

PEARSON **history**
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柳居明治十八年十月十日

豊玉 月岡米次郎

松尾 秋山

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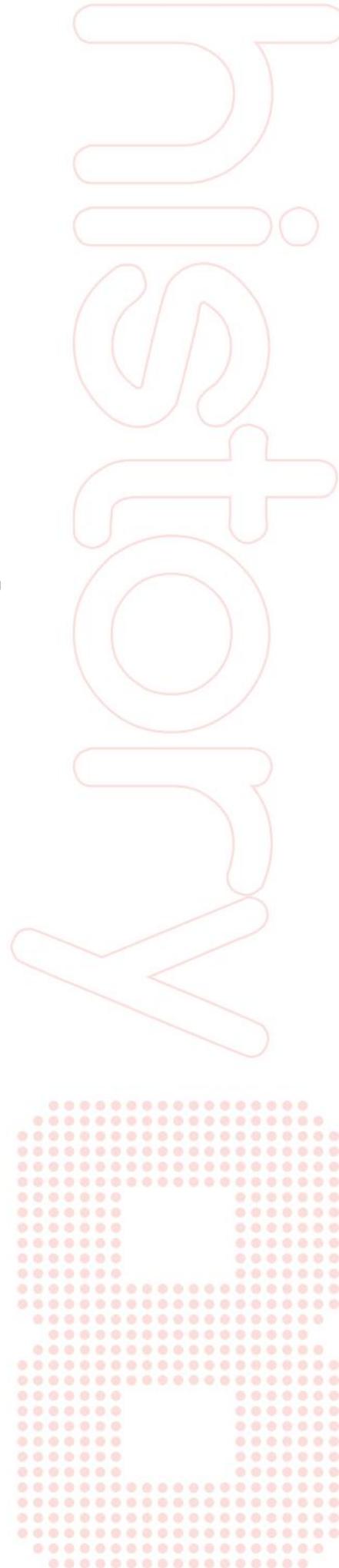
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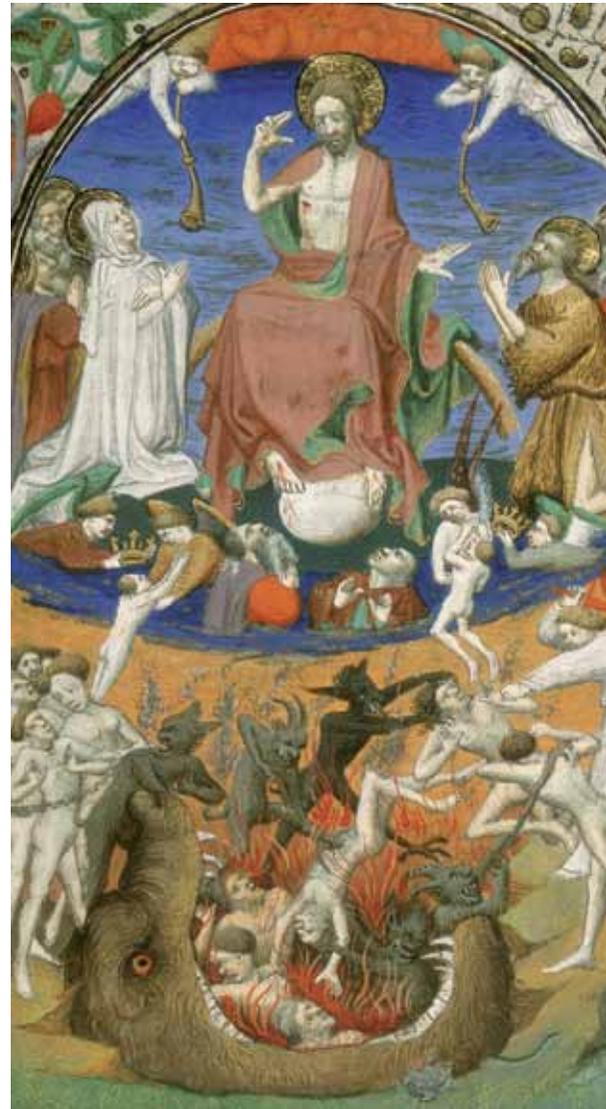
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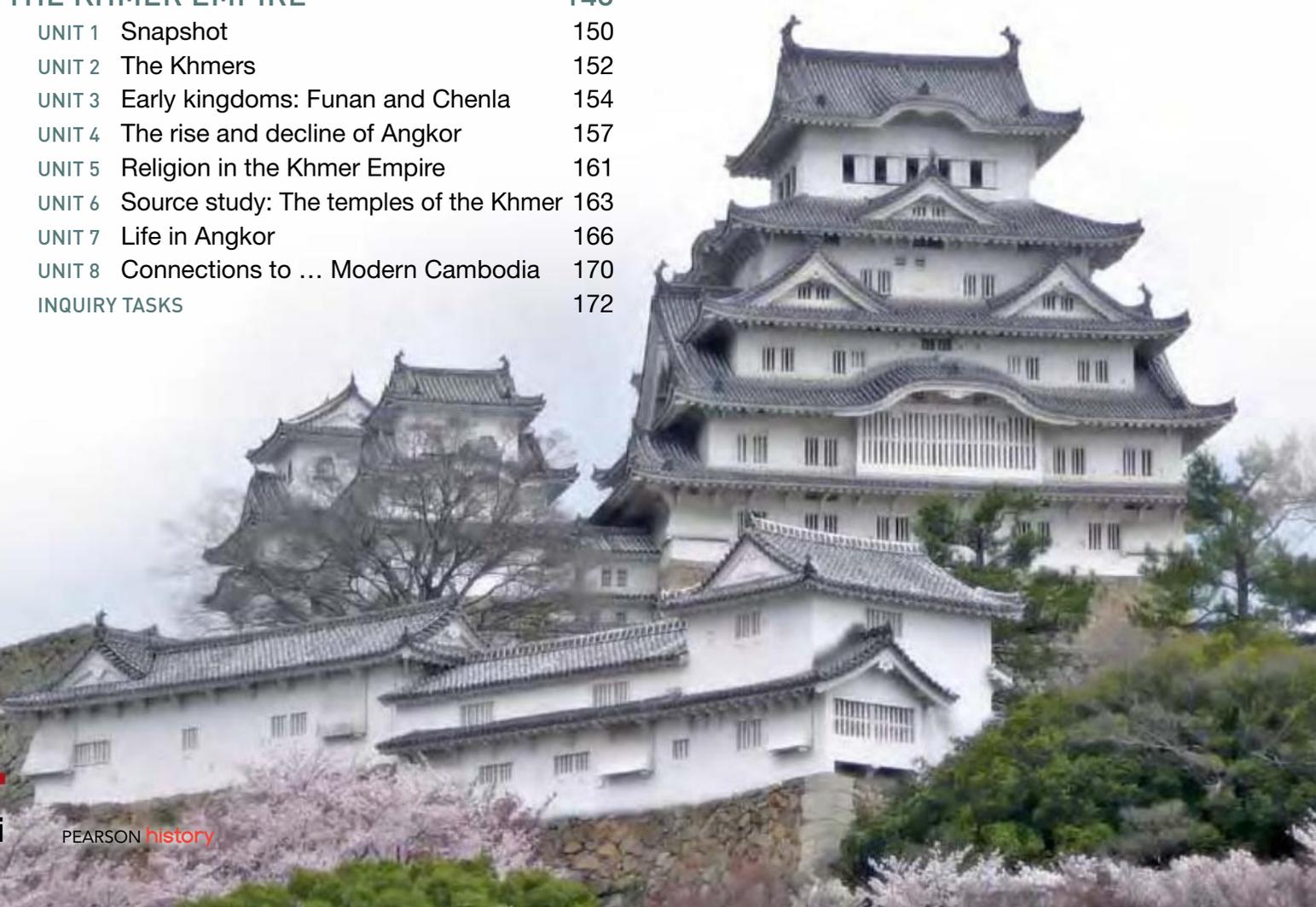


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PEARSON history



Student Book

Written specifically to meet the requirements of the Australian Curriculum, the student book acts as a guide for both student and teacher. It features:

- topics built around inquiry-based learning and Bloom's revised taxonomy
- a dedicated introduction to history skills through the History Skills Toolbox, with skills also built into topics
- Indigenous Australians content written by the National Museum of Australia.



Activity Book

The activity book is a write-in resource designed to:

- reinforce, extend and enrich learning initiated through the student book
- be used as part of an integrated homework program or for independent classroom use.

Teacher Companion

The teacher companion makes lesson preparation easy by linking student book pages to teaching and learning strategies. This teacher resource:

- creates explicit links between the student book and the Australian Curriculum
- contains solutions to student book and activity book learning activities.



ALWAYS LEARNING

Pearson Reader

Much more than an e-book, **Pearson Reader** is an interactive online version of your student book linked to rich media resources. Not only does it support you with activities and teaching tools, it allows you to personalise your class version of the student book by adding your own links and content. **Pearson Reader** also enables you to harness the collective intelligence of education professionals by connecting you to other **Pearson Reader** users, building a powerful and continually evolving web book for your students.

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HOW TO USE THIS BOOK

PEARSON history 8 has been created for the Australian Curriculum History course. It provides a fully integrated approach to teaching the two strands of Historical Knowledge and Understanding and Historical Skills. Through both classroom learning and independent research and work, students will explore these key inquiry questions:

- How did societies change from the end of the ancient period to the beginning of the modern age?
- What key beliefs and values emerged and how did they influence societies?

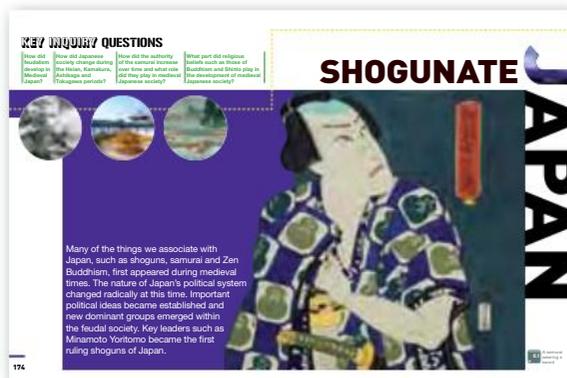
- What were the causes and effects of contact between societies in this period?
- Which significant groups and ideas from the period have influenced the world today?

The student book consists of 11 chapters, each built around key inquiry questions that can be examined as they are or amended to suit the needs of students. Students can also use these questions as a springboard for developing their own inquiry questions.

The chapters are scaffolded in the following way, providing a comprehensive approach to teaching and learning about the medieval world.

CHAPTER OPENER

Each chapter opens with student-focused inquiry-based questions on the chapter topic together with a dynamic image that can be used as a springboard for pre-topic discussion and to develop students' skills in using source material.



UNIT CONTENT

Unit content includes written and visual primary and secondary source material, illustrations, maps, timelines and tables to reinforce student learning.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The learning activities have been written using Bloom's Taxonomy. Answers require a range of responses that incorporate the requirements of the Australian Curriculum History course, namely: Historical knowledge and understanding and Historical skills, General capabilities, Cross-curriculum priorities, and Links to other learning areas. The learning activities can be answered using the student book as a stimulus and also through further independent research.



SNAPSHOT UNIT



Each chapter begins with a 'Snapshot' unit, which includes a full-page map, a timeline of significant events and a brief contextual presentation of the topic.

SOURCE STUDY UNIT



The source study unit is designed to actively engage students in exploring a range of written and visual primary and secondary sources. Students are prompted to develop the important historical skill of examining evidence and to consider issues such as cause and consequence, historical perspectives, historical empathy and moral judgement, and the contestability of history.

CONNECTIONS TO ... UNIT

Within each chapter (except 'Overview: From the Ancient to the Modern World') is a 'Connections to ...' unit that draws connections between the society being studied and the societies investigated in other chapters. The unit describes the legacies of the society as well as addressing connections between the past and the present. The 'Connections to ...' unit also includes a 'Time to think ...' section with thought-provoking discussion questions that are an excellent lead-in to the inquiry tasks.

INQUIRY TASKS

At the end of each chapter is a set of inquiry tasks, also based on Bloom's Taxonomy. Inquiry tasks incorporate content from the whole chapter and appeal to a variety of learning styles. They can be set for further exploration and assignment work, for individuals, pairs or small groups. The tasks provide opportunities for further research and skills development as well as interdisciplinary and general capabilities learning.

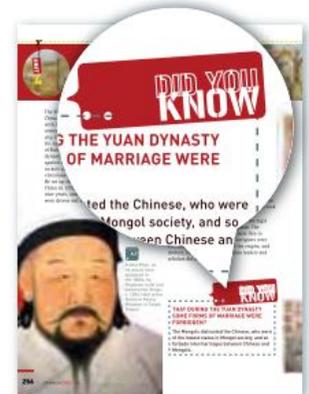


CHAPTER CLOSER

Each chapter concludes with a dynamic image that can be used as a springboard for post-topic discussion and in developing skills related to using sources.

OTHER FEATURES

- Throughout each chapter, many sources are accompanied by questions designed to promote students' understanding.
- 'Did you know' boxes contain fun and interesting snippets of historical fact. They can be used to generate further discussion in the classroom.





THE HISTORICAL INQUIRY PROCESS

Historical inquiry is a process of investigation. It aims to answer questions about the past. It helps you build on your initiative, research skills, conceptual understanding and expertise. These skills can be used for any task and in any discipline. You will use these when doing the inquiry tasks at the end of each chapter. Your teacher may also ask you to conduct some extra research throughout the year.

- Highlight the key concepts and words in the inquiry question and rewrite what is asked in your own words.
- Note what you already know in key words/ ideas, presented as dot points.
- Do some extra research to expand your knowledge on that particular event or topic, asking questions such as: Who were X? What did X eat/wear/do? Where did X live; when, how and why?
- Develop your inquiry question: what would you want to learn specifically about this topic?
- Note all the questions you will need to answer in order to find the final answer to your inquiry question.

1 THE INQUIRY QUESTION

An inquiry question:

- helps you understand the research task
- is open-ended
- will be refined during the course of your investigation.

An example of a good inquiry question is: ‘How was Shogunate Japanese society influenced by foreign cultures?’ This is a good question because it is open-ended—it leads to other questions such as: ‘What was life like in Shogunate Japan before the arrival of foreigners?’, ‘Which foreign countries came to Shogunate Japan and why did they come?’, ‘Was life in Shogunate Japan better or worse after the arrival of foreigners?’

An example of a poor inquiry question is: ‘When did the shoguns rule Japan?’ This is not a good question because there is only one answer possible (the date) and it leaves no room for further thought or discussion.

2 DEVELOP A RESEARCH PLAN

Your plan should include the following:

- the date your work is due
- all the tasks you need to achieve and how much time is necessary to do so
- a list of where you might find information (libraries, the internet, museums, buildings etc.), with the types of information you might find there, addresses and opening times
- if relevant, a list of people you could interview and what information you might get from them
- the key terms that will enable you to conduct your search
- a timeline or schedule showing what you want to get done, and by when.

If you wish, you could also use the key inquiry questions at the start of each chapter in this book as they are, or with your own amendments.



Studio of the Three Worthies by Shubun 1418 CE, held at Seikado Foundation. The landscape was a popular subject for painters during the Ashikaga period.



SUGGESTED WORKING SHEET FOR YOUR RESEARCH PLAN

INQUIRY QUESTION: HOW WAS SHOGUNATE JAPANESE SOCIETY INFLUENCED BY FOREIGN CULTURES?				Date due: <input type="text" value="2010"/>
Task	Time I need to achieve it	Where to source information?	What type of information will I get from there?	Search terms I can use
find primary resources	2 weeks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> internet museum (9 a.m. – 6 p.m.) school library (8 a.m. – 4 p.m.) 	artefacts (and photos of), artwork, book extracts	Shogunate Japan, medieval Japan's foreign policy

3 FINDING PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES

You must now identify, locate and select resources appropriate to the task, and take notes.

In the course of your investigation you will probably be asked to use at least two primary and two secondary sources on which to base your report. Your report will then become a new secondary source!

WHAT IS A PRIMARY SOURCE?

A primary source is an authentic document or original item that was produced at the time of the events you are studying. It might be a letter, a report, a photograph, a drawing, a piece of pottery, a building or any other kind of artefact or written account. It was created by someone who lived at the time and is therefore a great source of records or evidence.

Primary sources can be found in museums, online museum collections, historical sites, buildings, libraries, galleries, exhibitions at auction houses.

For example, the temple complex of Angkor Wat is a primary source from the Khmer Empire.

USING COPIES OF SOURCES

Work from copies of your sources, annotate them, highlight or underline key words or phrases, look up in a dictionary words you don't understand, note down your ideas in dot point form in the margin. Keep a clean copy of each source for your final report.

WHAT IS A SECONDARY SOURCE?

A secondary source is a description, report or recording about the past that was produced after the events being studied took place. It could be a textbook, an encyclopaedia, a historical novel, a biography, a historical movie or any other form of text or file that recounts or analyses the events. It may contain an opinion, as the author may have wanted to express their point of view on the topic.

Secondary sources can be found online and in libraries, encyclopaedias, newspaper indexes, video indexes.

For example, an encyclopaedia article about the Notre Dame Cathedral in Paris is a secondary source on medieval Europe.

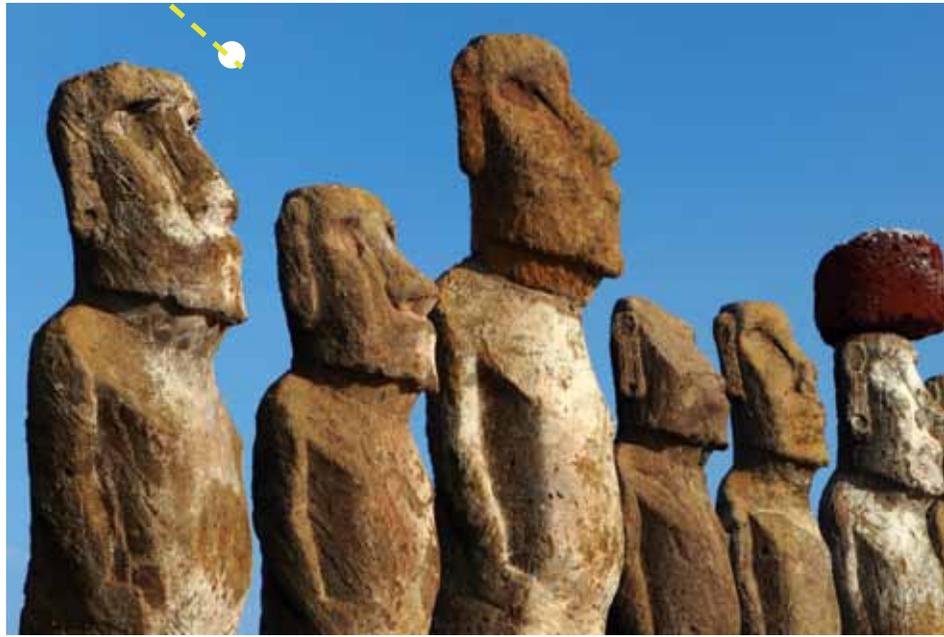
Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris



4 ANALYSE AND EVALUATE YOUR SOURCES

For each source, ask yourself the following questions:

- When and where was the source produced?
- Who is the author? What do we know about them?
- In what historical context was it produced?
- What are the key facts or dates mentioned?
- What are the main ideas or opinions stated?
- Is there any evidence that the source is inaccurate or is missing some information?
- Why was this source produced?



Seven of the fifteen giant stone mo'ai statues at Ahu Tongariki, Rapa Nui (Easter Island), c. 1250–1500

USING ONLINE MATERIAL

All of the following can be found online and might help with your research: books, newspapers, images and items from museum collections, databases, reference works, indexes to library holdings. Following are a few tips about how to conduct online research.

There are thousands of sites on the internet, so when you do a word search using a search engine, be as precise as possible: the more precise your key terms are, the more refined and accurate the results will be. For example, to conduct a search on Florence in Renaissance Italy, type in not only the word 'Florence', but also 'Renaissance Italy' and 'history of Florence'.

Always question the source of an item of information. Check the URL: sites with the domain labels *.edu* (educational institutions), *.gov* (governments) and *.org* (non-profit organisations) may be more reliable than those with *.com* or *.net* (companies or individuals).

Examine the content of the page thoroughly.

- See if the author is identified, and whether they list their qualifications and other publications. If not, consider this site carefully.
- Check the language used: if it is informal and there are errors in spelling, grammar and punctuation, be wary!
- Try to find references on the page to other sources (print or online); look for a bibliography. A site that has both of these is more likely to be reliable.

Wikipedia is very popular—it is free and contains a page on almost every topic you can think of. But it is not necessarily written by experts, so you shouldn't rely on Wikipedia as your only source of information.

Note down URLs and the date you accessed a site in a log to assist with future research and to include in your bibliography.

Explore each source and examine its perspective in light of the historical inquiry question:

- What is suggested?
- How can I interpret this source?
- Is this source useful to answer the research questions?

5 ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCES: HOW TO WRITE A BIBLIOGRAPHY

A bibliography is a detailed list in alphabetical order of the written and audiovisual sources you have used when conducting your research: books, encyclopaedias, websites, CD-ROMs, videos and so on. You should always acknowledge the work of others, and anyone who reads your report should be able to find your sources. The bibliography should be placed at the end of your report. A bibliography should be complete and is presented in a set format. It should include, in order and separated by commas:

If there are more authors, keep listing them the same way

If there are more than three authors, list the name of the first author, followed by *et al*

Don't forget the initial capital letter for all nouns

- author's surname
- author's first name initial
- year of publication
- 'Title of Article', if applicable
- Complete Title of the Book or Publication
- type of publication in brackets, if applicable—for example '(video)' or '(CD-ROM)'
- publisher
- place of publication.

For example:

Addison, P., et al., *Pearson History 8*, Pearson Australia, Melbourne

Note: if a source does not have an author, list it in alphabetical order by its title, excluding the words 'A', 'An' and 'The'.

For a source accessed on the internet, include the following, separated by full stops. Note: the parts shown here in bold type always remain the same.

- author's name, if known, and year of publication, if applicable
- 'Title of article', if applicable
- Title of site
- [Online]
- Available: the URL, or internet address, of the source
[accessed: the date you accessed the source]

For example:

National Museum of Australia. [Online].
Available: <http://www.nma.gov.au/index.html>
[accessed: 25/09/2010]

6 ORGANISE AND DRAFT

- Select the sources you are going to use, and organise them in order of relevance to the inquiry question.
- Compare the evidence found in each source. What are the similarities and differences in ideas, information and perspective? Did you find any gaps in the information gathered? If so, research further to fill them in. If your sources are contradictory, check their credibility: investigate their origin and decide whether they can be trusted or not.
- Based on the information you have gleaned from your sources and your personal knowledge and understanding of the facts and events, write a draft answer to the inquiry question.
- Continue your research to make sure your hypothesis (conclusion) holds up.



Detail of an Italian marriage ceremony from a fresco by Domenico di Bartolo, 1443, held at Maria Della Scala Hospital, Siena

7 YOUR FINAL REPORT

You can communicate your findings in many different ways: in a written report, an essay, a PowerPoint® presentation, a talk, a debate or a mind map—to name a few.

The purpose of a report is to share your conclusions on the inquiry question based on your findings and analyses. You should provide evidence that your knowledge and understanding of the historical period and your conclusions are valid by acknowledging and presenting your sources.

Use your notes and organise them according to the requirements of the task and its presentation. For instance, if you have a PowerPoint presentation in mind, sketch out your slides in order.

Develop a thesis statement that clearly states your argument—for example, ‘Shogunate Japanese society was influenced in many ways by foreign cultures.’

Create a plan: introduction, arguments supported with evidence and evaluation of your sources, conclusion.

Write using your own words. Clearly state your personal conclusions. Remember: if you use someone else’s words, you need to acknowledge this by placing the writing in single quotation marks and ensuring your source is presented in the bibliography.

List your sources in a bibliography.

Proofread your report before you submit it.

USING VISUALS (ILLUSTRATIONS AND PHOTOS)

Use as many photographs and illustrations as seem necessary to support your presentations and reports. Don’t forget that they can be used as evidence if they are primary sources. They will also make your report more exciting and interesting.

When using visuals, always indicate their origin and label them with a short caption or explanation.

Beaumaris Castle, North Wales, UK

8 EVALUATE YOUR WORK

Once you have submitted your report, evaluate your presentation to enable you to work more efficiently next time. Consider the following:

- What went well? Why?
- What went badly? Why?
- What aspects did you enjoy the most? Why?
- What aspects did you enjoy the least? Why?
- What could you have done better?
- Finally, make a list of the elements you could re-use in future research: places that were your best sources of information, websites that were more reliable than others, etc.



KEY LITERACY SKILLS

NOTE-TAKING

There are many ways to take notes; some are better than others. Here are a few tips:

- Listen, read or watch carefully.
- Write your notes in a Microsoft® Word document, in an exercise book or on A4 paper in a folder. Do not write your notes on scrap paper.
- Use headings to organise your notes.
- Look for key phrases such as ‘The most important aspect is ...’ or ‘The causes of ...’
- Do not write down every word.
- Summarise what is being said or written.
- Create a concept map or chart to help you organise your ideas.
- Ask yourself questions and make comments on what you have read, heard or viewed.

EXPLAIN YOUR ANSWERS

Answering a historical question is similar to answering a question in any other subject. First, pay attention to exactly what is asked of you. Don’t provide too much information; don’t leave any out, either. For example, if the question asks you to support your answer with one example, don’t give two: you will waste precious time, and your teacher may not even bother reading the second example!

Elaborate on your answer. Explain why you are answering in this way by supporting your argument with an example, stating your sources and your reasons for thinking that way.

WRITING AN ACCOUNT

An account is a verbal or written narration of past events. It states everything as it happened.

These few questions will guide you in your writing:

- What was the situation before the events? Describe the historical background, the place.
- What happened? When did it happen? How long did it last? Who was involved?
- How did people react? Did the events make a difference in their lives?
- Do these events affect your life today?
- In summary, what was the significance of these events? What changed because of them?

WRITING A PARAGRAPH

A paragraph is a group of sentences that form an idea.

- Start each paragraph on a new line.
- Introduce your idea in a topic sentence.
- Develop your idea in one or more sentences—this is your argument.
- Support your argument with evidence gathered from sources, or an example, and eventually a map or diagram.
- Finish with a clear, logical sentence that links this paragraph with the next paragraph.

Good paragraph writing is the key to writing effective essays and reports.

WRITING A REPORT

A report is a complete document made up of paragraphs presented in a logical order. It should contain:

- **cover page**—include your name, your class, the inquiry question, and an illustration if you wish.
- **table of contents**
- **introduction**—start with a general paragraph about the inquiry question and the questions you’ve asked during your investigation
- **body**—present your findings, ideas and arguments in separate paragraphs. Order your paragraphs from most important idea to least important idea. Support each idea with evidence from sources and examples, illustrations and graphs.
- **conclusion**—provide a summary of your report along with your conclusions on the topic
- **appendix**—attach a bibliography of your sources, a copy of the texts and photographs of artefacts you have used, and all other supportive material, such as maps and graphs, that you refer to in your paragraphs.

A few tips on presentation:

- Use clear sentences and formal speech.
- Watch your spelling and grammar.
- Avoid using contractions such as *didn’t*, *she’s*, *haven’t*, and shortened forms of words.
- Start your sentences with a capital letter and finish them with a full stop.
- Begin names and titles with a capital letter.
- Provide headings in your appendix.

OTHER TYPES OF TASKS



TYPE	LAYOUT	INFORMATION	STYLE
Newspaper article	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Short paragraphs • Text in columns • One or more illustrations, photographs, maps or graphs if possible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A catchy, relevant title to attract the reader's attention • A subheading stating the main information to come in the story, to confirm that it is an interesting story to read • The date and your name or 'by-line' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal language, no slang • Third person (<i>he/she</i>) unless you quote someone
Personal diary/journal entry	No particular structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The date and place • An account of events as they happened for the writer on a particular day. A series of entries will cover a longer period of time. • Not an objective recount of events. A diary expresses opinions and feelings. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In the past, quite a formal tone, e.g. educated people kept a personal journal when on a mission or doing research • Nowadays, an informal tone and language • First person (<i>I/we</i>)
Script	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One line or paragraph per character • Each line introduced by the name of the character speaking (usually in bold) • Extra comments in italics <p>Note: if in doubt, look at some plays in your school or local library.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A written transcript of a dialogue • A short introduction, stating where and when the scene is taking place, who the characters are, and what their relationship is • If appropriate, commentaries on the situation: who came in or left the scene, what is in the background, any extra noises, facial expressions etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As far as possible, the style of language used at the time • Formal or informal tone and language, depending on the situation • Spoken, or oral, language
Creative writing (short story)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Usually, a strict word limit. Make sure you adhere to it. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An introduction to the scene (people, place, time, background events), keeping in mind the historical context (how people used to talk, act, dress, eat, what jobs they had, etc.) • A short description of characters • The action! 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imaginative—show your creative talents and your own writing style
Job advertisement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Short, in notice form • No specific design, but may include a logo from the company hiring 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company's name • A description of the job • A profile of the ideal candidate for the job: their education, experience, personal skills and qualities • Who and where to send the applications 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal and professional language, no slang • Third person (<i>he/she/the ideal candidate</i>)

GRAPHIC ORGANISERS

ANNOTATED VISUAL DISPLAY (AVD)

An AVD presents images on a specific topic accompanied by annotations such as photographs, illustrations, diagrams and graphs. It contains a main heading and subheadings.

MIND MAP OR CONCEPT MAP

A mind map allows you to remember, organise and present your thoughts and understandings on a given topic. It is a great way to brainstorm information individually or in a group. Mind maps also prompt you to think of new ideas.

Start in the centre of your page, write or draw the topic's main idea and with the help of arrows and circles, add your own ideas around it, linking them together. Use sketches, colours, symbols and short labels to illustrate your ideas.

A concept map organises ideas in a hierarchical branching structure using words and captions. Concepts can be linked with phrases such as 'results in', 'contributes to', 'impacts on'.

WINDSOR CASTLE



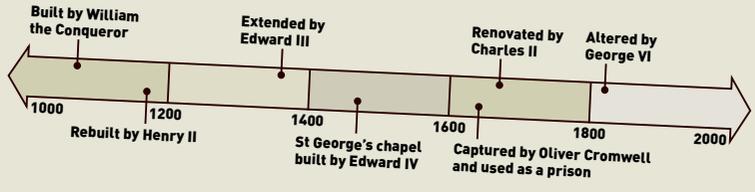



Woodcut engraving of Windsor Castle, 1600s

Aerial view of Windsor Castle

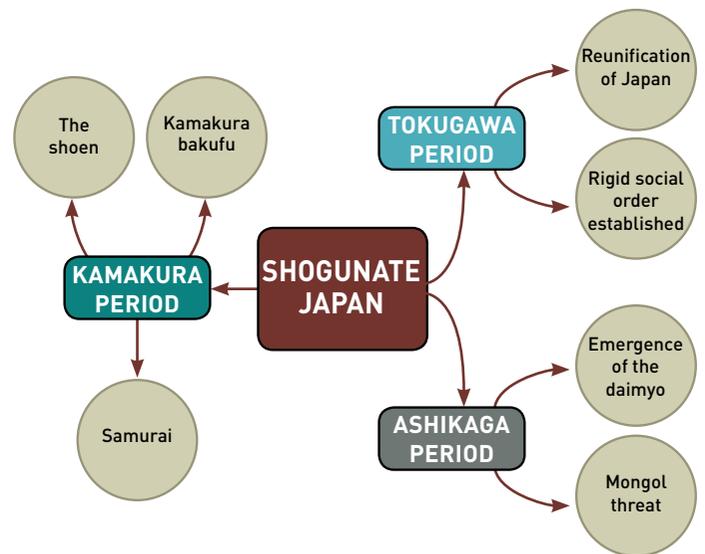
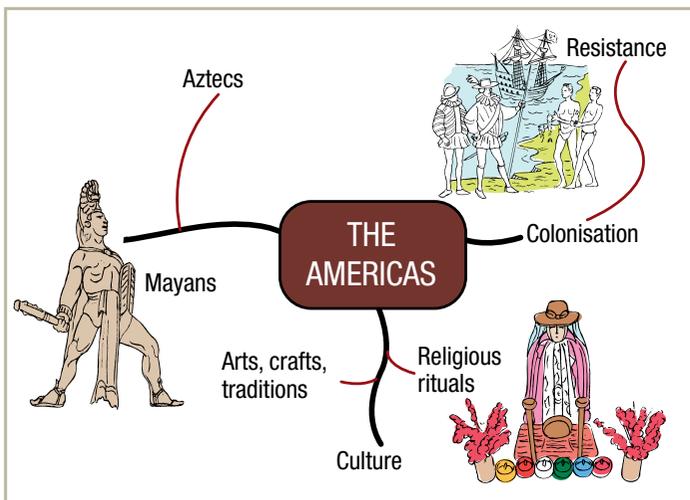
Windsor Great Park

Windsor Castle fire, 1992



Timeline of Windsor Castle:

- 1000: Built by William the Conqueror
- 1200: Rebuilt by Henry II
- 1400: Extended by Edward III
- 1400: St George's chapel built by Edward IV
- 1600: Renovated by Charles II
- 1600: Captured by Oliver Cromwell and used as a prison
- 1800: Altered by George VI



FLOW CHART

A flow chart shows the different steps to an event, time frame or process. All steps are presented in a box and linked to others by arrows, which indicate the direction you should read it. Flow charts are particularly useful as an aid to analysis or as something to base your explanations upon.

FLOW CHART SHOWING KEY EVENTS IN THE NORMAN INVASION OF ENGLAND

1042 CE

Edward the Confessor ascends the English throne.

1064 CE

Harold Godwinson, the dominant lord in England and Edward's brother-in-law, is shipwrecked off the coast of Normandy. Harold possibly promises to support William, Duke of Normandy, as Edward's successor.

January 1066 CE

Edward the Confessor dies and Harold Godwinson is crowned king of England.

**September/
October 1066 CE**

William, Duke of Normandy, invades England and defeats King Harold at the Battle of Hastings

December 1066 CE

William is crowned king of England and is forevermore known as William the Conqueror.

KWL CHART

A KWL chart is a table organised in three columns showing, on a given topic, what you **k**now, what you **w**ant to learn, and what you have **l**earnt. Fill in the first two columns before you start studying a topic; this will help you work on what you need to learn.

THE TOWER OF LONDON

What I know	What I want to know	What I learnt
Founded in 1066	↓	The Norman invasion of England was led by William the Conqueror
Originally intended as a fortress and royal residence		Building castles across England was a strategy used by the Normans to assert their rule
Used as a prison for high-profile prisoners in the sixteenth century		The Catholic Church was one of the most powerful institutions in Medieval England
Has 21 towers		In 1295 the Model Parliament was established

PMI

A PMI is a three-column opinion table showing the **P**luses, **M**inuses, and the **I**nteresting aspects of a given topic or idea. It helps you develop your views and make informed decisions.

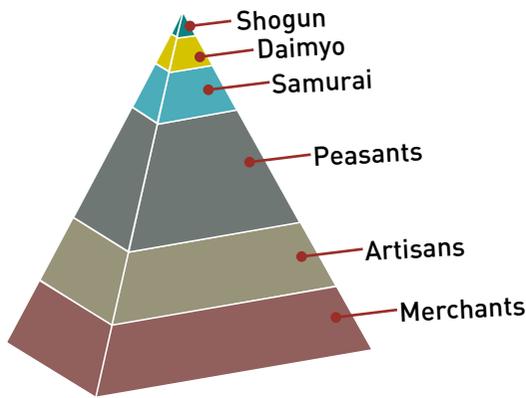
THE LIFE OF A SAMURAI

PLUS	MINUS	INTERESTING
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Member of powerful social class • Part of a rich culture • Had the respect of society 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dangerous life defending their lords • Arranged marriages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Followed a set of rules known as bushido • Samurai women were often trained in weaponry so that they could defend their households when their husbands were away fighting • The samurai believed that his warrior soul inhabited his sword

SOCIAL PYRAMID

A social pyramid is a representation of the structure of a society. It shows the hierarchy and the number of people involved: the highest class will usually also be the smallest and will therefore be shown at the top of the pyramid.

SOCIAL PYRAMID OF JAPANESE SOCIETY DURING SHOGUNATE RULE



TIMELINE

A timeline is a graphical representation of a chronological sequence of events—that is, in order of *when* they happened. It usually looks like a line or an arrow with markers for major dates, and captions or labels. It helps you to visualise and understand the relationship between different events and analyse the evolution of a civilisation.

Note that dates after 1 CE are recorded in chronological order. Dates before 1 CE are recorded in reverse chronological order. Remember there is no such thing as the year zero!

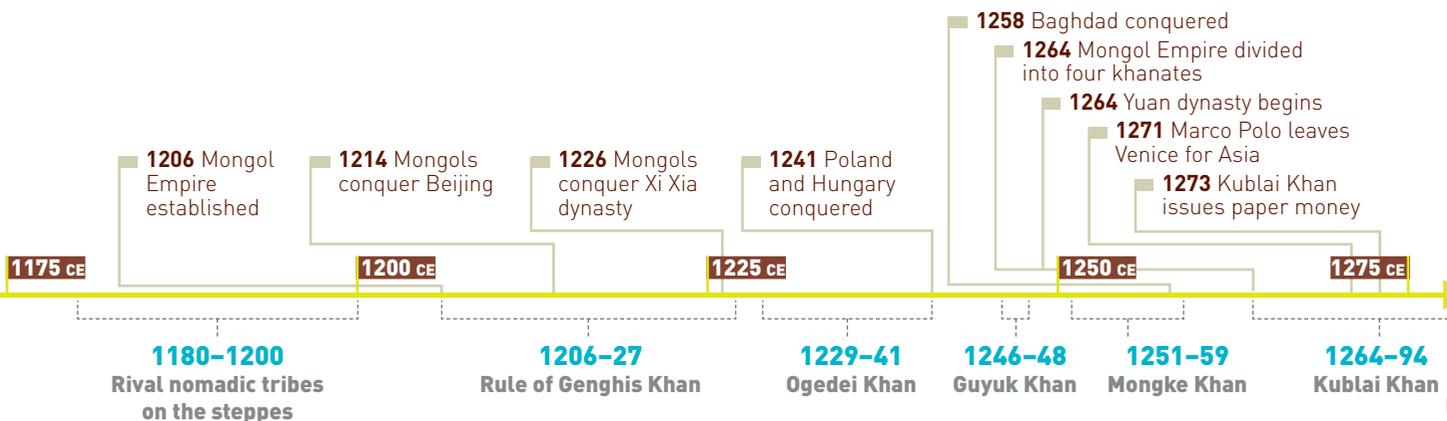
T-CHART

A T-chart is a two-column table that lists and analyses two sides of a given topic. You can list the pros and cons, the similarities and differences or the facts and opinions, for example.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM	
PROS	CONS
Reciprocal relationship: the lord received fealty from their vassals and the vassals received land/protection from their lord	Peasants at the bottom of the hierarchy had almost no rights nor property
Strong line of allegiance and social order	Large discrepancy between and rights and powers of the ruling class and the peasants



From *Les Tres Riches Heures du Duc de Berry*, produced by the Limbourg brothers in the early fifteenth century. The book is held at the Musée Condé, Chantilly, France.



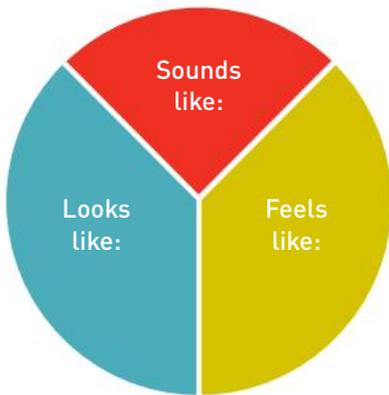
VENN DIAGRAM

A Venn diagram consists of two or three overlapping circles. It is used to compare and contrast the characteristics of ideas, events, places or even people. You can write the connections and similarities between two events, for example in the area of overlap, and the aspects that are different in the remaining spaces.

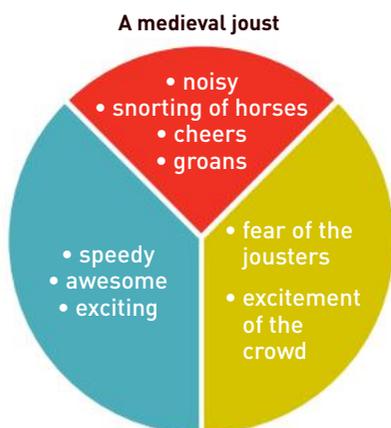


Y-CHART

A Y-chart is a brainstorming tool that allows you to explore an idea or topic using your senses. Divide a circle in three equal parts labelled 'Looks like', 'Feels like' and 'Sounds like'.



Then, in a group or individually, start filling in each part.



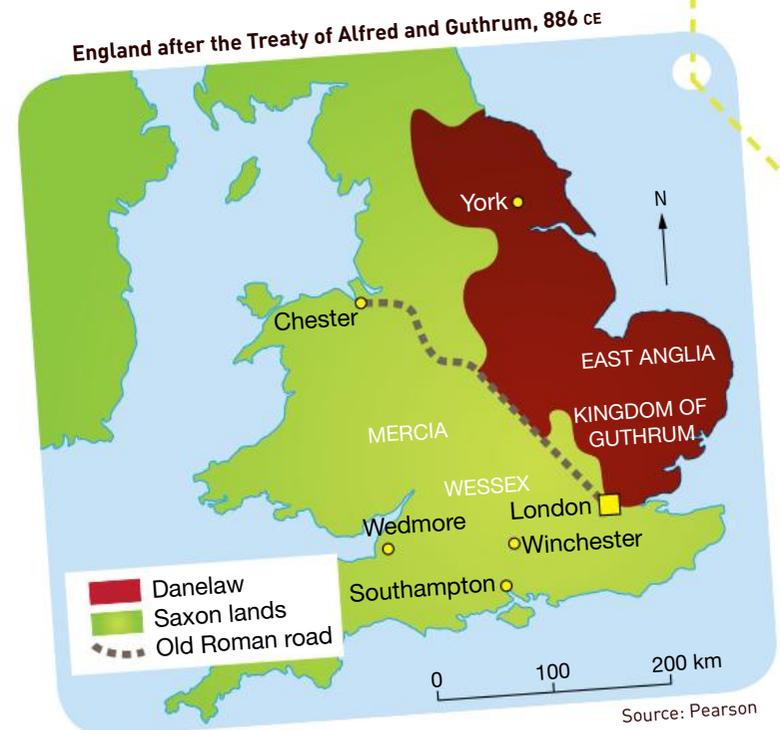
VISUALS

CREATING A MAP

A good way to ensure that your map is complete is by using the BOLTSS system:

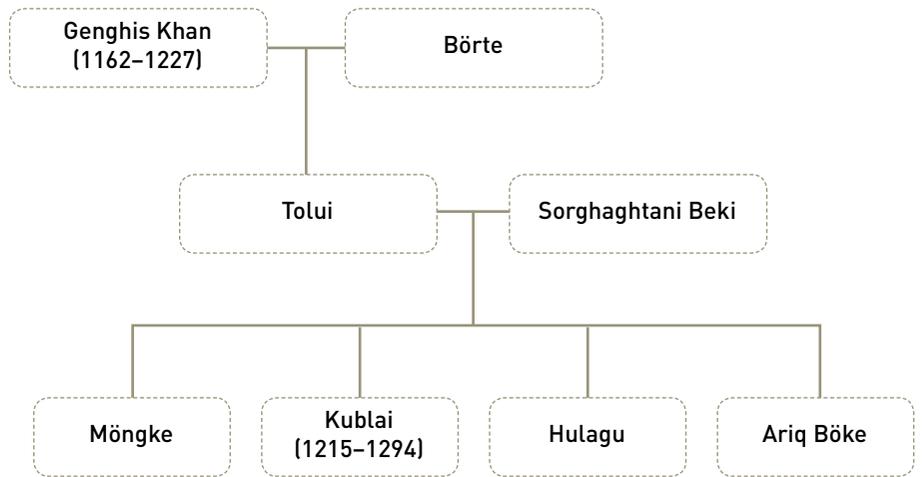
- **Border:** draw an outline of the place to be mapped or source it from your library or online. If the place is a country, show its borders and present a few neighbouring countries to give an idea of its location.
- **Orientation:** add a compass or arrow to show which direction is north.
- **Legend:** in a box, create a list of all the elements that appear on your map—landmarks, arrows, symbols and colours—with corresponding captions. A legend (also known as a key) helps the reader understand your coding system and read your map conveniently.
- **Title:** include a heading to show what the map is about.
- **Scale:** shows how many kilometres are represented by 1 centimetre on the paper. This shows the reader size and distances.
- **Source:** always acknowledge your sources. Note the source of your map along its edge.

Use colour. You might want to show land elevation, different populations, kingdoms or anything else. Maps commonly show rivers and other water features in blue and roads in red, for example. Show your colour coding in the legend so the reader can identify and understand it.



CREATING A FAMILY TREE

A family tree is an organiser that helps you visualise the relationships between family members over time. It shows their names, dates, and marital and parental links with other family individuals. It converges on the main family member you want to study. You can decide whether to make your way up or down in time.

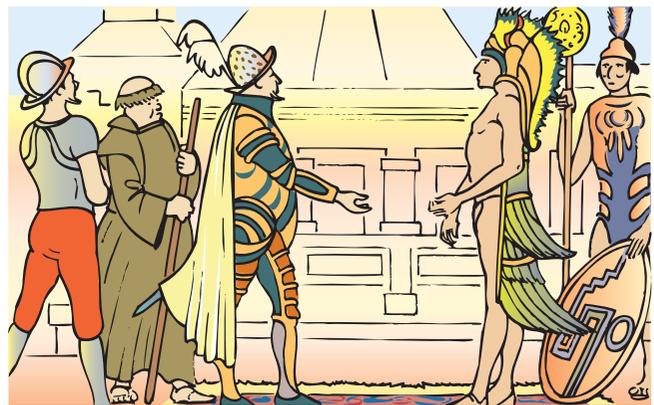


CREATING A STORYBOARD/CARTOON STRIP

A cartoon strip or storyboard is very useful in History for retelling an event or story.

Create a few frames and draw pictures in them. Your drawings should be as detailed as possible to depict places, people and their actions. Add a heading and some captions to each frame, giving dates, names and short explanations.

In a cartoon strip, add speech bubbles within the frames to insert quotations, made-up dialogue or the thoughts of the people depicted in each frame. Your text should be relatively brief and to the point.



Cortes meets Moctezuma II.



Cortes and his men want the Aztec treasures.



Cortes returns with troops to slaughter the Aztecs.

KEY ICT SKILLS

CREATING A POWERPOINT PRESENTATION

A PowerPoint presentation (or presentation using any other data presentation program) is meant to be interesting, straight to the point and well-supported visually. Here are a few hints to help you achieve this:

- Use only two or three different fonts and font colours, and one background.
- Show your main ideas in dot points and in simple language. You can explain and expand on them orally.
- Use as many visuals as possible (photos, illustrations, graphs, maps, short video clips and so on) to support your point, but very few special effects (such as music or animation) so your audience doesn't get distracted from what you are saying.
- Keep it short: practise beforehand and time yourself to make sure you stick to the time allocated.
- Check your spelling and grammar carefully.
- Keep a hard copy of your presentation as a back-up just in case there is a technical problem.
- When doing your presentation, don't just read your slides. Explain what is on them to make it more interesting for your audience.

OTHER ICT DOCUMENTS

TYPE	KEY FEATURES
Flyer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1-page presentation • Attractive and colourful • Catchy headline • Graphics and design • Short sentences • Some white space to ease the eye
Webpage/Blog	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Heading • Subheadings • Paragraphs • Graphics and design • Links • Your name • Sources

Crossword/ Word search	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clues that don't give away too much • Keywords relevant to topic studied • Use online tools to create it
Game	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theme • Design and pictures • Use online tools to create it • Path or road for steps • Fair set of rules to avoid confusion • Fun • Test it beforehand with a friend to assess it

ORAL SKILLS

PREPARING AN ORAL PRESENTATION

Giving an oral presentation can be quite nerve-racking, so here are a few hints to help you prepare and relax:

- Make sure you understand your topic. If you are not sure, ask your teacher for some guidance.
- Plan your presentation, keeping in mind the time limit given.
- Prepare your text, keeping it clear and concise. As it is an oral presentation, your sentences should be short.
- Focus on what you find interesting, then your presentation will be interesting to others.
- Include concrete examples and supportive evidence/sources to show your audience. Sources can include photographs, artefacts, maps and diagrams.
- Practise beforehand to ensure you keep within the time allocated. This will also increase your self-confidence so you are less nervous when the time comes to do it for real. You can do this in front of a mirror or your family. Ask someone to time you.

On the day:

- Remember to take deep breaths before you begin.
- Do not rush: speak at a reasonable pace, making sure you pause to allow your listeners to follow what you are saying.
- Look at your audience so they feel involved, too.



The towers of the fortified medieval city of Carcassonne, in the south of France. Today the citadel is listed as a World Heritage site.



OVERVIEW:



The medieval period began after 500 CE, following the decline of the Roman Empire, and extended until about 1460 CE. An explosion of interest in knowledge and technology occurred after 1460 CE, during the Renaissance period.



FROM THE ANCIENT TO THE



MODERN WORLD



SOURCE
0.1

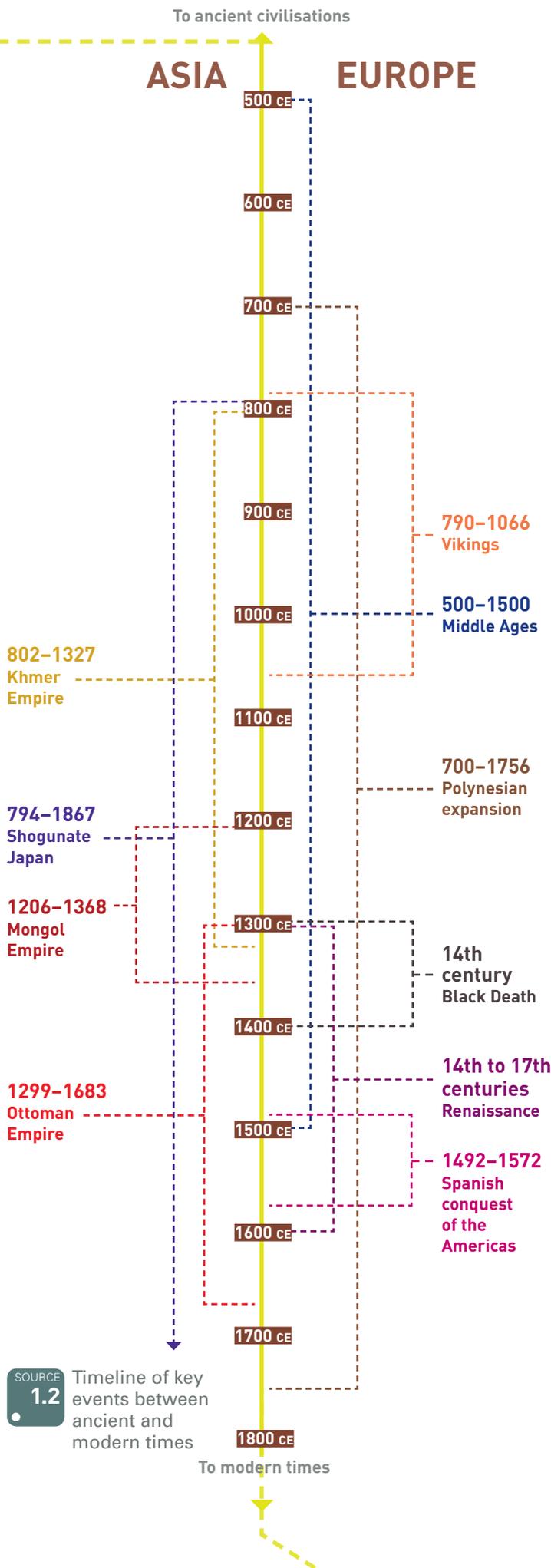
The medieval castle on the Greek Island of Rhodes was occupied by the Knights of St John from 1292 to 1523 CE. The knights escaped from Jerusalem after the First Crusade. In Rhodes, they established a staging post for Crusaders on their way to fight in the Holy Land.

SNAPSHOT



SOURCE
1.1

A double hemisphere map of the world drawn about 1716 CE, by German map maker Johanne Baptist Homann. By this date, feudalism and the Middle Ages had ended in Europe, the Age of Exploration had begun and Australia was still to be discovered by Europeans. The map is housed in the Geography and Map Division of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C., USA.



THE WORLD BETWEEN ANCIENT AND MODERN TIMES

A range of significant events that shaped our modern age occurred in the 1250 years from 500 to 1750 CE. As the Roman Empire declined towards 500 CE, groups of invaders moved into and took control of Roman territory. One such group was the Vikings from Scandinavia. European society in the early medieval period was organised as a rigid feudal system. Feudalism also dominated distant Asian empires. Early medieval times are generally considered periods of little progress in technology and knowledge. Later, in the Renaissance period, Europe experienced a revival of learning and art. On the Asian continent, too, there were major advances in technology and learning at this time.

The rise of Islam saw the growth of a new world religion that was to clash with Christianity in Europe. The Crusades were evidence of one such conflict. Under the Ottomans, Islam spread across a large area of Asia and western Europe. Far-eastern and south-eastern Asia also experienced transformations. The Khmer Empire grew and flourished in Laos, Cambodia and Thailand. In Japan there was ongoing rivalry for power, and control of the country gradually shifted from the emperor to noble families. Central Asia experienced the rapid rise of the Mongols, who developed a vast empire that extended into Europe and connected these two continents.

During this period, not only were the nature and organisation of society transformed but the ability of countries to look beyond their own borders was broadened. European and Asian countries explored far beyond the boundaries of their known worlds. This period saw new connections develop between continents. The societies of Europe and Asia developed trade links along the Silk Road. The European discovery of the Americas and Australia was made by daring explorers who sailed into uncharted seas. There were movements of people and ideas between continents. This interaction of people, cultures and ideas triggered the revolution in technology and science that transformed our world.



EUROPE AND ASIA MINOR

BETWEEN ANCIENT AND MODERN TIMES

The fall of the Roman Empire in 476 CE led to the end of the world as Europeans knew it. In the past, historians generally referred to the period that followed as the Dark Ages, a name that reflects the bleak place Europe became. Modern historians do not view this period as negatively, and prefer to call it the Early Middle Ages.

In the time between the ancient and modern worlds, from 500 CE to 1750 CE, there were a number of distinct historical periods. The Middle Ages, or medieval times, followed the fall of Rome in 476 and lasted until the 1400s. In the fourteenth century, the Renaissance period began in Italy and spread throughout Europe. By the early 1600s, dissatisfaction with the Catholic Church resulted in the formation of breakaway Christian groups, in a movement called the Reformation.

SOURCE
2.1

A Viking scene carved in stone in Hammarsänge, eighth century. Held in the Bunge Museum in Gotland, Sweden



- 1 What appears to be happening in this scene?
- 2 What weapons are being used?



MEDIEVAL EUROPE

The Roman Empire provided a stable social, cultural and political system for a vast part of southern Europe for almost 900 years, until 476. At its peak, it covered an area of 6.5 million square kilometres, which is equivalent to 85 per cent of Australia. From 376 onwards, the Roman Empire experienced a rapid decline. In this last century, Rome was invaded by tribes from the east and west.

THE VIKINGS

The end of the 700s saw the emergence of Viking raiders from Norway, Sweden and Denmark into Europe and beyond. Southern Europeans viewed the Vikings as barbarians because they were pagans, not Christians. Early Vikings were pirates who attacked trading ships near their territory in the Baltic Sea. Later, Vikings moved further afield into Europe, launching surprise hit-and-run raids. Eventually they colonised lands, such as Greenland and, at one stage, England.

Vikings were exceptional seamen. They were shipbuilders, excellent craftsmen and navigators. Their unique, flat-bottomed longboats enabled river navigation, so inland river towns such as Paris could be successfully attacked. The Vikings were not only warriors but also explorers. They were the first Europeans to discover Greenland, which they colonised. They were also the first Europeans to set foot in the Americas, reaching present-day Newfoundland in Canada in the year 1001.

The Vikings left their mark on Europe. For three centuries they raided, explored and colonised the continent. In England, Vikings ruled for fifty-three years under Canute, the first Viking to become king, and his descendants. In 1066, the Viking age ended in England when William of Normandy successfully invaded England. Ironically, William of Normandy was a descendant of Vikings who had settled in northern France years earlier.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

In the Early Middle Ages there were no central rulers. Europe disintegrated into loosely organised local areas called fiefdoms, ruled by lords and petty kings. These fiefdoms were frequently invaded and war was a constant threat as rulers fought over boundaries. In order to avoid these wars, many people left the great Roman towns and moved to the countryside. Town populations decreased while a system of feudalism emerged in rural areas to become the dominant social, economic and political structure for hundreds of years. The Middle Ages had begun.



SOURCE 2.2 Wood engraving of a medieval doctor curing a man suffering from either epilepsy or poisoning. The cure involved the use of toadstones—the fossilised teeth of toads.

Q What does this engraving suggest about medical knowledge in medieval times?



SOURCE 2.3 Peasants working on the lord's land, a scene from the Luttrell Psalter (1300–40 CE), reproduced in *Art History and Literature Illustrations*, by Jessie Noakes, c. 1900–20

LIVING CONDITIONS

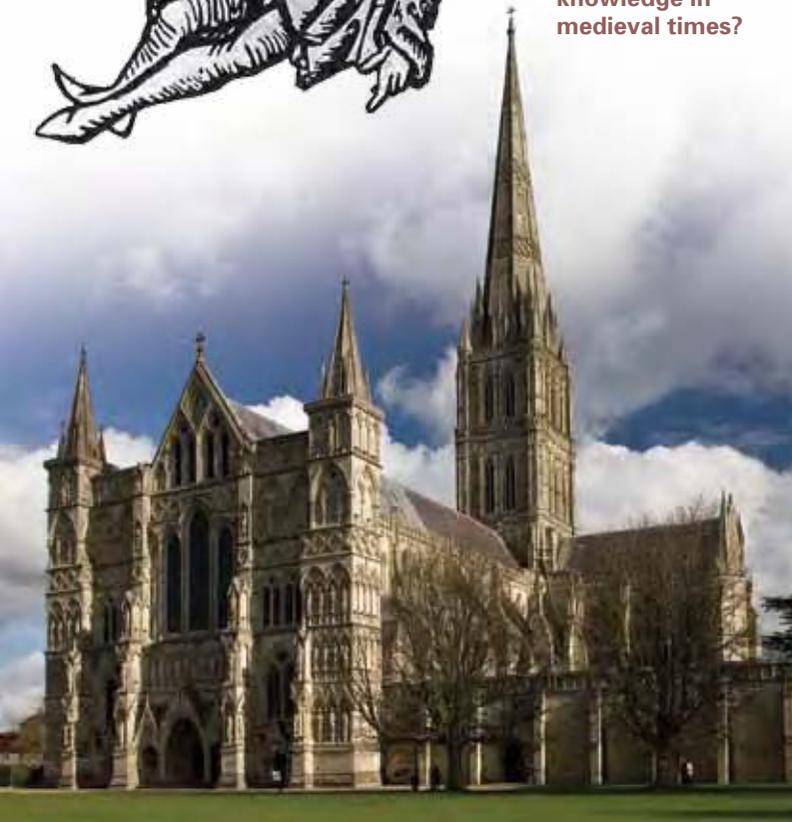
Life was short and difficult in medieval times. Hygiene was poor and, as a result, disease spread easily. In these squalid conditions, diseases such as the Black Death spread uncontrollably through China, the rest of Asia, Europe and North Africa. The Black Death caused the deaths of between 30 and 50 per cent of Europe's population. The impact of these deaths on European society was enormous. At the time, people believed that a vengeful God, displeased with people's behaviour, had caused the devastation.

THE CHURCH

The population of medieval Europe was predominantly Catholic. The Church exerted enormous influence over the lives of people. Priests were seen as the messengers through whom God's word reached the people. The pope, as head of the Church, had more power than the king. Enormous wealth and power was in the hands of the Church. Religious buildings were seen as the houses of God, so they were grand structures.

SOURCE 2.4 The construction of Salisbury Cathedral, England began in 1220.

- Q**
- 1 Cathedrals and castles were the greatest buildings of the Middle Ages. Why do you think this was so?
 - 2 Why do you think cathedrals were built so tall in medieval times?



SOURCE
2.5

The English Parliament Meets before Edward, anonymous, c. 1327, from *A Short History of the English People*, by J. R. Green, published in 1893. On the king's right are the spiritual, or Church, lords. On the king's left are temporal, or secular, or non-religious, lords. In the centre sit judges and law officers. There are no commoners present.

Q

- 1 Where is the king sitting and how can you identify him?
- 2 Classify the following people as either spiritual or temporal people who might have had a seat in parliament: the Bishop of Durham, Sir Geoffrey of Scrope, Cardinal Thomas Wolsey, the Earl of Leicester and the Archbishop of Canterbury.
- 3 Which house of parliament—upper or lower—does the painting show? How do you know this?

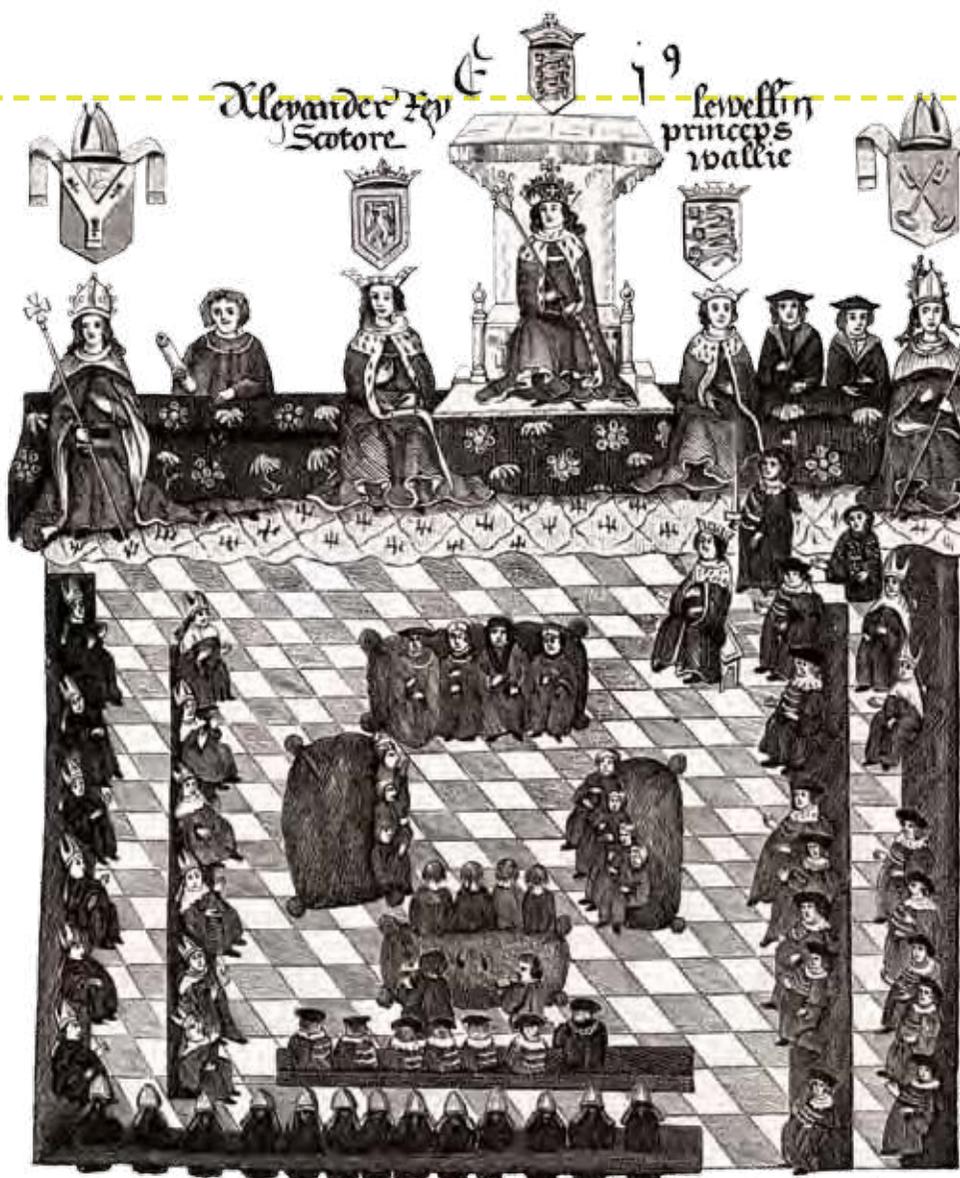
ENGLAND

When the Roman Empire declined in 476 CE, and the Middle Ages began, England became a jigsaw of small kingdoms led by powerful chieftains or kings. After the invasion of England by the Normans, led by William the Conqueror from Normandy, France in 1066 CE, stability of government gradually returned to England.

POWER OF THE ENGLISH MONARCHS

Apart from the pope, the king was the most powerful person in England. Kings were autocrats; they ruled with absolute and unrestricted power. By ordering the census and writing the Domesday Book in 1085 CE, King William the Conqueror was able to document all his possessions and maintain tighter control of his subjects and his income from taxes.

It was another 200 years before the authority of monarchs was questioned. The unfair treatment of subjects by monarchs in the early thirteenth century led to a protest in the form of the Magna Carta being issued to King John in 1215. The Magna Carta outlined the rights the people thought they should be entitled to by law. Barons, bishops and merchants all united to protect their rights. The Magna Carta presented the novel idea that even the king should have to obey the law. Demands that the king confirm the Magna Carta as law continued until 1295, when the king allowed regular meetings to discuss and make the laws for the country.



PARLIAMENTARY SYSTEM

King Edward I allowed the first parliamentary sitting in 1273. Regular sittings began in the Great Hall at Westminster, hence the term the 'Westminster system of parliament'. Two houses of parliament were formed: the upper House of Lords and the lower House of Commons. (The Australian system of parliament is based on this.) The power of the king was greatly reduced with the development of a parliamentary system.

The power of monarchs was further eroded in 1381 CE, when peasants rebelled against the orders of the king. Although unsuccessful, this rebellion demonstrated the influence that a united lobby group, such as peasants, could have on government. In 1649, the English Civil War was fought between those who believed in the absolute power of the king and those who supported parliament and a limit on the powers of the king. The latter group won and the power of the monarch was reduced and controlled.

THE RENAISSANCE

In the fourteenth century CE, medieval society began to change significantly. The experiences of the Crusaders and the traders along the Silk Road stimulated curiosity among Europeans and a desire for further connections outside Europe. A spirit of adventure and thirst for knowledge grew. Europeans were inspired by and looked back to the learned civilisations of the past: Ancient Greece and the Roman Empire. As the humanist view that the individual was important in the world gained strength, the authority of the Church was threatened. The Renaissance was a time of enormous creativity and a blossoming of new ideas in science, art and religion.

ITALIAN BEGINNINGS

The Renaissance began in Italy in the 1400s and gradually spread to other parts of Europe. The five city-states of northern Italy were at the centre of the Renaissance. Italy's strategic position, at the crossroad between the end of the Silk Road leading into Asia and the trade roads across Europe, created enormous wealth for the northern city-states. The wealth generated by manufacturing and trade enabled rich patrons, such as the Medici family of Florence, to support scholars and artists. Rivalry between the city-states for prestige and power also encouraged the aristocratic class to sponsor artists, scientists, writers and other scholars.



ART AND ARTISTS

Many of the world's artistic masterpieces were created during the Renaissance. Religious subjects were still painted, but for the first time non-religious subjects became common. Many portraits were commissioned by the wealthy. Michelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci were two of the many famous artists of the period.

SOCIAL CHANGES

The power of the Church over governments and people's everyday lives gradually decreased. The newly created wealth from trade led to respect for the merchant class. Artists and craftsmen also gained increased status, and city life began to flourish again. The Church's monopoly on knowledge began to loosen. This was aided by the invention of Gutenberg's printing press c. 1440.

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

Renaissance scientists were influenced by the Arabic world, of which they had become aware when the Crusaders returned from the Holy Wars. Scientists developed a new system of scientific inquiry. The ignorance and superstitions of the Middle Ages were replaced with knowledge based on observation and experimentation.

The new knowledge was so revolutionary that it often contradicted Church explanations for the natural world. Scientists who disagreed with Church explanations were often punished severely. Despite this opposition, however, scientific knowledge increased in the areas of physics, astronomy and mathematics.

Knowledge of human anatomy was advanced when scientists began to dissect corpses. Prior to this, there was no scientific basis for medical treatments. People such as Galileo, Ambroise Paré and Andreas Vesalius changed that with their development of the microscope, discovery of cures for infection and development of knowledge of human anatomy.

SOURCE
2.6

Aldus Manutius, showing his printing press in 1502. Aldus was a humanist teacher in Venice. He established a printing house and encouraged the public to read the classics.



- 1 What impact did the printing press have during the Renaissance?
- 2 What is humanism?
- 3 Why do you think Aldus encourage the public to read the classics?



SOURCE 2.7 Arab water wheel in Cordoba, Spain

ASIA MINOR

In the far western region of Asia, a new empire emerged and grew very rapidly—Islam. Within 150 years, the Islamic Empire had spread from Asia to northern Africa and Spain. The Arab world was inventive and scientifically advanced. Along with China, it was the most learned culture of medieval times. In fact, these two Asian civilisations had a keen interest in knowledge and innovation from the sixth to the seventeenth centuries. In Europe, by contrast, an interest in science, technology and learning developed much later in the Renaissance period, from the fourteenth to the sixteenth centuries.

SOURCE 2.8 Sultan Suleyman I (1520–66), tenth sultan of the Ottoman Empire, and his court, miniature from the *Suleymanname*, by Arifi, 1558. Held at Topkapi Sarayi Museum Library, Istanbul, Turkey

- Q**
- 1 Identify Suleyman in the painting and explain what evidence you used to reach this conclusion.
 - 2 Who do you think the other people in the image might be?
 - 3 Describe the dress of the Ottomans. What does this indicate about the Ottoman Empire?



ISLAM

The first Islamic empires emerged in western Asia, in present-day Saudi Arabia. The area had been populated for many years but it was not until the rise of the Prophet Muhammad in 610 CE that Arabic people united to become a strong political and cultural group. Muhammad had a life-changing religious experience and began to preach monotheism (belief in one god). As ruler, Muhammad established a caliphate over which he governed. Successive caliphs, or rulers, expanded the rule of Islam. Within a hundred years, Islam had spread across northern Africa, Spain and west as far as Afghanistan. The expansion of the empire was slowed down twice: first, when the Christian Crusaders arrived in Jerusalem in 1099 and second, when the Mongols captured and destroyed Baghdad in 1258.

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

In 1299, a small Turkish tribe under the rule of Osman I began to gain power. These Ottomans developed into so strong a force that they spread into Asia, Africa and large areas of southern Europe. The empire of the Ottomans was to last for almost 400 years.

The expansion of the Ottoman Empire was a threat to the European Christian world. The Ottomans

were Muslims, so were of the same religion as the enemy the Crusaders had fought in the Holy Land. European religion and trade were threatened. The Ottomans' capture of the important city of Constantinople in 1453 CE meant that Europe lost control of the sea trade routes into Asia. In Constantinople, which was also the capital of the Byzantine Christian Church, the Ottomans converted the churches to mosques.

The Ottomans had an advanced army and were excellent horsemen and experts at siege warfare. At its largest extent, the Ottoman Empire covered northern Africa, Egypt, Israel, Mesopotamia, Greece, Albania, Romania and Bulgaria. Ottoman military strength began to decline in the late 1600s CE, while Europe gained power. The French military leader Napoleon won back many lands that were part of the Ottoman Empire. European discoveries of the New World (Americas) created new trade opportunities, so there was less reliance on Ottoman control of trade. After hundreds of years of dominance, the Ottoman central government began to lose its control over the empire and sections began to operate independently. While the Ottoman Empire's Golden Age had passed by the 1600s, it still retained parts of North Africa and Greece into the 1800s. The end of World War I, in 1918, reduced the empire to the territory that is present-day Turkey.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** What impact did the fall of Rome have on Europe?

analysing

- #2** Draw a Venn diagram to show similarities and differences between the Middle Ages and the Renaissance.
- #3** Construct a flow chart to show the changing role and power of the Church between ancient and modern times.
- #4** Construct a T-chart to show similarities and differences between the Vikings and the Ottoman Empire.

evaluating

- #5** Imagine you were living in Europe or Asia Minor between ancient and modern times. During that time there were a number of different historical periods and political powers—the Middle Ages and the Renaissance, the Ottomans and the Vikings. Which period would you prefer to live in and why?

creating

- #6** Imagine you have time-travelled back to the year 1295 in England. The country is torn between those who support the king and his power to make the laws and those who support a parliament as the law-making body. Decide which group you would support. Prepare a short report, to be given to the group that you support, explaining one reason why you support their cause.

ASIA

BETWEEN ANCIENT AND MODERN TIMES

On the Asian continent, well-established civilisations dated back to prehistoric times. To these Asian civilisations, the European world was generally unknown territory.

To the east of the continent was China, a very old and large empire. The Chinese were self-sufficient and very protective of their territory.

Across the sea to the east of China was Japan, another civilisation whose history spanned tens of thousands of years. Apart from some contact with China, Japan had few links with other countries. Japan was a feudal society. A major feature in this period of its history was the struggle for power among different groups.

In South-East Asia, the large Khmer Empire began in 802 CE and maintained power until the 1300s. Khmer settlement of Laos, Cambodia, Thailand, Burma and Vietnam goes back to prehistoric times. The early kingdoms did not develop a system of writing but historical recorded evidence comes from Chinese writings of traders and diplomats. This region adopted Hinduism and the religion shaped the developing empire.

To the north of the Khmer Empire, on the steppes of central Asia, nomadic tribal herdsmen united to create the Mongol Empire. Under the leadership of Genghis Khan, the Mongol army began a policy of expansion and conquest of neighbouring tribes. Their military skills enabled them to capture and control vast parts of Asia and western Europe.

THE KHMER EMPIRE

The founder of the Khmer Empire is recognised as Jayavaram II, who expanded the empire. Hinduism became the dominant religion and shaped the development of the empire. Buddhism was also later adopted in the Khmer Empire, spread there from India. The capital city of Angkor, built at the height of the empire, is one of its greatest legacies. Angkor is revealed by satellite images as one of the largest urban settlements of the pre-modern world. It is estimated that its population exceeded one million.

ANGKOR

Angkor had a well-organised and planned system of water control. Lakes, moats and canals stored water during the tropical heavy rainfall season. This water was used for agriculture in the dry season, enabling farmers to grow two (and sometimes three) crops in a year. This high food production supported the very large population. Angkor Wat is the largest of the many temples there. A detailed history of the Khmer Empire is carved into its stone walls.

The empire began to decline due to the costs imposed on the people, who could not afford to pay. Rulers built many elaborate temples. A large military had to be paid for and supported. The rulers lived lavish lifestyles at the expense of the people. The Buddhist philosophy that no king was divine also eroded the power of the rulers.

SOURCE
3.1 Angkor Wat temple is an architectural wonder. The Angkor area has over a hundred Buddhist and Hindu temples. It became a World Heritage site in 1992.

- Q**
- 1 Describe the setting of Angkor Wat.
 - 2 What features might make this building an architectural wonder?



THE MONGOL EMPIRE

The Mongol Empire began in the area around present-day Mongolia in 1206 CE, when the feuding nomadic tribes of the steppes of Central Asia were united and ruled by Genghis Khan. A large army was established. Strict laws of behaviour were put into effect. Economic conditions improved and trade was encouraged. The Mongols depended on purchasing goods that they, as nomads, could not produce. Every effort was made to enable the easy movement of goods along trade routes.

The Mongols were masters of warfare. They were expert horsemen from a young age. Their military tactics surpassed those of the people they conquered. Their siege strategies were so well planned that they captured cities as large as Babylon in Mesopotamia. By 1276, the Mongols had captured all of China and the Mongol leader Kublai Khan had established the Yuan dynasty, which ruled over China until 1368.

THE SILK ROAD

The Silk Road was the major trade route connecting Asia and Europe. Under Mongol rule, trade along the Silk Road flourished. The Silk Road was not one road but a number of land and sea routes that connected the two continents. Highly valued products such as spices, silk and carpets moved west into Europe. From Europe, wools, linen and horses were transported into Asia. Along with goods, ideas also moved between the two continents.

THE BLACK DEATH

The movement of goods and people along the Silk Road was very desirable. There was, however, some movement of an undesirable nature—the spread of the Black Death, or bubonic plague.

Historians believe that the plague originated in the grasslands of Central Asia. From there, rats spread the disease to nearby towns. By the late 1330s, the plague began to move out of Asia and travelled along the Silk Road to China. Plague-carrying rats also stowed away on ships travelling to Europe with trade goods. The Italian ports of Genoa and Venice, at the end of the Silk Road, were infected and the disease spread through Medieval Europe. It is estimated that it killed 45 million people in Europe, which was a third of Europe's population.



SOURCE
3.2

A camel caravan transporting goods along the Silk Road between China and Europe. The Islamic Empire, located midway along the road, greatly benefited from this trade. This is a hand-coloured nineteenth-century reproduction of a medieval illustration.



- 1 Using evidence from the painting, describe two ways that goods were transported along the Silk Road.
- 2 What dangers do you think faced travellers along the Silk Road?

FEUDAL JAPAN

Japan's history in this period was one of many changes. Power gradually shifted away from the emperor to powerful families of the nobility and military warlords called shoguns. There were ongoing struggles for power between rival groups. Feudalism emerged as the political and social structure of Japan.

THE ASUKA PERIOD

During the Asuka period (538–710 CE), a centralised government developed. It was a time of general peace. Laws were introduced about the expected behaviour and moral attitudes of government officials and the general public. Links between Japan and China were strong. Buddhism was introduced to Japan from China.

THE NARA PERIOD

The Nara period (710–94 CE) continued to see Chinese influence in Japan. Chinese writing characters (kanji) and Chinese fashions and town-planning ideas were adopted. Accounts of the legends about Japan's beginnings were written. The capital city, Nara, was busy and wealthy but most people lived in farming communities in which they struggled to earn a living. Many farmers abandoned their land, as they were unable to pay the heavy taxes. These conditions led to the beginning of the feudal system in Japan.



SOURCE 3.3 A print showing the rivalry between powerful Japanese clans, twelfth to thirteenth century CE

- Q** 1 Describe the weapons used by the rivals.
 2 This scene can be described as depicting a civil war. What does this mean?

THE HEIAN PERIOD

Japan became increasingly feudal in organisation during the Heian period (794–1185), although the imperial government continued its promotion of the arts, especially poetry and literature. The world's oldest surviving novel, *The Tale of Genji*, was written at this time. Political power was taken up by the noble families—the Minamoto, Taira, Fujiwara and Tachibana clans. Wars occurred between these clans as they fought to expand their power. Emperors gave gifts of large rural estates, or *shoen*, to monks and government officials. As the *shoen* spread across Japan, the power and wealth of their owners increased, while the power of the emperors decreased.

THE TIME OF THE SHOGUNS

Japan's feudal period did not end until 1844. Powerful regional families and shoguns ruled and owned the land. The emperor was only a ceremonial figurehead. The period of the shoguns is divided into periods according to the shogun family that ruled—the Kamakura, Muromachi, Azuchi-Momoyama and Edo periods. The shoguns not only owned land but governed their local area and controlled private armies of samurai. During the Edo period, over 200 daimyo, or territorial lords, controlled and ruled Japan, and samurai warriors were esteemed in society.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** Name three Asian civilisations that existed between 500 and modern times and compare their sizes and locations.

analysing

- #2** Use a three-circle Venn diagram to compare and contrast these three Asian civilisations.

- #3** What is one difference in the histories of these three Asian civilisations?

evaluating

- #4** What effects, both negative and positive, did the Silk Road have on the civilisations in Asia and Europe?



NEW WORLDS

Prior to medieval times, there was little knowledge or movement of people beyond their immediate regions. The ancient civilisations of Europe had an awareness of the civilisations around the shores of the Mediterranean Sea through trade, wars and conquests. On the far-eastern side of the Asian continent, the civilisations that had developed there knew of the neighbouring peoples. However, the eastern world of Asia and western world of Europe remained generally unaware of each other's existence.

SOURCE
4.1

The Spanish in battle against the people of Haiti, in the Caribbean. The engraving was made by Theodor de Bry (1528–98).



- 1 **Why do you think there was a battle between the Spanish and the Haitians?**
- 2 **Explain which side was most likely to win the battle.**

A NEW AGE OF TRAVEL

The first sustained contact between East and West occurred in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries by merchants using the Silk Road connecting Italy and China. When use of the Silk Road declined, sea travel increased. The Age of Exploration followed, beginning in the fifteenth century and ending in the early seventeenth century. Reasons for this surge of naval exploration were the desire to trade and curiosity about other lands.

Explorers sought spices, gold, silver, silks and other natural resources not available in Europe. They saw the spread of Islam in Asia as a threat, so wanted to take their own religion, Christianity, to new lands. There was a genuine desire to gain knowledge about the unknown. Equally important was the desire for wealth.



EUROPEAN EXPLORERS

The Europeans led the Age of Exploration. Portuguese and Spanish explorers undertook the earliest voyages. For the first time, Europeans saw the west and east coasts of Africa and sailed to India. The Americas and Caribbean islands were discovered. Spain and Portugal became rivals as they took control of as much new land as they could. The rights of indigenous people were not even considered. The English, Dutch and French also sent out maritime expeditions. As a result of the discoveries over these two centuries, world maps were constantly being redrawn and improved. Famous European seamen of the period included Christopher Columbus, Ferdinand Magellan, Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake, Dirk Hartog and Jacques Cartier.

In their travels, many European explorers sailed across the Pacific Ocean, discovering many new islands. Among these were the islands settled by the Polynesians tens of thousands of years earlier. The Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan was first to reach Polynesia, arriving in Tuamotu in 1521. The next explorer to reach Polynesia was the Spaniard Alvaro de Medana, in 1595. New Zealand was not discovered until 1642 by Abel Tasman.

THE AMERICAS

Evidence of settlement of the Americas dates back tens of thousands of years. Civilisations developed there, some of which were advanced and rivalled those of Europe. In Central America, the complex empires of the Maya, Inca and Aztec flourished for hundreds of years. These civilisations were destroyed within decades of the arrival of Europeans.

THE AZTECS

Central Mexico was the homeland of the Aztecs. Their civilisation was the result of an alliance of many ethnic groups. They flourished in the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The civilisation was destroyed when Spaniard Hernán Cortés invaded in 1521. Spanish invasion tactics were vicious, but even more destructive to indigenous populations were the imported deadly European diseases.

THE INCAS

In 1532, the Inca civilisation of Peru in South America also fell to the Spanish. Disease played a part in their destruction, with well over 50 per cent of the Incas dying of smallpox. Their empire had reached a population of 20 million at the time of invasion.

THE SPANISH

The Spanish developed an empire in South America. They colonised the land and used indigenous people as workers. In the colonies, the Spaniards gained new lands, wealth and items to trade, and sought to spread Catholicism. They had a strong belief in the superiority of their own culture. They viewed the native people as barbarians and forced them to adopt Spanish customs. Their treatment of the indigenous people was often brutal.

IMPACT OF THE SPANISH

Major lifestyle, cultural and dietary changes occurred in the New and Old Worlds. Indigenous peoples were exploited and mistreated, and contracted new diseases to which they had no immunity. Their cultures were destroyed. Spaniards and Europe in general gained wealth, minerals and an array of new foods. Spain's legacy in South America remains strong today, with many people speaking Spanish and following the Catholic religion.

OLD WORLD VERSUS NEW WORLD

The New World had some old, well-established civilisations. The Aztec Empire in Mexico had thrived from 1100 until Spanish colonisation in 1521. Indonesia (Spice Islands) was colonised by the Dutch in 1665. The Dutch had earlier colonised South Africa. Large tracts of South America were taken over by the Portuguese in the 1620s. Britain took possession of much of the east coast of North America and Australia. The trade generated revived business in Europe. Precious metals such as gold and silver were taken to Europe from the colonies and Europe experienced a general increase in wealth.

In all colonisations, the indigenous people were disregarded by the conquering nations. The European belief in their superiority meant they thought they had the rights to take over these lands and that it would be beneficial and enlightening for the 'backward' natives.

An immediate result of the encounter between the West and the New World was conflict. Where the indigenous people resisted the conquerors, battles occurred. In the longer term, as conquerors established trade and commerce, slavery began. Over time, the native cultures were destroyed.



SOURCE 4.2 Engraving of a plantation in Bolivia, South America, by Martin Engelbrecht (1684–1756)

- Q**
- 1 Name two things in this engraving that would not have existed in this area before European colonisation.
 - 2 Which European country do you think colonised this area? Give evidence from the engraving.
 - 3 What did the colonising country gain from settling this area?

SOURCE 4.3 Moctezuma II (1466–1520), the last Aztec emperor, and one of his chiefs, who were murdered by Spanish conquistadors under Cortés and their bodies thrown into a canal, c. 1754. Held at Biblioteca Medicea Laurenziana, Florence

- Q**
- 1 Is this a primary or secondary source? Explain your answer.
 - 2 Which figure do you think is Moctezuma II and which is his chief? Give reasons for your answer.
 - 3 Why do you think the Spanish Conquistadors threw the bodies into the canal? Explain your answer fully.

SOURCE
4.4

Tereoboo, King of Owhyee (Hawai'i), bringing presents to Captain Cook. Tereoboo and his party travelling by catamaran with ten men on each side propelling it with paddles. James Cook was the first European to visit the Hawaiian Islands, which he named the Sandwich Islands. From *New System of Geography*, by Thomas Bankes, c. 1785



THE POLYNESIANS IN THE PACIFIC

Polynesia consists of the islands within the triangle of Easter Island, Hawai'i and Fiji. Human migration into this region dates back to the Ice Age, 50 000 years ago. The people became excellent navigators, as most of their region is sea, not land. Polynesian culture developed in Tonga, Fiji and Samoa but as other islands were settled, the culture spread. Eventually, the 'triangle' became known as Polynesia. Polynesia developed in isolation from the rest of the world.

Europeans first began reaching parts of Polynesia in the 1500s CE. As there appeared to be no trade interests for Europeans, Polynesia was not colonised. However, when exploration intensified, between 1760 and 1800, colonies were established by European powers. Foreign diseases to which the indigenous people had no immunity killed many Polynesians. Many were also taken to the colonies in South America as slaves. Missionaries preached Christianity and imposed their own cultures and languages on the people. In the twentieth century, many islands gained their independence. Some, like Rapa Nui, are still colonies.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** Which countries embarked on voyages of discovery and what did they hope to gain from these?

analysing

- #2** Explain how the well-established civilisations of the New World were so easily decimated by the foreigners.

evaluating

- #3** Do you think the actions of European explorers, such as the Spanish, were justifiable? Explain your answer.

creating

- #4** Prepare an informative poster, electronic slide presentation or internet page outlining Polynesian culture and history.

SOURCE
5.1

The Adoration of the Magi, by Leonardo da Vinci, 1481. Leonardo began the painting in Florence, but departed for Milan the following year, leaving the painting unfinished. It has been in the Uffizi Gallery in Florence since 1670.



KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

Who were the Vikings and how did they live?

Why did the Vikings explore and settle beyond Scandinavia?

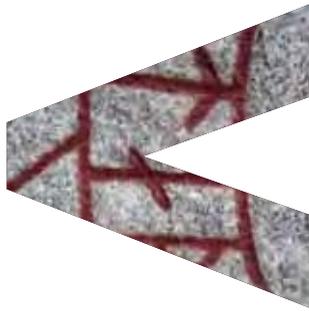
How did the Vikings and the societies with which they had contact influence each other?

What were the long-term legacies of Viking expansion?



The image we have today of Vikings is of bloodthirsty warriors wreaking havoc wherever they travelled. But is this a true and complete picture? By studying the archaeological record and reading accounts written over time, it is possible to gain a clearer view of the impact these fascinating people had on Europe and beyond for almost 300 years.

THE



SOURCE
0.1 Modern re-enactment of a
Viking raid on Lindisfarne,
England in 793 CE



KNOWLEDGE

SNAPSHOT



THE VIKING REALM

LEGEND

- Viking settlements
- Viking homelands
- Land and river routes
- Europe
- Byzantine Empire
- Sea routes



SOURCE 1.1 The Viking realm

- **793** Lindisfarne monastery, England, attacked by Norwegians
- **795** First raids on Scotland and Ireland
- **800 CE**
- **800** Norwegians settle Faroe Islands
- **810** Danes attack Friesland, northern Holland

- **c.840** Dublin, Ireland founded by Norwegians
- **844** First raids on Spain

- **850 CE**
- **850** Danes spend winter in England. First raids on France
- **865** Swedes attack Constantinople, Turkey
- **866** York captured by Danes, who soon rule more than half of England
- **870** Iceland settled by Norwegians

- **886** Danelaw established through the Treaty of Alfred and Guthrum

- **900 CE**
- **911** French make a treaty with Rollo



- **950 CE**
- **986** Erik the Red leads settlers to Greenland

- **1000 CE**
- **1000** Lief Erikson reaches North America
- **c. 1010** Settlement established at L'Anse aux Meadows
- **1013** England falls to Danish invasion

- **1042** Anglo-Saxon House of Wessex regains rule of England

- **1050 CE**
- **1066** Normans defeat Saxons at the Battle of Hastings, England

- **1100 CE**

SOURCE
1.2 Timeline of the
Viking Age

ORIGINS OF THE VIKINGS

Until the end of the eighth century, the Vikings lived mostly as farmers, fishers, craftspeople and traders in that part of northern Europe we today call Scandinavia. The countries that make up Scandinavia are Norway, Denmark and Sweden.

Norway, from where the first Viking raiders came, is mountainous and has large areas of forest. Farming and grazing land is limited. Deep inlets (fjords) run into the sea and the climate can be harsh, especially in the north. Areas of Sweden are mountainous but there are also large tracts of fertile farming land. Denmark, to the south, is mostly flat.

Before the Vikings began making their great voyages and travels of conquest and trade, they were ruled by local kings who were sometimes at war with each other over Scandinavia's limited local resources. Because of the geography of the land and its limited capacity to provide food, any significant increase in population would have a great impact on its inhabitants. It is thought that this was one of the reasons for the seafaring expeditions that were undertaken before the Viking Age. These began with the first raid on the Lindisfarne monastery in England in 793 CE. Because most Scandinavians tended to live within reach of water, they were skilled sailors, navigators and ship builders—important skills to have when they later set out on their longships to attack other regions.

For almost 300 years after 793 CE, the Vikings left their lands in Scandinavia and traded and plundered their way across vast distances of land and sea in search of wealth and new lands to settle. Their journeys took them from the Faroe Islands to Greenland and North America, to England, Scotland and Ireland, to France and Spain and even as far as Constantinople in Turkey.



WHO WERE THE VIKINGS?

The origin of the word ‘Viking’ is unclear, and its meaning may have changed over time. Before the Vikings began their first seafaring raids on the lands we know today as England, Scotland and Ireland, the Anglo-Saxons used the word *wicing* to describe any pirate or raider from another land. The word *viking* was also a word in the Old Norse language and was thought to mean a ‘sailor who came from the Vik district of the Oslo fjord’, though its meaning altered over time to include all sailors from Scandinavia, particularly Norway and Denmark. To those attacked by them, these Vikings were usually known as the ‘Norsemen’—the men from the north. Over time, these Norwegians, Danes and Swedes became known collectively as the Vikings, whether they were actual warriors or not.

LANDS AND CLIMATE

The first Viking raiders came from present-day Norway. As you read in Unit 1, Norway is very mountainous and farming land is limited. Sources 2.1 and 2.2 show some examples of its rugged terrain and winter climate.

SOURCE 2.1 Norway’s fjord country



SOURCE 2.2 Winter in Norway

- Q** 1 What foods might have been found or caught in this type of environment?
- 2 What impact might the colder months have had on food sources?

Scandinavian environments were (and still are) often harsh, especially in Norway and Sweden. As other peoples have done all over the Earth, however, people in Scandinavia adapted to their environments, and later to other environments beyond their homelands.

SOURCE
2.3

Gilded bronze weather vane from a twelfth-century Viking ship, showing a shepherd killing a wild beast. Held at Historiska Muséet, Oslo. These instruments were attached to ships, often with streamers attached, as a guide to wind strength and direction.

Q

How might knowledge of wind speed and strength have helped Viking navigators?

A SEAFARING PEOPLE

Like all settled peoples, most Vikings lived in villages and towns along the coast or near water, or in the countryside.

Due to their proximity to water and because of the length of their coastlines, Scandinavians were skilled boat-builders, navigators and sailors. By water was often the quickest way of travelling from one place to another. Prehistoric rock carvings dated to 1000 BCE showing rowing boats have been found in Denmark, illustrating that the Scandinavians' shipbuilding and sailing skills developed over a long period of time. A basic section of cloth held to a length of branch or timber, for example, eventually evolved into a huge sail on a tall mast. The Scandinavians may also have learnt skills from people of other regions as they sailed beyond their own shores.

Viking ships were made mostly from oak, which grew in great forests. Access to vast forests meant that shipbuilders could choose timber that suited

the straight or curved sections of their vessels. They used basic tools such as axes, saws, hammers and chisels, and as well as a type of drill. All ships were built with the same **clinker method**: each plank used in the construction of the ship's hull slightly overlapped the plank below it, with the planks held together by iron rivets or nails. Tar and plant matter plugged any gaps between the planks. This kept the ship light, seaworthy and flexible. A steering rudder was set on the starboard (right) side near the rear of the ship.

The Vikings built different types of boats for different purposes. We know this from the many wrecks that have been found sunk in water or buried on land. There were longships of different sizes, ranging from 17 to 30 metres in length. Some of these were referred to as 'dragon ships' because of their ornate prows (front of the ship), carved into the shape of dragon heads. The larger ships may have had up to sixty oarsmen. The Vikings also had trade ships with open holds in the middle of the deck, which sometimes had very large crews. Other boats were constructed for fishing and ferrying people about. Some boats had high sides, others sat quite low in the water, depending on their purpose. A general feature of all Viking boats was that they had relatively shallow draughts (how deep they sat in the water). The shallow draught was a very useful feature because it meant that the ships could be sailed far up the shallow waters of rivers and lakes.

NAVIGATION

When sailing along the coasts, the Vikings probably used natural landmarks and the position of settlements to guide them. But once out at sea, away from sight of land, they must have relied on other navigation systems. Historians know that they did have a basic form of 'sun compass', whereby sailors measured the position of their ship relative

SOURCE
2.4

Preserved remains of a Viking longship recovered from Tune, Norway. The ship is now in the Viking Ship Museum in Oslo, Norway.





SOURCE 2.5 Shoe with ice skate, York Archaeological Trust



- 1 What natural materials might this shoe and skate have been made from?
- 2 What does this tell you about Viking use of the resources around them, and their adaptability to the climate?

to the Sun to guide them. It is thought they also used the position of the stars at night in much the same way. There would also have been an oral tradition of information being passed down from generation to generation about the time taken to get from one place to another. Knowledge of ocean currents, sea birds and aquatic life may also have helped the Vikings determine where a ship was located at any given time. Despite the knowledge and skills they possessed, it is likely that many Viking ships and fleets perished in severe storms or were blown off course.

DAILY LIFE

How the Vikings lived was determined largely by their environment. Those Vikings living in rugged country in Norway or in northern latitudes often survived and thrived through fishing, and hunting animals such as bear and reindeer, sometimes supplementing their living by trading the skins and pelts of animals they hunted. Where the land was suitable, rearing animals such as sheep, cattle, pigs and goats formed the main occupation for most people. In more temperate climates and where land was more suitable for farming crops, such as in

southern Sweden and Denmark, various crops such as oats, barley, peas, cabbages and beans were grown. In good years, surplus crops were even traded.

The Vikings were also skilled craftspeople. Much evidence to support this has been found in archaeological digs in places that the Vikings invaded as well as in their homelands.

Most of the time political conditions were stable and the great majority of Scandinavians lived peaceful lives. However, in the years following 793 CE, this peace was punctuated by violent raids on England, Scotland and Ireland.

Viking houses were typically called **longhouses**. As the name suggests, they were long and narrow houses made of locally available building materials. In Norway and Sweden, where timber was plentiful, the longhouses were sturdy, with solid wooden walls and roofs. The roofs were kept waterproof by layers of birch bark and **turf** (a layer of soil or peat), or by thatch. Most families and their animals lived under the same roof in winter. At the beginning of the Viking Age, longhouses did not have any windows—a fire in the middle of the building provided warmth, light and a means of cooking, its smoke escaping through an opening in the roof. Wealthy families housed their animals separately.



SOURCE 2.6 Viking silver arm ring, made in Denmark, tenth century. Held at the National Museum, Copenhagen



SOURCE
2.7 Remains of a Viking longhouse in the Faroe Islands, tenth century CE

Q What might have attracted the Vikings to settle in this place? Suggest at least two reasons.

Turf was a common building material. It was relatively easy to cut from the ground and stack to make walls. It was also good for insulation against the cold. Vikings also constructed houses from **wattle and daub**—layers of twigs or light branches threaded through upright poles and then plastered over with mud and plant material. In areas where timber was scarce, stone and rock made for very strong longhouses.

Families, especially farming families, often built other smaller outbuildings, sometimes positioned partly below ground level, in which to store food or other items, or to use as workshops.

There was little furniture inside the longhouse. People sat along the walls on low benches made from packed earth and at night they rolled their bedding out onto the floor or along benches, packing it up again in the morning. Except for some wall hangings, there were no decorations in the longhouse. The Vikings had a strong tradition of storytelling and entertained each other by telling stories called sagas, as well as playing games and carving and creating ornaments and objects for use in their everyday lives. The Vikings were skilled artists and created intricate patterns on all kinds of materials, including bone, wood and stone. Evidence has also been found of a type of board game called hnefatafl, a variation of checkers. We also know they made up and sang songs, and made stringed and pipe instruments, fragments of which have been found.

SOCIAL ORGANISATION AND LAW

In the eighth century, no single person or group ruled Scandinavia. Instead, kings ruled over large areas. These kings came from royal families and claimed to be descended from a god. In Scandinavia, as in Europe, disputes and battles over who might succeed a king when he died were common.

The kings had their own army of warriors to maintain control of their kingdoms and to keep law and order. When a king died, a male relative succeeded him. On occasion, a kingdom might be split up into smaller kingdoms under the control of several men. Women could not become rulers.

Much of the running of the kingdom was left to earls appointed by the king. They collected taxes and organised the army in times of war. Local towns and villages also created their own rules and laws. An open-air meeting called a **Thing** was held several times a year, when disputes were settled and taxes agreed upon for the community. Only free men could attend the Thing. Women, children and slaves were forbidden from participating.

The idea of community and community responsibility was strong in Viking life and law. In deciding on matters of law, the notions of honour and shame were crucially important. When a dispute was being settled, whether it was to do with business, land, conflict between people or divorce, Viking law demanded that a large number of people be present to witness the settlement. In this way, people would be unlikely to go back on their word or ignore the agreed settlement because they would be shamed in the eyes of their community.

DID YOU KNOW

WOMEN AND CHILDREN

While women could not rule, there is evidence that some women did reach positions of great importance in Viking society. Two women, for example, were buried with great extravagance in the famous Oseberg longship.

Generally, however, most women were kept busy performing domestic duties such as managing a household or farm. They cared for the animals, made butter and cheese and baked bread. They also made their family's clothes, usually from wool spun on a loom in their longhouse. While marriages were usually arranged, a woman's wishes were also considered. Husband and wife were considered equal, and had the right to divorce. When men were away trading or fighting, their wives took on all their responsibilities at home.

THAT VIKING FATHERS CHOSE NAMES FOR THEIR CHILDREN?

These names might be based on gods' names, such as Thorwald (for Thor), or animal names, such as Bjorn (for bear). Other names showed family relationships. For example, the famous Leif Eriksson's name means 'Leif, son of Erik'. Nicknames were also common, such as Ivar the Boneless and Harald Bluetooth.

There is no evidence that children were educated in any formal way. Rather, they would have learnt skills from their parents from a very early age. Childhood was mostly about preparing for adult life.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** Draw up a 'Vikings' glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter:
 - clinker method
 - dragon ship
 - longhouse
 - Thing
 - turf
 - wattle and daub
- #2** Give two possible meanings of the word 'Viking'.
- #3** Briefly describe Norway's topography and climate.
- #4** Why were many of the people who lived in Scandinavia so good at sailing and shipbuilding?
- #5** What building materials did Vikings use for their longhouses? What are the advantages of using these materials?
- #6** Why might a small building, built partly below ground level, be effective for storing food?

applying

- #7** Using Sources 2.4, 3.3 and 3.4 and other references you can find, make a simple sketch of a longship. Label some of its key design features, such as overlapping planks in the hull, dragon head and oar holes for oars to go through.

analysing

- #8** How would the Vikings have benefited from sharing their houses with the animals?
- #9** What rights did women have in Viking society? What were they excluded from? Why might women have been given some rights but not others in this society?

evaluating & creating

- #10**
 - a** Select three places in Scandinavia: one in Denmark, one in Sweden, and one in northern Norway. Compare and contrast average minimum and maximum temperatures, and rainfall at these three places. You could represent these on a graph.
 - b** What differences are there between the three places and how could these influence how people might live there?
 - c** Would these temperatures and rainfall have necessarily been the same during the Viking Age? Explain what factors could influence change in the weather over time.

creating

- #11** Imagine daily life in a Viking longhouse. Write a page on what it might be like to share a single room with all members of your Viking family, as well as your animals, in winter. What might be some of the advantages of living like this? What might be the disadvantages?

DEATH, GODS AND STORYTELLING



The Vikings understood the world around them based on their own experiences of it but also through a strong tradition of stories and storytelling. It was through their stories that they remembered their past. Their stories of heroic achievement by those who lived in the past, called **sagas**, were at first passed on orally. They were not written down until after the Viking Age, during the thirteenth century. The Vikings also highly valued poetry. Their poets were known as **skalds** and they were sometimes sent to battles so they could write poetry about the courage and great deeds of the Viking warriors. These poets also relied on word of mouth to pass on their stories.

Sigvat did not talk quickly in ordinary language but skaldship came so naturally to him that he talked in rhymes as easily as if he were talking in the ordinary way.

SOURCE 3.1 Snorri Sturluson (1179–1241), one of the first people to write down the sagas, said this of a skald whom he regarded highly. Sturluson was an Icelandic historian, poet and politician. He was twice elected lawspeaker at the Icelandic parliament, the Althing. Quoted in *The Hammer and the Cross: A New History of Vikings*, by Robert Ferguson, 2009.

Q What forms of rhyming used today might be similar to Sigvat's skaldship?

Some Vikings could read and write. They had their own system of writing. The individual marks or 'letters' were called **runes**, and their 'alphabet' was called the **futhark**. Runes were scored or carved into hard surfaces such as rock, bone or wood. There were different versions of the futhark but each would have resembled the one shown in Source 3.2.

PAGANISM AND GODS

Much of what we understand about the Vikings' religion comes from written sources and the oral tradition, but also from archaeological discoveries. Before and at the beginning of the Viking Age, the Vikings were **pagans**, a word which is generally used to describe people who worship many different gods and goddesses.

The Vikings thought of their world as a flat circle that was divided into three levels or worlds. (Imagine three discs on top of each other with a space between each.) The top level was called Asgard and it was here that the Viking gods lived. The three most important gods were Odin, Thor and Freyr. Odin was the one-eyed god of war, warriors, knowledge and poetry. He inspired the Vikings in battle, giving them courage. Thor was the champion of farmers: a big god with a big appetite but strong and reliable. He also kept order with his hammer and was known as the god of thunder. Freyr was the god of fertility and plenty. His sister, Freyja, was one of the most significant female gods and was at various times—according to Norse myths—described as the goddess of war, love or sorcery. The gods sometimes fought each other, as well as giants and other beings located in other worlds.

SOURCE 3.2 The runic alphabet, or futhark

- Q**
- 1 In what ways might this alphabet have been easy to use?
 - 2 Why might it not have been used for writing long sagas?



On the second level was a region called Midgard, which meant 'middle world'. It was here that humans lived. Also in this region, but away from the humans, lived giants, dwarfs and dark elves. On the third level was Utgard, or the 'outer place'. This was a place of endless night, darkness and chaos. Its citadel was Hel, a place ruled by a terrifying female goddess, also of that name. Separating Midgard and Utgard was a sea, which was home to Jormungand, a giant serpent. Jormungand encircled Midgard and held it together by biting its own tail. Binding all three levels with its roots was a great ash tree, Yggdrasil.

The pagan Vikings had no churches. They practised their rituals in open places or near features such as rivers that were significant to them. Some of these rituals included sacrifices of animals and people. The Vikings believed very strongly in fate and considered that their gods were as much bound by fate as they were. They also believed in an afterlife, the brave and heroic going to the great hall of Valhalla, ruled over by Odin, while others went to the terrible world of Hel. They also thought that there would be an end-battle or end-time for all humans and gods following a series of cataclysmic events; they called this time **Ragnarok**.

SOURCE
3.3

The Oseberg ship photographed during its excavation in 1903 CE. The Oseberg ship burial has been dated to about 834, with the ship itself about thirty years old at the time. The skeletons of two women were found in this grave ship. One was aged between sixty and seventy, and the other in her twenties. Although the women's identities are unknown, the garments and goods discovered in the grave suggest they were of high status.



SOURCE
3.4

The Oseberg ship today on display in the Vikingskiphuset in Oslo

THE DEAD AND BURIAL RITES

During the time when the Vikings were pagans, the dead were often buried with grave goods. These were intended to help the dead move from the human world to the afterlife. Their grave goods might include such things as food and drink, weapons, coins, jewellery, clothes and even sacrificed slaves. Wealthy or important Vikings were sometimes buried with their boats; stunning evidence of these burials has been discovered. It is thought some Vikings were buried on ships that were set alight and sent out to sea. There is evidence of others being cremated, such as recorded by Arabian traveller Ibn Fadlan, who witnessed the cremation of a Swedish king in Russia in 922 CE. Viking warriors hoped that on their death they would be admitted to Valhalla, where they would join the great god Odin.

THAT RAGNAROK MIGHT HAVE BEEN INSPIRED BY A VOLCANIC ERUPTION?

The idea of Ragnarok may have come about after a great volcanic explosion in an unknown place around 536 CE threw the world into a year of semi-darkness and a decade of colder weather.

DID YOU KNOW

A VIKING MYTH

In this modern retelling of a Viking story, Baldur, the god of light and happiness and son of Odin and his wife Frigg, has a fateful encounter with

Loki, a trickster god who can change into different shapes and forms, and who can also be spiteful.

The death of Baldur

Baldur was a favourite among the gods. As the god of light, he shone light and happiness wherever he went. His parents, Odin and Frigg, were very proud of him. Frigg was so proud of him that when he started having nightmares that foretold his death, she became concerned for him and convinced every living thing and everyone on Earth to promise not to hurt him, and to cheer him up by playing games with him. The gods' idea of games included firing things such as stones and arrows at him. Everything simply bounced off, causing lots of laughter in Asgard. Knowing that Baldur was protected, the other gods had lots of fun doing this. Loki, though, was not such a creature of fun, and he was jealous! He seethed in the corner of the kingdom of gods. He concocted a plan to hurt Baldur. Being talented in the art of disguise, he turned himself into an old woman and paid a visit to Baldur's mother, Frigg. Pretending not to know what was happening, he asked, 'Why is everyone throwing things at Baldur?' When Frigg explained that she had asked everyone not to harm Baldur, the 'old woman' said, 'So, there is nothing in the world that can harm him.'

Frigg replied, 'Well, there's just one tiny mistletoe that grows west of Valhalla that I thought was too young to make a promise.'

Loki's plan to hurt Baldur grew. He collected a branch of mistletoe from where it grew, stripped the leaves from it and sharpened a point at one end of it. He then returned to watch the gods' antics with Baldur. One of the gods, Baldur's brother Hod, wasn't joining in the games. Loki turned to him and said, 'Why aren't you playing in the games?' Hod replied, 'Because I am blind and I do not have a weapon.'

Loki, pretending to be friendly and handing him the spear of mistletoe, said, 'Here, try this. I will tell you where to throw it.'

Hod gratefully accepted Loki's offer and threw the mistletoe like a javelin, not realising what it was.

The mistletoe struck Baldur, who immediately fell down dead. The gods had no doubt who was responsible. Loki, meanwhile, knew he had done a terrible thing and that he had to escape.

Shock and grief went through all the gods and goddesses. Many tears were shed over the loss of Baldur. Frigg and many others did all they could to try to return him from the land of the dead. His body was cremated. His brother Hermod rode to Hel in search of Baldur to try to retrieve him from there. The goddess Hel said to Hermod, 'If everything in all the worlds, dead or alive, weeps for Baldur, he can return to Asgard with you. If even one thing doesn't weep, he must stay in Hel.' Hermod returned to Asgard and brought his news. Messengers were sent out to all the worlds. As all had promised before not to harm Baldur, now they all wept for him. Fire, iron, stones, trees, the earth, every kind of sickness, animals and people—everything wept for Baldur.

The messengers returned home convinced they had received their promise from every living thing and object. But on the journey back they encountered a giantess sitting in a cave, who gave her name as Thokk. When the messengers explained their mission to her, she refused to cry for Baldur, saying she had never cared for Odin's son and that he meant nothing to her. 'Let him stay in Hel,' she said.

Despite the messengers' pleading, the giantess refused to weep, and the messengers returned to Asgard with heavy hearts. It was clear from the way they walked that they were bringing home bad news. The gods and goddesses were pained, confused and upset. And not a single one of them doubted that the giantess in the cave, Thokk, was also the jealous Loki.

SOURCE
3.5
A contemporary version of a Viking myth

SOURCE 3.6 Viking cemetery at Lindholm in Denmark

Q 1 Each arrangement of stones represents a person of some importance. Why have the stones been arranged in this way?

2 What might have been the connection between being buried in this way and the afterlife?



LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Vikings' glossary:
- | | |
|------------|---------|
| ■ futhark | ■ rune |
| ■ pagan | ■ saga |
| ■ Ragnarok | ■ skald |
- #2** Give a reason why the Vikings valued their skalds.
- #3** Which Viking god would the Viking raider have felt was his special god? Which god would have been closest to the farmer?
- #4** What did the Vikings believe happened to people after they died?

applying

- #5** Why might the materials Vikings used for creating runes not be very useful for writing long stories and detailed records of events, or histories? How did they preserve these stories and histories?

- #6** Using the runic alphabet, write a note to a friend, telling them of all the latest Viking news.

analysing

- #7** Examine Source 3.3.
- Describe the state of the Oseberg longship.
 - What might have caused it to be in this state?
 - What challenges might have been faced in excavating the ship?
 - What challenges might have been faced in restoring the ship and preserving it in the state you see in Source 3.4?

evaluating & creating

- #8** Using the information in the section 'Paganism and gods', sketch your impression of how the Vikings believed their world was organised. Begin with the three levels of their world. Use labels to name the various levels, as well as those who lived on each level. Add any other information you find useful too, such as the tree Yggdrasill.

REASONS FOR EXPANSION

UNIT

4

DID YOU KNOW

Many theories have been put forward to explain why the Vikings ventured from their homelands and began their violent raids and occupation of other lands during the period 793–1066 CE.

SEA POWER

The Vikings had highly developed shipbuilding and navigational skills, as well as very capable sailors who sometimes also performed the roles of traders and warriors. Their ships were ideally suited to moving swiftly and nimbly in both ocean and riverine environments. Being skilled shipbuilders and sailors, the Vikings were knowledgeable about lands near their own and were not afraid to venture into unfamiliar waters.

RAIDS AND OPPORTUNISM

Using their longships, the Vikings were able to navigate around the rugged coastlines of the North Sea and elsewhere with relative ease. Using the element of surprise, they were able to attack targets such as villages and monasteries before a defence against them could be organised. The Vikings stormed from their boats and **plundered** all the valuable objects they could find, often destroying everything else before leaving. Monasteries were particular targets, because they often contained riches such as gold and silver crosses, **chalices** and jewellery donated to monks by local Christians.

THAT THE FIERCEST VIKING WARRIORS WERE KNOWN AS 'BERSERKERS' OR 'BARE-SERKERS'?

The word comes from the Old Norse word *berserkr*, meaning 'bear shirt', as it is thought that Viking warriors may have worn animal skins, including bear skins. These warriors intimidated their enemies by charging at them in an uncontrollable fury, screaming and biting their shields. The expression 'to go berserk' comes from them.

INCREASING POPULATION AND POVERTY IN SCANDINAVIA

Rapid population growth combined with a harsh climate and Scandinavia's difficult terrain meant that people had to look beyond their homelands for suitable land for farming and cultivation. The custom in Scandinavia of the eldest son inheriting property on his father's death meant that in families with many sons all but one had to look elsewhere if they wanted to own land. Disputes over land and property were decided by the simple drawing of lots, and the loser was cast out of his homeland. One saga tells the story of a famine-struck island: when lots for land were drawn, one in three families was forced to leave the island with all their possessions.

From their voyages of trade and exploration, and later their raids on villages and monasteries in England, the Vikings learnt that the lands to the south, and eventually to the east and west, might be suitable for them to settle.

SOURCE 4.1 Viking Age iron swords, Jutland, Denmark. Held at the Prehistoric Museum Moesgård Højbjerg, Denmark



POLITICAL TURMOIL IN SCANDINAVIA AND EUROPE

When increasing numbers of people are in competition for the same resources, such as farming and grazing land, there is bound to be conflict. In Scandinavia, there was sometimes war and conflict between the various kingdoms. Migration then became an attractive prospect for those who suffered the consequences of this violence and unrest.

Following the fall of the western part of the Roman Empire during and after the fifth century CE, there were no strong central rulers or governments in this part of the world. Kings or warlords battled neighbours trying to capture their territory and wealth. Foreign raiders were also intent on capturing land. With weakened defences, invaders were often able to attack and take over land.

RELIGIOUS CONFLICT

By about 750 CE, much of western Europe was under control of Christian rulers, many of whom dealt harshly with those not of their faith. Charlemagne, Charles the Great, was Christianity's most famous leader. During the 770s, he embarked on a vicious campaign of converting the pagan Saxons to Christianity which included forced conversion, mass executions and forced resettlement. For example, in 782 CE at Verden, just south of Denmark, he forcibly baptised 4500 Saxons and then had them executed. These atrocities are likely to have sparked a desire for retribution and thus given the Vikings another reason for occupying Christian land.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Vikings' glossary:
 - chalice
 - immortal
 - plunder
- #2** Why were the Vikings unafraid to sail to other lands?
- #3** Why did they choose to attack monasteries? Give two reasons.

FAME AND FATE

The Vikings were very familiar with the concept of fame. They believed that victory in battle, the discovery of new land and the possession of great wealth would create a lasting memory of them and make them **immortal**. They were expected to be adventurous and fierce, and face death bravely. A person's death, in fact, was commonly believed to have been decided at birth by the Norns, the mythological rulers of destiny.

Fearlessness is better than a faint-heart for any man who puts his nose out of doors. The length of my life and the day of my death were fated long ago.

SOURCE
4.2

From 'For Scirnir' ('Skirnir's journey'), one of the poems of the Poetic Edda. It is preserved in the thirteenth-century manuscript Codex Regius, an Icelandic manuscript thought to have been written in the 1270s.



Why would this attitude have made the Viking a better fighter?

TRADE AND ECONOMIC BENEFIT

In today's global economy, people from most countries travel freely in pursuit of new lives and opportunities for themselves and their families. This was also the case during the Viking Age. While the Norwegian and Danish Vikings often used violence to increase their control over territory and wealth, Swedish Vikings travelled into eastern Europe and even to Asia to trade peacefully. Using their expert navigational skills, they travelled the long rivers and set up trading posts. They also used force and influence when required to stop conflict between warring tribes in present-day Russia. The Slav peoples who lived in these regions called the Swedish Vikings the *Rus*, from which the name 'Russia' comes.

analysing

#4 Examine Source 4.1.

- What aspects of these swords tell you that the Vikings valued their weapons?
- What skills would they have needed to possess to make these weapons?

evaluating

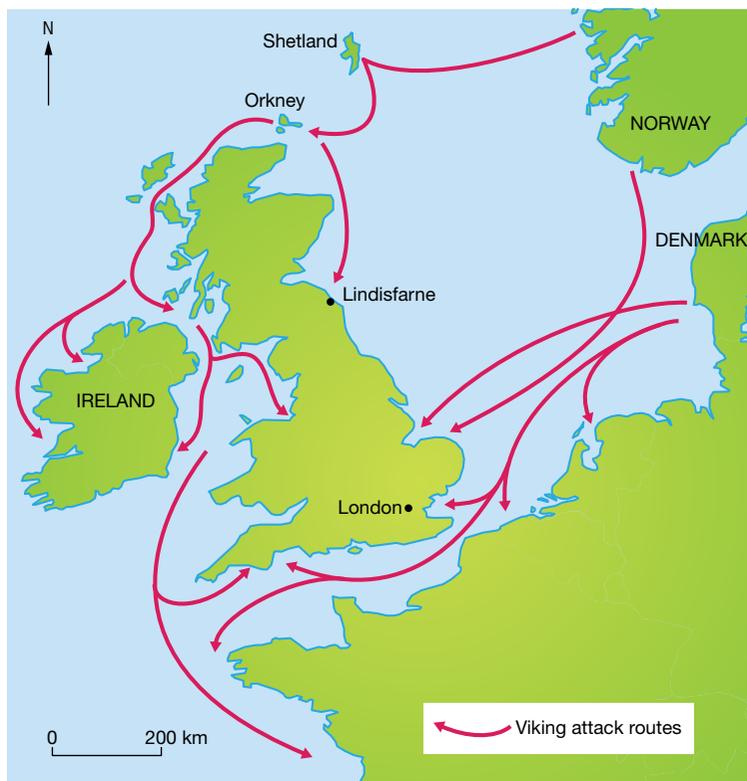
#5 Compare the seven different theories for Viking expansion in this unit. Which reasons might have been the most influential? Why?

VIKING CONQUESTS AND THEIR IMPACT



Viking expansion didn't suddenly begin with the raid on Lindisfarne in 793 CE. In fact, Viking sailors and traders were familiar with much of the English and western European coastlines long before then. What 793 did signal was a change in the nature of the contact between Vikings and other peoples, and the extent of that contact. Those Vikings who went on raids were not members of a full-time army; they joined the raiding parties for many different reasons. There were men driven out of their own territory because of local conflict in their own lands, men who wanted wealth to purchase land of their own or settle elsewhere, and men who wanted to prove themselves in the eyes of others—men who wanted to achieve their own measure of fame.

SOURCE 5.1 Routes of early Viking raids



IN SCANDINAVIA

The Scandinavians had been fighting periodically among themselves for centuries before they embarked on their terrifying raids on other lands. The cause of this was usually resources or land, or struggles for power. For the reasons outlined in the previous unit, the Vikings moved out of Scandinavia in significant numbers, the consequences of which were significant for the people they encountered.

VIKING FLEETS

The first Viking raiding parties may have been quite small—a few ships with perhaps only dozens of people. There is much evidence that this number grew over time, however, and an attack in 822 was recorded to have been carried out by thirteen ships and their men. Before 850, fleets consisted of fewer than 100 ships, but after this time there are references to fleets of 200 to 250 ships. How many men these ships carried is open to debate, but it would be safe to assume that a fleet of 200 ships would have been at least several thousand men strong.

RAIDS IN WESTERN EUROPE

LINDISFARNE

The first recorded raid on England was in 789 and involved three ships from Norway. The first major raid came in 793, when the monastery at Lindisfarne was savaged by Viking raiders. Many sources noted the ferocity of the attack, highlighting the horror of the surviving monks who witnessed the slaughter of many of their fellows and the terrible destruction that occurred.

This year came dreadful fore-warnings over the land of the Northumbrians, terrifying the people most woefully: these were immense sheets of light rushing through the air, and whirlwinds, and fiery dragons flying across the firmament. These tremendous tokens were soon followed by a great famine: and not long after, on the sixth day before the ides of January in the same year, the harrowing inroads of heathen men made lamentable havoc in the church of God in Holy-island [Lindisfarne] by rapine and slaughter.

SOURCE 5.2 The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle for 793 CE. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle was first created in the ninth century CE and is a year-by-year history of the Anglo-Saxons.

SOURCE 5.3 Viking swords, stirrup and spearhead from the eighth century. From the National Museum in Copenhagen, Denmark.



- Q**
- 1 According to this author, what events came before the attack on Lindisfarne?
 - 2 In what way does the author seem to suggest that these events and the attack on Lindisfarne are linked?

In the same year the pagans from the northern regions came with a naval force to Britain like stinging hornets and spread on all sides like fearful wolves, robbed, tore and slaughtered not only beasts of burden, sheep and oxen, but even priests and deacons, and companies of monks and nuns. And they came to the church at Lindisfarne, laid everything waste with grievous plundering, trampled the holy places with polluted steps, dug up the altars and seized all the treasure of the holy church. They killed some of the brothers, took some away with them in fetters, many they drove out, naked and loaded with insults, some they drowned in the sea.

SOURCE 5.4 Simeon of Durham, monk and historian of Durham Priory, writing of Viking attacks after those events. It is thought he died in about 1130. From *English Historical Documents*, edited by Dorothy Whitelock, 2nd ed, 1979

- Q**
- 1 What were the main objectives of this attack?
 - 2 Why was the attack so ferocious?
 - 3 Is this a primary or secondary source? Explain your answer.

SOURCE 5.5 Ruins of Lindisfarne monastery, 1980



Other monasteries along the coasts of England, Scotland and Ireland were also pillaged within a number of years of this attack, resulting in a quick and widespread fear of the ‘Northmen’.

Never before has such terror appeared in Britain as we have now suffered from a pagan race ... Behold, the church of St Cuthbert, spattered with the blood of the priests of God, despoiled of all its ornaments; a place more venerable than all in Britain is given as a prey to pagan peoples.

SOURCE
5.6

Alcuin of York, writing to King Ethelred in the late eighth century, describing a raid on a monastery in present-day Scotland. From *The Hammer and the Cross: A New History of the Vikings*, by Robert Ferguson, 2009

VIKING VIOLENCE

The Vikings attacked their targets with incredible savagery. They seemed to take special pleasure in humiliating and persecuting Christians. They regularly tortured people to make them reveal where treasures were hidden, and killed men, women and children. On one occasion, during an attack in Ireland, 260 people seeking refuge in a church were burnt alive.

A common goal of Viking raids was to take slaves who were then often sold as far away as North Africa or central Asia. The Vikings quickly learnt the dates on which Christian festivals and trading days were held so they could capture more people at a time.

THE SPREAD OF CONQUEST

For the first forty years of the Viking Age, smallish Viking fleets plundered the coasts of England, Scotland, Ireland, Holland and France in what were quick strikes, departing before any real opposition against them could be organised. The raids occurred from spring through to autumn and the Vikings returned to their homelands over winter.

After 830 CE this changed. Viking invaders began constructing special camps and forts in which to spend the winters. The site of one of these was where Dublin in Ireland stands today. The establishment of these camps meant less travelling, and fewer of the risks that went with seafaring, as well as an earlier start to the raiding season.

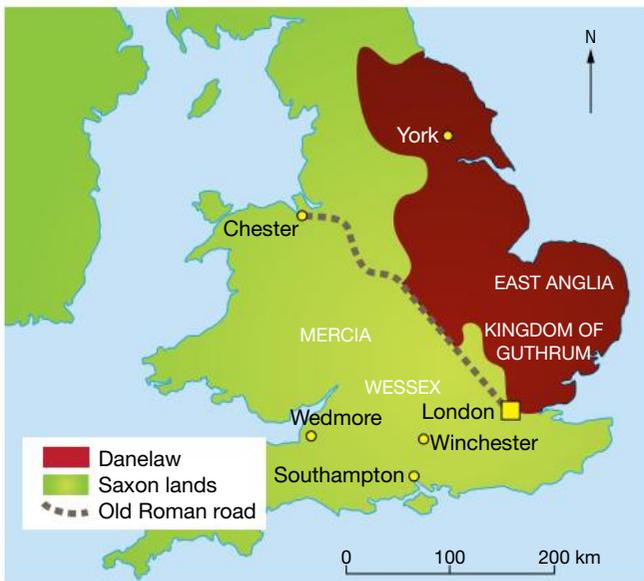
At the same time that the Vikings were creating more permanent settlements and controlling more territory in Britain and Ireland, Danish Vikings were advancing their claims in France. In 885, Paris was besieged and in 911, the French king was forced to make a treaty with the Viking leader, Rollo, conceding land in northern France to Rollo and his men. This land became known as ‘Northmannia’ (‘land of the Northmen’), and is called Normandy today. The descendants of these Vikings would have been among those who invaded England in 1066, defeating the Saxon king Harold Godwinson at the Battle of Hastings.

THE VIKINGS’ IMPACT ON ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND

The arrival of the Vikings in England and Scotland had a significant impact on the native people and ultimately on the Viking invaders themselves.

POLITICAL POWER

At the time of the Vikings’ arrival, England consisted of seven kingdoms: Kent, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria. These Anglo-Saxon kingdoms had become Christian during the seventh century and were mostly dismantled by ongoing conflict with the Vikings, the exception being Wessex, which became the dominant Anglo-Saxon kingdom. Within thirty years of their arrival, the Vikings controlled much of northern and eastern England. To maintain peace, they demanded that the English pay them a tax, called the **Danegeld** (‘Dane’s gold’). This tax was usually paid in silver.



SOURCE 5.7 England was divided between the Danish Vikings and the Saxons after the Treaty of Alfred and Guthrum, 886 CE

King Alfred is the only English ruler to be honoured with the title ‘the Great’. He was born in 849 CE, the youngest son of Ethelwulf, King of Wessex. At the age of 21, Alfred was made king by the Witan, or council of wise men, and inherited a kingdom under continual threat from Viking raiders. In 884, he defeated the Viking leader, Guthrum, for a second time. The treaty between them ensured that the Vikings stayed north of the old Roman road which ran from London to Chester in an area later called the **Danelaw**. Alfred established peace, and under his rule (871–99):

- the army was strengthened, so that it was always available at short notice to defend the people
- a navy was established, with bigger and better ships than those of the Vikings
- boroughs (regional areas with some self-government) were established and townships were fortified
- it was decreed that all free-born boys were to learn to read and write in English, not Latin
- English became the official written language, not Latin
- the laws were rewritten, based on Christian principles
- a payment-based system of punishment for crimes was introduced
- the **Anglo-Saxon Chronicles** were established in 890 to record the history of England.

RELIGION

When they were first raided by Vikings, the Christian inhabitants understood that they were being attacked by a pagan force with no respect for their religion. The fact that churches and monasteries were destroyed, and monks and nuns were tortured and killed, was clear proof of it. Many Christians thought that the arrival of these pagans was a punishment for sins they had committed. The Vikings were savage in their treatment of their captives but as they settled in their occupied territories over time and **assimilated** into the local populations, they also adopted many of the customs and habits of the local people, including their religion. This meant that, over time, the Vikings began to accept Christianity as their religion too, although their version of it still included some aspects of their old pagan religion.

In 965, King Harald Bluetooth of Denmark became a Christian and demanded that all his people become Christian, too. In this way, and through the influence of missionaries, virtually all Vikings were Christians by the year 1000.



SOURCE 5.8 The gold and enamelled Alfred jewel, found in 1693, bears the inscription *Aelfred mec heht gewyrgan* (‘Alfred had me made’). It is thought to be the top of a writing instrument. Held at the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE

As well as being an attack on the Christian religion, the destruction of monasteries and murder of its officials had another great impact. In this period, sometimes referred to as the Dark Ages or the Early Middle Ages, monasteries were important centres of culture and learning. As they disappeared in parts of England and Scotland, so too disappeared their scholars and libraries. Their artworks and crafts were stolen or, in the case of gold and silver items, cut up into small pieces known as 'hack' that made them easier to melt down or transport.

While the impact of the Vikings was initially very destructive, they made valuable contributions to British cultural life. Here is just a sample of the many words given to the ever-changing English language by the invading Scandinavians: bank, birth, call, crawl, die, drown, happy, husband, law, leg, lift, loose, scare, sister, skin, sky, sly, take, their, them, they, ugly, weak, window. There were also words we very much associate with the Vikings, such as ransack, slaughter and berserk.

Because Old English (the language of the Anglo-Saxons) and Old Norse are languages with similar Germanic origins, it is possible that Vikings and their British victims may have understood some of the other's speech at first contact. It is estimated that within 150 years of the first raids, the Scandinavians invaders were assimilated into the English population, speaking the same, evolving language.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT
THREE
DAYS OF

THE WEEK ARE NAMED AFTER
NORSE GODS?

Wednesday means 'Woden's Day',
Woden being another name for Odin.
Thursday means 'Thor's Day', after Thor.
Friday means 'Freyr's Day', or possibly
'Frigg's Day'.

SOURCE 5.9 A Christian Viking church at Borgund, Norway. This example dates from shortly after the Viking Age.



How does this church differ from Christian churches you have seen?



ECONOMICS AND TRADE

With their fast and versatile ships, the Vikings ran a vast trading network from Greenland to Central Asia. By using Europe and Russia's great river systems, they were also able to open huge areas of land to trade and increase the range of goods exchanged between one place and another. Settlements formed along the trade routes, which made it easier for traders to expand their frontiers even further. Woven cloth, furs, fish, weapons, timber and iron were traded from the Viking homelands. In Asia, they exchanged their goods for silk and other fine material, as well as for spices, wine, jewellery, pottery and silver. From Russia came slaves, as well as gold, silver, honey and

wax, among many other goods. From England and Ireland came wheat, tin, silver, cloth, honey and jewellery. From further west, Iceland and Greenland, items such as furs and animal skins, walrus ivory and fish were traded. This great trading network made Scandinavia very wealthy during the ninth and tenth centuries CE. Evidence of this can be seen in the large number of silver coins found in buried hoards and other excavations; about 100 000 coins have been discovered on the Baltic island of Gotland alone.

In addition to goods from other lands came new technologies and weapons, new ideas and cultures, and new rulers and laws.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Vikings' glossary:
- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------|
| ■ Anglo-Saxon Chronicles | ■ Danelaw |
| ■ assimilate | ■ Lindisfarne |
| ■ Danegeld | ■ pillage |
- #2** Where did the first Viking raiders come from?
- #3** What might have been three dangers the Vikings faced in their voyages?
- #4** How many ships did Viking fleets have before and after 850?
- #5** Why might the size of Viking fleets have grown over time? Give three reasons.
- #6** Why did they choose targets such as monasteries to raid?
- #7** Why were they so successful in these early raids? Give three reasons.

applying & analysing

- #8** Consider the number of different kingdoms in England at the time of the Vikings' arrival. How would this have made it easier for the Vikings to gain control of some parts of the country?

- #9** Create a two-column table. The columns should be titled 'Viking impact on conquered peoples' and 'Impact of conquests on the Vikings'. Using the information in this unit, note as many different impacts as you can in the two columns.

evaluating & creating

- #10** What problems might have faced a Viking fleet once it reached a foreign shore? Write a brief report on this question, considering such aspects as:
- the people they encountered
 - repairs to ships and equipment
 - supply of food and drink, shelter.
- Use the information you already have as well as your imagination.
- #11** Use the internet and your library to find information to answer the following questions. What might have caused the Vikings to be so aggressive in their dealings with other people? Was that violent behaviour limited to the Vikings or common to all people of that time?

SIGNIFICANT SETTLEMENTS AND PEOPLE

UNIT
6

The Vikings sought new places to conquer and settle for 300 years. While they may have had to fight almost constantly to subdue countries such as England, Scotland, Ireland and France during the Viking Age, not all places were settled in this way. The Viking expansion into the North Atlantic—to the Faroe Islands, Iceland, Greenland and Vinland (now Newfoundland)—were more to do with migration and settlement than with raiding and warring.

THE FAROE ISLANDS

The first people to reach the Faroe Islands may have been Irish monks. Towards the year 700 CE, many Irish monks took to sea in the belief that God

would guide them safely to other lands, where they could practise their religious devotion in isolation. It is thought that they had reached Iceland by 800. It is also likely that around this time the first Norwegians discovered Iceland, perhaps from being blown off course from voyages to the Hebrides, two island groups off the west coast of Scotland. On the Faroe Islands and in Iceland, the Irish monks and the Norwegians would have come into contact with each other, but beyond that little is known. If they did interact, it is likely that the Norwegians either forced the monks to leave or killed them.

ICELAND

Iceland is an island in the north Atlantic with a sub-polar (and thus cold) climate. When humans first arrived it was heavily forested, but over time the use of timber for building and firewood greatly reduced the forests. The first Norwegians to settle permanently in Iceland came from the south-west of Norway around 870. Many more followed after 880 because of land taxes and other hardships imposed by King Harald Finehair in Norway.

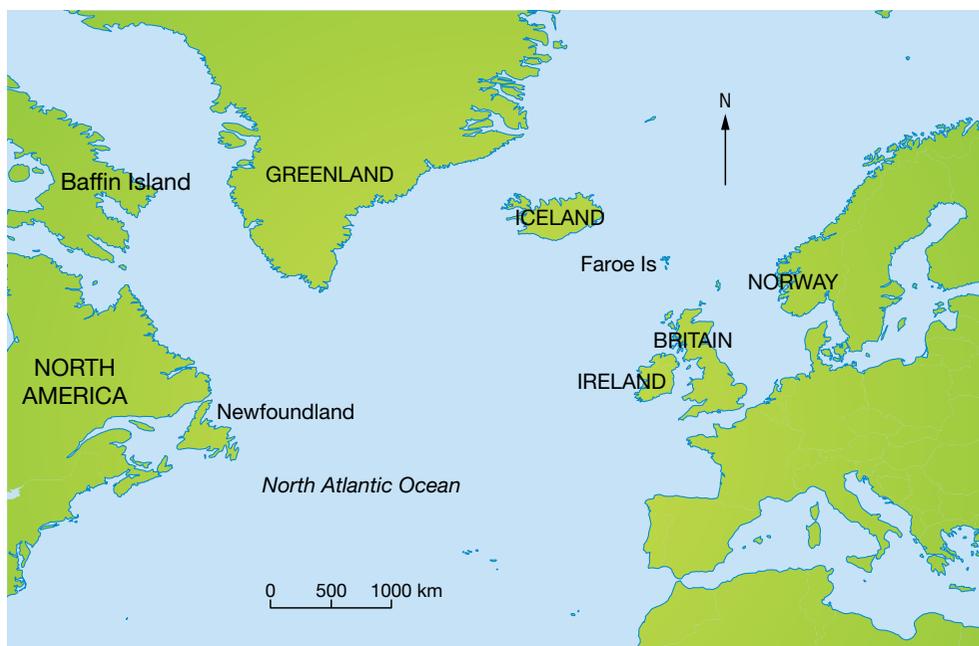
A second wave of migrants came from the Viking colonies in the Hebrides. It is estimated that over a period of about 80 years, up to 10 000 new settlers colonised Iceland, occupying all the useful land. The Vikings in Iceland had a democratic system of rule whereby local chieftains created laws and ruled on matters of justice and government at regional Things, or at the national Althing. One of the Althing's most significant decisions, in 1000, was that all Iceland would become Christian.

SOURCE 6.1 Viking expansion into the North Atlantic

6.1



- 1 Using the scale on the map, calculate how far it was by sea from Norway to Iceland, Greenland and Newfoundland.
- 2 What preparations might the settlers have made for their journeys?
- 2 What hopes and fears might they have had as they set out on their voyages?



ERIK THE RED AND GREENLAND

West of Iceland is the much larger and mostly barren island of Greenland. This island was first sighted by a Viking sailor blown off course in 930 CE, but did not seem a favourable place to settle and was ignored for many years.

Greenland was given its name between 982 and 985 by Erik Thorwaldsson, known more commonly as Eric the Red because of his red hair. Erik the Red, born in Norway around 950, went to live in Iceland with his family after his father was convicted of murder and forced into exile. Erik was also convicted of murder after he killed a neighbour and another man following a feud over the death of some slaves. He was sentenced to leave Iceland within three years and to remain in exile for another three. While waiting to leave, Erik became involved in another dispute in which men were again killed. This time he was ordered to leave Iceland immediately.

Knowing of the unpopulated land to the west, Erik explored Greenland over the next three years, returning to Iceland to encourage others to settle it with him. He embarked on a new voyage to Greenland in 986, this time with a fleet of

twenty-five ships laden with settlers, livestock and provisions, of which only fourteen reached their destination. Unlike Iceland, Greenland was treeless, which had a great impact on the maintenance of ships and eventually on the Greenlanders' ability to trade. Their two settlements—Eastern and Western—did well in the relatively favourable climate of the time, even allowing for the growing of crops in some locations. Fishing also provided a rich source of food. Farming of sheep and cattle became the island's main occupation, with horses, pigs and goats also kept. The Greenlanders also began a lucrative trade in polar bear furs, walrus skins and ivory. They carried on this trade in partnership with the Inuit people to the north.

DID YOU KNOW
THAT GREENLAND'S TEMPERATURES CAN VARY FROM 25°C IN SUMMER TO -50°C IN WINTER?

Because of the winter climate, house walls made of stone and turf could be up to two metres thick. Fuel for fires probably came from scrub, dried turf, animal dung, and whale, seal and walrus blubber (animal fat).

SOURCE
6.2 Part of the remains of Erik the Red's settlement at Brattahlid ('steep slope'), in Greenland



GREENLAND'S DECLINE

The Norwegian population in Greenland numbered 4000 at most, with up to 300 farms supporting its inhabitants. Erik the Red died in about 1003. Conditions in Greenland became worse after 1300, and eventually the island was uninhabitable, as temperatures fell sharply, resulting in flooded wetlands and increased ice sheets, which cut off the island from the rest of the world for years at a time. The colder climate also forced Inuit populations down from northern regions, which sometimes resulted in violent battles with the Greenlanders. It seems that by 1540 there were no longer any people of European descent living in Greenland.

LEIF ERIKSSON AND THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

At some point, the Norwegians in Greenland journeyed even further west, looking for new hunting grounds or land to settle, or out of curiosity and a sense of adventure. Whatever the reason, we know Vikings reached north-eastern

America perhaps as early as 900 CE. A more certain recorded date is 986. Icelandic sagas ('The Saga of the Greenlanders' and 'The Saga of Erik the Red', known collectively as the Vinland sagas) tell the story of Bjarni Herjolfsson, who, on a voyage from Norway to Iceland to see his father, learnt that his father had gone with Erik the Red to Greenland. Setting off in search of him, Bjarni was blown off course until he neared a strange and unknown land that he sailed alongside for three days but refused to land on.

Today, Leif Eriksson (son of Erik the Red and hence Leif Eriksson) is credited by many historians as being the first person of European descent to set foot on American soil. 'The Saga of the Greenlanders' describes five expeditions to the lands to the west, one of them being the journey taken by Leif in 1000. Leif is recorded as sailing a lengthy stretch of coastline and islands, including Baffin Island ('Helluland' in the saga), Labrador ('Markland' in the saga), and a place further south referred to as 'Vinland', where wild grapes grew and rivers were abundant with salmon.



remembering & understanding

- #1** In what way was Viking exploration and settlement in the North Atlantic generally different from Viking conquests in Europe?
- #2** Give two reasons why the Irish monks and the Norwegians probably came into conflict.
- #3** Describe the type of government the Vikings had in Iceland. How did this differ from royal rule?

applying

- #4** Write a paragraph describing what sort of person Erik the Red was. Include both his positive and negative characteristics.

analysing

- #5** Compare the landscapes and climates of Iceland and Greenland when the Norwegians first arrived at those places. Which place would have been more favourable for settlement? Why?

evaluating

- #6** What impact did climate have on the settlement of Iceland and Greenland? How did the climate change over time and what impact did it have on the settlers there?
- #7** The sagas referred to in this unit were written some 200 years after the events they describe, even though they include many stories passed down orally through generations of people. Are they reliable sources of historical information? What points could you raise in favour of or against their reliability?
- #8** Inuit people have lived in Greenland and surrounding areas both before and long after the Norwegians had disappeared from Greenland, right up to the present. Why might they have been able to survive in those environments when the Norwegians ultimately could not?

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 7

L'ANSE AUX MEADOWS AND VINLAND—VIKING PUZZLES



SOURCE 7.1 Location of L'Anse aux Meadows, a reconstruction of a Viking settlement based on archaeological ruins found there. This settlement is now a UNESCO World Heritage site.

SOURCE 7.2 Aerial view of the reconstructed L'Anse aux Meadows

There are two main sources of information about the Vikings' exploration of the north-eastern American coastline: the Vinland sagas and the archaeological record. From these sources a number of general questions emerge:

- Were the Vikings the first European discoverers of America?
- Did they attempt to settle and, if so, where?
- What place was the 'Vinland' referred to in the sagas?
- How many years might the Viking presence in America have spanned?

As you read in the previous unit, the story of the Vikings in North America begins with the wayward Bjarni Herjolfsson and continues with Leif Eriksson. Other Vikings followed Leif in coming to these new lands, including his brother Thorvald. Much of the history of Viking contact with North America around this time would have been unrecorded, however, as it was fishermen, hunters and timber gatherers who sailed and explored its north-eastern coastline, not skalds. The historian has to piece together a picture of what happened from incomplete and fragmentary evidence.

L'ANSE AUX MEADOWS

There are different meanings given to the word 'Vinland' by linguists and historians. Some translate it as meaning 'Wine land', but other sources give us different definitions such as 'Vine land', 'Pasture land' or 'Meadow land'.





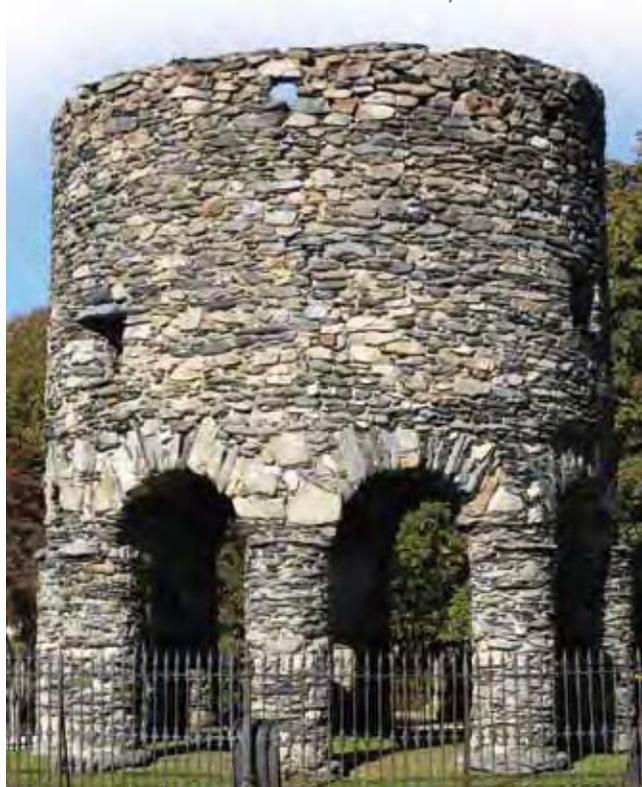
SOURCE 7.3 Inside a reconstructed sod house at L'Anse aux Meadows

In 1960, Norwegian explorer Helge Ingstad, searching for possible Viking Age landing places in North America, discovered the settlement of L'Anse aux Meadows. Excavations carried out by himself, his wife and archaeological teams over the next eight years found many pieces of evidence to support the hypothesis that what they had found was once a Viking settlement, including:

- the lower courses of walls of eight buildings, dated to the eleventh century
- long, narrow fireplaces in the middle of some of these buildings
- a cloak-fastening pin
- a stone oil lamp
- part of a spindle (used in weaving)
- a fragment of a bone needle
- a sharpening stone
- evidence of iron working and smelting, and a significant number of iron boat nails.

Further excavation work from 1973 to 1976 uncovered evidence of timber working and a more detailed understanding of the iron working at the site. Certain buildings were used as workshops for specialised activities. When the archaeologists had completed their work, they covered all their trenches and excavations with white sand and a further covering of new turf, thus protecting the site from the weather and possible damage.

SOURCE 7.4 The Newport Tower, Rhode Island, United States of America. The origin of this tower is a mystery. According to one source, one of the stones in its construction appears to have marks or runes that read 'HNKRS', a Norse word that translates as 'stool', or the 'seat of a bishop's church'. Another source has the marks spelling out a date of 1010. An archaeological dig in 1949 found no Viking artefacts, however, only items that were colonial American in origin, such as pieces of clay pipe. Four of the eight legs of the tower face the main points of the compass, which some say gives it an astronomical significance. Some claim that the tower formed part of an old windmill originally; others that it may have been a shrine or place of worship. Carbon dating of material from the tower walls suggests it was built in the mid- to late-seventeenth century.



SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

REMEMBERING & UNDERSTANDING

- 1 Study Source 7.1. Approximately how far is it from the Eastern Settlement on Greenland to L'Anse aux Meadows? How might that distance be evidence that the Vikings reached America? (Consider this distance in light of the journeys travelled from Norway to Iceland, and from Iceland to Greenland, as shown in Source 6.1.)
- 2 How might knowing what the name Vinland meant to the Vikings help us in giving Vinland a specific location?

APPLYING & ANALYSING

- 3
 - a What pieces of evidence found at the L'Anse aux Meadows site are the most convincing to you that it was a Viking settlement?
 - b What evidence found there might be less convincing, and why?
 - c What evidence is there that women also occupied this site?
 - d On what types of evidence would the reconstruction of the settlement have been based?
- 4 Does L'Anse aux Meadow's listing as a UNESCO World Heritage site make it more likely that it was a Viking settlement?



SOURCE 7.5 An authentic eleventh-century Norwegian coin found in Maine, USA, in 1957 at a Native American site

EVALUATING & CREATING

- 5 How was the L'Anse aux Meadows site preserved after the 1976 excavations? What other ways might there have been of preserving the artefacts and other discovered evidence of settlement? What method of preservation would be best for a site like this?
- 6 Examine Sources 7.4, 7.5 and 7.6.
 - a How might you explain a Norwegian coin being found at a Native American site?
 - b Does this coin prove that Vikings settled in America?
 - c What are three possible explanations for the Newport Tower? Which explanation do you find most convincing and why? Search by key words on the internet to help you answer this question.
- 7 Carry out further searches on Viking runestones in America and write a brief report on your findings.
 - a Who might have created them and why?
 - b Do you believe they are convincing evidence of Vikings being in America? Why or why not?



SOURCE 7.6 The Kensington Runestone, found in Solem, Minnesota, USA. This and a number of other runestones, purporting to show Viking inscriptions, have been found at various locations, some far from the north-eastern coastline of America. Some of these include the Heavener Runestone in Oklahoma, the Elbow Lake Runestone in Minnesota and the Spirit Pond Runestones in Maine. Most expert opinion dismisses these stones and the marks on them as fakes, even though some are housed in local museums and considered authentic by the people and organisations who display them. It is also known that some Native American cultures also created rock carvings and rock art.

WHY DID THE VIKING AGE END?



There is no simple explanation for why the Viking Age ended; there was no one single event or catastrophe that caused its downfall. The reasons for its decline were more complicated, as relationships between the Vikings and the peoples and lands they settled changed over time.

VIKING OR CHRISTIAN?

Even as Vikings settled the lands of Britain, and after they were contained within the area known as the Danelaw during Wessex control of most of England in the late ninth century, Viking attacks from Scandinavia continued. Even after King Harald Bluetooth of Denmark became a Christian in 965 CE and Olaf Trygvason, later to become King of Norway, became a confirmed Christian in about 995, relations between the Vikings and the British were not entirely peaceful.

Just a year before his conversion, Olaf had led a Viking attack of ninety-four ships on London, trying to burn down the city before sailing around the coast, and at times marching inland, to wreak further havoc. When he embraced Christianity after those raids, he agreed not to attack England again, and seems to have kept that promise. Raids by other Vikings did continue, however, but they were part of the last general wave of raiding to occur, with minor and sporadic attacks continuing until about 1200.

THE END OF VIKING RULE IN ENGLAND

After Alfred the Great's victories over the Vikings in the 880s, Danish Viking self-rule in the Danelaw meant prosperity and peace. Ironically, their wealth, especially in Jorvik (now York) attracted other Viking attacks on the Danelaw and this, combined with further conflict with Wessex and Mercia, meant that their political and military power gradually declined. From 910, Alfred's son and successor, Edward the Elder, controlled much of the Danelaw.

The Danish continued to dream of ruling England, however, and Svein became king of England in 1013, followed by his son Cnut, who ruled from 1016 to 1035. Cnut was a Christian king and accepted by other Christian rulers in western Europe, but after his death England was again divided and became a battleground for continuing power struggles between local and Viking interests.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST

In 1066, England was invaded again. This time it was the Normans from France who invaded, whose ancestors had been Vikings 150 years earlier. When Edward the Confessor, the king of England, died without an heir, William, Duke of Normandy, believed that he had a strong claim to the English throne, as did Harald Hardrada (the 'hard ruler'), King of Norway. The English themselves chose Harold Godwinson of Wessex, but Harald Hardrada moved quickly and engaged Godwinson and his troops in battle at Stamford Bridge in northern England. The Vikings were massively defeated and Harald himself was killed. Only twenty-four of the 300 ships that had invaded England managed to return to Norway.

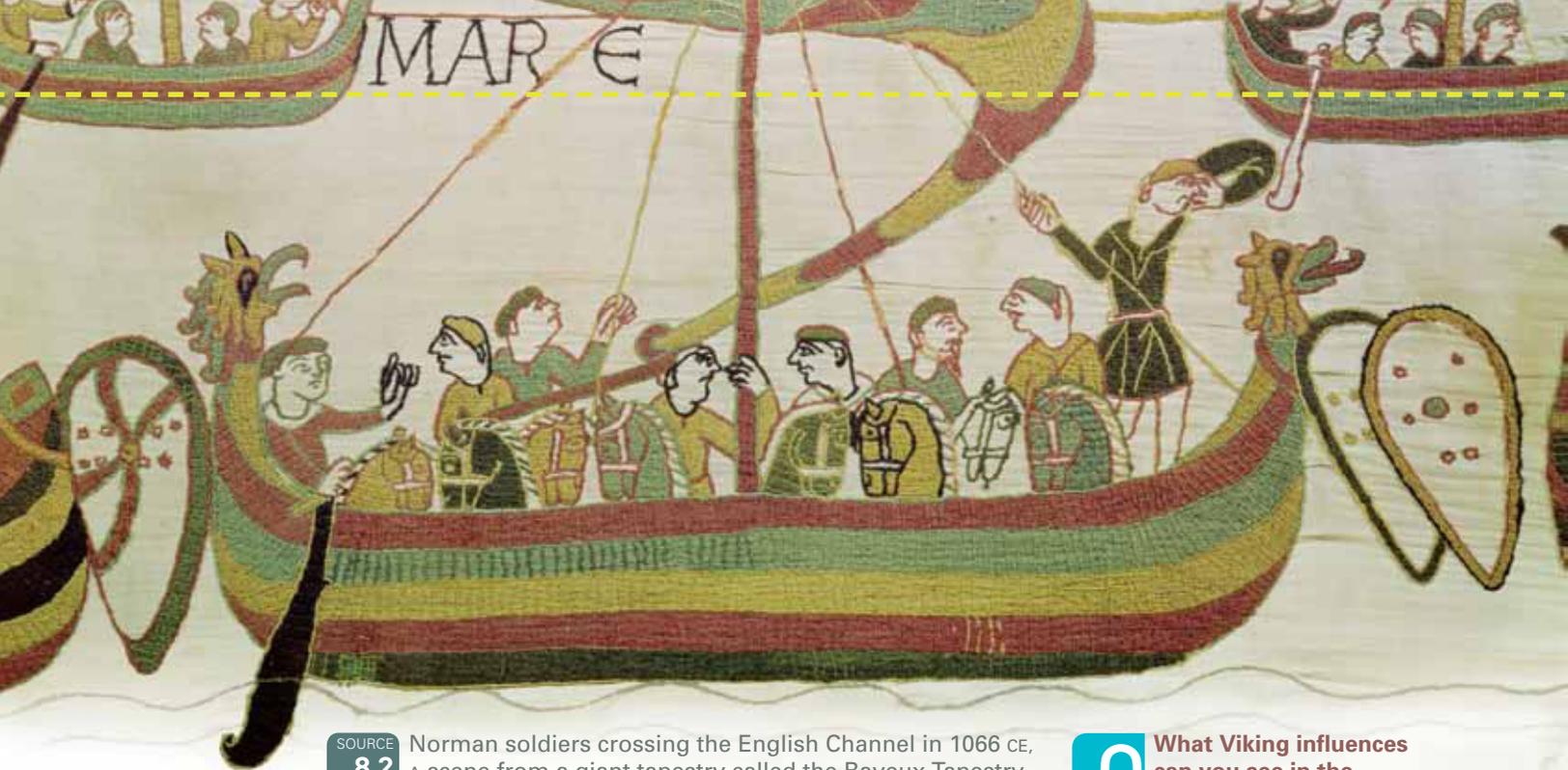
SOURCE
8.1

A charm combining the Christian cross with Thor's hammer and a monster's head. Held at the National Museum, Reykjavik, Iceland

Q

What does this charm suggest about the changing nature of life in Europe at this time?





SOURCE
8.2 Norman soldiers crossing the English Channel in 1066 CE. A scene from a giant tapestry called the Bayeux Tapestry. The Battle of Hastings and the Norman invasion of England were recorded in the Bayeux Tapestry.

Q What Viking influences can you see in the Norman fleet?

William and his knights sailed across the English Channel from Normandy to seize England from King Harold. Unfortunately for Harold, his defeat of the Vikings at Stamford Bridge in the north of England had left him vulnerable. Harold then had to march his exhausted troops south to Hastings to face the Norman invaders.

The ensuing battle at Senlac Hill became known as one of the most famous battles in English history:

the Battle of Hastings. Harold's Saxon army was greatly outnumbered by the Normans and, despite having a strong defensive position at the top of the hill, was soon surrounded by William's troops. The Norman archers were used first to attack the Saxons and then the knights were sent in to kill any survivors. It is thought that King Harold was killed by an arrow through his eye. Once this was known on the battlefield, the remaining Saxon troops fled.

LEARNING
ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** Give the nationality of each of the following people and provide one fact about them:
- Alfred the Great
 - Cnut
 - Edward the Confessor
 - Edward the Elder
 - Harald Hardrada
 - Harold Godwinson
 - Svein
 - William of Normandy
- #2** Why were Vikings sometimes attacked by other Vikings?

applying

- #3** Write a newspaper report outlining the key events of the Norman Conquest of England. Make sure you include these aspects of the conquest:
- the situation in England when Edward the Confessor died
 - the battle for the English throne
 - the Viking attack on Harold
 - the showdown between Harold and William
 - who gained the English throne and why.

analysing & evaluating

- #4** Outline the main reasons why the Viking Age ended. Which reason or reasons were most important?
- #5** Did the Viking Age end suddenly or gradually? Explain your answer.

JORVIK — ARCHAEOLOGY AND RECONSTRUCTING THE PAST

CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT
9

JORVIK (YORK)

Much of our understanding of how Vikings lived in England comes from the archaeological record. A great example of this is the town the Vikings called Jorvik, known today as York. In its time, Jorvik was one of the busiest and richest trading towns in Britain.

In 866 CE, Danish Vikings captured the wealthy Anglo-Saxon town. Goods from Viking territories in Europe, Russia and Scandinavia passed through Jorvik's busy port near the junction of the Ouse and Foss rivers (the Ouse was Jorvik's link to the North Sea). During the years the Vikings ruled Jorvik, they also controlled a huge area of north-eastern England, the Danelaw. Norwegian Vikings ruled Jorvik from 919 and, with the earlier rule by the Danes, Jorvik was the centre of the Kingdom of York for almost 100 years (Alfred the Great's

grandson, Athelstan, briefly controlled it from 927 to 939). By the time the Vikings lost control of Jorvik in 954, large numbers of Vikings had already settled there and been absorbed into the local population. It is estimated that, by the year 1000, Jorvik may have had a population of 10 000 people. The Domesday Book of 1086 records Jorvik (known again by its original name of York) as being second to London in wealth and size.

EXCAVATIONS OF JORVIK

In 1972, the York Archaeological Trust dug three trenches and found up to nine metres of archaeological layers dated to the Viking Age. Furthermore, the damp and peaty soils had preserved to some degree all kinds of organic materials such as wood, leather, cloth, animal bones, plants and seeds.

SOURCE 9.1 Location of Jorvik



SOURCE 9.2 Archaeological dig at Coppergate, York



When a major redevelopment of the Coppergate area in York was planned, archaeologists were given the rare opportunity to carry out some major excavations from 1976 to 1981. Their finds are outlined in Source 9.3.



In total the site produced:

- *5 tons of animal bones—mostly the remains of food eaten here over the centuries*
- *vast quantities of oyster shells—until recently a cheap and common food*
- *thousands of Roman and medieval roof tiles; the Roman tiles were sometimes reused for other purposes in the Viking Age*
- *woven wattles, used as building materials to make walls, pathways and screens*
- *timber used for building materials in both the Viking Age and medieval periods*
- *metal-working slag—vital evidence showing technology over the centuries*
- *a quarter of a million pieces of pottery; pieces that can be used for dating, showing where the pots were made and what they were used for*
- *... 2500 soil samples, [which] were recorded for further analysis, and thousands of timbers, [which] were conserved for long-term preservation*
- *20 000 individually interesting objects ...*

SOURCE 9.3 Excerpt from the Jorvik Viking Centre website

RECONSTRUCTED HISTORY

Places such as the Jorvik Viking Centre in Coppergate Walk today provide a wealth of information about how people lived during the Viking Age. Built on the very site of the Coppergate dig, and using the evidence gathered from the archaeological excavations, the Viking Centre allows visitors to see the original excavation of the site through a glass floor. In addition, visitors can also tour a reconstruction of a small part of Jorvik during the Viking Age where they will see streets, houses, workshops and daily scenes as they might have been during Viking times, with animatronic (mechanised) characters speaking Old Norse. Even the smells of daily life, such as fish, roasting pig, iron-making and the market have been recreated. These models are all based on archaeological evidence and create a real sense of what life must have been like in Jorvik streets and houses. There is even an animatronic rat!



SOURCE 9.4 Re-creation of a Viking street scene at the Jorvik Viking Centre, York



TIME TO THINK ...

1 EVIDENCE

- a** 'All archaeological sites are alike.' Are they? What factors can make one site a better source of information about the past than others?
- b** What types of evidence are best for telling us how people lived in the past?

2 HISTORICAL RECONSTRUCTIONS AND EMPATHY

- a** What value do reconstructions such as the one at Jorvik have?
- b** What would you need to know about them to decide if they are authentic in their depiction of the past?

3 HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE

- a** What were the most significant impacts the Vikings had on other societies?
- b** Is it possible to say whether Viking influence on other societies was mostly positive or negative?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 The Viking journey

This project will consist of three parts. Complete the tasks for each part, using the information in this chapter as well as additional research you have carried out. How you present the project is your choice, but be inventive!

- a** Imagine you are a Viking about to set off on a great voyage of discovery. Before you go, you will need to plan for the voyage and journey that lies ahead.
- What is the purpose of your journey?
 - Create a map showing where you will be leaving from, as well as the route you intend to take and your destination.
 - Make a list of the people and cargo you will take with you. Explain why you have chosen each item of cargo and the roles that people will play both during your voyage and on reaching your destination.
 - Describe conditions and events that occur during the voyage.
- b** You arrive at your destination. What do you see? Who do you encounter? What happens during this contact?
- What differences do you notice between your homeland and this new land?
 - How are you received by the people you meet?
 - Describe what events take place on arrival in the new land.
- c** You arrive back home safely. Everyone is glad to see you again. In what ways has the journey changed the way you view other lands and people?
- What have you brought home with you?
 - What negative and positive impacts did you have on the people you met?
 - How has the trip changed you and your world?

#2 Build a Viking ship

Construct a model of a ship from the Viking Age. This could be a dragon ship or another type of Viking ship such as a cargo vessel (knarr). Research the topic of Viking ships and decide what type of ship you want to construct. For your model you will need to investigate information about the ship, such as:

- the materials it was made from
- the tools used in its construction and repair
- how the ship was powered
- the ship's main purpose
- how its design suited that purpose
- the crew and cargo it carried
- how it was navigated at sea.

Build the model ship with materials suited to the task. Also provide a brief report on your ship, based on the dot points above. Alternatively, you could draw a ship using labels to highlight key facts about it.

#3 Viking timeline

Based on the information in this chapter and from additional research, create an annotated timeline of what you consider to be the twelve most important events and/or periods of the Viking Age. For each entry on this timeline you should include:

- a date and/or period
- a brief description of the event or period
- a sentence or two explaining why it was significant
- a graphic related to the event or period, if appropriate.

Present your timeline in poster or digital form.

INQUIRY

TASKS

#4 Who discovered America?

Christopher Columbus is often considered to be the first European discoverer of America, reaching it with his fleet of three ships from Spain in 1492. From what you have read in this chapter, would you consider Columbus to be the first European discoverer of America? If not, who should be considered for this honour?

Build a case for either the Vikings or Columbus being the first European(s) to discover America. In constructing an argument you should consider:

- the evidence in support of Vikings being the first Europeans to discover America
- the evidence in support of Columbus being the first European to discover America
- questions or problems with the evidence for both *a* and *b*.
- whether the Vikings or Columbus have the strongest claim to be called the first European discoverers of America.

Write a report or essay outlining your findings to this question.

#5 Viking explorers

Create an annotated map of Viking exploration and settlement west of Europe and Scandinavia. Include on your map:

- the Faroe Islands
- Iceland
- Greenland
- north-eastern America.

Carry out research into the major Viking archaeological finds in these areas and mark, date and describe them on the map. Do not forget to include BOLTSS. Also include a bibliography on the back of your map.

#6 Investigating Viking archaeology

Investigate a significant Viking archaeological site. It can be one you have read about in this chapter or it can be another site of your choosing. Investigate these questions:

- Where is the site located?
- When was it first discovered and by whom?
- What archaeology and/or artefacts have been found at the site?
- How are these finds similar to and/or different from Viking archaeology and artefacts discovered at other sites?
- What does this site reveal about how the Vikings lived?
- Has the site been preserved and, if so, how?
- What are we able to learn from this site about Viking history?

Your findings could be reported as an electronic slide presentation with voiceover, or through another format of your choosing.

#7 Attack on Lindisfarne

In a small group, conduct further research on the attack on the monastery at Lindisfarne in 793. Use this research to script, prepare costumes and props and to perform a short play in which you re-enact the lead-up to the attack, the attack itself and the aftermath.

Make sure that you include the points of view of the following groups of people:

- the monks
- Saxon villagers
- the Viking raiders.

Prepare a bibliography of your sources to submit to your teacher when you and your group perform your play.



SOURCE
10.1

Overview of Jarlshof
archaeological site,
Shetland Islands

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

What conditions in Italy during fifteenth and sixteenth centuries enabled the Renaissance to flourish?

What were the key beliefs and ideas in Italy at that time and how did they shape the Renaissance?

What role did contact with other countries play in the growth and spread of the Renaissance?

What significant people, beliefs and achievements from this period have influenced the world today?



The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were an exciting period in Italy. This was the era of the Renaissance. It was a time of new ideas that led to outstanding achievements in areas such as the arts and science. The spirit of the Renaissance spread to other parts of Europe, helping pave the way to our modern world.



RENAISSANCE

SOURCE
0.1

The Miracle of the Relic of the True Cross on the Rialto Bridge, painted by Vittore Carpaccio in 1495 CE. It shows members of Venetian society and the busy Grand Canal in Venice at that time. The painting is held in the Galleria Dell' Accademia, Venice.



SNAPSHOT

1400 CE

1417 Brunelleschi begins work on the dome of the Florence cathedral

1453 Fall of Constantinople: Greek scholars flee to Italy

1450 CE

1434 Cosimo de' Medici is head of government in Florence

c. 1450 Gutenberg invents the printing press in Germany

1469 Lorenzo de' Medici becomes ruler of Florence

1485 Botticelli paints *The Birth of Venus*

1498 Beginning of the end of republican government in Florence

1500 CE

1494 French invasion of Italy



SOURCE 1.1 Renaissance Europe, 1500s CE, from *Historical Atlas*, 1911

1502 Leonardo da Vinci paints the *Mona Lisa*

1504 Michelangelo completes his sculpture of *David*

1506 Construction of St Peter's Basilica begins in Rome

1508 Michelangelo begins painting the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel

1510 Raphael paints *The School of Athens*, a masterful example of perspective

1513 Machiavelli's *The Prince* is published

1517 In Germany, Martin Luther criticises the Church publicly

1543 Copernicus publishes his heliocentric theory of the Solar System

1543 Vesalius publishes *On the Structure of the Human Body*

1550 CE



1600 Shakespeare's *Hamlet* staged at the Globe Theatre, London

1600s Galileo makes discoveries in astronomy and physics

1600 CE

The **Renaissance** was a period of major cultural change. It occurred in Europe from the fourteenth to the sixteenth centuries CE. The term 'Renaissance', from the French for 'rebirth', was used in 1860 by Swiss historian Jakob Burckhardt to describe the renewed interest in Ancient Greece and Rome that first grew in Italy. This interest stimulated fresh ideas and creativity. According to Burckhardt, the Renaissance was a new era that broke from the backwardness of the medieval period. More recent historians have argued that the Renaissance actually built upon trends from the medieval period.

RENAISSANCE ITALY

The Renaissance had its beginnings in the 1300s in Italy, which then consisted of city-states—large regions with their own governments. Scholars and artists turned back to the texts and culture of Ancient Greece and Rome. They were thus inspired to rethink their ideas and explore different approaches in their work. A key theme that emerged in this Renaissance thinking was 'humanism'. It focused on the individual's capacity to better understand and improve the world. During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries Italy's city-states, situated on major trade routes, expanded in size and became very wealthy. Their rulers vied with each other for power and prestige. Merchants and bankers rose in economic and

political importance. With the Catholic Church still central in religious and social life, Church leaders also had both power and wealth. Privileged men with money to spare provided greater opportunities for scholars and artists to explore and create. With the invention of the printing press, the spread of knowledge and ideas accelerated. In this setting, the Renaissance flourished.

In Italy there were major advances in the arts, particularly in painting, sculpture and architecture. New directions were taken in learning, especially in science. Existing values, for example in religion and politics, were challenged. This is the period of Michelangelo, Leonardo, Galileo and Machiavelli. The city-state of Florence, ruled by the wealthy Medici family, was at the centre of the Renaissance. In this chapter, you will take a closer look at Florence at that time.

TO THE MODERN AGE

Largely due to the invention of the printing press, by the late fifteenth century the spirit of the Renaissance in Italy was spreading to other European countries though it developed at different points in time and in different ways. In England, for instance, this was the age of Shakespeare. With hindsight, we can see that the Renaissance laid the groundwork for the movements that established the modern age: the Reformation, the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment.



ITALY IN THE FIFTEENTH AND SIXTEENTH CENTURIES

CITY-STATES

During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the country we now know as Italy was made up of independent **city-states**. These were large regions with headquarters in a major city and included towns and rural areas. The number of city-states and their borders varied over time. In the late fifteenth century, five city-states had come to dominate: the Republics of Venice and Florence, the Duchy of Milan, the Papal States and the Kingdom of Naples. Other city-states were the Republics of Lucca, Genoa, Modena and Siena; the Duchies of Savoy and Ferrara; and the Marquisate of Mantua. As shown in Source 2.1, nearly all city-states were in the central and northern parts of the Italian peninsula.

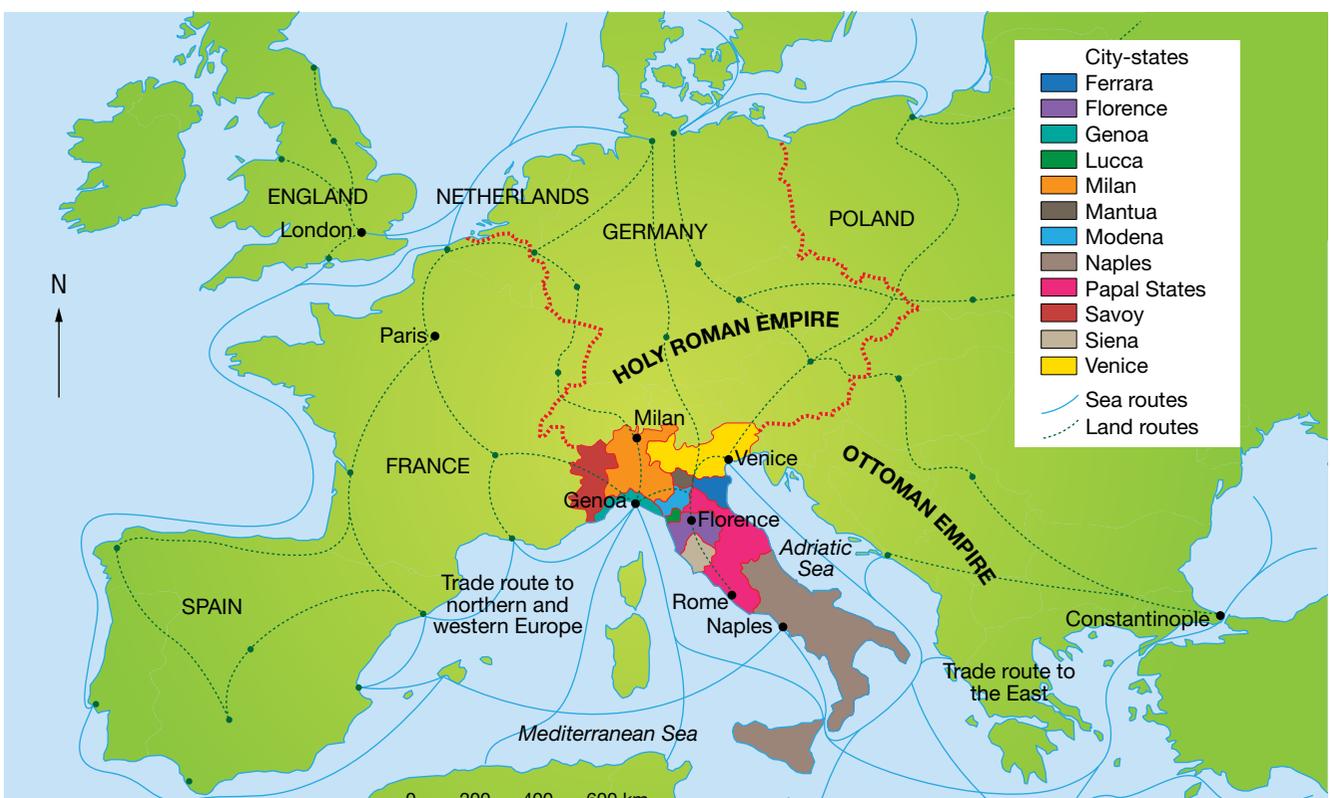
Most city-states, such as Milan and Florence, were ruled by aristocratic families who had managed to seize power and keep it over generations. Naples was ruled by a hereditary monarch. The Papal States comprised a number of territories controlled overall by the Catholic pope but ruled by local aristocrats. Venice had the most stable political system, with

three levels of government: the Doge, the Senate and the Grand Council. Members of the Venetian government were men from powerful and wealthy families, called **patricians**.

The city-states jostled with each other for wealth, prestige and control of territory. This rivalry often led to armed conflict. For instance, Milan and Venice fought to be the dominant power in northern Italy. The city-states also fought with other European powers, such as France and Spain. By the fifteenth century, the city-states had professional armies and the most advanced weapons. Many cities and towns also had **ramparts**, or heavy stone walls, to protect them from enemies.

SOURCE 2.1 City-states and trade routes

- 1** Which trade routes are more direct: land or sea?
- 2** What impact would this have had on trade and trading?
- 3** How does the map help explain why Italy became such a major trader?





SOURCE 2.2 Detail from a painting of fruit and grain merchants, c. 1470, attributed to Cristoforo De Predis. Held at Biblioteca Estense, Modena, Italy

- Q**
- 1 Who do you think are the merchants? Why?
 - 2 Who do you think may be selling to or buying from the merchants? Why?

GROWTH OF WEALTH

TRADE

Being at the centre of the trade routes that linked Europe, Asia and the Middle East (see Source 2.1), most city-states became very wealthy through trade. Traders from all parts of the world travelled through Italy. Italian merchants bought and sold local and foreign goods. Local goods included foods, textiles and timber. Sought-after foreign goods included silks, carpets, spices and dyes.

The Republic of Venice was the most important trading state, with its major city right on the Adriatic Sea. Its external trade routes went through the Greek Islands to Egypt and the Far East, as well as Constantinople and ports on the Black Sea. War galleys and forts were used to protect these trade routes.

MANUFACTURING

Another vital source of increasing wealth in the city-states was manufacturing. With its focus on trade and being situated on canals, Venice invested strongly in ship and boat building. There were many small and large private firms; in addition, its huge state shipbuilding yard, called the Arsenal, employed about 2000 men. Glass-making was also very important in Venice. Florence was famous for its textiles made from wool brought from different parts of Europe. There were about 200 textile firms in Florence, employing up to 30 000 men and women. Milan, Genoa and Lucca specialised in wool and silk cloth-making as well. Other forms of manufacture in the city-states included the building construction, metal work and stone masonry.

THAT VENICE HAD THE BEST NAVY IN THE MEDITERRANEAN?

By 1450, Venice had more than 3000 merchant ships, or galleys, most of which could be converted to warships when needed. By Venetian law, all merchant ships had to carry weapons and armour. The navy's crew totalled over 30 000.

SOURCE 2.3 A Venetian galley, artist unknown. Galleys were propelled by oarsmen and used for both trade and war. They held 215 crew, 138 of whom were oarsmen.

- Q**
- 1 Why do you think galleys had both sails and oars?
 - 2 What were the advantages and disadvantages of each?



DID YOU KNOW

SOURCE
2.4

Sign for the Marangoni family of shipbuilders, Venice, 1517. Held at Museo Correr, Venice, Italy

COMMERCE

During the Renaissance, merchants and bankers became a new force in society. Due to their economic importance to the city-states, merchants and bankers gained in social status and political influence. In Venice, for example, many wealthy patricians were merchants who supervised the galley convoys and controlled the warehouses, customs offices and courts that regulated trade. As their profits from trade and manufacturing grew, most businessmen put part of those profits into developing their businesses through investment and borrowing. They needed detailed records of their economic activities and required people to handle their money and commercial dealings—and so banks were developed to provide such services. Bankers (some of whom were also merchants) themselves became wealthy and powerful. Florence, for example, became renowned throughout Europe as a centre of banking and finance ruled by the Medici family.



URBANISATION

Due to developments in trade, manufacturing and commerce, by the late fourteenth century, cities and towns in Italy had expanded and become larger and more numerous than in other parts of Europe. This trend, called **urbanisation**, continued in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

SOURCE
2.5

The Finances of the Municipality in Times of Peace and War, by Benvenuto di Giovanni, 1468 CE. Held at the Siense State Archives. The man seated on the left is a banker.



THAT THE CHURCH SOLD INDULGENCES?

Indulgences were granted and sold by bishops to reduce the time someone had to spend in Purgatory—a place of agony where the souls of the dead were purified before going to Heaven. Indulgences were based on the belief that a person's sins could be wiped out by good works or religious piety. The money from their sale was meant to fund charities, such as hospitals, connected to the Church. But indulgences became a form of trade between the wealthy and the Church. For instance, Pope Leo X authorised the sale of an indulgence to fund the building of St Peter's Basilica in Rome.

The cities and towns were surrounded by rural areas, where the economy and society were dominated by agriculture and people's positions were connected to the land. The cities and towns served as important markets for agricultural produce. But in contrast with rural areas, the economy and society in cities and towns were mostly organised around money-making and the different kinds of urban occupations.

As well as merchants and bankers, people making a living in cities and towns included public administrators, shopkeepers, professional men (such as lawyers and physicians), scholars, artists, skilled craftsmen and unskilled labourers. With the growth of jobs in cities and towns, many families migrated from rural areas to the urban centres. Yet most urban dwellers were not well off and great divisions existed between the rich and poor. In Florence, for example, 10 per cent of the population held 90 per cent of all wealth in the city.

ROLE OF THE CHURCH

During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, nearly all Italians belonged to the Catholic Church, which played an important role in most areas of Italian life. The Catholic Church was the dominant Christian Church in Western Europe and its headquarters were in the city of Rome. The Church was ruled by popes, whose power was like that of monarchs, as well as cardinals and bishops. Other influential religious figures were the parish priests and members of religious orders, such as monks, friars and nuns.

The popes, cardinals and bishops usually came from noble families. While some were dutiful and spiritual, others used their positions to advance their own wealth and prestige and to benefit the economic and political interests of their families and home cities. Parish priests depended on others for their appointment and for financial support, and many lived in poverty or were poorly educated. Some religious orders lived in enclosed communities, such as monasteries, devoted to prayer and learning; others lived in their neighbourhoods, teaching or helping the poor, and often begging for their living.

Despite the problems of the Church and their own religious failings, most people did not question Catholic teachings and the Church's authority.

Regular religious devotion as well as religious festivals and plays were a big part of Italian culture. Important religious festivals included those for the patron saints of cities and towns, such as St Ambrose in Milan, St Mark in Venice and St Catherine in Siena. Popular works by Renaissance painters and sculptors represented religious figures and themes, while Renaissance architects were commissioned by the wealthy and powerful to design religious buildings.

However, there was growing criticism, both in and beyond Italy, of corruption and abuse of power within the Church and of the extravagant lifestyles of some Church leaders.

SOURCE
2.6

Pope Leo X and his cousins, cardinals Giulio de' Medici and Luigi de' Rossi, by Raphael, 1518–19, held at the Uffizi Gallery, Florence, Italy. Pope Leo X, originally Giovanni de' Medici, was pope from 1513 to 1521. Cardinal Giulio de' Medici later became Pope Clement VII.



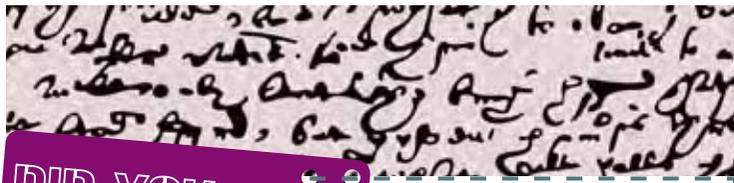
NEW THINKING

REVISITING THE ANCIENT WORLD

During the medieval period, scholars had limited their study of Ancient Greece and Rome because this could be frowned upon by the Church. But due to changes in Church thinking, Renaissance scholars were freer to study these ancient civilisations.

Italy was the home of the ancient Roman Empire. Scholars were familiar with its architecture and works of art. They now sought out ancient Latin manuscripts that had been preserved over the centuries in monastic libraries in Italy and other parts of Europe. Through their study of these manuscripts they also improved their grasp of Latin, making them better able to understand what Roman ideas could mean for their own times. Taking a lead was a poet and scholar from Florence, Francesco Petrarca (1304–74), known in English as Petrarch. He examined the works of the Roman orator and statesman Cicero, and the Roman historian Livy.

In the early fifteenth century, a Greek scholar named John Argyropoulo visiting from the Christian city of Constantinople in the East became a professor at Florence University. There he taught Greek language and generated great interest in Greek literature and art. After the fall of Constantinople in 1453, when it was taken over by the Muslim Turks, many Greek scholars moved to the city-states, bringing with them long-preserved manuscripts as well as expertise in the ideas and culture of Ancient Greece. They taught in Italian universities and schools.



DID YOU KNOW

THAT MANUSCRIPTS COULD BE BOOKS?

Over the centuries, ancient and medieval texts were hand-copied. That is why they are known as manuscripts. In Latin *manu* means 'hand' and *scriptum* means 'written'. The skilled copying was done by monks living in monasteries. On some pages they would write their own notes. The pages of long manuscripts were bound together with covers and became early books.

HUMANISM

Before the Renaissance, people saw themselves as pilgrims on a journey to Heaven, their situation in life being determined by God's will. But, inspired by ancient texts, Renaissance scholars focused on the capacity of humans to understand and improve life on Earth. They were interested in the ideal forms of virtue and beauty prized in the ancient world. They also wanted to know more about the physical world. This new focus became known later as **humanism**. Only a small proportion of the population were scholars, but their humanist thinking became very influential

Humanism developed in a number of fields, including literature, science, medicine, philosophy, politics and the arts. Petrarch, mentioned earlier, is regarded as one of the first great humanists. As well as composing beautiful poetry, he also wrote scholarly books, essays and long letters that reflected his ideas. In some fields, humanist thinking was in conflict with Catholic teachings, yet most humanists remained deeply religious. They believed that God had given humans their intellectual and creative potential, and humans should make the most of this potential.

EDUCATION

Before long, humanists had a big influence on education in Italy. They favoured a program of studies—*studia humanitatis*—similar to those in Ancient Greece and Rome. Subjects included grammar, history and philosophy, as well as Latin and Greek. These were adopted in universities and some newly founded schools. For example, Vittorino da Feltre, who had studied at the University of Padua, agreed in 1423 to set up a school for the children of prominent families in Mantua. The school's humanist emphasis was clear.

Not everyone is called to be a physician, a lawyer, a philosopher, to live in the public eye, nor has everyone outstanding gifts of natural capacity, but all of us are created for the life of social duty, all are responsible for the personal influence that goes forth from us.

SOURCE 2.7 From a letter by Vittorino da Feltre, c. 1424

Other subjects taught at the school included music, drawing, astronomy and mathematics. It also valued physical exercise and had playing fields for sports.



SOURCE
2.8

The Birth of Venus, by Sandro Botticelli, c. 1485, held in the Uffizi Gallery in Florence, Italy. It was commissioned by the ruling Medici family of Florence. This famous painting shows the humanist interest in the culture of the ancient world. Venus was the Roman goddess of love, beauty and fertility.

PATRONAGE

The growth of great wealth in the Italian city-states meant that the privileged classes had a lot of money to spare. They spent some on luxury goods such as fine furniture, clothing and jewellery. The merchants and bankers, in particular, liked to show off their new wealth by copying the habits and tastes of the older noble families. But the privileged also spent their surplus money in another way: they **commissioned** art. That is, they employed selected artists—painters, sculptors and architects—to produce particular works of art for them.

Both individuals and groups were patrons. Popes, cardinals and bishops commissioned buildings, such as cathedrals and palaces, as well as religious paintings and sculptures. Powerful rulers commissioned architects, painters and sculptors to produce grand public works for their city-states. Prominent noble and business families commissioned splendid buildings and other works of art to proclaim their wealth, status and religious devotion. Some merchants and bankers even commissioned church buildings to ease their guilty consciences about business practices disapproved of by the Church. For many patrons too, the humanist interest in ideas and beauty led to a new passion for art for its own sake.

The commissioning and production of art became another form of business in Renaissance Italy. This system of **patronage** was crucial for the great expansion of art at that time. It also meant that artists in great demand, though probably from middle or lower class backgrounds, gained higher social status.

THE PRINTING PRESS

Before the late fifteenth century, in Western Europe, the formal knowledge recorded in books was the domain of churchmen and scholars, and was tightly controlled. The invention of the printing press provided much wider access to books. Its German inventor, Johannes Gutenberg, developed a way of printing from moveable type: metal letters could be reused by rearranging them to form different words. This meant that any text could be reproduced quickly and easily, especially in comparison with copying by hand. In 1455, Gutenberg printed and sold 200 copies of the Bible. By 1500, there were more than 2500 printing presses in European cities and more than 35 000 different books in circulation. The invention of the printing press meant that it was not just churchmen, scholars and the educated nobles, merchants and bankers who had access to the knowledge available in books—so did many people in lower ranks of society.

In northern and central Italy, especially in the cities and town, literacy and numeracy rates were very high for the times. The growth of trade, manufacturing and commerce required more people who could read and write and do basic mathematics. Almost half of all males and a smaller proportion of women could read.

Italian printing began in Venice as early as 1469 and by the end of the sixteenth century there were nearly 3000 printing firms in Italian cities and towns. Venice became the most important publishing centre not only in Italy but throughout Europe.

remembering & understanding

#1 Draw up a 'Renaissance Italy' glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.

- city-state
- commission
- galley
- humanism
- indulgence
- patrician
- patronage
- ramparts
- Renaissance (look back at Unit 1)
- *studia humanitatis*
- urbanisation

#2 Begin a 'Who was who in the Renaissance?' chart in your notebook or as a Word document. Divide your chart into five columns headed:

- Person's name
- When they lived
- Where they came from
- Why they are famous
- Other details.

In this unit there are just a few people named to help you begin your chart. You will find many more as you work through the other units in this chapter. You might also like to add other people to your chart from your own research along the way.

#3 Name three or more features of the Italian city-states.

#4 In what ways did the city-states become wealthier in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries?

#5 Name two or three things to remember about Italian cities and towns during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

#6 How important was the Catholic Church in Italian life during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries? Give reasons for your answer.

#7 a How were scholars able to get to know more about the culture of Ancient Rome?

b How were scholars able to get to know more about the culture of Ancient Greece?

#8 What did the new humanist approach to education mean?

#9 a Why were some people able to become patrons of artists?

b What were some of the reasons they did this?

#10 What differences did the invention of the printing press make to people in the Italian city-states?

applying & analysing

#11 Imagine you are visiting the city of Venice in 1500. Using all the relevant information found in this unit, construct a Y-chart to record what you would observe, hear and experience.

#12 a With a partner, make a list of all the occupations in Renaissance Italy mentioned in writing or shown in sources this unit. (You could include printers.)

b Draw a social pyramid that shows a hierarchy of these occupations.

#13 Create a mind map explaining humanism.

evaluating & creating

#14 You are a wealthy merchant. Write two or three paragraphs, as part a letter to a friend, in which you talk about your work, how you see your role in society and your ambitions.

#15 Research a city in Renaissance Italy (other than Venice, Florence or Rome), such as Milan, Naples, Bologna, Padua, Genoa or Siena.

Find out what you can about:

- its geographical location
- the city-state it was part of at the time
- its rulers
- important Renaissance landmarks or buildings
- any famous people who lived or visited there.

Make a note of any other interesting things you have learnt. Present your research findings as a poster or an electronic slide presentation.

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 3

YOUNG PEOPLE IN RENAISSANCE ITALY

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THERE WERE CLUBS FOR BOYS?

Believing that teenage boys in groups could be unruly and a threat to social stability, in the fifteenth century the city elders of Florence set up clubs for them. The clubs directed the boys' energies into the rituals of church services, public speaking and roles in plays and ceremonial processions.

YOUNG WOMEN

Renaissance Italy was a patriarchal society; that is, it was organised and controlled by men. Women's roles—to be loyal wives, manage a household and have children—were regarded as inferior to those of men. Most women, even those from noble families, received only a limited education.

A young woman was expected to marry by the time she was 18, often younger. Marriages were arranged, by the families concerned, for economic or political reasons. The bride's family had to provide money or property—known as a dowry—which would then belong to the groom. If a father could not afford dowries for all his daughters, those who missed out were expected to become nuns.

The life of a young wife in a wealthy family revolved around home and church, and she would have been expected to bear a large number of children. Her husband would have been busy with business and political matters. She would have had many servants as well as a grand house and other luxuries, such as beautiful clothes. Life for young women in less affluent and poor families was harder. As well as their domestic duties, many had to do paid work, either inside or outside the home, for example as servants, spinners or leather workers in urban areas, or as farm hands in rural areas.

YOUNG MEN

Young men were more likely to be better educated. They attended schools conducted by religious clergy or lay teachers, or had private tutors. The level of education a young man received depended on his position in society. For many, a basic education in grammar and arithmetic was thought sufficient to prepare them for the trades or some positions in commerce. Those from better-off families usually learnt additional subjects such as languages, rhetoric and history. Some young men, particularly those from poor families in rural areas, received no formal education at all.

Men were not considered ready for marriage until they were 30 or so and the wealthy were not eligible for political office in the city-states until about that age. Some young men were apprenticed as assistants to skilled artisans like goldsmiths, architects or stone masons. Some enrolled in university studies with a view to professions such as law or medicine. Many became semi-skilled or unskilled workers, such as weavers, rope makers and oarsmen.

SOURCE 3.1 *University of Padua Students and a Farm Woman Bringing Produce for Sale, Italy, 1580s, artist unknown. Held in the Roberto Martinez Del Rio Collection*



In 1464–65, Alessandra Strozzi, from the wealthy Strozzi family in Florence, was looking for a bride for her son Filippo. Having identified a suitable prospect, she asked her son-in-law, Marco Parenti, to approach the girl's father, Francesco Tanagli, to discuss the marriage and to meet the daughter. But after consulting his brother-in-law, Francesco Tanagli decided on a 'more attractive' marriage arrangement prospect for his daughter. Alessandra Strozzi was very annoyed.

Alessandra Strozzi suggests Francesco Tanagli's daughter as a possible wife ...

Concerning the matter of a wife, it appears to me that if Francesco Tanagli wishes to give his daughter, that would be a fine marriage ... Francesco Tanagli has a good reputation, and has held office, not the highest, but still he has been in office ... You may ask: 'Why should he give her to someone [who does not live in Florence]?' There are three reasons. First, there aren't many young men of good family who have both virtue and property. Secondly, she has only a small dowry, 1000 florins, which is the dowry of an artisan ... Third, I believe he will give her away, because he has a large family and he will need help to settle them.

Alessandra Strozzi reports Marco's findings:

Marco said that she was attractive and that she appeared to be suitable. We have information that she is affable and competent [she helps her brothers and sisters] ... She reads quite well ... and she can dance and sing ... it appears that [her father] has brought her up well.

Alessandra Strozzi relays her disappointment at the failure of the negotiations ...

For I felt that this marriage would have satisfied our needs better than any other we could have found.

SOURCE 3.2 Extracts from letters written by Alessandra Strozzi to her son Filippo, who was living in Naples at that time. From *Alessandra Macinghi Strozzi: Letter di Una Gentildonna Fiorentina*, edited by C. Guasti, Florence, 1877.



SOURCE 3.3 *A Concert*, by Lorenzo Costa, fifteenth century, held at the National Gallery, London

SOURCE 3.4 Detail of an Italian marriage ceremony from a fresco by Domenico di Bartolo, 1443, held at Maria Della Scala Hospital, Siena



SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

REMEMBERING AND UNDERSTANDING

- 1 Examine Source 3.1 and answer the following questions.
 - a Describe in detail what each person in this image is wearing.
 - b What do their clothes tell us about each one's place in society?
- 2 Reread Source 3.2 and answer the following questions.
 - a Why did Alessandra Strozzi think that Francesco Tanagli was a man of high standing in Florence?
 - b Why did Alessandra Strozzi think that Francesco would approve of her son even though Filippo did not live in Florence?
 - c What other factors made Alessandra Strozzi think that Francesco would easily agree on a marriage between his daughter and Filippo?
 - d Give at least three reasons why Alessandra Strozzi thought that Francesco's daughter would be a suitable wife for her son.
- 3 Examine Source 3.3 and answer the following questions.
 - a Describe the appearance of each person.
 - b What does this tell us about their places in society?
 - c Do you think they are all about the same age?
 - d What do you think are the relationships between each of them?
 - e What musical instrument is the one in the middle playing?
 - f What else can you see in this image?
 - g Where do you think concerts like this took place? Why?

ANALYSING & APPLYING

- 4 Look again at the young women in Sources 3.1 and 3.3. Write a paragraph or two about what their lives would have in common and how their lives would be different from each other's.
- 5 Reread Source 3.2 and write a short paragraph answer to each of the following questions.
 - a What does this source tell us about how marriages were arranged in Renaissance Italy?
 - b Suggest one or two possible reasons why the Strozzi family seemed ready to accept a small dowry.
 - c What other background information about the situation would be interesting to know?
- 6 Could the young woman in Source 3.3 possibly be the daughter in Source 3.2? Give reasons for your answer.

EVALUATING

- 7 Examine Source 3.4 and, with a partner, discuss the following questions.
 - a Who are the different people shown in this fresco?
 - b What are their social positions? How can you tell?
 - c How does this depiction of a marriage ceremony in Renaissance Italy compare and contrast with marriage ceremonies in Australia today?

THAT SOME WOMEN WERE INFLUENTIAL?

DID YOU KNOW

One was Isabella d'Este, born in 1474 into the ruling family of Ferrara. She was well educated for a girl: she could read and write well, knew Latin and Greek, played the lute, sang and danced. At 16, she was married to the ruling Marquis of the city-state of Mantua, Francesco Gonzaga. They had eight children. When her husband was away for months in battles with the Venetians, Isabella governed the city on her own. When he died, she became the Chief of State in Mantua. She was an important patron of the arts and she founded a school for young women.



FOCUS ON FLORENCE

At the beginning of the fifteenth century, Florence was already a bustling, prosperous city. It was also a lively cultural centre, home to leading humanist scholars such as Petrarch. The city-state of Florence covered much of the region of Tuscany. The city of Florence was the capital city and the other main city was Pisa. The other city-state in the region was Siena. Throughout the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the two city-states were bitter rivals, with Florence trying to interfere in Siena's government and defeat it in battle. By the mid-sixteenth century, Siena became part of the Duchy of Tuscany, with Florence as the capital.

During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, Florence was at the centre of the Renaissance in Italy. It was one of the wealthiest city-states and for most of this period was ruled by the Medici family. By modern standards, their methods for gaining and keeping political power may be criticised. Yet they played a crucial role in the Renaissance. They used some of their enormous wealth and influence to promote the growth of ideas and the arts in Florence.

ECONOMY AND SOCIETY

BANKING AND FINANCE

Florence had become the banking capital of Europe. It had minor banks, which handled the needs of small traders in the city. It also had major international banks with branches in the big cities of Europe that handled the financial needs of merchants who traded in different countries. For example, merchants purchased quality raw wool from England and Spain, then sold the finished cloth to traders in various European cities. Florentine bankers developed advanced financial practices and services, and the Florentine gold coin, known as the **florin**, was the standard currency for business throughout Europe.

SOURCE
4.1

Carta della Catena, 1490, artist unknown. Held in Museo de Firenze Com'era, Florence. Panoramic view of Florence in the late fifteenth century. The domed building on the left bank is Florence's cathedral, Il Duomo. Further to the left are the ramparts used to defend the city from invasion by other city-states and foreign enemies.





TEXTILES

Much of Florence's wealth still depended on the manufacture and trade of textiles. Fabrics such as silk, damask and brocade were in great demand among the wealthy in Italy and elsewhere, but the focus was on the manufacture and trade of woollen cloth. Florence had a reputation for producing fine-quality woollen fabrics. The raw wool was prepared for spinning then woven, dyed and finished. Some of this work was done by men in workshops and some by women at home. Textile workers were usually poorly paid, while their employers were some of the richest businessmen in Italy.

GUILDS

Vital to the economy and society in Florence were the guilds. **Guilds** were associations of employers: businessmen and skilled artisans, or craftsmen. There were seven major guilds: the cloth importers, judges and notaries, bankers, furriers, doctors and pharmacists, silk manufacturers and wool manufacturers. The fourteen minor guilds included butchers, tanners, armourers, smiths, drapers, masons and carpenters.

Guild members were very powerful in society. They employed nearly all workers in Florence and determined working conditions. The most important guild was the wool guild. Together, its members employed about one-third of all men and women in Florence. Only guild members could be elected to office in government. Guilds were also patrons of the arts. For example, the cloth importers guild commissioned a leading sculptor, Ghiberti, to make a bronze statue of its patron saint to emphasise the guild's importance. Not to be outdone, the bankers guild and the wool guild then commissioned Ghiberti to produce statues of their own patron saints.

SOURCE 4.2 Bas-relief of the Guild of Stone and Wood Masters, 1412–16, artist unknown, set in the outside wall of Orsanmichele church, Florence. The stone masters included sculptors.

POWERFUL FAMILIES

In Renaissance Italy, the family was central to people's lives. We know more about the families of nobles and other rich people than about ordinary people, because there is more evidence available. Economic, social and political power in the cities was held by prominent families. Two families might arrange a marriage or business partnership for their mutual benefit, or rivalry might make them enemies.

In Florence, there were several prominent families. Three of these were the Medici, Strozzi and Pazzi families. The Medici family had gained wealth and influence through the wool trade, but by the fifteenth century its bank was the largest in Europe: the family was fabulously wealthy and dominated the city-state's government. Two of its members were made popes (see Source 2.6). The Strozzi family (look again at Source 3.2) were a noble family whose riches were inherited. The Pazzi family were nobles as well as successful bankers.

ORDINARY PEOPLE

As in other Italian cities at that time, most people in Florence were poor. Whether men were unskilled labourers or unemployed, their earnings and the availability of work were determined by the guilds. Women looked after large families, which could include three generations. They might also have done cloth-making at home or worked as servants for the wealthy. The Church parishes provided some charity. Occasionally, groups of poor people created disturbances but the authorities kept them under control.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT A REPUBLIC CANNOT HAVE A HEREDITARY

MONARCH AS HEAD OF STATE?

A republic is a form of government in which the head of state is either elected by the people or nominated by representatives of the people.

SOURCE
4.3

Portrait of Lorenzo de' Medici, by Raphael, 1518, privately owned. This portrait of Lorenzo was painted towards the end of his life. His clothes are an example of how rich people used luxury items, such as Florentine textiles. The painting was sold to a private buyer in 2007 for US\$37 million.



WHAT HAPPENED TO THE REPUBLIC?

During the fifteenth century, the city-state of Florence was a **republic**. The Florentine government consisted of nine wealthy men: a Gonfalonier of Justice, who was the head of state, and eight priors (six from the seven leading guilds and three from the fourteen minor guilds). The government was known as the **signoria**. Only members of guilds could be elected to the **signoria**. Elections for all positions, including the head of state, were held six times a year. Government business was conducted in the Palazzo della Signoria.

RISE OF THE MEDICI

Having such regular elections was meant to ensure that no group or family head could have long terms in government. This responsibility, and the prestige and opportunities that went with it, were meant to be spread around. In theory, no one could be re-elected for three years, but in practice a very ambitious family could use its influence to manipulate this system. This is just what happened.

Over four generations, beginning with Cosimo de' Medici (known as Cosimo the Elder), the Medici family found ways to control the Florentine government for their own gain. From 1434 to 1494, the Medici family dominated the Republic of Florence as if they were hereditary rulers. Prominent families who did not benefit from Medici favours, especially banking rivals, became enemies. In fact, in 1478, the Pazzi and other families plotted to assassinate Lorenzo de' Medici and his brother Giuliano. Giuliano was killed but Lorenzo escaped. He ensured that the seventy men involved in the plot, including the Archbishop of Pisa, were executed.

FRENCH INVASION

In 1494, the inexperienced head of the Medici family was Piero de' Medici. He did not stand up to King Charles VIII of France who, with his armies, invaded city-states in northern Italy. After moving through Florence and Rome, Charles VIII took control of the Kingdom of Naples, which had been his goal. But Pope Alexander VI, who came from Spain, urged the city-states to unite to drive the French out of Italy. In the meantime, the **signoria** were outraged because Piero had not consulted them about his deals with Charles VIII. They were able to force the Medici family out of Florence.

SAVONAROLA

Between 1494 and 1498, the most powerful man in Florence was a monk called Girolamo Savonarola. He used sermons to press for political change. Savonarola wanted to make the Florentine government more like a true republic, similar to that of Venice. He denounced corrupt Church leaders, including Pope Alexander VI. He said that many pastimes and fashions enjoyed by people at that time were immoral. At first his views were popular among sections of society. Many of his supporters were elected to the signoria and introduced new laws. But Florentines grew tired of Savonarola's extreme views. In addition, Alexander VI wanted to get rid of him. Savonarola was eventually arrested and executed.

END OF THE REPUBLIC

From 1498 to 1512, Florence was governed as a proper republic. No single family dominated its government. In 1512, however, due to the influence of Pope Julius II and assistance from the Spanish army, the Medici family returned to Florence. They soon regained control of the government. In 1527, supporters of the republic again tried to expel the Medici rulers, but by 1530—with the help of Pope Clement VII, who was himself a Medici, and again backed by the Spanish army—the Medici returned. This ended the hopes for a republican government for the city-state.



SOURCE 4.4 *Execution of Savonarola*, artist unknown, sixteenth century. Held at Museo di San Marco, Florence. The execution took place in the Piazza della Signoria. The building with the tower is the Palazzo della Signoria.

GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY

In 1532, the Duchy of Tuscany was founded when Pope Clement VII made Alessandro de' Medici the hereditary Duke of Florence. As a republic, Florence was ruled by elected officials. But now, as a hereditary duchy, it became a monarchy ruled by the 'royal' family of Medici.

In 1569, Pope Pius V made Cosimo de' Medici the hereditary Grand Duke of Tuscany, replacing the Republic of Florence with the Duchy of Tuscany, with Florence as its capital. During the first Grand Duke's reign, Florence took over its old rival Siena. At that time, Siena was controlled by Spain. The Spanish king owed large sums of money to the Medici and he agreed to give Siena to the Duchy of Tuscany.

MACHIAVELLI

Niccolò Machiavelli (1469–1527) was born and educated in Florence. When the republic was restored in 1498, he held government positions as an administrator and diplomat. With the return of the Medici family in 1512, Machiavelli was violently expelled from office, yet by the 1520s he was given important positions by the two Medici popes, Leo X and Clement VII.

In 1513, Machiavelli wrote a book called *The Prince*, about how states should be governed. It was published in 1532 after his death. In it, he argued that Christian values such as compassion and forgiveness were suitable for private life but not for public life. He declared that a ruler, a 'prince', should do whatever he thought necessary for the good of the state, without being held back by religious values. He said: 'Therefore a prince, so long as he keeps his subjects united and loyal, ought not to mind the reproach of cruelty ...' That way, the state could better deal with its enemies, whether they were people within the state or other city-states or foreign powers.

The rulers of the city-states generally took this approach. Yet throughout Europe most people who read Machiavelli's book rejected his argument that a good ruler needed to be deceitful, cunning and ruthless. However, in the years to follow, people began to think seriously about his belief that the values guiding the government should be separate from religious values.

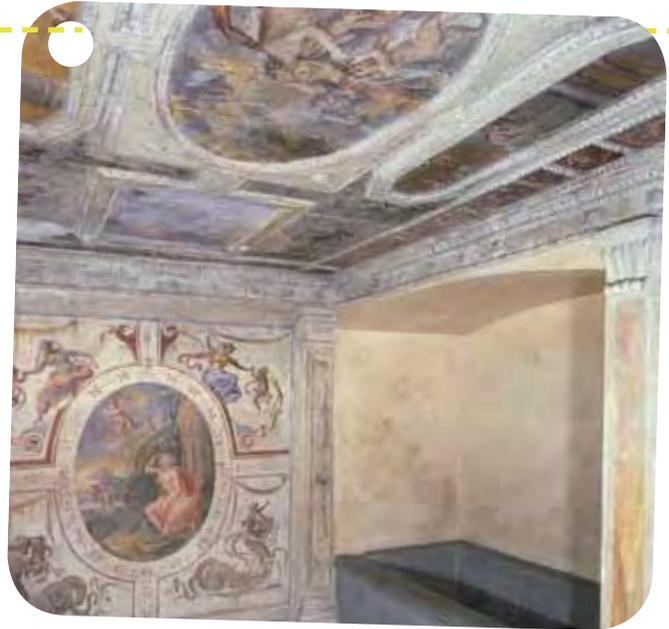
THE MEDICI AS PATRONS

COSIMO THE ELDER

Cosimo de' Medici (1389–1469) collected ancient manuscripts and enjoyed discussing humanist ideas with scholars. He established a humanist academy in Florence as a forum for scholars and a place of learning. His financial support enabled scholars to undertake tasks such as translating Ancient Greek texts into Latin. He was also a great collector of books. His collection of manuscripts and books became the basis for Florence's famous Laurentian Library.

LORENZO IL MAGNIFICO

Cosimo's grandson Lorenzo de' Medici (1449–92) was such an enthusiastic and generous patron of learning and the arts that he was called 'Lorenzo the Magnificent'. He purchased ancient manuscripts and had them translated into Latin or Italian, and he supported scholars. He was an accomplished poet, musician and singer. He hosted famous writers, composers and singers at his court, but he is best



SOURCE 4.5 A bathroom in Cosimo de' Medici's palace. The Medici and other prominent families commissioned artists to decorate their grand houses.

known as a great patron of the arts. He commissioned works by major artists such as Michelangelo, Leonardo da Vinci and Botticelli, as well as lesser-known artists. He also used his power and influence to help artists obtain commissions from other patrons.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Renaissance Italy' glossary:
 - florin
 - guild
 - republic
 - signoria
- #2** Go back to your 'Who was who in the Renaissance?' chart from Unit 2. Add all the relevant details for:
 - Medici family
 - Cosimo the elder
 - Cosimo
 - Lorenzo de' Medici
 - Strozzi family
 - Pazzi family
 - King Charles VIII
 - Girolamo Savonarola
 - Niccolò Machiavelli
 - Pope Alexander VI
 - Pope Leo X
 - Pope Clement VII
- #3** What were the two most important sources of wealth in Florence in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries?
- #4** Give three reasons why the guilds were very important in Florentine society. Write a sentence for each reason.

understanding & analysing

- #5** Give at least two reasons why the Medici family was so powerful in Florence during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.
- #6** In two or three sentences, explain why the Medici family were able to control the government in Florence.
- #7** Why was the Medici family expelled from Florence in 1494?
- #8** When and how was the Medici family able to gain control of the government again?
- #9** What was the grand Duchy of Tuscany?

evaluating & creating

- #10** **a** Based on what you have learnt in this unit, draw a social pyramid to represent society in Renaissance Florence. Compare it with the social pyramid you made for Unit 2.
- b** Now draw a new social pyramid that more accurately brings together what you have learnt about the structure of society in Renaissance Italy.



THE ARTS FLOURISH



Along with Renaissance scholars, artists embraced the rediscovery of Ancient Greece and Rome. As well as being inspired by works of art from these classical civilisations, Renaissance artists were influenced by Ancient Greek mathematics. In a departure from medieval art, they wanted to depict realistic human bodies and spatial dimensions. They were also interested in the natural world. Much of their work dealt with religious themes or was intended for religious settings. Much of it also had non-religious purposes and subjects.

A fourteenth-century pioneer of some Renaissance approaches was Giotto, a painter and architect from Florence. Renaissance art really developed, however, in the early fifteenth century, reaching its peak in the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries. During this period some of the world's greatest works in painting, sculpture and architecture were created in Italian cities such as Florence, Milan, Venice and Rome.

SOURCE 5.1 *The Deposition*, by Raphael, 1507. Held at Borghese Gallery, Rome. This religious painting shows Jesus' body being taken by his mother and supporters following his death by crucifixion. It is a good example of many features of Renaissance painting.



PAINTING

There were many great Renaissance painters, from Botticelli (a Florentine) in the early part of the period to Titian (a Venetian) towards the end. Their works are now hung in galleries around the world. The three most famous Renaissance painters are Leonardo da Vinci (born near Florence), Raphael (from the city of Urbino in the Papal States) and Michelangelo (also born near Florence). Each worked in other forms of art as well: Leonardo and Michelangelo especially were truly multi-talented.

Renaissance painters developed techniques that made their work stand out from paintings of the past.

First, from their new knowledge of ancient Greek mathematics, they used linear perspective: parallel lines converging on the horizon. This enabled them to show depth in their paintings—what was a two-dimensional surface seemed three-dimensional. This made the images in the painting look more real. It also meant that the viewer of the painting felt more as if they were witnessing the scene depicted. It was a new kind of 'virtual reality'.

Second, they aimed for realism in portraying human figures. They used live models in order to show accurately how the human body looked in different positions or in different lights. They studied anatomy to understand more about how the body actually worked. A few, like Leonardo and Michelangelo, managed to obtain corpses from mortuaries and spent hours dissecting them to learn more about the organs, bones and muscles.

Third, they used oil paints. Previously, painters had used powdered pigments mixed with water or egg whites, but these dried out quickly. Learning of the experiments by the Flemish painter Jan Van Eyck in the mid-fifteenth century, Italian painters mixed their pigments with linseed oil. They could then work more slowly and produce richer colours.



SOURCE 5.2 *The Creation of Adam*, by Michelangelo: detail from the Sistine Chapel in Rome. Michelangelo was commissioned by Pope Julius II to paint biblical scenes on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel. This took from 1508 to 1512. Years later he was commissioned by Pope Clement VII to paint *The Last Judgement* on the altar wall, completed in 1541.

In addition, the subjects of Renaissance paintings differed from those of the medieval period in certain ways. In religious paintings, Jesus, angels and saints were all shown as the same size and put on the same plane as ordinary people. Scenes and legends from Ancient Greece and Rome were depicted. The natural world, as landscapes, was included. Because of the new interest in depicting the beauty of the human body, nude figures were painted. There was also a new focus on portrait painting, partly due to the wishes of patrons.

SCULPTURE

Renaissance sculptors studied the statues and monuments of the Roman Empire, particularly those in the city of Rome. Like the painters, they aimed for realistic depictions of figures and groups of figures, using their new knowledge of perspective and bodily shapes. They wanted to represent the beauty of the human body, often in ideal form. They also paid new attention to portraying emotions expressed in faces and body language. They mainly worked with stone, marble or bronze. Like the painters, they dealt with both religious and non-religious subjects.

An important early Renaissance sculptor was Ghiberti, born in Florence. His most famous works are the four sets of bronze panels in the doors of the Baptistery in Florence. They depicted biblical scenes and took him from 1403 to 1452 to complete. Another major Renaissance sculptor was Donatello. He was born in Florence and worked there as well as in Padua, Rome and Siena. Using bronze and marble, he produced a range of masterpieces. He is best known for his bronze *David*, created in the 1430s: it was the first freestanding nude statue of the Renaissance. Michelangelo is the most revered Renaissance sculptor. He worked mostly in Florence and Rome, using stone and marble. His numerous renowned pieces include *Moses*, the *Pietà* and his own *David*, which was completed in 1504.

SOURCE 5.3 *Study for Perspective with Animals and Figures*, by Leonardo da Vinci, 1481–82. This drawing is a perspective study for *Adoration of the Magi*, an unfinished work by Leonardo da Vinci. Held at the Uffizi Gallery, Florence, Italy

Q Identify where the parallel lines converge on the horizon.



SOURCE 5.4 *David*, by Michelangelo, completed between 1502 and 1504. Held at Galleria dell'Accademia, Florence, Italy



SOURCE 5.5 Portrait of Michelangelo, by Jacopino del Conti, c. 1535. Held at Casa Buonarroti, Florence

DID YOU KNOW

THAT DAVID WAS A SYMBOL OF FLORENCE?

In the Bible, David was only a young man when he volunteered to fight the giant warrior Goliath, to help defend Israel from attack. Wearing no armour and using just a slingshot and stones, David wounded Goliath, then killed him. David later became king of Israel. Donatello's *David* was commissioned by Cosimo de' Medici. Michelangelo's *David* was commissioned by Florence's Wool Guild. In different ways, both statues were seen as political symbols of the Republic of Florence.

THAT RENAISSANCE ARTISTS TRAINED IN WORKSHOPS?

DID YOU KNOW

They were apprenticed as both pupils and assistants in the workshops of established artists, where they gained theoretical knowledge, technical skills and practical experience. They developed the range of techniques useful for painting, sculpture and architecture. They also learnt subjects such as chemistry, metallurgy and anatomy.

MORE ABOUT MICHELANGELO

Michelangelo Buonarroti (1475–1564) grew up in Florence. His father, a government administrator, saw Michelangelo's love for art and apprenticed him to the workshop of a well-known artist favoured by Lorenzo de' Medici. Michelangelo was chosen to study at the humanist Academy, living for about three years with Lorenzo's patronage as part of the Medici court. His extraordinary capabilities were recognised at a young age. He was in his early twenties when commissioned to sculpt the *Pietà* and *David*. He spent most of his life and created his great works in Florence and Rome, though he spent some time in Venice and Bologna. As well as being a painter, sculptor and architect, he was a poet. He was deeply religious, did not care about material wealth, and had great political loyalty to the Republic of Florence.

ARCHITECTURE

Renaissance architects made lengthy trips to investigate the design and structures of Roman Empire buildings, especially those in Rome. They combined these investigations with study of the mathematics of the Ancient Greeks. One of the key buildings they examined was the Pantheon, which was built in Rome in 27 BCE as a temple to the gods but had become, by the time of the Renaissance, a Christian church. They learned from the geometric shapes in the design of the building, the use of columns and arches, and the structure of its amazing dome. Renaissance architects believed that God had created the world in mathematical harmony. So they thought that building churches according to mathematical concepts was the most important thing they could do. They also applied their new knowledge to the design of other buildings, such as palaces, grand villas, libraries, arcaded squares and city halls.

The first great Renaissance architect was Brunelleschi, born in Florence in the late fourteenth century. It was Brunelleschi who invented linear perspective, which was taken up by painters in Italy and throughout Western Europe. His major architectural achievement was the dome of the new Santa Maria del Fiore Cathedral in Florence. That cathedral was soon better known as the Duomo. Other important architects were Alberti and Bramante (both from Urbano) and Palladio (born in Padua but worked mostly in Vicenza). The facades of the villas and churches Palladio designed were greatly admired: they had features of the facades of Greek and Roman temples.

ST PETER'S BASILICA

Perhaps the greatest architectural achievement of the Renaissance was the design, construction and decoration of St Peter's Basilica in Rome. It was commissioned by Pope Julius II in 1505 and built during the reigns of several popes. More than 2500 cartloads of stone from the ruins of the Colosseum were used in its construction. There were a number of architects involved at different stages, including Bramante and Raphael. The magnificent dome was designed by Michelangelo. The Basilica's huge, elaborate interior includes a chapel that contains Michelangelo's *Pietà*. The Basilica was completed in 1626 and is still the largest Christian church in the world, holding up to 60 000 people.

MORE ABOUT LEONARDO

Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519) was the child of a Florentine lawyer and a peasant woman. At 14 he was apprenticed to one of the most respected workshops in Florence and he later had his own workshop, where he was devoted to his pupils. Throughout his adult life he lived and worked in Florence, Milan, Venice and Rome and he spent the last years of his life in France. He is best known as a painter, yet he produced fewer pieces than most of his peers. His most famous paintings are *The Last Supper* and *Mona Lisa*.

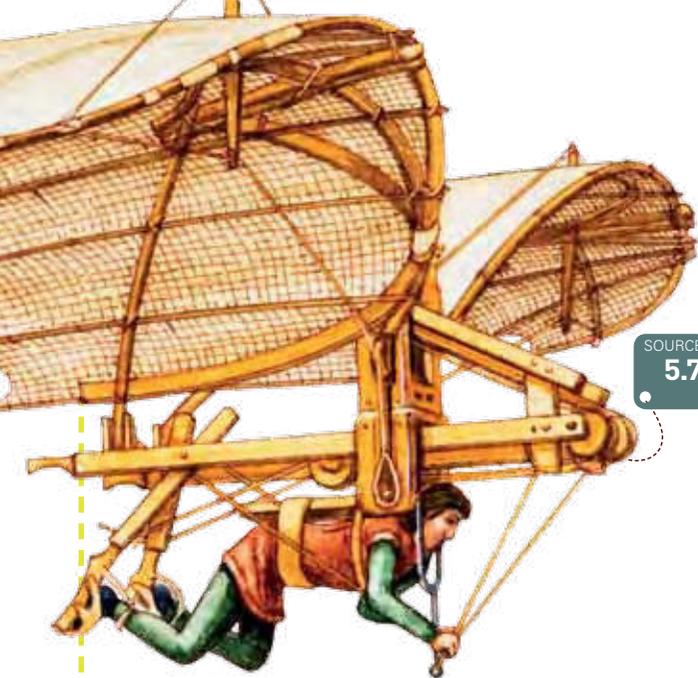
Like many other artists and scholars of his time, Leonardo believed in the importance of having well-rounded knowledge and skills. As well as being a painter, he was a sculptor, architect, scientist, engineer, inventor, mathematician and military adviser. Like Michelangelo, he is considered a true 'Renaissance man'.

Throughout his life, Leonardo kept detailed notes of his scientific interests and mechanical ideas, which were centuries ahead of their time. His designs for inventions included the aeroplane, the helicopter and other flying machines, the parachute, a submarine, an armoured vehicle and a machine gun. The lack of suitable power sources at that time meant that most of these machines could not be developed. Leonardo wrote most of his notes in code, backwards from right to left, so that they could only be read when held up to a mirror.



SOURCE
5.6

St Peter's Basilica, commissioned in 1505 and completed in 1626, shown with the elliptical colonnades designed by Gian Lorenzo Bernini and constructed in 1656–67. From *Nouveau Voyage d'Italie*, 1702



SOURCE 5.7 Modern illustration of an ornithopter, one of Leonardo's flying machines, powered by a person flapping artificial wings



SOURCE 5.8 *Mona Lisa*, by Leonardo da Vinci, 1503–06. The subject of the painting is thought to be Lisa del Giocondo, a member of a prominent Florentine family. Leonardo most likely painted it in Florence and took it with him when he went to live in France. The painting has never left France. It is now owned by the French Government and is housed in the Louvre in Paris.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** You have read about many artists and other people in this unit. Add them to your 'Who was who in the Renaissance?' chart.
- #2** Examine Source 5.1 and reread the section 'Painting'. Identify three or more aspects of the piece of art that show features of Renaissance painting. For each aspect you identify, write two or three sentences explaining your understanding.
- #3** In what ways was Michelangelo's *David* a good example of Renaissance sculpture?
- #4**
 - a** What were the two main things that inspired Renaissance architects?
 - b** How do you think these inspirations were shown in the design of St Peter's Basilica?

applying & analysing

- #5** Make a Venn diagram showing what Donatello's *David* and Michelangelo's *David* had in common and what was unique to each. You may want to use the internet to find a picture of Donatello's *David* for further help with this task.

- #6** Do some further research into the time when Michelangelo painted the Sistine Chapel. Imagine you were able to interview him after his work was completed. Write four or five questions about the experience that you would ask him. For each question, write the answer he would be likely to give. When you have finished, you may like to role-play the interview with a partner.

- #7** After doing some further research, make an annotated display of Leonardo's interests other than painting.

evaluating & creating

- #8** After doing some research, make a 'This Is Your Life' book for Raphael. Include annotated pictures of at least one of his paintings, as well as the following information:
 - when he lived
 - his family background
 - his education and training
 - places where he lived and worked
 - other artists he knew
 - his patrons
 - where he is buried.



ACHIEVEMENTS IN SCIENCE

In Renaissance Italy, the humanist quest to understand the natural world led to major advances in science. A key factor in the new investigations was mathematics. As well as Ancient Greek mathematics, scholars examined Arabic mathematical texts found in Spain and Sicily in the twelfth century. By the fifteenth century, they had developed further mathematical concepts to explore and explain the natural world. This approach was consistent with their religious belief that God had created the world according to a mathematical plan.

COPERNICUS

In medieval times it was thought that the Sun and planets rotated around the Earth, so that the Earth was the centre of the universe. This was based on the **geocentric theories** of the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle and the Egyptian astronomer Ptolemy. This ancient belief was consistent with the Church's teaching based on the Bible. But in the first half of the fifteenth century, this belief was challenged by a Polish scholar, Nicolaus Copernicus.

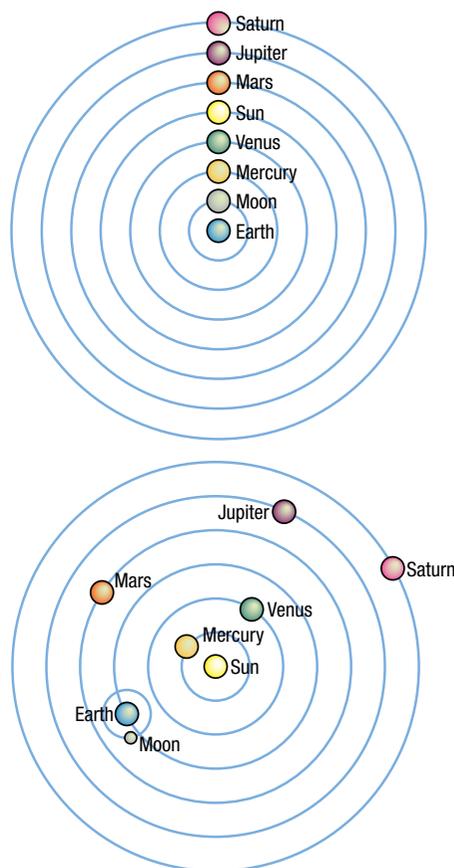
Copernicus (1473–1543) completed a degree in mathematics, philosophy and astronomy at Poland's University of Krakow. He then spent about eight years in Bologna, Padua and Ferrara, furthering his studies before returning to Poland. Over the next thirty years, he formulated and tested a new theory about the place of the Sun and the motion of the planets, using mathematical reasoning. His **heliocentric theory** proposed that the Earth, like the other planets, actually revolved around the Sun. His work was published just before he died in 1543.

A religious man, Copernicus knew that his theory contradicted the Church's view of the Earth's central importance in the universe, and this troubled him. At first his book was criticised but not condemned. But by 1616 the Church determined that the heliocentric theory was 'false and altogether opposed to Scripture', and banned the publication of any other work based on it. Despite the Church's opposition, some scholars took the theory quite seriously.

GALILEO

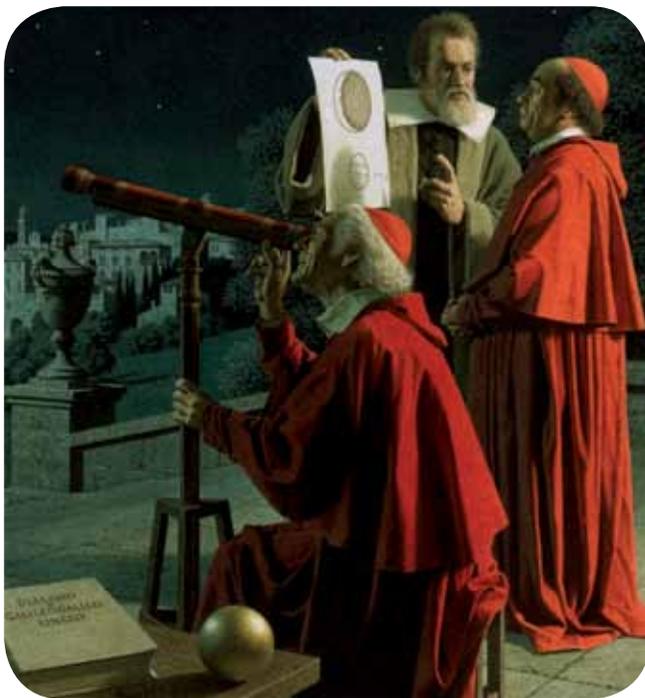
Galileo Galilei (1564–1642 CE) was born in Pisa and, as a young man, studied at the University of Pisa. At just 25 years of age, he became a professor of mathematics there and later moved to the University of Padua, where he taught astronomy and mechanics as well.

Galileo sought answers to scientific questions by combining observation and experiment with mathematical theories. With this approach he made great advances. For example, his studies of motion and time resulted in new concepts such as the parabola and the pendulum. The idea of the pendulum led to the invention of pendulum



SOURCE 6.1 Two different models of the Solar System: (top) Ptolemy's geocentric theory and (bottom) the heliocentric theory proposed by Copernicus.

clocks, which kept more accurate time than previous timekeepers. He learnt of the invention of a telescope in the Netherlands and by 1609 had made an improved telescope that could magnify objects twenty times. Eventually, using this telescope, he was able to observe the movements of the Moon and the planets and he made important new discoveries in astronomy. He saw the surface of Earth's moon; he identified the four moons of Jupiter; he observed a supernova and the phases of Venus; and he identified sun spots.



SOURCE 6.2 Galileo (standing in the middle) demonstrates his telescope to the cardinals, by Jean-Leon Huens (1921–82).

These breakthroughs in astronomy convinced Galileo that Copernicus's heliocentric theory had been right. He also proposed another new idea: that the laws of physics operate both on Earth and beyond into space. This idea unsettled religious beliefs about Heaven. As he published his findings, Galileo was severely criticised and warned by the Church. In 1633, he had to stand trial on a charge of heresy and was found guilty. His books were banned and he was placed under house arrest for the rest of his life. During that time he wrote another book about other areas of his research. Just over one hundred years later, due to further work published elsewhere in Europe, the Church acquitted Galileo of heresy and approved publication of his books.

VESALIUS

Andreas Vesalius (1514–64), who was born in Brussels, was appointed Professor of Anatomy at Padua University in 1537. At that time, knowledge of anatomy was based on the writings of the Ancient Greek physician, Galen. Vesalius obtained permission from the local law court to dissect the corpses of criminals. He did the dissections himself as part of his teaching, rather than having assistants do them. He disproved some of Galen's theories. He found that the circulation of blood was due to the pumping by the heart. He assembled the first human skeleton using actual bones. His famous book, *On the Structure of the Human Body*, published in 1543, featured accurate and detailed drawings of parts of the human body and became an essential reference for doctors and medical students.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Renaissance Italy' glossary:
 - geocentric theory
 - heliocentric theory
- #2** Add Copernicus, Galileo and Vesalius to your 'Who was who in the Renaissance' chart.
- #3** Explain why astronomers had to be brave to write and speak publicly in support of the heliocentric model of the universe.

understanding & analysing

- #4** Find out what you can about some of Galileo's other inventions such as:
 - a geometric and military compass
 - a thermometer
 - a microscope
 - a pump.

Prepare a brief report on these inventions and how they were used. You may wish to present your report as an AVD or electronic slide presentation.

THE RENAISSANCE SPREADS IN EUROPE

The Renaissance spirit spread to other countries in Europe, where it developed at different times and in different ways. That is why we can talk about not just the 'Italian Renaissance' but also the 'German Renaissance' or the 'French Renaissance', for instance. In this unit we concentrate on Renaissance literature in England. First though, let's look at how the Renaissance actually spread.

MAKING THE LINKS

The invention of the printing press and the greater availability of books were crucial to the spread of the Renaissance. By the late fifteenth century, there were many printing firms across Europe, with a large number in Italy. The book trade grew. Venice, for example, became a key centre not just for printing books but also for selling them. At the same time, humanism led to a new respect for the **vernacular language**; that is, the language of a particular country, such as Italian or English. Increasingly, books were published in vernacular languages, not just in Latin or Ancient Greek. Combined with growing rates of literacy, books published in vernacular languages enabled Renaissance thinking and knowledge to become much more widespread.

Both before and long after the invention of printing, Renaissance thinking spread in other ways. Some artists from other European countries journeyed to Italy to learn about Italian Renaissance art; this enabled Italian artists to learn from their European counterparts. It was much the same with developments in humanist thinking. Universities such as Padua and Bologna were important places, where Italian and other European scholars shared ideas and learnt together. European kings and nobles commissioned Italian artists and employed Italian artisans whose work influenced the tastes of the upper classes throughout Europe over a long period.

France is an interesting example. Wars between France and the Italian city-states from the late fifteenth century to the mid-sixteenth century meant that French royalty and nobles became more aware of Italian art and luxury goods. They increasingly brought Italian architects, painters, sculptors and artisans to France. King Francis I hosted leading European artists, including Leonardo, at his court. Inspired by Renaissance art, Francis I and later royalty and nobles built grand

SOURCE 7.1 Chateau de Chambord, Loire Valley, France. It was built by King Francis I in the mid-sixteenth century.



castles in France's Loire Valley. In 1533, at the age of just 14, Italy's Catherine de' Medici was married to a French prince, who became King Henry II. When he died she became very powerful. She ruled as regent until her third son was old enough to be king. In this position she was an important patron of the arts, especially architecture. As well as extending existing royal palaces in the Loire valley, she built two magnificent new palaces in Paris.

ENGLISH RENAISSANCE LITERATURE

The cultural movement called the English Renaissance occurred from the early sixteenth century through to the early seventeenth century. It is also known as the **Elizabethan era**, because it peaked during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I, from 1558 to 1603. The major cultural developments of the time were in literature and music. English Renaissance literature, in particular, is still celebrated today.

In the late medieval period, England already had well-developed literature, especially poetry and drama. By the late fifteenth century, however, certain conditions paved the way for new approaches in literature.

First, humanist thinking had been embraced by influential scholars in England. The most important of these was Sir Thomas More (1478–1535), who wrote a book called *Utopia* about an imaginary ideal society based on reason, tolerance and communal sharing. Sir Thomas More was a valued adviser to King Henry VIII, but he was executed when he refused to approve of the king's decision to divorce his wife and become head of the Church in England. Second, book printing in English had taken off when William Caxton set up a printing firm in London and translated many works from Latin and other languages into English.

Third, a growing number of English people could read and write. By the 1640s, almost 80 per cent of males in London could read at least a little.

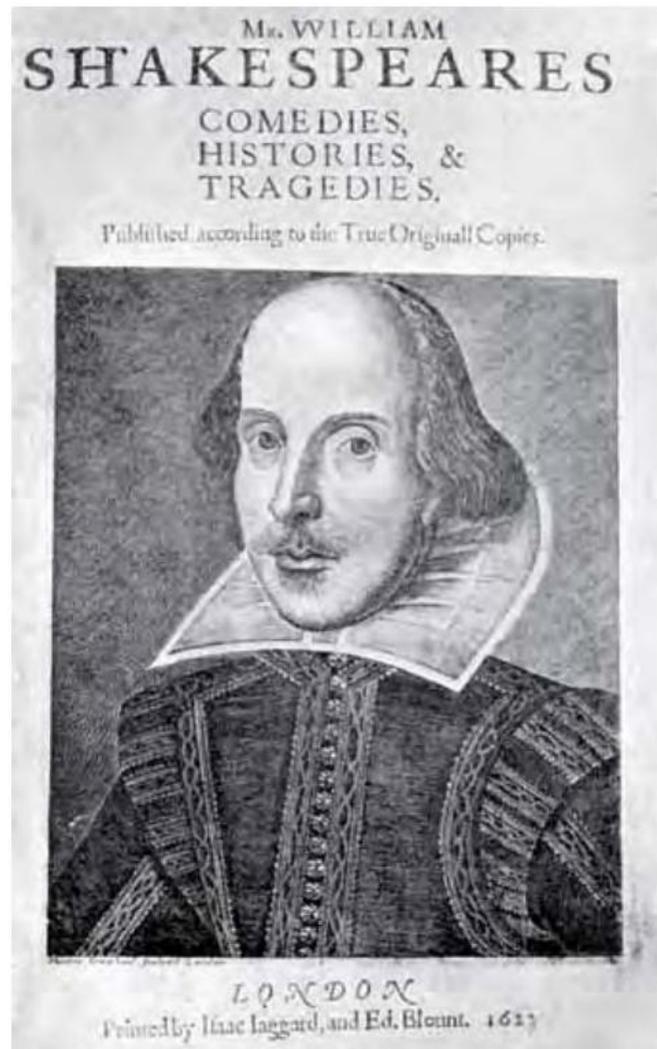
Among the extraordinary writers to come out of Renaissance England were Christopher Marlowe, Ben Jonson and John Donne. The greatest, however, was William Shakespeare. The themes, plots and characters in his plays are now famous worldwide and his creative use of words has even shaped the English language.

MORE ABOUT SHAKESPEARE

William Shakespeare (1564–1616) was born in Stratford-upon-Avon, a village north of London, and lived in Stratford and London. He was an actor and writer of poetry and plays, and part-owner of the **Globe Theatre** in London. He was an original thinker and was influenced by humanism. His plays explore in various ways what it is to be human.

His best known series of poems is *Sonnets*. A **sonnet** is a particular form of poetry, usually romantic. Shakespeare was inspired by a translation of Petrarch's sonnets, written in Italy much earlier.

Shakespeare wrote thirty-eight plays. They are usually divided into three categories: comedies, histories and tragedies. His most famous plays are *Romeo and Juliet*, *Hamlet* and *Macbeth*.



SOURCE 7.2 Portrait of William Shakespeare, by Martin Droeshout. Title page from the First Folio edition of *Mr. William Shakespeares Comedies, Histories and Tragedies*, published in 1623, seven years after Shakespeare's death.

THE GLOBE THEATRE

Shakespeare's plays were performed in London's public theatres. These were only 20 metres wide on the inside and had three tiers of galleries and boxes for the 2000 to 3000 people at each performance. The cheapest section was the pit, where people stood directly in front of the raised platform that was the stage. At that time, female performers were not allowed. Boys whose voices had not yet broken took the female roles. Many plays were performed in the Globe Theatre, which was built 1599 but destroyed by fire in 1613. It was rebuilt a year later but had to be closed in 1642.

ROMEO AND JULIET

Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet* is a romantic tragedy. It is set in the Italian town of Verona in the time of the Italian Renaissance. It tells the story of two teenagers, Romeo Montague and Juliet Capulet. They fall in love but their noble families are enemies. They are 'star-crossed lovers', torn between their love for each other and loyalty to their families. Juliet's father says she is to marry



SOURCE
7.3

Illustration of the reconstructed Globe Theatre built in London, not far from the original site, in 1997

someone else, who is older. There are violent fights between the young men in the rival families. Romeo and Juliet secretly marry, but ...

Romeo and Juliet has been made into at least three movies. In addition, *West Side Story*, a modern version of the story, about rival gangs in New York City, became a hit musical.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Renaissance Italy' glossary:
 - Elizabethan era ■ Utopia
 - Globe Theatre ■ vernacular language.
 - sonnet
- #2** To your 'Who was who in the Renaissance?' chart add:
 - King Francis I
 - Catherine de' Medici
 - Sir Thomas More
 - William Shakespeare.
- #3** What was the most important factor enabling the spread of Renaissance culture?
- #4** What difference did publishing in vernacular languages make?
- #5** How did artists and scholars across Europe share knowledge of Renaissance culture?
- #6** List three conditions that led to the development English Renaissance literature.

understanding & analysing

- #7** What two things show that Shakespeare was influenced by Italian Renaissance humanism?
- #8** Shakespeare must have researched life in Renaissance Italy when planning the story of *Romeo and Juliet*. From what you have learnt in this chapter, list what you know about life in Renaissance Italy that he built into his play.

evaluating

- #9** Using the internet, look up two of the movies made of *Romeo and Juliet*: a modern version by Australia's Baz Luhrmann and a traditional version by Italy's Franco Zeffirelli. Look at the trailers for each movie. As a student of Renaissance history, make dot point-lists of the benefits of viewing each movie.

MOVEMENTS SHAPING THE MODERN WORLD

CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT 8

THE REFORMATION

As humanist ideas spread from Italy to other parts of Europe, there was growing criticism of the corruption among Church leaders and of certain Catholic practices. Some men wanted to reform the Catholic Church while remaining loyal to it. One of these was the humanist Desiderius Erasmus, in the Netherlands. In the early sixteenth century he wrote that the Church was not the popes, bishops and priests but the people, and that the proper role of the clergy was to serve the people. He said that the wealth of the popes should be spent for the benefit of ordinary people.

Others took a different approach. The German monk Martin Luther was shocked by the corrupt ways in which the pope increased Church wealth, and he challenged some key Catholic teachings. In 1517, Luther nailed a list of ninety-five protests about this on the door of an important church in Wittenberg, Germany. Due to the growth of printing, of pamphlets as well as books, Luther's ideas spread quickly throughout Europe and found many supporters. His followers were called Protestants. Luther was excommunicated, or expelled, from the Church. The French scholar John Calvin had similar ideas to Luther and worked with authorities in Switzerland to reform the Church there. At about the same time, when Pope Clement VII would not allow King Henry VIII of England to divorce his wife, the king denied the Roman pope's authority over the Church in England and declared himself the head of the Church of England.

These developments became known as the Reformation. In the mid-sixteenth century, the Catholic Church responded with some reforms but did not change its basic structures. From 1618, the Thirty Years War drew most European countries into conflict, on either the Catholic or Protestant sides. In the end it was agreed that more than one Christian religion could co-exist in Europe.

Northern European countries such as Germany, the Netherlands and England became Protestant while countries in southern Europe, such as Italy, France and Spain, remained Catholic.

The religion of a country or state was determined by its ruler. This often led to a closer connection between religious leaders and political leaders, as each supported the other for their mutual benefit. Machiavelli's earlier humanist ideal that government and religion should be separate had yet to be put into practice.



SOURCE 8.1 Various Reformation Movement pamphlets, published in German in the sixteenth century

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

The achievements of Copernicus, Galileo and Vesalius towards the end of the Renaissance era extended humanist thinking: the belief grew that humans could explain the nature of the universe through the use of reason and experiment. This sparked the Scientific Revolution of the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. New ideas in fields such as physics, astronomy, biology and chemistry laid the foundations of modern science. Below are some of the major developments.

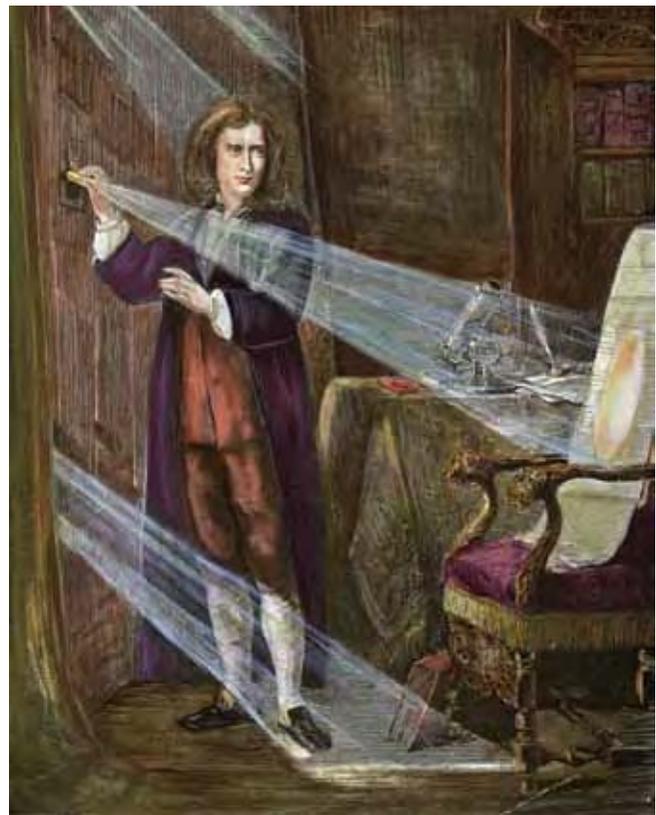
- Johannes Kepler (1571–1630) in Germany built on the heliocentric theory, developing new laws of planetary motion.
- William Harvey (1578–1657) in England gained further knowledge of the heart, arteries and blood circulation.
- Philosophers Francis Bacon (1361–1626) in England and René Descartes (1596–1650) in France helped define the guiding principles and practices of what became known as the ‘scientific method’.
- Robert Boyle (1627–91) in England made important discoveries in chemistry, particularly regarding gases and the elements.
- Robert Hooke (1635–1703) in England vastly improved the design and power of microscopes, which he used to make detailed studies of tiny animals and of plant structures.
- Isaac Newton (1643–1727) in England built on the work of Kepler and Galileo. He identified the force of gravity and explained the elliptical orbits of the planets around the Sun. He realised that the gravitational force on Earth also existed beyond Earth and this was what kept the Earth and other planets in their orbits. He was also the first to formulate the law of motion: for every action there is an equal and opposite reaction. In addition, he was the first to observe and document the components of white light. He invented a new branch of mathematics called calculus.

The work of scientists became better known due to the expansion of printing and publishing. For example, like the books by Copernicus, Galileo and Vesalius more than a century earlier, major publications by Robert Hooke and

Sir Isaac Newton were widely read by a growing scientific ‘community’ that crossed national borders. Due to the humanist influence, such books were increasingly published in vernacular languages. As literacy rates grew, scientific knowledge became more accessible.

During the seventeenth century, scientific academies and societies were established in different parts of Europe. They focused on the sharing and creation of scientific knowledge and published their findings and debates in scientific journals.

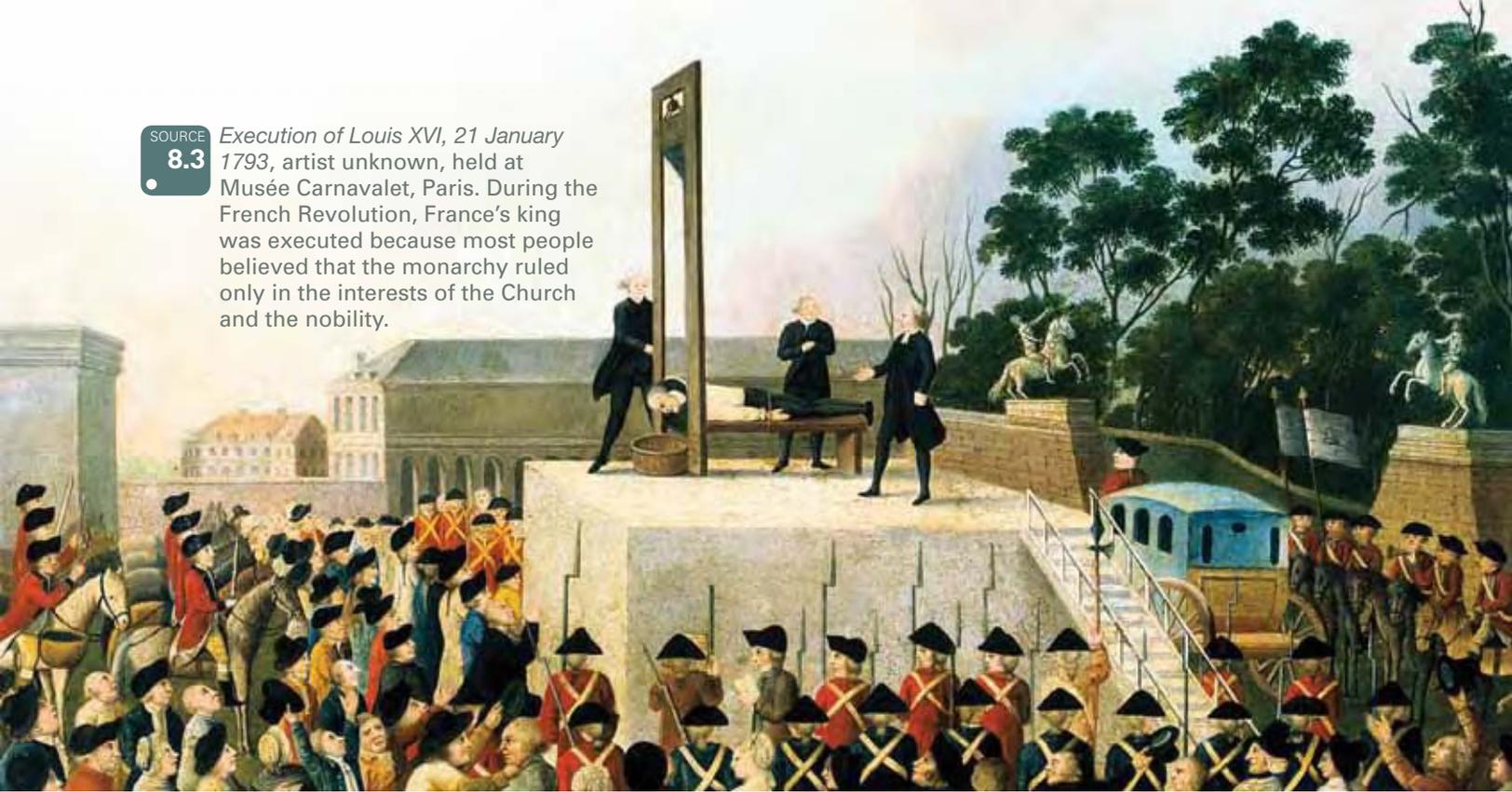
One such organisation was the Royal Society of London. It was established in 1661 to bring scientists together ‘for the Promoting of Physico-Mathematicall Experimentall Learning’. Its president in the period 1703–27 was Sir Isaac Newton. Another president was the astronomer, mathematician and architect Sir Christopher Wren; inspired by Michelangelo’s dome for St Peter’s Basilica, he designed St Paul’s Cathedral in London. A later president (1788–1829) was Sir Joseph Banks, who was the botanist on Captain Cook’s voyages in the Pacific. The society still brings together leading scientists and is today simply known as the Royal Society.



SOURCE 8.2 *Newton Experimenting with Light*, coloured engraving showing Isaac Newton experimenting with focused rays of light

SOURCE
8.3

Execution of Louis XVI, 21 January 1793, artist unknown, held at Musée Carnavalet, Paris. During the French Revolution, France's king was executed because most people believed that the monarchy ruled only in the interests of the Church and the nobility.



THE ENLIGHTENMENT

By the eighteenth century, largely due to the Scientific Revolution, humanist thinking had developed into another intellectual movement, known as the Enlightenment. This took hold in different European countries, especially France. The thinkers of the Enlightenment believed that humans were born with the capacity to reason and so could solve the problems experienced by humanity. This led them to identify inequalities and injustices in society and to ask a quite new question: how should society be organised? Traditional institutions, customs and morals were thus challenged. For instance, one of the ideas developed in the Enlightenment was secularism: the belief that the Church should have no role in the running of government.

One of the leading Enlightenment thinkers was the Swiss philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau. He wrote novels and his essay on education is still influential today. In his book *The Social Contract*, published in 1762, Rousseau argued that every person was born with the same rights to freedom and happiness. He said that any system of government that abused these rights was unjust. He declared that a republic was the only legitimate form of government.

The ideas of Rousseau and other Enlightenment thinkers grew increasingly popular among the middle classes in different societies. They were a major influence on both the French Revolution and the American Revolution which, in the late eighteenth century, overthrew existing political institutions and established republics. The French and American Revolutions mark the beginning of the modern age.

TIME TO THINK ...

1

IMPACT OF THE REFORMATION

- a Is there conflict between Catholics and Protestants today? If so, where and why? If not, why not?
- b Are there other forms of religious intolerance today? What are the consequences of this?

2

IMPACT OF THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

- a Why do you think the leaders of the Scientific Revolution were all men? Are girls and women today more likely to become famous scientists?
- b The discovery of nuclear energy in the twentieth century was a major scientific breakthrough. What have been some of the consequences of this?

3

IMPACT OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

- a Do you think religion should have any role in the running of government? Why or why not?
- b Why do some people today believe that Australia should be a republic and others believe things should stay the same? What do you think?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 Renaissance celebrities

Using your completed 'Who was who in the Renaissance?' chart, make a 'Renaissance celebrities' book.

- Decide on categories you can use to label the people.
- Organise all the people in your chart into appropriate categories. You will probably find that some people, like Michelangelo, fit into more than one category (he could fit into at least two categories).
- Start each category on a new page.
- Think of a way to code each category, say with colour and coloured stick-on spots. For people in more than one category, use extra coloured spots to show their other categories.
- For each category section, include a picture and some details about at least one of the celebrities included in it.
- Put an 'Other people' section at the end. This can provide information about the kinds of people who did not make it into your celebrity categories.
- Include a bibliography.
- Give your 'Renaissance celebrities' book a great cover.
- Share your book with the class.

#2 Time traveller

You have travelled back in time to meet and talk with someone your age in fifteenth-century Renaissance Italy.

Decide exactly where you will travel to and the kind of Renaissance teenager you will meet.

Write a script of some of the conversation between the two of you. Make sure you include questions and answers from both of you, about:

- where you and your families live
- the kind of education you each receive
- how you each spend your leisure time
- what each of you thinks is important
- what you expect your future life to be like.

#3 Mapping the Renaissance

On a large sheet of paper, make a simple map showing the Italian city-states and other European countries. You could base your map on Source 2.1.

Using what you have learnt in this chapter, map the different kinds of contact made between the Italian city-states and other parts of Europe.

- Decide on the different types of people who made contact, such as merchants, scholars and rulers. You may want to include Venetian printers as well.
- Show with coloured arrows the places and directions of this contact. On some arrows you might even write particular examples, like Copernicus coming from Poland to places in Italy then back to Poland.
- Include a legend for your map to help others understand it.
- Compare your map with those of others and be ready to explain yours to them.

#4 Changing the world

By the late fifteenth century, the printing press was changing the world. By the twenty-first century, the internet was changing the world.

Form into groups of three or four. Using what you know from this chapter and from living in the twenty-first century, discuss these questions.

- What do the printing press and the internet have in common? How are they different?
- What difference has each of them made to people's lives?
- How has each helped to change the world?
- In a hundred years time, will the internet have had as much impact as the printing press?

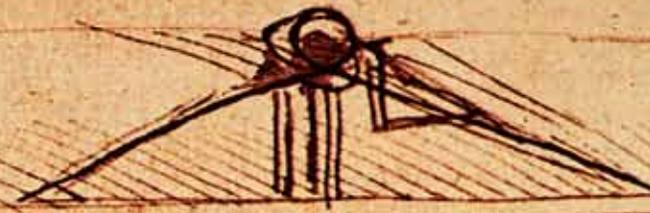
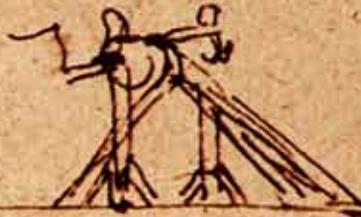
As a group, compile a short report on your opinions and conclusions.

Handwritten text at the top left of the page.

SOURCE 9.1

A page from one of Leonardo da Vinci's notebooks.

para a cer fuer çay -



Vertical column of handwritten text on the left side of the page.

Handwritten text located between the two large mechanical sketches.

Vertical column of handwritten text on the right side of the page.

Large block of handwritten text at the bottom of the page, spanning most of the width.

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How did society develop in the medieval period in Europe?

What were some of the significant events and key aspects of the European Middle Ages and how did they shape that society?

How did medieval Europe interact with other civilisations in the medieval world?

What is the legacy of medieval Europe?



The Middle Ages, also known as the medieval period, is often thought of as a storybook time—when all of Europe was known as Christendom and knights in shining armour followed the code of chivalry and spent their days rescuing damsels in distress. You may think this period is of no real relevance to your lives today. Yet, the people and events of the Middle Ages are indeed relevant, as this was also a time of great social and political change, when many of the countries of Europe as we know them today were formed.

SOURCE
0.1

The month of January as depicted in a medieval calendar or Book of Hours. From *Les Tres Riches Heures du Duc du Berry*, painted by the Limbourg brothers some time between 1412 and 1416 CE. The book is held at the Musée Condé, Chantilly, France.

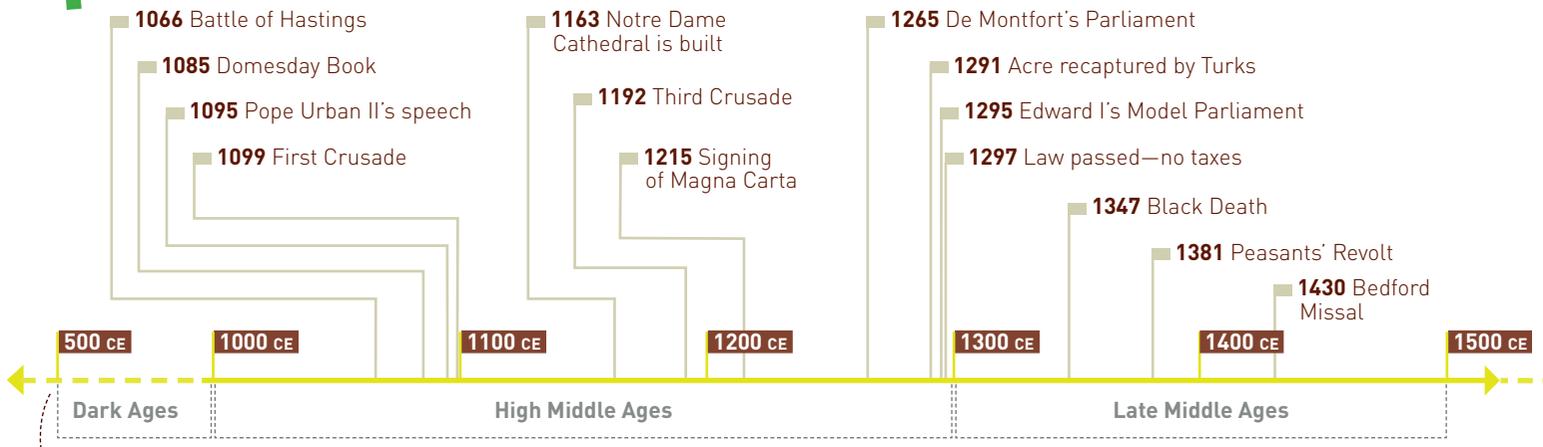


MEDIEVAL



ORDER

SNAPSHOT



1066 Battle of Hastings

1085 Domesday Book

1095 Pope Urban II's speech

1099 First Crusade

1163 Notre Dame Cathedral is built

1192 Third Crusade

1215 Signing of Magna Carta

1265 De Montfort's Parliament

1291 Acre recaptured by Turks

1295 Edward I's Model Parliament

1297 Law passed—no taxes

1347 Black Death

1381 Peasants' Revolt

1430 Bedford Missal

SOURCE 1.1 Timeline of medieval Europe

SOURCE 1.2 Map of Europe at the time of the Third Crusade, 1190 CE, from *Historical Atlas*, published by W. & A.K. Johnston, 1911



THE MIDDLE AGES

The period of European history known as the Middle Ages is often divided by historians into three main periods: the Early Middle Ages or Dark Ages, which lasted over 500 years from the fall of Rome in 476 CE; the High Middle Ages, from about 1000 to 1300 CE; and the Late Middle Ages, from 1300 to about 1500 CE.

A TIME OF CONTRASTS

Life in medieval Europe was a period of great contrasts. In some respects, it was also a period of continuity or sameness for the people of Europe. At the same time, a number of significant changes occurred that eventually led to improved living conditions for many people and allowed the development of the modern world.

For centuries during the medieval period, most people lived and worked in rural areas and rarely travelled more than a few kilometres from their homes. Their lives revolved around the manor, or village, which usually comprised twenty to thirty people. This small group was dominated by a few powerful men—the lord of the manor, his steward and the priest. People were taught by the Catholic Church that they had to accept their positions in life because these were ordained by God.

There was little understanding of how the natural world operated and people were very superstitious. They thought that disease, drought and famine were caused by witchcraft or the will of God and thus



SOURCE 1.3 A reconstruction of the twelfth-century village of Wharram Percy, North Yorkshire, UK

had to be accepted. The Catholic Church taught that the world was flat, the Earth was the centre of the universe and the Sun circled around it. Very few people could read or write, including some of the kings of the period.

The people of the Middle Ages were ignorant of the workings of the human body. There were doctors but they had no understanding of human physiology and no effective cures for ailments and diseases. Life was short and hard for most people. The life expectancy for medieval people was about thirty-five years for men and twenty-five years for women.

The medieval period was also a time when some of the great buildings of Europe were designed and built. Grand buildings were constructed, such as the Notre Dame cathedral in Paris, begun in 1163, as well as impressive strongholds such as the Tower of London, begun in the 1070s.

People began to move away from farming, and towns were established with new industries and employment. Trade routes were developed as the people of the Middle Ages began to explore beyond Europe. New ideas flourished and ordinary people started to demand better living and working conditions and greater freedoms and rights. So the beginnings of our modern system of parliamentary government were seen.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE WORD 'MEDIEVAL' COMES TO US FROM THE

LATIN FOR THE TERM 'MIDDLE AGES', *MEDIUM AEVUM*?

The terms 'Middle Ages' and 'medieval period' are interchangeable. They were first used by historians in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries to describe the period of western European history between their own time and the ancient times of the Roman Empire and earlier civilisations. Thus modern European history is usually considered to have begun about 1500 CE—although in the twenty-first century 1500 CE does not seem very modern to us!

MEDIEVAL SOCIETY

During the Middle Ages people lived according to very rigid social structures and conventions. According to medieval society, God created three estates—those who fought battles, those who prayed and those who worked. Each of these levels contributed to the good of the whole society and the welfare of all depended on everyone knowing their place in this order.

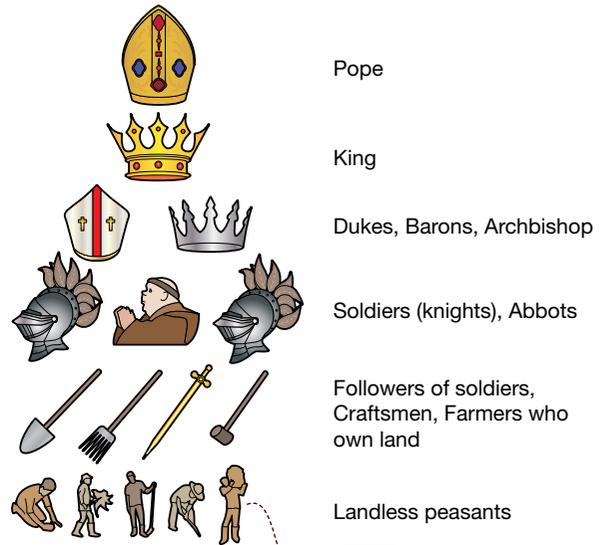
FEUDALISM AND FEUDAL SOCIETY

The social organisation of Europe during the Middle Ages is often referred to as 'feudalism'. At the top of the social pyramid was the pope. The king, who came next, was answerable only to the pope.

The king, who claimed ownership of all land, granted lands, or **fiefs**, to his most important nobles, barons and bishops. These **vassals**, in turn, granted land to a lower order such as the knights. The lowest in the structure were the peasants, called **serfs** or **villeins**, who worked on the land and subsisted only on what they grew. In this social order, everyone owed allegiance to the king and to their immediate superiors.

Everyone paid for their land through services such as providing trained soldiers to fight for the king, working on the lord's land for a set number of days a week, or providing equipment such as weapons and clothing for soldiers. In turn, the lord provided protection in times of strife or warfare. So, the relationship between lord and vassal was based on protection and service. A pyramid of loyalty was created in which each person, except for those at the very top of society and those at the very bottom, was a vassal to one lord and a lord to several vassals.

Feudalism was established in England by William the Conqueror and the Normans after William defeated the English at the Battle of Hastings in 1066.



SOURCE 2.1 The social structure of medieval society

KNIGHTS

When William the Conqueror swept to victory in the Battle of Hastings, a new way of fighting was established. The **knight** and his warhorse proved to be a lethal force over the next few hundred years. William reinforced this power with the numerous castles he built across England. Rulers in Europe did the same. Knights and their castles ushered in a way of life that still fascinates people today.

BECOMING A KNIGHT

PAGE

When a nobleman's son was about seven years of age, he would be sent to the castle of another knight to learn how to become a knight. He would act as a **page** for the lord or, possibly, another knight who owed **fealty**, or loyalty, to the lord. Most boys were pages for six or seven years during which they learnt many of the basic skills for knighthood.

To ride cleanly and surely ... to have all courtesy in words, deeds and degrees ... sundry languages [and] harping, piping, singing and dancing ...

SOURCE 2.2 From the household ordinances of Edward IV, quoted in *The Babees' Book: Medieval Manners for the Young*, 1908

SQUIRE

If a page had done well enough, at about fourteen or fifteen years of age he would become a **squire**. His training would become more serious as he would be expected to aid his knight in battle. He would learn how to spring, fully armed, onto his horse and how to use weapons such as a sword, mace and **lance** in battle. He would learn how to care for his knight's horses, armour and weapons, and how to look after his knight in battle.

KNIGHT

A squire would usually be made a knight at about the age of twenty. He would have either proved himself in battle or his lord would have decided that he was ready for knighthood.

A squire would be dubbed a knight after an elaborate ceremony. He would begin by purifying himself through prayer and fasting for a day and a night. He would then confess his sins to a priest, bathe, and dress in a white tunic, which signified

his purity. Over this tunic he would wear a red robe to show his willingness to shed blood for God and for his lord. His shoes and hose, or tights, were black, symbolising death.

He would attend a church service called a **mass**, have his sword and shield blessed and vow 'to defend the weak, the orphan, the widow, and [that] women should receive his special care'. He would also swear allegiance to his lord, who would knight the squire by dubbing or patting him on each shoulder with the flat side of his sword.

KEEPING FIT

It was very important for knights to keep their fighting skills sharp, whether there was a war or not. Knights would do this by hunting for wild animals such as deer, boar, hare and pheasants. They would also take part in tournaments, which an English chronicler to King Henry II described as 'military exercises carried out, not in the spirit of hostility but solely for practice and the display of prowess'. They would joust against each other and also take part in melees, which were big free-for-all fights. Although the knights fought with blunted weapons, 10 per cent of knights were injured in these activities and often there were deaths. In 1292, King Edward I of England established the Statute of Arms for Tournaments to help regulate the running of tournaments and make them safer for the knights.

SOURCE 2.3 A joust between Jean Chalons and Loys de Beul at Tours, France, in 1446. Artist unknown, mid-fifteenth century



- 1 What details tell us that this illustration depicts a jousting competition and not a battle?
- 2 What sort of details would you expect to see in an illustration of a battle scene?





SOURCE 2.4 Coats of arms from the Fenwick roll, compiled in the reigns of Henry V and Henry VI of England in the late fourteenth and early fifteenth centuries.

- Q** 1 Why would the records of the coats of arms have been kept in this way?
- 2 What similarities and differences can you identify between the coats of arms?

DID YOU KNOW

THAT MEDIEVAL KNIGHTS WERE FORMIDABLE FIGHTING MACHINES?

Foot soldiers and archers found the medieval knights nearly impossible to oppose on the battlefield, with their full armour and enormous **destriers**, or warhorses. Medieval knights were highly trained fighters and were surprisingly mobile even when in their heavy armour. Historians have compared them to our current tanks and jet fighters. However, just like modern war machinery, their upkeep was expensive. Apparently, a destrier, squire and armour cost about the same to maintain as an aeroplane today.

HERALDRY

When knights were fully dressed in their armour, it was difficult to tell friend from foe on the battlefield. To overcome this problem, a knight was given his own crest, or coat of arms. This was generally placed on his shield, his banner and his surcoat, which was a tunic worn over armour.

Each coat of arms was unique, and to keep track of which crests had already been used, a College of Arms was set up. All new coats of arms had to be approved by the heralds of the college, who kept a record of them all. Only five colours and two metals could be used, and there were many rules governing design, shape, pattern and symbols.

CHIVALRY

When a squire became a knight, one of the oaths he swore was to uphold the code of **chivalry**, a moral code that knights had to follow. Its rules governed many aspects of a knight's life and involved courtesy, loyalty, honour and even courtly love. The High Middle Ages was often referred to as the Age of Chivalry. Unfortunately, not all knights were good men and there are many knights in history who are recorded as being dishonourable, cruel or cowardly.

DAILY LIFE ON THE MANOR

THE MEDIEVAL VILLAGE

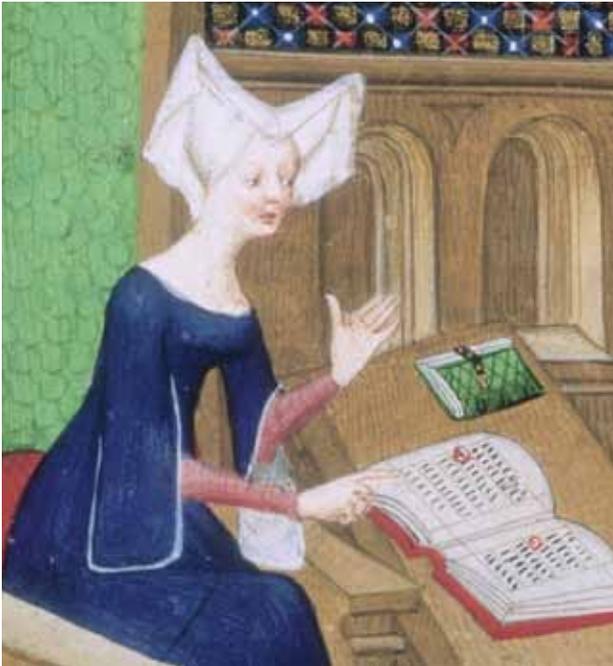
In the Middle Ages, people in Europe mainly lived in the country. Most people were serfs who worked on **manors**, or estates, owned by their lord. The lord owned all the land but would let the serfs have a small strip to work as their own. Serfs paid the lord for this land in work, rent, taxes or produce. In return, the lord provided protection for the serfs.

The serfs lived in villages clustered around the castle or manor house. The village also had a church and everyone attended **mass** on Sundays. There was a mill owned by the lord where the villagers paid to have their grain ground into flour. The serfs were not allowed to leave the village or to marry without the lord's permission.

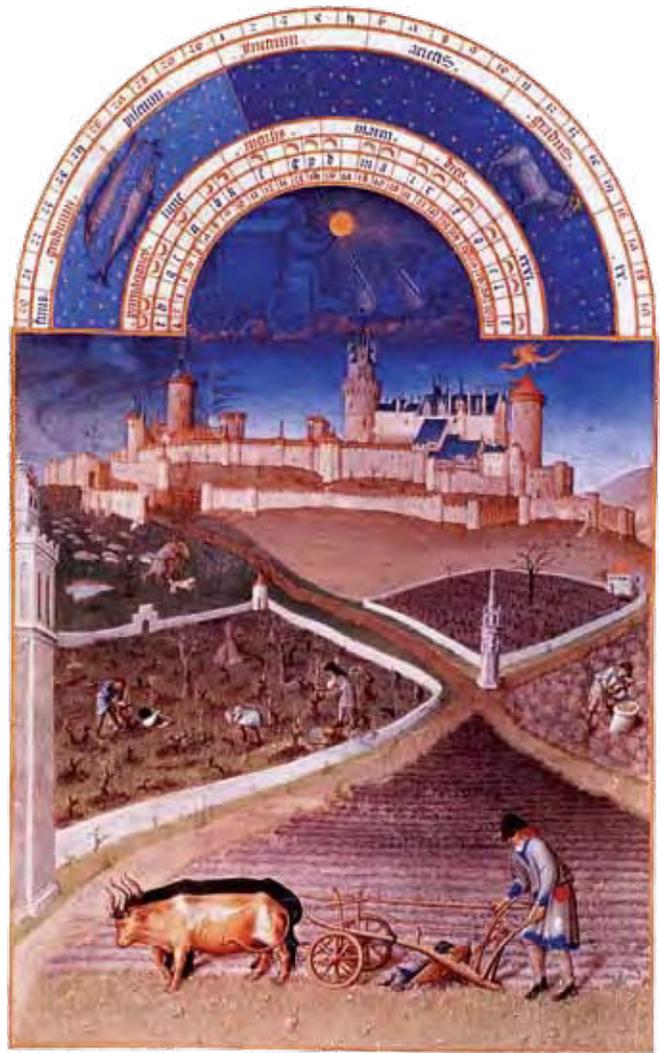
DID YOU KNOW

THAT A WOMAN WAS ONE OF THE MOST ARDENT BELIEVERS IN CHIVALRY?

Chivalry was passionately expounded by fourteenth-century French poet Christine de Pisan. When the early death of her husband forced her to support her family, she began writing and became one of the most prolific female writers of the Middle Ages. She wrote over 300 ballads, poems and various extended works, including twenty books. She also founded the Order of the Rose, the members of which vowed to defend the honour of women.



SOURCE 2.5 Christine de Pisan giving instructions, by an unknown artist, fifteenth century. Held at the British Library



SOURCE 2.6 From *Les Tres Riches Heures du Duc de Berry*, produced by the Limbourg brothers in the early fifteenth century. The book is held at the Musée Condé, Chantilly, France.

- Q**
- 1 Which season is depicted here?
 - 2 What activity is the peasant engaged in here?
 - 3 Identify the features of the three-field system in this source.
 - 4 What were the advantages and disadvantages of this system for the peasants?

FARMING

The villagers' life was also controlled by the seasons. Spring meant planting, summer was when the crops grew, autumn was harvest time and winter was for storing food and resting.

Throughout the Middle Ages, peasants in Europe used the three-field system of farming. Under this system, a typical village would have three or four large fields around it. Each serf was allocated a thin strip of land in each field. One field might

be planted with wheat or barley, the second with oats or rye. The third field was left **fallow**, or empty, so that the soil could recover and become replenished. Over winter, animals would graze on the fallow field and their manure fertilised the soil. As one field—a different one each year—was left fallow, serfs needed to have land in all three fields to ensure that they had enough crop to feed themselves each year.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT SERFS ATE ABOUT TWO KILOGRAMS OF BREAD A DAY?

That is the equivalent of about 80 slices! A serf's diet consisted mainly of bread, watery ale, vegetables and some fruit. Occasionally, they would have meat or fish, and eggs, milk and cheese if the hens were laying well and the cows had extra milk. But often, the serfs gave most of their produce to the lord as payment for the right to farm some land.

A HARD LIFE

The life of a serf was short and filled with hard work. Serfs had to work long hours in the fields to supply food for the community and they lived in poor conditions.

Every labourer must be at work in summer by 5 o'clock in the morning. He should have half an hour for breakfast, and an hour and a half off for dinner. He should not leave work until 7 o'clock in the evening. In winter he should work all the daylight hours.

SOURCE 2.7 English Statute of Labourers, 1495, quoted in *Discovering the Medieval World*, by J. Eshuys, V. Guest and P. Phelan, 1993

- Q 1** How many hours a day would a serf work?
Q 2 How does this compare with the average working day today?

HOUSING

PEASANT HOUSING

Most of the medieval population lived in small cottages, which were little more than one-room huts that were dark and smoky. Cottages were constructed on a wooden frame using wattle and daub, which was straw and wet mud that hardened when dry. The roof was made of thatched straw and the floors were dirt. There was no chimney, just a large stone slab where a fire could be lit. Often there were no windows, just holes or cracks in the walls where some light could enter. During wet and cold weather, these holes would be covered by animal skins.

Most peasants had very little furniture—maybe a stool or two and a table. Beds were usually piles of straw on the floor with a blanket. There was no running water or sewerage, and garbage and sewage were just tipped outside. In towns, this would mean out into the street.

During winter, peasants kept their animals—dogs, cats, chickens, cows and pigs—inside with them to keep them warm. These unhygienic conditions meant that fleas, bugs, lice and rats were everywhere, and disease and sickness were common. Over time, as the Crusaders brought back new ideas and goods, there were improvements made to housing.

SOURCE 2.8 Reconstruction of a thirteenth-century cottage from the medieval village of Hangleton, Sussex, UK



MANOR HOUSES AND CASTLES

The nobles in the manor houses and castles generally lived in better conditions. However, they still had to deal with fleas, bugs, lice and rats. Most manor houses and castles had wells for fresh water. Many had simple toilets but the waste merely fell to the ground below.

Wealthy people sometimes took baths, although not very often. As the water took so long to heat, several people often used the same water. The nobles were the first to adopt the ideas and products brought back by the Crusaders. Their manor houses and castles began to include glass windows, mirrors and carpets.

CLOTHING

Peasants wore simple homespun clothing made of wool. Typically, men and women wore simple tunics with belts around their waists. Men's tunics were short and worn with leg breeches or trousers, while women's tunics were like long dresses. In winter, men and women wore tunics made from sheepskin for warmth.

Noblemen and women wore much finer clothing, especially after the Crusaders brought back new fine fabrics such as silk. Women began to wear long dresses of silk, made in separate pieces, dyed an array of colours and decorated with embroidery and jewels. Men's tunics became shorter and by the fifteenth century ended at the waist. Men also wore tight-fitting hose or tights to show off their legs. In winter, nobles wore clothes lined with soft fur of fox and otter, while royalty wore ermine.



SOURCE
2.9

An example of nobles' clothing. Detail from the Savages' Ball, a fifteenth-century French tapestry of Arras manufacture. Held at the Musée des Arts Décoratifs Château de Saumur

Q

How do these clothes compare with those of the peasants shown in Source 2.10 (on the next page)?

remembering & understanding

#1 Draw up a 'Medieval Europe' glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.

- | | |
|-------------|-----------|
| ■ chivalry | ■ manor |
| ■ destrier | ■ mass |
| ■ fallow | ■ page |
| ■ fealty | ■ serf |
| ■ feudalism | ■ squire |
| ■ fief | ■ vassal |
| ■ knight | ■ villein |
| ■ lance | |

#2 a What were the three estates of medieval society? Why was it important that all people knew their place in this social organisation?

b What were the three stages of becoming a knight? Write your answer in a two-column table. Label the first column 'Stage of knighthood' and the second column 'Information'.

#3 Read the sections 'The medieval village' and 'Farming life' carefully and answer the following questions.

- a** What was the basic layout of medieval villages across Europe?
- b** Why were they structured in this way?
- c** Who benefited the most from medieval village society? Why?

applying, evaluating & creating

#4 Draw a detailed annotated picture of peasant housing. Your annotations need to explain each feature and suggest how it could be improved.

understanding & evaluating

- #5 a** What is a coat of arms?
- b** With a partner, think of some modern examples of heraldry in use today.
- c** What was the code of chivalry? Why was it an important part of becoming a knight?
- #6 a** Why was it important for knights to stay fit?
- b** Why was the Statute of Arms for Tournaments passed?
- c** What types of laws are passed today that are designed to protect people from themselves?

analysing & creating

- #7** The British monarch still knights men and women—men become 'Sir' while women become 'Dame'.
- a** Do some research on the internet to find out how the ceremony is conducted in modern times.
- b** Create a Venn diagram to compare and contrast the ceremony in medieval and modern times.

analysing & evaluating

- #8** Read the section 'Clothing' carefully and answer the following questions.
- a** What were the similarities and differences between the clothing worn by peasants and the clothing worn by noble people?
- b** Why was it so important that the nobles were the only people who wore fine clothing?
- c** In what ways were lords able to ensure that this was so?



SOURCE 2.10 Peasants reaping the harvest under the supervision of the lord's official, c. 1300–25, artist unknown. Held at the British Library

- Q**
- 1** Do you think the peasants' clothes are suitable for working the land?
- 2** Why or why not?

THE MEDIEVAL CHURCH



CHRISTENDOM

Medieval Europe was often referred to as Christendom because just about everyone was a Christian. The Catholic Church was central to people's lives as everyone believed in God and the devil. Every Sunday, every villager attended a service, called mass, in the church.

Medieval people were worried about where their souls would go after death. Had they lived a good enough life to go to heaven? Or had they been sinners and so would be tortured in hell forever?

Medieval people lived their lives trying to show God they were good. They could do this by giving **alms** (that is, money) to the poor, or by going on a **pilgrimage**. A **pilgrimage** was a journey to a holy site.

It was also common for people to join the Church as **priests**, **monks** or **nuns**. They spent their lives either living in seclusion and worshipping God, or helping others. Wealthy merchants and noblemen gave money to build grand churches and cathedrals to show their goodness and to please God. Knights and noble lords sometimes went on **crusades** to fight for God. Other people would just try to live the best lives they could by following the laws of God and the Church.

SOURCE 3.1 Medieval painting of hell from the Bedford missal belonging to John, Duke of Bedford, 1423, held at the British Library. A missal is a medieval prayer book.

- Q**
- 1 What can be seen happening in heaven and in hell?
 - 2 Who or what are the central figures in heaven and in hell?
 - 3 Why do you think pictures such as this were included in a prayer book?



SOURCE 3.2 The north rose window of Chartres Cathedral, France. This stained-glass window was given to the cathedral by Queen Blanche of Castile in 1230.

- Q**
- 1 **Would this have been an expensive gift or not? Explain your answer.**
 - 2 **Why do you think Queen Blanche would have given this window to the cathedral?**

THE POWER OF THE CHURCH

The Catholic Church in the Middle Ages was very powerful. Its priests were the channel by which ordinary people could find out what God expected of them. Priests held mass, preached sermons about how people should behave, heard confessions of peoples' sins and told them what God wanted them to do in order to be saved from damnation in hell.

The head of the Catholic Church was the pope in Rome. He was often seen as having more power than kings as his authority was directly from God. The pope could **excommunicate** (banish from the Church) any person—serf, noble or king. An excommunicated person could not attend mass or gain forgiveness for their sins. People feared excommunication as it meant they could go to hell for their sins.

MONASTERIES

Monasteries were self-contained enclaves where monks chose to live a simple life of prayer and work. There were different orders of monks who followed different rules. Some monasteries, well-endowed by wealthy patrons, became powerful centres of influence.

Monks took vows of poverty, chastity and obedience and they also promised to live a life devoted to prayer. They were then referred to as 'Brothers'. Mostly, daily life in a monastery was hard. The monks ate plain food and wore rough, homespun robes called habits. In addition, many monasteries operated under a vow of silence.

The life of a monk was dictated by a set of rules, which governed everything he did every day of his life. The earliest set of rules was devised by St Benedict in the sixth century.

There were two types of monasteries: the larger ones were called abbeys, while smaller monastic houses or monasteries attached to cathedrals were known as priories. The leader of a monastery was elected by monks; in an abbey he was called an **abbot** and in a priory he was called a **prior** (this was also the title of an abbot's deputy).

SOURCE 3.3 Carthusian monks at Chartreuse monastery. From *Les Tres Riches Heures du Duc de Berry*, a book of hours produced for Jean, Duke of Berry by the Limbourg brothers in the early fifteenth century. The book is held at the Musée Condé, Chantilly, France.

- Q**
- 1 **In what everyday activities are the monks engaged?**
 - 2 **What information does this image provide about the role and wealth of the Church?**



CONVENTS

Women could choose to become nuns and live in convents which were independent, self-supporting communities. Their lives were dedicated to God and the Church and they renounced (gave up) worldly possessions and desires.

As with monks, there were many different orders of nuns. However, all nuns led lives that were strictly disciplined. Nuns made three vows: of poverty, chastity and obedience.

In the convent, nuns were free to elect their own abbess or prioress, thus convents were among the few places in the Middle Ages where women held positions of authority. Convents and nunneries provided the only source of education for women during this time. As their education was mainly preparation for the life of a nun, it was carefully screened by the Church.

Women entered convents for a number of different reasons. Some were placed in convents by their families while others, such as widows and older women, entered to find a secure retreat. However, many entered the convent to devote their lives to serving God.

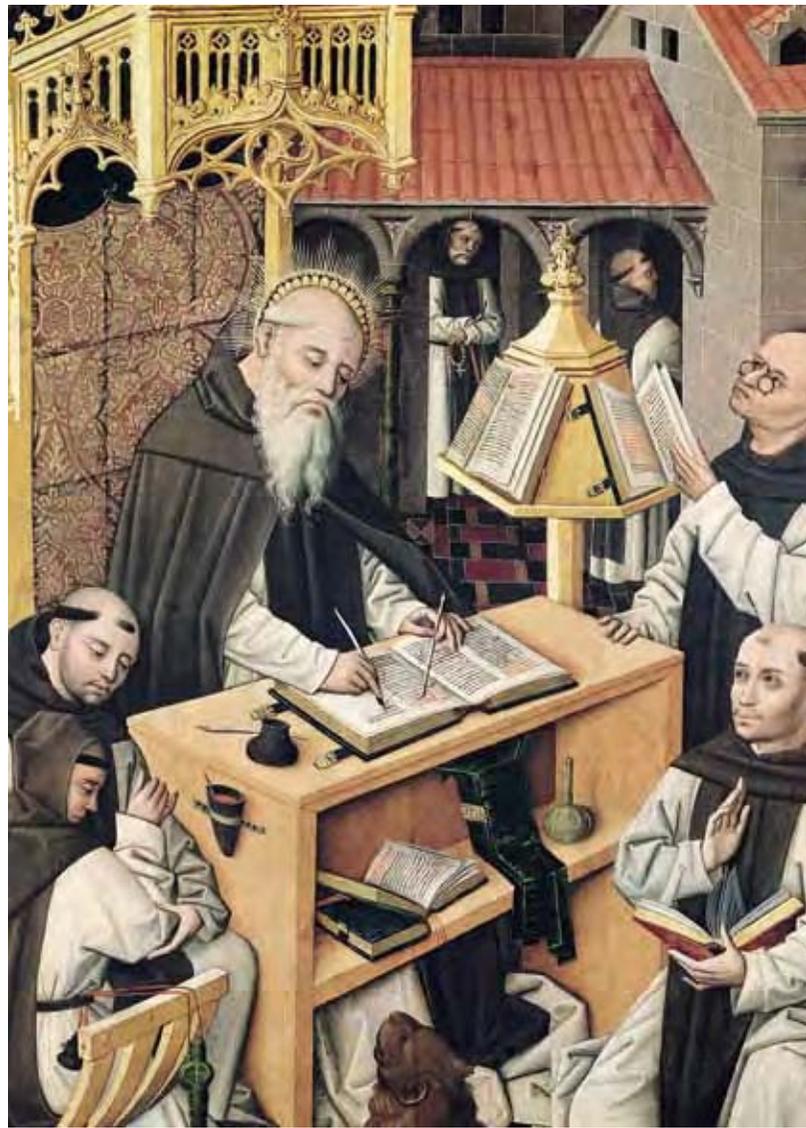
GOOD WORKS OF THE CHURCH

In medieval times there were no schools, hospitals or even hotels as we know them today. All these were provided by the Church. The priest and monks gave lessons to the local boys, teaching them to read and write simple Latin.

Monks and nuns helped to feed and clothe the poor, ill and the destitute within the community. The sick were looked after in hospitals by monks and nuns, who often possessed only a basic knowledge of medicine. Monasteries and convents also offered food and lodging to travellers and to pilgrims.

CENTRES OF LEARNING

The Church was also a storehouse of learning. In the Middle Ages, when most people were illiterate, monasteries were beacons of learning. In the early Middle Ages, monasteries were virtually the only source of books and of literacy. Although **secular**, or non-religious, topics were the subject of many early writings, the great majority of early manuscripts were religious texts such as the Bible and the



SOURCE 3.4 Interior of a scriptorium, where monks are creating manuscripts, sixteenth century. Held at Museo Lazaro Galdiano, Madrid, Spain

Q What processes of illustrating a manuscript can you observe in this source?

book of hours, which set out prayers for each part of the day. It was also in the monasteries that classical works of philosophy, science and literature were copied and preserved for later centuries.

ILLUMINATED MANUSCRIPTS

Some monks spent their entire lives copying by hand and **illuminating**, or illustrating, just one book, as the printing press was yet to be invented. Monasteries often contained a separate area called a **scriptorium** for monks who specialised in writing manuscripts.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT BOOKS WERE CHAINED TO LIBRARY TABLES?

Libraries in the Middle Ages did not contain the huge resources of modern libraries. A collection of 150 books constituted a major library. These hand-written and hand-bound volumes were irreplaceable and thus extremely valuable. Libraries used a practical method of securing their books—they were chained to the shelves. This was done by fixing one end of a chain to the front cover of the book and the other end to a rod that ran the length of the shelf. Thus the book could be taken from the shelf for use on a nearby table but could not be taken from the library itself. This system was used from the Middle Ages through to the eighteenth century.



SOURCE 3.5 First page of the *Gospel According to St John*, created in the twelfth century

Q What skills would be needed to create a manuscript of this nature?

Illustrations in these manuscripts were often very ornate and included ornamental borders, capitals and miniature scenes. Illuminated manuscripts were hand-written, and all of the illuminations were done by hand as well. Inks and gold leaf were also used for the illustrations and script. An illuminated manuscript could take months or years to produce from the preparation of the vellum, or animal skin, to the finishing touches on the often heavily jewelled and inlaid binding of the book.



SOURCE 3.6 Antique books, old manuscripts and bound volumes are chained to lecterns in the chained library of Hereford Cathedral, where the oldest volume is the Hereford Gospels, dating from about 800.

Q What are some methods used by modern libraries to protect books and other property?

These ornate and beautiful manuscripts were so expensive that they were only available to very wealthy people and to the Church. Very rich people commissioned works as a sign of status within the community.

Although illuminated manuscripts today are highly valued for their historical evidence, many are also regarded as priceless works of art.

CHARLEMAGNE

In the eighth century, Gaul, a region of Western Europe, was inhabited by Germanic people called the Franks. In 771, Charlemagne became king. Over his 43-year reign he built an empire that covered much of Western Europe. He established a central government, which meant that he was able to maintain peace and unity throughout the region, much as the Roman Empire had done. This, together with his enforcement of Christianity, led to him being crowned **Imperator Augustus**, or Holy Roman Emperor, by Pope Leo III on Christmas Day, 800 CE.

Charlemagne initiated a period of intellectual and cultural revival. He was in close contact with the great scholars and artists of his time. He decreed that every cathedral and every monastery should have a school attached to it that everyone could attend, not just the clergy.

Monasteries were established throughout the empire. He particularly encouraged the copying of theological manuscripts and many of the surviving works of classical Latin were copied and preserved by Charlemagne's scholars.



SOURCE 3.7 Extent of Charlemagne's empire, c. 800 CE

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 List and explain the following terms in your 'Medieval Europe' glossary:

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------|
| ■ abbot | ■ nun |
| ■ alms | ■ pilgrimage |
| ■ book of hours | ■ prior |
| ■ excommunicate | ■ scriptorium |
| ■ illuminating | ■ secular |
| ■ Imperator Augustus | ■ vellum |
| ■ monk | |

- #2 a** Why was medieval Europe often called Christendom?
- b** Why was the Catholic Church so important in people's lives?
- c** Who was the head of the Catholic Church?
- d** Why were he and his Church so powerful?

understanding & analysing

- #3** How did a medieval person attempt to live life as a good person?
- #4** Why were manuscripts available to only a few people? Who were they?
- #5** How and why did Charlemagne encourage learning throughout his empire?

analysing & evaluating

- #6 a** What good works did the Catholic Church undertake in the Middle Ages?
- b** Who has responsibility for these good works in today's society?
- #7** Trace the map in Source 3.7. Using an atlas and research on the internet to help you, mark on your map the modern-day countries that now occupy the areas within Charlemagne's empire.
- a** Calculate the size of the empire
- b** Compare it with at least two other empires, such as the Roman Empire or the Mongol Empire. Using your computer, construct a graph to compare the size and duration of empires.
- c** Write a paragraph explaining the results of your graph work.

understanding & creating

- #8** Using suitable websites, research the life of a great medieval writer such as Jean Froissart, Peter Abelard, Christine de Pisan or Matthew Paris. Create a mind map of the writer's life and present it in the style of an illuminated manuscript. Your mind map should include information about:
- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| • family background | • achievements |
| • education | • accomplishments. |

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 4

MEDIEVAL ARCHITECTURE: CASTLES AND CHURCHES

Castles and churches are the most visible reminders of the ingenuity and skills of the people of medieval Europe. The architecture of both types of building evolved over time with advances in technology and the introduction of new materials such as glass and stone.

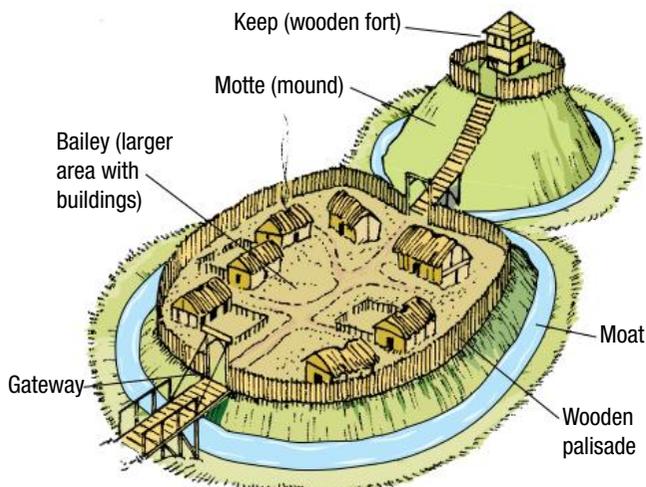
CASTLES

William the Conqueror and his Norman lords asserted their rule over Saxon England by building castles across the countryside. Castles soon became the home of choice for kings, nobles and knights.

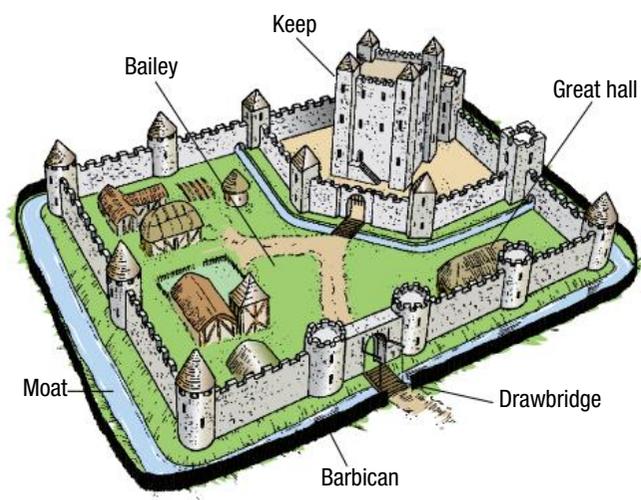
The first castles were built in France in the tenth century. They were simple wooden motte and bailey castles built on a mound (motte) or high hill. Major developments came as a result of the Crusades. The most important of these was the change in building materials from wood to stone. Knights building castles in the Crusader Kingdoms had to use stone as there was very little timber to be found. Stone was quickly recognised as superior to wood and soon stone was used as the main building material in Europe as well. Stone keeps and walls were built and new defensive strategies developed. Over time, castles reached their peak with sophisticated concentric designs and many strong defences.

SOURCE 4.1
Norman keep, Cardiff Castle, built in 1140 CE

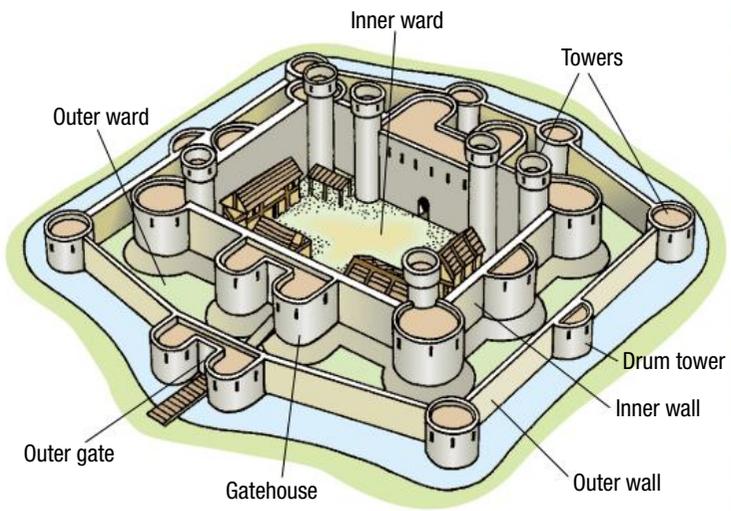




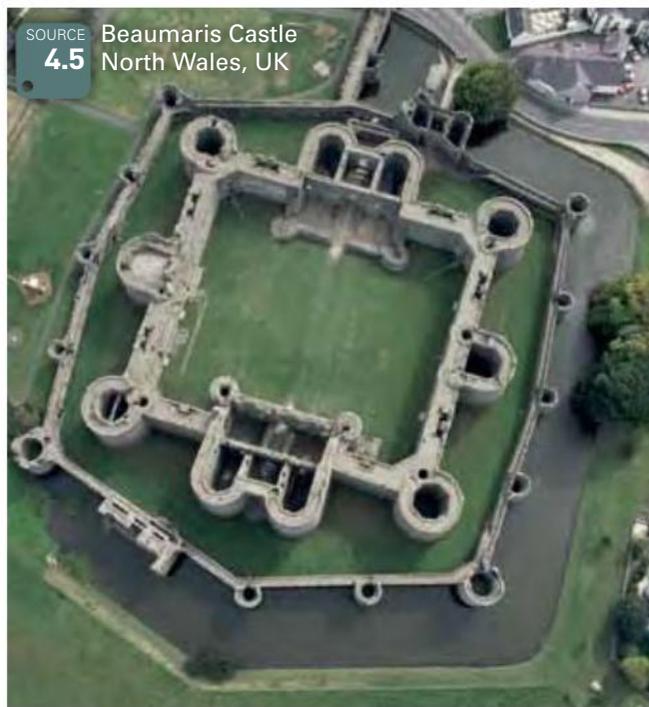
SOURCE 4.2 Motte and bailey castle



SOURCE 4.3 Early stone keep



SOURCE 4.4 A concentric castle, a later development in castle building



SOURCE 4.5 Beaumaris Castle North Wales, UK

DID YOU KNOW

THAT NOBLES KEPT THEIR CLOTHES IN THE CASTLE TOILET?

They did this because the noxious fumes repelled moths. Toilets in castles were called 'garderoles', from the French word *garder*, meaning 'to keep', and the middle English word 'robe', meaning 'clothes'. The word 'garderole' is the origin of the modern word 'wardrobe'.

Because of the unpleasant smell, garderoles were situated well away from the nobles' chambers. The room had double doors and an open window to minimise the smell. Inside was a stone or wooden bench in which there was a hole. Under the hole was a chute that led to the moat. Some garderole benches had as many as six holes in them, so they were often used communally.



SOURCE 4.6 A garderole chute, Beaumaris Castle, North Wales, UK

CASTLES UNDER ATTACK

Castles were primarily built for defence but unfortunately they were not invincible and most castles came under attack at one time or another. There were only two ways to attack a castle—forcing your way in or starving the defenders out.

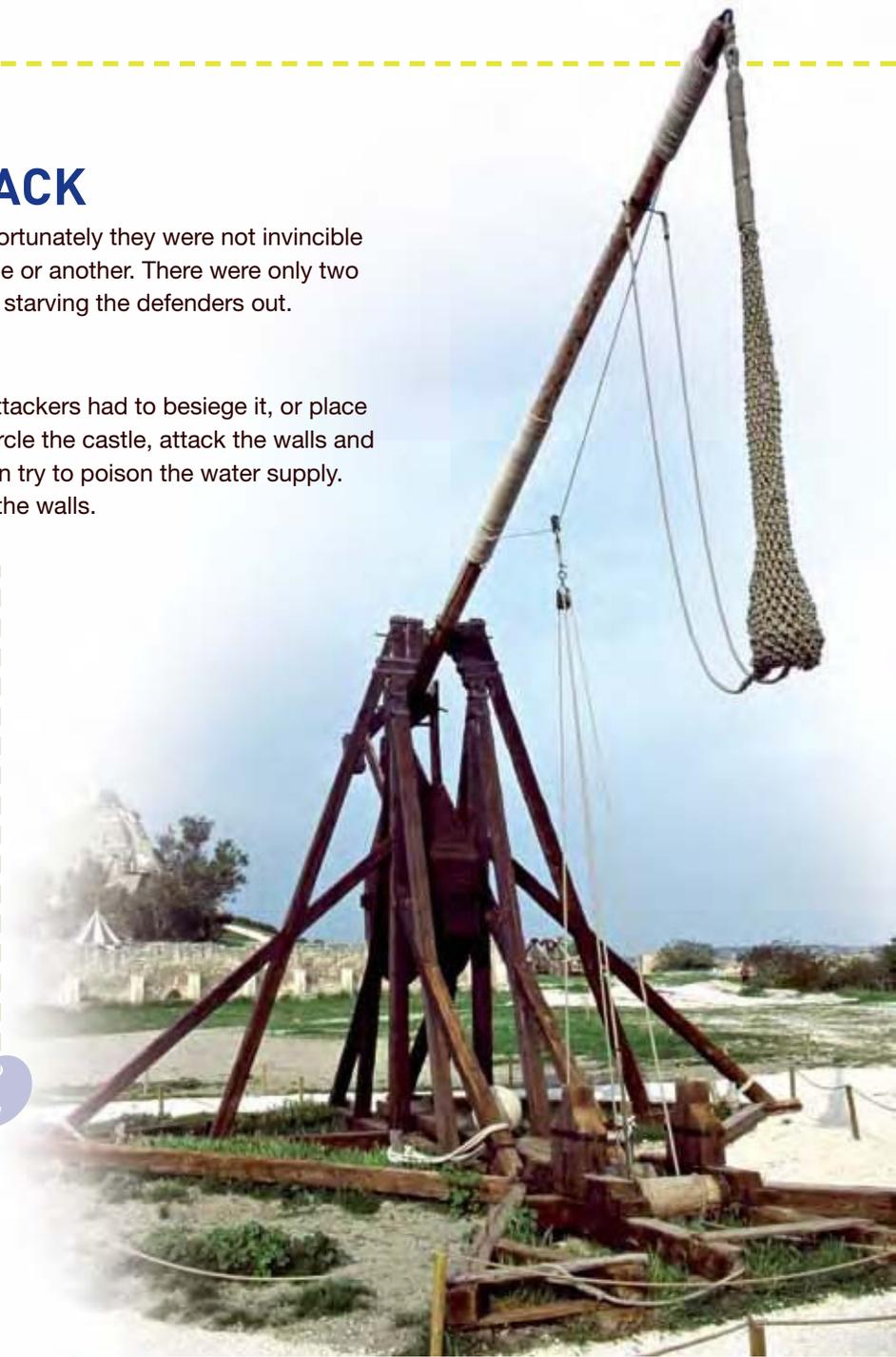
SIEGE

To starve the defenders out of the castle, the attackers had to besiege it, or place it under siege. This meant that they would encircle the castle, attack the walls and try to stop any food getting in. They would often try to poison the water supply. For this reason many castles had a well inside the walls.

SIEGE SMORGASBORD

**They ate the dogs, they ate the cats,
They ate mice, horse and rats.
For a horse's quarter, lean or fat,
A hundred shillings it was at.
A horse's head for half a pound
A dog for the same money round;
For thirty pence went a rat.
For two nobles went a cat.
For sixpence went a mouse;
They left few in any house.**

SOURCE 4.7 Quoted in *Historical Interpretation: Sources of English Medieval History, 1066–1540*, by J. J. Bagley, 1972



ATTACKING THE WALLS

Attackers looked for weak spots in the walls and then pounded them with huge stones flung by siege weapons such as mangonels and trebuchets. Often the dead bodies of animals were fired over the walls in an attempt to spread disease. A siege machine, called a ballista, fired flaming arrows over the walls to set fire to wooden buildings.

Another tactic was to attack the main wooden gate with a battering ram made from a large tree trunk. Scaling the walls using a tall belfry tower on wheels pushed up against the walls was a further option.

A very successful tactic involved tunnelling under the walls. The tunnels were braced with wooden beams and when the tunnel was beneath the castle walls the beams were set alight, collapsing the tunnel and bringing down the walls of the castle with it.

SOURCE 4.8 Medieval trebuchet in Les Baux-de-Provence, France

CHURCHES

A great number of medieval castles have vanished over the centuries but a great many of the cathedrals remain much as they were in the Middle Ages. The surviving cathedrals tell us much about people's beliefs and how they lived their lives.

Medieval cathedrals were huge structures of stone, with soaring spires and flying buttresses. They completely dominated the surrounding town or city and the little houses that clustered up against the walls.

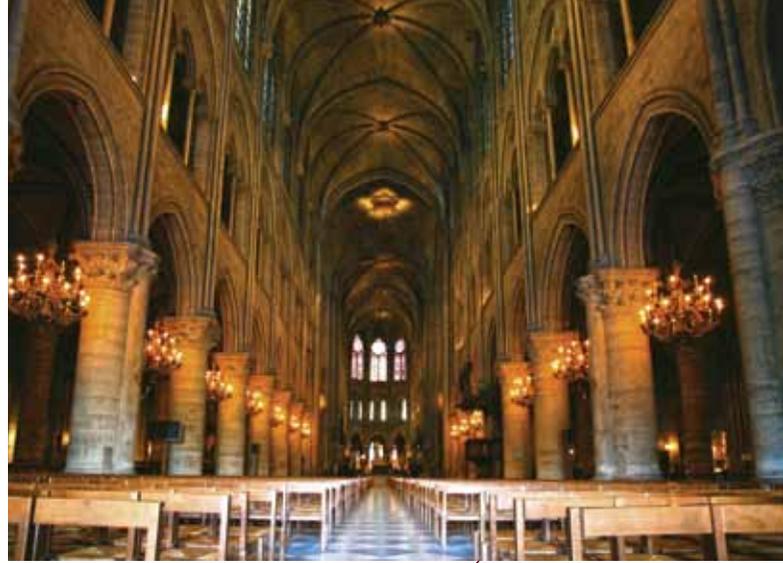
As they were by far the most expensive and elaborate buildings in any town, they also served as symbols of the power of the Church, not just to the people but to kings who might challenge this authority.

The style most associated with medieval cathedral architecture is called gothic, the name given to the style used in the High and Later Middle Ages. The main features of these cathedrals include a vertical style, distinctive pointed arches, stained glass windows, ribbed vaults and flying buttresses.

These cathedrals were marvels of architecture and very expensive to build. Huge work gangs of men and an immense variety of highly skilled craftsmen toiled for decades to complete the building. Some cathedrals took 100 years or more to complete.

When attending mass the congregation would stand (medieval churches did not have pews) in the nave or centre of the cathedral. They would be surrounded by images of angels and saints, depicted in the sculptures, paintings and magnificent stained-glass windows that decorated the cathedral.

SOURCE 4.9 Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris



SOURCE 4.10 Nave of Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris



SOURCE 4.11 Flying buttresses, Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris

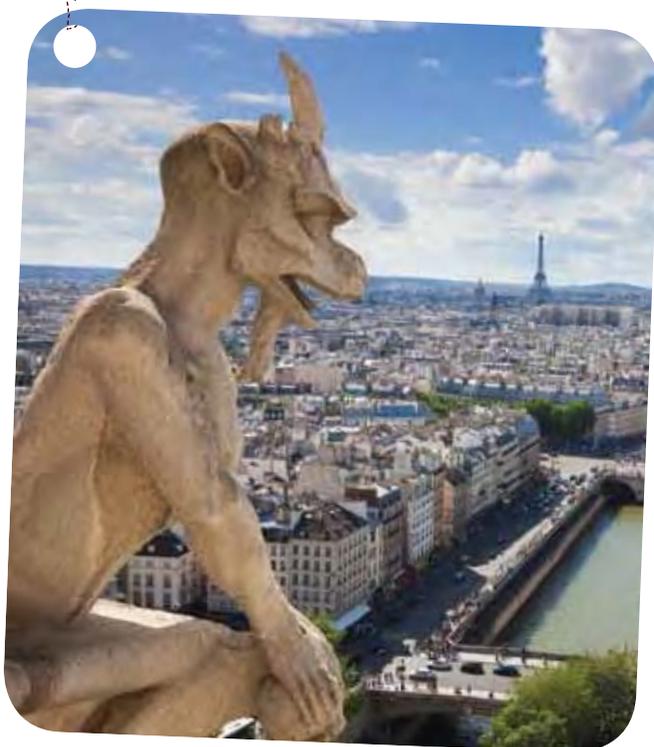
As most people in medieval times could not read, these works of art were intended for the instruction of the congregation. They depicted significant biblical stories, such as the death of Christ and the lives and deaths of saints—in particular, the deaths of martyrs (saints who died for their Christian beliefs).

Sometimes, these decorations would show the order of medieval life, with depictions of kings, churchmen and peasants, all in their allotted place in medieval society, and also representations of the harvest year, showing the chronological order of medieval life. To further instruct the people in how they should live, there would often be moralistic scenes showing virtues and vices to ensure that people knew how to lead a good life.

FLYING BUTTRESSES

A buttress is a structure that is built against a wall to give it support. Flying buttresses were used on the outside of medieval churches and cathedrals to support the great weight of the roof. A flying buttress comprised a large upright block and an arch attaching the block to the wall of the building. Without it, the walls would lean outwards from the pressure of the vaulted ceilings and the cathedral would eventually collapse. Another benefit was that with the flying buttresses supporting the roof from the outside the wall space could be used for stained glass windows.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS



SOURCE
4.12 Gargoyle, Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris

GARGOYLES

A close look at the roofline of a medieval cathedral such as Notre Dame in Paris would reveal grotesque carved stone creatures known as gargoyles. The word 'gargoyle' comes from the French *gargouille*, meaning throat.

These unusual additions to the building served not only as decorative water spouts but also as instructions in religious lessons for the mainly illiterate population. Another reason for including gargoyles on a building could have been for protection against evil.

SOURCE
4.13 Gargoyles, Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris

UNDERSTANDING & ANALYSING

- 1 Read the section 'Castles' carefully, examine the sources and complete the following questions.
 - a Explain the development of castle building in a flow chart. Use Sources 4.1 to 4.6 to help you.
 - b Create a chart of two columns with the headings 'Advantages' and 'Disadvantages' and list the pluses and minuses of stone as a building material for castles.
 - c What were the two ways to attack a castle?
 - d What does Source 4.7 tell you about the conditions inside the castle during a siege?
 - e Examine Source 4.8. How effective a weapon do you think this was? Explain your answer.
- 2 Read the section 'Churches' carefully, examine the sources and complete the following questions.
 - a What were some of the main features of the architecture of Gothic cathedrals?
 - b Why did it cost so much to build cathedrals in the Middle Ages?
 - c What would have been the impact of these cathedrals on the surrounding population?
 - d Explain how these cathedrals were seen as symbols of the power of the Church. Why would the Church wish to demonstrate this power?

EVALUATING & CREATING

- 3 Create a mind map that shows an attack on a castle.
 - a Draw a picture of a castle as your central idea and then around it show the methods of attack.
 - b Which method do you think would be the most effective?
 - c Do some further research to find out more about these methods and add what you have found out to your mind map. Remember to include a bibliography.
- 4 Create an AVD of Notre Dame in Paris. Indicate and describe the gothic features of the cathedral.

WEST MEETS EAST



I Urban, by the permission of God, [Pope] over the whole world, have come ... with a divine admonition to you, the servants of God ... your brethren who live in the east are in urgent need of your help ... For ... the Turks and the Arabs have attacked them. They have killed and captured many, and have destroyed the churches ... I, or rather the Lord beseech you to persuade all people of whatever rank, foot soldiers and knights, poor and rich, to carry aid promptly to those Christians and destroy that vile race from the lands of our friends. All who die by the way, whether by land or by sea, or in battle against the pagans, shall have immediate remission of sins ... O what a disgrace if such a despised and base race, which worships demons, should conquer a people which has the faith of omnipotent God and is made glorious with the name of Christ! ... Let those who have been accustomed unjustly to wage private warfare against the faithful now go against the infidels ... Let those who ... have been robbers, now become knights. Let those who have been fighting against their brothers' relatives now fight in a proper way against the barbarians. Let those who have been serving as mercenaries ... now obtain the eternal reward. Let those who have been wearing themselves out in both body and soul now work for a double honour ... let those who go ... eagerly set out on the way with God as their guide.

From Pope Urban II's speech at the Council of Clermont, France, 1095. This speech inspired the First Crusade of 1096. Quoted in *Internet Medieval Sourcebook*, by Paul Halsall, Fordham University Center for Medieval Studies

THE CRUSADES

While medieval Europe was known as Christendom, the area where Jesus Christ had lived and died belonged to the **Muslims** who followed the teachings of the prophet Muhammad.

Up until the eleventh century CE, the Muslims allowed pilgrims to travel to Jerusalem to see where Jesus Christ had preached and been crucified. But in 1095, this area was taken over by Turkish Muslims who refused to let Christian pilgrims visit Jerusalem any more. The Turks murdered any pilgrims who defied them.

In 1095, these murders led Pope Urban II to urge the people of Christendom to embark upon a **crusade**, or war of the cross, against the Muslims to regain the land for Christianity. The First Crusade was successful in recapturing Jerusalem and setting up a Christian **Holy Land**, but these new Christian kingdoms proved difficult to defend against the Muslims.

Over the next 200 years there were several more crusades. Not all of them were successful. By 1291, when Acre, the last Christian city in the Holy Land, was recaptured by the Muslims, the medieval people of Europe were forced to accept the fact the Holy Land would remain a Muslim country.

RICHARD THE LIONHEART: HERO OF THE THIRD CRUSADE

The Third Crusade was led by the kings of France and England and the German emperor. The aim was to take back Jerusalem and the Holy Land from the 'infidels' led by Saladin. The hero of these three Christian monarchs was the charismatic King of England, Richard I, who was called 'the Lionheart' because of his courage and bravery.

1050 CE

- 1095 Pope Urban II preaches the crusade at the Council of Clermont. The response exceeds all expectations.
- 1096 People's Crusade led by Peter the Hermit. Thousands of people go to free the Holy Land and it ends in failure as almost all the 'army' are annihilated by the Turks. The First Crusade ends with the capture of Jerusalem and the formation of Christian crusader states in the Holy Land.

1100 CE

- 1145–49 The Second Crusade fails to recapture Edessa, lost 114.

1150 CE

- 1187 After unifying Muslims in the east, Saladin destroys the Christian armies at the Battle of Hattin. By the end of 1187, Saladin recaptures Acre and Jerusalem.
- 1189–1192 The Third Crusade is led by the kings of France and England and the German emperor. English king, Richard I, makes a truce with Saladin.
- 1198 The Fourth Crusade never reaches the Holy Land. Crusader armies are diverted to fight the Christian Byzantine empire at Constantinople.

1200 CE

- 1212 Children's Crusade sees thousands of young people take crusader vows. It ends in failure as none reach the Holy Land.
- 1217–21 The Fifth Crusade captures Damietta in Egypt but surrenders before reaching Cairo.
- 1228–29 The Sixth Crusade ends when Frederick II negotiates the return of Jerusalem and a 10-year truce with Ayyubid sultan of Egypt.
- 1244 Jerusalem is retaken from the Christians by the Ayyubids.

1250 CE

- 1270 Louis IX of France is diverted to Tunis in North Africa during the Eighth Crusade. He dies before he can set sail for the Holy Land.
- 1291 Following the fall of the port of Acre, the remaining Crusader states in the Holy Land are evacuated.

1300 CE

SOURCE
5.2 Timeline of the Crusades

Richard I was born in 1157 and was the third son of Henry II of England and Eleanor of Aquitaine. His older brothers both died before they could ascend the throne, so when Henry II died the crown passed to Richard. He was a popular king because of his knightly qualities—hence his nickname—but the truth is that over his ten-year reign, from 1189 to 1199, he spent only six months in England. He complained that it was 'cold and always raining' and he could not even speak English!

When the news reached Europe that Jerusalem and Acre had fallen, Richard was quick to take up the challenge of a crusade. Historians speculate that he had three main reasons for taking up the cross—to take part in the adventure of war, to have his name immortalised by the bards and troubadours of the time, and to ensure his place in heaven.

The German emperor, Frederick, was drowned on his way across Europe to join the Crusade and Phillip II of France went home after quarrelling with Richard, so Richard was left to lead the Crusade on his own. His clever battle tactics and strategies enabled him to successfully end the siege of Acre, but without his allies he was unable to continue to Jerusalem. He was forced to return home, despite being only a few miles from the holy city. He vowed never to set eyes on Jerusalem as he believed that God had ordained that he should not be the one to conquer it.

SOURCE
5.3

A crusader knight from the Westminster Psalter, c. 1250. Held at the British Museum, London

Q

- 1 How can you tell that this knight is a crusader?
- 2 Why do you think he is kneeling?





SOURCE
5.4 Richard the Lionheart fighting in a crusade battle. From *The National and Domestic History of England* by William Aubrey, c. 1890

- Q** 1 How is Richard I depicted in this painting?
2 Is this a primary or secondary source? Explain your answer.
3 What bias is shown in this painting?

IMPACT OF THE CRUSADES

THE WEAKENING OF THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

By the time of the last crusade at the end of the thirteenth century, the medieval feudal system that had worked so well for William the Conqueror and other European rulers was no longer as strong a force because:

- kings became stronger, as many knights and noblemen were killed while on crusade, and so countries as we know them today began to be formed
- serfs who had been on crusade gained a new freedom on their return
- new, independent towns came into existence, as lords had often encouraged towns to buy their freedom in order to raise money for the crusades
- these new towns became more involved in trade, so the use of money rather than barter increased, and a new merchant class was formed that had no place within the feudal system.

NEW IDEAS

The Crusaders brought back many new goods and ideas that changed the way people lived, for example:

- luxury goods such as silks, spices and carpets—wealthy nobles and merchants now desired these goods in their homes, which increased trade and led to the growth of towns
- gunpowder, which meant that castles became ineffective as a means of defence
- drugs to stop pain
- new foods such as rice, coffee, sugar, raisins, dates and apricots, which added variety to people's diets
- knowledge of Arabic numbers
- the use of knives and forks for eating, instead of just fingers.

ISLAMIC CONTRIBUTIONS TO MEDIEVAL EUROPE

From the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries, Europe absorbed knowledge from the highly civilised Islamic world. European scholars not only found new and practical ideas but rediscovered the classical learning of the Ancient Greeks and Romans. Following the fall of the Roman Empire, many texts from the ancient scholars and philosophers were lost to the Europeans. But many of these texts had been translated from Greek into Arabic and preserved in Muslim centres of learning. It was from Latin translations that many of these texts reached Medieval Europe.

In the tenth century, Islamic Cordoba in Spain was the largest and most sophisticated city in Western Europe. Every major Islamic city in medieval times had an extensive library; in Cordoba and Baghdad the libraries claimed to have over 400 000 books.

Islam, however, did more than just preserve ancient knowledge, it also interpreted and expanded on that knowledge and made vital contributions of its own in many areas, including science, astronomy, mathematics, medicine and optics.

Muslims made many advances in mathematics and introduced Arabic numerals to Europe. Al-Khwarizm, the first major Muslim mathematician, is famous for the introduction of algebra. Muslims also developed trigonometry as a distinct branch of mathematics.

By the ninth century, many Muslim scholars took it for granted that the Earth was a sphere. The calculations of Muslim astronomers were so advanced that in the ninth century they claimed that the Earth's circumference was 40 253.4 kilometres, which was accurate to within 200 kilometres.

One of the most significant borrowings from Islam was the **astrolabe**. Astrolabes were navigational instruments invented by Muslim sailors to calculate the position of the stars and the planets. This enabled them to find their position on the sea in terms of latitude. It could be used to tell time during the day or night, to find the time of sunrise and sunset and, thus, the length of the day.

Islam also introduced a system of public hospitals, in which hygiene, diagnosis, cure and preventative medicine were practised. Damascus was the site of the first Islamic hospital in 707 CE and most major Islamic cities soon followed the example of Damascus and set up hospitals of their own. These hospitals were open all day and night and were free. Muslim doctors practised surgery and developed surgical instruments, many of which were similar to those used today, such as forceps, scalpels and fine scissors for eye surgery. These new medical practices began to filter through to medieval European doctors during the time of the Crusades.



SOURCE
5.5 Islamic inlaid brass astrolabe, 1236. An astrolabe was an instrument used in navigation, astronomy and astrology. Held at the British Museum, London

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Medieval Europe' glossary:
- astrolabe
 - luxury goods
 - crusade
 - Muslims
 - Holy Land
- #2**
- a** Why did medieval Christians wish to travel to the Holy Land?
 - b** What happened at the end of the eleventh century to prevent them from travelling there?
 - c** What are two major public services available in Islamic cities?

understanding & analysing

- #3** Read Source 5.1 carefully and answer the following questions, using quotes to support your answers.
- a** How did Pope Urban II view the Muslims and the Arabs?
 - b** What did he offer Christians to persuade them to go on crusade?
 - c** Some knights and nobles had not been following the code of chivalry. What had they been doing? Why did Pope Urban II suggest that it would be better for them to go on a crusade?

analysing & evaluating

- #4** Read the section 'Impact of the Crusades' carefully and complete the following tasks from most important to least important.
- a** Rank the different effects of the crusades on Europe from most important to least important.
 - b** In a short paragraph, explain the reasons for your two most important and your two least important choices.
- #5** Read the section 'Islamic contribution to Medieval Europe'. What groups of people would find the astrolabe of great importance? Explain your answer.

applying & creating

- #6** Read the section 'Richard the Lionheart: hero of the Third Crusade' carefully. Conduct some research to create either an AVD or electronic slide presentation on the life of Richard the Lionheart.
- #7** Research a number of significant Islamic contributions to European society. Create a wall chart giving the following details of each invention:
- purpose of the invention
 - name of the inventor
 - where it was developed
 - why it was important.



CRIME AND PUNISHMENT



In the Middle Ages, juries were seldom used for trying people accused of crimes, unlike the justice system of today. The guilt or innocence of a person was decided by what was called **trial by ordeal**.

There were several different trials by ordeal. Medieval people believed that these ordeals proved innocence or guilt because they truly believed that God would punish the wicked.

When Henry II came to the English throne in 1154 he made changes to the legal system. He introduced trial by jury as a replacement for trial by ordeal. In 1214, the pope showed his support for the new trial by jury system by forbidding priests in England from administering trials by ordeal.



THAT SOME PEOPLE CHOSE TORTURE INSTEAD OF A TRIAL WITH JURORS?

Initially, people were distrustful of the idea of trial by jury. They feared that their neighbours might take revenge upon them for any slights or grudges that had arisen over the years. Around 1275 CE, a law was passed which allowed for people to be tortured if they refused a jury trial. Needless to say, trial by jury rose in popularity!

ORDEALS BY FIRE AND WATER

These ordeals were usually limited to the lower classes in society and were strict rituals administered by the Church. Before undergoing a trial by ordeal, the accused would fast for three days and then attend a particular church service.

An accused person undergoing ordeal by fire would have to pick up and carry a piece of red-hot iron for three steps. The burned hand would then be bandaged. If the hand was not infected after three days, the person was considered innocent.

Ordeal by boiling water was similar to ordeal by fire except the accused had to take a stone out of boiling water. Again, if the scalded hand was not infected after three days, the person was considered innocent. In these trials the wound was inspected by the clergy and so it was the clergy who made the final judgement and therefore decided the case.

In ordeal by water, the accused person was tied up and thrown into a river or pond. Floating proved their guilt and sinking proved their innocence.

ORDEAL BY COMBAT

The Normans introduced the idea of **ordeal by combat** for nobles. If a nobleman was accused of a crime by another noble he could prove his innocence through combat. The two nobles or their champions would fight until either one of them forfeited, or gave up, or until one of them was killed. The winner was innocent; if the loser survived the combat he was executed.



SOURCE 6.1

Medieval village stocks located in the churchyard of Airton village, Yorkshire, UK



- 1 Why would the stocks be used frequently as a punishment in medieval times?
- 2 How do you think the person locked in the stocks would feel about the situation?

MEDIEVAL PUNISHMENTS

Medieval punishments were intended to stop people from committing the same crime again. So they were very harsh and often designed to fit the crime. A murderer or thief, if male, could be executed by hanging and his body left to hang in a gibbet; a female could be strangled and burnt to death. Noblemen who committed serious crimes such as murder were often beheaded; the punishment for treason was often to be 'hung, drawn and quartered'. This involved the person being hanged until half dead, then being disembowelled and having their entrails burnt before their eyes. Then their bodies would be cut up into four parts. Sometimes this would be done by tying their arms and legs to four different horses and having the horses pull in different directions. Often the four parts of the body were sent to different areas of the kingdom as a warning to others not to commit treason.

Other crimes were punishable by whipping or by **mutilation**, which involved cutting off parts of the body. Pickpockets would have a hand cut off to prevent them from offending again. Commoners who hunted in the royal parks would have their ears cut off. Cheating traders would be humiliated by being made to stand in the pillory or sit in the stocks. Everyone passing by would mock them and throw mud or rotten food at them. The **pillory** was a wooden frame into which the culprit's head and hands could be locked. The **stocks** were a similar device into which a culprit's feet could be locked. Inflicting pain and torture was an accepted form of punishment. There were no laws or rules to protect the treatment of people who were accused of a crime.

Olivier, Lord of Clisson, knight, prisoner in the Châtelet of Paris for several treasons and other crimes perpetrated by him against the king and the crown of France ... has confessed, was ... drawn from the Châtelet of Paris to Les Halles ... and there on a scaffold had his head cut off. And then from there his corpse was drawn to the gibbet of Paris ... and his head was sent to Nantes in Brittany to be put on a lance over the Sauvetout gate.

SOURCE 6.2 From the *Froissart Chronicles*, quoted in *The Law of Treason and Treason Trials in Later Medieval France*, by S. H. Cuttler, 2003



SOURCE 6.3 Eighteenth-century illustration of a ducking stool

DUCKING STOOL

There were different punishments for men and women. The **ducking stool** was an instrument of punishment specifically designed for women. It was mainly used to identify witches but could also be used as punishment for minor offences. It was a form of social humiliation. A chair was hung from the end of a free moving arm situated near a river or pool of water. The woman was strapped into the chair, which was then swung out and ducked into the water. The ducking could last for a short time or be repeated over a period of time.

- Q** 1 How would a person feel when strapped into this chair?
2 Why do you think this type of punishment was reserved for women?



SOURCE 6.4 Beheading of Olivier III de Clisson in Paris by order of Philippe VI on a charge of treason. Based on an illustration by Jean Froissart, 1343

CRIME PREVENTION

The Anglo-Saxons placed crime prevention squarely on the local community through the tithing, the Hue and Cry and the posse comitatus.

The tithing was a group of ten people. Everyone had to be a member of a tithing and each had to take responsibility for the others. If any one member of the tithing broke the law the others had to take responsibility for getting the accused to court. If they failed, they would face punishment themselves.

The hue and cry ... meant that anyone wronged could call upon everyone else in a community to chase a criminal simply by calling on them to do so ...

The posse comitatus could be raised by the king's county official, the sheriff, to chase a criminal. Anyone called upon to join it had to do so.

SOURCE 6.5 From 'Who was Responsible for Crime Prevention in Medieval England?', National Archives, UK

The growth of towns during the later Middle Ages saw attitudes to crime prevention and enforcement changing. Although residents were still largely responsible for policing their communities, there was a move towards appointing officials to maintain the peace.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 List and explain the following terms in your 'Medieval Europe' glossary:

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|
| ■ ducking stool | ■ pillory |
| ■ mutilation | ■ stocks |
| ■ ordeal by combat | ■ trial by ordeal |

analysing & evaluating

#2 Read the section 'Crime and punishment' carefully and complete the following tasks.

- Construct a table that outlines the different trials by ordeal.
- Were these trials just and fair? Why or why not?

#3

- Why do you think medieval punishments were so harsh?
- What are common types of punishments for crimes in Australia?
- Are they appropriate for the crimes?

d Are they effective for preventing crimes? Why or why not?

#4 Read Source 6.5 carefully.

- In what ways was the local community responsible for crime prevention?
- Can you suggest why these forms of crime prevention were adopted?
- What were the weaknesses of these methods?

creating

#5 Research the use of the ducking stool and other forms of punishment designed specifically for women, such as the scold's bridle during the Middle Ages. Create an AVD on at least three forms of punishment for women. Consider the following as you create your AVD.

- What sorts of crime were these punishments used for?
- What observations can you make about the use of these forms of punishment?
- Write your conclusions in a paragraph on the back of your AVD.

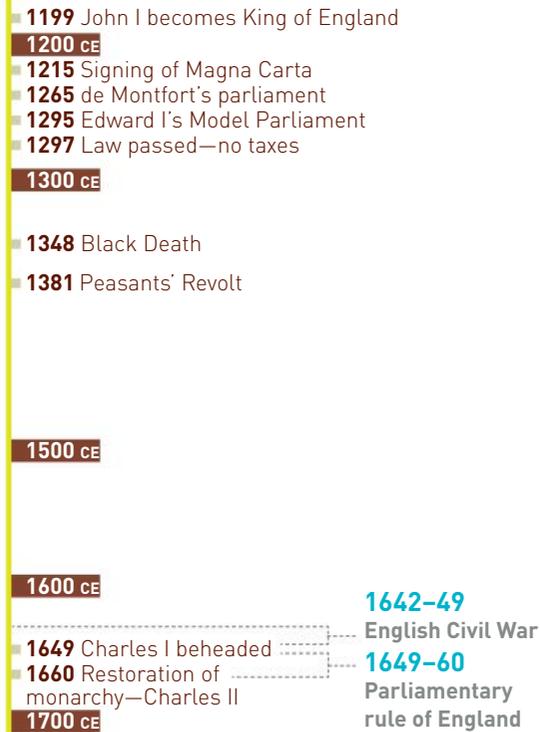
CONNECTIONS TO...

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PARLIAMENTARY DEMOCRACY

UNIT 7

Australia's form of government is a democracy. This means that ordinary people have a say about the way the country is governed through electing people to represent them in government. This is called a parliamentary or representative democracy and many countries in the world are governed in this way.

This was not always the case. Australia's system of parliamentary democracy is based upon the British Westminster system of government. This, in turn, is based upon a series of events during the Middle Ages that shaped the system of English government, reducing the power of the king and increasing the power of his subjects. So we have the people of the Middle Ages to thank for our current form of government.



SOURCE 7.1 Timeline of the development of parliament

THE MAGNA CARTA

John I, the younger brother of Richard the Lionheart, became King of England in 1199 CE. He soon alienated the three most powerful groups of his subjects—the barons, the Church and the growing class of merchants. John did this by imposing heavy fines and taxes on all three groups and imprisoning those who did not pay the taxes he demanded. John became one of the most hated English kings.

The barons rebelled and forced the king to sign a very important document—the Magna Carta, or Great Charter. The Magna Carta was signed on the island of Runnymede in 1215. Its sixty-three clauses were drawn up by the barons, the bishops and the merchants. These clauses represented the first steps towards political freedom for all and parliamentary democracy as they protected the rights of people and ensured that even the king was not above the law.

- “
- 1 *That the English Church shall be free.*
 - 12 *No scutage (a form of taxation) may be levied in our kingdom without its general consent ...*
 - 35 *There shall be standard measures of wine, ale and corn throughout the kingdom ... Weights are to be standardised similarly.*
 - 38 *In future no official shall place a man on trial upon his own unsupported statement, without producing credible witnesses to the truth of it.*
 - 40 *To no one will we sell, to no one deny or delay right or justice.*
 - 45 *We will appoint as justices, constables, sheriffs, or other officials, only men that know the law of the realm and are minded to keep it well.*

SOURCE 7.2 Some clauses from the Magna Carta

THE RISE OF PARLIAMENT

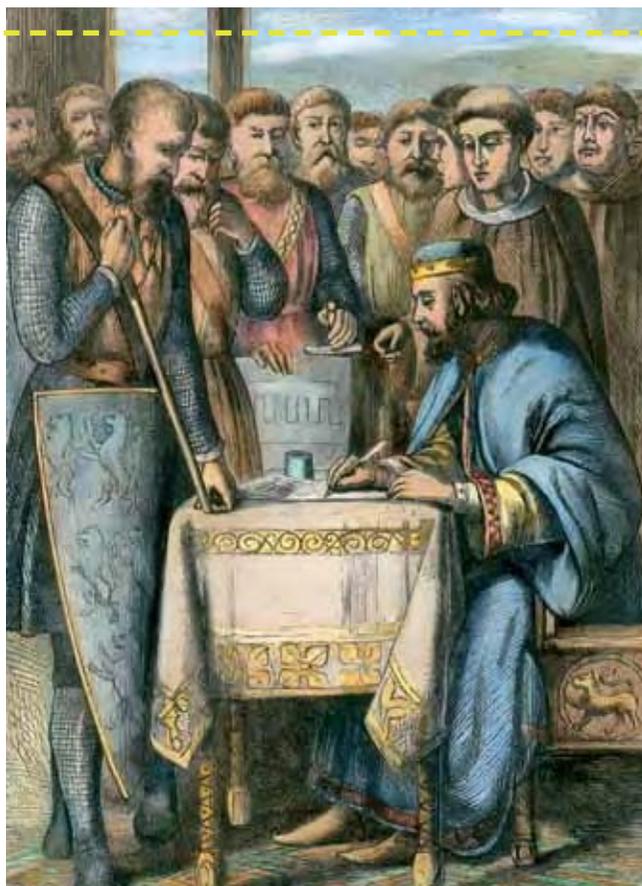
King John's son, Henry III, was also an unpopular monarch. He had trouble with the same groups of powerful people, for much the same reasons. In 1264, his brother-in-law, Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, led the barons in a rebellion against him. In January of the following year, de Montfort called a parliament, which was composed of elected representatives of the counties and boroughs of England. The purpose of the parliament was to force Henry III to uphold the promises of the Magna Carta. De Montfort's parliament was the result of the first occurrence of such an election, and therefore was an important step in the development of parliamentary democracy.

Edward I, Henry III's son, learnt from his father's and grandfather's mistakes. Impressed by the concept of parliament, he instigated regular assemblies, or parliaments, in the Great Hall at Westminster, beginning with the Model Parliament in 1295. These parliaments comprised two houses—the upper house composed of barons and bishops and the lower house or House of Commons, composed of knights and burghers (wealthy merchants and prominent citizens). In 1297, a law was passed that prevented the king from imposing taxes without the consent of parliament. This strengthened the principles of the Magna Carta and the position of the people of England.

Over the next centuries, a number of important events took place that further reinforced people power. The first of these was the Black Death in 1348. As over a third of the population of England perished, there were no longer enough serfs to work the land, which gave the serfs a position of power in society.

The workers, nevertheless, were so elated and contrary that they did not heed the mandate of the king (prohibiting higher wages) but if anyone wanted to hire them, he had to give them as they desired; either lose their crops and fruit or grant the selfish and loft wishes of the workers ...

SOURCE 7.3 A fourteenth-century account of the Peasants' Revolt, in *Chronicon Henrici Knighton*, edited by Joseph Rawson Lumby, 1895



SOURCE 7.4 An artist's impression of King John signing the Magna Carta at Runnymede in front of his barons.

The second important event occurred in 1381, when the peasants, led by Wat Tyler, rebelled in what is now known as the Peasants' Revolt. It was recorded by Froissart, a French chronicler of the time, that as many as 30 000 peasants marched on London to present their complaints to King Richard II—'to speak with the king to be made free for they would have no bond man in England'. While the Peasants' Revolt was largely unsuccessful—the leaders were executed—it did show the determination of common people to have a say in how they were governed.

In 1649, this determination was again demonstrated when King Charles I was beheaded after the English Civil War. The English Civil War (1642–49) was a war between the Cavaliers, supporters of Charles I and his belief in his absolute power as king, and the Roundheads or Puritans, supporters of parliament's rights to limit the king's power. The Roundheads won and parliamentary rule was established. Again, this situation did not last as the monarchy was restored in 1660 when Charles II was invited by parliament to ascend the throne. Nevertheless, the power of the monarch was firmly curtailed by the power of parliament and common people had a say in how they were governed.

THE FIRST UNIVERSITIES

In the Middle Ages, most education was tied to the Church and some monasteries became great centres of scholarship and influence. However, other kinds of learning were available for a minority, away from the monasteries.

Very wealthy families could hire private tutors, and students could be taught by masters who moved from city to city. In the last part of the twelfth century, these masters and their students joined together to establish independent schools in major cities. As students reached certain levels and passed exams, they were awarded titles such as Master or Doctor. Universities were set up in Paris in France and in Bologna in Italy before 1200. Other universities soon followed.

Very early in their history, features of universities emerged that can still be seen today—lectures, degrees, students, academics and examinations. It appears that student life at a medieval university had similarities with the modern university experience. Finances were a problem for students then, as they are now, and letters from parents to sons at university have the familiar complaints of inappropriate behaviour, excessive drinking and lack of effort.

SOURCE
7.5

Henry of Germany delivering a lecture at Bologna, from a fourteenth-century manuscript, by Laurentius de Voltolina. Held at Staatliche Museen Preussischer Kulturbesitz, Berlin

Q

Look carefully at this image of a fourteenth-century manuscript. What can you observe about the students' behaviour?



TIME TO THINK ...

1 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN RELIGION, RULERS AND PEOPLE IN MEDIEVAL SOCIETY

- a What was the relationship between these three groups in the Middle Ages?
- b How did this change as the centuries passed?
- c What differences and similarities are there between these three groups in our society today compared with the Middle Ages?

2 SCHOLARSHIP AND ART

- a How well did scholarship and learning continue throughout the Middle Ages?
- b How did the art and architecture of the Middle Ages reflect the spiritual life and learning of the people?
- c How has today's society benefited from the arts and learning of the Middle Ages?

3 EVIDENCE

There are a lot of primary sources in this chapter. How accurate a picture of life in the Middle Ages do they give?

4 HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE AND HERITAGE

- a What do you think are the most significant events of the Middle Ages?
- b What do you think has been the legacy of the Middle Ages for us today?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 Life in the Middle Ages—developing a film project

Imagine you have just graduated from film school and you are applying for a grant to produce and direct a film using the idea of a modern-day person travelling back in time to the Middle Ages and viewing that time from a modern perspective. Your film will depict medieval life through the eyes of your character. You need to write a grant application that must include:

- an outline of the characters (major and minor), plot, setting (when and where) and themes (the point of the story you are trying to tell)
- script for three short scenes—one near the beginning, one near the middle and one near the end of the film. Make sure that you include dialogue, directions for the actors and a storyboard (a cartoon strip of the plot that directors use when filming the day's scenes).

#2 Community gardens and the three-field system

Community gardens can be found dotted around some of Australia's major cities. The land is usually provided by the local councils and people apply for one of the small garden allotments to grow vegetables and other produce.

Your local council is intending to establish a new community garden in your area. You have been employed by them as an expert on the three-field system to advise the community on the project. Your job is to convince everyone involved that the medieval system of farming, that is the three-field system, would be the best way to set up the new community garden. To do this you need to:

- research the three-field system and community gardens in Australia
- write a report with annotated diagrams that outlines your proposal for the new community garden project.

#3 The knightly code—preparing a 'how to' manual

Your task is to prepare a 'how to' manual for aspiring knights. In your manual include:

- the steps to becoming a knight
- a knight's equipment (armour and other accoutrements, or accessories)
- a description of courtly love
- how to design a coat of arms, following the rules of the College of Arms
- annotated illustrations.

#4 The lives of medieval women—British Museum project

The lives of women have been a neglected area of study in the history of the Middle Ages, as it was very much a male-dominated society. To rectify this, the British Museum has decided to mount an exhibition 'Women in the Middle Ages'. You have been appointed curator of this new exhibition. It will be in three parts:

- lives of peasant women
- lives of noble women
- lives of famous women.

Your task is to research the content and design how the exhibition will be set out. There are a number of ways to do this. One way is to set out a plan of the exhibition rooms on poster paper; another way is to set up a virtual display using a computer program.

INQUIRY

TASKS

#5 Feature article—the Crusades or signing the Magna Carta

You are a modern journalist for a new magazine called *The Medieval World*. You have been assigned the task of writing the main feature article on either the Crusades or the signing of the Magna Carta for the next issue. Your article will comprise eight to twelve pages of well-researched information about your topic. A feature article on the Crusades will include:

- details of at least three or four of the Crusades
- the effects of the Crusades on Medieval Europe and what this has meant for us today.

A feature article on the signing of Magna Carta will include:

- details of the context of the signing of Magna Carta and the people involved
- the effects of the signing of Magna Carta on medieval England and what this has meant for us today.

#6 The Islamic world: more than just the Crusades—a TV discussion

You and two other students have been asked to prepare a current affairs-style discussion on the extent to which medieval Europe was influenced by the learning and knowledge of the Islamic Empire.

As a team, conduct further research on the advances made by Muslim scientists, mathematicians and doctors. One person will take on the role of moderator, guiding the discussion. One person will discuss major Islamic contributions to science and other learning. The third person will follow these inventions through to modern times and discuss how they may still influence lives today.

#7 Origins of nursery rhymes

Many of the nursery rhymes told to children today have their origins in medieval life. The well-known schoolyard rhyme 'Ring-a-ring o' roses' actually describes the Black Death. 'Ring-a-ring o' roses' are the red spots that indicated the onset of the disease and 'We all fall down' refers to the inevitable death of the victim.

You are a medieval historian who is researching the origin of popular nursery rhymes. You have decided to publish some of the findings from your thesis as a short booklet suitable for primary school students. You need to:

- choose four to six nursery rhymes to appear in your booklet
- write out each nursery rhyme and under or beside each one write out its history
- illustrate each nursery rhyme appropriately
- make your booklet as entertaining and attractive as possible.

#8 Medieval universities

The earliest universities in Europe were founded in Italy—in Salerno during the ninth century CE and in Bologna during the eleventh century. Not long after this, universities were founded in France and England; in Paris in the mid-twelfth century and in Oxford not long after.

As a student of history, you are looking at furthering your studies at one of these prestigious universities that has a medieval history but you need to convince your parents of the historical prestige of your choice.

Conduct some research into one of the above-mentioned universities and create an AVD or electronic slide presentation for your parents to persuade them to send you to the university. Perform your oral presentation to your class. Remember, the key criterion is the medieval pedigree of your choice.



SOURCE 8.1 *The Lady and the Unicorn: 'Smell' tapestry.*
Held at Musée National du Moyen Age, Paris

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How was the Ottoman Empire established and how did it grow in power and influence?

What impact did the Ottoman Empire have on other civilisations and societies of the time?

Who were Mehmed II, Süleyman the Magnificent and Hadice Turhan? What were their key beliefs and how did they influence Ottoman society?

What was life like for Jews and Christians in medieval Ottoman cities?



The Ottoman Empire began with a Turkish tribe in the north-west corner of Asia and, at its height, extended into three continents: Europe, Asia and Africa. Its strength lay in its control of both land and sea trade routes and in its modern navy, which during the fifteenth century CE, was one of the largest in the world.

Ottoman sultans, or rulers, encouraged different cultures and religions to live together harmoniously in their cities.

THE OTTOMAN



EMPIRE

SOURCE 0.1 These figures represent Moors and Turks in the Ottoman Empire in 1500. The illustration dates to 1882.

SNAPSHOT

1299 Osman I

1324 Expansion into European continent

1354 Ottomans capture Gallipoli

1451 Navy of 30 ships

1453 Constantinople conquered

1465 Topkapi Palace completed

1492 Jews exiled from Spain resettled in Ottoman Empire

1300 CE

1400 CE

1500 CE

1453-1570 Era of greatest expansion



1551 Ottoman Empire expands to African continent

1567 550 ships built

1600 CE



1683 Ottomans defeated at Battle of Vienna

1700 CE



ORIGINS OF THE OTTOMANS

In the tenth century CE, Turkish-speaking tribes, known as Turkic peoples, from Central Asia established themselves in Baghdad, Iraq and Anatolia (the north-west corner of Asia, today part of Turkey). In 1299, a small, independent principality in Anatolia was ruled by Osman I, a Muslim warrior and leader. This principality grew to become the Ottoman Empire, one of the largest and longest-surviving empires in world history.

Between 1299 and 1683, the Ottoman Empire was ruled by eighteen generations of the descendants of Osman I. These included sultans such as Mehmed II, known as ‘the Conqueror’, who strengthened the navy of the Ottoman Empire; and Süleyman I, known as Süleyman ‘the Magnificent’ in Europe. During these years, the Ottoman Empire was also supported by some powerful women. Alexandra Anastasia Lisowska was kidnapped from her family in Poland when she was 12 years old and forced into slavery. She was renamed Hürrem and became Hürrem Sultan, the wife of Süleyman I. She left a legacy of many grand buildings.

Osman I and his son Orhan (1326–59) extended their territory north-west into the Byzantine Empire. In this first stage of growth, in the period 1354 to 1444, the Ottoman Empire expanded into modern-day Serbia and Bulgaria.

In 1453, after a battle that lasted for more than a month, the Ottomans conquered the city of Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire. They renamed it Istanbul and it became the capital of the Ottoman Empire for the next 470 years. This was the beginning of a new era of growth for the empire. During this second great expansion period, until 1683, the Ottoman Turks triumphed over Greece, Bosnia, southern Italy, Palestine, Syria, Egypt, Algeria, Mesopotamia (modern Iraq), Greece, Hungary and Libya.

In 1683, the Ottomans attempted to continue their European expansion by attacking Vienna. The assault failed and the slow decline of the Empire began.

Note: The historical spelling of significant people’s names may vary from source to source. For example, Mohammed I is also known as Mehmed I and Solyman I is also referred to as Süleyman I.

SOURCE
1.1
The Ottoman Empire—
conquests 1451–1560.
From the *Cambridge
Modern History Atlas*, 1912



RISE OF AN EMPIRE

SULTANS AS RULERS

In the expansion of the Ottoman Empire over 300 years from 1299, each Sultan engaged in many battles to conquer and take control of more territory. As the empire increased in size, the sultan needed to delegate authority before he left a region conquered by his army. In the fourteenth century, the people left in control were often his family members: brothers, uncles or cousins. As the empire grew larger, Ottoman officials, trained in Constantinople, handled the administration of conquered lands. These senior officials received land grants and were responsible for collecting taxes and supplying men for the Ottoman armed forces.

JANISSARIES

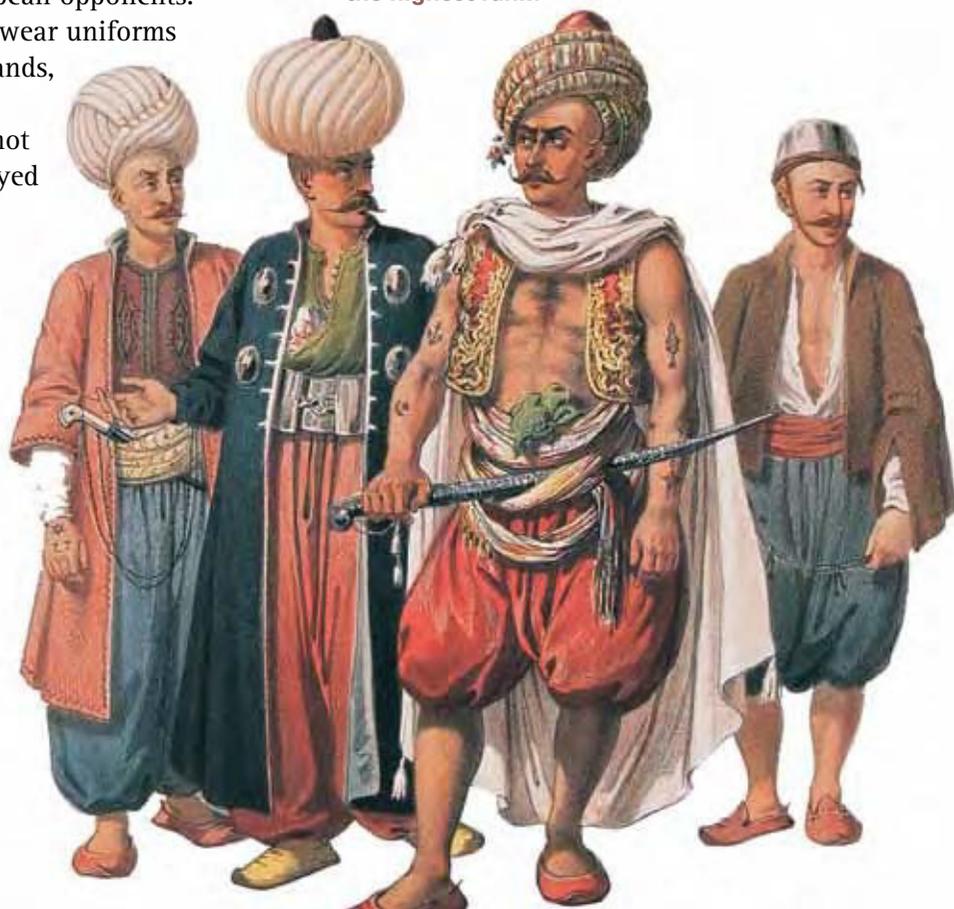
Orhan I established the **Janissaries**, the Ottoman cavalry. His son, Murat I (1359–89), organised them into an armed force that was superior in discipline and military tactics to all their European opponents. They were one of the first armies to wear uniforms and had one of the first marching bands, which they used in attack to scare their enemies. The Janissaries were not allowed to marry and therefore enjoyed a close and supportive brotherhood. Together they enjoyed a strong sporting culture. They were intrepid horsemen and skilled archers, they excelled at throwing the javelin while on horseback and they enjoyed wrestling.

SUCCESSION

Prior to the seventeenth century, all sons of the Sultan were eligible to become the next sultan. Succession was not always smooth. In 1389, Sultan Murad I was killed by an assassin in his camp. When his two sons returned to camp and learnt the news, one son immediately had his brother killed so that he could become sultan—Bayezid I. Later the laws were changed so that the eldest son was the heir. The queen mother, known as the sultan valide, could rule if her son was too young to rule when his father died.

SOURCE 2.1 Illustration of Janissary soldiers of different ranks. Held at the Military Museum, Istanbul

- Q 1** Which soldier is the highest rank and which is the lowest?
- 2** What evidence is there to help you to decide the highest rank?



The period of greatest expansion, 1453–1570, began with the conquest of the city of Constantinople. Constantinople was important, as it was Europe’s largest city and it commanded the trade routes between the Aegean Sea, the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. It was also symbolically important as it had been the capital city of the once-great Byzantium Empire.

CAPTURE OF CONSTANTINOPLE

By the early fifteenth century, the lands bordering Constantinople, a Christian city, were occupied by the Ottoman Empire, leaving the city totally isolated. In the months before the Ottomans attacked the city on 6 April 1453, its emperor, Constantine XI, feared an attack and tried to seek help from Western nations, with little success.

In preparation for the battle, Sultan Mehmed II had craftsmen make **burgonets** (helmets), shields, armour, javelins, swords, arrows and battering rams. By 1453, he was ready to attempt to capture the great city. The Ottoman forces greatly outnumbered the Christian population inside the city: Mehmed had a force of 300 000 men, including 12 000 janissaries who were positioned around the sultan himself. There were only 4983 fighting men in Constantinople.



SOURCE 2.2 Portrait of Sultan Bayezid I, artist unknown. Held at the Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna, Austria. Sultan Bayezid I took power in 1389 when he murdered his brother so that he could become sultan. He ruled until 1402.



SOURCE 2.3 The burgonet on the left dates from about 1500, and the one on the right from the second half of the sixteenth century.

Q Why would some helmets have been more decorated than others?

Siege warfare was common in the fifteenth century and Mehmed began with a blockade of the city. All regular techniques of medieval siege warfare were employed during the battle. The attackers dug tunnels under the city’s walls; the defenders destroyed them by throwing burning material into the tunnels. The attackers built tall towers to which they could attach their ladders and then roll them against the walls. Soldiers inside the city set fire to anything wooden set against the walls and children threw bricks and stones. Defenders, men and women, inside the city worked day and night to repair the damage to the walls.

In the years that followed, many who were there spoke of the noise of the battle. The Ottomans advanced with castanets, cymbals, trumpets and terrifying war cries. The city’s emperor ordered the bells of the city to be rung to encourage his people to keep up the defence.

After four weeks of fighting, the emperor ordered monks to gather up the dead for burial. In mid-May, the sultan sent an envoy into the city to discuss a possible solution. He offered to allow the emperor and his citizens to leave without harm but the emperor refused. And so the battle continued.

On 29 May 1453, Sultan Mehmed took possession of Constantinople. Cannons had razed a section of the ancient walls, allowing the Ottomans to enter the city. The Ottoman soldiers beheaded anyone they found—men and women—with their scimitars.



SOURCE
2.4 *The Final Assault of Constantinople, 1453,*
 by Edward Ollier. From *Cassell's Illustrated*
Universal History, 1890

Q Which aspects of the battle are shown in this painting?



DID YOU KNOW
THAT A CANNON USED IN THE BATTLE OF CONSTANTINOPLE COULD BE FIRED ONLY SEVEN TIMES A DAY BECAUSE IT OVERHEATED?

In 1451, Emperor Constantine employed a Hungarian, named Urban, as a cannon expert. But Constantinople's emperor couldn't afford to pay him very well and so Urban joined the Ottomans. He cast the largest cannon ever produced at that time. It had a 29-foot [8.8 metre] bore which fired enormous stones that weighed between 1200 and 1300 pounds [544 and 590 kilograms].

A head, said to be that of Emperor Constantine XI, was presented to the sultan. Many people believed that it did not belong to the emperor, and that he had escaped. The truth of this matter has never been proven.

After the defeat of Constantinople, Mehmed II pursued some military efforts in the east. His army conquered modern-day Bosnia in 1463. He had hoped to conquer Rome in the north-west but by his death in 1481 he had captured only Otranto, a town in the south-east corner of Italy.

THE EMPIRE AT ITS LARGEST

Between 1514 and 1518, Sultan Selim I turned his attention from expanding further into Europe and concentrated on expansion again in the east. He invaded Persia (today called Iran), Syria, Palestine and Egypt.

Sultan Süleyman I, who ruled in 1520–66, was the last of the Ottoman leaders to focus on substantial expansion of the empire. His first conquest was Belgrade in Serbia. By the end of his rule, the empire reached from Hungary in the north to Algeria in the west, Egypt in the south and Iraq to the east.

SOURCE
2.5 *The Ottomans, led by Mehmed II, take possession of Constantinople, 29 May 1453,*
 by Benjamin Constant, 1876. Held at Musée de Augustins, Toulouse, France

Q What aspect of the battle can be seen in the background?

DID YOU KNOW

THAT CONSTANTINOPLE HAS BEEN THE CAPITAL OF THE ROMAN, BYZANTINE AND OTTOMAN EMPIRES?

Constantinople was founded in 658 BCE and was first called Byzantium. In 324 CE, Constantine I renamed it Constantinople. In 1453 CE, Sultan Mehmed II renamed it Istanbul, but many still called the city Constantinople. In 1930 CE, the city's name was officially changed to Istanbul.

During the rule of Sultan Ahmed (1661–76) Europe grew stronger and the Ottoman Empire struggled to maintain control. In 1683, an Ottoman army of 140 000 men had Vienna under siege. This siege was broken by 30 000 Polish, Austrian and German soldiers. This was the turning point for the Ottoman Empire. The eighteenth century was a period of loss of military power and corruption in the Ottoman court and among the Janissary. The nineteenth century saw the once large and powerful empire decline, especially as Napoleon's armies conquered many of the lands that were part of the Ottoman Empire.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 Draw up an 'Ottoman Empire' glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.

- burjonets
- janissaries
- siege warfare

#2 Which sultan established the Ottoman Empire in 1299 CE?

#3 How did Bayezid I become sultan?

#4 How did Sultan Mehmed II prepare for the battle of Constantinople?

#5 Describe the battle of Constantinople in your own words.

#6 Why did the Ottoman sultan think that it was important to capture Constantinople?

applying & analysing

#7 Why do armies have uniforms and bands? What are the benefits of these?

#8 Carefully examine Source 2.5 and create a Y-chart to analyse Mehmed II's entry into Constantinople in 1453 from his viewpoint. Use the headings 'Sounds like', 'Looks like' and 'Feels like' in your Y-chart.

#9 What changes would there have been in Constantinople after 1453?

#10 As a citizen of Constantinople, write a journal of your experiences during April and May 1453.

evaluating & creating

#11 Take the role of either Mehmed II or Constantine XI. The week before the battle begins, write a motivational speech that you will read to your people. How will you suggest that they prepare themselves for the battle ahead? Your words will need to inform them of what you have done to ensure their success and a safe future.

#12 Think of yourself as an Ottoman soldier who fought at the battle of Constantinople. It is June 1453. Write a letter to family or friends at home describing what you saw, how you felt and what you smelt and heard. Use your answer to Question 8 to help you.

#13 As a class, make models representing artefacts of the battle of Constantinople. Decide who will make models of the fortified city before the battle and the weapons, armour and other items referred to in the description of the battle.



LIFE IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

CITY LIFE

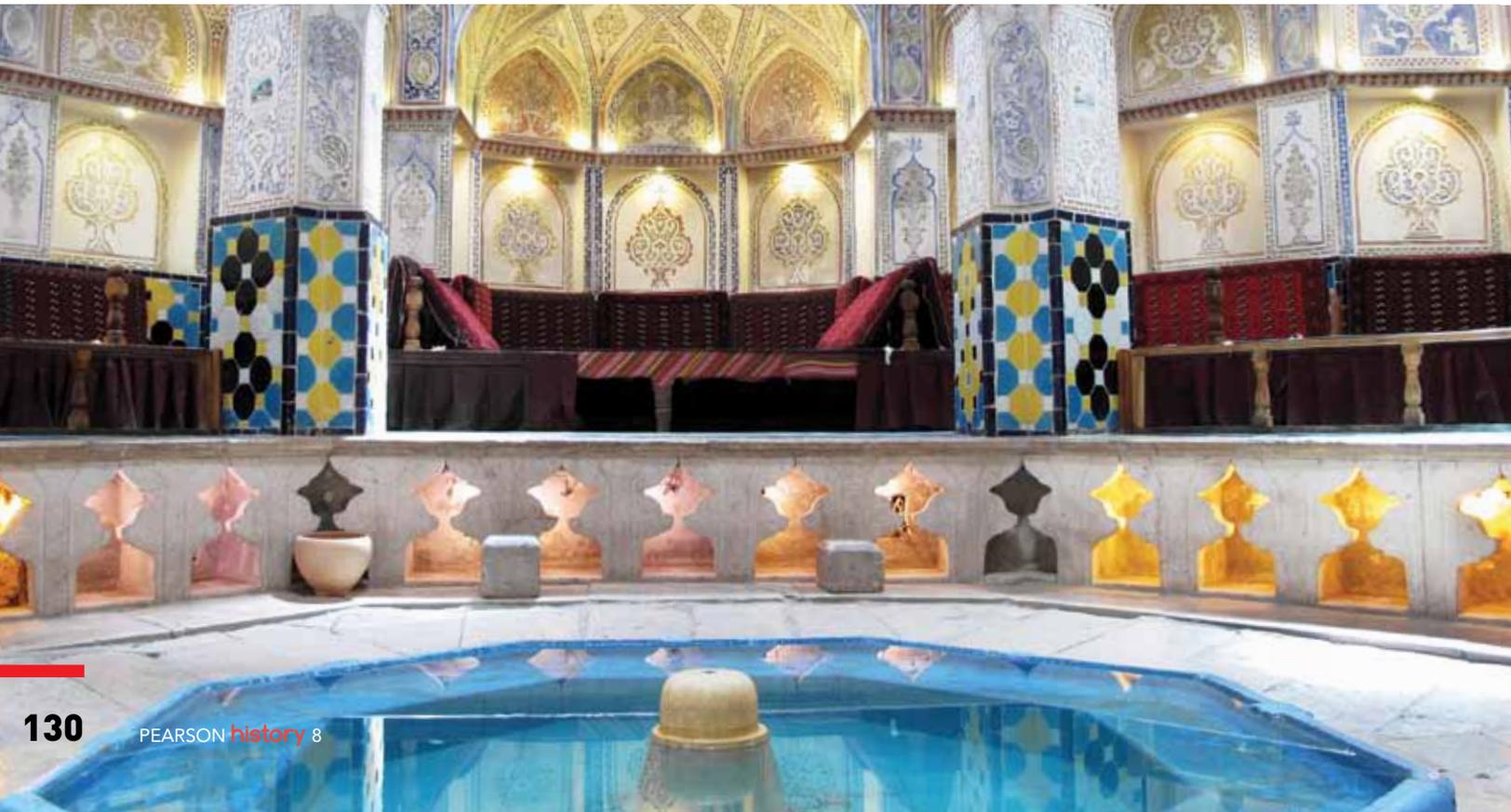
In cities of the Ottoman Empire, the centre, which was designed for public life, was surrounded by the living areas.

The focus of the inner city was the **külliye**, which was a complex of buildings built around a mosque. The buildings provided cultural, religious and health services. They included public baths, schools or **madrasah**, hospitals, libraries, markets and kitchens to distribute food to the poor. Külliyes were established by the sultan, a member of his family or a high-ranking government official. Money for these facilities came from revenues raised by a group of shops or other businesses. Once the külliyes were established, a superintendent was appointed to oversee the continued collection of the money and its distribution.

In the markets a wide range of goods were sold, including olive oil, grains, sugar, flax, silk, henna for hair and hands, dates, coffee beans and animal skins. The **muhtasib**, whose duty it was to oversee behaviour in the markets, toured the market daily, accompanied by an armed escort. He checked the accuracy of the solid metal weights that merchants used and ensured that no one was using fake gold or silver coins. Merchants had to sell their goods according to the prices set by the courts. These prices gave merchants a 10–12 per cent profit. They could be beaten on the soles of their feet with a cane or nailed to the doors of their shops for breaking rules.

SOURCE 3.1 Modern-day replica of a Middle Ages bath in Iran

Q Each city had male and female public baths. Why would the Ottoman people of the Middle Ages have had public baths rather than baths in their own homes?





SOURCE 3.2 A market in Constantinople, c. 1580. Held at Museo Correr, Venice, Italy

Q What products are being sold in this marketplace?

Most people lived in the residential areas that surrounded the inner city community spaces, with the wealthy or important people, such as religious leaders, residing closest to the külliye. These residential areas were divided into quarters. In each quarter, residents were grouped according to common village origin, ethnic, religious or occupational ties. Each quarter had an **iman**, or prayer leader, an administration and a tax collector. While people lived in their quarters, there was often happy communication with those people living in other quarters.

Further out of the city were industries and tradespeople such as tanners, dyers, slaughterhouses, butchers, blacksmiths, locksmiths, coppersmiths, potters and saddlers. People employed in these trades, as well as beggars, thieves and the jobless, lived in these areas.

COURT LIFE

An imperial court included the families and friends of the royal leader. Their lives were very different from the rest of the population.

Sultan Mehmed II (1451–81) decided that he should be a supreme but invisible monarch. In his Topkapi Palace, he constructed a tower with grilled windows, where he could watch without being seen. From inside a closed carriage he participated in royal processions, which were brilliant spectacles intended to impress the people with his majestic splendour and wealth. After the time of Mehmed II, sultans rarely appeared before their subjects.

The women of the Ottoman court never showed their faces in front of men; they were always shrouded. If the women of the court went for a walk, every male, except the sultan, had to be removed from the area. When travelling longer distances, for example to the mosques or between cities, they rode in richly decorated closed carriages. Over 200 women lived in the **harem**, the private rooms reserved for women, of the Topkapi Palace in Constantinople. They included the sultan's many wives and daughters.

Entertainment in the court included music and dance performances and the clowning around of court jesters. Male performers were blindfolded in front of court women. Water trips were taken for pleasure on long narrow boats called kayiks. These were decorated with gemstones, gold, ivory and pearls and were curtained so that the women could not be seen.

In the court, meals were usually served on copper plates and eaten with wooden utensils. The menus covered a wide range of dishes, including bread, rice, lentils, roasted pigeons, chicken, lamb, beef, sweets, pastries and fresh and dried fruit. Drinks were usually flavoured with fruit or honey. During winter, snow was collected and stored in deep ice houses to keep drinks cool in the summer months.

THAT IN THE PALACE THERE WAS A RULE OF SILENCE?

DID YOU KNOW

In the sultan's rooms, no one spoke unless spoken to by the sultan. The servants could not speak to each other. Sultan Süleyman I introduced *ixarette*, a sign language that allowed communication without sound. The sultan moved slowly around the palace to show his majesty or dignity, while all others hurried as they carried out the sultan's orders.

VILLAGE LIFE

Villages were established along the **caravan** trade routes. Some villages were walled, as protection against wandering groups of bandits. Each village had a **muhtar** who was elected by the men of the village. The muhtar had many responsibilities, including the collection of taxes. Life in the villages was less sophisticated than in the cities. For example, meals were served on edible plates of unleavened bread.



SOURCE 3.3 Processions of merchants on camels, known as caravans, travelled between Constantinople and Belgrade, Egypt and North Africa. They traded goods such as spices, gold, silk and furs.

Q Why were camels, rather than horses or some other animal, used mostly in these caravans?

CARAVANS

In many külliyes there were **caravansaries**. These were inns, where travellers could sleep, built around a large court for accommodating the camels.



SOURCE 3.4 A caravansary outside a village in present-day Kyrgyzstan



COFFEEHOUSES

Ottoman soldiers were introduced to coffee in Yemen. It was soon promoted around the empire as a stimulant and Ottoman traders began importing it from Ethiopia. Caravans were formed especially to transport coffee and it became very popular around the empire. At the end of each day, in villages and cities, men began to congregate in coffeehouses, where they discussed events of the day.

SOURCE 3.5 Interior of a city caravansary in the Great Bazaar in Kashan, present-day Iran

Q What differences are there between the city and rural caravansaries? Describe those that you can see and others that you can think of.



WOMEN

Women did not live alone and it was rare for women not to marry. Marriages were arranged by parents, and young women had little say in who they married. Once married, Ottoman women had more legal rights than Western women in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. They had greater control over inherited property, and could enter legal contracts to purchase and sell property. These laws applied to all Ottoman women except slaves.

In towns, Ottoman women socialised together. They would visit each other's homes, have picnics together or meet at the baths. They did not socialise with men.

A woman's clothing indicated if she was from a wealthy or a poor family. Wealthy women wore clothes made of fine cotton or silk. The clothing of poor women was made from inferior materials. Wealthy women wore many layers of clothing, whereas poorer women wore simple costumes, and did not always wear veils covering their faces, depending on the work that they had to do. A wealthy woman was also more likely to wear jewellery, especially bangles or earrings made of fine gold.

Young girls from poor families were sometimes sent by their parents to be servants in wealthy households. There the young girls would be provided for while they carried out their duties. Once they were old enough to marry, the families they worked for might provide their dowries and even select their husbands.

DEVSIRME

Sultan Murad II introduced a practice known as devsirme in 1432. Christian youths were selected from Greek and Balkan villages. They were removed from their families and put to work on farms for a year to build up their muscles. They were then taken to Constantinople for education in Islam. They were eventually placed in positions of responsibility. Most became janissaries, while some became servants to the sultans or architects. It was considered important that they not communicate with their families. They remained loyal to the sultan and proud of their positions, and were considered to be the sultan's eyes, ears and hands.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 List and explain the following terms in your 'Ottoman Empire' glossary:

- | | |
|-----------------|------------|
| ■ caravans | ■ külliye |
| ■ caravansaries | ■ madrasah |
| ■ harem | ■ muhtar |
| ■ iman | ■ muhtasib |

#2 What was the duty of the muhtasib?

applying & analysing

#3 Why was the külliye an important part of city life? Give details in your answer.

#4 Analyse the lives of women in the Ottoman Empire by creating a PMI chart. Try to include at least two points under each heading.

#5 Compare and contrast a market in an Ottoman city and the shopping centre where you shop.

#6 What do you think were the pleasures and the difficulties for the traders travelling in caravans?

#7 Imagine that you are a teenage boy from Greece. You have been taken from your village and are now being educated in Constantinople. Write a letter home to your parents. What have you seen?

evaluating & creating

#8 Create a plan of a caravansary. Before you begin, brainstorm with a friend what would be required inside the building for the animals and men who had trekked long distances.

#9 Many people might think that living in the sultan's palace would be better than living elsewhere in the city. Do you agree? Explain why or why not.

#10 With a friend, write the dialogue of an argument between a merchant in the market and a customer. What is the customer buying? What might they be disputing? What does each person say?

A TOLERANT SOCIETY?

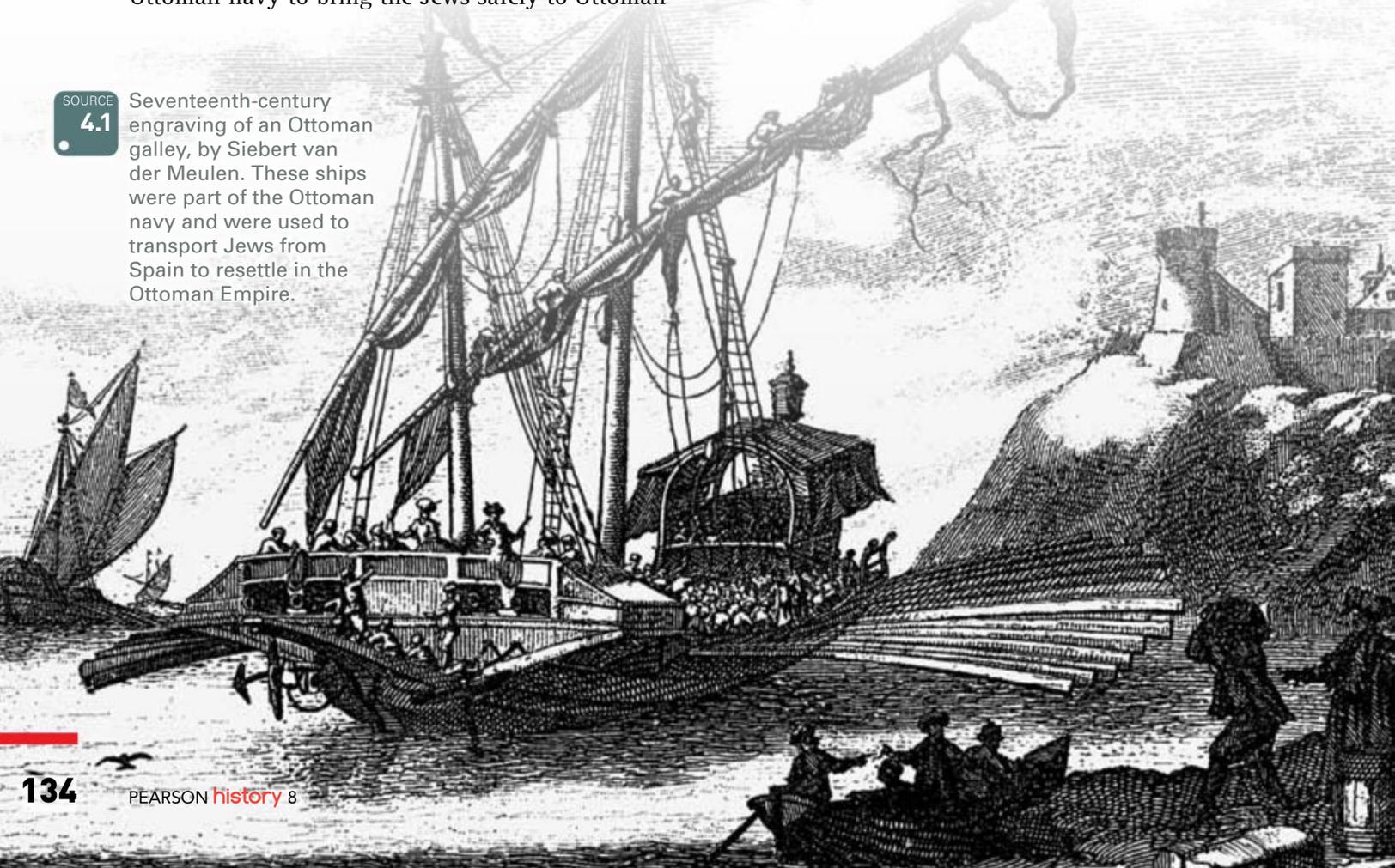
RELIGIOUS TOLERANCE

The sultans were Muslim and their states were Islamic, but the Ottoman Empire was a combination of many cultures. This was not a coincidence. The sultans believed that the harmonious coexistence of many races was vital for the development of a strong empire. Constantinople's population grew from 16 326 houses in 1477 to 80 000 by 1535. In both the 1477 and 1535 censuses, the population was 58 per cent Muslim, 32 per cent Christian and 10 per cent Jewish.

In 1492, the king and queen of Spain began the Spanish Inquisition to rid their kingdom of heretics. A heretic was anyone who did not follow the Roman Catholic faith. Sultan Bayezid II, learning of the expulsion of Jews from Spain, sent the Ottoman navy to bring the Jews safely to Ottoman

lands. They were mostly resettled in four regions of the Ottoman Empire: Turkey, Greece, Egypt and Palestine. Once settled in their new country they had to adapt to new customs and learn new languages. Many had lost family members in the struggles in their homelands. In their new homes in the Ottoman Empire, they were **Dhimmis**, members of a protected minority. There is evidence of satisfactory assimilation at times, rivalry at other times. They enjoyed liberty and property ownership, but were considered inferior to Muslims and had to endure various restrictions. They had to pay a special tax and needed to appease governors and ministers with gifts. But these circumstances seemed like paradise compared to the persecution they faced in the hostile Christian world at that time.

SOURCE
4.1 Seventeenth-century engraving of an Ottoman galley, by Siebert van der Meulen. These ships were part of the Ottoman navy and were used to transport Jews from Spain to resettle in the Ottoman Empire.





SOURCE 4.2 Bayezid II (c. 1447–1512), from *A Series of Portraits of the Emperors of Turkey*, by John Young, 1808. Under the rule of Sultan Bayezid II (1481–1512), Jews who had been exiled from Spain resettled in the Ottoman Empire.

FORCED MIGRATION

The Ottomans believed in a policy of forced migration. Once they had captured a city they often forced inhabitants to move to another part of their empire. They considered the skills and ethnic backgrounds required and resettled new populations into newly acquired lands. This process was partly a security measure, so that people of the captured cities couldn't join together and try to force the Ottomans out again.

The population of Constantinople before it was captured by the Ottomans in 1453 was less than 50 000. Some fled just before the Ottoman attack. After the conquest, Mehmed II permitted anyone who returned within a given time to reoccupy their house and practise their religion. In line with normal Ottoman policy, there was compulsory resettlement of Muslim, Christian and Jewish families from different parts of the empire to revive economic and commercial activity of Constantinople. The sultan also settled one-fifth of his prisoners and their families along the city's harbour, known as the **Golden Horn**. He gave them houses and tax exemptions for a short time. A condition of this support was that they were to work on building projects that would make the city more Islamic. These people were controlled by contracts and given special favours by the sultan in return for living up to certain expectations.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following words in your 'Ottoman Empire' glossary:
- Dhimmis
 - Golden Horn
 - heretics.
- #2** Why were the Jews exiled from Spain in 1492?

applying & analysing

- #3** The 1477 and 1535 censuses counted households rather than individuals. Why do you think the population was counted in this way? How accurate would this method have been for calculating the entire population of Constantinople?
- #4** What motive did Bayezid II have for providing homes for exiled Jews from Spain?

creating

- #5** Do you think that Ottoman society was tolerant? In a group of four, write a script that you can act out for your class, showing what it would be like to live in an Ottoman city in the sixteenth century. You will need to consider your social situation and whether your characters are members of a religious or social minority group.
- #6** Consider the community in which you live.
- a Is it multicultural, with people from different cultures and religions?
 - b List some examples of tolerance or lack of tolerance of other cultures in your community.
 - c Write an email to someone in another country, explaining tolerance in an Australian town or city.



CULTURAL ACHIEVEMENTS

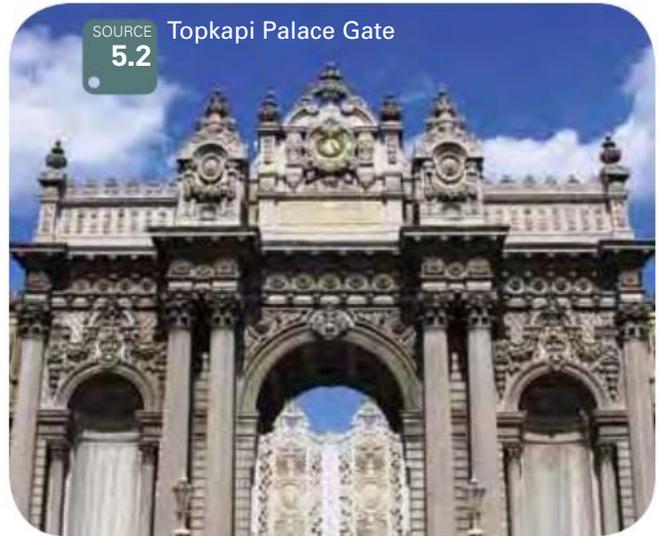
The Ottoman leaders of the fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries left a legacy of extraordinary architecture. After they conquered cities, they altered existing buildings and constructed many new buildings so that the newly conquered lands reflected aspects of typical Muslim cities. From the sixteenth century onwards, Ottoman sultans were rarely seen in public—but they wanted their subjects to know who they were. Their interests and activities in buildings were a means of expressing their power and their influence.

HAGIA SOPHIA

Hagia Sophia was built in Constantinople in 532 by the Byzantine Emperor Justinian. It was the largest cathedral in the Christian world for nearly a thousand years. On the day that Sultan Mehmed II entered the city after its defeat, he ordered that it be converted into a mosque. It was the first of seventeen of the city's churches to become mosques.

SOURCE
5.1 A distant view of Hagia Sophia Mosque

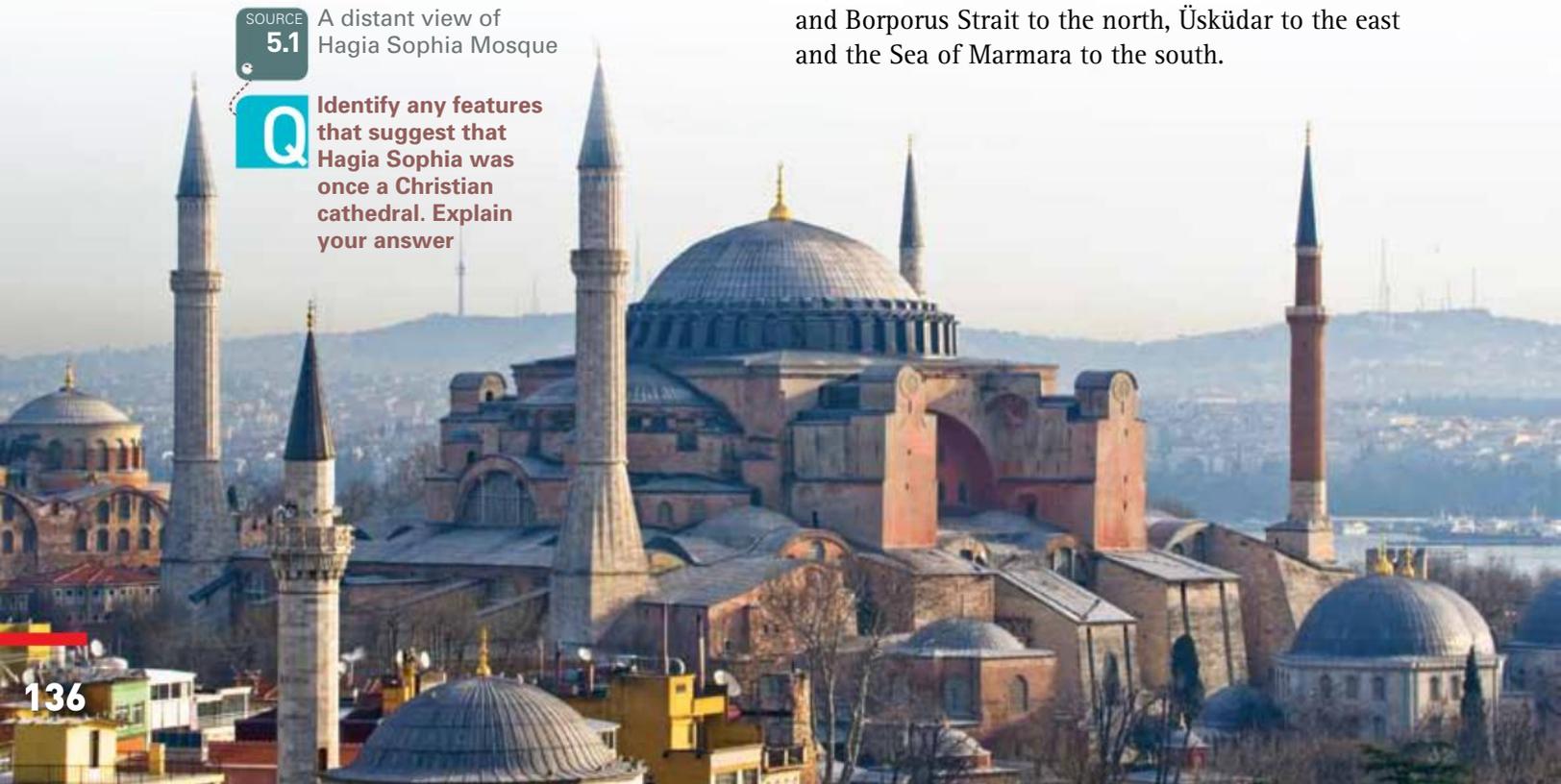
Q Identify any features that suggest that Hagia Sophia was once a Christian cathedral. Explain your answer

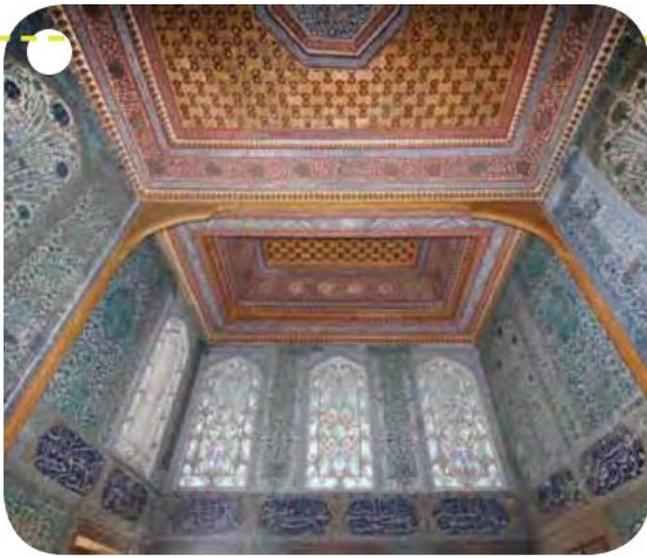


SOURCE
5.2 Topkapi Palace Gate

TOPKAPI PALACE

The Topkapi Palace was completed in 1465. It remained the residence of Ottoman royal families until 1856. It sits in a large garden at the tip of a peninsula on one of the seven hills of Constantinople. From the palace there are impressive views of the city, its harbour The Golden Horn to the west, Galata and Bosphorus Strait to the north, Üsküdar to the east and the Sea of Marmara to the south.





SOURCE
5.3 A room in the harem of the Topkapi Palace. The walls are decorated with tiles of Arabian calligraphy.

SÜLEYMANIYE

Sultan Süleyman I built the Süleymaniye mosque in 1557. It was surrounded by a külliye, which included a courtyard, five schools, a hospital, a medical school, a public kitchen, a caravansary, a mausoleum, shops and fountains.

STARI MOST

In 1566, the first bridge crossing the Neretva River at Mostar, in modern-day Bosnia and Herzegovina, was completed. The white marble bridge, known as Stari Most, or 'Old Bridge', was destroyed in 1993.

SOURCE
5.4 Stari Most, or the 'Old Bridge', crossing the Neretva River in Bosnia and Herzegovina



- 1 How old was Stari Most when it was destroyed?
- 2 What conclusions can you make about the engineering abilities of the Ottomans from Stari Most?

DARDANELLES FORTS

Hadice Turhan was the mother of Mehmed IV. When her son became the sultan, she took the name Turhan Sultan, according to tradition. She was sometimes referred to as the 'valide sultan', meaning 'queen mother'. Turhan Sultan was a very powerful valide sultan, and was responsible for the construction of several grand buildings. One of her projects involved the building of fortresses on the peninsulas on both sides of the Dardanelles to stop Venetians from entering the Sea of Marmara and gaining access to Constantinople. Architects, engineers and craftsmen were sent from Constantinople to direct the construction work that was done by local residents, prisoners and soldiers.

YENI VALIDE MOSQUE

Yeni Valide Mosque was also built by Turhan Sultan. The forts protecting the Dardanelles were in the provinces and displayed her support for the security of the empire. Yeni Valide Mosque was in Constantinople, in the suburb Eminönü, and demonstrated Turhan Sultan's piety, power and generosity to her people.

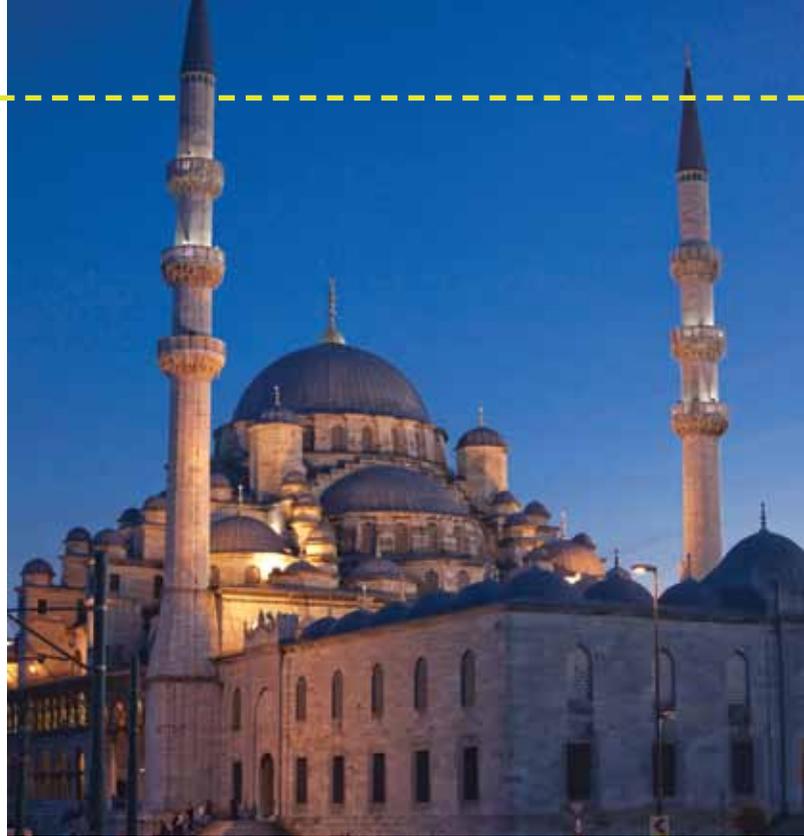
The site for the mosque was important because it was where the customs houses were—where Ottoman merchants did business with the Venetians, Florentines and English who came to the city to trade. The building of the Yeni Valide Mosque on this site required the relocation of non-Muslim communities—Jewish merchants and their families who had lived there for centuries—to another quarter of the city.

Construction began in 1661. The entire mosque and its courtyard were elevated and had to be accessed by steps. The mosque included a Royal Pavilion designed to allow the royal family visual access to various parts of the complex without being seen by the public.

Inside the mosque complex was a primary school and one of the busiest markets in Constantinople. Turhan Sultan left an endowment to pay for over 400 staff to run the mosque, including caretakers, gardeners, teachers, prayer readers, cleaners, candle lighters and maintenance staff.

At the opening ceremony in 1665, Turhan Sultan gave gifts of furs and gems to invited guests. She threw gold coins to the crowd who gathered to watch, as a symbol of her generosity.

The mosque complex included a tomb, which measured 15 by 15 metres. This was to be the burial place for members of the royal family. After her death in 1683, Turhan Sultan was laid to rest in this tomb, situated, as was the custom, so that she faced Mecca.



SOURCE
5.5

The Yeni Valide Mosque in Istanbul. It is situated on the Golden Horn.



Use Google maps to help you find a map of Istanbul, once the city of Constantinople. Can you locate the area called Golden Horn, where this mosque is situated?



remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following term in your 'Ottoman Empire' glossary:
 - valide sultan.
- #2** Why did the sultans build grand buildings such as mosques and külliyes?
- #3** What did Yeni Valide Mosque have in common with külliyes?

applying & analysing

- #4** Explain why Turhan Sultan wanted to build Yeni Valide Mosque in the suburb of Eminönü.
- #5** What do you think would best promote Turhan Sultan to the people of the Ottoman Empire: the construction of the Dardanelles forts or the Yeni Valide Mosque?

evaluating & creating

- #6** Find more examples of the patterns on the tiles inside Ottoman mosques. Using the internet and books, complete one of the following tasks:
 - a** Create a poster of a mosaic you have found, using coloured paper to recreate the coloured tiles.
 - b** Create an electronic slide presentation of at least ten different mosaic patterns that you have found. Make sure that you label each mosaic pattern with the name of the mosque from which it comes and add some suitable music to your presentation.
 - c** Using the internet and books, find more examples of the patterns on the tiles inside the Ottoman mosques. Produce a mosaic resembling the patterns that you find.
- #7** Choose one of the architectural legacies of the Ottomans from this unit. Undertake some further research on it, using the internet and the library. Create an AVD to explore and explain your chosen architectural legacy.

SIGNIFICANT PEOPLE

UNIT
6

Some leaders of the Ottoman Empire were notable for expanding the strength and influence of the empire. Among these people were great politicians and great warriors—both men and women.

OSMAN I

Osman I (ruled 1299–1326) was born in 1259 and by 1299 he had established himself as the leader of a principality. His reign was the beginning of a dynasty that would eventually rule one of the largest and most powerful empires that the world has ever seen. Among his people he had the nickname **Kara**, which meant ‘great’ or ‘strong’. Osman was a great warrior, always on the move, living in tents. Osman dressed like his men, ate with them and liked to attend to the shoeing of his own horses. His life was immortalised in an old Turkish saying, ‘May he be as good as Osman’.

Osman and his son Orhan I (ruled 1326–59) took advantage of the growing weakness of the Byzantine Empire in the west and the turmoil created by the Mongols in the east. They were able to expand their control west to the Balkans region of south-eastern Europe and to the east across Anatolia on the Asian continent.

SOURCE 6.1 Osman I (1259–1326), founder of the Ottoman empire, from *A Series of Portraits of the Emperors of Turkey*, by John Young, 1808

Q Use a three-column table to compare and contrast the portraits of Osman I, Mehmed II and Süleyman I.



SOURCE 6.2 Mehmed II, attributed to Sinan Bey, c. 1475

THAT BAYEZID I (1389–1402) WAS THE FIRST LEADER TO HAVE THE TITLE ‘SULTAN’?

Osman I, Orhan I and Murad I were all called ‘bey’, meaning ‘chief’. These first three rulers were illiterate. Orhan I used a tughra, a calligraphic signature, and this became the tradition for all Ottoman leaders. The tughra was designed at the beginning of a sultan’s reign by the court calligrapher or nişanc. A carving was produced and used on all official documents and correspondence. It was also stamped in coins minted during his reign. While all tughras followed the same basic pattern of ovals, curves and vertical lines, each sultan’s tughra was unique. Early tughras tended to be simple but later tughras were more complex.

DID YOU KNOW



SOURCE 6.3 Süleyman II, Sultan of Turkey, 1641. Held at the Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna, Austria

SOURCE 6.4 Tughra of Mehmed II on wall tiles inside the Topkapi Palace

Q Compare the tughra seals of Mehmed II and Süleyman I. List the differences and similarities that you can identify.

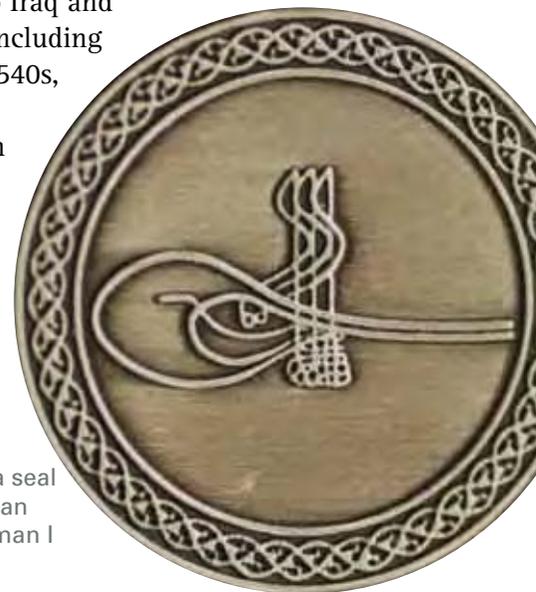


MEHMED II

Mehmed II (ruled 1451–81) was born in 1432, the third son of Murad II. By 1443, both of his elder brothers had died. He became sultan of the Ottoman Empire when he was nineteen years old, and was, by the end of his rule, known as ‘Mehmed the Conqueror’. When Mehmed II was twenty-one, he led the Ottoman army and navy to victory over the Byzantine Empire when he took Constantinople. He made the city the capital of his empire. He also renamed it Istanbul, although many people continued to call it Constantinople. He saw himself as the ‘ruler of two continents and two seas’. He strengthened the navy, which conquered the southern coast of Italy. From the 1470s, Mehmed II was the first of many sultans to decide that he would not be seen in public.

SÜLEYMAN I

Süleyman I (ruled 1520–66) was the tenth and longest-serving sultan. He was called ‘the Magnificent’ by Europeans and, for his reconstruction of the Ottoman legal system, he was known as ‘the Lawgiver’ by his own people. The Ottoman Empire reached its height during his years of rule. In 1521, his army conquered Belgrade and a year later they captured Rhodes. Süleyman then led them to the south and occupied parts of modern-day Iraq. Between 1533 and 1534 he took control of all of Arab Iraq and north-western Iran, including Tabriz. In the early 1540s, Süleyman turned his attention to the north again, capturing Budapest. In 1551 the coastal plains of what are now Libya, Tunisia and Algeria were added to the Ottoman Empire.



SOURCE 6.5 Tughra seal of Sultan Süleyman I

HÜRREM SULTAN

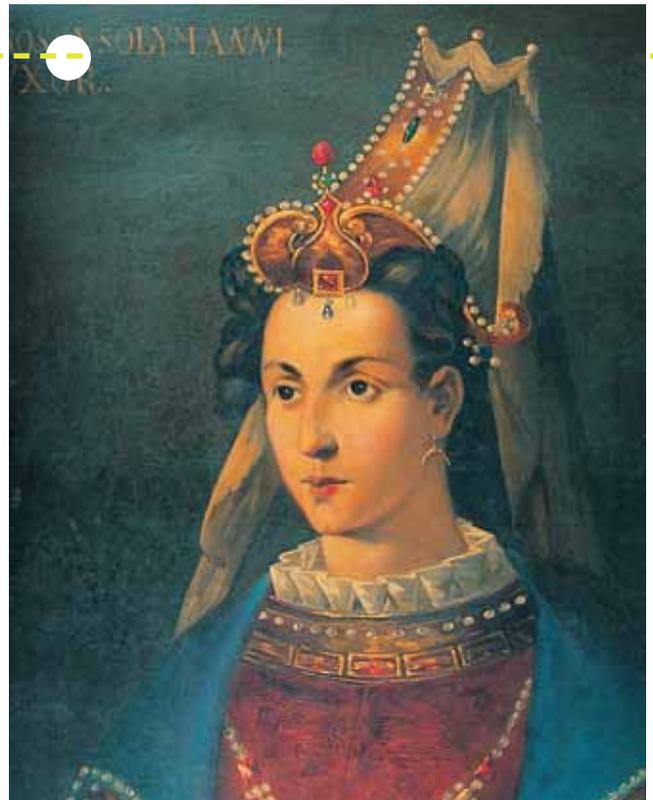
Hürrem grew up in Poland. At age twelve she was kidnapped and placed in Süleyman I’s harem. She later became the wife of Süleyman I and eventually became the first powerful woman of the Ottoman Empire. Those who knew her wrote about her great intelligence and willpower, but the people of Süleyman’s court hated her. She was the sultan’s main political adviser, and when he was absent on military campaigns she sent him letters expressing her love and informing him of events in the capital. He trusted her more than he trusted his appointed male advisers. She used her power for many purposes, from small projects such as building a soup kitchen, called an *imaret*, in Jerusalem to grand undertakings such as the construction of a külliye in Constantinople—which included a mosque, madrasah, imaret, hospital and fountain. In the decade before her death in 1558, Hürrem supported treaties between the Ottomans and Poland to negotiate the return of slaves to their homelands.

HADICE TURHAN

The most esteemed female position in the Ottoman court was that of 'valide sultan', the mother of the sultan. Hadice Turhan gained this position in 1648 when her husband Sultan Ibrahim died. Her six-year-old son, Mehmed IV (ruled 1648–87), was too young to rule and she effectively became the ruler of the Empire. As sultan valide, Hadice moved to special quarters of the harem in the Topkapi Palace. Her rooms included a spacious bedroom, small prayer area, throne room and balcony that looked toward the Golden Horn and the Council Hall, where official business was conducted.

When he was old enough to govern, Mehmed proved to be a poor ruler and so Hadice Turhan was the symbol of the monarchy until her death in 1683. Hadice was patron of many large-scale architectural works. She initiated the construction of two fortresses at the Aegean entrance to the Dardanelles in 1658. In 1661, she began to build a large mosque in Constantinople.

In 1669, Mehmed IV ordered his mother to arrange the murder of his two half-brothers so that they could not depose him. Hadice Turhan had been like a mother to them after the deaths of their own mothers and so she refused. Thus the boys were allowed to live and Hadice Turhan remained a strong figure in Mehmed IV's reign until her death in 1683.



SOURCE 6.6 Hürrem Sultan Roselan, wife of Suleiman the Magnificent, eighteenth century. Held at the Topkapi Palace Museum. This painting was done by the Venetians based on information from their secret service based in Constantinople.

Q Which four adjectives would you use to describe Hürren Sultan?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 List and explain the following terms in your 'Ottoman Empire' glossary:

- bey
- nişanc
- imaret
- tughra
- kara

#2 Explain the saying 'May he be as good as Osman'.

analysing & evaluating

#3 Look at Source 1.1 and explain why Mehmed II saw himself as 'ruler of two continents and two seas'.

#4 Compare the lifestyles of Osman I and Mehmed II.

evaluating & creating

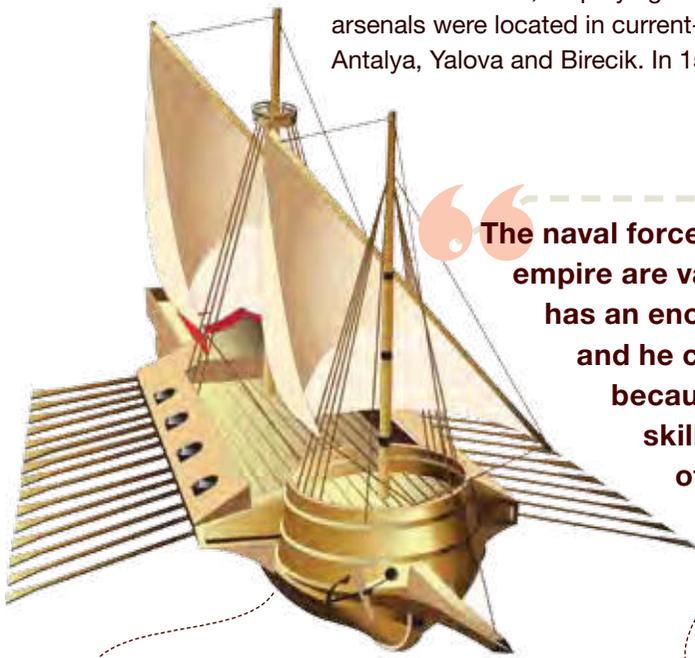
#5 Working with a friend, write a conversation between Osman I and Süleyman I. What questions would they ask each other? What answers would they give? Consider their lifestyles, their clothes and their efforts to expand the Ottoman Empire. Would they congratulate each other or be critical of each other?

#6 Combine seventeenth-century information with twenty-first century technology. Create a web page about the life and work of Hadice Turhan.

#7 In a small group, script and perform a short play recreating the scene between Mehmed IV and his mother, Hadice Turhan, when he asks her to arrange the murder of his half-brothers. Include other people in your play such as the two half-brothers, royal advisers, guards etc., in your play.

THE OTTOMAN NAVY

The Ottomans became the most powerful naval power in the Mediterranean Sea in the late fifteenth and mid-sixteenth centuries. They built over 110 maritime arsenals during those years: two in Constantinople and others spread around their empire. Maritime arsenals were ancient shipbuilding yards. The first maritime arsenal was built at Gallipoli in 1400. In 1451, their navy consisted of thirty galleys. By 1512, the main maritime arsenals, employing 160 000 people, were in Constantinople. Other maritime arsenals were located in current-day Turkey at Izmit, Gemlik, Sinop, Selcuk, Bodrum, Antalya, Yalova and Birecik. In 1567 over 550 ships were built.



SOURCE 7.1 Model of a galley. These were flat ships with one or more sails and up to three banks of oars. They were mainly used for warfare or trade.

“The naval forces which the Sultan uses to defend his empire are vast and second to none in the world. He has an enormous number of galleys in his dockyard and he can turn out more whenever he wants, because he has plenty of wood, iron parts, skilled workers, pitch, tallow, and all the other things needed. His resources are so great that if he wanted to he could quickly assemble what he needs.”

SOURCE 7.2 Description of the Ottoman naval capacity by Venetian bailo, or ambassador, Gianfrancesco Morosini in his book *Turkey Is a Republic of Slaves*, 1585, quoted in *Ottoman Maritime Arsenals and Shipbuilding Technology in the 16th and 17th Centuries*, by Professor Idris Bostan, 2007

A PEACEKEEPING ROLE

As a result of their naval power, the Ottomans were called upon to protect other countries from attack and to help keep the peace. In 1565, the Ottoman Empire launched 250 warships. The sultan subsequently received repeated appeals from across the Islamic world, including India and Sumatra, for safe travel for traders and pilgrims, who were often attacked by the Portuguese. In spite of warnings, however, the Portuguese continued to cause problems for Ottoman shipping in the Indian Ocean. The sultan decided to send a fleet of fifteen galleys and two barques, equipped with cannons, muskets and other military hardware, to Sumatra. Janissaries, carpenters and blacksmiths also accompanied the fleet.

“If Your Majesty’s aid is not forthcoming the wretched unbelievers will continue to massacre the innocent Muslims.”

SOURCE 7.3 A letter of appeal from the Sultan Ala’ud-din al-Kahar (in India) to the caliph, January 1566, preserved in the Ottoman archives. Quoted in ‘Mughal–Ottoman Relations: A Study of Political and Diplomatic Relations between Mughal India and the Ottoman Empire, 1556–1748’, a PhD dissertation by Naimur Rahman Farooqi, 1986

“If you continue to disturb peace in that region then appropriate measures will be taken against you.”

SOURCE 7.4 The sultan sent a strong letter to the king of Portugal, Dom Sebastio.



SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

SOURCE 7.5 The Ottoman fleet blocking the Port of Marseille, France in 1454 CE

GROWTH TO DECLINE

“Their ports are several of them inconvenient for building both galleys and galleons, larger ships; the Arsenal of Constantinople hath no less than a hundred thirty-seven voltas, or rooms for building, and so many galleys may be upon the stacks at the same time. Yet the Turk for several years, especially since the War with Candia, have not been able at most to equip a fleet of above 100 galleons.”

SOURCE 7.6 Seventeenth-century English diplomat and writer Paul Rycaut commenting on the decline of Ottoman shipbuilding, referring to the Ottoman siege of Candia, Crete, between 1648 and 1669.

APPLYING & ANALYSING

- 1 In Source 7.2, Venetian ambassador Morosini refers to skilled workers and ample supplies.
 - a What other resources would be required for shipbuilding?
 - b What skills or trades would be employed in sixteenth-century maritime arsenals?
- 2
 - a Open a Word document and create a table of two columns and ten rows.
 - b In the left column, list the ten cities that had maritime arsenals by the sixteenth century.
 - c Using Google maps, locate each of these cities. In the right column, list the oceans or seas that were supported by each of these arsenals.
- 3 Examine Source 7.5.
 - a Identify the French and Ottoman ships.
 - b What differences and similarities are there between the French and Ottoman ships?
 - c Why do you think the Ottoman ships are blocking the port?
- 4 Refer to Source 7.6.
 - a Rycaut suggested that Ottoman shipbuilding was in decline from what period of time?
 - b What explanation did he give for the decline in shipbuilding?

EVALUATING & CREATING

- 5 Produce a poster promoting the advantages of galleons over galleys. Include images of these ships with labels identifying their features.
- 6 Investigate the features of modern war ships. How are they different from galleons? Are there any features that have remained the same?

CONNECTIONS TO...

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

UNIT
8



SOURCE
8.1 Prince Henry of Portugal (1394–1463), known as Henry the Navigator and victor at the battle of Ceuta, wearing armour. His coat of arms and a distant view of Ceuta are shown.

Q What aspects of Prince Henry's life are shown in this image?

After the Ottoman Empire conquered Constantinople in 1453, the Ottomans controlled the Mediterranean, Black and Aegean seas and trade routes across land via modern-day Iraq and Iran. It then became essential for countries such as Spain, Portugal, Italy and England to seek other routes to Africa, India and China to obtain goods such as silver, gold, china and spices.

THE PORTUGUESE

In Portugal, exploration was prompted by Prince Henry, known as Henry the Navigator. He did not sail on any of the voyages that he supported; rather, he established a centre for navigational studies to teach map making and shipbuilding. Prince Henry believed that the ships being built by the Ottomans to sail in the Mediterranean were too slow and heavy. Under his direction the caravel, a small, lighter and highly manoeuvrable sailing ship, was designed and built.

During the two-year period 1444-46, Prince Henry intensified his support for the exploration of Africa, and the last voyage he sponsored sailed over 1500 miles down the African coast. The Portuguese were the first Europeans to sail around the southern tip of Africa.

THE VENETIANS AND THE OTTOMANS

After 1204, the Venetians concentrated on gaining territories that supported their maritime interests. By the late fifteenth century, Venice was a strong naval power



SOURCE
8.2

The figures in this image represent soldiers from the fourteenth century. The illustration dates to 1882. From *The Costumes of all Nations from the Earliest Times to the Nineteenth Century*, by Albert Kretschmer and Carl Rohrbach, 1882

Q

Compare this image with the image of Ottoman soldiers in Unit 2. How is their clothing similar or different?

and was established as a major Mediterranean trader between Europe and the East. Venice imported spices and silk and exported metals and glassware.

From 1489, the Venetians controlled Cyprus. The Venetians valued Cyprus for its resources and its locality. Timber, essential for shipbuilding, was plentiful on the island, which formed an ideal base from which to dominate trade with the East. From this location, the Venetians continually attacked Ottoman ships engaged in trade. Sultan Selim II repeatedly complained to the Venetians and demanded safe passage for Ottoman ships in the seas surrounding Cyprus, but the Venetians continued to attack.

The sultan decided to put an end to this situation. He was also interested in what the island had to offer. In 1570, Ottoman troops landed on the island. A siege lasted for six weeks. The island was eventually taken by storm and 20 000 inhabitants were massacred in the process.

The Venetians sought peaceful relations with the Ottoman Empire after the Ottomans gained control of Cyprus. They were concerned about the risk to other Mediterranean territories under Venetian control. As a result, between 1573 and 1645, the Ottoman and Venetian empires experienced the longest period of uninterrupted peace.



TIME TO THINK ...

1 OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND ITS LINKS TO OTHER COUNTRIES

- a Were you surprised at how far the Ottoman Empire spread in the first 300 years? Why was it able to spread so far so quickly? Consider leadership, technology and perhaps weaknesses in other countries.
- b When the Ottomans conquered other countries, the lives of those they conquered were not necessarily worse. How would the lives of the conquered people be better under Ottoman rule? What would they have been unhappy about?

2 EVIDENCE

- a What did you learn about the types of evidence that historians would need to understand the Ottoman Empire?
- b Which pieces of evidence from Unit 7 were the most valuable in enabling you to understand the Ottoman Empire's navy?
- c What other evidence would you expect might be available on the history of the Ottoman navy?

3 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

- a How did life for the sultan and his court change in the first 300 years of the Ottoman Empire? Did it change more for some members of the court than others?
- b How did life change for the subjects of the Ottoman Empire?

4 HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE AND HERITAGE

- a Why do we study the Ottoman Empire today? What is significant about the history of this part of the medieval world?
- b What is the heritage of Constantinople, today's Istanbul, and other cities that the Ottoman Empire once encompassed?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 Life in the Ottoman Empire

Brainstorm the important characteristics of life in the Ottoman Empire. Consider the lives of women, soldiers, servants, slaves and children. Think about houses, food and education. Form small groups and select one of the characteristics for further research and comparison with life in other regions. Conduct further research using the internet. Each group can then produce a script that they read to the class. It should provide a comparison of life in the Ottoman Empire with other medieval societies.

#2 A day in the life of the Ottoman court

Reread Unit 3 and conduct further research into life in the Ottoman court. Select a character—the sultan, one of his wives, his mother, one of his servants or an adviser. Write an extract from the diary of your character, covering two days. Consider their surroundings, who they see, how they are dressed, what has happened recently and what events they are looking forward to.

#3 The Ottoman Empire: the final 300 years

Using books and the internet, research the Ottoman Empire between 1877 and 1914. Produce a timeline or flow chart displaying key events during those years.

#4 What if the Ottoman Empire had never existed?

Using the internet and books, find information about:

- the Mongols
- the Safavids
- the Venetian Empire.

Use this information to help you complete the following task.

If the Ottoman Empire had not existed, what would have happened to some of the regions that they conquered? You might want to begin by selecting a region to focus on. Write a 400-word report with a comparison of life under Ottoman rule and under the rule that might have been. Which power would have been in control? What type of society did they support? How did they treat women? Did they have slaves? What was the prominent religion?

#5 Islam: the Muslim religion

Using the internet and books, research the Muslim religion. Present your information in an electronic slide presentation. Provide an explanation of the history of the religion, its core beliefs, its hierarchy and the countries in which it is prominent today. Include some suggestions about how it would have affected the decision-making of the Ottoman sultans.

#6 Biography of a notable person

Reread Unit 6 and select one of the rulers to research. Use the internet to find out more about their early lives, who their parents were and what contributions they made to the development of the Ottoman Empire. Produce an AVD of your information.

SOURCE 9.1 Interior of the Blue Mosque, Istanbul



KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How did the Khmer establish the largest and most powerful empire in South-East Asia?

How did religious beliefs such as Buddhism, Hinduism and animism shape the Khmer Empire?

How was society organised in the period of the Khmer Empire?

What brought about the end of the Khmer Empire?



The Khmer Empire ruled a large region of South-East Asia from 802 CE until the fourteenth century. The heart of this large empire was the area that is known today as Cambodia. One reason we know about this remarkable civilisation is its legacy of temples and other buildings in Cambodia. The Angkor Wat temple, located in the Khmer imperial capital, is the best known symbol of the Khmer Empire.

THE KHMER



EMPIRE

SOURCE 0.1 Angkor Wat, Cambodia

SNAPSHOT



CAMBODIA, SOUTH-EAST ASIA and the KHMER EMPIRE c. 1400 CE

LEGEND

-  Temple
-  Settlement
-  Mountains



GEOGRAPHY OF CAMBODIA

Modern-day Cambodia was the heart of the Khmer Empire. At its height, the territory of the Khmer Empire extended into Laos, as far west as Burma and into the Mekong River delta in southern Vietnam. As the empire reduced in size, it eventually formed the country we know today as Cambodia.

Cambodia is located in mainland South-East Asia and is bordered by Laos to the north, Thailand to the west and Vietnam to the east. The Mekong River, which originates in Tibet and flows through Cambodia, is an important source of fish, and water for irrigating rice crops. It is also important for maintaining the ecology of Cambodia. Cambodia has a tropical climate, with the dry season occurring from November to May and the wet season from June to October.

The Mekong River feeds into Tonle Sap, a large lake in the north-west of the country. Tonle Sap is the largest freshwater lake in South-East Asia and has an abundance of fish. It is also remarkable for the fact that between July and October, when the huge volume of rain that fills the Mekong and Bassac rivers causes the flow of water from north to south to reverse, the lake increases in size from approximately 2590 square kilometres to 25 000 square kilometres. Fields and forests surrounding the lake become flooded; the expanded volume of water in the wet season enables fish breeding and the sediment deposited by this flooding helps to enrich the soil surrounding the lake.

Approximately 90 per cent of people living in Cambodia belong to the Khmer ethnic group. There are also Vietnamese, Chinese and Cham ethnic groups. In more remote northern and eastern areas of the country, there are small numbers of hill tribe people. The population of Cambodia today is approximately 14.5 million people. The government is a multi-party democracy, with the capital located in the city of Phnom Penh. The monarchy remains important—the official name of the country is the Kingdom of Cambodia—but has little real power. Most Cambodians practise Buddhism.

Manufacturing of clothing and textiles is an important industry in Cambodia today. Tourism also provides employment and income for many thousands of people. Much of the tourism industry in Cambodia is based on the remains of the Khmer Empire near Angkor Wat.

Agriculture and the water needed to sustain agriculture are very important in modern Cambodia, as they were during the period of the Khmer Empire. Any large empire or kingdom, particularly one which expands over time, needs to have enough food and water for its people, its armies and to trade in order to obtain the goods that it needs.

- 1–550 First known kingdom in the Lower Mekong River region, Funan, rises and falls

500 CE

- 500 Evidence of trade between the Khmer and Indian peoples

- 550–700 State of Chenla replaces Funan as the dominant kingdom

600 CE

700 CE

- 770–834 Jayavarman II unifies smaller states to create one large empire. The capital is in the Angkor region of Cambodia.

800 CE

- 802 Jayavarman II enthroned as a devaraja [god-king]

- 834–1145 Khmer Empire expands and Angkor Wat is built. Buddhism becomes important

900 CE



1000 CE

- 1177–78 Cham kingdom invades much of Khmer Empire's eastern territory

1100 CE

- 1181–1219 Jayavarman VII defeats the Chams and expands the empire to furthest extent to incorporate much of present-day Laos, Thailand and Burma

1200 CE

- 1243–98 Rule of Jayavarman VIII. He renounces Buddhism and orders that Buddhist temples and images be destroyed and Hinduism become the main religion

1300 CE

- 1300s Buddhism grows in importance and again becomes the main religion of the Khmer kings

1400 CE

- 1431 Thai army attacks Angkor

- 1432 Khmers abandon Angkor. Over subsequent centuries, the jungle grows around and over Angkor and its location is forgotten

- 1440s Khmer rulers relocate the capital to Phnom Penh

1500 CE

- 1593 Siamese (Thai) king attacks and defeats Khmer king

1600 CE



1700 CE

- 1700s Vietnamese armies repeatedly attack Khmer forces in Mekong River delta and defeat the Khmer. The approximate modern borders of Cambodia are determined.

SOURCE
1.2 Timeline of the Khmer Empire



THE KHMERS

EARLY KHMERS

There is evidence of human habitation in Cambodia over thousands of years. The Khmers are one of the earliest known peoples of South-East Asia, living in middle and lower valleys of the Mekong River. They are believed to have descended from migrants moving from the high river valleys of Tibet and southern China, but this has not been proven. Evidence of hunter-gatherer people living in the western region of Cambodia dates back to approximately 11 000 BCE. There is plenty of evidence to indicate that much of the region was suitable for human habitation, with abundant water, fish, fruit, and animals such as deer, buffalo and wild boar. Dangers existed too, with tigers and large numbers of elephants in the dense jungle regions that once covered much of the country. There is evidence of human settlements, in the form of the remains of ceramic pots, around 9000 BCE in Battambang province. By 3000 BCE, large earthworks were being undertaken and rice was being cultivated. Archaeologists have discovered evidence of the use of iron to make tools dating to about 500 BCE. Whether the technology and skills to use iron were developed by the Khmer people themselves or were introduced through contact with other peoples is not known. There are no written records of this period of history.

This pre-Angkorian period is poorly known from all viewpoints: archaeological, art-historical and historical. Almost no systematic archaeological research has been undertaken on pre-Angkorian sites, the period is not ushered in by distinctive art styles, and few indigenous inscriptions inform directly on political developments during this period.

SOURCE
2.1

'From Funan to Chenla: Collapse and Regeneration in Ancient Cambodia', by Miriam T. Stark, in *After Collapse: The Regeneration of Complex Societies*, by G. M. Schwartz, and J. J. Nicholls (eds), 2006

However, there is also evidence of well-developed trade relations between the Khmer people and India from about 400 BCE. From this trade relationship, cultural practices and ideas were learnt and adopted by the Khmer. One of the best examples of the influence of Indian culture on the Khmer is the importance of the Hindu and Buddhist religions during the period of the Khmer Empire.

LEGEND OF CREATION

Funan and Chenla are the earliest known mainland South-East Asian kingdoms. These kingdoms rose and fell during the first 700 years CE. According to legend, the kingdom of Funan came into being through the romantic meeting of an Indian youth and a Khmer queen. The legend tells that one night some time in the first century CE, a young Indian man named Kaundinya was visited in his dreams by a heavenly spirit. The spirit told him to find a bow, board a ship and travel east in the direction of the land of what is now southern Vietnam. The next morning he visited the temple that he had seen in his dream, where he found a bow and quiver of arrows lying in the courtyard. He took the weapon, boarded a merchant ship and sailed east. His journey took him across the Bay of Bengal, through the Straits of Malacca, around Singapore and up to the coast of Cambodia. There he saw a queen named Willowleaf, the ruler of a tiny country. When Willowleaf saw Kaundinya, she launched her war canoe with the intention of attacking him. He saw her attack coming and shot an arrow through her boat, which impressed her enough to surrender. Willowleaf was naked and Kaundinya, feeling embarrassed, gave her a roll of cloth to wrap herself in. The legend concludes with Willowleaf falling in love with Kaundinya, followed by marriage and the establishment of their joint rule of the Kingdom of Funan. They established their capital at Oc Eo, a location which is now part of southern Vietnam. Ethnically, the people of Funan were a mixture of Khmer, Malay, Indian and various smaller ethnic groups living in mainland South-East Asia.

MERCHANT-ADVENTURERS

We know that for centuries before the common era, Indian merchant-adventurers sailed to South-East Asia, the Arabian Peninsula and the Horn of Africa, and that there were extensive trade links between many small states and countries in the region and in India. In addition to goods, these merchant-adventurers brought different ideas and beliefs to the peoples of South-East Asia, and these ideas and beliefs shaped the identity of the Khmer Empire. One reason that these Indian merchant-adventurers were able to have so much influence on the early Khmer people was that the monsoon winds blew from west to east and their ships were carried by this wind to South-East Asia. After reaching mainland South-East Asia, they would have to wait for six months for the winds to blow in the opposite direction to allow them to return to India. Thus, they had plenty of time to teach the Khmer about their religion, culture and way of life.



DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE KHMERS USED ANCIENT ROMAN COINS?

Coins and items made by the Ancient Romans have been found at the Oc Eo archaeological site in An Giang province, southern Vietnam. Oc Eo was one of the two capital cities of the Funan kingdom.

SOURCE 2.2 Stone statue of the Hindu god Vishnu found at Oc Eo, sixth or seventh century. Held at the Museum of Vietnamese History, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** There is evidence of hunter-gatherer people living in western Cambodia about 11 000 BCE.
 - a** What does 'hunter-gatherer' mean?
 - b** What would be some of the dangers of living this way?
- #2** How did merchants from the Arabian Peninsula and India spread ideas and religion?
- #3** What is some of the evidence that archaeologists have found of prehistoric human settlement in Cambodia?
- #4** Why do we not have a detailed knowledge of the origins and way of life of the Khmer people during this period? Consider Source 2.1 in your answer.

applying & analysing

- #5 a** Construct a hypothesis about how coins and other items would have made their way from the Roman Empire to Oc Eo.

- b** Discuss your hypothesis with a partner. Are your theories similar or dissimilar? Decide upon a hypothesis together.
- c** Now, share your new hypothesis with the entire class. Decide upon a class hypothesis.

analysing

- #6** The legend of the meeting of Kaundinya and Willowleaf explains the creation of the Kingdom of Funan. What elements of that story may be based in fact?
- #7** What does Source 2.2 reveal about the religion of the people of Funan?

evaluating & creating

- #8** Create an illustrated version of the legend of the creation of Funan. This could be done as a comic book, graphic novel or as one large illustration or painting.



EARLY KINGDOMS: FUNAN AND CHENLA

Ancient history often presents us with an incomplete picture of how people lived, what was important to them and to their rulers, and why some civilisations thrived while others diminished. One of the reasons for this is the lack of written and pictorial information from ancient times. Another is that, in some ancient societies, a tradition of recording information in writing did not develop. In the case of the early kingdoms of Funan and Chenla, much of what we know about these kingdoms comes from the writings of Chinese traders and diplomats who visited them.

SOURCE 3.1 Angkor Wat bas relief stone carving depicting a Khmer charioteer in battle pursuing the enemy, Siem Reap, Cambodia

FUNAN

The legend explaining the origins of Funan in the previous unit does not make mention of the way that Funan grew in size and strength from its capital, **Oc Eo**. As was common in medieval Europe, the power and growth of a state came through the use of military force or the threat of military force to obtain territory and resources. Between 100 BCE and 550 CE, Funan expanded by conquering neighbouring smaller states and making them **vassal states**. Vassal states were expected to use their resources to serve the needs of the larger state.



The earliest information we have about the expansion of Funan comes from an ambassador who was sent by the King of Wu (a state in southern China) to Funan in the middle of the third century CE (see Source 3.2).

“Once more he (the king of Funan) used troops to attack and subdue the neighbouring kingdoms, which all acknowledged themselves as his vassals. He himself adopted the title of Great King of Funan. Then he ordered the construction of great ships and crossing right over the Chang-hai, attacked more than ten kingdoms, including Chu-tu-k’un, Chiu-chieh and Tien-sun ... Then he attacked the kingdom of Chin-lin.

SOURCE 3.2 Description of how the King of Funan conquered smaller states to the north of Oc Eo and Siamese (Thai) states. From *The Golden Khersonese: Studies in the Historical Geography of the Malay Peninsula before AD 1500*, by Paul Wheatley, 1961

Q How did the king of Funan expand his kingdom?

In the early centuries CE, Funan had a large army and the largest navy in South-East Asia. Its ships carried troops across South-East Asia and helped to maintain its power.

CHENLA

During the sixth century CE, the state of Chenla rose to take the place of Funan as the dominant state in mainland South-East Asia. Chenla, a north-neighbouring territory of Funan, was the home of the Khmer people. Initially, Chenla ruled over many smaller vassal states in the same way that Funan did, but eventually, under King Isanavarman, these states lost their independence and one large kingdom was created. The Hindu religion became the dominant religion. Our main sources of information about Chenla are the writings of Chinese visitors and traders.



SOURCE 3.3 Detail of carving at the Banteay Srei temple, at Siem Reap, Cambodia, depicting a story from *The Ramayana*

“The [Khmer] men are small and black but many of the women are white. All roll up their hair and wear ear pendants. They are of a live and robust temperament ... They make their ablutions each morning, clean their teeth with little pieces of poplar wood, and do not forget to read or recite their prayers.

... [the capital city] counts more than 20 000 families ... The kingdom contains more than thirty other cities, each peopled with many thousands of houses, and each ruled by a governor.

SOURCE 3.4 An unnamed Chinese visitor’s observation of life in Chenla, as during the reign of Isanavarman, quoted in *Angkor and the Khmers*, by Malcolm MacDonald, 1987

Q What qualities does the author of this source observe in the Khmer people?

Every three days the King goes solemnly to the audience hall and sits on a bed made of five pieces of sandalwood and ornamented with seven kinds of precious stones. Above this bed is a pavilion of magnificent cloth, whose columns are of inlaid wood. The walls are ivory, mixed with flowers of gold. The ensemble of this bed and the pavilion form a sort of little palace ...

The King wears a girdle of ki-pei cotton, dawn-red, which falls to his knees. He covers his head with a bonnet laden with gold and precious stones, with pendants of pearls. On his feet are sandals of leather and sometimes of ivory; in his ears pendants of gold ... Those who appear before the King touch the earth three times with the forehead, at the foot of the steps to the throne. If the King calls them and orders them to show their degrees, then they kneel, holding their hands on their shoulders ... More than a thousand guards dressed with cuirasses and armed with lances are ranged at the foot of the steps to the throne, in the halls of the palace, at the doors of the peristyle ...

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE KHMER EMPIRE WAS ATTACKED BY PIRATES?

During the eighth century CE, Chenla came under buccaneer attacks from the forces of the Saliendra (‘Kings of the Mountain’), or ancient kings of Java, Indonesia.

Clearly, the power of the Chenla kings was considerable and the society which they ruled was well organised and concentrated in cities. This is a common feature of kingdoms and empires. Power is often in the hands of one ruler and each ruler relies on a large population of people living in communities to maintain their power and serve their needs.

SOURCE 3.5 An unnamed Chinese visitor’s observations of King Isanavarman, quoted in *Angkor and the Khmers*, by Malcolm MacDonald, 1987

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** Draw up a ‘Khmer Empire’ glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.
- Chenla
 - Funan
 - independence
 - Oc Eo
 - Saliendra
 - sandalwood
 - vassal state
- #2** How did the kingdoms of Funan and Chenla expand their territory?
- #3** Where was the capital of Chenla located?

understanding & analysing

- #4** Why is it sometimes difficult to have a detailed picture of life in ancient societies?
- #5** Reread Source 3.5 and write a paragraph summarising the symbols of power and wealth of the king. What did people have to do when they met the king?

- #6** Reread Source 3.4. What evidence is there that the people of Chenla were religious?

evaluating & creating

- #7** What were the sources of wealth and power of the kings of Chenla and Funan?
- #8** Examine Source 3.1. What examples of military weapons and armour can you see in this picture? How would these assist Funan to expand its power?
- #9** Imagine you are the king of a state close to Funan. Your spies inform you that the king of Funan intends to use his navy and army to attack your state. You army is weak and you do not have any naval ships to fight his. Write a letter to the king of Funan requesting him to not attack your state and offering him support and resources.
- #10** Reread Source 3.5 carefully and then on a piece of poster paper draw the scene that is being described. You may wish to work with a partner to complete this activity.

THE RISE AND DECLINE OF ANGKOR

UNIT
4

GOD-KINGS

During the two centuries of the Chenla kingdom, the kings of Chenla began the practice of building their own personal temples. They were influenced by the Hindu practice, common in India, of local rulers building such temples. Each temple was designed to house the king's **linga**, a symbol made from stone to show the authority and power of the king.

When King Jayavarman II came to power in 802 CE, he further strengthened the power of the Khmer **monarchy**. He had himself declared a **devaraja**, or god-king, in a ceremony performed by Hindu high priests. This meant that his authority to rule came from a divine source and that he himself was a god living on the Earth. Chenla was renamed **Kambuja** (the origin of the modern name of Cambodia).

SOURCE
4.1

The stone linga of a Khmer king, tenth century, from Siem Reap, Cambodia. Held at the National Museum of Asian Art, Guimet. The linga has a square base, an octagonal middle and a round tip.

Q

Why do you think that the Khmer kings chose to use such a symbol to demonstrate their powers?

THE SEAT OF POWER

Jayavarman II is recognised as the founder of the Khmer Empire. During his rule, he established a new capital at Mount Kulen in north-west Cambodia. Mount Kulen was regarded as sacred and Jayavarman II ordered the construction of a three-tiered temple on the mountain. Jayavarman II appointed a **high priest** and ordered that only the descendants of the family of his high priest were able to become high priests in the future. While we do not have reliable written records of the actions that Jayavarman II took to expand the Khmer Empire, we do know that, by the time of his death, the empire had expanded considerably. As Jayavarman II's power grew, he felt increasingly secure and moved his capital city from Mount Kulen to Hariharalaya, near the great inland lake, Tonle Sap. Here he constructed his last royal palace and died in 850.

The group of temples and palaces he built were all located in one area of north-west Cambodia, close to the Tonle Sap. Today, this is the area where the remains of hundreds of temples, palaces, libraries and monuments are found. However, none of those built during the reign of Jayavarman II survive.

Jayavarman II's son, Jayavarman III, succeeded him as king. We know little about him except that he enjoyed hunting elephants and it is believed that he died while doing so. More importantly, we know that he began construction of an irrigation network, designed to help improve rice production. As the empire expanded, the demand for food increased and so it was necessary for the Khmer kings to ensure that food production was also increased.

Jayavarman III was succeeded by his cousin, Indravarman, in 877, who further expanded the system of artificial lakes and irrigation canals before his death in 889.

King Yasovarman I succeeded Indravarman. Yasovarman I moved the imperial capital again and created a new city named after himself,

Yasodharapura, over an area of sixteen square kilometres close to the previous former capitals and temples. Like those before him, he had a temple built in his honour to house his linga.

Yasovarman I is considered to have been a capable ruler and to have strengthened his empire. However, modesty was not one of his virtues. He encouraged his subjects to worship and praise him.

[King Yasovarman I is a] ... unique bundle of splendours, whose power was mortal to his enemies ... in all the sciences and all the sports, in the arts, the languages and the writings, in dancing, singing and all the rest, he was as clever as if he had been the first inventor of them ... in seeing him the Creator was astonished, and seemed to say to himself, 'Why did I create a rival for myself in this king?'

SOURCE 4.2 From *Angkor and the Khmers*, by Malcolm MacDonald, 1987

After his death in 900, five different kings ruled the empire over the next fifty years but only the first two were descendants of Yasovarman I. The position of devaraja became one that men from different branches of the royal family and even from different countries began to compete and fight for. King Jayavarman V came to the throne in 968 and ruled for the next sixty years. During his reign, there were many cultural and educational developments and, for first time, women began to hold important positions in religious and social life. He commenced construction of the Angkor Wat temple, one of the great wonders of the ancient world, in 961.

THAT 'VARMAN' MEANS 'PROTECTOR'

The suffix 'varman' that appears at the end of many of the names of the Khmer kings comes from the Hindi language and means 'protector'.

DID YOU KNOW



SOURCE 4.3 The Angkor Wat temple as seen from the air

DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE

King Jayavarman VII (1181–1219) expanded the Khmer Empire to its greatest limits. He went to war with the Cham, a Muslim state in what is now central Vietnam, at an early stage in his rule and reduced their territory. At about the same time, a series of wars with the Thais began as they sought to take control of Khmer territory in the west.

HOW MUCH DOES AN EMPIRE COST?

The expansion of the empire under King Jayavarman VII was very costly. While his armies could defeat the Cham, Thai and Vietnamese, the cost of keeping such armies was great. Soldiers had to be armed, fed, housed and transported, and their families also had to be looked after. Such costs are normally paid for through taxation but historians have found no record of a taxation system during the Khmer Empire.

By the time of King Jayavarman VII's rule, vassal states that were once required to give their resources to the king no longer existed. In addition to the cost of maintaining such a large military force, Jayavarman VII and his successors lived in a very lavish manner and had an enormous number of bodyguards, servants, concubines, wives and children to support. They also used many of the resources that they could have traded, such as stone, timber, marble, gold, gem stones, cloth, food and even slaves, for the construction of grand temples and palaces. By 1200, these costs were too much for the people and the empire to bear, but the Khmer rulers continued to use all of their resources without considering how they could be renewed, traded or built upon. The result was that the empire went broke and its power began to decline.

THE COST OF WAR

After the death of King Jayavarman VII in 1219, the Cham kingdom in the east and the Thais in the west launched a series of wars against the Khmer. Both succeeded in pushing the boundaries of the Khmer Empire back and these wars placed a further burden on the resources of the empire. Over the next two centuries, the Khmer Empire continued to lose territory to the Cham and the Thais. Buddhism grew in popularity during this period and because Buddhism did not recognise that any ruler had a 'divine right' to rule, it is likely that the authority of the Khmer god-kings would have been questioned.



SOURCE 4.4 The extent of the Khmer Empire in mainland South-East Asia at its height, twelfth century CE. The borders between different states were not as clearly defined as they are today, which is one reason why conflicts between states occurred.

In about 1431, the last Khmer king to use Angkor as the capital abandoned it. In the 1440s, the capital was moved to Phnom Penh. The empire was able to defend itself until 1594, when the Thais defeated the Khmer and Cambodia became a vassal state of the Thais. After the abandonment of Angkor, the Thais looted the temples and took many items, including Buddha images, gold, jewels and slaves back to the Thai capital at Ayuthaya.

OTHER THEORIES FOR THE DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE

As well as the excesses of the last Khmer kings, historians have suggested that two other factors led to the decline of the Khmer Empire.

- The water management system, which comprised reservoirs and canals and was used for trade, travel, communication and irrigation, broke down. Most importantly, this water management system had sustained the Khmer Empire's ability to produce three rice harvests a year for its large population. This failure of the system led to floods and droughts, which meant that three rice harvests a year were no longer possible. There are two theories about the reasons for this breakdown:

- neglect by the Khmer kings as they pursued their wars
- environmental problems that arose when the Khmer people began cutting down trees from the Kulen hills to create more rice fields to feed the growing population. The deforestation caused soil erosion and water run-off, which deposited sediment in the canal network, causing silt to build up.
- The Black Death spread from China along the trade routes in the South-East Asian region. Just as in medieval Europe at the time, it caused many deaths in South-East Asia during the fourteenth century.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1 List and explain the following terms in your 'Khmer Empire' glossary:
 - devaraja
 - high priest
 - Kambuja
 - linga
 - monarchy.
- #2 What new name did King Jayavarman II give to Chenla?
- #3 Where did King Jayavarman II establish his first capital city?
- #4 What were some of the resources that the Khmer kings possessed?
- #5 What were the costs associated with maintaining the Khmer military?

analysing & evaluating

- #6 Examine Source 4.3. What features of Angkor Wat can you see here which suggest it was built as a religious building?
- #7 Consider Source 4.2. Do you believe that all of his subjects would have believed this praise of Yasovarman I? Why? Or why not?
- #8 a King Jayavarman II's first capital was situated on a mountain. What would have been the advantages and disadvantages of such a location?

- b He then relocated his capital to Hariharalaya. What would have been the advantages and disadvantages of this site?
- c Create a Venn diagram to compare and contrast the two sites. Use your answers to *a* and *b* above to help you.

- #9 Consider Source 4.4. Name the different states with which the Khmer shared boundaries. Why would having so many states sharing boundaries have made it difficult for the Khmer kings to maintain their empire?
- #10 Why would the lack of a taxation system weaken the Khmer Empire?
- #11 List the reasons why the Khmer Empire fell. Classify these into internal and external reasons. Select one external and one internal reason and write a paragraph on each, explaining why these contributed to the collapse of the empire.

evaluating & creating

- #12 Reread this unit carefully and complete the following tasks.
 - a Create a family tree for the Khmer kings discussed in this unit. Next to each name, write at least one significant fact about the king.
 - b In a short paragraph, explain why your family tree cannot be fully completed.
 - c Decorate your family tree with either appropriate hand-drawn images or images you have sourced from the internet.

RELIGION IN THE KHMER EMPIRE



The devaraja believed themselves to be god-kings. They also wanted their subjects and enemies to believe this. By claiming this title, they were able to maintain their authority and could explain their success and power as a result of their divine powers. You have seen how the identities of the kingdoms of Funan and Chenla and the Khmer Empire were shaped by spiritual beliefs and religion. What were those religions and why were they important?

HINDUISM

The most important religion during most of the ancient Khmer period was **Hinduism**. As long ago as 3000 years, Indian gurus, or holy men, wrote and taught about the many gods of Hindu belief. The most important god is the Creator, known as Brahma, who has two incarnations: **Shiva**, the destroyer, and **Vishnu**, the preserver.

Hindus believe in **karma**; that is, that the actions of a person in their present life will affect who or what they become in their next life or **reincarnation**. Basically, a person who performs good deeds and lives a good life following the Hindu teachings will have a better rebirth and a better life in their next reincarnation. Hindu society also has a class system, in which people are classified according to the family they are born into. For those born into a 'royal' family, their position as rulers is seen to be unquestioned. This class system helped to maintain the authority of the Khmer rulers, even when they experienced military defeat, or disasters affected the people they ruled.

ANIMISM

Animism, which was common in Cambodia in ancient times, is different from many other religions because it has no gods or deities. Animism involves the worship of the spirits of departed relatives, the landscape, and plants and animals that are important for food, and a belief in what is revealed in dreams, trances and prophecies. Holy men, known as shamans, are believed to be able to heal the sick, improve crop production and communicate with the dead.

BUDDHISM

Throughout much of the ancient Khmer period, Buddhism was not tolerated by the devaraja. Buddhism came to the Khmer Empire from India and is named after its founder, Buddha. Buddha was the son of a northern Indian king in the sixth century, and as a young man lived a life of ease and luxury. His name at this time was Siddhartha Gautama. At the age of 30 he abandoned his family and his wealth to become a wandering hermit. After many years, Siddhartha Gautama achieved enlightenment, or a state at which he was able to fully understand the true nature of existence, and thus became the Buddha. At the heart of Buddha's philosophy, which all Buddhists try to adhere to, are four 'noble truths': that suffering is inevitable; ignorance is the basic cause of suffering; any ailment, when understood, can be cured; and there is an eightfold path to the elimination of suffering (holding and practising right views, aspirations, speech, conduct, livelihood effort, mindfulness and meditation).

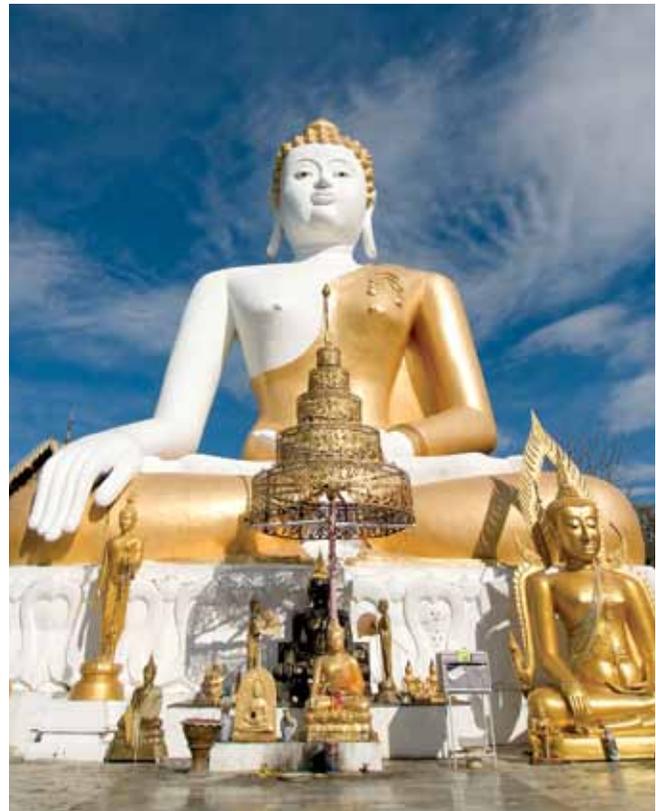


SOURCE 5.1 Hindu god Shiva, shown here with three faces, c. 1735. Hindu gods are depicted in many different ways.

Like Hinduism, Buddhism spread from India to other countries in Asia. By the third century BCE, Buddhism was being practised in Sri Lanka and Burma, and 1200 years later it became the main religion of Cambodia, Laos, Thailand, Tibet and Vietnam.

There are three main types of Buddhism. **Theravada**, or 'lesser vehicle' **Buddhism**, which is practised today in Cambodia, Thailand and Sri Lanka, emphasises that it is very important to closely follow the teachings of Buddhism. **Mahayana**, or 'greater vehicle' **Buddhism**, which is practised today in China, Vietnam and Korea, gives Buddhism a less important role in the way society is organised. **Zen Buddhism**, which is practised mostly in Japan, uses the teachings of Buddha to explain the world.

In the later period of the Khmer Empire, some kings did not see Buddhism as a threat to their rule, so it was tolerated and practised by many. However, its basic beliefs were very different from the traditional and dominant Hindu beliefs. In Buddhism, there is no concept of a god ruling over people, while Hinduism is based entirely on a system of gods who control and shape the destinies of the people, including their rulers.



SOURCE 5.2 A large Buddha at a Buddhist Temple in Chiang Mai, Thailand

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Khmer Empire' glossary:
- animism
 - Hinduism
 - karma
 - Mahayana Buddhism
 - reincarnation
 - Shiva
 - Theravada Buddhism
 - Vishnu
 - Zen Buddhism
- #2** How did Hinduism help to enforce the rule of the Khmer kings?

understanding & analysing

- #3** Why was Buddhism sometimes seen as a threat to the authority of the king?

- #4** Examine Source 5.1. How does this image show the different aspects of the Hindu god Shiva?
- #5** Examine Source 5.2. Buddhism teaches that it is important to find balance in life and that meditation is one way to help to achieve this. How does this image demonstrate these beliefs?

analysing & evaluating

- #6** Use a graphic organiser of your choice to compare and contrast Hinduism, Buddhism and animism. Write a short paragraph summarising your conclusions.

creating

- #7** Conduct some further research on either Hinduism or Buddhism and create an AVD to explore and explain your chosen topic.

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 6

THE TEMPLES OF THE KHMER

Every year, millions of visitors come to Cambodia to visit the archaeological sites and ruins of the Khmer Empire. They are drawn by the beauty and mystery of these temples and palaces.

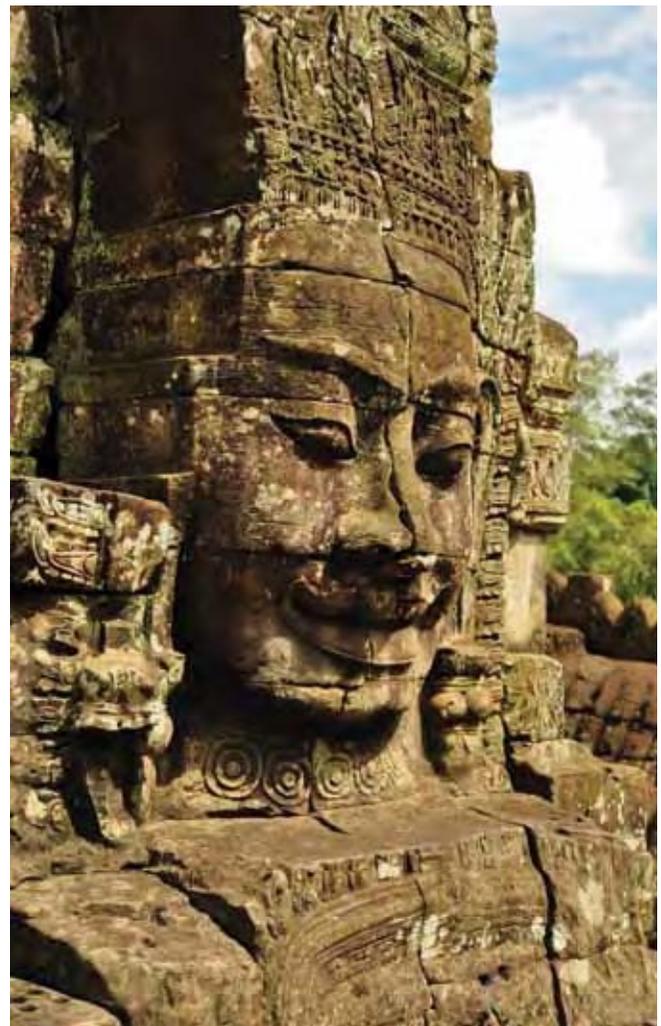
Angkor Wat is the most well known of these. It is also the largest religious building in the world. Construction of Angkor Wat commenced in 961 CE and was completed around 1113. It was dedicated to the Hindu god, Vishnu. Much of the work for its construction was done during the rule of king Suryavarman. He developed the capital of Angkor (literally meaning 'capital') and was responsible for the most important of its major buildings and public works. In this unit you will examine three of the largest and most important of the hundreds of temples and buildings in and around Angkor.

THE BAYON

The Bayon was the last of the great Khmer Empire temples to be constructed. It was built during the reign of King Jayavarman VII (1189–1219). It is dominated by five towers, with each side of each tower being carved with the serene face of King Jayavarman.



SOURCE 6.1 Bayon, outer wall: a kitchen scene



SOURCE 6.2 One of the towers of the Bayon, Angkor

BANTEAY SREI

Banteay Srei ('Mansion of Women') was built not by a king but by a Brahmin (high priest) who was related to the royal family. It gets its name from the many images of apsara carved into its walls. Originally from Hindu belief, apsara were beautiful, supernatural women who had the power to bless people with good fortune on Earth and who served the king.

In a saintly manner, he each day practised, with the same regularity with which he took his meals, the offering of a garland of eight flowers, the oblations over fire and the disciplines of yoga.

Each month, in the four phases of the moon, he generously donated to the Hindus gold, garments and cows.

King Jayavarman, who lived with him, constantly honoured this sage with parasols of peacock feathers, gold litters and other marks of esteem.

He was the first in the knowledge of the doctrines of Patanjali, Kanada, Aksapada, Kapila, Buddha, in those of medicine, music and astronomy.

In his fatherland he ordered writers to compose brief tales, he who knew various languages and writings and himself wrote dramas.

With medicines, wealth, and science, he wiped out people's suffering: illness, injustice, poverty and error.

The poor, the disinherited, the blind, the weak, children, the aged, the ill, and other unfortunate people desirous of crossing the ocean of suffering filled his dwelling every day.

SOURCE 6.3 An inscription at Banteay Srei, describing the Brahmin who built it



SOURCE Banteay Srei, Angkor

6.4

ANGKOR WAT

In the province still bearing the name of Ongcor [Angkor Wat] ... there are ... ruins of such grandeur, remains of structures which must have been raised at such an immense cost of labour, that, at the first view, one is filled with profound admiration, and cannot but ask what has become of this powerful race, so civilised, so enlightened, the authors of these gigantic works? One of these temples—a rival to that of Solomon, and erected by some ancient Michael Angelo—might take an honourable place beside our most beautiful buildings. It is grander than anything left to us by Greece or Rome ...

SOURCE 6.5 Description of Angkor Wat by Henri Mouhot, a French naturalist who was one of the first Europeans to discover the ruins of Angkor Wat long after it had been abandoned by the Khmer. From *Travels in Siam, Cambodia and Laos 1858–1860*, by Henri Mouhot, 1864

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING & ANALYSING

- 1 Why do you think the Brahmin built Banteay Srei?
- 2 Examine Source 6.1.
 - a What items can you see in this scene that show it is a kitchen?
 - b What foods do you think people commonly ate?
- 3 Examine Source 6.2. Does the face of the king appear to be stern and serious or serene and calm?
- 4 Reread Source 6.3.
 - a What items did the Brahmin donate to the Hindu gods?
 - b What does the Brahmin do to help people?
 - c Why do you think he does these two things?
- 5 Examine Source 6.4. What do you think was the purpose of the carved stone figures at the entrance of this building?

SOURCE
6.6

A bas relief, which is a carved section of inner wall, of Angkor Wat. This section depicts King Suryavarman being shielded by fifteen parasols, or umbrellas, to protect him from the sun.



ANALYSING & EVALUATING

- 6 Examine Source 6.1. Why do you think it was important for the Khmer to show a kitchen scene?
- 7 If the description of the skills of the Brahmin in Source 6.3 is accurate, how do you think he could acquire such skills and experience in a country where there were no schools or universities?
- 8 Reread Source 6.5.
 - a How did Henry Mouhot feel when he encountered the ruins of Angkor Wat?
 - b Why do you think Henri Mouhot compared Angkor Wat to the work of Michelangelo, and the buildings of Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome?
- 9 Examine Source 6.6.
 - a What do you think the king is doing in this scene?
 - b What evidence can you see of the king being protected?
 - c What evidence can you see of the power and importance of the king?
- 10
 - a Why do you think the Khmer kings and other powerful people build such large and beautiful temples and monuments?
 - b From the evidence here, do you think they wanted to make people fear their power? Why or why not?

EVALUATING & CREATING

- 11 Imagine that your job is to carve a bas relief like the ones in Sources 6.1 and 6.6. Decide on a scene that you will depict and write a list of what people, things and features you will include in this scene. You might want to use Source 6.3 or other information from this chapter. Draw a sketch of it when you have completed this list.
- 12 In Source 6.5, Henry Mouhot compared Angkor Wat to the work of Michelangelo, and the buildings of Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome. Conduct some further research on the temples of Angkor Wat, the work of Michelangelo and the buildings of ancient Greece and Rome. Create either an electronic slide presentation or an AVD in which you compare and contrast Angkor Wat and at least one of the three other great works mentioned.



FOOD SUPPLY

Many ancient empires relied on the establishment of secure food supplies to ensure that they remained strong. In ancient Rome, imperial soldiers were paid not in money but in salt, which was used to preserve meat—and meat was very important to many people as a source of food.

Rice production was very important in the expansion and maintenance of the Khmer Empire. The Khmer people created what was known as a **hydraulic society** to control the supply of rainwater for their rice crops. They constructed dams, reservoirs and irrigation canals around the Tonle Sap to collect water during the wet season, when there was plenty of rain. During the wet season, rice could grow abundantly in the water collected.

In the dry season, the shortage of water made it much more difficult to grow large quantities of rice, but by releasing the stored water into rice fields, the Khmer were able to increase rice production and support a growing population.

SOURCE 7.1 Water storage at the entrance to the temple at Angkor Wat



- 1 How do we store water today for use in our homes and in farming?
- 2 Are our methods today similar to or different from the method used by the Khmer people to store water?



DAILY LIFE

HEALTH

We know that the Khmer people and their rulers developed ways of treating illness. There are, however, few sources of information about how they did this. One that does survive is the diary of a Chinese diplomat, Chou Ta-Kuan, written over one year from 1296 to 1297, which explains how the Khmer people treated some illnesses.

The people of Cambodia often cure themselves of many illnesses by plunging into water and washing the head again and again. Nevertheless, the traveller meets many lepers along the way. Even when these unfortunates sleep and eat among their fellow-countrymen, no protest is made. By some it is said that leprosy is the outcome of climatic conditions. Even one of the sovereigns [kings] fell victim to the disease, and so the people do not look on it as a disgrace ... As in our country, drugs can be bought in the market; of these, with their strange names, I have no knowledge. There are also sorcerers who practise their arts on the Cambodians.

How utterly absurd!

SOURCE 7.2 Chou Ta-Kuan's description of some of the health problems people faced and how they treated them. From *The Customs of Cambodia*, by Chou Ta-Kuan, written between 1297 and 1312 and published by the Siam Society in 1993

Q What did Cambodian people do to cure themselves of illnesses?

From other sources, we learn that some Khmer kings developed systems of health care for their people. King Jayavarman VII (ruled 1181–1219), for example, built over 100 hospitals and 101 rest-houses at 16-kilometre intervals along Cambodia's main roads. He also built more than 20 000 temples and religious shrines.

Filled with a deep sympathy for the good of the world, the king swore this oath: All the beings who are plunged in the ocean of existence, may I draw them out by virtue of this good work. And may the kings of Cambodia who come after me, attached to goodness ... attain with their wives, dignitaries and friends the place of deliverance where there is no more illness.

SOURCE 7.3 An inscription on a wall of a hospital built by Jayavarman VII, explaining why he built it. From *A History of Cambodia*, by D. P. Chandler, 1992

Q According to this source, why did the king build this hospital?

SLAVES

Today we consider slavery as inhuman and a serious abuse of human rights. In many societies in the past, slavery was considered normal or even necessary. Men, women and children taken from Africa were forced to work as slaves in eighteenth- and nineteenth-century America, and the road network of the Roman Empire and the temples of the Aztecs were also built by slaves. Similarly, more than 20 000 people were forced to work on the construction of Angkor Wat.

Wild men from the hills can be bought to serve as slaves. Families of wealth may own more than one hundred; those of lesser means content themselves with ten or twenty; only the very poor have none. These savages are captured in the wild mountainous regions, and are of a wholly separate race called Chuang ... After being brought to town, they dare not venture out of their owners' houses ... If young and strong, slaves may be worth a hundred pieces of cloth; when old and feeble, they can be had for thirty or forty pieces. They are permitted to lie down or be seated only beneath the floor of the house. To perform their tasks they may go upstairs, but only after they have knelt, bowed to the ground, and joined their hands in reverence.

SOURCE 7.4 From *The Customs of Cambodia*, by Chou Ta-Kuan, written between 1297 and 1312 and published by the Siam Society in 1993

During the early period of the empire, slaves were taken from vassal states. As the vassal states disappeared and were absorbed into Cambodia, the supply of slaves stopped. Towards the end of the Angkor period, slaves could only be obtained in the way described in Source 7.4 In addition to slaves, there were an estimated 5000 girls who lived in the palace as servants of the king.



SOURCE 7.5 A carved Khmer apsara

FESTIVALS

The Khmer participated in many festivals and games. Every four months a festival would be held and in the final month of the year, people would play competitive ball games. At these festivals, high-ranking men and women would arrive on the backs of elephants or in horse-drawn chariots. They witnessed fireworks displays, dancing, wild-boar fights and royal reviews. There were many pavilions decorated with lanterns and flowers throughout the capital. Every year in September, a census would be held. The entire population of the kingdom had to come to the capital to be reviewed before the royal palace and counted.

THE KING

You have learnt from many sources in this chapter that the Khmer kings were powerful and that they lived lives in which they paid much attention to religious practices and to their own comfort and security. Chou Ta-Kuan also recorded in his diary how the king appeared to the people and the enormous wealth that the king possessed (see Source 7.6).

When the king leaves his palace, the procession is headed by the soldiery; then come the flags, the banners, the music. Girls of the palace, three or five hundred in number, gaily dressed, with flowers in their hair and tapers in their hands, are massed together in a separate column ... Then came other girls carrying gold and silver vessels from the palace and a whole galaxy of ornaments, of very special design, the uses of which were strange to me. Then came ... the bodyguard of the palace ... Following them came chariots drawn by goats and horses, all adorned with gold, ministers and princes, mounted on elephants, were preceded by bearers of scarlet parasols, without number. Close behind came the royal wives and concubines [unofficial wives], in palanquins and chariots, or mounted on horses or elephants, to whom were assigned at least a hundred parasols mottled with gold. Finally the Sovereign appeared, standing erect on an

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE WALLS OF ANGKOR WAT ARE COVERED

WITH CARVINGS OF GRACEFUL WOMEN DANCERS?

Inside Angkor Wat, on the walls there is a gallery of over 1700 carved bas-relief statues of apsara, or dancers. Historians are not certain about their true purpose. Were they images of the kings' wives immortalised in stone or merely beautiful decoration?

elephant and holding in his hand the sacred sword. This elephant, his tusks sheathed in gold, was accompanied by bearers of twenty white parasols with golden shafts. All around was a bodyguard of elephants, drawn close together, and still more soldiers for complete protection, marching in close order.

SOURCE 7.6 From *The Customs of Cambodia*, by Chou Ta-Kuan, written between 1297 and 1312 and published by the Siam Society in 1993

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE KHMER DID NOT USE HUMAN FAECES TO FERTILISE THEIR CROPS?

Chou Ta-Kuan was surprised that the Khmer did not use human faeces to fertilise their crops. This was a common practice in China at the time.



SOURCE 7.7 The view from the rear courtyard of Angkor Wat to the main tower, where the king slept every night with the queen. His other four main wives slept in the four outer towers of Angkor Wat.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Khmer Empire' glossary:
 - apsara
 - census
 - Chuang
 - hydraulic society.
- #2** Why was storage of rainwater important? In what way did it support the Khmer economy and society?
- #3** Reread Source 7.3. What does the king wish for?
- #4** Reread Source 7.4. Do you think the slaves lived in fear? What evidence can you find in this source to determine this?

understanding & analysing

- #5 a** Why did many empires and kingdoms use slaves to serve their people and build large monuments?
- b** Why is slavery rarely practised today?
- #6** Examine Source 7.5. Look at the expression on the face of the apsara. What emotion can you see? Why do you think apsara were depicted in this way?
- #7** How did the king show his power and wealth?
- #8** Examine Source 7.7. Why do you think that the king slept in the highest tower of Angkor Wat?

evaluating & creating

- #9** As a class, use the evidence in this unit and in this chapter to debate the following:
The Khmer kings were cruel and ruthless rulers.
- #10** Examine Source 7.6. Draw and colour a picture of the scene described.

MYSTERY AND DISCOVERY

What we call the Angkor or Khmer Empire lasted some 600 years, from the ninth to the fifteenth century. After Angkor was abandoned, the actual location of the temples in and around Angkor was forgotten and the jungle grew rapidly around and over many of the buildings which the Khmer had built. For nearly 400 years after the end of the empire, its many treasures were unknown to the rest of the world. Essentially, most traces of the Angkor empire disappeared into the dark jungle. In 1858, Henri Mohout, the French naturalist whose observations you read in Unit 6, was walking in the jungle in the area near Angkor when he saw the towers of Angkor Wat. At that time, Cambodia was a colony of France. As news, sketches and, later, photographs of Angkor Wat and other temples reached France, millions of people became fascinated by the ‘discovery’ of this lost empire.

... there are ruins everywhere inside the old city. Everything I saw at Angkor proves to me unequivocally that Cambodia was once rich, civilised and much more heavily populated than it now is; but all these riches have disappeared and the civilisation has died out. Within the walls of the old capital a dense forest now grows and giant trees have taken root amidst the ruined palaces. There are few things that can stir such melancholy feelings as the sight of places that were once the scene of some glorious or pleasurable event, but which are now deserted ...

SOURCE 8.1 Observations of a French missionary priest, Charles-Emile Bouillevaux, who visited the ruins of Angkor Wat in 1858. From *Angkor: Heart of an Asian Empire*, by B. Dagens, 1995. Angkor Wat is now within a large park managed by the government. Many nations, including France, India, Japan, China and Germany, are working with Cambodian partners to restore and conserve the temples and palaces built within the park.

CONFLICT

Prasat Preah Vihear (‘Sacred Shrine Temple’) is a Hindu temple built during the Khmer Empire, close to the border between Thailand and Cambodia. It is situated high on top of a cliff in the Dangrek Mountains and the view from the temple is impressive. It was built during the reigns of King Suryavarman I and King Suryavarman II. The temple is at the heart of a dispute between Thailand and Cambodia today that has sometimes resulted in military conflict.

In 1904, the Thai and French colonial officials drew a map of the border between Cambodia that placed the temple on the Cambodian side of the border. However, in 1954, when the French withdrew from Cambodia, Thai soldiers occupied the temple and a bitter dispute occurred between the two countries. In 1962, the International Court of Justice decided that the temple belonged to Cambodia. This has since been disputed by Thailand and in 2008, 2009 and in 2011 fighting occurred between soldiers of both countries and some soldiers were killed. The dispute continues today.



SOURCE 8.2 Cambodian anti-riot police stand guard at the Prasat Preah Vihear temple near the Thai border, 2008.



SOURCE
8.3 Cambodian Royal Ballet in religious ritual dance in temple of Angkor Wat, 1949. The dancers are wearing richly embroidered and ornamented costumes.

THE ROYAL BALLET

One of the forms of entertainment and story-telling that was popular with the Khmer kings and in the royal court was the royal ballet. The dancers in the ballet were women who dressed and danced to resemble the apsara. Their dances often lasted many hours and played out the stories of Hindu legends or happy and sometimes unhappy love stories. The performance of the Hindu poem of creation, the Ramayana, took place over several days. The performances at night were lit by thousands of candles and moonlight. When the Thais invaded in the fifteenth century, they kidnapped the dancers and musicians and took them to the Thai capital, Ayutthaya. The Thais adapted the Cambodian ballet and still practise this style of dance today. After the end of Khmer Rouge rule in Cambodia in 1979, the National Dance Company of Cambodia was slowly rebuilt, as many of its dancers and musicians had been killed by the Khmer Rouge. Today it performs in Cambodia and around the world, mixing classical dance from the Khmer Empire period with modern dance.

TIME TO THINK ...

1 THE LEGACY OF THE KHMER EMPIRE

- a** The modern Cambodian flag is the only flag in the world to have a ruined building as its centrepiece. Every version of the flag created by different governments since 1954 has had Angkor Wat at its centre. What does this tell us about how important the period of the Khmer Empire is to modern-day Cambodians?
- b** What aspects of the Khmer Empire show us that the Khmer rulers, high priests and important people had strong spiritual beliefs? What aspects of the empire show us that the rulers cared for their people? What aspects show us that there were those in Khmer society who were not considered to have any form of equality with the Khmer?

2 RESEARCHING ANCIENT CAMBODIA

- Historians and archaeologists have been able to piece together information about the rise and fall of the Khmer Empire from many sources. Review this chapter to identify some of these types of sources, considering the following information about historical evidence.
- Written sources do not only include books, documents, letters and diaries.
 - Information recorded by visitors or observers can often be useful in telling us about how people lived.
 - Objects, the condition they are in and where they are found can often tell us much about the people who made them.
 - Artwork and architecture contain meaning and symbolism which tell us about the civilisations that created them.

3 HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE

- a** Why do we study the Khmer Empire today?
- b** How does the study of the Khmer Empire help us to have a better understanding of humanity?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 Angkor Wat: 3D

Using books and/or the internet, find information, photographs and plans of the Angkor Wat temple complex drawn from above. Use these materials to design and build a model of Angkor Wat. Try to include in your model the moat surrounding Angkor Wat, the five towers, the long entrance road (also known as the Imperial Way) and a little of the surrounding forest. Materials you could use include modelling clay or modelling plaster, papier-mâché and egg cartons.

#2 Recent conflict: presentation

The dispute between Thailand and Cambodia over the Prasat Preah Vihear temple has been running for many years and has been very difficult to resolve. Using news sources, the internet, any official documents and statements from both governments and books, research this dispute between Thailand and Cambodia. Create an electronic slide presentation that provides the history of the dispute, a timeline and a summary of the military conflict involved, and concludes with recommendations about how the dispute might be resolved.

#3 Resurrection of a king

Identify and select one of the Khmer kings from this chapter. Do some additional research on his life and achievements using books and/or the internet. Imagine that you are able to bring him back to life in the twenty-first century.

- Construct ten to twenty questions to ask him.
- Write the answers that you think he might give to your questions.
- Construct ten to twenty questions which he might ask about the history of Cambodia since his death.

#4 Lost kingdoms, new discoveries

- a Using books and the internet, look for more information about the temples and buildings of the Khmer Empire.
 - i How long did they remain undiscovered?
 - ii What were the factors in Cambodia and in the rest of the world that kept them hidden for so long?
- b Research other civilisations and kingdoms that remained unknown to most of the world for long periods of time. What do these have in common with the Khmer Empire?
- c Archaeologists use a range of methods to learn about ancient civilisations and kingdoms, including archaeological digs, satellite images and techniques to determine the age of objects. Imagine that you are an archaeologist with a mission to explore Angkorian ruins. Write a one-page proposal to a museum to explain your mission and request technical and human resource support for your mission.

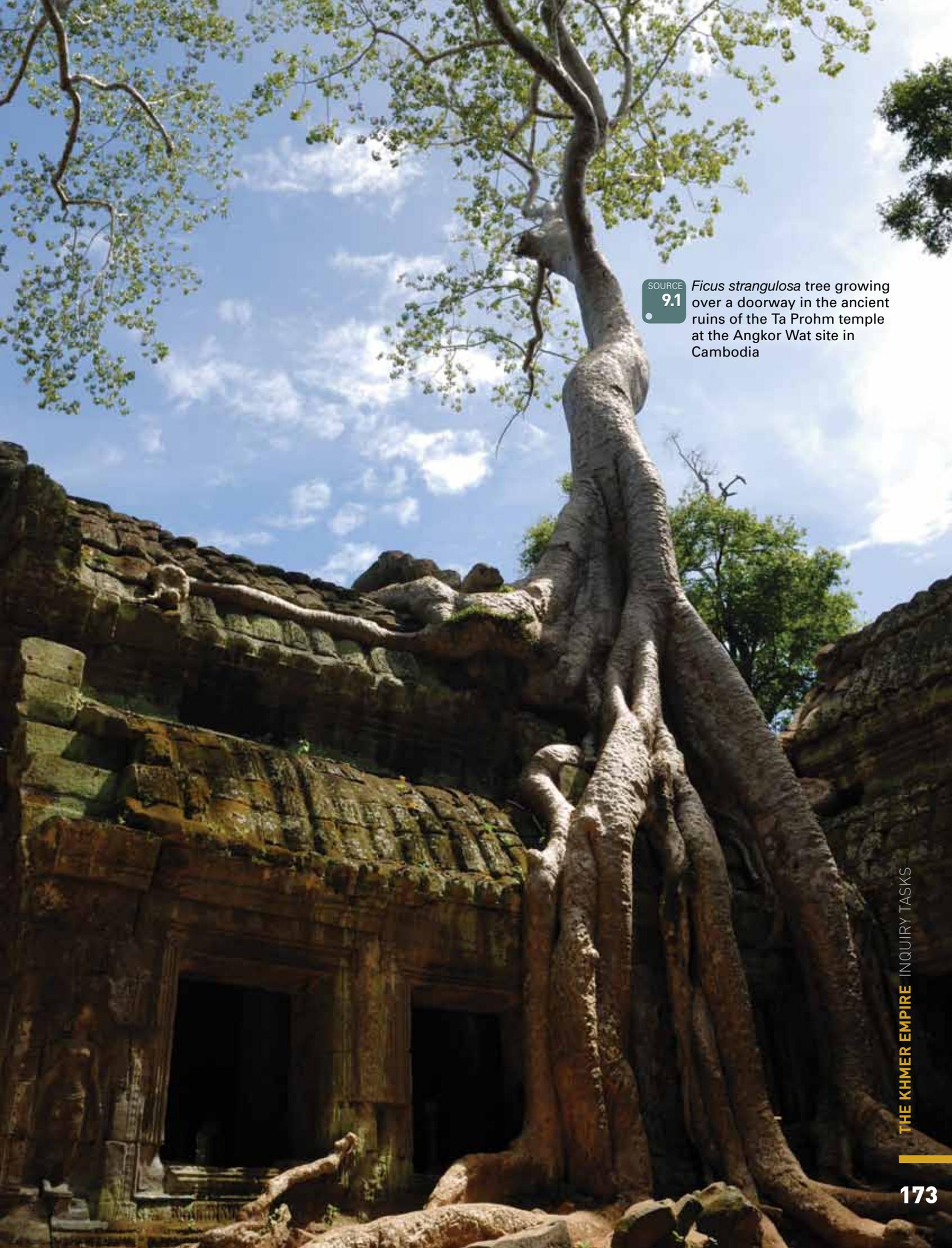
#5 The roles of women

There is evidence that women fulfilled many roles in the society of the Khmer Empire. Some were powerful, while many were servants.

Review this chapter and conduct additional research on the internet into the lives of women in the period of the empire. Create an AVD in which you explore:

- a the queens of the Khmer Empire
- b the servants and dancers of the royal court
- c the daily life of women during the Khmer Empire.

Include a bibliography on the back of your AVD.



SOURCE
9.1

Ficus strangulosa tree growing over a doorway in the ancient ruins of the Ta Prohm temple at the Angkor Wat site in Cambodia

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How did feudalism develop in Medieval Japan?

How did Japanese society change during the Heian, Kamakura, Ashikaga and Tokugawa periods?

How did the authority of the samurai increase over time and what role did they play in medieval Japanese society?

What part did religious beliefs such as those of Buddhism and Shinto play in the development of medieval Japanese society?



Many of the things we associate with Japan, such as shoguns, samurai and Zen Buddhism, first appeared during medieval times. The nature of Japan's political system changed radically at this time. Important political ideas became established and new dominant groups emerged within the feudal society. Key leaders such as Minamoto Yoritomo became the first ruling shoguns of Japan.

SHOGUNATE



JAPAN

SOURCE 0.1 A samurai wearing a sword

SNAPSHOT



MEDIEVAL JAPAN



LEGEND

- Settlement
- Monastery
- Major battle
- Mountain



720 CE *Nihon shoki* (the *Chronicles of Japan*) first compiled

800 CE



1000 CE

1160 CE Taira Kiyomiri slays Minamoto Yoritomo

1185 CE Minamoto Yoritomo establishes the Kamakura bakufu

1192 CE Minamoto Yoritomo gains the title of shogun

1200 CE

1274 CE The Mongols try to invade Japan

1281 CE The Mongols try to invade Japan again

1336 CE Ashikaga Takauji overthrows the Kamakura bakufu

1400 CE

1575 CE Battle of Nagashino

1582 CE Oda Nobunaga dies

1590 CE Toyotomi Hideyoshi conquers all of Japan

1600 CE

1616 CE Tokugawa Ieyasu gives the title of shogun to his son

1800 CE

1853 CE Commodore Matthew Perry arrives in Japan

1868 CE The Meiji Restoration

Ancient Japan: Emperors ruled Japan

710–794 CE
Nara period

794–1185 CE
Heian period

1185–1336 CE
Kamakura period

1336–1534 CE
Ashikaga period

1534–1615 CE
Sengoku-Jidai:
Period of Country
at War

1615–1868 CE
Tokugawa period

Medieval Japan: Shoguns ruled Japan

SOURCE
1.2

Timeline of medieval Japan

Historians divide Japanese history before the modern era into two separate periods: the ancient period (400–1185 CE), when emperors ruled Japan, and the medieval period (1185–1868 CE), when shoguns ruled Japan. They define the second period as ‘medieval’ because, like medieval Europe, society in Japan at this time was feudal in structure.

JAPAN'S GEOGRAPHY

Japan is situated in the north-west Pacific Ocean, to the east of Korea and China. It is approximately 2300 kilometres in length and consists of four main islands and many smaller islands. The four main islands, running from north to south, are Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu. Honshu is the largest island. Tokyo (called Edo during the medieval period), Kyoto and Mount Fuji are located on Honshu.

A group of islands is called an archipelago. The Japanese archipelago is very mountainous, with many mountains over 2 kilometres in height. Mt Fuji is 3776 metres high. In comparison, Mt Kosciuszko, the highest mountain in Australia, is 2228 metres high.

Japan is situated on the Pacific ‘ring of fire’, where two of the Earth’s tectonic plates—the Japanese and Philippines plate—meet. About 10 per cent of the world’s active volcanoes are situated on the islands. Mount Fuji is now extinct, but it was active during the medieval period. It last erupted in 1707.

Japan has abundant rainfall and a cool climate. Hokkaido, in the north, has very cold winters with much snow, while Kyushu, in the south, is warmer. Due to the mountainous terrain, only about 15 to 17 per cent of Japan is suitable for farming crops such as rice. Throughout their history, the Japanese have supplemented their diet with fish, shellfish and seaweed from the seas and oceans surrounding their islands.

The population of Japan has increased greatly since the medieval period, from around 12 million people to more than 127 million people today. Japan needs to import much of its food from other countries, such as Australia, to feed its population. Some of the food products that Australia exports to Japan are crayfish, abalone, beef and wheat.



UNIT
2

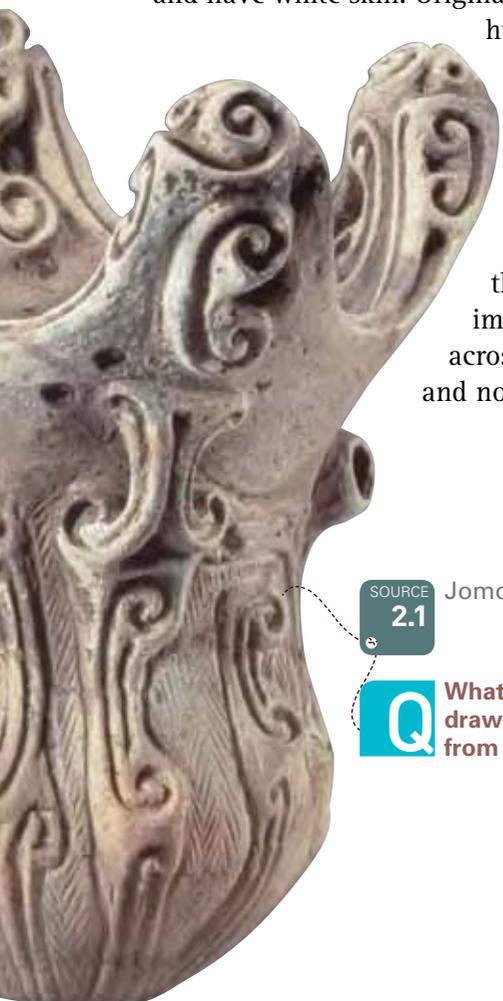
JAPAN'S EARLY HISTORY

EARLY JAPANESE PEOPLES

Japan has been inhabited for thousands of years. Archaeologists have found evidence of a group of people called the **Jomon** living in Japan around 3000 BCE. This evidence consists of pottery, stone weapons and sunken pit dwellings. The Jomon lived mostly in the east and north of Japan. Another group of people who lived in Japan around this time were the **Ainu**. About 25 000 Ainu still live on Hokkaido today. Ainu men grow long bushy beards and have white skin. Originally, they survived on

hunting and fishing rather than on growing rice and other crops.

The Japanese today are a mixture of indigenous groups such as the Jomon and the Ainu and of later immigrants who travelled across the sea from Korea and northern China.



SOURCE 2.1 Jomon earthenware bowl

Q What conclusions can you draw about the Jomon people from this bowl?



SOURCE 2.2 Ainu on Hokkaido in the nineteenth century

THE EMPERORS AND MYTHOLOGY

During the Nara Period (710–94 CE) and Heian Period (794–1185 CE), Japan was ruled by a series of emperors belonging to the Yamato clan (family). The Japanese believed that these emperors were descendants of the gods who came down to Japan from Heaven.

According to the *Nihon Shoki*, the sun goddess Amaterasu sent her grandson Ninigi Mikoto from Heaven to rule Japan. Mikoto landed on a mountain in the southern island of **Kyushu**, where he remained. His great-grandson, Jimmu Tenno, left and travelled to **Honshu**, where he became the first human emperor and leader of the Yamato clan. Source 2.3 describes Jimmu Tenno's expedition of conquest.

Long ago, this central land of the Reed Plains [Kyushu] was bequeathed [given] to our imperial ancestors by the heavenly deities, Takamimusubi-no-Kami and Amaterasu Omikami ... However, the remote regions still do not enjoy the benefit of our imperial rule, with each town having its own master and each village its own chief. Each of them sets up his own boundaries and contends for supremacy against other masters and chiefs. I have heard from an old deity [god] knowledgeable in the affairs of the land and sea that in the east there is a beautiful land encircled by blue mountains [Honshu] ... This must be the land from which our great task of spreading our benevolent rule can begin ... Let us go there and make it our capital.

SOURCE 2.3 Emperor Jimmu Tenno addressing his brothers and children, quoted in *Japan: A Documentary History*, by David J. Lu, 2005

- Q**
- 1 From whom was Emperor Jimmu Tenno descended?
 - 2 Identify two justifications this source gives for Emperor Jimmu's conquest of Honshu.

The myth of Jimmu Tenno was very important as it suggested the Yamato ruled by **divine right**—that is, ruled on behalf of Heaven. This strengthened Yamato authority and made it very difficult for rival leaders to overthrow the Yamato emperors because to do so would have been a crime against both the emperors and Heaven. The theory of divine right helped the emperors retain their titles during the rule of the shoguns in the medieval period despite having no real authority.

THAT JAPAN WAS CREATED BY THE GODS?

DID YOU KNOW

According to a myth recounted in the *Nihon Shoki* (*Chronicles of Japan*), which was compiled in 720 CE, the god Izanagi and the goddess Izanami stood on the rainbow bridge of Heaven and dipped a spear into the ocean. As they lifted the spear, droplets of water fell from its tip and formed the islands of Japan.

remembering & understanding

- #1** Draw up a 'Shogunate Japan' glossary in your notebook. Write definitions for the words below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Ainu | <input type="checkbox"/> indigenous |
| <input type="checkbox"/> clan | <input type="checkbox"/> Jomon |
| <input type="checkbox"/> deity | <input type="checkbox"/> Kyushu |
| <input type="checkbox"/> divine right | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Nihon Shoki</i> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Honshu | |

- #2** When did the medieval period of Japan's history begin and end? Who ruled Japan during the medieval period?

understanding & analysing

- #3 a** Who were the Jomon and when did they live in Japan?
- b** Identify the types of evidence found by archaeologists that indicate the Jomon lived in Japan. Use the internet to find information about the Jomon and analyse two Jomon objects on a mind map.

- #4 a** What is divine right?

- b** In a short paragraph, explain how divine right enabled the Yamato emperors to retain their titles and survive during the medieval period when they were not in power.

analysing & evaluating

- #5** Do you think that Japanese living during the medieval period would have believed the myth about the creation of Japan and Jimmu Tenno's expedition of conquest? If so, why? If not, why not? Present your ideas in a short paragraph.

evaluating & creating

- #6** Read again about the myth of Japan's creation (Did You Know box) and Jimmu Tenno's expedition of conquest (Source 2.3). Draw a cartoon story illustrating these events.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

THE RISE OF FEUDALISM

Historians believe that three factors led to the rise of feudalism in Japan during the twelfth century CE. These were the spread of large rural estates called **shoen**, the rise of the samurai warrior class and the establishment of the Kamakura **bakufu** by Minamoto Yoritomo in 1185.

THE SHOEN

Shoen were large rural estates that were **exempt** from (free of) both imperial taxation and administration, which meant that the emperors in Kyoto could neither tax nor govern the peasants living there. Instead, the peasants living on a shoen were taxed and governed by the governor of that shoen.

The emperors created the shoen during the Heian period (794–1185). Initially they gave shoen to Buddhist monks as gifts. The monks were permitted to **cultivate** (grow) rice on the shoen and did not have to pay a portion of it in tax. They were also given the right to tax the peasants who worked the shoen. The monks used the rice they grew from the shoen and the rice they collected as tax from

the peasants to feed themselves and maintain their temples. Later, the emperors also rewarded high-ranking officials at the imperial court with shoen for good service.

The peasants also contributed to the spread of shoen. Many peasants voluntarily gave up independent control of the land they cultivated and asked local governors to include it in their shoen. This benefited the peasants because once a governor had accepted a peasant's land into his shoen he was then obliged to protect the peasant against bandits and during times of civil strife.

The spread of shoen throughout Japan had two important consequences for the emperors. First, it reduced the amount of tax they could collect from land since shoen were exempt from taxation; and second, it reduced their authority over large portions of the population since the peasants cultivating shoen were exempt from imperial authority. In turn, this increased the power of the shoen governors and their independence from the emperors.



SOURCE
3.1

Samurai in battle scene,
fourteenth-century handscroll.
Held at Seattle Art Museum



Describe what you see
occurring in this painting.

THE SAMURAI

The word 'samurai' first appears in historical documents in the eighth century CE and means 'those who serve'. During most of the Nara period (710–794), the emperors maintained their own armies through a system of universal military service or conscription. In 792, this system was replaced with another in which small armies were created from locally enlisted samurai. The emperors lacked the money to maintain these armies, but shoen governors did not. The governors used the wealth they had accumulated from their tax collections to convert the imperial armies into private armies loyal to them. They then employed the samurai from these armies to administer and police their shoen. The rise of the samurai as a powerful social class in Japanese society can therefore be traced back to the spread of shoen land.

THE KAMAKURA BAKUFU

The emperors lost their authority as a consequence of the rising power of the shoen governors. By the middle of the twelfth century CE, two powerful clans had arisen in Japan: the Taira and the Minamoto. The leaders of both clans were shoen governors who controlled large armies of samurai. Both had supported the emperors and used their samurai to defend the emperors against the emperors' enemies.



SOURCE 3.2 Portrait of Minamoto Yoritomo, attributed to Fujiwara Takanobu (1142–1205). Held at Jingo-ji Temple, Kyoto



SOURCE 3.3 Detail from 'Night Attack on the Sanjō Palace', attributed to Sumiyoshi Keion, from the *Illustrated Scrolls of the Events of the Heiji Era*, second half of the thirteenth century. Held at Boston Museum of Fine Arts. Minamoto Yoshitomo and his troops are setting fire to Sanjō Palace in Kyoto, the residence of the emperor, and capturing the emperor.

In 1159, the Taira and Minamoto clans fought against each other for control of Kyoto and influence over the former emperor Go-Shirakawa and Emperor Nijō. At one point in the conflict, the leader of the Minamoto clan, Minamoto Yoshitomo, captured both the former emperor and the current emperor, but the leader of the Taira clan, Taira Kiyomiri, then slew Yoshitomo in battle. Kiyomiri's victory was short-lived, however, as many Japanese came to view him as a tyrant because they believed he had gained too much power over the emperor.

In 1180, Minamoto Yoshitomo's sons, Yoritomo and Yoshitune, hatched a plot to overthrow Taira Kiyomiri. They led a **rebellion** (revolt) against the Taira clan that quickly spread across Japan; and in 1185 they finally defeated Kiyomiri in a naval battle off the coast of Kyushu.

After defeating the Taira clan, Minamoto Yoritomo permitted the emperor Nijō to retain his title, but stripped him of his authority. Yoritomo did this partly by forcing the emperor to give him the right to appoint **shugo** (constables) and **jitō** (stewards) loyal to him throughout Japan. The shugo were responsible for maintaining order in each province while the jitō were responsible for maintaining order in each shoen. This right enabled Yoritomo and his successors to gain control over the once-independent shoen and became an important source of the authority of the Kamakura bakufu (1185–1336). A 'bakufu' was a government ruled by a **shogun**. Historians sometimes refer to bakufu as 'shogunates'.



SOURCE 3.4 According to Japanese legend, Taira Kiyomori's evil deeds eventually drove him to madness and an agonising death. This nineteenth-century print shows him seeing the skulls of his enemies. Held in a private collection

- Q**
- 1 How many skulls can you see in the picture?
 - 2 How has the artist portrayed the figure of Taira Kiyomori?
 - 3 What is the artist trying to say about Kiyomori?

After gaining the right to appoint shugo and jitō, Yoritomo strengthened his authority by moving the capital from Kyoto to **Kamakura**, his headquarters during the war with the Taira clan. This ensured that he would be free from imperial interference, as the emperor, who still lived in Kyoto, was too far away to meddle in the daily affairs of the Kamakura bakufu.

In 1192, Emperor Go-Shirakawa died. Yoritomo seized the opportunity created by the emperor's death to further increase his authority and that of the bakufu. He demanded that the imperial court give him the title *sei-i tai-shōgun* (barbarian-conquering great general), or shogun. In the past, this title had been bestowed upon military leaders and had given them the right to wage war against the Ainu on the borders of the empire in northern Honshu.



SOURCE 3.5 Tsurugaoka Hachiman shrine in Kamakura, originally a Buddhist temple, now one of the most important Shinto shrines in Japan

Once a campaign had ended, the leader would renounce this title. However, Yoritomo changed both the meaning of the title and the length of time that it could be held. He forced the imperial court to give him the title of shogun for life and instead of giving him the right to wage war, it now gave him the right to govern the country. The title of shogun also became a hereditary title, meaning it was passed from father to son or adopted heir.

SOURCE 3.6 One of the favorite pastimes of Minamoto Yoritomo, who became the first shogun to rule the country in 1185, was to release wild cranes on the beach near his castle in Kamakura. This woodcut was done by Yoshitoshi in 1876. Held in a private collection

- Q**
- 1 How is Minamoto Yoritomo portrayed by the artist?
 - 2 Compare this artist's portrayal of Minamoto Yoritomo with that of Taira Kiyomiri in Source 3.4. How are they different or the same?
 - 3 What is the artist saying about Minamoto Yoritomo?



LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1 List and explain the following words in your 'Shogunate Japan' glossary:

■ bakufu	■ rebellion
■ cultivate	■ samurai
■ exemption	■ shoen
■ jitō	■ shogun
■ Kamakura	■ shugo.
- #2 What three factors led to the rise of feudalism in Japan?
- #3 What was a shoen?
- #4 Which leader of the Taira clan defeated the Minamoto clan and slew its leader Minamoto Yoshitomo?
- #5 Who introduced shugo and jitō and for what purpose?
- #6 What was a bakufu and who established the first one?

understanding & analysing

- #7 Describe the reasons that lead to the spread of shoen throughout Japan.
- #8 How did Minamoto Yoritomo change the rights associated with the title *sei-i tai-shōgun*? Why do you think he did this?

evaluating & creating

- #9 Create a flow chart showing how the spread of the shoen weakened the authority of the emperor.
- #10 Read again about how Minamoto Yoritomo increased his authority. List the actions he took to strengthen his rule and place these in order of importance. Then write a short report about why you placed the actions in the order that you did. Share your ideas with the class.
- #11 From what you have learnt about the emperors in Unit 2 and Minamoto Yoritomo in this unit, explain in a short paragraph why the emperors survived during the medieval period, even though Minamoto Yoritomo and the shoguns who succeeded him had stripped them of their authority.



UNIT
4

THE ASHIKAGA CLAN

THE DIVINE WIND

The greatest threat to the Kamakura bakufu's rule during the thirteenth century came not from internal enemies, such as the emperors, but from the Mongol Empire. The Mongols were a semi-nomadic people who had conquered Korea and northern China by 1215. By the end of the thirteenth century, they had conquered all of China and their empire extended as far as Iran and Russia. In 1274, the Mongol leader Kublai Khan sent a fleet carrying approximately fifteen thousand warriors to conquer Japan. The Mongols landed at Kyushu's Hakata Bay and fought a battle against two to three thousand samurai warriors. Their superior numbers and weaponry—for example, they had **catapults** that launched gunpowder-filled exploding projectiles—forced the samurai to retreat. However, the samurai were saved when a **typhoon** (very strong wind) destroyed the Mongol fleet.

In 1281, Kublai Khan sent another bigger fleet to Japan. Once again, though, the Japanese were saved by a huge typhoon. The typhoon destroyed the Mongol fleet: many of the Mongol ships were smashed against rocks on the shore line, **capsized** (turned upside down) or were blown out to sea.

Thousands of Mongol soldiers were drowned. The Japanese believed the typhoon was a divine wind sent by Heaven to protect Japan. They called it 'kamikaze'.

THAT KAMIKAZE HAS ANOTHER MEANING?

DID YOU KNOW

During World War II, many Japanese fighter pilots flew their planes into US and Australian naval ships in order to sink or damage them. These pilots called themselves 'kamikaze' pilots, after the divine wind that had protected Japan against the Mongol invasion.

SOURCE 4.1 Detail from a set of two Japanese illustrated handscrolls composed between 1275 and 1293, artist unknown. They were commissioned by the samurai Takezaki Suenaga to record his battlefield heroism during the Mongol invasions of Japan. Held at the Museum of the Imperial Collections, in Tokyo Imperial Palace

- Q**
- 1 Identify the exploding projectile.
 - 2 What effect do you think this would have on the samurai?



THE ASHIKAGA PERIOD

The Kamakura bakufu raised taxes to fund their campaigns against the Mongols and improve Japan's defences. Many Japanese resented the heavy financial burden caused by these new taxes and rebellions spread throughout the country. In 1336, Ashikaga Takauji, a general of the Kamakura bakufu, overthrew the shogun and formed his own bakufu. The Ashikaga bakufu ruled Japan effectively for more than a century (1336–1534), but it lacked the authority or resources of the Kamakura shoguns. The Ashikaga bakufu became so poor that it depended on taxes it collected from the sake (rice wine) brewers of Kyoto to support itself financially.

To maintain its rule, the new bakufu was forced to delegate much of its authority to the shugo, the provincial governors created by Minamoto Yoritomo. The shugo grew more powerful as a result and began taxing and governing the peasants in the provinces they controlled. It was during this period that they gained the title of 'daimyo', which, roughly translated, means 'territorial lord'.

By 1477, various wars had sapped much of the Ashikaga bakufu's remaining strength. Although members of the Ashikaga clan retained the title of shogun, the clan's armies had been destroyed. Many daimyo took this opportunity to increase the size of their own armies. With bigger armies, they were able to rule their lands independently of the Ashikaga shoguns.



SOURCE
4.2 *Studio of the Three Worthies*, by Shubun. The landscape was a popular subject for painters during the Ashikaga period. This painting was completed in 1418. Held at Seikado Foundation



What does this painting show us of the landscape of Japan?

remembering & understanding

#1 List and explain the following words in your 'Shogunate Japan' glossary:

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| ■ capsiz | ■ kamikaze |
| ■ catapult | ■ Kublai Khan |
| ■ daimyo | ■ Mongol |
| ■ Hakata Bay | ■ typhoon |

#2 What happened at Hakata Bay?

#3 What is another meaning for the word 'kamikaze'?

understanding & analysing

#4 Describe the reasons why the Kamakura bakufu was overthrown.

#5 How did the factors that caused the fall of the Ashikaga bakufu differ from the factors that contributed to the end of Kamakura rule?

evaluating & creating

#6 Draw a cartoon story illustrating the Mongol invasions of Japan in 1274 and 1281. In your cartoon story, make sure you include pictures of the Mongol army's superior weaponry, the Mongol fleet and the samurai defenders.

#7 Write a brief report identifying the key causes of political change and military conflict during the Kamakura and Ashikaga periods. In your report, comment on the most significant of these causes in instigating change. In addition, compare the role of human and natural causes (such as the weather) in instigating this change.

**LEARNING
ACTIVITIES**



UNIT
5

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY



SOURCE 5.1 Shinto priest performing a ritual

Religion and philosophy played an important role in the lives of people from all the social classes in medieval Japan. They helped people understand the universe and also provided a connection between the physical world on Earth and the spiritual world inhabited by ghosts, demons and gods.

Shinto and **Zen Buddhism** were two of the most important religions practised in medieval Japan. Shinto developed in Japan, while Zen Buddhism originated in China, where it was called Chan Buddhism. Zen Buddhism was first introduced into Japan in the twelfth century CE and became popular among the samurai in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Samurai also followed **Bushidō**, a form of warrior philosophy.

SHINTO

Shinto is based on beliefs that are indigenous to Japan, and is still practised in Japan today. The word 'Shinto' means 'way of the gods'. According to Shinto, there exists a basic life-force called **kami**. Kami is the source of human life as well as the source of all life in nature. Followers of Shinto believe that it cannot be defined by words nor understood rationally, as it is beyond the comprehension of the human mind. However, it can be experienced through faith and religious practices. Followers of Shinto aim to experience kami, live a fulfilling life and bring prosperity to Japan.

In Shinto, the word 'kami' also means supernatural spirits or gods, such as **Izanagi** and **Izanami**, who created Japan. Shinto priests believe that the sea, mountains, rocks and waterfalls have their own kami. Shrines have been set up on mountains near waterfalls and other places of natural beauty, and followers of Shinto pray to the kami to receive good fortune.

This emphasis on the holiness of the kami explains in some ways the Japanese people's deep respect and love for nature and for Japan itself.

During the medieval period, samurai would go to Shinto shrines to pray for victory and give thanks before and after battles.

Swordguard
(*tsuba*)

SOURCE 5.2 A fourteenth-century samurai sword. Held at Victoria and Albert Museum, London

Q Conduct some research to compare and contrast a samurai sword with a medieval knight's broadsword.

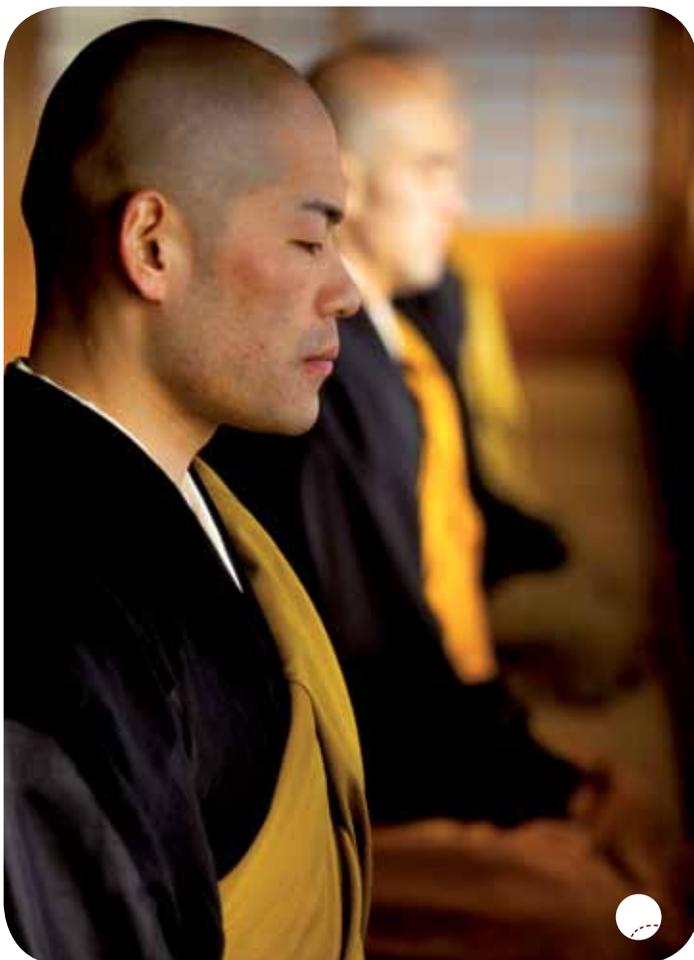
Blade. The edge of the blade was extremely sharp. The flat was very hard and could be used to deflect an opponent's sword.

The hilt of this samurai sword is covered in the hardened skin of a ray, over which is wrapped silk cord.

THAT SAMURAI SWORDS WERE SACRED?

A samurai's most prized possession was his sword. The samurai believed each sword possessed its own spirit that influenced its wielder's success in battle. This spirit was imparted to the sword by the artisan who made it, the **swordsmith**. Swordsmiths in medieval Japan created swords of extremely high quality and sharpness, and were highly respected. One of the many stories about their skills tells of two swords, made by different craftsmen, being placed into a stream. Some leaves floating on the surface of the stream touched the first blade and were cut cleanly in two. Other leaves floating near the second blade parted in two of their own accord, out of respect for the quality of the sword.

DID YOU KNOW



ZEN BUDDHISM

SATORI

Zen Buddhism emphasises the importance of self-discipline. The aim of Zen Buddhism is to achieve **satori**—the moment of enlightenment or 'the flash of truth' when all is understood. It can be attained through physical discipline and meditation. Zen Buddhists also believe it is possible to attain satori spontaneously through observing nature. Samurai believed they could focus and improve their minds and become better warriors through practising Zen Buddhism. The extract in Source 5.5, written by Takuan Sōhō, a seventeenth-century Zen Buddhist monk, describes the difficulty of explaining in words the experiences of spiritual enlightenment such as satori.

SOURCE 5.3 Zen Buddhist monks meditating



SOURCE
5.4

Many Zen gardens, like this one in Tofukuji Zen temple in Kyoto, were created in medieval Japan. Zen Buddhists believed that enlightenment could be attained by meditating on the trees, grass, stones and other natural features of the garden. These natural features were also meant to symbolise the world.



One may explain water, but the mouth will not become wet. One may expound fully on the nature of fire, but the mouth will not become hot. Without touching real water and real fire, one will not know these things. Even explaining a book will not make it understood. Food may be concisely defined, but that alone will not relieve one's hunger. One is not likely to achieve understanding from the explanation of another ... If people are not thoroughly enlightened about their own particular minds, they will have no understanding ...

SOURCE
5.5

From *The Unfettered Mind*, by Takuan Sōhō (1573–1645), translated by William Scott Wilson, 1986



1 What do you think each of these elements of a Zen garden represent?

- a Sand
- b Stones
- c Moss

2 Conduct some research to find out if you are correct.

MUSHIN

Another aim of Zen Buddhism is to achieve **mushin** or 'no-mind-ness'. Mushin is the mental state of forgetting oneself and freeing oneself from fear.

A samurai who attained mushin acted spontaneously and without thinking. In combat, he did not think about his fighting stance, when to thrust his sword at an enemy's vital organs or when to anticipate and parry a possible blow. Instead, he allowed his body to react spontaneously while his mind remained calm. As a consequence, his actions were quicker and he became a better warrior.

BUSHIDŌ

Bushidō, ‘the way of the warrior’, was the warrior code of the samurai. According to Bushidō, a samurai was expected to act honourably and be courageous in battle. He was also expected to endure different forms of physical hardship, such as long periods of **fasting**, when he would eat nothing or very little, and barefoot marches through the snow. The most important principle of Bushidō, though, was loyalty. A samurai was expected to sacrifice his life for his daimyo master in battle if necessary. He was also expected to avoid capture and never surrender, as both of these acts were considered dishonourable. Many samurai committed **seppuku**—ritual suicide—to avoid capture or to atone for dishonourable acts.

The extract in Source 5.6 from *Hagakure* (meaning *In the Shadow of Leaves*), an early eighteenth-century samurai manual, describes the samurai’s ideal attitude of loyalty.



If one were to say in a word what the condition of being a samurai is, its basis lies first in seriously devoting one’s body and soul to his master. And if one is asked what to do beyond this, it would be to fit oneself inwardly with intelligence, humanity and courage.

SOURCE 5.6 From *Hagakure: The Book of the Samurai*, by Yamamoto Tsunetomo (1659–1719)



- 1 What are the four values that are highly regarded in a samurai?
- 2 Why are these values so important for maintaining loyalty?

remembering & understanding

- #1 List and explain the following words in your ‘Shogunate Japan’ glossary:
 - Bushidō
 - fasting
 - kami
 - mushin
 - satori
 - seppuku
 - Shinto
 - swordsmith
 - Zen Buddhism
- #2 What were the three main religions or beliefs practised by the samurai?
- #3 Explain the different meanings of kami.
- #4 What does Bushidō mean?
- #5 Consider Source 5.4. What is the main purpose of a Zen garden? What do each of the different features of the garden represent?
- #6 What advantages did mushin hold for the samurai?
- #7 Discuss some of the ways in which satori could be achieved.

evaluating & creating

- #8 Satori is the state in which, according to Zen Buddhism, a person can achieve spiritual enlightenment.
 - a What is so good about spiritual enlightenment?
 - b Consider the following scenario:
You meet a Zen Buddhist monk walking along a forest path. He says he can grant you satori or a billion dollars.
Write a half-page report about which you would choose and why. Present your ideas to the class.





WAR AND UNIFICATION

The period 1534 to 1615, known as Sengoku-Jidai (Period of Country at War), was one of constant warfare in Japan as the authority of the Ashikaga bakufu collapsed. Daimyo fought one another for wealth and land, but no single daimyo was powerful enough to put an end to the strife. By the later part of the sixteenth century, however, three daimyo began the process of re-unifying Japan and re-establishing the authority of the shogun. These daimyo were Oda Nobunaga, Toyotomi Hideyoshi and Tokugawa Ieyasu.

ODA NOBUNAGA

Oda Nobunaga (1534–82) was from a clan of minor rank. He increased the size of his army and the land he controlled through a combination of smart alliances with neighbouring daimyo and brilliant military victories. His military success

was due to three factors: he was a skilled general, used European methods of warfare and equipped his samurai with **arquebuses**. The arquebus was an early type of gun invented in Europe and brought to Japan by Portuguese merchants during the middle of the sixteenth century. At the battle of Nagashino in 1575, Nobunaga's samurai **annihilated** (destroyed) a mounted force led by Takeda, a powerful rival daimyo.

Nobunaga's primary aim was to maintain his authority through military strength, but he also wanted to improve the lives of the people who lived on the lands that he conquered. He did this by increasing trade and improving the economy. He **standardised** the currency, which made it easier for merchants to buy and sell products. He also maintained roads and highways and abolished customs barriers, which enabled merchants to travel quickly between towns and pay less tax. By the

time of his death in 1582, Nobunaga had conquered a third of Japan.

Oda Nobunaga was **betrayed** (deceived) by Akechi Mitsuhide, one of his best generals, who rebelled against him. In 1582, he was staying at a monastery in Kyoto when Mitsuhide returned with his army from western Honshu. Mitsuhide surrounded the monastery with his troops and killed Nobunaga.



SOURCE 6.1 Oda Nobunaga, by an unknown artist, 1583. Held at Kobe Municipal Museum, Japan

SOURCE
6.2

Himeji Castle, also called 'the White Heron' because of its white plaster walls, was captured by Hideyoshi in 1577 and then expanded in size.



TOYOTOMI HIDEYOSHI

On hearing of Nobunaga's death, **Toyotomi Hideyoshi** (1536–98), another of Nobunaga's generals who was also fighting in western Honshu, rushed back to Kyoto with his own army, defeated Akechi Mitsuhide and became Nobunaga's successor. Hideyoshi began his career

as a common foot soldier in Nobunaga's service and rapidly rose through the ranks to become Nobunaga's most trusted ally. He conquered the rest of Japan by 1590 and then attempted to conquer Korea between 1592 and 1597, but failed.

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following words in your 'Shogunate Japan' glossary:
 - annihilate
 - arquebus
 - betray
 - Oda Nobunaga
 - standardise
 - Toyotomi Hideyoshi
- #2** Name the three daimyo who contributed to the unification of Japan.
- #3** How did Oda Nobunaga increase the size of his army and the land he controlled?

understanding & analysing

- #4** How much of Japan had Oda Nobunaga conquered by the time of his death? How did he improve the provinces he conquered?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES



- #5** How might these reforms have also benefited Oda Nobunaga?
- #6** Describe two possible reasons why Akechi Mitsuhide betrayed Oda Nobunaga.

evaluating & creating

- #7** With some classmates, write the script for a play titled 'The rise of Oda Nobunaga'. Your play should include the following characters (at a minimum): Oda Nobunaga, Toyotomi Hideyoshi and Akechi Mitsuhide. It should cover Nobunaga's rise to power in Japan, the relationships he had with his two generals Hideyoshi and Mitsuhide, and his final betrayal by Mitsuhide. Use the internet and your library to learn about these historical figures. Perform your play for your class.

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 7

TOYOTOMI HIDEYOSHI

Apart from defeating Oda Nobunaga's former generals, Toyotomi Hideyoshi also had to impose his authority upon other groups in medieval Japanese society who threatened his rule. The following sources describe these other groups and the measures that Hideyoshi took to control them.

One of the most important groups that Hideyoshi sought to control was the peasants, as they were the main source of tax income for his government. Source 7.1 is an edict (command or decree) written by Hideyoshi. In it, Hideyoshi orders the disarmament of the peasants so that they will be less likely to rebel.

EDICT ON THE COLLECTION OF SWORDS, 1588

Farmers of all provinces are strictly forbidden to have in their possession any swords, short swords, bows, spears, firearms, or other types of weapons.

If unnecessary implements [tools] of war are kept, the collection of annual rent may become more difficult ... Therefore, the heads of provinces, samurai ... and deputies must collect all the weapons described above and submit them to Hideyoshi's government ... They [the weapons] will be used as nails and bolts in the construction of the Great Image of Buddha ... If farmers possess only agricultural implements and devote themselves exclusively to cultivating the fields, they and their descendants will prosper.

SOURCE 7.1 From *Japan: A Documentary History*, by David J. Lu, 2005



SOURCE 7.2 Toyotomi Hideyoshi blowing his battle horn before his victory at the battle of Shizugatake in 1583, when he defeated another former general of Oda Nobunaga, Shibata Katsuie. Woodcut by Yoshitosh, 1888. Held in a private collection

- 1 What is Hideyoshi's battle horn made from?
- 2 Describe his battle dress.



SOURCE 7.3 Rice taxes being paid to the daimyo, unknown artist, late sixteenth century. Held at Tokyo University, Japan

- Q**
- 1 Compare the representations of the farmers with those of the officials.
 - 2 Why are they represented this way?

Hideyoshi tightened his control over the peasants and also the samurai with the Edict on Change of Status (see Source 7.4), which he issued in 1591. The main purpose of this edict was to stop people from changing occupations. Peasants could no longer move freely between villages because they were not allowed to leave their farms, and were again prohibited from carrying weapons. From Hideyoshi's perspective, this was very important because the majority of the taxes collected came from the peasants, who made up 80 per cent of the population. To maintain the amount of tax collected by his government, it was crucial that the peasants remained on the land and continued to farm it. The samurai were also forced to choose between being warriors or farmers. They were no longer permitted to cultivate land to supplement the income they received from working for the daimyo.

“ EDICT ON CHANGE OF STATUS, 1591

1. If there should be living among you men who were in military service including those who served Hideyoshi, higher ranking warriors of daimyō [samurai] ... who have assumed the identity of a townsman or farmer ... they must be expelled. The townsmen and farmers must investigate [to see that the order is carried out]. If anyone as described is kept concealed, the entire town or village shall be held responsible and punished accordingly.
2. If any farmer abandons his wet and dry fields and engages in trade or offers himself for hire for wages, not only is he to be punished, but also his fellow villagers. If there is anyone who neither serves in the military nor cultivates land, it is the responsibility of the deputies and other local officials to investigate and expel him. If they do not take action, those local officials shall be stripped of their posts on account of negligence. If a townsman is disguised as a farmer, and that fact is concealed, that county or town shall be regarded as committing a culpable offence.

SOURCE 7.4 From *Japan: A Documentary History*, by David J. Lu, 2005

Buddhist monks also threatened Hideyoshi's authority. Although many of them devoted their time to studying sacred Buddhist texts and worshipping the Buddha, others practised martial arts, as many of them were former samurai. Oda Nobunaga had considered the threat posed by Buddhist monks serious enough that in 1571 he attacked and destroyed the **Buddhist monastery** (place where monks live) on Mt Hiei, which overlooked Kyoto.

The following edict, issued in 1585, threatens the monks on **Mt Kōya** with a similar fate to that of the monks at Mt Hiei should they refuse to accept Hideyoshi's authority.



SOURCE 7.5 Mt Hiei today, overlooking Kyoto

CONTROL OF MT KŌYA, 1585

1. The lands which belong to Mt. Kōya ... may continue to be treated as temple estate.
2. If Mt. Kōya invades another's estate ... anyone attempting such an act can cause the demise [destruction] of Mt Kōya. Use good judgement in this matter.
3. It is said that temple priests, those engaged in ascetic exercises, and other monks who do not have a taste for study resort to the use of weapons, guns, and the like. There is no greater treachery or misdeed than these.
4. ... temple priests, those engaged in ascetic exercises, and all others must encourage one another to concentrate their efforts on Buddhist masses and other religious services ...
6. Mt Hiei ... [was] destroyed by making the nation [its] enemy. This you have witnessed. Therefore use your good sense in these matters.
7. ... If the monks and all others can without reservation accept these articles, Hideyoshi will do his utmost to protect and maintain Mt Kōya.

SOURCE 7.6 From *Japan: A Documentary History*, by David J. Lu, 2005

Foreign missionaries were another group that threatened Hideyoshi's authority. Catholic **Jesuit** priests from Portugal and Spain had arrived in Japan soon after Portuguese merchants in 1543. Their aim was to convert the Japanese to Christianity. Hideyoshi feared that if the Japanese converted to Christianity then they would no longer be loyal to him. In 1587, he issued an edict to expel Catholic priests from Japan.



SOURCE 7.7 Mt Kōya monastery in the present day

EXPULSION OF MISSIONARIES, 1587

1. Japan is the country of gods, but has been receiving false teachings from Christian countries. This cannot be tolerated any further ...

3. The priests, by their special knowledge [in the sciences and medicine], feel that they can at will entice [seduce] people to become their believers. In so doing they commit the illegal act of destroying the teachings of Buddha prevailing in Japan. These priests cannot be permitted to remain in Japan ...

4. The black [Portuguese and Spanish] ships come to Japan to engage in trade. Thus the matter is a separate one. They can continue to engage in trade.

SOURCE 7.8 From *Japan: A Documentary History*, by David J. Lu, 2005

This was the first attempt, although unsuccessful, by the Japanese to stop European priests entering the country. The Japanese shoguns did not manage to close Japan to European priests completely until 1639.



SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

REMEMBERING & UNDERSTANDING

- 1 Look at Source 7.1. Who was forbidden from having weapons and why?
- 2 In Source 7.6, what kind of Buddhist monks does Hideyoshi accuse of performing the greatest treachery?
- 3 In Source 7.8, which group does Hideyoshi accuse of spreading false teachings?

UNDERSTANDING & ANALYSING

- 4 On a mind map, discuss the various reasons Hideyoshi gives for taking the peasants' weapons in Source 7.1. Do you think this would have improved the lives of the peasants? Why or why not?
- 5 What does Hideyoshi advise the Buddhist monks of Mt Kōya to do so that their monastery can continue to exist, according to Source 7.6? How might this advice make the monks easier to control?

EVALUATING & CREATING

- 6 In Source 7.8, Hideyoshi prohibits European missionaries from entering Japan, but allows European merchants to continue entering Japan for trade purposes. Why do you think he did this? Can you think of any reasons why this arrangement may have made it more difficult to stop Jesuit priests from entering the country? Discuss.
- 7 Imagine you are a Jesuit priest who has arrived in Japan for the first time in 1560. Write a one-page letter back to your superior in Portugal describing your first impressions of the Japanese. In your letter describe how the Japanese were different from and similar to Europeans in the sixteenth century.

SOURCE 7.9 Detail from *Arrival of Portuguese in Japan*, folding screen, by Namban (1594–1618). Held at Museo Nacional de Soares dos Reis, Porto, Portugal. This painting shows Portuguese Catholic missionaries arriving in Nagasaki in the early seventeenth century CE.

Q Describe the differences between the Portuguese missionaries and the Japanese people in the painting.



THE TOKUGAWA PERIOD



SOURCE 8.1 Portrait of Tokugawa Ieyasu, painted in the period c. 1615–1868. Held at Choen-ji Temple, Nagano, Japan

THE TOKUGAWA BAKUFU

Although Oda Nobunaga began the process of reunifying Japan and Toyotomi Hideyoshi completed it, Tokugawa Ieyasu (1543–1616) and his kin gained the most from it. Ieyasu's early life was difficult. In 1548 at the age of six, his father handed him over to a rival clan as a hostage in order to cement an alliance. Ieyasu remained a hostage until 1557. By this time he was sixteen years old and had

come of age. His father was dead, he himself had married and his captors allowed him to return to his native province. In 1561, he became an ally of Oda Nobunaga and then fought with Nobunaga at the battle of Nagashino in 1575.

Ieyasu served Hideyoshi after Nobunaga died. Lying on his death bed in 1598, Hideyoshi appointed Ieyasu as one of the five official guardians of his son Hideyori. Despite the pledges they had made to Hideyoshi, fighting soon erupted between Hideyoshi's generals over who would control Japan.

On 21 October 1600, Ieyasu led an army of 80 000 samurai against a similar-sized army led by Ishida Mitsunari, another former general of Hideyoshi. The two armies fought each other about 100 kilometres north-east of Kyoto at Sekigahara. Ieyasu defeated his rival and gained control of most of Japan.

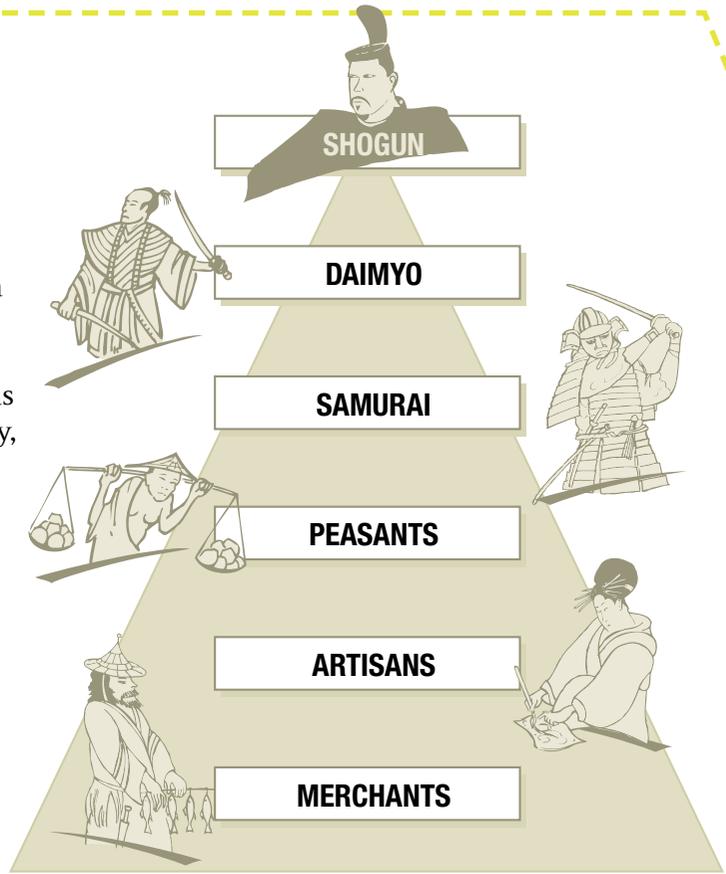
In 1603, he forced the imperial court to give him the title of sei-i tai-shōgun, or shogun, a title which neither Oda Nobunaga nor Toyotomi Hideyoshi had managed to acquire. Ieyasu then passed the title of shogun on to his son Hidetada in 1605. In his retirement, Ieyasu continued to be involved in the running of the bakufu and in 1615 he defeated the last legitimate rival to Tokugawa authority, Hideyoshi's son Hideyori. This defeat marked the beginning of the undisputed rule of the Tokugawa bakufu. The Tokugawa bakufu ruled Japan until 1868, when Emperor Meiji regained the throne and imperial authority was restored.

The daily lives of people living in Japan during the Tokugawa period varied according to the social class to which they belonged. At the top of the social hierarchy was the Tokugawa shogun. He held the highest military and civil authority in the land. Below the shogun were the daimyo. Next were the samurai (the warrior class), and below them were peasant farmers. At the bottom of the social hierarchy were the artisans and then the merchants.

DAIMYO

Once he gained power in 1615, Tokugawa Ieyasu correctly perceived that the group who posed the greatest threat to his authority were the daimyo. He quickly set about limiting their ability to challenge the authority of the Tokugawa bakufu. In 1615, he passed a set of rules, entitled ‘Buke-sho hatto’, for governing samurai houses. Although these rules did not destroy the daimyo as the most privileged social class in Japanese society, they did greatly limit the daimyo’s power to resist the rule of the Tokugawa shoguns.

There were thirteen basic rules. The four most important are shown in Source 8.3.



SOURCE 8.2 This diagram shows the social hierarchy in medieval Japan.

- Q 1** Why is it unusual for merchants to be at the bottom of the social pyramid?
- 2** What does the placement of the peasant class tell you about their status?

Despite the Buke-sho hatto, the daimyo were still very powerful. They still controlled large groups of samurai and, as vassals of the Tokugawa shogun, were granted fiefs to rule on his behalf. A fief included the land plus the peasants who worked it. In return for his fief, a daimyo pledged loyalty to the shogun and promised to supply military

aid in the form of either samurai or money when requested. Daimyo had special social **privileges**, or rights, as well. When a daimyo passed, peasants and other people of lower social rank were expected to **prostrate** themselves (lie flat on the ground) as a sign of respect.

	Rules	Consequences
Rule 5	Residence in a fief is to be restricted to men born in that fief.	The size of a daimyo's army was effectively limited.
Rule 6	The shogun authorities must be informed of any intended repairs to castles. All new construction is forbidden.	Daimyo could not build new castles.
Rule 8	Marriages must not be privately contracted.	The shogun could stop alliances between daimyo by restricting who they married.
Rule 9	Visits by daimyo to the capital (Edo) are to be in accordance with regulations.	Daimyo spent much of their time travelling to and from Edo and had less time to devote to overthrowing the shogun.

SOURCE 8.3 The Buke-sho hatto ('Rules for Governing Samurai Houses')



SAMURAI

The samurai sat below the daimyo in the social hierarchy. Although not as powerful as daimyo, these warrior-administrators still held a privileged position in Tokugawa society. They inherited their status from their parents and were the only people, apart from the daimyo, permitted to carry two swords. They also had the legal right to kill any peasant, artisan or merchant who did not show them adequate respect.

Both males and females could be samurai. Female samurai, like their male counterparts, learnt martial arts but tended to manage the family estate and defend it against attack rather than ride off to battle during times of war.

The status of the samurai began to rise during the Kamakura bakufu (see Unit 3). Minamoto Yoritomo achieved power through the efforts of his samurai. In order to strengthen the social status and authority of the samurai, and thus his own authority, he promoted virtues associated with the samurai, such as loyalty, honour, courage and martial skill. During the

Sengoku-Jidai period (1534–1615), the samurai maintained their prominent position in society, as the warring daimyo relied upon the samurai to defend their lands and conquer the territories of their rivals.

The role of the samurai changed when Tokugawa Ieyasu finally brought peace to Japan in 1615. In a country no longer at war with itself, a large warrior class was no longer needed. During the Tokugawa period the samurai retained their privileged position in society. However, the Tokugawa shoguns encouraged the samurai to develop skills other than those associated with fighting, such as reading, writing and accounting. The samurai were also encouraged to gain an appreciation for cultural pursuits such as poetry, theatre and the tea ceremony. During this period, most samurai moved from the country to the cities and large towns, and gained employment with the bakufu as civil servants, or served as stewards of daimyo lands.

SOURCE
8.4

This suit of samurai armour is constructed in the do-maru style. Originally, samurai wore plate armour that protected them better but was less manoeuvrable. By the fourteenth century, samurai began to wear do-maru style armour because it allowed them to fight more easily on foot and in difficult terrain such as mountains and forests.

Q

Identify the elements of the samurai armour that make it manoeuvrable.

PEASANTS

The social class below the samurai was the peasants. Most peasants owned just enough land to live on, or rented land and worked it as tenant farmers. The Tokugawa shoguns believed the main function of the peasants was to provide tax revenue in the form of rice. Bakufu officials would calculate the minimum amount of rice a peasant needed to survive, and take the rest. When the peasants finished working in the fields, they were expected to make straw ropes or bags in the evenings, which they could then sell to supplement their incomes. They were also expected to provide labour and horses for building roads and other public works when required by the bakufu. These harsh conditions forced many peasants to leave their lands and move to the cities, where they found jobs as labourers or servants.

In 1642 and 1649, the Tokugawa bakufu posted the instructions shown in Source 8.6 in villages throughout Japan.

THE ENVIRONMENT

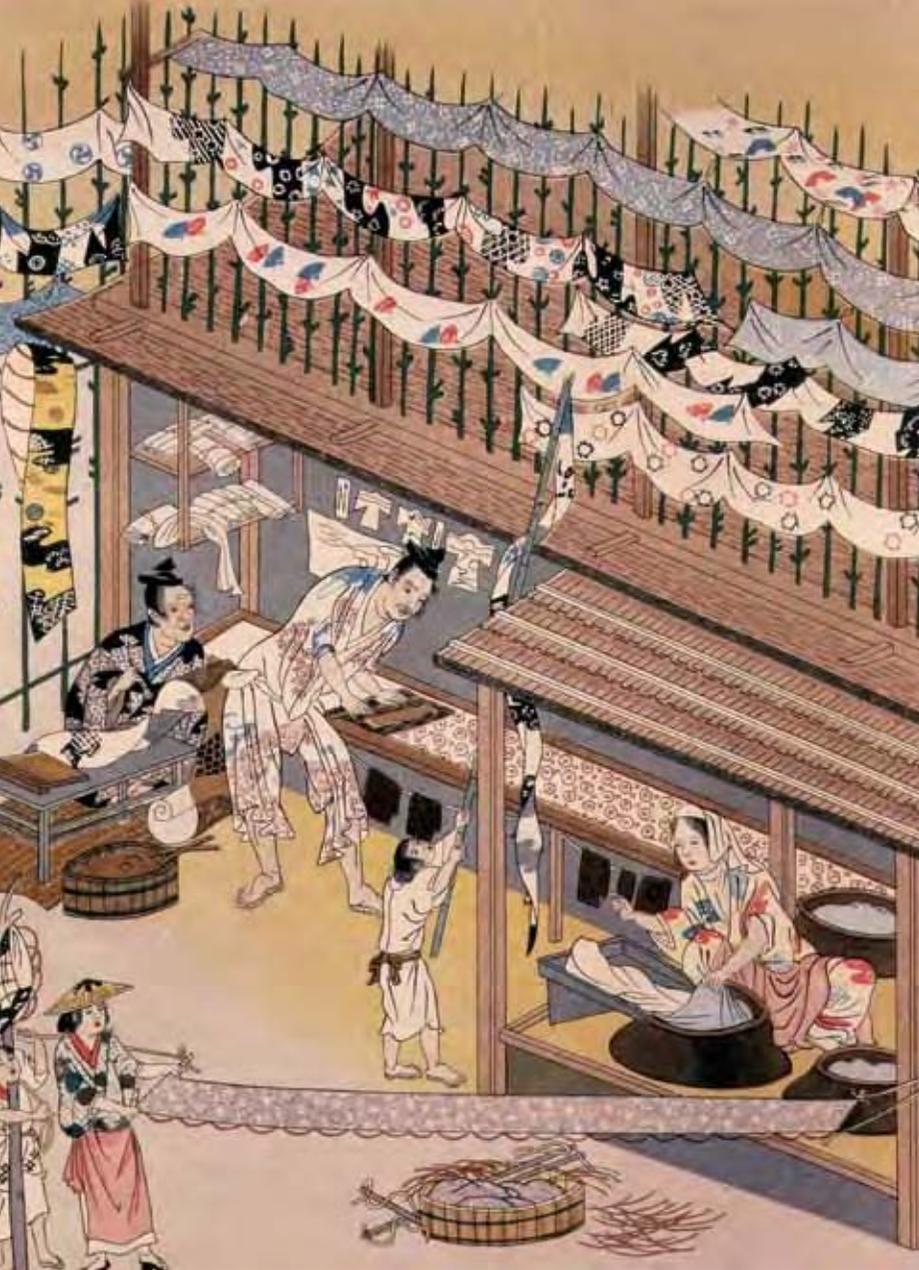
In the late sixteenth century, peasants depended on resources from forests to help them survive. They used timber to build houses and repair other buildings, grasses and shoots for green manure to help crops grow better and fruit and mushrooms as extra sources of food. The daimyo also used the resources from forests, such as timber, for building their castles and towns. As the daimyo grew more powerful during this period, they began to forbid peasants from cutting down large trees in heavily wooded areas and eventually prohibited any unauthorised cutting down of timber at all. By the eighteenth century, though, daimyo control over forests diminished and the right of peasants to access forests increased. Some peasants gained ownership over parts of forests and began selling timber or firewood to supplement their incomes, while others cleared what they controlled, converting forest into farmland to grow rice or to use for other agricultural purposes.



SOURCE 8.5 Japanese peasants planting rice during the Tokugawa period, woodblock print, by Ando Hiroshige, 1797–1858. Held at the Oriental Art Museum, Genoa

The husband must work in the fields, the wife must work at the loom [a device for spinning cloth]. Both must do night work ... Peasants are people without sense or foresight. Therefore they must not give rice to their wives and children at harvest time, but must save food for the future.

SOURCE 8.6 Instructions for peasants taken from the Edict of 1649, known as *Keian no Ofuregaki* ('Proclamations of the Keian era'), quoted in *What Life Was Like Among Samurai and Shoguns: Japan, AD 1000–1700*, 1999



ARTISANS

There were many types of artisans; for instance, male artisans worked as masons, plasterers, cooks or swordsmiths, while female artisans worked as weavers or fan-makers. Most artisans worked for a daimyo or the bakufu. Their lives were more secure than those of peasants, who could starve if their crops failed, because they were guaranteed a wage and a market for their goods or services. Artisans were organised into **guilds** and had to undertake a strict apprenticeship. For instance, a cook during his apprenticeship learnt how to prepare various fish, meat and vegetable dishes. Once he had mastered these recipes, he received a beautifully crafted carving knife to demonstrate that he was now a master cook.

SOURCE
8.7 Weavers dyeing silk cloth, by Yoshinobu, 1552–1640. Held in a private collection, Paris

Q Describe the processes of dyeing that you see in this painting.

SOURCE
8.8 Exterior of the Echigoya Drapers Shop, Edo, silk painting by Yanagi Buncho, early nineteenth century. Held at the Mitsui Collection, Tokyo. Notice the Mitsui logo in blue on the walls of the buildings denoting Mitsui's ownership.

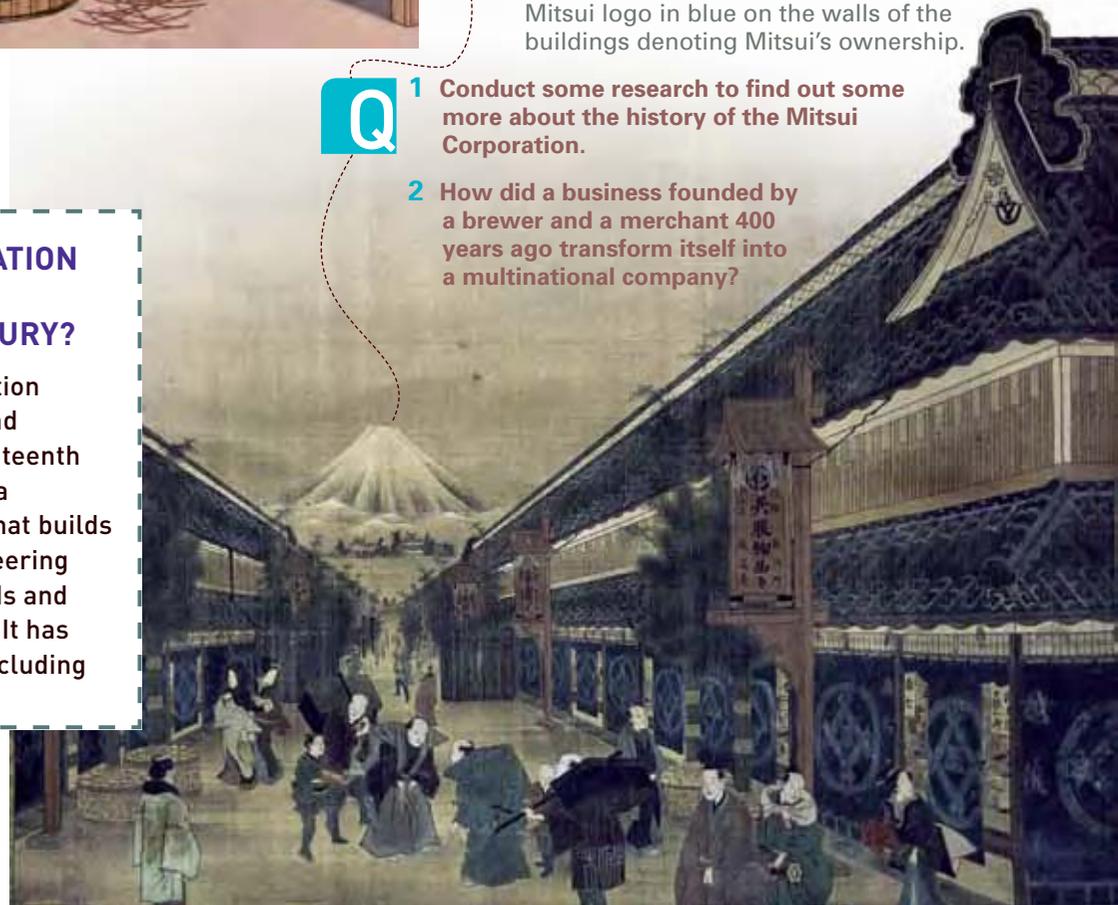
Q **1** Conduct some research to find out some more about the history of the Mitsui Corporation.

2 How did a business founded by a brewer and a merchant 400 years ago transform itself into a multinational company?

DID YOU KNOW

THAT MITSUI CORPORATION BEGAN IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY?

The famous Mitsui Corporation was founded by a brewer and merchant in the early seventeenth century CE. Today, Mitsui is a multinational corporation that builds communications and engineering equipment, transports goods and provides financial services. It has offices around the world, including Australia.



MERCHANTS

As in China, merchants in medieval Japan were considered the lowest social class. The other social classes believed that merchants contributed little to society, as they created nothing, unlike for example peasants, who grew rice. Merchants were seen as simply living off the work of others. However, as trade flourished during the Tokugawa period, many merchants grew rich despite their low social status. In Edo and other cities, merchants worked in areas set aside specifically for them. These areas were

called **cho** and were often organised according to the trade practised by the merchants. Merchants worked in companies called 'houses' with their families. A profitable house enabled a merchant family to prosper. Merchants also believed profit honoured their ancestors.

Both male and female family members worked for the house. Boys and many girls were educated in reading, writing and mathematics. As a consequence, more women in the merchant class were educated than in any other social class in medieval Japan.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following words in your 'Shogunate Japan' glossary:
- | | |
|----------------------|-------------------|
| ■ Buddhist monastery | ■ implement |
| ■ Buke-sho hatto | ■ kirisute-gomen |
| ■ cho | ■ Mt Kōya |
| ■ demise | ■ privilege |
| ■ do-maru | ■ prostrate |
| ■ edict | ■ Sekigahara |
| ■ fief | ■ subjugate |
| ■ guild | ■ Tokugawa Ieyasu |
- #2 a** Which social group was at the top of the social hierarchy in Japanese society during the Tokugawa period?
- b** Which social group was at the bottom of the social hierarchy? Why?
- #3** How did Tokugawa Ieyasu become shogun?
- #4** Why were many peasants forced off the land during the Tokugawa period?

understanding & analysing

- #5** What were the advantages of do-maru style armour compared with previous forms of samurai plate armour? What does this tell you about the change in warfare over time?
- #6** Write a paragraph about why Tokugawa Ieyasu issued the Buke-sho hatto (Source 8.3) in 1615. In answering this question think back to what you read about the Sengoku-Jidai in 1534–1615 in this unit.
- #7** Read Source 8.6 again. How would the Tokugawa bakufu have benefited from the instructions it posted in villages in 1642 and 1649?
- #8** How did peasants use forest resources in the sixteenth century?

- #9** How did peasants use their increased right of access to forests in the eighteenth century?

- #10** Read this unit again carefully and take note of any details about the lives and roles of women. Use your notes to create a PMI chart entitled 'The lives and roles of women in shogunate Japan'. Share your PMI chart with a partner, and discuss the similarities and differences between your charts.

analysing & evaluating

- #11** What might have been the consequences of:
- a** daimyo control over forests remaining undiminished into the eighteenth century and beyond?
- b** peasants having unlimited access and control of the forests from the sixteenth century onwards?
- #12** Which of the two choices in Question 11 do you think would have been better for:
- a** the peasants? **b** the daimyo?
- c** the environment?
- Explain your reasons for each of the above.

evaluating & creating

- #13** Read through the four rules of the Buke-sho hatto in Source 8.3.
- a** Rank the rules in order of severity in relation to their impact on the power of the daimyo.
- b** Write two paragraphs explaining your ranking.
- #14** Look at the diagram showing the social hierarchy in medieval Japan (Source 8.2). Draw a social hierarchy of modern Australia. Share your diagram with other students in the class and think about some reasons why some social groups are more or less powerful in modern Australia.

CONNECTIONS EAST MEETS WEST TO...

UNIT 9

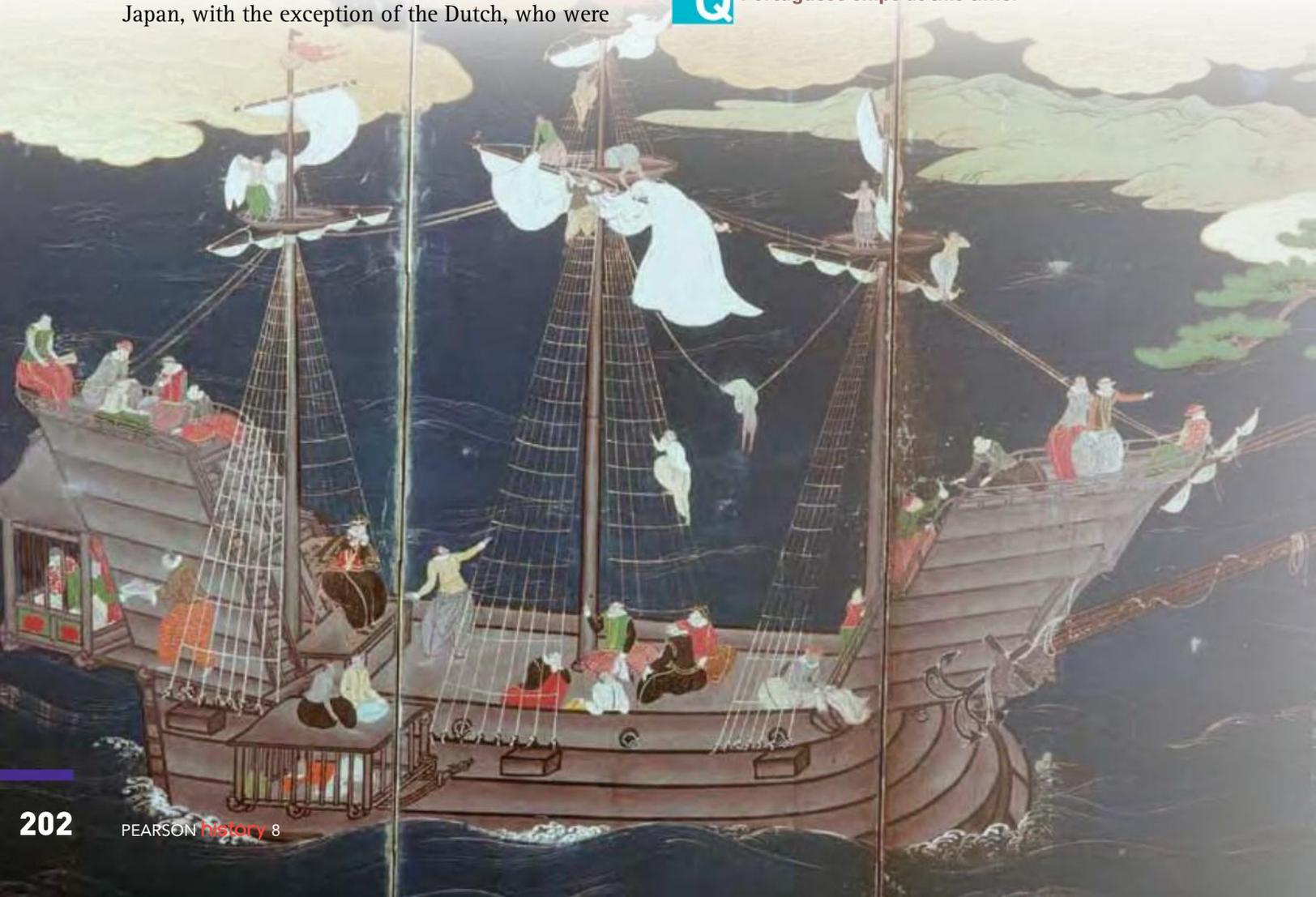
The first Europeans to reach the shores of Japan were Portuguese merchants in the sixteenth century CE; merchants from other European nations quickly followed. Initial contacts between the Japanese and Europeans were beneficial for both peoples. European merchants made handy profits and the Japanese benefited from gaining access to new technologies such as the arquebus. However, with the European merchants came Catholic missionaries. The missionaries converted many Japanese to Christianity. Some of these Christian converts fought against Tokugawa Ieyasu in 1615. The Tokugawa shoguns viewed these converts as a threat to their authority, and in 1639, the Tokugawa bakufu passed several laws restricting all foreigners from entering Japan, with the exception of the Dutch, who were

allowed to maintain a small trading outpost at Nagasaki. Japanese were also prohibited from leaving Japan. These laws were collectively known as the 'closed country' policy (or sakoku), and remained in place until the American Commodore Matthew Perry and his squadron of naval ships arrived at Edo Bay in 1853. This fateful event contributed to the eventual downfall of the Tokugawa bakufu and the restoration of the Meiji emperor.

SOURCE 9.1 Portuguese ship landing at an island off Kyushu, Japan, 1543, by an unknown artist, early seventeenth century. Held at the Suntory Museum of Art, Tokyo, Japan



Q Conduct some research to find out more about Portuguese ships at this time.



THE PORTUGUESE

The Portuguese first arrived in Japan in 1543 CE. They introduced Christianity to the Japanese, which flourished for a brief period before being outlawed in 1639. But their greatest contribution to the development of Japanese society came from the numerous products they traded with the Japanese.

Portuguese merchants introduced tobacco, cotton and refined sugar to Japan. The Japanese dish tempura, which is a seafood or vegetable dish fried in batter, is often incorrectly believed to have been invented by the Japanese—it was actually introduced to Japan by the Portuguese.

The Portuguese also introduced the Japanese to an early type of rifle called the arquebus. The Japanese quickly took to this initially unreliable but potentially devastating new form of weapon. Samurai first used the arquebus at the battle of Kajiki in 1549. However, arquebuses did not become significant weapons on the battlefield until Oda Nobunaga demonstrated their destructive capacity when he decimated the cavalry of the Takeda clan at the battle of Nagashino in 1575.

THE DUTCH

The Dutch began trading with the Japanese in the seventeenth century CE, and introduced vegetables such as potatoes, sweet potatoes, pumpkins and corn. All these vegetables were originally cultivated by the Native Americans and passed, via Europe, to Japan. The Dutch also brought to Japan such items as Chinese raw silk, sugar, wood, pepper and medicines. The Japanese permitted the Dutch to maintain a trading outpost at Nagasaki after the closed country policy was enforced in 1639. The Dutch built factories in Nagasaki and twice yearly they would send silver,

gold and copper bars and craftwork such as ceramics and lacquerware back to Europe by ship.

As well as products, the Dutch and the Japanese also traded knowledge. Japanese scholars learnt much about European medicine, geography, navigation, astronomy and gunnery from their visits to the Dutch trading settlement at Nagasaki. Dutch books were translated into Japanese and Japanese teachers taught important aspects of science and technology to their Japanese students. A significant outcome of this trade relationship was the establishment of the Nagasaki Naval Training Centre in 1855 by the Tokugawa bakufu. The centre was established to train Japanese cadets in modern naval skills and the use of modern naval technology. Dutch navy officers were in charge of education at the centre and many of the Japanese cadets who were educated at the centre played crucial roles in the foundation of both a modern shipbuilding industry and the Imperial Japanese Navy in Japan in the late nineteenth century.



SOURCE
9.2

Samurai holding arquebuses, mid-nineteenth century. From *Geijutsu Hideu Zue* (*Accomplishments in the Secret Arts*), by Ohmori Sakou, with illustrations by Kuniyoshi, 1855. Held in the Royal Armouries Collection, Leeds, UK



- 1 What purpose do you think the box cover serves?
- 2 How many shots do you think could be made before the samurai needed to reload? Explain your answer.

THE AMERICANS

A squadron of ten naval ships left the United States of America and sailed into Edo Bay in the summer of 1853. The Dutch had warned the Tokugawa shogun of the imminent arrival of these black metal steam-powered ships of war, but the shogun had no means of preventing the arrival of the ships, as Japan's shore defences were inadequate. The commander of the squadron, Commodore Matthew Perry, carried with him a letter addressed to the shogun from the US president requesting that Japan sign a treaty with the USA. He told the shogun that he would return the next year for the shogun's reply. With no way of stopping the US naval ships from bombarding Edo or other coastal cities and towns from the sea, the shogun was forced to sign the treaty. Later unequal treaties signed with the USA and other European nations prevented the Tokugawa bakufu from collecting tariffs on foreign goods entering Japan and also granted foreigners immunity from Japanese law, making foreigners subject to the laws of their own nation instead.

SOURCE
9.3 Plan of the Dutch Factory on the island of Desima, at Nagasaki. From *Illustrations of Japan ... Anecdotes of the Reigning Dynasty of the Djoguns*, by Isaac Titsingh, 1822



THE DECLINE OF THE TOKUGAWA BAKUFU AND THE MEIJI RESTORATION

The peace of the Tokugawa bakufu had contributed to a rapid growth in Japan's economy and also an improvement in the standard of living of most Japanese. This, combined with improved means of crop production and transport, led to a significant increase in the Japanese population during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. However, the increase in the population put a major strain on food resources. Peasant unrest grew as droughts and crop shortages led to numerous famines. By the late eighteenth century, mass protests over food shortages and taxes became a regular occurrence and culminated in the Osaka peasant rebellion of 1837.

The arrival of the American fleet in 1853 intensified the simmering resentment felt by peasants and other groups within Japanese society towards the Tokugawa bakufu. One of these groups, the tozama or outer daimyo, played a crucial role in the eventual overthrow of the bakufu. The tozama daimyo were descendants of the daimyo who had fought against Tokugawa Ieyasu at the battle of Sekigahara in 1600. They occupied strong territories, but were politically weak, as the Tokugawa shoguns

had excluded them from holding high positions within the bakufu. Already angry about the restrictions placed upon them by the bakufu, the tozama daimyo were frustrated about the bakufu's inability to enforce the closed country policy and stop Americans and Europeans from exploiting Japan. This anger towards the bakufu and foreigners spread to other daimyo and the samurai, and developed into a revolutionary doctrine known as sonnō jō: 'revere the emperor, expel the barbarians'.

In November 1867, three powerful tozama daimyo from western Japan and some discontented court nobles in Edo demanded that the shogun, Tokugawa Yoshinobu (1837–1913), resign. Tokugawa Yoshinobu succumbed to this pressure. He renounced his position as shogun



and refused to nominate a successor. On 3 January 1868, the tozama daimyo and their allies made the young Emperor Meiji (1852–1912) ruler of Japan and abolished the Tokugawa bakufu. This was the end of over seven centuries of shogun rule in Japan and also the medieval period of Japan’s history.

Emperor Meiji introduced numerous reforms that significantly changed Japanese society. He abolished all hereditary classes and deprived the samurai of their privileges. The samurai were forbidden to carry swords in public or wear their distinctive hairstyle called the chonmage, which involved shaving the front part of the head and tying the remaining hair in a ponytail. A parliament was established, called the Diet, and political parties were formed to debate policy and govern the nation. The emperor also introduced a rapid program of industrial and military modernisation that made Japan as economically and militarily powerful as the nations of Europe and the United States by the beginning of the twentieth century.

SOURCE 9.4 Japanese woodblock print of Commodore Perry’s naval squadron entering Edo Bay in 1853, by Taiso Yoshitoshi, nineteenth century. Held at the British Museum

TIME TO THINK ...

1 SHOGUNATE JAPAN AND ITS LINKS TO OTHER COUNTRIES

- a** Were you surprised by how easily the Japanese adopted and used commodities and technologies invented by others such as the Portuguese during the medieval period? Why or why not?
- b** Did the Japanese have a tradition of adopting foreign innovations or inventions? If so, what advantage might this have given the Japanese in their dealings with more technologically advanced countries such as Britain and the United States during the nineteenth century?
- c** What links or connections does Australia have with Japan today? Are they just based on trade? How do both Australia and Japan benefit from these links?

2 EVIDENCE

- a** What did you learn about the types of evidence historians use to understand medieval Japanese society?
- b** Which pieces of evidence were the most valuable to historians in learning about medieval Japanese society?

3 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

- a** How did Japanese society change from the Nara and Heian periods through the Kamakura period to the end of the Tokugawa period?
- b** Do you think Japanese people benefited as a consequence of these changes? If not all people, then which group/s of people?

4 HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE AND HERITAGE

- a** Why do we study shogunate Japan today?
- b** What is significant about this period in history and what does it tell us about modern Japan?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 Feudalism in Japan

Read again about the rise of feudalism in Japan in Unit 3 and identify the important characteristics of feudal society in Japan. Conduct further research, using books and the internet, about the important characteristics of feudalism in medieval Europe. Then write a short report (around 350 words) comparing feudalism in medieval Japan and medieval Europe and answer the following question: *How did feudalism in Japan differ from feudalism in Europe?*

#2 A day in the life of a samurai

Imagine you are a samurai living in medieval Japan. Read about the samurai again in this chapter, and also research the life of a samurai during this period, using the internet, books and other sources. Then write a one-page diary entry on a day in your life. Begin and end your diary entry with the rising and the setting of the sun.

#3 Designing a Zen garden

- Using the internet or books, research information about one of the famous Zen gardens in Japan. In particular, try to discover why your chosen garden was designed the way it was.
- Make a model of the garden using a wooden or plastic tray. Fill the tray with sand or fine gravel and carefully position some rocks and moss (or other material such as green felt) in place.
- Present your Zen garden to the class and explain what each part represents.

#4 What if the kamikaze never occurred?

- Using books and the internet, research more about:
 - the kamikaze that destroyed the second Mongol fleet of 1281, described in Unit 5
 - the Mongol/Yuan dynasty that ruled China from 1215 to 1368.
- Think about why the kamikaze was significant and how it contributed to saving Japan from Mongol conquest.
- Write an alternative history (around 500 words) of what might have happened if the weather had remained calm and the sea placid, and the kamikaze had never arrived to destroy the Mongol fleet. What might Japan have been like under Mongol rule?

#5 Presentation on a religion or religious belief

Using the internet, books and other sources, research a Japanese religion, sect or system of belief. You could research Zen Buddhism, Shinto, Bushidō or one of the many Buddhist sects that existed in medieval Japan. Then create an electronic slideshow and present it to the class. The slideshow should cover the establishment of the religion, sect or system of belief in Japan, the key figures in the development of its theories or its growth, its organisation (if it has one, for instance location of important monasteries) and some of the important beliefs that it promoted.

#6 Biography of an emperor, a shogun or a key historical figure

Think about what you have read about Japan and the key historical figures who ruled, or fought to rule, during the medieval period. Conduct more research on one of these figures using books from your library and/or the internet. Write a detailed 500-word biography of the contribution your leader made to medieval Japanese history. Make sure you include important and interesting information not found in this chapter.



SOURCE
10.1

Three members of the shogun bodyguards, in traditional clothes, portrayed in front of a tea house, 1863–68. The young soldiers, armed with long swords, are posing beside a waitress, who is serving the tea.

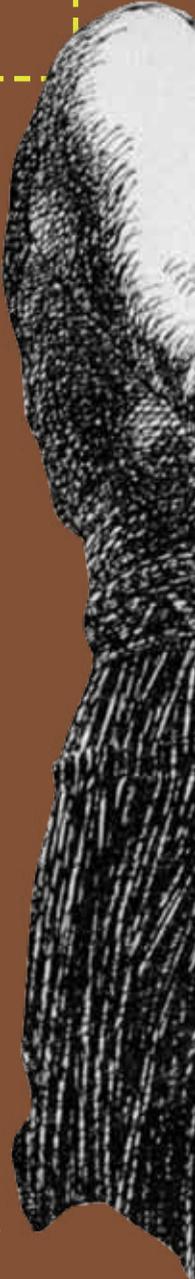
KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

What were the origins of the Polynesians?

How did the Polynesians migrate across the Pacific Ocean?

What are some of the key social, cultural and environmental aspects of Polynesian society?

What effect did European contact have on Polynesia?



The Polynesian Triangle sits at the heart of the Pacific Ocean. The settlement of Polynesia was one of the greatest epics in human migration. This chapter explores the origins, seafaring and cultural development of the Polynesians, one of the most diverse group of people on Earth.

POLYNESIAN

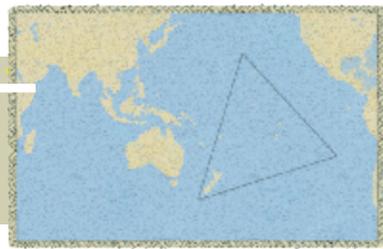


SOURCE
0.1 The demi-god Māui, fishing up Aotearoa from the sea, by Wilhelm Dittmer (1866–1909). Held at the Alexander Turnbull Library, Wellington, New Zealand



EXPANSION

SNAPSHOT



1

Great continents of Sunda and Sahul

prior to 50 000
First settlers arrive in Australia

30 000 First settlers reach the end of the Solomon Islands

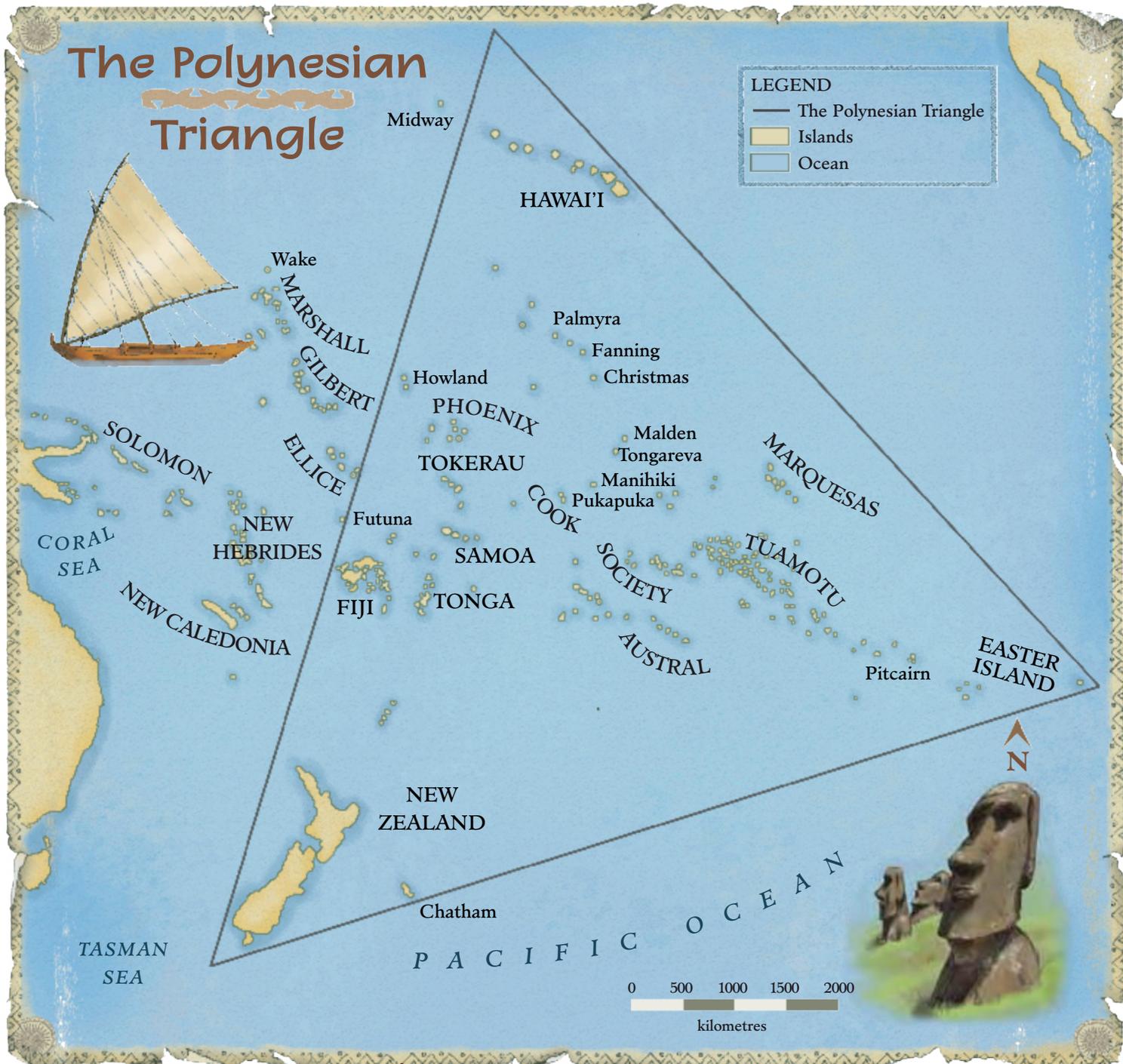
10 000 Sea levels begin to rise
8000 Further migrations into Oceania

50 000 BCE

40 000 BCE

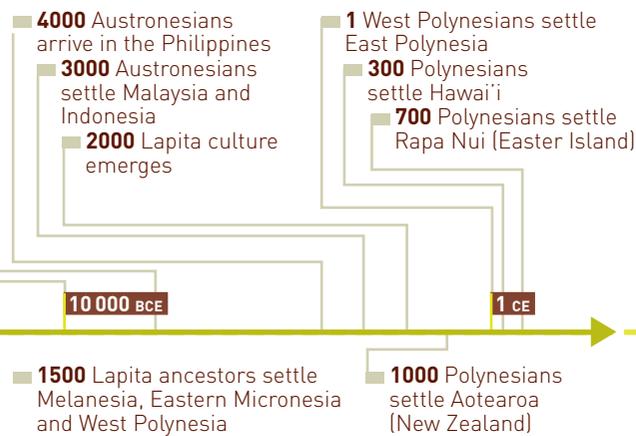
30 000 BCE

20 000 BCE



SOURCE 1.1

The Polynesian Triangle. This map and chapter use the traditional names of islands and island groups. The English name is given in brackets the first time each place is referred to in each unit.



SOURCE 1.2 Timeline of Polynesia

THE POLYNESIAN TRIANGLE

The **Polynesian Triangle** is formed by Hawai'i in the north, Tonga and Samoa in the west, Rapa Nui (Easter Island) in the east, and Aotearoa (New Zealand) in the south. It is 995 parts water to 5 parts land, with more than 30 000 islands scattered across the Pacific Ocean—the largest body of water in the world.

The Polynesian Triangle is one of three large, culturally distinctive island groupings in the Pacific—the other two being Micronesia and Melanesia. The islands of Polynesia form a number of major groups, with isolated islands between them. The Polynesian Triangle can be divided between West Polynesia, the Polynesian Outliers, East Polynesia and Remote East Polynesia.

ECONOMY AND ENVIRONMENT

Early Polynesian economies were based on the large-scale cultivation of **tubers** and fruits, including taro, sweet potato, yams, coconuts, bananas and breadfruit. Tubers are the fleshy part of an underground root, such as a sweet potato, that stores well as food over winter. Also important was animal husbandry of animals such as pigs, chickens and the Polynesian dog and rat; the gathering of natural resources; and extensive fishing and inter-island trade. The sweet potato was the most important food in Aotearoa because other tubers did not grow very well in the colder climate. Coconuts, Polynesian pigs and chickens did not survive in the climate of Aotearoa or Rapa.

Like all human migration, the arrival of Polynesians initially had a negative impact on the environment. Scores of bird species were made extinct, particularly in the first few centuries of settlement when societies were adapting to their new environments. The Māori in Aotearoa were probably responsible for the extinction of the giant moa. They also burnt off large tracts of forest to facilitate the growth of the aruhe bracken fern, as its roots were a good source of food. Once cropping agriculture was established, environmental damage lessened. Overall, the Polynesian economy was much less exploitative than the modern Western system.



MIGRATION TO THE PACIFIC

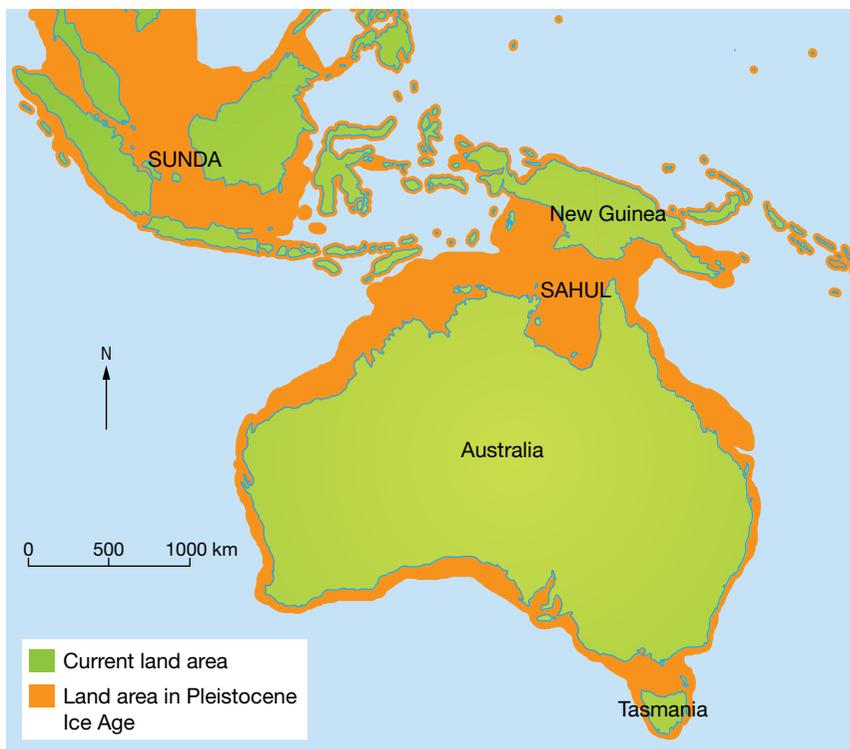
The settlement of Polynesia was the culmination of one of the greatest sequences of human migration in history. The first migrations into the Pacific occurred between 60 000 and 30 000 years ago during the last Ice Age. Sea levels were much lower and distances across water between islands in the South-East Asia region much shorter than they are today. The islands of Java and Borneo were joined to mainland South-East Asia, and New Guinea and Australia were connected, forming two continents—**Sunda** and **Sahul**.

The first humans crossed from Sunda to Sahul, travelling from island to island, which were sometimes as little as 5 kilometres apart. These people reached the far south of Australia by at least 50 000 BCE and the far end of the Solomon Island chain by 30 000 BCE.

AUSTRONESIAN CULTURE

The last Ice Age ended between 12 000 and 10 000 BCE, which caused sea levels to rise. These reached present levels at around 6000 BCE. As a result of rising sea levels, the Sunda and Sahul continents began breaking up into the islands of South-East Asia and Oceania, which include present-day Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia and New Guinea.

People living in this region adapted to their new ocean environment by becoming masters of navigation, which they achieved without modern instruments such as the compass or sextant. In about 6000 BCE, Austronesian-speaking people emerged after a significant migration from Taiwan into the Philippines.

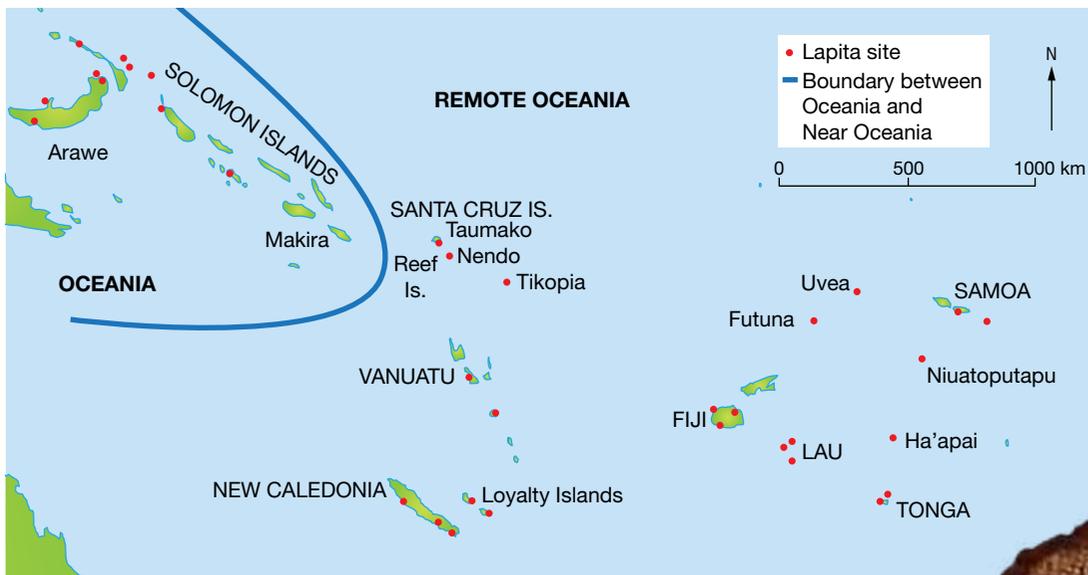


The **Austronesians** were highly capable navigators. The archaeological record shows widespread trade in stone resources and the relocating of animals and plants over long distances across the region.

Over the following centuries, the descendants of the Austronesians expanded throughout the rest of Oceania and the Pacific. By 5000 BCE, the Austronesians in the Philippines had settled Malaysia and Indonesia. This expansion occurred through:

- a rapid migration from Taiwan through the Philippines
- a merging with prior migration populations
- new cultural adaptations such as pottery
- new technological innovations, for example in canoe building.

SOURCE 2.1 Continents of Sunda and Sahul. Note the extended land areas due to lower sea levels during the Pleistocene Ice Age (110 000 to 10 000 BCE)



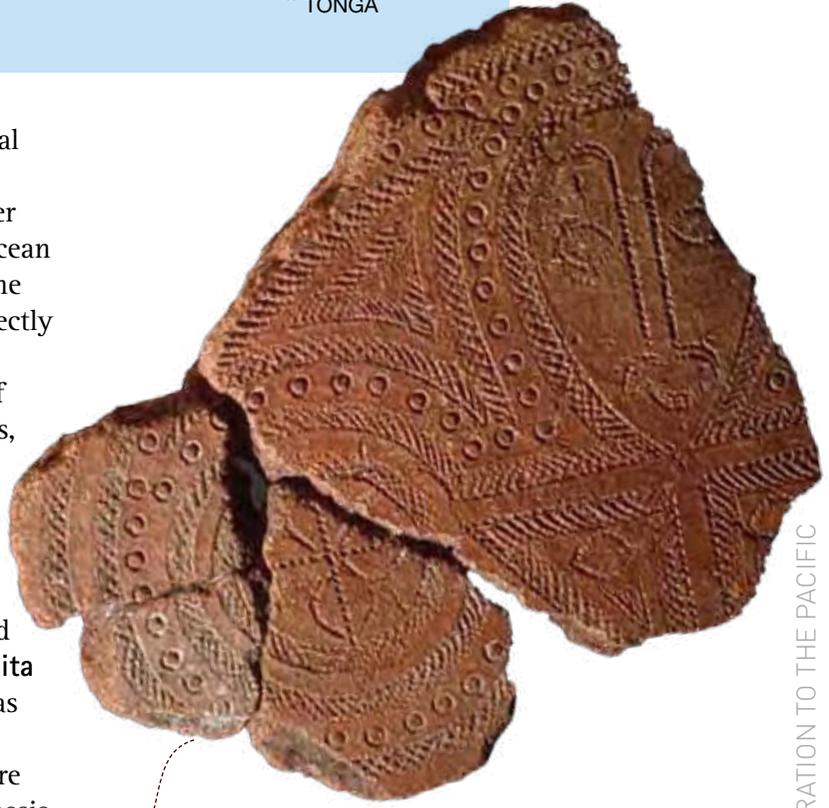
SOURCE 2.2 Distribution of Lapita sites in Remote Oceania

The Austronesian navigators expanded in several directions. Sailing north-east, they settled the Marianas Islands of western Micronesia. Another branch travelled westwards across the Indian Ocean and Arabian Gulf and settled Madagascar, off the southern African coast. Others pushed more directly south and eastwards through Indonesia and the northern shores of New Guinea to the islands of the Bismarck Archipelago, the Admiralty Islands, New Britain and New Ireland.

LAPITA CULTURE

The arrival of Austronesians in the Bismarck Archipelago, Admiralty Islands, New Britain and New Ireland heralded the appearance of the **Lapita** culture in about 2000 BCE. The Lapita culture was characterised by the development of distinctive indented pottery. The remains of their pottery are found on the islands they settled in East Micronesia, Melanesia and West Polynesia.

The Lapita peoples were the most sophisticated of the Austronesian navigators. They spread from the Bismarck Archipelago northward to the Caroline Islands, the Marshall Islands and Kiribati of Eastern Micronesia. They also spread southward through the Solomon Islands, Vanuatu and Kanaky (New Caledonia) in Melanesia before turning eastward into the Pacific Ocean. Here they settled Fiji and the Polynesian archipelagos of Tonga, Samoa, Tokelau and Tuvalu between 1500 and 1000 BCE. Over a period of just 300 to 400 years, the Lapita people had crossed 6000 kilometres to the east from the Bismarck Archipelago to West Polynesia.



SOURCE 2.3 A fragment of Lapita pottery from the Solomon Islands, held at the University of Auckland, New Zealand. This fragment depicts a human face. The Lapita pottery is a very stylised, intricate and geometric tradition of pottery making.

- Q**
- 1 Trace the pottery design onto a piece of tracing paper.
 - 2 Using your tracery to help you, which features of the face can you see? (Hint: Look at the right hand side of the fragment.)



SOURCE 2.4 The roots of taputini kumara, or sweet potato

POLYNESIAN CULTURE

The ancestors of the Polynesians remained in West Polynesia for about 1500 years before pushing eastward to the central East Polynesian islands of Tahiti, Rarotonga (Cook Islands), Tuamotu and Te Henua Enata (Marquesas Islands), arriving there about 2000 years ago. From here they made some of the longest voyages in history over open sea without modern navigational instruments. They discovered and settled Hawai'i, Rapa Nui (Easter Island) and Aotearoa (New Zealand), thereby joining the three points of the Polynesian Triangle. Most scholars now also believe that about 1000 years ago the ancestors of the Polynesians sailed as far east as the Americas and returned with the sweet potato. It became one of the staple crops of East Polynesia, particularly in Aotearoa.

THE SETTLEMENT OF POLYNESIA: ORIGIN DEBATES

The settlement of Polynesia has generated a number of debates. The first debate is about where the ancestors of the Polynesians came from: South-East Asia in the west or South America in the east.

FROM SOUTH AMERICA

Origin in the Americas was supported by the arguments that the sweet potato and the bottle gourd came from the Americas and that the stone

statues on Te Henua Enata, Rapa and Rapa Nui reflected the stone construction of Aztec, Inca and Mayan cultures. This view was popularised in 1947 when Thor Heyerdahl used a balsawood raft to float 8000 kilometres from South America to Polynesia.

LANGUAGE

Heyerdahl's theory never gained acceptance among anthropologists. Physical and cultural evidence had long suggested that Polynesia was settled west to east from South-East Asia. The study of languages or linguistics shows that the Polynesian languages are derived from the Austronesian language group. The word for 'red' is *kura* in Māori, *kula* in Tonga and *pula* in the Philippines. The number 'two' is *rua* in Māori, *lua* in Samoa and *dua* in much of Indonesia. The Austronesian word *mata*, meaning 'eye', is widespread throughout the Austronesian languages.

PLANTS AND ANIMALS

The South-East Asia origin is supported by evidence of transported animal and plant foods. The Pacific or Polynesian rat, dog, pig and fowl were transported from the South-East Asian seaboard into the Pacific as food animals. The Austronesian navigating peoples also introduced cultivatable plants into the Pacific, often picking up new ones as they migrated west to east, such as from New Guinea. These plants included sago, pandanus, coconut, banana, taro, breadfruit and the yam. Lapita ancestors transported twenty-eight crop plants into Polynesia.

THAT BEFORE THE SPREAD OF ENGLISH, THE AUSTRONESIAN LANGUAGES WERE THE MOST WIDESPREAD IN THE WORLD?

Spoken by more than 300 million people, Austronesian languages are found on parts of mainland South-East Asia, the island of Taiwan, the Philippines, Malaysia, Indonesia, Madagascar and all of Micronesia, Melanesia and Polynesia. Austronesian includes over 1260 languages, which is about 20 per cent of all the languages spoken in the world.

DID YOU KNOW

MATERIAL CULTURE

The study of material culture, for example how fish hooks are made, shows that Polynesian practices have more in common with Austronesian South-East Asia than the Americas. Construction in stone was also quite common throughout Polynesia and Austronesia, which defeats the idea it was copied from the Americas.

DNA

In the 1990s, DNA analysis of female-inherited genetic material and of the Y chromosome (inherited through males) confirmed that the Polynesians are related to indigenous peoples of South-East Asia, including those of Taiwan. This shows that their ancestors probably came from Asia.

DELIBERATE NAVIGATION OR DRIFT VOYAGING?

A second debate concerned whether or not the ancestors of the Polynesians arrived in the Pacific as a result of deliberate voyaging or drift voyages. The drift voyage theory was popularised by a writer named Andrew Sharp, who claimed in his book *Ancient Voyages of the Pacific* (1957) that the settlement of Polynesia had occurred as the result of accidental drift during voyages when sailors were blown off course during storms. Sharp estimated that thousands of people must have drowned at sea.

Sharp's theory has now been discounted. The log books of many early European explorers of the Pacific, such as James Cook and Louis-Antoine de Bougainville, contain first-hand observations that the Polynesians were capable navigators. Research during the 1960s also discovered a number of sailors still using traditional methods to navigate in the Polynesian Outliers, Melanesia and Micronesia. Since that time, a number of renaissance voyages undertaken by modern replica canoes confirm that journeys over long distances without modern navigational equipment are possible.



SOURCE
2.5

'Ue gourd made with coconut husk fibre and tapa, or the bark of the paper mulberry tree, and also cork and metal. Held at Museum of New Zealand, Te Papa Tongarewa

Q

- 1 In what ways is this both a primary source and a secondary source?
- 2 What do you think this gourd might be used for? Why do you think this is?

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE POLYNESIANS SAILED EAST TO THE AMERICAS TO GET TWO OF THEIR MOST IMPORTANT VEGETABLES?

This idea is supported by:

- the presence of the coconut and discovery of chicken bones in Central America that came from the Pacific
- the presence of sweet potato and gourd in Polynesia
- the evidence that the Polynesians were capable sailors.

THE CRADLE OF NAVIGATION

Research over the last twenty years by Geoff Irwin from Aotearoa has explained how the early Austronesians developed their skills in the Oceania island area of the Philippines, Malaysia and Indonesia. Irwin argued that this region provided a safe haven where the skills of navigation were developed over several centuries because distances between islands increased only gradually from west to east. The prevailing Pacific winds and currents provided a safety margin as well, because they came from the opposite direction. Adventurers who did not find land could turn around and return home much faster with the wind and current behind them.

remembering & understanding

#1 Reread Units 1 and 2 carefully, and then draw up a 'Polynesian Expansion' glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.

- Austronesians
- Lapita
- Polynesian Outliers
- Polynesian Triangle
- Sahul
- Sunda
- tubers

#2 Which islands form the 'points' of the Polynesian Triangle?

#3 What made the first migrations into the Pacific area possible?

#4 What were the key features of the west-to-east migration that made navigation safe, as outlined in the section 'The cradle of navigation'?

#5 What are some of the words that are common across Polynesia and/or Austronesia?

understanding & applying

#6 Download a map of the Pacific region from the internet or locate one in your atlas and trace it onto a large piece of paper and complete the following tasks. (Remember to include BOLTSS.)

- a Identify the Polynesian Triangle by drawing it on your map.
- b Locate and mark the Polynesian Outliers of Rennell and Bellona, Santa Cruz and Kapingamarangi.
- c Measure the distances between:
 - i Hawai'i and Tahiti
 - ii Aotearoa and Rarotonga
 - iii Rapa and Rapa Nui.
- d Trace the migrations from:
 - i South-East Asia to Australia and the end of the Solomon Islands
 - ii Taiwan through the Philippines, Malaysia and Indonesia to the Bismarck Archipelago, Admiralty Islands and New Britain

- iii the Bismarck Archipelago, Admiralty Islands and New Britain through Vanuatu and Kanaky to West Polynesia
- iv central East Polynesia to Hawai'i, Rapa Nui and New Zealand.

analysing & evaluating

#7 Using your map work from Question 6, answer the following question: *How has the geography of the region affected the development of cultures in the Polynesian Triangle?*

#8 At some point in the past, the ancestors of the Polynesians stopped making Lapita pottery. Nobody really knows why. Some people think this is because the ancestors chose to use things like gourds (the hard skins of some fruits and vegetables) and coconut shells as containers. With a partner, conduct some further research into Lapita pottery and construct a hypothesis as to why the ancestors of the Polynesians stopped making pottery.

- #9**
- a Reread the section 'The settlement of Polynesia: origin debates' and rank the theories in order of validity, from the one you think is the most valid to the one that is the least valid.
 - b Share your ranking with a partner. Did you agree? Create a new ranking with which you both agree.
 - c Share your new ranking with the class. Have a class discussion and decide on a class ranking.

evaluating & creating

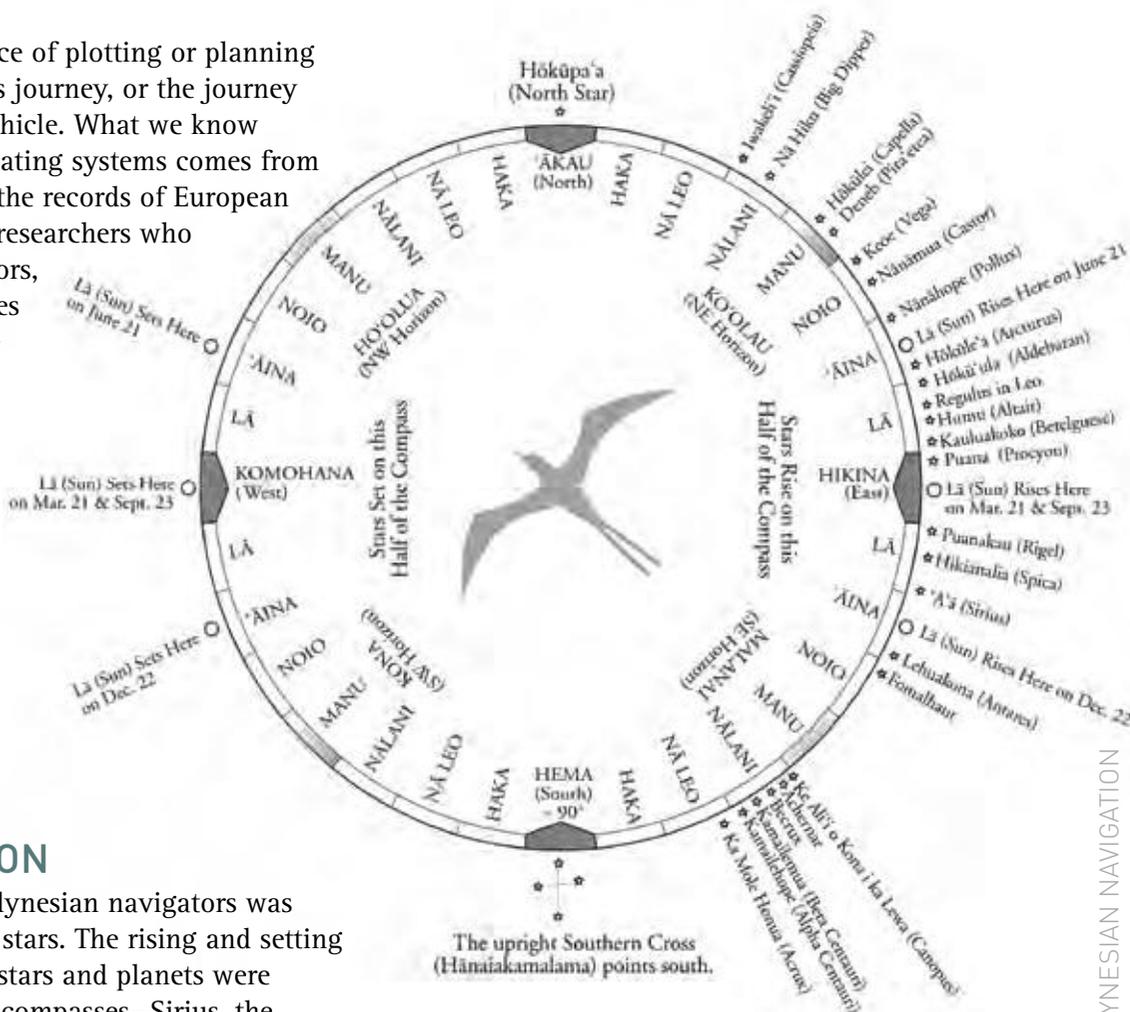
#10 Choose one of the theories and evidence from the section 'The settlement of Polynesia: origin debates' and conduct some further research. Create a short brochure or an AVD that explains the theory and its corresponding evidence more fully.

creating

#11 Using Source 2.2 and further research on the internet to help you, create your own intricate geometric design for a piece of pottery in the Lapita traditional style.

POLYNESIAN NAVIGATION

Navigation is the science of plotting or planning the direction of a ship's journey, or the journey of any other type of vehicle. What we know about traditional navigating systems comes from Pacific oral traditions, the records of European explorers, the work of researchers who visited the last navigators, and renaissance voyages on replica canoes since the 1970s.



VOYAGING AT SEA

STAR NAVIGATION

The greatest skill of Polynesian navigators was their knowledge of the stars. The rising and setting points of the brightest stars and planets were memorised in oral star compasses—Sirius, the brightest star; the distinctive triple stars of Orion; Arcturus, the brightest northern star; Canopus, the brightest southern star; and the north- and south-oriented Polaris and Southern Cross.

Navigators would steer their canoes towards a star on the **horizon**, which is the place where the land or sea appears to meet the sky. When that star rose higher in the sky, or set beneath the horizon, they would choose another star to steer by. Seven to twelve stars were sufficient for one night's navigation for any voyage. The Sun and Moon and the planets, Venus and Jupiter, were highly useful.

SOURCE
3.1

Polynesian star compass, created by Charles Nainoa Thompson (Nainoa) in 1977. It shows an image of a bird in the middle of a circle surrounded with different terms relating to the traditional way of navigating.



- 1 Compare this Polynesian star compass with a traditional compass. What similarities and differences can you find?
- 2 Search for a modern star chart or atlas on the internet or in your library, and compare it with the Polynesian star compass. What similarities and differences can you find?

OCEAN SWELLS AND WINDS

When the skies became **overcast** with clouds, navigators maintained course according to the direction of swells and winds. The prevailing winds push up ocean swells that remain constant over long periods. Navigators would keep their canoes running at the same angle to these swells. Sudden changes in the motion of the canoe would indicate that the canoe had changed course. Navigators would also keep their canoes in line with the direction of the wind, using pennants tied to the rigging and mast as a guide. When conditions changed, navigators knew that the wind would change before the swells did, and adjust their course between the two.

LAND-FINDING AND ZENITH STARS

Having **traversed**, or crossed, the ocean, a navigator's task was to find their target island. **Zenith stars** that stand directly over islands when reaching their highest point in the night sky were useful for locating islands once the canoe was closer to land. Arcturus is the zenith star for Hawai'i, and Sirius the zenith star for Ra'iatea in Tahiti. When immediately beneath their target star, navigators knew that they were within 80 kilometres of the destination island.

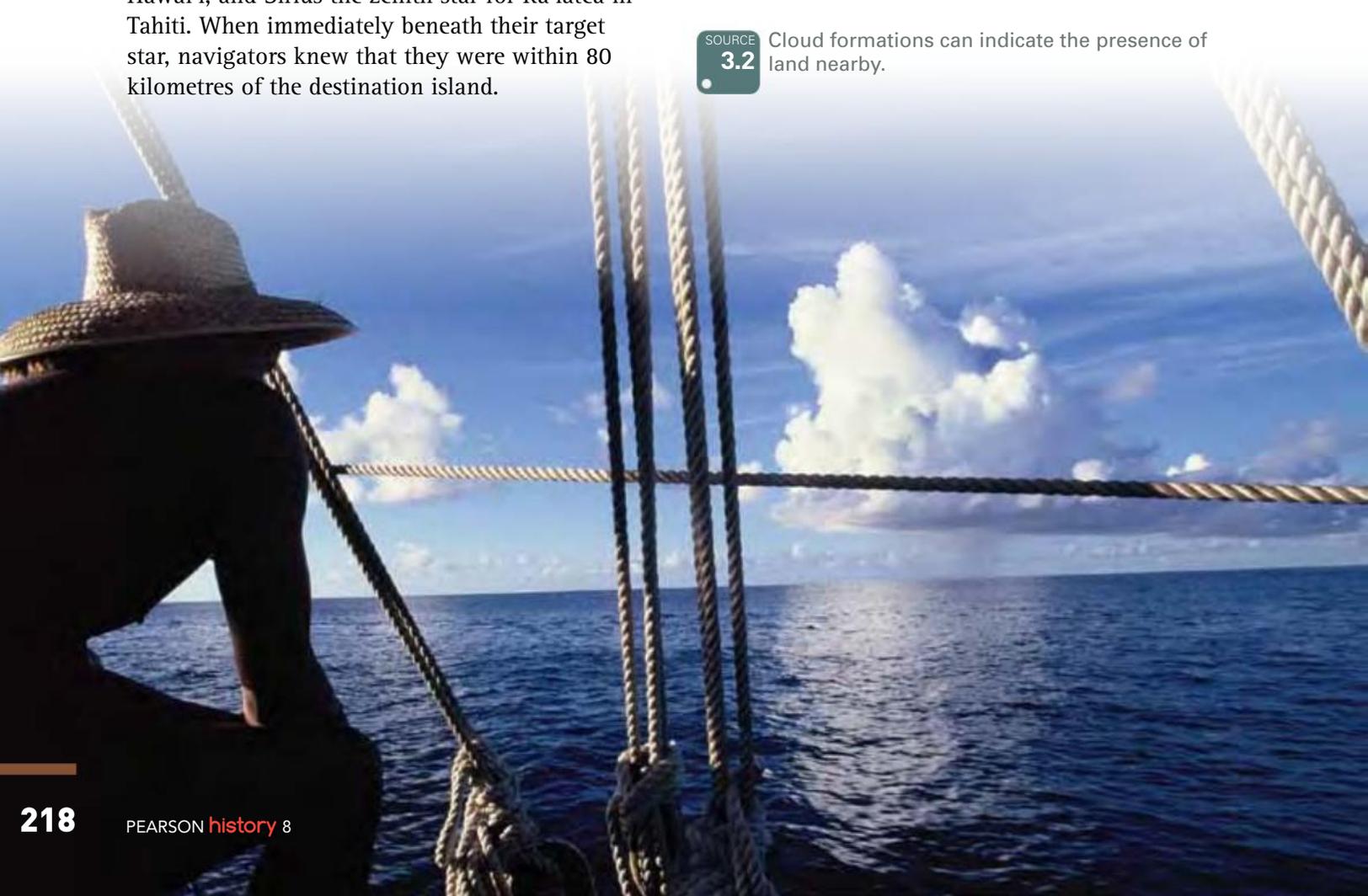
STAR PAIRS

Meridian stars are pairs of stars that are very useful in land-finding. For instance, in Hawai'i the bottom of the upright Southern Cross stands four fingers above the horizon. Navigators travelling south would see it rise to one full hand span above the horizon at the Equator and increase to just over two hand spans when approaching the latitude of Tahiti. Navigators then knew to search east or west for their target islands. The distance the stars rise or fall in the sky matched the distance the canoe sailed north and south on the ocean.

CLOUDS

The shape, movement and colour of clouds over land indicate land is close by. Clouds over large islands build up during the day and are more stationary than clouds over the sea. High cloud over Tahiti and Hawai'i can be seen 150 kilometres away. Small, eyebrow-shaped clouds over small atolls can be seen up to 50 kilometres away. The cloud base over forested islands is dark or green, pinkish cloud indicates a reef, and an especially bright cloud creates a **loom effect** as sunlight is reflected off atoll lagoons.

SOURCE 3.2 Cloud formations can indicate the presence of land nearby.



LAND-ROOSTING BIRDS

Land-roosting birds that fly out to sea at sunrise to fish and return to their nests on land at sunset also signal land.

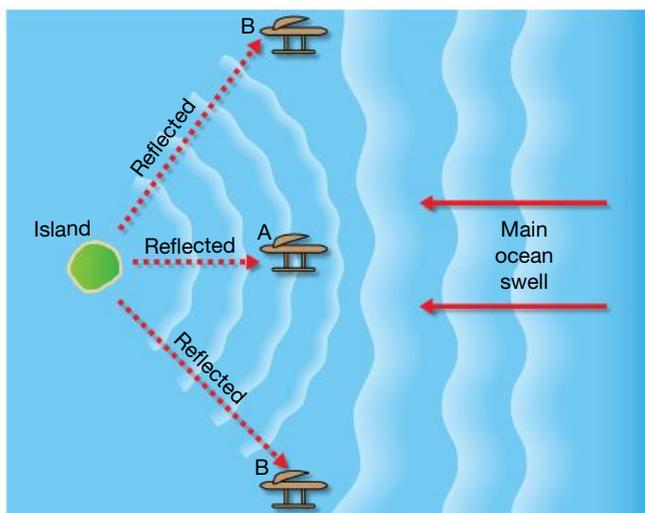
Frigate birds can be seen 100 kilometres from land, gannets and petrels 70 kilometres from land, and terns 50 kilometres from land.

LAND SWELLS

Experienced navigators could detect distinctive **land swell patterns**. Reflected or bounce-back waves take shape when the prevailing swell strikes the island and bounces back upon itself. This can be detected 50 kilometres away from small islands and up to 300 kilometres away from large land masses. Refracted swell patterns form when the swell divides and curls around an island and crosses over itself. Navigators can detect the confused wave pattern or shadow of turbulence and zero in on the island.

Waves are different when you get near land. The change takes place about 15–20 miles [about 24–32 kilometres] offshore and is due to the wave reflected back from the shore. The reflected wave is called te ngaru fenua, the land wave. It is faint when far from land and needs an expert to detect [it].

SOURCE 3.3 Tupuai, a Tikopian navigator, explaining how reflected swells can indicate when land is near, from *We, the Navigators: the Ancient Art of Landfinding in the Pacific*, by David Lewis, 1994



SOURCE 3.4 Land swell pattern



SOURCE 3.5 A land-roosting frigate bird

Q If a sailor sees one of these birds, how far away is land?

SEAMARKS

Changes in the colour of the sea, fish species and ocean currents, the scent of land, and the appearance of whirlpools, seaweed, driftwood, leaves, branches and other debris also told of nearby land.

EXPANDED TARGETS

The combination of islands and natural indicators formed expanded targets 50 kilometres across. Where these overlapped, island blocks, sometimes several hundreds of kilometres long, could be detected long before land was seen. Where several islands were close by they formed an island screen.

THE RENAISSANCE OF VOYAGING

Polynesian voyaging declined in the larger islands after European colonisation because of population decline, replacement of traditional craft with European shipping and government bans on traditional sailing. During the 1960s, several navigators were discovered on small remote islands still using traditional methods. One of the navigators, Mau Piailug from Satawal in the Caroline Islands of Micronesia, was sent to Hawai'i to teach the ancient craft to young Hawai'ians. This led to a **renaissance** or rebirth of traditional Polynesian navigational techniques and many voyages were undertaken to test out this rediscovered knowledge.

HŌKULE'A

In the early 1970s, the Polynesian Voyaging Society in Hawai'i built the *Hōkule'a*, a 20-metre double-hulled canoe made from fibreglass and plywood. The *Hōkule'a* completed a 10 000-kilometre return voyage to Tahiti in 1976, under the guidance of Mau Piailug. In 1980, a second return voyage to Tahiti was made. These voyages proved that traditional non-instrumental navigation methods worked.

Mau Piailug taught a young Hawai'ian, Charles Nainoa Thompson, much of what he knew. Nainoa Thompson went on to teach a new generation of young navigators from Tahiti, Te Henua Enata (Marquesas), Rarotonga (Cook Islands) and Aotearoa (New Zealand).

THE VOYAGE OF REDISCOVERY

In 1985, Nainoa Thompson launched a two-year voyage of rediscovery, sailing the *Hōkule'a* from Hawai'i to Tahiti, Tahiti to Rarotonga, Rarotonga to Aotearoa, Aotearoa to Tonga and Samoa, Tonga and Samoa to Rarotonga, Rarotonga to Tahiti, and home again to Hawai'i.

In one interesting incident on the leg between Samoa to Tahiti, the *Hōkule'a* had to make a sudden detour to Rarotonga. The reason for this was that the European boat escorting the *Hōkule'a* (a standard safety procedure) broke down in bad weather and had to be escorted by the *Hōkule'a* to Rarotonga for repairs!

THAT CHARLES NAINOA THOMPSON COULD UNDERTAKE A MONTH-LONG SEA VOYAGE IN AN HOUR?

He could do this with the help of the planetarium at the Bishop Museum in Hawai'i. A planetarium is a building with a domed ceiling onto which images of stars, planets and so on can be projected. The projector used in a planetarium is, rather confusingly, also called a planetarium. The planetarium would be set to spin faster than normal so that Nainoa could watch the stars as they rose and set and track their paths. He would often do this all night, dozing under the rotating stars and waking at intervals to record his observations.

SOURCE The canoe *Hōkule'a* sailing in Hawai'i

3.6



- 1 With a partner, discuss what sort of preparations you think the sailors would need to make for this journey to be successful.
- 2 Would this type of journey be easier and safer now than it was in 1976? Why or why not?



RAPA NUI

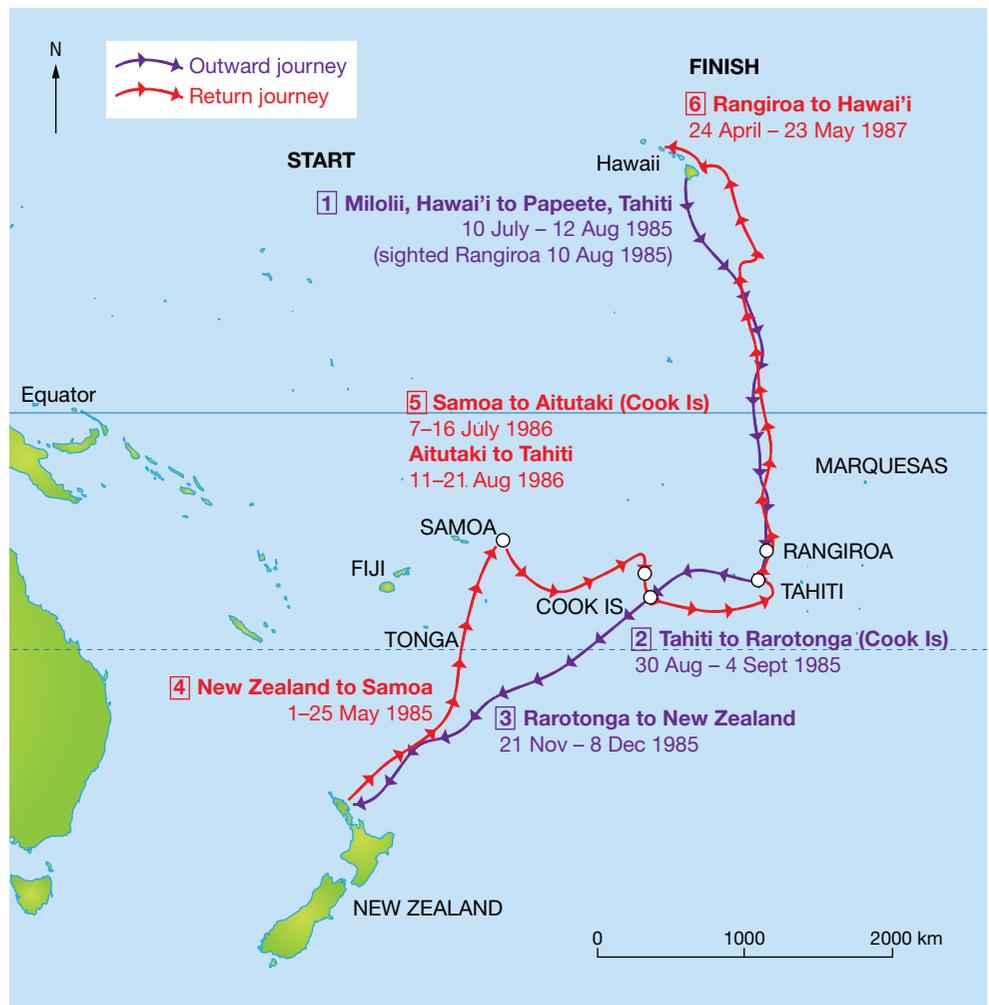
In 1999 and 2000, the *Hōkule'a* sailed from Hawai'i to Rapa Nui (Easter Island) and back again. This was a significant voyage because the route to Rapa Nui is one of the longest and most difficult pathways sailed by the ancestors. The voyage was additionally significant because six women crewed the *Hōkule'a* on a return leg to Hawai'i and one, Pi'ikea Miller, became the first female navigator of the modern period.

TE AURERE

Hekenukumai Busby from Northland in Aotearoa built the *Te Aurere*, which made a dramatic voyage from Aotearoa to Rarotonga in 1992. Mau Piailug was again the navigator. The canoe was battered by several storms for days on end. In one incident, the New Zealand Meteorological Service instructed *Te Aurere* by radio to sail in a certain direction. Mau, relying on his traditional skills, suggested another. *Te Aurere* followed the Meteorological Service advice and ran into an even worse storm. A few days later, this happened again, but this time the crew decided to follow Mau. They sailed into calmer weather.

THE FLEET FROM TE HENUA ENATA (MARQUESAS) TO HAWAI'I

In 1995, *Te Aurere* sailed from Te Henua Enata to Hawai'i with several other modern waka including the *Tākitumu* and *Te Au o Tonga* from Rarotonga, and *Hōkule'a* and *Hawai'iloa* from Hawai'i. This expedition was a celebration of the first migration to Hawai'i and of the renaissance. The captains and crew on each boat were all students of Mau Piailug and Nainoa Thompson. On the return trip, *Te Aurere* sailed for thirty days non-stop directly to Rarotonga and then on to Aotearoa.



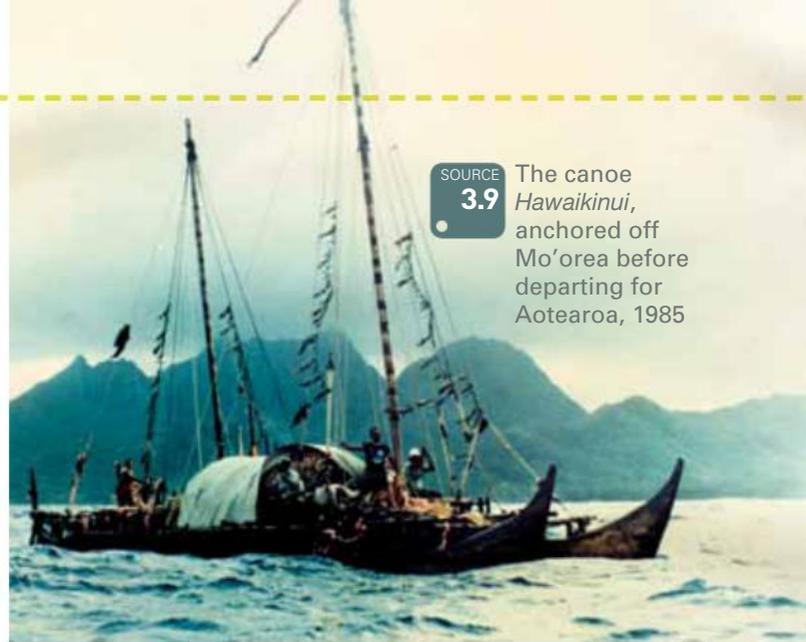
SOURCE Voyage of rediscovery, 1985–87

HAWAIKINUI

Renaissance voyages have been criticised several times. The *Hōkule'a* was made from modern materials, *Te Au o Tonga* has an engine and *Te Aurere* an outboard motor, and most carry radios and satellite navigation systems as safety back-ups. The *Hawaikinui* is the only canoe that cannot be criticised for those reasons. Built by Te Matahi Greg Whakataka-Brightwell from Aotearoa, the hulls were hand-carved from totara trees and lashed together with sennit rope made from coconut fibre. The masts were bamboo and the sails woven from pandanus leaf. Whakataka-Brightwell and Francis Cowan, a Tahitian navigator, sailed the *Hawaikinui* from Tahiti to Rarotonga (Cook Islands), and then on to Aotearoa during 1985. This was a dramatic voyage, with the waka sailing through several storms without any modern aids or outside assistance.

I put aside my fears. Navigators have faith in the words of their ancestors. This is what we call courage. With this courage you can travel anywhere in the world and not get lost. Because I have faith in the words of my ancestors I am a navigator. I learned these words when I was a young boy in my father's canoe.

SOURCE 3.8 Mau Piailug's description of what it was like to be a traditional navigator, in an interview in *The Navigators: Pathfinders of the Pacific*, by Sam Low, 1983



SOURCE 3.9 The canoe *Hawaikinui*, anchored off Mo'orea before departing for Aotearoa, 1985

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'Polynesian Expansion' glossary, define the following words:
- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------|
| ■ horizon | ■ overcast |
| ■ land swell patterns | ■ planetarium |
| ■ loom effect | ■ renaissance |
| ■ meridian stars | ■ traverse |
| ■ navigation | ■ zenith stars |
- #2** How would a navigator keep on course when the sky was clouded over?
- #3** What signs indicate that you are close to land?
- #4** Why did Polynesian voyaging decline after European colonisation?
- #5** Who was Mau Piailug and why is he important?

applying & analysing

- #6** Read the unit again carefully to help you create a concept map or other graphic organiser of your choice that both summarises and explains the techniques a Polynesian sailor would use to navigate.

analysing & evaluating

- #7** Why do you think 'population decline, replacement of traditional craft with European shipping and government bans on traditional sailing' would have led to the decline of Polynesian voyaging?

- #8** Reread Source 3.8. What do you think Mau Piailug meant by these words?
- #9** With a partner, visit the website of the Polynesian Voyaging Society and complete the following tasks.
- Choose one of the voyages that has been undertaken since 1976 and describe how the captain and crew planned their voyage. How did they overcome the challenges of being at sea?
 - Explore the site further and decide on the most helpful features for learning about Polynesian voyaging.
- #10** What are the criticisms of renaissance voyaging? What do you think of these criticisms? Give reasons for your answer.

creating

- #11** Visit the Polynesian Voyaging Society website, choose one of the ancient voyaging stories to be found there and complete one of the following tasks.
- Either individually or with a partner, create a storyboard that retells the story of your chosen voyage.
 - In a small group, create a short play about your chosen voyage. Prepare a short script and any appropriate props that you may require.

POLYNESIAN SOCIETIES

UNIT
4

TONGA AND SAMOA

For much of its history Tongan society was ruled by three royal dynasties—the Tu'i Tonga, who ruled until 1500, the Tu'i Ha'atakalaua, who ruled until 1600, and the Tu'i Kanokupolu, who still hold power today. The genealogies of the ruling kings extend back in time over about seventy generations. The centre of the ruling class was the Mu'a district on the large island of Tongatapu. Tongan society also used **fono**, councils consisting of leading elders and chiefs, to make decisions according to the edicts of the kings.

Savai'i and Upolu are the largest islands in Samoa. Samoan society also used fono but included a wider range of individuals with more freedom than people had in Tonga. Villages based on **aiga**, or family land-holding groups, were able to elect their representatives to fono to speak on their behalf. The Samoans maintained open ceremonial areas called **malae**. They were also known for developing a very sophisticated and complex form of body tattooing.

SOURCE 4.1 Samoan village malae, c. 1900 CE. Photograph taken by Thomas Andrew, held at Museum of New Zealand, Te Papa Tongarewa

- Q**
- 1 Describe what you can see in the photograph.
 - 2 What do you think is important about the open space and the high-roofed houses close to the forest?
 - 3 Compare your answers with a partner and discuss.

DID YOU KNOW
THAT THE TRADITIONAL DRINK KAVA IS A MILD RELAXANT?

Tongan and Samoan society conducted kava ceremonies at which drinking kava was a way of honouring special events.



SOURCE 4.2 A Fijian kava ceremony at the Christchurch Exhibition in 1906. The people are sitting in a semicircle around a giant kava bowl. Held at Museum of New Zealand, Te Papa Tongarewa.

Q Why might it have been a good idea to drink a relaxant at important gatherings when large groups of people came together in Tongan and Samoan society?



TAHITI

The Tahitian volcanic cone islands are divided into two groups—Tahiti and Mo'orea; and Ra'iatea, Taha'a, Huahine and others. Tahiti was previously a major centre of pre-European voyaging and the Tahitians maintained widespread trade networks with other island groups. In 1774, Captain James Cook witnessed a large gathering of canoes carrying over 7000 people attending a festival. The great marae of Taputapuatea, in the district of Opoa on the island of Ra'iatea, was the main religious centre, where the god Oro, son of Ta'aroa, was worshipped.

TUAMOTU, MANGAREVA, RAROTONGA, AUSTRAL ISLANDS AND TE HENUA ENATA

The Tuamotu island chain is 1300 kilometres long and comprises a large number of mainly low-lying atolls, or small islands. The Tuamotians were very good sailors. The Mangareva island group lies further south and was heavily populated.

Rarotonga and the Austral volcanic island chains stretch 2500 kilometres. Rarotonga was a main centre of activity for the islands around it, such as Atiu, Aitutaki and Mangaia.

Ra'ivave, in the Austral Islands, is known for its large statues, a form of stone carving shared with Rapa Nui (Easter Island) and Te Henua Enata (Marquesas). The wood carvings from Rarotonga and the Austral Islands were some of the finest in Polynesia.

The islands of Te Henua Enata are somewhat isolated from other groups. They have very rugged coastlines and mountainous interiors. The people constructed the finest stone house platforms in Polynesia and built many high fortresses for defence. The islands are also known for their strong tradition of almost full body tattooing, a practice which continues today.

THAT IN 1810 THE ISLANDS OF HAWAI'I WERE UNITED BY A SINGLE RULER FOR THE FIRST TIME?

In 1810, King Kamehameha I became the first king of Hawai'i. He built many temples to the war god Ku-ka'ili-moku, also known as Ku (the snatcher of land), to gain the god's support in his military campaigns.

HAWAI'I, AOTEAROA AND RAPA NUI

The Hawai'ian islands were one of the most densely populated island groups in Polynesia, with a population possibly up to 500 000 people when Captain James Cook arrived in 1778. The islands were settled from Tahiti and Te Henua Enata as early as 300 CE. The deep lush valleys of Hawai'i yielded some of the richest crops in Polynesia.

The Māori settled Aotearoa (New Zealand), the largest and furthest south of the Polynesian islands, from East Polynesia about 1000 years ago. Adaptation to the colder environment took about two centuries. Many tropical crops either did not grow or only grew in the northern part of the North Island. The Polynesian pig and chicken appear not to have survived in the colder climate. The Māori developed a sophisticated level of art in carving and tattoo.



SOURCE
4.3

This carved figure of the war god Ku-ka'ili-moku was erected by King Kamehameha some time between 1790 and 1810. The figure is currently held in the British Museum, London.



Rapa Nui is the most isolated island in Polynesia, lying 2000 kilometres from its nearest neighbour Rapa. It is mostly known for the tall **mo'ai** stone statues along its coastlines.

Rapa Nui has a tragic environmental history. When Polynesians first arrived, the island was fully forested. The Polynesian pig did not survive in the colder climate so the island relied heavily on fishing. However, the introduced Polynesian rat ate the seeds of the Easter Island palm tree, which became extinct. Without the palm wood for canoe building, fishing declined. Consequently, the islanders ate more birds. Soon land birds,

SOURCE 4.4 A Maori carved gateway figure. Held at Museum of New Zealand, Te Papa Tongarewa

- Q**
- 1 Describe the carving.
 - 2 How does it make you feel?
 - 3 What do you think its purpose was? Explain your answer.

which pollinated the forests and dispersed their seeds, also became extinct. The forests died out around 1500 CE. With the loss of the forests, streams and drinking water supplies dried up. Crop yields declined as wind, rain and sunlight eroded topsoils. Society broke down and bitter fighting erupted. By the arrival of Europeans in 1722, the society was in disarray.

CANOE CULTURE

Polynesia's maritime history gave rise to a strong canoe culture. The most common Polynesian words for canoe are *waka*, *vaka*, *wa'a* and *va'a*.

RAFTS AND DUGOUTS

The earliest pre-Austronesian sea crossings between islands within clear sight of each other were on rafts. Rafts could carry several people and heavy loads and, although slow, were reasonably safe in good weather. The dugout canoe was an advance on the raft and first appeared around 10 000 BCE, becoming widespread by 5000 BCE. While faster than rafts, dugouts carried fewer people. Both were unsuitable for longer crossings because in bad weather high seas could easily wash people from rafts and dugouts were prone to capsize.

SOURCE 4.5 Seven of the fifteen giant stone mo'ai statues at Ahu Tongariki, Rapa Nui (Easter Island), c. 1250–1500



OUTRIGGERS

Outriggers were the mainstay of Austronesian voyaging. Lashing two dugouts together or adding outriggers to them improved stability and load capacity; sails gave more speed and steering paddles used like rudders helped steering. The single outrigger baurua, tepuke and proa of Micronesia were the most sophisticated of these craft. Sailing with one outrigger required more skill but was faster. Care was taken to keep the float towards the wind to prevent it from digging into the water.

European explorers such as James Cook and Charles Wilkes observed several outriggers much faster than their own ships. Some were estimated to be travelling at 12 to 16 knots and others up to 22 knots. Louis-Antoine de Bougainville in Samoa in 1772 and Cook in Tonga in 1773 used identical words in their logs, writing that these canoes sailed around them 'with an ease as if we had been at anchor'.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT IN HAWAI'I IT WAS FORBIDDEN FOR MEN AND

WOMEN TO EAT MEALS TOGETHER?

Traditional Hawai'iian society was ruled by a code of conduct called kapu, which dictated lifestyle, politics, religion and the relationships between men and women. Ai kapu, which governed the contact between men and women, was not abolished until 1819, when King Kamehameha II broke the tradition by eating a meal with the women of his court, in particular his mother and his official guardian.

LARGE DOUBLE-HULLED CANOES

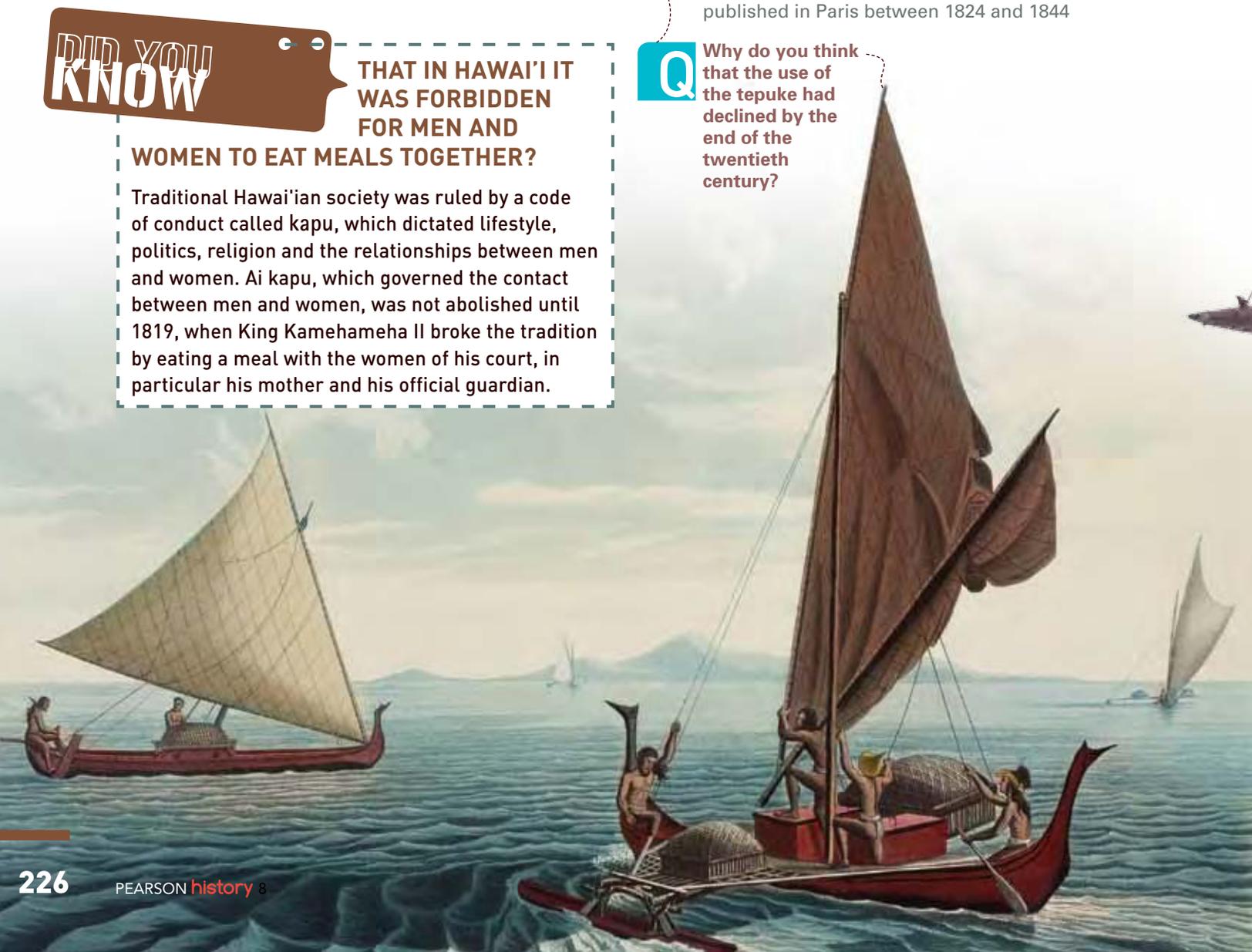
The Polynesians developed the large double-hulled waka. James Cook's *Endeavour* was 30 metres long. The largest double-hulled canoes measured 30 to 40 metres in length and were used for transporting large numbers of people or cargo between close-by islands. The Fijian ndrua, Tongan kalia and Samoan 'alia were the best of these canoes. The largest Fijian example measured 36 metres long. European reports estimate that these canoes were able to sail at 15 knots and carry up to 250 people. In 1846, John Thomas witnessed fourteen kalia in Tonga, each carrying between 100 and 150 people. These canoes were not suited to long-distance voyages, as their length meant they dug into oncoming waves.

SOURCE
4.6

Outrigger canoes near the island of Tinian, one of the Mariana Islands in Micronesia. From an account of a French voyage round the world, by Louis Claude Desaulces de Freycinet (1779–1842), published in Paris between 1824 and 1844

Q

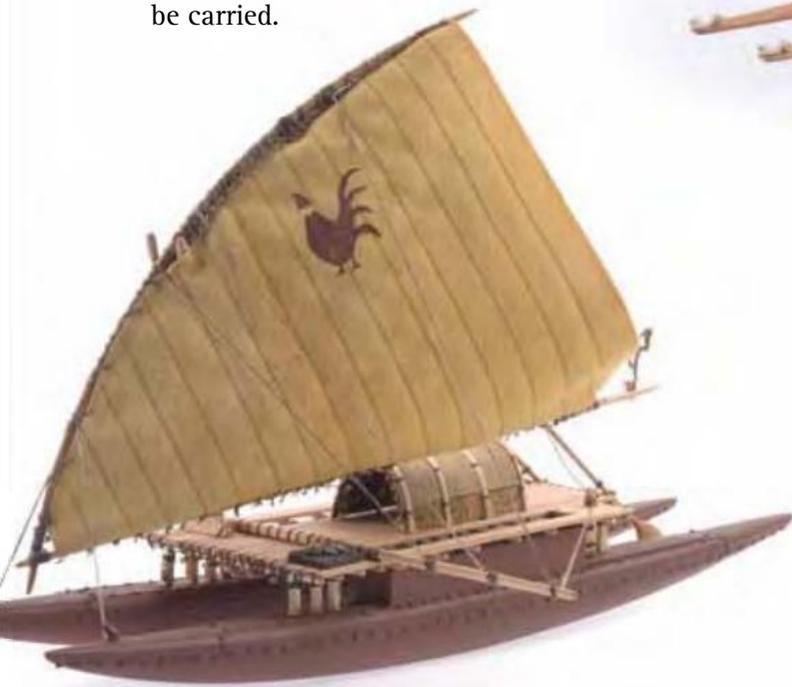
Why do you think that the use of the tepuke had declined by the end of the twentieth century?



DEEP-SEA DOUBLE-HULLED CANOES

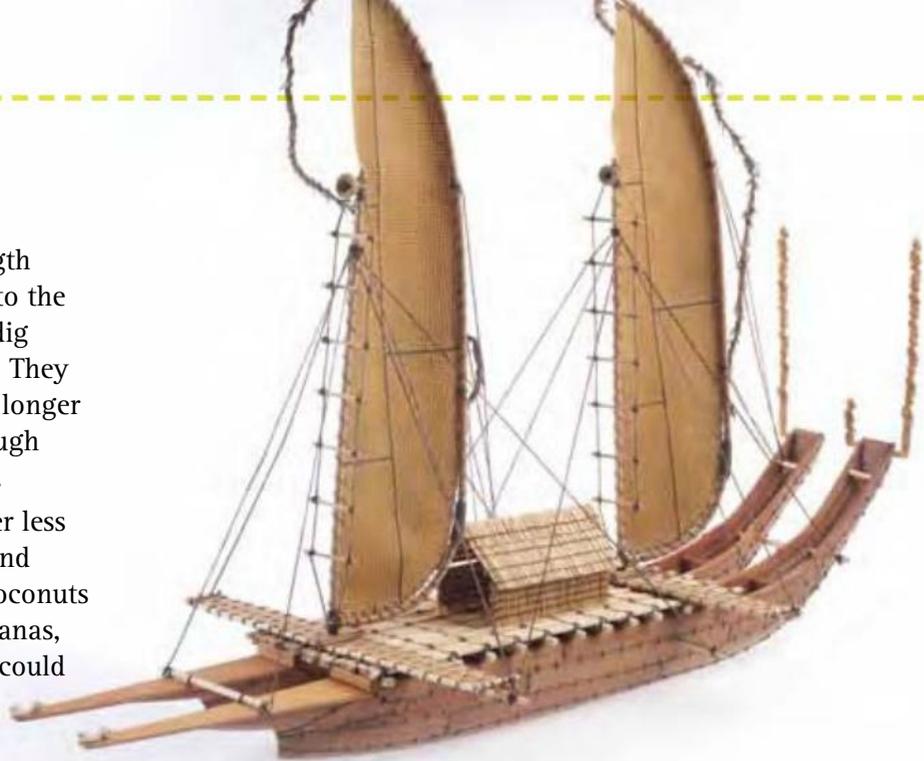
Double-hulled craft 20 to 25 metres in length were the best for long-distance voyages into the eastern Pacific; the shorter length did not dig into oncoming swells as longer canoes did. They could carry more people and supplies over longer distances than outrigger canoes and, although slower, they withstood poor weather better.

Crews for this sort of voyage would number less than ten people in order to preserve food and stores. Water could be carried in gourds. Coconuts gave fluid and food. Dried and cooked bananas, fish, breadfruit and yams, and other foods could be carried.



SOURCE 4.7 A model of a tongiaki, a double-hulled canoe from Tonga, held at Museum of New Zealand, Te Papa Tongarewa. The first recorded European sighting of these was in 1616, when Dutch explorer Willem Schouten recorded that 'there are few ships in Holland that could overhaul them'.

The Tongans used the tongiaki, or double-hulled canoe, and the Samoans the va'a-tele. In East Polynesia, the Tahitians built the pahi and the tīpaerua (James Cook measured six of these craft at 25 metres each) and in Rarotonga the vaka-katea was found. Hawai'ian double-hulled canoes were called wa'a-kaulua and usually measured 20 metres in length, although one was recorded as 30 metres long and able to carry over 100 people. These canoes were capable of sailing 160 to 240 kilometres per day.



SOURCE 4.8 Model of an eighteenth-century tīpaerua from Tahiti in the Society Islands, held at Museum of New Zealand, Te Papa Tongarewa. Tīpaerua were the vessels of kings and chiefs and could be up to 21 metres in length.

Q Why do you think that the Tahitian kings and chiefs named their canoes?

THAT TĪPAERUA WERE THE CANOES OF KINGS AND CHIEFS?

They were given names such as *Tiaitoerau* (Wait for the West Wind) and *Anuanua* (Rainbow).

DID YOU KNOW

HULLS, SAILS AND PADDLES

Double-hulled canoes had two main types of hull shape—V-shaped hulls that made the canoe faster and U-shaped hulls that were more manoeuvrable. Large steering paddles, some over 5 metres long, served two functions. They were used to steer the waka and to prevent sideways drift by wind and swell, with the steering paddles acting much like the keel on a European yacht. Several different types of Polynesian sails were used on canoes, the main characteristic being an upright V-shape. This allowed traditional sails to catch more wind on masts which, made from branches and poles, were shorter than the masts of big European square riggers.

Each island introduced their own canoe adaptations, including canoes for fishing and travelling along rivers. The Māori of Aotearoa developed the waka taua, or war canoe. These could be up to 40 metres long and carry over 100 paddlers. The low prow of the canoes was carved in images representing the creation of the universe and the gods. The tall stern had carvings representing te ira tangata, or human qualities, and te ira atua, or divine qualities.

ORAL TRADITIONS

Polynesian oral traditions include **genealogies** (tracing your family tree back through your ancestors) and narratives about the creation of the universe, gods of nature, origins of human life, culture heroes, early navigators and famous canoes, and large complex genealogies and local tribal traditions. This oral history spanned many generations and was retained in memory by specialist priests.

CREATION TRADITIONS

The most common theme in Polynesian creation traditions is a marriage between a Skyfather and Earthmother, from whom are born the gods of nature, the Sun, Moon, planets, stars and all life.

Māori traditionally name Rangī (Skyfather) and Papa (Earthmother) as the parents. Their children included the Sun, Moon, stars and forces of nature.

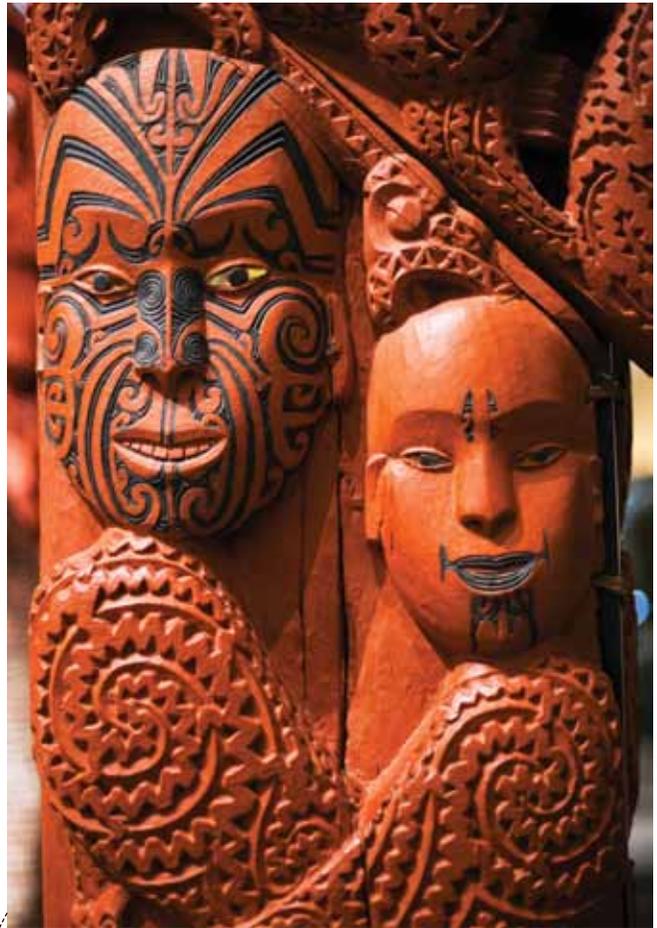
Samoa tradition says that Tagaloalagi (Tangaroangi to the Māori) created the islands of Samoa by throwing rocks down from the heavens after which Papatu (the Father) married Papa'ele (the Mother) and from this union came human life. Tongan versions say Papalimu married Papakele.

In Hawai'i, tradition says Wakea (Skyfather) married Papa (Earthmother), who existed in the form of a gourd, from which Wakea moulded the universe.

SOURCE
4.9

Long Māori war canoe with carved stern and prow, being paddled by about fifty men, with several men standing, 1769. Held at the Alexander Turnbull Library of New Zealand, Te Puna Matauranga o Aotearoa

Rarotonga has a particularly beautiful example of the tradition: the heavens were created when Varima-te-takere, a goddess, plucked Atea, the Skyfather, from her side. Atea created the heavens then married Paparoa-i-te-itinga (the Earthmother stretching unto the sunrise) who gave birth to Te Tumu who married Paparoa-i-te-opunga (the Earthmother stretching unto the sunset), and from this union came human life.



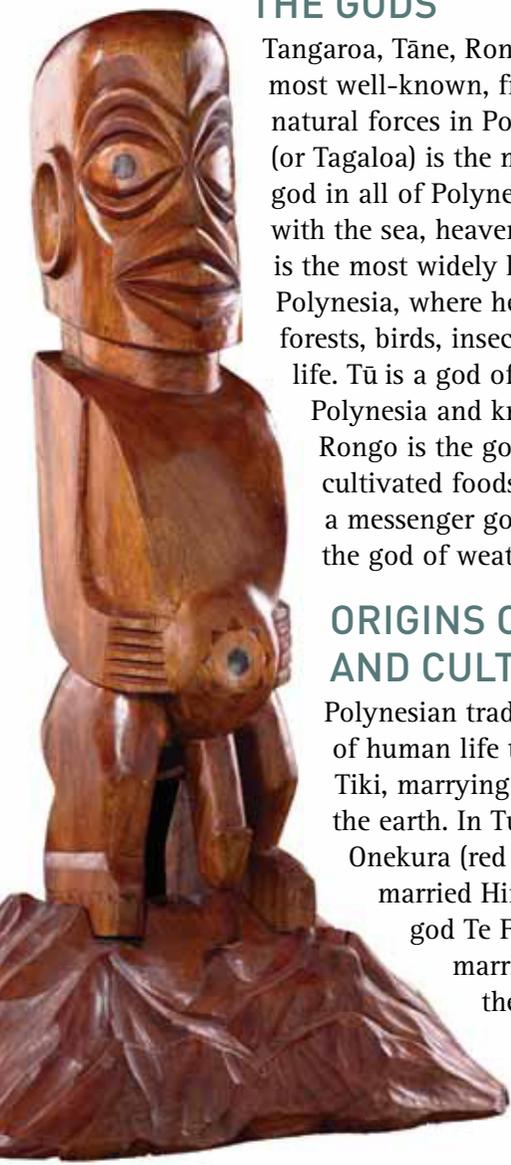
SOURCE
4.10

Carving of Rangī and Papa from a pataka or storehouse which originally stood at Maketu, in the Bay of Plenty, North Island, New Zealand. Now held at Auckland War Memorial Museum, New Zealand

Q

- 1 Which figure is Rangī and which is Papa?
- 2 Why do you think this?





THE GODS

Tangaroa, Tāne, Rongo and Tū are the most well-known, first-order gods of natural forces in Polynesia. Tangaroa (or Tagaloa) is the most widely known god in all of Polynesia and is associated with the sea, heavens and creation. Tāne is the most widely known god in East Polynesia, where he is associated with the forests, birds, insects and other forms of life. Tū is a god of war throughout East Polynesia and known as Ku in Hawai'i. Rongo is the god of peace and cultivated foods to the Māori; Ro'o is a messenger god in Tahiti and Lono is the god of weather in Hawai'i.

ORIGINS OF HUMAN LIFE AND CULTURE HEROES

Polynesian traditions about the origin of human life talk about first man, Tiki, marrying a woman made from the earth. In Tuamotu, Tiki married Onekura (red sand). In Tahiti, Ti'i married Hina, the daughter of the god Te Fatua. Their children married with the gods and their offspring became the ancestors of the high royal families.

SOURCE
4.11

Carving of Tangaroa from Rarotonga. Held at Museum of New Zealand, Te Papa Tongarewa



- 1 Describe the expression on the face of Tangaroa.
- 2 Why do you think he has such an expression?

DID YOU KNOW

THAT GENEALOGY WAS VERY IMPORTANT TO THE POLYNESIANS?

Genealogies and stories often covering twenty to thirty generations were kept by each tribe. These would detail family trees, ownership of land, inter-tribal conflicts and important alliances.

In Te Henua Enata, Tiki-tapu married Kahuone (sand cloak). Their son, also named Tiki, made the first woman, Hinemataone, from sand at a beach in Hawai'i. Their daughter was the ancestress of humans. Culture heroes are mythological figures sometimes based on original humans whose life stories have been changed over time to represent the struggle of human society. They are **demi-gods**—half-human, half-god.

MĀUI AND RATA

Traditions about the demi-god Māui span Micronesia, Melanesia and Polynesia and are the most widely known and oldest culture hero traditions in the Pacific. The geographic distribution of Māui traditions suggests they are 4000 to 6000 years old. The most well-known adventures say Māui fished up islands out of the sea (see Source 0.1), snared the Sun to create the cycle of day and night and obtained fire for humankind.

Rata is the second most widely known demi-god in the Pacific after Māui. Samoan stories say Lata was a Fijian canoe builder who taught the Samoan and Tongans how to construct large, double-hulled canoes. Hawai'ian traditions describe Laka as a daring voyager. In Tahiti, Rata was an important chief, navigator and warrior.

Oral traditions also associate Rata with conservation, relating that he once cut down a tree to make a canoe without performing the required rituals. The guardians of the forest restored the tree to its upright position. Upon consulting with the guardians, Rata apologised, performed the appropriate prayers and was given permission to use the tree.

CANOE ANCESTORS

Polynesian oral traditions record the names of famous navigators. Samoan traditions say that the Tū'i Manu'a was the first settler of those islands. Aho'eitu was the first settler of Tonga. Tangihia and Karika were simultaneous first arrivals in Rarotonga. The Hui Ari'i was an early and important sailing dynasty in Tahiti. Hawai'i names many early voyagers, such as Kapawa, Paao and Makuakaumana. Hotumatua is an important chief and navigator from Rapa Nui. Kupe, Ngāhue, Tīwaiwaka, Māku, Tūhua and Rākaihautu are important first arrivals in Aotearoa. Hiro, a Tahitian, is the most widely known East Polynesian navigator. He is known in Hawai'i as Hilo, in Rarotonga as 'Iro and in Aotearoa as Whiro.

remembering & understanding

#1 List and explain the following terms in your 'Polynesian Expansion' glossary:

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> aiga | <input type="checkbox"/> kapu |
| <input type="checkbox"/> atoll | <input type="checkbox"/> kava |
| <input type="checkbox"/> demi-god | <input type="checkbox"/> malae |
| <input type="checkbox"/> fono | <input type="checkbox"/> mo'ai |
| <input type="checkbox"/> genealogies | |

#2 Construct a table with a column for each of the Polynesian societies discussed in this unit. Under each society, write down two or three facts from the information in this unit.

#3 What is the kava ceremony?

#4 Name the first two types of sea-going craft used by Polynesians.

#5 Why were both of these types of crafts unsuitable for long sea crossings?

#6 **a** What is a culture hero?
b Who is the most famous culture hero?

understanding & applying

#7 Read the paragraph about Rapa Nui's environmental history carefully and create a flow chart to explain the chain of events that led to the breakdown of Rapa Nuian society.

analysing & evaluating

#8 Historians usually consider a generation to be twenty-five years. Using this as a basis, answer the following questions.

- a** How far back in time can the genealogies of the Tongan kings be traced?
- b** Do you think that this would lead to a stable or unstable society? Give reasons for your answer.
- c** Conduct some further research on Tongan history to see if your answer to **b** was accurate or not. Did you have to change your answer? Why or why not?

- #9** **a** Without discussing it with anyone, write an answer to the following two questions in your notebook.
- i** Are oral traditions valuable?
- ii** Should they be retained?
- b** Share your answer with a partner. Did you agree? If not, write a new answer with which you both agree.
- c** Share your new answer with the class. Have a class discussion and decide upon a class answer.

#10 Read the section 'Canoe culture' carefully and conduct some further research on the internet and in the library to create either a booklet or an AVD on Polynesian canoes. Remember to include the following:

- design features of outriggers and double-hulled canoes
- strengths and weaknesses of each design
- appropriate images
- explanatory captions or paragraphs
- bibliography.

analysing & creating

#11 **a** With a partner, select an island or island group and research their traditional lifestyle. Make detailed notes on:

- types of canoes
- crops grown
- housing
- fishing tools
- main art forms
- myths and legends.

b In pairs, prepare an oral presentation for your class on your chosen society. You and a partner may use a digital display to help you with your presentation or any other appropriate props.

or

- c** Retell a traditional story from your chosen society:
- as a traditional storyteller
 - by re-enacting your story as a short play, working with a small group of fellow students.



STONE CONSTRUCTIONS

Construction in stone is more widespread in Polynesia than many people think. The famous trilithon (a three-part stone structure) in Tongatapu, Tonga, called Ha'amonga-a-Māui, is made from three blocks of coral 5 metres high, 2 metres wide and 6 metres long. It is thought that it was used for observing stars and the blocks transported from Uvea (an island in West Polynesia). The large pyramid-shaped burial mound at Mu'a on Tongatapu was also built from coral.



SOURCE 5.1 The famous Tongan trilithon, Ha'amonga-a-Māui

SOURCE 5.2 This engraving of Marae Mahaiatea on Tahiti Island, published in 1799, shows the largest temple ever built in the Society Islands. It is based on a sketch by Captain W. Wilson.



In Samoa, a large ceremonial house at Palauli in Savai'i once stood atop the Pulemelei stone mound, the base of which measured 60 by 50 metres and the height 12 metres.

The Tahitians built large stone marae (ceremonial courtyards). Mahaiatea, the largest of these, measured 81 by 22 metres at the base and rose as a stepped pyramid to 15.5 metres. Taputapuatea, the paved stone marae on Ra'iatea Island, was the most important ceremonial centre in East Polynesia.



SOURCE
5.3 Reconstructed heiau, Kane'aki, in the Makaha Valley on the island of O'ahu, Hawaii'i

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE MĀORI OF AOTEAROA BUILT OVER 3000 WOODEN AND EARTH FORTS CALLED PĀ?

These structures took advantage of the hilly terrain and the large number of low volcanic cones throughout the country. The more complex constructions included terraced hill sides, palisades, fighting platforms and ditches producing sophisticated defence systems. Within the walls of the pā were ceremonial centres called marae, storehouses for food and caverns for storing water. The pā also contained a whareniui (meeting house), which was often elaborately carved.

SOURCE
5.4 Lithograph of an abandoned Maori pā, on the eastern headland of Paroa Bay, Bay of Islands, by Louis Auguste de Sainson, 1833. Held at the Alexander Turnbull Library of New Zealand, Te Puna Matauranga o Aotearoa.



The Hawai'ians constructed large numbers of Heiau complexes (ceremonial courtyards), including one seen by James Cook at Waimea on the island of O'ahu. The Ili'ioliopae heiau, on the island of Molokai, contained several courtyards and terraces extending 87 metres long, 26 metres wide and 7 metres high.

The Rapans on Pitcairn Island excavated strong fortresses, including the Morongo Uta fort complex. On Te Henua Enata (Marquesas), stone was used for large tohua ceremonial centres. Vahangeku'a at Taipivai on the island of Nuku Hiva is one impressive example.

MO'AI

The mo'ai statues of Rapa Nui (Easter Island) are one of the most recognisable icons in all of Polynesia. The mo'ai are monolithic human figures honouring ancestors that were carved from rock between 1250 and 1500 CE. Gazing inland, the statues were believed to protect tribal lands. The mo'ai were made in quarries then transported across country and set on stone platforms called ahu around the island's shoreline. Nearly 900 were built. The tallest, called Paro, was 10 metres high and weighed 75 tonnes. The heaviest, Ahu Tongariki, weighed 86 tonnes. One unfinished sculpture was 21 metres high with a weight of about 270 tonnes. Known for their large, broad noses, strong chins, rectangle-shaped ears and deep eye slits, the mo'ai are carved in styles that are similar to forms found throughout Polynesia. The flat faces are typically proud and the over-large heads reflect Polynesian beliefs in the sanctity of the chiefly head. Many statues have large red topknot stone cylinders (called pukao) on their heads.



SOURCE
5.5

Seven re-erected mo'ai statues in a row

MOVING THE MO'AI

How the mo'ai were moved into place was a mystery for a long time. Research shows that the most likely method was to place the statue upright on two sled runners on top of log rollers. Twenty to twenty-five men would push and pull the statue a distance of 50 metres every two minutes.

MO'AI TODAY

The mo'ai were still standing when the first European, Jakob Roggeveen, visited in 1722. Nearly all were toppled over by 1838 and none were standing by 1868, apart from already partially buried ones on the outer slopes of Rano Raraku. Oral histories say this was as a result of a deadly conflict among the islanders, rather than an earthquake or other cause. The exact causes remain unclear.

About fifty mo'ai have been re-erected on their ahu. It is forbidden for visitors to climb on the mo'ai. mo'ai are included on the 1994 list of UNESCO World Heritage sites and consequently the 1972 UN convention for the protection of the world's cultural and natural heritage. Many have been restored to their upright positions.



SOURCE
5.6

Mo'ai, Rapa Nui

TATTOOS

Polynesian tattoos evolved over thousands of years throughout Austronesian South-East Asia and the Pacific and was one of the most highly developed artistic tattooing cultures in the ancient world. The beauty and complexity of ancient Polynesian tattooing was characterised by elaborate geometrical designs.

SYMBOLISM

The Polynesians believed that the art of tattooing was gifted to their ancestors from the gods, so it was considered to be very sacred. Each island created a style that was distinct and different from others. Tattooing usually began in adolescence, to symbolise reaching adulthood, and tattoos were often added to, renewed and embellished throughout a person's life to record and celebrate their achievements and experiences. Sometimes tattoos covered the entire body.

Designs depicted personal, religious, social and political symbols and represented genealogy, rank and status within society. They could represent a person's life, identity and personality, and be a sign of sexual maturity and a rite of passage to adulthood.

Nearly everyone in ancient Polynesian society was tattooed. Tattoos depicting leadership and rank were mainly reserved for the upper classes. The tattoos of women were less extensive than the tattoos of men, generally being limited to the face, hands, arms, feet, ears and lips. Special tattoos were reserved for women of high rank and status.

DID YOU
KNOW

THAT THE WORD 'TATTOO' COMES FROM SAMOA?

The word 'tattoo' is believed to have originated from the Samoan word 'tatau', which refers to the tapping noise of traditional tattooing.

THE TOOLS OF TATTOOING

Deep grooves were made on the subject's body by tap-hammering sharp multi-pointed combs and needles in the pattern required. The grooves were then filled with tattoo inks. The procedure was painful and took time to heal; tattoos therefore symbolised great courage and endurance. Tattooing was done by specialist artisans, involved rituals and prayers and could take many days. The needles were made from bird or fish bone, turtle shell or bamboo and fixed to a wooden handle.



SOURCE 5.7 Tattooing tools: a tattooing kit with chisel blades. Lying across it is a tapper with a fixed chisel attached to it. Held at Museum of New Zealand, Te Papa Tongarewa

SOURCE 5.8 The traditional Samoan female tattoo, the malu, is a set of markings from the upper thighs to just below the knees.

SOURCE 5.9 A Māori with the moko tattoo



SAMOAN TATTOO

The traditional male and female tattoos in Samoa are called the pe'a and malu. Samoan tattoo designs were detailed and intricate, and were directly related to status. A full male tattoo could take five to six days to complete and was very painful.

MĀORI TATTOO

Māori moko (tattoos) are said to differ from other Polynesian tattoos. One of the main features of Māori tattoos are their complex curved shapes and spirals. For men, the tattoo designs were made on their entire face, legs and buttocks, while for the women the tattoos were made on their lips, neck, back and chin. The lines on the male forehead represented ancestral genealogies. The very centre of the forehead marked inherited rank. Circles on the nose reflected knowledge—open circles for very knowledgeable persons and artisans, barbed circles for war specialists.

HAWAI'IAN, TAHITIAN AND TE HENUA ENATA (MARQUESAS) TATTOO

Tattoos in Hawai'i, Tahiti and Te Henua Enata could cover the entire body. Tattoos from these islands included many designs from the natural world, such as birds, lizards and fish patterns.

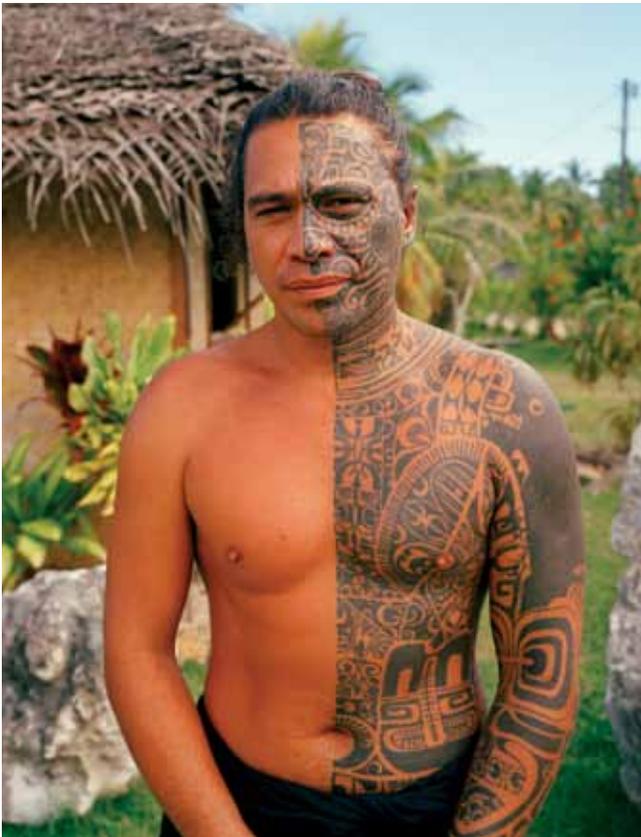
DECLINE AND REVIVAL

Tattoos began to disappear with the arrival of European Christian missionaries, who condemned Polynesian tattoos as dirty and sinful. The art was revived during the late twentieth century as Polynesians began to return to their traditional cultures as a point of pride. Unfortunately, although many of the patterns have been retained because of paintings and sketches made during colonisation, many of the original meanings have been lost. In Western culture, tattooing is often a symbol of style and fashion; for the Polynesian men and women, it had a deep religious as well as cultural significance.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING & ANALYSING

- 1 Why do you think that many people believe that the Polynesians did not construct large or impressive structures? Examine Sources 5.1 to 5.4 to help you write two paragraphs (a minimum of 100 words) answering this question.
- 2 Examine Source 5.4. What purpose do you think the platforms had? Explain your answer.
- 3 Examine Sources 5.5 and 5.6 and reread the accompanying text about the mo'ai. Answer the following questions.
 - a How large were the mo'ai?
 - b How do historians think the mo'ai were transported into place?
 - c Can you think of alternative methods of transportation of the mo'ai? Explain your answer.
 - d Detail what happened to the mo'ai. Is this an uncommon fate for ancient artefacts? Explain your answer.



ANALYSING & EVALUATING

- 4 Should all the mo'ai be restored and protected?
- 5 Examine Sources 5.8 to 5.10 and the accompanying text carefully. Choose a graphic organiser of your choice and compare and contrast the different traditions of Polynesian tattoo.

ANALYSING, EVALUATING & CREATING

- 6 Using Sources 5.8 to 5.10 and the accompanying text plus your graphic organiser from Question 5 to help you, conduct some further research on Polynesian tattoo patterns and complete the following tasks.
 - a Choose your favourite designs and explain why you like them and what they might mean to those who wear them.
 - b Create your own tattoo design that includes symbols and patterns which are significant to you.
 - c Present your response in the form of an AVD or an electronic slide presentation.

CREATING

- 7 Draw an annotated diagram of a mo'ai of your own design. Give your mo'ai an appropriate name.
- 8 Using your answers to Question 3 (b and c) to help you, create an annotated diagram or series of diagrams to demonstrate your theory of how mo'ai were transported. You may wish to present your work as:
 - an AVD
 - an information booklet
 - a slide presentation.
 Name your work 'How to transport a mo'ai successfully'.

SOURCE
5.10 An example of Te Henua Enatan tattooing

COLONISATION AND THE DECLINE OF POLYNESIAN CULTURE

European countries colonised Polynesia during the 1800s. The United States took control of Hawai'i, France took control of Te Henua Enata (Marquesas), Tuamotu and Tahiti (together called French Polynesia), Chile has Rapa Nui (Easter Island) and Germany dominated Samoa before Britain took possession during World War I. Britain also settled Aotearoa (New Zealand).

Colonisation had a significant impact on Polynesian societies. Polynesians had no resistance to new diseases such as influenza, measles and smallpox and these all took a dreadful toll. The introduction of European muskets also caused much harm, especially where one tribe in a conflict obtained them and others did not. More significantly in

places such as Aotearoa and Hawai'i, Polynesian populations lost most of the land they depended on for day-to-day living and many people ended up living in poverty. The Māori population of Aotearoa declined from around 100 000 in 1840 to just 35 000 in 1900.

Until recently, most European-dominated governments in Polynesian societies advocated policies of assimilation. These policies included banning Polynesian languages, religious beliefs and cultural practices. These policies failed because they denied people's identity.

The smaller Polynesian societies were unable to prevent nuclear testing on their land. In the late 1950s, Britain and the United States conducted nuclear tests on Christmas Island between Tuvalu and Samoa. During these tests, islanders were not evacuated. Subsequently, local islanders claimed to have suffered from exposure to the radiation.

SOURCE 6.1 The sinking of the *Rainbow Warrior* in Auckland Harbour, 1985



SOURCE
6.2 Immediate blast effects of
French nuclear testing at
Fangataufa Atoll, South
Pacific, 1968



France tested nuclear weapons on the Tuamotuan atolls of Mururoa and Fangataufa between 1966 and 1996. These sites were subject to numerous protests by various vessels, including the *Rainbow Warrior*, which the French attacked and sank in Auckland Harbour in 1985. The population of Fangataufa was permanently removed from the atoll. Today, Fangataufa serves as a wildlife sanctuary for various species of birds.

Some islands, where the majority of the population are Polynesian, have gained independence. Tonga, Samoa and Rarotonga are now self-governing. Other islands where the majority of the population is Polynesian still do not have their independence. Te Henua Enata, Tahiti and the Tuamotuan chain are still under French rule.

Islands where Polynesians are in the minority are still ruled by other countries. Rapa Nui is ruled by Chile, Hawai'i is part of the United States and the Māori live as part of New Zealand. Only the Māori have political representation, with seven dedicated seats in parliament.

THAT EVEN A UNITED STATES PRESIDENT CAN APOLOGISE?

In 1993, President Bill Clinton gave a formal apology to the indigenous people of Hawai'i for the taking of their lands. This is similar to the apology by former Australian Prime Minister Kevin Rudd to the Aboriginal people in 2008. Māori tribes in Aotearoa have received apologies for loss of land. Other Polynesians peoples have yet to receive apologies.

DID YOU
KNOW

Polynesia is currently experiencing a huge cultural renaissance, with people rediscovering their languages and beliefs. Polynesian culture such as tattooing and the haka from Aotearoa now figure prominently on the world stage.

LANGUAGE REVITALISATION AND RETURNING CULTURAL ARTEFACTS

The revival of language is an important issue in Polynesia. Language loss is most pronounced in countries and islands where Polynesians are a minority such as in Aotearoa and Hawai'i, or where foreign governments continue to rule from outside the island such as in French Polynesia. The Māori of Aotearoa have the strongest language revitalisation program, with several hundred Māori language immersion pre-schools and schools, twenty-five tribal radio stations and two Māori language television channels.

Calls for the return of artefacts from museums are another outcome of the revival. There is little progress so far except in Aotearoa, where scores of preserved tattooed heads have been returned from collections all over the world. These heads were cut off their victims and shrunk in a grisly trade for museums during the early 1800s.

SOURCE 6.3 The All Blacks rugby team of New Zealand, performing a Haka prior to the start of the 2010 Tri-Nations Bledisloe Cup

Q What conclusions can you make about Maori reconciliation and cultural renaissance from this photo?

“*Ka mate ka mate, ka ora ka ora
Tenei te tangata puhuruhuru
Nana i tiki mai whakawhiti te ra
A upane, a kaupane
A upane, kaupane
Whiti te ra!*
Death, death, life, life [What will be my fate]
There is the hairy one
He who fetched the sun
One step up, another
One step forward, another
There is the sun [I am free]

SOURCE 6.4 From *Haka*, by W. Gardiner, 2007

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE HAKA IS REALLY A WAR DANCE?

Māori haka or war dances were a way of representing the energy of the gods. The haka *Ka Mate Ka Mate*, made famous by the All Blacks, was composed by a fighting chief of Ngāti Toa named Te Rauparaha, who put the words together when he escaped from his enemies.





GLOBAL WARMING

The low-lying islands of atoll archipelagos such as Tuvalu and Tokelau are in danger from global warming with rising sea levels. Tokelau comprises three atolls with a population of 1400 people. Current predictions are that Tokelau will have to be evacuated within fifty years.

SOURCE 6.5 The capital of Tuvalu atoll, Funafuti, as seen from the air

Q What can you see in this photograph which suggests that Tuvalu is vulnerable to the effects of global warming?

SOURCE 6.6 The island of Kiribati is vulnerable to rising sea levels due to global warming. Here we see an abnormally high tide in 2005 crashing through a wall that was meant to protect precious farmland from the sea.



TIME TO THINK ...

1 MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES

What are the different theories and what evidence is there about the Polynesian expansion across the Pacific?

2 PERSPECTIVES AND EMPATHY

- a** Should nuclear testing have taken place on Polynesian islands?
- b** Should islands with large Polynesian populations become independent?
- c** Should artefacts from museums in Europe be returned to their islands of origin?

3 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

- a** Is it important for the Polynesians to revive their culture and language?
- b** Can you make any comparisons with other indigenous groups such as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people or Native Americans?
- c** Should indigenous populations in Polynesia and in other countries such as Australia be given direct representation in their parliament?

4 EVIDENCE

How do we know about Polynesian culture?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 Trace the ancestors

Contact a person of Polynesian descent who is living in Australia and do the following tasks.

- Find out what islands the person's parents or grandparents are from.
- On a map, mark the sequences of migrations that the person, their parents and ancestors would have made from Austronesia.
- What were the challenges facing each generation on their 'journey' to Australia and how did they meet them?
- Write your answer in a short paragraph either below your map or on the back of the map.

#2 Captain of the Hōkule'a

You and a small group from your class have been chosen to undertake a new voyage on the *Hōkule'a*. Using information in this chapter and the website of the Polynesian Voyaging Society, plan a voyage between Hawai'i and Tahiti. You need to work out:

- your course and landfalls, plotted on a map
- how many people to take
- what their roles will be
- what food and water to take
- what stars to use to navigate.

Each crew member should write at least three entries of a journal describing their experiences on the journey.

#3 Cultural revival festival

You are part of a Polynesian community in an Australian town or city and you have just been appointed the organiser of a Cultural Revival Festival in your area. Your brief or instructions are to make it as fun and as authentic as possible both to remind the Polynesian community of its background and to inform the wider community about your culture.

You need to prepare an electronic slide presentation of your ideas for the upcoming festival to the festival committee.

#4 Rapa Nui mystery documentary

There are many theories as to the true purpose of the Rapa Nui mo'ai. You and a group of friends have been commissioned to prepare a documentary for the History Channel on the topic. To complete the documentary you will need to do the following tasks.

- Research the mo'ai statues. Include:
 - description of the statues and their location
 - the various theories about their existence and purpose.
 - a bibliography.
- Prepare a script. You will need:
 - a host or presenter
 - various 'experts' on the mo'ai.
- Present your documentary to the class, either live or as a video presentation.

#5 Picture book author

You are a picture book author who has been commissioned to illustrate and write a new retelling of a Polynesian legend for lower primary school students. Conduct some research to help you choose a suitable myth or legend and illustrate and write a picture book of at least eight to ten pages.

SOURCE 7.1 Traditional tapa cloth with flat overpainting in brown and black outlining, Tonga. Held at the the Auckland Museum



KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

What impact did Genghis Khan have on nomadic Mongol tribes?

How did the Mongols build an empire?

How far did the Mongol Empire extend and how were conquered people treated?

What were the consequences of Mongol expansion?



Mongol tribes of Central Asia united under Genghis Khan in 1206 CE and started an empire that grew to be one of the largest land empires in history. At its peak, it covered 22 per cent of the Earth's land area and had a population of over 100 million people. The Mongol Empire had a significant impact on Europe and Asia.



THE MONGOL

SOURCE
0.1

A re-enactment of a cavalry charge held at the Festival of Eurasia in 2006. The occasion celebrated the 800th anniversary of Genghis Khan's unification of Mongol tribes and the beginning of the Mongol Empire. Five hundred cavalymen, dressed in thirteenth-century uniforms, took part.



EMPIRE

SNAPSHOT

1175 CE 1200 CE 1225 CE 1250 CE 1275 CE

1206 Mongol Empire established

1214 Mongols conquer Beijing

1226 Mongols conquer Xi Xia dynasty

1241 Poland and Hungary conquered

1258 Baghdad conquered

1264 Mongol Empire divided into four khanates

1264 Yuan dynasty begins

1271 Marco Polo leaves Venice for Asia

1273 Kublai Khan issues paper money

1180–1200
Rival nomadic tribes on the steppes

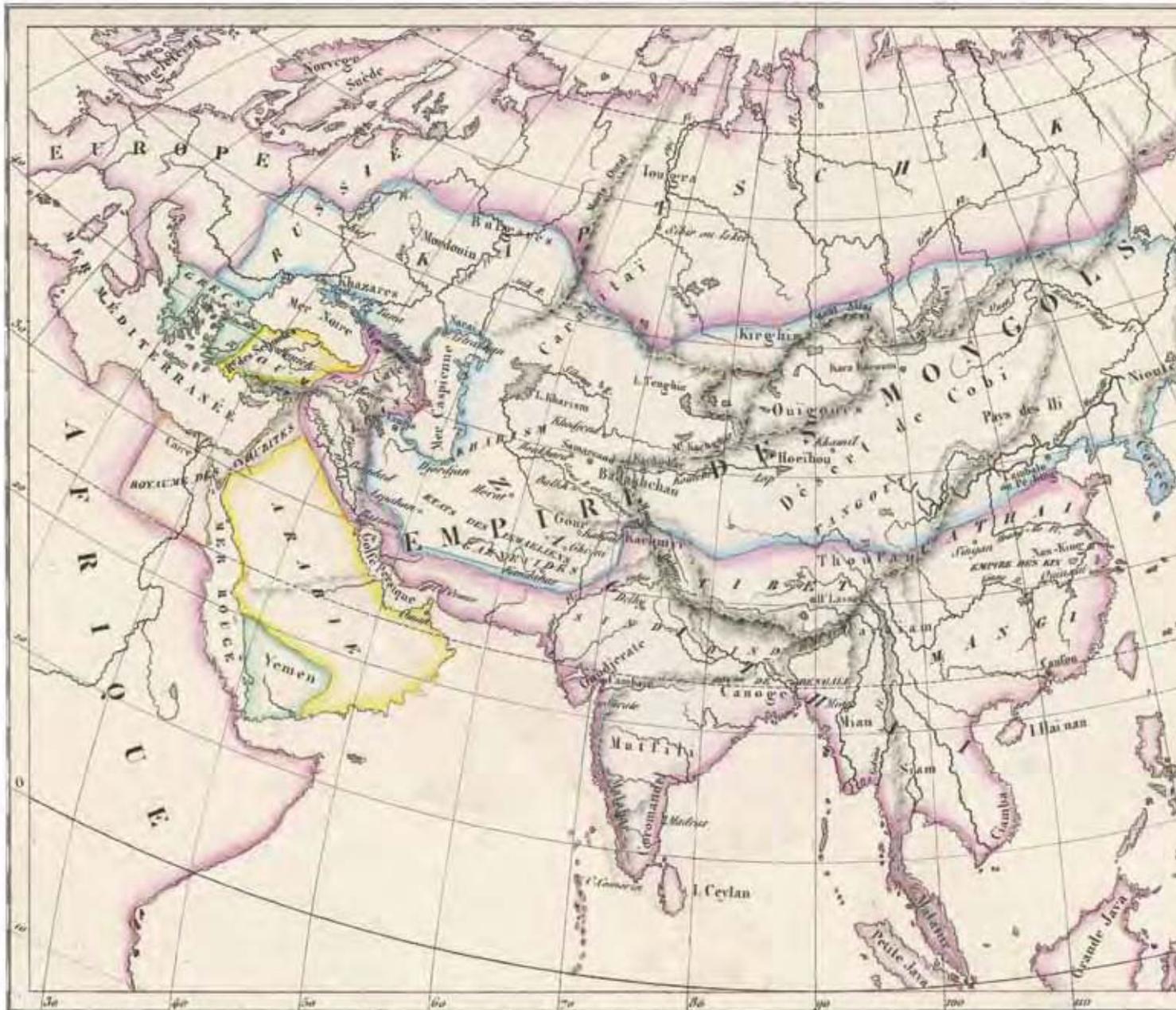
1206–27
Rule of Genghis Khan

1229–41
Ogedei Khan

1246–48
Guyuk Khan

1251–59
Mongke Khan

1264–94
Kublai Khan



SOURCE 1.2 Timeline of the Mongol Empire



1297 Marco Polo leaves Asia for Europe

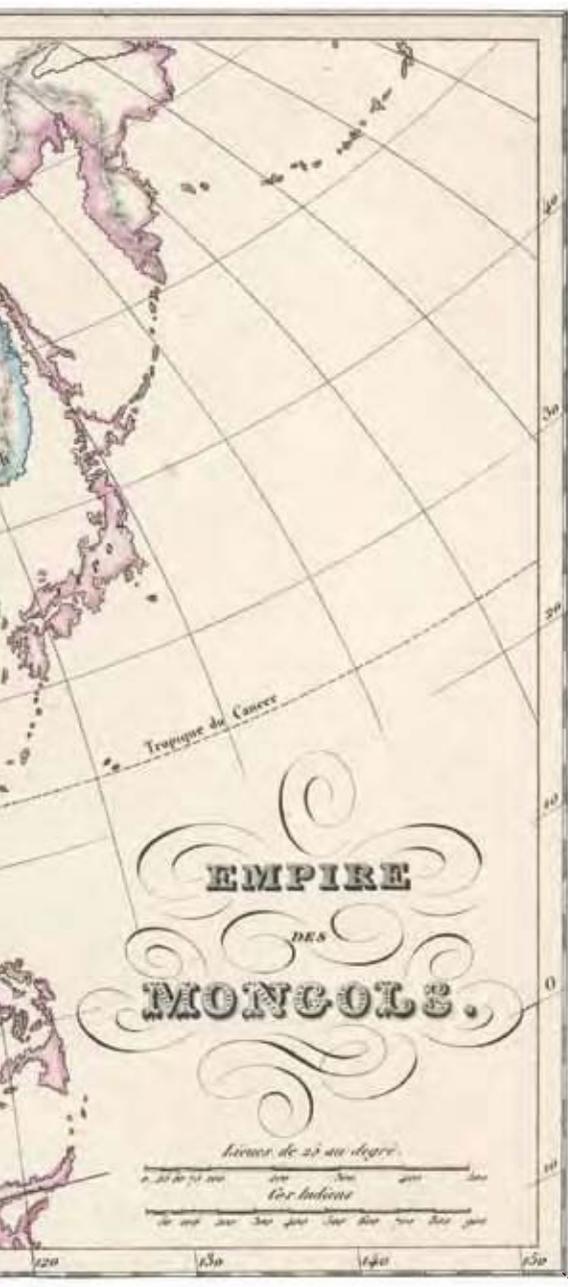
1368 Yuan dynasty ends—end of Mongol Empire

1300 CE

1325 CE

1350 CE

1375 CE



GEOGRAPHY OF MONGOLIA

In the twelfth century CE, Mongol and Turkic tribes lived a nomadic existence on the grassland plains, or steppes, of Mongolia, south of the Khentii Mountains, Central Asia.

The Mongol homeland is land-locked. To the south-west are the Altai Mountains. To the south-east is the Gobi. The vast semi-arid grasslands are situated in the zone between the mountains and the desert. The landscape has rolling plains and depressions with many inland lakes.

The climate is cold and dry. Humidity is very low and rain is sparse. The high elevation of the land above sea level and the inland location mean the summers are warm and winters are freezing cold. This semi-desert environment can experience long droughts. The open, exposed plains and lack of any other vegetation, apart from grasses, make it subject to violent winds. Both the landscape and climatic environments are very harsh.

MONGOL ADAPTATION

The Mongols successfully adapted to the semi-arid steppe environment. The harsh physical conditions were not suited to the development of a sedentary lifestyle. Permanent settlements like those that had developed across Europe and much of Asia were not sustainable in the Asian steppe. Instead, the Mongols developed a migratory or nomadic lifestyle, wandering the plains, herding their animals. There was a significant contrast between the nomadic Mongol lifestyle and Asian and European lifestyles, with their permanent cities and towns. Nomadic groups were considered to be primitive and were referred to as 'barbarians'. In the thirteenth century, however, these 'barbarian' Mongol tribes united and rose to conquer some of Asia's and Europe's largest and most advanced societies.

SOURCE 1.1 The Mongol Empire at its greatest extent in 1294 CE

THE RISE AND FALL OF THE MONGOLS

GENGHIS KHAN

Genghis Khan is one of the great figures of Mongolian and world history. Under his leadership, the Mongol tribes united and became a vast empire. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries CE, many nomadic tribes travelled around the northern steppes—the Mongols were one of these tribes, along with the Tartars, Merkids, Kereyids and Naimans. Within the Mongol tribe were many separate clans. Genghis Khan was the son of the leader of one of the clans that roamed the steppes of Mongolia.

Genghis Khan was born in about 1167 and was named Temujin. The chief of the neighbouring tribe of Tartars poisoned Temujin's father when Temujin was nine years old. As Temujin was too young to rule, the clansmen deserted him and his family. He and his family were forced to move to a remote area and survived by eating roots, rats and mice.



SOURCE
2.1

Portrait of Genghis Khan, from an album depicting several Yuan emperors, now held at the National Palace Museum in Taipei

When Temujin was sixteen years of age, the Merkid tribe attacked his family and captured his wife. With assistance, Temujin fought the Merkids and retrieved his wife. The story of the rescue soon spread across the steppes. Temujin continued to attack all those who opposed him and eventually defeated all the tribes on the steppes, thus making himself leader of the Mongols and the tribes of the steppes.

In 1206, Temujin called a great *khuriltai*, or assembly of Mongol nobles, and took the title 'Genghis Khan', meaning 'leader of all between the oceans'. He became the Great Khan and under his leadership, all nomadic steppe tribes united. From the beginning of his leadership he announced a strict and detailed code of laws called *Yassa*, which both nobles and commoners had to obey.

To generate a Mongol identity and break down tribal loyalties, Genghis Khan separated tribal members and reorganised Mongol society. The whole population was organised into 95 military units and each military unit maintained 1000 warriors from all the tribes. All males over 15 years of age joined the military. Genghis Khan also encouraged loyalty and obedience by rewarding people for their ability rather than for their family connections. He shared the spoils of war among civilians and soldiers. Conquered people were taken into the Mongol tribe and protected.

THAT GENGHIS KHAN HAD MANY BLOOD-BROTHERS?

DID YOU KNOW

Genghis Khan made friendship pacts with people so he would have allies in times of need. He and the friend would prick their fingers and then touch fingers to mix their blood. In this way they became 'brothers in arms' or 'blood brothers'.



THE EMPIRE EXPANDS

Genghis Khan began a policy of conquest and expansion in 1209, three years after becoming Mongol leader. Attacks on neighbouring groups were usually related to trade. The nomadic Mongols desperately depended on trade for essential grains, crafts and other items. Any disruption to trade was disastrous. Thus, when the Tanguts in north-west China (Xia dynasty) and the Jin dynasty of the north reduced the level of trade, the Mongols retaliated. Genghis Khan successfully attacked these dynasties in 1209 and 1215 respectively and regained access to much-needed trade items.

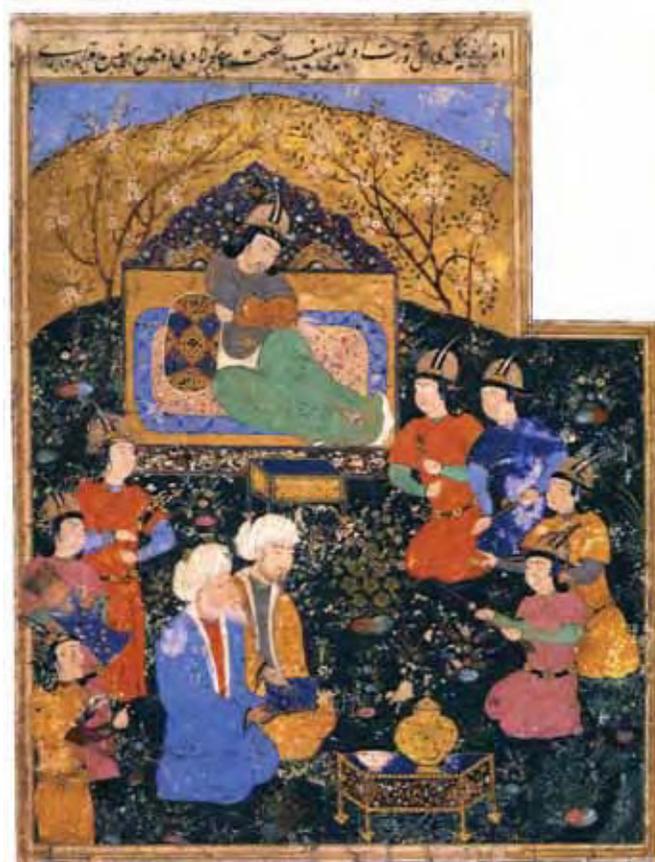
A third campaign into Central Asia was triggered by further trade concerns and also revenge. Mongol messengers who had been on a mission to discuss trade issues with other Central Asian countries were murdered. Genghis Khan retaliated. In 1219, a large Mongol armed force rode into Central Asia and violent and bloody battles followed. The Mongols eventually succeeded in expanding into and occupying central Asia. When Genghis Khan died in 1227, the Mongol Empire was 3000 kilometres in length from east to west and about 1000 kilometres at its longest point from north to south.

Ogodei was Genghis Khan's third son and chosen successor. During his twelve-year reign (1229–41), Ogodei continued and accelerated the expansion of the Mongol Empire. Mongols took control of much of Russia in the 1230s, and China and western Asia by 1234. Ogodei established the Mongol capital city at Khara Khorum, as the administrative centre of the empire. He also organised a system of taxation in new territories.

SOURCE 2.2 Battle between Mongol tribes, from a thirteenth-century manuscript, now in a private collection



- 1 What weapons are being used?
- 2 Describe how Mongols protected themselves in battle.
- 3 Would such a scene have occurred before or after 1206? Explain why.



SOURCE 2.3 Genghis Khan and his four sons, artist unknown, 1562–3. Held at the British Library

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE MONGOLS MADE TRAVEL SAFE FOR EVERYBODY?

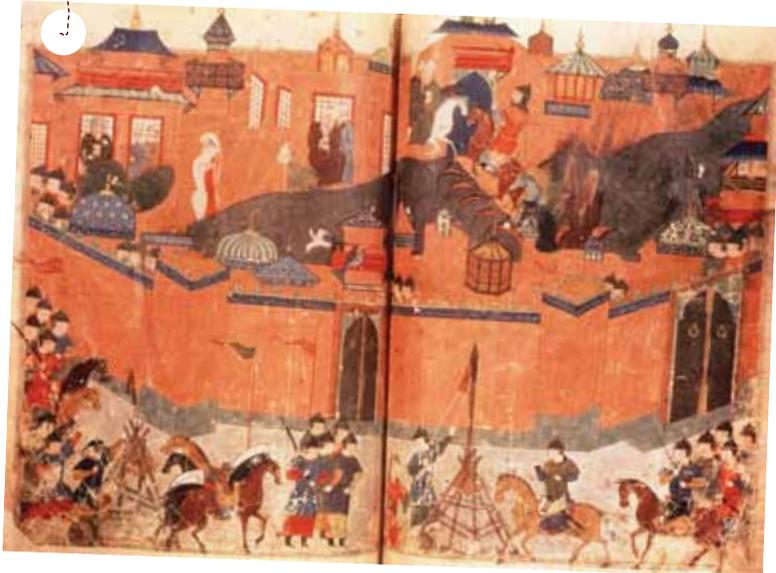
The Mongols claimed that a woman could safely carry a sack of gold from one end of the empire to the other without being robbed.

PAX MONGOLICA

Historians have described the Mongol Empire at its peak as 'Pax Mongolica', meaning 'Mongol peace'. The empire stabilised economic and social life across Asia and Eastern Europe. Communication and trade were easier, especially along the Silk Road, which stretched the full length of the empire. The Yassa ensured safe travel by imposing a penalty of nine times the value of original goods stolen.

WAR SUPREMACY

The success of the Mongols in establishing a huge empire was mainly due to the skill, tactics, discipline and organisation of its army. The military was structured according a decimal system, under Genghis Khan. The smallest unit or troop was the arban, made up of ten men from different tribes. Thus the old tribal system was destroyed. Ten arbans



SOURCE 2.4 Mongols under the leadership of Hulagu Khan storming and capturing Baghdad in 1258, from a 1288 manuscript. Held at Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris, France



- 1 Describe what you can see of the capture of Baghdad in the source above.
- 2 What means of transport did Mongol warriors use?
- 3 Is this a primary or secondary source of historical information? Why?

Mongke, the next khan, continued Mongol expansion. Attacks were carried out in Mesopotamia. In 1258, the major city of Baghdad surrendered to the Mongols, thus diminishing the power of the Islamic Empire. The Mongols gained control in Iran, Iraq, Syria, Thailand and Vietnam. The conquest of China was not completed when Mongke died in 1259. His death was the end of a unified Mongol Empire. A civil war between rivals for leadership followed. By 1263, the outcome was the division of the empire into four independent **khanates**, or regions, each ruled by a different noble. The generally recognised leader of the Mongols was Kublai Khan, who began the Yuan dynasty in China. He moved the Mongol capital to modern-day Beijing in China. The Golden Horde, Il Khanate and the Chagatai Khanate were the other three Mongol regions. The Mongol Empire reached its height under Kublai Khan's rule. Despite the division into four khanates, Great Khan Kublai maintained authority over the empire.

SOURCE 2.5

Mongolians with tents and camels in Russia, from *Atlas Major*, by Joan Blaeu, published in Amsterdam in 1662. Held at Bibliotheque Municipale, Auxerre, France



- 1 What animals do the Mongols have with them?
- 2 What do you think the people in the image are doing?





SOURCE
2.6

Mounted Mongol warriors in pursuit of the enemy, early fourteenth century. Held at Staatsbibliothek Berlin, Germany

Q

- 1 Which group of riders are the Mongols and which are their enemies?
- 2 Which group is better prepared for war? Provide evidence.

made one jagun, consisting of 100 men. Ten jaguns made one minghan, with 1000 men. Ten minghans made one tuman, which had 10 000 men. This system provided great flexibility, as an army could quickly be split into different sized cohorts, enabling various tactics to be used against the enemy as the battle situation might dictate. The superiority of the Mongol fighters was also evident. The difficult conditions on the steppes had made them tough. A lifetime of working with and riding horses meant they were fast, agile and skilled horsemen. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the Mongols had the most superior army in Europe and Asia.

THE CAVALRY

Cavalry, or troops mounted on horseback, formed the basis of the Mongol army. Light cavalry would advance first. They did reconnaissance and hid the heavy cavalry behind. Light horsemen carried a composite bow, a lasso and a few javelins. Behind them, the heavy cavalry had long lances and sabres for hand-to-hand fighting. Resistance to the Mongols led to massacres of entire populations and destruction of whole cities. Those who submitted to Mongol rule were spared death and treated leniently.

WEAPONS

Mongol weapons were specialised and effective. The composite bow was made of a combination of materials, including wood, leather, sinew, antler, horn and bamboo. Bows were lightweight and flexible. Horsemen fired arrows as they stood up in the stirrups of the charging horse. The almost vertical angle at which the arrow hit the enemy was deadly. Arrows had V-shaped iron points. So skilled were Mongol archers that distances greater than 500 metres were achieved by their arrow shoots. Archers could draw and shoot 12 arrows per minute. They carried between 30 and 150 arrows with them. When arrows ran out, the Mongols had a system of supply lines for communication and to courier in more supplies.

A halberd, a pole with a two-sided blade, was used in combat, as well as clubs, maces, axes and swords. The Mongols became very skilled in besieging cities. Siege machines were used for this style of warfare, including the catapult and the trebuchet (a type of catapult using counterweights), ladders and battering rams. The Mongols transported heavy machine parts on horseback and quickly assembled them on the battlefield. They also used smoke grenades to hide their movements and fire bombs.

MILITARY STRATEGY AND DISCIPLINE

Military success was due to a combination of factors—training, weapons, fighting strategies and well-disciplined forces. Mongols preferred to take the higher ground to better view the battlefield and for ease of defence. They sent out scouts to get information about the enemy before an attack. They often used biological war tactics by using catapults to shoot diseased bodies into cities under siege. They frequently deceived the enemy with tricks such as a feigned retreat. If the enemy was strong, the Mongols pretended to retreat so the enemy would follow. When the enemy was lured into a vulnerable position, such as a long narrow

valley where they had to form a long, thin line, the Mongols would launch a surprise attack. When camping near the enemy, they would light five campfires for every soldier so the enemy would think the Mongol army was much larger than it actually was.

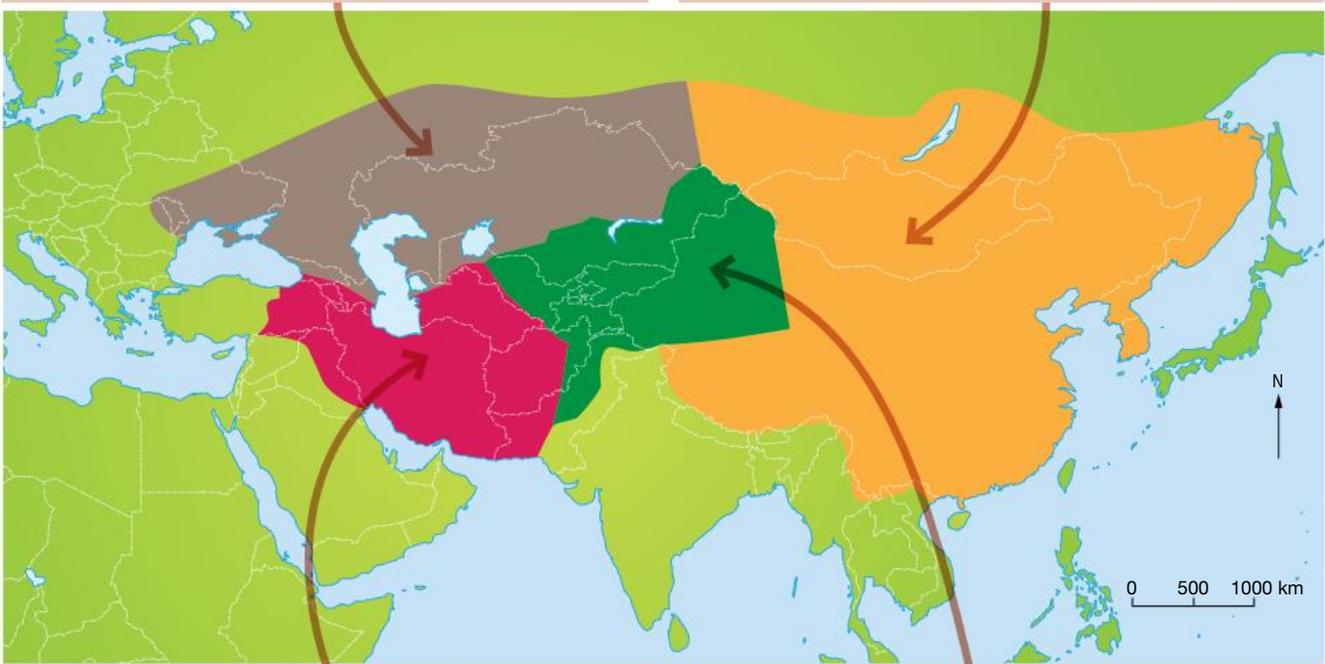
Army discipline was strict and was written in the Yassa, the Khan's code of laws. If one soldier from an arban ran from danger, all ten soldiers of the unit were put to death. A mounted soldier who did not pick up an object dropped from the mount ahead of him was punished by death.

The Golden Horde

- Led by Batu Khan (c. 1207–55).
- Occupied Central Asia and Russia.
- Influenced by Russian culture.
- Internal fighting among Mongols eventually resulted in disintegration of Mongol control. In 1480 CE, they were expelled from Russia.

Empire of the Great Khan

- Led by Kublai Khan (1215–1294).
- Occupied China in Yuan dynasty.
- Adopted Chinese customs.
- Chinese plots against Mongol aristocracy led to a Chinese nationalist movement. Yuan dynasty collapsed in 1368 and last Khan fled China for Mongolia.



Il-Khan dynasty

- Led by Hulagu Khan (c. 1217–65).
- Occupied Persia and Mesopotamia.
- Mongols and Turks blended to make a new nation. Turkish became the common language. Mongols converted to Islam.
- Empire collapsed in 1335 when invaded by Timurid Empire.

Chagadai Khanate

- Led by Chagatai Khan (c. 1185–1241 or 1242).
- Occupied present-day Mongolia.
- These are the only pure Mongolians.

SOURCE 2.7 The Mongol Empire, divided into khanates, 1294

THE EMPIRE COLLAPSES

The Mongol Empire began to show small signs of disunity as early as 1227, after the death of Genghis Khan. The absence of a system of succession led to infighting and political scheming each time a khan died. There were civil wars fought about succession. After 1259, following the death of Khan Mongke, the empire separated into four separate independent political regions, or khanates. Kublai Khan was the acknowledged leader of the empire and the total size of the empire continued to expand, but serious disunity developed. The death of Kublai Khan in 1294 was effectively the end of the Mongol Empire. His successor, in China, held the title of emperor of the Yuan dynasty, not 'Great Khan' of the Mongols.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE MONGOLS COLLECTED THE EARS OF THEIR ENEMIES?

After a battle, the Mongols would conduct a body count to find out how many of the enemy they had killed. To do this they would cut off one ear of each dead soldier so they could do a correct count. After the battle at Liegnitz, in Poland, in 1241, nine huge sackfuls of ears were collected.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 Draw up a 'Mongol Empire' glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.

- khan
- khanate
- khuriltai
- nomad
- Pax Mongolica
- siege
- steppes
- yassa

#2 Why is Genghis Khan considered to be one of the world's great leaders?

#3 How did Genghis Khan break down tribal loyalties to unify the Mongols?

#4 How large was the Mongol Empire at the height of its power?

#5 How was the Mongol army organised?

understanding & analysing

#6 Construct a Venn diagram to show the similarities and differences between the tribes of the steppes (Mongols) and civilisations the Mongols conquered (such as Mesopotamia and China).

#7 Explain why the Mongol army was so successful.

#8 What effect did the lack of leadership succession planning have on the Mongol Empire?

applying & analysing

#9 a Trace the map from Source 2.7 and, using an atlas, label your map to indicate the location of:

- modern-day countries
- modern-day major cities.

b How does this help you to come to an understanding of the size of the Mongol Empire?

#10 Reread Unit 2 carefully to help you create a flow chart of at least ten key events in the rise and fall of the Mongol Empire.

evaluating & creating

#11 Reread the section 'Weapons'. Select one cavalry and one siege weapon to research further. Create an instructional manual to be given to Mongol warriors that includes an annotated drawing, instructions for use and suggestions for situations in which the weapons should be used.



DAILY LIFE

The Mongols lived a pastoral nomadic lifestyle. They migrated two or three times a year in search of pasture and water for their animals. They had few food reserves and few possessions. Droughts, storms or heavy snow had an immediate effect on their herds and therefore their chances of survival. Mongols were very dependent on trade, particularly with China, to supplement their supplies.

LIVESTOCK

Survival of livestock was essential for ensuring food, clothes and shelter. It was forbidden to kill animals during the breeding season and livestock slaying could occur only once a year. To protect livestock from wolves, Mongols went on wolf-culling hunts.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT EVERY MONGOL FAMILY OWNED AT LEAST ONE HORSE?

Sometimes the horse was buried with the owner for the next life.

The Mongols kept **domesticated animals**—camels, horses, goats, cattle and sheep. Boiled sheep meat was a main food source. Wool was pressed into felt for clothes, rugs and blankets. Sheep skins were used for the outer covering of Mongol houses, called **gers**. Dried sheep dung was used as fuel. Goats were sources of meat, milk and cheese, and poorer Mongols used their skins for clothing. Fewer sheep than goats were kept because they destroyed the grasslands by eating grasses to the roots.

Camels were very suited to the desert and semi-desert conditions. They could survive for days without water and ate the poorer pastoral grasses. They were used as beasts of burden, transporting heavy loads when Mongols migrated. Camels transported gers, household furniture and trade goods. Camel hair was the main material used to make textiles. Horses were not only important for food and hides but were essential to the success of the Mongol Empire. Horses were self-sufficient, hardy and fast. They were used to herd livestock on the steppes and were ridden by warriors in the cavalry.

SOURCE
3.1 A flock of sheep in present-day Mongolia. Sheep provided wool, meat, milk and skins for the nomadic herders.

Q Why was the sheep an important domestic animal for the Mongols?



SOURCE 3.2 Gers are still constructed in modern-day Mongolia.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT MONGOLS DRANK HORSE BLOOD?

On long military campaigns when food ran out, Mongols would cut a horse's vein and collect the blood to drink or dry to use later. As horses were precious, the vein would be sewn so the wound would heal.

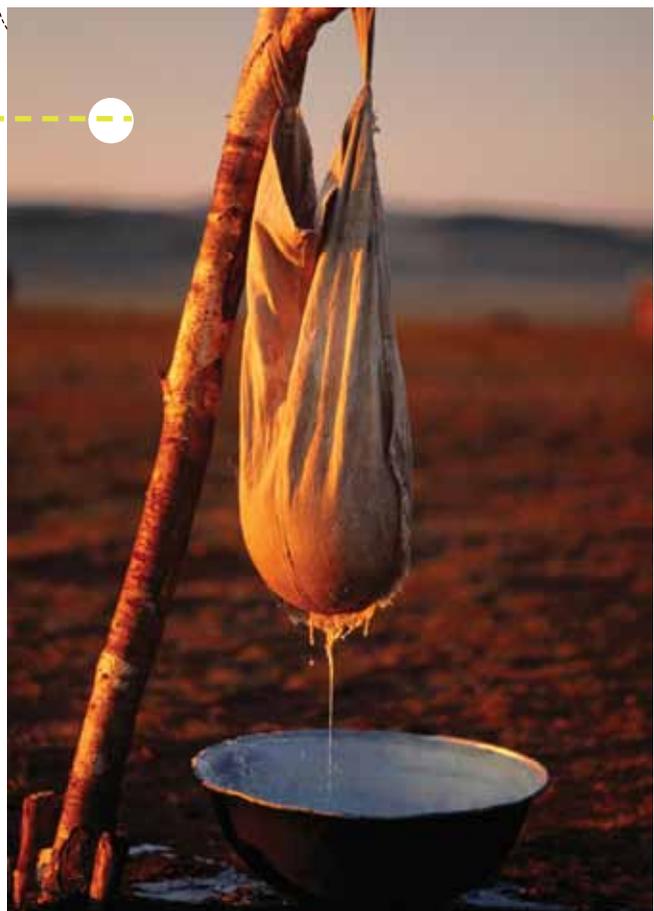
FOOD

The Mongols divided their food into 'white' foods and 'red' foods. White foods were dairy foods and the main food source in summer. People rarely drank milk, preferring cheese and yoghurt. A particularly popular drink was **koumiss**, or airag, made from horse's milk. The process of making koumiss involved pouring the milk into a skin and beating it with a stick until butter formed. The butter was then removed, leaving the koumiss—a fermented, sour and mildly alcoholic liquid.

Red foods were meats and were the main winter food source. The most common dish was meat boiled with garlic and onions. Animals were rarely slaughtered in summer. If an animal died of natural causes in summer, it was cut in strips and preserved by drying it in the sun. Only domestic animals were slaughtered in winter and then only as needed.

Mongol meal etiquette was very particular when there were large gatherings. Meat was cut into small pieces and served on skewers. People of different social classes were assigned different parts of the meat. Mongols ate with their fingers, wiping their dirty fingers on their clothing.

SOURCE 3.3 Koumiss and butter being separated by filtration



Q

- 1 What materials were used to make a ger in the past?
- 2 How do the materials used today differ from those used at the time of the Mongol Empire?



GERs

Mongols lived in gers or yurts. These were portable, round houses suited to their nomadic lifestyle. Gers were lightweight and could easily be dismantled when the tribe migrated. The parts were transported on camels. Gers took one hour to set up and were assembled so the door always faced south. The roof had eighty spokes, like a wheel, with an iron ring in the middle that was left uncovered to let out the smoke from the **dung**-fuelled central fire. The entire frame was covered in felt. A felt flap generally served as a door and the floors were earthen. Wealthy Mongols often substituted timber doors for the felt flap, and covered their earthen floors with rugs.

SOURCE
3.5

Three men dressed in traditional Mongolian costume

Q

- 1 What material would their clothes have been made of?
- 2 What other group in Mongol society wore a wide belt or sash?



CLOTHING

Mongol men and women wore basic, fitted robes called **deels**. The deel varied according to status and wealth. A long, ankle-length kaftan formed the first layer of the deel. The kaftan overlapped at the front and buttoned at the side. Men and single women wore two belts, the top one being a wide sash, to tie their kaftans. Married women wore short-sleeved jackets rather than sashes. Men and women wore trousers under the kaftans. Sometimes women wore underskirts, too. Rich women wore kaftans of silk, cotton and fur, while poorer women wore leather, wool and felt. For footwear, men and women wore boots with upturned toes and leather sandals. The Mongols never washed themselves or their clothes. They believed that if they washed they would pollute the water and the dragons, which symbolised water, would be angry. Clothes fell apart on them and only then were they replaced. The smell on clothes was seen as an important and desirable part of the garment.

SOURCE 3.6 A modern-day Mongolian herder pounds wool to make felt for the walls of his ger.



LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Mongol Empire' glossary:
- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------|
| ■ deel | ■ ger |
| ■ domesticated animal | ■ koumiss |
| ■ dung | |
- #2** What domesticated animals were kept by the Mongols?
- #3** Of what use were the domesticated animals to the Mongols?
- #4** What was koumiss and how was it made?

understanding & analysing

- #5** Why did the Mongols need lightweight houses that could be quickly constructed?
- #6** The Mongols often dried meat, milk and blood to preserve it. Why was it an advantage to the Mongols to be able to preserve food?

analysing

- #7** If the Mongols could have had only two rather than five types of domesticated animals, which would have been the most beneficial to keep? Give reasons for your answer.
- #8** What would have been the benefit of a high-fat diet to the Mongols?

analysing & evaluating

- #9** With a partner, conduct some research into the Australian Guide to Healthy Eating Food Plate.
- Use the Food Plate to help you evaluate the Mongol diet.
 - Show your findings using a graphic organiser of your choice.

evaluating & creating

- #10** Imagine that you are a dietitian who has been sent back in time to convince the Mongols of the need to add some healthy new foods to their diet. Create either a written or an oral presentation to convince them to try these new, healthy foods.



THE MONGOLS IN CHINA

The Mongols launched a number of invasions into China over a sixty-year period. They started in 1209 with repeated attacks on the Xia dynasty in north central China. By 1227, they captured the Xia capital city. In 1211, Genghis Khan successfully conquered the Jin dynasty in north-east China. Under the leadership of Kublai Khan, the Mongols next attacked the Song dynasty of southern China. After years of fighting against the superior Song's gunpowder weapons, rockets and flame-throwers, in 1276 the Mongols were victorious and Kublai Khan controlled all of China. He set up the Yuan dynasty and became emperor of China in 1279. The Yuan dynasty lasted for eighty-nine years, and ended in 1368 when the Mongols were driven out of China.

THE YUAN DYNASTY

China was part of the Mongol Empire during the period of the **Yuan dynasty**. The Mongols and the Chinese were very different people. They spoke different languages, had different customs and led different lifestyles. However, unlike other khans who retained their Mongol ways in conquered lands, Kublai Khan adopted Chinese ways.

Kublai adopted the Chinese custom of ancestral worship. He had temples built for his father, Tule, and grandfather, Genghis Khan. His son Jin Chin was educated in the Chinese style and learnt Confucianism and Buddhism. Kublai retained the Chinese systems of government but Mongols took all the positions in government.

The Yuan dynasty enforced the Yassa, the legal code first established by Genghis Khan. The Buddhist and Confucian Chinese were free to continue their religious beliefs. Foreigners were encouraged to travel throughout the empire, and doctors, lawyers, teachers, religious leaders and scholars did not pay taxes.



SOURCE
4.1

Kublai Khan, as he would have appeared in the 1260s, by Nepalese artist and astronomer Anige, c. 1294. Held at the National Palace Museum in Taipei, Taiwan

DID YOU KNOW

THAT DURING THE YUAN DYNASTY SOME FORMS OF MARRIAGE WERE FORBIDDEN?

The Mongols distrusted the Chinese, who were of the lowest status in Mongol society, and so forbade intermarriages between Chinese and Mongols.



SOCIETY AND THE MONGOLS

The Mongols treated ethnic groups differently, favouring some groups and **discriminating** against others. They established a very rigid social structure based on status, not merit. It was impossible to move up through the social structure. The Mongols divided the population into four groups. The most important group was the Mongols, who held the highest government positions and ruled. Their preferred **allies** and friends were the people from inner Asia. These people were of the Muslim faith and came from lands to the west of the Mongol Empire. Many of these foreigners were encouraged to come to China to take up important positions in administration. These non-Chinese foreigners were called **semuren**, meaning 'special people'.

The Chinese were the least trusted and had the lowest status in China. The Mongols even distinguished between the Chinese. Those of northern China, called **hanren**, meaning 'Han people', were considered of a higher status than other Chinese. The southern Chinese were the bottom of the social structure. They were called **hanzi**, meaning 'southlings' or 'barbarians'.

Chinese nobles, whether from the north or south, were not permitted to hold government positions. Instead, during the Yuan dynasty, many of these nobles supported and advanced the arts and literature. Poetry was especially popular. Nobles and emperors attended the theatre and opera. Chinese painting flourished and produced famous artists like Qian Xuan, Li Kan and Wu Zhen.

SOURCE 4.2 A painting by artist Qian Xuan, who gained a reputation for his bird, animal and nature paintings, thirteenth century. Held at Detroit Institute of Arts, USA



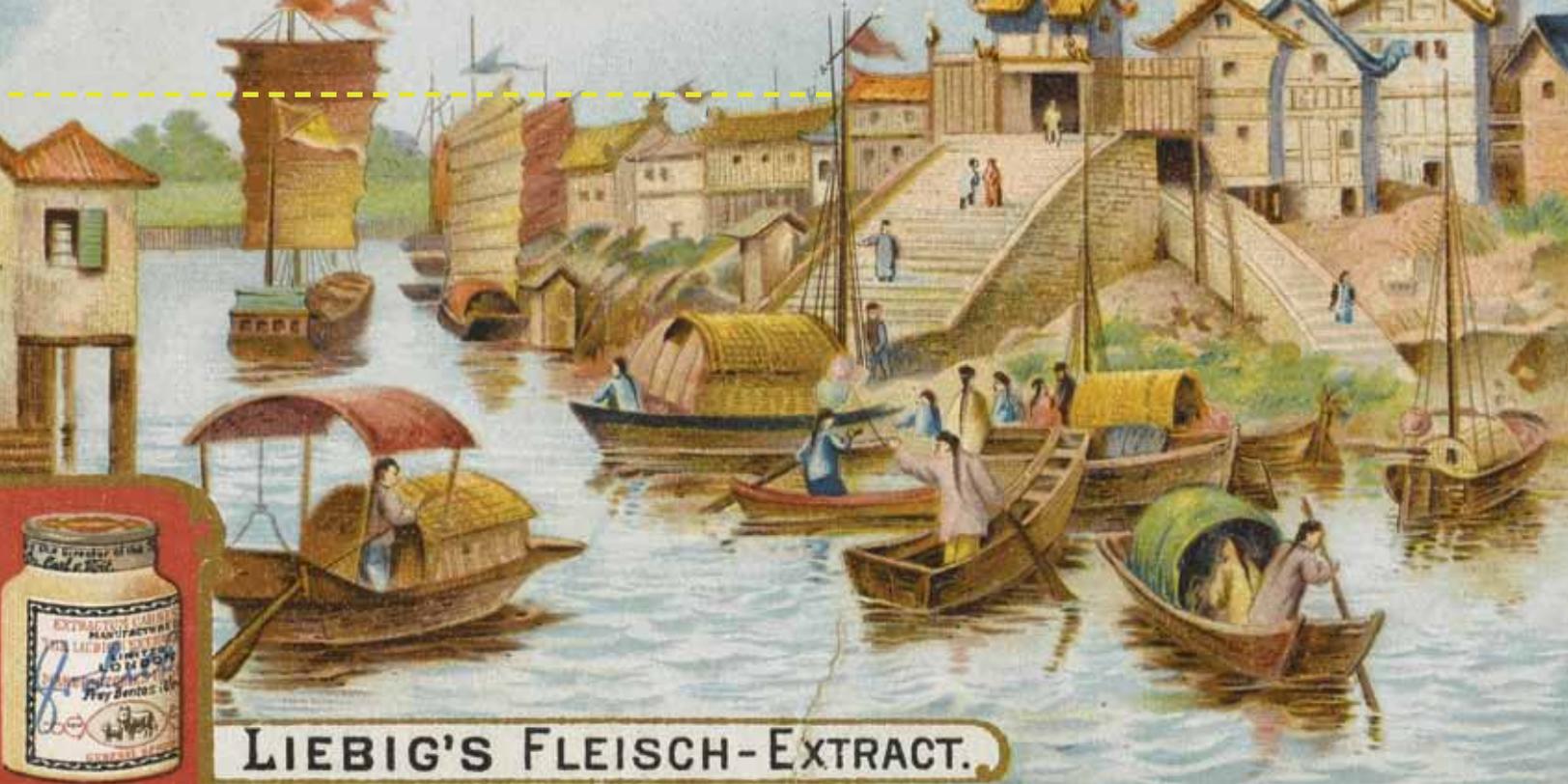
SOURCE 4.3 The annual festival celebrating the emperor's birthday, revived by Kublai Khan, from *The History of China and India*, by Miss Corner, 1847

- Q**
- 1 Where is Kublai Khan sitting compared with everyone else? Why?
 - 2 Why do you think he reintroduced the custom of celebrating the emperor's birthday?

CHINESE PEASANTS

The Mongols assisted Chinese peasants to farm successfully, so that more tax could be collected by the government. In order to assist farming, Mongols banned nomads' herds of animals from going onto farmland and ruining crops. Peasants had a fixed system of tax imposed on them. This meant that under the Mongols they knew exactly what their tax payments were. Under the earlier Chinese rule, peasants frequently had to pay unexpected levies. The Mongols expected peasants to spend time working on government public works. The Grand Canal and a number of palaces were constructed with peasant labour. Peasants resented the Mongols because of these impositions on them, which took them away from their farm work.





CHINESE CRAFTSMEN

The Mongols valued the work of craftsmen or **artisans**. Mongols, being nomadic, did not traditionally have artisans in their society. They therefore depended on trade with other societies to supply the products of craftsmen. In China, the Mongols therefore thought highly of artisans. Mongol policy favoured artisans by reducing their tax payments and raising their status in society. This contrasted with the Chinese attitude towards artisans—the Chinese valued the products but not the artisans themselves. Crafts flourished during the Yuan dynasty, when beautiful textiles and porcelains were produced.

Products of artisans were in high demand in Europe. Merchants transported these goods along the Silk Road, which developed as the trade route between the continents of Asia and Europe.

SOURCE
4.4

The southern terminal of the Grand Canal at Hang-zhou, 1903, depicted on an early-20th century advertisement card for a German manufacturer

Q

1 In what ways was the construction of the Grand Canal beneficial to China?

2 Who built the Grand Canal and how did they feel about this work?

SOURCE
4.5

White glazed china pillow depicting a theatre stage from the Yuan dynasty, 1271–1368. Held at the Capital Museum, Beijing, China

Q

Explain how the pillow demonstrates the high quality of Yuan dynasty crafts.



SOURCE
4.6

A porcelain utensil decorated in the traditional blue and white of the Yuan dynasty. Held in a private collection

Q

1 What image has the craftsman used to decorate the utensil?

2 Why would such objects have been popular in Europe?

MERCHANTS

Merchants enjoyed high status during the Yuan dynasty. The Mongols supported trade in China and throughout the Mongol Empire. Merchants were given more tax concessions than other groups. As a traditionally nomadic people, the Mongols knew the importance of trade, as it supplied them with the goods that they could not produce for themselves. The attitude to merchants was very different under Chinese rule. The Chinese considered merchants to be parasites who added nothing to the economy.

The Mongols set up **ortogh**, or merchant associations, to promote trade over long distances. The caravan trade between Europe and Asia was extremely expensive and dangerous. A single caravan needed between 70 and 100 men for one journey, plus supplies to feed men and animals. The ortogh enabled a number of merchants to pool their money and goods, so a single caravan could afford the journey. If a caravan did not manage to make the journey, no single merchant was ruined by the loss.

DECLINE OF THE YUAN

The Mongols were expelled from China in 1368. Major money problems arose because the Mongols overspent on public works. Projects such as the Grand Canal, road building and construction of the capital city Dadu (Beijing) all cost more money than the government could afford. The burden for paying for these public works fell on the peasants and merchants, in the form of higher taxes. The economically strong China at the start of the Yuan dynasty was in serious financial trouble under the Mongols.

The Mongols were not able to defend themselves against uprisings by the Chinese. During the period of the Yuan dynasty, the Mongols had neglected their military training. They had become weak and the opposition to them grew as time went on. The Mongols had discriminated against the Chinese nobility, and consequently had never gained their support. Peasants resented increasing taxes and demands on them to leave their farms to do public works. Uprisings began in the 1350s. By 1368, all the Mongols had returned home and a new Chinese dynasty began.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 List and explain the following terms in your 'Mongol Empire' glossary:

- | | |
|------------------|----------------|
| ■ allies | ■ hanzi |
| ■ artisans | ■ ortogh |
| ■ discrimination | ■ semuren |
| ■ hanren | ■ Yuan dynasty |

#2 List six key dates and events, in chronological order, of the Mongol invasion and occupation of China.

applying & analysing

#3 On a Venn diagram, show the similarities and differences in daily life in China, before and during the Yuan dynasty.

#4 Draw a pyramid to represent the social structure during the Yuan dynasty. Name each group on the pyramid and list their occupations. The most important group in society should be at the top and the group with the least status at the bottom.

evaluating & creating

#5 Imagine you are a peasant farmer in the Yuan dynasty. You are preparing to join a Chinese uprising against the Mongols. Prepare a placard, on A3 paper, that you will take to the protest. It should have a catchy slogan expressing your opinion of Mongol rule. It should also include one reason for your opinion.

#6 Evaluate Mongol rule in China during the Yuan dynasty. Do this by drawing up a two-column table, one to list positive points and the other to list negative points about Mongol rule. Write three points in each column.

MARCO POLO IN MONGOL CHINA

The Yuan dynasty was a period of open interaction and connection between the Mongols and the world beyond. The policy of Pax Mongolica enabled safe travel throughout China. The Silk Road, a major trade route connecting Europe and Asia, experienced increased traffic. Kublai Khan encouraged this trade and welcomed foreign travellers into China, such as Marco Polo, a merchant from Venice, Italy.

MARCO POLO'S TRAVELS

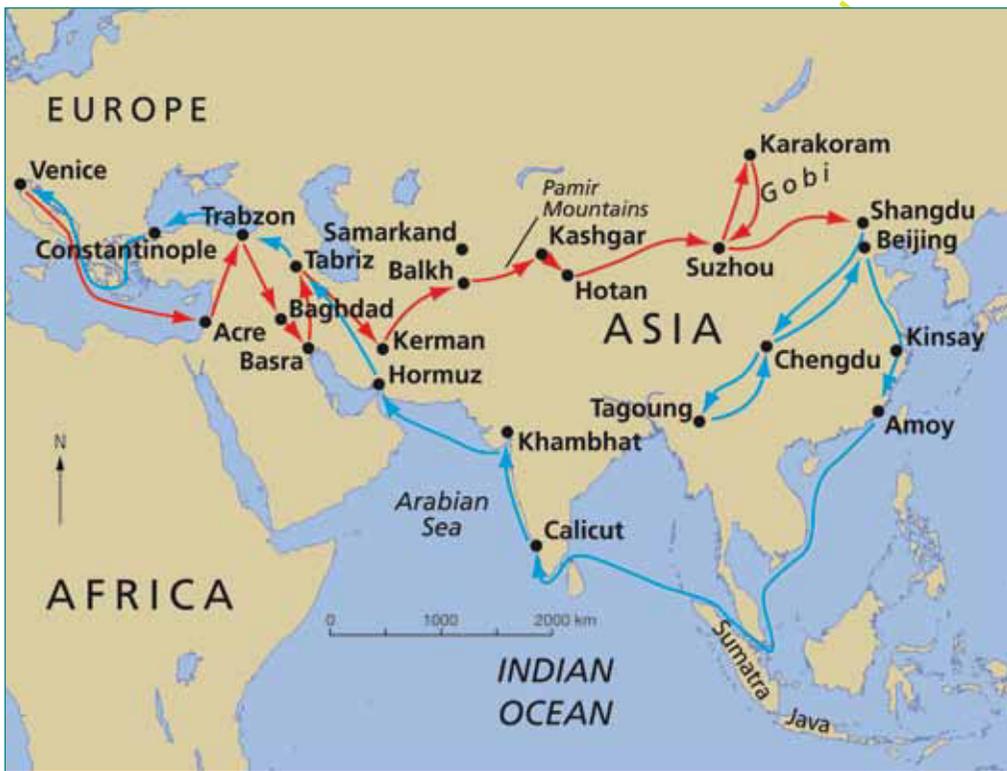
Marco Polo was born in 1254 to a merchant family. His father and uncle had travelled to the Mongol Empire and met Kublai Khan before he made the same journey. Marco Polo left Venice in 1271 and took three years to travel to Cambaluc (Beijing), where he was welcomed by the Great Khan. Marco Polo remained in China for seventeen years, working as a special diplomat for the Khan. He travelled extensively and observed and learnt a great deal about the Mongols in China.

SOURCE
5.1

Marco Polo travelling in a caravan along the Silk Road, 1254–1324, from the *Catalan Atlas* (1375). Held at the Bibliothèque Nationale de France



Three years after his return to Venice in 1295, Marco Polo became involved in a war between his home city of Venice and a rival city, Genoa. He was captured and jailed. During this period of imprisonment, Marco Polo met the writer Rustichello da Pisa, to whom he told the fantastic tales of his travels in the Mongol Empire. Rustichello recorded the stories in detail. The book of these travels is called *The Travels of Marco Polo* and for many years was the main source of information about the Mongol Empire available in Europe. The book was a success and was translated into many languages. Unfortunately, the original book has been lost.



SOURCE 5.2 Marco Polo's journey across Europe and Asia from Venice to Beijing and the return journey

“... people who act as the Emperor's foot runners ... those runners wear a great wide belt, set all over with bells, so that as they run the three miles from post to post their bells are heard jingling a long way off ... on reaching the post the runner finds another man ... all ready to take his place, who instantly takes over whatsoever he has in charge, and with it receives a slip of paper from the clerk ... and so the new man sets off and runs his three miles. At the next station he finds his relief ready in like manner; and so the post proceeds ... And in this way the Emperor, who has an immense number of these runners, receives despatches with news from places ten days' journey off in one day and night; or, if need be, news from a hundred days off in ten days and nights; and that is no small matter!”

SOURCE 5.3 Marco Polo's description of the Khan's postal system, from *The Book of Marco Polo*, translated and edited by Colonel Sir Henry Yule, 1903

“... the city of Cambaluc [Beijing] hath such a multitude of houses, and such a vast population inside the walls and outside, that it seems quite past all possibility ... To this city also are brought articles of greater cost and rarity, and in greater abundance of all kinds, than to any other city in the world. For people of every description, and from every region, bring things (including all the costly wares of India, as well as the fine and precious goods of Cathay [China] itself with its provinces) ... I tell you, no day in the year passes that there do not enter the city 1000 cartloads of silk alone, from which are made quantities of cloth of silk and gold, and of other goods.”

SOURCE 5.4 Marco Polo's description of the city of Cambaluc, the royal city of the Khan in China, from *The Book of Marco Polo*, translated and edited by Colonel Sir Henry Yule, 1903. Cambaluc is now called Beijing and is the capital city of China.



SOURCE 5.5 Marco Polo in Mongol costume, held at Museo Correr, Venice, Italy



SOURCE
5.6 Marco Polo and his father being given the golden seal by Kublai Khan. The golden seal or tablet entitled the holder to travel freely throughout the Mongol Empire, and receive food, horses and guides. From an early fifteenth-century manuscript, held at the Bibliothèque Nationale de France

... from this city of Cambaluc [Beijing] proceed many roads and highways leading to a variety of provinces ... And the messengers of the Emperor in travelling from Cambaluc, be the road whichsoever they will, find at every twenty-five miles of the journey a station which they call Yamb, or, as we should say, the 'Horse Post House'.
And at each of those stations used by the messengers, there is a large and handsome building for them to put up at, in which they find all the rooms furnished with fine beds and all other necessary articles in rich silk, and where they are provided with everything they can want ... and the same is the case throughout all the chief provinces subject to the Great Kaan ... For it is a fact that on all these posts taken together there are more than 300 000 horses kept up, specially for the use of the messengers. And the great buildings that I have mentioned are more than 10 000 in number, all richly furnished, as I told you. The thing is on a scale so wonderful and costly that it is hard to bring oneself to describe it.

SOURCE
5.7 Marco Polo's description of the Khan's posts along roads for the purpose of aiding travellers, from *The Book of Marco Polo*, translated and edited by Colonel Sir Henry Yule, 1903

FACT OR FICTION?

Today there is doubt among some historians about Marco Polo's claim that he reached China. Academics such as Frances Wood suggest that Polo only went as far as the Black Sea, where his family trading post was located. From there he gained access to merchants and books that provided him with knowledge about China. Part of the evidence to support this view focuses on what Marco Polo did not include in his descriptions of China. According to the sceptics, certain very important cultural facts are left out, which suggests that Marco Polo did not visit and live in China for seventeen years, as he claimed.

Marco Polo's apparent failure to pick up even a few Chinese or Mongol place-names in his seventeen-year stay in China remains puzzling ... Marco Polo's descriptive gifts ... and exotica from the East ... [were] things ... just beginning to be known in Europe.

One of the great innovations of ... Yuan (1279–1368) China was the use of paper money ... paper had only just begun to be known in Europe ... The method of paper making is ... described, but the complexities of woodblock-printing ... are not explored ...

It is hard to conceive that in the country where paper was invented and the written word revered more than almost anywhere else, a person, even

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

REMEMBERING & UNDERSTANDING

- 1 Reread Sources 5.3, 5.4 and 5.7 then respond to the following.
 - a Who wrote these sources and where and when were they written?
 - b Create a table with three columns and use each source number as the heading for a column. Under each heading, use dot points to list Marco Polo's key observations.
- 2 Refer to Sources 5.1 and 5.2.
 - a Describe Marco Polo's route across Europe and Asia.
 - b What means of transport did Marco Polo use?
- 3 Source 5.5 shows Marco Polo wearing a Mongol costume. What information does this image provide about Mongol costume and weapons?

APPLYING & ANALYSING

- 4 Reread Sources 5.3, 5.4 and 5.7 then respond to the following.
 - a Explain whether these are primary or secondary sources.
 - b Explain whether they are reliable sources of information about Mongol China.
 - c Why do you think the Marco Polo book from which two of these extracts came was so popular in medieval Europe?
- 5 Refer to Source 5.6.
 - a What is Marco Polo's attitude towards the Khan?
 - b What does Kublai Khan think of Marco Polo and how did you reach this conclusion?
- 6 Refer to Source 5.3 and explain why Marco Polo and foreigners were so impressed with China's postal system.
- 7 Reread Source 5.8.
 - a Who wrote this extract? Is this person's opinion reliable?
 - b Explain whether the extract supports or refutes Marco Polo's account.
 - c Give two examples from the extract that either support or refute Marco Polo.

a foreigner, could claim to have served in the government bureaucracy and either fail to notice the Mongol and the Chinese writing systems or consider them of little interest.

Perhaps even more surprising ... Marco Polo never mentioned tea ... It is ... difficult to imagine ... [Marco Polo not] noticing the popularity of the drink.

... the failure to describe foot-binding seems the most extraordinary for it, almost above all else, certainly fascinated later travellers.

SOURCE
5.8

From *Did Marco Polo Go to China?* by Frances Wood, a historian and Head of the Chinese Department of the British Museum, published in 1995

EVALUATING & CREATING

- 8 Assess why Marco Polo always referred to the capital city of China as Cambaluc, while the Mongols called the same city Dadu. (Today we know this city as Beijing.)
- 9 Imagine you are Marco Polo and have been in Beijing for about a month. All that you see fascinates you. You decide to write a letter home, describing your first impressions. Write a one-page letter describing your observations. You may choose to do additional research to assist you in this task.

TERRITORY AND GENETICS

In its 162-year history, the Mongol Empire made some very important and notable contributions to world history. The Mongols changed world geography. They created one of the largest empires in the world and so changed territorial borders. Even though the later khanates divided the Mongol Empire, large areas remained unified. Today, east and west Russia are united due to the Mongols. China was separated into separate political dynasties, the Song and Jin, before the Yuan dynasty. The Mongols united these and formed the China we recognise today. Mongolia emerged as a country as a result of the unification of separate and often fighting nomadic tribes under the Mongol Empire.

The Mongols spread over so enormous an area in Asia that they came into contact with many other cultural groups. In many cases, the Mongols adopted the customs of the conquered peoples. This was particularly the case in western Asia. Recent research shows that 8 per cent of all people in Asia are descendants of the Mongols. The Moghuls, who ruled India in the sixteenth to eighteenth centuries, were also Mongol descendants.

EURASIAN CONNECTIONS

During the period of the Mongol Empire an enormous area of Asia came under Mongol rule. Political stability developed and Pax Mongolica meant there was peace and it was safe to travel. The Silk Road, the major land and sea trade route connecting eastern Asia and Europe, experienced a revival of trade.

It was not only goods that travelled between Europe and Asia—so too did ideas and knowledge. Marco Polo's book about his travels to the East inspired the explorer Christopher Columbus to set sail in search of a sea route from Europe to China.

ARMY ORGANISATION

Genghis Khan created the decimal system used to organise the Mongol army. It provided flexibility in the use of troops and enabled the Mongols to devise some effective and creative fighting strategies. This system is the basis of organisation of many modern armies, in which groups and subgroups of soldiers are organised in multiples of ten.

MONEY

The Mongols improved on the Chinese system of using paper money. They began printing their own paper currency in 1227. By 1260, Kublai Khan had instituted one unified currency for the whole of China. This made trade between different parts of China much easier and there was a common understanding of values and exchange prices for goods. The use of one currency and its control was enforced strictly. Refusal to accept paper money was punishable by death. Counterfeiting, which would have flooded China with money and caused a lowering of its value, was also punishable by death.

SOURCE
6.1

Samples of silk fabric available for sale along the Silk Road today. Silk of similar quality and design was transported from China to Europe during the Yuan dynasty, giving the road its name.





ARTS AND CRAFTS

The arts and crafts flourished during the Yuan dynasty. The Mongols supported artisans in their crafts. Poetry, theatre and painting flourished as Chinese nobility explored and developed the arts and literature. Many arts and crafts products were in great demand in European markets.

Porcelain was first made in China and was especially highly prized. The Yuan dynasty traded blue and white porcelain with Europe. It was not till the early eighteenth century that the secrets of porcelain making were leaked to Europe. Porcelain is the basis of bone china and ceramics production. Today, these materials are used for crockery as well as insulation for high-voltage materials, building materials and tiles. The famous blue and white designs of the Yuan continue to influence modern ceramics. Companies such as Delftware in the Netherlands and Spode, Wedgwood and Royal Doulton in Britain, still use the distinctive blue and white colours.

SOURCE
6.2

The Great Khan overseeing the use of paper money for trade, c. 1410–12, held at Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris, France. Tree bark was used to make the money.

NATIONAL PRIDE

Mongolia owes its existence as a unified nation to Genghis Khan. The Khan united the nomadic tribes of the steppes in 1206 and so began the growth of the huge Mongol Empire. After the collapse of the Empire, a small area of the steppes remained under Mongol control. Mongolia gained independence from China in 1911. Mongolia's three million people have a great sense of pride in their history and the achievements of their ancestors in establishing the Mongol Empire.



TIME TO THINK ...

1 THE MONGOL EMPIRE AND LINKS TO OTHER COUNTRIES

- a What impact did the Mongol Empire have on Asia and Europe?
- b How did the Mongols interact with the people they conquered?
- c Do you think that the Mongols deserved to be called 'the devil's horsemen'?

2 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

- a How did the nomadic tribes of central Asia unite and form an empire?
- b Why did the Mongol Empire crumble in so short a period of time?

3 EVIDENCE

- a What evidence provides historians with their information about the Mongols?
- b Explain whether you think this evidence is reliable and unbiased.

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 Travelling the Silk Road

Create a board game, on A3 poster paper, in which players must travel the Silk Road from west to east. This activity may be completed individually or in pairs. The board game must include:

- a a map of the Silk Road with major geographic features (seas, mountains, steppes and deserts) shaded in and labelled
- b a minimum of four towns labelled along the route, plus the towns at the extreme east and west of the Silk Road
- c the Silk Road, drawn as a ribbon of small squares. At random intervals along the road, instructions are to be written in some of the squares:
 - at least six instructions should relate to difficulties that hindered travel, with instructions to move backwards
 - at least six instructions should relate to the journey proceeding well with instructions to move forwards.

Write a list of instructions on the A3 board for playing the game, and provide all the equipment, for example dice, so the game is a complete package.

Play the game with a class member, then swap with others and play their games.

#2 Battle strategy

The Mongol army was unbeatable. In 1270, the advancing Mongols threatened the Chinese Song dynasty. Imagine you are a Chinese general who sets out to spy on the Mongols and learn the secrets of their battle success. Prepare a report for the Chinese emperor, including the following information:

- a description of Mongol army organisation
- a description of Mongol weapons and their usage
- an example of a battle strategy used in a particular campaign
- suggestions to the Chinese emperor about how to counter the Mongols in battle.

#3 Showing off the Mongol Empire

Mongolia's National History Museum in its capital city, Ulaanbaatar, is proposing a new exhibition focussing on the Mongol Empire. It is your task to plan what should be included in this exhibition.

Prepare an electronic slide presentation to show the museum curator what you plan to exhibit. Consider and include the following:

- a theme for the exhibition
- the focus of the exhibition
- the sections that are to be included and how they relate to the main theme
- images, artefacts, evidence, maps and other items for the display
- promotional material to advertise the exhibition
- an explanation of the importance of the Mongol Empire in world history.

#4 Commemorating the Mongol Empire

Mongols celebrate their history and traditions in the annual Nadam Festival, which the great leader Genghis Khan initiated 800 years ago. The opening ceremony of next year's festival will include the unveiling of a commemorative memorial in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia's capital city.

It is your task to create the memorial. The theme of the memorial is 'The glorious past of the Mongol Empire'. The subject of the memorial may be a person, place, event, artefact or anything else you consider suitable. The finished product may be an artwork, such as a painting or sculpture, or a multimedia item such as a short film or interactive display.

You must include:

- a detailed visual of the memorial, with a heading and labels
- a written description of the memorial—what it will look like and the materials it will be made from
- an explanation of why this memorial was created and how it represents the theme
- an explanation for your choice of the form (for example film, painting) of the proposed memorial.

SOURCE
7.1

Mongol cavalry in a re-enactment of the military might of the army of Genghis Khan. The event occurred in 2006 at the 800th commemorative anniversary of the beginning of the Mongol Empire in 1206.



KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

What were the characteristics of Native American societies prior to contact with the Spanish?

What impact did the interaction between the Spanish and Native Americans have on Native American civilisations?

What were the longer term effects of Spanish colonisation in Europe and in the colonies?



The European discovery of the Americas by Christopher Columbus in 1492 CE led to the development of a vast Spanish empire that lasted for the next 400 years. The clash between the Old World of Europe and the New World of the Americas had implications across the globe as the Spanish, and other European nations, proceeded to plunder the riches of these new lands, disregarding the rights of the indigenous population.



THE SPANISH IN THE



SOURCE
0.1 Meeting of
Hernán Cortés
and Emperor
Moctezuma II
in Tenochtitlán,
1519, by Gallo
Gallina

AMERICAS

SNAPSHOT

1325 Aztec City of Tenochtitlán founded



1376 Aztecs choose their first emperor

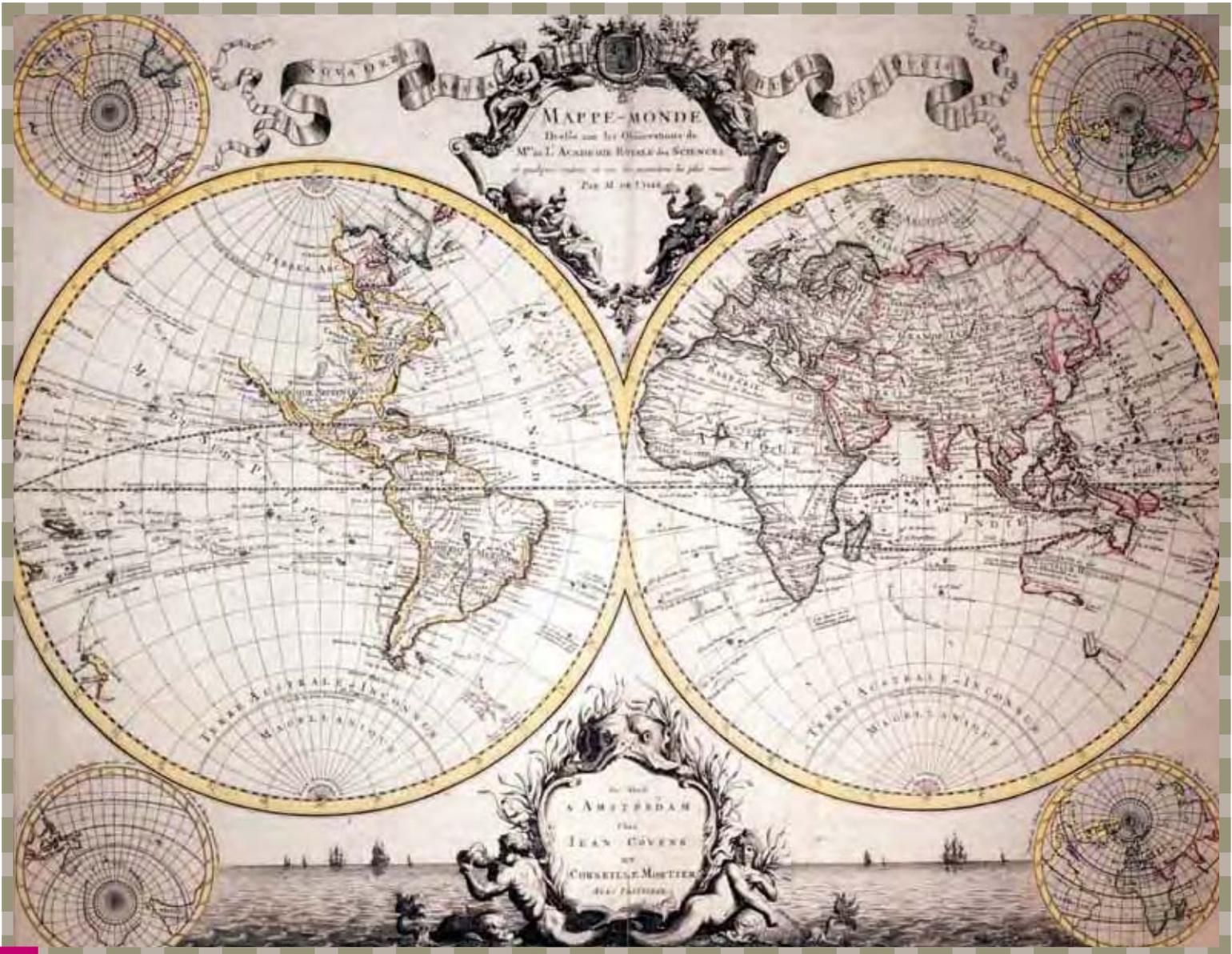
1438 Inca military expansion begins

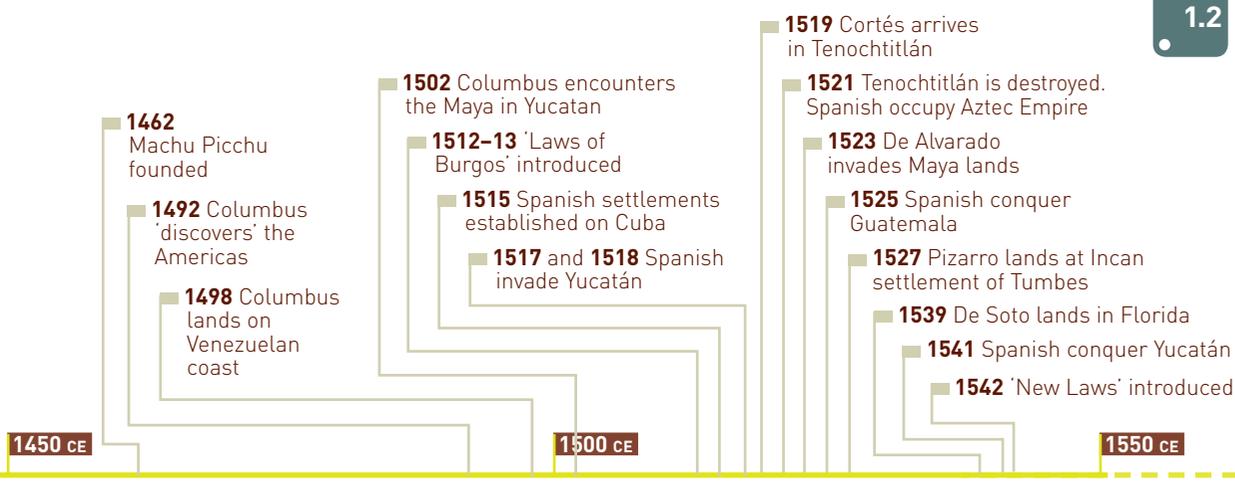
1300 CE

1350 CE

1400 CE

SOURCE 1.1 The Americas, a map by Guillaume Delisle, from *Atlas Nouveau*, 1730





THE AMERICAS

The area we now call North and South America was settled by early people long before the Europeans made their own 'discovery'. There are a number of theories which attempt to explain how the native people came to the Americas. Lower sea levels at the end of the last Ice Age created a large land mass called Beringia, which linked today's Alaska to Siberia and over which animals and people could travel. Scientists now generally agree that Native Americans migrated from Asia via this bridge more than 10 000 years ago. Studies at sites in Patagonia and central Chile show dates of settlement of 14 000–10 500 BCE. But new evidence, such as prehistoric cave paintings in Brazil, indicate that Native Americans lived in South America at least 25 000 years ago.

In the thousands of years before the arrival of the European explorers, Native Americans had developed every kind of society: nomadic hunting groups, settled farming communities and advanced civilisations with cities as large as any other on Earth at the time. The great cities of the Aztec and the Maya, for example, were, in their heyday, comparable with the great cities of Ancient Egypt and Mesopotamia.

Middle America, or **Mesoamerica**, was where the formidable Aztec and Maya empires flourished. Further south, South America was home to the mighty Inca alliance of city-states. However, within a few decades of the arrival of Columbus at the end of the fifteenth century CE, a hundred million Native Americans were dead and their worlds were destroyed.

'Native Americans' is the name given to the peoples living in the Americas before the Europeans colonised it and to their descendants today. This chapter deals with the indigenous peoples living in Central and South America.

The pre-Columbian civilisations were flourishing societies with large cities and unique beliefs. The arrival of the Spanish explorers and settlers caused the rapid and irreversible destruction of the native civilisations. The indigenous peoples were no match for the better-armed Spaniards in this clash of cultures. Under Spanish **colonisation**, the native populations suffered many abuses.



THE AGE OF EXPLORATION

The period from the mid-fifteenth to the early seventeenth century CE was a period of exploration never before experienced on such a large scale in so short a period of time. The maritime, or seafaring, nations of Spain and Portugal led the way. Expeditions from England, France and Holland soon joined the race. They also wanted a share of the lands and wealth. Together, these European nations discovered unknown continents and oceans and gradually mapped the whole of the planet. By the early seventeenth century, maps included the new discoveries of America, Australia, Asia and the parts of Africa not bordering the Mediterranean Sea.

FAMOUS EXPLORERS

There were many brave explorers who sailed into uncharted waters on sailing ships. The voyages were long and dangerous. Living conditions on board ship were cramped and unhygienic. Sailors did not know if they would ever see their home ports again, once they departed on their quests. Overland exploration was also perilous and many expeditions failed to achieve their goals at the first attempt.

SOURCE 2.1 Some of the famous explorers of the Age of Exploration

- Q**
- 1 Name three Spanish explorers who went to the Americas.
 - 2 When was Australia first sighted and by whom?

Explorer and nationality	Dates	Discovery/achievement
Christopher Columbus, Italian	1492	Discovered America (New World)
Vasco Nunez de Balboa, Spanish	1513	First European to see the Pacific Ocean
Ferdinand Magellan, Portuguese	1519	Led first expedition voyage around the world; died on the journey
Hernán Cortés, Spanish	1521	Conquered Mexico and Aztec Empire in Mesoamerica
Pedro de Alvarado, Spanish	1523	Conquered the Mayan lands in Mexico in Mesoamerica
Francisco Pizarro, Spanish	1532	Conquered Incas of Peru in South America
Sir John Hawkins, English	1555, 1564, 1567	Voyaged to west Africa and South America; known as the pioneer of the English slave trade from Africa
Sir Martin Frobisher, English	1576, 1578	Voyaged to northern America to Labrador and Greenland
Sir Francis Drake, English	1577–80	Circumnavigated the globe
Willem Jansz, Dutch	1606	Discovered Australia's northern tip of Gulf of Carpentaria
Abel Tasman, Dutch	1642	Discovered southern Tasmania
	1644	Discovered north coast of Australia
James Cook, English	1770	Discovered east coast of Australia





SOURCE
2.2

Full-size replicas of Christopher Columbus's ships, the *Santa Maria*, the *Pinta* and the *Niña*, at Muelle de las Carabelas in southern Spain. This is the site from which Columbus departed for the New World in August, 1492.

Q

- 1 Use evidence from the source to explain how the ships were powered.
- 2 Estimate the length of the ship in the foreground. Look at the people on deck as well as the rubbish bin in the foreground, to get an idea of the scale.

REASONS FOR EXPLORATION

There were a number of motives for the European quest for new lands. Following the fall of ancient Rome in 476 CE, and for approximately the next 1000 years, European society was static, feudal and rural. During this time, known as the medieval period, trade and travel were discouraged. People lived their whole life in one small community.

Europeans' awareness of other cultures first came with the Crusades. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, soldiers returning from the Holy Lands, which were under Islamic control, brought back to Europe exotic goods and stories of advanced technologies. In the late thirteenth century, the Venetian explorer Marco Polo ventured into Asia, along the Silk Road. After a seventeen-year stay in China, working as adviser to the emperor, he returned to Venice. The book describing his incredible travels was extremely popular in Europe. Europeans were amazed by the tales of gold and wealth and wanted their share. From this time, trade between Europe and China flourished. Goods from the Orient were highly valued and sought after by Europeans. The decline of the Mongols in 1294, the protectors of trade along the Silk Road, had repercussions for trade. When the Silk Road became

too dangerous and inaccessible for travel, Europeans turned to exploration of the seas to reach the markets of trading countries. The Age of Exploration began in earnest in the late fifteenth century.

SOURCE
2.3

Hernán Cortés meeting ambassadors of Moctezuma, last king of the Aztecs, from the *Historia de los Indios*, by Diego Duran, 1579

Q

Who would be the winner—the Spaniards or Aztecs—if a conflict were to occur? Explain why.



THAT AMERICA WAS NAMED AFTER AMERIGO VESPUCCI, AN ITALIAN EXPLORER AND CARTOGRAPHER?

Vespucci drew the first map of the New World based on his observations and those of other explorers. He signed his name 'Americus Vesputius' (Latin) on the map. Martin Waldseemüller printed the map with the New World labelled 'America'. It was too late to change the name to Columbia, after the discoverer, Christopher Columbus.



SOURCE 2.4 Christopher Columbus presenting gifts to the first Native Americans to greet him on his landing in 1492, from *Il Costume Antico et Moderno*, by Giulio Ferrario, 1817

Q Using evidence from the painting, describe the interaction between Columbus and the Native Americans.



TRADE

Explorers sought a maritime route to the Indies, the name given to Japan, China and India by the Europeans. Precious spices were grown there that were not available in Europe. As there was no refrigeration in medieval times, these spices were used to preserve meat from spoiling. They were also popular for flavouring foods. With such high demand for spices, any nation that discovered a sea route to the Indies would become rich.

The expansion of trade also coincided with the growth of cities and commerce across Europe as the medieval system gradually broke down. Wealthy city dwellers wanted luxury imported items, such as the silks of the Indies.

WEALTH

European rulers wanted gold, silver and precious gems to add to their treasuries. Wars were common and costly and there were many in Europe. European rulers believed that wealth was there for the taking in Asia, and therefore supported voyages to discover this wealth.

SOURCE 2.5 The extensive Spanish Empire in the Americas, in 1598. This was 106 years after America was discovered by Christopher Columbus.

Q Which modern-day countries of North and South America did the Spanish colonise? Use an atlas to help you.

EMPIRE BUILDING

European rulers wanted access to more natural resources than their own countries were endowed with. Discovering and claiming new lands as their own would expand their ownership of resources. The Spaniards were especially keen to colonise new lands and use indigenous people as slaves to do the work.

CHRISTIANITY

The only European religion in this period was **Christianity**. The growth of Islam in Asia was seen as a threat to the spread of Christianity. Isabella I, the queen of Spain, was an ardent Catholic who took drastic measures to rid Spain of all other religions. She and King Ferdinand II expelled Jews and Muslims from Spain if they refused to convert. They made every effort to unify Spain under **Catholicism**. Their desire to spread the Catholic religion was one of the reasons for Spain's voyages of discovery.

KNOWLEDGE

In the late fifteenth century, a gradual revival of interest in knowledge and learning developed. This period was known as the **Renaissance**. A desire to explore and gain knowledge was a strong characteristic of this period. Many expeditions were launched out of curiosity about the world, as much as for monetary gain.

THE SPANISH EMPIRE

Spanish exploration focused on the Americas. The Caribbean Islands of Cuba, Hispaniola and Puerto Rico were the first to be colonised. From there, expeditions set out for Mesoamerica, where the Mayan and Aztec lands were conquered. Expansion into South America led to the **conquest** of the Incas. Many other indigenous people were conquered as Spain expanded to the north and south of Mesoamerica. Spain continued to expand her empire into the early 1600s.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** Draw up a 'Spanish in the Americas' glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.
- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| ■ Catholicism | ■ Mesoamerica |
| ■ Christianity | ■ Indies |
| ■ colonisation | ■ Renaissance |
| ■ conquest | |
- #2** What was the Age of Exploration and when did it begin?
- #3** What was a maritime nation?

analysing & applying

- #4** Closely examine Source 2.4.
- Describe what is happening in this scene.
 - What might have been the perspective of the person who created this source? Give reasons for your answer.
- #5** Explain how the decline of the trade routes into Asia affected European nations.

- #6** Examine Sources 2.3 and 2.4.

- Draw a Venn diagram to show the similarities and differences between these two sources.
- Are there more similarities than differences? Suggest a reason for this.

evaluating & creating

- #7** Imagine you are Queen Isabella I of Spain. You have just given written permission and money to Christopher Columbus to undertake a voyage of discovery after refusing him on several past occasions. You have done this in the absence of your husband, King Ferdinand II. Write a paragraph justifying your reasons for making this decision. You may find it useful to do some further research using library books and the internet.
- #8** The year is 1532 CE. Francisco Pizarro is about to embark on a voyage to the New World. He needs a crew so decides to advertise for men. He puts up large posters around Seville, a major Spanish port. Create a persuasive poster to convince men to join the crew. Remember that most people were illiterate—you should take this into account when creating the poster.



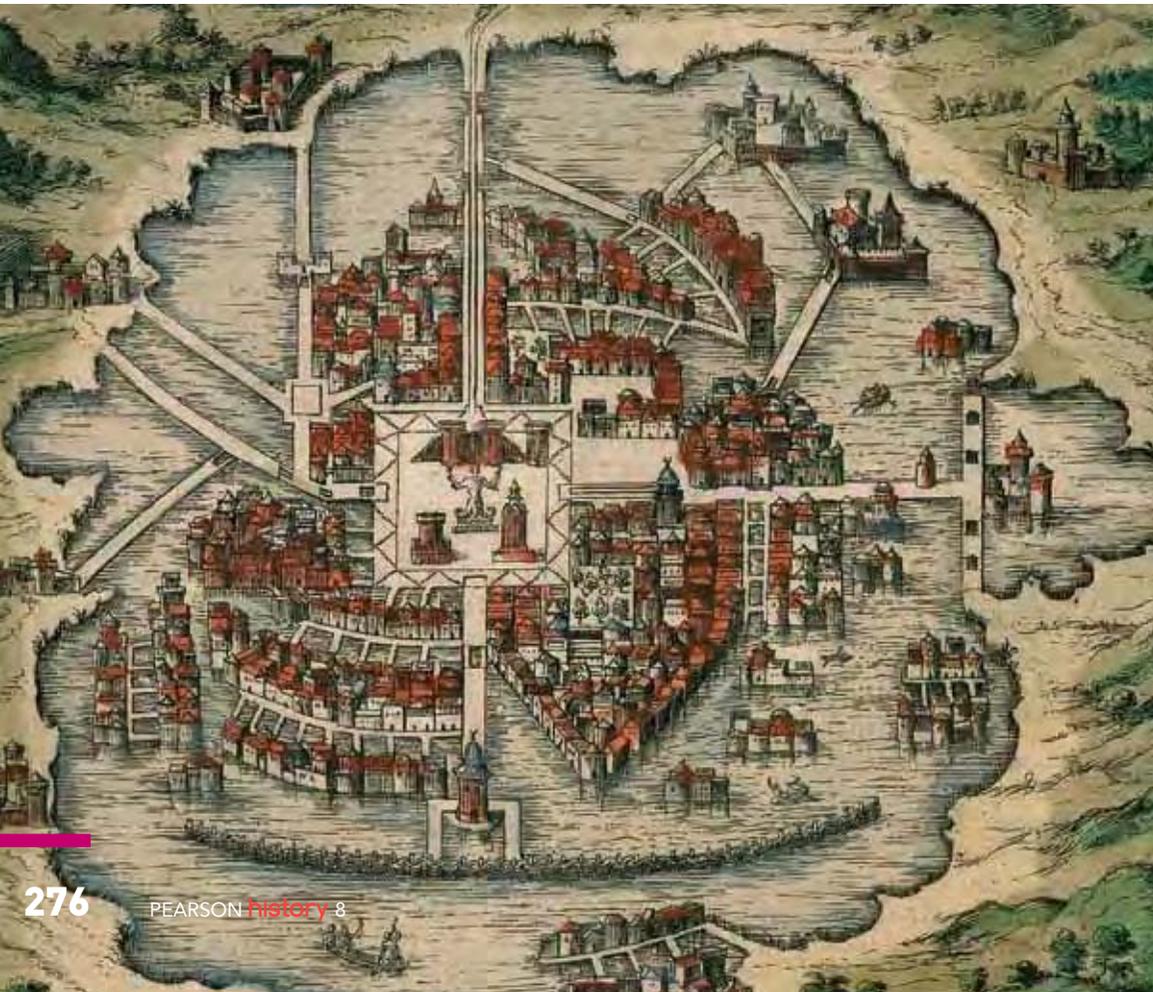
CONQUEST AND RESISTANCE IN MESOAMERICA

THE AZTECS

From a poor, outcast group in the twelfth century CE, the Aztecs became the strongest power in the Americas during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The Aztecs believed that, early in the fourteenth century, their god, Huitzilopochtli, inspired his people to go to a place of refuge on two swampy islands in Lake Texcoco, the current site of Mexico City. Early life there was difficult but land fill was used to transform the swamps into fertile gardens, which produced surplus crops of vegetables, maize and flowers. The Aztecs then built a city called Tenochtitlán. As their empire grew stronger, the city and its population grew. Captured craftsmen and labourers were used to build large temples and palaces, and human sacrifices were a regular occurrence.



SOURCE 3.1 Lands inhabited by the Aztecs



SOURCE 3.2 The Aztec city of Tenochtitlán, founded some time between 1300 and 1375 CE, engraving by Georgius Braun, from *Civitates Orbis Terrarum*, 1594

Q How were the Aztecs able to travel from the city to the edges of the lake?

The Aztecs chose their first emperor in 1376, and throughout the fifteenth century their military strength increased. They formed a powerful alliance with two other dominant states, and by 1520, thirty-eight conquered provinces owed them tributes. However, a number of tribes near the borders of the empire refused to offer complete fealty to the Aztec Empire. These rebellious tribes provided the invading Spaniards with allies against the Aztecs, thus resulting in the fall of the Aztec Empire.

INVASION AND RESISTANCE

Christopher Columbus, an Italian navigator and explorer, was sponsored in 1492 by the queen and king of Spain to find a new way to get to Asia, sailing westward, which was then considered impossible. One of the reasons why Queen Isabella I of Spain backed the expedition was that she hoped to bring Christianity to Asia, but the main reason was to take control of the trade routes before the Portuguese did.

On his first voyage, Columbus reached what he believed were a group of islands on the way to Japan. But he really landed on an island in the Caribbean Sea, known to its indigenous population as Guanahani, which Columbus renamed San Salvador. He sailed on to the island of Cubanacan, which the Spanish later called Cuba, then onto Ayti or Española (Hispaniola), the present Haiti and Dominican Republic, where Columbus and his crew were received as gods by the islands' inhabitants, the Taíno.

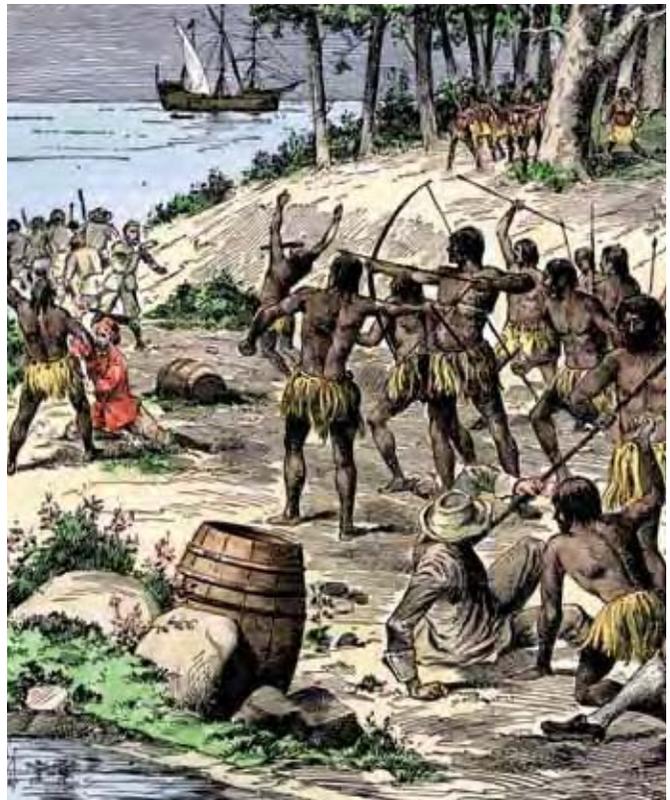
They traded with us and gave us everything they had, with good will ... They are very gentle and without knowledge of what is evil; nor do they murder or steal ... in all the world there can be no better people ...

SOURCE 3.3 The nature of the Taíno, described by Columbus in his journal

Columbus's first journey was limited by the wreck of his flagship, the *Santa Maria*, off the coast of Ayti. The first Spanish settlement in the 'New World' was founded on 24 December 1492, at La Navidad, on Ayti's north coast. Columbus, his crew and the island's natives, the Taíno, built a fort

using materials from the wrecked *Santa Maria*, and stocked it with provisions. When Columbus sailed back to Spain, some members of his crew had to be left behind because the loss of the *Santa Maria* meant the two remaining ships could not transport all of them.

Columbus returned to La Navidad on his second voyage in November 1493. He discovered that the fort had been destroyed and the thirty-nine castaways had been killed. Columbus had left on good terms with the local people but the castaways had treated them badly. Columbus did not blame the Taíno for what had happened as he had specifically warned the castaways to keep away from them. He ordered construction of a capital at La Isabela in 1493, in the hope of finding silver and gold in the area. This settlement lasted only four years but Taíno people were used for labour and cruelly treated, and many were killed in battles with the Spanish settlers. A pattern was now set for future exploitation.



SOURCE 3.4 Hand-coloured woodcut of a nineteenth-century illustration showing the burning of the fort and the killing of the crew members left behind at the settlement

- Q**
- 1 Who may have been responsible for this drawing?
 - 2 How did you reach this conclusion?

By 1508 CE, Cuba, which Columbus had discovered on his first voyage, had become an important island base for the Spanish. Ships brought settlers, supplies and **conquistadors**, literally meaning ‘conquerors’. The settlers brought non-indigenous crops and animals, such as sugar cane, cattle, mules, sheep, horses and pigs, which changed the environment forever. Once settlement had occurred, the Spanish turned to converting the population to Christianity. The pattern of conquer, then convert, was to be repeated in Central and South America.

In 1511, the Maya killed five shipwrecked Spanish sailors and took the rest of the crew prisoner. This encounter suggested to the Spanish that there must be an advanced civilisation on the Yucatán Peninsula. From their well-established base in Cuba, the Spaniards invaded Yucatán in 1517 but were easily defeated by the Maya. Their other campaign failed in 1518 because of a shortage of supplies.

As Taíno numbers decreased throughout the Caribbean, the Spanish desperately needed replacements to work their new gold mines, cattle ranches and sugar plantations. They raided the American mainland and islands, destroying coastal villages and enslaving local peoples. The slaves told them about the wealthy Aztec Empire, with its large population, temples and palaces.

DEFEAT OF THE AZTECS

Hernán Cortés was a talented but bored politician and land owner in Cuba. He launched an expedition to Mexico in 1519. Cortés won important support from discontented native peoples who had become part of the Aztec Empire against their will. Cortés bluffed his way into the heart of Tenochtitlán, being thought to be a god. He and his followers became the honoured guests of the Aztec ruler, Moctezuma II.

Cortés was impressed by the wealth of the city and found great treasures after taking Moctezuma II hostage. But mistrust between the Aztecs and the Spaniards eventually led to violence and the Spanish fled the city, with many casualties. They returned with additional troops and many native allies who hated the Aztecs, and besieged the city for eighty days. Their most important ally was the one they had left behind in the city: smallpox. This new disease decimated the already under-siege population of Tenochtitlán, leaving them vulnerable to the Spanish. By August 1521, any Aztec nobles and priests who had survived the smallpox epidemic were killed by the Spaniards, and the city-state of Tenochtitlán was destroyed. Cortés appointed himself Governor of Mexico, which was the name of the new city being built, and became an immensely wealthy man.

SOURCE 3.5 *The Conquest of Tenochtitlán, from the Conquest of Mexico series, by an unknown artist, second half of seventeenth century. Held in a private collection*



*Broken spears lie in the roads ...
The houses are roofless now, and their walls
are red with blood ...
The water has turned red, as if it were dyed,
and when we drink it,
it has the taste of brine.
We have pounded our hands in despair ...
for our inheritance, our city, is lost and dead.
The shields of our warriors were its defence,
but they could not save it.
... we have filled our mouths with dust ...
we have eaten lizards, rats and worms ...*

SOURCE 3.6 An expression of sorrow written in Tlatelolco during the 1520s about the last days of the siege of Tenochtitlán. It was originally written in the language of the Aztecs.

Q Using the poem as your guide, draw the scene it describes.

The defeat of the Aztecs after the siege saw the end of serious resistance in the Valley of Mexico. A new culture developed that was a mixture of Aztec and Spanish cultures and religion. Cortés invited Franciscan missionaries in an attempt to destroy the Aztec belief system, which included many gods, human sacrifice and animism, or a belief that various natural things can have souls. In the end, however, there was a growing together of the new beliefs with the old. Spanish war parties spread out over Mesoamerica. They were not content with just the Aztec Empire, and thousands more arrived from Europe to seek the treasures of 'New Spain'.

DID YOU KNOW

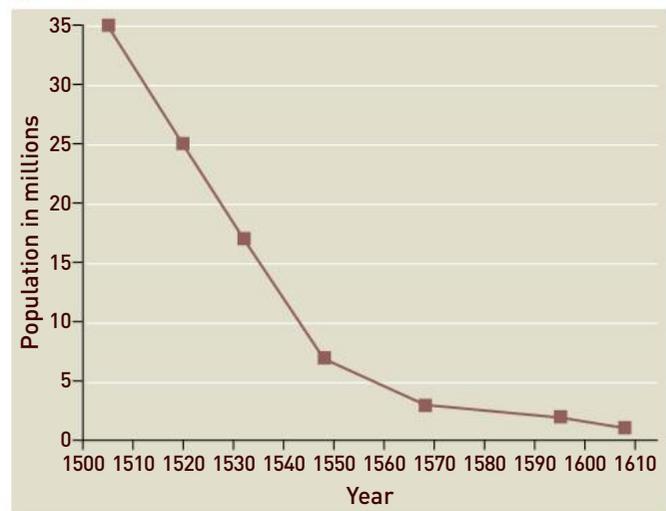
THAT THE INVASION FORCE ASSEMBLED BY CORTÉS INCLUDED SAVAGE WAR DOGS?

Each dog weighed 90 kilograms, wore armour, and was frequently fed on the flesh of indigenous people. Apart from the dogs, Cortés's invasion force consisted of 11 ships, 600 Spaniards, 200 native Cubans, African slaves, horses, cannon, muskets and crossbows.

DISEASES: THE GREATEST THREAT TO NATIVE AMERICANS

People who have not developed immunities can become ill when exposed to new diseases. This is what happened to Native Americans when they were exposed to European viruses. Diseases such as smallpox, measles, influenza, yellow fever and cholera spread rapidly among the indigenous populations. It is now widely considered that epidemic disease was the major cause of the decline in the population of Native Americans. It has been called the 'greatest human tragedy', with more people dying than in the Black Death of medieval Europe.

SOURCE 3.7 Population decline in Mexico, 1500–1610



SOURCE 3.8 Smallpox victims, as portrayed in the Florentine Codex, compiled in about 1550 by surviving Aztec scribes



It is believed that up to 90 per cent of the indigenous Americans died in the worst hit areas, whereas the great European plague killed approximately 30 per cent of the European population.

Large bumps spread on people; some were entirely covered. They spread everywhere, on the face, the head, the chest, etc. [The disease] brought great desolation; a great many died of it.

SOURCE 3.9 Symptoms of smallpox and its effects, from the Florentine Codex, compiled in about 1550 by surviving Aztec scribes

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 Draw up a 'Spanish in the Americas' glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.

- animism
- conquistador
- siege

- #2 a** Closely examine Source 3.2. Describe the main features of the city of Tenochtitlán in two sentences.
- b** Using the internet and/or library resources, research more information about Tenochtitlán and add six more sentences to your description of the city. Include information on how the Aztecs were able to convert swamps to areas of fertile farming.

remembering, understanding & analysing

- #3** Read the section 'Defeat of the Aztecs'.
- a** Why did Cortés invade Mexico?
 - b** Using the internet and/or library resources, research the range of weapons available to the Aztecs.
 - c** The Aztecs far outnumbered the forces available to Cortés. Why was the invasion force of Cortés able to defeat the Aztecs?

understanding, analysing & evaluating

- #4** Closely examine Source 3.5.
- a** Describe in detail what you can see in this painting.
 - b** Using evidence from this painting, why do you think that the Spanish succeeded in conquering Tenochtitlán?
 - c** Do you believe the source provides an accurate representation of what really happened? Give reasons for your answer.

#5 Examine Source 3.8 and read Source 3.9.

- a** Is the Florentine Codex a primary or secondary source? Give reasons for your decision.
- b** Do you think that the Florentine Codex would be a reliable and useful source for a historian studying the impact of disease on the Aztec population? Justify your decisions.
- c** Describe how the stages of smallpox are shown in Source 3.8. Is the information in the drawing likely to be accurate? Why do you arrive at this conclusion?

analysing & applying

- #6 a** Which diseases were spread in America?
- b** Using the internet and/or library resources, conduct research on each of the diseases mentioned.
 - c** Draw up a table with three columns and give your table the title 'Biological weapons brought to the Americas'. The column headings are 'Disease', 'Method of transmission' and 'Symptoms'.
 - d** Complete the table with information from your research and the information found in this unit.

understanding, analysing & creating

- #7** Carefully examine Sources 3.5 and 3.6 and conduct some further research on the internet to help you complete the following task. Write a report for a Spanish newspaper on the final battle for Tenochtitlán.

CONQUEST AND RESISTANCE IN SOUTH AMERICA



In 1513 CE, a small number of Spaniards struggled across what we know today as the Isthmus of Panama. They were the first Spaniards to see the Pacific Ocean and they began to realise that Asia may still be a long way away. This group had passed right between the two areas of greatest wealth and civilisation in the Americas: Mesoamerica and the Andes of South America.

Among them was Francisco Pizarro, who became a wealthy citizen and mayor of the town of Panama, a town created by the Spanish. Like Cortés, Pizarro was not content with this existence, particularly after hearing rumours of a golden land to the south.

WHO WERE THE INCA?

Legend has it that the Incas were an aggressive people who lived near Lake Titicaca in Peru before the thirteenth century CE. Manco Capac, the first Inca emperor, led his people to the fertile valley of Cuzco in about 1200.

The Inca conquered the people in the valley and established the city of Cuzco as their capital. They formed an alliance with the **Quechua** tribe, and adopted their language. Manco Capac married one of his sisters, Mama Ocllo, to establish the royal Inca bloodline. Inca culture developed in the Cuzco Valley for centuries.

During the reigns of Pachacuti (1440–71) and his son Topa Inca Yupanqui (1471–93), the Inca began to develop their empire, often by peaceful negotiation. They called their empire **Tawantinsuyu**, which means ‘the land of the four quarters’. Cuzco was the centre of the empire and four provinces spread out around it, all connected by excellent roads. Each province was divided into smaller areas that roughly corresponded to the lands conquered by the Inca.



DID YOU KNOW THAT THE INCA BELIEVED IN AN AFTERLIFE, JUST LIKE THE ANCIENT EGYPTIANS?

- Inca dead were mummified, placed in tombs and buried with possessions to use in the afterlife.
- It was also believed that the dead could hear.
- Rulers even had servants buried with them to wait on them after their death.

SOURCE 4.1 Extent of the Inca Empire

The early civilisations of Peru differed from those in Mesoamerica in a number of ways. The reasons were the difficult landforms and climates in Peru: deserts in the west, rainforests in the east and, between these, the high plateaus and glacial peaks of the Andes mountains. The Inca Empire was rural and based in Cuzco, and its main medium of exchange was labour. Gold and silver were valued only for their appearance and religious importance. The Inca were excellent artists and craftspeople, and made use of bronze, not iron. They raised llamas and alpacas for their wool and meat, and as pack animals.

Unlike the Mesoamericans, the people of the Andes did not have a writing system. But they did have a well-developed method of recording numbers using **quipus**, which were woven threads or strings on which numbers were indicated by knots.



SOURCE
4.2

A quipu



- 1 Describe the appearance of the quipu.
- 2 What was it used for?
- 3 Write two sentences on how you think quipus work.

The population of the Inca Empire grew to between six and twenty million by the early sixteenth century, which meant it was a much larger empire than that of the Aztecs. Cuzco's population was between 50 000 and 100 000 citizens, while all other Andean cities were quite small. Most people lived on the land and in small villages, and were expected to work for the empire. In return, the empire treated them well. They cultivated corn, potatoes, sweet potatoes, tomatoes, cocoa, cotton and more. The Inca were excellent engineers and builders and many of their roads, houses, palaces, temples, fortifications and irrigation systems still exist today.

THAT CRIMINALS WERE TREATED HARSHLY IN INCA SOCIETY?

There were no prisons in Inca society, as the punishments for most crimes were more severe than imprisonment. The three worst crimes were murder, insulting the Sapa Inca (the emperor) and insulting the gods. A person who committed any of these crimes was thrown from a cliff. A person who committed adultery with one of the wives of the Sapa Inca was hung naked on a wall until he starved to death. Other, more minor, crimes were punished by maiming—for example, a person's hands were cut off or their eyes gouged out.

THE ARRIVAL OF PIZARRO

In 1526, one of Pizarro's ships intercepted an Inca trading raft. The Spaniards were astonished at the quality of the cargo and knew for certain then that there was a rich land to the south. They kept three of the Inca sailors to train as interpreters.

In 1527, Pizarro sailed to Tumbes, the most northern coastal city in the Inca Empire. The first contact was enough to confirm the richness of the empire. Pizarro then returned to Spain to convince investors to support a new expedition, leaving two Spaniards behind to learn the language.

Pizarro sailed again for Peru in 1530, this time with 200 men. He knew that he was coming to a rich, advanced civilisation but he still had no idea that the empire was ruled by the Inca, nor that it extended nearly 5000 kilometres from north to south and hundreds of kilometres east to west.

Before Pizarro's return, plague spread from Columbia to Peru, causing the death of the eleventh Inca emperor, Wayna Qhapaq, a shrewd and experienced ruler. This was an advantage for Pizarro, because Wayna Qhapaq's successor, Atawallpa, was a weaker ruler who had had to defeat his brother in a civil war before assuming power.

The Inca did not regard the Spaniards as a serious threat: they believed them to be barbarians. They met with the Spaniards at Cajamarca in 1532 and did not even carry weapons. The result was a slaughter: nearly 10 000 Inca were killed and Atawallpa was captured and executed, in spite of the Inca people delivering an enormous ransom in gold for his release. After this defeat, the Inca moved their capital from Cuzco to Lima.



SOURCE
4.3

The capture and beheading of Tupa Amura I, the last Inca king, in 1572, drawn in about 1600 by Felipe Waman Puma. Tupa Amura I is an Incan hero, as he represents the fight for a free Incan state.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT MACHU PICCHU WAS NOT REDISCOVERED UNTIL 1911?

Machu Picchu is located about 2400 metres above sea level and was built around 1462, when the Inca Empire was at its peak. It was abandoned after less than 100 years, probably because of the arrival of smallpox. It is one of the best existing examples of Incan civilisation because it was never found and destroyed by the Spanish conquerors.

SOURCE
4.4

The Inca city of Machu Picchu

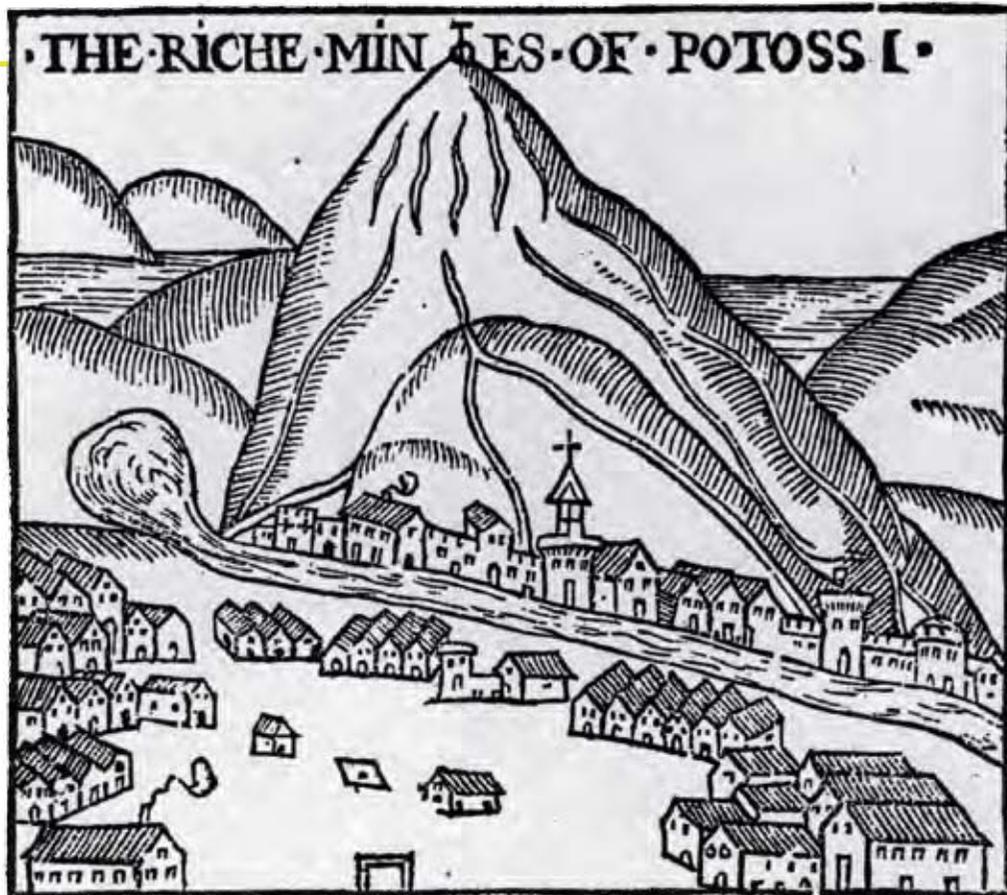


- 1 Why do you think the Inca built such a great city in such a location?
- 2 Do you think this helped in its preservation or not? Explain your answer.



SOURCE 4.5 View of the silver mines of Potosi, Bolivia, c. 1581, from *The Strange and Delectable History of the Discovery and Conquest of the Provinces of Peru* by Augustin de Zarate

Q Why do you think the Inca found it so difficult to adjust to working in the silver mines?



LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Spanish in the Americas' glossary:
- Quechua
 - quipus
 - Tawantinsuyu
- #2** Read the section 'Who were the Inca?'
- a What led to the establishment of the Inca in the Cuzco Valley?
 - b In what ways did the early civilisations of Peru differ from those in Mesoamerica?

analysing & evaluating

- #3** Examine Source 4.4 carefully.
- a Draw a sketch of the photograph, labelling examples of natural and human-made features.
 - b Which of the human-made features would have aided farmers in farming this land successfully?
- #4** What do you think would be the major advantages and disadvantages of living in the Andes? Consider the time before the arrival of Pizarro and after his initial conquest. Report your thoughts on a T-chart.

#5 Read the section 'The arrival of Pizarro' and examine Source 4.3.

- a In what way was the death of Tupa Amaru I beneficial to the Spaniards?
- b Describe how the execution is shown in Source 4.3.
- c Conduct some research on the internet to find out more about the death of Tupa Amaru I.
- d Does your research support the idea that Source 4.3 provides a true picture of what happened? Give reasons for your answer.

creating

- #6** Read the section 'The arrival of Pizarro' and use the library and/or internet resources to respond to the following.
- a Imagine that you are at a meeting in Panama in 1530 that includes Francisco Pizarro. Prepare a written plan of attack for the conquest of the Inca.
 - b Imagine that you are at a war council of Inca leaders at around the same time. Prepare a written plan of how you intend to defend your empire against Spanish attack.

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 5

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS: HERO OR VILLAIN?

The question of whether Christopher Columbus should be considered a hero or a villain has been debated over many years. Is he a hero or a villain for having discovered a new land and for bringing Christianity to unenlightened heathens? The answer, of course, is not a simple one and depends upon your point of view and on the evidence you use.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS: THE HERO

When Christopher Columbus discovered the area that was to become known as the West Indies, he was feted by his benefactors Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand of Spain and his peers. He not only brought new lands and riches to Spain, but also new souls to Christendom. The peoples of these new lands greeted Columbus and his crew kindly and treated them with reverence.

SOURCE 5.1 Columbus, stranded in Jamaica in 1504 during his fourth voyage, ran short of provisions. This illustration shows him using a lunar eclipse to scare the Native Americans into providing food for his crew. From *Astronomie Populaire*, by Camille Flammarion, 1879

Columbus's four voyages were important to the Europeans, particularly the Spanish, because the Americas offered the potential for wealth and colonisation. Europe was transformed by the new empires and the new sources of trade and wealth. He also introduced new foods, such as tomatoes, cocoa and corn, which transformed the diets of Europeans forever.

Columbus was at sea for almost seven years on his voyages and he experienced great personal dangers. He was committed to his cause, patient and mentally strong.



Finally, and speaking only of what has taken place in this voyage ... their Highnesses may see that I shall give them all the gold they require, if they will give me but a little assistance; spices also, and cotton, as much as their Highnesses shall command to be shipped; and mastic [an expensive gum resin], hitherto found only in Greece ... I think I also have found rhubarb and cinnamon, and I shall find a thousand other valuable things.

SOURCE 5.2 A letter from Christopher Columbus to the King and Queen of Spain



SOURCE
5.3 Fifteenth-century woodcut of King Ferdinand receiving Christopher Columbus after his voyage to the Americas



That we might form great friendship, for I knew that they were a people who could more easily be converted to our Holy Faith by love than by force, I gave to some of them red caps and glass beads to put round their necks, and many other things of little value, which gave them so much pleasure, and made them so much our friends that it was a marvel to see ... and I believe that they would easily be made Christians, as it appeared to me that they had no religion.”

SOURCE
5.4 Christopher Columbus, journal of the first voyage, 11 October 1492

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS: THE VILLAIN

While it is clear that Christopher Columbus was determined, insightful and courageous, it is also known that he was boastful and proud. He wanted to achieve a form of immortality through leaving a lasting legacy. This he did achieve, although his legacy is not always as generally admired as he might have wished.

ENSLAVEMENT AND HARSH TREATMENT

The people of the island first discovered by Columbus, the Taino (or Arawak), are likely to have numbered about 350 000 in 1492. These people had a lifestyle that was simple and in tune with nature and their religious beliefs. Columbus and his men judged them primitive and godless, so thought they had the right to appropriate their land and exploit them by enslaving them.

It appeared to me to be a race of people very poor in everything. They go as naked as when their mothers bore them, and so do the women ... They paint themselves black ... white, others red, and others of what colour they could find ... They neither carry nor know anything of arms, for I showed them swords, and they took them by the blade and cut themselves through ignorance ...

They should be good servants and intelligent, for I observed that they quickly took in what was said to them ...

... slaves, as many of these idolators as their highnesses command to be shipped.

SOURCE
5.5 Christopher Columbus, journal of the first voyage, 11 October 1492

On Ayti, the Spanish introduced a tribute system in which the Taino were to supply a quantity of gold per head. If they could not do this, the Taino were to provide nearly 12 kilograms of cotton per adult. Another failure would lead to slavery and possibly mutilation. These actions, along with murder, rape and disease, eventually led to genocide of the Taino: by 1531 their population was 600.

When the population of the Taino became too small to work the new farms, the Spanish brought black African slave labour to the Caribbean islands. This was the beginning of a terrible practice that was to last for over 300 years across the Americas. It is thought that about ten to twelve million Africans were sold into slavery in the Americas over this period.

Columbus, on his second voyage, found the inhabitants of Cuba to be friendly and welcoming. When the Governor-General of Hispaniola, the son of Christopher Columbus, ordered an invasion of Cuba, he expected no resistance. But news of the terrible treatment of the natives of Hispaniola had reached the Cuban natives, and they were ready to fight the invaders. However, the Spanish were too strong for them and, by 1515, had established six small settlements. There was little gold in Cuba but the Spanish set up large farms worked by a decreasing pool of native labour. Black slaves were imported, as in Hispaniola, and by 1557 there were only about 2000 Native Americans in Cuba.

SOURCE
5.6 The Spanish and the genocide of the Taino, by Theodore De Bry, from *A Short Account of the Destruction of the Indies*, by Bartolome de Las Casas, 1552



SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

DEADLY KILLERS

In Unit 3 you saw that the Native Americans suffered terribly from the new diseases brought by the Europeans. However, they were not the only ones to suffer from the new intercontinental exchanges. In addition to the various plants, animals, gold and kidnapped people that Columbus brought back to Europe from his first voyage, he and his crew brought back syphilis, a sexually transmitted disease. In the later stages of this disease, internal organs such as the brain, nervous system, eyes, heart, and liver are affected. Some of the symptoms are poor muscle coordination, paralysis and madness. Syphilis killed millions of Europeans over the following generations.

Columbus also brought back another deadly killer to Europe. One of the new plants he brought across to Europe was the tobacco plant, as he had noticed the Taino people smoking tobacco for both social and religious reasons. Columbus is therefore responsible for introducing tobacco to the people of Europe.

Nearly four hundred years have passed away since the tobacco plant and its use was introduced to the civilised world. It was in the month of November, 1492, that the sailors of Columbus in exploring the island of Cuba first noted the mode of using tobacco. They found the Indians carrying lighted firebrands (as they at first supposed) and puffed the smoke inhaled from their mouths and nostrils.

The use of tobacco by the Indians was entirely new to the Spanish discoverers and when in 1503 they landed in various parts of South America they found that both chewing and smoking the herb was a common custom with the natives.

SOURCE 5.7 A description of the Spanish discovering tobacco from *Tobacco: Its History, Varieties, Culture, Manufacture and Commerce* by E R Billings, 1875

**But oh, what witchcraft of a stronger kind,
Or cause too deep for human search to find,
Makes earth-born weeds imperial man
enslave—**

Not little souls, but e'en the wise and brave!

SOURCE 5.8 From 'Snuff: A Poem' by James Arbuckle, 1719

UNDERSTANDING & ANALYSING

- 1 Why might Christopher Columbus be considered either a hero or a villain?
- 2 Examine Source 5.1 carefully. In what ways is Christopher Columbus shown as resourceful and brave?
- 3 Read Sources 5.2 and 5.4 carefully. What do they tell us about Columbus's motives for his search for new lands?
- 4 What does Source 5.5 tell us about his motives?
- 5 Examine Source 5.9 carefully and answer the following questions.
 - a Describe what you can see occurring in this image.
 - b What type of event do you think is taking place?
 - c What does this source suggest about the importance of tobacco in Native American society?

APPLYING & EVALUATING

- 6 Conduct research using an atlas or an internet-based mapping application, as well as other internet resources.
 - a Locate, on an outline map of Central and South America, the following places:

• Caribbean Sea	• Jamaica
• Haiti	• Tobago
• Trinidad	• Venezuela
• Cuba	• Grenada
• Guadeloupe	• Orinoco River
• Dominica	• Panama
• Virgin Islands	• Costa Rica
• Puerto Rico	• Honduras, Nicaragua
• San Salvador	• Dominican Republic.

 (island)
 - b Place a number next to each place (1, 2, 3, 4) to indicate on which of his four voyages Columbus visited it.
 - c Use colour to indicate on the map, for as many places as you can, whether or not Columbus was highly regarded there.
 - d Do not forget to include BOLTSS.

- 7** Examine Source 5.3 carefully and answer the following questions:
- Identify and describe Christopher Columbus and King Ferdinand in this woodcut.
 - How do you know which figure is which?
 - Why do you think Christopher Columbus is represented in this way?
 - What does this woodcut tell us about the views and values of Europeans in the fifteenth century?
- 8** Read the section 'Enslavement and harsh treatment' and examine Sources 5.5 and 5.6 carefully and answer the following questions:
- What do Sources 5.5 and 5.6 tell us about how Europeans regarded the new peoples they had discovered?
 - Why did they see them in that way?
 - Should we, as 21st-century people, condemn or condone the Europeans' attitude toward Native Americans? Explain your answer.
- 9** With a partner, conduct further research into the slave traffic of Africans to the Americas, which began with the Spanish in the Caribbean. Prepare an electronic slide presentation that:
- outlines the history of the slave trade
 - explains the justifications used for it by the Europeans
 - describes the treatment of the slaves
 - outlines the factors that brought slavery to an end.
- 10** Read Sources 5.7 and 5.8 carefully and answer the following questions:
- What reaction did the Spanish have to seeing the Native Americans smoking?
 - In Arbuckle's poem, is he praising or condemning tobacco? Explain your answer, using evidence from the poem.

SOURCE
5.9

Use of tobacco,
by Fra Bernadino
de Sahagun, from
The Code of Florence,
16th century



- 11** Using the internet to help you with the following.
- Prepare a list of the places (cities, states, districts, countries) and events (holidays) in the Americas that are named after Christopher Columbus.
 - Why would Columbus have been held in such high esteem by so many people?
 - Create a poster to advertise one of these places or events that presents Christopher Columbus as a hero.
- 12** **a** Using the information in this chapter and further research from the library and the internet:
- Create an AVD on the Taino way of life, focusing on such things as food, clothing, religious beliefs and buildings or shelter.
 - Write a one- or two-page description, from the perspective of one of the Taino, of how he or she reacted to seeing the Spaniards for the first time and the impact it had upon their way of life.
- b** After examining all the sources and conducting your research, respond to the following:
- Do you think that Columbus was a hero or a villain? Explain your answer, giving evidence from your sources and your research to support your opinion.
 - Choose an appropriate graphic organiser to present your response to your class.

CONNECTIONS

TO

INTERACTIONS OF CULTURES

UNIT 6

The interactions of cultures from the Old and New Worlds during the Age of Exploration had significant consequences for all involved at the time and for generations to follow. The lives of indigenous people in the New World never returned to pre-Columbian days. In Europe, too, the impact of contact caused major changes to lifestyles.

IMPACT ON INDIGENOUS PEOPLE

The Spanish and other empire builders considered the newly discovered lands to be empty and therefore theirs for the taking. They believed that the incompetent native people underused the land, so they had the right to take control. They also believed that colonisation would bring benefits to indigenous people, who would become educated and civilised. While the motives of the colonisers sounded noble, for indigenous people the results were tragic. They lost their freedom and their land, their riches were taken, they were exploited by the conquerors, and so many died that their societies struggled to survive.

DISEASE

The Spaniards introduced new diseases to the indigenous peoples of America. Not having any immunity to diseases such as smallpox, the native populations declined sharply. It is estimated that Native American populations declined by 50 to 90 per cent in the period 1500–1650.

MISTREATMENT

The Spanish developed the *encomienda* system in their American colonies. Colonists were granted the use of land and assigned a number of natives, for whom they were responsible. Many natives were abused by their Spanish masters. Indigenous people provided free labour and were slaves under this harsh and corrupt system. The Spanish Crown



SOURCE
6.1

The Corpus Christi Festival, held annually in Peru. The parade of Catholic saints around the city square of Cuzco attracts thousands of Catholics. The festival dates back to Inca times, when fourteen Inca king mummies were paraded in the city. The Spanish conquerors burnt all the mummies and replaced them with Catholic saints. Over 70 per cent of the inhabitants of South America are now Catholic.

attempted to stop the abuse by introducing the Laws of Burgos (1512–13) and the New Laws (1542). Under these laws, indigenous people could not be enslaved and had to be paid for their labour. The laws were largely unsuccessful due to the strong resistance by colonists.

INDIGENOUS CULTURE

The Spanish had an aggressive policy of assimilation. They believed that they had a mission to bring indigenous people into their superior culture. Indigenous people were ordered to live in or near cities. Masters of *encomiendas* were expected to teach their slaves Spanish and convert them to Catholicism. The cultures of indigenous people were destroyed and a new culture—a combination of traditional and Spanish culture—emerged, which is still evident in many parts of South America today.

IMPACT ON EUROPEANS

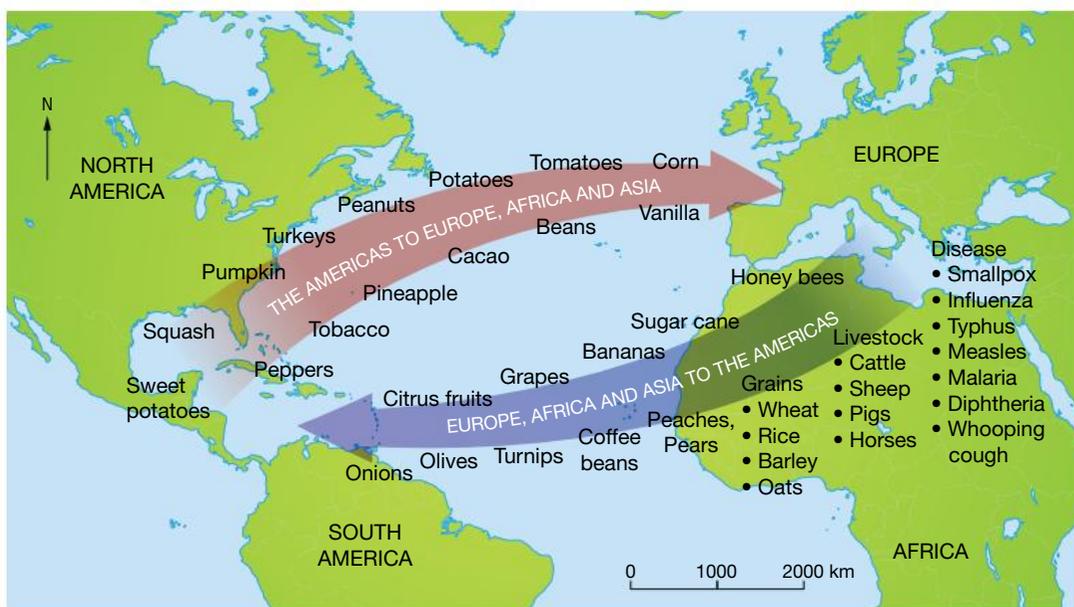
THE FOOD REVOLUTION

The arrival of Christopher Columbus in America in 1492 heralded one of the most significant food revolutions in human food habits. Plants and animals, which up until this time were separated

by over 5000 kilometres of ocean, were able to be exchanged in what is often called the Columbian Exchange or the Great Exchange.

The trade between the Old and New Worlds involved a three-leg triangular trade pattern. Ships left Europe loaded with copper, cloth, guns, ammunition and trinkets, which were traded for slaves on the west coast of Africa. The human cargo of slaves was taken to the Americas and traded for local produce. The shipment of colonial goods back to Europe was the final leg of the trip.

Horses, mules, sheep, goats, cattle, chickens, cats and many new crops were introduced to post-Columbian America. Plants such as peanuts, lemons and wheat did well in America. In return, Europeans were introduced to such foods as beans, potatoes, cocoa, tomatoes and corn. Sailors also returned to Europe with tobacco. This became very popular, as it was believed that it cured any health problem—from bad breath to cancer.



SOURCE 6.2 The Columbian Exchange

Q Which of the following were new products in Europe after 1492—coffee beans, pineapples, vanilla, peaches?

TIME TO THINK ...

1 CULTURAL CONNECTIONS

Was the interaction between the cultures of the Old and New Worlds a good or a bad thing?

2 EVIDENCE

- a What was the source of most of the evidence about the New World?
- b How reliable is this evidence?

3 DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES

- a How and why would the perspectives of the Spaniards and the indigenous peoples of the Americas differ about this period in history?
- b Why would Aboriginal Australians and Native Americans have similar perspectives on their histories?

4 HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE AND HERITAGE

- a Why do you think it is important to learn about Spanish colonisation of the Americas?
- b In today's world, is it possible for one culture to dominate another?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 Native American television series

You and a small group of colleagues are planning to sell to the History Channel a television series on indigenous societies prior to European contact. Your group is asked to present your ideas for one episode of the series based on one indigenous society discussed in this chapter. You may like to present your ideas electronically, using a Wiki or an electronic slide presentation.

Your presentation must include:

- an explanation for your choice of indigenous society
- a map that shows where your society was located
- a brief history of the society chosen
- a discussion of their way of life, including their beliefs and values
- a description of how your chosen society reacted to European contact
- an evaluation of the impact of European contact on your chosen society.

#2 Conquistadors vs. Aztecs and Incas board game

This task may be completed individually or in a small group. Design and create a board game that shows the benefits and problems of the Spanish colonisation of the Americas for both the Spanish Conquistadors and the Aztecs and Incas.

The board should be designed in the style of the period. Include a minimum of thirty question cards. Instructions for playing the game and answers to the question cards and any dice required should be part of the total game kit. When the board game is completed, play the game and then pass it on to others in the class to play.

#3 Cortés vs. Moctezuma II

You and a partner have been given the power to go back in time and change the course of history!

You have been sent back to the siege of Tenochtitlán in 1521 and have the power to choose Moctezuma II as the winner instead of Cortés, if you consider him worthy.

Cortés has been described as determined, strong-willed, shrewd and cruel, while Moctezuma II has been described as brutal but fair and an effective ruler.

Conduct some further research on the two leaders and prepare a comparison of them on a poster, using a graphic organiser of your choice.

Some aspects to consider are:

- the personal attributes of each man
- their motives, beliefs and values
- their successes and failures as leaders.

#4 The Great Exchange

The discovery of the Americas and its riches—not only gold but also new plants and animals—is sometimes referred to as the Great Exchange, or Columbian Exchange.

You and a partner are to further investigate the exchanges made between the Old World and the New World, and to decide which land profited most from the Great Exchange.

Present your findings to your class using a method of presentation such as a graphic organiser, a Wiki or an electronic slide presentation. Make sure that you include:

- information about the major plants and animals exchanged
- information about the impact of lifestyle changes in both the Old World and the New World
- a paragraph outlining your conclusion about which land gained the most from the Great Exchange.



SOURCE
7.1 Inca mummy

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How did people of the Middle Ages react to the catastrophe of the Black Death?

Why is the Black Death a significant event in the development of modern Western society?

How was European medieval society transformed by the Black Death?



Ever since humans first lived together in villages, there has been disease. For centuries, people suffered and died from illnesses and plagues without understanding the causes of these sicknesses. In the mid-fourteenth century CE, Asia, Europe and Africa were devastated by a plague that was believed to be a sign of God's displeasure: the bubonic plague, or Black Death. This calamity brought profound change to the structure of society and the beliefs and values of the people of the medieval world.



THE BLACK



U
E
A
E
E

SOURCE 0.1 The Black Death in Florence, 1348, a woodcut by Marcello. Held by Wesleyan University, Connecticut, USA

SNAPSHOT



1346 Outbreak of plague in central Asia

1347 Plague reaches Constantinople
Siege of Caffa in the Crimea
Plague reaches Sicily, Cyprus and North Africa

1348 Plague reaches Scotland, Wales, Ireland, Scandinavia
Persecution of Jews in Europe
Flagellant Movement in Europe

1350 Plague reaches Germany

1351 Plague reaches Poland

1352 Plague reaches Russia
Final victims of plague



1340 CE

1345 CE

1350 CE

1355 CE

LEGEND

- Settlement
- Extent of the Black Death in December 1347
- Extent of the Black Death in June 1348
- Extent of the Black Death in December 1349
- Major trade routes
- Rivers

Spread of the Black Death across Europe, 1347 to 1349 CE



SOURCE 1.1 The spread of the Black Death from Asia to Europe and North Africa, 1346–53

1360 Recurrence of plague

1360 CE



1365 CE

1369 Recurrence of plague

1370 CE

1665–66 Great Plague of London

1700 CE

A PLAGUE OF BIBLICAL PROPORTIONS

The calamity that was the Black Death in the Middle Ages was a bubonic plague pandemic. A pandemic is a disease that spreads across wide areas, such as entire countries or continents, at much the same time. Plague was not new to Europe, Asia or Africa. Regular outbreaks had occurred in antiquity and continued into the early Middle Ages (although some occurrences of the ‘plague’ in the past are now believed by some historians to be epidemics of other diseases, such as smallpox). An outbreak had occurred in Athens in 430 BCE and other outbreaks occurred later in Egypt, Persia and Rome. In the sixth century CE, bubonic plague had spread across most of Arabia, North Africa, Asia and Europe, causing devastating loss of life. Some historians put the number of deaths as high as 100 million.

After eight centuries, the bubonic plague returned to Asia, Africa and Europe with deadly consequences. Arriving at the Black Sea area in Asia Minor in 1347, it spread rapidly along the sea lanes and trading ports to Italy, Spain, France and northern Africa. By August 1348 it had reached England and by 1350 had travelled across the European continent to Russia. This was plague on a far greater scale than ever before. It wiped out families, villages and communities in a few days, causing panic and chaos.

The death rate was so high that in many places the dead were buried in mass graves. No doctors or medical treatment could help the dying. Trained physicians of the time were just as ignorant as

everyone else about the causes of the plague. Treatments ranged from the spiritual, through prayer, and the magical, to the practical. Remedies included attempts to draw the poison from the body through such techniques as bleeding, lancing the buboes (swellings) and purging with laxatives. These were generally ineffective, as were medications. Other remedies included avoidance of excitement and anger and the use of scented nosegays (bouquets of flowers or herbs).

The Black Death was transmitted by infected fleas carried by rodents. While people remained ignorant of the role played by crowded, unsanitary living conditions, there could be no effective remedy. By the time the disease ran its course, an estimated 20 million people had died in Europe, or, according to chroniclers of the time, a third of the population of Europe. The number of deaths in Africa and Asia is not known for certain, as there are very few reliable records from these areas at that time. However, it is known that the plague was just as deadly in Africa and Asia as it was in Europe. This chapter focuses on the effect of the Black Death on medieval Europe.

Confusion and instability followed after the Black Death subsided but, as time passed, profound changes emerged. The Black Death permanently changed the social balance in the feudal system in Europe, weakening the economic and social control of the nobility.



ORIGINS AND SPREAD OF THE PLAGUE

In October 1347, Genoese trading ships put into the harbour in Messina, Sicily, with dead and dying men aboard. The diseased men had large and painful swellings in their armpits and groins; they were victims of a **plague** that was sweeping the Middle East.

Since 1100, there had been a surge in trade between Europe and the East. This was a result of increased demand for goods from the East and improvements in sea travel. Developments such as new ship design, the compass and more detailed maps and charts enabled trading vessels to travel further with safety.

Important and influential trading towns grew in northern Europe and Italy, and a network of trading routes crisscrossed Europe, the Mediterranean, the Middle East and beyond. The Italian cities of Pisa, Genoa and Venice came to dominate Mediterranean trade and the overland trade routes across Asia.

EARLY EXPERIENCES OF THE BLACK DEATH

Rumours of a terrible plague far away in the East reached Europe some time in 1346. The rumours were of a devastating death toll, the depopulation of India, whole territories covered with dead bodies and areas in which no one was left alive. To the people of fourteenth-century Europe, China was extremely remote and the location of many strange happenings, and so there was no real alarm at the tales.

Europe could not remain isolated, however, from the swiftly moving plague that had become a **pandemic**. During 1346, it was raging around the north-western shores of the Caspian Sea and the River Don, and by the end of 1346 it had spread westward to the Black Sea. It spread to Constantinople in early 1347, then to what is now modern Turkey, Macedonia and Greece, and down

into Syria, Iran and Iraq. Towards the end of 1347, it reached Egypt and the southern coast of the Mediterranean Sea.

The outbreak in Sicily in October 1347 originated from a fleet of Genoese galleys fleeing the fortified town of Caffa on the coast of the Black Sea. Caffa had been built by the Genoese as a base for trading activities in the area. A Mongol army attacked and besieged the town, but the plague, raging in the area, was taking a heavy toll of the attackers, and the siege was called off. Before retreating, the Mongols used giant catapults to heave bodies of plague victims over the walls of the city. Although the Genoese quickly disposed of the bodies in the sea, they too were infected, and when they fled to their galleys to escape their attackers, they took the plague with them.

Historians believe that the Genoese within the city walls were probably already infected by the fleas from rats. It is also likely that this was not the only route through which the plague entered Europe.

Ships were chased away as soon as the people on shore realised they were carrying plague, but this did not prevent the disease from spreading.

The dense network of contacts around the Mediterranean meant that the plague travelled rapidly from the first outbreak in Sicily to France, Sardinia, Corsica and Genoa, before the end of 1347.

During 1348, it spread further in Italy, France and Spain, and before the end of 1348 it had reached Ireland and England. It had already spread through Egypt, Palestine and Syria. By the end of 1349, the fourth year of the disease, it is thought that the death toll had reached almost 15 million people. It continued through Europe for a further four years. In 1350, it moved through Germany and Sweden.



A 'POISONOUS MIASMA'

The plague took hold in an area then moved on. This tide of death moved gradually and constantly across the countryside, so it was inevitable that the cause was thought to be in the atmosphere, a poison or 'miasma' carried through the air. Although there were many different ideas about the nature of this miasma, most physicians of the time believed it was the cause of the Black Death.

SPREADING CONTAGION?

It is now known that a bacterium called *Yersinia pestis*, which lived in the stomach of a flea, caused the plague. These fleas liked to live on rats, but would also live on humans. The main host rat was *Rattus rattus*, a black rat that lived on ships, but the brown or sewer rat was also a carrier. People at this time rarely washed, did not dispose of waste carefully and had no idea about bacteria and germs. Their cramped, unhygienic living conditions aided the rapid spread of the disease.

THAT QUARANTINE METHODS WERE INVENTED DURING THE BLACK DEATH?

When the Black Death first arrived in Venice, the city officials implemented the procedure of isolating ships away from the port until it was clear that there were no sick people on board. Initially, ships were kept in isolation for a period of thirty days but this was increased to forty days when it became apparent that thirty days was not long enough. In Italian, 'forty days' is *quaranti giorni*—hence the term quarantine. The practice of quarantine is still in force today in many countries around the world.



SOURCE 2.1 Model of a medieval galley

SOURCE
2.2 How the Black Death spread from fleas to humans

Rat dies, flea looks for nearest new host—rat, human or other mammal. Flea infects new host. Any other fleas that bite this host become infected in turn with *Yersinia pestis*.



Flea feeds upon rat that has the bacterium *Yersinia pestis* in its bloodstream. *Yersinia pestis* multiplies in the flea's stomach, which becomes clogged with bacteria.

Flea bites host rat, regurgitating infected blood into open wound from the bite.



DID YOU KNOW

THAT SCOTLAND INVADED ENGLAND DURING THE BLACK DEATH?

The Scots decided that, with the plague raging in England, it was a good time to invade the weakened state. An army of thousands gathered but before it could march, plague struck the camp. Hundreds died and the remainder fled to their homes, taking the plague with them.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 Draw up a 'Black Death' glossary in your notebook and explain the terms below. You will add to your glossary as you work through the activities in this chapter.

- miasma
- plague
- pandemic
- quarantine

#2 Why was there increased trade between Europe and Asia?

#3 What made this increase in trade possible?

#4 How was the infection transmitted?

#5 What were the main trading cities of Europe and where were they located?

analysing & evaluating

#6 Carefully examine Source 1.1. By yourself, or working with a partner, create a concept map showing the relationship between trade networks and the start and spread of the Black Death in Europe.

#7 Examine Source 2.1. Despite galleys like this being quarantined, the rats still managed to gain land and thus spread the plague.

- How did the rats leave the ships?
- With a partner, brainstorm as many ideas as you can to answer the following question: *If the authorities had known that the rats were spreading the plague, what measures could they have taken to prevent the rats from reaching land?*

Present and explain your ideas to the class. You may wish to use a graphic organiser of your choice to help you do so.

#8 Use the evidence in this unit to explain why people of the Middle Ages believed that poisoned air transmitted the plague.

creating

#9 Prepare an oral report in the form of a short dramatic news report as a radio or television reporter for the evening news. Tell the story of the Genoese trading ships trying to enter the harbour at Messina. As a good reporter, you will give the background of the rumours of plague, and then cover the W's—Who? What? When? Why? and Where?—of the plague's journey to Messina.

LIFE IN EUROPE IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY



On the eve of the outbreak of the Black Death, countries across Europe were not in a strong economic position to withstand a virulent, highly contagious disease. During the previous two centuries, most of Europe had enjoyed economic growth and prosperity, but this had come to an end. There were a number of reasons for this. Prosperity right across Europe had brought about a huge increase in the birth rate—in fact, a **population explosion**. New farm land had been opened up where possible, but farming methods remained inefficient—erosion, lack of manure and failure to let plots lie fallow or to rotate crops reduced soil productivity and there was simply not enough food to go around. The price of land and grain increased and, while this may have been an advantage for landlords and the more well-off farmers, peasants and labourers suffered from the rising prices and low wages. Then, a disastrous series of harvest failures brought widespread **famine**, with people dying of starvation in some places.

People sought work in the towns, which grew considerably during this time, but the greatest number of people remained in the country.

LIVING CONDITIONS

CITIES AND TOWNS

Cities were not as large as they are today. Paris, Milan and Venice, with populations of about 80 000 people, were the largest cities in Europe. This did not mean that there was little overcrowding; on the contrary, confined behind protective walls, medieval cities and towns were very crowded indeed. Villages huddled outside the walls added

to the concentration of people. By 1348, London, for example, is estimated to have had 60 000 people within the city walls and thousands outside.

Living conditions in the bigger cities and towns clearly contributed to the spread of the disease. Sanitary equipment was primitive. In London, toilets in the houses of aristocrats jutted out over the Thames and sewage dropped into the river. In other places, sewage was simply piped into a common drain running down the centre of a narrow street or lane.

Crowded mid-sized towns were filthy, with open drains, meat and fish rotting in the streets, polluted well-water and flowing sewerage pits, or **cesspools**. Many people owned pigs, which were supposed to graze outside the city walls but were often allowed to roam the streets in search of food. These foul conditions were typical of any medieval town in Europe.

SOURCE 3.1 French medieval walled town, fourteenth century



Describe what you can see in this image.



Everywhere was overcrowded. Even well-off families sometimes shared a single bedroom. In the houses of the poor, beds were a luxury and it was common for a number of people to sleep together on the floor in the same room. Even if people had known to isolate patients during illness, it would have been impossible for them to do so.

Dirty and insanitary conditions led to dysentery, diarrhoea and other illnesses. Together with poor diet, this weakened people and made them more susceptible to plague. More importantly, these crowded and fetid, or rotten, conditions, provided the ideal environment for rats to flourish.

THE COUNTRYSIDE

In the country, too, people lived in dire conditions. Their houses were one- or two-room houses with dirt floors covered with straw, open windows and an open hearth. Chickens, geese pigs and other animals wandered freely through the house.

Peasants lacked food and were **undernourished**, overworked and already susceptible to many illnesses for which they had no remedy. They were **subsistence farmers** and worked long, hard hours to produce their own food. They were also obliged to contribute their labour to the lord.

SOURCE 3.2 Interior of an Italian kitchen, nineteenth-century reproduction of a woodcut from the Banchetti of Christoforo di Messisburgo, 1549. People in medieval times had very different ideas about hygiene than we do today, as this scene shows.

- 1 Describe what you can see in this illustration.
- 2 Use a Venn diagram to compare and contrast your description with a modern-day kitchen.



LIFE EXPECTANCY

During the Middle Ages, the average life expectancy—that is, the probable life span—of all groups in society was low. Archaeological evidence shows an average adult life expectancy of about 35 years for males and about 31 years for females. The infant mortality rate was also extremely high.

THE ILLNESS

The plague afflicted people in three forms. The most common was the ‘bubonic’, named for the swellings, or buboes, that appeared on the victim’s neck, armpits or groin. These buboes could become as large as an apple. This form of the plague was transmitted by infected fleas. A second variant was the pneumonic plague, which attacked the respiratory system and was spread through a victim’s exhaled air or cough and so was far more contagious than the bubonic form. It was also more **virulent**, or deadly, than the bubonic form. The third variant, the septicaemic plague, was the most deadly, attacking the blood system.

... but in men and women alike it first betrayed itself by the emergence of certain tumours in the groin or the armpits, some of which grew as large as a common apple, others as an egg, some more, some less, which the common folk called *gavoccioli*. From the two said parts of the body this deadly *gavocciolo* soon began to propagate and spread itself in all directions indifferently; after which the form of the malady began to change, black spots or livid making their appearance in many cases on the arm or the thigh or elsewhere, now few and large, then minute and numerous. And as the *gavocciolo* had been and still were an infallible token of approaching death ...

SOURCE 3.3 Boccaccio’s description of the plague in *The Decameron*, his collection of about 100 stories, begun c. 1350 and finished in 1351–53

- 1 According to the writer, what is the sign that the death of the victim is inevitable?
- 2 What form of the plague is being described? Explain your answer.

Form	Symptoms		Mortality rate	Cause	How it spread
Bubonic (most common)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Buboes or enlarged lymph nodes in armpits, neck and groin • Headaches, nausea, aching joints, fever and vomiting • Symptoms took from 1 to 7 days to appear <p><i>It began either under the armpits or in the groin by swellings, in some to the bigness of an apple, in others like an egg.</i> Boccaccio, Florence, 1348</p>		30–70%	<i>Yersinia pestis</i> in blood of fleas	Direct contact with a flea
Pneumonic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infected lungs • Discharge of bloody, slimy sputum (mucus and saliva) • Symptoms took from 1 to 7 days to appear <p><i>... and the patient coughed up blood without stop for three days. As there was no way to prevent this, the patient died.</i> Michael of Piazza, Italy, 1347</p>		90–95%	<i>Yersinia pestis</i> in blood of fleas	Airborne droplets of saliva from bubonic or septicaemic victims
Septicaemic (rare)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High fever • Skin turning dark shades of purplish-black • Victims usually died same day symptoms first appeared <p><i>It also showed itself by black or blue spots on the arms of many or on their thighs.</i> Boccaccio, Florence, 1348</p>		100%	<i>Yersinia pestis</i> in blood of fleas	Direct contact with a flea

SOURCE
3.4

There were three forms of the Black Death: bubonic, pneumonic and septicaemic

PREVENTION

It was believed that the **pestilence**, or plague, was caused by poisoned air, so one of the main means of prevention was to burn aromatic herbs and wood to counter the fouled atmosphere. Houses were filled with pleasant-smelling plants and flowers and the floor sprinkled with vinegar and rosewater. For the same reason, people carried sweet-smelling concoctions when they left the house.

However, because people believed that the plague was sent by God to punish the sins of the world, the main means of prevention were prayer and other religious acts.

The medical knowledge of the time was starkly inadequate to cope with the epidemic. The advice by a leading physician of the time to ‘go quickly, go far and return slowly’ was sound but quite unrealistic for the vast majority of the people.

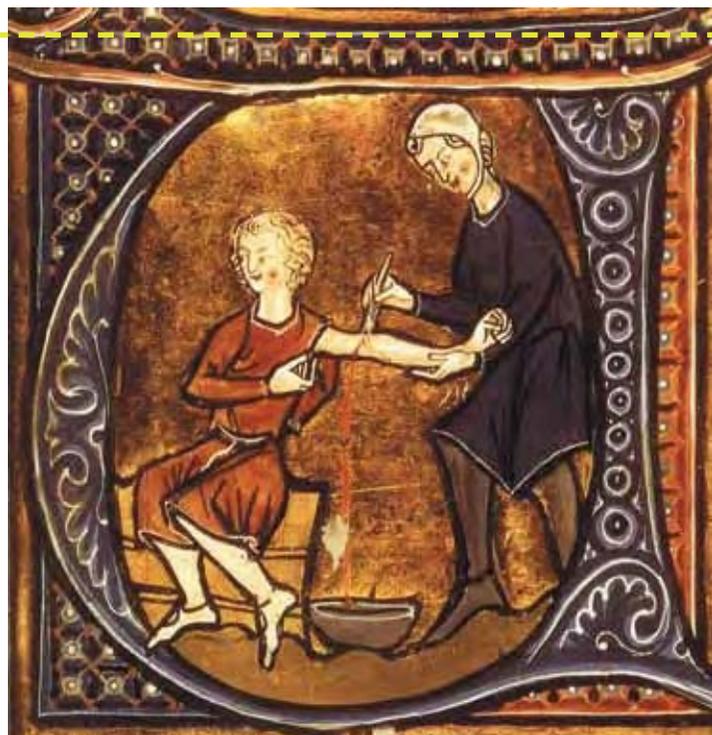
TREATMENT

During the Middle Ages, a period also known as the Age of Faith, the Catholic Church dominated medical knowledge and treatment. In a sick room, the priest was more important than the doctor. Before treating patients, doctors were supposed to find out if they had confessed. All medical teaching was conducted according to the teachings of the Church. In hospitals run by monastic orders, patients were well fed and cared for, but little was done to cure them of illness, including the plague.

As with the advice for the prevention of infection, treatment was also of little help. **Bleeding the patient** was believed to release the poisons from the body. Other treatments included lancing the boils or buboes and covering them with a substance to draw off the poison.

VICTIMS OF THE PLAGUE

Plague did not discriminate between family, community, class or race, but some groups in society, such as priests, doctors, monks and nuns, who were often the first port of call for help and comfort, suffered very high mortality rates. Apart from their contact with victims in hospitals, the confined environment of monks and nuns offered no escape from infection. Clergy and doctors were called to the sick and dying to deliver care, comfort and, if needed, the last rites. In the Franciscan convents of Carcassonne and Marseille, every inmate died, and at the Dominican monastery at Montpellier, only seven out of 140 survived.



[priests and doctors] were seized by the plague whilst administering spiritual aid; and often by a single touch or a single breath of the plague-stricken, perished even before the sick person they had come to assist.

SOURCE 3.5 Description by Simon de Couvin (c. 1320–67), a Parisian doctor and chronicler, in about 1350

Q What does this source reveal about the virulence of the plague?

SOURCE 3.6 Bleeding a patient

Q What would be the dangers of performing this treatment?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** List and explain the following terms in your 'Black Death' glossary:
- bleeding a patient
 - cesspools
 - contagious
 - famine
 - fetid
 - life expectancy
 - pestilence
 - population explosion
 - subsistence farmers
 - undernourished
 - virulent
- #2** How do we know that all people, rich and poor, were susceptible to the Black Death?
- #3** What were the populations of the largest cities in Europe in the Middle Ages?
- #4** Why were towns and cities in the Middle Ages so crowded? How did this make the spread of disease easier?

analysing, applying & creating

- #5** Reread the introductory section to this unit. Create a flow chart showing the economic

conditions in Europe in the centuries before the Black Death and how these conditions eventually led to conditions that aided the outbreak and spread of infection.

understanding, analysing & creating

- #6** Reread the information on the living conditions in cities, towns and countryside in medieval Europe. Place the title 'Living conditions' in the centre of a page and create a concept map showing the links between these conditions and a population susceptible to the Black Death.

applying, evaluating & creating

- #7**
- a** Working by yourself or with a partner, research modern measures taken to prevent the spread of diseases such as swine flu.
 - b** Use a Venn diagram to compare and contrast modern and medieval measures to prevent pandemics.
 - c** Write a paragraph stating your conclusions about similarities and differences, or about what has changed and what has remained the same.

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 4

CONTEMPORARY VIEWS OF THE BLACK DEATH

The people of the Middle Ages had no idea of what caused the Black Death, how it was spread or even how to combat it. All they knew was that this pestilence was so infectious and deadly that as Boccaccio, a fourteenth-century chronicler, said, '[victims] ate lunch with their friends and dinner with their ancestors in paradise'.

CONTEMPORARY VIEWS

Here are a number of contemporary views—that is, views held by people at the time—of the Black Death.

Agimet the Jew ... subjected again to torture a little, he confessed [that] ...

Rabbi Peyret, a Jew who was a teacher of their law, sent for this Agimet ... and said: 'We have been informed that you are going to Venice to buy silk. Here I am giving you a little package which contains some prepared poison and venom. Distribute it among the wells, and springs about Venice and the other places to which you go, in order to poison the people who use the water ...'

SOURCE 4.1 The confession of Agimet of Geneva, Châtel, 20 October 1348, from *Jewish History Sourcebook: The Black Death and the Jews 1348–1349*

... in the illustrious city of Florence ... there made its appearance that deadly pestilence, which, whether disseminated by the influence of the celestial bodies, or sent upon us mortals by God in His just wrath by way of retribution for our iniquities [wickedness].

SOURCE 4.2 Giovanni Boccaccio's description of the plague, from *The Decameron*, his collection of about 100 stories, begun c. 1350 and finished in 1351–53

It is known ... the constellations [Saturn, Jupiter and Mars in Aquarius] which combated the rays of the sun, and the warmth of the heavenly fire, exerted their power especially against [the] sea, [near India and China] and struggled violently with its waters ... acted so powerfully upon the sea, that they attracted a great portion of it to themselves, and the waters of the ocean arose in the form of vapour ... so corrupted, that the fish which they contained, died ... this vapour spread itself through the air in many places on the earth, and enveloped them in fog. Such was the case ... not a man will be left alive; and the like will continue, so long as the sun remains in the sign of Leo ...

SOURCE 4.3 Report from the Paris College of Physicians to King Philip VI of France, 1345, quoted in *The Literary Gazette and Journal of Belles Lettres, Arts, Sciences etc.*, 1833



... in the East, hard by Greater India, certain horrors and unheard-of tempests overwhelmed the whole province for the space of three days. On the first day there was a rain of frogs, serpents, lizards, scorpions, and many venomous beasts of that sort. On the second, thunder was heard, and lightning and sheets of fire fell upon the earth, mingled with hailstones of marvellous size, which slew almost all. On the third day there fell fire from heaven and stinking smoke, which slew all that were left of men and beasts, and burned up all the cities and towns in those parts. By these tempests the whole seashore and surrounding lands were infected, and are waxing more and more venomous from day to day. And now it cometh round the seacoasts, by God's will.

SOURCE 4.4 A fourteenth-century Flemish chronicler

REMEDIES FOR THE BLACK DEATH

The people of the Middle Ages had no idea how to combat this terrible disease. As doctors had no knowledge of the cause, how it really spread or how to treat it, people were willing to try anything to avoid or cure the plague.

The swellings should be softened with figs and cooked onions mixed with yeast and butter. Toads should be thoroughly dried in the sun. They should be placed on the swellings. The toad will draw out the poison of the plague into its own body. When it is full it should be thrown away and a new toad applied.

I have seen that a cock was taken and its posterior plucked, and thus bare and alive applied, and that the cock died and collected all the poison in itself. Living sparrows are said to have the same effect.

SOURCE 4.5 Guy de Chaulliac, fourteenth-century French doctor in Avignon, France, during the onset of the plague

You are to make sure that all the human excrement and other filth lying in the streets of the city is removed. You are to cause the city to be cleaned from all bad smells so that no more people will die.

SOURCE 4.6 From a letter from King Edward III to the Lord Mayor of London, 1349

THAT PEOPLE BELIEVED WITCHES CAUSED THE BLACK DEATH?

Fourteenth-century chronicles record that witchcraft was often blamed for causing the Black Death. Women who survived the disease were often accused of being witches and 'plague spreaders' and the records show an increase in the number of witch trials in the mid-fourteenth century. In Poland and Scandinavia, the plague was attributed to the Pest Jungfrau. She was a maiden who flew through the skies as a blue flame waving her hand, or a red handkerchief, over her victims and their homes and villages to spread the plague.



SOURCE 4.7 A physician holding a pomander (a mixture of fragrant substances) under his nose while examining a suspected plague victim, c. 1495

EFFECTS ON MEDIEVAL PEOPLE

The plague had a significant impact on the societies it decimated across Europe, Asia and Africa. In Europe, people from all levels of society struggled to cope with the enormous loss of life.

After the pestilence, many buildings ... in all cities, towns and villages had collapsed ... in the absence of inhabitants. Likewise, many small villages were completely deserted ... all those who had lived in them were dead ... and the land everywhere remain completely uncultivated ... before the pestilence, when there were plenty of priests, one could hire [one] for five marks, [now] ... there was scarcely anyone who wanted a position for twenty marks.

SOURCE 4.8 Contemporary account of England after the plague, by Henry Knighton, 1350

[Flagellants] were men who did public penance and scourged themselves with whips of hard knotted leather with little iron spikes. Some made themselves bleed very badly between the shoulder blades and some foolish women had cloths ready to catch the blood and smear it on their eyes, saying it was miraculous blood. While they were doing penance, they sang very mournful songs about ... Our Lord. The object of this penance was to put a stop to the [plague], for ... at least a third of all the people in the world died.

SOURCE 4.9 Medieval historian Jean Froissart, on the flagellant movement

SOURCE 4.10 Monks with the plague being blessed by a priest, c. 1360–c. 1380, artist unknown. Held at the British Library



... citizen avoided citizen ... this sore affliction entered so deep into the minds of men and women, that in the horror thereof brother was forsaken by brother, nephew by uncle, brother by sister, and oftentimes husband by wife: nay, what is more, and scarcely to be believed, fathers and mothers were found to abandon their own children, untended, unvisited, to their fate, as if they had been strangers.

SOURCE 4.11 Giovanni Boccaccio's description of the plague, from *The Decameron*

In this extremity of our city's suffering ... the authority of laws, human and divine, was ... all but totally dissolved for lack of those who should have administered and enforced them, most of whom, like the rest of the citizens, were either dead or sick so ... that they were unable to execute any office; whereby every man was free to do what was right in his own eyes.

SOURCE 4.12 Giovanni Boccaccio's description of the plague, from *The Decameron*

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

... there were those who thought that to live temperately and avoid all excess would count for much as a preservative ... avoiding every kind of luxury, but eating and drinking moderately ... holding converse with none but one another, lest tidings of sickness or death should reach them, and diverting their minds with music and such other delights as they could devise. Others, the bias of whose minds was in the opposite direction, maintained, that to drink freely, frequent places of public resort, and take their pleasure with song and revel, sparing to satisfy no appetite ... was the sovereign remedy for so great an evil.”

SOURCE 4.13 Giovanni Boccaccio's description of the plague, from *The Decameron*

ANALYSING & EVALUATING

- With a partner, examine Sources 4.1 to 4.4, which are contemporary views on the cause of the plague, and complete the following tasks. Make sure that you quote from the sources to support your statements.
 - Rank the causes of the plague in order of most likely to least likely.
 - Why do you think that people believed that these might be the reasons for the Black Death?
 - What reasons are similar?
- Examine Source 4.5, which lists contemporary remedies for the plague, and answer the following questions.
 - Which would be the most effective way of dealing with the plague?
 - Which would be the least?
 - Look at Source 4.10. Some people today still pray to their god in times of need. How might this help people in a time of crisis?
 - Given the lack of medical knowledge in the Middle Ages, do you think that any of these cures are reasonable?
- With a partner, examine Sources 4.8 to 4.13, which are contemporary accounts of the effects of the plague on society, and complete the following task.
 - In a three-column table, in the first column rank the effects of the plague on society in order of 'most significant' to 'least significant'.
 - In the second column, list a quote beside each effect (where appropriate) from each source.
 - In the third column, explain why each effect is placed where it is in the order of ranking

SOURCE 4.14 Part of *Danse Macabre*, by Bernt Notke, St Nicholas's church, Tallinn, Estonia. Originally painted for St Mary's church, in Lübeck, Germany, 1463, it showed Death in a long chain-dance with twenty-four people from all classes of society—from pope to infant. St Mary's was destroyed in the bombing of Lübeck in World War II, and the surviving parts of the *Danse Macabre* were removed to St. Nicholas's church.

CREATING

- Use the sources in this unit and further research from the library and the internet to complete one of the following tasks.
 - Create an AVD to explore and explain contemporary views of the plague. Make sure that you include at least four new primary sources and a bibliography.
 - Create a Wiki or electronic slide presentation to explore *Danse Macabre* artwork. Make sure that you include at least four new primary sources and a bibliography.





IMPACT OF THE PLAGUE ON MEDIEVAL SOCIETY



While there were a great many accounts and descriptions written of the events at the time of the Black Death, it is surprisingly difficult to accurately state the number of deaths. Unlike today, most records were kept at the parish, or local, level. There was no overall assessment of the epidemic and its victims, and chroniclers of the time were also inclined to exaggerate the death rate. At the same time, there was not a uniform casualty rate: in some cases almost 100 per cent of victims perished, in other places the figure was much lower. An example of the difficulty can be found in the Italian city of Siena.

According to Agnolo di Tura, a chronicler of the time, 50 000 people died in Siena, including 36 000 old people, and after the plague had passed, only 10 000 people were left alive. Evidence indicates that Siena was indeed hit very hard by the plague, but it is unlikely that the total population of the city reached 50 000 people or more at that time.

Modern historians, using statistics based on records kept in England and applying these as a standard to all of Europe, estimate that one-third of the population of Europe succumbed to the Black Death. This amounts to approximately 20 million people.

For the greater area stretching across Asia, the Middle East, North Africa and including Europe, accurate figures are even more difficult to obtain and only a broad estimate by historians puts the number of deaths at 80 million.

DEVASTATED COMMUNITIES

The plague killed entire families at a time and destroyed villages. Agnolo di Turo recorded that he had buried his five children with his own hands and that many had done likewise. Confusion reigned because there was no obvious pattern to the contagion. Parents buried children, or a child might be the only survivor in a family. A whole community might perish; in a neighbouring community, there might be just a few victims.

Then the grievous plague penetrated the seacoasts from Southampton and came to Bristol, and there almost the whole strength of the town died, struck as it were by sudden death; for there were few who kept their beds more than three days, or two days, or half a day; and after this ... death broke forth on every side with the course of the sun. There died at Leicester in the small parish of St Leonard more than 380; in the parish of Holy Cross more than 400; in the parish of St Margaret of Leicester more than 700; and so in each parish a great number.

SOURCE
5.1

Contemporary account of England after the plague, by Henry Knighton, 1350



- 1 Which path did the infection follow?
- 2 How quickly did death strike an infected person?
- 3 What was the total number of deaths in the three parishes named?

Some people ran away in a vain attempt to save themselves. However, they would most likely be turned away by other villages. If a family member had contracted the disease, the entire household was doomed to die. Parents had terrible decisions to make—if they became infected, they abandoned their children in the small hope that the children might survive; an infected child might be turned out of doors in the hope that other children might be saved. Parentless children roamed the streets in search for food.



SOURCE 5.2 Couple with the bubonic plague, from the Toggenburg Bible, 1411

- Q**
- 1 What symptoms of plague can you observe on the victims?
 - 2 What variant of the plague are these people suffering from?
 - 3 What do you think the figure in the background is doing? Who do you think he is?

MASS BURIALS

At the height of the contagion, communities and towns were overwhelmed by the numbers of dead. So many bodies were taken to the churches that there was not enough **consecrated** ground—that is, land that has been declared sacred—in which to bury them. Contemporary accounts report that in cities such as Avignon, France, and London, England, bodies were thrown into the river or piled up in pits due to the lack of suitable burial sites. People perished so rapidly and in such vast numbers that burial services could not keep up. Corpses were taken from homes and left out in the street where they lay, possibly for days. Coffins were not always available so bodies were placed on boards to be carried to graveyards or pits; families even carried their own relatives to the burial pits. According to one written account, in the city of Siena, the many bodies were so sparsely covered with earth that dogs were digging them up.

“... those who are now sick, or should fall sick in the future ... if they are on the point of death and cannot secure the services of a priest, then they should make confession to each other, as is permitted in the teaching of the Apostles, whether to a layman or, if no man is present, then even to a woman ...”

SOURCE 5.3 Ralph of Shrewsbury, Bishop of Bath and Wells, 1349

BURIAL WITHOUT PRAYERS

With great numbers of bodies to be buried, fear of contagion and fewer people available to assist, normal burial practices were swept aside. Many people died and were buried without being administered the **last rites**, or ceremony for the dying, in which the dying person would confess their sins and be forgiven. Such a possibility terrified people, since it was believed that those who died with sins that were unconfessed and unforgiven would go to hell.

The shortage of clergy was so great in England that in 1349, Ralph of Shrewsbury, Bishop of Bath and Wells, allowed non-priests to administer the last rites.

SOURCE 5.4 Plague bodies being buried in Tournai in the Netherlands, 1349



THE FLAGELLANTS

Medieval people lacked any modern medical knowledge and thus they looked for other reasons for the occurrence of this terrible plague. One reason was that it was a plague sent by God to punish medieval society for its sins. The Church and many of its followers believed that sins such as idleness, gambling, drunkenness and lewd or immodest behaviour displeased God, and that the best way to prevent the spread of the plague was for people to confess their sins and pray to God for forgiveness.

Confession and prayer seemed to have little effect and so some people decided they should punish themselves in order to gain God's forgiveness. Such people were known as 'flagellants', because they would **flagellate**, or whip, themselves as a form of **penance**, or punishment, for sin. The flagellant movement sprang up over Europe in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, but peaked during the period of the Black Death.

Organised into groups of two to three hundred men and women, and led by a 'Master', the flagellants would walk in procession in cities, towns and

villages, two by two, silent, their heads and faces hidden and their eyes fixed on the ground before them. Men and women were **segregated**—that is, in separate sections—with the women taking their place at the rear of the procession. News of their arrival travelled ahead of them and usually the procession brought out all the townspeople. Although the church bells rang out on their arrival, the flagellants preferred to conduct their ritual in the open air rather than in a church. The marchers formed a circle, stripped to their waists, and at an order from the Master they threw themselves onto the ground and the Master walked among them, whipping those who confessed to committing sins. Following this ceremony, collective flagellation took place in which the flagellants whipped themselves and others with heavy leather thongs tipped with metal studs. These whippings usually drew blood. The flagellant movement was strongest in Germany but soon spread over Hungary, Poland, Flanders and the Low Countries (present-day Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg).

SOURCE 5.5 Flagellants at the time of the Black Death, woodcut, 1493 CE



PERSECUTION OF THE JEWS

Discrimination against Jewish people was deeply rooted in medieval society. During the fourteenth century, the Church had isolated Jews from Christian society. This isolation was achieved through laws that forbade Jews to hire Christian servants, work as doctors outside their Jewish communities or sell most types of goods to Christians. Many trades and jobs were also closed to Jews, such as weaving, tailoring and goldsmithing. Jews also had to wear a badge to mark their separation. They also suffered persecution and expulsion from towns and cities, and seizure of their property.

At the onset of the plague, Jews were already unpopular and were without any real power. In the terror of the epidemic, many people looked for someone to blame for their suffering, a **scapegoat**. They readily believed that Jews were capable of poisoning the wells of Christian communities and infecting the inhabitants with plague. The majority of people who turned against the Jews believed these accusations against them, even though Jews were dying at the same rate as Christians.

Many people saw that these accusations were ridiculous, but not many were prepared to stand up for the Jews in the atmosphere of the time.

SOURCE 5.6 The burning of Jews in Germany, by Hartmann Schedel, 1493, from *Liber Chronicarum* (*The Nuremberg Chronicle*). Held at the Bibliotheque Mazarine, Paris, France



THAT THERE WAS BURIED TREASURE IN ERFURT, GERMANY?

In 1998, a chest filled with over 600 pieces of gold jewellery and 3141 silver coins was found in the wall of the house in the medieval Jewish sector of Erfurt, Germany. Historians think that it was buried in 1349 when persecutions of 100 to 1000 Jews took place. It had been hidden in the wall for over 700 years.

Massacres of Jews had already started in the south of France. Then, in September 1348, a group of Jews were put on trial at Chillon, charged with poisoning wells at Neustadt. From November of that year, Jews were burnt to death in cities throughout Germany. In most cities the massacres took place when the Black Death had already arrived, but in some places just news of the plague was enough. For example, 2000 Jews were put to death in Strasbourg in February 1349, several weeks before the first signs of the plague. The number of slaughtered Jews in this period may have been as high as 16 000, the number given by a contemporary chronicler.

Generally, the rulers of Europe tried to protect their Jewish subjects but could do little to prevent persecution. It eventually waned with the Black Death itself, and by 1351 the massacres had ceased. Three hundred and fifty Jewish massacres took place; these deaths, together with the losses from the Black Death, meant that many large and small Jewish communities never recovered.

IMPACT OF POPULATION DECLINE

The huge decline in population as a result of the Black Death left some areas of western Europe virtually deserted and others reduced to a fraction of their pre-plague numbers. Large expanses of once-cultivated land reverted to wilderness, and thousands of human settlements were abandoned and fell into ruins. Thriving towns were reduced to the size of villages. Markets closed, grain rotted in the fields, and cattle and sheep roamed untended until they perished.

Before the plague, rising populations had kept wages low and prices and rents high. After the plague, this situation was reversed. The workers were in high demand as there were not enough of them to work the manor lands. As a result, wages increased and, with low demand, agricultural prices declined.

In England, the Statute of Labourers (1351 CE) was introduced in an attempt to **legislate** to prevent labourers calling for higher wages as demand for their labour increased, but was largely unsuccessful. Peasants benefited not only through higher wages but also through wider employment choices. Men and women no longer felt tied to the manor and sought other farm work and jobs. Any landlord who was not prepared to make concessions to his tenants could find that they simply went off to find a kinder master. As a result, medieval society became much more **mobile**, as peasants left their traditional manors and took work where they could obtain a better wage.

The depopulation brought about by the Black Death pandemic was later seen by thinkers such as the English clergyman Thomas Malthus (1766–1834), in ‘An Essay on the Principle of Population’, as the natural way of society returning to a proper balance between population and food production. According to this way of thinking, overpopulation produces its own remedy through epidemic, famine and other means.

THE PEASANTS’ REVOLT

The Peasants’ Revolt in England, in 1381, was an attempt by the peasants to maintain the better conditions they had gained as a result of the depopulation brought about by the plague. Despite the 1351 Statute of Labourers, by the late 1370s the living standards of peasants and serfs were higher than ever before. Wages were up to three times higher and land was cheap to buy. Many people in society who, in earlier times, would never have dreamt of buying and working their own land could now afford to do so. As a consequence, peasants and serfs were no longer willing to work the lord’s lands at harvest time and take his produce to sell at the town market for him. They wanted to work their own lands. The lords responded by tightening up the hereditary dues owed to them in an attempt to gain cheap labour.

The peasants were stirred up by John Ball, a priest who moved around the countryside preaching to the peasants that they were as good as their masters—after all, the plague had killed nobles, clergy and peasants alike.

*When Adam delved and Eve span
Who was then a ‘gentleman’?*

SOURCE 5.7 John Ball and other preachers would use rhymes such as these to put across their message to the people.

- 1 What is the meaning of this rhyme?
- 2 Why would it help convince peasants that they should rebel?

The peasants were further enraged by King Richard II’s new **poll tax** of 1380—the third time in four years that the tax had been imposed. This poll tax was a monetary charge against everyone over the age of 15. The tax of 1380 was particularly harsh as it was a high, flat rate of one shilling per head, to be paid whether you were rich or poor. Richard II and his advisers imposed the tax to pay for his French wars, which many people were not happy about.

In mid-1380, the villagers of Fobbing refused to pay their taxes and organised with other villages to throw out the king’s soldiers who had arrived to bring law and order back to the area. The organised peasants were led by Wat Tyler. Little is known about him beyond the fact that he was a believer in equality in society, as the peasants’ side of the revolt is not represented in historical accounts.

Wat Tyler and his ‘army’ of peasants marched first to Canterbury and then to London, where they hoped to meet with the king to explain their grievances. Along the way they destroyed many tax records and registers. They were met by Richard II on 14 June, 1381 at Mile End, just outside London. The rebels, as they now were called, gave Richard a petition in which they called for ‘the abolition of villeinage, for labour services based on free contracts and for the right to rent land at fourpence an acre’; they also swore their fealty to the king. Fourteen-year-old Richard agreed to meet these demands and asked the rebels to return back to their homes peacefully. While some rebels did return to their homes, others rampaged through London, capturing and beheading the much-disliked

Archbishop of Canterbury, Stephen Sudbury, and then going on to loot and riot throughout the city. Richard II was forced to spend the night in hiding, fearing for his life.

The next day, the young king met again with the rebels, just outside the walls of London city, at Smithfield. By this time the peasants were demanding even more from the king, such as the abolition of all nobility except for the king, the **confiscation**, or taking away of all Church lands from the Church and the distribution of this new land to the people. Again, the king agreed to all of these demands but then events took an unexpected turn. The rebel leader, Wat Tyler, apparently insulted the king and, angered by this boldness, the Mayor of London pulled Tyler from his horse and, with a member of the king's household, killed him. Richard II managed to successfully confront the now unruly mob by convincing them that their demands would still be met and offering them charters of **manumission**, or freedom. The rebels then agreed to leave London and return home.

Within weeks, the king broke nearly all of his promises, stating that they lacked validity as he had made them under **duress**, or threat. The poll tax was withdrawn but the rebel ringleaders were taken up and hanged, the nobility continued to demand their dues as before and the Church kept its lands.

In the short term it seemed that the revolt had failed. The peasants were crushed, their demands rejected and hundreds executed. In the longer term, however, there were a number of achievements.

SOURCE
5.8

Meeting between King Richard and the peasant rebels, and the death of War Tyler at Smithfield, London, 1381. Held at the British Library, London



Can you identify the main people depicted in this scene?

- Parliament gave up trying to control the level of wages that landholders paid to peasants.
- The poll tax was never raised again.
- The number of 'free men'—that is, men not tied to the lord's land—was increased.
- The feudal system was further broken down.

CHANGES IN BELIEFS AND VALUES

One of the most profound effects of the Black Death was the change in people's attitude to the Church. The faith of medieval people was the foundation on which they lived out their lives. The Black Death changed this. Medieval Christians felt that the Church had let them down, and they began to question the teachings and rules of the Church.

People believed that the plague was the work of God, and according to the Church, they had brought the plague upon themselves. It seemed to people of the time that the Church, knowing about the people's sins and the consequences of sin, did nothing to warn them of God's anger. In addition, despite all the prayers and processions, the plague not only continued to cause misery, it returned in 1361 to claim even more lives, including those of many priests.

The loss of so many priests to the plague meant fewer clergy to minister to the spiritual needs of the people. But recruitment levels to the priesthood after the plague were not high enough to replace those lost priests. New recruits were also often regarded as of inferior quality. They were criticised for not having a true vocation, lacking commitment to the priesthood, and for being illiterate (unable to read or write).

At the time of the plague, the **laity**, or non-clergy, were given permission to hear the confessions of the dying. This led to many believing that they could be responsible for their own salvation, without the intervention of the Church.

Monasteries suffered greater losses during the epidemic than the clergy; almost half the inmates of the monasteries and nunneries lost their lives. The population of the great monastery at St Albans in England, for example, dropped from one hundred monks to fifty. Fewer monks in a monastery meant loss of prestige and influence. With greater social mobility, ambitious men could now find advancement in other employment.



remembering & understanding

#1 List and explain the following terms in your 'Black Death' glossary:

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| ■ confiscation | ■ manumission |
| ■ consecrate | ■ mobile |
| ■ duress | ■ penance |
| ■ flagellate | ■ poll tax |
| ■ laity | ■ scapegoat |
| ■ last rites | ■ segregated |
| ■ legislate | |

#2 What is the estimated number of casualties for Europe and for the whole region affected by the Black Death pandemic?

#3 Where was the flagellant movement strongest?

#4 How were the Jews in Europe isolated from the Christian community?

#5 Why were wages high after the Black Death?

#6 What was the purpose of the Statute of Labourers, passed in the English parliament in 1351?

applying & analysing

#7 Create a chart with two columns; the heading the first column is 'Group' and for the second column is 'How affected'. In the first column, list the groups that were affected by the Black Death: individuals, families, villages, towns, cities, monasteries, clergy. In the second column, write a summary of how the Black Death affected their lives.

analysing & evaluating

#8 Place the heading 'Mass burials' at the centre of a mind map and demonstrate the consequences of burial services being overwhelmed by the numbers of dead.

#9 Conduct some research on the poll tax.

- Write a paragraph explaining the reasons for imposing a poll tax at this time.
- Write a paragraph explaining why such a tax was strongly opposed by some of the peasants.

#10 Do we still have such taxes today? If so, why are they imposed?

#11 Construct a T-chart analysing the changes in society after the Black Death. The main heading should be 'The Black Death'. At the top of the left column write 'Before', and at the top of the right column write 'After'. Carefully read through the section 'How did society change?' and write appropriate details in each of the columns.

#12 Construct a three-column table. At the top of the first column write the heading 'Plus', at the head of the second column write 'Minus' and at the head of the third column write 'Interesting'. Reread the sections 'The Peasants' Revolt' and 'Changes in beliefs and values', and fill in your own assessment of this event.

analysing & creating

#13 Working with a partner, and using the information in this unit and from the internet, research the development and spread of the flagellant movement. In an AVD, show its links with the people's belief that the Black Death was God's punishment, the organisation of the movement, the ritual of the flagellation, its growth and popularity, and why the movement was eventually disowned by the Church.

creating

#14 Undertake some further research on the internet or in the library on the events of the Peasants' Revolt. Then working by yourself or with a partner, create a series of illustrations, by hand or electronically, to depict the main events of the Peasants' Revolt. Number each illustration. Use captions under the illustrations to identify the people involved, explain what caused the event and briefly describe what is happening. Include a bibliography of your sources with your finished work.

CONNECTIONS

TO...

A CONTINUING THREAT

UNIT 6

Europe, Asia and Africa were never entirely free of plague after the Black Death pandemic of the fourteenth century. It reappeared at regular intervals, sometimes in major epidemics; in the seventeenth century, plague epidemics claimed the lives of tens of thousands of people in Moscow, Marseille, Milan and London.

THE GREAT PLAGUE OF LONDON

An outbreak of plague occurred in London in late 1664 and, as with the Black Death epidemic, it was bubonic plague, transmitted to people by rodent fleas. It had the same symptoms of high fever, vomiting and painful swellings in the armpit and groin. The disease spread rapidly and death followed swiftly after infection.

Death rates from plague started to rise early in 1665, particularly in the poorer parts of the city. Conditions that suited the spread of the plague flea—overcrowding and unhygienic conditions—were very much in evidence in seventeenth-century London. London was big and prosperous with a rapidly growing population. Living conditions were cramped and unhygienic; garbage and human waste were thrown into the street, providing a perfect breeding ground for rats.

SOURCE 6.1 Townspeople fleeing to the countryside in 1630

Q Describe what you can see in this illustration.

SOURCE 6.2 Men loading dead bodies onto a cart, 1665

Q How does this illustration demonstrate the high death rate?



In July 1665, there were 1000 deaths each week. As with the Black Death, those who could, fled the city. The king and the court left, and parliamentary sittings and court cases took place outside the city. The nobility and the rich fled, as did merchants, lawyers, the clergy and even the College of Surgeons.

At the peak of the plague in August–September, there were over 6000 deaths per week. People who showed plague symptoms were locked in their houses with their entire families and red crosses were painted on their front doors to indicate that their homes were infected. Guards were placed at the doors, which remained sealed for forty days after the victim had recovered—or died. Anyone in constant contact with plague victims had to carry a coloured staff, or rod, so that people could avoid them. Authorities were overwhelmed by the task of burying the dead. Carts collected bodies for burial after sunset, and such was the death rate that bodies, once more, were buried in communal plague pits.

THE LORD MAYOR'S RULES

The Lord Mayor of London made a series of orders to regulate people's behaviour and to clean the refuse, or garbage, from the streets. These orders, which came into effect in July 1665, were wide-ranging.

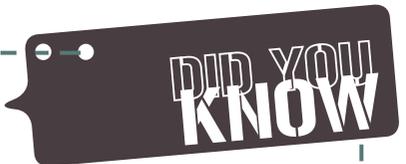
- The bedding of the dead had to be aired by a fire and perfumed before being used again.
- No animals were to be kept within the city, including pigs, cats, dogs, pigeons or rabbits.
- All street performers were banned from the city, including bear-baiting and plays

With no real understanding of the nature of the infection, the regulations were of doubtful value, and appeared to have little effect. But an attempt was made to create more hygienic, cleaner and healthier surroundings.

PLAGUE IN THE MODERN WORLD

Plague remains endemic—that is, naturally occurring—in different places of the world. However, it can be treated successfully with modern medications and it no longer threatens the world.

Pandemics of other contagious illnesses threaten our health. With global travel, illnesses such as SARS spread rapidly around the world. Modern medicine has developed an array of measures to combat the spread of infection. Vaccination against infectious diseases is one of the most effective. National and international health organisations cooperate to monitor health threats and to manage outbreaks when they occur.



THAT TENS OF THOUSANDS OF DOGS AND CATS WERE KILLED?

It was rumoured that dogs and cats spread the disease, so the Lord Mayor of London ordered all dogs and cats to be destroyed. Although dogs and cats also carried fleas, they were also enemies of rats, so one of the effects was an increase in the number of rats.



TIME TO THINK ...

1 EVIDENCE

- a How did the Black Death spread?
- b What conclusions can you draw from this about how the regions of Asia, Africa and Europe were connected during the Middle Ages?

2 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

- a Prior to the Black Death, what was the structure of European medieval society?
- b How did the Black Death change the structure of European medieval society?
- c Was this for the better or not?

3 PROBLEM SOLVING AND PANDEMICS

- a How well did the people of the Middle Ages cope with the crisis of the Black Death?
- b How does our society cope with similar health crises?
- c What other challenges faced medieval society? What other challenges face our society today?

4 EVIDENCE

There are a lot of primary sources in this chapter. How accurate a picture do they give of the Black Death and its aftermath?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU TO THINK FURTHER ABOUT THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS ON THE OPENING PAGE OF THIS CHAPTER.

#1 Doctor and priest

It is the time of the Black Death. You and a partner are two learned brothers, highly respected in your chosen careers of priest and physician. A group of worried citizens has asked both of you for advice about the best way to deal with the plague that is raging in the city.

Prepare an oral presentation each, one explaining in detail the beliefs and practices of the Church and one giving medical views and practices. Make sure that you include appropriate illustrations, diagrams, examples and anecdotes.

#2 London: before and after

As the daughter of the Lord Mayor of London in 1347, you have a very good knowledge of the city and, unusually for a young woman of the time, you have also learnt to read and write English. You also have a talent for illustrating little details of life about you. Your older sister, whom you miss very much, has married and moved to the north.

Write two letters to her. The first one is dated just before the outbreak of the plague in London. Describe and illustrate the sights, sounds and activity of the city. The second letter is dated well after the Black Death has taken hold. Describe the changes that have taken place, the mood of the people and your own experiences and fears.

#3 Read all about it

It is August 1666. You and a partner form the editorial committee of a London newspaper and are preparing the front page of your newspaper.

Your front page will include short reports covering:

- a health advice about the plague from a health worker
- b descriptions and names of the latest plague victims—who they are, where they lived
- c reports on how city officials are dealing with the plague
- d comments on and evaluation of these actions of the city officials
- e gossip about those who have left the city
- f an advertisement for a miracle cure or remedy.

#4 The revolt

Form a play-writing group and write a script for a short performance of the dramatic events of the Peasants' Revolt of 1381. Research the events of June 1381 and focus your script on the events in London—the confrontations between the peasants and the king. Your script will include an account of:

- b the background to the Peasants' Revolt, by a narrator
- c the peasants' complaints and grievances
- d the reactions of the lords and the nobility
- e the events at the meetings
- f the actions of the peasants in London
- g the death of Wat Tyler
- h the young king addressing the peasants
- i the eventual outcomes of the revolt.

#5 Effects of the Black Death

You and your colleagues have been commissioned to produce an in-depth documentary television program on the topic 'The Black Death was a watershed event in our social, political and economic history.'

Create three detailed storyboards depicting and analysing the social, political and economic effects of the Black Death on Europe.

SOURCE 7.1 A church window in Eyam, a village in England, depicting the plague in 1665 in the village



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