Chapter 15

Grade Ten – World History, Culture, and Geography: The Modern World

- How did ideas associated with the Enlightenment, the Scientific Revolution, the Age of Reason, and a variety of democratic revolutions develop and impact civil society?
- Why did imperial powers seek to expand their empires? How did colonies respond? What were the legacies of these conquests?
- Why was the modern period defined by global conflict and cooperation, economic growth and collapse, and global independence and connection?

The more than two hundred and fifty year period covered by the tenth-grade course highlights the intensification of a truly global history as people, products, diseases, knowledge, and ideas spread around the world as never before. The course begins with a turning point: the important transition in European systems of governance from divine monarch to a modern definition of a nation-state organized around principles of the Enlightenment. The course ends with the present, providing ample opportunities for teachers to make connections to the globalized world in which students live. As students move through the years 1750 through the present they consider how a modern system of communication and exchange drew peoples of the world into an increasingly complex network of relationships in which Europe and the United States exerted great military and

economic power. They explore how people, goods, ideas, and capital traveled throughout and between Asia, Africa, the Americas, and Europe. They analyze the results of these exchanges. The ability to see connections between events and larger social, economic, and political trends may be developed by having students consider the most fundamental changes of the era:

- The intensification of the movement toward a global market aided by rapid transportation of goods around the world, powerful international financial institutions, and instantaneous communication
- The emergence of industrial production as the dominant economic force that shaped the world economy and created a related culture of consumption
- Increasing human impact on the natural and physical environment through the growth in world population, especially urban settings where populations engaged in mass consumption through mechanical and chemical developments related to the Industrial Revolution
- Imperial expansion across the globe and the growth of nation-states as the most common form of political organization
- The application of industrial technology and scientific advancements to the development of mechanized warfare, which drew millions of people into the experience of “total war”
- The conflict between economic and political systems that defined the post-World War II period

- The emergence of ideas of universal rights and popular sovereignty for all individuals, regardless of gender, class, religion, or race, which spread around the world

The content covered in grade ten is expansive, and the discipline-specific skills that are to be taught are equally demanding. In order to highlight significant developments, trends, and events, teachers should use framing questions around which their curriculum may be organized. Organizing content around questions of historical significance allows students to develop certain content areas in great depth. Framing questions also allow teachers the leeway to prioritize their content and highlight particular skills through students' investigations of the past. Moreover, through an in-depth study of individual events and people, students can trace the development of even larger themes, such as the quest for liberty and justice, the influence and redefinition of national identity, and the rights and responsibilities of individual citizens. Questions that can frame the year-long content for tenth grade include: **How did ideas associated with the Enlightenment, the Scientific Revolution, the Age of Reason, and a variety of democratic revolutions develop and impact civil society? Why did imperial powers seek to expand their empires? How did colonies respond? What were the legacies of these conquests? Why was the modern period defined by global conflict and cooperation, economic growth and collapse, and global independence and connection?**

As students learn about modern world history, they should be encouraged to develop reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills that will enhance their

understanding of the content. As in earlier grades, students should be taught that history is an investigative discipline, one that is continually reshaped based on primary source research and on new perspectives that can be uncovered. Students should be encouraged to read multiple primary and secondary documents; to understand multiple perspectives; to learn about how some things change over time and others tend not to; and they should appreciate that each historical era has its own context and it is up to the student of history to make sense of the past on these terms and by asking questions about it.

The World in 1750

- How were most societies organized in the 1700s?
- Who held power in the 1700s? Why?
- What was the divine right of kings?

Students begin tenth grade world history with a survey of the world in 1750. This question can frame students' initial explorations: **How were most societies organized in the 1700s?** Students analyze maps of the gunpowder empires (Qing China, Mughal India, Ottoman Empire, Safavid Persia, Spain, France, England), trade routes (Atlantic World, Pacific/Indian Ocean, and world trade systems), and colonies. The teacher explains that in 1750, people were living in the very end of the pre-modern world. Although there had been many differences in peoples' experiences depending on their location, culture, and language, there were certain broad patterns that were present in most states and empires. Most states and empires were ruled by one leader, called a king, tsar, sultan, emperor,

shah, or prince. Students can consider the comparative question: **Who held power in the 1700s? Why?** This ruler was usually, but not always, a man who came from a dynasty, a family of rulers. Dynasties changed all the time, when kings were defeated and overthrown, but the winners would then set up a new dynasty under one leader. The tsar or sultan got his legitimacy from his birth into the royal family and the support of religious and political elites. Most emperors claimed that they had been chosen or blessed by divine power, and that they ruled on behalf of God to keep order and justice in the society. The question **What was the divine right of kings?** helps students consider the construction of monarchial governments and societies.

Besides the royal family, there were elite groups in that society who had political, military, or religious power, and owned wealth and land. These elite groups went by different names in each state or empire, such as nobles and scholar-officials, but they had privileges, that is, special rights that ordinary people did not have. Often elite status was based on birth. There weren't many elites, either, as they were about three to five percent of the population. Below the elite groups, there was a small middle class. But the majority of people in the world worked as farmers and had very little wealth or material possessions, no education, and no political power. The reason that this poor farmers group was so large was because of the limits of energy, power sources, and technology in the pre-modern world. Ninety percent of the people had to work full-time at farming, spinning thread for cloth, and other repetitive manual jobs to produce food, clothing and shelter for everyone. The only power sources were human,

animal, wind, and water. There was only enough surplus in the society for a small percentage of people to have more than basic food, clothing, and shelter.

Dynasties and elite groups defended their power, wealth, and privilege through customs of social order, force and propaganda. They usually resisted giving power to lower social groups, for fear that the nobles or other elites would lose their wealth and privileges. In all societies, customs of social order were hierarchical, meaning that people were unequal. Some people were higher and better than ordinary people.

Grade Ten Classroom Example: The Divine Monarch

Ms. Lee's tenth grade class is learning about the divine monarch by focusing on one key 1610 speech that King James I delivered to Parliament. Ms. Lee has excerpted this speech (she found it by searching online for King James I's "Speech to Parliament" and locates portion that begins with the phrase, "The state of Monarchy is the supremest thing upon earth…" and continues for the next three paragraphs) because it illustrates the way in which kings were perceived to be divinely inspired, and thus their power was understood to be god-like. She has also selected this speech because it clearly lays out the central claim and supporting details of why King James I felt this way. Ms. Lee begins her lesson by telling her students that they will be investigating the question: **How did King James I argue that kings are like gods?** After providing her students with very brief background information about when and how James came to power, Ms. Lee presents the primary source to her students. She tells

her students that this is a relatively straight-forward primary source because King James I makes a claim, he supports his claims with reasons, and he offers evidence for his reasons and central claim (in much the same way her students would make a claim in an essay). She directs her students to read through the speech a couple of times, making annotations as they find different claims King James I makes. As they read the speech a first time, Ms. Lee's students read for the broad claims. As they read it a second time, Ms. Lee tells her students to work on filling in the graphic organizer she has created. The graphic contains boxes for which students are directed to fill in the following information: 1) the central claim made by James I; 2) the reasons he uses to support his central claim; 3) the evidence he provides to illustrate his reasons; 4) the flaw in his reasons. After Ms. Lee's students complete the graphic, she facilitates table then whole-class discussions to confirm that the students understand the way in which King James I constructs his argument, and that his central flaw lies in his central claim. Ms. Lee then asks her students to work in pairs to construct a paragraph response to the central question: **How did King James I argue that kings are like gods?**

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.1, 2, 5, 8, WHST.9–10.2, 7, 9

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.9–10.6b, 7, 8, 11a; ELD.PII.9–10.1

1750-1917: Revolutions Reshape the World

Democratic Revolutions

- How were enlightened ideas a break from the past?

- How did the "social contract" affect ordinary people?
- Why did civic reformers argue for representative governments?
- What are individual or natural rights? Who received those rights in the eighteenth century?
- What were the consequences of trying to implement political revolutionary ideas in Europe, Latin America, and North America?
- How do the French, American, and Haitian Revolutions compare to one another?
- How is national identity constructed?

The eighteenth century witnessed the development of two revolutionary trends that ultimately influenced the world in ways that are still felt today: political and industrial revolutions. Before students learn about the on-the-ground experiences and consequences of these two revolutions, they should learn about the ideas that gave rise to them. Political revolutionary ideals were rooted in notions of Athenian democracy, English constitutional laws, the Enlightenment, and other traditions of European political thought, and they emphasize the rule of law, reason, individual rights, republicanism, and citizenship. These concepts are abstract, and the primary sources that illustrate these concepts are dense and challenging for students to navigate. When possible, teachers should try to introduce brief excerpted primary sources or secondary sources that convey meaning in a direct way. Even though principles of political revolutions are challenging to navigate, students should learn the ideas that guided much of

modern history before they proceed to learn about the reality and put them into a comparative context.

The eighteenth-century revolutionary ideas, which influenced much of the world in the modern period, had its origins in Judeo-Christian culture and Greco-Roman philosophy. Both Jewish and Christian scriptures informed ethical beliefs, while Greek philosophers like Plato and Aristotle were concerned with the establishment of the rule of law to prevent tyranny. Roman legal philosophy built on Greek ideas of citizenship—defined as the exercise of one's talents in the service of the civic community— as necessary to protect the authority of the state. However, authoritarian ideas, such as divine right of kings, the privileged status of nobles and clergy, and rule by elite groups, were also traditional concepts drawing on ancient ideas and practices. In the 1700s, authoritarian institutions and ideas governed every state and empire, and to Europeans in that time, the revolutionary ideas were quite new. This question can frame students' understanding of political revolutionary ideas: **How were enlightened ideas a break from the past?** In order for students to understand the significance of concepts like "the rule of law," "citizenship," "reason," "liberty," and "property," for example, teachers should present them as a dramatic break from the past. As students have just finished learning about the seeming divine power of monarchs, they can begin to see how sharply the new ways of learning and thinking were substantially different. Thus, there is a key tension for teachers: emphasizing what a big break from the past these ideas are, but reminding students that the ideas are rooted in ancient societies. The ideas of equality,

representation, and rights were so inspiring to people because they emerged in a world dominated by hierarchy, inequality, and lack of representation and rights.

Political revolutionary ideas were advocated by civic reformers. Some of the most noted civic reformers were John Locke, Thomas Hobbes, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Charles-Louis Montesquieu and Adam Smith. These men and other enlightenment thinkers developed the notion of the social contract. Students can consider this question as they investigate the abstract ideas of political revolutionaries: **How did the "social contract" affect ordinary people?** The social contract was an idea that stated there should be an agreement among members of a society to cooperate for mutual social benefits in pursuit of an ordered society. Key components of the social contract that students should learn about are that men have natural rights to life, liberty, and property. Although some of these natural rights were not entirely new, before they had been applied to only certain privileged classes; civic reformers, however, advocated that all citizens have rights such as equality before law. Students can investigate the questions **What are individual or natural rights? Who received those rights in the eighteenth century?** as they trace political revolutionary ideas In addition, by comparing the language employed by leading revolutionary writers, such as John Locke (whose *Two Treatises of Government* will help students understand the connection between the enlightenment and revolutions), Thomas Jefferson (whose words from the American Declaration of Independence will prove useful), James Madison (whose Virginia Plan at the Constitutional Convention will be useful in teaching students about distribution of power), Mary Wollstonecraft

(whose *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* will provide powerful arguments about women's rights), and Adam Smith whose *Wealth of Nations* provided the foundation for a market economy and the rights or individuals in that economy, students can compare the proposals that each contributed to these crucial philosophical and political developments. Once students have been introduced to these principles and understand how dramatically different they were from most Europeans' recent past, teachers might have students creatively explain their understanding of the social contract by creating political cartoons, performing an original skit, or writing a short fictional story to illustrate the main components of the contract.

Students also learn that the social contract, and especially the notion of natural rights, gave rise to newer ideas about the purpose of government. This question can frame students' understanding about the relationship between natural rights and government: **Why did civic reformers argue for representative governments?** Civic reformers argued that the people should be the basis of government, and that men create governments to protect natural rights. They argued that these rights were inherent in human beings and that it was through the social contract that individuals ceded certain of their inherent rights to the government in return for common benefits such as security, economic regulation, accomplishment of common purposes, etc. Civic reformers' concern for personal liberty and their suspicions about the dangers of tyranny led them to argue for a separation of powers and embrace representative governments of limited power as the ideal form of political organization. As a

foreshadowing of the consequences of these ideas, an extension of this new purpose of government is the notion that if this new republican form of government does not protect individuals' natural rights, then the people have a right to overthrow that government and create a new one in its place.

Grade Ten Classroom Example: Connecting Ancient Philosophies with Political Revolutionary Principles

Ms. Davis' tenth grade class is in the middle of its political revolution unit. Using the free lesson, *Tyranny and the Rule of Law*, from the California History-Social Science Project, she asks her students to consider the unit question: **How did tyranny and the rule of law influence revolutionaries?** She has provided her students with several primary sources, including writings from Rousseau as well as excerpts from Plato's *The Republic* and Aristotle's *Politics.* She wants her students to understand how ancient philosophers impacted political revolutionary principles in the 1700s, so she presents them with this secondary text activity. She directs her students to read the directions closely, and to make annotations in the text accordingly.

Following the lesson's directions, Ms. Davis directs her students to read a secondary source, *Ancient Philosophers and the American Revolution*, which provides an overview of the impact of the writing of ancient philosophers upon the political revolutionaries. Specifically, it outlines some of the criticisms that political revolutionaries among the American Colonists had against the British Monarch (King or Queen) and how the ideas of writers like Plato and Aristotle

resonated with American leaders like Thomas Jefferson. Ms. Davis directs her students to put a check in the left margin when they identified an explanation of the criticism of monarchs and tyranny, and in the right margin, to put an x where they see an explanation of the rule of law. In their groups, students are then asked to discuss where they placed check marks and Xs, and explain how these sections help define tyranny and the rule of law. After sharing with their tablemates, Ms. Davis directs her students to review their choices again; making changes as necessary.

At the end of this activity, Ms. Davis asks her students to work in groups and develop brief presentations for the class that address the original question by making claims rooted in the various texts they have read: **How did tyranny and the rule of law influence revolutionaries?**

Source: Excerpted from "Tyranny and the Rule of Law," *Curriculum to Support California's implementation of the Common Core and English Language Development Standards.* California History-Social Science Project. Copyright © 2014, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus. For more information or to download the free curriculum: http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/el-support.

CA HSS Content Standards: 10.1.2. 10.2.1

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9-12): Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4; Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.1, 5, 6, 8, SL.9–10.1, 4

CA ELD Standards: ELD.P1.9–10.1, 6a, 7, 8, 9, 11a; ELD.PII.9–10.1

With an understanding of the political revolutionary ideas, students can begin to learn about the realities that developed from them. **What were the consequences of trying to implement political revolutionary ideas in Europe, Latin America, and North America?** Political revolutions erupted in North America, Europe, and Latin America in the eighteenth century. Leaders of all of the revolutions espoused liberal, democratic, and constitutional ideologies. In most cases, these leaders were from the bourgeoisie, or middle-class; this group was distinct because it was not from the nobility, it tended to not hold power, and it was educated. While the aims of these revolutions were realized only partially, their ideas spread throughout the world, inspiring reforms and revolutions across the globe. During this period, aristocratic and mercantilist elites continually challenged the power of monarchs. These conflicts intensified as states increased taxes in their efforts to pay the costs of centralizing government administration and rising military expenditures. The Glorious Revolution, when the English Parliament emerged victorious and the authority of the monarch was limited by the rule of law, was an early example of this type of contest. In contrast, the American, French, Haitian, and Latin American revolutions a century later overthrew monarchical authority altogether. In North America, colonists issued the Declaration of Independence, asserting that all men have “unalienable Rights” that they sought to be upheld through a

republican form of government. The French Revolution led to the dissolution of the French monarchy, the establishment of a republic, and universal male participation in politics. Although the French Revolution opened up opportunities for women and slaves to petition for rights, it succumbed first to a destructive Terror, then ultimately to despotism and continental war under Napoleon. American, European, and Latin American revolutionaries defended their actions using these ideas. Their post-revolutionary constitutions were explicitly written to limit executive power and protect the rights of citizens. Students should explore the arguments for individual rights in this era, as well as the exclusion of groups like women from full access to these rights. In particular, they could consider the paradox between slavery and individual rights through an examination of Enlightenment writings and images, including evidence from abolitionist campaigns and defenses of enslavement.

A transatlantic republic of letters helped spread revolutionary thinking and activism. With the American and French revolutions serving as models of republican government, former slaves in Haiti, colonial peoples in Latin America, and military and religious elites in Spain and Portugal all participated in revolutionary uprisings. Students can make meaning about these revolutions in a comparative context by addressing the question: **How do the French, American, and Haitian Revolutions compare to one another?** Many new leaders established constitutional governments that echoed principles from the Glorious Revolution, Enlightenment ideas embodied in the English Bill of Rights, the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, and the United

States Constitution. Liberal democratic principles, such as individual rights and the rule of law, replaced traditional aristocratic privileges. Students may consider how the universal ideas of the Enlightenment texts provided a political tool for disfranchised groups to press for greater rights in liberal democracies during the modern era. Yet these revolutionary principles were applied differently in each context; in the Americas citizenship and natural rights did not apply to slaves, women, and many men that did not own property, while in Haiti, revolutionary principles translated directly to the abolition of slavery.

Atlantic revolutions and the subsequent Napoleonic Wars resulted in the establishment of a new type of political structure, the nation-state. Through the growth of popular print media, the centralization of the state, and the increasing connections facilitated by transportation networks, people began to imagine themselves as part of a larger national community. Students can consider the question: **How is national identity constructed?** in order to learn about these developments, as well as to serve as a bridge to the next unit on the industrial revolution. Shared language, religion, literacy, and culture created connections between people that served as a foundation for the development of a national identity. Arguments over the definition of citizenship, who was included and excluded, in the nation-state continue into the contemporary period and therefore provide opportunities for students to develop further their own understanding of the rights and responsibilities of citizens.

Industrial Revolutions

- Should this era of industrialization be called an Industrial Revolution? Why or why not?
- What were the results of the Industrial Revolutions? How was technology, and the environment transformed by industrialization?
- How did industrial revolutions affect governments, countries, and national identity in similar and different ways?

The Industrial Revolution shifted the center of the world economy from Asia to Western Europe in the nineteenth century. Students learn that its path diverged sharply from that of China and India, which had together accounted for nearly half of the world's manufacturing prior to the rise of industrialization. Some historians have criticized the use of the term "revolution," as the changes brought by industrialization were often gradual and uneven. Students can wrestle with this topic by addressing the question: **Should this era of industrialization be called an Industrial Revolution? Why or why not?** In a broad global perspective, however, industrialization has arguably been one of the most dramatic transformations in human history, making available vast stores of underground coal, oil, and gas energy and altering patterns of work, settlement, international relations, consumption, family relations, and values.

The Industrial Revolution was energized by coal and eventually by petroleum and natural gas. Fossil fuels that drive steam and electrical engines made possible a huge increase in the amount of productive energy available to humans. As students will learn later in the course, this revolution facilitated the development of European imperialism in the late nineteenth century. Together,

mechanized heavy industry, a culture of mass consumption, and a global division of labor continue to shape economic growth in the contemporary world, though this growth continues to be lopsided in its benefits to the world's population.

In addition to its historical significance, the Industrial Revolution also provides rich opportunities for students to develop their geographic and economic literacy. Students can consider **What were the results of industrialization?** in order to come away with a broad overview of how many aspects of life were transformed by industrialization. Britain was the first nation to industrialize, benefitting from a number of strengths. Students use a variety of maps to explore Britain's resources, such as navigable rivers and large coal deposits, an available pool of labor, an economic and political system that encouraged innovation. Students review economic data to see how industrialization generated profits for Great Britain through its role in worldwide trade and from goods produced in its colonies. The inventions and discoveries of James Watt, Eli Whitney, Henry Bessemer, Louis Pasteur, Thomas Edison, and others resulted in advances in science and technology. Agricultural and scientific improvements allowed for a more urban and healthy population. Advances in medicine led to an increasingly institutionalized and professionalized medical establishment, which an increasing understanding of early germ theory. These new technologies and ways of understanding the world soon spread beyond western Europe to the United States, and Japan, sharing knowledge worldwide. Students can also identify the environmental impact of the Industrial Revolution and discuss the positive and negative consequences of industrialization. Students learn that the industrializing

nations, for example Great Britain, were confronted with a wide array of changes resulting from the Industrial Revolution. They determine that the rapidly growing population was putting great demands on the natural resources available to these countries, resulting for example, in a decreasing supply of wood, Great Britain's primary source of energy, as well as a major resource for buildings, ships, and tools (California Environmental Principle I). Students learn that Great Britain created a system of factory production and coal-powered machinery to resolve the energy shortage, setting the stage for it to become the wealthiest country in the world. Using graphs of population growth, cotton textile, iron, and coal production, as well as an array of primary sources leads students to an understanding of the relevance of natural resources, entrepreneurship, labor, and capital combined to the beginning of the Industrial Revolution. (See Appendix F EEI Curriculum Unit Britain Solves a Problem and Creates the Industrial Revolution 10.3.1.-10.3.5.)

The Industrial Revolution represented a fundamental shift in the production of goods. Large-scale repetitive-motion machines powered by new energy sources such as coal and steam improved production and required the expansion of markets. However, human and animal energy remained important for the vast majority of people, thereby increasing inequality between people who owned the means of production and those who engaged in wage labor and subsistence farming. Competing for profits, corporations came to much greater prominence as a structure for organizing industries into larger entities with access to greater resources and with limitation to the personal liability of those operating the

industries. These corporations grew substantially as they sponsored continuous innovations in goods and carefully oversaw systems of production. Wage laborers subjected to regimented work conditions in factories rapidly produced inexpensive standardized goods. Industrialization also dramatically changed the way of life for millions of people who were not directly involved in factory work. Miners, independent farmers, and plantation workers in Africa, Asia, and Latin America, were essential to the creation of commodities produced in factories. Students learn about the relationship between the Industrial Revolution and the growth of urban centers which resulted in, depopulation of rural areas and migration to urban areas; a shift from agrarian-based society to manufacturing-based society; and a change in the pressures society places on natural resources. Students can consider the multiple ways in which industrialization transformed people's daily lives, in terms of providing many more merchantable goods in the marketplace, to standardizing time and work schedules. Students can also learn about the negative consequences of industrialization: overcrowded cities and housing, poor sanitation, unsafe working conditions, for example.

The leaders of world empires reacted to industrial change in various ways. Russia followed a model of government-sponsored development. In Japan, after overthrowing the Tokugawa dynasty in a coup, the Meiji government rapidly embraced industrialization. Japanese government ministers adapted European military, bureaucratic, and educational techniques, while also creating *zaibatsus*, a distinctively native form of business organization in which large family-owned

monopolies controlled broad sectors of the economy. Leaders in the Ottoman Empire and China engaged in limited industrialization, but their choices were constrained by the earlier establishment of informal European empires. This accelerated their gradual military decline, which had already begun by the 1700s. The following question can help students place industrialization's impact upon nations in a comparative context: **How did industrial revolutions affect governments, countries, and national identity in similar and different ways?**

While countries experienced industrialization in distinctive ways, they also faced some similar experiences. Most states experienced similar challenges in the shift to industrialized labor. Population growth accelerated in many regions of the world, and the number of cities with populations of 100,000 or more multiplied. Populations increasingly concentrated in urban areas where housing and sanitation infrastructure could rarely keep pace with the growth in need. While the standard of living gradually improved throughout the world, the disparity between the wealthiest and the poorest people within countries grew. To make sense of these broad shifts, students can address the question: **How did industrialization affect ordinary people, families, and work?** Addressing this question through literature from the time presents a valuable opportunity for History-Social Science teachers to collaborate with English teachers. Teachers could collective design lessons in which students learn about daily life during industrialization by reading the work of Dickens, Dreiser, Sinclair, or a number of muckrackers, for example. At the same time, European and American workers often protested the rigid time-discipline and poor conditions of factory work.

Unions grew, often inspired by new ideologies of socialism, particularly Marxist concepts of inherent class conflict between the profit interests of capitalists and the concerns of laborers. Some socialist experimenters set up planned, or utopian communities in Europe and the United States, most of them short-lived, where workers would share the products of their labor. Students can be introduced to the concept of socialism by addressing the question: **Why did socialist ideologies emerge and what were their key tenets?**

In pre-industrial societies, family units working in or near the home produced most goods. Industrialization separated home from work in function and location. Using relevant primary sources and literature, students can investigate the impact of industrialization upon families. Middle-class families began to think of home as a separate sphere for women and children to be protected from the evils of the industrial environment. Women were discouraged from paid labor, and children were sent to school. In many poorer families, however, both women and children continued to work in the paid labor force. Although the mechanized production of goods and crops dramatically changed life in industrial nations, most of the world continued to engage in subsistence farming to meet basic needs. Students may compare the similarities and differences in the consequences of industrialization in industrial and non-industrial countries while evaluating the costs and benefits of industrialization. Students can compare and contrast child labor around the world today with child labor in the 1800s. To advance students' understanding of ordinary people's experiences with and responses to industrialization, they can examine a brief primary source, Samuel

Smiles' 1882 work, *Self Help.* Students might find especially useful the paragraph that begins with the sentence: "The spirit of self-help, as exhibited in the energetic action of individuals, has in all times been a marked feature in the English character, and furnishes the true measure of our power as a nation." This and the following few paragraphs illustrate one perspective on how people felt about these years. Teachers can encourage students to read this as a document with a particular perspective and agenda about how English people should respond to their new worlds.

The Rise of Imperialism and Colonialism

- Why did industrialized nations embark on imperial ventures?
- How did colonization work?
- How was imperialism connected to race and religion?
- How was imperialism similar and different between colonies in Africa, Asia, and Latin America?
- What were the causes and effects of the Mexican Revolution?
- How did native people respond to colonization?

In this unit, students examine industrialized nations' worldwide imperial expansion, fueled by demand for natural resources and markets and aided by ideological motives of a "civilizing mission." The question **Why did industrialized nations embark on imperial ventures?** can help connect students' earlier learning about industrialization with foreign policy. The economic strength of industrialized nations gave them an advantage of cheaper goods over nations

that engaged in traditional manual production of goods. For much of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, local manufacturing in regions such as India, China, and Latin America declined dramatically. Some scholars use the label "informal empire" to refer to situations where countries, while not formally colonized, became increasingly dependent on industrialized nations, which sometimes threatened violence, to establish the terms and conditions of international commerce.

The race to secure raw materials spurred European, Japanese, and American imperialism. Students can continue to address the overall question **Why did industrialized nations embark on imperial ventures?** and they can also learn about the process of imperialism by considering the question **How did colonization work?** Tropical products, such as rubber and tea, and other resources for industrial use drove competing nations to claim political, economic, and territorial rights to colonies. Students should read primary sources that reflect the multiple motivations behind European imperial efforts. F. D. Lugard's *The Rise of Our East African Empire* explains in direct clear language why in 1893 European leaders believed it to be necessary to expand their empires for economic reasons. To locate a useful excerpt from this text, teachers should search online for the paragraph that begins with the sentence: "It is sufficient to reiterate here that, as long as our policy is one of free trade, we are compelled to seek new markets; for old ones are being closed to us by hostile tariffs, and our great dependencies, which formerly were the consumers of our goods, are now becoming our commercial rivals." Students might also read Joseph Conrad's

Heart of Darkness or Adam Hothschild's *King Leopold's Ghost.* Colonizers also justified their conquests by asserting arguments of racial hierarchy and cultural supremacy, offering a vision of civilization in contrast to what they argued were "backward" societies. Literature and poetry, such as Rudyard Kipling's "The White Man's Burden," engages students with this period and deepens the ability of students to understand the era within its own context. Students compare the perspectives of advocates for and against imperialism and consider the way each side presents evidence to support their claims. The question **How was imperialism connected with race and religion?** can be addressed by a close reading and analysis of Kipling's poem. Overall, students should understand the multiple inter-connected causes and justifications for colonization: religious, racial, and political uplift; economic exchange; and geopolitical power.

Governments in industrialized nations also viewed overseas expansion as a means to strengthen their own global strategic position. The development of more advanced firearms, transportation, and communications than nonindustrial societies paved the way for a wave of imperialism. Britain, France, and other European nations established colonies throughout Africa and South and Southeast Asia, while the United States and Japan did the same around the Pacific Rim, often allying with local elites and exploiting colonized peoples as laborers despite sometimes strenuous resistance. Indigenous leaders in various colonized regions engaged in protracted resistance to the colonizers, though they were ultimately outmatched by the military superiority of the colonial powers. In India, for example, students explore the environmental and social effects of

Britain's acquisition and control of the raw goods and markets, and in South Africa, where its wealth of gold and diamonds provided the capital needed for further industrialization. Students learn how the competition for and decisions regarding natural resource acquisition and use influenced perspectives regarding the use of colonial lands and the nature of colonial rule (California Environmental Principle V). Only a few countries under European pressure, notably China, Thailand, Iran and Ethiopia, retained their political independence. Students might study the Opium Wars in China to learn about the ways in which British attempts at controlling Chinese markets and opening ports led to extended and intense conflicts. Students can demonstrate their understanding of this period–and the different perspectives of both the industrialized and colonized nations–by writing editorials, government position papers, giving speeches, or creating multimedia documentaries for their classmates.

Although most Latin American nations were technically independent in this era, they often came under the influence of European nations and the United States after accepting large loans to help them develop transportation and communication networks. Latin American countries produced cash crops and mined raw materials in exchange for cheap goods, which disadvantaged local industries. The inequality produced between wealthy and poor states, was mirrored by growing divisions between "haves" and "have nots" in many of these societies. These tensions led to revolutions in Mexico and elsewhere with leaders competing over liberal and Marxist visions for their nations. Given students' close proximity to Mexico, they might wish to focus on Mexico's experience during the

era of imperialism and learn about its revolution in the context of colonization. Students can address the question: **What were the causes and effects of the Mexican Revolution?** After teachers briefly review Spanish conquest, Mexican independence, and the decades-long leadership of Porfirio Diaz with an emphasis on race and land ownership, students should learn about the high percentage of land and resources that were owned by foreign investors (mainly American) in the early twentieth century. Next, teachers might wish to explain the experience of the ordinary people like the Campesinos and show art from the era like Diego Rivera's "Repression." Teachers should divide students into five groups that are each assigned a unique perspective and primary source document from the period: 1) Porfirio Diaz; 2) Moderates (represented by Madero, Huerta, Carranza); 3) Emiliano Zapata and Campesinos of the South; 4) Pancho Villa and the Vaqueros of the North; 5) The U.S. To locate the sources that represent each of these perspectives teachers can search online for "The Plan de Ayala;" "Pancho Villa's Dream;" and consult Lucia Nunez's *Episodes in the History of U.S.–Mexico Relations* as well as John Guyatt's *The Mexican Revolution*. After each group has identified the perspective and goals of their group, the whole class should discuss areas of agreement and disagreement between groups, while the teacher charts it on the board and students take notes. With so many competing interests in the Revolution, students should come away with a sense that the extended conflict was a nationalist and socio-economic revolution. After learning about the results and consequences of the Revolution, students might write a paragraph about the perspective of the person

they represented or make a brief speech about which leader in the Revolution they would have supported and provide evidence for their position. Students can continue to survey other examples of nations that stayed independent during the era of imperialism by considering examples from Asia. In China, Sun Yat-Sen's Republic of China replaced centuries of dynastic rule and, with great effort, fought off the imperialist aspirations of foreign countries. Students further research the important moments and leaders of the revolutions, including SunYat-Sen of China, José Martí of Cuba, and Menelik I of Abyssinia.

Students can continue to consider the question **How did colonization work?** in order to understand the concrete results of colonization in a variety of geographic contexts. Colonizers introduced new infrastructures, medicines, educational systems, and cultural norms. Print technology and more rapid transportation aided the growth of organized religion. These technological developments also facilitated integration of regional Indian religious traditions into the larger religious tradition of the subcontinent while still retaining their regional identity. Christian missionaries made use of colonial institutions and infrastructure to educate and evangelize native peoples, helping to broaden Christian presence around the world. Some European thinkers joined religious beliefs to Social Darwinian ideas about the evolution of races, leading to European efforts to "civilize" native peoples they perceived as "backward." They also attempted to reform practices involving marriage and women's social roles.

While some colonial peoples converted to European practices, others deeply resented the violent exploitation of their people and the disruption of their

traditional beliefs. Students should consider the question **How did native people respond to colonization?** in order to make sense of the multiple contexts and responses to colonization. Nationalist leaders, often educated in European universities, began to use ideologies rooted in the Enlightenment to challenge the injustice of Western and Japanese imperialism. Europeans, in turn, were shaped by their encounters with colonial peoples through their exposure to non-Western religions and systems of thought for the first time. Imperial encounters strengthened European nationalism at home as colonizers defined themselves in response to colonial "others." In addition, internal tensions sometimes erupted between dominant and dominated groups within a state or empire. For example, European Jews had felt that Enlightenment ideals of equality and citizenship applied to them, although they were a minority in the countries in which they lived. Anti-Semitic events like the Dreyfus Affair in France made Jews feel that they were not considered French and were viewed as outsiders. This realization led to development of Zionism, an expression of Jewish nationalism, namely the belief in the right to self-determination for the Jewish people. The Affair also pointed to the tension between the rights of the individual versus the greater needs of the state. Though the label "globalization" is often restricted to the late twentieth-century, students might explore the ways in which both the processes of industrialization and imperialism initiated transformations in transport and communication technologies, unprecedented levels of global migration, and accelerating global economic exchange.

Grade Ten Classroom Example: World History and World Literature

Background

This year at John Muir high school, the tenth grade world literature teacher, Ms. Alemi, and the tenth grade world history teacher, Ms. Cruz, have decided to collaborate and align their major units of instruction so that their students see the connections between the content taught in each discipline. A number of the reading selections and novels for the tenth grade World Literature class would support students' understandings of the historical concepts and time periods addressed in the world history course. The teachers first determine where their curriculum already intersects and then begin planning interdisciplinary units that align the content and literacy tasks in the two courses.

World History Lessons

Ms. Cruz's tenth grade world history class is beginning a unit on the era of New Imperialism that took place roughly from the 1830's until the beginning of World War I in 1914. She introduces students to the historical investigation question for the whole unit: **What were the causes and effects of imperialism?** She then focuses students on the question for the first part of the unit: **How did Europeans justify the expansion of their colonial empires?**

Ms. Cruz's introduces excerpts from the primary source *The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa* written by Lord Frederick Lugard, the first British governor-general of Nigeria. The book exemplifies the major justifications that European powers gave for building their colonial empires throughout the world and explains

the nature of the *dual mandate*, or that both the colonizer and the colonized benefit from colonial expansion. She provides the students with the background of the various justifications (economic, religious, social Darwinism, etc.) and students work together to pull quotes from the document that exemplify the particular justifications. Students also must explain how the evidence they selected supports the justifications. Students gain additional information from their textbooks and other primary sources that discuss the motivations that European powers had for colonizing other nations.

In order for students to gain the perspective of the indigenous peoples that were colonized by European powers, Ms. Cruz gives her students a number of first-hand accounts. Students find quotes in the texts that reflect both the perspective of colonial people and the impacts that colonization had upon their people and their nations. Ms. Cruz then leads a class discussion in which the students compare and contrast life before and after colonization as well as the perspectives of the colonizers and the colonized.

Next, students walk to different areas in the classroom in which several different primary source images that depict colonization are posted on the wall. Some of these images are political cartoons and newspaper advertisements, but others are art created during the late nineteenth century. Students must walk the gallery and record which European powers and colonies are represented in the image, what is occurring in the image, the symbols that are present in the image, and finally they must determine whether the image is *anti* or *pro* colonization and

explain their reasoning. Ms. Cruz then leads a classroom discussion so that students can share out the evidence that they recorded from each image.

Summary of World Literature Lessons

Meanwhile, in world literature, Ms. Alemi's students begin a unit on African literature by reading *Things Fall Apart*. Written in 1958 by Nigerian novelist Chinua Achebe, the novel takes place in eastern Nigeria at the end of the 19th century and deals with two stories: that of Okonkwo, a respected tribal leader and *strong man* who falls from grace in his Ibo village, and the clash of cultures and changes in values brought on by British colonialism. The story is conveyed through illustrating the life of Okonkwo and his family and the tragic consequences of his actions and events that are beyond his control. In interviews, Chinua Achebe said that he became a writer in order to tell the story from his and his people's (the Ibo) own perspective. The novel was written in English (the language of the British colonizers) and was, in large part, a response and counter-narrative to colonial texts, such as Joseph Conrad's *Heart of Darkness*, which often portrayed Africans as savages or animals.

Ms. Alemi and Ms. Cruz selected the book because it expands their students' knowledge of world literature and because the novel provides students with an opportunity to discover universal messages and themes through the lens of Ibo culture and linguistic and literary techniques that are central to that culture. The novel also supports the learning goals Ms. Cruz has for the students in world history. As the teachers research the novel, they learn that "One of the things

that Achebe has always said, is that part of what he thought the task of the novel was, was to create a usable past. Trying to give people a richly textured picture of what happened, not a sort of monotone bad Europeans, noble Africans, but a complicated picture" (Princeton University Professor Anthony Appiah, cited on Annenberg Learning). The teachers feel that their students are capable of exploring these complex ideas.

Ms. Alemi will facilitate students' deep analytical reading of the novel, which will prepare them to read other texts more carefully and critically, including a novel they select from contemporary Nigerian literature. Over the course of the unit, Ms. Alemi will engage her students to "*dig deep* into the novel, *branch out* to other texts, and *harvest* the knowledge they've gained" by applying it to other texts. See California's 2014 English Language Arts/English Language Development Curriculum Framework, Chapter 7 to see the complete lesson.

Concluding Activities for World History

The students will use the information gathered from primary sources, their textbook, and *Things Fall Apart* to participate in several mini-debates where they speculate about the short- and long-term impact of the colonial experience. The debates, or small group discussions, take various aspects of colonization, such as "What impact will the colonial experience have upon the economies of the colonial powers and their former colonies? How will the colonial experience impact the standard of living, literacy rates, and public health in the developed and developing countries? What impact will the colonial experience have upon

relations between Europe and the developing countries in Asia and/or Africa?" Students would be responsible for bringing in specific examples from the novel and the primary resources to further discuss the issue and explain which country or countries would benefit most from the experience.

In Ms. Cruz's class students conclude the unit by writing an essay using the information gathered throughout the unit to address one of the following two questions: **What impact did the colonial experience have upon indigenous peoples and their countries? What impact did the colonial experience have upon Western colonial powers?** Students must provide a clear thesis statement and specific evidence from their text, primary sources examined throughout the unit, as well as examples from the novel *Things Fall Apart.* In addition, they must provide analysis that examines how the evidence that they provided supports the argument in their thesis.

Sources:

Achebe, Chinua.1958. *Things Fall Apart.* New York: Anchor Books.

Annenberg Learner Invitation to World Literature: Things Fall Apart (http://www.learner.org/courses/worldlit/things-fall-apart/explore/key-points.html)

CA HSS Content Standards: 10.4.1, 3

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9-12): Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4; Historical Interpretation 1, 3

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.1, 2, 6, 9, 10, WHST.9–10.1, SL.9–10.1, 4

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.9–10.1, 3, 5, 6a, 6b, 7, 10a, 11a; ELD.PII.9–10.2b

585

Causes and Course of World War I

- Why did The Great War become a World War?
- How was World War I a total war?
- What were the consequences of World War I for nations and people?
- Why did the Russian Revolution develop and how did it become popular?

The Great War, later called World War I, began in 1914 as a result of nationalist tensions in Europe and the subsequent militarization that resulted from clashes between these states over colonial resources and markets. The question **Why did The Great War become a World War?** can guide students' initial investigation into the conflict. This insecurity led these powers to form alliances, which embroiled the great powers of Europe in a multi-year conflict that included soldiers from many parts of the world. The gradual disintegration of the Ottoman Empire, alongside a growing militarization of the European powers, created a climate of distrust that eroded the balance of power. At the advent of the war, political leaders who faced social unrest at home saw the war effort as a way to divert popular criticism and stoke patriotism in support of a war effort. Students should learn about the complexity of why and how each state justified its entry into the war. To this end, European governments created propaganda aimed at encouraging the civilian population to support total war. To deepen student understanding of the causes of World War I, teachers can divide the class into groups representing the major participants on both sides in the war. In their groups, students examine a collection of wartime propaganda and political cartoons by utilizing one of the many primary-source analysis tools available

online to develop a visual analysis of the imagery to understand the link between claim and evidence in these texts. Based on wartime propaganda, students can make find similarities and differences in terms of how nations portrayed their enemy states, through dehumanizing their enemy or highlighting threats to their own liberty, for example.

The war that was to be "over by Christmas" continued as opposing armies on the Western Front settled into to a stalemate through strategies and tactics in which each side dug in behind a wall of trenches that reached from the North Sea to Switzerland. The battles on the Eastern front covered a wider territory, but also remained largely a stalemate. Using primary sources as well as literature, such as Erich Maria Remarque's *All Quiet on the Western Front*, or poetry including Wilfred Owen, *Dulce et Decorum est,* students can come to appreciate the struggles faced by soldiers fighting in the trenches. For three years, the western front moved roughly three miles per year in any one direction. Although the primary battles of World War I took place in Europe, colonial soldiers from Africa and Asia had participated in the war effort alongside soldiers from Australia, New Zealand, and the United States, which entered the war in 1917. Both military and civilian casualties resulted from a war that had many fronts. To learn about the unprecedented deadliness of the war, students should address the question: **How was World War I a total war?** Technological advancements, such as the machine gun, poison gas, aircraft, and high explosives, allowed for destruction of human life on a scale previously unknown. The advent of total war meant mobilizing not only the soldiers, but also civilians on the home front and in

colonial territories. Entire societies and economies were focused on war. Combat in Western Europe, Eastern Europe, and the Middle East (highlighted in Scott Anderson's *Lawrence in Arabia*) left marks on these societies that were felt long after the fighting ended.

By 1918, 16 million military personnel and civilians had died and millions more returned home wounded; this toll was enlarged by that year's deadly pandemic of the Spanish Flu. The Ottoman, Austro-Hungarian, and Russian empires had disintegrated and in their place new, independent states emerged, including Poland, Russia, Prussia, and Austria. In 1915, as the Ottoman Empire declined, the Turkish government carried out a systematic genocide against the Armenian population that had been living on its historic homeland in what is now eastern Turkey. Turkish authorities first arrested hundreds of Armenian political and intellectual leaders, sending them to their deaths; Armenian men were conscripted into work camps where they were killed outright or through exhaustion. The remaining Armenians were ordered onto death marches into the Syrian desert, during which they were subjected to rape, torture, mutilation, starvation, holocausts in desert caves, kidnapping and forced Turkification and Islamization. More than 1.5 million Armenians, more than half of the population was eliminated in this way; virtually all their personal and community properties were seized by the government, and more than 500,000 innocent people were forced into exile during the period from 1915 to 1923. When the war ended in 1918 the Armenian population was reduced by 75% and their historical lands were confiscated by the Turkish government. Students may examine the

reactions of other governments, including that of the United States, and world opinion during and after the Armenian genocide. The Red Cross's aid to Armenian Genocide survivors also demonstrates the worldwide humanitarian response to the crisis and the emerging role of the International Committee of the Red Cross as an international non-governmental humanitarian organization. They should examine the effects of the genocide on the remaining Armenian people, who were deprived of their historic homeland, and the ways in which it became a prototype of subsequent genocides. To connect these multiple effects of war, students can consider the question: **What were the consequences of World War I for nations, ethnic groups, and people?**

The decline of the imperial powers that resulted from the Great War led to new political structures and political dissent in many European countries, most notably a revolutionary uprising in Russia. Students can address the following question: **Why did the Russian Revolution develop and how did it become popular?** In 1917, the ineffectual Czarist leadership was overthrown. The communist Bolsheviks seized power and struggled to create a new form of government that established the political monopoly of the Communist Party and workers' soviets. Students analyze primary and secondary sources to consider the dramatic social, political, cultural, and economic effects that resulted from the revolution. Students may focus their research on a specific group, such as rural women, to explain cause and effect and change over time.

Effects of World War I

- How did World War I end? What were the consequences of the postwar agreement?
- How did agreements dating from the WWI and post-war periods impact the map of the Middle East?
- What were the effects of World War I upon ordinary people?
- Why does the term “lost generation” refer to those that lived through or came of age during these years?
- How did the post-World War I world order contribute to the collapse of the world-wide economy?

In 1919, the victors of World War I—France, Britain, and the United States—turned toward settling the war, organizing peace, and punishing the losers. Students can address the following question as they study the short-term consequences of The Great War: **How did World War I end? What were the consequences of the postwar agreement?** President Woodrow Wilson offered a vision of a peaceful postwar world order based on the principles of national self-determination and free trade in his Fourteen Points. However, only some of his principles were embraced by Britain and France in the Treaty of Versailles. The leaders of the victorious countries drafted the treaty, which required the losing powers, particularly Germany, to assume responsibility for starting the war, and for paying the victors reparations with large amounts of currency and land. New states were created in Eastern Europe, carved from the territories of the German, Austrian, Ottoman, and Russian empires. The Treaty of Versailles also established the mandate system, which granted many of the Allied Powers,

including Japan, administrative governance over former territories and colonies of Germany and the Ottoman Empire. However, in Africa and Asia, colonized peoples who had fought for the British and French soon realized that they would not be granted self-determination like Eastern Europeans were. Consequently, nationalist leaders began to organize independence movements to oppose the authority of colonial powers. The political and social map of the Middle East continued to be redrawn through European involvement during and following World War I. Students should learn about the significance of critical documents and agreements dating from the WWI and post-war periods in setting the world map and as a basis for future conflicts by addressing the question: **How did agreements dating from the WWI and post-war periods impact the map of the Middle East?** Students can deepen their understanding of the effects of treaties that ended World War I and their legacy through simulations that divide the class into states— including Great Britain, Germany and the Ottoman Empire, Russia, and newly independent nations, such as Czechoslovakia, – to debate political and economic policies of the post-war period.

The last of Wilson's Fourteen Points was the creation of a League of Nations in order to promote permanent peace. Although Wilson arduously rallied for Congress to join the League, American isolationists were reluctant to enter into potentially indefinite alliances and thus never consented to join. The American failure to participate undermined the League's effectiveness in implementing its goals.

At the end of the war, society and culture was dramatically altered. Students should address the longer-term consequences of World War I by considering the question: **What were the effects of World War I upon ordinary people?** Veterans often came home injured mentally (what is now termed post-traumatic stress disorder or traumatic brain injuries) and physically. These men, along with the millions that did not return home, served as a constant reminder of the horrors of modern warfare. Individuals and groups reacted to the dislocation they felt from the war experience by turning to novel cultural expressions and social organizations. Artists and authors created counter-cultural art movements summed up in the term modernism that expressed the disillusionment felt by many and challenged entrenched styles, traditions, and hierarchies. For example, Pablo Picasso and the self-identifying “lost generation” that included Gertrude Stein, Ernest Hemingway, and F. Scott Fitzgerald, among others, represented and documented the cultural shift initiated by the experience of war. Students can survey the artistic expressions of these years by addressing the broader question: **Why does the term “lost generation” refer to those that lived through or came of age during these years?**

It is also extremely important for students to understand the connection between the post-war world and the Great Depression; this question can help students make that link: **How did the post-World War I world order contribute to the collapse of the world-wide economy?** Europe’s economy was weakened as a result of the economic and social costs of World War I and was increasingly supported by American loans. Germany alone was saddled with $33

billion in war reparations. Worldwide agricultural production increased, leading to falling prices and lack of buying power on the part of rural consumers for manufactured goods. Industrialized nations reacted by increasing protective tariffs, which stifled international trade. These economic trends, along with the burst of the stock market bubble and the collapse of the international banking system, led to the Great Depression, a time when incomes eroded and unemployment increased throughout the world. This economic collapse further undermined liberal democratic regimes and was a major blow to global trade. As a result, many nation-states developed policies that strengthened the national economy and raised tariffs, turning away from the free market and open trade. Students can learn about change over time and understand the world-wide slow down by comparing levels of productivity, rates of unemployment, and gross domestic income in several industrialized nations in the years 1929, 1931, and 1934.

Rise of Totalitarian Governments after World War I

- Why did communism and fascism appeal to Europeans in the 1930s?
- What were key ideas of communism? How were the ideas translated on the ground?
- What was totalitarianism and how was it implemented in similar and different ways in Japan, Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union?
- How did Nazis come to power? Why did ordinary people support them?

With the collapse of the capitalist market system that caused the Great Depression, political alternatives to liberal democracies emerged, particularly communism and fascism. Through the use of graphic organizers, debates, and position papers, students may compare and contrast how these communist and fascist governments responded to the collapse of the capitalist system during the Great Depression. With a side-by-side comparison of these political alternatives, students can provide an answer to the question: **Why did communism and fascism appeal to Europeans in the 1930s?**

After the Russian Revolution, communism emerged as an alternative to Western-style capitalism in the Soviet Union. Lenin's New Economic Policy temporarily allowed capitalism until the Soviet economy stabilized after the civil war that followed the Revolution. The following question can help students grapple with the ideals versus realities of developments in the Soviet Union: **What were key ideas of communism and how were the ideas translated on the ground?** Joseph Stalin rose to leadership after the death of Lenin and his Five-Year Plans provided a Marxist model of state-run development in direct opposition to capitalism. Under Stalin, the Soviet Union achieved extraordinary economic growth between 1928 and 1939, but this expansion came at a huge human cost. Stalin's industrialization plan included forced collectivization of peasant farms, which ultimately resulted in a massive loss of life. The government established a system of Gulag labor camps in the Soviet Union and Siberia to contain political opposition. Stalin's political consolidation led to the imprisonment and death of many, including wealthy peasants, non-Russians,

Jews, and members of the Communist Party suspected of disloyalty. Students should learn about the magnitude of the imprisonment, persecutions, and death caused at the by totalitarian rule. Students should learn about the connection between economic policies and political ideologies, including the crushing of workers' strikes. With this background they can also examine the famine in Ukraine that led to the starvation of millions of people; the political purges of party leaders, artists, engineers, and intellectuals; and the show trials of the 1930s. The following primary sources are particularly useful in communicating the appeal of Revolution, the importance of the cult of personality in maintaining support for it, and the perspective of ordinary people: 1) Lenin's Proclamation of 7 November, 1917; 2) Joseph Stalin, Industrialization of the Country (teachers can search online for a passage that starts with the phrase: "The whole point is that we are behind Germany in this respect and are still far from having overtaken her technically and economically."); 3) Hymn to Stalin; 4) Lev Kopelev's, *Education of a True Believer* (search online for the phrase that begins with "Stalin said the struggle for grain was the struggle for revolution."); 5) Posters in support of revolutionary goals. In addition, by analyzing examples of socialist realist art or reading George Orwell's *Animal Farm,* Arthur Koestler's *Darkness at Noon,* or Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn's *Gulag Archipelago* students can acquire deeper insights into this period.

One way that some historians have compared transformations in Europe during the interwar years is through the concept of totalitarianism, or a centralized state that aims to control all aspects of life through authoritarian use

of violence. This question about totalitarianism can help frame students' comparative explorations of governments and social systems during these years: **What was totalitarianism and how was it implemented in similar and different ways in Japan, Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union?** Using this strategy, students can examine the similarities and differences between the political structures of the Soviet Union, Germany, and Italy in the 1930s. The Weimar Republic had emerged from World War I as an example of the implementation of liberal democratic principles. However, with the debts of World War I, soaring inflation, and the Depression, portions of the populace and political establishment who were anxious about radicals turned to the leadership of Adolf Hitler. Although Hitler's Nazi party never won an outright majority in any German election, he was able to exploit enough fear and uncertainty and form alliances with other parties that opposed Weimar democracy to gain the position of Chancellor in 1933. Once they had a foothold in government, the Nazis consolidated their power by limiting dissent and imprisoning opponents, homosexuals, the sick and elderly, restricting the rights of Jews and other "non-Aryans," and rearming the German military. Students can learn about the rise of the Nazis by addressing the question: **How did Nazis come to power? Why did ordinary people support them?**

Fascism provided a nationalist and militaristic alternative to both the individual rights privileged in liberal democracies and to communism. The fascists in Italy and the Nazis in Germany established state-directed economies, rearmed their

militaries, and imposed gender, religious, and racial hierarchies in the name of an ultra-patriotic nationalism.

Causes and Consequences of World War II

- Why was the death toll so high during World War II?
- What were the key goals of the Axis and Allied powers? How was the war mobilized on different fronts?
- How did technology affect World War II?
- How was World War II a total war? How did World War II's actors, goals, and strategies compare with World War I?
- How was the Holocaust carried out?

The study of Nazism and Stalinism leads directly to an analysis of World War II and its causes and consequences. The war itself was truly global and included battlefronts in Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Pacific. Historians estimate that 60 million, or three percent of the total population, died as a result of World War II. This toll includes a large casualty rate among civilians who were swept up in ground campaigns and were victims of bombing. An overall question students should consider at the outset and continually throughout their studies of World War II is: **Why was the death toll so high during World War II?**

To become oriented to the leading nations in the conflict, students continue to learn about the German, Italian, and Japanese attempts to expand their empires in the 1930s. As in Italy and Germany, Japan's authoritarian government, increasingly dominated by the military, controlled portions of the economy and

furthered imperial ambitions. The expansionist goals of Italy, Germany, and Japan translated into specific instances of military aggression, first in China, then in Europe, and finally in the United States, that drew the Allies into war with these Axis Powers. In Germany, as Hitler began to stretch his empire toward Austria and Czechoslovakia, Britain and France initially employed a policy of appeasement, while the United States Congress passed a series of "Neutrality Acts" designed to keep the nation on a path of nonintervention. Both Europe and the United States were entangled in domestic financial crises, and the American populace especially displayed strong isolationist impulses, even convincing Congress to hold investigations about possible malicious business interests that had led the country to enter World War I. Appeasement of Hitler finally came to an end when Germany invaded Poland on September 1, 1939, and World War II began in Europe. By then, Japan, an imperial power that had already colonized Korea in 1910 and occupied Manchuria in 1931, invaded China. Students should learn about the Sino-Japanese War as context for making comparisons between ideologies, goals, and strategies of the Axis powers. In China, Japanese military advances led to the death of thousands of civilians, including the horrors of the "Rape of Nanjing." Once war broke out in Europe, the Japanese took advantage of Hitler's conquests in Western Europe to seize European colonies in Asia. However, the Japanese saw American power in the Pacific as an obstacle to their imperial plans, leading them to bomb the United States naval base at Pearl Harbor in 1941.

Through map study, students should identify formation of Allied and Axis alliances, as well as changes in the makeup of the alliances. They can consider the following question to understand the broad outlines of wartime alliances: **What were the key goals of the Axis and Allied powers? How was the war mobilized on different fronts?** Students should learn about the significance of the Stalin-Hitler Pact of 1939 and its effects in partitioning Poland and bringing Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia under Soviet control. They should also identify the pact's breakdown and the subsequent Soviet alliance with the Allied nations.

"This war is a new kind of war…It is warfare in terms of every continent, every island, every sea, every air lane in the world." As President Franklin Delano Roosevelt's 1942 statement reveals, soldiers from throughout the world used tanks, airplanes, and submarines more extensively than in World War I, wreaking massive destruction on military and civilian populations alike. This question can frame students' investigations into the unique advances in warfare technology: **How did technology affect World War II?** Deploying a highly mechanized army and *blitzkrieg* warfare, Germany's military conquered large portions of Europe in a short time and expanded the war to include both western and eastern fronts. Bombing of civilians brought fear, death, and destruction to populations in Europe, Japan, and elsewhere. Through the use of primary sources, such as excerpts from radio programs, newsreel shorts, eyewitness accounts, newspaper articles, and photographs from the period, students can gain a better understanding of the struggles faced by both soldiers and civilians. This question will encourage students to make claims, supported by reasons and evidence:

How was World War II a total war? How did World War II's actors, goals, and strategies compare with World War I? The activity could be used to explore war aims and strategies at the outset, in the midst of it, or at the war's conclusion. Students can use documents including the Atlantic Charter, Four Freedoms Speech, and others to support their claims.

For much of the European war, the Soviet Union bore the brunt of German aggression on the eastern front, leading to the death of tens of millions of soldiers and civilians. With America's entry into the war, the Allies organized a counteroffensive that mobilized massive civilian resources to combat the Axis powers. The Allies retaliated with land and aerial campaigns in North Africa, the Middle East, Italy, and occupied France which weakened the overstretched Axis powers. Overland re-supply routes, like in Iran, were critically important to the war effort while greatly impacting the local populations. The question: **How was the war mobilized on different fronts?** can help students make comparisons between different areas. Students may explore the tensions that existed between the Allied powers and how these served as a prelude to the divisions between the West and the Soviet Union in the postwar period.

The war ended with the collapse of the Axis regimes. Heavy fighting in both Western and Eastern Europe crushed the German military, while the island-to-island skirmishes in the Pacific pushed back the Japanese forces, culminating in a heavy bombing campaign of the Japanese islands. Students can learn about the on-the-ground realities of fighting on the Pacific front by learning about key battles like Midway, the role of the Filipino-American alliance, and the intense

brutality of fighting due to racialized understandings that Japanese had toward American soldiers and vice-versa. “Comfort Women” is a euphemism that describes women who were forced into sexual service by the Japanese Army in occupied territories before and during the war. “Comfort Women” can be taught as an example of institutionalized sexual slavery; estimates on the total number of comfort women vary, but most argue that hundreds of thousands of women were forced into these situations during Japanese occupation. On December 28, 2015, the Governments of Japan and the Republic of Korea entered into an agreement regarding the issues of comfort women. This document can be found at http://www.mofa.go.jp/a_o/na/kr/page4e_000364.html. Finally, in August 1945, the United States unleashed its most deadly weapon, the atomic bomb, in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, killing more than 200,000 people, forcing Japan to surrender, and ending World War II. Teachers may ask students to debate the controversies regarding the American decisions to launch the attacks.

Before and during the worldwide conflict, the Nazis implemented racial policies across the portions of Europe they controlled. The question: **How was the Holocaust enacted?** can guide students’ exploration into the magnitude, terror, and loss of life caused by Nazi policies. These policies drew upon racial and eugenicist ideologies. Jehovah’s Witnesses, Poles, Gypsies, homosexuals, and political activists faced harassment, imprisonment, and death. Jews were the particular targets of Nazi violence. Nazi policies and actions evolved over time through initial stripping of rights through the passage of the Nuremberg Laws, an escalation of persecution through events like Kristallnacht, from the

establishment of concentration camps, and then genocide. Germans and their allies ultimately murdered six million Jews and millions of others through starvation, forced labor, and by shooting and gassing victims. Sensitivity and careful planning are needed to bring the history of this period to life for students in a thoughtful and responsible way. The sheer scope, the action (or inaction) of civilians, and the inhumanity of the Holocaust can be overwhelming to some students. By utilizing memoirs, such as Elie Wiesel's *Night*, teachers can provide students with a deeply personal understanding of the Holocaust, as can the use of carefully selected primary source materials. Students can also review recorded testimonials of Holocaust survivors, and teachers can reach out to academic and public institutions like the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum to find ways to connect students to the Holocaust. Students may also examine instances of resistance to the Holocaust by Jews and others. While on the one hand it is incredibly challenging to teach the enormity and severity of the Jewish experience during the war, teachers also often face challenges when trying to explain to students how "the final solution" could be carried out by Germans. It took thousands of ordinary Germans to operate the machinery of death; the German military, infrastructure, and even economy were mobilized to kill people. It is important for teachers and students to examine how in wartime, ordinary people do terrible things and they should trace how the German machinery of death grew as large as it did, and why Germans were complicit in it. Primary sources from the Nuremberg Trials and wartime statistics can help students learn about the scale of the Holocaust. Immediately following the war, genocide, the

systematic killing of members of an ethnic or religious group, was established as a crime under international law through the development of the United Nations. Emboldened by this lack of accountability, Adolf Hitler said to his generals on the eve of their invasion of Poland, "Who, after all, speaks today of the annihilation of the Armenians?" numerous German military officers who had been stationed in Turkey during WWI, were aware of the Ottoman regime's plan to destroy the Armenians, and some of them even issued orders for the deportation of Armenians. Without penalty, some later became leaders within the Nazi military apparatus that carried out the Holocaust. Teachers can introduce the history of the Near East Relief organization established by the former U.S. ambassador to the Ottoman Empire, Henry Morgenthau. Near East Relief came to the aid of hundreds of thousands of Armenian Genocide survivors through the establishment of orphanages, food and vocational programs, etc. Teachers can also use the example of the first international aid project of the Red Cross in helping Armenian Genocide survivors, and the phrase, "Remember the starving Armenians!" as a means to demonstrate to students the profound effect the Armenian Genocide had on the American public.

International Developments in the Post-World War II World

- How did the Cold War develop?
- How was the Cold War waged all over the world?
- How did former colonies respond to the Cold War and liberation?
- How and why did the Cold War end?

The effects of World War II reverberated around the world, intensifying three earlier trends whose effects persisted well into the twenty-first century: decolonization, the Cold War, and globalization. The war accelerated the decline of European power worldwide and the rise of the United States militarily, economically, and culturally. Nationalist movements fueled by colonial subjects' participation in war efforts placed increasing pressure on European powers to grant independence. The postwar period also witnessed an escalation in hostility between the U.S. and the Soviet Union. Throughout the Cold War, the U.S. and the Soviet Union intervened politically, militarily, and economically in dozens of nations in Asia, the Middle East, Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean in an effort to protect their strategic interests. Also during the postwar period, economic globalization produced the largest world market in history, spreading both products and cultural values around the world.

One of the most significant effects of World War II was the emergence of the Cold War, which ultimately affected much of the world, including the developing world in Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America. Students can begin their Cold War studies by addressing the multi-causational question: **How did the Cold War develop?** Students should explore the differences between the capitalist-democratic United States and the communist-authoritarian Soviet Union. These differences were apparent before the war, although they did not prevent an alliance against the Axis powers. After the war, hostility increased as the two nations disagreed sharply over plans for postwar Europe, especially Germany. The fragile alliance preserved at the Yalta Conference, at a terrible

cost to Poland, in February, 1945, between Stalin, Roosevelt, and Churchill disintegrated in the following months, especially following Roosevelt's death and the dropping of the atomic bombs. American distrust of the Soviet Union grew after its expansion into Eastern Europe, while the Soviets justified large troop concentrations on the recent German invasion from the West. Both the US and the Soviet Union competed to bring non-aligned and newly liberated countries into their respective camps. Through the use of structured primary-source analysis activities, teachers can develop student understanding of this period. Students can also develop their critical thinking and oral language in their study of the Cold War by engaging in a Yalta press conference in which the class is divided into representatives of the United States, the Soviet Union, and Great Britain, as well as members of the press corps. Students can also view a variety of postwar speeches, articles, and military decisions to debate when the Cold War actually began. For example, they can read Winston Churchill's "Sinews of Peace" Speech delivered in 1946 and Joseph Stalin's interview in *Pravda* from March 14, 1946. Read closely together, students will learn about how Churchill and Stalin each laid blame on the other nation for intensifying relations.

Employing a variety of primary-source documents, pictures, and maps from the era, students examine the two superpowers' different plans for Europe after the war. The following question will help frame students' comparative learning about the multiple fronts and strategies of waging the Cold War: **How was the Cold War waged all over the world?** The Soviet Union consolidated its control over central Europe with the division of Germany and the creation of satellite

states in eastern and southeastern Europe. The Soviets consolidated their empire in Eastern Europe using repressive tactics that had been used in their home state. The United States became involved in supporting the re-establishment of liberal democratic states in Western Europe. It developed the Marshall Plan, a massive American economic recovery project for Western Europe, and the Truman Doctrine, which affirmed American support for people fighting against communist insurgents. The Soviet Union viewed these plans as an effort to protect American hegemony in Europe. In response to the formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a 1949 military alliance between the United States, western European nations, and Canada, the Soviet Union initiated the Warsaw Pact of 1955, which aimed to protect its eastern European territory and broader sphere of influence. Uprisings in Poland and Hungary (1956), and Czechoslovakia (1968) exposed fractures within the Soviet sphere of influence by revealing insurgent sentiment from those presenting what they considered a purer and less repressive form of communism, as well as by anti-communists.

The Cold War grew in intensity as the Soviet Union developed atomic weapons in an effort to catch up to the U.S. militarily. An arms race continued for decades as the superpowers competed over advancements in nuclear weapons technology. After a long civil war, communists, led by Mao Zedong, came to power in China, expanding the geographic scope of the Cold War. The presence of communist China complicated the earlier bipolar Cold War world, as tensions developed between the two communist powers. The Great Leap Forward (1958-

1961) and the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) caused massive turmoil in China. Students should learn about the unrest and disorder in China during these years; elites were made to work on farms; there was arbitrary application of revolutionary justice; the Red Guard even turned on members of Mao's own party. The question **How was the Cold War waged all over the world?** can continue to frame students' understanding of the Chinese experience. Moreover, if students learn about the ascent of Communism in China in the middle of the twentieth century, it will lay the ground work for their understanding of its later status when its markets opened, but political system did not.

Cold War competition spread throughout East and Southeast Asia, the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America. Both superpowers constructed regional alliances in an effort to counter their opponents' power. Given the high stakes of nuclear war, the two superpowers engaged in a number of wars by proxy. Using a variety of maps, primary sources, and classroom simulation activities, students learn that throughout the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union intervened politically, militarily, and economically in dozens of nations in Asia, Africa, Latin America, the Middle East, and the Caribbean in an effort to protect their strategic interests. While students will learn about the war in Vietnam in eleventh grade, teachers should select examples of Cold War proxy wars from each continent affected by the global conflict. Students should be sure that they consider the varied perspectives of the people on the ground in each nation, as well as the American and Soviet interests. This question can help students connect de-

colonization to Cold War struggles and place them in a comparative context: **How did former colonies respond to the Cold War and liberation?**

These "Third World" interventions intersected with movements for independence and nation-building, creating opportunities for nationalist leaders to improve their political position by playing superpowers against each other. But superpower interventions also complicated internal developments in those regions, often compelling leaders or factions to align with one or the other superpowers and follow their development plans. Teachers should consider assigning a research project in which students study in depth one "hot spot" in the Cold War, which was a site of intense conflict outside of the Soviet Union and United States. The Cold War Blueprint provides detailed instructions and sources for these ten hot spots: Algerian War of Independence (1954-1962); Afghanistan (1979-1989); Cambodia (specifically the Cambodian genocide); Angola; Nicaragua; Guatemala; Congo; Iran; Hungary; Cuba. The Blueprint is a free curriculum developed by the California History-Social Science Project (http://chssp.ucdavis.edu).

A wave of new states formed throughout Asia and Africa, promising liberal democratic governments and market economies. India led the way in 1947, becoming the world's largest democracy. Falling economic opportunities after the oil crisis of the 1970s prompted a wave of migrations from former colonies to imperial metropoles, or former imperial centers. Britain, France, and other western European nations became increasingly diverse as former subjects relocated there permanently in search of economic opportunity.

As industrialized nations grew more dependent on foreign oil, the Middle East became a central battleground of the Cold War. Students can continue their comparative studies of the Cold War in the Middle East by considering this question: **How was the Cold War waged all over the world?** In the Middle East, nationalism emerged as powerful force. For example, Iran nationalized its oil industry after WWII, provoking an international backlash that ultimately ended in a CIA-led coup d'etat in 1953. Middle Eastern nations also often tried to play one superpower against the other. The legacy of the Holocaust greatly influenced world opinion favoring the idea of a Jewish state. In 1947, the United Nations passed a partition plan that would have divided the British Mandate for Palestine into separate Jewish and Arab states. When the British Mandate for Palestine expired in 1948, David Ben-Gurion established the Jewish state of Israel. Arab nations, such as Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Iraq, and parts of Turkey, also achieved their independence through their respective mandates. Students should return back to the Balfour Declaration and recall the competing interests in the creation of Israel. In response to an independent Israel, the Arab states surrounding Israel launched an invasion of the newly-declared nation. Students should use this post-colonial and Cold War background as part of the context that frames the ongoing struggles in the Middle East.

After nearly half a century of proxy wars and worldwide tensions related to the Cold War, the Soviet Union collapsed from both internal and external weaknesses. Students can consider the question: **How and why did the Cold War end?** to chart developments that led to the dissolution of the Soviet Union.

Economic problems within the nation and an overburdened military weakened the country. Gorbachev's reform policies unintentionally encouraged dissidents to push for even greater change, ultimately leading to the breakup of the Soviet Union. Its disintegration spawned several independent republics, reflecting the principles of national identity and self-determination. Teachers can use the Cold War Blueprint lesson on the end of the Cold War to help students identify change over time and cause and effect in bringing about the end of the Cold War. The lesson highlights the breakdown of détente, pressures on the Soviet Union like the ongoing war in Afghanistan and dissidents, developments in the United States, and the diplomatic relations between the American leaders. These complex inter-connected causes help students to navigate the web of worldwide relations through the late 1980s.

Nation-Building in the Contemporary World

- How have nations organized in the post-Cold War world?
- How have nations struggled in similar and different ways to achieve economic, political, and social stability?
- How have developing nations worked together to identify and attempt to solve challenges?

Stretching from the World War II years through the contemporary period, former colonies and dependent nations have embraced different political and economic systems in an effort to provide stability and security. Students can study the past thirty years of global history in a comparative context by

addressing the question: **How have nations organized in the post-Cold War world?** Through the study of diverse regions and peoples, students learn in this unit that many nations share similar challenges in attempting to unite. This question can help guide students as they explore common challenges faced by nations: **How have nations struggled in similar and different ways to achieve economic, political, and social stability?** For example, as in some European countries, the presence of multiple ethnic, linguistic, and cultural groups within the borders of an individual state influenced nation-building efforts in developing regions. Further, many places have experienced civil wars or regional disputes that led to civilian casualties. Dictators continue to rule several nation-states. At the same time, other countries have shifted to civilian governments and popular, free, multiparty elections. In this unit, students can engage in a comparative analysis of postcolonial developments in at least three of the following regions: Africa, the Middle East, Latin America, or China. Students can demonstrate their understanding of the contemporary world through multimedia projects, written reports, or structured oral presentations. Teachers may also want to add a civics component to this unit, in which students are asked to participate in a virtual or real life situation that connects them to the region or topic of study.

Newly independent nations faced many challenges in the post-colonial era. These new countries inherited colonial borders that artificially divided some ethnic groups into multiple states. The opposite process was equally destructive: new governments used coercive and authoritarian means in attempts to unify

multiple ethnic groups within their inherited colonial borders into nation-states where loyalty centered on the state. In many cases, European nations continued to exercise considerable political and economic influence over former colonies, challenging the autonomy of these states. Serious problems achieving economic development contributed to the lowest longevity rates in the world. While most residents in sub-Saharan Africa experienced modest living for decades, many states have experienced rising standards since the beginning of the millennium. Students might consider more recent developments in Botswana to learn about rising standards of living and engaged citizenship. Several countries contain important natural resources, including petroleum, which may assist economic development and improve quality of life in coming years. One of the greatest challenges to stability in Africa has been the AIDS epidemic, which has killed or disabled otherwise productive laborers and taxed economic resources. Several stable republics exist, however, including Botswana, Ghana, Morocco, and South Africa, where Apartheid gave way to multi-party democracy in the 1990s, though these countries continue to be challenged by an unequal distribution of wealth, corruption, and one-party rule.

In the Middle East, tensions between Israel and its neighbors remain high, especially over a future Palestinian state (typically referred to as the two-state solution) and Arab recognition of Israel. Differences within Islam between Sunni and Shia communities have provided ideological fuel for political controversies. The emergence of Iraq as the first Arab Shia-controlled nation has complicated regional relations. Iran has been a Shia-controlled country for centuries and since

the Islamic Revolution in the late 1970s has been ostracized by the international community and most regional states. The fragile political affairs of the area are further aggravated by its strategic importance as a supplier of global oil, unresolved problems of displaced Palestinian refugees, the recurrent use of terrorism, and territorial disputes. The 2009 presidential election protests in Iran and the widespread unrest and political change that began in 2011 (often called the Arab Spring) are important examples of contemporary political change in the region. Careful study of political and natural resource maps help students understand the relative location and the geopolitical, cultural, military, and economic significance of such key states as Saudi Arabia, Turkey, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Israel, Kuwait, Iraq, and Iran.

Latin American conflicts have often reflected differences between indigenous people and mestizos, as well as between leftist and conservative ideologies and socialist and capitalist economies. In the 1980s, several Central American states experienced protracted civil wars, but by the 1990s these conflicts had subsided, though their underlying issues remained unresolved. Some states, such as Costa Rica and Peru, have long-lived stable democracies, while achieving growth in a globalized economy. As a case study, students may look at present-day Mexico, a nation shaped by its revolution of 1910-20, and the political, economic, and social system that emerged from it. Among Mexico’s strengths are its sense of national identity, and relative political stability and successful economic development. Students can compare Mexico’s experience in an international context, emphasizing its ties to other Latin American nations as well as its

complex relationship with the United States, especially in light of the North American Free Trade Agreement. Students might also investigate why the drug trade (and the violence it spawns) is a serious problem in Mexico and several states in South America. They should also learn about immigration from the Mexican perspective, understanding the plurality of "push" and "pull" factors that have encouraged Mexican migration over the past thirty years.

Students can explore countries in the developing world collectively by addressing the question: **How have developing nations worked together to identify and attempt to solve challenges?** Petroleum exports have been a source of economic vitality for Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) members in the Middle East and Latin America. But many other Latin American and African nations have often been forced to rely on the export of a few raw materials as the basis of their economies, which can also fluctuate in value drastically on the world market. As a result, some nations have ended up deeply in debt to foreign banks. They have often turned to international financial institutions, such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), for assistance, which generally require their governments to undertake drastic cuts in social services as a condition for receiving loans.

Since the 1980s, several Asian countries (particularly China, Singapore, Hong Kong, South Korea, and Japan) became notable economic success stories. China in particular skyrocketed as a major manufacturer of inexpensive goods, which increasingly included electronics. Many historians and political scientists have debated the degree to which China's capitalism is likely to prompt changes

in its authoritarian, single-party government. Some economists project that China, along with India, may lead to Asia's reemergence as the center of the global economy sometime in the twenty-first century. To understand the full complexity of these new centers of power, students might consider the degree to which governments in these regions support democracy and individual liberties, especially as they seek to confront violence and instability. As students explore future economic trajectories in these regions, they could consider the relationship between capitalist economies and varying degrees of democratic forms of government.

Grade Ten Classroom Example: How and Why Was the Cold War Fought?

Ms. Smith's class has been learning about international developments of the 1980s and 1990s. The class has studied developments in South Africa, India, Israel, and Mexico. The last case-study is China. Ms. Smith guides her students through a short lesson that addresses the question: **How did China pursue an "alternative path" to reform in the 1980s?** Ms. Smith's goal is to show students how starting in the 1980s and escalating in the 1980s and 1990s, China's economy underwent significant transformations.

Ms. Smith has her students read a three-paragraph secondary source that comes from the *History Blueprint Cold War Unit,* "The End of the Cold War." Her students learn how in the 1980s the Chinese Government was controlled by the Communist Party, which was led by Deng Xiaoping. During this decade the government began a program of economic reforms. In several ways, these

reforms abandoned the communist economic model and switched to capitalist incentives. For example, they broke up many of the communes and allowed each farming household to make its own decisions and sell its produce in the market. Her students also learn from the secondary source that China's political system did not reform; in fact a series of humanitarian crises, especially the Tiananmen Square massacre, shone a light on the differences between open economic and closed political systems.

After going through this secondary source, Ms. Smith's students read two primary sources and answer scaffolded questions about each: 1) *Deng Xiaoping's Remarks to the Central Committee, Feb. 24, 1984;* and 2) *U.S. State Department Summary, June 5, 1989.* Together, these two documents help students understand China's complex developments. They will also be necessary context for understanding the role that China plays in the world in contemporary times, which they will learn about in the last unit that focuses on globalization.

Source: This classroom example is a summarized version of the "The End of the Cold War" lesson from *The History Blueprint: The Cold War*, Copyright © 2013, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus. The History Blueprint is a free curriculum developed by the California History-Social Science Project (http://chssp.ucdavis.edu), designed to increase student literacy and understanding of history. Three units are available for free download from the CHSSP's website, including The Cold War, a comprehensive Standards-aligned

unit for 10th and 11th grade teachers that combines carefully selected and excerpted primary sources, original content, and substantive support for student literacy development. For more information or to download the curriculum, visit: http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint.
CA HSS Content Standards: 10.10 **CA HSS Analysis Skills (9-12):** Historical Interpretation 2 **CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:** RH.9–10.2, 3, 9 **CA ELD Standards:** ELD.PI.9–10.6a

In their study of the two world wars, students examined the origins and consequences of the Armenian Genocide and the Holocaust. Students should understand that genocide is a phenomenon that has continued throughout the twentieth and into the twenty-first century. Students examine the root causes of the genocides in Cambodia, Rwanda, and Darfur. They should be able to engage in discussions about how genocides can be prevented by the international community, and be able to examine arguments and evidence for and against intervention, the role of public support for the intervention, and the possible consequences of such interventions. In covering this topic teachers can integrate survivor, rescuer, liberator, and witness oral testimony to students, but should be aware of how images and accounts of genocide can be traumatic for teenagers. The United States Holocaust Memorial Museum has published guidelines for teaching the Holocaust that can be applied to other genocides as well.

Economic Integration and Contemporary Revolutions in Information, Technology, and Communications

- How has globalization affected people, nations, and capital?
- How has the post-Cold War world and globalization facilitated extremist and terrorist organizations?

World War II accelerated the trend of globalization, the freer and faster movement of people, ideas, capital, and resources across borders. The question: **How has globalization affected people, nations, and capital?** can guide students' investigation through this last unit. This was seen in transnational developments such as the formation of international organizations like the United Nations, which attempted to create a forum for nations to resolve their differences and to work collaboratively on global issues. For example, the United Nations established universal standards for human rights and became a forum for women's and civil rights activists. Knowledge of scientific and medical breakthroughs has spread worldwide, with international efforts to address problems of disease, natural disasters, and environmental degradation.

Economic globalization took the form of multinational corporations and international financial institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which supported loans for development and endorsed the principle of free trade. The World Trade Organization (WTO) replaced GATT in 1995. Regional trading blocs also developed, most notably in Europe and later in North America. Key to economic globalization was the development of communications technology that

enabled financial information and funds to move easily. New technologies also facilitated the spread of consumer products and popular film, television, advertising, and other media around the globe. New economic opportunities and liberalized immigration laws prompted the revival of global migration beginning in the 1960s and accelerated global economic exchange. Global consumption patterns created homogenized cultural experiences in the global cities that sprang up around the world; for example, critics assert that the "McDonaldization" of the world effectively Americanizes diverse cities. In addition, critics point out negative aspects of globalization, pointing to environmental concerns, the impact on child labor, women's rights and other issues. Using cost-benefit analysis, students may examine the differential impact of globalization by dramatizing a mock Congressional hearing on NAFTA, including roles for American, Canadian, and Mexican business owners, farmers, and workers. Students might also work through a variety of globalization issues through Model United Nations simulations.

Globalization also contributed to breakthroughs in medical and scientific technology, which have improved average health and longevity worldwide. Health problems did not disappear, however. Disease and mortality worldwide remained a function of location and financial resources, with the poorest people—typically in Africa and parts of Asia—facing the most intractable problems. Ironically, other health problems, such as obesity and heart disease, were greatest in the most prosperous nations, where overabundance of food rather than scarcity was the greater challenge. As the twenty-first century began,

researchers, international aid organizations and intergovernmental groups continued to work to address a variety of health challenges worldwide. Advances from a green revolution in agriculture as well as inexpensive and efficient methods of accessing water and energy have offered hope to confront the enduring problems of accessing resources.

Globalization and its critics have contributed to the rise and spreading popularity of extremist movements. Students can learn about twenty-first century developments related to globalization by addressing the question: **How has the post-Cold War world and globalization facilitated extremist and terrorist organizations?** Students should address this question and related topics with the complexity that it deserves. One way to explore these most recent world-wide developments is by investigating themes that characterize recent history and world affairs. Students should be encouraged to bring their studies up-to-date; to read and view primary sources that represent a wide variety of perspectives from people around the globe; and to analyze the historical roots of these recent developments.

The following four thematic topics that frame recent history are excerpted and adapted from Appendix C, *Teaching the Contemporary World*. In the contemporary world there has been a tension between integrative and disintegrative forces. The first, “The Return of Geopolitics,” asks whether the world is becoming more or less peaceful and whether the nature of conflict is changing. The second, “Globalization and Its Discontents,” highlights processes of economic globalization and asks what benefits they have brought—and at

what costs. The third, "Rights, Religion, and Identity," asks how ideas about universal human rights may relate to other value and identity systems in the contemporary world, including resurgent religiosity. The fourth, "A New Role for the West," asks whether the Western world, the dominant force in world politics since the late fifteenth century, is today in decline. What is the West's role now that the colonial era has ended, now that Western prosperity depends on borrowing from East Asia, and now that the international influence of Western powers is being supplanted by rising states, notably Brazil, Russia, India, and China?

The New Geopolitics

Over the past twenty years, the world has oscillated between dreams of perpetual peace and the despair of enduring conflict. A new era began on November 9, 1989, when the Berlin Wall tumbled, marking the Cold War's peaceful end—a denouement to a forty-year conflict that few had dared to entertain. That era seemed to end on September 11, 2001, when nineteen Islamic extremists sponsored by Al Qaeda in an effort to make a political statement, crashed civilian airliners into the World Trade Center in New York and the Pentagon building in Washington D.C., murdering almost 3,000 civilians. Since 9/11, the hopes for a more peaceful world that the end of the Cold War spawned have been displaced by a resurgence of international conflict, especially in the Middle East and Central Asia. While the major powers have avoided war with each other, the tenor of international relations became more hostile after 9/11, as long-standing international friendships (i.e., between the

United States and Europe) deteriorated and old animosities rekindled themselves (i.e., Russia and the West).

When the Cold War ended with the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the breakdown of the Soviet Union in 1991, what kind of world did it bequeath? Why did the vision of a "New World Order" that U.S. President George H.W. Bush articulated in 1990—a vision of a world more stable, pacific, and predictable than the world of the past—fail to come to pass? Did 9/11 change everything? Or was the world in the 1990s less stable than it might have appeared at the time?

The Impact of Globalization

"Globalization" has become a buzzword of the post-Cold War era, but ours is not the first era to have experienced significant economic, social, and cultural integration. During the late nineteenth century, the transatlantic economy was at least as globalized as it is today, with capital and goods flowing freely across the ocean and labor moving between countries without the legal barriers that restrict immigration today. The world since the 1970s has experienced a return to the globalizing patterns of the past. The advent of electronic communications, the dramatic decline in international transportation costs associated with containerized shipping, and the deregulation of markets has led to economic integration among nations and even convergence in social trends, cultural patterns, and consumption habits. In part because of the processes known as globalization, as a new range of nonstate or "transnational" international actors—including multinational corporations, offshore banks, and international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)—have come to coexist, sometimes

uneasily, with the nation-states that remain the dominant elements of international society.

Economists generally credit economic globalization with having increased the world's overall levels of wealth and well-being. Yet globalization has not necessarily reduced economic inequalities among societies. In part, this is because the mobility that capital (i.e., money) and goods enjoy in our globalized economy is not fully shared by labor. While manufacturers in a high-wage country, like the United States, can now easily relocate production for the American market to a low-wage country, like Mexico, in order to reduce costs, it is much more difficult for Mexican workers to immigrate legally to the United States and vice versa. These differences in the treatment of capital, goods, and labor may explain why globalization in the contemporary era has not reduced income inequalities among nations as effectively as it did in the late nineteenth century, when mass migration diminished transatlantic income inequalities. While globalization has increased overall global wealth, it has also bred discontent. Critics in the industrialized world blame globalization for "exporting" jobs, and in the developing world, critics accuse multinational corporations of exploiting low-wage and child laborers, proliferating slums, polluting local ecosystems, and sustaining an Americanizing consumer culture.

Although globalization has bound societies together in ties of mutual interdependence, it has also involved the spread of multinational corporations whose activities far transcend the jurisdictions of individual nation-states. These corporations include some of the most iconic and successful companies in the

world today. Although the history of the multinational corporation reaches back to the Dutch and English East Indian trading companies of the seventeenth century, what makes the modern multinational distinctive is its capacity to spread out the productive process across different countries. Apple's iPod, for example, is designed in northern California and assembled in China, out of components that originate in Japan, Taiwan, Korea, Singapore, and many other countries. A leading example of "modular" production, the iPod's cosmopolitan origins reflect the new realities of the integrated twenty-first century economy.

Globalization does not only affect production, it has also shaped the tastes and expectations of consumers. The ascent of multinational business and new marketing techniques in the second half of the twentieth century have contributed toward the convergence of consumer tastes and preferences, often around instantly recognizable "global" brands. Such transformations have led some critics to argue that globalization displaces local cultures with a single, homogenizing, global fashion.

Yet globalization, as most social scientists understand the term, involves more than simple economic integration. It implies the convergence of societies around a common version of modernity; it suggests that the world is shrinking and the peoples who inhabit it are becoming more like one another. Globalization empowers big, multinational business, but it has also brought the rise of transnational organizations. These include both activist networks such as Amnesty International and Greenpeace and, more troublingly, criminal and terrorist organizations that work across national borders.

As globalization has limited the autonomy of nations and has empowered nonstate actors, it may have troubling implications for the modern nation-state. As students will have learned in grade ten, the nation-state grew in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries in response to larger modernizing changes. Industrialization, class conflict, and the business cycle in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries all contributed to the expansion of state authority, as governments assumed responsibilities for the well-being of their citizens and the stability of their national economies. In the contemporary world, however, the authority of the nation-state appears increasingly feeble in relation to the globalization of economic and other activities, all of which raises challenging questions about the future of governance in an integrating global society. The United Nations resembles an international forum rather than an international government, and its ability to impose standards (such as environmental regulations or consumer protection law) on its own members remains very limited. Students should be able to identify a range of issues including sustainable development that could be described as “transnational” in scope. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the United Nations when it comes to dealing with problems (whether economic, criminal, or environmental) that cross international borders? What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of being able to draw world powers together in one place but not being able to independently enforce the agreements they may enter into?

Rights, Religion, and Identity

During the Enlightenment, as students will have learned, the proponents of

"natural rights" argued that all human beings enjoyed inalienable freedoms—including the freedom to oppose oppressive governments. This claim was enshrined in the American Declaration of Independence (1776) and the French Assembly's Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen (1789). Yet the Enlightenment's vision of universal natural rights was not incorporated into international law until 1948, when, building on an upsurge in concern for human rights associated with the Second World War, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirmed a broad range of freedoms belonging to all individuals regardless of their citizenship, ethnicity, or gender. These rights fell into two broad categories: legal and political rights, including freedom from persecution and bodily harm; and social and economic rights, including rights to material sustenance, health, education, and to gainful employment. Yet, the Universal Declaration, for all the nobility of its sentiments, was largely subordinated during its first decades to the convention of state sovereignty. In this respect, the limits of the Universal Declaration mirrored those of the United Nations: while it asserted asset of human rights accruing to all men and women, regardless of their citizenship, the Universal Declaration included no mechanisms to compel recalcitrant governments to respect the rights of their citizens.

From the 1970s, concern for human rights began to rise. In part, the ascent of ideas about human rights had to do with nongovernmental organizations such as Freedom House, Human Rights Watch, and Doctors Without Borders and NGOs committed to increasing public knowledge about human rights and humanitarian law such as Human Rights Education Associates (HREA) and the Education and

Outreach program of the International Committee of the Red Cross and more recently HRE USA. Such groups publicized human rights abuses being perpetrated by both right- and left-wing regimes. Their work was facilitated by innovations in communications technologies, including satellite broadcasting, that made the abuse of human rights more visible to public opinion in foreign countries than had previously been the case. From this perspective, the growth of concern for human rights in the contemporary era was part of a larger globalizing process.

At the same time, the emergence of human rights as a major foreign policy concern for the United States and other Western countries also had to do with the Cold War. From the 1970s, the U.S. and its allies promoted human rights as a way to attack the legitimacy of the authoritarian Soviet Union—a country that routinely abused its own citizens. The tactic enjoyed considerable success, and human rights activists such as Pope John Paul II, Lech Walesa (Poland), Vaclav Havel (Czechoslovakia), and Andrei Sakharov (Russia) played an important role in eroding the legitimacy of communist rule, helping to bring the Cold War to an end.

Western countries, for the most part, tend to have more complex relationships with the idea that human rights have become an international concern. Most Western countries now describe the promotion of human rights in foreign countries as a central objective for their own foreign policies, even though most of them face criticism from groups such as Amnesty International for conditions at home (e.g., overcrowded prisons, wrongful convictions, or the death penalty,

or the persistence of conditions inconsistent with standards of economic, social and cultural rights).

If the campaign for human rights is a universalizing movement that asserts the basic similarity of human expectations across time and place, the contemporary era has also witnessed a dramatic movement toward diversity in the form of a worldwide religious revival. Reflecting on the history of modern nationalism, students may perceive some similarities in the ways in which both human rights and religion assert the existence of authorities higher than national governments, whether in the form of “natural law” or holy law. Both religious leaders and human rights activists affirm that the individual is not only a citizen of his or her country: he or she may also be a member of an “identity community” far larger than the nation-state, whether the entire human race or a community of religious believers spanning many different countries.

The global revival of religiosity has been a defining characteristic of our times. It is also a development that would have surprised academic theorists of secularization in the 1960s and 1970s who argued that religion was in irrevocable decline. Reflecting the resurgence of religion in many parts of the world over the past thirty years, politics have become increasingly infused with the language of faith. The revival of religion has, in some respects, created new cleavages in world politics, both within and among societies. Anti-Western violence perpetrated by the followers of a fundamentalist version of Islam has contributed to the appearance of deep conflict between the Islamic and Western worlds, especially since 9/11. Students should learn about the roots of modern

Islamic extremism by reading a variety of sources from Egyptian writers and the Muslim Brotherhood, for example. In numerous societies, such as Nigeria, the Sudan, and India, the revival of religion—and of religion as an expression mode of political identity—has bred tension and even outright violence between members of neighboring religious communities.

Within societies, the proponents of religious orthodoxies have found themselves in conflict with secularists, whether in battles over headscarves in Istanbul and Paris or over prayer in American schools. While the resurgence of religion has been a transnational phenomenon affecting many different countries, students ought to be aware that it has been less pronounced in some areas of the world, notably Western Europe and China than in others. Students may investigate if the world is becoming more or less religious, and what the implications of religion are for international relations and for domestic politics in the United States and other societies. Why has Western Europe (so far) seemed to remain apart from this global trend?

A New Role for the West

Perhaps the most dramatic story of the second millennium (1000-1999 CE) was the rise of Europe—a remote, salty, and windswept corner of Eurasia—to global dominance. The “Rise of the West” was a transformative movement in world history, and it brought tumultuous consequences for the entire world. Students should have studied the reasons for Europe’s rise to dominance in the early modern era, from the growth of the seaborne trading companies of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to the spread of colonies in the eighteenth

and nineteenth. Have Europe and its Western offshoots, including the United States, now entered a phase of relative historical decline? This is a historical transformation that students should consider carefully, especially insofar as it relates to the "rise" of new powers such as India and the People's Republic of China.

Dominant at the century's beginning, Europe's eclipse was a central theme of the twentieth century. Exhausted by the century's two world wars and unable to hold back powerful nationalist movements in the colonial world, the European colonial empires collapsed in the thirty years after 1945. Simultaneously, the major west European countries created among themselves a novel confederal apparatus—the European Union—to integrate their economies and to provide a modicum of political unity. As an economic initiative, the European Union has been highly successful: per capita incomes in Europe remain very high, and the west European region has enjoyed an unprecedented phase of peace and cooperation. Yet Europe remains dependent on U.S. commitments to NATO (the North Atlantic Treaty Organization) for its military security, and even the leading European powers are now unable or unwilling to exert significant military force beyond the European continent. Global movements of refugees and global economic forces are also challenging the stability achieved by the European Union.

While the United States, in contrast to Western Europe, remains the most powerful state in the international system, it faces similar challenges. Like Europe, the United States is committed to large welfare and social security

programs that may prove difficult to fund in the future, as the postwar "baby boomers" retire and the country's working population shrinks relative to its large number of retirees. In the world economy, the United States appears less dominant than it once was. No longer a net exporter of manufactured goods to the rest of the world (as it was from the 1890s to the 1970s), the U.S. runs trade deficits and borrows from foreign countries to finance its imports. Its position in the global economy has become that of a consumer of last resort, a role that it can sustain for only so long as others remain willing to extend financial credit to cover its deficits.

China has come to play a very different kind of role in the international economy. Already the world's most populous country, China is projected to overtake the U.S. as the largest economy by the middle of the twenty-first century. At some point during the twenty-first century, India will overtake China as the world's most populous country. Together with Japan, a country whose remarkable postwar recovery in the 1950s and 1960s made it a leading economic power, it seems clear that Asia will be the center of global economic activity in the twenty-first century.

Contemporary trends—the diversification of economic power and the globalization of production, Europe's military decline, and a shift in the world's demographic center of gravity away from the North Atlantic—are finally reversing what historians have called the "Great Divergence" of the eighteenth century: a shift in which European growth rates leaped ahead of Asian ones. Among the most significant developments of our era, then, has been Asia's return to the

leading position in the world that it occupied before the rise of the West. Exacerbating the West's relative decline, oil-rich states such as Saudi Arabia, Iran, and Venezuela control the energy supplies on which its prosperity depends. At the same time, climate effects traceable in part to the environmental consequences of reliance on fossil fuels are leading to demands for changes in the way energy is produced and used. Meanwhile, climate change has contributed to political and economic upheavals that are changing patterns of human migration and fueling regional conflicts. Elsewhere, regional powers such as Brazil have broken out of former patterns of Cold War subservience and economic dependency to become dominant regional and, increasingly, global powers. The present global scene now appears less predictable, less hierarchical, and—potentially—less stable than in past centuries.

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