration
	4.4. I	Total war and genocide
4.4. III	Post-1945 dissenting groups	

### III. The Concept Outline

The concept outline presents a chronological framework for investigating the different periods of European history in the AP European History course. Teachers will use the key concepts within the various periods to build students' understanding of the learning objectives that will be assessed on the AP Exam (see Section II).

#### Historical Periods

The course outline is structured around the investigation of course themes and key concepts in four chronological periods. These periods, from c. 1450 to the present, provide a temporal framework for the course. The instructional importance and assessment weighting for each period is equal:

Period 1: c. 1450 to c. 1648

Period 2: c. 1648 to c. 1815

Period 3: c. 1815 to c. 1914

Period 4: c. 1914 to the Present

#### Elements of the Concept Outline

**Key concepts:** The key concepts for each period are described in narrative form first, and then the key and supporting concepts are elaborated for each period in outline form using Roman numerals and letters. **Within this outline, essential historical details from each period are provided that will be tested on the AP Exam.** The key concept descriptions are provided to introduce the concepts in a narrative format to provide an accessible overview and context for each key concept. Although the descriptions discuss the same material that is in the outline, **the exam will only assess the historical concepts and details explicitly articulated in the outline.**

The concept outline does not list all groups, events, individuals, dates, and other historical details that might relate to every key concept. Such items, where not explicitly listed, are **not** required knowledge for the course. However, **it is vital that teachers explore the key concepts of each period in depth by using relevant historical subjects and information of their own choosing** as they create ways to make the course content meaningful and relevant to their students (see “illustrative knowledge,” below). In addition, although the key concepts provide a discussion of major developments within each period, these concepts may be open to different interpretations. Teachers may wish to use these differences as opportunities for student inquiry and debate in the classroom and to help students learn historical thinking skills.

**Connection to the learning objectives:** The Roman numeral sections of the outline have been coded to indicate a connection to the learning objectives, and you will see this coding in parentheses. In this way, teachers can approach the chronological nature of history through the lens of the larger historical themes. The codes are as follows:

<b>INT</b>	— Interaction of Europe and the World
<b>PP</b>	— Poverty and Prosperity
<b>OS</b>	— Objective Knowledge and Subjective Visions
<b>SP</b>	— States and Other Institutions of Power
<b>IS</b>	— Individual and Society

These codes are numbered to refer back to the learning objectives in Section II. For example, the codes **(OS-2)** **(OS-5)** **(OS-9)** **(OS-10)** **(OS-11)** **(SP-1)** **(SP-3)** appear with Key Concept 1.1, Supporting Concept I, indicating that the content in this area supports these five learning objectives.

**Illustrative knowledge:** In order to make sense of the concepts in this framework, students need to reference specific and significant information about the past. The concept outline presents the required concepts and topics that students must investigate and understand to attain an adequate knowledge of European history. The statements in the outline focus on large-scale historical processes and major developments. Teachers should choose their own examples of historical phenomena within these developments in order to illustrate them for their students. The specific examples, as well as the number of examples to teach for each concept, are left to the teachers' discretion. Teachers are not obligated to cover all possible individuals, events, and groups in European history; rather, they should cover only those examples that are most useful to them in helping students to understand larger historical developments.

Because the conceptual statements in the outline are written in this general way, the outline includes lists of illustrative examples at various points to provide teachers with some specific subjects that they might use to illustrate the underlying concept. For example, under Period 1, Key Concept 1.1, Supporting Concept I, Historical Development A, the following text appears:

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Italian Renaissance humanists such as the following:*

- Petrarch (pre-1450)
- Lorenzo Valla
- Marsilio Ficino
- Pico della Mirandola

This list is meant to provide some examples of particular Italian Renaissance humanists that could be explored with students to illustrate the broader phenomenon of humanists who promoted the revival of classical literature, new approaches to ancient texts, and the



values of secularism and individualism. These lists are provided for illustrative purposes only; teachers are also free to select examples of their own choosing. **AP Exam questions will not require that students be familiar with the information contained within these illustrative example lists.** Rather, because AP Exam questions will measure students' achievement of the learning objectives, **they will only require specific knowledge of those details contained in the main body of the concept outline.**

Because teachers do not need to cover all possible facts and details of European history, they should have more time to focus on developing students' understanding of the learning objectives and use of the historical thinking skills. Teachers are encouraged to explore other examples beyond those mentioned as viable options for teaching the course and should feel confident that this exploration will not compromise their students' ability to perform well on the AP Exam.

## PERIOD 1: c. 1450 to c. 1648

**Key Concept 1.1** The worldview of European intellectuals shifted from one based on ecclesiastical and classical authority to one based primarily on inquiry and observation of the natural world.

Renaissance intellectuals and artists revived classical motifs in the fine arts and classical values in literature and education. Intellectuals — later called humanists — employed new methods of textual criticism based on a deep knowledge of Greek and Latin, and revived classical ideas that made human beings the measure of all things. Artists formulated new styles based on ancient models. The humanists remained Christians while promoting ancient philosophical ideas that challenged traditional Christian views. Artists and architects such as Brunelleschi, Leonardo, Michelangelo, and Raphael glorified human potential and the human form in the visual arts, basing their art on classical models while using new techniques of painting and drawing, such as geometric perspective. The invention of the printing press in the mid-15th century accelerated the development and dissemination of these new attitudes, notably in Europe north of the Alps (“The Northern Renaissance”).

During the 16th and 17th centuries, Europeans developed new approaches to and methods for looking at the natural world in what historians have called the Scientific Revolution. Aristotle’s classical cosmology and Ptolemy’s astronomical system came under increasing scrutiny from natural philosophers (later called scientists) such as Copernicus, Galileo, and Newton. The philosophers Francis Bacon and René Descartes articulated comprehensive theories of inductive and deductive reasoning to give the emerging scientific method a sound foundation. Bacon urged the collection and analysis of data about the world and spurred the development of an international community of natural philosophers dedicated to the vast enterprise of what came to be called natural science. In medicine, the new approach to knowledge led physicians such as William Harvey to undertake observations that produced new explanations of anatomy and physiology, and to challenge the traditional theory of health and disease (the four humors) espoused by Galen in the second century. The articulation of natural laws, often expressed mathematically, became the goal of science.

The unexpected encounter with the Western hemisphere at the end of the 15th century further undermined knowledge derived from classical and biblical authorities. The explorations produced new knowledge of geography and the world’s peoples through direct observation, and this seemed to give credence to new approaches to knowledge more generally. Yet while they developed inquiry-based epistemologies, Europeans also continued to use traditional explanations of the natural world based on witchcraft, magic, alchemy, and astrology.

- I. A revival of classical texts led to new methods of scholarship and new values in both society and religion. **(OS-2) (OS-5) (OS-9) (OS-10) (OS-11) (SP-1) (SP-3)**
- A. Italian Renaissance humanists promoted a revival in classical literature and created new philological approaches to ancient texts. Some Renaissance humanists furthered the values of secularism and individualism.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Italian Renaissance humanists such as the following:***

- Petrarch (pre-1450)
- Lorenzo Valla
- Marsilio Ficino
- Pico della Mirandola

- B. Humanist revival of Greek and Roman texts, spread by the printing press, challenged the institutional power of universities and the Roman Catholic Church and shifted the focus of education away from theology toward the study of the classical texts.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of individuals promoting a revival of Greek and Roman texts such as the following:***

- Leonardo Bruni
- Leon Battista Alberti
- Niccolò Machiavelli

- C. Admiration for Greek and Roman political institutions supported a revival of civic humanist culture in the Italian city-states and produced secular models for individual and political behavior.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of individuals promoting secular models for individual and political behavior such as the following:***

- Niccolò Machiavelli
- Jean Bodin
- Baldassare Castiglione
- Francesco Guiccardini

- II. The invention of printing promoted the dissemination of new ideas. **(OS-2) (OS-5) (SP-10) (IS-3)**
- A. The invention of the printing press in the 1450s aided in spreading the Renaissance beyond Italy and encouraged the growth of vernacular literature, which would eventually contribute to the development of national cultures.
- B. Protestant reformers used the press to disseminate their ideas, which spurred religious reform and helped it to become widely established.
- III. The visual arts incorporated the new ideas of the Renaissance and were used to promote personal, political, and religious goals. **(OS-5) (SP-1)**
- A. Princes and popes, concerned with enhancing their prestige, commissioned paintings and architectural works based on classical styles and often employing the newly invented technique of geometric perspective.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of painters and architects such as the following:*

- Michelangelo
- Donatello
- Raphael
- Andrea Palladio
- Leon Battista Alberti
- Filippo Brunelleschi

- B. A human-centered naturalism that considered individuals and everyday life appropriate objects of artistic representation was encouraged through the patronage of both princes and commercial elites.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of artists who employed naturalism such as the following:*

- Raphael
- Leonardo da Vinci
- Jan Van Eyck
- Pieter Brueghel the Elder
- Rembrandt

- C. Mannerist and Baroque artists employed distortion, drama, and illusion in works commissioned by monarchies, city-states, and the church for public buildings to promote their stature and power.

*Teachers have flexibility to discuss Mannerist and Baroque artists, whose art was used in new public buildings, such as the following:*

- El Greco
- Artemisia Gentileschi
- Gian Bernini
- Peter Paul Rubens

IV. New ideas in science based on observation, experimentation, and mathematics challenged classical views of the cosmos, nature, and the human body, though folk traditions of knowledge and the universe persisted. **(OS-1) (OS-5) (IS-1)**

- A. New ideas and methods in astronomy led individuals such as Copernicus, Galileo, and Newton to question the authority of the ancients and religion and to develop a heliocentric view of the cosmos.
- B. Anatomical and medical discoveries by physicians, including William Harvey, presented the body as an integrated system, challenging the traditional humoral theory of the body and of disease espoused by Galen.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of additional physicians who challenged Galen such as the following:*

- Paracelsus
- Andreas Vesalius

- C. Francis Bacon and René Descartes defined inductive and deductive reasoning and promoted experimentation and the use of mathematics, which would ultimately shape the “scientific method.”
- D. Alchemy and astrology continued to appeal to elites and to some natural philosophers, in part because they shared with the new science the notion of a predictable and knowable universe. In oral culture of peasants, a belief that the cosmos was governed by divine and demonic forces persisted.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of natural philosophers who persisted in holding traditional views of alchemy and astrology such as the following:*

- Paracelsus
- Gerolamo Cardano
- Johannes Kepler
- Sir Isaac Newton

**Key Concept 1.2** The struggle for sovereignty within and among states resulted in varying degrees of political centralization.

Three trends shaped early modern political development: (1) from decentralized power and authority toward centralization; (2) from a political elite consisting primarily of a hereditary landed nobility toward one open to men distinguished by their education, skills, and wealth; and (3) from religious toward secular norms of law and justice.

One innovation promoting state centralization and the transformation of the landed nobility was the new dominance of firearms and artillery on the battlefield. The introduction of these new technologies, along with changes in tactics and strategy, amounted to a military revolution that reduced the role of mounted knights and castles, raised the cost of maintaining military power beyond the means of individual lords, and led to professionalization of the military on land and sea under the authority of the sovereign. This military revolution favored rulers who could command the resources required for building increasingly complex fortifications and fielding disciplined infantry and artillery units. Monarchs who could increase taxes and create bureaucracies to collect and spend them on their military outmaneuvered those who could not.

In general, monarchs gained power vis-à-vis the corporate groups and institutions that had thrived during the medieval period, notably the landed nobility and the clergy. Commercial and professional groups, such as merchants, lawyers, and other educated and talented persons, acquired increasing power in the state — often in alliance with the monarchs — alongside or in place of these traditional corporate groups. New legal and political theories, embodied in the codification of law, strengthened state institutions, which increasingly took control of the social and economic order from traditional religious and local bodies. However, these developments were not universal. In eastern and southern Europe, the traditional elites maintained their positions in many polities.

The centralization of power within polities took place within and facilitated a new diplomatic framework among states. Ideals of a universal Christian empire declined along with the power and prestige of the Holy Roman Empire, which was unable to overcome the challenges of political localism and religious pluralism. By the end of the Thirty Years' War, a new state system had emerged based on sovereign nation-states and the balance of power.

- I. The new concept of the sovereign state and secular systems of law played a central role in the creation of new political institutions. **(PP-6) (OS-3) (OS-9) (SP-1) (SP-2) (SP-3) (IS-2)**
  - A. New monarchies laid the foundation for the centralized modern state by establishing a monopoly on tax collection, military force, and the dispensing of justice, and by gaining the right to determine the religion of their subjects.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of monarchical control such as the following:*

- Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain consolidating control of the military
- Star Chamber
- Concordat of Bologna (1516)
- Peace of Augsburg (1555)
- Edict of Nantes (1598)

- B. The Peace of Westphalia (1648), which marked the effective end of the medieval ideal of universal Christendom, accelerated the decline of the Holy Roman Empire by granting princes, bishops and other local leaders control over religion.
- C. Across Europe, commercial and professional groups gained in power and played a greater role in political affairs.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of commercial and professional groups that gained in power such as the following:*

- Merchants and financiers in Renaissance Italy and northern Europe
- Nobles of the robe in France
- Gentry in England

- D. Secular political theories, such as those espoused in Machiavelli's *The Prince*, provided a new concept of the state.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of secular political theorists such as the following:*

- Jean Bodin
- Hugo Grotius

- II. The competitive state system led to new patterns of diplomacy and new forms of warfare. **(OS-3) (SP-13) (SP-15)**
- A. Following the Peace of Westphalia, religion no longer was a cause for warfare among European states; instead, the concept of the balance of power played an important role in structuring diplomatic and military objectives.
- B. Advances in military technology (i.e., the “military revolution”) led to new forms of warfare, including greater reliance on infantry, firearms, mobile cannon, and more elaborate fortifications, all financed by heavier taxation



and requiring a larger bureaucracy. Technology, tactics, and strategies tipped the balance of power toward states able to marshal sufficient resources for the new military environment.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of states that benefited from the military revolution such as the following:*

- Spain under the Habsburgs
- Sweden under Gustavus Adolphus
- France

III. The competition for power between monarchs and corporate groups produced different distributions of governmental authority in European states. **(SP-2) (SP-7) (SP-11)**

A. The English Civil War, a conflict between the monarchy, Parliament, and other elites over their respective roles in the political structure, exemplified this competition.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of competitors for power in the English Civil War such as the following:*

- James I
- Charles I
- Oliver Cromwell

B. Monarchies seeking enhanced power faced challenges from nobles who wished to retain traditional forms of shared governance and regional autonomy.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of the competition between monarchs and nobles such as the following:*

- Louis XIII and Cardinal Richelieu
- The Fronde in France
- The Catalan Revolts in Spain

**Key Concept 1.3** Religious pluralism challenged the concept of a unified Europe.

Late medieval reform movements in the Church (including lay piety, mysticism, and Christian humanism) created a momentum that propelled a new generation of 16th-century reformers, such as Erasmus and Martin Luther. After 1517, when Luther posted his 95 theses attacking ecclesiastical abuses and the doctrines that spawned them,

Christianity fragmented, even though religious uniformity remained the ideal. Some states, such as Spain and Portugal, which had recently expelled Muslims and Jews, held fast to this ideal. Others — notably the Netherlands and lands under Ottoman control, which accepted Jewish refugees — did not. In central Europe, the Peace of Augsburg (1555) permitted each state of the Holy Roman Empire to be either Catholic or Lutheran at the option of the prince. By the late 16th century, northern European countries were generally Protestant and Mediterranean countries generally Catholic. To re-establish order after a period of religious warfare, France introduced limited toleration of the minority Calvinists within a Catholic kingdom (Edict of Nantes, 1598; revoked in 1685). Jews remained a marginalized minority wherever they lived.

Differing conceptions of salvation and the individual's relationship to the church were at the heart of the conflicts among Luther, subsequent Protestant reformers such as Calvin and the Anabaptists, and the Roman Catholic Church. The Catholic Church affirmed its traditional theology at the Council of Trent (1545–1563), ruling out any reconciliation with the Protestants and inspiring the resurgence of Catholicism in the 17th century. Religious conflicts inevitably merged with and exacerbated long-standing political tensions between the monarchies and nobility across Europe, dramatically escalating these conflicts as they spread from the Holy Roman Empire to France, the Netherlands, and England. Economic issues such as the power to tax and control ecclesiastical resources further heightened these clashes. All three motivations — religious, political, and economic — contributed to the brutal and destructive Thirty Years' War, which was ended by the Peace of Westphalia (1648). The treaty established a new balance of power with a weakened Holy Roman Empire. The Peace of Westphalia also added Calvinism to Catholicism and Lutheranism as an accepted religion in the Holy Roman Empire, ensuring the permanence of European religious pluralism. However, pluralism did not mean religious freedom; the prince or ruler still controlled the religion of the state, and few were tolerant of dissenters.

I. The Protestant and Catholic Reformations fundamentally changed theology, religious institutions, and culture. **(OS-2) (OS-11)**

A. Christian humanism, embodied in the writings of Erasmus, employed Renaissance learning in the service of religious reform.

*Teachers have flexibility to use additional examples of Christian humanists such as the following:*

- Sir Thomas More
- Juan Luis Vives

B. Reformers Martin Luther and John Calvin, as well as religious radicals such as the Anabaptists, criticized Catholic abuses and established new interpretations of Christian doctrine and practice.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Catholic abuses such as the following:*

- Indulgences
- Nepotism
- Simony
- Pluralism and absenteeism

- C. The Catholic Reformation, exemplified by the Jesuit Order and the Council of Trent, revived the church but cemented the division within Christianity.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of the Catholic Reformation such as the following:*

- St. Theresa of Avila
- Ursulines
- Roman Inquisition
- Index of Prohibited Books

- II. Religious reform both increased state control of religious institutions and provided justifications for challenging state authority. **(SP-2) (SP-3) (SP-11) (IS-10)**

- A. Monarchs and princes, such as the English rulers Henry VIII and Elizabeth I, initiated religious reform from the top down (“magisterial”) in an effort to exercise greater control over religious life and morality.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of state actions to control religion and morality such as the following:*

- Spanish Inquisition
- Concordat of Bologna (1516)
- Book of Common Prayer
- Peace of Augsburg

- B. Some Protestants, including Calvin and the Anabaptists, refused to recognize the subordination of the church to the state.

- C. Religious conflicts became a basis for challenging the monarchs’ control of religious institutions.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of religious conflicts caused by groups challenging the monarch's control of religious institutions such as the following:*

- Huguenots
- Puritans
- Nobles in Poland

III. Conflicts among religious groups overlapped with political and economic competition within and among states. **(OS-3) (OS-11) (SP-2) (SP-3) (SP-11)**

A. Issues of religious reform exacerbated conflicts between the monarchy and the nobility, as in the French Wars of Religion.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of key factors in the French Wars of Religion such as the following:*

- Catherine de' Medici
- St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre
- War of the Three Henries
- Henry IV

B. The efforts of Habsburg rulers failed to restore Catholic unity across Europe.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Habsburg rulers such as the following:*

- Charles I/V
- Philip II
- Philip III
- Philip IV

C. States exploited religious conflicts to promote political and economic interests.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of state exploitation of religious conflicts such as the following:*

- Catholic Spain and Protestant England
- France, Sweden, and Denmark in the Thirty Years' War

D. A few states, such as France with the Edict of Nantes, allowed religious pluralism in order to maintain domestic peace.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of states allowing religious pluralism such as the following:*

- Poland
- The Netherlands

**Key Concept 1.4** Europeans explored and settled overseas territories, encountering and interacting with indigenous populations.

From the 15th through the 17th centuries, Europeans used their mastery of the seas to extend their power in Africa, Asia, and the Americas. In the 15th century, the Portuguese sought direct access by sea to the sources of African gold, ivory, and slaves. At the same time, the rise of Ottoman power in the eastern Mediterranean led to Ottoman control of the Mediterranean trade routes and increased the motivation of Iberians and then northern Europeans to explore possible sea routes to the East. The success and consequences of these explorations, and the maritime expansion that followed them, rested on European adaptation of Muslim and Chinese navigational technology, as well as advances in military technology and cartography. Political, economic, and religious rivalries among Europeans also stimulated maritime expansion. By the 17th century, Europeans had forged a global trade network that gradually edged out earlier Muslim and Chinese dominion in the Indian Ocean and the western Pacific.

In Europe, these successes shifted economic power within Europe from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic states. In Asia, the Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch competed for control of trade routes and trading stations. In the Americas, the Spanish and Portuguese led in the establishment of colonies, followed by the Dutch, French, and English. The pursuit of colonies was sustained by mercantilist economic theory, which promoted government management of economic imperatives and policies. The creation of maritime empires was also animated by the religious fervor sweeping Europe during the period of the Reformations (Catholic and Protestant). Global European expansion led to the conversion of indigenous populations in South and Central America, to an exchange of commodities and crops that enriched European and other civilizations that became part of the global trading network, and eventually, to migrations that had profound effects on Europe. The expansion also challenged parochial worldviews in Christian Europe. Yet the “Columbian Exchange” also unleashed several ecological disasters — notably the death of vast numbers of the Americas’ population in epidemics of European diseases, such as smallpox and measles, against which the native populations had no defenses. The establishment of the plantation system in the American colonies also led to the vast expansion of the African slave trade, one feature of the new Atlantic trading system.

- I. European nations were driven by commercial and religious motives to explore overseas territories and establish colonies. **(INT-1) (INT-2) (INT-6) (INT-11) (SP-5) (IS-10)**
  - A. European states sought direct access to gold and spices and luxury goods as a means to enhance personal wealth and state power.

- B. The rise of mercantilism gave the state a new role in promoting commercial development and the acquisition of colonies overseas.
  - C. Christianity served as a stimulus for exploration as governments and religious authorities sought to spread the faith and counter Islam, and as a justification for the physical and cultural subjugation of indigenous civilizations.
- II. Advances in navigation, cartography, and military technology allowed Europeans to establish overseas colonies and empires. **(INT-3) (INT-4) (OS-6) (SP-13) (IS-3)**

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of navigational technology such as the following:*

- Compass
- Stern-post rudder
- Portolani
- Quadrant and astrolabe
- Lateen rig

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of military technology such as the following:*

- Horses
- Guns and gunpowder

- III. Europeans established overseas empires and trade networks through coercion and negotiation. **(INT-1) (INT-3) (INT-6) (INT-11) (SP-15)**
- A. The Portuguese established a commercial network along the African coast, in South and East Asia, and in South America.
  - B. The Spanish established colonies across the Americas, the Caribbean, and the Pacific, which made Spain a dominant state in Europe.
  - C. The Atlantic nations of France, England, and the Netherlands followed by establishing their own colonies and trading networks to compete with Portuguese and Spanish dominance.
  - D. The competition for trade led to conflicts and rivalries among European powers.

IV. Europe's colonial expansion led to a global exchange of goods, flora, fauna, cultural practices, and diseases, resulting in the destruction of some indigenous civilizations, a shift toward European dominance, and the expansion of the slave trade. **(INT-5) (INT-6) (INT-7) (INT-9) (INT-11) (PP-1) (IS-7)**

- A. The exchange of goods shifted the center of economic power in Europe from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic states and brought the latter into an expanding world economy.
- B. The exchange of new plants, animals, and diseases — the Columbian Exchange — created economic opportunities for Europeans and facilitated European subjugation and destruction of indigenous peoples, particularly in the Americas.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new plants, animals, and diseases such as the following:*

**From Europe to the Americas:**

- Wheat
- Cattle
- Horses
- Pigs
- Sheep
- Smallpox
- Measles

**From the Americas to Europe:**

- Tomatoes
- Potatoes
- Squash
- Corn
- Tobacco
- Turkeys
- Syphilis

- C. Europeans expanded the African slave trade in response to the establishment of a plantation economy in the Americas and demographic catastrophes among indigenous peoples.



**Key Concept 1.5** European society and the experiences of everyday life were increasingly shaped by commercial and agricultural capitalism, notwithstanding the persistence of medieval social and economic structures.

In the 16th and 17th centuries, Europeans experienced profound economic and social changes. The influx of precious metals from the Americas and the gradual recovery of Europe's population from the Black Death caused a significant rise in the cost of goods and services by the 16th century known as the "price revolution." The new pattern of economic enterprise and investment that arose from these changes would come to be called capitalism. Family-based banking houses were supplanted by broadly integrated capital markets in Genoa, then in Amsterdam, and later in London. These and other urban centers became increasingly active consumer markets for a variety of luxury goods and commodities. Rulers soon recognized that capitalist enterprise offered them a revenue source to support state functions, and the competition among states was extended into the economic arena. The drive for economic profit and the increasing scale of commerce stimulated the creation of joint-stock companies to conduct overseas trade and colonization.

Many Europeans found their daily lives altered by these demographic and economic changes. As population increased in the 16th century, the price of grain rose and diets deteriorated, all as monarchs were increasing taxes to support their larger state militaries. All but the wealthy were vulnerable to food shortages, and even the wealthy had no immunity to recurrent lethal epidemics. Although hierarchy and privilege continued to define the social structure, the nobility and gentry expanded with the infusion of new blood from the commercial and professional classes. By the mid-17th century, war, economic contraction, and slackening population growth contributed to the disintegration of older communal values. Growing numbers of the poor became beggars or vagabonds, straining the traditional systems of charity and social control. In eastern Europe commercial development lagged, and traditional social patterns persisted; the nobility actually increased its power over the peasantry.

Traditional town governments, dominated by craft guilds and traditional religious institutions, staggered under the burden of rural migrants and growing poverty. The Reformation and Counter-Reformation stimulated a drive to regulate public morals, leisure activities, and the distribution of poor relief. In both town and country, the family remained the dominant unit of production, and marriage remained an instrument of families' social and economic strategy. The children of peasants and craft workers often labored alongside their parents. In the lower orders of society, men and women did not occupy separate spheres, although they performed different tasks. Economics often dictated later marriages ("European marriage pattern"). However, there were exceptions to this pattern: in the cities of Renaissance Italy, men in their early 30s often married teenaged women, and in eastern Europe early marriage for both men and women persisted. Despite the growth of the market economy in which individuals increasingly

made their own way, leisure activities tended to be communal, rather than individualistic and consumerist, as they are today. Local communities enforced their customs and norms through crowd action and rituals of public shaming.

I. Economic change produced new social patterns, while traditions of hierarchy and status persisted. **(INT-11) (PP-6) (IS-1) (IS-2) (IS-7)**

A. Innovations in banking and finance promoted the growth of urban financial centers and of a money economy.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of innovations in banking and finance such as the following:*

- Double-entry bookkeeping
- Bank of Amsterdam
- The Dutch East India Company
- The British East India Company

B. The growth of commerce produced a new economic elite, which related to traditional elites in different ways in Europe's various geographic regions.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of the new economic elites such as the following:*

- Gentry in England
- Nobles of the robe in France
- Town elites (bankers and merchants)
- Caballeros and hidalgos in Spain

C. Hierarchy and status continued to define social power and perceptions in rural and urban settings.

II. Most Europeans derived their livelihood from agriculture and oriented their lives around the seasons, the village, or the manor, although economic changes began to alter rural production and power. **(PP-2) (PP-9) (IS-1) (IS-2)**

A. Subsistence agriculture was the rule in most areas, with three-crop field rotation in the north and two-crop rotation in the Mediterranean; in many cases, farmers paid rent and labor services for their lands.

B. The price revolution contributed to the accumulation of capital and the expansion of the market economy through the commercialization of agriculture, which benefited large landowners in western Europe.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of the commercialization of agriculture such as the following:*

- Enclosure movement
- Restricted use of the village common
- Free-hold tenure

- C. As western Europe moved toward a free peasantry and commercial agriculture, serfdom was codified in the east, where nobles continued to dominate economic life on large estates.
- D. The attempts of landlords to increase their revenues by restricting or abolishing the traditional rights of peasants led to revolt.
- III. Population shifts and growing commerce caused the expansion of cities, which often found their traditional political and social structures stressed by the growth. **(PP-6) (PP-13) (IS-2) (IS-10)**
- A. Population recovered to its pre-Great Plague level in the 16th century, and continuing population pressures contributed to uneven price increases; agricultural commodities increased more sharply than wages, reducing living standards for some.
- B. Migrants to the cities challenged the ability of merchant elites and craft guilds to govern and strained resources.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of the way new migrants challenged urban elites such as the following:*

- Sanitation problems caused by overpopulation
- Employment
- Poverty
- Crime

- C. Social dislocation, coupled with the weakening of religious institutions during the Reformation, left city governments with the task of regulating public morals.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of regulating public morals such as the following:*

- New secular laws regulating private life
- Stricter codes on prostitution and begging
- Abolishing or restricting Carnival
- Calvin's Geneva

IV. The family remained the primary social and economic institution of early modern Europe and took several forms, including the nuclear family. **(PP-7) (OS-4) (IS-1) (IS-4) (IS-6) (IS-9)**

- A. Rural and urban households worked as units, with men and women engaged in separate but complementary tasks.
- B. The Renaissance and Reformation movements raised debates about female roles in the family, society, and the church.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of debates about female roles such as the following:*

- Women's intellect and education
- Women as preachers
- La Querelle des Femmes

C. From the late 16th century forward, Europeans responded to economic and environmental challenges, such as the "Little Ice Age," by delaying marriage and childbearing, which restrained population growth and ultimately improved the economic condition of families.

V. Popular culture, leisure activities, and rituals reflecting the persistence of folk ideas reinforced and sometimes challenged communal ties and norms. **(OS-1) (IS-1) (IS-6) (IS-10)**

- A. Leisure activities continued to be organized according to the religious calendar and the agricultural cycle and remained communal in nature.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of communal leisure activities such as the following:*

- Saint's day festivities
- Carnival
- Blood sports

- B. Local and church authorities continued to enforce communal norms through rituals of public humiliation.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of rituals of public humiliation such as the following:*

- Charivari
- Stocks
- Public whipping and branding

- C. Reflecting folk ideas and social and economic upheaval, accusations of witchcraft peaked between 1580 and 1650.

## PERIOD 2: c. 1648 to c. 1815

**Key Concept 2.1** Different models of political sovereignty affected the relationship among states and between states and individuals.

Between 1648 and 1815, the sovereign state was consolidated as the principal form of political organization across Europe. Justified and rationalized by theories of political sovereignty, states adopted a variety of methods to acquire the human, fiscal, and material resources essential for the promotion of their interests. Although challenged and sometimes effectively resisted by various social groups and institutions, the typical state of the period, best exemplified by the rule of Louis XIV in France, asserted claims to absolute authority within its borders. A few states, most notably England and the Dutch Republic, gradually developed governments in which the authority of the executive was restricted by legislative bodies protecting the interests of the landowning and commercial classes.

Between the Peace of Westphalia (1648) and the Congress of Vienna (1814-15), European states managed their external affairs within a balance of power system. In this system, diplomacy became a major component of the relations among states. Most of the wars of the period, including conflicts fought outside of Europe, stemmed from attempts either to preserve or disturb the balance of power among European states. While European monarchs continued to view their affairs in dynastic terms, increasingly, “reasons of state” influenced policy.

The French Revolution was the most formidable challenge to traditional politics and diplomacy during this period. Inspired in part by Enlightenment ideas, the Revolution introduced mass politics, led to the creation of numerous political and social ideologies, and remained the touchstone for those advocating radical reform in subsequent decades. The French Revolution was part of a larger revolutionary impulse that, as a transatlantic movement, influenced revolutions in Spanish America and the Haitian slave revolt. Napoleon Bonaparte built upon the gains of the revolution and attempted to exploit the resources of the continent in the interests of France and his own dynasty. Napoleon’s revolutionary state imposed French hegemony throughout Europe, but eventually a coalition of European powers overthrew French domination and restored, as much as possible, a balance of power within the European state system. At the same time, the conservative powers attempted to suppress the ideologies inspired by the French Revolution.

- I. In much of Europe, absolute monarchy was established over the course of the 17th and 18th centuries. **(OS-9) (SP-2) (SP-3) (IS-7)**
  - A. Absolute monarchies limited the nobility’s participation in governance but preserved the aristocracy’s social position and legal privileges.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of absolute monarchs such as the following:*

- James I of England
- Peter the Great of Russia
- Philip II, III, IV of Spain

- B. Louis XIV and his finance minister Jean-Baptiste Colbert extended the administrative, financial, military, and religious control of the central state over the French population.
- C. In the 18th century, a number of states in eastern and central Europe experimented with “enlightened absolutism.”

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of enlightened monarchs such as the following:*

- Frederick II of Prussia
- Joseph II of Austria

- D. The inability of the Polish monarchy to consolidate its authority over the nobility led to Poland’s partition by Prussia, Russia, and Austria, and its disappearance from the map of Europe.
- E. Peter the Great “westernized” the Russian state and society, transforming political, religious, and cultural institutions; Catherine the Great continued this process.
- II. Challenges to absolutism resulted in alternative political systems. **(OS-9) (SP-1) (SP-2) (SP-7) (SP-11)**

- A. The outcome of the English Civil War and the Glorious Revolution protected the rights of gentry and aristocracy from absolutism through assertions of the rights of Parliament.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of these outcomes such as the following:*

- English Bill of Rights
- Parliamentary sovereignty

- B. The Dutch Republic developed an oligarchy of urban gentry and rural landholders to promote trade and protect traditional rights.



III. After 1648, dynastic and state interests, along with Europe’s expanding colonial empires, influenced the diplomacy of European states and frequently led to war.

**(INT-1) (INT-11) (SP-15)**

A. As a result of the Holy Roman Empire’s limitation of sovereignty in the Peace of Westphalia, Prussia rose to power and the Habsburgs, centered in Austria, shifted their empire eastward.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Prussian and Habsburg rulers such as the following:*

- Maria Theresa of Austria
- Frederick William I of Prussia
- Frederick II of Prussia

B. After the Austrian defeat of the Turks in 1683 at the Battle of Vienna, the Ottomans ceased their westward expansion.

C. Louis XIV’s nearly continuous wars, pursuing both dynastic and state interests, provoked a coalition of European powers opposing him.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Louis XIV’s nearly continuous wars such as the following:*

- Dutch War
- Nine Years’ War
- War of Spanish Succession

D. Rivalry between Britain and France resulted in world wars fought both in Europe and in the colonies, with Britain supplanting France as the greatest European power.

IV. The French Revolution posed a fundamental challenge to Europe’s existing political and social order. **(INT-7) (INT-10) (INT-11) (PP-10) (OS-3) (OS-9) (SP-1) (SP-3) (SP-4) (SP-5) (SP-7) (SP-9) (SP-11) (SP-13) (SP-15) (SP-16) (SP-17) (IS-6) (IS-7) (IS-9) (IS-10)**

A. The French Revolution resulted from a combination of long-term social and political causes, as well as Enlightenment ideas, exacerbated by short-term fiscal and economic crises.

- B. The first, or liberal, phase of the French Revolution established a constitutional monarchy, increased popular participation, nationalized the Catholic Church, and abolished hereditary privileges.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of actions taken during the moderate phase of the French Revolution such as the following:***

- Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen
- Civil Constitution of the Clergy
- Constitution of 1791
- Abolition of provinces and division of France into departments

- C. After the execution of Louis XVI, the radical Jacobin Republic led by Robespierre responded to opposition at home and war abroad by instituting the Reign of Terror, fixing prices and wages, and pursuing a policy of de-Christianization.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of radical Jacobin leaders and institutions such as the following:***

- Georges Danton
- Jean-Paul Marat
- Committee of Public Safety

- D. Revolutionary armies, raised by mass conscription, sought to bring the changes initiated in France to the rest of Europe.
- E. Women enthusiastically participated in the early phases of the revolution; however, while there were brief improvements in the legal status of women, citizenship in the republic was soon restricted to men.
- F. Revolutionary ideals inspired a slave revolt led by Toussaint L'Ouverture in the French colony of Saint Domingue, which became the independent nation of Haiti in 1804.
- G. While many were inspired by the revolution's emphasis on equality and human rights, others condemned its violence and disregard for traditional authority.

- V. Claiming to defend the ideals of the French Revolution, Napoleon Bonaparte imposed French control over much of the European continent that eventually provoked a nationalistic reaction. **(PP-10) (SP-3) (SP-13) (SP-16) (SP-17) (IS-6) (IS-7) (IS-9) (IS-10)**
- A. As first consul and emperor, Napoleon undertook a number of enduring domestic reforms while often curtailing some rights and manipulating popular impulses behind a façade of representative institutions.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of domestic reforms under Napoleon such as the following:*

- Careers open to talent
- Educational system
- Centralized bureaucracy
- Civil Code
- Concordat of 1801

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of curtailment of rights under Napoleon such as the following:*

- Secret police
- Censorship
- Limitation of women's rights

- B. Napoleon's new military tactics allowed him to exert direct or indirect control over much of the European continent, spreading the ideals of the French Revolution across Europe.
- C. Napoleon's expanding empire created nationalist responses throughout Europe.
- D. After the defeat of Napoleon by a coalition of European powers, the Congress of Vienna (1814-15) attempted to restore the balance of power in Europe and contain the danger of revolutionary or nationalistic upheavals in the future.

**Key Concept 2.2** The expansion of European commerce accelerated the growth of a worldwide economic network.

The economic watershed of the 17th and 18th centuries was a historically unique passage from limited resources that made material want inescapable to self-generating economic growth that dramatically raised levels of physical and material well-being. European

societies — first those with access to the Atlantic and gradually those in the east and on the Mediterranean — provided increasing percentages of their populations with a higher standard of living.

The gradual emergence of new economic structures that made European global influence possible both presupposed and promoted far-reaching changes in human capital, property rights, financial instruments, technologies, and labor systems. These changes included:

- Availability of labor power, both in terms of numbers and in terms of persons with the skills (literacy, ability to understand and manipulate the natural world, physical health sufficient for work) required for efficient production.
- Institutions and practices that supported economic activity and provided incentives for it (new definitions of property rights and protections for them against theft or confiscation and against state taxation).
- Accumulations of capital for financing enterprises and innovations, as well as for raising the standard of living and the means for turning private savings into investable or “venture” capital.
- Technological innovations in food production, transportation, communication, and manufacturing.

A major result of these changes was the development of a growing consumer society that benefited from and contributed to the increase in material resources. At the same time, other effects of the economic revolution — increased geographic mobility, transformed employer–worker relations, the decline of domestic manufacturing — eroded traditional community and family solidarities and protections.

European economic strength derived in part from the ability to control and exploit resources (human and material) around the globe. Mercantilism supported the development of European trade and influence around the world. However, the economic, social, demographic, and ecological effects of European exploitation on other regions were often devastating. Internally, Europe divided more and more sharply between the societies engaging in overseas trade and undergoing the economic transformations sketched above (primarily countries on the Atlantic) and those (primarily in central and eastern Europe) with little such involvement. The eastern countries remained in a traditional, principally agrarian, economy and maintained the traditional order of society and the state that rested on it.

- I. Early modern Europe developed a market economy that provided the foundation for its global role. **(PP-1) (PP-2) (PP-7) (IS-2)**
  - A. Labor and trade in commodities were increasingly freed from traditional restrictions imposed by governments and corporate entities.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of trade freed from traditional restrictions such as the following:*

- Market-driven wages and prices
- Le Chapelier laws

- B. The Agricultural Revolution raised productivity and increased the supply of food and other agricultural products.
- C. The putting-out system or cottage industry expanded as increasing numbers of laborers in homes or workshops produced for markets through merchant intermediaries or workshop owners.
- D. The development of the market economy led to new financial practices and institutions.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new financial practices and institutions such as the following:*

- Insurance
- Banking institutions for turning private savings into “venture capital”
- New definitions of property rights and protections against confiscation
- Bank of England

- II. The European-dominated worldwide economic network contributed to the agricultural, industrial, and consumer revolutions in Europe. **(INT-1) (INT-3) (INT-5) (INT-6) (INT-7) (INT-9) (INT-11) (PP-1) (PP-2) (SP-5) (IS-7)**

- A. European states followed mercantilist policies by exploiting colonies in the New World and elsewhere.
- B. The transatlantic slave-labor system expanded in the 17th and 18th centuries as demand for New World products increased.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of transatlantic slave-labor systems such as the following:*

- Middle Passage
- Triangle trade
- Plantation economies in the Americas

- C. Overseas products and influences contributed to the development of a consumer culture in Europe.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of overseas products such as the following:*

- Sugar
- Tea
- Silks and other fabrics
- Tobacco
- Rum
- Coffee

- D. The importation and transplantation of agricultural products from the Americas contributed to an increase in the food supply in Europe.
- E. Foreign lands provided raw materials, finished goods, laborers, and markets for the commercial and industrial enterprises in Europe.

III. Commercial rivalries influenced diplomacy and warfare among European states in the early modern era. **(INT-1) (INT-3) (INT-11) (SP-15)**

- A. European sea powers vied for Atlantic influence throughout the 18th century.
- B. Portuguese, Dutch, French, and British rivalries in Asia culminated in British domination in India and Dutch control of the East Indies.

**Key Concept 2.3** The popularization and dissemination of the Scientific Revolution and the application of its methods to political, social, and ethical issues led to an increased, although not unchallenged, emphasis on reason in European culture.

During the 17th and 18th centuries, Europeans applied the methods of the New Science — such as empiricism, mathematics, and skepticism — to human affairs. During the Enlightenment, intellectuals such as Rousseau, Voltaire, and Diderot aimed to replace faith in divine revelation with faith in human reason and classical values. In economics and politics, liberal theorists such as John Locke and Adam Smith questioned absolutism and mercantilism by arguing for the authority of natural law and the market. Belief in progress, along with improved social and economic conditions, spurred significant gains in literacy and education as well as the creation of a new culture of the printed word, including novels, newspapers, periodicals, and such reference works as Diderot’s *Encyclopédie*, for a growing educated audience.

Several movements of religious revival occurred during the 18th century, but elite culture embraced skepticism, secularism, and atheism for the first time in European history, and popular attitudes began to move in the same directions. From the beginning of this period, Protestants and Catholics grudgingly tolerated each other following the religious warfare of the previous two centuries. By 1800, most governments had extended toleration to Christian minorities and in some states even to Jews. Religion was viewed increasingly as a matter of private rather than public concern.

The new rationalism did not sweep all before it; in fact, it coexisted with a revival of sentimentalism and emotionalism. Until about 1750, Baroque art and music glorified religious feeling and drama, as well as the grandiose pretensions of absolute monarchs. During the French Revolution, romanticism and nationalism implicitly challenged what some saw as the Enlightenment's overemphasis on reason. These Counter-Enlightenment views laid the foundations for new cultural and political values in the 19th century. Overall, intellectual and cultural developments during this period marked a transition in European history to a modern worldview in which rationalism, skepticism, scientific investigation, and a belief in progress generally dominated, although such views did not completely overwhelm other worldviews stemming from religion, nationalism, and romanticism.

- I. Rational and empirical thought challenged traditional values and ideas.  
**(PP-10) (OS-4) (OS-5) (OS-7) (OS-8) (OS-9) (SP-1) (SP-4) (SP-7) (SP-9) (SP-11) (IS-6) (IS-9)**
  - A. Intellectuals such as Voltaire and Diderot began to apply the principles of the scientific revolution to society and human institutions.
 

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of works applying scientific principles to society such as the following:*

    - Montesquieu's *The Spirit of the Laws*
    - Cesare Beccaria's *On Crimes and Punishments*
  - B. Locke and Rousseau developed new political models based on the concept of natural rights.
  - C. Despite the principles of equality espoused by the Enlightenment and the French Revolution, intellectuals such as Rousseau offered new arguments for the exclusion of women from political life, which did not go unchallenged.



*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of individuals who challenged Rousseau’s position on women such as the following:*

- Mary Wollstonecraft
- Olympe de Gouges
- Marquis de Condorcet

II. New public venues and print media popularized Enlightenment ideas. **(INT-7) (OS-2) (OS-5) (OS-6) (OS-8) (SP-10) (SP-12) (IS-3) (IS-9)**

- A. A variety of institutions, such as salons, explored and disseminated Enlightenment culture.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of institutions that broadened the audience for new ideas such as the following:*

- Coffeehouses
- Academies
- Lending libraries
- Masonic lodges

- B. Despite censorship, increasingly numerous and varied printed materials served a growing literate public and led to the development of “public opinion.”

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of such printed materials such as the following:*

- Newspapers
- Periodicals
- Books
- Pamphlets
- The *Encyclopédie*

- C. Natural sciences, literature, and popular culture increasingly exposed Europeans to representations of peoples outside Europe.

III. New political and economic theories challenged absolutism and mercantilism. **(INT-6) (PP-1) (OS-7) (OS-9) (SP-1) (SP-4) (SP-7) (SP-11)**

- A. Political theories, such as John Locke’s, conceived of society as composed of individuals driven by self-interest and argued that the state originated in the consent of the governed (i.e., a social contract) rather than in divine right or tradition.

- B. Mercantilist theory and practice were challenged by new economic ideas, such as Adam Smith's, espousing free trade and a free market.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of proponents of new economic ideas such as the following:*

- Physiocrats
- Francois Quesnay
- Anne Robert Jacques Turgot

- IV. During the Enlightenment, the rational analysis of religious practices led to natural religion and the demand for religious toleration. **(OS-2) (OS-3) (OS-11) (SP-3) (SP-9)**

- A. Intellectuals, including Voltaire and Diderot, developed new philosophies of deism, skepticism, and atheism.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of intellectuals such as the following:*

- David Hume
- Baron d'Holbach

- B. Religion was viewed increasingly as a matter of private rather than public concern.

- C. By 1800 most governments had extended toleration to Christian minorities, and, in some states, civil equality to Jews.

- V. The arts moved from the celebration of religious themes and royal power to an emphasis on private life and the public good. **(PP-1) (OS-10) (SP-1)**

- A. Until about 1750, Baroque art and music promoted religious feeling and was employed by monarchs to glorify state power.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Baroque artists and musicians who promoted religion or glorified monarchy such as the following:*

- Diego Velázquez
- Gian Bernini
- George Frideric Handel
- J.S. Bach

- B. Artistic movements and literature also reflected the outlook and values of commercial and bourgeois society as well as new Enlightenment ideals of political power and citizenship.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of artistic movements that reflected commercial society or Enlightenment ideals such as the following:*

- Dutch painting
- Frans Hals
- Rembrandt
- Jan Vermeer
- Neoclassicism
- Jacques Louis David
- Pantheon in Paris

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of literature that reflected commercial society or Enlightenment ideals such as the following:*

- Daniel Defoe
- Samuel Richardson
- Henry Fielding
- Johann Wolfgang von Goethe
- Jane Austen

- VI. While Enlightenment values dominated the world of European ideas, they were challenged by the revival of public sentiment and feeling. **(OS-7) (OS-10) (OS-12)**
- A. Rousseau questioned the exclusive reliance on reason and emphasized the role of emotions in the moral improvement of self and society.
- B. Revolution, war, and rebellion demonstrated the emotional power of mass politics and nationalism.
- C. Romanticism emerged as a challenge to Enlightenment rationality.

**Key Concept 2.4** The experiences of everyday life were shaped by demographic, environmental, medical, and technological changes.

The legacies of the 16th-century population explosion, which roughly doubled the European population, were social disruptions and demographic disasters that persisted into the 18th century. Volatile weather in the 17th century harmed agricultural production. In some localities, recurring food shortages caused undernourishment that combined with disease to produce periodic spikes in mortality. By the 17th century, the “European marriage pattern,” which limited family size, became the most important check on population levels, although some couples also adopted birth control practices to limit family size. By the middle of the 18th century, better weather, improvements in transportation, new crops and agricultural practices, less epidemic disease, and advances in medicine and hygiene allowed much of Europe to escape from the cycle of famines that had caused repeated demographic disaster. By the end of the 18th century, reductions in child mortality and increases in life expectancy constituted the demographic underpinnings of new attitudes toward children and families.

Particularly in western Europe, the demographic revolution, along with the rise in prosperity, produced advances in material well-being that did not stop with the economic: Greater prosperity was associated with increasing literacy, education, and rich cultural lives (the growth of publishing and libraries, the founding of schools, and the establishment of orchestras, theaters, and museums). By the end of the 18th century, it was evident that a high proportion of Europeans were better fed, healthier, longer lived, and more secure and comfortable in their material well-being than at any previous time in human history. This relative prosperity was balanced by increasing numbers of the poor throughout Europe, who strained charitable resources and alarmed government officials and local communities.

- I. In the 17th century, small landholdings, low-productivity agricultural practices, poor transportation, and adverse weather limited and disrupted the food supply, causing periodic famines. By the 18th century, Europeans began to escape from the Malthusian imbalance between population and the food supply, resulting in steady population growth. **(PP-2) (PP-7)**
  - A. By the middle of the 18th century, higher agricultural productivity and improved transportation increased the food supply, allowing populations to grow and reducing the number of demographic crises (a process known as the Agricultural Revolution).
  - B. In the 18th century, plague disappeared as a major epidemic disease, and inoculation reduced smallpox mortality.

- II. The consumer revolution of the 18th century was shaped by a new concern for privacy, encouraged the purchase of new goods for homes, and created new venues for leisure activities. **(PP-1) (IS-4) (IS-9)**

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of a new concern for privacy such as the following:*

- Homes were built to include private retreats, such as the boudoir
- Novels encouraged a reflection on private emotions

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new consumer goods for homes such as the following:*

- Porcelain dishes
- Cotton and linens for home décor
- Mirrors
- Prints

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new leisure venues such as the following:*

- Coffee houses
- Taverns
- Theaters and opera houses

- III. By the 18th century, family and private life reflected new demographic patterns and the effects of the Commercial Revolution. **(PP-7) (IS-4) (IS-9)**
- A. Though the rate of illegitimate births increased in the 18th century, population growth was limited by the European marriage pattern and, in some areas, by the early practice of birth control.
- B. As infant and child mortality decreased and commercial wealth increased, families dedicated more space and resources to children and child-rearing, as well as private life and comfort.
- IV. Cities offered economic opportunities, which attracted increasing migration from rural areas, transforming urban life and creating challenges for the new urbanites and their families. **(PP-2) (PP-6) (PP-9) (PP-13) (IS-2)**
- A. The Agricultural Revolution produced more food using fewer workers; as a result, people migrated from rural areas to the cities in search of work.

- B. The growth of cities eroded traditional communal values, and city governments strained to provide protection and a healthy environment.
- C. The concentration of the poor in cities led to a greater awareness of poverty, crime, and prostitution as social problems and prompted increased efforts to police marginal groups.

## PERIOD 3: c. 1815 to c. 1914

**Key Concept 3.1** The Industrial Revolution spread from Great Britain to the continent, where the state played a greater role in promoting industry.

The transition from an agricultural to an industrial economy began in Britain in the 18th century, spread to France and Germany between 1850 and 1870, and finally to Russia in the 1890s. The governments of those countries actively supported industrialization. In southern and eastern Europe some pockets of industry developed, surrounded by traditional agrarian economies. Though continental nations sought to borrow from and in some instances imitate the British model — the success of which was represented by the Crystal Palace Exhibition in 1851 — each nation's experience of industrialization was shaped by its own matrix of geographic, social, and political factors. The legacy of the revolution in France, for example, led to a more gradual adoption of mechanization in production, ensuring a more incremental industrialization than was the case in Britain. Despite the creation of a customs union in the 1830s, Germany's lack of political unity hindered its industrial development. However, following unification in 1871, the German Empire quickly came to challenge British dominance in key industries, such as steel, coal, and chemicals.

Beginning in the 1870s, the European economy fluctuated widely because of the vagaries of financial markets. Continental states responded by assisting and protecting the development of national industry in a variety of ways, the most important being protective tariffs, military procurements, and colonial conquests. Key economic stakeholders, such as corporations and industrialists, expected governments to promote economic development by subsidizing ports, transportation, and new inventions; by registering patents and sponsoring education; by encouraging investments and enforcing contracts; and by maintaining order and preventing labor strikes. State intervention reached its culmination in the 20th century, when some governments took over direction of the entire process of industrial development under the pressure of war and depression and/or from ideological commitments.

- I. Great Britain established its industrial dominance through the mechanization of textile production, iron and steel production, and new transportation systems. **(PP-1) (PP-3) (SP-5)**
  - A. Britain's ready supplies of coal, iron ore, and other essential raw materials promoted industrial growth.
  - B. Economic institutions and human capital such as engineers, inventors, and capitalists helped Britain lead the process of industrialization, largely through private initiative.



*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Britain's leadership such as the following:*

- The Crystal Palace at the Great Exhibition of 1851
- Banks
- Government financial awards to inventors

C. Britain's parliamentary government promoted commercial and industrial interests, because those interests were represented in Parliament.

II. Following the British example, industrialization took root in continental Europe, sometimes with state sponsorship. **(PP-1) (PP-3) (SP-5) (IS-3)**

A. France moved toward industrialization at a more gradual pace than Great Britain, with government support and with less dislocation of traditional methods of production.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of government support of industrialization such as the following:*

- Canals
- Railroads
- Trade agreements

B. Industrialization in Prussia allowed that state to become the leader of a unified Germany, which subsequently underwent rapid industrialization under government sponsorship.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of industrialization in Prussia such as the following:*

- Zollverein
- Investment in transportation network
- Adoption of improved methods of manufacturing
- Friedrich List's National System

C. A combination of factors, including geography, lack of resources, the dominance of traditional landed elites, the persistence of serfdom in some areas, and inadequate government sponsorship accounted for eastern and southern Europe's lag in industrial development.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of geographic factors in eastern and southern Europe such as the following:*

- Lack of resources
- Lack of adequate transportation

III. During the Second Industrial Revolution (c. 1870–1914), more areas of Europe experienced industrial activity, and industrial processes increased in scale and complexity. **(INT-4) (INT-6) (PP-1) (PP-3) (PP-4) (PP-7) (SP-5) (SP-10) (IS-3)**

- A. Mechanization and the factory system became the predominant modes of production by 1914.
- B. New technologies and means of communication and transportation — including railroads — resulted in more fully integrated national economies, a higher level of urbanization, and a truly global economic network.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new technologies such as the following:*

- Bessemer process
- Mass production
- Electricity
- Chemicals

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of developments in communication and transportation such as the following:*

- Telegraph
- Steamship
- Streetcars or trolley cars
- Telephones
- Internal combustion engine
- Airplane
- Radio

- C. Volatile business cycles in the last quarter of the 19th century led corporations and governments to try to manage the market through monopolies, banking practices, and tariffs.

**Key Concept 3.2** The experiences of everyday life were shaped by industrialization, depending on the level of industrial development in a particular location.

Industrialization promoted the development of new socioeconomic classes between 1815 and 1914. In highly industrialized areas, such as western and northern Europe, the new economy created new social divisions, leading for the first time to the development of self-conscious economic classes, especially the proletariat and the bourgeoisie. In addition, economic changes led to the rise of trade and industrial unions; benevolent associations; sport clubs; and distinctive class-based cultures of dress, speech, values, and customs. Europe also experienced rapid population growth and urbanization that resulted in benefits as well as social dislocations. The increased population created an enlarged labor force, but in some areas migration from the countryside to the towns and cities led to overcrowding and significant emigration overseas.

Industrialization and urbanization changed the structure and relations of bourgeois and working-class families to varying degrees. Birth control became increasingly common across Europe, and childhood experience changed with the advent of protective legislation, universal schooling, and smaller families. The growth of a “cult of domesticity” established new models of gendered behavior for men and women. Gender roles became more clearly defined as middle-class women withdrew from the workforce. At the same time, working-class women increased their participation as wage-laborers, although the middle class criticized them for neglecting their families.

Industrialization and urbanization also changed people’s conception of time; in particular, work and leisure were increasingly differentiated by means of the imposition of strict work schedules and the separation of the workplace from the home. Increasingly, trade unions assumed responsibility for the social welfare of working-class families, fighting for improved working conditions and shorter hours. Increasing leisure time spurred the development of leisure activities and spaces for bourgeois families. Overall, although inequality and poverty remained significant social problems, the quality of material life improved. For most social groups, the standard of living rose; the availability of consumer products grew; and sanitary standards, medical care, and life expectancy improved.

- I. Industrialization promoted the development of new classes in the industrial regions of Europe. **(PP-6) (IS-2) (IS-5) (IS-7)**
  - A. In industrialized areas of Europe (i.e., western and northern Europe), socioeconomic changes created divisions of labor that led to the development of self-conscious classes, such as the proletariat and the bourgeoisie.
  - B. In some of the less industrialized areas of Europe, the dominance of agricultural elites persisted into the 20th century.

- C. Class identity developed and was reinforced through participation in philanthropic, political, and social associations among the middle classes, and in mutual aid societies and trade unions among the working classes.
- II. Europe experienced rapid population growth and urbanization, leading to social dislocations. **(PP-6) (PP-7) (PP-13)**
- A. Along with better harvests caused in part by the commercialization of agriculture, industrialization promoted population growth, longer life expectancy, and lowered infant mortality.
- B. With migration from rural to urban areas in industrialized regions, cities experienced overcrowding, while affected rural areas suffered declines in available labor as well as weakened communities.
- III. Over time, the Industrial Revolution altered the family structure and relations for bourgeois and working-class families. **(PP-7) (PP-15) (OS-4) (OS-8) (IS-4) (IS-5) (IS-6) (IS-7) (IS-9)**
- A. Bourgeois families became focused on the nuclear family and the “cult of domesticity,” with distinct gender roles for men and women.
- B. By the end of the century, wages and the quality of life for the working class improved because of laws restricting the labor of children and women, social welfare programs, improved diet, and the use of birth control.
- Teachers have flexibility to use examples of laws restricting the labor of children and women such as the following:***

  - Factory Act of 1833
  - Mines Act of 1842
  - Ten Hours Act of 1847
- C. Economic motivations for marriage, while still important for all classes, diminished as the middle-class notion of companionate marriage began to be adopted by the working classes.
- D. Leisure time centered increasingly on the family or small groups, concurrent with the development of activities and spaces to use that time.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of leisure time activities and spaces such as the following:*

- Parks
- Sports clubs and arenas
- Beaches
- Department stores
- Museums
- Theaters
- Opera houses

IV. A heightened consumerism developed as a result of the Second Industrial Revolution. **(PP-1) (PP-4) (IS-3)**

- A. Industrialization and mass marketing increased both the production and demand for a new range of consumer goods — including clothing, processed foods, and labor-saving and leisure.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of mass marketing such as the following:*

- Advertising
- Department stores
- Catalogs

- B. New efficient methods of transportation and other innovations created new industries, improved the distribution of goods, increased consumerism, and enhanced the quality of life.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new efficient methods of transportation and other innovations such as the following:*

- Steamships
- Railroads
- Refrigerated rail cars
- Ice boxes
- Streetcars
- Bicycles

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new industries during the Second Industrial Revolution such as the following:*

- Chemical industry
- Electricity and utilities
- Automobile
- Leisure travel
- Professional and leisure sports

- V. Because of the persistence of primitive agricultural practices and land-owning patterns, some areas of Europe lagged in industrialization, while facing famine, debt, and land shortages. **(PP-3) (IS-10)**

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of primitive agricultural practices and famines such as the following:*

- The “Hungry ’40s”
- Irish Potato Famine
- Russian serfdom

**Key Concept 3.3** The problems of industrialization provoked a range of ideological, governmental, and collective responses.

The French and Industrial Revolutions triggered dramatic political and social consequences and new theories to deal with them. The ideologies engendered by these 19th-century revolutions — conservatism, liberalism, socialism, nationalism, and even romanticism — provided their adherents with coherent views of the world and differing blueprints for change. For example, utopian socialists experimented with communal living as a social and economic response to change. The responses to socioeconomic changes reached a culmination in the revolutions of 1848, but the failure of these uprisings left the issues raised by the economic, political, and social transformations unresolved well into the 20th century.

In the second half of the 19th century, labor leaders in many countries created unions and syndicates to provide the working classes with a collective voice, and these organizations used collective action such as strikes and movements for men’s universal suffrage to reinforce their demands. Feminists and suffragists petitioned and staged public protests to press their demands for similar rights for women. The international movements for socialism, labor, and women’s rights were important examples of a trend toward international cooperation in a variety of causes, including antislavery and peace movements. Finally, political parties emerged as sophisticated vehicles for advocating reform or reacting to changing conditions in the political arena.

Nationalism acted as one of the most powerful engines of political change, inspiring revolutions as well as campaigns by states for national unity or a higher degree of centralization. Early nationalism emphasized shared historical and cultural experiences

that often threatened traditional elites. Over the nineteenth century, leaders recognized the need to promote national unity through economic development and expanding state functions to meet the challenges posed by industry.

- I. Ideologies developed and took root throughout society as a response to industrial and political revolutions. **(PP-8) (PP-10) (PP-14) (OS-4) (OS-8) (OS-9) (OS-10) (OS-12) (SP-1) (SP-3) (SP-4) (SP-7) (SP-9) (SP-11) (SP-17) (IS-5) (IS-6) (IS-7) (IS-9) (IS-10)**

- A. Liberals emphasized popular sovereignty, individual rights, and enlightened self-interest but debated the extent to which all groups in society should actively participate in its governance.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of liberals such as the following:*

- Jeremy Bentham
- Anti-Corn Law League
- John Stuart Mill

- B. Radicals in Britain and republicans on the continent demanded universal male suffrage and full citizenship without regard to wealth and property ownership; some argued that such rights should be extended to women.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of advocates of suffrage such as the following:*

- Chartists
- Flora Tristan

- C. Conservatives developed a new ideology in support of traditional political and religious authorities, which was based on the idea that human nature was not perfectible.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of conservatives such as the following:*

- Edmund Burke
- Joseph de Maistre
- Klemens von Metternich

- D. Socialists called for a fair distribution of society's resources and wealth, and evolved from a utopian to a Marxist "scientific" critique of capitalism.



***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of utopian socialists such as the following:***

- Henri de Saint-Simon
- Charles Fourier
- Robert Owen

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Marxists such as the following:***

- Friedrich Engels
- August Bebel
- Clara Zetkin
- Rosa Luxemburg

- E. Anarchists asserted that all forms of governmental authority were unnecessary, and should be overthrown and replaced with a society based on voluntary cooperation.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of anarchists such as the following:***

- Mikhail Bakunin
- Georges Sorel

- F. Nationalists encouraged loyalty to the nation in a variety of ways, including romantic idealism, liberal reform, political unification, racialism with a concomitant anti-Semitism, and chauvinism justifying national aggrandizement.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of nationalists such as the following:***

- J. G. Fichte
- Grimm Brothers
- Giuseppe Mazzini
- Pan-Slavists

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of anti-Semitism such as the following:***

- Dreyfus Affair
- Christian Social Party in Germany
- Karl Lueger, mayor of Vienna

- G. A form of Jewish nationalism, Zionism, developed in the late 19th century as a response to growing anti-Semitism in both western and eastern Europe.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Zionists such as the following:*

- Theodor Herzl

- II. Governments responded to the problems created or exacerbated by industrialization by expanding their functions and creating modern bureaucratic states. **(PP-6) (PP-13) (PP-15) (OS-8) (SP-1) (SP-5) (IS-3)**

- A. Liberalism shifted from laissez-faire to interventionist economic and social policies on behalf of the less privileged; the policies were based on a rational approach to reform that addressed the impact of the Industrial Revolution on the individual.
- B. Government reforms transformed unhealthy and overcrowded cities by modernizing infrastructure, regulating public health, reforming prisons, and establishing modern police forces.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of modernizing infrastructure such as the following:*

- Sewage and water systems
- Public lighting
- Public housing
- Urban redesign
- Parks
- Public transportation

- C. Governments promoted compulsory public education to advance the goals of public order, nationalism, and economic growth.

- III. Political movements and social organizations responded to the problems of industrialization. **(PP-8) (PP-14) (PP-15) (OS-4) (OS-8) (SP-1) (SP-4) (SP-7) (SP-9) (SP-12) (IS-5) (IS-6) (IS-7) (IS-9)**

- A. Mass-based political parties emerged as sophisticated vehicles for social, economic, and political reform.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of mass-based political parties such as the following:***

- Conservatives and Liberals in Great Britain
- Conservatives and Socialists in France
- Social Democratic Party in Germany

- B. Workers established labor unions and movements promoting social and economic reforms that also developed into political parties.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of political parties representing workers such as the following:***

- German Social Democratic Party
- British Labour Party
- Russian Social Democratic Party

- C. Feminists pressed for legal, economic, and political rights for women, as well as improved working conditions.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of feminists and feminist movements such as the following:***

- Flora Tristan
- British Women's Social and Political Union
- Pankhurst family
- Barbara Smith Bodichon

- D. Various private, nongovernmental reform movements sought to lift up the deserving poor and end serfdom and slavery.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of reform movements and social reformers such as the following:***

- The Sunday School Movement
- The Temperance Movement
- British Abolitionist Movement
- Josephine Butler

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of the deserving poor such as the following:*

- Young prostitutes
- Children
- Women
- Elderly

**Key Concept 3.4** European states struggled to maintain international stability in an age of nationalism and revolutions.

Following a quarter-century of revolutionary upheaval and war spurred by Napoleon’s imperial ambitions, the Great Powers met in Vienna in 1814-15 to re-establish a workable balance of power and suppress liberal and nationalist movements for change. Austrian Foreign Minister Klemens von Metternich led the way in creating an informal security arrangement to resolve international disputes and stem revolution through common action among the Great Powers. Nonetheless, revolutions aimed at liberalization of the political system and national self-determination defined the period from 1815 to 1848.

The revolutions that swept Europe in 1848 were triggered by poor economic conditions, frustration at the slow pace of political change, and unfulfilled nationalist aspirations. At first, revolutionary forces succeeded in establishing regimes dedicated to change or to gaining independence from great-power domination. However, conservative forces, which still controlled the military and bureaucracy, reasserted control. Although the revolutions of 1848 were, as George Macaulay Trevelyn quipped, a “turning point at which modern history failed to turn,” they set the stage for a subsequent sea change in European diplomacy. A new breed of conservative leader, exemplified by Napoleon III of France, co-opted nationalism as a top-down force for the advancement of state power and authoritarian rule in the name of “the people.” Further, the Crimean War (1853–1856), prompted by the decline of the Ottoman Empire, shattered the Concert of Europe established in 1815, and opened the door for the unifications of Italy and Germany. Using the methods of *Realpolitik*, Cavour in Italy and Bismarck in Germany succeeded in unifying their nations after centuries of disunity. Their policies of war, diplomatic intrigue, and, in Bismarck’s instance, manipulation of democratic mechanisms created states with the potential for upsetting the balance of power, particularly in the case of Germany.

Following the Crimean War, Russia undertook a series of internal reforms aimed at achieving industrial modernization. The reforms succeeded in establishing an industrial economy and emboldened Russia’s aspirations in the Balkans. They also led to an active revolutionary movement, which employed political violence and assassinations and was one of the driving forces behind the 1905 Russian Revolution.

After the new German Emperor Wilhelm II dismissed Chancellor Bismarck in 1890, Germany’s diplomatic approach altered significantly, leading to a shift in the alliance system and increased tensions in European diplomacy. Imperial antagonisms, growing nationalism, militarism, and other factors resulted in the development of a rigid system of

alliances. The Great Powers militarized their societies and built up army and naval forces to unprecedented levels (fed by industrial and technological advances), while at the same time developing elaborate plans for the next war. The long-anticipated war finally came in the summer of 1914. The assassination of the heir to the Austrian throne in Sarajevo forced the political leaders of the Great Powers, locked in the rigid structure of the Triple Entente versus the Triple Alliance, to implement war plans that virtually required the escalation of hostilities. The ensuing Great War revealed the flaws in the diplomatic order established after the unifications of Germany and Italy, but more important, it produced an even more challenging diplomatic situation than that faced by the diplomats in 1814-15.

I. The Concert of Europe (or Congress System) sought to maintain the status quo through collective action and adherence to conservatism. **(PP-10) (OS-3) (OS-9) (SP-3) (SP-4) (SP-7) (SP-11) (SP-14) (SP-16) (SP-17) (IS-5)**

- A. Metternich, architect of the Concert of Europe, used it to suppress nationalist and liberal revolutions.
- B. Conservatives re-established control in many European states and attempted to suppress movements for change and, in some areas, to strengthen adherence to religious authorities.
- C. In the first half of the 19th century, revolutionaries attempted to destroy the status quo.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of early 19th-century political revolts such as the following:*

- Greek War of Independence
- Decembrist Revolt in Russia
- Polish Rebellion
- July Revolution in France

D. The revolutions of 1848 challenged the conservative order and led to the breakdown of the Concert of Europe.

II. The breakdown of the Concert of Europe opened the door for movements of national unification in Italy and Germany, as well as liberal reforms elsewhere. **(PP-3) (PP-10) (OS-12) (SP-4) (SP-7) (SP-14) (SP-17) (SP-18)**

- A. The Crimean War demonstrated the weakness of the Ottoman Empire and contributed to the breakdown of the Concert of Europe, thereby creating the conditions in which Italy and Germany could be unified after centuries of fragmentation.

- B. A new breed of conservative leaders, including Napoleon III, Cavour, and Bismarck, co-opted the agenda of nationalists for the purposes of creating or strengthening the state.
- C. The creation of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary, which recognized the political power of the largest ethnic minority, was an attempt to stabilize the state by reconfiguring national unity.
- D. In Russia, autocratic leaders pushed through a program of reform and modernization, which gave rise to revolutionary movements and eventually the Revolution of 1905.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of reformers in Russia such as the following:*

- Alexander II
- Sergei Witte
- Peter Stolypin

III. The unification of Italy and Germany transformed the European balance of power and led to efforts to construct a new diplomatic order. **(SP-13) (SP-14) (SP-17) (SP-18)**

- A. Cavour's *Realpolitik* strategies, combined with the popular Garibaldi's military campaigns, led to the unification of Italy.
- B. Bismarck employed diplomacy, industrialized warfare and weaponry, and the manipulation of democratic mechanisms to unify Germany.
- C. After 1871 Bismarck attempted to maintain the balance of power through a complex system of alliances directed at isolating France.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Bismarck's alliances such as the following:*

- Three Emperors' League
- Triple Alliance
- Reinsurance Treaty

- D. Bismarck's dismissal in 1890 eventually led to a system of mutually antagonistic alliances and heightened international tensions.

- E. Nationalist tensions in the Balkans drew the Great Powers into a series of crises leading up to World War I.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of nationalist tensions in the Balkans such as the following:*

- Congress of Berlin in 1878
- Growing influence of Serbia
- Bosnia-Herzegovina Annexation Crisis, 1908
- First Balkan War
- Second Balkan War

**Key Concept 3.5** A variety of motives and methods led to the intensification of European global control and increased tensions among the Great Powers.

The European imperial outreach of the 19th century was in some ways a continuation of three centuries of colonization, but it also resulted from the economic pressures and necessities of a maturing industrial economy. The new technologies and imperatives of the Second Industrial Revolution (1870–1914) led many European nations to view overseas territories as sources of raw materials and consumer markets. While European colonial empires in the Western hemisphere diminished in size over this period as former colonies gained independence, the region remained dependent on Europe as a source of capital and technological expertise and was a market for European-made goods. European powers also became increasingly dominant in Eastern and Southern Asia in the early 19th century, and a combination of forces created the conditions for a new wave of imperialism there and in Africa later in the century. Moreover, European national rivalries accelerated the expansion of colonialism as governments recognized that actual control of these societies offered economic and strategic advantages. Notions of global destiny and racial superiority fed the drive for empire, and innovations such as antimalarial drugs, machine guns, and gunboats made it feasible. Non-European societies without these modern advantages could not effectively resist European imperial momentum.

The “new imperialism” of the late 19th and early 20th centuries was promoted in European nations by interest groups that included politicians, military officials and soldiers, missionaries, explorers, journalists, and intellectuals. As an example of a new complex phase of imperial diplomacy, the Berlin Conference in 1884–85 outlined the procedures that Europeans should use in the partition of the African continent. By 1914, most of Africa and Asia were under the domination of Great Britain, France, Portugal, Germany, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Notwithstanding the power of colonial administrations, some groups in the colonial societies resisted European imperialism, and by 1914 anticolonial movements had taken root within the non-European world and in Europe itself.



Imperialism exposed Europeans to foreign societies and introduced “exotic” influences into European art and culture. At the same time, millions of Europeans carried their culture abroad, to the Americas and elsewhere, through emigration, and helped to create a variety of mixed cultures around the world.

- I. European nations were driven by economic, political, and cultural motivations in their new imperial ventures in Asia and Africa. **(INT-1) (INT-2) (INT-6) (INT-7) (INT-10) (INT-11) (SP-17) (SP-18) (IS-10)**
  - A. European national rivalries and strategic concerns fostered imperial expansion and competition for colonies.
  - B. The search for raw materials and markets for manufactured goods, as well as strategic and nationalistic considerations, drove Europeans to colonize Africa and Asia, even as European colonies in the Americas broke free politically, if not economically.
  - C. Europeans justified imperialism through an ideology of cultural and racial superiority.
- II. Industrial and technological developments (i.e., the Second Industrial Revolution) facilitated European control of global empires. **(INT-3) (INT-4) (OS-6) (SP-13) (IS-3)**
  - A. The development of advanced weaponry invariably ensured the military superiority of Europeans over colonized areas.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of advanced weaponry such as the following:*

- Minié ball (bullet)
- Breech-loading rifle
- Machine gun

- B. Communication and transportation technologies allowed for the creation of European empires.
- C. Advances in medicine supported European control of Africa and Asia by preserving European lives.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of advances in medicine such as the following:*

- Louis Pasteur's germ theory of disease
- Anesthesia and antiseptics
- Public health projects
- Quinine

III. Imperial endeavors significantly affected society, diplomacy, and culture in Europe and created resistance to foreign control abroad. **(INT-7) (INT-9) (INT-10) (INT-11) (OS-6) (SP-9) (SP-17) (SP-18) (IS-7) (IS-10)**

A. Imperialism created diplomatic tensions among European states that strained alliance systems.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of diplomatic tensions such as the following:*

- Berlin Conference in 1884-85
- Fashoda crisis (1898)
- Moroccan crises (1905, 1911)

B. Imperial encounters with non-European peoples influenced the styles and subject matter of artists and writers and provoked debate over the acquisition of colonies.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of artists and writers and works such as the following:*

- Jules Verne's literature of exploration
- Paul Gauguin and Pablo Picasso's Primitivism
- Vincent Van Gogh and Japanese prints
- Joseph Conrad's *Heart of Darkness*

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of participants in the imperialism debate such as the following:*

- Pan-German League
- J. A. Hobson's and Vladimir Lenin's anti-imperialism

C. As non-Europeans became educated in Western values, they challenged European imperialism through nationalist movements and/or by modernizing their own economies and societies.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of responses to European imperialism such as the following:*

- Indian Congress Party
- Zulu Resistance
- India's Sepoy Mutiny
- China's Boxer Rebellion
- Japan's Meiji Restoration

**Key Concept 3.6** European ideas and culture expressed a tension between objectivity and scientific realism on one hand, and subjectivity and individual expression on the other.

The romantic movement of the early 19th century set the stage for later cultural perspectives by encouraging individuals to cultivate their uniqueness and to trust intuition and emotion as much as reason. Partly in reaction to the Enlightenment, romanticism affirmed the value of sensitivity, imagination, and creativity, and thereby provided a climate for artistic experimentation. Later artistic movements such as Impressionism, Expressionism, and Cubism, which rested on subjective interpretations of reality by the individual artist or writer, arose from the attitudes fostered by romanticism. The sensitivity of artists to non-European traditions that imperialism brought to their attention also can be traced to the romantics' emphasis on the primacy of culture in defining the character of individuals and groups.

In science, Darwin's evolutionary theory raised questions about human nature, and physicists began to challenge the uniformity and regularity of the Newtonian universe. In 1905 Einstein's theory of relativity underscored the position of the observer in defining reality, while the quantum principles of randomness and probability called the objectivity of Newtonian mechanics into question. The emergence of psychology as an independent discipline, separate from philosophy on the one hand and neurology on the other, led to investigations of human behavior that gradually revealed the need for more subtle methods of analysis than those provided by the physical and biological sciences. Freud's investigations into the human psyche suggested the power of irrational motivations and unconscious drives.

Many writers saw humans as governed by spontaneous, irrational forces and believed that intuition and will were as important as reason and science in the search for truth. In art, literature, and science, traditional notions of objective, universal truths and values increasingly shared the stage with a commitment to and recognition of subjectivity, skepticism, and cultural relativism.

- I. Romanticism broke with neoclassical forms of artistic representation and with rationalism, placing more emphasis on intuition and emotion. **(PP-14) (OS-10) (OS-12) (OS-13)**
- A. Romantic artists and composers broke from classical artistic forms to emphasize emotion, nature, individuality, intuition, the supernatural, and national histories in their works.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of romantic artists such as the following:*

- Francisco Goya
- Caspar David Friedrich
- J. M. W. Turner
- John Constable
- Eugène Delacroix

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of romantic composers such as the following:*

- Ludwig van Beethoven
- Frédéric Chopin
- Richard Wagner
- Pyotr Ilich Tchaikovsky

- B. Romantic writers expressed similar themes while responding to the Industrial Revolution and to various political revolutions.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of romantic writers such as the following:*

- Johann Wolfgang von Goethe
- William Wordsworth
- Lord Byron
- Percy Shelley
- John Keats
- Mary Shelley
- Victor Hugo

- II. Following the revolutions of 1848, Europe turned toward a realist and materialist worldview. **(INT-2) (PP-10) (PP-14) (OS-8) (IS-7) (IS-10)**
- A. Positivism, or the philosophy that science alone provides knowledge, emphasized the rational and scientific analysis of nature and human affairs.

- B. Charles Darwin provided a rational and material account of biological change and the development of human beings as a species, and inadvertently a justification for racialist theories known as “Social Darwinism.”
- C. Marx’s “scientific” socialism provided a systematic critique of capitalism and a deterministic analysis of society and historical evolution.
- D. Realist and materialist themes and attitudes influenced art and literature as painters and writers depicted the lives of ordinary people and drew attention to social problems.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of realist artists and authors such as the following:*

- Honoré de Balzac
- Honoré Daumier
- Charles Dickens
- George Eliot
- Gustave Courbet
- Fyodor Dostoevsky
- Jean-Francois Millet
- Leo Tolstoy
- Émile Zola
- Thomas Hardy

III. A new relativism in values and the loss of confidence in the objectivity of knowledge led to modernism in intellectual and cultural life. **(OS-8) (OS-10) (OS-12) (OS-13)**

- A. Philosophy largely moved from rational interpretations of nature and human society to an emphasis on irrationality and impulse, a view that contributed to the belief that conflict and struggle led to progress.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of philosophers who emphasized the irrational such as the following:*

- Friedrich Nietzsche
- Georges Sorel
- Henri Bergson

- B. Freudian psychology provided a new account of human nature that emphasized the role of the irrational and the struggle between the conscious and subconscious.

- C. Developments in the natural sciences such as quantum mechanics and Einstein’s theory of relativity undermined the primacy of Newtonian physics as an objective description of nature.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of scientists who undermined the notion that Newtonian physics provided an objective knowledge of nature such as the following:***

- Max Planck
- Marie and Pierre Curie

- D. Modern art, including Impressionism, Post-Impressionism, and Cubism, moved beyond the representational to the subjective, abstract, and expressive and often provoked audiences that believed that art should reflect shared and idealized values such as beauty and patriotism.

***Teachers have flexibility to use examples of modern artists such as the following:***

- Claude Monet
- Paul Cézanne
- Henri Matisse
- Edgar Degas
- Pablo Picasso
- Vincent Van Gogh

## PERIOD 4: c. 1914 to the Present

**Key Concept 4.1** Total war and political instability in the first half of the 20th century gave way to a polarized state order during the Cold War, and eventually to efforts at transnational union.

European politics and diplomacy in the 20th century were defined by total war and its consequences. World War I destroyed the balance of power, and the Treaty of Versailles, which ended the war, created unstable conditions in which extremist ideologies emerged that challenged liberal democracy and the postwar settlement. In Russia, hardships during World War I gave rise to a revolution in 1917. The newly established, postwar democracies in Central and Eastern Europe were too weak to provide stability either internally or in the European state system, especially during the Great Depression of the 1930s. The League of Nations, established after the war to employ collective security in the interests of peace, could not manage the international tensions unleashed by World War I. The breakdown of the settlement led to World War II, a conflict even more violent than World War I. During this second great war the combatants engaged in wholesale destruction of cities, deliberate attacks on civilians, and the systematic destruction of their enemies' industrial complexes. The Nazi government in Germany undertook the annihilation of Jews from the whole continent (the Holocaust). At the end of the war, the economic and political devastation left a power vacuum that facilitated the Cold War division of Europe.

During the 20th century, European imperialism, power, and sense of superiority reached both their apogee and nadir. In the first half of the century, nations extended their control and influence over most of the non-Western world, often through League of Nations' mandates. The idea of decolonization was born early in the century with the formation of movements seeking rights for indigenous peoples; the material and moral destruction of World War II made the idea a reality. After the war, regions colonized and dominated by European nations moved from resistance to independence at differing rates and with differing consequences. Yet even after decolonization, neocolonial dependency persisted, and millions of people migrated to Europe as its economy recovered from the war. This immigration created large populations of poor and isolated minorities, which occasionally rioted because of discrimination and economic deprivation. As European governments tried to solve these problems, the apparently permanent presence of the immigrants challenged old notions of European identity.

The uneasy alliance between Soviet Russia and the West during World War II gave way after 1945 to a diplomatic, political, and economic confrontation between the democratic, capitalist states of Western Europe allied with the United States and the communist bloc of Eastern Europe dominated by the Soviet Union (also known as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, or USSR). During the ensuing confrontation between East and West, called the Cold War, relations between the two blocs fluctuated, but one consequence of the conflict was that European nations could not act autonomously in international affairs; the superpowers — the Soviet Union and the United States — controlled international relations in Europe.

Nonetheless, the Cold War promoted political and economic unity in Western Europe, leading to the establishment of a succession of ever-more comprehensive organizations for economic cooperation. In 1957, six countries formed the Common Market, which soon began to expand its membership to include other European states. The success of the Common Market inspired Europeans to work toward a closer political and economic unity, including a European executive body and Parliament. The founding of the European Union in 1991 at Maastricht included the agreement to establish the euro as a common currency for qualifying member-states. Following a series of largely peaceful revolutions in 1989, culminating in the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, the formerly communist states of Eastern Europe moved toward democracy and capitalist economies, and over time some of these states joined the European Union. One unforeseen consequence of the end of the Cold War was the re-emergence of nationalist movements *within* states, which led to the Balkan wars in Yugoslavia and tensions among the successor states of the Soviet Union, as well as the rebirth of nationalist political parties in Western Europe.

- I. World War I, caused by a complex interaction of long- and short-term factors, resulted in immense losses and disruptions for both victors and vanquished. **(INT-8) (INT-9) (INT-11) (SP-6) (SP-13) (SP-14) (SP-17) (SP-18) (IS-8)**

- A. A variety of factors — including nationalism, military plans, the alliance system, and imperial competition — turned a regional dispute in the Balkans into World War I.
- B. New technologies confounded traditional military strategies and led to massive troop losses.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new technologies such as the following:*

- Machine gun
- Barbed wire
- Submarine
- Airplane
- Poison Gas
- Tank

- C. The effects of military stalemate and total war led to protest and insurrection in the belligerent nations and eventually to revolutions that changed the international balance of power.
- D. The war in Europe quickly spread to non-European theaters, transforming the war into a global conflict.



*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of non-European theaters of conflict such as the following:*

- Armenian genocide
- Arab revolt against the Turks
- Japanese aggression in the Pacific and on the Chinese mainland

- E. The relationship of Europe to the world shifted significantly with the globalization of the conflict, the emergence of the United States as a world power, and the overthrow of European empires.
- II. The conflicting goals of the peace negotiators in Paris pitted diplomatic idealism against the desire to punish Germany, producing a settlement that satisfied few.  
**(INT-8) (SP-6) (SP-14) (SP-17)**
- A. Wilsonian idealism clashed with postwar realities in both the victorious and the defeated states. Democratic successor states emerged from former empires and eventually succumbed to significant political, economic, and diplomatic crises.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of democratic successor states such as the following:*

- Poland
- Czechoslovakia
- Hungary
- Yugoslavia

- B. The League of Nations, created to prevent future wars, was weakened from the outset by the nonparticipation of major powers, including the United States, Germany, and the Soviet Union.
- C. The Versailles settlement, particularly its provisions on the assignment of guilt and reparations for the war, hindered the German Weimar Republic's ability to establish a stable and legitimate political and economic system.

- III. In the interwar period, fascism, extreme nationalism, racist ideologies, and the failure of appeasement resulted in the catastrophe of World War II, presenting a grave challenge to European civilization. **(SP-6) (SP-8) (SP-13) (SP-14) (SP-17) (IS-7) (IS-10)**
- A. French and British fears of another war, American isolationism, and deep distrust between Western democratic, capitalist nations and the communist Soviet Union allowed fascist states to rearm and expand their territory.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of fascist states' expansion allowed by European powers such as the following:*

- Remilitarization of the Rhineland
- Italian invasion of Ethiopia
- Annexation of Austria
- Munich Agreement and its violation
- Nazi–Soviet Non-Aggression Pact

- B. Germany's *Blitzkrieg* warfare in Europe, combined with Japan's attacks in Asia and the Pacific, brought the Axis powers early victories.
- C. American and British industrial, scientific, and technological power and the all-out military commitment of the USSR contributed critically to the Allied victories.
- D. Fueled by racism and anti-Semitism, German Nazism sought to establish a "new racial order" in Europe, which culminated with the Holocaust.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Nazi establishment of a "new racial order" such as the following:*

- Nuremberg Laws
- Wannsee Conference
- Auschwitz and other death camps

- IV. As World War II ended, a Cold War between the liberal democratic West and the communist East began, lasting nearly half a century. **(INT-8) (INT-9) (INT-11) (PP-5) (SP-5) (SP-13) (SP-14) (SP-17) (SP-19)**
- A. Despite efforts to maintain international cooperation through the newly created United Nations, deep-seated tensions between the USSR and the West led to the division of Europe, which was referred to in the West as the "Iron Curtain."

- B. The Cold War played out on a global stage and involved propaganda campaigns; covert actions; limited “hot wars” in Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean; and an arms race, with the threat of a nuclear war.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of “hot wars” outside of Europe in which the U.S. and the USSR supported opposite sides such as the following:*

- Korean War
- Vietnam War
- The Yom Kippur War
- The Afghanistan War

- C. The United States exerted a strong military, political, and economic influence in Western Europe, leading to the creation of world monetary and trade systems and geopolitical alliances such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of the world monetary and trade system such as the following:*

- International Monetary Fund (IMF)
- World Bank
- General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)
- World Trade Organization (WTO)

- D. Countries east of the “Iron Curtain” came under the military, political, and economic domination of the Soviet Union within the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (COMECON) and the Warsaw Pact.

- E. The collapse of the USSR in 1991 ended the Cold War, and led to the establishment of capitalist economies throughout Eastern Europe. Germany was reunited, the Czechs and the Slovaks parted, Yugoslavia dissolved, and the European Union was enlarged through admission of former Eastern-bloc countries.

- V. In response to the destructive impact of two world wars, European nations began to set aside nationalism in favor of economic and political integration, forming a series of transnational unions that grew in size and scope over the second half of the 20th century. **(PP-5) (SP-5) (SP-17) (SP-19)**

- A. As the economic alliance known as the European Coal and Steel Community, envisioned as a means to spur postwar economic recovery, developed into the European Economic Community (EEC or Common Market) and the

European Union (EU), Europe experienced increasing economic and political integration and efforts to establish a shared European identity.

- B. One of the major continuing challenges to countries in the EU is balancing national sovereignty with the responsibilities of membership in an economic and political union.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of challenges to national sovereignty within the EU such as the following:*

- The creation of the euro
- The creation of a European parliament
- Free movement across borders

- VI. **Nationalist and separatist movements, along with ethnic conflict and ethnic cleansing, periodically disrupted the post–World War II peace. (SP-3) (SP-13) (SP-17) (IS-7) (IS-10)**

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of nationalist violence such as the following:*

- Ireland
- Chechnya

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of separatist movements such as the following:*

- Basque (ETA)
- Flemish

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of ethnic cleansing such as the following:*

- Bosnian Muslims
- Albanian Muslims of Kosovo

- VII. The process of decolonization occurred over the course of the century with varying degrees of cooperation, interference, or resistance from European imperialist states. **(INT-1) (INT-2) (INT-3) (INT-7) (INT-9) (INT-10) (INT-11) (SP-9) (SP-14) (SP-17) (IS-10)**

- A. At the end of World War I, President Woodrow Wilson’s principle of national self-determination raised expectations in the non-European world for freedom from colonial domination, expectations that led to international instability.

- B. The League of Nations distributed former German and Ottoman possessions to France and Great Britain through the mandate system, thereby altering the imperial balance of power, and creating a strategic interest in the Middle East and its oil.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of mandate territories such as the following:*

- Lebanon and Syria
- Iraq
- Palestine

- C. Despite indigenous nationalist movements, independence for many African and Asian territories was delayed until the mid- and even late 20th century by the imperial powers' reluctance to relinquish control, threats of interference from other nations, unstable economic and political systems, and Cold War strategic alignments.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of indigenous nationalist movements such as the following:*

- Indian National Congress
- Algeria's National Liberation Front (FLN)
- Ho Chi Minh's Viet Minh
- Sukarno in Indonesia

**Key Concept 4.2** The stresses of economic collapse and total war engendered internal conflicts within European states and created conflicting conceptions of the relationship between the individual and the state, as demonstrated in the ideological battle among liberal democracy, communism, and fascism.

During World War I, states increased the degree and scope of their authority over their economies, societies, and cultures. The demands of total war required the centralization of power and the regimentation of the lives of citizens. During the war, governments sought to control information and used propaganda to create stronger emotional ties to the nation and its war effort. Ironically, these measures also produced distrust of traditional authorities. At the end of the war, four empires dissolved — the German, Austro-Hungarian, Ottoman, and Russian empires — but the democratic nations that arose in their place lacked a tradition of democratic politics and suffered from weak economies and ethnic tensions. Even before the end of the war, Russia experienced a revolution and civil war that created not only a new state, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (also known as the USSR or Soviet Union), but also a new conception of government and socioeconomic order based on communist ideals.

In Italy and Germany, charismatic leaders led fascist movements to power, seizing control of the post–World War I governments. Fascism promised to solve economic problems through state direction, though not ownership, of production. The movements also promised to counteract the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles by rearming the military and by territorial expansion. The efforts of fascist governments to revise the Treaty of Versailles led to the most violent and destructive war in human history (World War II), a conflict between liberal democracies, temporarily allied with communist Russia, and fascist states. When this conflict ended in the total defeat of fascism, Europe was devastated, and liberal, capitalist democracies faced centrally directed, communist states — the only viable alternatives left.

In the post–World War II period, despite the difference of ideologies, states in both the East and West increased their involvement in their citizens’ lives through the establishment of welfare programs, the expansion of education, regulation and planning of the economy, and the extension of cultural opportunities to all groups in society.

With the collapse of communism and the fall of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s, the liberal democracies of Western Europe celebrated the triumph of their political and economic systems, and many of the former communist states moved for admission into the European Union and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). By the late 1990s, it became evident that the transition from communism to capitalism and democracy was not as simple as it first appeared to be. The West also experienced difficulties because of economic recession and experimented with hybrid economies that emphasized the social responsibility of the state toward its citizens.

- I. The Russian Revolution created a regime based on Marxist–Leninist theory. **(PP-3) (PP-8) (PP-10) (PP-15) (PP-16) (SP-5) (SP-6) (SP-8) (IS-5) (IS-8) (IS-10)**
- A. In Russia, World War I exacerbated long-term problems of political stagnation, social inequality, incomplete industrialization, and food and land distribution, all while creating support for revolutionary change.
- Teachers have flexibility to use examples of revolutionary change in Russia such as the following:*

  - February/March Revolution
  - Petrograd Soviet
- B. Military and worker insurrections, aided by the revived soviets, undermined the Provisional Government and set the stage for Lenin’s long-planned Bolshevik revolution and establishment of a communist state.
- C. The Bolshevik takeover prompted a protracted civil war between communist forces and their opponents, who were aided by foreign powers.

- D. In order to improve economic performance, Lenin compromised with free-market principles under the New Economic Policy, but after his death Stalin undertook a centralized program of rapid economic modernization.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of the Soviet Union's rapid economic modernization such as the following:*

- Collectivization
- Five-Year Plans

- E. Stalin's economic modernization of the Soviet Union came at a high price, including the liquidation of the kulaks, famine in the Ukraine, purges of political rivals, unequal burdens placed on women, and the establishment of an oppressive political system.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of the Soviet Union's oppressive political system such as the following:*

- Great Purges
- Gulags
- Secret police

- II. The ideology of fascism, with roots in the pre–World War I era, gained popularity in an environment of postwar bitterness, the rise of communism, uncertain transitions to democracy, and economic instability. **(PP-8) (PP-11) (OS-9) (OS-12) (SP-6) (SP-8) (SP-10) (SP-14) (SP-17) (IS-8) (IS-10)**
- A. Fascist dictatorships used modern technology and propaganda that rejected democratic institutions, promoted charismatic leaders, and glorified war and nationalism to lure the disillusioned.
- B. Mussolini and Hitler rose to power by exploiting postwar bitterness and economic instability, using terror and manipulating the fledgling and unpopular democracies in their countries.
- C. Franco's alliance with Italian and German fascists in the Spanish Civil War — in which the Western democracies did not intervene — represented a testing ground for World War II and resulted in authoritarian rule in Spain from 1936 to the mid-1970s.
- D. After failures to establish functioning democracies, authoritarian dictatorships took power in Central and Eastern Europe during the interwar period.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of authoritarian dictatorships in Central and Eastern Europe such as the following:*

- Poland
- Hungary
- Romania

III. The Great Depression, caused by weaknesses in international trade and monetary theories and practices, undermined Western European democracies and fomented radical political responses throughout Europe. **(INT-8) (PP-8) (PP-11) (PP-16) (SP-5)**

- A. World War I debt, nationalistic tariff policies, overproduction, depreciated currencies, disrupted trade patterns, and speculation created weaknesses in economies worldwide.
- B. Dependence on post–World War I American investment capital led to financial collapse when, following the 1929 stock market crash, the United States cut off capital flows to Europe.
- C. Despite attempts to rethink economic theories and policies and forge political alliances, Western democracies failed to overcome the Great Depression and were weakened by extremist movements.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new economic theories and policies such as the following:*

- Keynesianism in Britain
- Cooperative social action in Scandinavia
- Popular Front policies in France

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of political alliances such as the following:*

- National government in Britain
- Popular Fronts in France and Spain

IV. Postwar economic growth supported an increase in welfare benefits; however, subsequent economic stagnation led to criticism and limitation of the welfare state. **(INT-6) (INT-8) (PP-1) (PP-5) (PP-13) (PP-15) (SP-5)**

- A. Marshall Plan funds from the United States financed an extensive reconstruction of industry and infrastructure and stimulated an extended



period of growth in Western and Central Europe, often referred to as an “economic miracle,” which increased the economic and cultural importance of consumerism.

- B. The expansion of cradle-to-grave social welfare programs in the aftermath of World War II, accompanied by high taxes, became a contentious domestic political issue as the budgets of European nations came under pressure in the late 20th century.
- V. Eastern European nations were defined by their relationship with the Soviet Union, which oscillated between repression and limited reform, until Mikhail Gorbachev’s policies led to the collapse of communist governments in Eastern Europe and the fall of the Soviet Union. **(PP-12) (PP-15) (SP-5) (SP-9) (SP-14) (SP-17) (SP-19) (IS-10)**
- A. Central and Eastern European nations within the Soviet bloc followed an economic model based on central planning, extensive social welfare, and specialized production among bloc members.
  - B. After 1956, Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev’s de-Stalinization policies failed to meet their economic goals within the Soviet Union and prompted revolts in Eastern Europe.
  - C. Following a long period of economic stagnation, Mikhail Gorbachev’s internal reforms of *perestroika* and *glasnost*, designed to make the Soviet system more flexible, failed to stave off the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of its hegemonic control over Eastern and Central European satellites.
  - D. The rise of new nationalisms in Central and Eastern Europe brought peaceful revolution in most countries, but resulted in war and genocide in the Balkans and instability in some former Soviet republics.

**Key Concept 4.3** During the 20th century, diverse intellectual and cultural movements questioned the existence of objective knowledge, the ability of reason to arrive at truth, and the role of religion in determining moral standards.

The major trend of 20th-century European thought and culture moved from an optimistic view that modern science and technology could solve the problems of humankind to the formation of eclectic and sometimes skeptical movements that doubted the possibility of objective knowledge and of progress. Existentialism, postmodernism, and renewed religiosity challenged the perceived dogmatism of positivist science. While European

society became increasingly secular, religion continued to play a role in the lives of many Europeans. Religious denominations addressed and in some cases incorporated modern ideas, such as the toleration of other religions, as well as scholarship — biblical and scientific — that challenged the veracity of the Bible. The Christian churches made these accommodations as immigration, particularly from Muslim countries, altered the religious landscape, challenging Europe’s traditional Judeo-Christian identity.

After World War I, prewar trends in physics, psychology, and medical science accelerated. In physics, new discoveries and theories challenged the certainties of a Newtonian universe by introducing the ideas of relativity and uncertainty. Psychology, which became an independent field of inquiry at the end of the 19th century, demonstrated that much human behavior stemmed from irrational sources. By the mid-20th century, dramatic new medical technologies prolonged life but created new social, moral, and economic problems. During World War II, the potential dangers of scientific and technological achievements were demonstrated by the industrialization of death in the Holocaust and by the vast destruction wrought by the atomic bombs dropped on Japanese cities. It became clear that science could create weapons powerful enough to end civilization.

The art world in the 20th century was defined by experimentation and subjectivity, which asserted the independence of visual arts from realism. Futurism glorified the machine age; Dadaism satirized traditional aesthetics; and Expressionism and Surrealism explored the relationship between art and the emotions or the unconscious. In the interwar period, the slogan “form follows function” expressed a desire by architects to render the space in which we live and work more efficient. Throughout the century, American culture exerted an increasing pull on both elite and popular culture in Europe.

- I. The widely held belief in progress characteristic of much of 19th-century thought began to break down before World War I; the experience of war intensified a sense of anxiety that permeated many facets of thought and culture, giving way by the century’s end to a plurality of intellectual frameworks. **(PP-11) (PP-14) (OS-8) (OS-10) (IS-8)**
  - A. When World War I began, Europeans were generally confident in the ability of science and technology to address human needs and problems despite the uncertainty created by the new scientific theories and psychology.
  - B. The effects of world war and economic depression undermined this confidence in science and human reason, giving impetus to existentialism and producing postmodernism in the post-1945 period.

II. Science and technology yielded impressive material benefits but also caused immense destruction and posed challenges to objective knowledge. **(PP-4) (OS-8) (SP-1) (SP-13)**

- A. The challenge to the certainties of the Newtonian universe in physics opened the door to uncertainty in other fields by undermining faith in objective knowledge, while also providing the knowledge necessary for the development of nuclear weapons and power.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of physicists such as the following:*

- Werner Heisenberg
- Erwin Schrödinger
- Enrico Fermi
- Niels Bohr

- B. Medical theories and technologies extended life but posed social and moral questions that eluded consensus and crossed religious, political, and philosophical perspectives.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of medical theories and technologies such as the following:*

- Eugenics
- Birth control
- Abortion
- Fertility treatments
- Genetic engineering

- C. Military technologies made possible industrialized warfare, genocide, nuclear proliferation, and the risk of global nuclear war.

III. Organized religion continued to play a role in European social and cultural life, despite the challenges of military and ideological conflict, modern secularism, and rapid social changes. **(INT-7) (INT-11) (OS-3) (OS-11) (SP-3) (IS-10)**

- A. The challenges of totalitarianism and communism in Central and Eastern Europe brought mixed responses from the Christian churches.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of Christian responses to totalitarianism such as the following:*

- Dietrich Bonhoeffer
- Martin Niemöller
- Pope John Paul II
- Solidarity

- B. Reform in the Catholic Church found expression in the Second Vatican Council, which redefined the Church's dogma and practices and started to redefine its relations with other religious communities.
- C. Increased immigration into Europe altered Europe's religious makeup, causing debate and conflict over the role of religion in social and political life.

IV. During the 20th century, the arts were defined by experimentation, self-expression, subjectivity, and the increasing influence of the United States in both elite and popular culture. **(INT-8) (PP-1) (PP-12) (PP-14) (OS-10) (OS-13)**

- A. New movements in the visual arts, architecture and music demolished existing aesthetic standards, explored subconscious and subjective states, and satirized Western society and its values.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new movements in the visual arts such as the following:*

- Cubism
- Futurism
- Dadaism
- Surrealism
- Abstract expressionism
- Pop Art

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new architectural movements such as the following:*

- Bauhaus
- Modernism
- Postmodernism

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new movements in music such as the following:*

- Compositions of Igor Stravinsky
- Compositions of Arnold Schoenberg
- Compositions of Richard Strauss

- B. Throughout the century, a number of writers challenged traditional literary conventions, questioned Western values, and addressed controversial social and political issues.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of writers such as the following:*

- Franz Kafka
- James Joyce
- Erich Maria Remarque
- Virginia Woolf
- Jean-Paul Sartre

- C. Increased imports of United States technology and popular culture after World War II generated both enthusiasm and criticism.

**Key Concept 4.4** Demographic changes, economic growth, total war, disruptions of traditional social patterns, and competing definitions of freedom and justice altered the experiences of everyday life.

The disruptions of two total wars, the reduction of barriers to migration within Europe because of economic integration, globalization, and the arrival of new permanent residents from outside Europe changed the everyday lives of Europeans in significant ways. For the first time, more people lived in cities than in rural communities. Economic growth — though interrupted by repeated wars and economic crises — generally increased standards of living, leisure time (despite the growing number of two-career families), educational attainment, and participation in mass cultural entertainments. The collapse of the birth rate to below replacement levels enhanced the financial well-being of individual families even as it reduced the labor force. To support labor-force participation and encourage families, governments instituted family policies supporting child care and created large-scale guest-worker programs.

Europe's involvement in an increasingly global economy exposed its citizens to new goods, ideas, and practices. Altogether, the disruptions of war and decolonization led to new demographic patterns — a population increase followed by falling birth rates and the immigration of non-Europeans — and to uncertainties about Europeans' cultural identity. Even before the collapse of communism and continuing afterward, a variety of groups on both the left and right began campaigns of terror in the name of ethnic or national autonomy, or in radical opposition to free-market ideology. Other groups worked within the democratic system to achieve nationalist and xenophobic goals.

By the 1960s, the rapid industrialization of the previous century had created significant environmental problems. Environmentalists argued that the unfettered free-market economy could lead Europe to ecological disaster, and they challenged the traditional economic and political establishment with demands for sustainable development sensitive to environmental, aesthetic, and moral constraints. At the same time, a generation that had not experienced either economic depression or total war came of age and criticized existing institutions and beliefs while calling for greater political and personal freedom. These demands culminated with the 1968 youth revolts in Europe's major cities and in challenges to institutional authority structures, especially those of universities.

Feminist movements gained increased participation for women in politics, and before the end of the century several women became heads of government or state. Yet traditional social patterns and institutions continued to hinder the achievement of gender equality. While these internal movements and struggles went on, immigrants from around the globe poured into Europe, and by the end of the century Europeans found themselves living in multiethnic and multireligious communities. Immigrants defied traditional expectations of integration and assimilation and expressed social values different from 20th-century Europeans. Many Europeans refused to consider the newcomers as true members of their society. By the early 21st century, Europeans continued to wrestle with issues of social justice and how to define European identity.

- I. The 20th century was characterized by large-scale suffering brought on by warfare and genocide as well as tremendous improvements in the standard of living. **(INT-6) (PP-1) (PP-4) (PP-5) (SP-10) (IS-3) (IS-7) (IS-8) (IS-10)**
  - A. World War I created a “lost generation,” fostered disillusionment and cynicism, transformed the lives of women, and democratized societies.
  - B. World War II decimated a generation of Russian and German men, virtually destroyed European Jewry, forced large-scale ethnic migrations, and undermined prewar class hierarchies.
  - C. Mass production, new food technologies, and industrial efficiency increased disposable income and created a consumer culture in which greater domestic comforts, such as electricity, indoor plumbing, plastics, and synthetic fibers became available.
  - D. New communication and transportation technologies multiplied the connections across space and time, transforming daily life and contributing to the proliferation of ideas and to globalization.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new communication technologies such as the following:*

- Telephone
- Radio
- Television
- Computer
- Cell phone
- Internet

II. The lives of women were defined by family and work responsibilities, economic changes, and feminism. **(PP-4) (PP-5) (OS-4) (SP-1) (SP-9) (SP-12) (IS-4) (IS-6) (IS-9)**

- A. During the world wars, women became increasingly involved in military and political mobilization, as well as in economic production.
- B. In Western Europe through the efforts of feminists, and in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union through government policy, women finally gained the vote, greater educational opportunities, and access to professional careers, even while continuing to face social inequalities.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of feminists and feminism such as the following:*

- Simone de Beauvoir
- Second Wave Feminism

C. With economic recovery after World War II, the birth rate increased dramatically (the Baby Boom), often promoted by government policies.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of government policies promoting population growth such as the following:*

- Neonatalism
- Subsidies for large families
- Child-care facilities

D. New modes of marriage, partnership, motherhood, divorce, and reproduction gave women more options in their personal lives.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of new modes of managing reproduction such as the following:*

- The pill
- Scientific means of fertilization

- E. Women attained high political office and increased their representation in legislative bodies in many nations.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of women who attained high political office such as the following:*

- Margaret Thatcher of Great Britain
- Mary Robinson of Ireland
- Edith Cresson of France

III. New voices gained prominence in political, intellectual, and social discourse. **(INT-7) (INT-8) (INT-11) (PP-5) (PP-12) (OS-4) (SP-1) (SP-9) (SP-12) (SP-17) (IS-4) (IS-7) (IS-10)**

- A. Green parties in Western and Central Europe challenged consumerism, urged sustainable development, and, by the late 20th century, cautioned against globalization.
- B. Gay and lesbian movements worked for expanded civil rights, obtaining in some nations the right to form civil partnerships with full legal benefits or to marry.
- C. Intellectuals and youth reacted against perceived bourgeois materialism and decadence, most significantly with the revolts of 1968.
- D. Because of the economic growth of the 1950s and 1960s, numerous “guest workers” from southern Europe, Asia, and Africa immigrated to Western and Central Europe; however, after the economic downturn of the 1970s, these workers and their families often became targets of anti-immigrant agitation and extreme nationalist political parties.

*Teachers have flexibility to use examples of anti-immigration, right-wing parties such as the following:*

- French National Front
- Austrian Freedom Party



## IV. The AP European History Exam

### Exam Description

The AP European History Exam consists of four parts, organized as follows:

#### Section 1

Part A: Multiple-choice questions (approximately 50 to 55 questions)

Part B: Short-answer questions (4 questions)

#### Section 2

Part A: Document-based question (1 question)

Part B: Long-essay question (1 question)

Student performance on these four parts will be compiled and weighted to determine an AP Exam score.

The following are general parameters about the relationship between the components of the curriculum framework and the questions that will be asked of students on the AP Exam:

- Student achievement of the thematic learning objectives will be assessed throughout the exam.
- Student use of the historical thinking skills will be assessed throughout the exam.
- Student understanding of all four periods of European history will be assessed throughout the exam.
- Students will always write at least one essay — in either the document-based question or long-essay sections — that examines long-term developments that cross historical time periods.
- The periods will be covered equally on the exam. Coverage of a period may be accomplished by asking questions in different sections of the exam. For example, the appearance of a short-answer question on Period 4 might mean that there are fewer questions addressing that period in the multiple-choice section.

### Multiple-Choice Questions

The multiple-choice section will consist of approximately 50 to 55 questions organized into sets of two to five questions that ask students to respond to stimulus material — a primary or secondary source, a historian’s argument, or a historical problem. Each set of multiple-choice questions will address one or more of the learning objectives for the course. While a set may focus on one particular period of European history, the individual questions within that set may ask students to make connections to thematically linked developments in other periods.

Multiple-choice questions will assess students' ability to reason about the stimulus material **in tandem with** their knowledge of the historical issue at hand. The possible answers for a multiple-choice question will reflect the level of detail present in the required historical developments found in the concept outline for the course. Events and topics contained in the illustrative example lists will **not** appear in multiple-choice questions (unless accompanied by text that fully explains that topic to the student).

## Short-Answer Questions

Short-answer questions will directly address one or more of the thematic learning objectives for the course. Some of the questions will have elements of internal choice, providing opportunities for students to demonstrate what they know best. The short-answer questions will require students to use historical thinking skills to respond to a primary source, a historian's argument, secondary sources such as data or maps, or general propositions about European history. Each question will ask students to identify and analyze examples of historical evidence relevant to the source or question; these examples can be drawn from the concept outline or from other examples explored in-depth in classroom instruction.

## Document-Based Question

The document-based question emphasizes the ability to analyze and synthesize historical data and assess verbal, quantitative, or pictorial materials as historical evidence. The document-based question will be judged on students' ability to formulate a thesis and support it with relevant evidence. The five to seven documents accompanying the document-based question are not confined to a single format, may vary in length, and are chosen to illustrate interactions and complexities within the material. Where suitable, the question material will include charts, graphs, cartoons, and pictures, as well as written materials. In addition to calling upon a broad spectrum of historical skills, the diversity of materials will allow students to assess the value of different sorts of documents. The document-based question will typically require students to relate the documents to a historical period or theme and, thus, to focus on major periods and issues. For this reason, outside knowledge beyond the specific focus of the question is important and must be incorporated into the student's essay to earn the highest scores.

## Long-Essay Question

To provide opportunities for students to demonstrate what they know best, they will be given a choice between two comparable long-essay options. The long-essay questions will measure the use of historical thinking skills to explain and analyze significant issues in European history as defined by the thematic learning objectives. Student essays will require the development of a thesis or argument supported by an analysis of specific, relevant historical evidence. Questions will be limited to topics or examples specifically mentioned in the concept outline but framed to allow student answers to include in-depth examples of large-scale phenomena, either drawn from the concept outline or from topics discussed in the classroom.

# Sample Exam Questions

The sample questions that follow illustrate the relationship between the curriculum framework and the redesigned AP European History Exam, and serve as examples of the types of questions that will appear on the exam.

In the tables that follow each question, the correct answer is provided (for multiple-choice questions), along with the main learning objectives, skills, and key concepts for each question. A question may partially address other learning objectives, skills, or key concepts than those listed, but only the primary ones are listed.

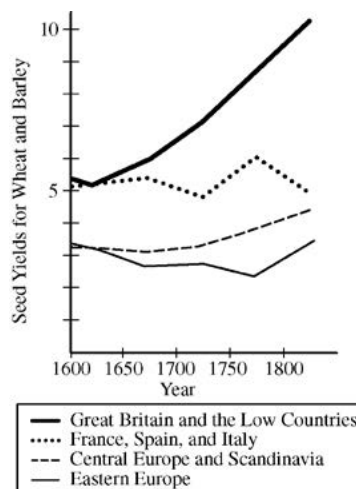
**Exam questions will be subject to further development and piloting prior to the first exam administration in May 2016.** The AP European History Course and Exam Description (to be released in early 2015) will include full and final specifications of the revised exam format, as well as sample questions. Additionally, a full practice exam will be published in 2015.

## Section I: Multiple-Choice Questions

As demonstrated in the following examples, sets will be organized around 3–6 questions that focus on a primary source, secondary source, or other historical issue.

**Set 1:** This graph compares the agricultural output of different European countries and regions from 1600 to 1800. The accompanying questions require students to analyze the graph and apply the data in making comparisons and interpretations.

**Questions 1.1-1.4 are based on the following graph that shows estimated average seed yields\* for wheat and barley in various regions of Europe.**



Source: Norman J. G. Pounds, *A Historical Geography of Europe, Volume II: 1500–1840*, Cambridge University Press, 1979, p. 182.

\*Seed yield (or crop yield) is a ratio of the number of seeds of grain harvested for each seed sown.

- 1.1. The patterns shown on the graph above contributed most directly to which of the following?
- (A) The increasing number of Europeans emigrating to the Americas
  - (B) The early industrialization of Britain and the Low Countries
  - (C) The large size of France’s population
  - (D) The increasing importance of eastern Europe as a grain exporter

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(B)	PP-4 Explain how geographic, economic, social, and political factors affected the pace, nature, and timing of industrialization in western and eastern Europe.	Causation Use of Evidence Interpretation	2.4. IV A (p. 68)

- 1.2. In the late 1700s and early 1800s, liberal political economists in western Europe used information similar to the data shown in the graph to argue that
- (A) governments should require landholders to make agricultural improvements
  - (B) the export of food crops and other agricultural products should be restricted
  - (C) agricultural work had moral and physical benefits that were superior to those of industrial labor
  - (D) abolition of common agricultural land holdings would result in greater agricultural productivity

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(D)	PP-3 Analyze the reasons for the emergence and development of self-interest in economic practice and theory.	Contextualization Use of Evidence	3.3. I A (p. 77)

- 1.3. Apart from the changes in seed yield shown on the graph above, which of the following most affected Europe’s ability to feed itself in the period 1600–1800?
- (A) The creation of large cash-crop plantations in the Americas
  - (B) The cultivation of New World crops in Europe
  - (C) The widespread mechanization of agriculture
  - (D) The decreasing tendency of armies to target civilian populations during wartime

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(B)	INT-5 Evaluate the impact of the Columbian Exchange — the global exchange of goods, plants, animals, and microbes — on Europe’s economy, society, and culture.	Causation	1.4. IV B (p. 49)

1.4. Based on the information in the graph, which of the following regions was most likely to avoid the Malthusian trap concerning food supply and population?

- (A) Great Britain and the Low Countries
- (B) France, Spain, and Italy
- (C) Central Europe and Scandinavia
- (D) Eastern Europe

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(A)	PP-8 Explain how the Agricultural Revolution and industrialization contributed to demographic changes, the organization of manufacturing, and alterations in the family economy.	Use of Evidence	2.4. I A (p. 67)

**Set 2:** In this secondary source, historian Lynn Hunt makes an argument about Marx’s historical interpretation of the French Revolution. The questions that follow require student understanding of the events of and motivations behind the French Revolution. Students must also be able to understand Hunt’s description of the Marxist interpretation of the Revolution as presented in the passage. As a general rule, while students do not need prior knowledge of historiographical debates, they should be prepared to interpret arguments made in secondary sources.

**Questions 2.1 to 2.3 relate to the following passage.**

Marx himself was passionately interested in the history of the French Revolution. . . in all of Marx’s historical writings, the Revolution served as a touchstone; it fostered the development of capitalism by breaking the feudal stranglehold on production, and it brought the bourgeoisie as a class to power. These two, inseparable elements—the establishment of a suitable legal framework for capitalist development and the class struggle won by the bourgeoisie—have characterized Marxist historical accounts of the Revolution ever since. . . In the Marxist account, the Revolution was bourgeois in nature because its origins and outcomes were bourgeois.

Lynn Hunt, historian, *Politics, Culture, and Class in the French Revolution*, 1984

- 2.1. In the passage, Lynn Hunt outlines the Marxist interpretation of the French Revolution. What evidence would support the argument that the Revolution was fundamentally bourgeois?
- (A) The wave of spontaneous peasant attacks on the nobility in 1789
  - (B) The abolition of hereditary privileges by the National Assembly during the first phase of the Revolution
  - (C) The price controls on basic foodstuffs instituted by the Revolutionary government
  - (D) The leading role in the Revolution of members of the nobility, such as the Marquis de Lafayette

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(B)	<p><b>PP-10</b> Explain the role of social inequality in contributing to and affecting the nature of the French Revolution and subsequent revolutions throughout the 19th and 20th centuries.</p> <p><b>IS-5</b> Explain why and how class emerged as a basis for identity and led to conflict in the 19th and 20th centuries.</p>	Historical Argumentation Interpretation	2.1. IV (p. 57) 3.6. II C (p. 89)

- 2.2. A Marxist historian would be LEAST likely to identify which of the following as a fundamental cause of the French Revolution?
- (A) Patterns of land ownership
  - (B) Fluctuations in grain prices
  - (C) Internal trade patterns
  - (D) Enlightenment ideas

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(D)	<p><b>OS-7</b> Analyze how and to what extent the Enlightenment encouraged Europeans to understand human behavior, economic activity, and politics as governed by natural laws.</p> <p><b>SP-4</b> Analyze how new political and economic theories from the 17th century and the Enlightenment challenged absolutism and shaped the development of constitutional states, parliamentary governments, and the concept of individual rights.</p>	Causation Historical Argumentation Interpretation	2.1. IV A (p. 57) 2.3. III A (p. 64) 3.6. II C (p. 89)

- 2.3. In making an argument concerning the fundamental nature of the French Revolution, a Marxist historian would most likely emphasize which of the following?
- (A) The storming of the Bastille by a Parisian mob
  - (B) The requirement that members of the clergy take an oath of loyalty to the new government
  - (C) The persecution of political opponents of the regime during the Reign of Terror
  - (D) The legal protection of property rights in the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(D)	<p><b>PP-10</b> Explain the role of social inequality in contributing to and affecting the nature of the French Revolution and subsequent revolutions throughout the 19th and 20th centuries.</p> <p><b>SP-4</b> Analyze how new political and economic theories from the 17th century and the Enlightenment challenged absolutism and shaped the development of constitutional states, parliamentary governments, and the concept of individual rights.</p>	<p>Historical Argumentation Interpretation</p>	<p>2.1. IV B (p. 58)</p>

**Set 3:** This set of questions, based upon the poem by Sâdullah Pasha, focuses on the tension between traditional and new approaches to knowledge in the context of non-European responses to European imperialism.

**Questions 3.1 to 3.3 relate to the following excerpt from a poem.**

The foundations of old knowledge have collapsed.  
 Wise men have probed the depths of the earth;  
 Treasures of buried strata furnish the proofs of creation.  
 [Religion] is no longer the apex of fulfillment for the intelligent.  
 5 Atlas does not hold up the earth, nor is Aphrodite divine;  
 Plato's wisdom cannot explain the principles of evolution.

‘Amr is no slave of Zayd, nor is Zayd ‘Amr’s master\*—

Law depends upon the principle of equality.

Neither the fame of Arabia, nor the glory of Cairo remains.

- 10 This is the time for progress; the world is a world of science;  
Is it possible to maintain society in ignorance?

Sâdullah Pasha, Ottoman intellectual,  
*The Nineteenth Century*, poem, 1878

\* Zayd and ‘Amr are Muslim names traditionally used in Islamic legal opinions in the generic sense of “John Doe 1” and “John Doe 2.”

- 3.1. Based on the poem, it can be inferred that Sâdullah Pasha was most influenced by which of the following?
- (A) Social Darwinism
  - (B) Positivism
  - (C) Romantic nationalism
  - (D) Abolitionism

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(B)	<p><b>OS-4</b> Explain how a worldview based on science and reason challenged and preserved social order and roles, especially the roles of women.</p> <p><b>OS-8</b> Explain the emergence, spread, and questioning of scientific, technological, and positivist approaches to addressing social problems.</p>	<p>Contextualization</p> <p>Use of Evidence</p>	3.6. II A (p. 88)

- 3.2. The last three lines of the poem best illustrate which of the following aspects of Europe’s relationship with the rest of the world in the late nineteenth century?
- (A) European imperial encroachments provoked a cultural backlash and a rejection of Western values in many areas of Africa and Asia.
  - (B) Colonial subjects began organizing politically to overthrow European rule.
  - (C) Many countries were made dependent on Europe economically and politically through treaties and trade agreements.
  - (D) Adoption of Western ideas caused many non-Western peoples to call for the modernization of their own societies and states.



Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(D)	<p><b>INT-10</b> Explain the extent of and causes for non-Europeans’ adoption of or resistance to European cultural, political, or economic values and institutions, and explain the causes of their reactions.</p> <p><b>INT-11</b> Explain how European expansion and colonization brought non-European societies into global economic, diplomatic, military, and cultural networks.</p>	<p>Historical Argumentation Use of Evidence Continuity and Change</p>	3.5. III C (p. 86)

- 3.3. By the 1920s and 1930s, the ideas concerning science and progress reflected in the poem underwent which of the following transformations?
- (A) The ideas were largely rejected by non-Western leaders as incompatible with indigenous norms and cultures.
  - (B) The ideas were largely supplanted by a revival of religious sentiment in the wake of the First World War.
  - (C) The ideas came to be regarded with suspicion by many European intellectuals in the light of subsequent scientific discoveries and political events.
  - (D) The ideas were regarded with increasing hostility by European intellectuals in the wake of growing anticolonial movements in Asia and Africa.

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(C)	<p><b>OS-8</b> Explain the emergence, spread, and questioning of scientific, technological, and positivist approaches to addressing social problems.</p> <p><b>OS-10</b> Analyze the means by which individualism, subjectivity, and emotion came to be considered a valid source of knowledge.</p> <p><b>OS-13</b> Explain how and why modern artists began to move away from realism and toward abstraction and the nonrational, rejecting traditional aesthetics.</p>	<p>Continuity and Change Use of Evidence Synthesis</p>	<p>3.6. III A (p. 89) 3.6. III B (p. 89) 3.6. III C (p. 90) 3.6. III D (p. 90) 4.3. I B (p. 102)</p>

**Set 4:** This set of questions, centered on the modernist painting by German artist Otto Dix created in the aftermath of World War I, explores the cultural and social impacts of the war on European society.

**Questions 4.1 to 4.3 refer to the 1920 painting by German artist Otto Dix, entitled *The War Cripples*.**



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bpk, Berlin / Bayerische Staatsbibliothek, Munich, Germany / Art Resource, NY

- 4.1. The painting is an example of which of the following developments in modernist European art?
- (A) Artists' turn to dreams and the subconscious as a source of inspiration
  - (B) Artists' abandonment of realistic representation in order to convey internal emotional states
  - (C) Artists' glorification of technological progress in the machine age
  - (D) Artists' exploration of non-European cultures as a source of new subject matters and styles

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(B)	<p><b>OS-13</b> Explain how and why modern artists began to move away from realism and toward abstraction and the nonrational, rejecting traditional aesthetics.</p> <p><b>IS-8</b> Evaluate how the impact of war on civilians has affected loyalty to and respect for the nation-state.</p>	<p>Contextualization</p> <p>Use of Evidence</p>	<p>3.6. III D (p. 90)</p> <p>4.3. IV A (p. 104)</p>

- 4.2. The situation of war veterans such as those depicted in the image was most effectively used to sway public opinion during the interwar period by which of the following groups in Germany?
- (A) Right-wing nationalists critical of government ineffectiveness
  - (B) Pacifists wishing to illustrate the horrors of modern warfare
  - (C) Social Darwinists seeking to illustrate their belief in survival of the fittest
  - (D) Leftists seeking to show how the working classes were oppressed through military recruitment

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(A)	<p><b>SP-6</b> Explain how new ideas of political authority and the failure of diplomacy led to world wars, political revolutions, and the establishment of totalitarian regimes in the 20th century.</p> <p><b>IS-8</b> Evaluate how the impact of war on civilians has affected loyalty to and respect for the nation-state.</p>	<p>Contextualization</p> <p>Use of Evidence</p>	<p>4.2. II B (p. 99)</p> <p>4.4. I A (p. 106)</p>

- 4.3. Otto Dix’s painting is part of the cultural context of
- (A) the dislocation and pessimism of the “lost generation”
  - (B) Christian churches’ response to totalitarianism
  - (C) a confidence in technology’s ability to fix society’s problems
  - (D) a return to traditional modes of artistic expression

Answer	Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
(A)	<p><b>IS-8</b> Evaluate how the impact of war on civilians has affected loyalty to and respect for the nation-state.</p>	<p>Contextualization</p> <p>Use of Evidence</p>	<p>4.4. I A (p. 106)</p>

## Section II: Short-Answer Questions

The following questions are meant to illustrate the types of questions that might appear in this section of the exam. Note that the short-answer questions do not require students to develop and support a thesis statement.

**Question 1:** This question asks students to compare the wars of religion in France with the English Civil War, drawing upon content learned in class that is addressed in learning objectives *Objective Knowledge and Subjective Visions* (OS-3) and *States and Other Institutions of Power* (SP-3).

1. Answer parts A, B, and C.
  - A) Briefly explain ONE important similarity between the wars of religion in France and the English Civil War.
  - B) Briefly explain ONE important difference between the wars of religion in France and the English Civil War.
  - C) Briefly analyze ONE factor that accounts for the difference you identified in part B.

Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
<p><b>OS-3</b> Explain how political revolution and war from the 17th century on altered the role of the church in political and intellectual life and the response of religious authorities and intellectuals to such challenges.</p> <p><b>SP-3</b> Trace the changing relationship between states and ecclesiastical authority and the emergence of the principle of religious toleration.</p>	Continuity and Change Comparison	1.2. III A (p. 43) 1.3. III A (p. 46)

**Question 2:** This question asks students to identify a significant turning point in the development of liberal democracy in Europe from among 4 options, each of which is addressed in learning objectives *States and Other Institutions of Power* (SP-4), (SP-7), and (SP-9) and *Individual and Society* (IS-6). Students must present a relevant piece of evidence that they learned in class to support their choice. Students must provide a plausible explanation but do not need to develop an entire thesis. Students then need to counter one of the other options, again by referencing evidence from the course.

2. Using your knowledge of European history, answer parts A and B below.
 

Historians have proposed various events as turning points in the development of liberal democracy in Europe, including:

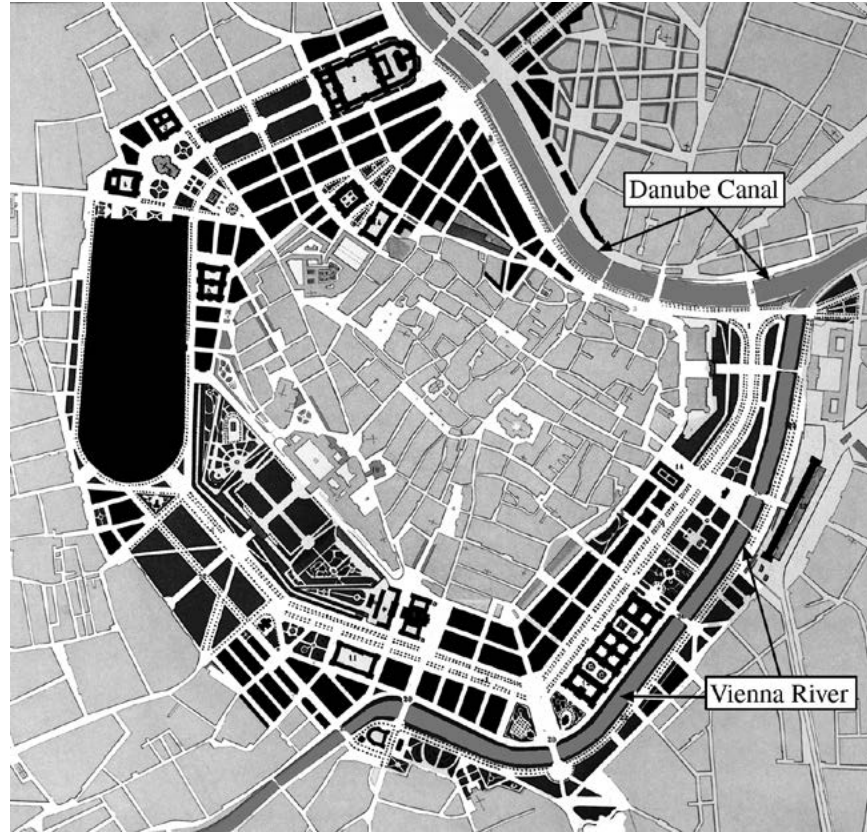
  - The Glorious Revolution

- The French Revolution
  - The emergence of mass political parties in the late nineteenth century
  - The extension of woman suffrage after the First World War
- A) Briefly explain why ONE of the developments on the list above represents the most significant turning point. Provide at least ONE piece of evidence to support your explanation.
- B) Briefly explain why ONE of the other developments on the list above represents a less significant turning point than the one you selected in part A.

Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
<p><b>SP-4</b> Analyze how new political and economic theories from the 17th century and the Enlightenment challenged absolutism and shaped the development of constitutional states, parliamentary governments, and the concept of individual rights.</p> <p><b>SP-7</b> Explain the emergence of representative government as an alternative to absolutism.</p> <p><b>SP-9</b> Analyze how various movements for political and social equality — such as feminism, anticolonialism, and campaigns for immigrants’ rights — pressured governments and redefined citizenship.</p> <p><b>IS-6</b> Evaluate the causes and consequences of persistent tensions between women’s role and status in the private versus the public sphere.</p>	<p>Periodization</p> <p>Comparison</p> <p>Historical</p> <p>Argumentation</p>	<p>2.1. II A (p. 56)</p> <p>2.1. IV B (p. 58)</p> <p>3.3. III A (p. 79)</p> <p>3.3. III C (p. 80)</p> <p>4.4. II B (p. 107)</p>

**Question 3:** This map shows the development and expansion of Vienna, an important European capital city, in the mid-19th century. Students are asked to reflect on the causes that prompted urban redesign, as well as its social impact, using information both from the map and from the relevant learning objectives (*Poverty and Prosperity* (PP-13); and *Objective Knowledge and Subjective Vision* (OS -8), by giving appropriate examples discussed in their course.





3. The map above shows an 1857 project for the construction of new streets and city blocks in the Austrian capital Vienna. The old city is in the middle, bordered by a proposed ring of new boulevards and neighborhoods. Using the map and your knowledge of European history, answer both parts (A and B) of the question below.
- A) Briefly explain TWO features of European city life in the mid-1800s that prompted governments to embark on urban redesign programs such as the one illustrated above.
- B) Briefly explain ONE way urban redesign programs such as the one in Vienna altered European social life.

Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
<p><b>PP-13</b> Analyze how cities and states have attempted to address the problems brought about by economic modernization, such as poverty and famine, through regulating morals, policing marginal populations, and improving public health.</p> <p><b>OS-8</b> Explain the emergence, spread, and questioning of scientific, technological, and positivist approaches to addressing social problems.</p>	<p>Causation Historical Argumentation Use of Evidence</p>	<p>3.2. II B (p. 74) 3.3. II B (p. 79) 3.4. II B (p. 83)</p>

**Question 4:** This question asks students to explain how the primary source — a letter by the wife of a Soviet worker — reflects Soviet economic policy and ideology by drawing on material addressed in learning objectives *Poverty and Prosperity* (PP-8) and (PP-16).

**Question 4 is based on the following letter.**

“Dear Marfa!

We are both wives of locomotive drivers at the steel plant. . . . You are always complaining that your family’s life is difficult. And why is that so? Because your husband does not fulfill the plan. He has frequent breakdowns on his locomotive and he always overconsumes fuel. Indeed, all the other locomotive drivers laugh at him. By contrast, my husband is known as a shock worker.\* He and I are honored everywhere. At the store we get everything without having to wait in lines. We [just] moved to the new building for shock workers. Soon we will get an apartment with rugs, a radio, and other comforts. Now we are being assigned to a new store for shock workers and will receive double rations. . . . Therefore, I ask you, Marfa, to talk to your husband heart to heart. Explain to him that he just can’t go on working the way he has. Teach him to understand the words of comrade Stalin, that work is a matter of honor, valor, and heroism. . . . In conclusion, I’d like to say one thing. It’s pretty good to be the wife of a shock worker.”

Anna Kovaleva, wife of a steel worker at the new Soviet industrial city of Magnitogorsk, late 1930s

\*a Soviet term for an exemplary worker who routinely exceeds production quotas

4. Answer both parts (A and B) below.

A) Explain ONE Soviet economic policy that is reflected in the letter.

B) Explain TWO ways in which the letter reflects Soviet ideology.

Learning Objectives	Historical Thinking Skills	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
<p><b>PP-8</b> Analyze socialist, communist, and fascist efforts to develop responses to capitalism and why these efforts gained support during times of economic crisis.</p> <p><b>PP-16</b> Analyze how democratic, authoritarian, and totalitarian governments of the left and right attempted to overcome the financial crises of the 1920s and 1930s.</p>	<p>Causation Contextualization Historical Argumentation</p>	<p>4.2. I D (p. 99) 4.2. I E (p. 99) 4.4. II B (p. 107)</p>

## Section III: Document-Based Question

For this question, the main historical thinking skill being assessed is **continuity and change over time**; in employing this skill, students will also be using the skill of **causation**. Other document-based questions may focus on other skills. The learning objectives addressed in the example document-based question are from the Individual and Society theme (IS-6, 8, and 9). Each document-based question will also always assess the historical thinking skills of **argumentation, use of evidence, contextualization** and **synthesis**. The directions to students will explain the discrete tasks necessary to score well on this question.

Learning Objectives	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
IS-6 Evaluate the causes and consequences of persistent tensions between women's role and status in the private versus the public sphere.	4.4. II A and B (p. 107)
IS-8 Evaluate how the impact of war on civilians has affected loyalty to and respect for the nation-state.	
IS-9 Assess the extent to which women participated in and benefited from the shifting values of European society from the 15th century onwards.	

**Directions:** *The following question is based on the accompanying Documents 1–7. The documents have been edited for the purpose of this exercise. This question is designed to test your ability to apply several historical-thinking skills simultaneously, including historical argumentation, use of relevant historical evidence, contextualization, and synthesis. Your response should be based on your analysis of the documents and your knowledge of the topic.*

*Write a well-integrated essay that does the following:*

- *States an appropriate thesis that directly addresses all parts of the question.*
- *Supports the thesis or an appropriate argument with evidence from all or all but one of the documents AND your knowledge of European history beyond/outside the documents.*
- *Analyzes a majority of the documents in terms of such features as their intended audience, purpose, point of view, format, argument, limitations, and/or social context as appropriate to the argument.*
- *Places the argument in the context of broader regional, national, or global processes.*

**Question 1.** Evaluate the extent to which the experience of war altered the lives of European women during the First World War and its immediate aftermath.



### Document 1

Source: “Votes for Heroines as well as Heroes,” cover illustration, Votes for Women, weekly magazine, November 26, 1915.



© Mary Evans Picture Library / The Women's Library @ LSE

[CHIVALRY, looking at British Prime Minister H. H. Asquith]:

“Men and women protect one another in the hour of death.\* With the addition of the woman's vote, they would be able to protect one another in life as well.”

\* a reference to the November 17, 1915, sinking of the British hospital ship Anglia, many of whose female nurses died asking that the wounded soldiers onboard be rescued first

**Document 2**

Source: Paul von Hindenburg, Chief of the German General Staff, letter to German Chancellor Bethmann Hollweg, 1916.

It is also my opinion that women's work should not be overestimated. Almost all intellectual work, heavy physical labor, as well as all real manufacturing work will still fall on men—in addition to the entire waging of the war. It would be good if clear, official expression were given to these facts and if a stop were put to women's agitation for parity in all professions, and thereby, of course, for political emancipation. . . . After the war, we will still need the woman as spouse and mother. I thus strongly support those measures, enacted through law, prerogative, material aid, etc., aimed at that effect. In spite of the strong opposition to such measures, it is here that vigorous action needs to be taken in order to extinguish the influence of this female rivalry, which disrupts the family. . . . If I nevertheless urge that the requirement to work be extended to all women who are either unemployed or working in trivial positions, now and for the duration of the war, I do so because, in my opinion, women can be employed in many areas to a still greater degree than previously and men can thereby be freed for other work.

© Ute Daniel & Transl. Margaret Ries, 1997, *The War from Within: German Working-Class Women in the First World War*, Berg, an imprint of Bloomsbury Publishing Plc.

**Document 3**

Source: Countess de Courson, French author, *The French Woman during the War*, 1916.

The task of the peasant woman is heavy, and for the past eighteen months they have accomplished it admirably, although perhaps today with a little more lassitude. In 1914, some of the field work was completed by the men before they left for war, by the young soldiers of the class of 1915 . . . who were still there to do their fair share of the work. The summer of 1915 was more difficult to get through; the mourning, the deep anxiety pressed on these peasant women, many of them knowing today that the empty places at the hearth will stay that way forever. Despite the crushing weight of physical and emotional fatigue, they continued, with few exceptions, to face up to the necessities of the war.

### Document 4

Source: Madeline Ida Bedford, English middle-class poet writing in the voice of a working-class woman, 1917,

#### Munition Wages

Earning high wages?  
Yes, five pounds\* a week.  
A woman, too, mind you,  
I calls it damn sweet.

You're asking some questions—  
But bless you, here goes:  
I spends the whole racket  
On good times and clothes.

We're all here today, mate,  
Tomorrow—perhaps dead,  
If Fate tumbles on us  
And blows up our shed.

Afraid! Are you kidding?  
With money to spend!  
Years back I wore tatters,  
Now—silk stockings my friend!

Worth while, for tomorrow  
If I'm blown to the sky,  
I'll have repaid my wages  
In death—and pass by.

\*British currency

### Document 5

Source: Private G. F. Wilby, British frontline soldier, letter to his fiancée, Ethel Baxter, 1918.

Whatever you do, don't go in Munitions [manufacturing] or anything in that line—just fill a Woman's position and remain a woman—don't develop into one of those "things" that are doing men's work, as I told you in one of my letters, long ago. I want to return and find the same loveable little woman that I left behind—not a coarse thing more of a man than a woman—I love you because of your womanly little ways and nature, so don't spoil yourself by carrying on with a man's work—it's not necessary.

**Document 6**

Source: Maria Botchkareva - Yashka, Russian woman soldier, *My Life as Peasant, Officer and Exile*, memoir, 1919

The Colonel gave the signal. But the men on my right and to the left of Captain Petrov would not move. They replied to the Colonel's order with questions and expressions of doubts as to the wisdom of advancing.

The cowards!

We decided to advance in order to shame the men, having arrived at the conclusion that they would not let us perish in No Man's Land. . . . Some of my girls were killed outright, many were wounded. . . . We swept forward and overwhelmed the first German line, and then the second . . . our regiment alone captured two thousand prisoners.

**Document 7**

Source: Women as percentage of the industrial workforce in France, 1911–1926.

Date	1911	1914*	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1926
	34.0%	31.9%	40.1%	40.0%	40.4%	40.3%	36.4%	32.0%	31.7%	28.6%
*as of July 1914										

## Section IV: Long-Essay Question

In this section students will choose between one of two long-essay questions. The following questions are meant to illustrate an example of a question pairing that might appear in this section of the exam, in which both questions focus on the same historical thinking skill (in this case, **Periodization**) but apply it to different time periods and/or topics. Therefore, the question pairing allows the student to make a choice concerning which time period and historical perspective the student is best prepared to write about.

**Questions 1-2:** This question asks students to make an argument justifying the significance of a particular event in European History, in this case the revolutions of 1848 or the collapse of the Soviet Union in the years 1989–91. This question requires students to consider different ways of periodizing European history, analyzing whether these events served as turning points. In both cases, students should support their thesis by referring to the historical evidence addressed in class to illustrate the learning objectives associated with each question. Unlike the short-answer questions, in the essay students will need to have a thesis that they support with relevant examples.

1. Analyze whether or not the revolutions of 1848 can be considered a turning point in European political and social history.

Learning Objectives	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
<p><b>SP-4</b> Analyze how new political and economic theories from the 17th century and the Enlightenment challenged absolutism and shaped the development of constitutional states, parliamentary governments, and the concept of individual rights.</p>	<p>3.3. I (p. 77) 3.4. I and II (p. 82) 3.6. II (p. 88)</p>
<p><b>SP-17</b> Explain the role of nationalism in altering the European balance of power, and explain attempts made to limit nationalism as a means to ensure continental stability.</p>	
<p><b>OS-8</b> Explain the emergence, spread, and questioning of scientific, technological, and positivist approaches to addressing social problems.</p>	
<p><b>PP-10</b> Explain the role of social inequality in contributing to and affecting the nature of the French Revolution and subsequent revolutions throughout the 19th and 20th centuries.</p>	

2. Analyze whether or not the collapse of communism (1989–91) can be considered a turning point in European economic and political history

Learning Objectives	Key Concepts in the Curriculum Framework
<p><b>SP-19</b> Explain the ways in which the Common Market and collapse of the Soviet Empire changed the political balance of power, the status of the nation-state, and global political alliances.</p> <p><b>PP-5</b> Analyze the origins, characteristics, and effects of the post–World War II “economic miracle” and the economic integration of Europe (the Euro zone).</p> <p><b>PP-12</b> Evaluate how the expansion of a global consumer economy after World War II served as a catalyst to opposition movements in Eastern and Western Europe.</p>	<p>4.1. IV and V (p. 94, 95) 4.2. IV and V (p. 100, 101)</p>

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