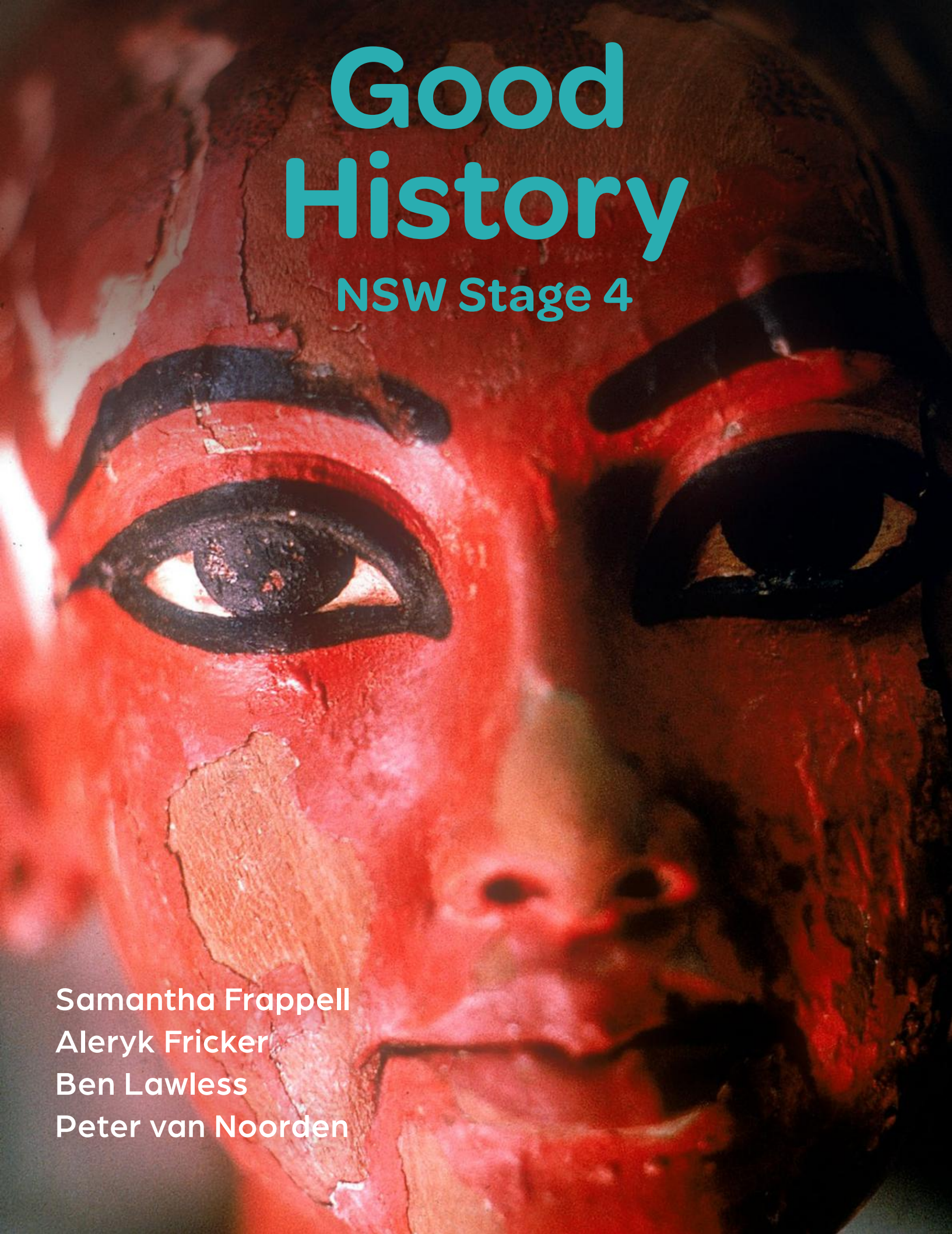

Good History

NSW Stage 4

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Matilda Education Australia acknowledges the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples of this nation. We acknowledge the Traditional Custodians on whose unceded lands we conduct the business of our company. We pay our respects to Ancestors and Elders past, present and emerging. Matilda Education Australia is committed to honouring Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples' unique cultural and spiritual relationships to the land, waters and seas; and their rich contribution to society.

Good History

NSW Stage 4

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Acknowledgement of Country

We acknowledge the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples of this nation. We acknowledge the Traditional Custodians on whose unceded lands we have created this resource. We pay our respects to Ancestors and Elders past and present.

Note about language

Please note that we use the terms 'Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander' and 'First Nations' interchangeably. We acknowledge that there is no one term that is universally accepted and we use these terms with respect.

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Contents

Historical context 1 (core)

Investigating the ancient past

1

First Nations readers are advised that the following chapter contains images of deceased persons.

1.0

How can I investigate the ancient past?

Historians and **archaeologists** have their own sets of skills to analyse and understand societies in the past. Historical skills involve interpreting sources of evidence from the past, promoting debate and encouraging investigation.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
	Knowledge and understanding				

Source 1: Parts of a female skull and a headband discovered by archaeologists in Germany in 2017. The 3200-year-old blue glass beads in the headband were traced to ancient Mesopotamia. The discovery helps to prove that there was trade between Germany and Mesopotamia in the Bronze Age.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skills progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

1.1

Why does history matter?

History is the study of our past. It is easy in our busy modern world to forget that every invention, every country and every idea has a history, which is a long chain of events that lead to right now. Studying history helps us to understand our world.

Thinking like a historian

Historians specialise in the study of history. Historians conduct investigations by asking questions and analysing sources. Sources can be written evidence from the past, such as letters, inscriptions and books. Sources can also be artworks, photographs, tools, toys, clothing and stories passed down from one generation to the next. Sources can even be human remains.

After considering a range of sources, historians interpret the evidence, make judgements and communicate their conclusions.

As a history student, your goal is not to memorise facts or dates; your goal is to think like a historian.

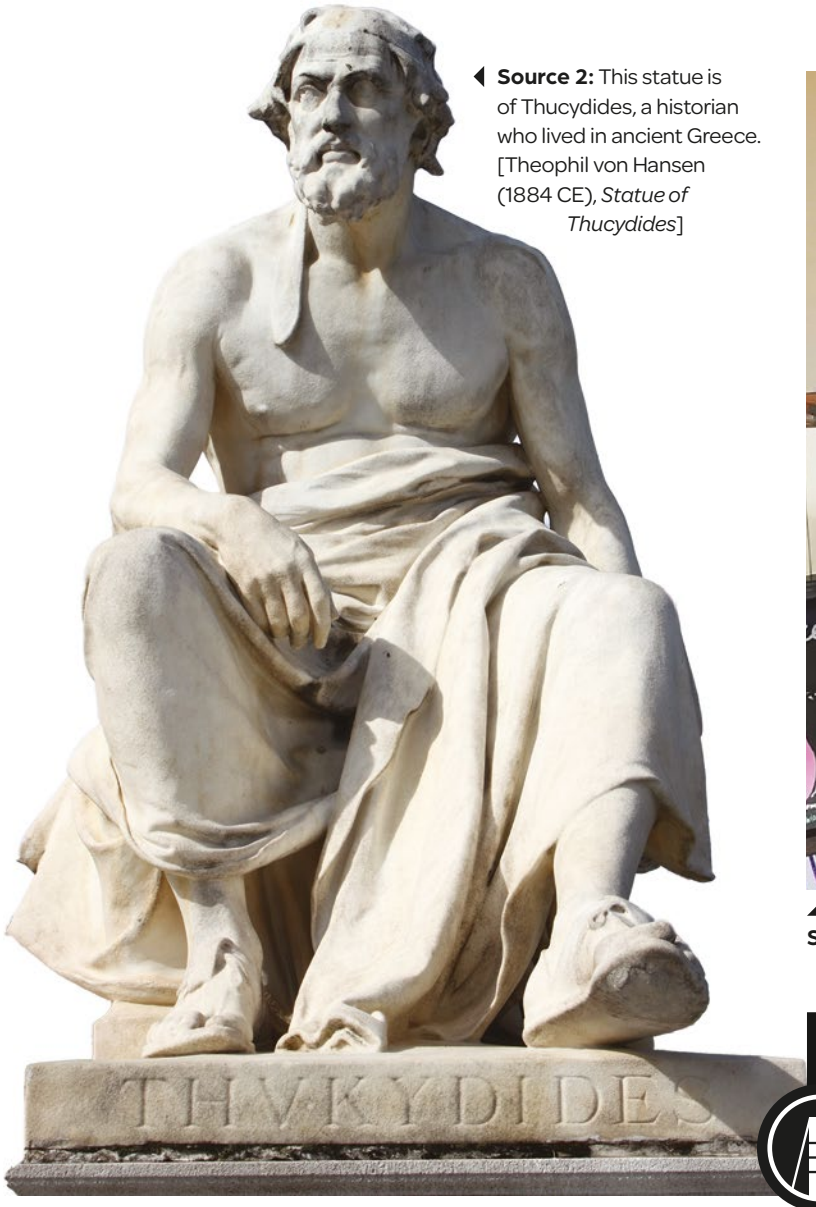
Three reasons why history matters

A historian's role has three parts: historians ask questions, examine sources and use evidence to answer questions or tell a story about the past.

1 Exploring history helps you to develop powerful skills

Many people think that history is just a set of facts about events that happened in the past. However, history is much more than facts. Studying history gives you access to a new set of skills. Think of these skills as your 'superpowers'. This year you will practise skills such as asking interesting questions, expressing opinions, thinking critically, processing information, analysing, researching and communicating. These skills will help you to succeed inside and outside your history classroom.

Source 1: Look closely at the tree in this photo. What can it tell you about events in the past? Think like a historian: Ask questions, examine sources and use evidence. Ask yourself, 'Why did humans remove a large panel of bark from this tree a long time ago? What might they have used it for?'



Source 2: This statue is of Thucydides, a historian who lived in ancient Greece. [Theophil von Hansen (1884 CE), *Statue of Thucydides*]

Source 3: Dr Clare Wright is a historian living in Australia today.

2 Exploring history is the closest you will get to time travel

Do you want to know how the Egyptian pyramids were built? Do you wonder why the Great Wall of China was constructed? Are you interested in gladiatorial battles? Do you want to know how democracy started? Have you ever wondered what Australia looked like 60 000 years ago? The study of history allows you to take a trip back in time to discover fascinating people and events, and to understand the *how* and *why* of our world.

3 Exploring history helps form your identity

Studying history can help us to understand ourselves better. Human history is a long story about everything that people have ever done. There is a lot to take in from this story. We can learn what we should and should not do, and we can also learn about who we are.

Learning ladder 1.1

Background and origins

1. Identify the role of a historian.
2. Describe the sources a historian might investigate.
3. Explain how studying history gives you new thinking skills.
4. Explain why history is important.

Source analysis

1. Sources 2 and 3: Identify these two historians.
2. Source 1: Describe the image in this source.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Explain how these sources demonstrate the value people place on studying history.
4. Source 2: This statue was created over 2300 years after Thucydides lived. What does that tell you about people living in 1884 CE?

HOW TO
Source analysis, page 475

1.2

How do historians measure time?

The concept of time means different things to different cultures. In some cultures, time is considered circular – meaning that events happen in a series of repeating cycles. In other cultures, the concept of time is linear and continually changes (from past, to present, to future).

Timelines

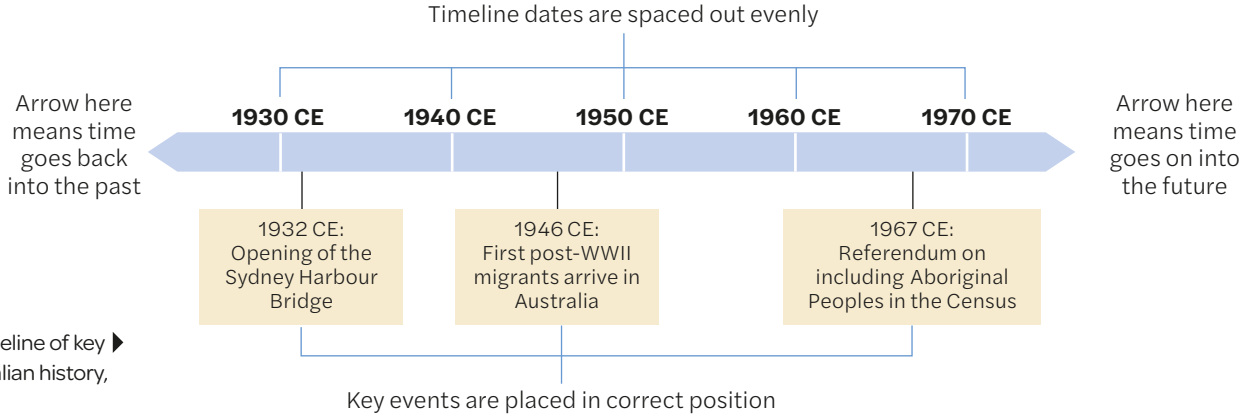
Historians often view time as linear. They use timelines to put historical events in order. This order is known as **chronological order**, from the Greek *kronos* (meaning time) and *logos* (meaning order).

Dating methods

All cultures that see time as linear have their own dating method. This dating method is usually based on an important event. For example, in Christian cultures, the birth of Jesus is the most important event in history. Therefore, Christians measure time from around the birth of Jesus. Events that happened before the birth of Jesus are identified as 'BC', meaning *before* the birth of *Christ,* while events that happened after the birth of Christ are identified as 'AD', which stands for *anno Domini* (a Latin phrase meaning 'in the year of our Lord').

In Japan, the emperor was believed to be a direct descendant of the goddess Amaterasu. Time, therefore, is measured in relation to the reign of an emperor. The current Emperor Naruhito's reign is known as Reiwa. Naruhito ascended the throne in 2019 or 'Reiwa 1'. So the year 2020 is called 'Reiwa 2' and so on.

Source 2: *The Nativity,* showing the birth of Jesus Christ. This image was created by Dunois Master in 1455 CE.



Source 1: A timeline of key events in Australian history, 1930–1970 CE

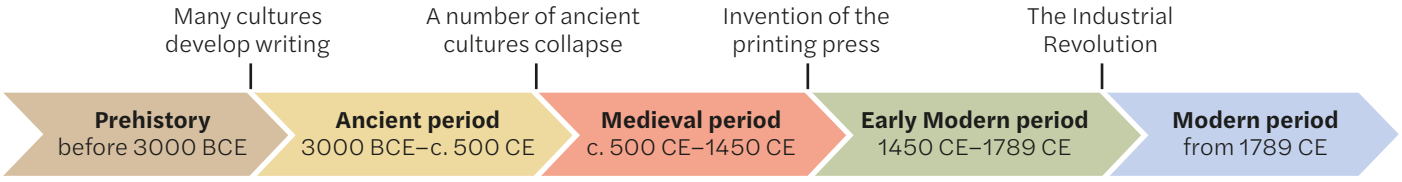
In Muslim cultures, time is measured from the year Muhammad left Mecca and went to Medina (a journey known as 'the hijrah'). This occurred in the year 622, which is called 1 AH, meaning *anno Hegirae* (translated as 'in the year of the Hijrah').

Since different cultures use different dating methods, the world has adopted a common dating term: 'CE' for '**Common Era**' and 'BCE' for '**Before Common Era**'. As a reference point, CE is the same as AD and BCE is the same as BC. We will use 'CE' and 'BCE' throughout this text.

Periods

Historians who see time as linear also use periodisation. They break time up into distinct periods. These periods are known as **Prehistory**, Ancient, Medieval, Early Modern and Modern. The start of a new period is determined by a key event that causes dramatic changes to society.

▲ **Source 3:** Emperor Meiji (reigned 1867–1912 CE) shown with a range of other emperors. The background features important Japanese gods (*kami*), including the goddess Amaterasu. This painting was created by Toyohara Chikanobu in 1878 CE.



▲ **Source 4:** Diagram showing the five main historical periods

Learning ladder 1.2

Background and origins

1. Source 1: List the key events shown on the timeline.
2. Describe the term 'chronology'.
3. Source 1: Explain how:
   - **a** the timeline dates are spaced on the timeline
   - **b** the key events are included on the timeline.
4. Source 1: Explain why there are arrows at each end of the timeline.
5. Create a timeline of key events in your life from your year of birth to the year you started high school. You might like to include events such as the year you started primary school, the year a brother or sister was born, or the year you moved house.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 477

Continuity and change

1. **a** Sources 2 and 3: Identify the key events that form the basis of the Christian and Japanese dating systems.
   - **b** Calculate the current year in CE, AD and AH.
   - **c** Sources 2, 3 and 4: In which periods were Source 2 and Source 3 created?
2. Source 4: Describe the way historians have broken up history into time periods.
3. Source 4: Explain how historians have determined when one period ends and another begins.
4. Source 4: Explain why periodisation is an example of historical continuity and change.
5. How do the constructions of circular time and linear time demonstrate the concept of continuity and change?

1.3

How did humans develop?

The universe is approximately 13.8 billion years old. Earth came into being about 4.5 billion years ago and life first emerged on our planet around 3.6 billion years ago. It would be another 3 billion years before primates appeared and a further 59 million years before humans evolved.

Evolution of *homo sapiens*

About 300 000 years ago, the species we belong to, ***homo sapiens***, evolved from earlier primate ancestors in Africa (see Source 2). *Homo sapiens* means 'wise human' in Latin.

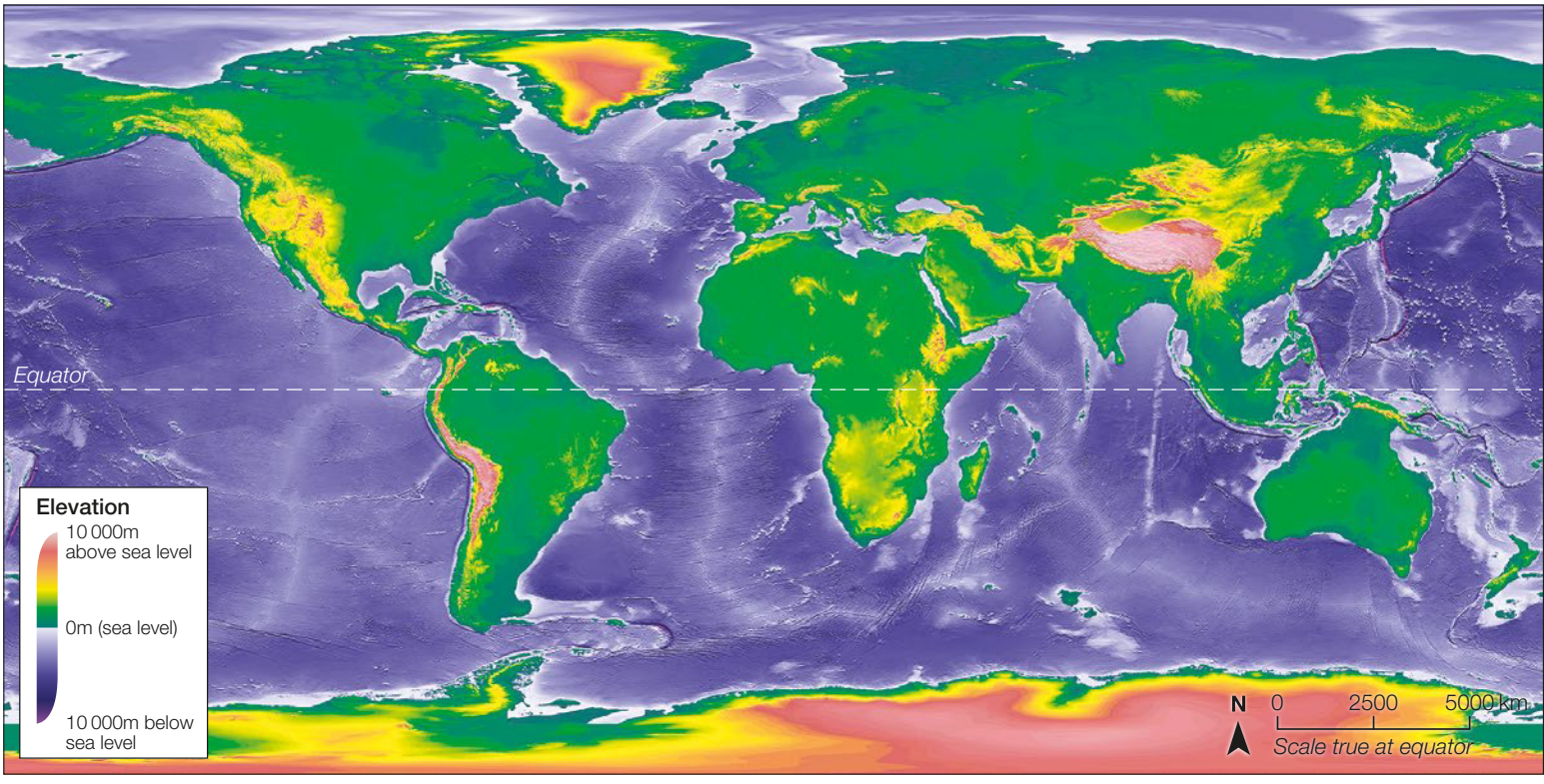
Migration of *homo sapiens*

Around 70 000 years ago, *homo sapiens* started migrating out of Africa to all the major landmasses of the Earth (see Source 3). This happened in a few different waves: humans first travelled to the Middle East, then India, Asia and Australia, then to Europe and the Americas.

We do not know why our distant **ancestors** left Africa. Some scientists have suggested that humans left because there were too many people in the area, or because they were looking for food and resources.

The migration of early *homo sapiens* was possible because they lived during the period known as the **Ice Age** (the Pleistocene epoch: c. 2.5 million years ago to c. 12 000 years ago). During the Ice Age, much of Earth's water was frozen at the northern and southern tips of the planet, which meant the seas were more than 100 metres lower than they are today. Consequently, land masses that are today separated by water were connected (see Source 1). When the Ice Age ended, the water melted and the seas rose to their current levels.

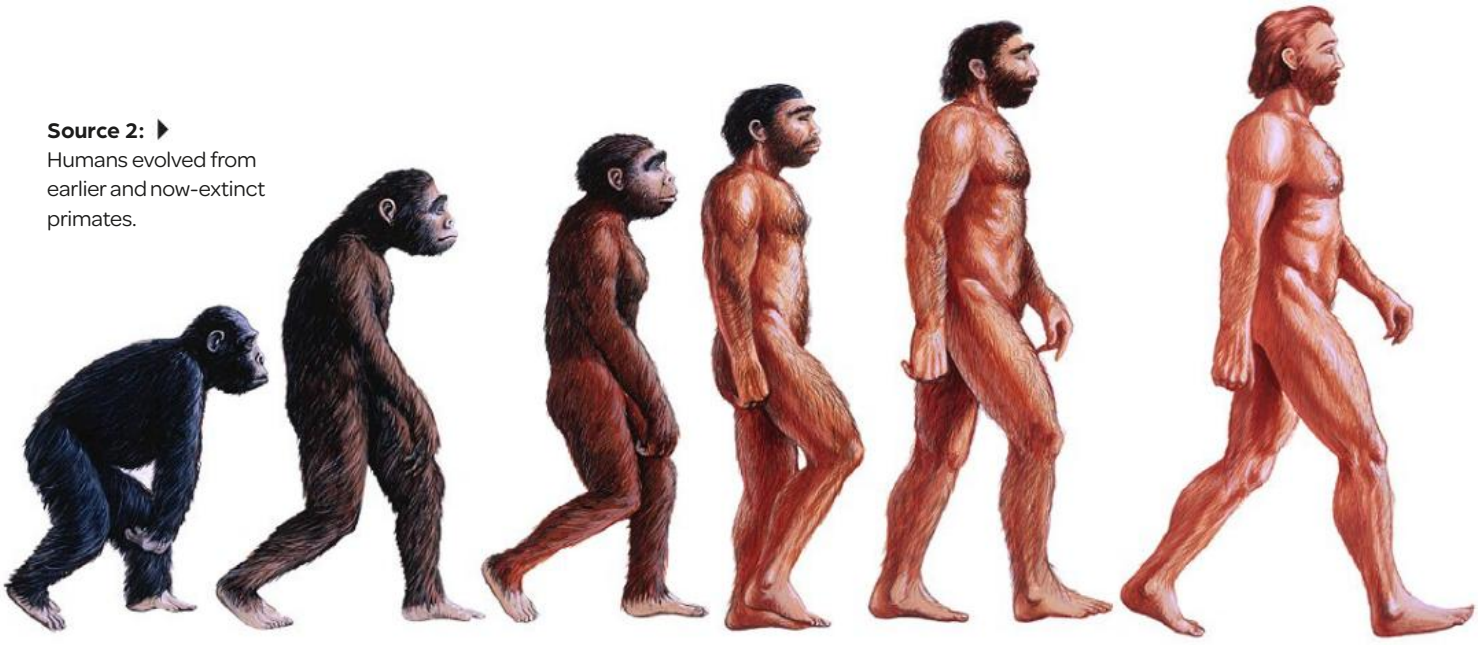
The world during the Ice Age



Source: NOAA

▲ **Source 1:** During the Ice Age, sea levels were much lower and land bridges joined the Australian mainland to Tasmania and Papua New Guinea.

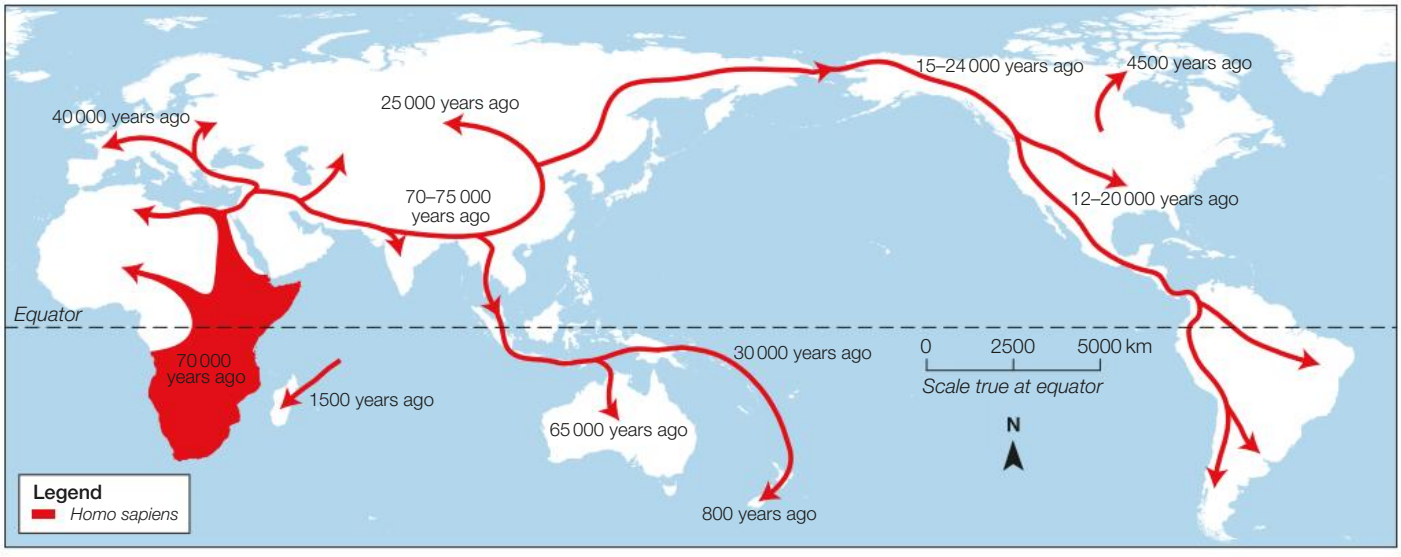
Source 2: ▶
Humans evolved from earlier and now-extinct primates.



Carbon dating of tools and jewellery found at archaeological sites – as well as DNA analysis of human remains – has enabled scientists to pinpoint the time when humans first reached Australia, the Americas, Asia, Europe and the Pacific region. For example, artefacts uncovered in Kakadu in Australia in 2018 CE led archaeologists to conclude that First Nations Peoples have lived in Australia for around 65 000 years.

Source 3: Hunting tools and equipment found in a cave shelter ▶ in West Arnhem land in the Northern Territory

The migration of *homo sapiens* from Africa to all the world's major landmasses



Source: NordNordWest

▲ **Source 4:** Early human migration patterns

Early human societies

The early human societies were established in the valleys of major rivers. These rivers provided an abundant, constant supply of fresh water and fertile soil. Rivers also allowed people to travel easily, and the physical barrier of the water helped to protect territory from invaders.

The Tigris and Euphrates Rivers

Humans started to settle in Mesopotamia around 10 000 BCE. Mesopotamia was situated in the fertile valleys between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers (modern-day Iraq, Kuwait, Türkiye and Syria). These rivers flooded unpredictably and violently. The world's first complex society was founded in Sumer, in southern Mesopotamia in c. 5500 BCE.

The Nile River

In about 6000 BCE in northern Africa, groups of hunter-gatherers began settling along the Nile River and growing crops. This river allowed people to easily travel the long distances between the separate kingdoms in the Upper and Lower Nile. These kingdoms were unified by about 3150 BCE, which led to the development of an Egyptian society.

The Indus River

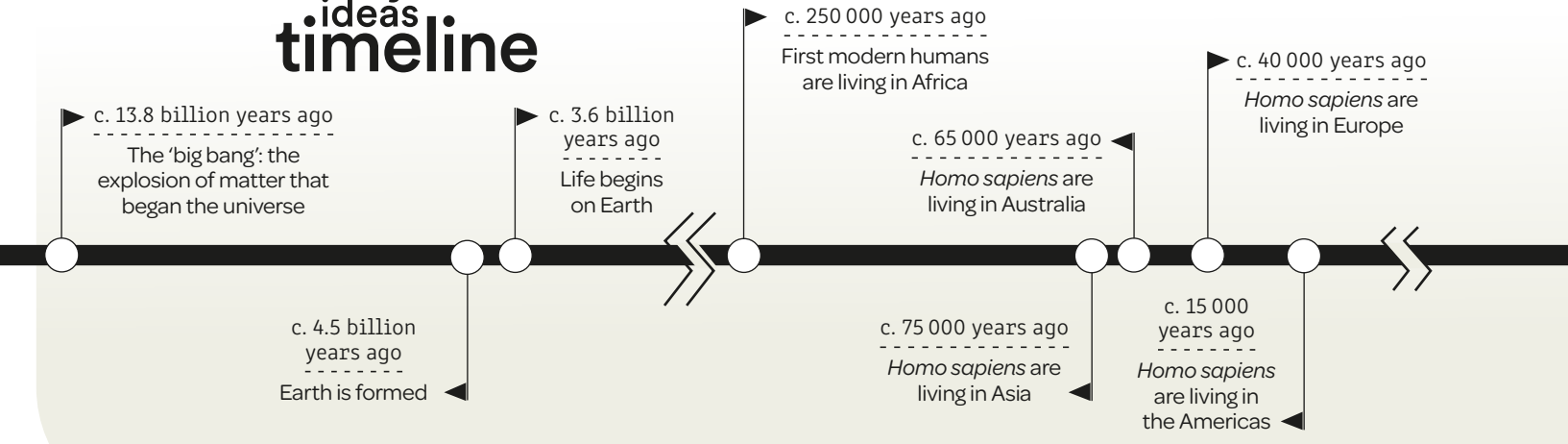
Another society developed along the Indus River, in modern-day north-west India and Pakistan. There is evidence of farming in this area from around 4000 BCE. By about 2600 BCE, many towns and cities had been established. The Indus River society was at its peak from about 2500 BCE to 2000 BCE.

A modern-day world map showing the rivers along which early societies were located

Source 5: A timeline from the beginning of the universe to the end of the ancient world. Historians use 'c.', meaning 'circa' or 'about', when they don't have an exact date.

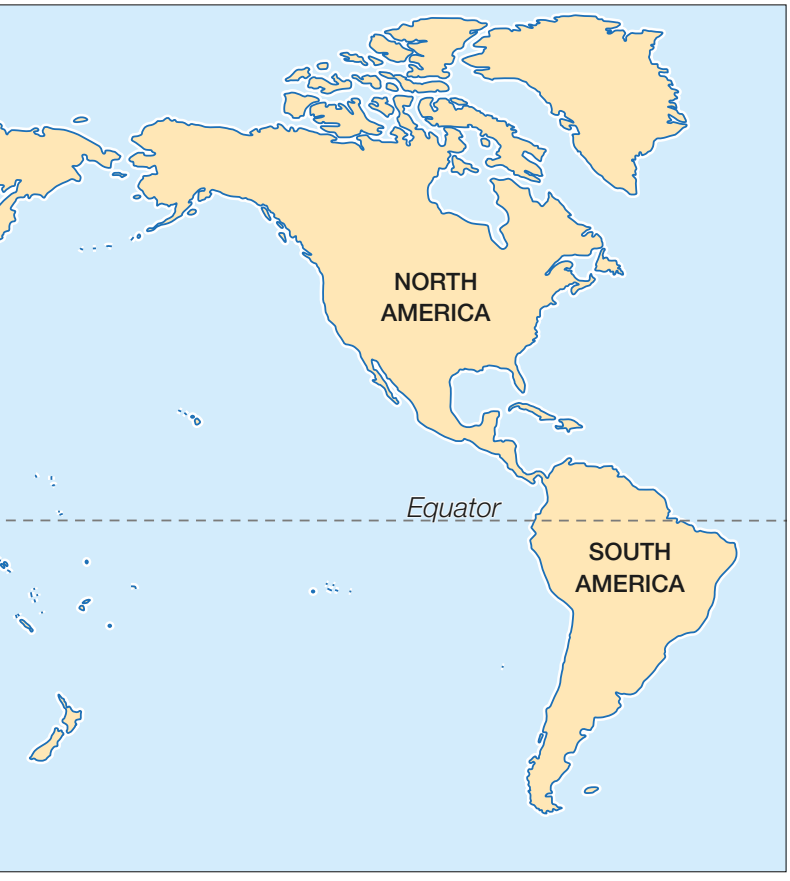
Source 6: Sites of early societies

Key ideas timeline



The Yellow River (Huang He)

The Yellow River is considered to be the cradle of Chinese culture. Some archaeologists suggest the area was settled by 9500 BCE. By about 2500 BCE, tribes had united to solve common problems such as flooding and irrigation.



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Learning ladder 1.3

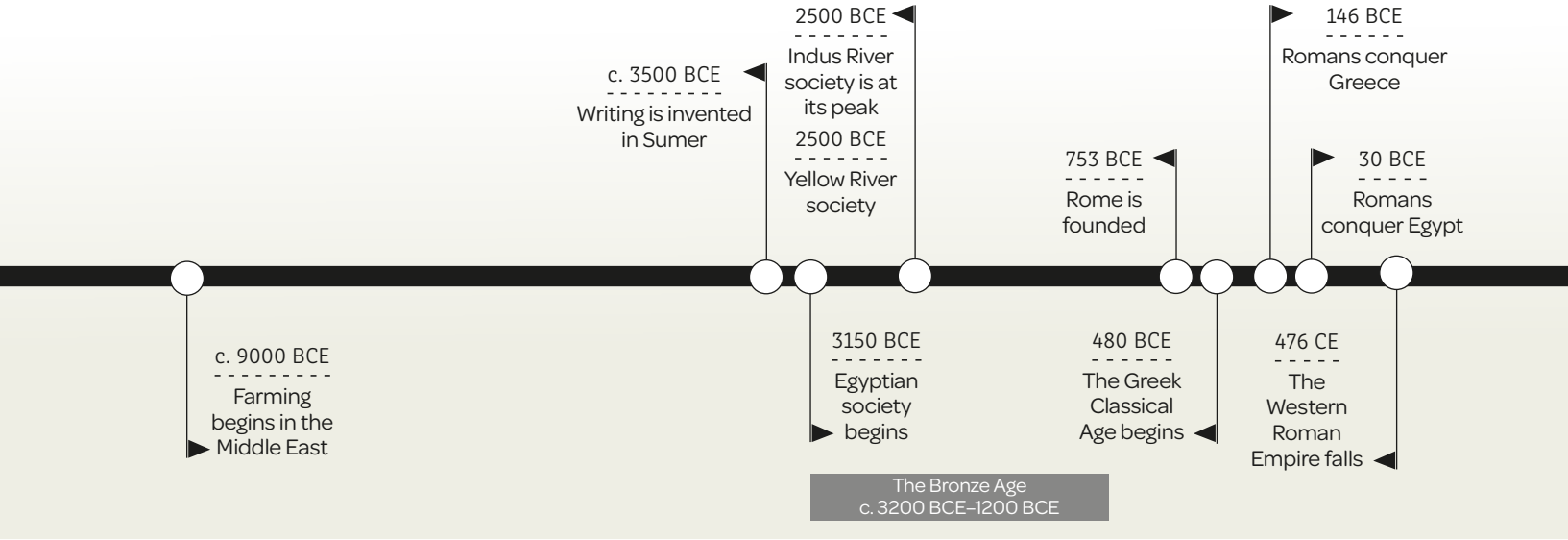
Background and origins

1. Source 6: Identify the locations of the river societies.
2. Source 2: Describe the physical changes you can see as humans evolved.
3. Source 4: Using the source, explain how humans travelled from Africa to Australia.
4. Sources 1 and 3: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain why historians know when humans reached Australia.
5. Evaluate the benefits and disadvantages of settling near river systems for humans.

Chronology

1. When did humans first exist on Earth?
2. Place these events into chronological order, from the oldest to the most recent:
   - 70 000 years ago: humans reach India
   - 40 000 years ago: humans reach Europe
   - 20 000 years ago: humans reach North America
   - 45 000 years ago: humans reach China
   - 65 000 years ago: humans reach Australia.
3. Create a timeline using the dates from Question 2.
4. Source 5: Explain how the timeline demonstrates the concept of change.

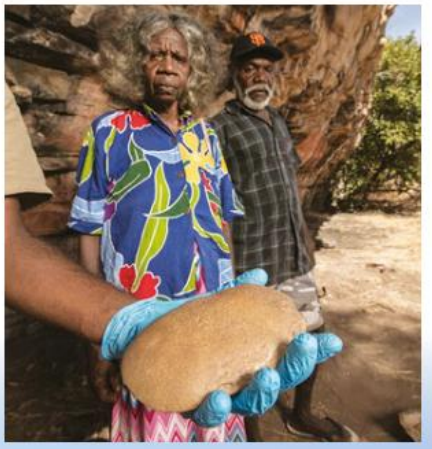
HOW TO Chronology, page 472



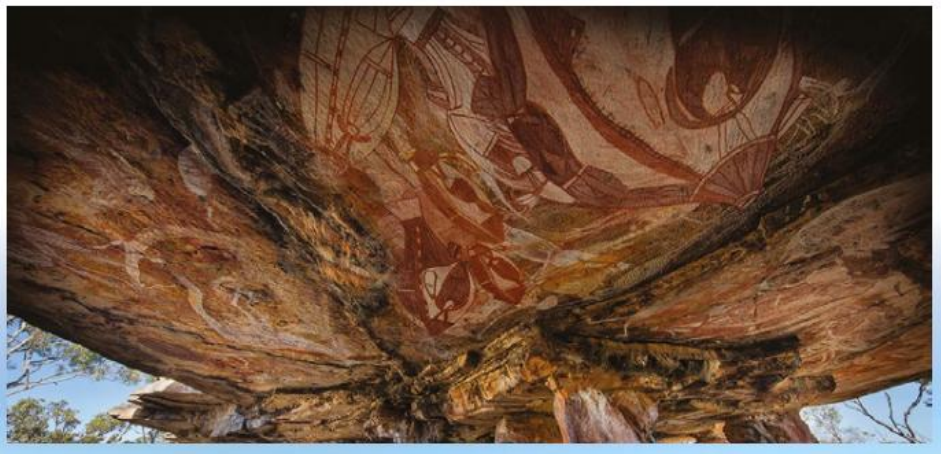
What evidence do we have of humans in ancient Australia?

Artefacts, visual sources, oral histories and human remains show that humans have been living in Australia for 65 000 years.

Source 1: An excavation by archaeologists at the Warratyi rock shelter in the Flinders Ranges in South Australia found a bone from a diprotodon. This suggests humans were hunting and eating **megafauna** (giant animals) about 49 000 years ago. The megafauna became extinct as a result of climate change during the Ice Age.



Source 2: An axe-grinding stone found in Kakadu National Park in the Northern Territory in 2017 CE is the oldest found artefact confirming the occupation of Australia 65 000 years ago. The tool-making technology developed by early Australians was the most advanced in the world.



Source 4: A drawing found at Nawarla Gabarnmang in the Northern Territory is Australia's oldest known visual source evidence of First Nations Peoples; it is thought to have been painted 28 000 years ago. Rock art gives us clues about the everyday lives and beliefs of the first Australians.

Source 3: The discovery of Australia's oldest human remains at Lake Mungo in New South Wales, along with other artefacts, has provided evidence about Australia's ancient past and how people lived. Mungo Man is thought to have died 43 000 years ago.

Source 5: The Kulin Tanderrum (ceremony) is the annual meeting of the five clans of the Kulin Nations: Wurundjeri, Boon Wurrung, Taungurung, Dja Dja Wurrung and Wadawurrung. Through ceremonies, stories and art, First Nations Peoples connect to the Dreaming and to the ancestral spirits that created the world.

Source 6: The Torres Strait Islands formed when the land bridge between Australia and Papua New Guinea was submerged at the end of the Ice Age, 8000 years ago. First Nations Peoples' oral histories from all around the Australian coastline provide evidence of their experience of the rising sea levels at the end of the Ice Age. These stories have been passed down for generations over thousands of years.

Learning ladder 1.4

Background and origins

1. Identify four sources of evidence for the presence of humans in ancient Australia.
2. Source 4: Describe the source shown in this image.
3. Source 6: Explain how First Nations Peoples' oral histories are valuable to historians.
4. Sources 1–6: Explain why these sources prove continued First Nations Peoples' occupation of Australia from 65 000 years ago.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify the cause of the megafauna extinction.
2. Source 3: Describe an effect of the discovery at Lake Mungo.
3. Sources 1 and 6: Explain the effect of the Ice Age on ancient Australia.
4. Source 5: Explain why the Kulin Tanderrum is held every year.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

How do we know the age of an ancient artefact?

Archaeologists often work with historians. They study human societies by finding and analysing artefacts. Artefacts are objects made by humans in the past. Archaeologists use different methods to establish the ages of artefacts and sites.

Working out the exact age of an object is easy if the date is marked on the item, which is often the case with coins and inscriptions. However, for many objects, archaeologists need to use relative and absolute dating methods to establish the age of an item.

Relative dating

Relative dating establishes whether an artefact is older or younger than other artefacts that have been found. Archaeologists use **stratigraphy** to date artefacts. Different artefacts are found in different **strata** (or layers) of rock and soil. By dating a stratum (a layer), archaeologists can assume that the artefacts found in that stratum are the same age.

However, using stratigraphy to date artefacts can sometimes be unreliable, as the movement of earth over time can mean that objects move to layers in which they were not originally located.

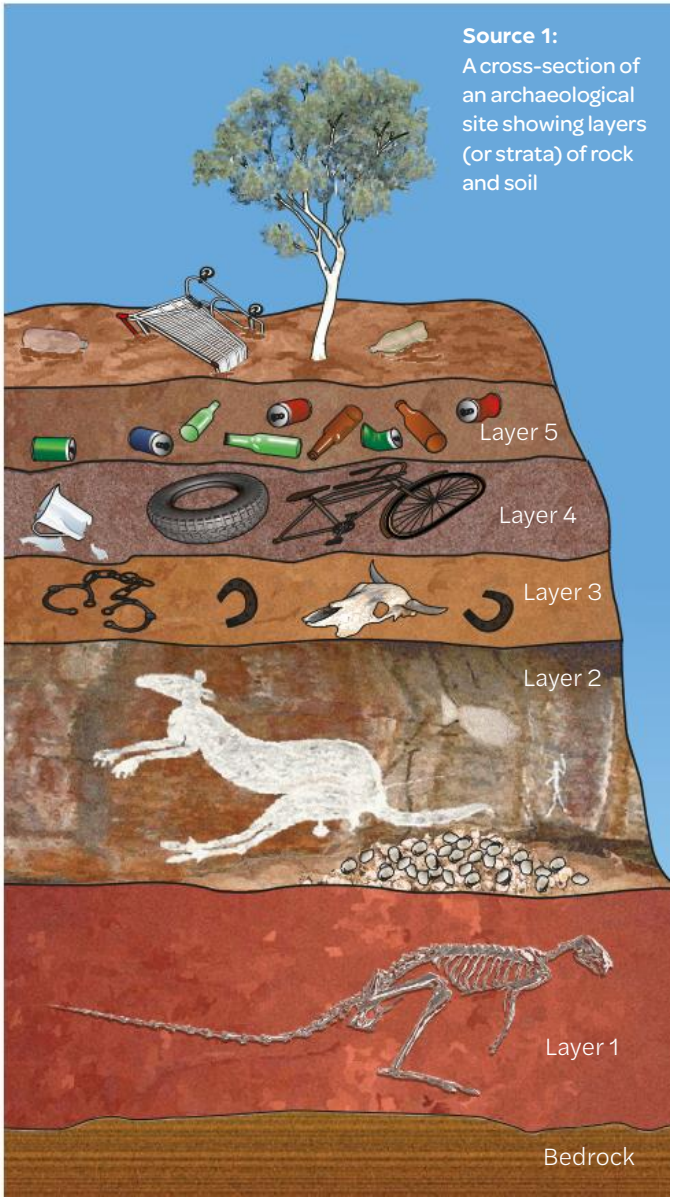
Another form of relative dating relies on the principles of **typology**. This is where artefacts are put into chronological order (organised from the oldest to the most recent object) based on features such as decoration, construction material and shape.

Absolute dating

Absolute dating methods measure the physical properties of an object and use these measurements to calculate its age.

One absolute dating method is **radiocarbon dating** (also known as carbon dating). This method is used to date organic matter (that is, something that once lived, such as animals and plants). From the moment an animal or a plant dies, the amount of carbon-14 (a radioactive form of carbon) in the plant or animal starts to decrease at a constant rate. By measuring the amount of carbon left in an organic object, archaeologists can estimate when an animal or plant lived.

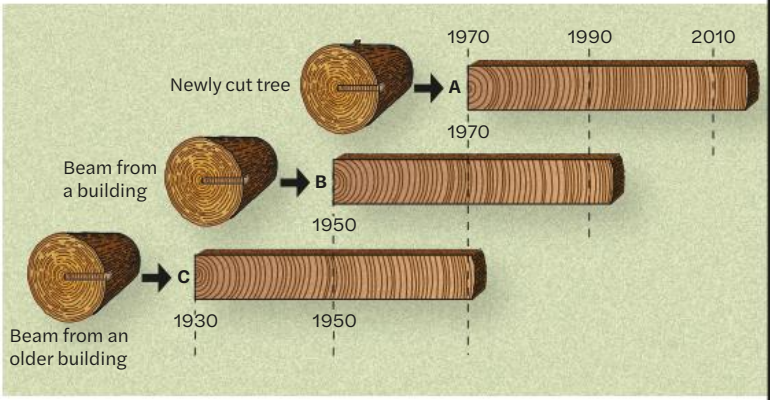
Radiocarbon dating has helped to confirm that First Nations Peoples have inhabited Australia for 65 000 years, changing earlier misunderstandings that Aboriginal Peoples had been in Australia for 20 000 years.



Source 1: A cross-section of an archaeological site showing layers (or strata) of rock and soil

Source 2: Wandjina Rock Art, Mowanjum Country, the Kimberley, Western Australia, c. 40 000 BCE

Although rock art does not contain any organic matter, archaeologists have been able to use radiocarbon dating to determine its age by analysing fossilised wasp nests that had formed on the rock art thousands of years ago. By dating the wasp nests found on the rock art, scientists have then been able to determine the age of the rock art.



Source 3: Dendrochronology is an absolute dating method that is used to date wood by examining the rings in the timber. Each year, trees grow a new outer layer of bark and add a 'ring' to the trunk. Archaeologists have developed 'master' sequences of rings that go back thousands of years for different geographic regions, with which samples from wooden artefacts can be compared.

Learning ladder 1.5

Background and origins

1. Source 1:
   - **a** Identify how many layers are shown in the diagram.
   - **b** Which layer is the most recent?
2. Describe the objects that radiocarbon dating can be used to date.
3. Explain how typology is used to date objects.
4. Explain why stratigraphy may sometimes be an unreliable dating method.

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify the changes in transportation revealed in Layer 3 and Layer 4.
2. Describe how archaeological dating methods have changed.
3. Source 2: Explain how radiocarbon dating has changed earlier understandings of First Nations Peoples' occupation of Australia.
4. Source 3: Explain why dendochronology demonstrates the concepts of continuity and change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

How do we know about the ancient past?

Ancient societies left behind all kinds of evidence in sources, including human remains, visual sources, artefacts, oral history and written accounts. This evidence tells historians and archaeologists how ancient people lived and even what they thought.

Human remains

The physical remains of modern humans can give us lots of useful information. By carbon dating the bones, we can tell roughly how old a skeleton is. Archaeologists can also figure out how old the person was when they died by examining their teeth. Occasionally, we can tell how someone died, with damage to the bones indicating a violent death. We can even use human remains to determine what diseases a person suffered, where they lived and what they ate.

Visual sources

Visual sources from the ancient period include paintings, etchings and **bas-relief** sculptures. These sources depict scenes from everyday life, images of important people and religious scenes. We can use them to learn about what people wore, how they worked, what food they ate, what they believed and what they thought was important.

Source 2: *Ploughing the Fields,* a scene from the Tomb of Sennedjem, Deir el-Medina, Egypt, c. 1200 BCE. Sennedjem was an Egyptian official and royal tomb builder. He may have painted this image himself for his own tomb.

Source 1: This skeleton was found in Germany in 2016 CE. This person was a high-status woman who was buried with elaborate bronze jewellery. The skeleton is dated to c. 2000 BCE. Historians use 'c.', meaning circa, when they only have an approximate date.

Artefacts

An artefact is any object made by humans. During the ancient period, people created many artefacts, including weapons such as arrowheads, axes, spear points and spearthrowers. Archaeologists have found beautiful jewellery made of bronze, silver and gold, and beads made from coral or precious stones. They have also found everyday household objects, such as eating utensils, toys, cooking pots and combs.

Source 3: This oil lamp with servant girl decoration (173 BCE), made from bronze and gilded with gold, was found in the tomb of Princess Dou Wan (c. 180 BCE–c. 110 BCE), Han dynasty. The creator is unknown.

Oral history

Another important historical source is oral history, or stories that are passed down from one generation to the next. The epic Greek poems the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey', written down by Homer during the 8th century BCE, are based on much older ancient Greek story-telling traditions about an ancient war, popularly known as the Trojan War. While historians and archaeologists cannot find any evidence that the Trojan War actually happened, in 1868 CE, archaeologists found the ancient city of Troy in Hisarlik, Türkiye.

Fight for your country – that is the best, the only omen!
You, why are you so afraid of war and slaughter?
Even if all the rest of us drop and die around you,
grappling for the ships, you'd run no risk of death:
you lack the heart to last it out in combat – coward!
But if you hold back from the bloody foray here
or turn some other soldier back from battle,
winning him over – you with your soft appeals –
at one quick stroke my spear will beat you down,
you'll breathe your last!

Source 4: The 'Iliad', Book 12, presumed to have been written down by the ancient Greek poet Homer, c. 750 BCE

Written accounts

In some ancient societies, people developed writing because they needed to record agricultural produce and trade activity. Archaeologists believe that writing first appeared in Mesopotamia in 3500 BCE. By 3000 BCE, the people of Sumer in southern Mesopotamia were using triangular-shaped writing tools to press symbols into soft clay to record numbers. These pictures were eventually simplified as symbols that represented language sounds. People in other societies also began writing shortly after the Mesopotamians. In the valley of the Indus River (in modern-day Pakistan and north India), Harappan script appeared around 3300 BCE. Hieroglyphs emerged in Egypt c. 3200 BCE.

Source 5: Clay tablets were used to record agricultural produce in Mesopotamia, c. 3100 – 2900 BCE.

After becoming Emperor, he would rise early, before daylight even, to deal with his private letters and official reports.

Source 6: Excerpt from a history book called *The Twelve Caesars* (119 CE) by Suetonius, an ancient Roman historian. In this excerpt, he writes about the morning routine of the ancient Roman Emperor Vespasian.

Learning ladder 1.6

Background and origins

1. Identify the five types of sources.
2. Describe modern examples of visual, artefact and written sources.
3. Explain how visual sources can help us to understand the past.
4. Explain why some human societies developed writing.
5. Sources 1–4: Which of these do you think would be the most useful for a historian? Explain your reasoning.

Source analysis

1. Sources 2 and 3: Identify the origin of each source:
   - **a** Who is the creator of the source?
   - **b** When was the source made?
   - **c** What type of source is it – visual, artefact or written?
2. Source 3: Describe the source.
3. Sources 2 and 6: Explain what useful information each source provides.
4. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain what the study of human remains can tell historians.
5. Source 4: Historians have found little evidence of the Trojan War, but believe that it may refer to one or more ancient wars fought during the 3000–2000s BCE. Why is this source still useful?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

Who are the historians?

In some societies, the ancient period saw the beginning of written historical accounts and the emergence of 'historians'. Historians of the ancient period not only wrote to record the events of the past but also wanted to entertain their readers and to show the role the gods played in human societies.

Herodotus

Herodotus was an ancient Greek historian and lived c. 484–425 BCE. He is believed to have been the first person to write down historical events in an orderly fashion and is therefore known as the 'father of history' in Europe. Herodotus mainly wrote about the kings of ancient Greece and the battles in which they engaged. He travelled around the Mediterranean world, conducting interviews and researching stories for his histories. He wrote history to preserve the past, amuse readers and demonstrate that, throughout Greek history, the gods often intervened.

Pamphile of Epidaurus

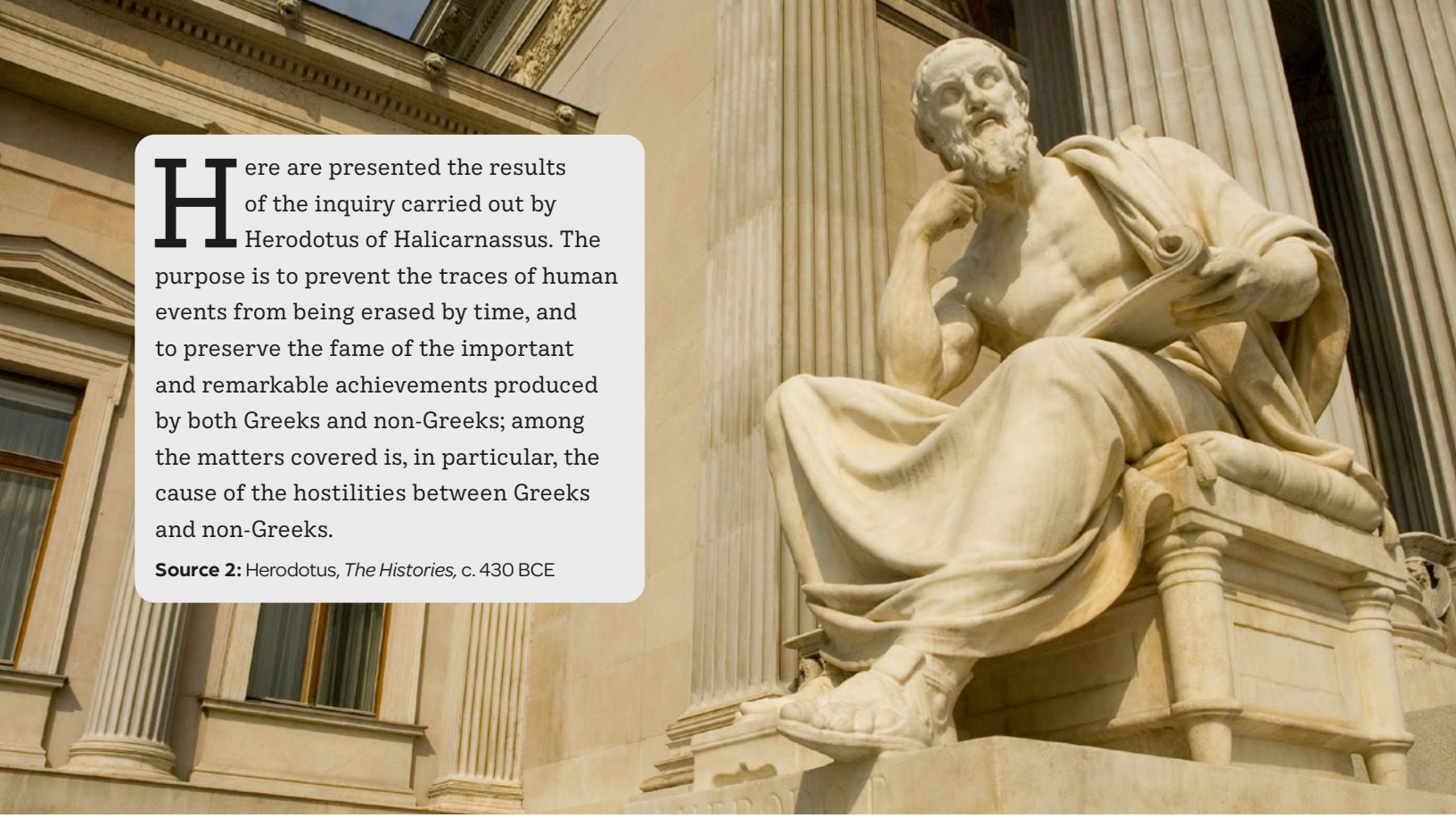
Pamphile of Epidaurus was a historian who was born in c. 25 CE. She lived in Greece, which was then under the control of the Roman Empire. Pamphile is best known for her book, *Historical Commentaries* (c. 60 CE), a collection of 33 history texts. Much of this book has been lost, but we know about its existence from the many references to it in the works of other ancient historians.

Pamphile may also be the author of *Treatise on Women Famous in War* (c. 60 CE), which is a book of biographies of famous women from the ancient Roman period. Pamphile worked constantly on her history writing, and diligently recorded whatever she learned from those around her and from what she read in books. Pamphile pioneered the 'miscellaneous history' form, which consisted of retelling interesting anecdotes from the past. This style of history writing became popular in ancient Rome during the 2nd and 3rd centuries CE.

Source 1: Image of Ban Zhao, from Joseph Amiot (1778 CE), *Memories Concerning the History, Science, Arts and Customs of the Chinese*

Sima Qian

Sima Qian is known as the 'father of history' in China. He was the author of *Records of the Grand Historian* (c. 109–91 BCE) and was the official historian for the Han court in China. His book was the first to cover the 2500-year period of Chinese history from the time of the legendary Yellow Emperor to the reign of Emperor Wu of Han. It is the best and sometimes only source for a long period of Chinese history.



> Here are presented the results of the inquiry carried out by Herodotus of Halicarnassus. The purpose is to prevent the traces of human events from being erased by time, and to preserve the fame of the important and remarkable achievements produced by both Greeks and non-Greeks; among the matters covered is, in particular, the cause of the hostilities between Greeks and non-Greeks.
>
> **Source 2:** Herodotus, *The Histories,* c. 430 BCE

Source 3: Statue of Herodotus, Austrian Parliament building, Vienna

Sima's book broke new ground. It not only included histories of the emperors but also referred to the lives of other individuals, such as foreigners, poets, jesters and assassins. In addition, Sima Qian conducted extensive research and composed his history by reading court documents and memorials, interviewing eyewitnesses, visiting places where historical events had happened and reading documents from regions outside of China.

As court historian, Sima Qian was obliged to write a history that pleased the Han emperor and justified his right to rule. Any criticism of the Han emperor would result in severe punishment. Indeed, Sima Qian almost lost his life after he defended the actions of a Han military leader, Li Ling, who had led an unsuccessful campaign in 99 BCE.

Ban Zhao

Ban Zhao was an ancient Chinese historian. She was born in China in c. 45 CE and was highly educated, with expertise in mathematics, astronomy, poetry and history. She wrote *Lessons for Women* in 80 CE and also completed her brother Ban Gu's work on the history of the Han Empire, *The Book of Han* (111 CE). Ban Zhao's purpose in writing her history was to demonstrate the superior rule of the Han dynasty (209 BCE–220 CE) in China. *The Book of Han* was heavily influenced by Sima Qian's *Records of the Grand Historian* and was the first to cover a single Chinese dynasty. It is widely recognised as the best source for the Han period.

Learning ladder 1.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify four early historians.
2. Source 1: Describe the work of Ban Zhao.
3. Explain how Herodotus conducted research for his histories.
4. Explain why Pamphile is not as well-known as Herodotus.
5. How accurate are the histories of Herodotus and Sima Qian?

Significance

1. Identify the 'father of history' in China.
2. Describe the significance of Pamphile's work.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how Herodotus's work is significant.
4. Explain why *Records of the Grand Historian* is a significant work.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

1.8

How did citizenship develop in the ancient period?

The idea of citizenship began in the ancient period. Its meaning, however, was very different from how we view citizenship today.

What is citizenship?

In Australia today, a person who is a citizen is considered a member of the nation. Any person born in Australia, regardless of sex or race, is automatically a citizen, as long as they have at least one parent who is a citizen or permanent resident of Australia. Other people need to apply to the Australian Government to become citizens. Australian citizens can vote in elections, seek election to parliament and have protection under Australian law.

Citizenship in ancient Greece

In the late sixth century BCE, the ancient Greek city-state of Athens established the world's first democracy. In this system of government certain people, known as citizens, played a role in how the city-state was governed. A person was considered a citizen if they had one parent who was a citizen.

From 451 BCE, however, the idea of citizenship changed. Pericles, an ancient Greek politician, introduced a new law which stated that a person was not considered a citizen unless both their parents were citizens. It is believed that Pericles's Citizenship Law (451 BCE) was introduced to limit the number of people who could claim the privileges of citizenship at a time when Athens was enjoying a period of great prosperity.

While both men and women could be considered Greek citizens, full citizenship rights were only really extended to wealthy men. When a boy turned 18 years old, he could attend the Assembly and vote on whether new laws should be passed. At 30, a man was eligible to serve on the Assembly for a year. During that year, he and others on the Assembly were responsible for proposing new laws. Although poor Greek men had voting rights and the right to serve in important government positions, in practice they were not able to serve. Only wealthy men who donated funds to public buildings or religious ceremonies were able to become influential enough to secure votes for public office.

Women were considered citizens, but were barred from holding public office and voting. They could, however, participate in public life through religious rituals if they were priestesses. Foreigners (known as metics) and slaves could not become citizens. They were not allowed to own property or participate in religious rituals. In addition, metic men had to serve in the army and pay a monthly tax.

Citizenship in ancient Rome

Roman citizenship was similar to the Greek model. All citizens were regarded as equal under the law, and wealthy male citizens played important roles in government. However, while poor Greek male citizens were not able to access government positions, poor Roman male citizens (known as plebeians) had access to a Plebeian Council where they could vote on laws that affected them directly. They could also serve as elected officials on the Plebeian Council.

Rome also offered a second-class form of citizenship to freed slaves. Freed slaves (known as freedmen) could not vote in the Roman Assembly, but they had the full protection of the law and could marry Roman citizens. In addition, the children of freedmen were able to become full citizens.

> … it was resolved, on the motion of Pericles, that no one should be admitted to the franchise [vote] who was not of citizen birth by both parents.

Source 1: Aristotle (c. 322 BC), *Athenian Constitution, Part 26*. Aristotle was an ancient Greek philosopher. Here he refers to Pericles, an ancient Greek politician, who had lived 100 years before.

Source 3: Painting of the ancient Greek politician Pericles making his famous Funeral Oration (431 BCE). In this speech, Pericles honoured those who had died in the first year of the Peloponnesian War and encouraged Greek citizens to defend democracy. [Phillipp von Foltz (1852 CE), *Pericles Gives the Funeral Speech*]

Another difference from ancient Greek citizenship was that, from 212 CE, Rome allowed people from its conquered territories to become Roman citizens. Although it may have just been a way to raise more taxes, the edict of Emperor Caracalla nonetheless extended full Roman citizenship to all subjects of the empire.

> The Emperor Caesar Marcus Aurelius Severus Antoninus Pius decrees:
>
> I ... give everyone in the Roman world the Roman citizenship: preserving customary law, without additional privileges. It is necessary for the masses not only to share in our burden, but also to be included in victory. This decree will spread the magnificence of the Roman people ... Referring to the taxes that exist at present, all are due to pay those ... as it is the law ...

Source 2: The Edict of Emperor Caracalla (212 CE). Caracalla was an emperor of Rome (198–217 CE).

Learning ladder 1.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify two rights enjoyed by Australian citizens.
2. Source 3: Describe the rights and responsibilities of ancient Greek citizens.
3. Explain how Roman citizenship was different from Greek citizenship.
4. Explain why poorer citizens had fewer rights than wealthier citizens.

Perspectives

1. Sources 1 and 2: Identify whose perspectives are shown in the sources.
2. Sources 1 and 2: Describe the roles of the people whose perspectives are shown in the sources.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Explain the perspective of each source on citizenship.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Explain why the ancient Greeks believed that citizenship should be for Greeks only but the ancient Romans (after 212 CE) believed it should be open to non-Romans living in the empire.
5. Evaluate the ancient Greek and ancient Roman perspectives on citizenship.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

1.9

How can we protect our heritage?

It is important that we conserve the remains of the past – including the artefacts and cultural sites of ancient societies, such as those of First Nations Peoples – as these are part of our heritage.

Our heritage

The stories, ideas, sites and objects that have been passed down to us are our heritage. Our heritage helps us to understand our place in a larger story, whether it be the story of our family, community, nation or world. By making places of exceptional natural or cultural value into National Heritage sites or World Heritage sites, we are trying to protect them for future generations.

Threats to ancient sites and artefacts

Ancient sites around the world are being damaged by pollution and tourism. The chemicals in polluted air eat away at buildings and monuments such as the carvings on the Athenian Parthenon in Greece and the face of the sphinx in Egypt. Ancient sites are also damaged by tourists; the trampling feet of large crowds causes significant erosion and, unfortunately, tourists have been known to graffiti ancient sites and to chip off pieces of buildings and monuments to take home as souvenirs.

Natural disasters, theft and conflict have also damaged and destroyed many ancient sites. In 1980 CE, a major earthquake in Italy severely damaged the ruins of the ancient city of Pompeii. In 2001 CE, two large statues of Buddha that were carved into the cliffs at Bamiyan in Afghanistan in the third and fourth centuries CE were destroyed with anti-aircraft guns. This was part of an attempt by the Taliban to erase any evidence of other religions from Afghanistan.

Source 1: The Parthenon is an ancient temple situated in the Acropolis in Athens, Greece. The Acropolis is a major tourist attraction, attracting more than 16 000 visitors every day. The Parthenon was originally constructed between 447 and 432 BCE. The Greek Government works hard to conserve this ancient cultural site, which is an important part of Greek heritage. In 2019 CE, a major project was started to reinstate up to 360 ancient stones and install 90 new pieces of marble.

Source 2: The relocation of the temples at Abu Simbel in Egypt, 1963 CE

Industry, such as the mining industry in Australia, is also responsible for the destruction of ancient sites. In 2020 CE, in order to expand an iron ore mine, a mining company blasted the Juukan Gorge in the Pilbara in Western Australia. A cave in this gorge was a sacred site for First Nations Peoples; it not only contained evidence of human occupation from 46 000 years ago but also provided a 4000-year-old genetic link to present-day First Nations Peoples.

Conserving sites and artefacts

Conserving the remains of the past is ongoing work. Archaeologists need to identify potential threats to sites and determine how each site can best be protected.

In 1960 CE, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) embarked on the conservation of the temples at Abu Simbel in Egypt. The temples had been constructed more than 3000 years ago by Pharaoh Ramses II and were in danger of being flooded. An international team worked to cut the temples into blocks and transport them to a new location where they were reassembled. The protection and conservation of the temples ensures that the shared heritage of the people of the world can be enjoyed and studied by future generations.

Learning ladder 1.9

Impacts and legacies

1. Identify four ways that ancient sites are threatened.
2. Source 1: Describe how the Acropolis is being restored.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the temples at Abu Simbel were relocated.
4. Explain why it is important to conserve the remains of the past.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify why the Greek Government wants to preserve the Acropolis.
2. Describe the cause of the destruction of Juukan Gorge.
3. Explain the reason for UNESCO's efforts to save the temples at Abu Simbel.
4. Explain the effect of the destruction of Juukan Gorge on the world's heritage.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

1.10

Who owns an artefact?

During the 19th and 20th centuries, many artefacts were stolen from countries by colonisers and invaders. Should these artefacts now be returned?

The removal of artefacts

Many societies have lost artefacts due to theft by invaders and colonisers. Some of these artefacts have been kept in private collections, while others have ended up in museums. Travellers and soldiers often helped themselves to artefacts as souvenirs. For example, in 1917, Australian soldiers took a Byzantine mosaic floor (622 CE) from Shellal, Palestine. It is now in the Australian War Memorial.

▲ **Source 1:** Shellal Floor (622 CE), on display in the Australian War Memorial

Colonisers took artefacts from the people they colonised. During the early years of the British colony in Sydney, the Gadigal people repeatedly complained to British authorities that their weapons, canoes and other belongings were being stolen from their campsites. Similarly, colonisers in the United States took the weapons, clothing and tools of Native Americans. Many of these objects were sold to collectors or taken to universities as exotic, 'primitive' objects to be studied.

Other artefacts were purchased or removed by archaeologists. British diplomat Lord Elgin purchased Greece's Parthenon marbles in 1816 CE from Greece's imperial rulers at the time, the Ottoman Empire. European archaeologists excavated and then removed the contents of tombs, temples and palaces throughout the Middle East and North Africa during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In 1904–1914 CE, German archaeologists removed the entire Ishtar Gate (569 BCE) from Babylon (now Iraq), brick by brick, and reassembled it in Germany.

Does it belong in a museum?

In many cases, the placement of artefacts in museums and private collections has ensured their study, preservation and survival. Some artefacts that are in museums today would not have survived intact, due to ongoing wars or environmental damage. Museums have been able to provide technology and expert knowledge to preserve and restore delicate objects. In addition, many museums are open free to the public, allowing everyone to access the artefacts and expand their understanding of other cultures.

The impact of the removal of artefacts

The theft of cultural objects has done enormous damage to societies around the world, especially those that suffered the destruction of their culture due to invasion and colonisation. The return of these objects is a moral issue – theft of other people's cultural artefacts is wrong. It is also an important cultural issue.

Source 2: The Parthenon Marbles on display at the British Museum

Source 3: Visitors admiring the Ishtar Gate at the Pergamon Museum, Berlin, 2018 CE

The British Museum tells the story of cultural achievement throughout the world, from the dawn of human history over two million years ago, until the present day. The Parthenon sculptures are a significant part of that story.

The Museum is a unique resource for the world: the breadth and depth of its collection allow a global public to examine cultural identities and explore the complex network of interconnected human cultures … The Parthenon sculptures are a vital element in this interconnected world collection. They're a part of the world's shared heritage …

Source 4: The British Museum (2024 CE), 'The position of the Trustees of the British Museum', British Museum website.

Many cultural artefacts hold religious significance or provide a link to ongoing cultural practices. In addition, artefacts can help restore culture that has been lost. First Nations Peoples, such as those from Australia, Canada, New Zealand and North America have been campaigning for the return of their stolen artefacts. Former colonised countries such as Iraq, Greece, India and Benin have also called for the return of artefacts from museums in Western Europe and North America. These artefacts hold great significance for the cultures in which they were created.

It's not just the items, it's the spirit attached … The people who once owned them, their spirit went with them … [The return of the items is] a very, very powerful event and it helps in the cultural revival that's going on.

Source 5: Murrandoo Yanner (2019 CE), Chairperson of the Gangalidda Garawa Native Title Aboriginal Corporation, quoted on the AIATSIS website page 'Return of Cultural Heritage'. Here he explains the importance of returning cultural artefacts.

Learning ladder 1.10

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the artefact shown in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe how this artefact arrived in Australia.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Explain how museums can be beneficial for artefacts.
4. Explain why people have taken artefacts from other cultures.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate over the ownership of artefacts.
2. Describe the different groups calling for the return of artefacts from European and North American museums.
3. Source 4: Explain how the British Museum justifies its ownership and display of artefacts from around the world.
4. Source 5: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the return of artefacts is important.
5. Evaluate the two positions on artefact ownership.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the introductory chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the ancient past. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of the ancient past. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice.

The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the ancient past in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- Early human migrations, pages 8, 9
- Ancient Mesopotamia, page 17
- Archaeological dating methods, page 14
- The role of UNESCO, page 23
- The return of First Nations Peoples' artefacts, page 25

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-To chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

Ancient Egypt

2

How can I understand ancient Egypt?

Ancient Egyptian ideas are all around us. We can see these ideas in mathematics, astronomy, science, medicine, in glorious monuments and in modern religions.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
Steps in knowledge progression					

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: This is a fragment of a wall painting showing Queen Ahmose-Nefertari; the painting is in the Tomb of Kynebu in Thebes, c. 1150 BCE.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skills progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What can we learn from ancient Egypt?

Located in northern Africa along the banks of the Nile River, ancient Egypt grew to become a powerful society. Ancient Egyptians were innovative: they developed systems of government, new ways to communicate, new building techniques and unique religious beliefs that drew from the natural world around them.

Ancient Egypt was one of the first ancient societies. It started around 3100 BCE and ended when the Romans defeated the Egyptian army in 30 BCE.

Ancient Egyptians built some of the largest monuments ever created by humans without modern technology. They were obsessed with death and with preparing for the **afterlife**. Indeed, the pyramids, including the Great Pyramid at Giza, were built as magnificent tombs for the rulers of ancient Egypt, known as pharaohs, to aid their journey to the afterlife.

Learning about a culture so different from our own gives us insights into human nature, and removes the limitations of our modern ways of thinking. If we want to learn from history, studying a civilisation that lasted for thousands of years, such as ancient Egypt, is essential.

Ancient Egypt in northern Africa

▲ **Source 2:** Ancient Egypt was located along the banks of the Nile River in the desert.

Source: Alamy and Peter Hermes Furian

Source 1: Ancient Egypt timeline

Key ideas timeline

c. 6000 BCE
Different groups of hunter-gathers start settling in the valley of the Nile River and growing crops

c. 3500 BCE
Papyrus sails are used on boats

c. 3200 BCE
Hieroglyphic script emerged

c. 3100 BCE
Menes unites Upper and Lower Egypt and establishes ancient Egypt's 1st dynasty

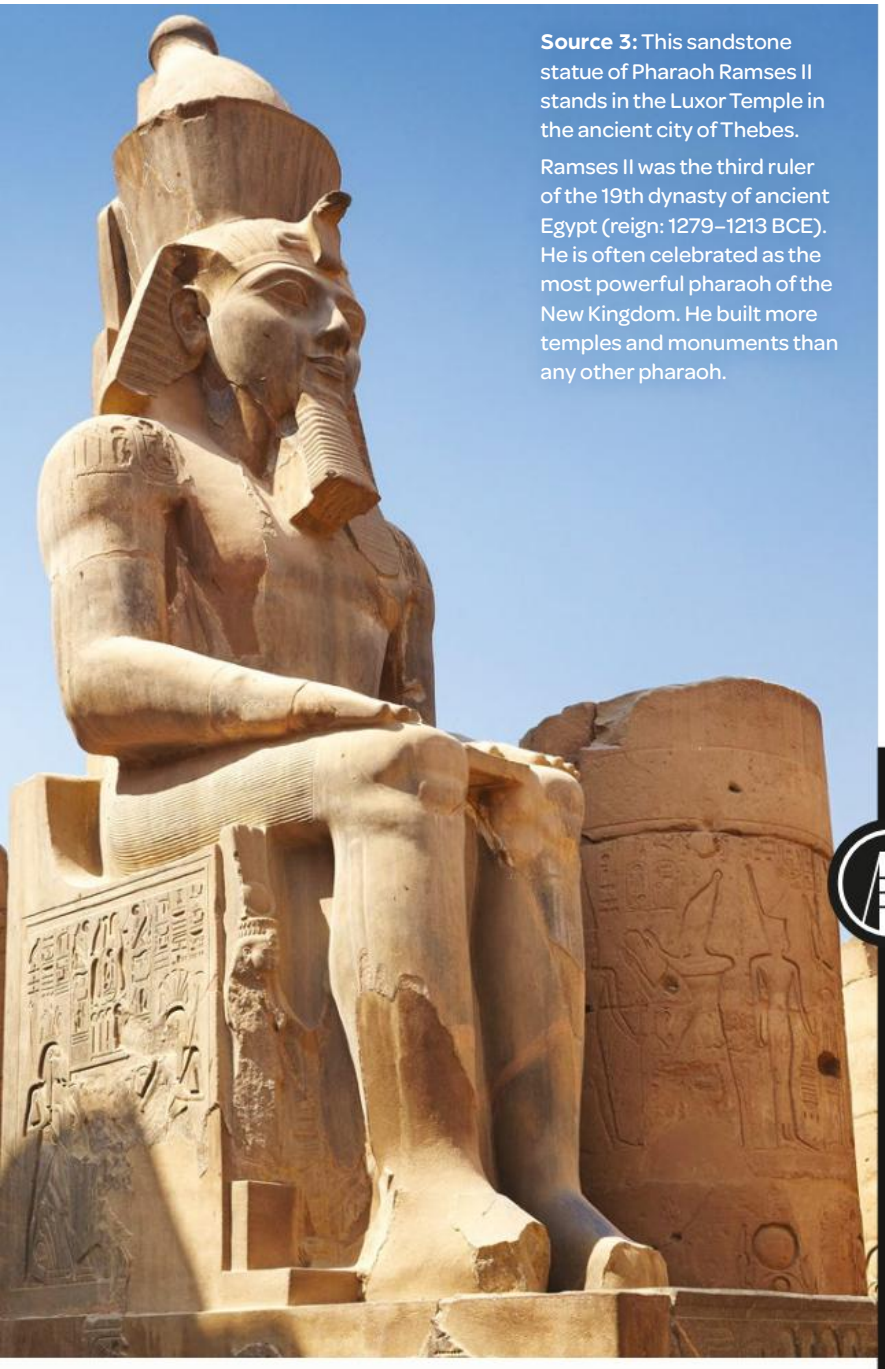
c. 2560 BCE
Great Pyramid of Giza is built

c. 2550 BCE
Papyrus made from paper is used for writing

c. 1968 BCE
Mentuhotep II reunites north and south Egypt

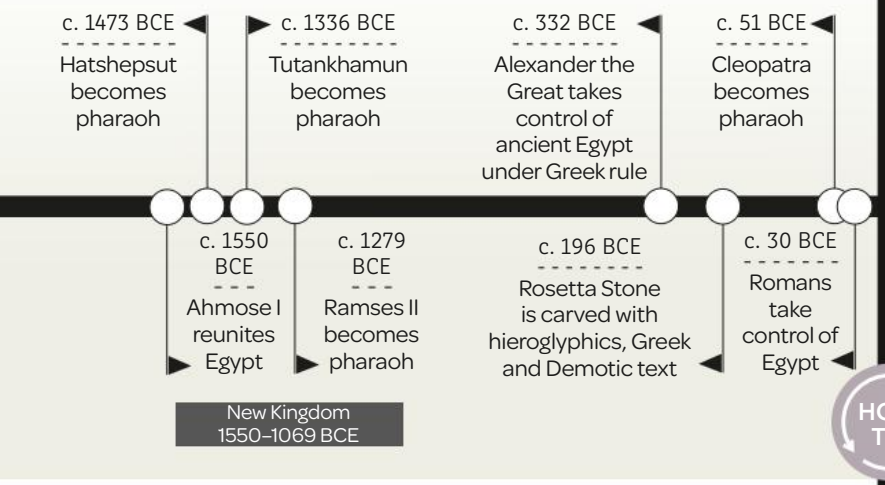
c. 1650 BCE
The Palestinian Hyksos dynasty rules parts of Egypt for nearly 100 years

Early Dynastic period 3100–2686 BCE | Old Kingdom 2686–2181 BCE | Middle Kingdom 2125–1650 BCE



Source 3: This sandstone statue of Pharaoh Ramses II stands in the Luxor Temple in the ancient city of Thebes.

Ramses II was the third ruler of the 19th dynasty of ancient Egypt (reign: 1279–1213 BCE). He is often celebrated as the most powerful pharaoh of the New Kingdom. He built more temples and monuments than any other pharaoh.



Main periods of ancient Egypt

Old Kingdom (c. 2686–2181 BCE)

The Old Kingdom was the period in which the pyramids were built. It was a time of prosperity and security. At the end of the Old Kingdom, ancient Egypt fell into decline and became divided.

Middle Kingdom (c. 2125–1650 BCE)

During the time of the Middle Kingdom, ancient Egypt was reunified and its power and culture were restored. Pharaohs kept large standing armies to defend the region.

The New Kingdom (1550–1069 BCE)

The New Kingdom was the most prosperous time in ancient Egypt. This period saw the greatest expansion of the ancient Egyptian empire.

Learning ladder 2.1

Background and origins

1. List the three main periods in ancient Egyptian history.
2. Source 3: Describe the period in which Pharaoh Ramses II lived.
3. Source 2: What does the source suggest about the importance of the River Nile to ancient Egypt?
4. Explain why ancient Egypt can be considered an innovative society.

Chronology

1. Source 1: Was the reign of Ramses II before or after that of Tutankhamun? Explain your answer.
2. List these events in order, from the oldest to the most recent event:

30 BCE	Romans take control of Egypt
3200 BCE	Hieroglyphic writing emerges
1799 CE	Rosetta Stone is discovered
2560 BCE	Great Pyramid of Giza is built

3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Source 1: Explain how the timeline demonstrates continuity and change in ancient Egypt.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

2.2

How did the Nile River sustain life?

The Nile River was central to life in the desert. The river provided necessary resources such as fresh water for drinking and growing crops. The Nile River also provided a means of transporting goods, which enabled trade.

The life-giving Nile River

The Nile was critical to human survival in the desert. Apart from fresh drinking water, the river also provided fertile land where Egyptians could grow crops such as wheat for food and flax for clothing. The ancient Egyptians used the papyrus reeds that grew along the banks of the river to make baskets, sandals, boats and paper. They also built irrigation channels to funnel water from the river to irrigate crops growing inland.

The inundation

Each summer, the Nile River rose by up to eight metres as it carried rain that had fallen at its source, almost 7000 kilometres away. The flooding was 'the **inundation**'; the ancient Egyptians thought it was the work of Hapi, the god of the Nile and the yearly flooding.

The annual inundation carried rich silt that was deposited along the flooded banks of the river. Farmers depended on the Black Land of rich soil to grow their crops, as much of the dry Red Land could not be used for farming.

While the inundation brought nutrients to the soil, which made growing crops easier, the flooding also disrupted life in Egypt between June and September. Although houses and other buildings were built on land above the floodline, most of the farmland was under water for months every year. During the inundation, farmers worked on large building projects such as the pyramids.

Ancient Egyptians organised their calendar around the annual cycle of the Nile River. The three main seasons (see Source 3) were:

- *akhet*: the flood season
- *proyet*: the growing season
- *shomu*: the harvest season.

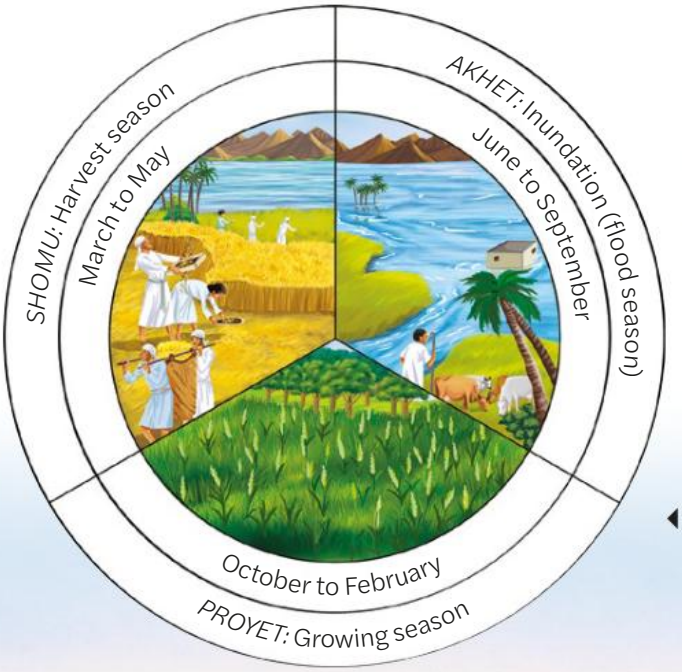
The Nile River as a highway

The Nile was ancient Egypt's main transport and communication route. Boats that headed north used oars against the river's current. Boats that went south relied on their sails to catch the wind blowing from north to south.

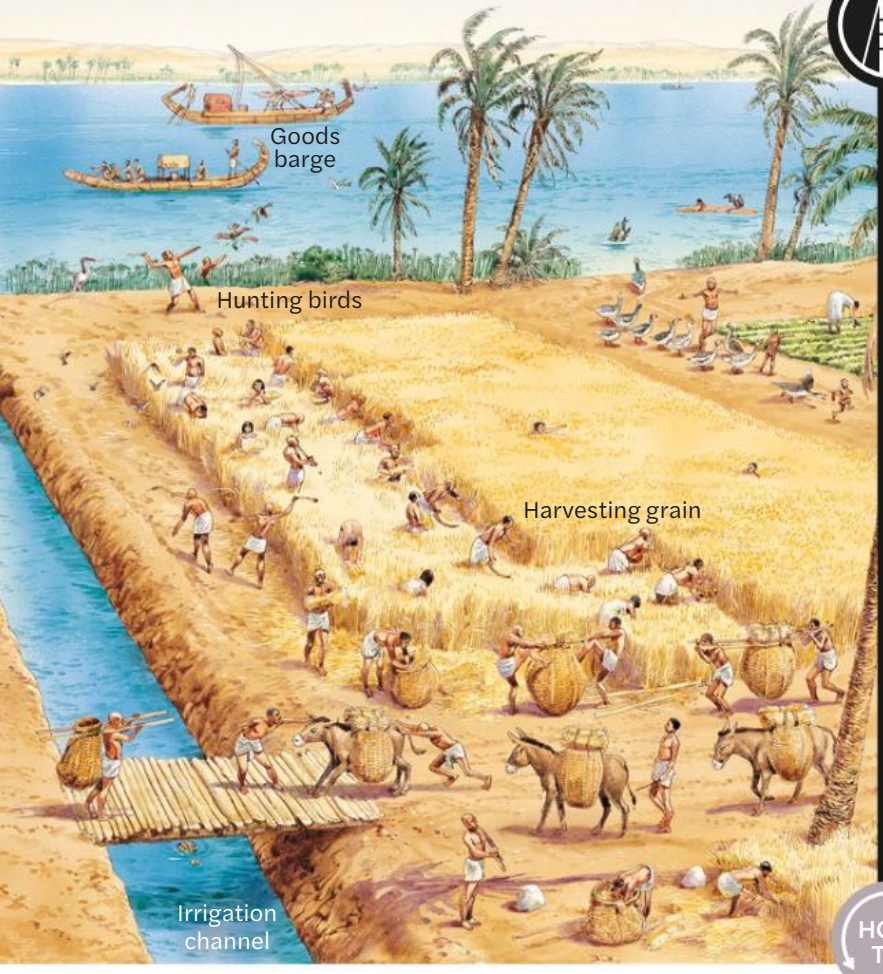
Small skiffs made from papyrus reeds were used to fish and hunt birds in the marshes along the river banks. Cargo boats transported grain and other supplies. Huge wooden barges transported massive blocks of stone from quarries to building sites.

Source 1: The Nile River was an important resource for the ancient Egyptians.

Source 2: Ancient Egyptians made small fishing boats by strapping together bundles of papyrus reeds. This painting from the tomb of the scribe Nebamun shows him hunting birds in the marshes by the Nile River. Nebamun is joined by his wife and daughter. [Painting from the tomb of Nebamun, c. 1390 BCE]



Source 3: The ancient Egyptian farming calendar



Learning ladder 2.2

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify three different activities shown in the illustration.
2. Source 2: Describe the scene shown in the source.
3. Explain how the inundation occurred.
4. Source 1: Explain why the ancient Egyptians needed to build irrigation channels.
5. Evaluate the positives and negatives of living near the River Nile for the people of ancient Egypt.

Continuity and change

1. Source 3: Identify the three seasons of the ancient Egyptian farming calendar.
2. Source 1: Describe how this scene would change during the season of Akhet.
3. Explain how the inundation changed everyday life in ancient Egypt.
4. Explain why the inundation was also an example of continuity.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of living in a society affected by seasonal change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

2.3

What was the ancient Egyptian origin myth?

The ancient Egyptians believed that history was cyclical – that history repeated over and over. The gods had established the pattern of history at the beginning of time. During each cycle, the upholders of order (***ma'at***) fought the forces of disorder until the forces of order won and the universe was renewed.

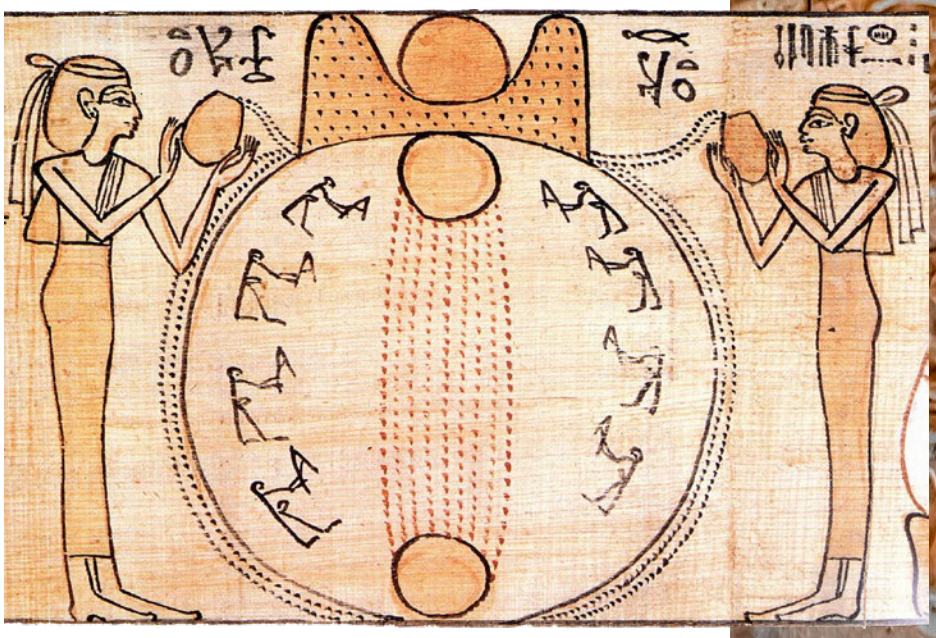
The ancient Egyptian creation myth

The ancient Egyptians believed there were eight gods (called the Ogdoad). The Ogdoad consisted of four frog-headed male gods and four serpent-headed female gods: Nun and Naunet represented water; Heh and Hauhet expressed the notion of infinity; Kek and Kauket stood for darkness; and Amun and Amunet reflected the concept of hiddenness. These gods represented the watery darkness that existed before the creation of the world.

From these eight gods came a cosmic egg that contained the god responsible for creating the first land to arise out of the waters. After the land appeared, a lotus blossom bloomed, signalling the birth of the Sun god Ra. Ra sneezed and created the god of air and the goddess of moisture. They in turn produced Geb (Earth) and Nut (sky). Geb and Nut had four children – Osiris, Isis, Set and Nephthys.

The Osiris myth

The Osiris myth was one of the most important in ancient Egypt. Osiris became the first king of Egypt. His brother Set was jealous. Set enticed Osiris into a coffin, shut the lid and hurled him into the Nile where he died. Set then ruled Egypt himself.



Source 1: The Sun god Ra rising from the land. The three orange circles represent the sun at different times of the day. At either side are the goddesses of the north and south, pouring out the waters that surround the mound, while the eight stick figures are the gods of the Ogdoad hoeing the soil. [Image from the *Book of the Dead of Khensumose*, c. 1075–945 BCE]

Source 2: Isis restoring Osiris to life by fanning him with her wings. [Bas-relief found in the Temple of Isis, Aswan Dam, Egypt, 380–362 BCE]

Meanwhile, Isis, the sister and wife of Osiris, searched for her husband's body. She eventually found Osiris's body and decided to bring him back to life. Isis's efforts to restore Osiris to life became the basis for the embalming and mummification practices in ancient Egypt. Once Osiris was brought back to life, he and Isis had a son: Horus, the god of the sky.

In the story, Osiris represents rightful kingship and order (ma'at), while Set represents violence and chaos. Set's murder of Osiris symbolises the cyclical struggle between order and disorder. During the New Kingdom period, Osiris's death and renewal came to be associated with the annual inundation of the Nile, which brought the fertile soils to Egypt.

The role of Horus

When Horus grew up, he challenged Set for the kingship of Egypt. During one phase of their long violent struggle, Set tore out Horus's eyes, which were later restored by the god Thoth. Finally, Geb appeared and ruled that Horus was the rightful king. Horus and Set were reconciled and order was restored.

Horus then performed the funerary rites for his father Osiris, who became the king of the Underworld. Horus remained as king of the living. Every pharaoh was then believed to embody the god Horus.

Source 3: Horus guiding Ani to Osiris for judgement in the afterlife. [Image from *The Book of the Dead of Ani,* c. 1250 BCE]

Learning ladder 2.3

Background and origins

1. Identify the eight gods of the Ogdoad.
2. Describe how the world was created, according to the ancient Egyptians.
3. Explain how the Osiris myth represents ancient Egyptians' belief in the cyclical struggle between order and disorder.
4. Explain why Horus was important to the pharaohs.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 2: Using this source, describe the role of Isis in the Osiris myth.
3. Source 1: Explain how the source represents the ancient Egyptian creation myth.
4. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the Osiris myth was important to ancient Egyptians.

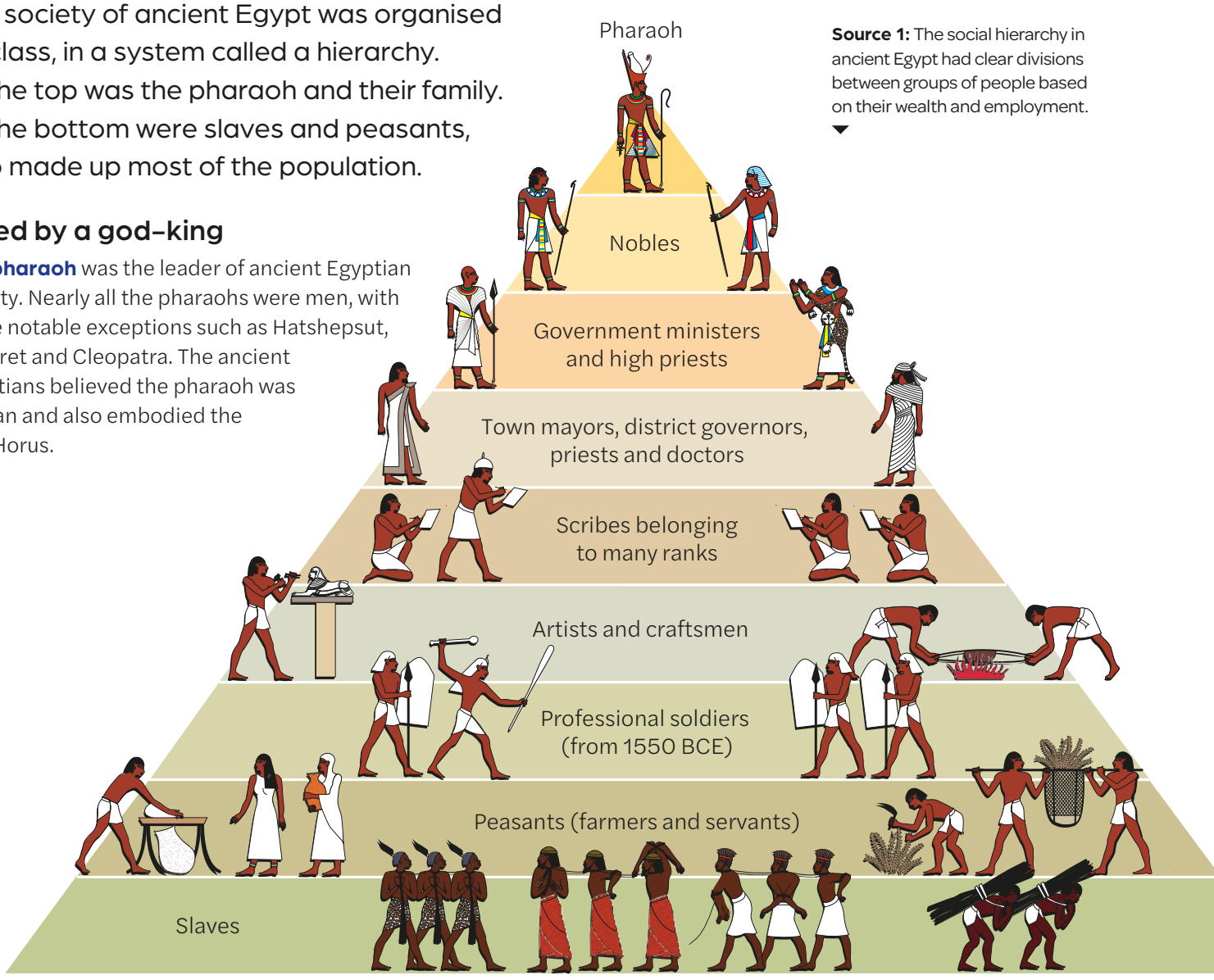
HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

2.4

What was the social order of ancient Egypt?

The society of ancient Egypt was organised by class, in a system called a hierarchy. At the top was the pharaoh and their family. At the bottom were slaves and peasants, who made up most of the population.



Source 1: The social hierarchy in ancient Egypt had clear divisions between groups of people based on their wealth and employment.

Ruled by a god–king

The **pharaoh** was the leader of ancient Egyptian society. Nearly all the pharaohs were men, with some notable exceptions such as Hatshepsut, Twosret and Cleopatra. The ancient Egyptians believed the pharaoh was human and also embodied the god Horus.

The pharaoh was the link between the gods and the people and, therefore, he had both earthly and divine responsibilities:

- The **earthly responsibilities** included upholding the law; defending Egypt from invaders; and managing the requirements of building, farming, mining and trading. The pharaoh commanded the army, controlled all the land and resources, made the laws and collected taxes. Government ministers helped the pharaoh with these tasks.
- The **divine responsibilities** included officiating over religious ceremonies, selecting sites for new temples and, most importantly, maintaining ma'at, which is the order and balance in the world and the heavens. The pharaoh's role as chief priest of Egypt allowed him to fulfil his divine responsibilities. High priests also helped the pharaoh in his role as chief priest.

The pharaoh's power

The pharaoh was an all-powerful being. Huge monuments were built for pharaohs in the form of temples, statues and tombs so that they would be remembered after their death.

Source 2: Pharaoh Tutankhamun's gold coffin showed symbols that indicated the pharaoh's power and status as a god.

Pharaohs wore symbols of their power, including:

- a cobra headpiece that showed the pharaoh's readiness to strike at enemies
- an animal tail that represented the pharaoh's strength and fertility
- a false beard that symbolised the pharaoh's status as a god on Earth
- a flail (or whip) that indicated the pharaoh had ultimate authority
- a shepherd's crook that showed the pharaoh looked after his people.

The rule of the pharaohs lasted 3000 years over 31 dynasties. A **dynasty** is a sequence of rulers from the same family. The family maintains power over multiple generations by handing down the throne to an heir within the family's ranks. This system provided stability and continuity for the civilisation of ancient Egypt.

The pharaoh and the law

The pharaoh made the laws and was the supreme judge. There were two kinds of crimes in ancient Egypt: criminal offences and civil offences.

Criminal offences included murder. These offences were tried by a judge, and convicted criminals were given severe punishments, such as being thrown into the Nile to be eaten by crocodiles or impaled on a stake.

Civil offences included theft or failing to pay loans. Guilt in these cases was decided by a god. Pieces of pottery with the word 'guilty' were spread out on one side of the road and other pieces labelled 'not guilty' on the other side. A priest carried a statue of a god down the road. The statue 'leant' towards the right decision.

Learning ladder 2.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the group at the bottom of the social hierarchy.
2. Source 2: Describe the features of the source that identify the pharaoh as a powerful figure.
3. Explain how crimes were dealt with in Ancient Egypt.
4. Explain why the pharaoh had both earthly and divine responsibilities.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify the group that was included in the social hierarchy after 1550 BCE.
2. Describe how the pharaoahs were remembered after their death.
3. Explain how dynastic rule provided continuity in ancient Egypt.
4. Explain why the pharaoh's association with the god Horus ensured continuity.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of dynastic rule.

Key individual

Who was Ramses II?

Ramses II was one of the most powerful ancient Egyptian pharaohs. He was worshipped by his people and feared by his enemies. He also built more monuments and temples – mostly celebrating himself – than any other pharaoh.

The rise of a pharaoh

Known as 'Ramses the Great', Ramses II was the third pharaoh of ancient Egypt's 19th dynasty. He ruled for 66 years, from 1279 to 1213 BCE, in the period of the New Kingdom. Ramses II was groomed from birth to succeed his father, Seti I, as pharaoh. He was raised in royal palaces, waited on by handmaids and nurses, and educated in writing, poetry and art.

Ramses II was also destined to be a great warrior, and he was trained in the art of combat. He became an army captain at the age of 10, and by 14 he was accompanying his father on military campaigns. Ramses II became pharaoh at the age of 25, following the death of his father.

Wives and children

The pharaoh was expected to provide heirs to continue the dynasty. Ramses II was particularly successful in fulfilling this responsibility: he fathered over 100 children! He married his first wife, Nefertari, around 1280 BCE, when he was 26. Over the course of his life, Ramses II had eight main wives, dozens of lesser wives and many unmarried partners (called concubines).

Ramses II gave his male heirs important positions and trained his first 12 sons to succeed him as pharaoh. However, Ramses II lived to the age of 91 and none of his first 12 sons outlived him. His 13th son, Merneptah, became pharaoh after Ramses II died in 1213 BCE. The dynasty ended 150 years later.

Building projects

Ramses II built more monuments and statues than any other pharaoh. His extensive building program covered the land along the Nile River from north to south to reflect his vision of Egypt as a great nation and himself as a great ruler. Ramses II also replaced the names of previous rulers on monuments and temples with his own. His palaces, temples, monuments and statues are grand and contain accounts of Ramses II's glorious and powerful rule. A new capital called Per Ramessu was built in the northern delta region. At the time, it was considered to be the greatest city in Egypt.

Source 1: Four huge statues of Ramses II sit at the entrance to a temple in Abu Simbel. This temple was carved out of a sandstone cliff on the west bank of the Nile River during Ramses II's reign. [Abu Simbel temple, 13th century BCE, sandstone, Aswān, Egypt]

Source 2: Ramses II in his chariot at the Battle of Kadesh

Was Ramses II a significant leader?

Ramses II took his earthly responsibility to protect his people seriously. During the 66 years he was pharaoh, Ramses II defended the country's borders and recovered lands lost in previous battles. His peace treaty with the Hittites in 1258 BCE was the first in history. It ensured a long period of peace and stability for the ancient Egyptians.

One of the most magnificent buildings constructed during the reign of Ramses II is the main temple at Abu Simbel (situated in modern-day Aswān in southern Egypt). It took about 20 years to build, and Ramses II made sure there was no question as to who had built the spectacular monument: four colossal 20-metre statues of the pharaoh sit next to the temple's entrance (see Source 1). Built to commemorate Ramses II's victory at the Battle of Kadesh, scenes of the pharaoh at the battle and making offerings to the gods adorn the halls of the temple.

After his death in 1213 BCE, Ramses II's **legacy** lived on. Egypt remained prosperous, despite the huge expense of finishing Ramses II's building projects. As a result of this prosperity, Ramses II was loved by his subjects and nine pharaohs of the 20th dynasty (1190–1187 BCE) took his name.

Most historians agree that Ramses II was a very significant pharaoh, noting that Egypt was at the height of its power during Ramses's reign. However, Ramses's ongoing fame and popularity was due not only to Egypt's prosperity but also to his extensive self-promotion.

Source 3: Ramses II grasping a Hittite, a Libyan and a Nubian by their hair. Ramses II sent strong, simple messages in the visual images he created in public places and temples. He promoted himself as superhuman and god-like, as this image suggests. [Limestone relief, 13th century BCE]

Poem of Pentaur

Like Monthu, god of war, was I made,

With my left hand hurled the dart,

With my right I swung the blade,

Fierce as [the god] Baal in his time, before their sight.

Two thousand and five hundred pairs of horses were around,

And I flew into the middle of their ring,

By my horse-hoofs they were dashed all in pieces to the ground,

None raised his hand in fight,

For the courage in their breasts had sunken quite;

And their limbs were loosed for fear,

And they could not hurl the dart,

And they had not any heart

To use the spear;

And I cast them to the water,

Just as crocodiles fall in from the bank,

So they sank.

And they tumbled on their faces, one by one.

At my pleasure I made slaughter,

So that none

E'er had time to look behind, or backward fled;

Where he fell, did each one lay

On that day,

From the dust none ever lifted up his head.

Then the wretched king of the Hittites, he stood still,

With his warriors and his chariots all about him in a ring,

Just to gaze upon the valour of our king.

Source 4: This translation of the 'Poem of Pentaur' was published in Hardwicke D. Rawnsley (1892 CE), *Notes for the Nile*, London.

The Battle of Kadesh

The 'Poem of Pentaur' is the official account of the Battle of Kadesh in 1275 BCE between the Egyptians and the Hittites. The poem was commissioned by Ramses II and he liked it so much he had it inscribed on the walls of some of his temples.

According to the 'Poem of Pentaur', in the Battle of Kadesh, Ramses II single-handedly defeated an army of 2500 Hittite chariots, cutting down his enemies with spear and sword and running over their bodies with his horse-drawn chariot. The Hittites surrendered following the pharaoh's superhuman display.

However, historians do not believe the account of the Battle of Kadesh told in the 'Poem of Pentaur'. They do agree that Ramses II was a master of **propaganda**. Propaganda is biased or misleading information used to promote a point of view.

Learning ladder 2.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the monument shown in this source.
2. Source 3: Describe how the power of Ramses II is demonstrated in this source.
3. Explain how Ramses II prepared to become the pharaoh during his youth.
4. Source 1: Explain why Ramses II undertook such an extensive building program in Egypt.
5. Analyse the short-term and long-term effects of Ramses II's self-promotion.

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify Ramses II's role in this source.
2. Source 4: Describe how Ramses II portrayed himself as a great warrior in this poem.
3. Sources 2, 3 and 4: Explain how Ramses II used propaganda to promote himself as a significant military leader.
4. Explain why Ramses II could be considered a significant leader of ancient Egypt.
5. An important aspect of historical significance is relevance. How important is Ramses II's rule today? Why is Ramses II remembered?

Significance, page 486

What was everyday life like in ancient Egypt?

Peasant farmers made up most of ancient Egypt's population, but they have left no written evidence of their lives. Evidence of the lives of peasants comes from the perspectives of the wealthy that were painted on tomb walls and written on papyrus.

Peasants

Peasants accounted for 80 per cent of ancient Egypt's population. They were the second-lowest class in the social hierarchy (slaves were the lowest). Most peasants were tenant-farmers who worked on land owned by the pharaoh, growing crops and farming animals.

During the annual flooding of the Nile River when the farmland was under water, adult male peasants enrolled in work gangs for public works such as repairing roads and canals. Some men signed up to work on large building programs such as the pyramids to ensure they had an income throughout the year. Money did not exist in ancient Egypt; workers were paid in food and goods, such as firewood.

The peasants in ancient Egypt enjoyed few comforts and lived in simple mudbrick homes with only mats for furniture. Their diet consisted of bread, fish, beans, onions and beer. Unlike the nobility, peasants only ate meat on special occasions.

Do not let me find fault with you in your duties. Do not fail to have things in perfect order. Also, pick for me many plants, lotuses and flowers, and others worth offering. Further, you are to cut 5000 boards and 200 timbers; then the boat that will bring me can carry them, since you have not cut any wood this year – understood? On no account be slack. If you are not able to cut them you should approach Woser, the mayor of Hu. Pay attention: the herdsman of Cusae and the cowherds who are under my authority, fetch them for yourself in order to cut the wood ...

Source 1: This letter was written by Sennefer, the mayor of Thebes, to the peasant tenant-farmer Baki, son of Kyson, in c. 1420 BCE.

Women

Unlike most other cultures of the time, in ancient Egypt, women were regarded as being almost equal to men. Men were still considered to be the head of households, but women had considerable power and independence in running the house, raising children and working in the family business. Peasant women worked with their husbands. When the husband was away, the wife would run the business and the home.

Source 2: Evidence of the lives of peasants in ancient Egypt comes to us from sources commissioned by the wealthy members of society. This fragment of a wall painting from the tomb of Onsu shows peasants working hard, sowing and harvesting. [c. 1450 BCE]

Women were expected to marry and raise a family. Parents arranged their children's marriages. Girls married from about 12 years of age and were mothers by their mid-teens. Girls in wealthy families could attend school. Records show that some women became doctors, so there were opportunities for wealthy women to be well-educated.

> In ancient Egypt a woman enjoyed the same rights under the law as a man … A woman was entitled to administer her own property and dispose of it as she wished. She could buy, sell, be a partner in legal contracts, be executor in wills and witness to legal documents, bring an action at court, and adopt children in her own name … In short, an ancient Egyptian woman enjoyed greater social standing than many women of other societies, both ancient and modern.

Source 3: Barbara Watterson (1994 CE), *Women in Ancient Egypt*, St Martin's Press, New York

Learning ladder 2.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify three activities the peasants are doing in this source.
2. Describe the work done by peasant farmers during the inundation.
3. Explain the role of women in ancient Egypt.
4. Source 3: How did the lives of women in ancient Egypt differ from the lives of women in other ancient societies?

Perspectives

1. Source 2: Whose perspective does this source show?
2. Source 3: Describe the author's perspective on women in ancient Egypt.
3. Source 1: Explain the author's perspective on the peasants of ancient Egypt.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Compare the two perspectives on peasants in ancient Egypt.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

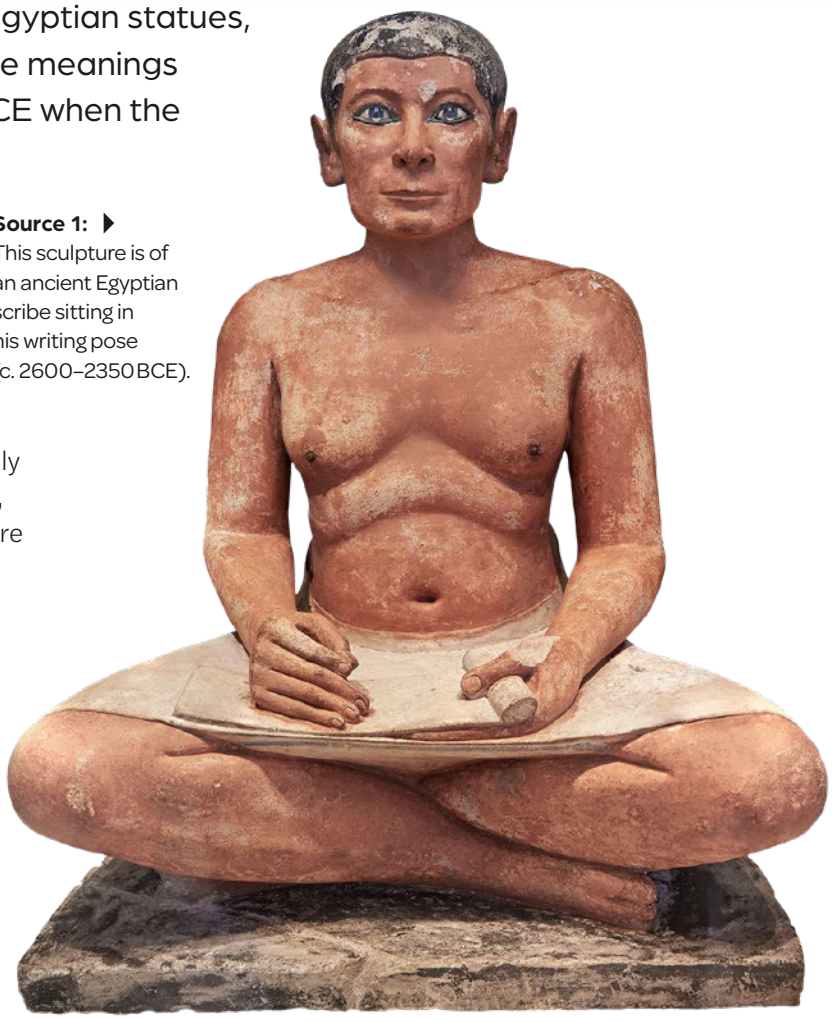
How were pictures used to communicate?

The picture symbols found on many ancient Egyptian statues, tombs and temples are called hieroglyphs. The meanings of these symbols were only unlocked in 1822 CE when the Rosetta Stone was deciphered.

Hieroglyphics

From around 3200 BCE, the ancient Egyptians used hieroglyphic writing. This complicated system involved more than 750 picture symbols (called **hieroglyphs**); some symbols represented sounds and others represented entire words.

Hieroglyphs took a long time to write, so they were mainly used in special circumstances such as on the walls of tombs, monuments, religious texts and temples. Simpler scripts were used in daily writing to record crop yields or taxes.



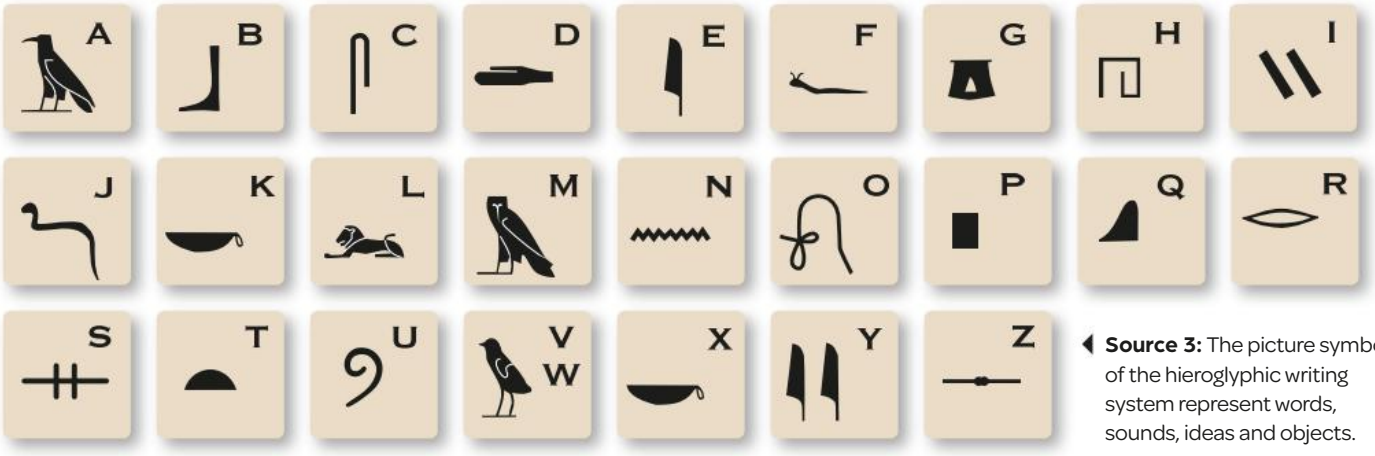
Source 1: ▶ This sculpture is of an ancient Egyptian scribe sitting in his writing pose (c. 2600–2350 BCE).

The role of scribes

Most people in ancient Egypt could not read or write – only priests and government officials were literate. There were also specially trained 'professional writers' called **scribes**.

Scribes trained from a young age (from the age of six or seven) for many years to master hieroglyphs and become excellent writers. Scribes were well-regarded in ancient Egyptian society because of their rare and important skill.

▼ **Source 2:** This source shows hieroglyphics written on papyrus. [Unknown creator (c. 1000 BCE), *Priestess Hent-Maui and a Sacred Baboon Worship the Sun God Ra*]



Source 3: The picture symbols of the hieroglyphic writing system represent words, sounds, ideas and objects.

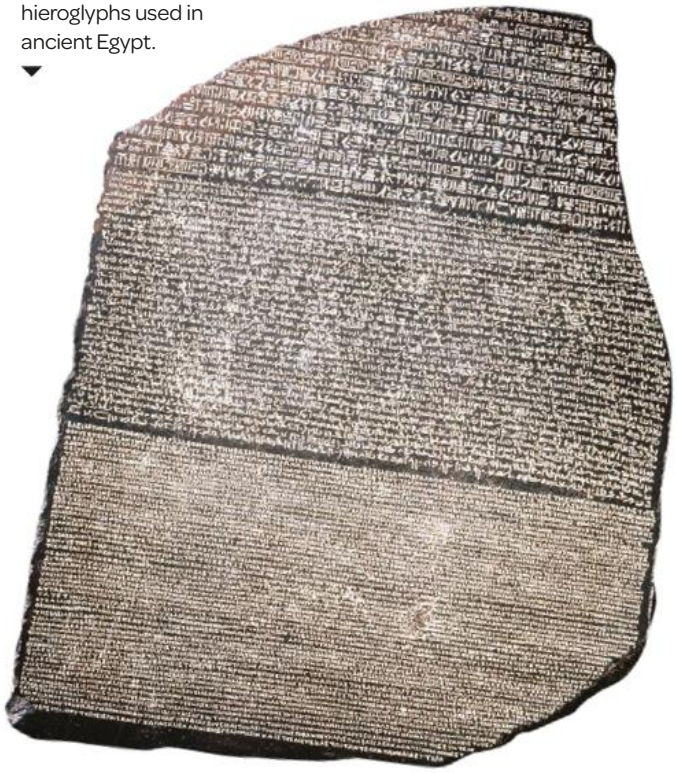
Writing was practised on cheap materials , such as flakes of limestone, until a young scribe graduated to writing on **papyrus**. Papyrus was the first paper-like material used by a society. It was made from the river plant of the same name. Our word 'paper' comes from the word papyrus.

Unlocking the code

After Egypt became part of the Roman Empire around 30 BCE, people gradually forgot how to read and write hieroglyphs.

In 1799 CE, a French soldier found a piece of black granite with symbols on it near the ancient Egyptian town of Rosetta. For many years, scholars tried to decipher what was written on the stone. In 1822 CE, around 20 years after the Rosetta Stone was discovered, Jean-François Champollion worked out that the same message was written three times on the stone: in hieroglyphs, in ancient Egyptian demotic script (a cursive form of hieroglyphic writing) and in ancient Greek. By comparing the languages, Champollion unlocked the ancient hieroglyphic writing. The key to Champollion's breakthrough was his realisation that hieroglyphs not only stood for alphabet letters, but also for sounds, ideas and objects.

Source 4: The Rosetta Stone was created in 196 BCE and rediscovered in 1799 CE. It was decoded around 20 years later, unlocking the meaning of the hieroglyphs used in ancient Egypt.



Learning ladder 2.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 3:
   - **a** Identify the form of writing in this source.
   - **b** Use the source to write your own name.
2. Describe the role of scribes in ancient Egypt.
3. Explain how scribes were trained.
4. Explain why scribes were highly regarded in ancient Egyptian society.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 4: Using your knowledge, describe the source.
3. Source 4: Explain how this source enabled historians to translate hieroglyphics.
5. Source 4: Explain why this source is valuable to a historian studying ancient Egypt.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

What did the ancient Egyptians believe?

Religion played a central role in people's lives. Ancient Egyptians believed that nearly everything was controlled by the gods or goddesses, who were closely linked to nature.

The role of the gods

Ancient Egyptians believed that gods and goddesses controlled the environment and every aspect of people's lives, including love, health and death. Each city and town had its own god and a special place of worship built to honour them. For example, a temple was built in honour of Sobek, the god of water and the Nile River, on the banks of the river near the town of Kôm Ombo.

The form taken by Egyptian gods and goddesses was usually a human body with the head of an animal. There was often a connection between the characteristics of the animal and the role of the god. For example, the goddess Bastet was the cat-headed protector of homes (see Source 1). Cats killed the rats and mice that invaded grain stored in people's houses.

Horus, the god of the sky, was shown as a man with the head of a falcon. Horus was closely linked to the pharaoh, who was thought to be the human form of Horus on Earth. Horus was often depicted with the symbols of a pharaoh: a sceptre (a long pole), an ankh (a life symbol) and a white and red crown (see Source 1).

According to Egyptian mythology, gods and goddesses could transform themselves into their animal form on Earth. Sacred animals were worshipped and a person could be put to death for killing one. As a god himself, a pharaoh could be portrayed as a sphinx with a human head and an animal body, such as that of a lion.

The afterlife

The ancient Egyptians believed that when a person died, their heart was weighed to determine if they had done good deeds throughout their life. If they passed this test, their soul could travel to the afterlife.

Source 1: The ancient Egyptians believed many gods and goddesses controlled life on Earth and in the afterlife.

Ra
God of the Sun, supreme lord and creator god

Horus
God of the sky

Bastet
Protector of the home and goddess of childbirth and fertility

Isis
Goddess of healing and magic

Osiris
God of the dead and ruler of the underworld

Hunefer offers gifts to the gods.

Judges rule on how worthy Hunefer is to enter the afterlife.

Anubis takes Hunefer to the weighing of the heart.

Anubis weighs Hunefer's heart to see if it is as light as a feather. The crocodile-headed Ammit will eat the heart if it is too heavy.

Horus takes Hunefer to the afterlife.

Osiris greets Hunefer in the afterlife.

Source 2: This illustration on papyrus is from *The Book of the Dead of Hunefer*. Hunefer was a scribe in the 19th dynasty. This illustration was created around 1285 BCE. Hunefer's heart is being weighed against a feather from the headdress of the goddess Maat to see if it is light enough for him to enter the afterlife. This is why hearts were left in Egyptian mummies while all the other organs were removed.

To ensure that a person's soul could survive in the afterlife, the ancient Egyptians believed that their body must be preserved. The process through which the body was preserved is called **mummification**.

Wealthy Egyptians spent a lot of time and money preparing for the afterlife. In addition to coffins, upper-class Egyptians bought furniture, clothing, food and magic amulets for their tombs. They also purchased an important book, the *Book of the Dead*, which contained spells to help the person on their journey through the Underworld to the afterlife. Ordinary Egyptians did not have elaborate tombs and instead might have been buried with a few personal items.

Anubis
God of mummification and the afterlife

Maat
Goddess of truth, justice and harmony

Sobek
God of water and the Nile River

Learning ladder 2.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify which god the ancient Egyptians may have prayed to when they were sick.
2. Describe the purpose of the *Book of the Dead*.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Explain the role of the god Anubis in the afterlife.
4. Source 2: Explain why a feather was used to weigh the heart.

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Identify the most important god for the ancient Egyptians.
2. Describe the ancient Egyptian perspective on the power of the gods.
3. Explain the ancient Egyptian perspective on the sacred nature of certain animals.
4. Compare the ancient Egyptians' perspective on life with their perspective on the afterlife.

HOW TO
Perspectives, page 484

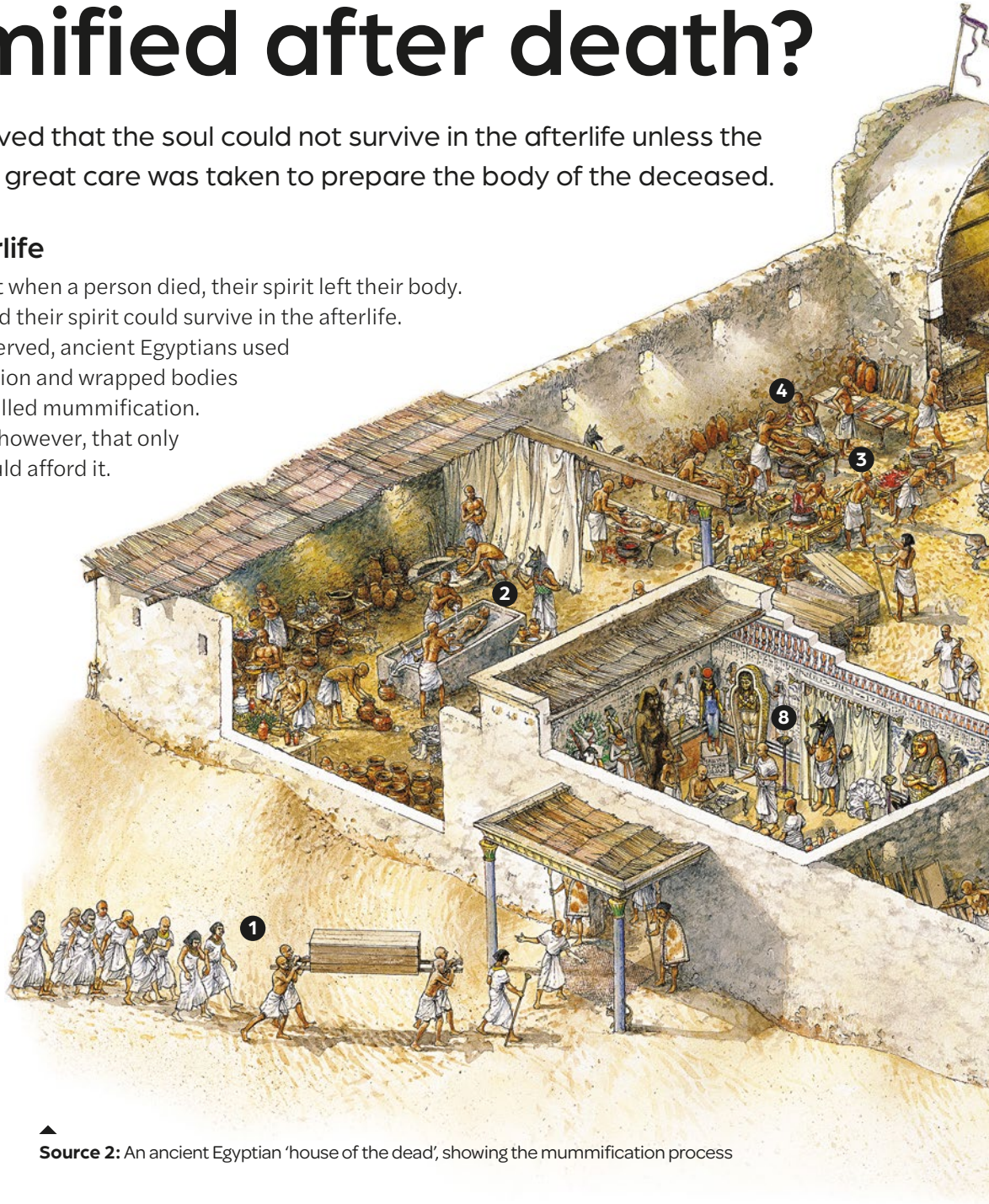
How were people mummified after death?

Ancient Egyptians believed that the soul could not survive in the afterlife unless the body was preserved, so great care was taken to prepare the body of the deceased.

Preparing for the afterlife

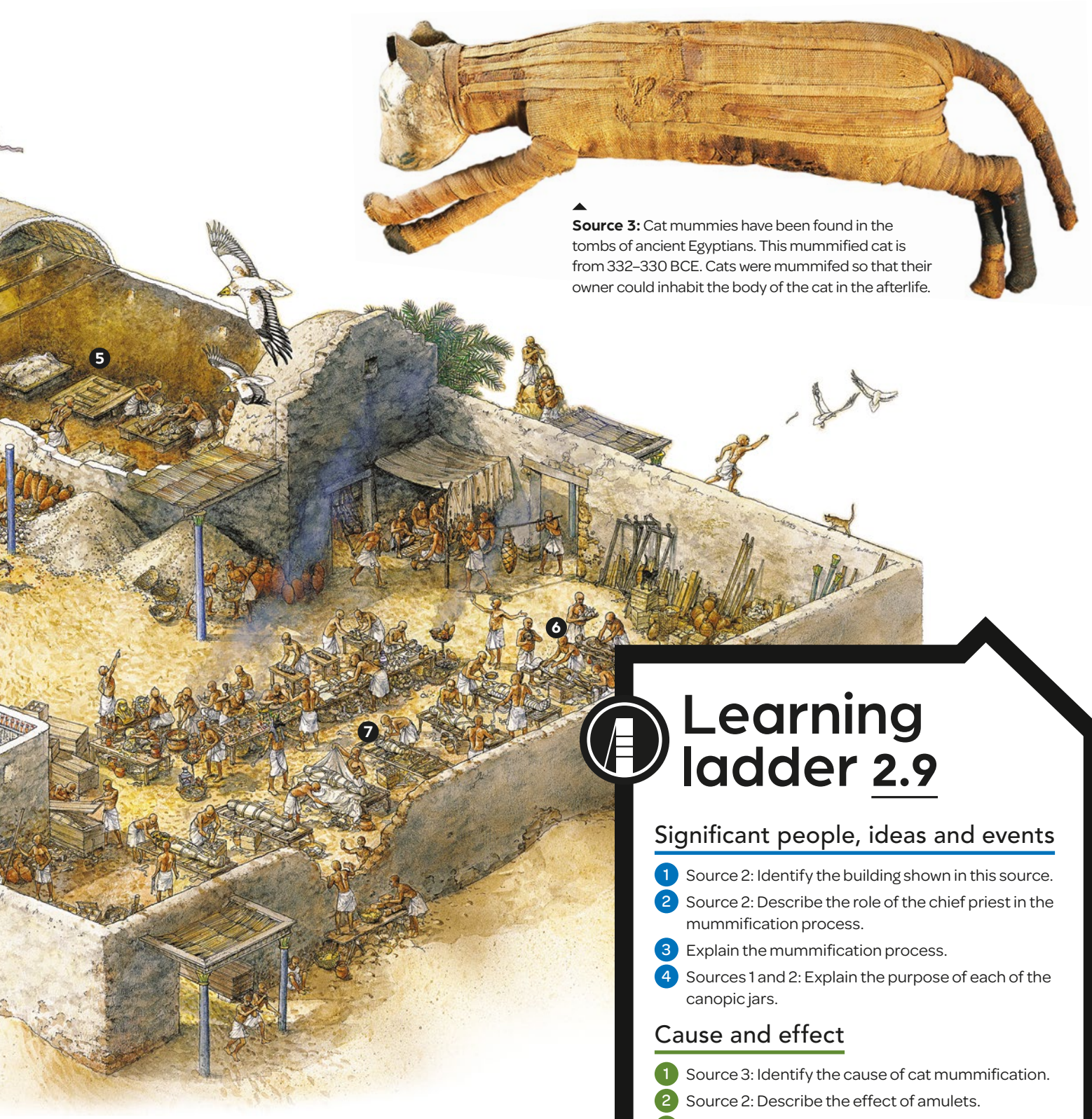
Ancient Egyptians believed that when a person died, their spirit left their body. If a person's body was preserved their spirit could survive in the afterlife. To make sure bodies were preserved, ancient Egyptians used embalming to stop decomposition and wrapped bodies in strips of linen, in a process called mummification. This process was so expensive, however, that only the elite of Egyptian society could afford it.

Source 1: Internal organs (except for the heart) were removed from the body during the mummification process and placed in special containers, called canopic jars, to preserve them so that the soul could journey to the afterlife.



Source 2: An ancient Egyptian 'house of the dead', showing the mummification process

1. Mourners follow the deceased person as they are taken to the house of the dead.
2. The body is washed as a jackal-headed chief priest reads from the *Book of the Dead*.
3. The lungs, stomach, liver and intestines are removed from the body. Only the heart is left. The brain is removed by pushing a hook up through the nostrils.
4. The organs are dried, rubbed with scented oils and put into four canopic jars:
   - lungs: jar with a baboon's head
   - stomach: jar with a jackal's head
   - liver: jar with a man's head
   - intestines: jar with a falcon's head.
5. The body is covered in salt for 70 days to remove any moisture. It is then washed in water and covered in scented oil.



Source 3: Cat mummies have been found in the tombs of ancient Egyptians. This mummified cat is from 332–330 BCE. Cats were mummifed so that their owner could inhabit the body of the cat in the afterlife.

6 The embalmed body is wrapped in linen bandages, and amulets (objects believed to protect the dead in the Underworld) are placed in the folds of the bandages. Prayers are read from the *Book of the Dead*.

7 The mummy is wrapped in up to 20 layers of bandages and painted with sticky resin from pine trees.

8 The completed mummy is put into a coffin. Important people had multiple coffins, one inside another, which were placed inside a stone container called a sarcophagus.

Learning ladder 2.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the building shown in this source.
2. Source 2: Describe the role of the chief priest in the mummification process.
3. Explain the mummification process.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Explain the purpose of each of the canopic jars.

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: Identify the cause of cat mummification.
2. Source 2: Describe the effect of amulets.
3. Source 2: Explain how a person's status in life affected their mummification.
4. Explain why ancient Egyptian death rituals were so elaborate.
5. Analyse the causes and effects of displaying the mummies of ancient Egyptians. Should museums continue to display them?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

What have we learned from the tomb of Tutankhamun?

Who was Tutankhamun?

During the 18th dynasty of ancient Egypt, in the period of the New Kingdom, a young boy took the throne. He ruled for just over a decade (c. 1336–1327 BCE) and died when he was only 19. His name was Tutankhamun.

The discovery of Tutankhamun's tomb

Tutankhamun's tomb was discovered in 1922 CE by an archaeological team led by Howard Carter. The tomb is located in the Valley of the Kings in Upper Egypt, which is where most of the pharaohs of the 18th, 19th and 20th dynasties were buried.

For over 3000 years, the entrance to Tutankhamun's tomb was hidden beneath 200 000 tonnes of rubble, which had been deposited when the Valley of the Kings flooded a year after Tutankhamun's funeral. This rubble hid the tomb from thieves, who had looted most of the other pharaohs' tombs in the valley.

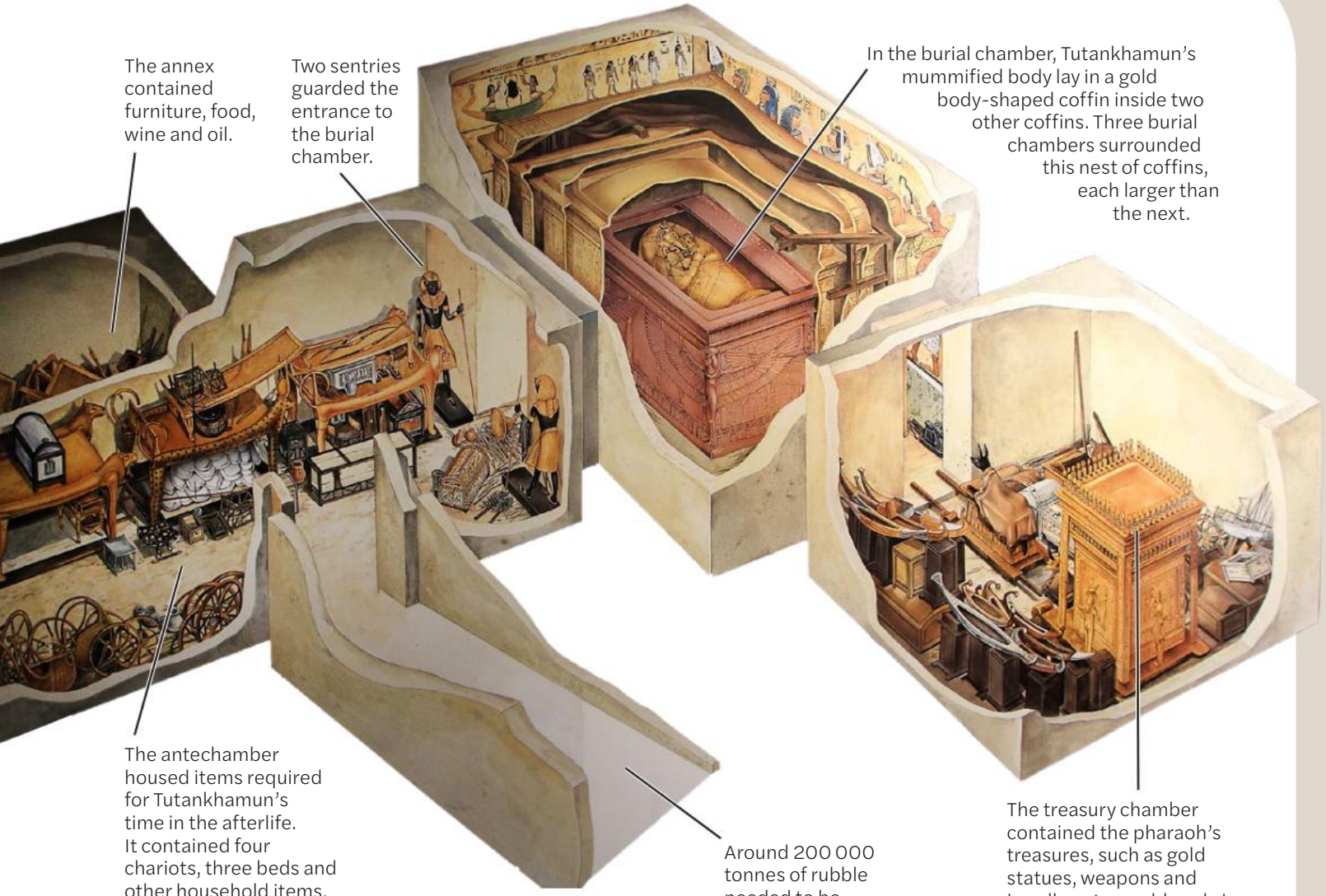
When Carter first entered Tutankhamun's tomb, he raised a candle to peer inside and saw:

> Details of the room within emerged slowly from the mist, strange animals, statues, and gold – everywhere, the glint of gold.

Source 1: Howard Carter (1923 CE), *The Tomb of Tutankhamun Based on His Diaries*, Cassell & Co., London.

▼ **Source 2:** Photographs taken in 1922 CE of Howard Carter and his archaeological team and some of the artefacts found in Tutankhamun's tomb

Howard Carter's discovery soon became one of the most famous archaeological discoveries of all time. Since the tomb was almost wholly intact and had hardly been looted, we have been able to learn much about the life of pharaohs and the burial rituals of ancient Egyptians.



Source 3: The tomb of Tutankhamun contained the pharaoh's burial chamber and rooms filled with items a ruler might need in the afterlife.

Learning ladder 2.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Sources 2a and 2b: Identify what is happening in these sources.
2. Sources 1 and 3: Describe what Howard Carter saw when he opened the tomb.
3. Explain how Tutankhamun's tomb had remained mostly undisturbed for 3000 years.
4. Explain why the discovery of Tutankhamun's tomb was so important.
5. Analyse the benefits and ethical issues involved in removing the artefacts and mummy from Tutankhamun's tomb.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 3: Describe the contents of the treasury chamber.
3. Source 3: Explain how the artefacts found in the annex were to be used.
4. Source 2c: Explain why it was important to photograph the tomb before the artefacts were removed.

Source analysis, page 475

HOW TO

How were the pyramids constructed?

Ancient Egyptians believed that pharaohs became gods in the afterlife. In preparation, pharaohs built temples to the gods and constructed huge pyramid tombs for themselves.

Building the pyramids

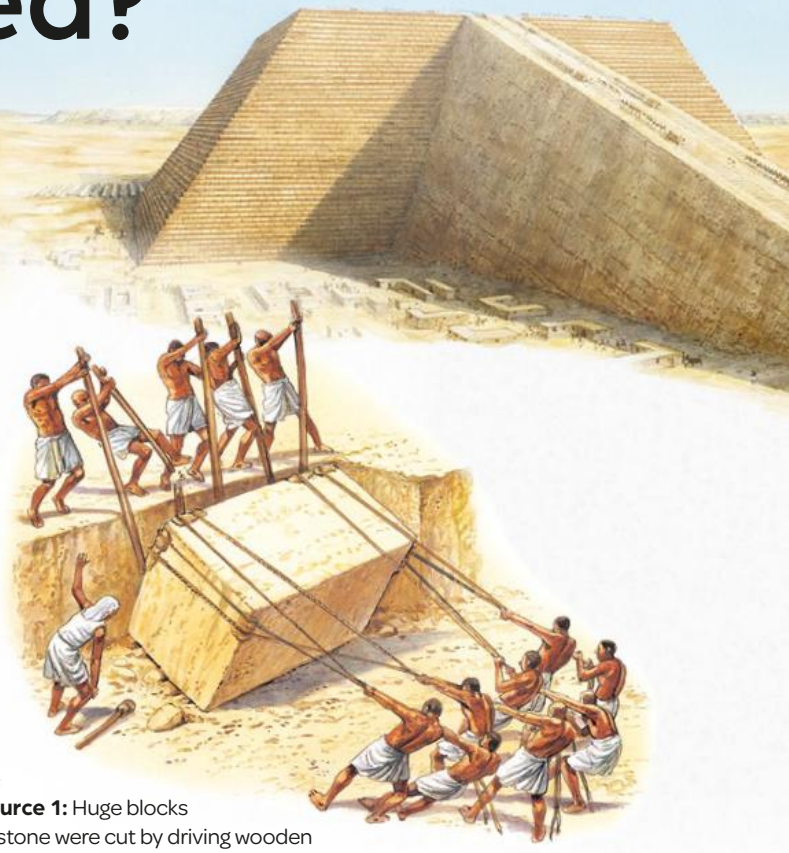
The ancient Egyptians built amazing temples, **obelisks** and **pyramids**. One of the most impressive constructions is the Great Pyramid of Giza. This pyramid was originally 147 metres tall and was built using 2.3 million blocks of stone. The base is an almost perfect square, with each side of the pyramid facing one of the four points of the compass.

The ancient Egyptians did not have modern tools, machinery, wheels or work animals. So how did they construct the pyramids?

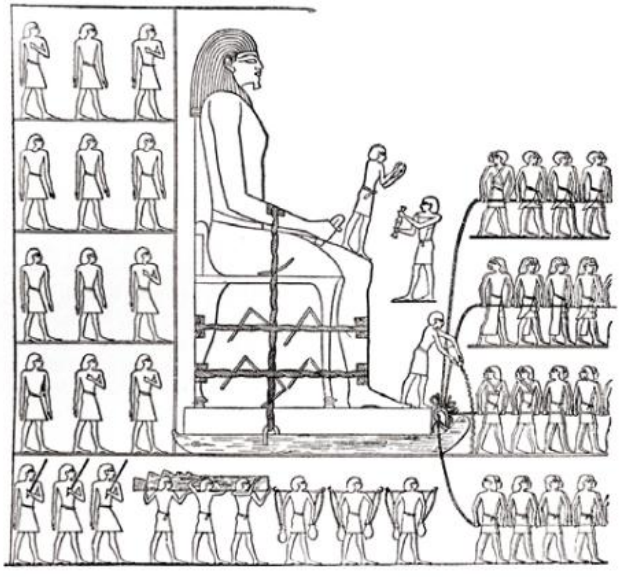
The huge blocks of stone used to build the pyramids were cut in quarries (see Source 1). Stone was stronger than the mudbricks used to build houses and it lasted much longer. The stone blocks used for the Great Pyramid of Giza are carved and placed so precisely that not even a knife blade can fit between them.

The ancient Egyptians relied on human power to move the giant blocks of stone from the quarries to the building sites; each stone weighs at least 2.5 tonnes. Until recently, nobody really knew how they moved the blocks. Log rollers, sledges, ramps and oil-slicked slipways have all been suggested as methods used to build the pyramids.

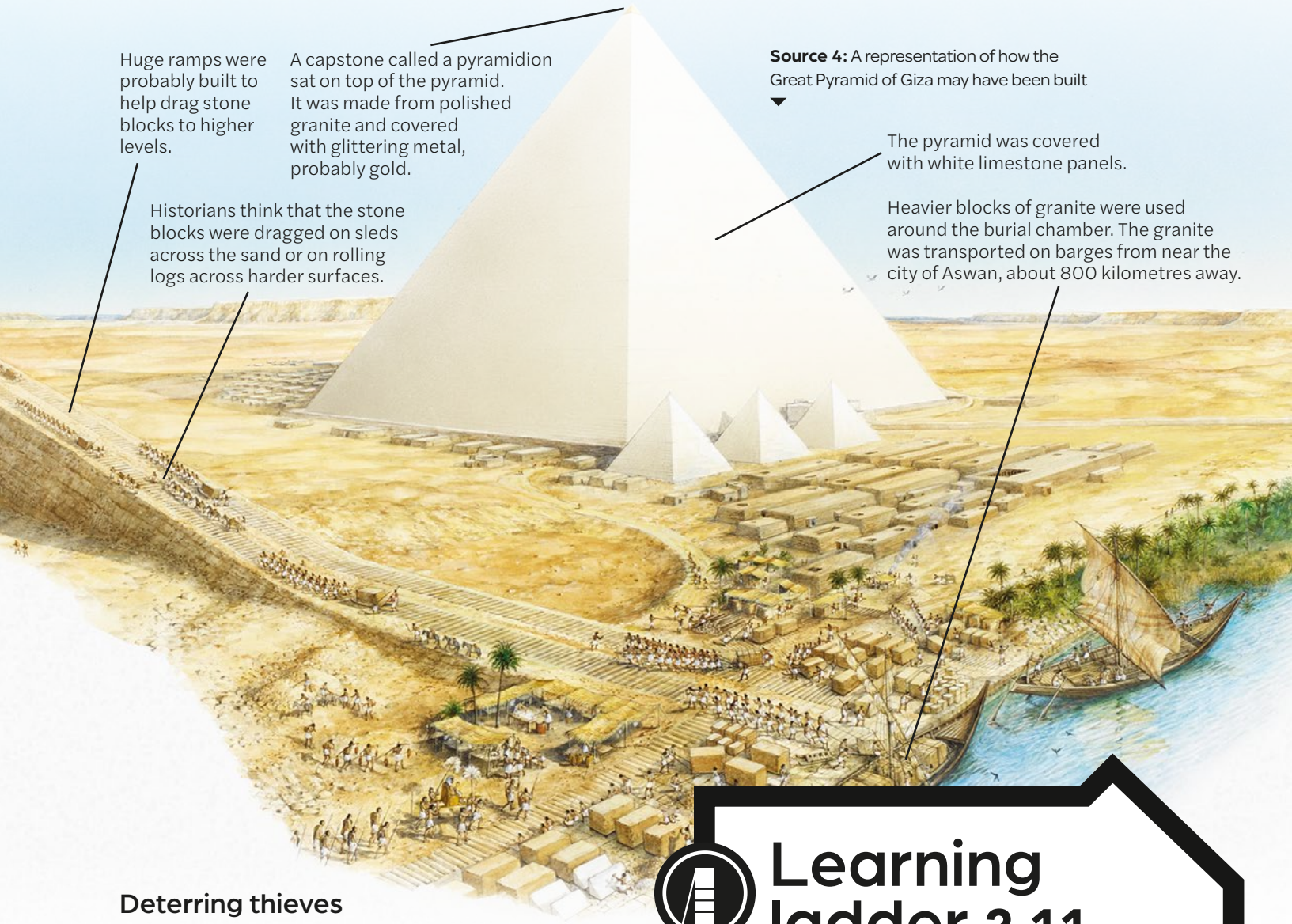
In 2014 CE, scientists from the University of Amsterdam used a sled to pull heavy stone across sand. They found it is much easier to pull a sled across wet rather than dry sand. This theory – that the ancient Egyptians moved heavy objects on sleds over wet sand – is supported by a wall painting uncovered in the tomb of Djehutihotep (see Source 2), which shows water being poured in front of a sled carrying a huge statue.



Source 1: Huge blocks of stone were cut by driving wooden stakes into the rock. The stakes were then made wet to make them expand and split the rock. About 100 000 men worked for 20 years to build the Great Pyramid of Giza.



Source 2: This wall painting is from the tomb of the nomarch Djehutihotep (c. 1932–1842 BCE). It shows his huge statue being dragged on a sled with a person pouring water in front of it. It is likely that water was poured in the path of the sled to reduce friction.



Source 4: A representation of how the Great Pyramid of Giza may have been built

Deterring thieves

Inside the pyramids, there were false doors, dead-end passages, piles of rubble, low ceilings, statues of the most feared gods and written curses that were intended to deter thieves. These deterents had little effect; robbers would often break into pyramids searching for gold; they would tear at the wrappings of mummies looking for amulets, often ripping off their heads, arms and hands.

> Gilded coffins, amulets of precious stones, exotic imported artefacts all proved too tempting for thieves. When embalmers began to include protective amulets, precious stones, gold, or silver within the mummy wrappings, even the deceased's corpse came under threat. Robbers probably attacked royal tombs soon after the king's funeral, and there is evidence of corruption among the necropolis employees charged with protecting the tombs.

Source 3: David P. Silverman (1997 CE), *Ancient Egypt*, OUP.

Learning ladder 2.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the purpose of the pyramids.
2. Source 4: Describe the appearance of the pyramids.
3. Explain how the ancient Egyptians tried to deter thieves from breaking into the pyramids.
4. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the pyramids were robbed.

Significance

1. Source 4: Identify the significant monument in the source.
2. Source 1: Describe how the ancient Egyptians cut stone blocks.
3. Sources 2 and 4: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the ancient Egyptians were able to move stone blocks from the quarries to the pyramid site.
4. Explain why the pyramids are considered historically significant.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

How did ancient Egyptians connect with other people?

Ancient Egyptians connected with people from other societies through trade, immigration and conflict.

Trade

Much of the contact ancient Egyptians had with people from other societies occurred through trade. Pharaohs sent trading expeditions to source goods the country needed but did not have.

Egypt exported grain, papyrus, flax, sandals, beer, wine, cheese, dried fish and linen cloth to other regions. Egypt imported luxury goods, such as silver, spices, cedarwood, incense, exotic animals, gold and ivory, and slaves.

Before 525 BCE, the ancient Egyptians did not use currency and traded goods using the **barter** system. To make trading easier, they used the **deben** as a unit of measurement. For example, one deben might be worth 100 bushels of grain and 45 metres of wood.

While most trade occurred peacefully, some was established by force. Pharaoh Djer, who ruled Egypt during the 1st dynasty, attacked Nubia to secure valuable resources, principally gold mines. The pharaohs who came after Djer defended Egypt's borders and used patrols to protect resources and trade routes.

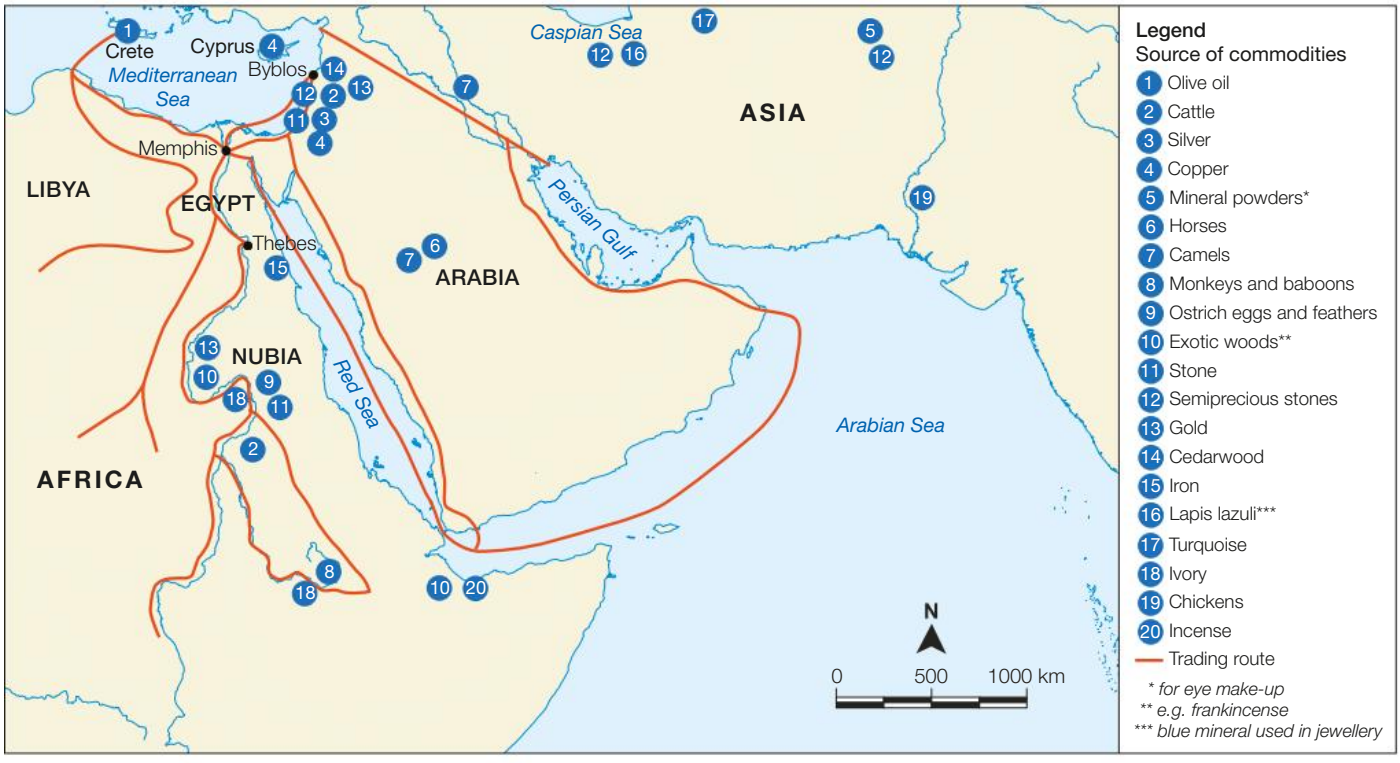
Immigration

In the early 18th century BCE, there was an influx of immigrants into Lower Egypt. The immigrants brought with them superior weaponry using new technologies, including the horse and chariot, bows that could shoot further, bronze axes and hard body armour.

Conflict

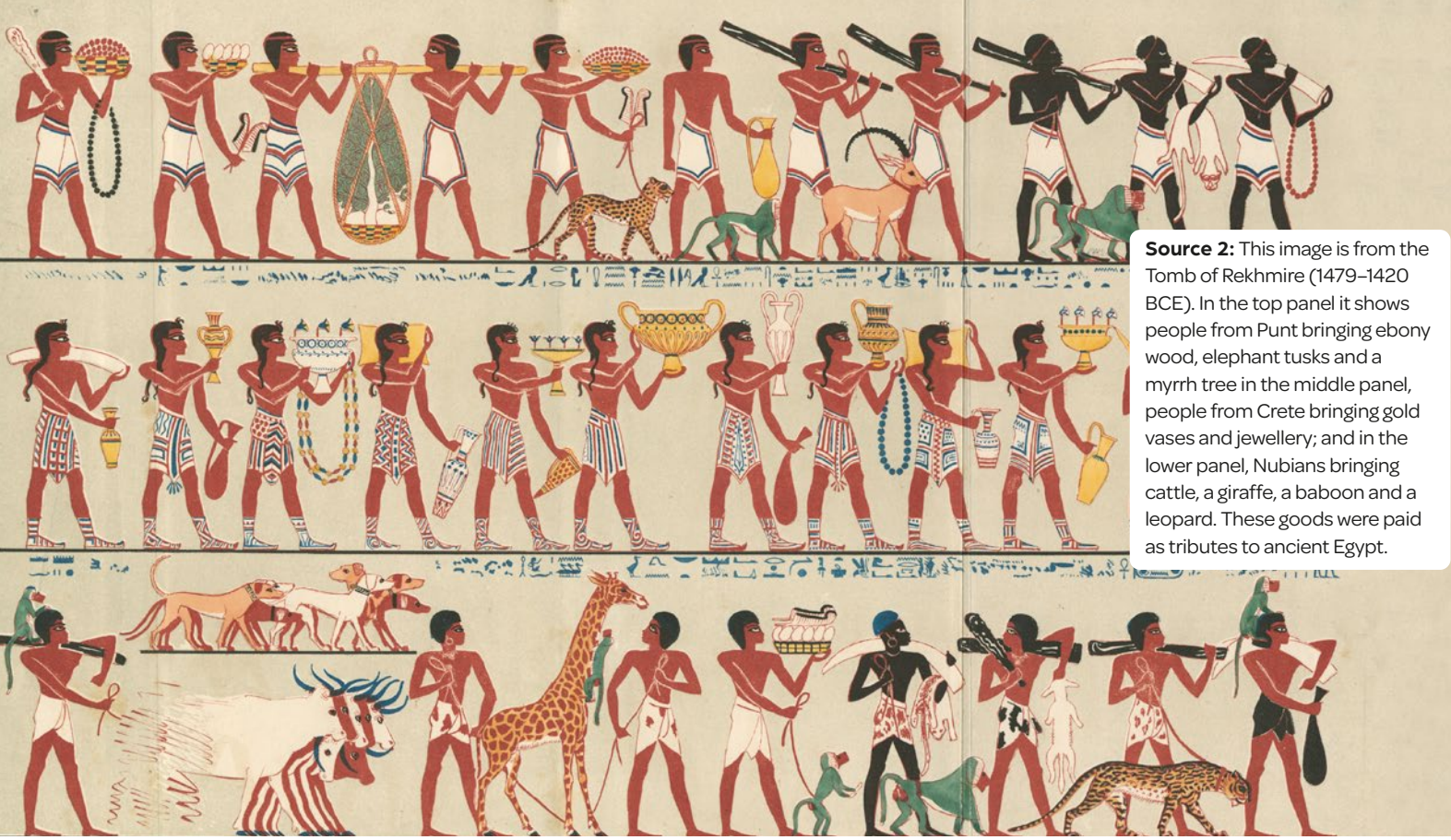
The ancient Egyptians adopted this new weaponry and from around 1550 BCE, ancient Egypt had a permanent army that consisted of professional soldiers. This army became one of the largest and most powerful in the world; it secured Egypt's borders and launched attacks on neighbouring countries.

Commodities traded and trade routes in north Africa and west Asia during the time of ancient Egypt



Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** Ancient Egyptians exchanged goods such as grain and papyrus for luxury items including silver and spices.



Source 2: This image is from the Tomb of Rekhmire (1479–1420 BCE). In the top panel it shows people from Punt bringing ebony wood, elephant tusks and a myrrh tree in the middle panel, people from Crete bringing gold vases and jewellery; and in the lower panel, Nubians bringing cattle, a giraffe, a baboon and a leopard. These goods were paid as tributes to ancient Egypt.

For example, in 1275 BCE, Ramses II marched his army into Syria to the Battle of Kadesh, which involved about 6000 chariots; this is the largest recorded chariot battle of all time. Once subdued, other nations were forced to pay a **tribute**, an annual payment of goods, to Egypt to ensure good relations continued. If they failed to pay this tribute, Egypt would invade them.

▼ **Source 3:** During the time of the Middle Kingdom, the ancient Egyptians adopted a new way of fighting, using chariots and bronze weapons. During battle, pharaohs wore a special blue crown, known as the *khepresh*. [Herbert M. Herget (1941 CE), *King Thutmose III Drives his Chariot into Battle Near Har Megiddo*]

Learning ladder 2.12

Impacts and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify three items imported by ancient Egypt.
2. Source 2: Describe the annual tributes paid to ancient Egypt.
3. Explain how ancient Egypt's bartering system worked.
4. Source 1: Explain why Egypt's geographical position was an advantage for trade.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages for Nubia in its relationship with Egypt.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the cause of ancient Egypt's trading expeditions.
2. Describe the cause of Pharaoh Djer's attack on Nubia.
3. Explain how the immigration of people from Palestine was a cause of Egypt's rise as a military power.
4. Source 2: Explain why Egypt's neighbours paid tributes.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

Key individual

Why were Hatshepsut's monuments defaced?

Hatshepsut's reign was one of the most peaceful and prosperous in ancient Egypt's history.

Who was Hatshepsut?

Hatshepsut was the main wife of Pharaoh Thutmose II. When he died in 1479 BCE, his son Thutmose III, born to one of his other wives, was next in line. Thutmose III was very young (around the age of two) and, at first, Hatshepsut acted as **regent**. But then, for reasons that are unknown, she proclaimed herself pharaoh in 1473 BCE, stating that the sun god Amun-Ra had ordained her rule. Thutmose III did not get to rule on his own until Hatshepsut died in 1458 BCE (when he was 23).

Hatshepsut dressed as a male pharaoh and wore a beard to demonstrate her right to rule. However, she also made sure that every text and inscription that referred to her used female pronouns – 'she' and 'her'.

Hatshepsut's establishment of peace and prosperity

Hatshepsut led several major military campaigns, against Nubia, Syria, Palestine and Gaza, to protect her empire. When Thutmose III turned 16, he became the leader of her armies. Aside from these wars, the remainder of Hatshepsut's reign was relatively peaceful.

Source 1: Restored life-sized statue of Hatshepsut from the Temple at Deir el-Bahri, c. 1470 BCE. Parts of it were found during excavations conducted in 1843 CE and 1926 CE. Hatshepsut is shown wearing the traditional headdress and kilt of a male pharaoh. The titles on the sides of the throne read 'The perfect goddess, lady of the Two Lands' and 'Daughter of Ra'.

Hatshepsut was successful in her efforts to re-establish ancient Egypt's trade networks, which had been disrupted by the Hyksos occupation of Egypt (1650–1550 BCE). Most importantly, she made a trade expedition to the land of Punt (c. 1460 BCE). Historians currently believe the land of Punt was located south of the ancient Egyptian empire, near modern-day Eritrea. The ancient Egyptians began buying gold, resins, timber, ivory and slaves from Punt. They also bought live myrrh trees to transplant in Egypt. This is the world's first recorded attempt to transplant foreign trees.

Hatshepsut's monuments

Hatshepsut's restoration of trade made ancient Egypt very wealthy. This allowed Hatshepsut to embark on a large monument-building program in Egypt. Her building works included the Temple of Karnak, the Temple at Deir el-Bahri and the Fortress of Western Thebes. Many of her monuments contained inscriptions that celebrated her reign.

Why were Hatshepsut's monuments defaced?

When Hatshepsut died, her stepson Thutmose III cut out her name from all her monuments and destroyed her statues. All references to her as 'pharaoh' of Egypt were scratched out at the Temple of Karnak, and her statues at Deir el-Bahri were damaged. Wherever a reference to her as 'pharaoh' was scratched out, it was replaced with 'Thutmose III' or sometimes with the names of earlier pharaohs, such as 'Thutmose II' or 'Thutmose I'.

The destruction of a former pharaoh's monuments was not unusual. Hatshepsut herself had altered or destroyed monuments built by previous pharaohs. Pharaohs often did this to establish the importance of their own reign. However, they rarely scratched out the name of a previous pharaoh.

Historians have proposed a range of explanations for the erasure of Hatshepsut's name. Some conclude that Thutmose III didn't like his stepmother and resented that she had held on to power for so long. Others argue that Hatshepsut's name was erased because the male pharaohs who succeeded her felt threatened by her great success as a female pharaoh.

Rediscovering Hatshepsut

The erasure of Hatshepsut's name meant that she was almost lost to history. By the middle of the 19th century, however, archaeologists had started to read the hieroglyphics on some of Hatshepsut's temples and found that Thutmose III had made some mistakes. While he had erased Hatshepsut's name and replaced it with his own, there were still several inscriptions that contained the word 'she' instead of 'he'. For example, an inscription at Deir el-Bahri had the name of the pharaoh as 'Thutmose III' but forgotten to change 'her' to 'his', so that it read 'Amun is satisfied by her monuments'. Today historians are undertaking more thorough research, striving to restore Hatshepsut to her rightful place in history.

Source 2: Part of a badly damaged limestone statue of Hatshepsut, found in the Temple at Deir el-Bahri

Hatshepsut's achievements are relevant to us precisely because they were ultimately rejected and forgotten – both by her own people and by the subsequent authors of history. She was the most formidable and successful woman to ever rule in the ancient Western world, and yet today few people can even pronounce her name ... the traces she left behind teach us what it means to be a woman at the highest echelons of power ...

Hatshepsut had to carve out her own niche in a society that identified power with masculinity. To do this, she had to explore what feats a woman could accomplish.

Source 3: Kara Cooney (2014), *The Woman Who Would Be King: Hatshepsut's Rise to Power in Ancient Egypt*, Crown Publishers, New York.

Learning ladder 2.13

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify three important buildings built during Hatshepsut's reign.
2. Describe how Hatshepsut brought peace and prosperity to ancient Egypt.
3. Source 1: Using the source, explain how Hatshepsut demonstrated her right to rule.
4. Explain why Hatshepsut was a significant ruler of ancient Egypt.
5. Source 3: What does the author of the source mean about Hatshepsut's significance as a woman ruler in the ancient world? Explain your answer.

Contestability

1. Source 2: Identify what has happened to this source.
2. Describe what Thutmose III did to try to erase Hatshepsut from history.
3. Source 2: Explain how historians recovered Hatshepsut's place in history.
4. Explain the two different theories historians have suggested to explain the erasure of Hatshepsut's name.
5. Which theory do you support? Why?

HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

2.14

What are the legacies of the ancient Egyptians?

The ancient Egyptians left a lasting legacy through their unique buildings, inventions and discoveries that contributed to the development of the modern world.

Amazing buildings and monuments

The pyramid is recognisable around the world as a symbol of ancient Egypt. The Great Pyramid of Giza was the tallest building on Earth for more than 3800 years. This pyramid is the only remaining structure of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World, which were the most remarkable structures of the ancient world.

How the ancient Egyptians constructed these giant monuments without the help of modern technology confounded historians for centuries. The size, orientation and precision of the pyramids show their amazing skills in mathematics, astronomy, architecture and engineering. Each year more than 10 million tourists visit Egypt to marvel at the museums, temples, pyramids and monuments.

Source 1: Ancient Egyptians used a surveying instrument called a *merkhet* to tell the time at night.

Scientific achievements

Ancient Egyptians also left a legacy through their scientific ideas and inventions, including:

- measuring time using the sundial, water clock and *merkhet* (see Source 1)
- their mathematical achievements in using the cubit to measure length and the deben to measure quantities, and using geometry to build the pyramids
- their observations of astronomy, which led to the development of the Egyptian civil calendar, with 365 days and three seasons of 120 days each; the seasons had four months of 30 days; this is the basis of the calendars we use today
- their medical knowledge and remedies, which were the most advanced of any society at the time; ancient Egyptians used herbs and animal products to treat wounds and even performed surgery
- technological advances such as the potter's wheel and the development of the first paper-like material, which was made from papyrus reeds
- the first cosmetics can be traced back to the ancient Egyptians; creams and powders were used to make skin look lighter while black kohl was used as eyeliner and mascara.

Written language

The ancient Egyptians were among the earliest peoples to use symbols to represent individual sounds. Egyptian hieroglyphic script contained 24 symbols that stood for single letters, much like the English alphabet today. Ancient Egyptians also began using papyrus for their written texts.

Source 2: Tourists flock to the pyramids and sphinx at Giza in Cairo, Egypt.

Source 3: Ancient Egyptians invented papyrus in c. 3000 BCE. It was made from thin strips of papyrus reeds that were soaked, pounded, woven together and then pressed into sheets.

Learning ladder 2.14

Impacts and legacies

1. Source 2: Identify the major monuments in the source.
2. Source 3: Describe how papyrus was made.
3. Explain how measuring time would change society.
4. Source 2: Explain why ancient Egypt continues to fascinate people.

Significance

1. Identify three significant scientific achievements made by the ancient Egyptians.
2. Describe the significant mathematical achievements of the ancient Egyptians.
3. Explain how the Egyptian calendar is the basis of our calendar today.
4. Source 1: Explain why the merkhet is a significant invention.
5. Analyse the inventions of the ancient Egyptians. Which invention do you think has the greatest significance today and why?

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on ancient Egypt. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of ancient Egypt. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice.

The chapter covered the origins and legacies of ancient Egypt in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The gods that the ancient Egyptians worshipped, page 46
- The role of female pharaohs in ancient Egypt, page 57
- The life of Tutankhamun, pages 50, 51
- The Battle of Kadesh, pages 41, 55
- The monuments of ancient Egypt, pages 37 to 39, 58

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas.

Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry. Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?

Wonder

What does it make you wonder?
What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

Ancient India

3

WHY IS VISHNU THE PRESERVER?

WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

WHY DID EMPEROR ASHOKA SPREAD PEACE?

HOW WERE WAR ELEPHANTS USED?

3.0

How can I understand ancient India?

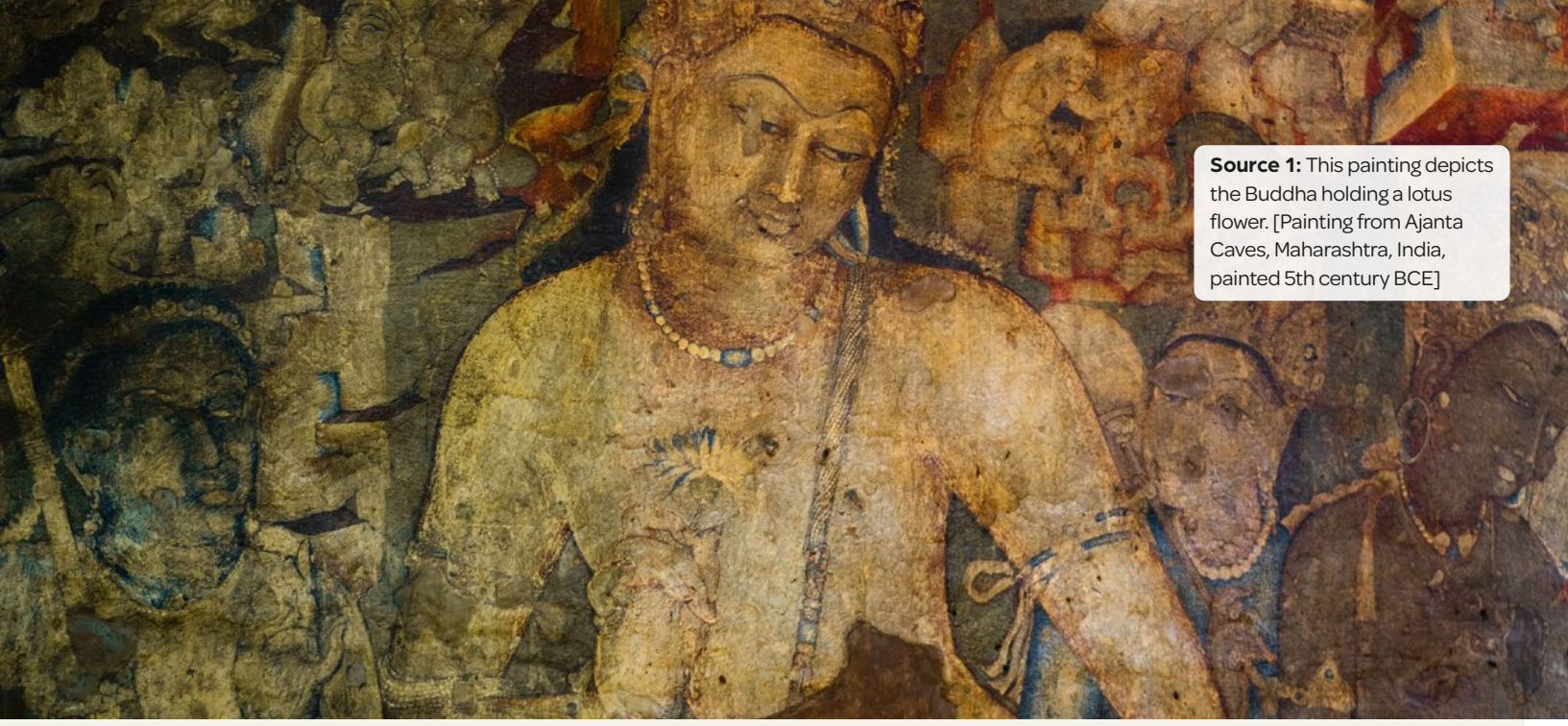
The ancient Indian society flourished from around 2800 BCE to 550 BCE The developments of the society spawned two of the world's most important religions today – Hinduism and Buddhism – and led to breakthroughs in mathematics.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: This painting depicts the Buddha holding a lotus flower. [Painting from Ajanta Caves, Maharashtra, India, painted 5th century BCE]

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skills progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What is ancient India?

Ancient India saw the rise and fall of several societies, cities, kingdoms and empires.

The Indus Valley society

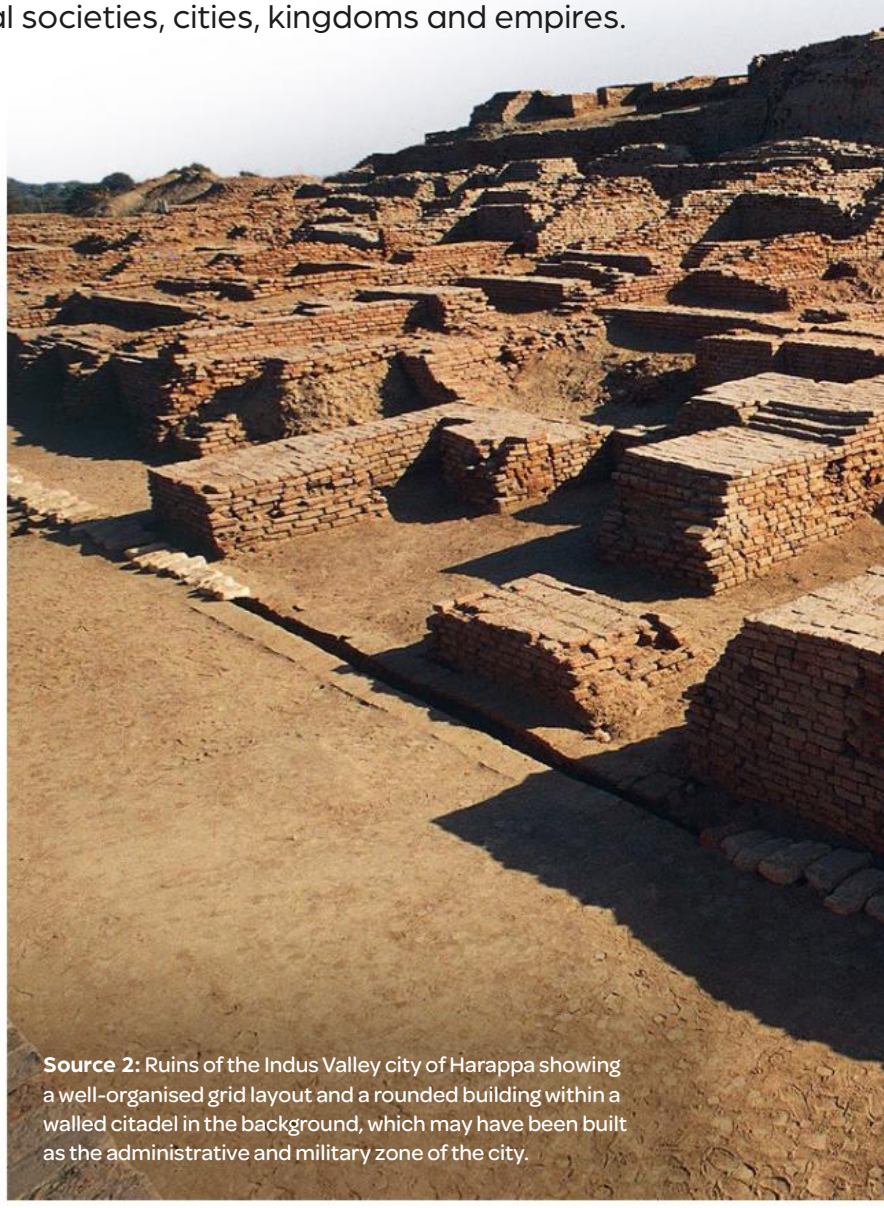
The first great Indian society, known as the Indus Valley society, lasted from 2800 BCE to 1300 BCE. The people of the Indus Valley formed one of the oldest settled societies in the world, with cities, multi-storied houses and bronze tools. Around 1800 BCE, the Indus Valley society was affected by a severe and prolonged drought. This, along with a collapse in trade with Egypt and Mesopotamia (Iraq), led to the abandonment of the cities by 1700 BCE and a gradual collapse of the Indus Valley society.

The Vedic society

From about 2000 BCE onward, small groups of people, known as Indo-Aryans, travelled south into India. The Indo-Aryans used iron tools, horses and chariots. They established a new society in India, known as the Vedic society (2000–500 BCE). The Vedic society is famous for the *Rigveda* (1700–1100 BCE), a book of Hindu hymns and scriptures written in Sanskrit.

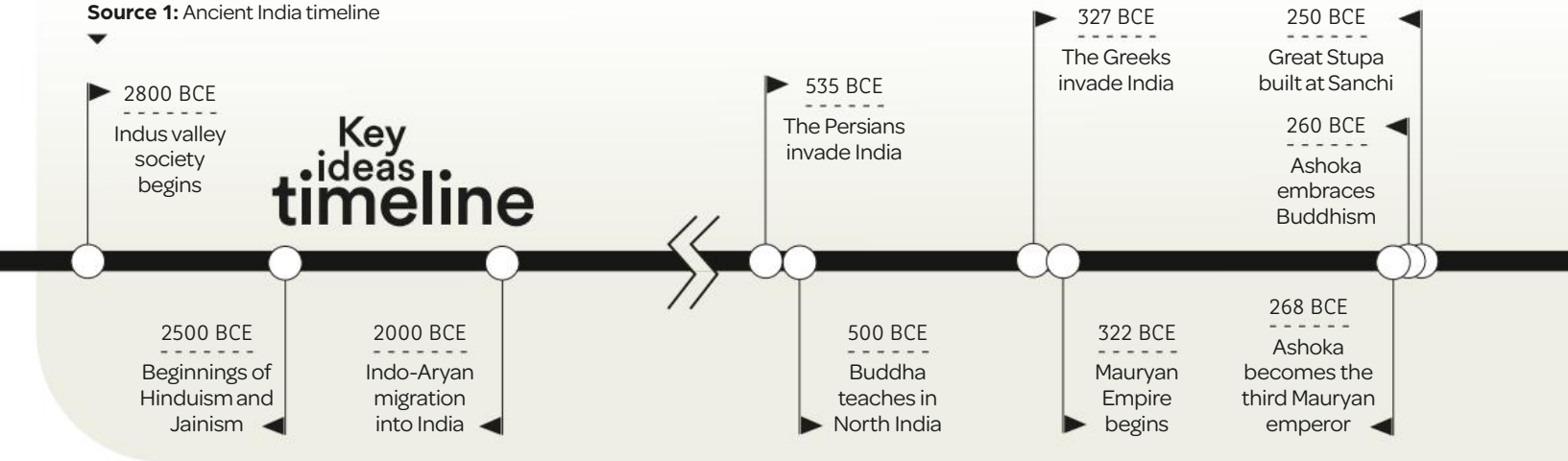
The Mauryan Empire

The Indus River region was conquered by the Persians in 516 BCE and by the Greeks in 327 BCE. It was not until 322 BCE that the Indian Mauryan Empire managed to regain control of the Indus Valley. During the Mauryan period, communication, trade and Buddhism expanded across South-East Asia. The Mauryan Empire lasted until 185 BCE.



Source 2: Ruins of the Indus Valley city of Harappa showing a well-organised grid layout and a rounded building within a walled citadel in the background, which may have been built as the administrative and military zone of the city.

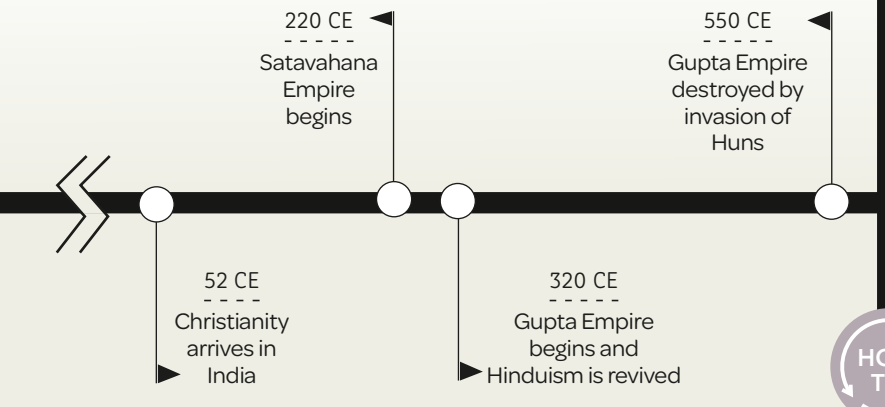
Source 1: Ancient India timeline



The Gupta Empire

The Gupta Empire (320–550 CE) is sometimes referred to as the 'golden age' of India. Great developments occurred in literature, architecture and science, and Hinduism was revived as India's main religion. Indian culture became very influential in South-East Asia.

Source 3: Bronze ox (c. 2000 BCE) found at Harappa



Learning ladder 3.1

Background and origins

1. List the four major periods in ancient Indian history.
2. Describe the Gupta Empire.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain the features of the Indus Valley society.
4. Explain why the Mauryan and Gupta empires had a significant impact on South-East Asia.

Chronology

1. Source 1: When was the Great Stupa built?
2. List these events in chronological order, from the oldest to the most recent:
   - 322 BCE: Chandragupta I becomes emperor
   - 326 BCE: Battle of the Hydaspes
   - 563 BCE: The Buddha is born
   - c.500 BCE: The Indian epic, the 'Ramanyana', is written.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Source 1: Explain how the timeline demonstrates the concept of religious continuity and change.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

3.2

How did India's geography influence its development?

India's geography supported the development of a dynamic society that was at the heart of the ancient world, enabling a steady flow of trade goods, military technology and religious ideas between India and other societies to its north, east and west.

Physical features of the region

Ancient India was divided into three main geographical regions: the great triangular peninsula that projects into the Indian Ocean; the Himalayan and Karakorum mountain regions to the north and west; and the river plains of northern India, stretching from the Indus River in the west to the Ganges River in the east. All three areas have played a role in its history.

The peninsula

India is called a peninsula because it is surrounded by water on three sides: the Indian Ocean to the south, the Arabian Sea to the west, and the Bay of Bengal to the east. Small fishing settlements began to appear in the coastal regions from 6000 BCE. By c. 350 BCE, the settlements had grown into established trade towns. There was a vibrant sea trade between these towns and Arabia, Greece and Rome to the west and South-East Asia to the east.

Ancient India

▲ **Source 1:** Key physical features of India

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Mountain ranges called the Eastern Ghats and the Western Ghats frame the Deccan Plateau. This area was the main source of India's timber and elephants. Elephants were used for transport and also played a role in warfare.

Mountains

The Indian subcontinent is separated from Afghanistan and Iran by the Hindu Kush and Karakoram mountain ranges, and from China and Tibet by the Himalayan mountain range. The Karakoram Pass, a road through the Karakoram mountain range, was the route Indian merchants used to join the great Silk Road trade route from China to Europe. Access to the Silk Road brought India into contact with ideas, goods and technology from societies in Asia, the Middle East, north Africa and Europe.

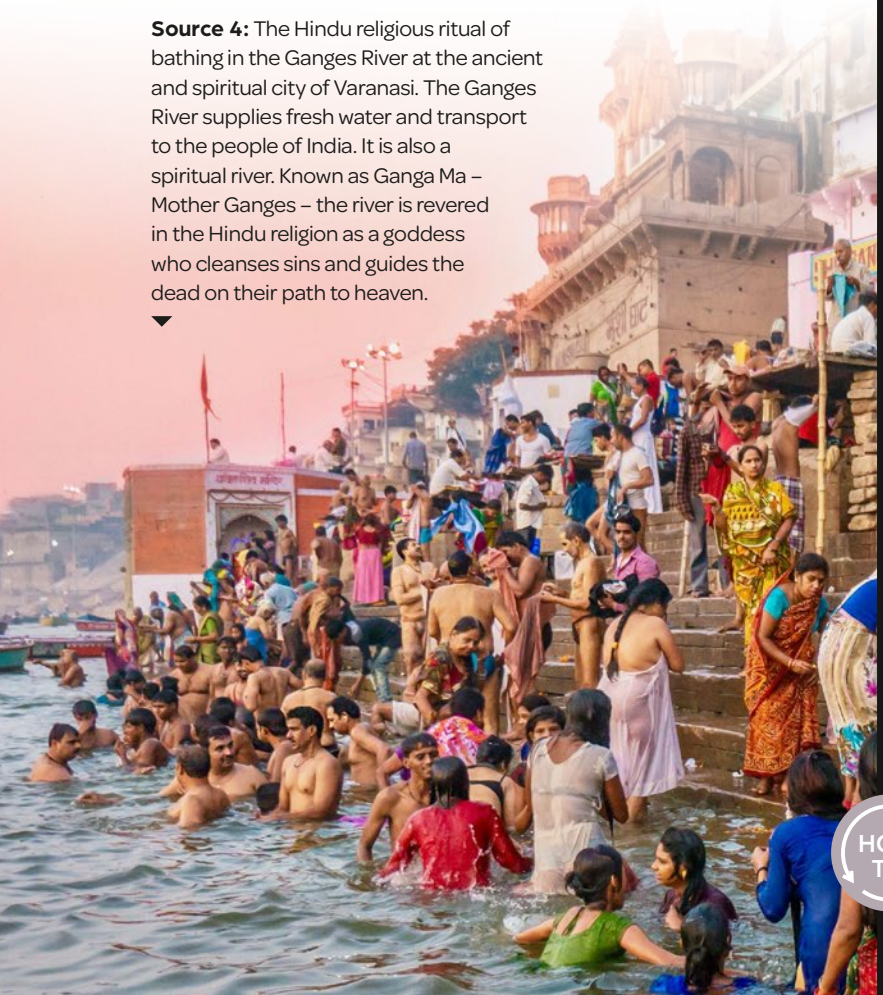
There is a forest, by name Vindhya ... It is beauteous with trees watered with the ichor [immortal fluid] of wild elephants ... the ground is covered with torn fruit and leaves shaken down by restless monkeys ...

Source 2: This was written by Banabhatta, who was a writer and poet in the court of King Harsha Vardhana (606–647 CE) in north India. [Banabhatta (c. 650 CE), *Kadambari*]

The mountains that frame India protected the country to the east, but the Khyber and the Bolan passes in the north-west allowed a series of invaders into the west River Plains region, including the Persians under King Darius I in 516 BCE and the Greeks under Alexander the Great from 327–325 BCE.

River plains

Three great rivers run through India: the Indus, the Brahmaputra and the Ganges. The first great Indian society, known as the Indus Valley, was centred on the Indus River plains. The soils of the Indus River plains, known as **khadar** soils, are rich and fertile. The Indus people grew rice, wheat, lentils, beans and cotton. The fresh water and fertile soils made the Indus Valley a good place to settle.



Source 4: The Hindu religious ritual of bathing in the Ganges River at the ancient and spiritual city of Varanasi. The Ganges River supplies fresh water and transport to the people of India. It is also a spiritual river. Known as Ganga Ma – Mother Ganges – the river is revered in the Hindu religion as a goddess who cleanses sins and guides the dead on their path to heaven.

Source 3: The highest mountain range in the world, the Himalayas mark the northern border of India and separate it from China.

Learning ladder 3.2

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the three main geographical features that influenced the development of ancient Indian society.
2. Describe the key geographical features of ancient India.
3. Source 4: Explain how the River Ganges is significant to Hindus.
4. Explain why the coastal plains of India were important to its development of international sea-trade links.
5. Sources 1, 3 and 4: Analyse the importance of the geographical features of India to the development of ancient Indian trade, warfare and religion.

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify the cause of the torn fruit and leaves on the ground of the forests.
2. Describe the effect of the rivers on the settlement of the Indus Valley.
3. Explain how the Indus River plains were a cause of the development of the Indus Valley society.
4. Explain why the Kharakorum Pass had an effect on Indian trade and society.
5. Evaluate the positive and negative effects of the mountain passes for ancient India.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

How did the world begin?

The people of ancient India followed a number of different religions, each with its own creation myth. Of these, the Hindu creation story is the best known. Hinduism developed over 5000 years, with its origins stretching back to the Indus Valley society.

The Hindu creation story

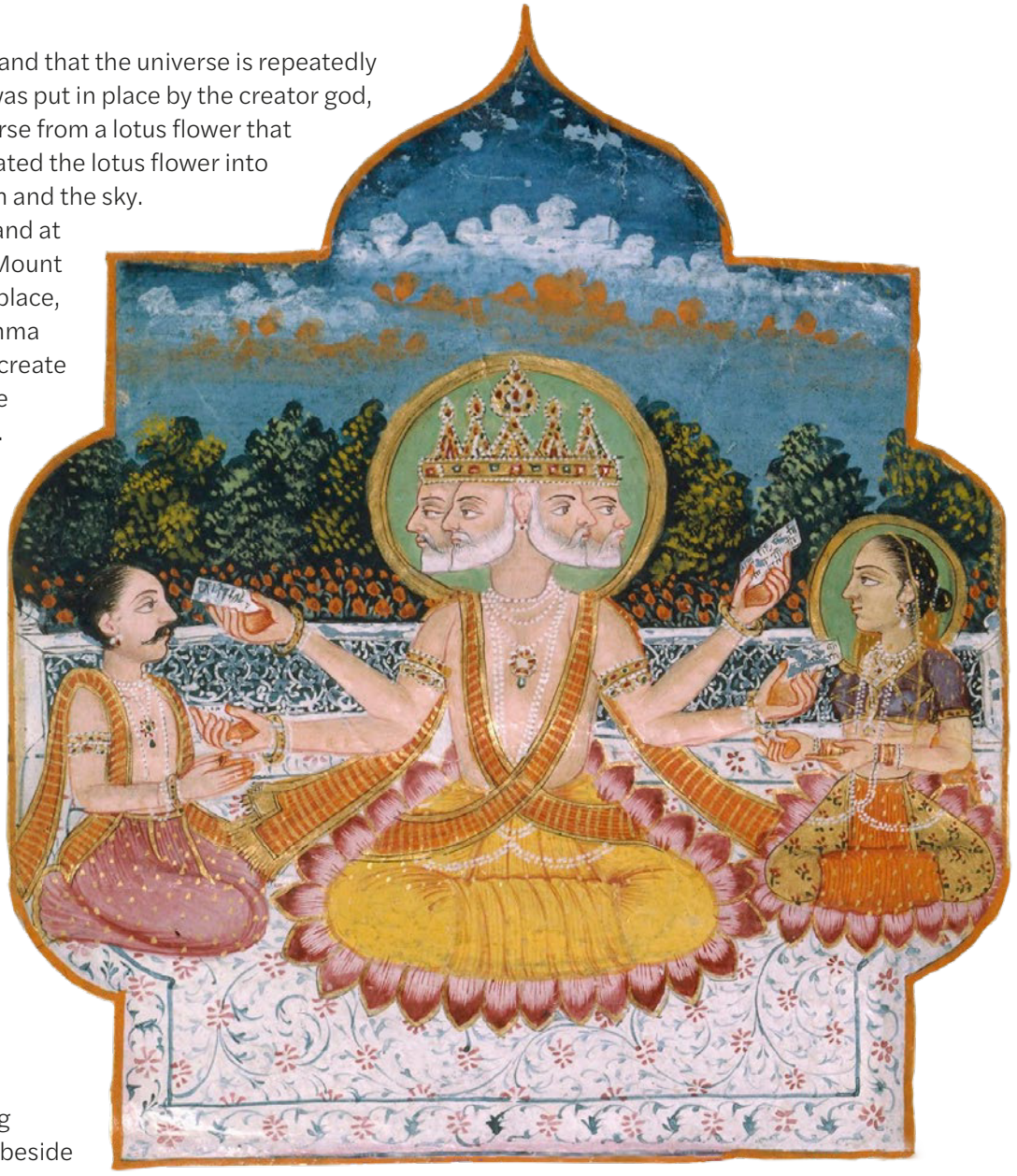
Hindus believe that time is cyclical and that the universe is repeatedly created and destroyed. This cycle was put in place by the creator god, Brahma. Brahma created the universe from a lotus flower that grew from his navel. Brahma separated the lotus flower into three parts – the heavens, the earth and the sky. The earth was shaped like a wheel and at its centre was a mountain, named Mount Meru. Mount Meru was a heavenly place, encircled by the River Ganges. Brahma then split himself into two parts to create a male and a female. From this male and female all beings were created.

After Brahma created the world, the god Vishnu preserved the world and its people. Shiva, the god of death, will ultimately destroy the universe, allowing Brahma to start the process of creation all over again.

The Great Flood

One of the most popular Hindu stories is that of Manu and the Great Flood. Manu was the father of the human race. He is believed to have written the *Manusmriti* (Laws of Manu), an important book of laws that all Hindus must follow.

In the story, Manu had lived for 10 000 years, faithfully worshipping Brahma. One day Manu was sitting beside a stream when a small fish called out to him from the water: 'Please, protect me! This bigger fish is chasing me.' Manu scooped up the little fish and placed it in a pond. The fish started to grow and quickly became too big for the pond.



Source 1: The Hindu god Brahma (centre), recognisable by his four faces, with Chitragupta (left), who records the activities of humans, and Sarasvati (right), the goddess of wisdom. [An illustration by an unknown artist from the *Bhagavata Purana*, 1793 CE]

The fish called out to Manu again: 'Please, place me into the River Ganges.' Manu did as the fish asked. But again, the fish began to grow and before long was too large for the river. 'Please, take me to the ocean,' asked the fish. When Manu put the fish into the ocean, it revealed itself to be none other than Brahma himself. Brahma then warned Manu of the coming destruction of the world by a great flood.

'Build an ark,' Brahma advised, 'and place in it the seven wise people (***rishi***) and the seeds of everything.' As soon as Manu had built his ark and filled it as Brahma had told him, it began to rain. It rained so much that everything in the world was covered with water and destroyed. Meanwhile, the ark floated on the water. When the waters receded, the ark came to rest on the highest peak of the Himalayas. Manu left the ark and began to prepare for the new age.

O best Mother, best River, best Goddess, Sarasvati, as soon as we are without (the power of) expression, O Mother, create for us expression.

Source 3: The *Rigveda*, II:41:16 (c. 1700–1000 BCE). The *Rigveda* is a collection of hymns, written during the Vedic period.

▲ **Source 2:** Manu and the seven *rishi* in the ark, with Brahma in fish form, during the Great Flood

Learning ladder 3.3

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the Hindu creator god shown in this source.
2. Describe the Hindu understanding of time.
3. Explain how the world was created, according to Hindu mythology.
4. Explain why the Great Flood story is an example of the Hindu concept of cyclical time.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the scene shown in the source.
3. Source 3: Explain how the goddess of wisdom, Sarasvati, is described in this source.
4. Source 2: Explain why Manu is an important figure in Indian mythology.

Source analysis, page 475

HOW TO

How was ancient Indian society organised?

Ancient Indian society was based the caste system, which divided people into four classes based on occupation and birth. Outside of the caste system were the 'untouchables' and slaves.

India's caste system

A key feature of ancient Indian society was its division into four **castes**. The caste system originated with the arrival of Indo-Aryans into India from c. 2000 BCE.

Early Brahman scriptures organised the people of tribal societies into four **varnas**. The word 'varna' means 'class of men'. The four varnas are said to have originated from Brahma, the Hindu god of creation. According to the Rigveda hymns, a cosmic man named Purusha used his body to create society. Brahmans (leaders) came from Purusha's head, Kshatriyas (warriors) from his arms, Vaishyas (commoners) from his thighs and Shudras (labourers) from his feet (see Source 2).

Your caste determined your place in society and your occupation. Your caste also determined who you could marry, a system that persists today. A survey in 2016 CE revealed that only five per cent of marriages in India are between people from different castes.

While the Brahman scriptures defined the varnas, they did not state that people had to remain in the caste they were born into. Furthermore, the early scriptures do not place any restrictions on the lower caste, Shudra, participating in religious rituals. By 200 CE, however, the *Manusmriti* had been written and became much more important in Hinduism. The *Manusmriti* contained laws that restricted a person to the caste they were born into and forbade Shudras from participating in religious rituals. Modern-day Hindus disagree over whether the *Manusmriti* is meant to be taken literally or is meant as a guide for the caste system.

Untouchables

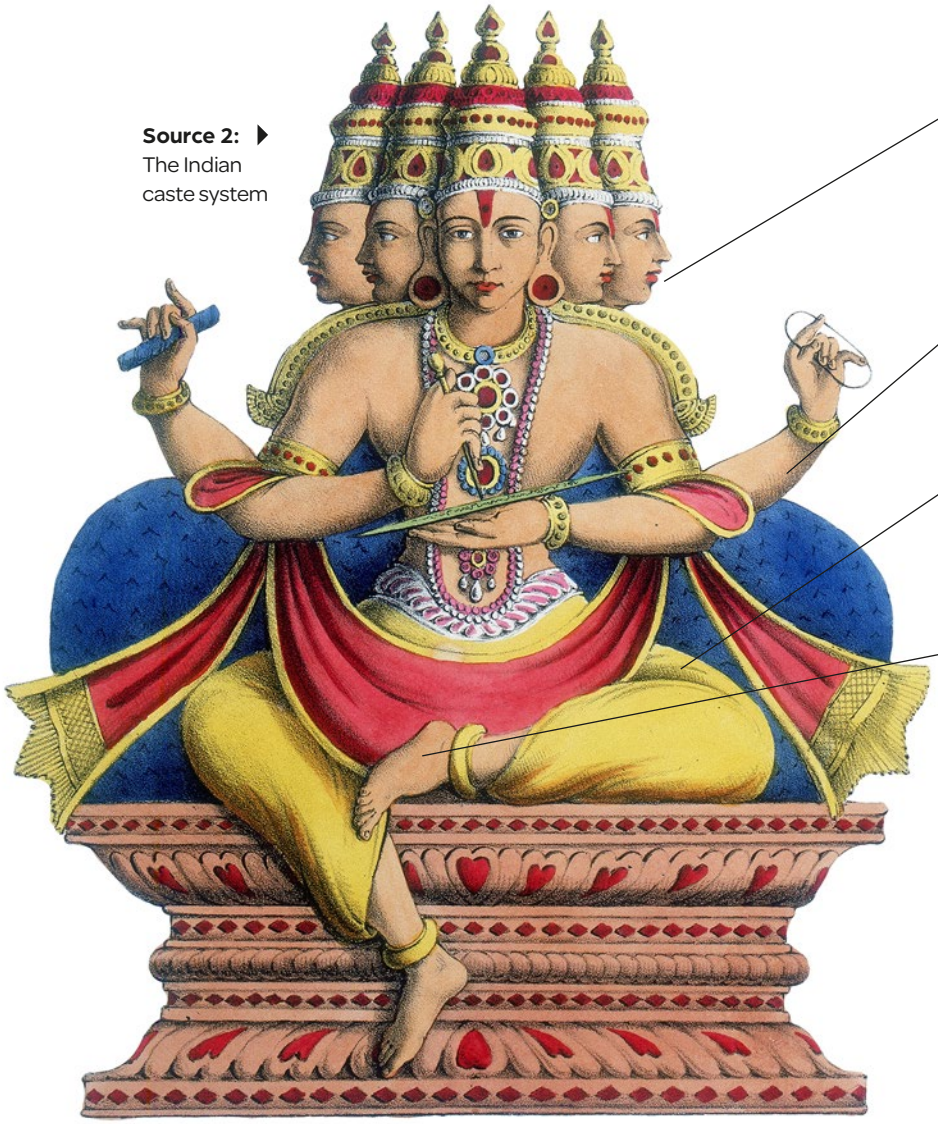
Outside the caste system were the 'untouchables' (now known as Dalits), the poorest, dark-skinned Indians who swept the streets, buried the dead and collected garbage. They were regarded as impure. They were forbidden to use the same wells as higher-caste Indians and from living in the villages. Untouchables made up about five per cent of the ancient Indian population.

Source 1: This street sweeper is one of hundreds of millions of untouchables and lower-caste Hindus.

Slaves

Another group of individuals who sat outside the caste system were slaves. Slaves were usually people who had been captured during war, but sometimes were people who had sold themselves into slavery in order to pay off their debts. Slaves mainly worked in upper-caste households doing domestic work. Slaves were rarely set free, unless they saved their master from death or they managed to pay off their debts (as slaves could earn money in their spare time). Although slavery was outlawed in India between 1860 CE and 1926 CE, there are around eight million people in India today who are illegally enslaved.

Source 2: ▶
The Indian caste system



Brahmans: mouth
Duties: teaching, studying and performing sacrificifial rites; later, thinkers, law-givers, judges and ministers of state as well as priests.

Kshatriyas (2nd class): arms
Duties: protection of the people. They were kings, nobles and warriors.

Vaisyas (3rd class): thighs
Duties: tending of cattle, trade and commerce. They were landowners, merchants and money lenders.

Shudras (4th class): feet
Duties: service to the other three classes. They were workers, craftspeople and peasants, all of whom were barred from taking part in Aryan religious rituals.

Dalits
Outside of the Hindu caste system were the Dalits or the untouchables. They were the poorest group in society who swept the streets and collected the garbage.

Learning ladder 3.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the four classes in the caste system and the two groups outside the caste system.
2. Source 2: Describe each of the four classes in the caste system.
3. Explain the role of the groups outside the caste system.
4. Explain how the caste system developed.
5. Why was the untouchable class important to the development of ancient Indian society?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify how this image represents continuity from ancient India to today.
2. Describe how the practice of slavery has changed in India from the ancient period to today.
3. Explain how the caste system has remained the same since ancient times.
4. Explain why a person could not change their caste after the 1st century BCE.
5. Which groups would be reluctant to change the caste system? Why?

What did the ancient Indians believe?

The ancient Indians developed many different religions, the most important of which were Brahmanism, Hinduism, Buddhism and Jainism. All four contained the idea of rebirth, and the concept of seeking escape from the endless cycle of life and death.

Brahmanism

Brahmanism was the religion of the Vedic culture. Its main religious texts are the 'Four Vedas': the Rigveda, the Yajurveda, the Samaveda and the Atharvaveda. The Sanskrit word for prayer is 'brahman', and the priests who conducted the rituals that protected believers were also called Brahmans. Brahmanism said that if you behaved well in this life, you would be reborn into a higher class in the next life. If you behaved badly, you would be reborn into a lower class or even as an animal. The only way of escape was to work your way up through rebirths to being a Brahman (priest). If you then led a good life, you would finally free your soul to reach Supreme Bliss.

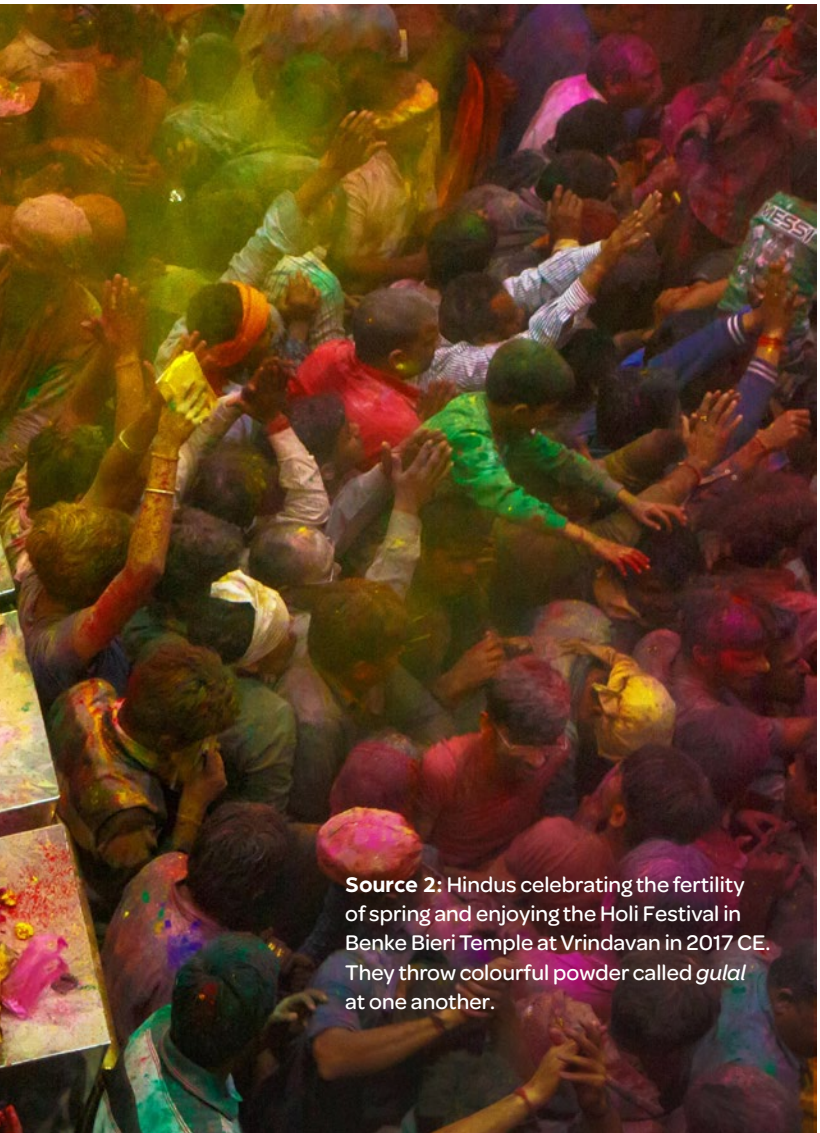
Hinduism

Hinduism, which is the dominant religion in India today, developed out of Brahmanism. The sacred texts of Hinduism are the Four Vedas that originated in Brahmanism, as well as later texts such as the Upanishads and the epic poems the 'Mahabharata' and the 'Ramayana'.

Hinduism began to take the form known today in the time of the Gupta emperors, that is, in the 4th century CE. It was under the Guptas that the first statues of the gods and the first Hindu temples were created, either in brick or carved into rock.

There are hundreds of Hindu gods and goddesses, but the two main gods are the god Vishnu and the god Shiva. Hindus do not need Brahman priests to conduct rituals to protect them. They can take part in fasts and in pilgrimages to their god's shrine, thus helping themselves to become a Brahman and freeing themselves from rebirth.

Hindu followers believe bathing in the holy waters of the Ganges River washes away their sins and allows them to be freed from the cycle of rebirth. Known as *Ganga Ma* – Mother Ganges – the river is revered in the Hindu religion as a goddess who cleanses sins and guides the dead to heaven. Pilgrims travel from all over India to important spiritual places such as Varanasi to scatter the ashes of their relatives on the holy waters so their souls will go to Heaven.



Source 2: Hindus celebrating the fertility of spring and enjoying the Holi Festival in Benke Bieri Temple at Vrindavan in 2017 CE. They throw colourful powder called *gulal* at one another.

Source 1: Standing four-armed Vishnu, c. 450 CE, found in Uttar Pradesh, India

Source 3: Buddhist monks pray in front of the holy Bodhi Tree at Bodh Gaya, where Buddha experienced enlightenment.

Buddhism

The Buddha (c. 563–483 BCE) was born as Siddhartha Gautama, the son of a Hindu **rajah** from the Shakyan tribal republic in north India. When he was 29 years old, Gautama decided to leave his wife and children and seek salvation. First, he tried punishing his body with beatings and starvation, but that did not help.

One day, he sat under a type of fig tree and meditated for 49 days. He believed that the world was full of suffering, which was caused by human desires. He thought there was a 'Middle Way' between the extremes of **asceticism** and worldly life, so he suggested an Eightfold Path: doing the right thing in life in your ideas, resolutions, speech, conduct, livelihood, efforts, recollections and meditation. By following the Path, the soul would reach **nirvana** without going through the cycle of rebirths. Gautama was now the Buddha or the 'Enlightened One' and he set out to preach and convert others to his way of thinking. The tree under which he sat is known as the Bodhi Tree because it is here that the Buddha achieved *bodhi* or enlightenment.

Buddhism became a major religion in India under the Emperor Ashoka, but had largely disappeared by the late 12th century CE due to the Muslim invasions between the 11th and 13th centuries.

Source 4: The Mahabodhi ('Great Awakening') Temple is an ancient and restored Buddhist temple in Bodh Gaya, India. Some of the elements of this World Heritage site date back to the time of Emperor Ashoka (268–233 BCE). It was the first temple built by Emperor Ashoka following his conversion to Buddhism. Bodh Gaya is the site where the Buddha attained enlightenment under the Bodhi Tree. A descendant of that tree is also found at Bodh Gaya. The site has been a key destination of Buddhist pilgrims for more than 2000 years.

Source 5: A Jain nun prays at the feet of the holy Lord Bahubal statue, carved from a single piece of rock dated 981 CE.

When by rivers covered with flowers, and gaily adorned with reeds of varied hue, the goodly monk sits on the bank in ecstasy, and he finds no greater joy than this. When the rain pours down at night, and elephants trumpet in the distant thickets, the monk sits in the hills in ecstasy, and finds no joy greater than this.

Source 6: *Theragatha* (Verses of the Elder Monks) (5th century BCE), author unknown. A Buddhist scripture of 264 poems, the poems were recited by Buddhist monks to help them overcome temptation and live a pure life.

Jainism

Mahavira came from the same area of India as the Buddha and was also the son of a rajah. He left home at the age of 30 to seek salvation. Like the Buddha, he found enlightenment and founded an order of monks.

Jains are passionate supporters of ***ahimsa***. They think the whole world is alive with souls that can feel pain even if they cannot express it. Even the unintentional killing of an ant can weigh the human soul down and cause a worse rebirth. The only way to free oneself from constant rebirths is to not harm anything. A Jain monk strains his water before he drinks it so as to not harm creatures living in the water; he wears a face-cloth through which he breathes so he does not harm the wind.

Learning ladder 3.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the four major belief systems of ancient India.
2. Describe the beliefs of Buddhism in ancient India.
3. Sources 4 and 6: Explain how these sources demonstrate Buddhist practices in ancient India.
4. Explain why the Ganges is holy to Hindus.
5. Suggest reasons why there has been so much religious diversity in India.

Perspectives

1. Source 6: Identify the Buddhist perspective on nature.
2. Describe the differences between the Brahman and Hindu perspectives on the role of priests.
3. Explain the Jain perspective of ahimsa.
4. Compare the Hindu and Buddhist perspectives on escaping the cycle of rebirth.

HOW TO
Perspectives, page 484

What was daily life like in ancient India?

The lives of people in ancient India were greatly shaped by their caste and whether they were men or women.

Men

Men had a prominent role in their families. The oldest male in a family was considered the head of the family. He had legal control over everyone else and was also responsible for performing the sacred rituals to honour the ancestors of the family. When he died, the oldest son would take his position. Men were also responsible for ensuring that women were respected and cared for.

Men who belonged to the higher castes were able to serve their society at all levels: as priests, kings, warriors, officials, magistrates, merchants and artisans. Those of the Shudra caste were expected to undertake the hard manual labour in ancient India, building roads, digging wells and constructing houses and forts.

Women

During the Vedic society period, higher-caste women were able to own property, inherit property from their parents and generally had the same freedom as men to come and go as they pleased. Some higher-caste women were highly educated and took part in debates at public assemblies. However, by the beginning of the Gupta Empire, higher-caste women's lives had become much more restricted. They had to obey their husbands, could not own property and could not remarry if their husband died. They also had to remain indoors and were only allowed out of the house on religious festival days, accompanied by their husbands.

Source 1: Most Shudra women in ancient India lived in rural villages.

A man is not allowed to unjustly abandon his wife ...
He permits daughters to inherit [if he has no sons] ...
There can be no division of property between a husband and a wife, because they are linked together and have joint custody of the property ...

Source 2: Extracts from the *Āpastamba Dharmasūtra* (c. 400 BCE), a book of Hindu law

In contrast, the lives of Shudra women remained the same throughout the ancient period. They lived in villages where they prepared food, spun yarn, wove cloth, cultivated the fields, looked after the cows and checked the family finances each day.

> In childhood a female must be subject to her father, in youth to her husband, when her husband is dead to her sons. A woman must never be independent ...
>
> She must always be cheerful, clever in the management of her household affairs, careful in cleaning her utensils, and economical in spending ...

Source 3: Extract from the *Manusmriti* (200 CE), a book of Indian law

Children

It was considered very important for married couples to have children, as children were expected to support parents in their old age. For this reason, boys were preferred over girls, as a girl would leave her family on marriage to live with and care for her in-laws. In addition, the parents of girls were expected to provide a dowry (money or property) to her future husband for her upkeep. Girls spent their childhood learning to cook, sew, weave and clean and were married at around the age of 12 to 15. Boys tended to be older when they married, especially higher-caste boys, who could not marry until they had completed their education. A girl was able to choose her husband from a group of suitable men (selected by her father). When the girl had made her choice, the future groom had a garland placed around his neck and the couple were married on the spot.

Only boys from the Brahman, Kshatriyas and Vaisyas castes were educated in ancient India. They were taught to recite the Hindu scriptures to learn the dharma, so that they might live a virtuous life and help form a peaceful society.

Learning ladder 3.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. List words that describe the role of men in Indian society.
2. Describe the main differences between the lives of girls and boys in ancient India.
3. Explain how higher-caste boys were educated.
4. Explain why boys were preferred to girls in ancient India.
5. Analyse the significance of caste and gender to a person's life in ancient India.

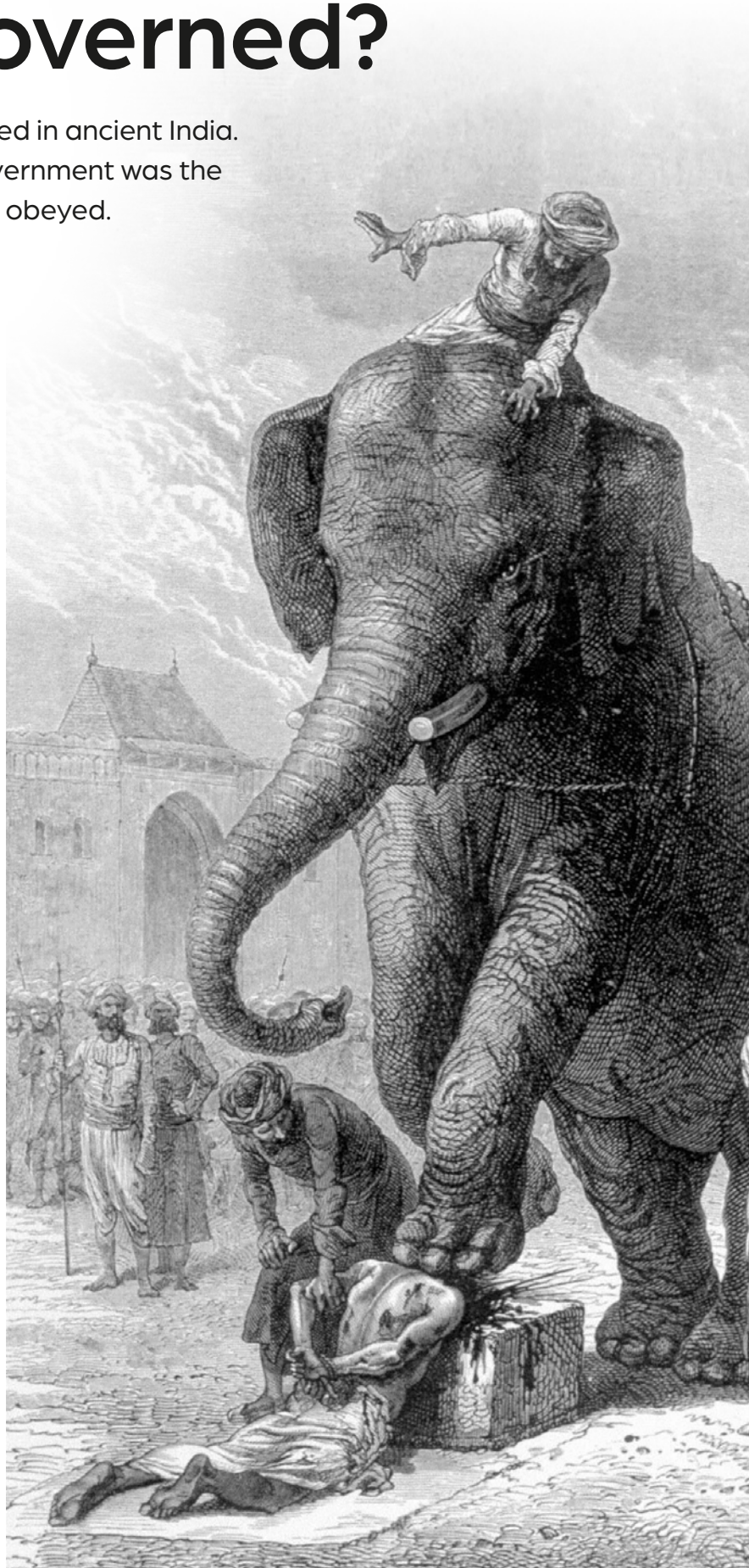
Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the lives of Shudra women in ancient India.
3. Source 2: Explain the rights held by higher-caste women during the Vedic period.
4. Sources 2 and 3: Explain the contexts of these sources.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

How was ancient India governed?

Kingdoms, republics and empires all featured in ancient India. At the heart of these different forms of government was the authority of the ruler whose laws had to be obeyed.



Government of ancient India

There were three main types of government in ancient India:

- kingdoms, ruled by a king
- republics, governed by an elected king and his officials
- empires, ruled by an emperor and his appointed governors.

Kingdoms

By 500 BCE, the Vedic tribes of the Indus Valley had formed themselves into kingdoms, each headed by a king (raja) who had absolute power and was considered divine. There were 16 Vedic kingdoms in all. Kingship was hereditary, passed down the male line from fathers to sons.

Kings needed vast resources and wealth to maintain armies and their own power. The people of ancient India did not pay taxes to support the king, but were expected to give gift-offerings. The gift-offering eventually became compulsory.

Republics

There were also a number of small republics (states with elected representatives), such as Varjji and Madra. These were also headed by a king, but he was elected to his role and was assisted in his rule by officials who were also elected to their positions. The officials could give advice to the king, but ultimately, decisions about how to run the republic were left to the king. Most of the republics had died out by 300 CE, with the rise of the Mauryan Empire.

Empires

The main empires of ancient India were the Mauryan, Satavahana and Gupta empires. Each of these large empires was divided into smaller provinces that were headed by a governor. Each governor was responsible for running the province along the guidelines dictated by the emperor.

Law in ancient India

In ancient India, laws were supposed to be derived from dharma (sacred law), which was contained in the *Manusmriti*. In practice, however, the local community decided what was right and wrong, so laws in ancient India varied from place to place.

There were four different kinds of courts:

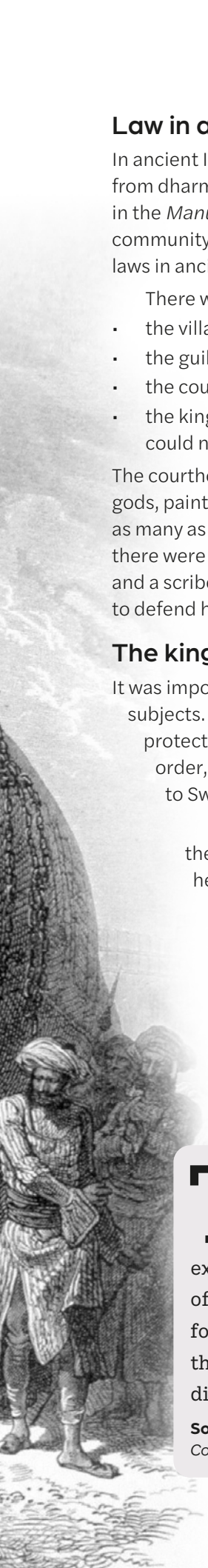
- the village court
- the guild court in the cities
- the courts with judges appointed by the king
- the king's court, which resolved disputes that could not be decided in the lower courts.

The courthouse was decorated with flowers, statues of gods, paintings and a seat for the judges. There could be as many as five magistrates in the courts, but generally there were three: a king's official, a wealthy merchant and a scribe. There was no jury and the defendant had to defend himself in front of the magistrates.

The king's court

It was important for the king to provide justice to his subjects. If the king decided legal cases correctly, protecting the weak and helpless and restoring order, then he would be assured of a brief visit to Swaga Loka (heaven).

In the earliest kings' courts, the king was the executioner, hitting the guilty over the head with his sceptre (ceremonial sword).



Source 1: Execution by elephant was a brutal type of execution used for 2000 years in India. Known as *gunga rao*, the accused person was crushed to death under the elephant's feet under guidance from its trainer. [Louis Rousselet (1877 CE), *Execution by an Elephant in Baroda*]

> The ancient Manusmriti or Laws of Manu, written down around 200 CE, prescribed execution by elephants for a number of offenses. If the criminal stole property, for instance, 'the king should have any thieves caught in connection with its disappearance executed by an elephant.'
>
> **Source 2:** Patrick Olivelle (trans.) (2004 CE), *The Law Code of Manu,* Oxford University Press.

Source 3: Babylonian silver coin (reverse), 322 BCE. This coin was made to celebrate Alexander the Great's victory over King Porus. Alexander is shown on horseback, while King Porus is shown riding an elephant. King Porus ruled a region that today encompasses northern India and Pakistan.

Later there were death penalties of various kinds, some fitting the crime. Those who stole military equipment were shot to death with arrows; if you broke a dam wall, you were drowned in the dam!

Elephants were also used to execute or punish lawbreakers. This was because the elephant was a symbol of royal authority. In addition, the use of elephants showed that the king or emperor was able to control powerful creatures, which demonstrated to his subjects that he could therefore wield control over them.

Learning ladder 3.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the three forms of government in ancient India.
2. Describe how empires were governed in ancient India.
3. Explain how early kings carried out the law.
4. Explain the difference between kingdoms and republics in ancient India.
5. Assess the power of kings in ancient India.

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: Identify the reason why this coin was made.
2. Describe two examples of punishments that fit the crime.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Explain how elephants were used to carry out the law.
4. Explain why the king was likely to decide legal cases fairly.
5. How did the king's role as an enforcer of the law increase his power?

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

Key individual

How did Emperor Ashoka rule India?

Ashoka (268–233 BCE) was one of the greatest emperors of India. He came to the throne in 268 BCE as the ruler of the Mauryan Empire, the largest empire India had ever seen. He was originally a ruthless and violent ruler but changed his nature after converting to Buddhism.

The conquest of Kalinga

In 261 BCE, Ashoka defeated the last large independent Indian kingdom, Kalinga. While walking through the streets of Kalinga after his conquest, rejoicing in his victory, Ashoka was struck by thousands of dead bodies strewn about him. His conquest had come at a terrible human cost: 100 000 people killed, almost as many wounded and 150 000 taken prisoner and enslaved.

Ashoka's remorse over the misery he had caused by his conquest of Kalinga, together with a meeting with a Buddhist monk in the same year, changed him from a violent emperor into an extraordinary ruler.

Buddhism as the state religion

Ashoka's conversion to Buddhism led him to make Buddhism the state religion in 260 BCE. He also did away with the idea that he was divine, and instead pioneered a 'Buddhist' model of rule. According to this model, Ashoka's right to be emperor was based on his promotion of Buddhism to his subjects, his moral example to his subjects and his personal devotion to Buddhism. Ashoka funded the building of many **stupas** and supported the establishment of Buddhist monasteries throughout the empire. He also sent missionaries to the great ancient centres of Sri Lanka, Syria, Egypt and Greece.

Ashoka's rock and pillar edicts

Some of the main objects that have survived from Ashoka's time are his rocks and pillars. The rocks and pillars contain **edicts**, inscriptions that explain Ashoka's ideas of **dharma** (sacred law) and tell his subjects how to live a moral life. Archaeologists have found about 60 of these inscriptions so far.

The inscriptions were written in the language of the local people of Ashoka's empire, mainly Sanskrit and Magadhi (a language once spoken in north India and Nepal). There are even inscriptions in Greek and Aramaic (an ancient Canaanite language) in the north-west of India. The rock and pillar edicts were installed over Ashoka's empire, including one in Kandahar in Afghanistan, which is how we know Ashoka's empire stretched that far.

Thus speaks the Beloved of the Gods, [Emperor Ashoka]: When I had been emperor for twenty-six years I forbade the killing of the following species of animals: the parrot … the wild duck … the goose … the raven and the common crow … the she-goat … the sheep and the sow … The same being alive shall not be injured: whether because of their uselessness or for the sake of amusement, they shall not be injured … Chaff which contains living things must not be set on fire. Forests must not be burned in order to kill living things or without any good reason.

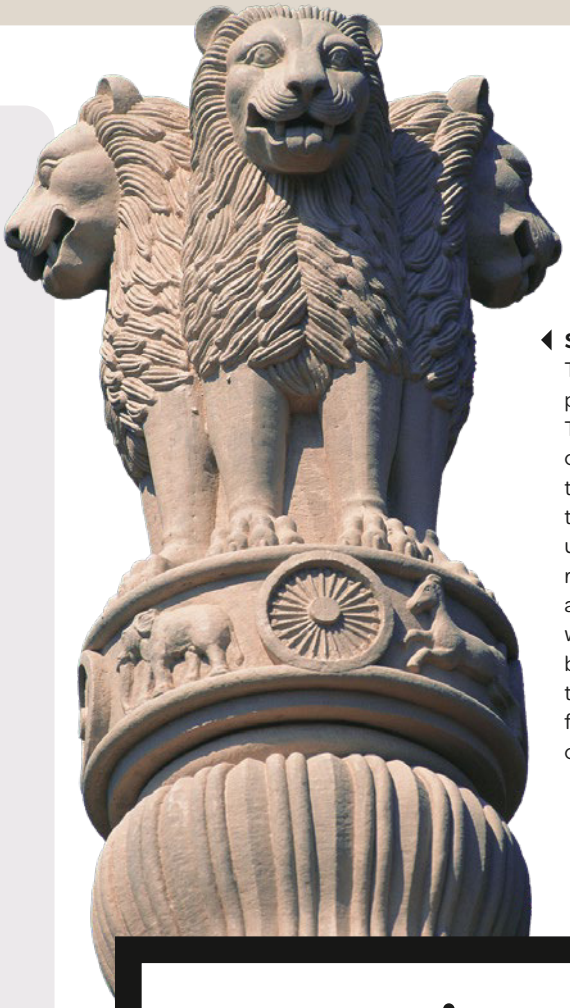
Fifth Pillar Edict

The Beloved of the Gods [Emperor Ashoka] believes that one who does wrong should be forgiven as far as it is possible to forgive him.

Thirteenth Major Rock Edict

Source 1: Emperor Asoka's rock and pillar edicts told his subjects how to lead a moral life based on the teachings of Buddhism.

Source 2: Mauryan Emperor Ashoka led his army into battle to capture the independent kingdom of Kalinga. Mortified by the human cost of his conquest, Ashoka converted to Buddhism and led a peaceful empire.



Source 3: The Sarnath pillar, placed by Ashoka. The four lions with open mouths face the four quarters of the world. The wheel underneath the lions represents Ashoka as a Chakravatin, or 'ruler who rules ethically and benevolently'. Today, the Ashoka Chakra is found at the centre of the Indian flag.

Learning ladder 3.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the kingdom conquered by Ashoka in 261 BCE.
2. Describe how Ashoka established Buddhism as his empire's religion.
3. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the nature of Ashoka's leadership.
4. Explain why Ashoka promoted Buddhism in his empire.

Significance

1. Identify one reason why Ashoka might be considered a great leader.
2. Describe the rock and pillar edicts left behind by Emperor Ashoka.
3. Explain what the rock and pillar edicts tell historians about the size of Ashoka's empire and the people within it.
4. Source 1: Explain why Ashoka's rule shows he was an enlightened emperor.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

Site study

What was the Great Stupa at Sanchi?

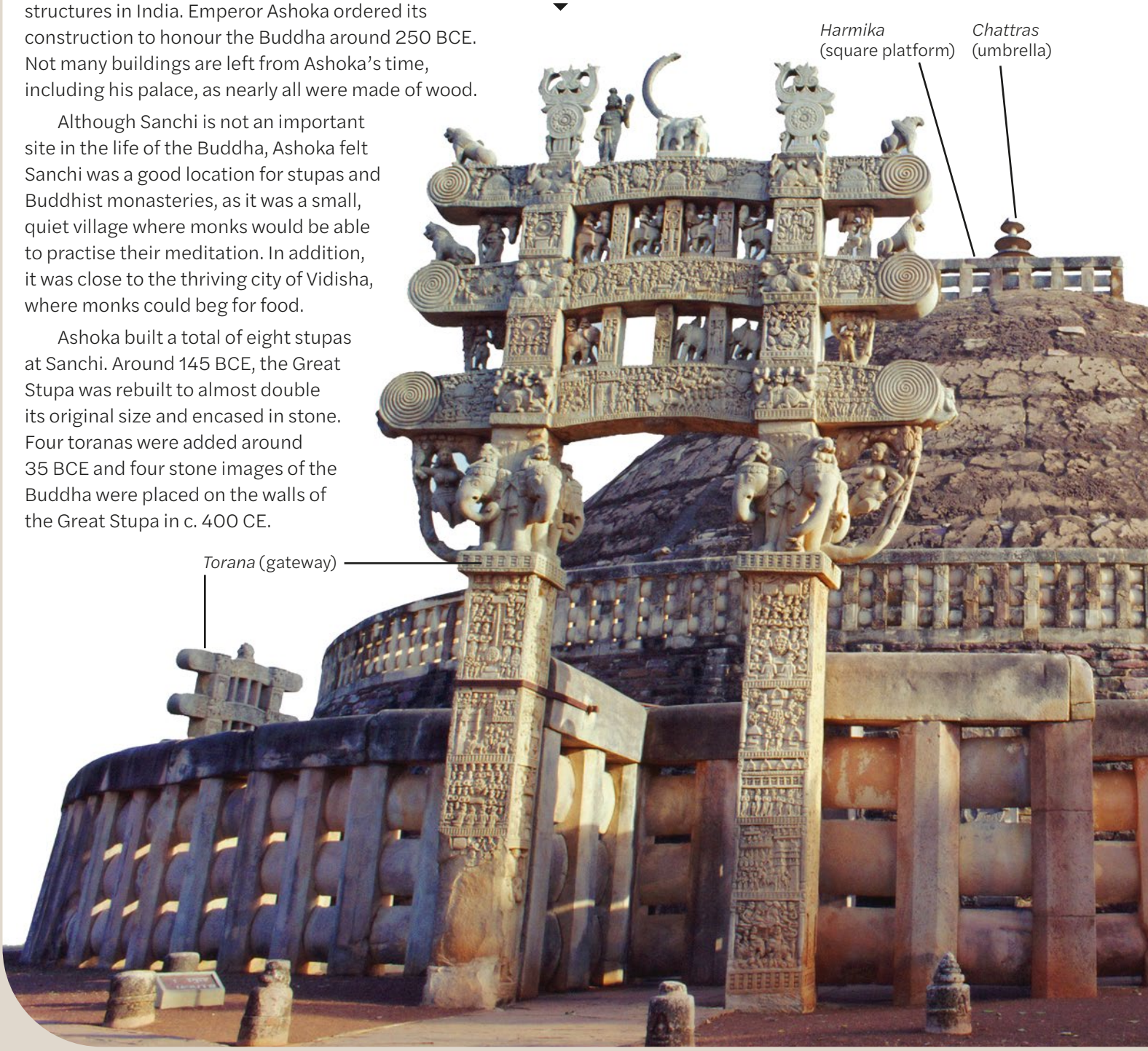
The Great Stupa at Sanchi

The Great Stupa at Sanchi is one of the oldest stone structures in India. Emperor Ashoka ordered its construction to honour the Buddha around 250 BCE. Not many buildings are left from Ashoka's time, including his palace, as nearly all were made of wood.

Although Sanchi is not an important site in the life of the Buddha, Ashoka felt Sanchi was a good location for stupas and Buddhist monasteries, as it was a small, quiet village where monks would be able to practise their meditation. In addition, it was close to the thriving city of Vidisha, where monks could beg for food.

Ashoka built a total of eight stupas at Sanchi. Around 145 BCE, the Great Stupa was rebuilt to almost double its original size and encased in stone. Four toranas were added around 35 BCE and four stone images of the Buddha were placed on the walls of the Great Stupa in c. 400 CE.

Source 1: The Great Stupa at Sanchi



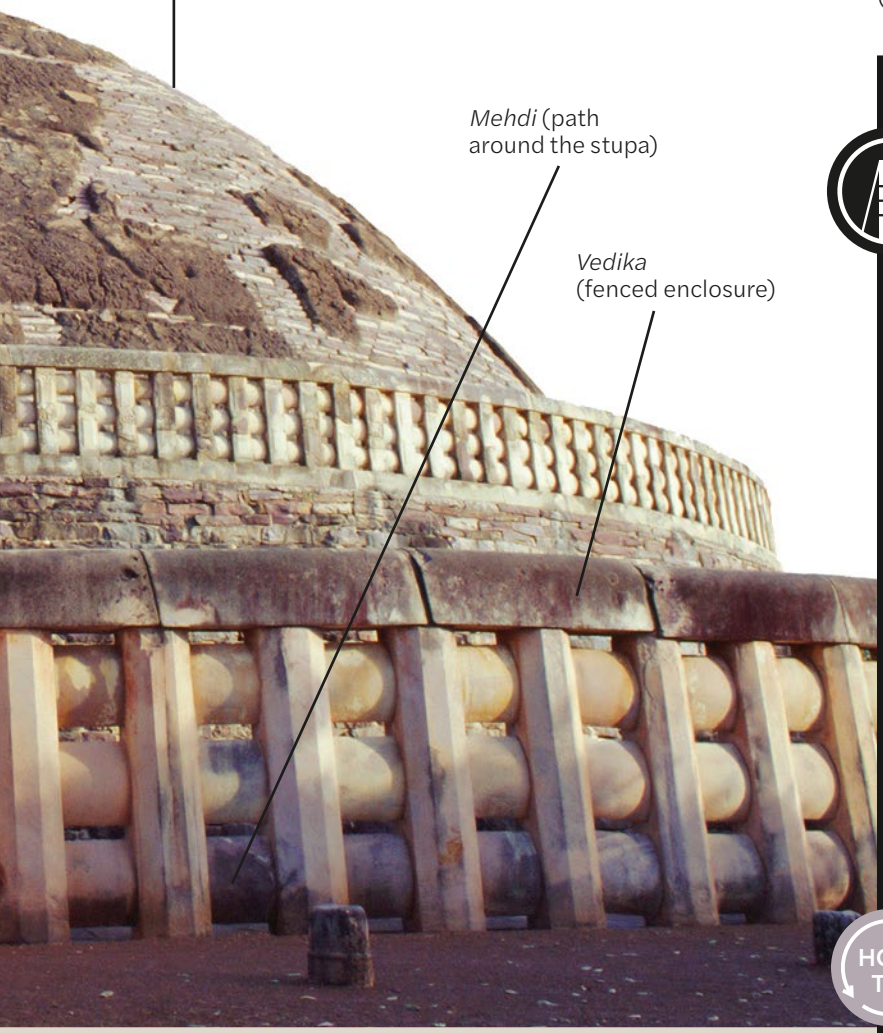
Source 2: Detail of the northern torana of the Great Stupa at Sanchi (c. 35 BCE). The Buddha is represented by the Bodhi Tree (centre of the top panel).

What is the purpose of a stupa?

Originally, stupas were burial mounds. Inside the stupa were relics of the Buddha and his followers in a jewelled casket. The ashes of the Buddha were generally buried in stupas built at locations linked to important events in the Buddha's life. People could honour the Buddha's memory by walking around the circular path outside the stupa and meditating.

Following his conversion to Buddhism, Emperor Ashoka had the original burial-mound stupas opened. The remains of the Buddha and his devout followers were then distributed to the thousands of new stone stupas he built all over India.

The new stupas included other important structures such as toranas (gateways) and chattras (umbrellas). The placement of the dome and the gates is perfectly aligned with the four positions of the compass, with the chattras lining up with the 'axis mundi' (centre of the world).



Learning ladder 3.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the key features of the Great Stupa.
2. Sources 1 and 2: Describe the northern torana of the Great Stupa.
3. Source 1: Explain how Buddhists used the Great Stupa.
4. Explain why Emperor Ashoka built the Great Stupa at Sanchi.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the reason why very few buildings are left from the time of Emperor Ashoka.
2. Describe how the Great Stupa changed between 145 BCE and 400 CE.
3. Explain how Emperor Ashoka changed the original burial mounds of the Buddha and his followers.
4. Explain why Ashoka's stupas demonstrate the concept of continuity and change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

How did ancient India affect other societies?

Ancient India traded with other societies in the ancient world, leading to the introduction of new resources and new ideas. Not all contact was peaceful, as attempts to expand power led to war and conflict within India and with neighbouring regions.

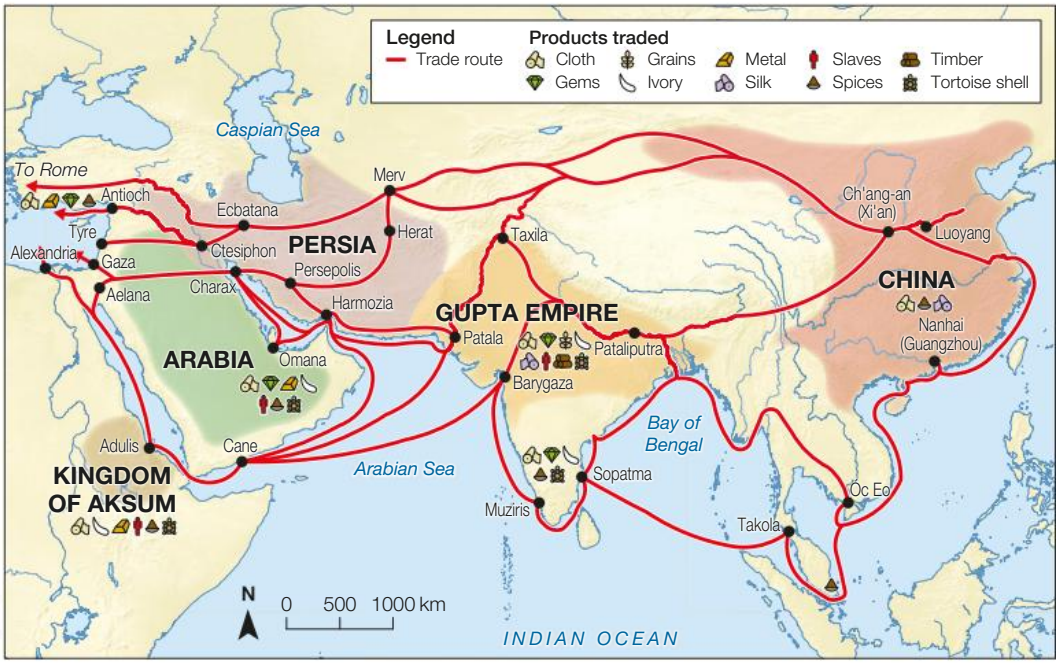
Trade contacts

From the 1st century BCE, the south-west monsoon brought Egyptian, Greek, Arabian and Roman merchants to coastal Indian towns. They came in ships laden with linen, wine, glass, pottery, copper, tin, lead and gold and silver coins. Roman coins dating from the 3rd century BCE to the 5th century BCE have been found on both coasts of the Indian peninsula and on ancient trade routes that ran between the coasts. The foreign merchants waited in India for the north-east monsoon to blow them back home in ships packed with pepper, cloves, ivory, perfume, cotton, silk, diamonds, gold and pearls.

In turn, Indian traders used the monsoonal winds of the Bay of Bengal to take ceramics and gems to South-East Asia , where they purchased spices. The Indian merchants returned to India, where they sold these spices to Roman merchants at a good profit.

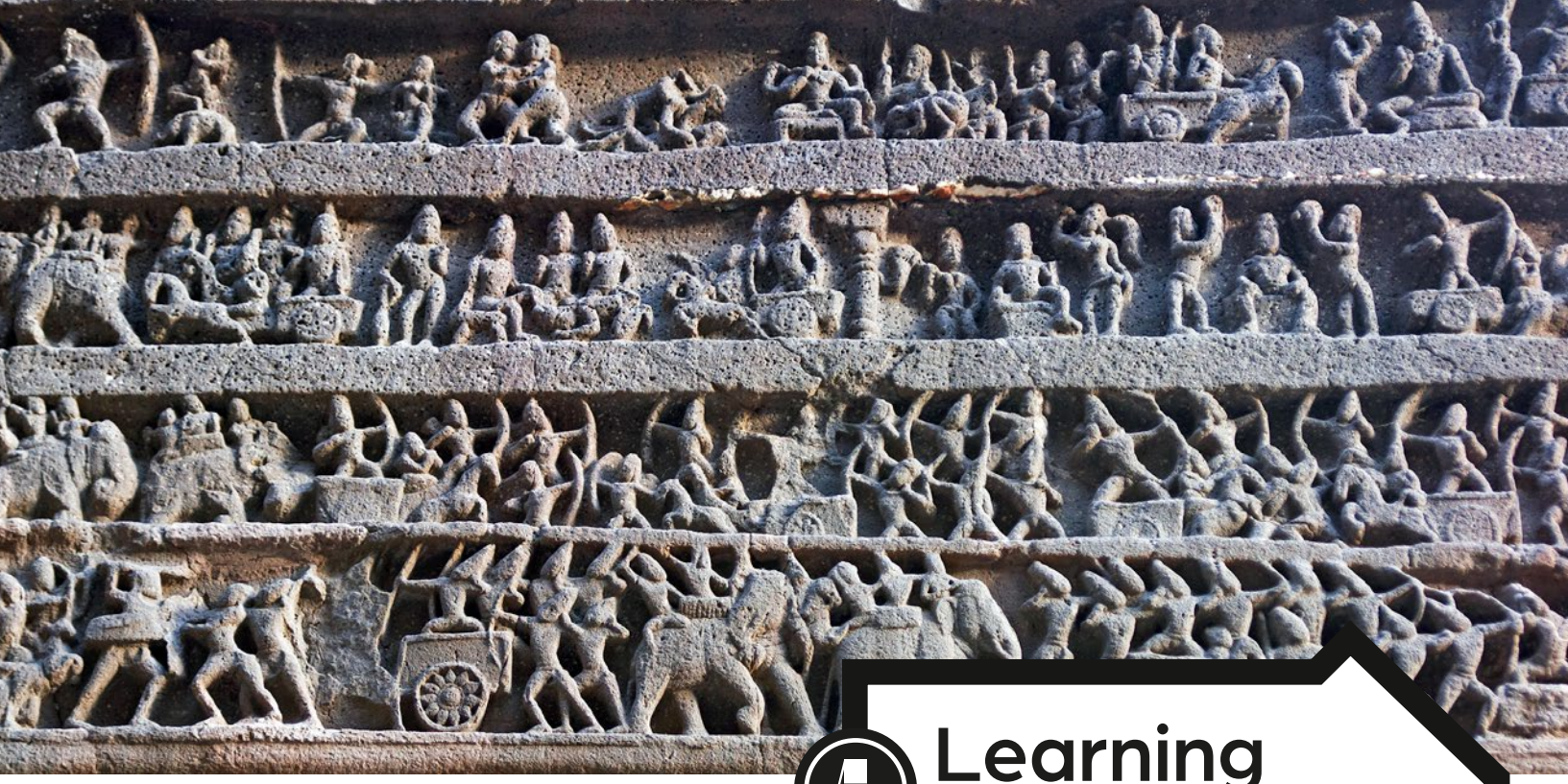
Source 1: Lakshmi, the Indian goddess of wealth. This statue was found buried under the ashes of Pompeii in Italy (the city itself was buried during the eruption of Mt Vesuvius in 79 CE).

Asian trade routes in 400 CE



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: Travel to India was helped by monsoon winds from the south-west between April and September. Travel from India was driven by monsoon winds from the north-east between November and February.



Source 3: Relief sculpture depicting a scene from the 'Mahabharata', the longest poem ever written (5th–7th centuries CE). It is located in the Kailashnath Temple, part of the Ellora Caves complex, Maharashtra.

Warfare with other societies

Indian armies were divided into four sections: infantry, cavalry, chariots and elephants. The army of the first Mauryan emperor, Chandragupta I, contained 9000 elephants, 600 000 foot soldiers and 30 000 cavalry. War elephants were highly prized in Indian armies. They were mainly used to charge at the enemy. A line of charging elephants instilled great fear in enemy forces, causing them to break ranks and flee in terror.

India suffered a series of invasions from the 5th century BCE onwards. The first was that of the Persians under King Darius I, who annexed the area north-west of the Indus River from 516 BCE until 334 BCE. Then in 327 BCE, Alexander the Great invaded India, establishing several small Greek states in the Indus Valley. Later, the Greeks formed the Seleucid Empire in west India in 312 BCE. The invasions resulted in thousands of deaths and much suffering, but also brought a number of benefits to ancient India. The Persians established the ancient university of Taxila (c. 450 BCE), which drew on Persian, Greek and Indian knowledge to become one of the greatest learning centres in the region. The ancient Greek invasions, meanwhile, led to Greek influences on Indian science and art.

Learning ladder 3.10

Impact and legacies

1. **a** Identify the goods brought to India by foreign merchants.
   b Identify the goods foreign merchants purchased in India.
2. Source 3: Describe the types of warriors shown in this source.
3. Source 2: Using the source, explain the trade between India and:
   a Aksum
   b China.
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why trade networks to and from India were so extensive.
5. Source 1: What does this source demonstrate about the relationship between India and Rome?

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify the reason why the statue was buried under ash.
2. Describe the effects of conflicts between India and other empires.
3. Explain how monsoonal winds affected India's trading relationships.
4. Explain why elephants were prized in ancient Indian armies.
5. How beneficial were the effects of the Persian and Greek invasions for ancient India?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

Was the Gupta Empire a golden age?

The Gupta Empire (320–550 CE) was a time of cultural splendour and scientific development. But was it really a 'golden age'?

Art and architecture

The Gupta emperors included Samudragupta (335–375 CE), Chandragupta II (375–415 CE) and Kumaragupta I (415–455 CE). Samudragupta and Chandragupta II were known as great patrons of the arts. They provided support to poets, artists and architects, especially in the northern regions of the empire. The Ajanta and Ellora caves are examples of exquisite Gupta artistry. While many of the buildings of the Gupta period were destroyed during invasions, the remaining temples and sculptures demonstrate the grandeur of Gupta art and architecture. It was during this period that sculptures of the Hindu and Buddhist gods were created for the first time.

Chess

The game of chess was also developed in India during the Gupta period. Known as *chaturanga*, the original game featured four types of playing pieces – infantry, cavalry, chariotry and elephantry (which in Europe, became known as pawns, knights, rooks and bishops). It was originally played on an 8 x 8 uncheckered board. From India, the game spread along the Silk Road to Persia and China.

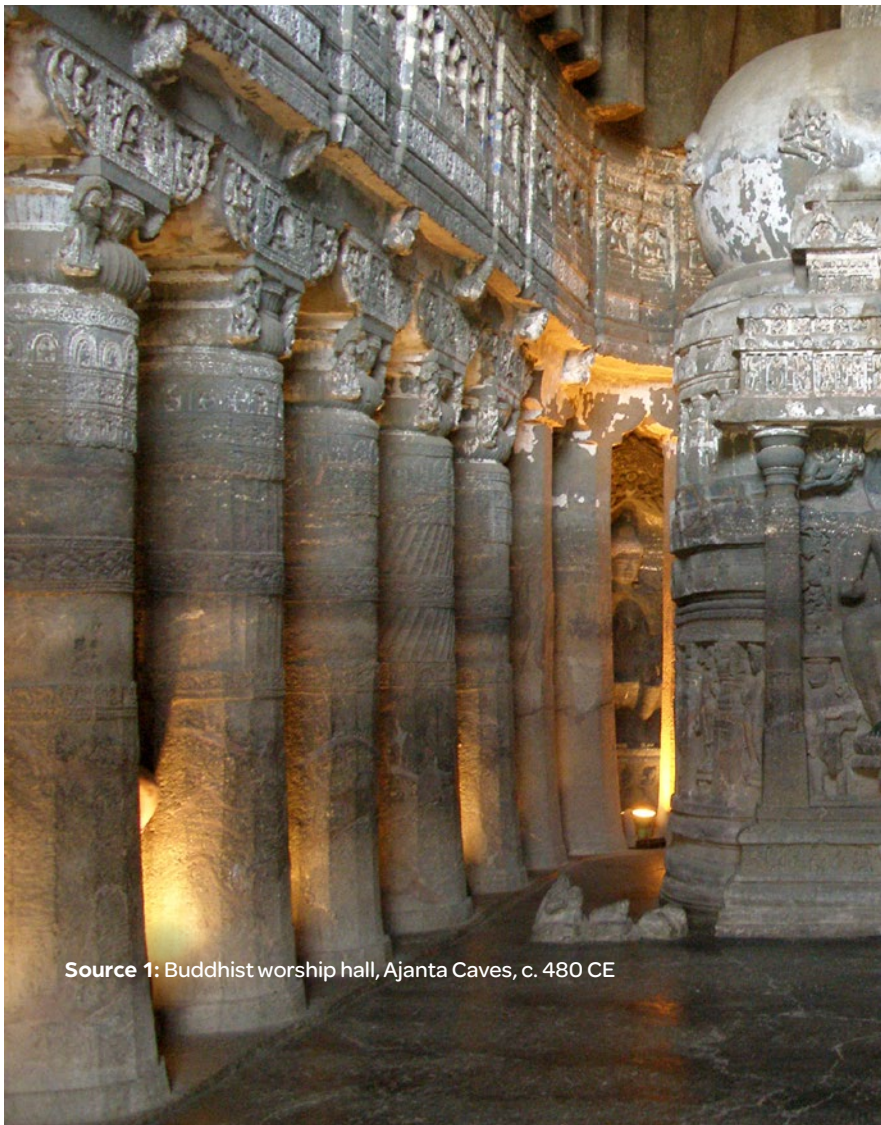
Mathematics and science

Mathematics advanced greatly during the Gupta Empire. One of the most significant developments was the invention of the Indian numeral system. The system is based upon 10 Brahmi symbols representing the numbers from zero to nine. In addition, the ancient Indian number system was the first to use base 10. This means that any natural number can be written down using these symbols. Invented and developed during the Gupta period, the system came to be adopted by Arab mathematicians in the 800s CE and had spread to Europe by the 1200s CE. Today, Indian numerals are the most common numeral system in the world.

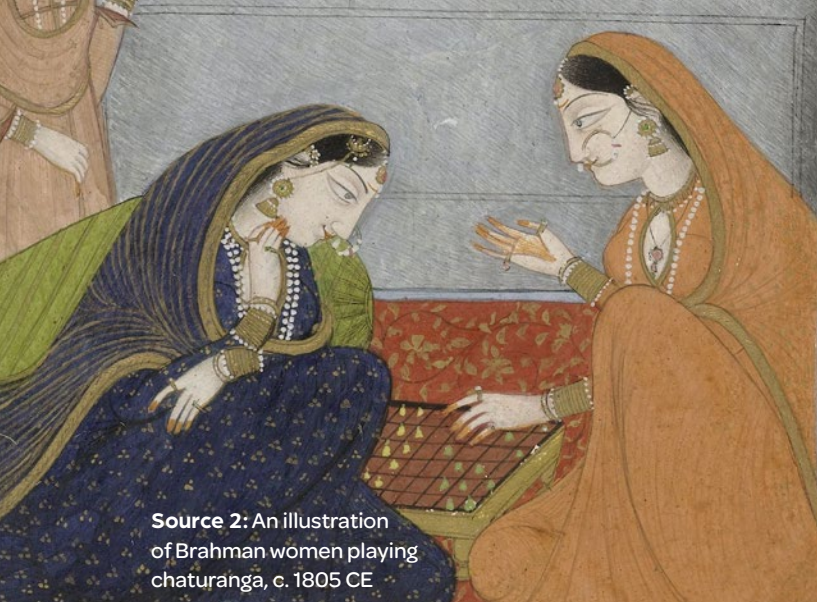
Gupta scientists such as Aryabhata also made major discoveries. Building on the studies of the ancient Greeks and Mesopotamians, Aryabhata determined that the Earth was spherical and also that the Moon is visible at night because it reflects the Sun's rays.

The dark side of the Gupta Empire

Even though there were important advancements and great cultural innovation, the Gupta period was not a 'golden age' for most people. The Gupta period saw an extension of privileges for men in the Brahman caste. The Brahmans were given large land grants by the



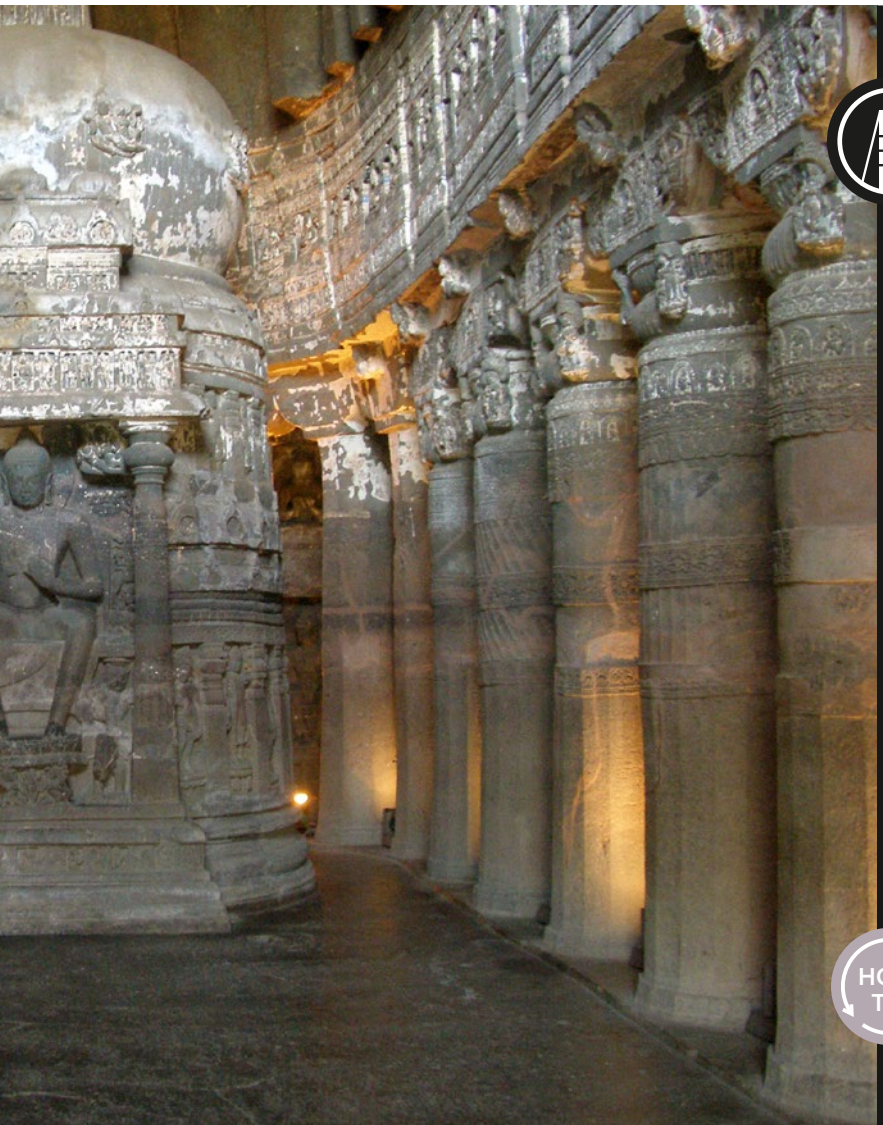
Source 1: Buddhist worship hall, Ajanta Caves, c. 480 CE



Source 2: An illustration of Brahman women playing chaturanga, c. 1805 CE

Gupta emperors to administer. They collected taxes and forced peasants to work on their land. Women, including those in the upper castes, lost power and were unable to own property, leaving them dependent on their husbands. Moreover, the untouchables became even more isolated from the rest of Indian society. So, while the upper caste became wealthier and more powerful, the lower castes and the untouchables became poorer and more oppressed.

> The imposition of forced labour (vishti) and several new levies and taxes from the Gupta period onwards further undermined the position of peasants … villagers were forced to contribute money and provisions to royal troops and officials when they halted at or passed through the village. They were required to supply flowers and milk to them. Cattle were also furnished for transport. Apart from these contributions, several new taxes came to be collected from the villagers. All this must have increased the burden of taxation on the peasantry. Forced labour, taxes and other dues became all the more oppressive … [and] generated much social tension, leading to peasant protest …
>
> **Source 3:** D.N. Jha (2009), *Ancient India: In Historical Outline*, Manohar, pp. 155–6.



Learning ladder 3.11

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the site shown in the source.
2. Describe how Samudragupta and Chandragupta II developed the arts.
3. Source 2: Explain how chaturanga came to be played around the world.
4. Explain why the mathematical developments of the Gupta era were significant.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate about the Gupta Empire.
2. Describe how the Gupta Empire could be seen as a golden age.
3. Source 3: Explain how the Gupta period could be seen as a dark age.
4. Compare the different interpretations of the Gupta period.
5. Sources 1 to 3: Using the sources and your knowledge, evaluate whether the Gupta Empire was a golden age.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

How did ancient India influence culture around the world?

Ancient India had a profound impact on the cultures of Europe, South-East Asia and China.

Religious influence

Wherever Indian merchants, Brahmans and Buddhist missionaries went, they took their religion, art and culture. Indian influence was especially seen in Sri Lanka, Cambodia, Thailand and Indonesia, where societies embraced Hinduism and Buddhism. The prominence of these beliefs could alternate depending on the ruler, so a state with Hindu gods could become Buddhist with the next ruler, and vice versa. People on the island of Bali to the north of Australia worshipped Hindu gods, while on the nearby island of Java the Shailendra kings supported Buddhism. In the early 9th century CE, they built one of the most stunning Indian-inspired buildings in the world, the Great Stupa of Borobudur.

Buddhism was taken by monks and merchants along the Silk Road into Tibet, China, Korea and Japan. Buddhist monks travelled from China and South-East Asia to study at the great Indian Buddhist monastery of Nalanda. At Nalanda, 10 000 monks and scholars from all over Asia studied together, learning logic, medicine, mathematics, astronomy, literature, the Hindu Vedic texts and the sacred Buddhist texts.

Indian warfare

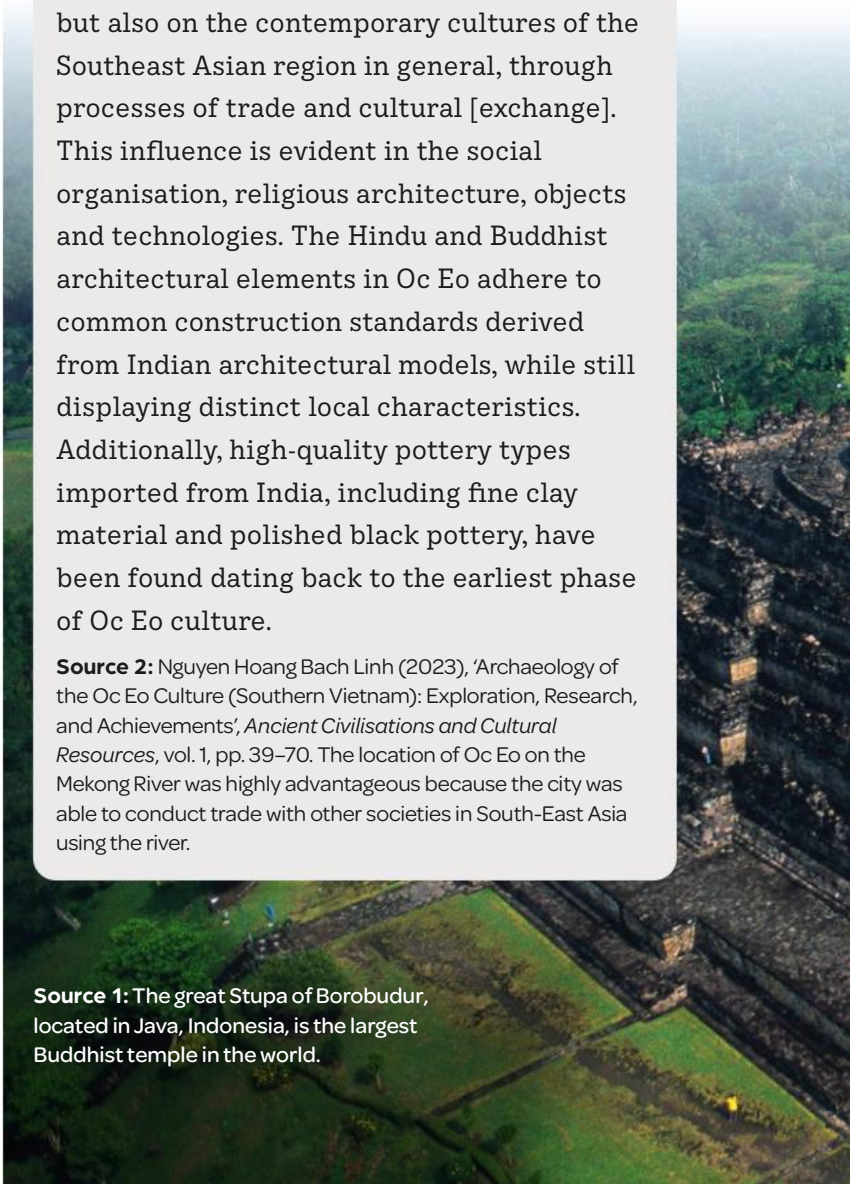
There were also important military contributions. The game of chess, derived from the Indian game chaturanga, made an art of military strategy. Ancient India also pioneered the use of elephants in warfare, a practice that would be employed for centuries on the battlefields of South-East Asia.

Science and mathematics

In addition to using a small set of symbols to represent all numbers and inventing the base 10 number system, ancient Indian mathematicians created the concept of zero, the decimal system and the concept of infinity. Their mathematical studies formed the basis for the later development of algebra, calculus and trigonometry ideas. All of these ideas have profoundly shaped the modern world.

> The civilisation of India can be said to have the most important and powerful influence not only on the Oc Eo culture but also on the contemporary cultures of the Southeast Asian region in general, through processes of trade and cultural [exchange]. This influence is evident in the social organisation, religious architecture, objects and technologies. The Hindu and Buddhist architectural elements in Oc Eo adhere to common construction standards derived from Indian architectural models, while still displaying distinct local characteristics. Additionally, high-quality pottery types imported from India, including fine clay material and polished black pottery, have been found dating back to the earliest phase of Oc Eo culture.

Source 2: Nguyen Hoang Bach Linh (2023), 'Archaeology of the Oc Eo Culture (Southern Vietnam): Exploration, Research, and Achievements', *Ancient Civilisations and Cultural Resources*, vol. 1, pp. 39–70. The location of Oc Eo on the Mekong River was highly advantageous because the city was able to conduct trade with other societies in South-East Asia using the river.



Source 1: The great Stupa of Borobudur, located in Java, Indonesia, is the largest Buddhist temple in the world.

▲ **Source 3:** Relief showing Khmer soldiers and war elephants on the Bayon Temple, Cambodia, 1190 CE

> Indian learning, Indian religious insights and Indian ideas are among the crucial foundations of the world. Like ancient Greece, ancient India came up with a set of profound answers to the big questions about what the world is, how it operates, why we are here and how we should live our lives … In matters of science, astronomy and mathematics, India was to be a teacher of the Arab world, and hence Mediterranean Europe too.
>
> **Source 4:** William Dalrymple (2024), *The Golden Road: How Ancient India Transformed the World*, Bloomsbury Publishing, p. iv.

Learning ladder 3.12

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify an example of ancient Indian religious influence in Indonesia.
2. Source 3: Describe how ancient India influenced medieval Cambodia.
3. Explain how ancient Indian religious influences can be seen in South-East Asia and China.
4. Explain why the work of ancient Indian mathematicians was so significant.
5. Evaluate the legacy of ancient India for the world.

Perspectives

1. Sources 2 and 4: Identify the authors of these sources.
2. Sources 2 and 4: Describe each source's perspective on ancient India.
3. Sources 2 and 4: Explain how the two perspectives on ancient India are similar.
4. Sources 2 and 4: Explain why the two perspectives focus on different aspects of ancient India.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on ancient India. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of ancient India. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice.

The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of ancient India in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The use of elephants in the army, 3.10
- The Battle of Hydaspes, 3.1
- The ancient Indian epics: the 'Mahabharata' and the 'Ramayana', 3.5
- The rock and pillar edicts, 3.8
- The life of Aryabhata, page 3.11

Return to the relevant sections in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas.

Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry. Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?

Wonder

What does it make you wonder?
What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

Ancient China

4

WHY WAS THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA BUILT? 64

WHY WAS AN ARMY CREATED FOR THE AFTERLIFE? 80

WHAT WAS EVERYDAY LIFE LIKE IN ANCIENT CHINA? 84

4.0

How can I understand ancient China?

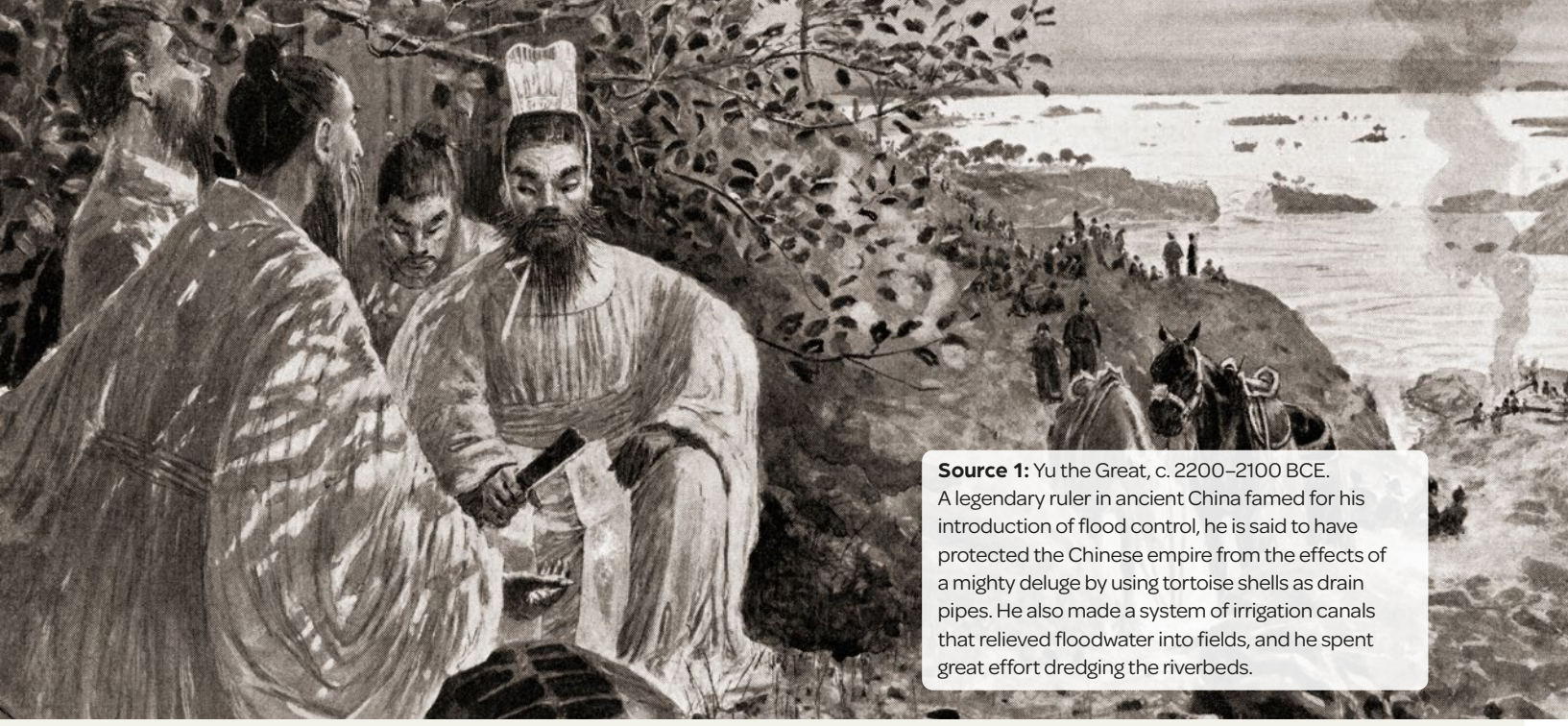
China has made impressive cultural, philosophical, technological and political achievements over thousands of years of history. With an imposing past and emerging future, understanding this culture is crucial to grasping the modern world.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
Steps in knowledge progression					

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: Yu the Great, c. 2200–2100 BCE.
A legendary ruler in ancient China famed for his introduction of flood control, he is said to have protected the Chinese empire from the effects of a mighty deluge by using tortoise shells as drain pipes. He also made a system of irrigation canals that relieved floodwater into fields, and he spent great effort dredging the riverbeds.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skills progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What can I learn about ancient China?

Ancient China was a dynamic and innovative society that had a lasting influence on the ancient world.

Early dynasties

Farmers began to settle in the valleys formed by the Yellow River more than 6000 years ago. According to legend, the first Chinese settlements were ruled by the kings of the Xia dynasty (2070–1550 BCE). Archaeologists and historians have not found any evidence for the existence of the Xia dynasty, but they have found evidence for its successor, the Shang dynasty (1550–1045 BCE), including temple remains and bronze, jade and stone artefacts.

Source 1: The Great Wall of China – the world's longest wall – was built to protect China's northern border from invaders. This part of the Great Wall was built during the Ming dynasty (1368–1644 CE), but the original wall, made of stone and rammed earth, dates from c. 206 BCE.

Source 2: Ancient China timeline

The Zhou dynasty (1046–256 BCE)

The Zhou dynasty saw the emergence of three important Chinese philosophies: Confucianism, Taoism and Legalism. Towards the end of the 5th century, the Zhou dynasty became weak and split into seven separate states: Chu, Qi, Yan, Zhao, Wei, Han and Qin.

The Warring States period (475–221 BCE)

The seven states fought each other for more than 200 years during the Warring States period.

The Qin dynasty (221–206 BCE)

King Zhang of the Qin state was victorious and unified China. He became China's first emperor, Qin Shi Huangdi.

The Han dynasty (206 BCE–220 CE)

The Han dynasty was a high point in ancient Chinese history, with new advancements in science, mathematics and paper-making.

Learning ladder 4.1

Background and origins

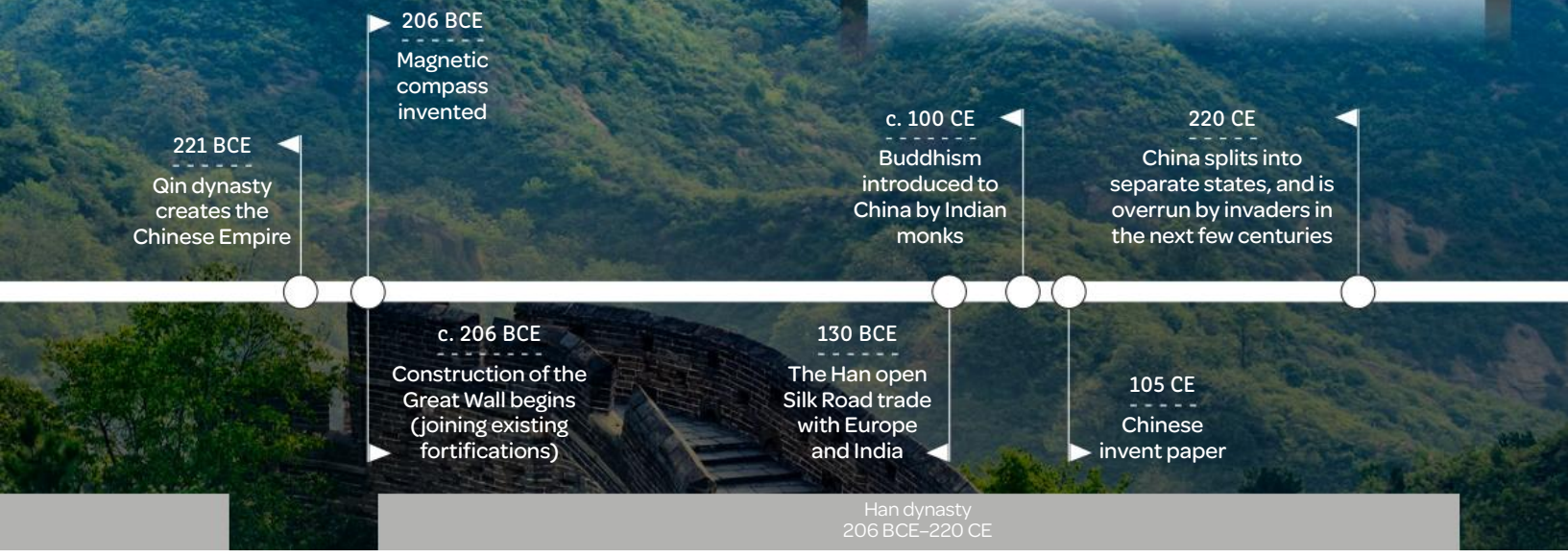
1. Identify three ancient Chinese dynasties.
2. Describe the evidence that archaeologists have found for the Shang dynasty.
3. Explain how Qin Shi Huangdi became the first emperor of China.
4. Explain why the Zhou dynasty was important to the development of ancient China.

Chronology

Use the timeline to answer these questions:

1. List the inventions of ancient China.
2. Put the following dates in order:
   - 223 BCE: Qin forces defeat the rival state of Chu
   - 475 BCE: The Warring States period begins
   - 221 BCE: The Warring States period ends with a Qin victory over the Qi state
   - 243 BCE: Qin forces defeat the rival state of Zhao.
3. Create a timeline using the dates from Question 2.
4. Suggest a reason for the arrival of Buddhism to China from India.
5. Sources 1 and 2: Explain how the Great Wall of China demonstrates the concept of continuity.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472



What did the ancient Chinese believe?

Ancient Chinese myths describe the creation of the world, people and animals. Ancient Chinese legends tell the story of imagined historical figures who often have superhuman powers.

Ancient Chinese origin story

According to ancient Chinese mythology, in the beginning there was nothing. Into the nothingness a cosmic egg emerged. Inside this egg were the forces of yin and yang. Yin and yang were the forces of opposition that kept the universe in balance. Yin was contractive and passive, while yang was expansive and active. When yin and yang became perfectly balanced, a creature named Pangu emerged from the egg.

Pangu was a hairy giant with horns on his head. He began to create the world by pushing apart the yin and the yang. Yin became the Earth, while yang became the sky. To keep the Earth and the sky apart, Pangu stood between them and pushed up the sky.

The legend of the Yellow Emperor

According to legend, Huangdi, the Yellow Emperor, was born in 2697 BCE in a time of great conflict and chaos. The tribes living in the Central Plains region of ancient China were fighting an endless war with one another. When Huangdi turned 20, he became the leader of his father's tribe, the Youxiong. He was a great warrior and was able to unite the tribes of the Central Plains, who then recognised him as their emperor and called him Huangdi.

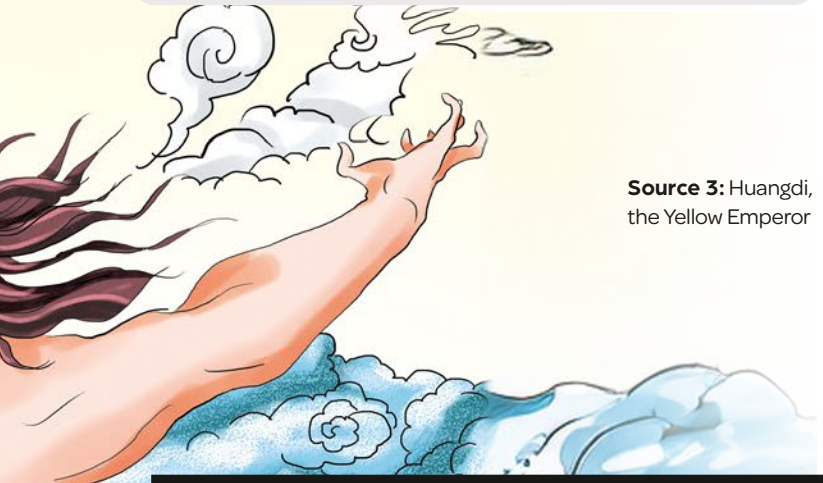
As emperor, Huangdi worked diligently to help his people. He cultivated new types of crops, domesticated animals for farming and invented a range of useful items, including weaving tools, farming tools and weapons. He also taught the women how to raise silkworms and make silk. He taught the people martial arts and brought them medical knowledge, which was later written down as the *Huangdi Neijing* (The Inner Canon of the Yellow Emperor).

Source 1: A representation of Pangu separating the Earth and the sky

Huangdi: 'When someone has never encountered evil qi (life force), and has no fearful mind, and suddenly falls ill nevertheless, what is the reason? Could it be that [he falls ill] because of the workings of demon spirits?'

Qi Bo: 'This, too, is because the old evil qi has remained [in the body], without having broken out [as a disease]. When someone ... excessively longs after something, his blood and qi will be disturbed internally, and the two qi beat at each other. The origins are quite subtle. One may look at them, but will see nothing. One may listen to them, but hears nothing. Hence it seems as if demon spirits were involved.'

Source 2: Extract from *Huangdi Neijing* (The Inner Canon of the Yellow Emperor), c. 168 BCE. The *Huangdi Neijing* is an ancient Chinese medical text that is presented in a question-and-answer format between the Yellow Emperor and his ministers.



Source 3: Huangdi, the Yellow Emperor

The name 'Huangdi' originally meant 'godly ruler'. Indeed, as a god he spent much of his time in heaven. He also maintained an earthly residence high in the Kūnlún mountains, guarded by a human-headed tiger with eight tails. Huangdi was said to have had four faces, so that he could look to all sides without moving his head. When he grew old, Huangdi was carried into the sky by a huge dragon.

Learning ladder 4.2

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the figure that separates the Earth and the sky.
2. Describe the creation of the world, according to ancient Chinese mythology.
3. Explain how the Yellow Emperor helped the people of China.
4. Explain why the story of the Yellow Emperor is considered to be a legend.
5. The existence of the Yellow Emperor cannot be proved. What is the purpose of this legend?

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the format of the text in the source.
3. Source 2: Explain how people get sick, according to the source.
4. Source 2: Explain why this source adds to the legend of the Yellow Emperor.

Source analysis, page 475

HOW TO

How did geography determine China's destiny?

Ancient China's geography protected it from being invaded.

Natural barriers

Ancient China was safeguarded by the Pacific Ocean to the east, rainforests to the south, high mountain ranges to the west and deserts to the north. This enabled China to develop a unique culture that later influenced many other societies in Asia.

To the east of China is the world's largest ocean: the Pacific. Thick tropical rainforests are found in border regions to the south (modern-day Myanmar, Laos and Vietnam). Invasion from the west was almost impossible because of the world's highest mountain range: the Himalayas.

Most of China's northern border with Mongolia is covered by the Gobi Desert. For extra protection along its northern border, the Chinese built the world's longest defensive structure – the Great Wall of China – to protect against invasions by **nomadic** tribes.

Great river systems

Like other ancient civilisations, rivers and river valleys were the first sites of the civilisation of ancient China. China has two major river systems: the Yangtze and the Yellow (Huang He) rivers. The first villages and towns were built along the banks of these rivers.

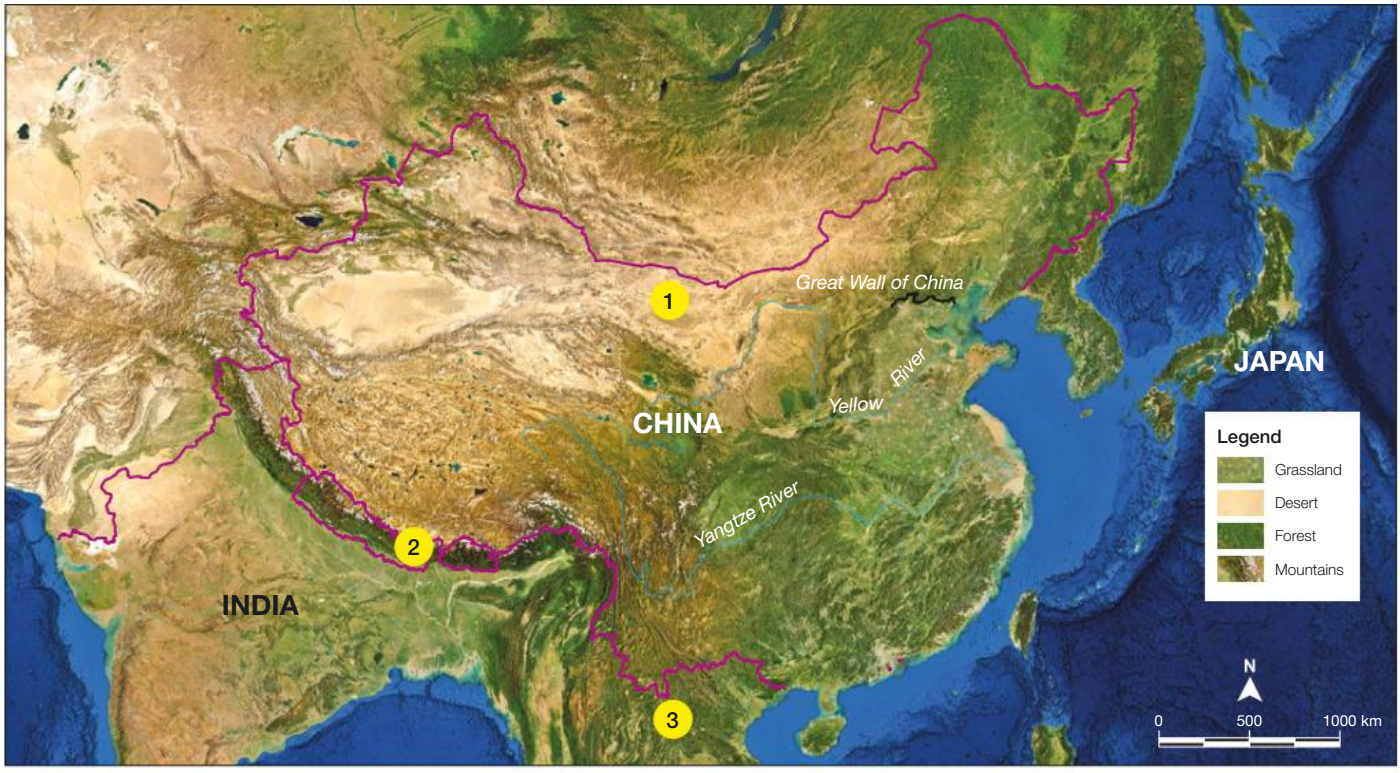
The rivers also helped people to move around the country. A series of canals was built to connect rivers, and boats were used to carry goods and produce between towns to be traded.

Source 1: The Gobi desert

Source 2: Himalayan mountains

Source 3: Laos rainforest

East Asia



Source 4: The terrain of east Asia

The Yellow River was especially fertile, due to the special type of fertile soil it carried, known as **loess** soil. When the river flooded, the loess soil was deposited on its banks and floodplains, enabling the people living nearby to grow an abundance of crops. However, the Yellow River is also called 'China's Sorrow', as the floods in ancient times led to the deaths of millions of people. Irrigation systems were developed along the Yangtze River during the Han dynasty (206 BCE–220 CE). Irrigation made farms more productive and helped the Yangtze region became one of the wealthiest regions in China.

Learning ladder 4.3

Background and origins

1. Sources 1–4: Match the numbers 1, 2 and 3 on the map with the physical features shown in Sources 1, 2 and 3.
2. Describe the major river systems of ancient China.
3. Explain how the deserts would have protected China from being invaded.
4. Explain why China's geographical isolation was beneficial.

Cause and effect

1. Identify a cause for the construction of the Great Wall.
2. Describe the effects of loess soil.
3. Explain the effects of the Yellow River on early Chinese settlement.
4. Explain why irrigation systems were developed during the Han dynasty.
5. Evaluate the effects of living along the Yellow River or the Yangtze River.

Cause and effect, page 480

HOW TO

How was ancient Chinese society organised?

The society of ancient China was a strict hierarchy. At the top was the emperor and his family. Below the imperial family were four social classes: nobles and officials, farmers, artisans (skilled craftspeople) and merchants.

Dynastic rule

The rule of Chinese kings and **emperors** in **dynasties** lasted from the Xia dynasty in 2100 BCE until the Qing dynasty in 1912 CE. A dynasty was when one family maintained power, handing down the throne to an heir. Dynasties usually began after a battle for power between rival kingdoms: the victor became the new emperor and started a new dynasty.

The Mandate of Heaven

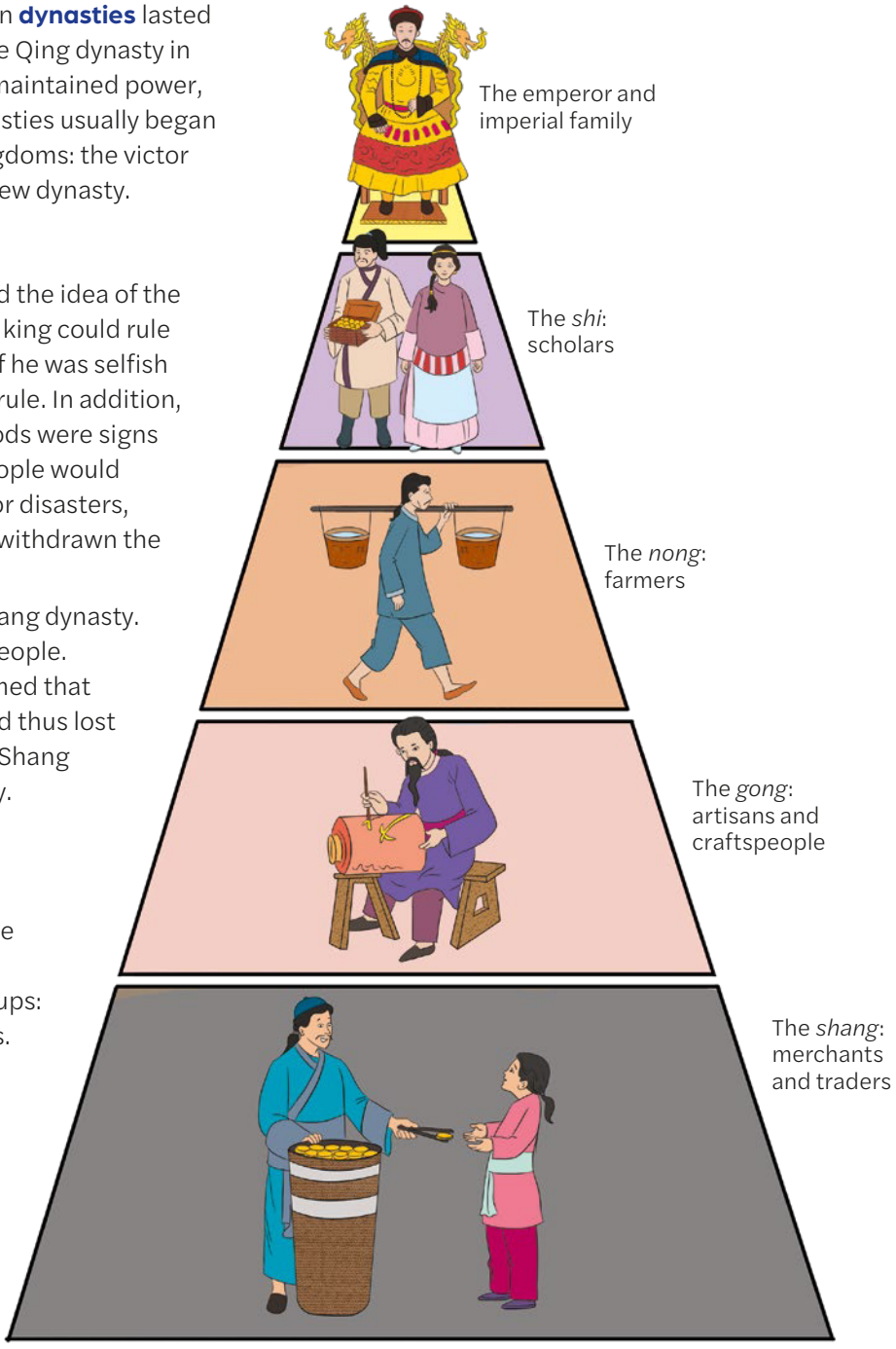
During the Zhou dynasty, rulers developed the idea of the **Mandate of Heaven**, which meant that a king could rule as long as his actions were wise and fair. If he was selfish or cruel, he was considered to be unfit to rule. In addition, natural disasters such as famines and floods were signs of Heaven's displeasure with the king. People would often revolt against their rulers after major disasters, which they saw as signs that Heaven had withdrawn the king's mandate to rule.

King Di Xin was the last king of the Shang dynasty. He inflicted torture and hardship on his people. In 1045 BCE, King Wen and his allies claimed that Di Xin had lost the Mandate of Heaven and thus lost the right to rule. King Wen overthrew the Shang dynasty and established the Zhou dynasty.

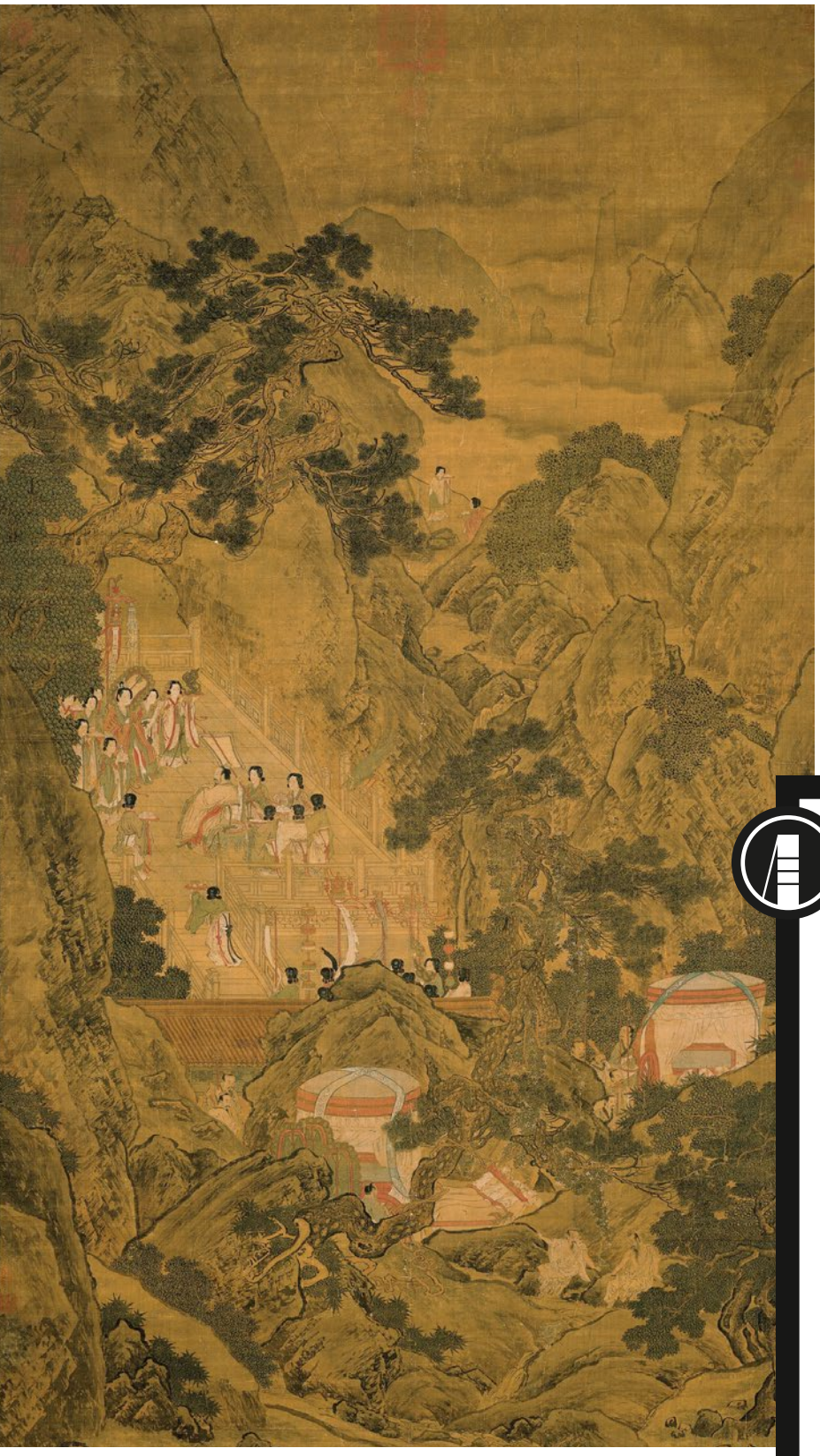
Social order in ancient China

In ancient China, the social order was a hierarchy, with clear divisions between the social classes. Beneath the emperor and imperial family there were four social groups: scholars, farmers, artisans and merchants.

- **Scholars** were known as the *shi*. Scholars came from noble families and were highly respected in ancient China. They served as government officials, carrying out the emperor's orders.



Source 1: The social hierarchy in ancient China ▶



Source 2: Emperors in China were expected to rule with wisdom and justice. In this image painted by Liu Songnian, c. 1200 CE, the goddess Xiwangmu is shown meeting with Emperor Wu of Han. According to legend, the goddess met with the Emperor, shared a banquet with him and gave him important teachings on moral leadership. However, Wu failed to live up to her teachings and lost the Mandate of Heaven.

- **Farmers** were known as the *nong*. They were not wealthy, but were highly respected for their ability to produce food, a necessity of life. Farmers could live on the land in return for working on it. They used rice to pay their tax, and had to serve as soldiers or work on the emperor's building projects when required.
- **Artisans** were known as the *gong*. They were skilled carpenters, metal workers, potters, artists and jewellers. Even though they earned more money than farmers, artisans were not as highly respected, as their products, while useful, were not essential.
- The **merchant class** were known as the *shang*. They were traders and moneylenders. They were on the lowest level of the social hierarchy because they did not produce anything, and only worked for their own gain. Some merchants bought land to farm in a bid to improve their social status.

Learning ladder 4.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the four social groups in ancient China.
2. Describe the role of artisans.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how rulers were supposed to uphold the Mandate of Heaven.
4. Source 1: Explain why farmers were considered more important than merchants in ancient China.
5. Evaluate the concept of the Mandate of Heaven.

Continuity and change

1. How long was China ruled by dynasties?
2. Describe how merchants could change their social class.
3. Explain how dynasties represented continuity and change in ancient China.
4. Explain why the Zhou were able to justify their overthrow of the Shang dynasty.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

4.5

What did the ancient Chinese hold sacred?

Chinese people worshipped many different gods. They also followed the teachings of Confucius and Buddha, which encouraged peace and respect for others.

The three ways

Many of the ideas and events in ancient China were shaped by the three major religions or philosophies: **Taoism**, **Confucianism** and **Buddhism**. Taoism and Confucianism are philosophies that teach followers how to live their lives, while Buddhism is a religion.

Interwoven with the three major belief systems were customs relating to how people were buried and how they arranged their homes, and even ceremonies about how to prepare and share a pot of tea.

Taoism

The founder of Taoism is believed to be Laozi (604–531 BCE). Laozi preached that happiness came from living a simple life in harmony with nature. Through a balanced diet, exercise and breathing techniques such as **qigong**, you could live forever.

In Taoism all living things have two sides: the ***yin*** and the ***yang***. When yin and yang were in balance, there was harmony in the universe. When they were out of balance, famines, disease and natural disasters occurred.

Confucianism

Confucius (551–479 BCE) lived at the same time as Laozi. Confucius taught that people should be honest, brave and knowledgeable and never violent or arrogant. The path to happiness lay in obeying the law, doing one's duty and observing 'right relationships'. 'Right relationships' meant showing respect to elders and people who were socially superior.

Confucius travelled for many years and had a great influence on Chinese beliefs. Even if people became Taoists or Buddhists, they still followed the teachings of Confucius. Here are some of his teachings:

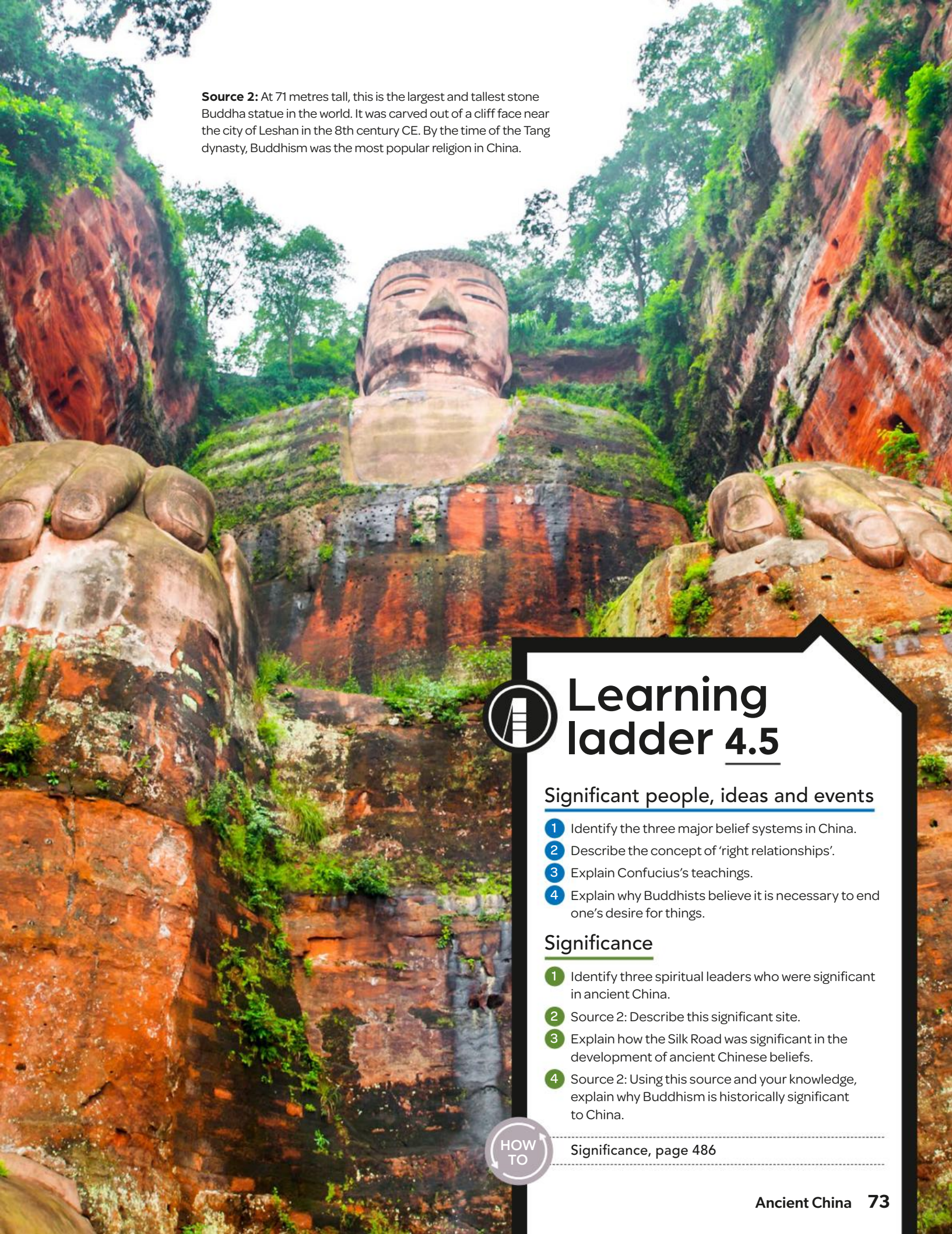
- Do not do unto others what you would not want others to do to you.
- Choose a job you love, and you will never have to work a day in your life.
- Learning without thinking is useless. Thinking without learning is dangerous.
- Our greatest glory is not in never falling, but in rising every time we fall.

Buddhism

Buddhism was founded by Siddhartha Gautama (the Buddha). Buddha taught that all suffering comes from desire (wanting things). He also taught that, after death, people are reincarnated in an endless cycle of rebirth. By ending their desire for things and living a good life, a person could reach nirvana and end the cycle of rebirth.

Originally founded in India, Buddhism arrived in China via the **Silk Road** during the 1st century CE. Buddhist monks from China often used the Silk Road to travel back to India, where they could copy sacred texts and bring them back to China.

Source 1: The yin and yang symbol, showing the dark balanced by the light



Source 2: At 71 metres tall, this is the largest and tallest stone Buddha statue in the world. It was carved out of a cliff face near the city of Leshan in the 8th century CE. By the time of the Tang dynasty, Buddhism was the most popular religion in China.

Learning ladder 4.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the three major belief systems in China.
2. Describe the concept of 'right relationships'.
3. Explain Confucius's teachings.
4. Explain why Buddhists believe it is necessary to end one's desire for things.

Significance

1. Identify three spiritual leaders who were significant in ancient China.
2. Source 2: Describe this significant site.
3. Explain how the Silk Road was significant in the development of ancient Chinese beliefs.
4. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Buddhism is historically significant to China.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

4.6

What was family life like in ancient China?

In ancient China, several generations of a family lived under one roof, and everyone worshipped their ancestors. Marriages were arranged by the parents and, after the wedding, the bride lived with the husband's family. Women had very few rights outside the home.

Filial piety and the family

Within the family, the concept of filial piety was very important. The oldest male was the leader of the family. All children showed respect to elders and parents, and all women showed respect to men.

This respect to elders was extended even after they had died. Families had small shrines in their houses dedicated to their dead ancestors, and they would ***kowtow***, burn incense and make sacrifices to show their respect.

Women in China

Women had little social status in ancient China, and were expected to obey their fathers and husbands. Only males received an education; girls stayed home to learn how to be housewives and mothers.

A daughter had to marry the husband chosen by her father. She then had to move into her husband's home and obey him and her mother-in-law. Wives had to worship their husband's ancestors and be loyal to their husband's family. The only time a woman gained power was when her son became the head of a household.

Children in ancient China

Children were taught to be submissive to their elders and teachers. From the age of eight, girls were kept separate from boys. They were educated at home, where they learned how to spin thread and weave cloth. Boys were educated by a school master, learning archery, writing, music and mathematics.

From 74 BCE there were efforts to educate the daughters of the emperor and the scholars. Educated women were then expected to advise women on proper behaviour and support the careers of their fathers, husbands or brothers. The historian Ban Zhao wrote *Lessons for Women* (80 CE) and also helped her brother Ban Gu write *The Book of Han* (111 CE).

A woman ought to have four qualifications: (1) womanly virtue; (2) womanly words; (3) womanly bearing; and (4) womanly work.

To guard carefully her chastity; to control her behaviour … this is womanly virtue.

To choose her words with care; to avoid vulgar language; to speak at appropriate times; and nor to weary others with much conversation, may be called the characteristics of womanly words.

To wash and scrub filth away; to keep clothes and ornaments fresh and clean; to wash the head and bathe the body regularly, and to keep the person free from disgraceful filth, may be called the characteristics of womanly bearing.

With whole-hearted devotion to sew and to weave; to love not gossip and silly laughter; in cleanliness and order to prepare the wine and food for serving guests, may be called the characteristics of womanly work.

Source 1: Excerpt from Ban Zhao (c. 80 CE), *Lessons for Women*. Ban Zhao was a historian and scholar.

Source 2: Image of a son showing filial piety to his parents [Unknown artist, *Classic of Filial Piety*, c. 1000 CE]

Learning ladder 4.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify which family member was seen as the head of the family.
2. Describe how ancestors continued to be respected after they had died.
3. Compare how girls and boys were educated in ancient China.
4. Explain why noble women could receive an education after 74 CE.
5. Source 2: Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of filial piety.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 2: Describe the concept of filial piety.
3. Source 1: Using the source, explain how noble women were expected to behave.
4. Source 1: Explain why the author of this source has written this text.

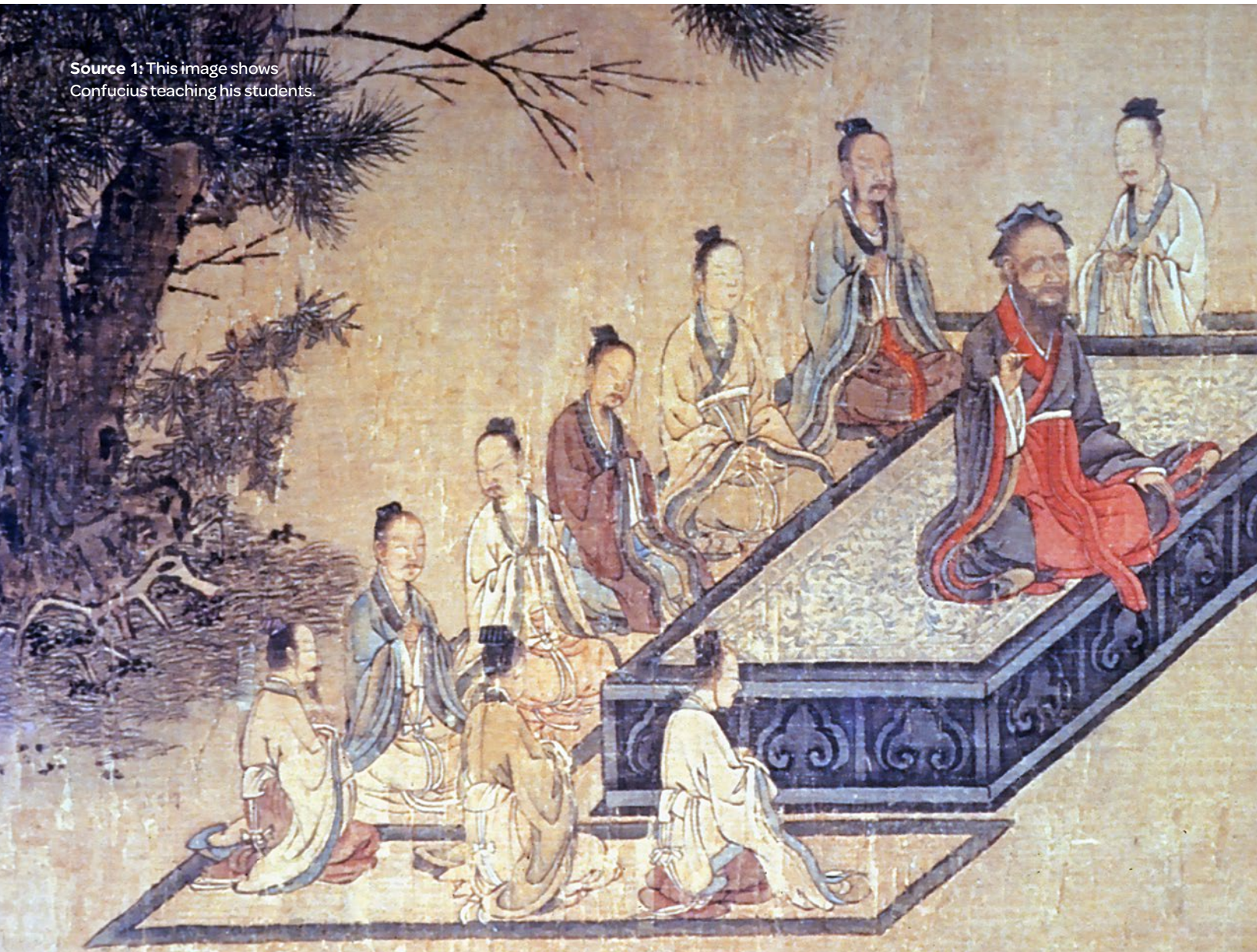
Source analysis, page 475

How was the law exercised in ancient China?

Confucianism and Legalism were the main philosophies that influenced the development of the law in ancient China.

Confucianism and law

Confucius believed that human beings were fundamentally good. He believed that an emphasis on duty and tradition would encourage people to do the right thing. Rather than a set of formal laws and government regulations, Confucius stated that the emperor, as head of Chinese society, should lead his people by example. It was up to the emperor to decide what was good moral behaviour and how crime should be punished. As a result, there were different punishments for crime depending on a person's social or family status.



Source 1: This image shows Confucius teaching his students.

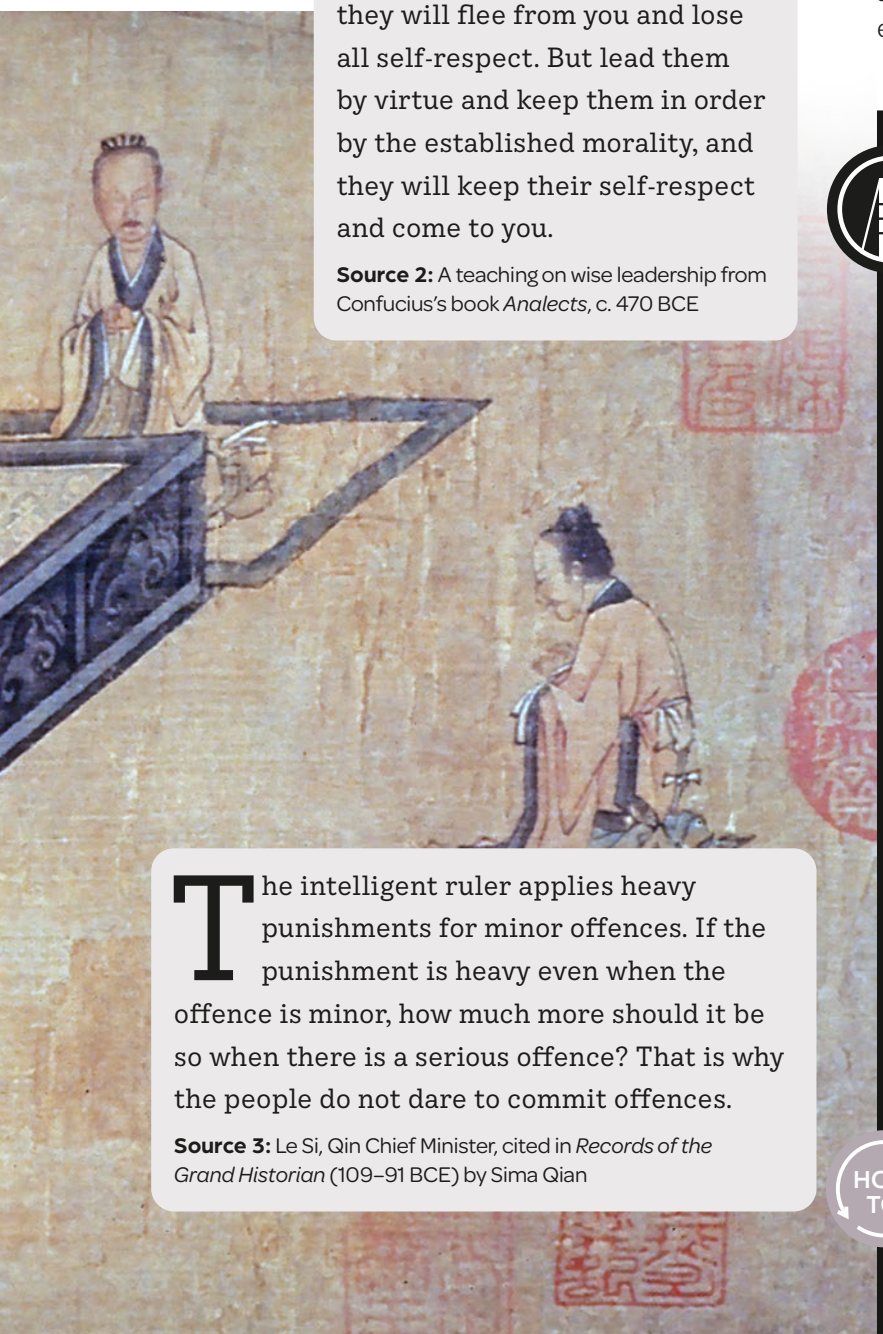
Legalism

Legalism was a philosophy that developed c. 250 BCE during the Warring States period. In a period of chaos and uncertainty, greater control was needed. Legalism held that humans were selfish and needed to be controlled by a set of clearly defined written laws and harsh punishments. Everyone had to obey the same laws or face harsh punishments, regardless of status. Even the emperor was bound by the law.

That said, the emperor still had the power to decide what the laws were. Legalism was most prominent during the Warring States, Qin and Han periods.

> If you lead the people by regulations [and] keep them in order by punishments, they will flee from you and lose all self-respect. But lead them by virtue and keep them in order by the established morality, and they will keep their self-respect and come to you.

Source 2: A teaching on wise leadership from Confucius's book *Analects*, c. 470 BCE



> The intelligent ruler applies heavy punishments for minor offences. If the punishment is heavy even when the offence is minor, how much more should it be so when there is a serious offence? That is why the people do not dare to commit offences.

Source 3: Le Si, Qin Chief Minister, cited in *Records of the Grand Historian* (109–91 BCE) by Sima Qian

The legal codes

Towards the end of the Warring States period, each of the states had started to write their own legal codes. While many of the laws were influenced by Confucianism, stressing duty and right conduct, the law codes also contained set punishments for breaking the law, which was an influence of Legalism. The law codes contained three main punishments: death, mutilation and slavery. There was also the most extreme punishment – the execution of three generations of the guilty person's family. Lesser punishments included exile, beatings, fines and forced labour.

The role of magistrates

The law was enforced by district magistrates who were highly respected and had enormous power, authority and status. Magistrates decided cases and they also administered the law, led investigations, collected evidence, caught criminals and summoned witnesses.

Learning ladder 4.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the person in the source who influenced Chinese law.
2. Describe the role of magistrates in ancient China.
3. Explain the difference between Confucianism and Legalism.
4. Explain why the ancient Chinese legal codes were a combination of Confucianism and Legalism.
5. Compare the role of the emperor in Confucianism and Legalism.

Perspectives

1. Identify the two different perspectives on the law in ancient China.
2. Sources 2 and 3: Describe the perspective of each source.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Explain how the perspectives are different.
4. Explain why the Warring States period may have contributed to harsher laws.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of the two approaches to law and order.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

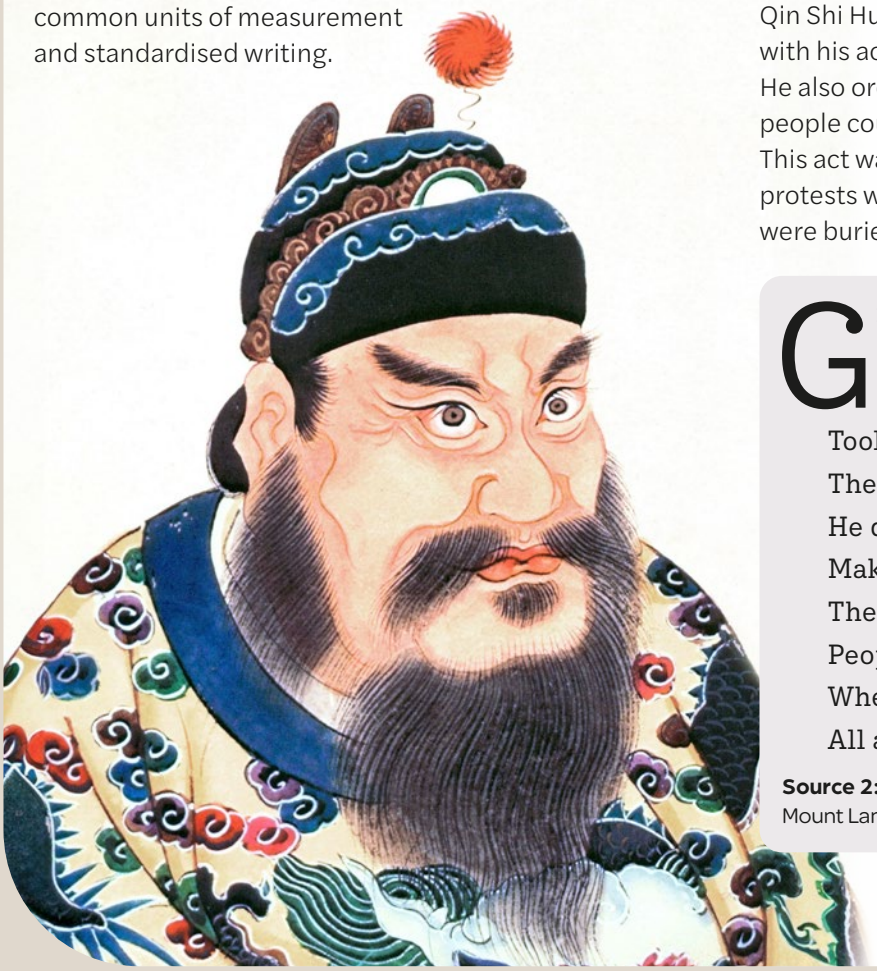
Key individual

How did Qin Shi Huangdi rule China?

By 221 BCE, King Zheng of Qin had defeated six small kingdoms to unify China. He renamed himself Qin Shi Huangdi, after Huangdi, the legendary Yellow Emperor. The name means 'the first emperor'. The Qin dynasty lasted only 15 years, but Emperor Qin Shi Huangdi introduced great changes in that time.

A strong and organised leader

Qin Shi Huangdi quickly established control over the conquered states by dividing the country into 36 administrative provinces, each with a governor that reported to him. He developed a single set of laws and a system of roads to link the provinces with the Qin dynasty capital of Xianyang. To make it easier to have centralised control, Qin Shi Huangdi also established a common currency, common units of measurement and standardised writing.



Source 1: Qin Shi Huangdi became China's first emperor in 221 BCE. [*Portrait of Qin Shi Huang*, 18th century CE]

The Great Wall

To protect his empire against invasion from the Xiongnu peoples in the north, Emperor Qin built a Great Wall out of rammed earth, wood and stone. He used soldiers and convicts to build the Wall. It is estimated that at least 400 000 people died during the construction of the Great Wall.

History and Emperor Qin

Qin Shi Huangdi ordered that stone obelisks inscribed with his achievements be set up around the country. He also ordered all history books to be burned, so that people could not compare earlier times to his rule. This act was greatly opposed by the scholars, but their protests were severely punished by the emperor – they were buried alive!

Great are the emperor's achievements ...
All people under Heaven
Work with a common purpose.
Tools and measures are the same ...
The written script is made the same ...
He defines the laws, leaving no one in doubt,
Making known what is forbidden ...
There are no robbers or thieves:
People delight in his rule ...
Wherever life is found,
All acknowledge his supreme rule ...

Source 2: Imperial inscription carved on a stone obelisk at Mount Langya, ordered by Qin Shi Huangdi, c. 218 BCE

Source 3: This painting shows the burning of the books and burying of scholars who disagreed with Chinese Emperor Qin Shi Huangdi in 213 BCE. [*Qin Shi Huangdi, the First Qin Emperor*, c. 1750 CE]

Learning ladder 4.8

Signficant, people, ideas and events

1. Identify which state was victorious in the Warring States period.
2. Source 3: Describe the scene in this source.
3. Source 3: Explain how Emperor Qin tried to shape his legacy.
4. Source 3: Explain why the scholars were opposed to Emperor Qin.
5. Sources 2 and 3: Using the sources and your knowledge, evaluate the rule of Emperor Qin.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the change in the form of leadership that was introduced by Emperor Qin.
2. Describe how Emperor Qin protected his empire.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the changes made by Emperor Qin to unify ancient China.
4. Explain why Emperor Qin chose the name 'Huangdi'.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of the changes introduced by Emperor Qin.

Continuity and change, page 477

HOW TO

Site study

What were the terracotta warriors?

In 1974 CE, three farmers made a chance discovery while they were digging a well in Lintong County, near Xi'an in China. They came upon a pit containing life-sized terracotta statues of warriors. They had stumbled on the tomb of the First Emperor.

A terracotta army

To make sure he was equipped in the afterlife, Qin Shi Huangdi built a magnificent tomb complex measuring two kilometres long and one kilometre wide that included a mausoleum where he was buried, an underground palace and buildings for all the precious treasures he wanted to have in the afterlife. One and a half kilometres away, he buried an army of life-sized terracotta warriors to command in the afterlife: 8000 soldiers, 130 chariots, 520 horses and 150 cavalry horses.

Source 1: Each of the 8000 soldiers in the Terracotta Army is life-sized. The officers are taller than regular soldiers, and the generals are the tallest of them all. There are 10 basic face shapes, but each soldier has a different expression. The site is separated into pits, divided by walls of rammed soil. The soldiers are arranged in columns in battle formation. The Emperor wanted the same army that had brought him to power in life to protect him in the afterlife. [*Terracotta Army*, 3rd century BCE, Lintong District, Shaanxi, China]

Ancient Chinese historian Sima Qian recorded the construction of the burial site:

> As soon as the First Emperor became King of Qin, excavations and building were started at Mount Li, while after he won the empire more than 700 000 conscripts from all parts of the empire worked there. They dug through three streams and poured molten copper for the outer coffin, and the tomb was fitted with models of palaces, pavillions and offices, as well as fine vessels, precious stones and rarities.

Source 2: This is a description of Qin Shi Huangdi's burial site written by Chinese historian Sima Qian during the early Han Dynasty. [*Records of the Grand Historian* (109–91 BCE)]

Source 3: In 2019 CE, the National Gallery of Victoria hosted an exhibition of the terracotta warriors. While the terracotta warriors on display were real, this chariot from Emperor Qin's tomb was a replica because the original is too delicate and precious to move. [Chariot #1, Qin dynasty replica, 225 × 152 cm, bronze, National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne, Australia]

Learning ladder 4.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the location of Emperor Qin's tomb.
2. Source 2: Describe the features of the tomb, according to Sima Qian.
3. Source 1: Explain how the terracotta warriors were made to look like an army.
4. Source 1: Explain why the terracotta warriors were included in the tomb.

Significance

1. Identify who discovered this significant site.
2. Describe the size of Emperor Qin's tomb.
3. Source 3: Explain how this replica artefact demonstrates the significance of the original.
4. Source 1: Explain why this site is historically significant.
5. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using these sources, explain why Emperor Qin's tomb shows that he was considered significant in his own time.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

Who killed Qin Shi Huangdi?

In 210 BCE, Shi Huangdi died while on tour. His death was not announced for two months, by which time his eldest son and one of his most trusted generals had also died. We still do not know the cause of Qin Shi Huangdi's death.

Did he die of mercury poisoning?

One theory holds that Emperor Qin died of mercury poisoning. He was desperate to become immortal and willing to try almost anything to ensure that he lived forever. He sent his court sorcerer, Xu Fu, to travel the seas in search of the 'elixir of life', a magic potion that would allow him to live forever.

Xu Fu never found the elixir. He did, however, seem to have a great time sailing around and living the high life. Emperor Qin refused to accept that his court sorcerer was playing him for a fool and kept sending Xu Fu more money, jewellery and supplies in the hope that Xu Fu would 'soon' return with the elixir.

In the meantime, Emperor Qin ingested many potions and herbal mixtures, some of which may have contained mercury (which is toxic), hoping to prolong his life.

Was he assassinated?

Another theory is that Qin was assassinated. During the Warring States period, there had been two assassination attempts on Emperor Qin made by the leaders of the rival state of Yan. Another attempt was made in 218 BCE by Zhang Liang, a noble from the former state of Han.

There were also members of Emperor Qin's inner circle who could have assassinated him in 210 CE. Some historians believe that there was a conspiracy between Hu Hai, the emperor's youngest son; Zhao Gao, the emperor's chief official; and Li Si, the Qin Chief Minister.

Emperor Qin's last orders were contained in a letter to his eldest son Fu Su, whom he had named as heir. Li Si and Zhao Gao feared that, on his succession, Fu Su would have them dismissed and killed. So when Emperor Qin died (whether of an 'immortality potion' or murder), they destroyed the letter announcing Fu Su as Shi Huangdi's heir, and forged a new letter to Fu Su from his father, ordering him to commit suicide.

Meanwhile, they covered up Emperor Qin's death for two months. Li Si ordered carts of rotten fish to be carried in front of and behind the wagon of the Emperor, to cover the smell of his decomposing body. He, Zhao Gao and Hu Hai pretended the emperor was still alive, changing his clothes every day, bringing him food and pretending to carry messages to him.

Source 1: *The Expedition of Xu Fu* by Japanese artist Utagawa Kuniyoshi [woodcut print, 1843 CE]

Source 2: This painting shows Qin Shi Huangdi's imperial tour, 210 BCE. [*Qin Shi Huang's Imperial Tour Across his Empire*, c. 18th century CE]

After Fu Su had committed suicide, the conspirators then forged a decree that called for the emperor's younger son, Hu Hai, to ascend the throne. Hu Hai proved to be a weak emperor and his rule was overthrown in 207 CE.

> From what I have heard, the Second Emperor was a younger son and ought never to have succeeded to the throne. The one who should have been made ruler was Prince Fu Su. ... Someone has told me that though Fu Su was guilty of no crime, he has been murdered by the Second Emperor.

Source 3: Chen Sheng, quoted in Sima Qian, *Records of the Grand Historian* (109–91 BCE). Chen Sheng was the former King of Chu. He led a rebellion against the Qin dynasty in 209 BCE.

> In 218 BC, Qin Shi Huangdi was travelling to the east. Bandits tried to attack him, but they escaped and could not be found, despite a ten-day 'great search' ordered throughout the empire. Zhang Liang, a descendent of the former Han state, had organised the plot ... This incident indicates that Qin Shi Huangdi had not yet gained the allegiance of his subjects, particularly aristocrats and descendants of the former feudal lords. They all wanted to restore the old feudal state system. In fact, after the execution of the Confucian scholars and the burning of the books (214 BCE), which generated extensive social tension, more and more people became resentful about Emperor Qin's rule.

Source 4: Historian Hong Yuan's account of the reasons for the death of Emperor Qin. [Hong Yuan (2018 CE), *The Sinitic Civilization Book II: A Factual History Through the Lens of Archaeology, Bronzeware, Astronomy, Divination, Calendar and the Annals*, iUniverse]

Learning ladder 4.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the key individual whose ship is pictured in this scene.
2. Describe Qin Shi Huangdi's quest for immortality.
3. Explain how members of the emperor's inner circle could have assassinated him.
4. Explain why members of the emperor's inner circle may have assassinated him.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate over the cause of Qin Shi Huangdi's death.
2. Describe the two possible explanations for Emperor Qin's death.
3. Source 3: Explain how this source accounts for the death of Emperor Qin.
4. Source 4: Explain why the author of this source believes Qin was assassinated.
5. Which theory do you think is correct? Explain your choice.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

What was life like in a Han dynasty city?

The Han dynasty was a time of peace and prosperity. Chinese cities became the largest and most magnificent in the world. The cities were lively, organised and controlled places where people lived according to their occupation.

The Han dynasty

The Han dynasty was one of China's longest ruling dynasties, lasting for more than 400 years. In 202 BCE, the Han army seized control of China following eight years of fighting after the death of Emperor Qin Shi Huangdi in 210 BCE and the surrender of the last Qin ruler in 206 BCE. Their leader was a peasant named Liu Bang, who renamed himself Gaozu. He was the first peasant to become emperor.

Emperor Gaozu began to restore the people's faith in leadership after they had lived in fear during the Qin dynasty. He did this by:

- disbanding his armies
- excusing men with families from military service
- appointing people to jobs based on their performance on exams rather than who their parents were
- reducing taxes
- making laws easier to understand
- promoting Confucianism
- attempting to replace books destroyed by Qin Shi Huangdi.

Source 1: The Chinese city of Chang'an (now Xian) during the Han dynasty. The city was surrounded by a 12-metre-high wall that stretched for 25.7 kilometres.

The Emperor's Palace
The imperial palace was located inside its own walled city. It was located in the north of the city.

Organised cities
Cities were neatly set out with a network of streets. Each main street was wide enough for traffic and market stalls.

Travelling in style
Wealthy people travelled in a carriage pulled by horses, or in a sedan chair (a bit like a car body without wheels) carried by two, four or eight people.

City life

The walled city of Chang'an was vibrant and crowded. The roads were filled with merchants, shopkeepers, craftsmen, officials, entertainers, soldiers and beggars.

The marketplace was just inside the city gates, which was ideal for travelling merchants. Goods were sourced from far and wide by merchants travelling on the trading route called the Silk Road. People bought and sold animals and food, including exotic foods such as turtles, snails, panthers and owls. Craftsmen sold paintings, pottery, carvings and jewellery. Entertainment was provided by musicians, jugglers and acrobats.

Inside the town walls were further walls that divided the city into sections, called wards. Each ward was identified by the occupation of its residents. For example, all artists' and craft shops were in the same ward. Wards were locked at night and people had a curfew, which meant they had to stay indoors after a set time.

The palace was located in the north of the city. High walls were used to limit access to imperial palace buildings, administrative offices, military barracks and storehouses.

Peasants lived in alleyways or on farms, in shacks with thatched roofs and walls of mudbrick. They had a single room for living, eating and sleeping, and used shared toilets.

Learning ladder 4.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the location of the emperor's palace in the city of Chang'an.
2. Source 1: Describe the houses of wealthy Chinese people in ancient times.
3. Explain how the city was kept secure.
4. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how cities reflected China's social hierarchy during the Han dynasty.

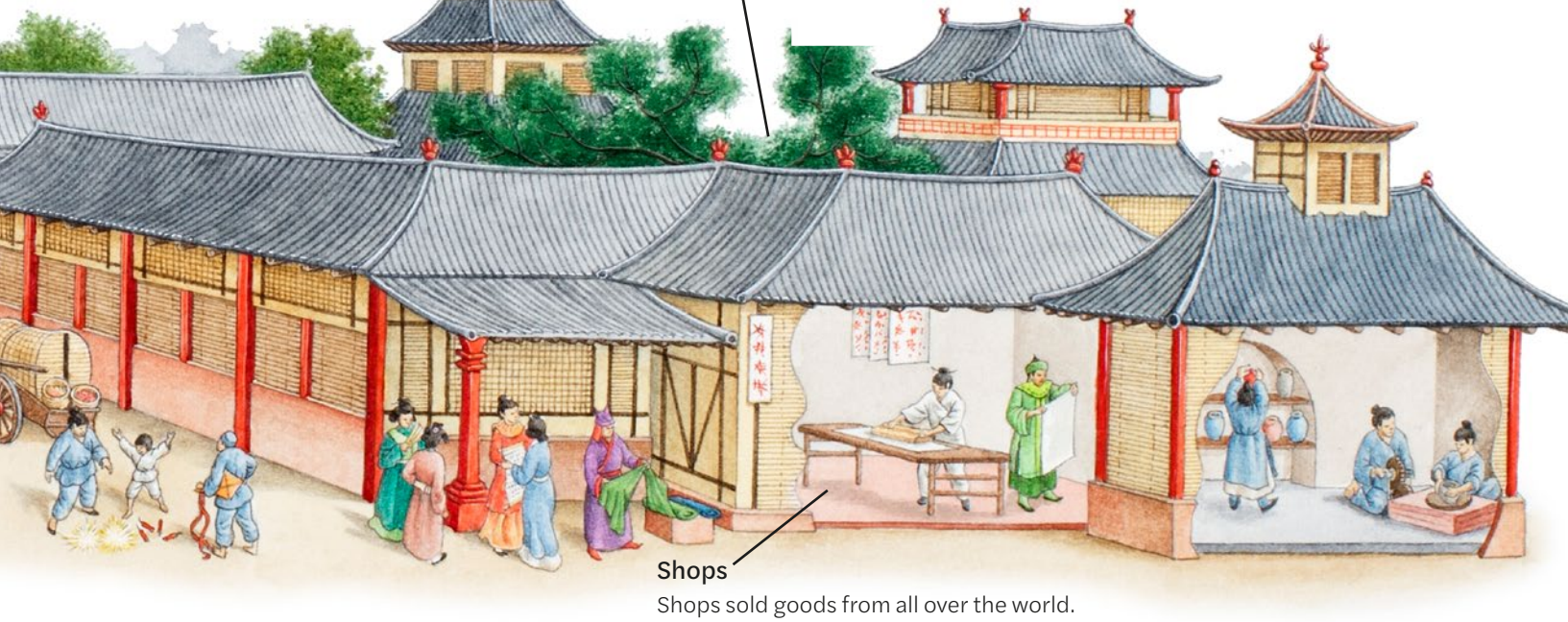
Continuity and change

1. Identify two changes made by Emperor Gaozu to ancient China's government.
2. Describe how the changes made by Emperor Gaozu were fairer for ordinary Chinese people.
3. Explain how Emperor Gaozu restored faith in leadership following the harsh conditions of the Qin dynasty.
4. Explain the ways in which Chinese cities are different from and similar to modern cities today.

HOW TO
Continuity and change, page 477

Wooden homes
Chinese cities were made of wood. They were quick to build, but easily destroyed by fire.

Courtyards
Houses of wealthy people were built around a courtyard, known as the 'well of heaven'. Around the courtyard were the bedrooms, kitchen, storage room and women's quarters.



Shops
Shops sold goods from all over the world. Merchants used umbrellas – a Chinese invention – to protect their goods from the sun.

How did the Silk Road connect the world?

The Silk Road is the name of the trade route that developed from eastern China to the Mediterranean Sea during the Han dynasty. The route was first established by a diplomat named Zhang Qian to bring 3000 warhorses from Central Asia into China.

The quest for horses

In 138 BCE, a diplomat named Zhang Qian was sent on the long and hazardous journey to central Asia to find allies who would help China fight the Xiongnu.

However, Zhang Qian was captured by the Xiongnu and held captive for 10 years. After escaping and arriving back in China, Zhang Qian told Emperor Wudi about the Dayuan people, who lived in the Ferghan Valley with their horses:

> The people are settled on the land, plowing the fields and growing rice and wheat. They also make wine out of grapes. The region has many fine horses, which sweat blood; their forebears are supposed to have been foaled from heavenly horses.

Source 1: Extract from Sima Qian (109–91 BCE), *Records of the Grand Historian*

Because of continual warfare among **empires** in Asia, maintaining an empire depended on being able to fight on horseback. The Dayuan horses were a special breed: they were taller, stronger and faster than Chinese horses.

Emperor Wudi ordered Zhang Qian to trade silk for 1000 horses and bring them back to China. However, the Dayuan king refused to trade.

Emperor Wudi then sent large armies of up to 60 000 men to fight the Dayuan and seize the horses. After defeating the Dayuan, 3000 horses were brought back to China, although only 1000 horses survived the journey. Later, with the help of the Dayuan horses, China defeated the Xiongnu. The road between Dayuan and China became the first part of a trade route that was known as the Silk Road.

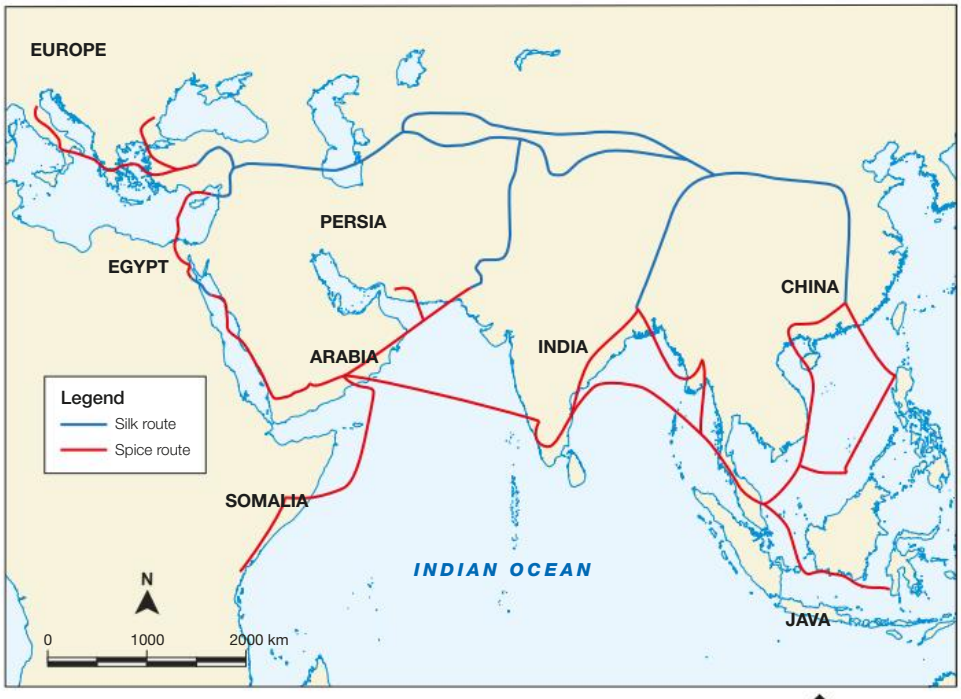
Trade along the Silk Road

The Silk Road was a 6500-kilometre network of routes over land and sea that connected China to Asia, Europe and the Mediterranean. Camel caravans carried goods along the route through the mountain ranges and deserts of southern Asia.

Source 2: A bronze sculpture of a Dayuan horse from the 2nd century CE. Dayuan horses had an infection that made them sweat blood. The Chinese considered this a sign that the horses were marked by heaven, making them 'heavenly horses'. [*Flying Horse of Gansu* (25–220 CE), bronze]

Source 3: Map showing the silk route and the spice route linking East and West

Trading routes to and from ancient China



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Ancient China's most important **export** was silk. Silk was highly prized by people in other countries. For a long time, spinning silk from the cocoons of silkworms was a skill known only by the Chinese. People were executed if they were caught stealing silkworm eggs or cocoons. A thin, strong form of pottery called porcelain was another important Chinese product. Merchants also exported umbrellas, paper, medicines, perfumes, tea, rice, cinnamon, ginger, bronze weapons and mirrors.

Horses and camels were **imported** from central Asia, along with luxury goods such as gold, silver, gemstones and glassware. Exotic items such as grapes, watermelons, peaches, leopards and lions also reached China, along with fabrics, spices, dyes and ivory from India.

An additional importance of the Silk Road was that it introduced new ideas into ancient China, such as Buddhism, and new technologies for making metal. In turn, China's secrets for making silk were eventually passed on to others along the Silk Road. The Silk Road also exposed traders to new ailments, such as intestinal worms, leprosy and anthrax, which spread along the route.

Source 4: Tea was one of the many items traded on the Silk Road.

Learning ladder 4.12

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the main exports from ancient China.
2. Source 3: Describe the path of the Silk Road between China and Europe.
3. Explain how Emperor Wudi obtained the Dayuan horses.
4. Explain which imports would have been the most useful to ancient China.
5. What changes introduced to China through the Silk Road would have had the greatest impact? Why?

Cause and effect

1. Identify two effects of trade on the Silk Road.
2. Describe the cause of Zhang Qian's journey.
3. Explain how ancient Chinese people's knowledge of silk-making was protected.
4. Source 1: Use the source and your knowledge to explain why Chinese people wanted horses from Dayuan.
5. Analyse the causes and effects of China's contact with other societies.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

4.13

What are the legacies of the ancient Chinese?

The ancient Chinese were remarkable inventors, and many of their inventions are still in use today. Among the countless Chinese inventions are four that changed the world: the magnetic compass, papermaking, printing and an early form of gunpowder.

Magnetic compass

Historians believe the magnetic compass was invented in about 206 BCE, during the Han dynasty. Early Chinese compasses were made using lodestone, which is naturally magnetic. The lodestone was carved into a spoon-shaped needle and placed on a bronze plate. As the plate was moved, the spoon spun until it stopped with its point facing south. For this reason, early compasses were called 'south-pointers'.

The earliest compasses were used to create buildings that matched the principles of *feng shui*, a belief that buildings, temples and tombs should face the most spiritually harmonious direction. It wasn't until the Song dynasty in the 11th century CE that compasses were used for navigation.

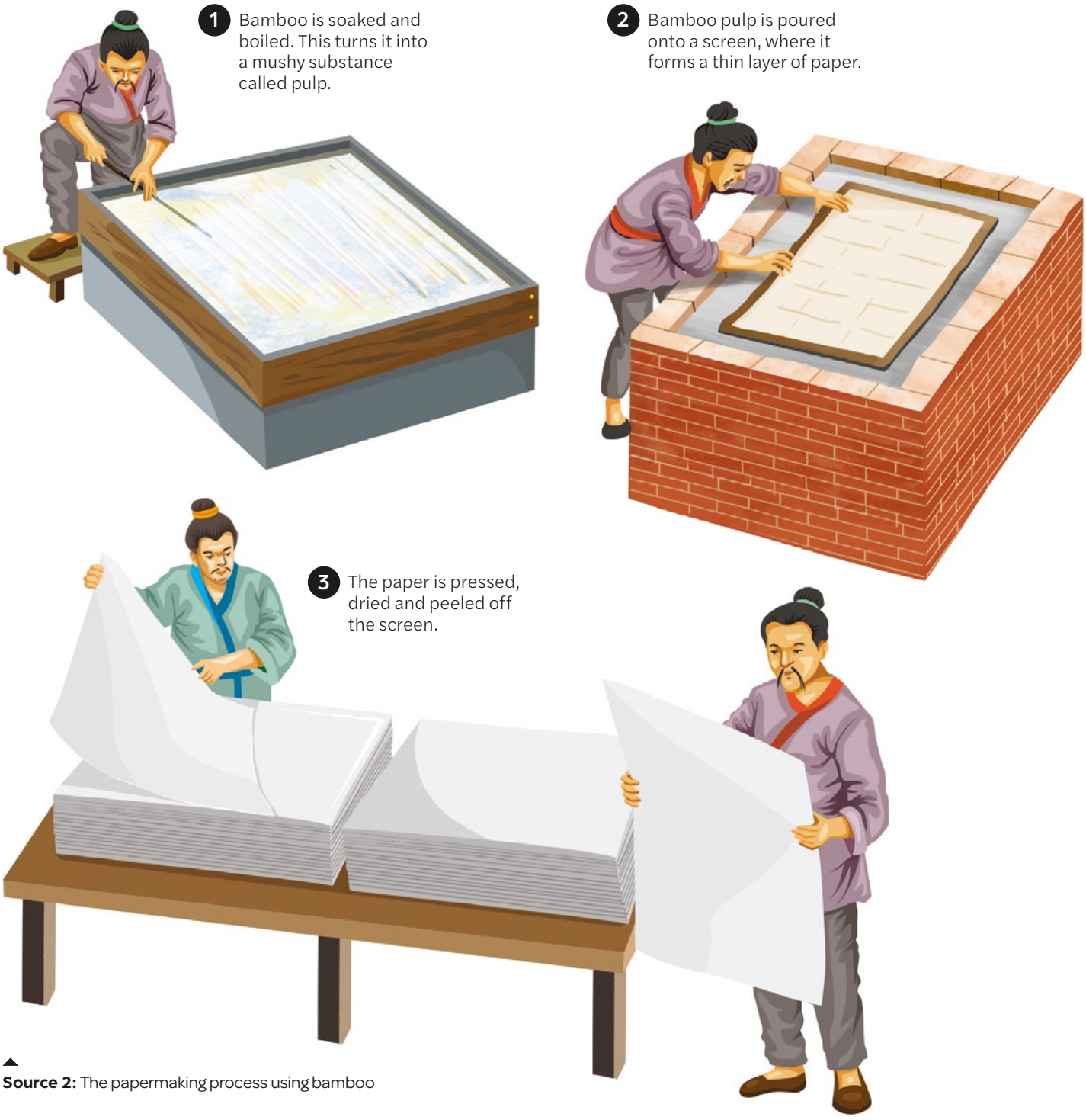
Papermaking

The invention of paper and printing had a huge impact on communication around the world. Before the invention of paper, people in China wrote on bones, tortoise shells, wood, bamboo and even silk. Books were made from wood or bamboo.

The person credited with inventing papermaking is Cai Lu, who was head of the imperial workshops. In 105 CE, Cai Lu came up with a process for making paper from bark, cloth and old fishing nets. These raw materials were cheap and easily available, making it possible to produce large quantities of paper.

The technique for papermaking slowly spread out from China to other parts of the world: first to Korea in 384 CE, then Japan in 610 CE, arriving in India by the 11th century CE. Eventually China's papermaking technique spread around the whole world, because paper provided a lighter, cheaper and better surface for writing than anything that had existed before.

Source 1: The first magnetic compasses were known as south-pointers.



Source 2: The papermaking process using bamboo

Printing

Block printing was invented in China during the ancient period. It involved carving patterns on wooden blocks and using these blocks to print images on fabric. The earliest woodblock-printed fabric dates from the Han dynasty. It is a fragment of silk cloth printed with flowers in three colours. The Chinese would later use their knowledge of fabric printing to develop printing on paper in c. 650 CE.

Gunpowder

An early form of gunpowder was first mentioned in 142 CE, when Wei Boyang described a mixture of three substances that would 'fly and dance' violently. These three powders were sulphur, charcoal and saltpetre.

During the ancient period, this mixture was used for fireworks. Paper tubes were filled with the mixture and a fuse was inserted. When the fuse was lit, the firework ignited. The ancient Chinese used fireworks to ward off evil spirits and to celebrate births, weddings and special occasions. The Chinese would further develop their firework mixture to create gunpowder in the early ninth century CE.

Source 3: Chinese invention timeline, 600 BCE – 142 CE

600 BCE
Folding umbrella

500 BCE
Gas lighting

113 BCE
Acupuncture

500 BCE
Cast iron

206 BCE
Magnetic compass

Source 4: Fireworks near a traditional Chinese pagoda. Pagodas were first constructed during the ancient period to house sacred Buddhist relics and writings.

118 CE
Wheelbarrow

142 CE
An early form of gunpowder

105 CE
Paper

132 CE
Earthquake detector

Learning ladder 4.13

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the major inventions that ancient China left as a legacy for the world.
2. Source 2: Describe how paper was made.
3. Explain how the inventions of the ancient period had developed by the medieval period.
4. Explain why papermaking was so revolutionary.

Chronology

1. Use the timeline on this page to answer the following questions.
   - **a** When was the folding umbrella invented?
   - **b** What major items were invented in a 37-year period from 105 CE?
2. Put these Chinese inventions in order from the earliest to the latest invention:
   - c. 1700 BCE: bronze smelting
   - c. 1050 BCE: iron smelting
   - c. 2700 BCE: tea production
   - c. 425 BCE: kites.
3. Using appropriate conventions, create a timeline using the events from Question 2.
4. Explain the effect of three ancient Chinese inventions on the world today.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on ancient China. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of ancient China. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice.

The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of ancient China in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The role of Buddhism in ancient China, page 72
- The lives of women in ancient China, page 74
- The development of the Silk Road, pages 86, 87
- The Warring States period, page 65
- The tombs of ancient China, page 80

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas.

Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry. Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?

Wonder

What does it make you wonder?
What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

Ancient Greece

5

WHO WAS ATHENA?
102

WHERE DID THE FIRST DEMOCRACY DEVELOP? 108

WHAT WAS LIFE LIKE IN SPARTA? 114

WHO WAS ALEXANDER THE GREAT? 122

5.0

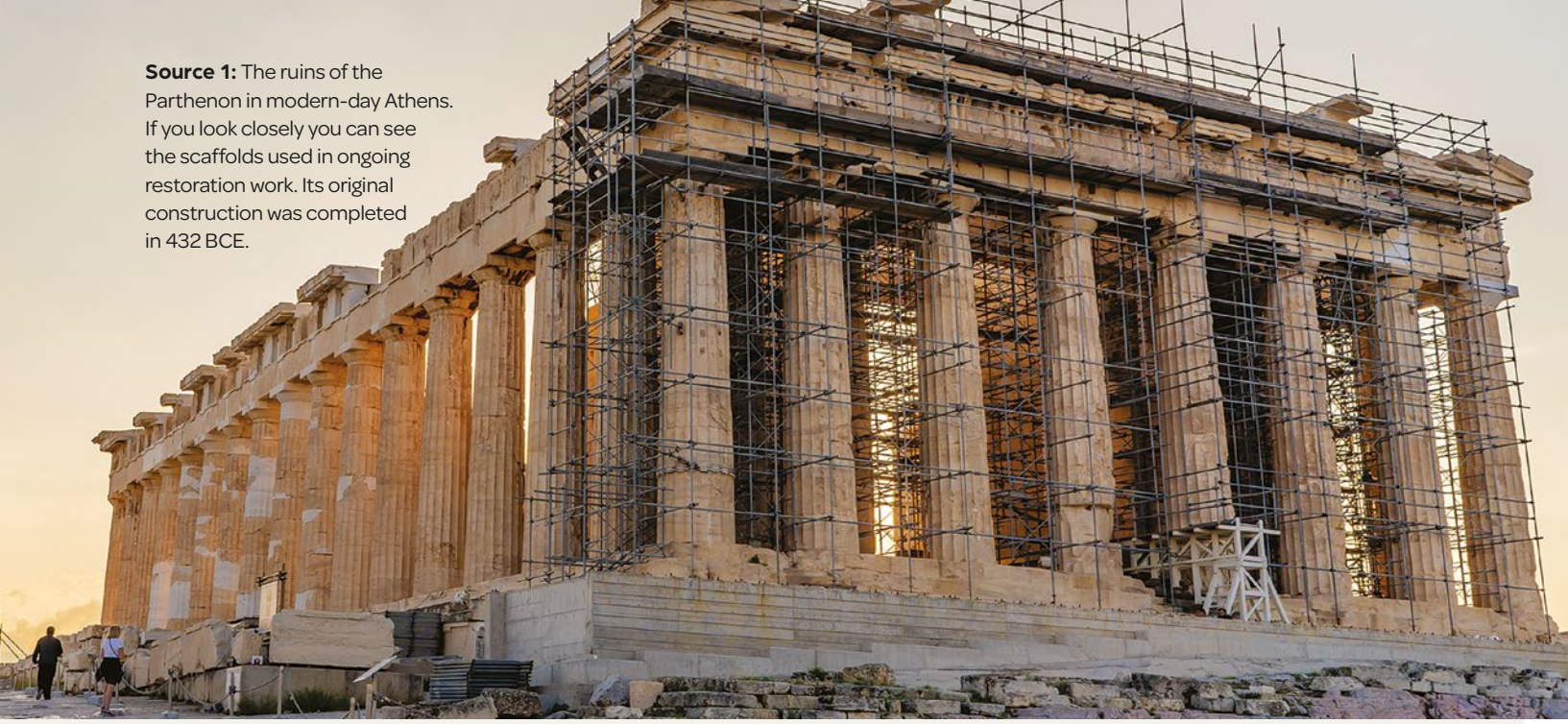
How can I understand ancient Greece?

The ancient Greek civilisation dominated the Mediterranean region. The innovations of the ancient Greeks in areas such as government, philosophy, mathematics, architecture, literature and sport are still relevant in the modern world.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
	Knowledge and understanding				



Source 1: The ruins of the Parthenon in modern-day Athens. If you look closely you can see the scaffolds used in ongoing restoration work. Its original construction was completed in 432 BCE.

Historical concepts and skills

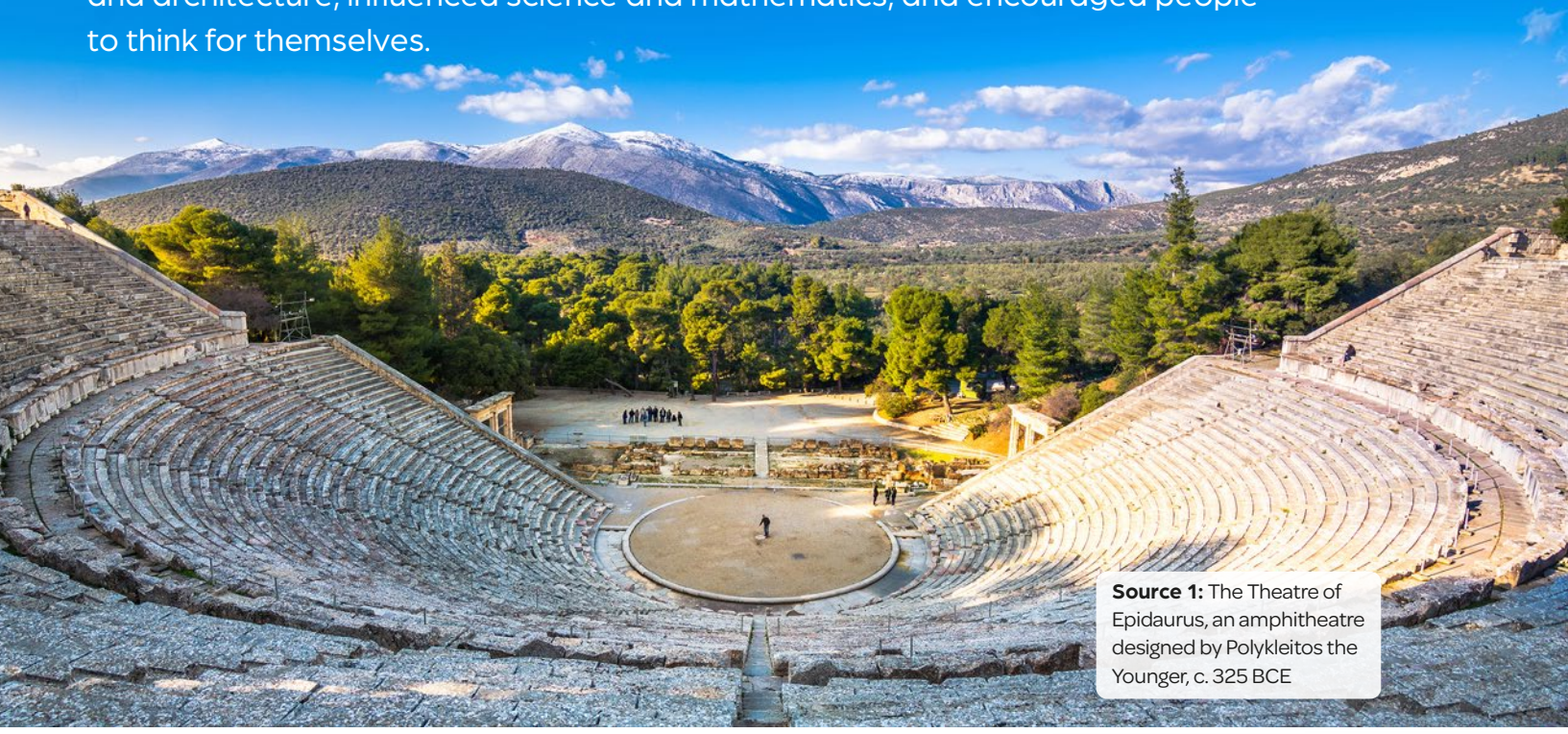
Steps in skills progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

5.1

What can we learn from ancient Greece?

The ancient Greeks made a significant contribution to the world. They inspired art and architecture, influenced science and mathematics, and encouraged people to think for themselves.



Source 1: The Theatre of Epidaurus, an amphitheatre designed by Polykleitos the Younger, c. 325 BCE

Early Greek societies

The timeline of ancient Greece spans over 3000 years. Human societies in the Greek islands date back to the Minoan society, which was established around 3000 BCE. The Minoans developed some of the world's first towns on the island of Crete. In around 1400 BCE, Mycenaean invaders from the north destroyed the Minoan society. The society of the Mycenaeans ended suddenly some time in the 1200s BCE.

Source 2: Ancient Greece timeline

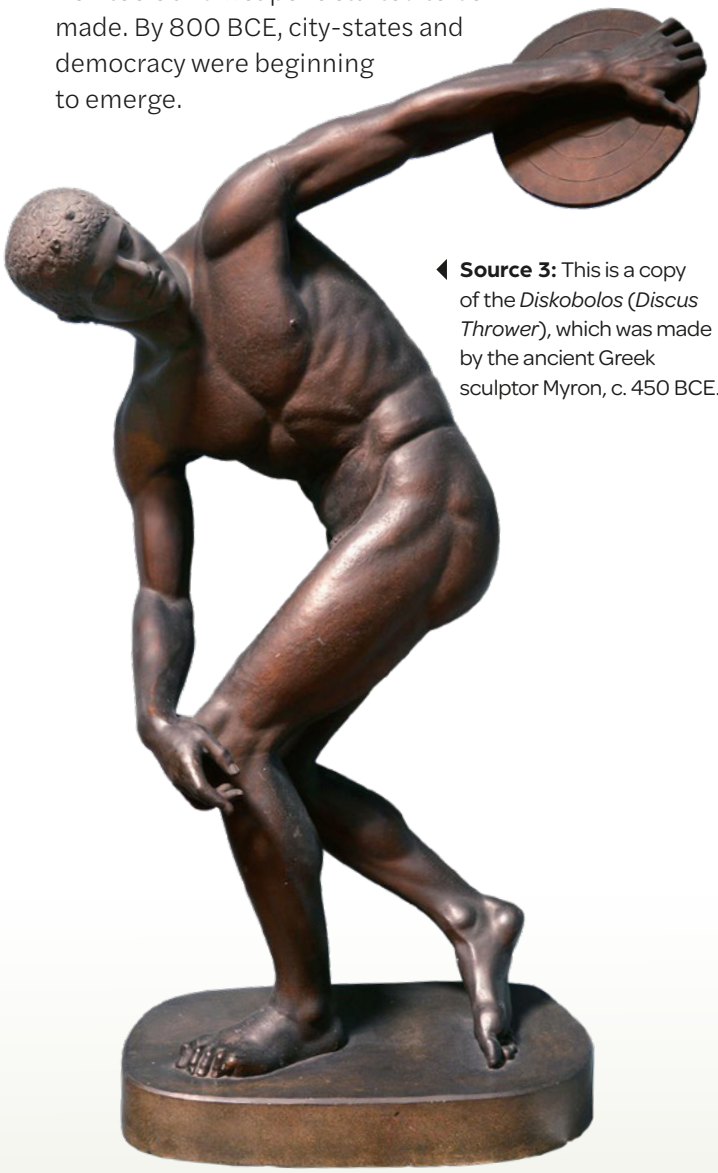
Key ideas timeline

- c. 3000 BCE — Start of the Minoan society
- 1400 BCE — Invasion by the Mycenaeans
- 1200 BCE — Collapse of the Mycenaean society; start of Archaic Greece
- c. 800 BCE — The Greek alphabet is developed
- c. 776 BCE — First Olympic Games
- c. 750 & 720 BCE — Homer writes the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey'
- 510 BCE — Democracy is introduced in Athens
- 499 BCE — The Greco-Persian Wars begin
- 490 BCE — Battle of Marathon
- 495 BCE — Pericles is born

Minoan society c. 3000–1200 BCE | Archaic Greece c. 1200–500 BCE

Archaic Greece

Following the end of the Mycenaeans, the society known as Archaic Greece began to slowly emerge. New trade routes developed, a new alphabet was created and iron tools and weapons started to be made. By 800 BCE, city-states and democracy were beginning to emerge.



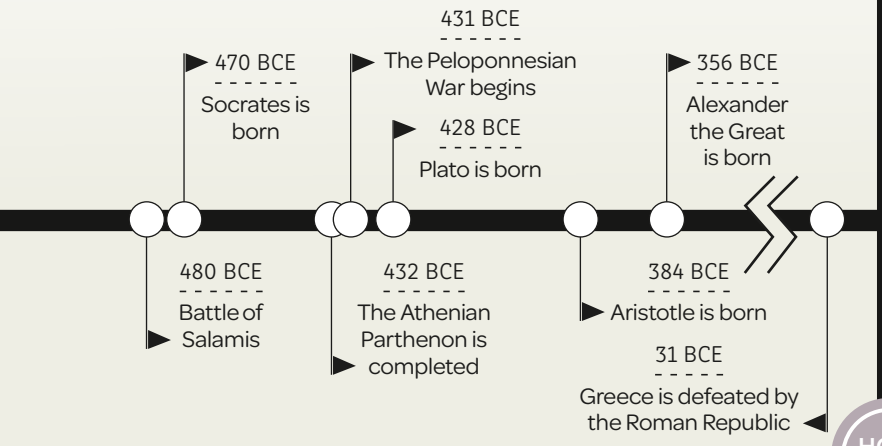
Source 3: This is a copy of the *Diskobolos* (*Discus Thrower*), which was made by the ancient Greek sculptor Myron, c. 450 BCE.

Classical Greece

By c. 500 BCE, a period known to historians as 'Classical Greece' had begun. During this period, ancient Greeks produced innovative architecture and sculptures of the human form. The Greek empire expanded during the Classical era, and Greece fought a famous series of wars with Persia. The Greek **city-states** were also often at war with each other. Classical Greece ended with the campaigns of Alexander the Great.

Hellenistic Greece

The last period of ancient Greek history is known as the Hellenistic period. This era began with the death of Alexander the Great in 323 BCE and lasted until the conquest of Greece by the Roman Republic in 31 BCE.



Greek Classical Age c. 500–323 BCE

Learning ladder 5.1

Background and origins

1. Identify the society that first emerged in Crete in 3000 BCE.
2. Describe Archaic Greek society.
3. Explain how the ancient Greek period ended.
4. Sources 1 and 3: Explain why these sources are from the period known as 'Classical Greece'.
5. Evaluate the impact of ancient Greece on the ancient world.

Chronology

Use the timeline to answer these questions.

1. Identify three events on the timeline that occur in the period known as 'Classical Greece'.
2. Put the following events in order from the earliest to the most recent event:
   - c. 460 BCE: Birth of Hippocrates
   - c. 325 BCE: Construction of the Theatre of Epidaurus
   - c. 450 BCE: Creation of the *Diskobolos*
   - c. 300 BCE: Euclid writes his famous book on mathematics, *The Elements*.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Explain why the Classical Greek period could be seen as an unsettled period.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472

5.2

How did geography influence the development of ancient Greece?

Ancient Greece consisted of hundreds of independent small communities, which were separated by the sea and mountains.

Greece's geography

Ancient Greece covered the territory of modern-day Greece, along with parts of modern-day Türkiye and settlements around the eastern Mediterranean Sea.

Greece's mountainous landscape and many islands meant that settlements were isolated from each other. Partly because of the physical barriers, the centres of human habitation grew into separate city-states rather than into a single Greek nation.

Due to Greece's geography, many ancient Greeks lived close to, and relied on, the sea. Therefore, much of the communication and trade between ancient Greek city-states and other societies was done by sea.

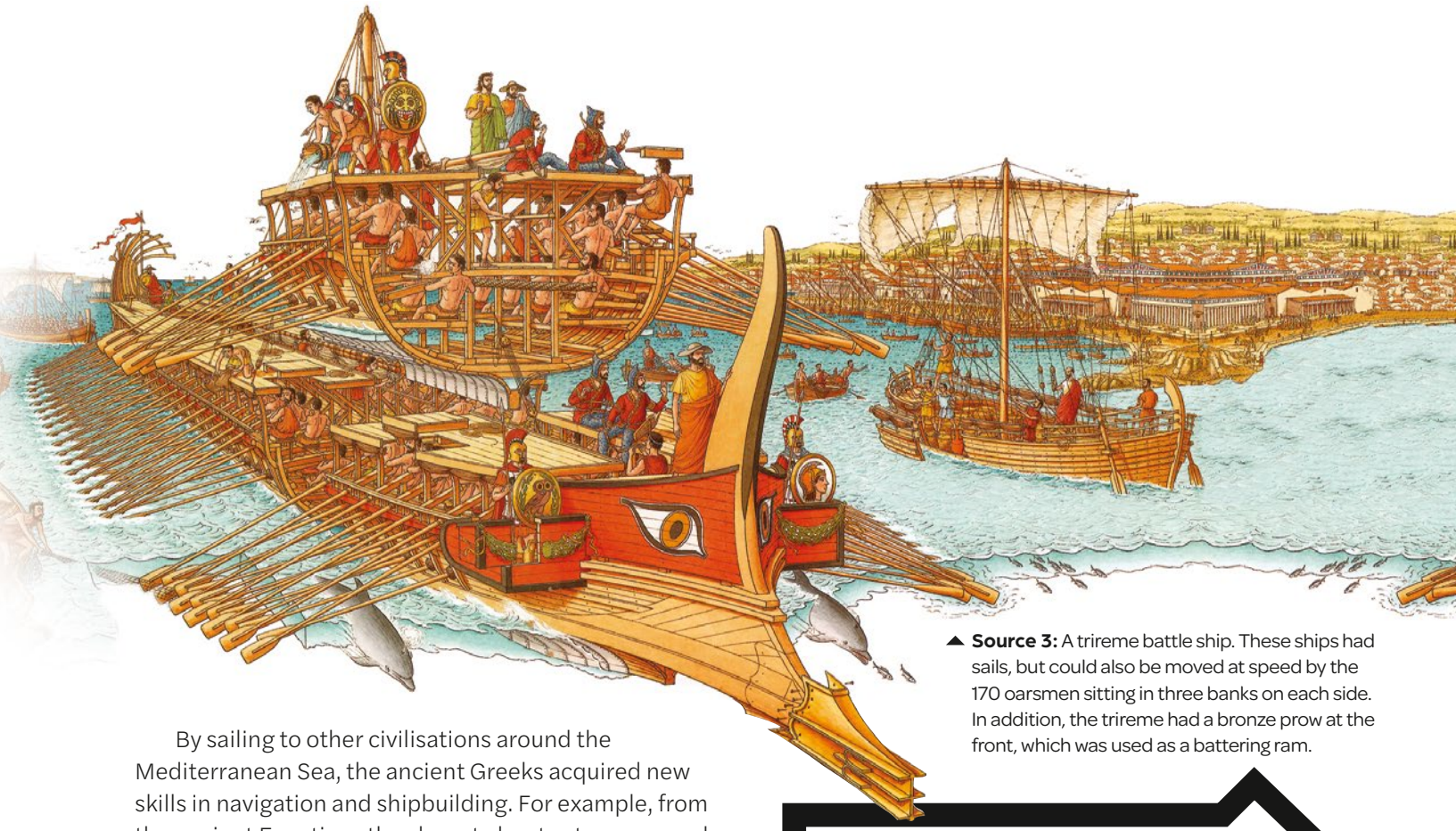
Skilled seafarers

The ancient Greeks were skilled fishermen, sailors and shipbuilders. They used boats for pleasure, transport, communication, trade and warfare, and developed different types of vessels for these different purposes.

The settlements of ancient Greece

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** Some of the settlements of ancient Greece



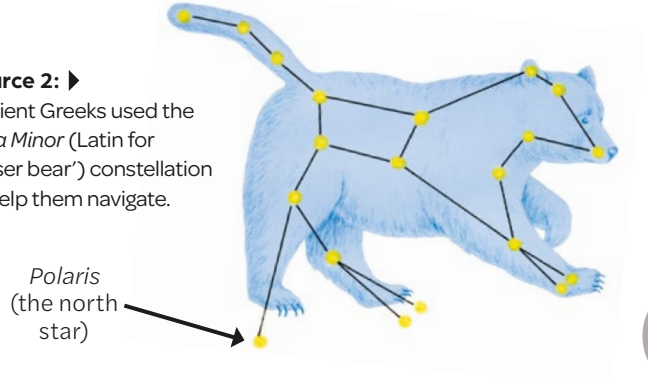
▲ **Source 3:** A trireme battle ship. These ships had sails, but could also be moved at speed by the 170 oarsmen sitting in three banks on each side. In addition, the trireme had a bronze prow at the front, which was used as a battering ram.

By sailing to other civilisations around the Mediterranean Sea, the ancient Greeks acquired new skills in navigation and shipbuilding. For example, from the ancient Egyptians they learnt about astronomy and mathematics and different methods to build ships; and from the ancient Syrians they learnt metalworking techniques.

The ancient Greeks drew inspiration from the ships used by other societies to develop the **trireme** battle ship (Source 3). These vessels enabled them to achieve great success in sea battles and to dominate the eastern Mediterranean area.

Navigation

When sailing at night, ancient Greek sailors used the stars to navigate. There is evidence that by the 3rd century BCE, the Greeks were using the *Ursa Minor* constellation of stars (Source 2) in the northern sky to find their way. The brightest star in *Ursa Minor* is located in the bear's back foot. It is called *Polaris* and helps sailors find north.



Source 2: ▶
Ancient Greeks used the *Ursa Minor* (Latin for 'lesser bear') constellation to help them navigate.

Learning ladder 5.2

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the seas surrounding ancient Greece.
2. Describe the key physical features of ancient Greece.
3. Explain how Greece's geography led to the development of separate city-states.
4. Explain why knowledge of shipbuilding and navigation was important to the development of ancient Greece.
5. Evaluate the benefits and disadvantages of ancient Greece's geography.

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: Identify a cause of the ancient Greeks' success in sea battles.
2. Source 3: Describe how the trireme battle ship helped the ancient Greeks to win sea battles.
3. Source 2: Explain how the ancient Greeks navigated at night.
4. Explain why Greece's geography enabled the ancient Greeks to build a powerful society.

HOW TO
Cause and effect, page 480

5.3

What did the ancient Greeks believe?

The ancient Greeks saw the past as a time ruled by the gods, who had created the world and set it in motion. They also believed that the mythological stories of their gods explained the great mysteries of life and the universe.

The ancient Greek creation myth

The ancient Greeks believed that in the beginning there was only Chaos. Chaos created Nyx out of nothing and she became the goddess of darkness. Nyx was often depicted as a winged goddess riding in a chariot. Nyx was the mother of Aether (Light) and Hemera (Day). She was also the mother of dark spirits, including Hypnos (Sleep), Thanatos (Death) and Moros (Doom).

Aether and Hemera had several children, including Gaia (Earth) and Eros (Love). Gaia gave birth to Uranus (Sky) and, later, to many other children, including Cronos. Zeus was one of Cronos's sons, and after defeating his father in battle, he became king of the gods. Zeus then instructed one of his own sons, Prometheus, to create humans and another of his sons, Epimetheus, to create animals. Prometheus made humans from clay.

Beliefs about the world

The ancient Greeks often used myths to explain the world. According to ancient Greek mythology, Earth was a flat disk that floated on the ocean. The Sun was thought to be the god Helios travelling across the sky in a golden chariot. Cracks in Earth's surface were believed to lead to Hades, the underworld. Hades was thought to be a dark and murky place, where people went after they died.

Source 1: Statue of Prometheus at the Rockefeller Center, New York, 1934 CE. The text behind the statue is from a play by Greek playwright Aeschylus: 'Prometheus, teacher in every art, brought the fire that hath proved to mortals a means to mighty ends.'

Source 2: This medieval tapestry depicts the Three Fates. [Artist unknown (c. 1510 CE), made in Brussels]

The Three Fates

There are many fascinating and exciting stories from Greek mythology. These stories helped to explain the big questions of life, such as why some people had a more difficult life than others and why some people died young.

One of the more famous stories is that of the Three Fates. The Three Fates were the daughters of Nyx. Their names were Clotho, Lachesis and Atropos. They spun a golden thread and, in doing so, controlled the fates of both humans and gods. None could question their judgements. The youngest sister, Clotho, held the thread of life for each person when they were born. Lachesis, the second sister, chose a person's life path and controlled how long they lived. The last sister, Atropos, cut the thread of life and determined how a person died.

Prometheus and the gift of fire

Another famous story is that of Prometheus. The king of the gods, Zeus, took very little interest in the lives of humans, but Prometheus, their creator, wanted to help them. Prometheus climbed Mount Olympus and stole fire from the gods. He gave the fire to humans so they could keep warm, cook food and make tools. Zeus became very angry when he discovered what Prometheus had done. He took Prometheus to a high mountain and chained him to a rock. Every day a giant eagle came to eat Prometheus's liver. His liver would then grow back during the night, only to be eaten again the next day in an ongoing cycle. Finally, after 30 years, Zeus's son Hercules rescued Prometheus and set him free.

Learning ladder 5.3

Background and origins

1. Identify the role of each of the following gods:
   a Nyx **b** Zeus.
2. Describe how the world was created, according to the ancient Greeks.
3. Explain how the story of the Three Fates makes sense of the differences in people's lives.
4. Explain why the ancient Greeks used myths to make sense of the shape of the world and the rising Sun.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the goddesses shown in this source.
2. Source 1: Using your knowledge, describe the punishment Prometheus endured for stealing fire from the gods.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Explain how the dates of these sources demonstrate the ongoing significance of Greek mythology.
4. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Prometheus was a significant god in Greek mythology.
5. Source 1: Evaluate the usefulness of this source for a historian studying ancient Greek mythology.

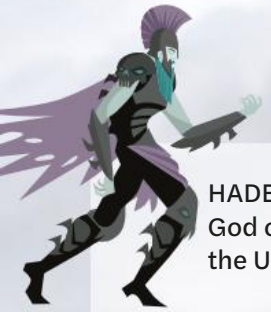
HOW TO
Source analysis, page 475

5.4

Who were the gods worshipped by the ancient Greeks?

The ancient Greeks believed that many gods and goddesses controlled everything in their lives and their environment. To honour and please the gods, the ancient Greeks prayed daily at shrines in their homes and at the many public temples.

Source 1: Mount Olympus is the highest mountain in Greece. Ancient Greeks believed it was the home of the gods and goddesses because the summit was usually hidden by clouds.



HADES
God of death and the Underworld

Hades was Zeus and Poseidon's elder brother. Hades rarely left the Underworld, where he ruled over the dead with his wife, Persephone.

ZEUS
King of the gods and god of the sky and weather

Zeus was the sender of thunder, lightning, rain and winds. His weapon was a thunderbolt, which he hurled at those who displeased him.

HERA
Goddess of marriage

Hera was the sister-wife of Zeus and the queen of the gods. She was the goddess of women, marriage and families.

POSEIDON
God of the sea

Poseidon was Zeus's bad-tempered brother and god of the sea, earthquakes and horses. His weapon was a trident that could shake the Earth.

HERMES
Messenger of the gods

Hermes was one of Zeus's sons. He was the fastest god and had winged sandals and hat. Hermes was the messenger of the gods and was responsible for guiding the dead to the Underworld.

ATHENA
Goddess of wisdom and warfare

Athena was one of Zeus's daughters and the goddess of wisdom and war. She protected soldiers during battle.

Source 2: Many modern-day superheroes have links to the gods and goddesses of ancient Greece. For example, Wonder Woman is supposed to be the daughter of Zeus. Aquaman is depicted as heir to the throne of Atlantis, the mythical underwater ancient Greek city.

Honouring the gods

The ancient Greeks thought it was important to please the gods, as happy gods helped you and unhappy gods punished you. To please the gods, the ancient Greeks built temples in their honour. Each temple was dedicated to a specific god or goddess.

Temples were usually built in an important area of the city called the ***acropolis***. Every acropolis in Greece is situated in the highest point in the city. Temples were elaborately decorated, inside and out. A statue of the god or goddess for whom the temple was built was placed inside the building. Temples were cared for by priests who had the power to talk to the gods and goddesses.

Practising religion

Every morning, ancient Greek families would pray at their household shrine and leave offerings such as food and wine to the gods and goddesses.

People also visited temples to pray and to make offerings such as incense, flowers and food. Those who could afford it would pay for an animal to be sacrificed at the temple.

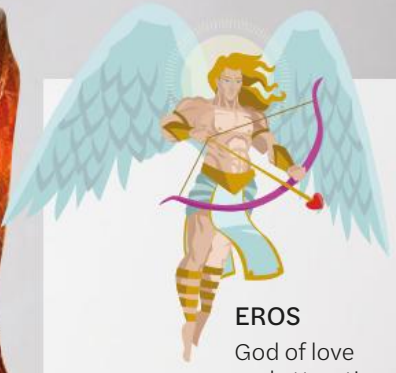
The temples people visited depended on what they were praying for. For example, those wanting help in their love life would attend a temple dedicated to Aphrodite, the goddess of love.

APHRODITE
Goddess of love and beauty
Aphrodite was the goddess of love and beauty. She had a girdle that had the power to cause people to fall in love with the wearer.

PERSEPHONE
Queen of the Underworld

ARES
God of war

ARTEMIS
Goddess of the hunt



EROS
God of love and attraction

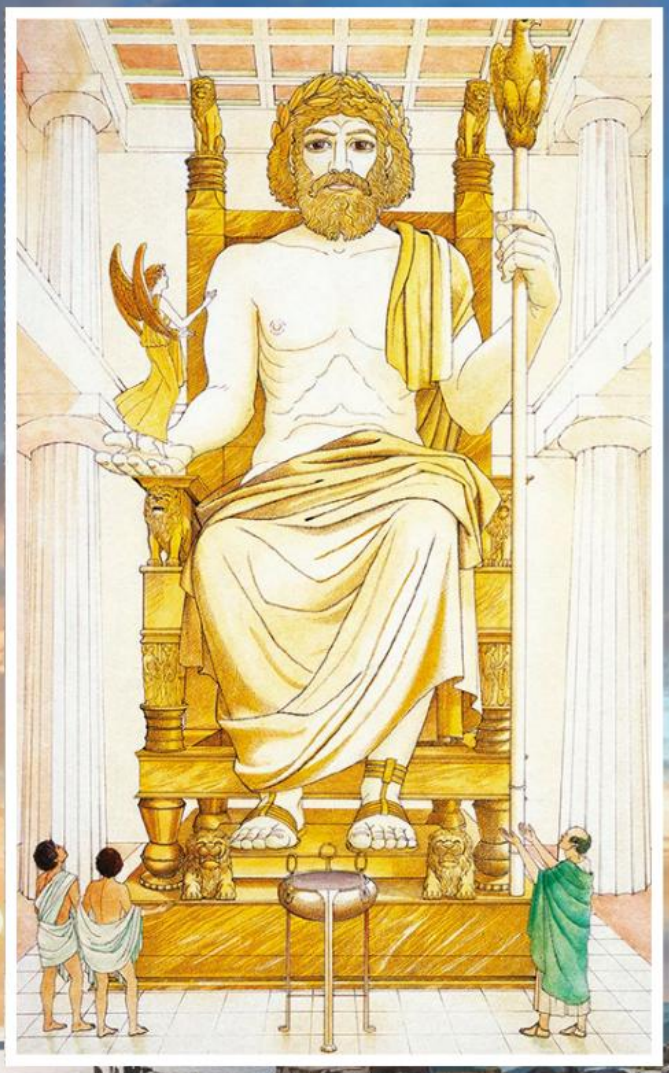
APOLLO
God of the Sun

DIONYSUS
God of wine

The gods and death customs

The ancient Greeks believed that death was the beginning of a long journey to the Underworld, which was ruled by the god Hades. The souls of the dead were led to the Underworld by the messenger god, Hermes.

The mythical River Styx separated the Underworld from the living world. Charon the ferryman rowed the dead souls across the River Styx to the Underworld. The fare was paid with a coin that had been placed in the mouth of the dead person.



Source 3: This statue of Zeus was located at the Temple of Zeus in Olympia, Greece, the site of the ancient Olympic Games. It was one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. Almost 12 metres tall, the figure was completed around 430 BCE. Made from ivory and gold, the figure of Zeus was seated on a cedarwood throne encrusted with ebony, gold, ivory and precious stones. It was built to impress visitors to Olympia during the games.

Source 4: The Temple of Poseidon was built on Cape Sounio, next to the Aegean Sea, between 444 and 440 BCE.

Source 5: This illustration shows ancient Greeks going to a temple to pray and make offerings to the temple's god or goddess.

Learning ladder 5.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. **a** Name the gods and goddesses in Zeus's family mentioned in Source 2.
   b Source 2: Which modern-day superheroes have links to the gods and goddesses worshipped by the ancient Greeks?
2. Source 3: Describe the statue of Zeus.
3. Source 5: Explain how the ancient Greeks practised their religion.
4. Explain why the ancient Greeks worshipped Poseidon.

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Identify the place where the ancient Greeks believed the gods lived.
2. Describe the ancient Greek perspective on death.
3. Explain the ancient Greek perspective on the relationship between humans and the gods.
4. Explain why the ancient Greeks believed it was important to place a coin in the mouth of a person who had died.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

5.5

What were ancient Greek cities like?

The ancient Greeks lived in independent city-states. The city-states were often at war with one another, but sometimes they banded together to fight invaders.

The city-states of ancient Greece

The ancient Greeks lived in hundreds of separate **city-states** (or ***poleis***). Each city-state was an independent, self-governing urban centre that had its own laws and governing body. The two most powerful poleis were Athens and Sparta.

Each polis had an ***agora***, which was the centre of city life (Source 2). People met at the agora to do business, listen to philosophers and to be entertained. Markets and slave auctions were held at the agora. Above the agora was the acropolis, where important temples were built.

Merchants paid a fee for their space in the marketplace in the agora. Merchants traded olive oil, grain, pottery, textiles and weapons in the ancient Greek city-states. Due to the poor quality of Greek soils, ancient Greece was highly dependent on agricultural trade.

Ancient Greek houses were built along narrow streets. Each home was constructed around a central courtyard. The walls were often made from mudbricks. Houses had small windows to keep out the hot sunlight.

Ancient Greece

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 1: Some of the hundreds of city-states in ancient Greece

Source 2: A typical ancient Greek city-state, showing the agora, the acropolis, the public buildings where governing councils met, and people's homes. Houses were built around the city centre. Residential areas were surrounded by farmland where food was produced for the polis.

Learning ladder 5.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the building where the citizens' council met.
2. Source 2: Describe the role of slaves in ancient Greece.
3. Explain how city-states were governed.
4. Source 2: Explain why merchants were important in ancient Greece.
5. Research and analyse the role of the *boule*. How were the members of the council chosen? What were the council's responsibilities?

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify three city-states in ancient Greece.
2. Source 2: Describe the houses of ancient Greek city-states.
3. Source 2: Explain how food was supplied to people who lived in ancient Greek cities.
4. Source 2: Using this source, write a paragraph explaining why the agora was an important part of ancient Greek cities.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

5.6

How was Athenian society organised?

Ancient Athenians developed the first democracy, where the people made decisions about the running of their city-state. A different form of democracy continues today in countries like Australia.

Governments in ancient Greece

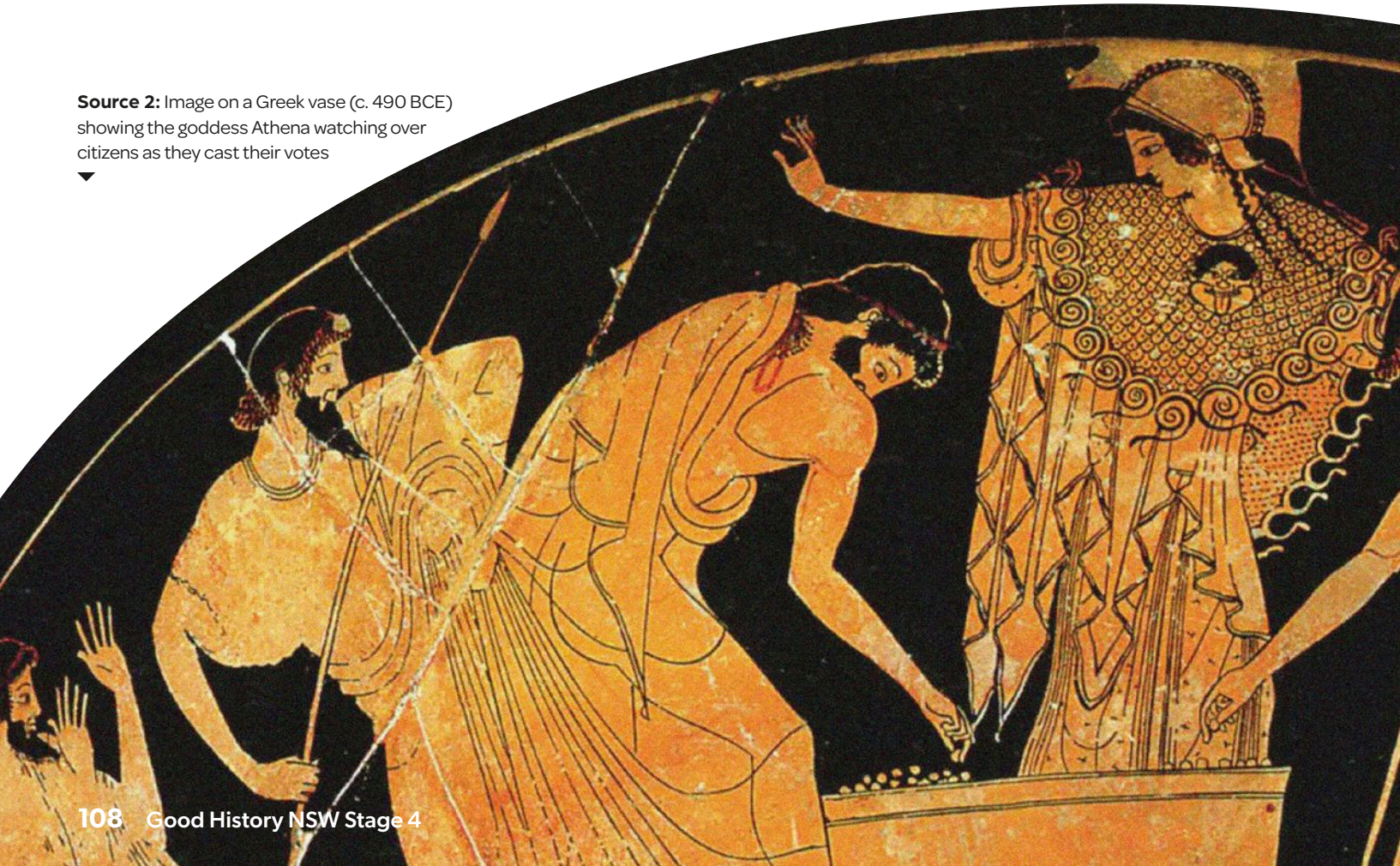
Each city-state in ancient Greece had its own type of government. These included:

- **democracy**: rule by the people (male citizens) who elect officials and leaders
- **monarchy**: rule by a single ruler who inherited the role
- **diarchy**: rule by two rulers who inherited the role
- **oligarchy**: rule by a small group of individuals
- **tyranny**: rule by an individual who seized power illegally.

Living in a democracy

From the 5th century BCE, the system of government in the ancient city-state of Athens was a type of democracy. The word *democracy* comes from two Greek words: *demos*, meaning 'people'; and *kratos*, meaning 'rule'. Athenians, therefore, potentially had a say in the running of their city-state. To have a say, you had to be a **citizen**, and from 451 BCE, people whose parents were citizens were eligible to be citizens themselves.

Source 1: Ostraka were pieces of broken pots that were used as voting tokens by Athenian citizens.



Source 2: Image on a Greek vase (c. 490 BCE) showing the goddess Athena watching over citizens as they cast their votes

Male citizens were allowed to cast a vote either for or against new laws. Citizens would come together to vote. This assembly of citizens (an ***ecclesia***) was responsible for deciding new laws and making other important decisions, such as declaring war.

A typical meeting of the Athenian ecclesia could include 6000 citizens. Votes were taken by a show of hands, or by counting stones or pieces of broken pottery called ***ostraka*** (Source 1). The best speakers had the most influence at the ecclesia, while the wealthy controlled decisions behind the scenes in private political meetings.

Athenian social structure

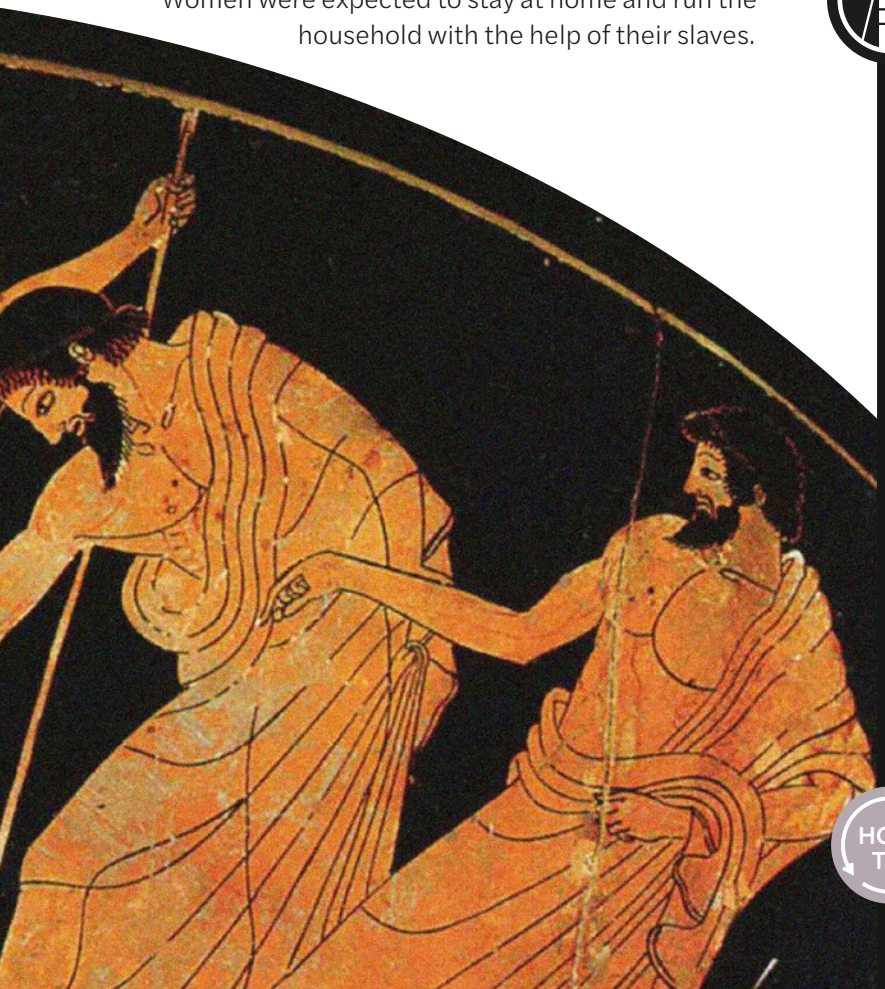
Ancient Athenian society was composed of four main social classes: male citizens, women, *metics* and slaves.

Male citizens

Male citizens were those whose father and mother were Athenian citizens. They were allowed to own property, serve on juries and, after completing two years of military training, were also allowed to vote.

Women

Women whose parents were both citizens were also considered citizens, but they were not allowed to vote, could not serve on juries and could not own property. Women were expected to stay at home and run the household with the help of their slaves.



Metics

There were two types of metics in ancient Athens:

- men and women who were freed slaves
- citizens of other Greek city-states who chose to live in Athens.

Metics were allowed to take part in religious ceremonies, and male metics could serve as *hoplites* (foot soldiers) in the army. They were not allowed to own property or serve on juries in the courts. Every year, they had to pay a special tax called a poll tax (12 drachmas for men and 6 drachmas for women).

Slaves

Slaves were the property of their masters. Some slaves worked in households or shops, while others worked for the government. Some of the household slaves were educated and served as tutors to Athenian children. The government slaves had the worst jobs. They usually worked underground in silver mines in harsh conditions with high death rates.

Learning ladder 5.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the object shown in this source.
2. Describe the form of government in ancient Athens.
3. Explain how male citizens voted in the ecclesia.
4. Explain the differences between citizens and metics.
5. How democratic was ancient Greek democracy? Explain your judgement.

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Identify the activity shown in the source that still occurs in modern Australia.
2. Describe which people could become citizens of ancient Athens.
3. Source 1: Explain how this source demonstrates continuity and change between ancient Athens and modern Australia.
4. Explain how the concept of democracy demonstrates continuity and change between ancient Athens and modern Australia.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Key individual

How did Pericles forge the golden age of Athens?

Under the leadership of the Athenian statesman Pericles, the city-state of Athens flourished. It became a thriving centre for the arts, learning and philosophy that had many splendid public buildings.

Who was Pericles?

Pericles (c. 495–429 BCE) grew up in one of Athens' wealthiest families. He benefited from having excellent teachers and grew to appreciate art and philosophy. Pericles became a brilliant general and a clever politician. He quickly rose through the ranks to become the leader of Athens in 461 BCE.

What was the golden age of Athens?

The golden age of Athens was around 449 BCE to 431 BCE, which were the years of peace between the Greco-Persian Wars (499–449 BCE) and the Peloponnesian War (431–404 BCE). At this time, Athens was the largest, wealthiest and most powerful city-state in ancient Greece.

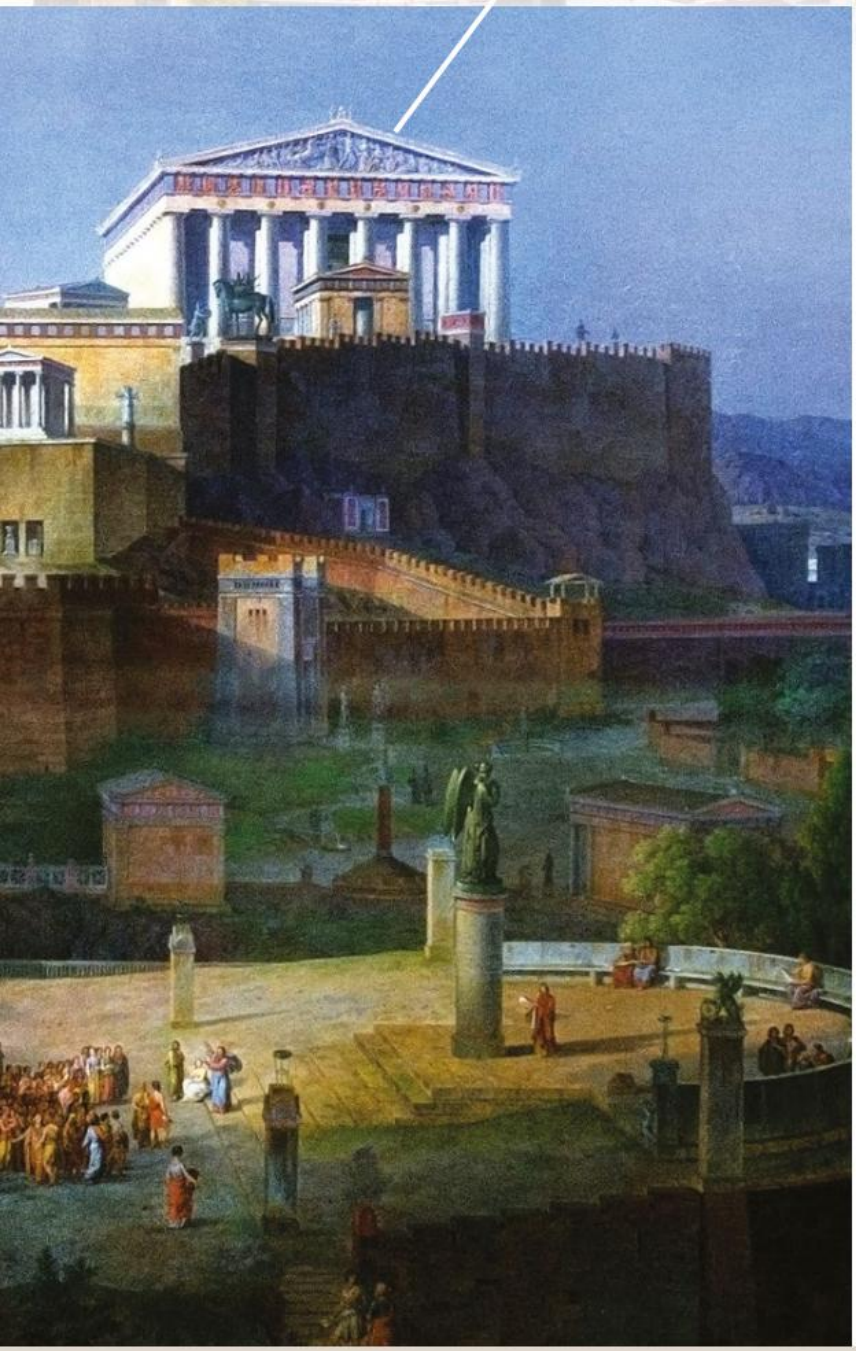
During its golden age, Athens was a centre for the arts, learning and philosophy. The city-state was home to many key politicians, writers and philosophers – such as Socrates, Plato and Aristotle – who gave speeches and discussed their ideas with Athenian citizens in the agora.

Pericles and the acropolis

Part of Pericles's plan to improve Athens was to transform the Athenian acropolis. Pericles's ambitious building program involved rebuilding the temples on the acropolis that had been destroyed by the Persians during the Greco-Persian wars.

Source 1: The Athenian acropolis, imagined in an 1846 CE painting by Leo von Klenze. In ancient Greek city-states, the acropolis was a central district located on high ground where important municipal and religious buildings – such as the Parthenon – were built. [Leo von Klenze (1846 CE), *The Acropolis at Athens*]

Source 2: The remains of the Athenian acropolis today



Source 3: This is a statue of Athena, the goddess of wisdom and warfare. Athens, the capital city of Greece, is named after her. [Leonidas Drosis (c. 1870s CE), *Statue of Athena*]

The new temples were made of white marble and decorated with statues carved by Athens' greatest sculptors. The Athenian acropolis (Source 1) celebrated Athens' victory in the 50-year war with Persia and projected Athenian power and culture.

The centrepiece of Pericles's vision for the acropolis was the Parthenon. Built between 447 and 432 BCE, the Parthenon is a temple that honours Athena and houses a gold and ivory statue of the goddess. Athena was the city-state's patron and the goddess of wisdom, which was a characteristic celebrated by Athenians. The Parthenon also sent a clear message: its enormous size and sophisticated architecture indicated Athenian knowledge of mathematics and technology. The resources used to build it showed Athens' wealth.

Source 4: Aspasia was a metic and a scholar. As a foreigner, she was able to participate in public life, even though she was a woman. In this image she is shown discussing philosophy with Socrates (seated) while Pericles listens carefully. [Painting by Nicolas-Andre Monsiau (1800 CE), *The Debate of Socrates and Aspasia*]

Pericles and democracy

Ancient Athens is recognised as the birthplace of democracy. Pericles was not the founder of democracy, but he played a major role in involving ordinary citizens in the running of government. Pericles encouraged all Athenians to be educated in philosophy and introduced payment for jury service so that poor citizens could afford to take time off work to be involved in politics. Although democracy was still limited to adult male citizens, Athenian citizenship gave them full participation in all decisions, regardless of wealth or class.

Our constitution does not copy the laws of neighbouring states; we are rather a pattern to others than imitators ourselves. Its administration favours the many instead of the few; this is why it is called a democracy. If we look to the laws, they afford equal justice to all … nor again does poverty bar the way, if a man is able to serve the state, he is not hindered by the obscurity of his condition.

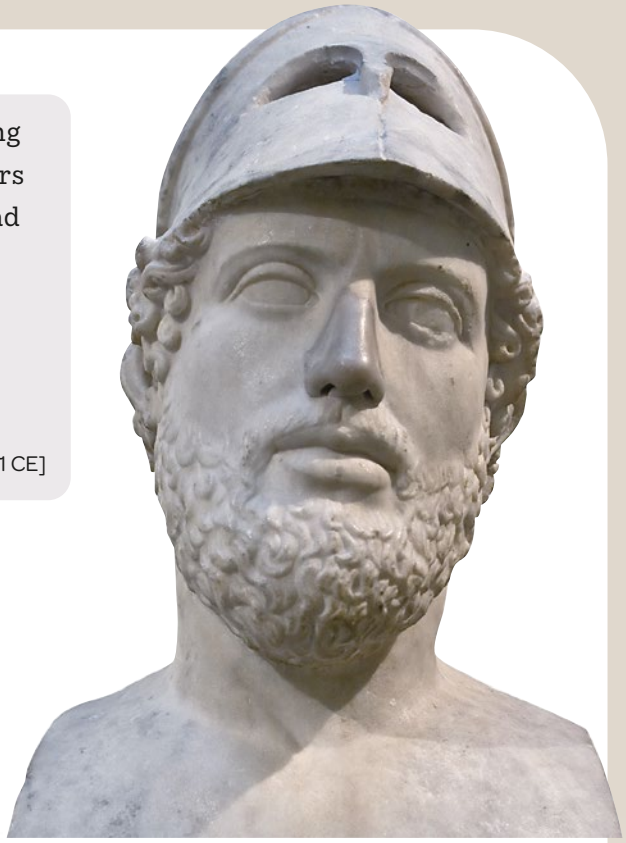
Source 5: This text was part of Pericles's Funeral Oration (431 BCE). [Recorded in Thucydides's *History of the Peloponnesian War*, translated by Richard Crawley in 1951 CE]

Pericles's famous Funeral Oration

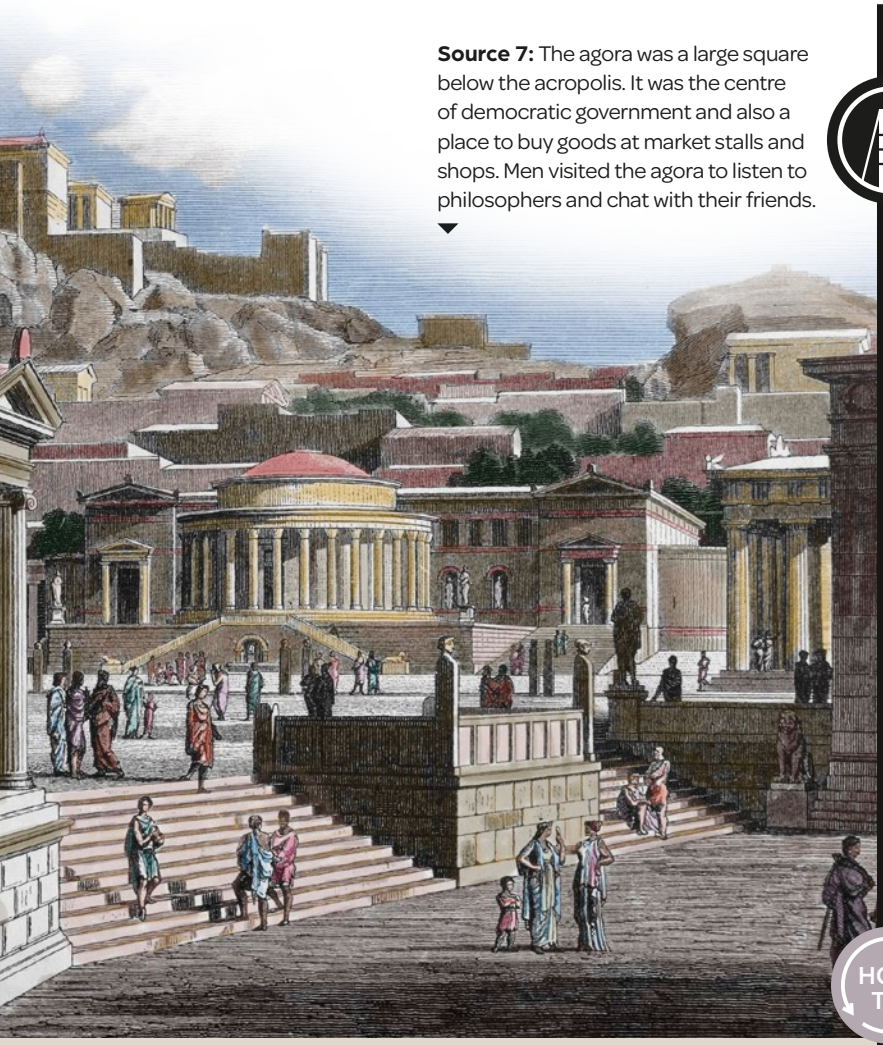
In 431 BCE, at the end of the first year of the Peloponnesian War, Athens held a public funeral to honour the soldiers who had died.

As was tradition, a leading citizen was selected to deliver a speech at the funeral. Pericles was chosen. He was a great speaker and he delivered a famous speech called the Funeral Oration (Source 5).

During the Funeral Oration, Pericles spoke passionately about the greatness of Athens and the democratic rights of its citizens. The speech was written down and today it is a key source of information about this period of history.



Source 6: This is a Roman copy of a bust of Pericles. The original bust was created in 430 BCE.



Source 7: The agora was a large square below the acropolis. It was the centre of democratic government and also a place to buy goods at market stalls and shops. Men visited the agora to listen to philosophers and chat with their friends.

Learning ladder 5.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 3: Identify the figure in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the Athenian acropolis.
3. Explain how the Parthenon reflected Athens' greatness.
4. Explain why 449–431 BCE is known as the 'golden age of Athens'.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the historically significant area of Athens shown in this source.
2. Identify three reasons why Pericles was a significant leader.
3. Source 4: Explain how Aspasia was able to become significant in ancient Greece.
4. Source 5: Explain why Pericles's Funeral Oration is a significant source for historians of ancient Greece.
5. Analyse how significant Pericles was to ancient Athens.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

5.8

What was life like in Sparta?

Sparta was an ancient city–state located in southern Greece. It was a warrior society where men trained from a young age to be soldiers.

Sparta and Athens

Sparta and Athens were the two leading city-states in ancient Greece. However, these two societies were very different. Athens was a centre of arts and learning. Spartan society was geared to producing soldiers and protecting the state.

Spartan society

Spartan society consisted of several different groups:

- Spartan men, who were citizens
- Spartan women, who were citizens but had fewer rights than men
- ***perioikoi*** (traders and craftsmen), who were not citizens
- ***helots*** (slaves), who undertook manual labour and were not citizens.

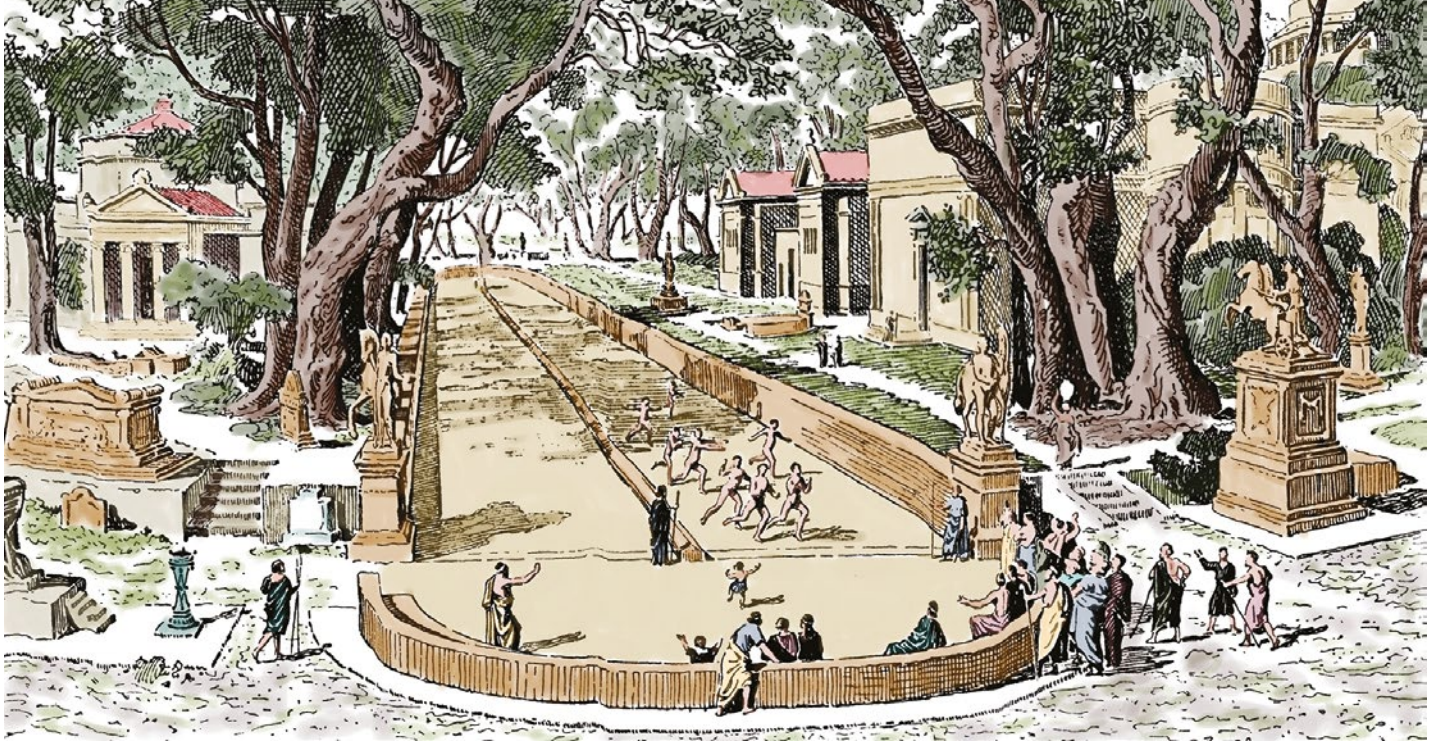
Spartan boys and men

The key role of a Spartan man was to be a warrior: Spartan men were full-time soldiers between the ages of 20 and 60. However, before they joined Sparta's permanent army, they spent years training to be soldiers. Boys left home at the age of seven to begin their military training at the army barracks. Known as the ***agoge***, the training emphasised commitment, discipline and endurance. The Greek writer Plutarch (46–119 CE) wrote about the training of Spartan boys to become brave warriors (Source 1).

> Of reading and writing, they learned only … [the basics]; all the rest of their training was … to make them obey commands well, endure hardships, and conquer in battle. Therefore, as they grew in age, their bodily exercise was increased; their heads were close-clipped, and they were [made to go] … bare-foot, and to playing for the most part without clothes. … [They] received one cloak a year, had hard, dry meat, and knew little of baths and ointments.

Source 1: This text was written by Plutarch, a Greek writer who lived in the 1st century CE. [Plutarch, *Lives: Volume VII*, Loeb Classical Library, translated by Bernadotte Perrin in 1919 CE]

Source 2: In battle, Spartan men wore a red cloak, bronze helmet, breastplate and ankle guards. They carried a round bronze shield and a long spear and sword.



Source 3: From the age of seven, Spartan boys trained for military life. The boys slept outside and were given small rations of food. [*Dromos (racecourse) in Ancient Sparta* (1899 CE]

Life in the barracks was very harsh. The boys were given small rations of food and were beaten to teach them to be courageous. They slept outside and made their own beds from reeds. The agoge training also involved the boys continually exercising, playing war games and learning about Sparta's rules of conduct. Boys and men lived in military camps until the age of 30, when they could marry.

Spartan women

Spartan girls were taught to be courageous and outspoken. They stayed fit by participating in competitions – such as javelin throwing and wrestling – and also sang and danced competitively. They wore plain clothing and did not wear perfume or jewellery.

A Spartan woman's key role was to produce strong, healthy children. The Spartan leaders pressured couples to have boys so they could grow to become warriors and replace those who died in battle. Spartan women did not do any housework. Chores such as cooking, cleaning and sewing were undertaken by *helots*.

Spartan women could not vote or hold public office. However, they could own and manage property. So many Spartan men died in battle that Spartan women came to own one-third of Sparta's land.

Source 4: This small statue shows a Spartan girl running. She is wearing a tunic called a *gymnos*. [*Figurine of a Girl Running* (520–500 BCE), bronze]

Learning ladder 5.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the four social groups in Spartan society.
2. Describe the structure of Spartan society.
3. Source 4: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how Spartan girls were trained.
4. Compare the lives of women in Sparta and Athens.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of Spartan society.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 1: Is this source a primary source or a secondary source? Explain your choice.
3. Source 2: Explain the advantages of this warrior's armour.
4. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the lives of Spartan boys.

Source analysis, page 475

HOW TO

5.9

How did ancient Greeks trade with other societies?

The demands of a growing population meant that trade was an important part of the ongoing success of the ancient Greek civilisation. Greek exports also helped spread Greek culture around the ancient world.

Trade with other societies

As the ancient Greeks were accomplished seafarers, they were able to travel across the sea to trade goods with people living in coastal societies around the Mediterranean Sea (Source 1).

The ancient Greeks sold pottery, bronze, silver, gold, olive oil, wine and textiles. In exchange, they bought wheat, papyrus, spices, wood and linen. They also **imported** gems and ivory, which they worked into jewellery and other luxury items.

Ancient Greece's important trading partners included Egypt, Phoenicia (present-day Lebanon and some parts of modern-day Syria and Israel) and Lydia (present-day west Türkiye). After the famous Greek general Alexander the Great conquered the Middle East, ancient Greece's trading links expanded as far as Afghanistan and west India.

From around 400 BCE, the port of Piraeus near Athens was the most important trading centre in the Mediterranean area.

Ancient Greek colonies

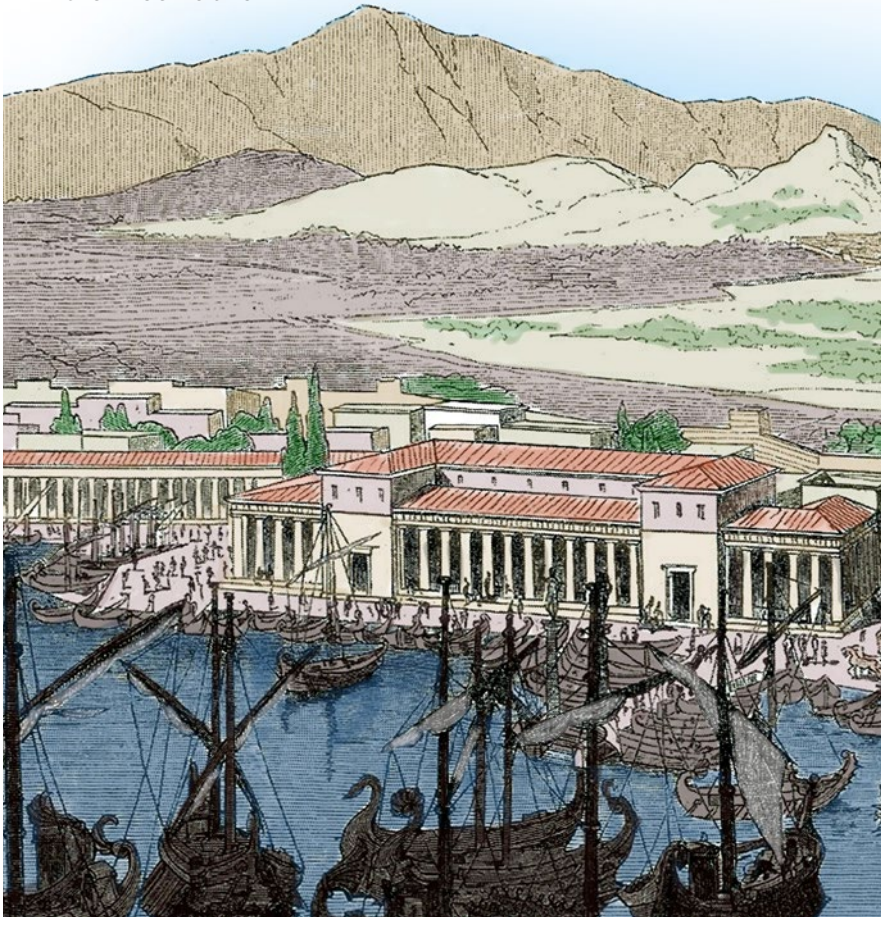
The ancient Greek city-states, hemmed in by mountains and sea, were unable to grow enough food to feed their expanding populations. The city-states raced each other to create colonies in the lands of their trading partners around the Mediterranean Sea and the Black Sea.

The city-state of Megara was one of the first, founding the town of Byzantium (now called Istanbul) in 657 BCE. Other Greek city-states sent their people to north Africa, the coastline of southern Italy, and even as far as Spain and southern France. At this time, Pompeii was a Greek colony, as was Naples, which was originally called Neapolis or 'new city'.

The ancient Athenian philosopher Plato described the Greek settlements along the coastline of the Mediterranean Sea as 'frogs squatting around a pond'. The new settlements were always on the coast, never inland, as if they were tied with an invisible cord to their mother country.

Consequences of trade

An important consequence of trading with people from other societies was the development of the Greek alphabet. The Greeks needed a system of writing so they could keep financial records. Therefore, they adapted the alphabet they had seen when trading with the Phoenicians.

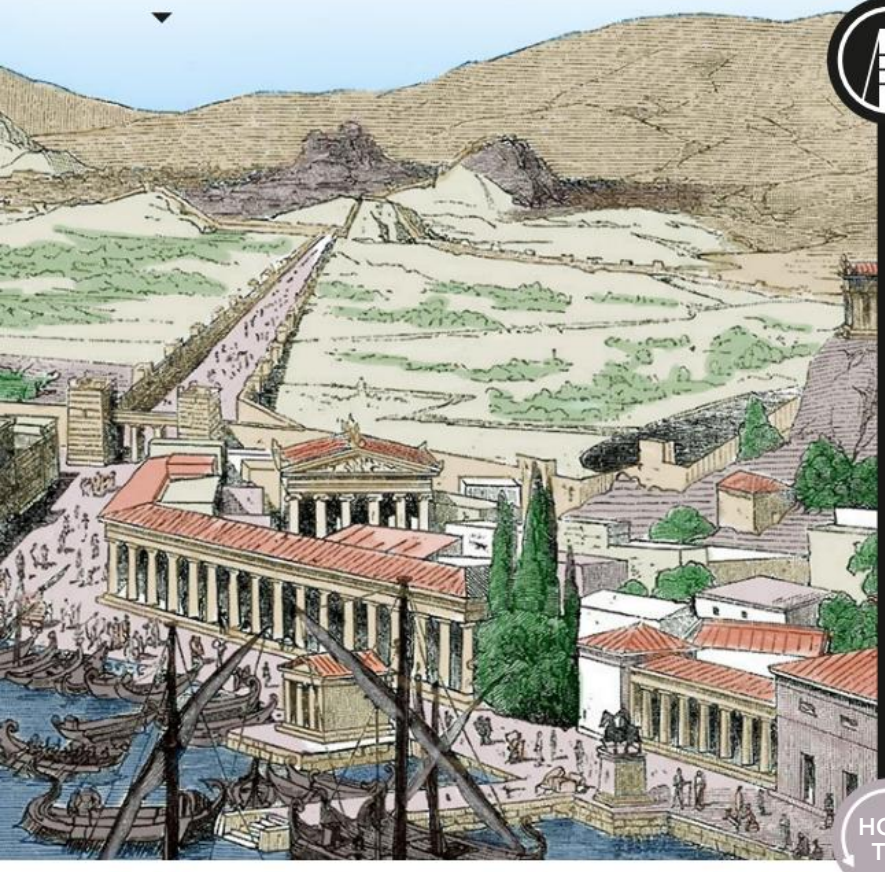


The Mediterranean area before 480 BCE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 1: This map shows ancient Greek settlements around the Mediterranean Sea before 480 BCE. It also shows where objects made in ancient Greece have been found.

Source 2: By around 400 BCE, the port of Piraeus had became the most important trading centre in the Mediterranean area. Goods from all over the world could be found there.



Learning ladder 5.9

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the items exported from ancient Greece.
2. Source 1: Describe the locations where ancient Greek artefacts have been found.
3. Explain how trade led to the establishment of ancient Greek colonies.
4. Source 1: Explain why Plato described the ancient Greek colonies as 'frogs squatting around a pond'.

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify the cause of Piraeus's development.
2. Describe the cause of food being imported into ancient Greece.
3. Explain how the Greek alphabet developed as a result of trade.
4. Why did ancient Greece become a powerful trading state?

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

5.10

How did the ancient Greeks fight?

The ancient Greek city-states spent a great deal of time fighting one another, particularly during the Peloponnesian War. However, the city-states also sometimes united to ward off foreign enemies, such as the Persians.

Ancient Greek soldiers

Each ancient Greek city-state had its own army. When a war ended, the soldiers returned to their regular jobs. Sparta was the only city-state that had a permanent army with professional soldiers who were always on duty.

Hoplites

The heavily armed ancient Greek foot soldiers were called ***hoplites***. They wore metal helmets, chest plates and leg protectors, and each carried a large shield. Every hoplite was armed with a double-edged sword and a two-metre-long spear that had an iron blade at one end and a spike at the other.

Hoplites used a battle formation called a ***phalanx*** to protect themselves while advancing on enemy troops (Source 1). They stood shoulder to shoulder in rows and overlapped their shields to provide a protective outer barrier to deflect arrows and spears. Those in the front row directed their spears forward to penetrate the enemy and those in the other rows held their spears skyward to deflect incoming missiles.

War with other societies

The Battle of Marathon

The Battle of Marathon took place in 490 BCE on the plain of Marathon, 42 kilometres from Athens. It was a decisive battle in the war between the Greek city-states and Persia (the Greco-Persian Wars: 499–449 BCE).

Source 1: This drawing shows Greek hoplites in a phalanx formation, which is where heavily armed foot soldiers stand close together in a defensive block with their shields overlapping. [*Detail from an Attic Vase* (6th century BCE)]

Source 2: According to legend, Pheidippides died after delivering the news of the Greek victory over the Persians.

The battle was instigated by the Persian king, Darius I, who wanted to punish Athens for supporting a rebellion against the Persian Empire that took place a few years before. Darius sent a large fleet carrying tens of thousands of soldiers to invade Athens.

A much smaller Athenian army marched to Marathon to meet the invading Persians. The Athenians blocked both exits from the plain of Marathon and, after five days, they sprang a surprise attack and defeated the Persian army.

The legend of Pheidippides

The Battle of Marathon is now more famous as the inspiration for the 42-kilometre marathon race, which is an event at the Olympic Games to this day. According to legend, the Athenian messenger Pheidippides ran 42 kilometres from the plain of Marathon to Athens with news of the Persian defeat. After delivering his message, Pheidippides died of exhaustion.

Civil war

The Peloponnesian War

Cooperation among the Greek city-states after the Greco-Persian Wars did not last long and soon they were again fighting one another. During the Peloponnesian War, ancient Greece was divided into two: on one side was Athens and on the other, Sparta. Each city-state led an alliance of city-states and colonies. Nearly every Greek city-state was involved in the Peloponnesian War.

The war began in 431 BCE, when Thebes, an ally of Sparta, attacked Plataea, an ally of Athens. Throughout the war, first Sparta and then Athens went on the offensive.

The Peloponnesian War finally ended when Sparta gained Persian support to force Athens to surrender. The Spartans set up their oligarchy-style of government in Athens. This signalled the end of democracy in Athens, at least for a while. The Spartan leader, Lysander, installed an oligarchy known as the Thirty Tyrants to rule over Athens. He also established a number of pro-Spartan governments in ancient Greece, to further cement his own power.

Learning ladder 5.10

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the weapons used by the hoplites.
2. Source 1: Describe the phalanx battle formation.
3. Source 2: Explain how the legend of Pheidippides inspired the marathon event at the Olympic Games.
4. Explain why the Battle of Marathon occurred.

Chronology

1. Identify the year when the Battle of Marathon was fought.
2. Place the following events in chronological order:
   - 431 BCE: Start of the Peloponnesian War
   - 404 BCE: Athens surrenders
   - 414 BCE: Darius II supports the Spartans
   - 421 BCE: Start of the Six Years of Peace
   - 404 BCE: Lysander installs the Thirty Tyrants in Athens
   - 403 BCE: Democracy returns to Athens.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Explain how your timeline demonstrates cause and effect.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

Why was the Battle of Thermopylae important?

In 480 BCE, King Xerxes I – the leader of the Persian Empire – set out to conquer Greece with a massive army and navy.

Invasion of the Persians

Although Athens and Sparta often fought each other, they also united to mount a defence against foreign invasions, such as during the Greco-Persian Wars (499–449 BCE).

In 480 BCE, King Xerxes I and his Persian army invaded Greece. Xerxes was the son of Darius I, the Persian king who had been defeated at the Battle of Marathon, and Xerxes wanted revenge. The Persians quickly seized northern Greece and then needed to go through the narrow mountain pass of Thermopylae to reach Athens.

The Greek defence

Led by King Leonidas of Sparta, the allied Greek force of approximately 7000 men marched north to block the Persian army – consisting of around 100 000 soldiers – at the Thermopylae pass.

Initially, the small Greek force managed to block the only road through the Thermopylae pass and imposed heavy casualties on the Persians. However, by the end of the third day, the Greeks were surrounded by the much larger Persian force.

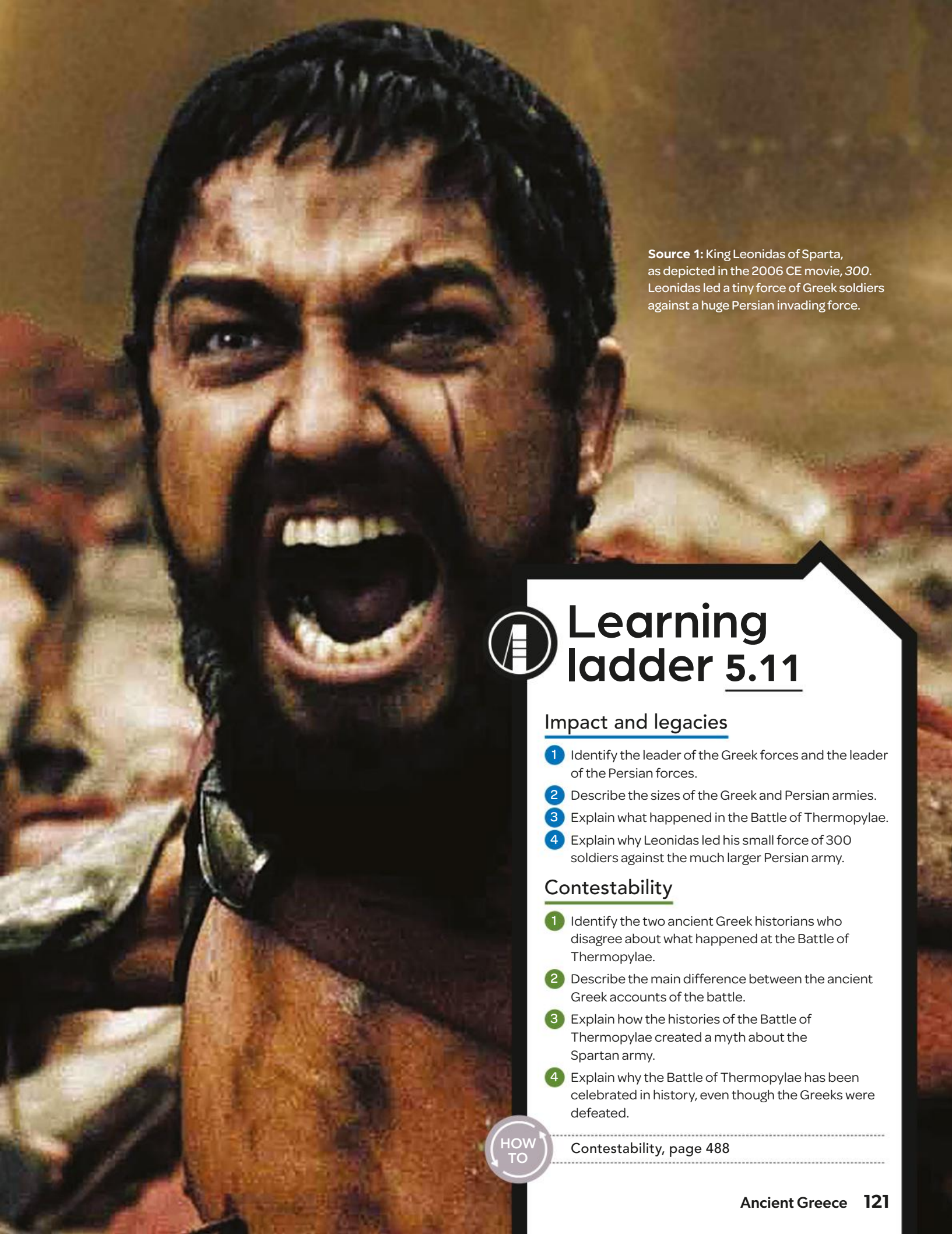
Why did the Greeks lose?

What happened next is unclear. The Greeks could have retreated as there was time to withdraw. However, according to the ancient Greek historian Herodotus, Leonidas bravely sent most of his forces away to spare their lives and remained with a smaller force of 300 men to fight to the death. Herodotus's portrayal of Leonidas presents him as a heroic figure, dying in a courageous last stand.

However, later Greek historians, such as Diodorus, added another incident to the history. They claimed that Leonidas led a valiant attack on the Persian camp the night before the Greeks' last stand. Diodorus stated that Leonidas came close to killing Xerxes and lamented that if he had managed to kill the Persian king, the whole war might have ended differently.

The myth of Thermopylae

The Greek histories of the Battle of Thermopylae also established the idea that Spartans never retreated; they always fought to the death. This was not strictly true; the Spartans knew how to retreat. Nevertheless, the story of Thermopylae has been used to glorify other heroic last stands in history. Although the Greeks were defeated at the Battle of Thermopylae, it marked the beginning of a series of later Greek victories against the Persians.



Source 1: King Leonidas of Sparta, as depicted in the 2006 CE movie, *300*. Leonidas led a tiny force of Greek soldiers against a huge Persian invading force.

Learning ladder 5.11

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the leader of the Greek forces and the leader of the Persian forces.
2. Describe the sizes of the Greek and Persian armies.
3. Explain what happened in the Battle of Thermopylae.
4. Explain why Leonidas led his small force of 300 soldiers against the much larger Persian army.

Contestability

1. Identify the two ancient Greek historians who disagree about what happened at the Battle of Thermopylae.
2. Describe the main difference between the ancient Greek accounts of the battle.
3. Explain how the histories of the Battle of Thermopylae created a myth about the Spartan army.
4. Explain why the Battle of Thermopylae has been celebrated in history, even though the Greeks were defeated.

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

Key individual

Who was Alexander the Great?

Alexander the Great was a Macedonian king who established the largest empire of the ancient world through a series of rapid conquests across the Middle East and Asia.

Macedonia takes control of Greece

The continual conflict between the Greek city-states left them too weak to fight off advances from the kingdom of Macedonia in the north. By 338 BCE, the Macedonian king, Philip II, had taken control of the weakened Greek city-states and set his eyes on the Persian Empire.

Alexander the Great

Alexander the Great was born in the city of Pella in Macedonia in 356 BCE. He was the son of King Philip II, and from the ages of 13 to 16 he was taught by Aristotle. Alexander became king after his father was assassinated in 336 BCE.

Alexander was a capable but ruthless leader. When the Greek city-state of Thebes staged a revolt against Macedonian rule in 335 BCE, Alexander crushed the rebellion, killed all the men and sold 30 000 women and children into slavery. He then destroyed Thebes by burning it to the ground.

Alexander established the largest **empire** the ancient world had ever seen, and he never lost a battle. Alexander and his loyal army conquered the Persian Empire and Egypt. By 323 BCE, Alexander was head of an enormous empire, established through a military campaign that spanned 11 years and a journey of 34 000 kilometres.

Alexander's love of Greek culture saw him introduce Greek customs, practices and leaders into his conquered lands. The new lands in Alexander's Macedonian Empire soon had Greek temples, as well as public buildings, amphitheatres and houses based on Greek designs. Greek language and Greek coins also became standard across the region, which helped to forge trade networks.

Alexander died in 323 BCE at the age of 32. He had no direct heirs, and his empire was quickly divided by military generals after his death.

Nevertheless, Alexander's empire marked a turning point in the histories of Europe and Asia. It paved the way for the rise of the Roman Empire in the west and for centuries of Byzantine rule in the east.

The Middle East and parts of Asia, c. 334–323 BCE

Source: Peter Hermes Furian

▲ **Source 1:** The empire of the Macedonian king, Alexander the Great

Source 2: This scene from the 2004 CE movie *Alexander the Great* shows Alexander in battle on his horse, Bucephalus. Alexander tamed the enormous stallion when he was just 12 years old and Bucephalus became his battle companion for most of his life.

Learning ladder 5.12

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the states that made up Alexander's empire.
2. Describe what had happened by 338 BCE to the ancient Greek city-states.
3. Explain how Alexander became the king of Macedonia.
4. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Alexander was considered a ferocious and capable leader.
5. Was Alexander really 'great'? Explain your reasoning.

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify the cities named after Alexander the Great.
2. Describe how Alexander changed the culture in new areas of his empire.
3. Explain how Alexander changed the course of world history.
4. Is it fair to say that Alexander the Great influenced change but not continuity? Explain your response.

Continuity and change, page 477

HOW TO

Site study

How did the Olympic Games begin?

The ancient Olympic Games were festivals held every four years in honour of Zeus, the king of the gods. Only free-born men were allowed to compete at the games.

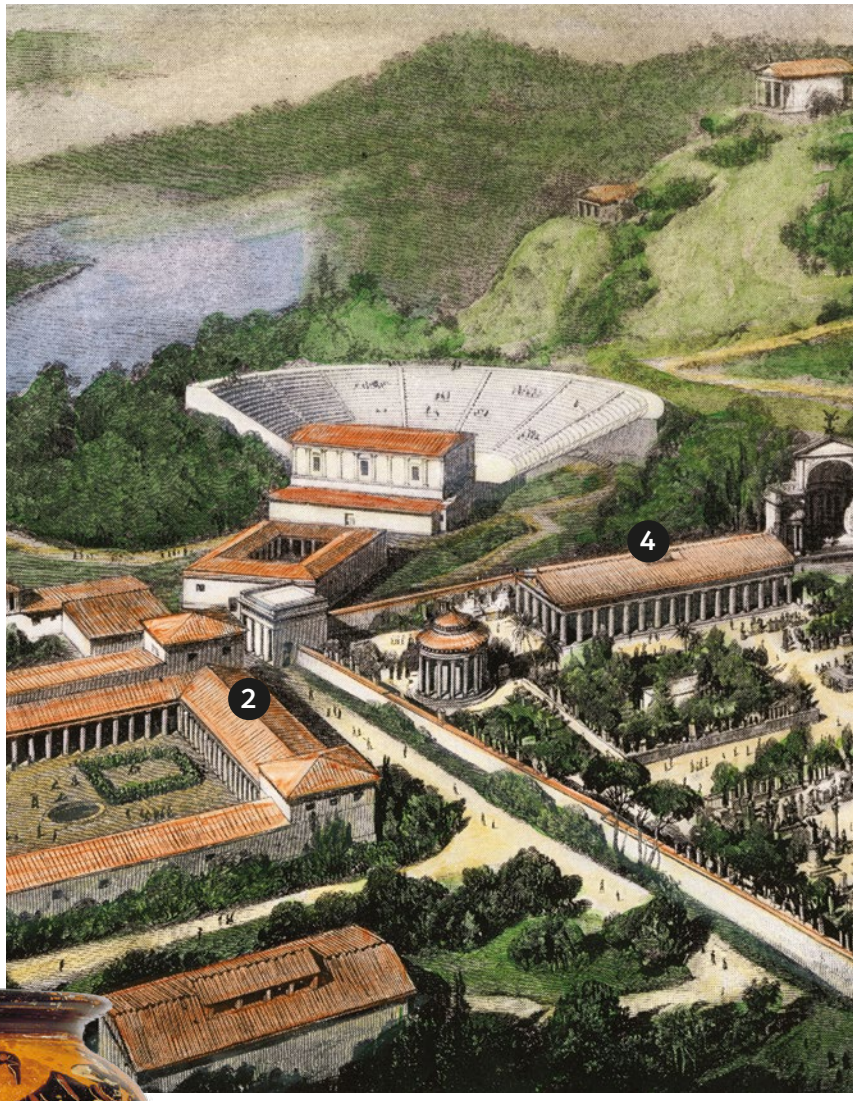
The ancient Olympic Games

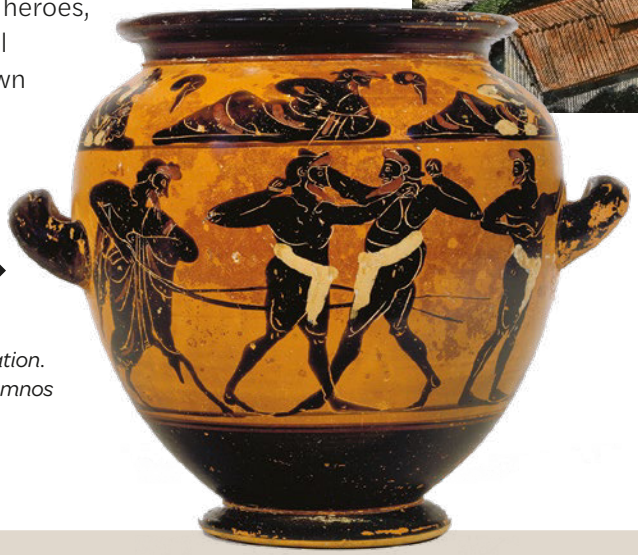
The idea for our modern-day Olympic Games came from the ancient Olympic Games. This event was a religious festival held every four years from at least 776 BCE at Olympia (Source 2), in the city-state of Elis. The five-day festival attracted competitors from all the Greek city-states.

Alongside the athletic competitions at Olympia, a separate festival in honour of Hera (the wife of Zeus) was held. At this festival, girls competed in running races. They were also allowed to watch the men's contests at Olympia. Married women were not allowed to attend the Hera festival or the Olympic Games, although they could train horses for events at Olympia.

A truce was declared between warring city-states during each Olympic Games. The city-states were very competitive with each other. Citizens of each city-state hoped that by winning events, they could prove their dominance over other city-states.

The city-states gave many rewards to their athletic heroes, although the only official Olympic prize was a crown of olive leaves.





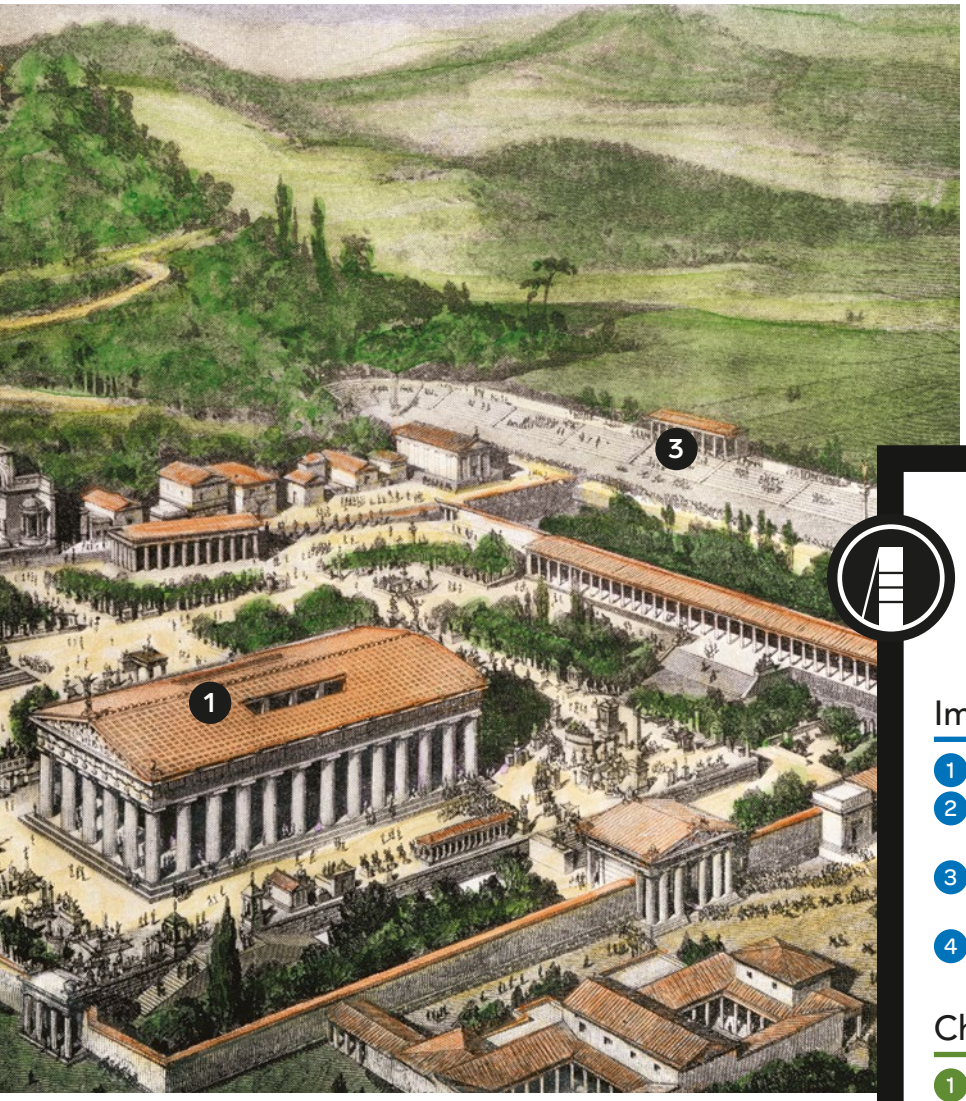
Source 1: This is a *stamnos*, a type of clay pot used to store liquids. It shows two fighters training for the *pankration*. [*Attic Black-figure Pottery Stamnos Depicting an Athletics Scene* (c. 510–500 BCE)]

Olympic events

The main events at the ancient Olympic Games were running and fighting. Running races included a sprint called the *stade*, a long-distance race called the *dolichos* and an event called the *hoplitodromos*, where competitors ran in their hoplite armour.

Source 2: This is what the site of the ancient Olympic Games may have looked like; the ancient games were held in Olympia in Greece.

1. The Temple of Zeus housed a 12-metre statue of Zeus made from gold and ivory. The statue was one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. It was built around 430 BCE and was destroyed in the 5th century CE.
2. The gymnasium was used by athletes to train before the games began.
3. Running races were held at the *stadion*. Athletes competed naked to honour the gods, except for the hoplitodromos where competitors wore hoplite armour.
4. The Temple of Hera, wife of Zeus. As in the modern Olympic Games, the sacred flame used to light the altar was kept burning throughout the Olympic festival. Today, the Olympic flame is lit at Olympia.



Source 3: Stefano Baldini of Italy won the gold medal in the men's marathon at the Olympic Games in Athens in 2004 CE.

Fighting events included wrestling, boxing and the pankration (Source 1), which combined boxing, wrestling and kicking. Crowds found the pankration exciting, with fights sometimes resulting in athletes sustaining severe injuries.

The festival highlights were chariot racing and the pentathlon. The pentathlon included discus throwing, long jump, javelin throwing, running and wrestling. Chariot races had up to 40 chariots racing at high speeds.

Learning ladder 5.13

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the sport shown on this pot.
2. Source 2: Describe the site of the ancient Olympic Games.
3. Explain the role of women at the ancient Olympic Games.
4. Explain why the city-states wanted to compete in the ancient Olympic Games.

Chronology

1. Identify the date of the first Olympic Games.
2. List these modern Olympic Games in order, from the earliest to the most recent event:

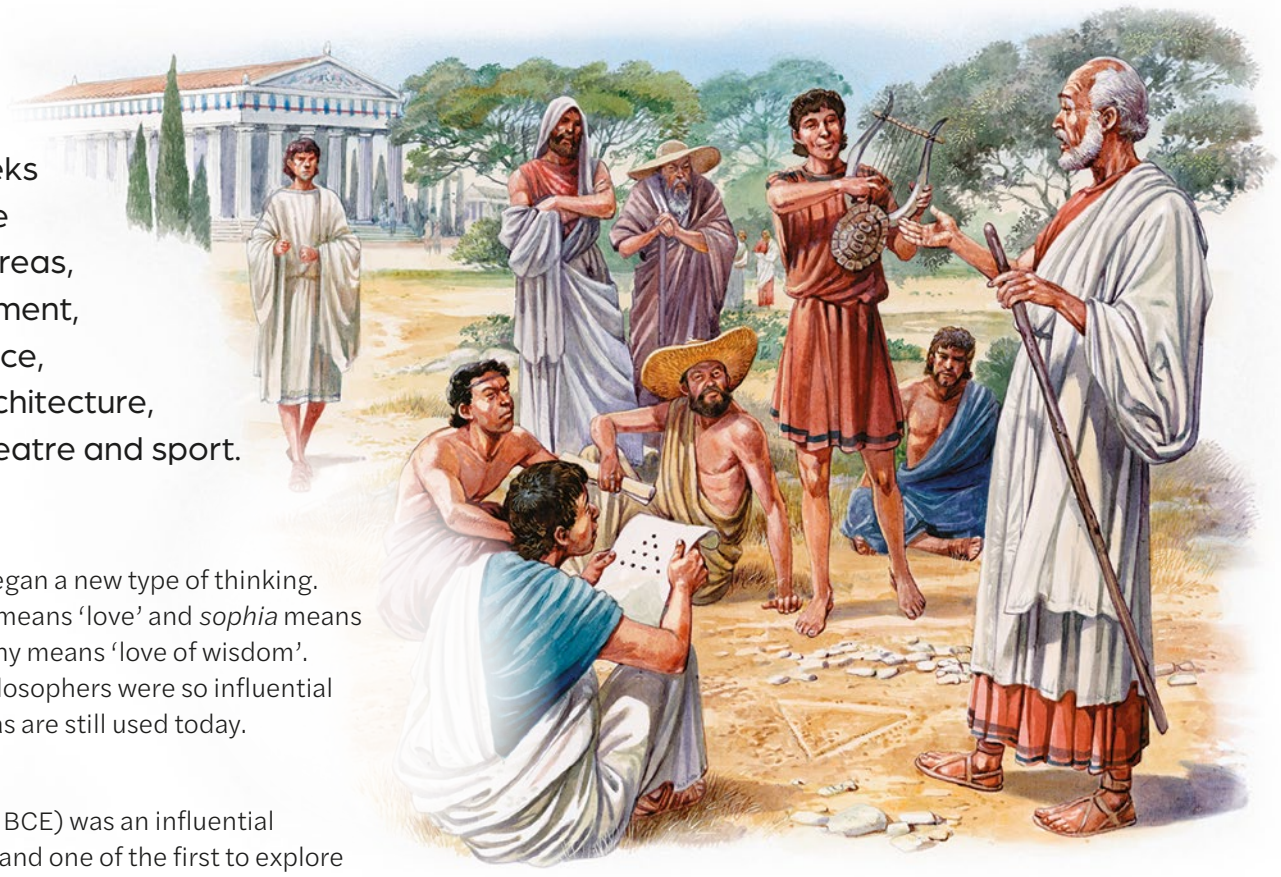
2004 CE Athens	2020 CE Tokyo
1896 CE Athens	1956 CE Melbourne
2000 CE Sydney	1924 CE Paris.

3. Using correct conventions, create a timeline with the events listed in Question 2.
4. Explain how your timeline demonstrates continuity and/or change.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472

What are the legacies of the ancient Greeks?

The ancient Greeks left an impressive legacy in many areas, including government, philosophy, science, mathematics, architecture, art, language, theatre and sport.



Source 1: Pythagoras lived from about 570 BCE to about 500 BCE. He thought that the entire world could be explained with mathematics. Pythagoras developed an advanced system of geometry that we still use today to find the length of sides of right-angled triangles. It is called the Pythagorean theorem.

Philosophy

Greek philosophers began a new type of thinking. The Greek word *philo* means 'love' and *sophia* means 'wisdom', so philosophy means 'love of wisdom'. The ancient Greek philosophers were so influential that many of their ideas are still used today.

Socrates

Socrates (c. 470–399 BCE) was an influential Athenian philosopher and one of the first to explore the idea of ethics: what is right and wrong. Socrates developed a method of studying issues and problems by asking questions. This became known as the Socratic method.

Socrates also taught that the gods were not to be feared, but were essentially good. This led some to believe that Socrates was undermining the religion of ancient Greece. He was convicted by a jury of corrupting young people with his ideas about the gods, and was sentenced to death by poisoning.

Science and invention

Aristotle

Philosophers such as Aristotle (c. 384–322 BCE) were very interested in science. Aristotle made detailed observations and dissected animals to learn about their anatomy. He also studied astronomy and was the first to discover that the Earth is not a flat disc but is a sphere. Aristotle also developed a system of reasoning. For example, he suggested that if all men are mortal, and Socrates is a man, then Socrates must be mortal. He further argued that to be happy, a person must strive to become excellent at all things.

Archimedes

Archimedes (c. 287–212 BCE) was a mathematician and an inventor. While taking a bath, Archimedes worked out that the further down he sank, the higher the water rose. From this observation, he developed Archimedes's principle: a scientific law stating that the amount of water an object pushes aside is equal to its weight.

Archimedes's inventions include the Archimedes' screw, which is a machine that farmers used to extract water from a river or lake (Source 2).

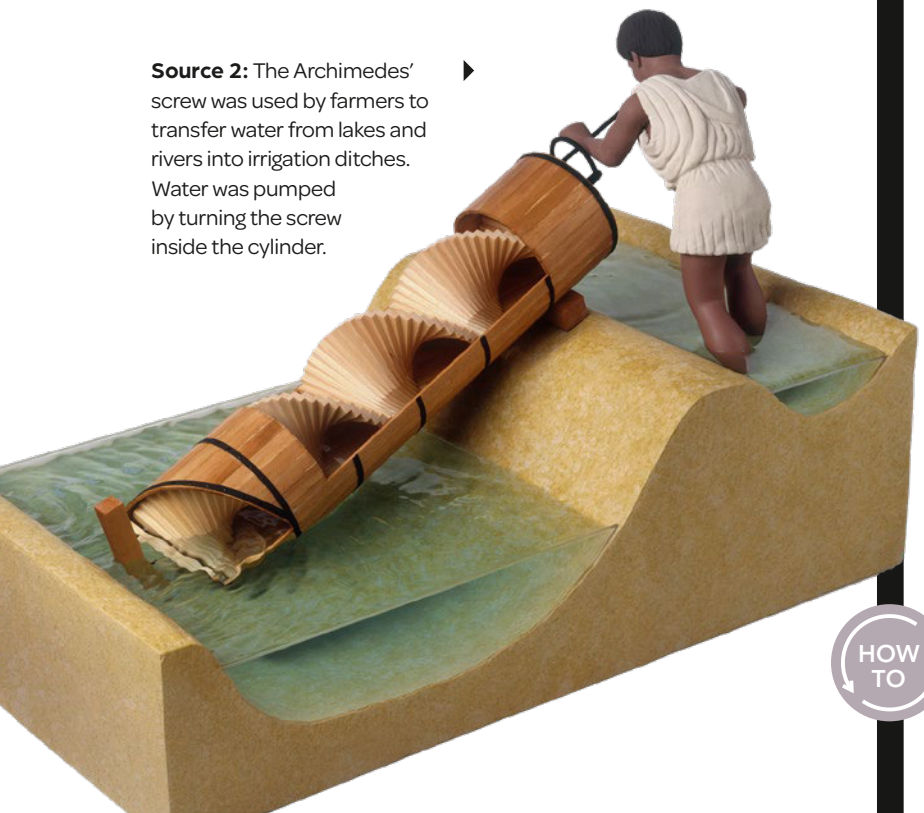
Theatre

Watching plays was a popular form of entertainment in ancient Greece. Plays were performed in open-air, semi-circular theatres. 'Theatre' comes from the Greek word *théatron*, which means 'viewing place'. There were two main types of plays in ancient Greece: tragedies with a moral lesson and comedies about everyday life.

Many elements of ancient Greek theatre are still used in theatre today. Masks and a chorus feature in many modern plays, and the ancient Greek model of 'tragedy', in which a hero makes a series of terrible decisions, is still the basis of tragedies. The ancient Greeks also pioneered satirical plays, in which comedy is used to criticise society. The ongoing significance of ancient Greek drama is demonstrated by modern performances of plays by Euripides, Sophocles, Aristophanes and Menander, which continue to delight audiences.

Architecture

The ancient Greeks developed a unique style of architecture that we can see in temples such as the Parthenon in Athens. Ancient Greek architecture is known for its use of marble, tall columns and intricate detail. This style of architecture is still copied today in major buildings and monuments. For example, the design of the National Library of Australia in Canberra (Source 3) draws from the design of the Parthenon. The original design of the library had the same number of columns as the Parthenon, and its interior has marble stairs and a balcony lined with green marble.



Source 2: The Archimedes' screw was used by farmers to transfer water from lakes and rivers into irrigation ditches. Water was pumped by turning the screw inside the cylinder.

Source 3: The National Library of Australia in Canberra is based on the design of the Parthenon.

Learning ladder 5.14

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the word that means 'love of wisdom'.
2. Describe the types of plays performed in ancient Greece.
3. Explain Aristotle's philosophy of happiness.
4. Source 2: Explain why Archimedes's screw was an important invention in ancient Greece.
5. How did the views of Socrates and Aristotle challenge the traditional beliefs of ancient Greeks?

Significance

1. Identify two ancient Greek philosophers.
2. Source 1: Describe the significant geometry theory developed by Pythagoras.
3. Explain how the National Library of Australia demonstrates the significance of ancient Greek architecture.
4. Why is ancient Greek theatre considered to be significant? Explain your answer.
5. Evaluate the significance of the invention of philosophy.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

5.15

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on ancient Greece. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of ancient Greece. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice.

The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of ancient Greece in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The gods that the ancient Greeks worshipped, page 102
- The role of women in ancient Greece, page 109
- The life of Leonidas, page 120
- The Peloponnesian War, page 119
- The monuments of ancient Greece, pages 111, 127

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas.

Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry. Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?

Wonder

What does it make you wonder?
What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

Ancient Rome 6

6.0

How can I understand ancient Rome?

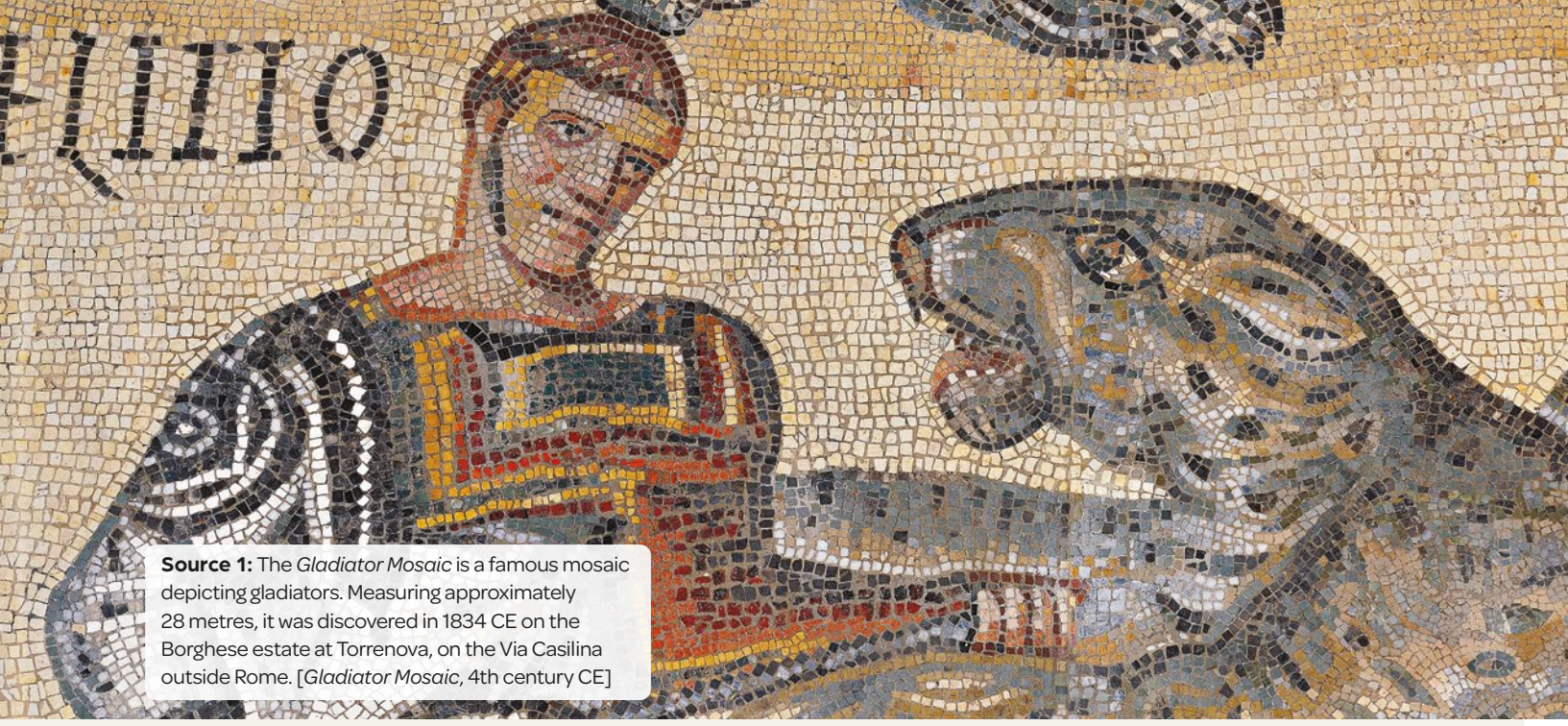
Ancient Roman society lasted for 1200 years and, at its peak, built a huge empire that united Europe. The Romans developed ideas we still use today such as the balance of power between three branches of government and trial by jury.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: The *Gladiator Mosaic* is a famous mosaic depicting gladiators. Measuring approximately 28 metres, it was discovered in 1834 CE on the Borghese estate at Torrenova, on the Via Casilina outside Rome. [*Gladiator Mosaic*, 4th century CE]

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skills progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What was ancient Rome?

Ancient Rome grew from a collection of villages to become a vast empire that covered much of modern Europe and northern Africa.

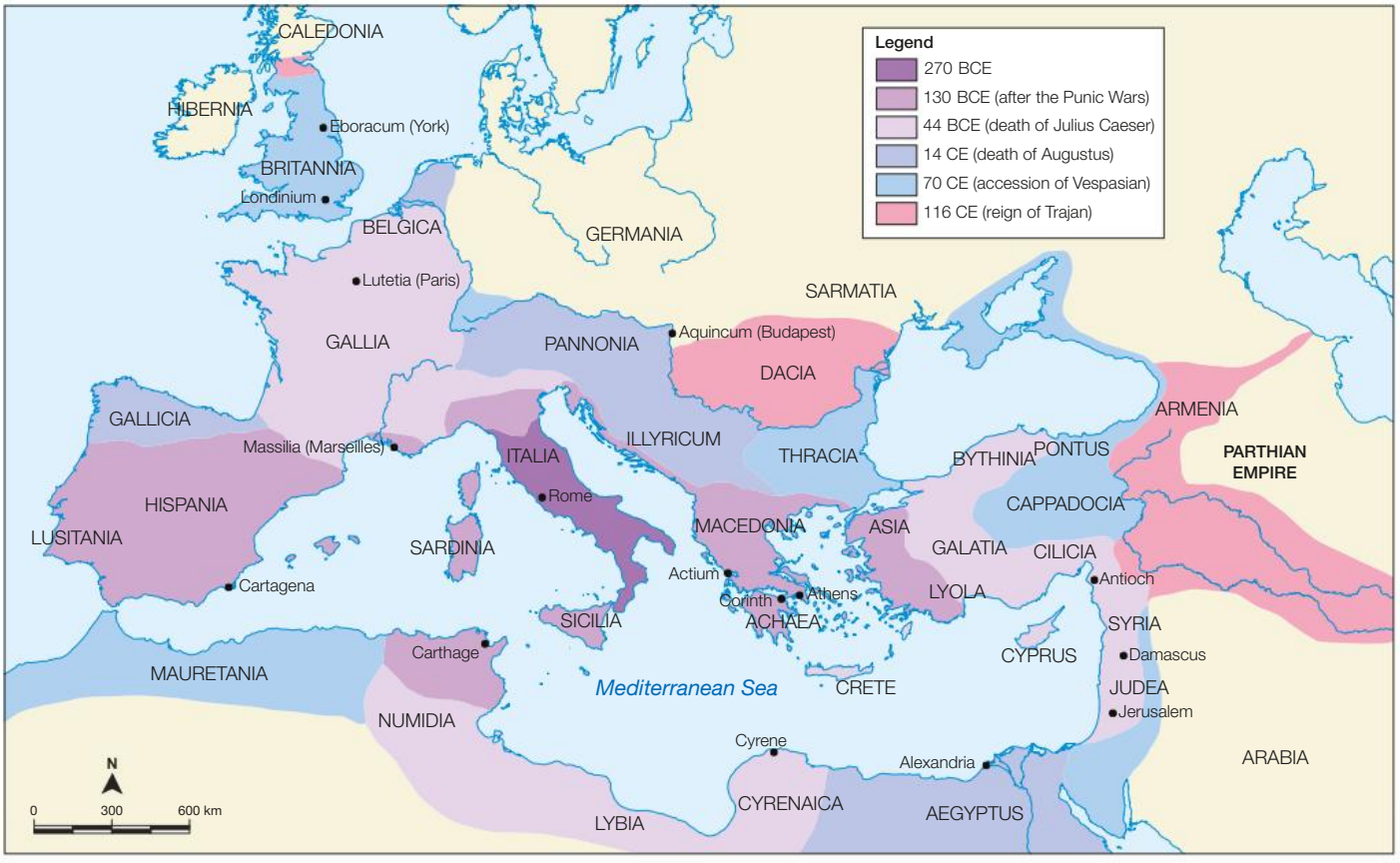
The kingdom of Rome

The kingdom of Rome was situated in Latium, a small region on the west coast of Italy. Little is known about the kingdom as no records from that time survive. Romulus was believed to have been the first king of Rome and was followed by another six kings.

The Roman monarchy lasted from 753 BCE until 509 BCE. The monarchy was overthrown during the reign of the seventh king of Rome, the deeply unpopular King Lucius Tarquinius Superbus. This led to the beginning of the Roman Republic.

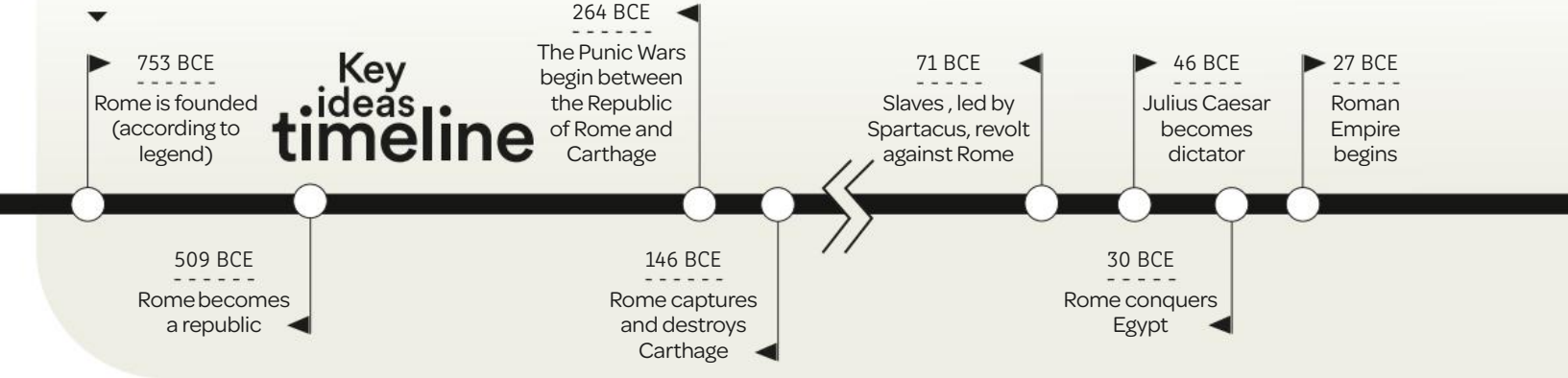
The Roman Empire

Source 1: The growth of the Roman Empire from 270 BCE to 116 CE



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: Ancient Rome timeline



Source 3: Caesar was a Roman general and statesman during the time of the Roman Republic. In this painting, the leader of the Gauls, Vercingetorix, throws down his weapons as he surrenders to Caesar after the Battle of Alesia in 52 BCE. Led by Caesar, Roman troops conquered much territory, including Gaul (modern-day France). [Lionel-Noël Royer (1899 CE), *Vercingetorix Throws Down His Arms at the Feet of Julius Caesar.*]

The Roman Republic

The powers previously held by the king were passed to two elected officials called **consuls**. The citizens of Rome now had a say in how it was run through their elected representatives. Rome expanded greatly through the Roman Republic period, which lasted 482 years and ended in 27 BCE.

The Roman Empire

After a period of instability, Rome changed from being a republic to being an **empire** in 27 BCE. The long reign of Rome's first **emperor**, Augustus, began a golden age of peace and prosperity for Rome that lasted more than 500 years, until 476 CE. Over time, the Roman Empire expanded to become one of the largest empires in world history. At its peak in 117 CE, 70 million people – 20 per cent of the world's population at the time – lived in territories controlled by Rome. The empire covered five million square kilometres and included most of Europe, west Asia, northern Africa, and the islands in the Mediterranean Sea (Source 1).

Learning ladder 6.1

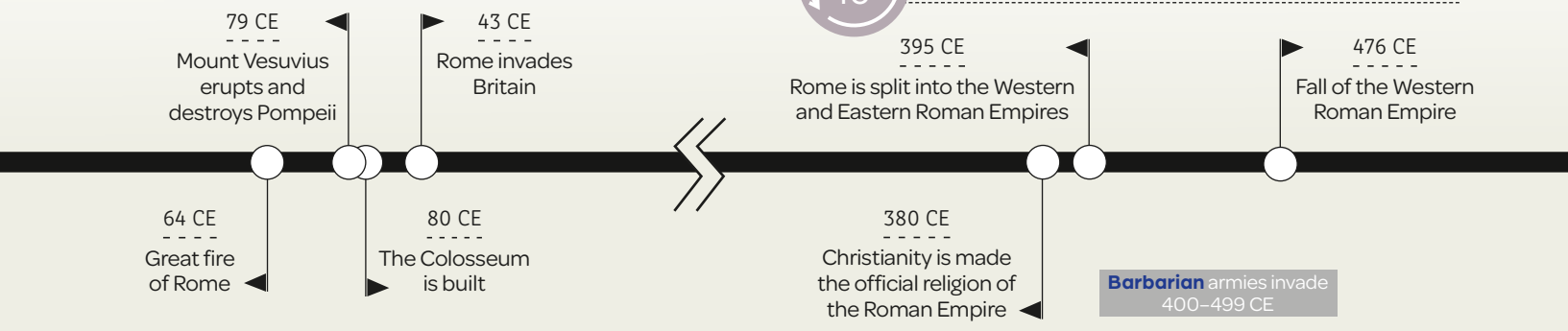
Background and origins

1. Identify the three types of government in ancient Rome.
2. Describe how the monarchy ended in 509 BCE.
3. Explain how the Roman Republic was governed.
4. Explain why ancient Rome changed from a republic to an empire.
5. In a table, list five challenges of running an empire as large as the Roman Empire. Then suggest five ways of dealing with those challenges.

Chronology

1. Source 2: Use the timeline to answer the questions below:
   - **a** How many years were there between the founding of Rome and the fall of the Western Roman Empire?
   - **b** For how long was Rome a republic?
   - **c** How long did the Punic Wars last?
2. Place these events in chronological order:
   - 380 CE: Christianity becomes the official religion of Rome
   - 64 CE: Nero begins to persecute Christians in Rome
   - 312 CE: Emperor Constantine becomes a Christian
   - 303 CE: The Great Persecution begins.
3. Using appropriate conventions, create a timeline containing the events in Question 2.
4. Summarise the main events that occurred during the Roman Republic.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472



6.2

How did ancient Rome develop?

Ancient Rome's proximity to the Mediterranean Sea enabled the Romans to trade and interact with people from other societies, while the Alps and Apennine Mountains helped protect the city of Rome from invaders.

Ancient Rome

Ancient Rome was a state centered on the city of Rome, which is located on the west side of the Apennine Peninsula in a region known as Latium. The city of Rome was founded around 753 BCE.

Ancient Rome's geography

Ancient Rome had many geographic advantages that helped it become one of the greatest empires in history.

The city of Rome was well protected from the east by the Apennine Mountains, which run along Italy's spine from north to south (see Source 1). The Alps to the north slowed attacking armies as they made their way through narrow, snow-covered passes, enabling the ancient Romans to defend their territory.

In addition, the city was built on the banks of the Tiber River, which supplied fresh water and access to the Mediterranean Sea trade routes.

The valleys of the Po River and the Tiber River contained rich volcanic soil that was ideal for agriculture. The produce grown by ancient Romans included wheat, olives and grapes.

The Apennine Peninsula

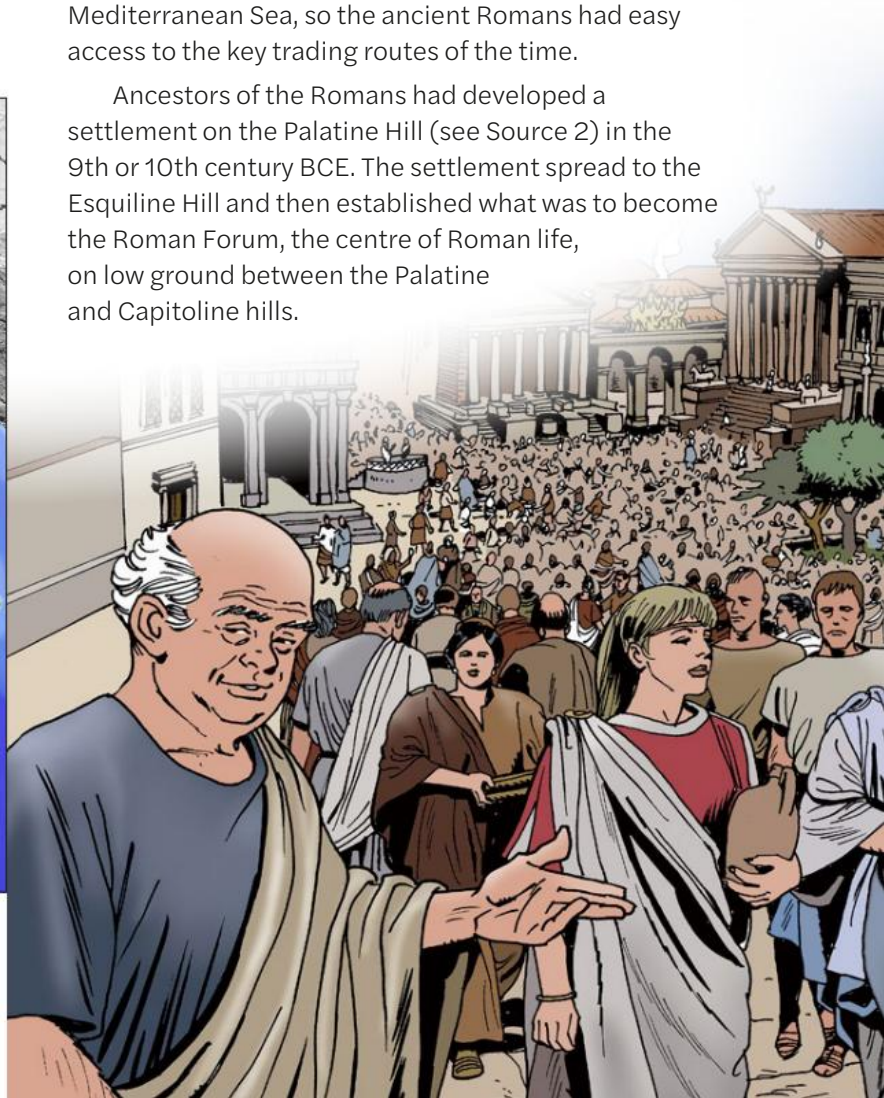
Source: Alamy

Source 1: This map shows the mountainous terrain of the Apennine Peninsula.

Geographic location

The Apennine Peninsula is located close to the Mediterranean Sea, so the ancient Romans had easy access to the key trading routes of the time.

Ancestors of the Romans had developed a settlement on the Palatine Hill (see Source 2) in the 9th or 10th century BCE. The settlement spread to the Esquiline Hill and then established what was to become the Roman Forum, the centre of Roman life, on low ground between the Palatine and Capitoline hills.



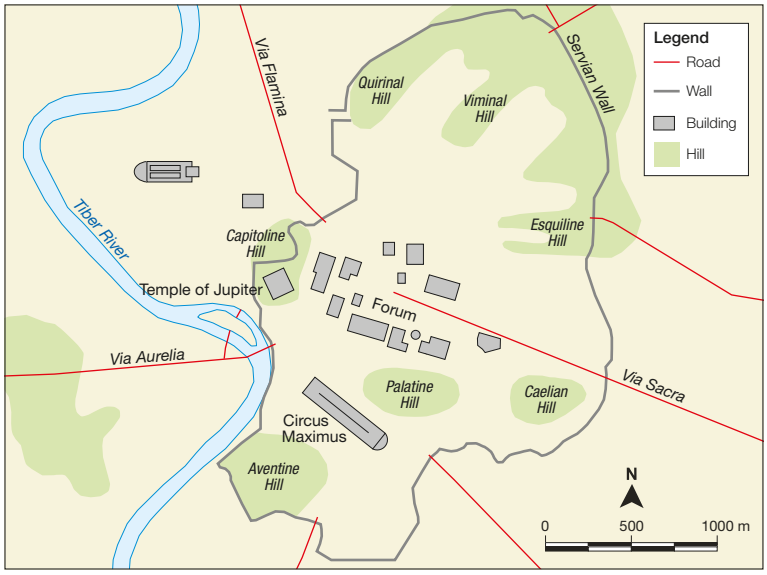
With access to Mediterranean trading routes and natural (mountainous) protection from invasion, Rome had the ideal geographic location to develop as a leading society in the ancient world that could expand into an empire.

The city of Rome

The early city of Rome was largely unplanned. As the city expanded, narrow, winding streets and crowded alleys were added as needed, resulting in a disorganised and confusing layout. In 64 CE, however, a Great Fire destroyed much of the city. The Roman emperor at the time, Emperor Nero, established a new plan for the city. Rubble was cleared away and used to fill marshy swamp land. Wider, straight roads were built, connecting important public spaces such as bathhouses, markets and theatres. Water supplies were also redesigned so that each district had plenty of water.

The new streets were soon full of noise, colour and the smell of cooking, with markets selling clothing, food and wine throughout the day and into the evening.

The layout of the ancient city of Rome



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 3: The first settlers built homes on the seven hills of Rome, which could be easily defended. A large wall, called the Servian Wall, was built to protect the city from invaders.

Source 2: Ancient Romans in the city of Rome

Learning ladder 6.2

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify three geographical features on the map.
2. Describe the key features of ancient Rome's geography.
3. Explain how the river valleys benefited the city of Rome.
4. Sources 1 and 3: Explain why the Tiber River was important.

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: Identify the cause of the construction of the Servian Wall.
2. Describe the effect of Emperor Nero's new designs for the city of Rome.
3. Sources 1 and 3: Explain the effect of the Apennine mountain range and the Alps on ancient Roman society.
4. Explain why the location of the city of ancient Rome helped it to become prosperous and powerful.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

6.3

What did the ancient Romans believe?

Much of ancient Roman mythology was based on that of ancient Greece. Nevertheless, it connected the Roman people to their own unique place and time.

The ancient Roman creation story

Like the ancient Greeks, the Romans believed that the world began from nothingness, known as Chaos. Gaia, the Earth goddess, emerged from Chaos. She was followed by Uranus, the sky god.

Gaia and Uranus gave birth to the Titans, of whom there were 12. The Titans included Saturn, Ops, Phoebe and Mnemosyne. Saturn and Ops had six children: Neptune, Pluto, Hestia, Juno, Ceres and Jupiter. Believing that his children planned to overthrow him, Saturn ate the first five of them. The sixth, Jupiter, was hidden by Ops. Once Jupiter was an adult he returned to fight Saturn and defeated him to become king of the gods.

The story of Aeneas

The story of Aeneas is one of the most important in Roman mythology because it links the Romans directly to the gods of ancient Greece.

Aeneas was believed to be the son of the goddess Aphrodite (known as Venus to the Romans). He had been involved in a mythical ancient Greek war called the Trojan War. According to Greek mythology, the Trojan War had broken out because of a dispute between the goddesses Hera, Athena and Aphrodite that had spilled over into the human world, pitting the Greeks against the people of Troy (known as Trojans). Hera, Athena and Poseidon had sided with the Greeks, while Aphrodite, Apollo and Ares had sided with the Trojans.

Aeneas survived the war by escaping from Troy. After many adventures, he travelled to the region of Latium, where he founded ancient Rome.

Romulus and Remus

According to Roman mythology, the city of Rome was founded by a man named Romulus. Romulus had been one of twin boys, Romulus and Remus, born to a priestess, Rhea Silvia. Rhea Silvia was the daughter of King Numitor, who was king of the town of Alba Longa and a descendant of Aeneas. The twins' father was Mars, the god of war.

Rhea's uncle Amulius deposed King Numitor. He did not want Romulus or Remus to threaten his claim to the throne, so he ordered that they be drowned in the Tiber River. However, the basket into which they were placed floated down the river and came to rest at the site of the future city of Rome.

Romulus and Remus were discovered by a wolf, who raised them as her own cubs (see Source 1). When the boys became men, they decided to build a city on the site where they had been rescued by the wolf. After arriving back in the area of the seven hills, Romulus announced that they should build their city on the Palatine Hill. But Remus preferred the Aventine Hill. They could not agree and decided to seek the gods' approval. Remus saw six birds sent by the gods, but Romulus saw 12. Romulus then killed his brother and became the king of Rome around 753 BCE. The city was named after him.

Source 1: The image of Romulus and Remus being suckled by a wolf has been a symbol of the city of Rome since the 3rd century BCE. [*Capitoline Wolf*, c. 11th century CE, bronze]

Source 2: Aeneas and his son Ascanius landing on the shores of Italy, from an ancient Roman marble bas-relief, c. 150 CE

Don't be afraid, Venus, your child's fate remains unaltered ... This son of yours ... will wage a mighty war in Italy, destroy proud peoples, and establish laws, and city walls, for his warriors until a third summer sees his reign in Latium ...

But [then] the boy Ascanius [Aeneas's son], will move his throne from its site at Lavinium, and mighty in power, will build the walls of Alba Longa. Here kings ... will reign for three hundred years, until a royal priestess, heavy with child, shall bear Mars' twins.

Then Romulus will further the race, proud in his nurse the she-wolf's tawny pelt, and found the walls of Mars, and call the people Romans, from his own name.

I've fixed no limits or duration to their possessions: I've given them empire without end.

Source 3: Extracts from Virgil (30–19 BCE), the 'Aeneid'. The 'Aeneid' is an epic poem written by the ancient Roman poet Virgil. In this extract, Jupiter is speaking to Venus.

Learning ladder 6.3

Background and origins

1. Identify the name of the nothingness that existed before the creation of the world.
2. Describe how the world was made, according to Roman mythology.
3. Explain how Jupiter became the king of the gods.
4. Source 3: Explain why the story of Aeneas is important in Roman mythology.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 1: Using the source, describe how Romulus and Remus were cared for.
3. Source 3: Explain how this source demonstrates the link between the gods and the Roman people.
4. Source 3: Explain the context of this source – what sort of government did Rome have when it was written? How long after the founding of Rome was it written?

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

6.4

How was ancient Roman society governed?

The structure of the society of ancient Rome was based on heredity (who your parents were), property, wealth and citizenship.

Citizens

To be a **citizen** in ancient Rome, both your parents had to be citizens. Citizens had much more power than people who were not citizens. In addition, male citizens could vote when they were 25 years old, be elected as magistrates and were protected by the law. Female citizens did not have the right to vote, and their father or husband took responsibility for them in legal matters. However by the 1st century CE, they could own property, write a will and testify in court.

There were four groups of citizens in ancient Rome:

- **Patricians** were members of the land-owning upper class. To be a patrician, both your parents had to be patricians. Patricians held all the highest positions in the republic.
- **Equites** were members of the middle class. They were professionals who worked as tax collectors, bankers, merchants or civil servants. They could also serve as questors or on the assemblies. They owned at least 400 000 **sesterces** worth of land.
- **Plebeians** often worked as farmers and artisans. They made up most of the population. A plebeian could move to the equites class if they were able to buy 400 000 sesterces worth of land.
- **Freedmen** were former slaves and were considered second-class citizens: they were not allowed to vote but were protected under the law. Their free-born children, however, had full rights as citizens.

Governing the republic

Under the constitution of the Roman republic, there were three branches of government:

- the **magistrates**, who had religious, military and legal powers. Two of the magistrates were consuls who served for one year. The consuls jointly made decisions about whether the republic would go to war, raise taxes or pass laws.
- the **Senate**, a group of 300 patricians that advised the magistrates and the consuls
- the **assemblies**, which elected the magistrates. The Assembly of Centuries, dominated by the wealthiest citizens, elected the most important magistrates, including the consuls and praetors, and decided whether to declare war. The Assembly of Tribes, in which all citizens could vote, elected the minor magistrates, including quaestors and aediles. From 471 BCE there was also another assembly, known as the Plebeian Council, where plebeians could vote on laws that only affected plebeians.

Learning ladder 6.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the four groups of citizens in ancient Rome.
2. Describe the equites class.
3. Explain how magistrates were elected to their positions.
4. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the difference between the rights of patrician citizens and plebeian citizens.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Continuity and change

1. Identify the most exclusive class of Roman citizens (the one with the most continuity).
2. Describe how the rights of plebeians changed in 471 BCE.
3. Explain how a plebeian could change their class.
4. Explain why the children of freedmen had more rights than their parents.
5. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain what changes could have made ancient Rome a more equal society.

Senator
(also a patrician)

Consul

Senate (300)
The Senate comprised current and past magistrates who served for life. Senators managed foreign policy and controlled the money. They proposed but could not pass laws.

Gave advice

PATRICIANS

Consuls (2)
Managed the Roman army and affairs of government; they could veto each other.

A former consul could become a dictator (in emergencies) for six months.

Praetors (8)
Judges who administered Roman law

A patrician magistrate could become a censor (for 18 months). Censors conducted a census (head count) of Rome every five years.

Aediles (16)
Looked after particular matters of government such as public buildings, food supply and games

Could become the chief priest (*pontifex maximus*) and the governors of provinces

Patricians

Quaestors (20)
Managed financial and administrative matters

Plebeians

PLEBEIANS

Tribunes (10)
Representatives of the plebeians; could call meetings of the Senate

Ordinary people
Townsfolk, farmers, soldiers, craftspeople

Slaves
Slaves were not citizens and had no rights. They were considered to be possessions. Slaves worked on farms, in mines, as gladiators and as secretaries.

Source 1: How ancient Roman society was governed

6.5

Was ancient Rome a slave society?

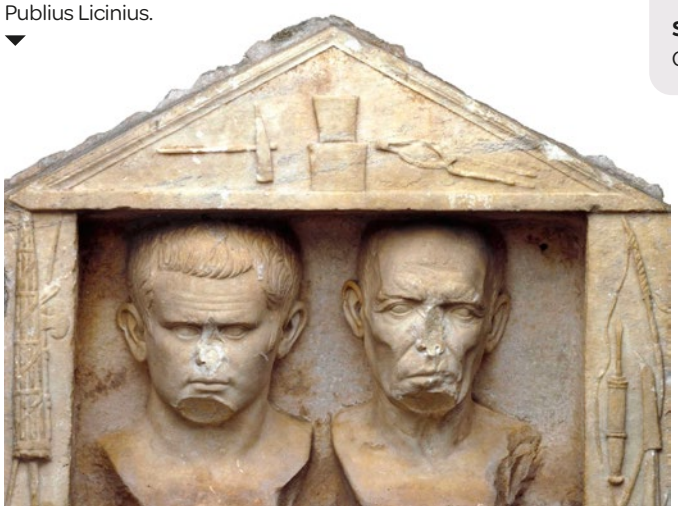
Slavery was widely accepted in the ancient world, and few questioned the unjust practice of enslaving another human being.

Who were the slaves?

Between 10 to 20 per cent of the population of ancient Rome were slaves, with most slaves living in the city centres. Slaves came from all walks of life. Many of the people forced into slavery had been captured in war. As the republic and later the empire of Rome expanded its territory, people in the newly captured territories were taken into slavery. Others were born into slavery, as the sons or daughters of slave mothers. Children could also be sold into slavery by their parents if they could not afford to feed them.

Slaves could be bought and sold at slave markets, such as the one near the Temple of Castor at the Forum in the city of Rome. The price of an enslaved person depended on their age, sex and skills. Most slaves cost around 2000 sesterces, but an educated slave could cost up to 8000 sesterces. The majority of Roman households could afford at least one slave. Wealthy patrician families might own thousands of slaves.

Source 1: Marble relief showing two freedmen, Publius Licinius Philonicus and Publius Licinius Demetrius, c. 30 BCE–10 BCE. On the left are the rods and axes used in the ceremony of freeing a slave. On the pediment are the tools of a blacksmith, and on the right the tools of a carpenter. These men may have been skilled craftsmen who purchased their freedom from their slave master, Publius Licinius.



What did enslaved people do?

Slave labour was a key reason why Rome became a powerful, wealthy and influential society. Enslaved people carried out a range of jobs in ancient Rome. Most slaves did menial labour, working in households, in mines, in quarries and on farms. They built monuments and important buildings, roads, sewers and **aqueducts**. Slaves who were educated or had a skill might work as a physician, teacher, accountant or a librarian, while a strong, healthy slave could be trained to fight as a **gladiator** for the entertainment of Romans.

Enslaved people were considered the property of their masters and could be bought or sold at any time. They had no rights, were unable to own property and could not legally marry. Their masters were also allowed to mistreat them.

> When I was a young man I decided to make sure never to strike any slave of my household with my hand. My father practised this same restraint. Many were the friends he reproved when they had bruised a tendon [of their hand] while striking their slaves in the teeth … They could have waited a little while, he said, and used a rod or whip to inflict as many blows as they wished …

Source 2: Galen (c. 165 CE), *On Passions and Errors of the Soul*. Galen was a Greek physician and slave owner. Greece was then part of the Roman Empire.

How were slaves freed?

Unlike in many other slave-owning societies, Roman slaves could be set free and become citizens. Most slaves were freed after they saved up enough money to buy their freedom. Enslaved people were freed in a special ceremony (called *manumission*) performed by a magistrate. During the ceremony they were given a proper Roman name, which included their former master's surname. As freedmen, they could work for themselves and even own slaves.

Source 4: A modern image of Spartacus, leader of a slave rebellion in 73 CE

> Remember that he whom you call your slave came into life the same route as you, basks in the same sky and breathes, lives and dies in the same way as you do … I don't want to get too involved in the broader issues of the treatment of slaves, to whom we are extremely arrogant, cruel and abusive. This however is the sum of my advice: treat your inferiors as you would want to be treated by your masters.

Source 3: Excerpt from Seneca (c. 60 CE), *Epistles*. Seneca was a Roman playwright and philosopher. He was also a slave owner.

Slave rebellions

Cruel treatment led to major slave rebellions during the republican era. The most famous of these was the rebellion led by Spartacus in 73 BCE. Spartacus was a former gladiator who led 90 000 slaves against the Roman Republic. Despite the slave army achieving a number of victories, the Roman general Crassus led his armies against the slaves and crushed the rebellion. The 6000 surviving slaves were crucified as a warning to other slaves.

Following Spartacus's failed rebellion, the Romans passed harsh laws and punishments to keep slaves under control. For example, if a master was killed by one of his slaves, all the slaves in his household would be tortured and executed by crucifixion. Spartacus's rebellion would be the last slave rebellion in ancient Rome.

Learning ladder 6.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 4: Identify the slave in this source.
2. Describe the work done by slaves.
3. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how slaves were freed.
4. Explain why there were no slave rebellions after Spartacus's revolt.
5. Evaluate the significance of slaves to Rome's power and influence.

Perspectives

1. Sources 2 and 3: Identify whether the perspective of each source is that of a slave or a slave owner.
2. Sources 2 and 3: Describe the perspective of the author of each source.
3. Source 2: Explain why the author of the source might hold this perspective.
4. Sources 2 and 3: Contrast the perspectives of these two sources.
5. Sources 2 and 3: In what way is the perspective of the sources similar?

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

6.6

What was life like in ancient Rome?

The rights, opportunities and freedoms of the ancient Romans were generally determined by their sex, wealth and age.

Men in ancient Rome

Roman men were the heads of their families. The oldest man in a family was called the **paterfamilias** (father of the family) and was responsible for controlling and maintaining the family's business affairs and property. The paterfamilias had significant power over his children. He could disown his children if they displeased him and could sell his children into slavery. He also decided whom his children would marry.

Women in ancient Rome

Women were under the control of their fathers until they married. Girls could be married from the age of 12, but were usually married at 15. Girls were named after their fathers – the daughter of a man named Marcus Octavius was named Octavia.

Roman wives were expected to remain in the home caring for children. Plebeian women spun wool and wove cloth to make clothes. They had no political power, and could not vote or hold public office. From the 1st century CE, however, women who had given birth to three children were permitted to own property and run their own businesses.

Source 1: Fresco of a husband and wife. The husband holds a roll of papyrus and his wife holds a stylus (pen) and a wax writing tablet, indicating that she was literate. [*Portrait of Terentius Neo* (c. 50 CE), found in the house of Terentius Neo, Pompeii, Italy]

Source 2: A sarcophagus depicting scenes from the life of Marcus Cornelius Statius, a child who had died around the age of seven, c. 150 CE

Children in ancient Rome

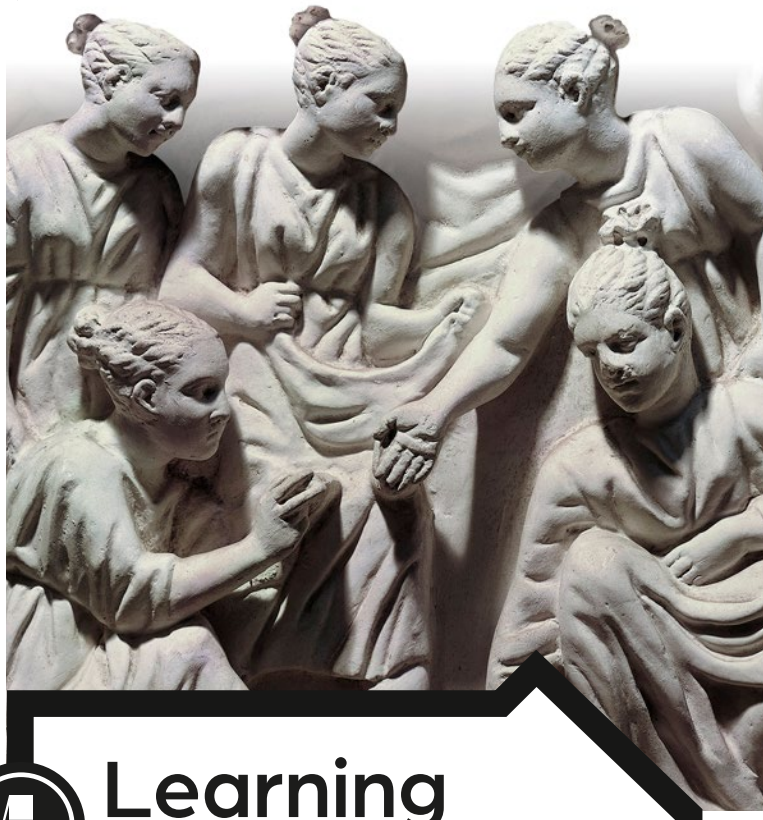
When a child was born, it was put on the floor. If the paterfamilias decided to keep the baby, it was allowed to join the family. If not, the baby was left outside to die or to be collected by a slave master. Even if a baby was saved from this awful fate, child mortality in ancient Rome was very high. Around 50 per cent of children died before reaching the age of 10, mostly in the first five years of life.

Children remained at home with their mothers. At the age of seven, plebeian boys would start to help their father at his work outside the home, while plebeian girls helped their mothers. Patrician and equites boys, meanwhile, would begin their education at age seven. Some of these boys were educated by a private tutor, while others attended school where they learned Latin, Greek, history, mathematics and oratory (public speaking). Patrician and equites girls also began their education at age seven. Private tutors taught them reading, writing and music.

> Why should we pay taxes when we have no part in public office or honours or commands or government in general? … Because you say this is a time of war? And when have there not been wars? And when have women paid taxes [before now]?

Source 3: An extract from Hortensia's speech at the Forum, given in 42 BCE, to protest against women being charged taxes to fund the civil war in Rome. Hortensia was a patrician woman whose father, Quintus Hortensius, had taught her public speaking. She was able to speak at the Forum because, under Roman law, women were allowed to speak publicly during times of war. As a result of her speech, the number of women required to pay the tax was reduced, while all patrician, equites and wealthy plebeian men were taxed.

Source 4: Girls playing. [Relief sculpture on an unknown child's sarcophagus, c. 250 CE]



Learning ladder 6.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the age at which plebeian children started work.
2. Describe the role of the paterfamilias.
3. Source 3: Using your knowledge, explain how Hortensia was named.
4. Explain the difference between how wealthy Roman boys and girls were educated.
5. Evaluate whether a person's sex or their wealth was more important in determining the opportunities they had in life.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 4: Describe what the source shows.
3. Source 2: Explain how the source demonstrates the life of a patrician boy.
4. Source 3: Explain why Hortensia was opposed to women paying taxes.
5. Source 3: Evaluate the significance of Hortensia's speech.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

How were laws applied in ancient Rome?

Roman law is a great example of continuity in history. It laid the basic framework for many modern legal systems throughout the world.

The Twelve Tables

The first stage of the development of law in ancient Rome laid down a standard law code, known as the Twelve Tables (449 BCE). This code was engraved on bronze tablets and placed on display, so that the law was clear to all citizens. Before the display of the Twelve Tables, upper-class priests had interpreted the law. This had meant that sometimes the law was applied unfairly, especially towards plebeians. When the plebeians threatened to leave the city, the patricians agreed to make the laws public. After that time, all male citizens aged 15 and over were subject to the same laws, regardless of their social class. Women were protected under the law by their male relatives.

Jurists in the Roman republic

Ancient Rome developed a sophisticated legal system during the period of the republic. Importantly, this era saw the emergence of professional jurists who studied the law. Jurists had extensive knowledge of the law and advised magistrates on how to apply it. They also adapted the punishments of laws to suit new situations as times changed. For example, they might increase the value of a fine to keep pace with inflation. Every year, the jurists would write a praetor's edict, which made a judgement about whether the existing punishments for crimes were fair and made any changes that were needed.

How did Roman courts work?

In ancient Rome, civil and criminal cases were tried using the same system. A panel of judges listened to the arguments on both sides and made a decision about how the case would be resolved. Each judge then held up a letter of the alphabet to cast their vote on whether the defendant (accused person) was innocent or guilty. If a judge held up an 'A' (for *absolvo*) this meant they thought the defendant was innocent; if a judge held up a 'C' (for *condemno*) this meant they thought the defendant was guilty.

> Lustricius Bruttianus, after discovering Montanus Atticinus, his colleague, had committed a number of criminal offences, wrote a letter to Caesar ... A judicial examination was granted, and I was one of the judges. Each party pleaded his own case ... Bruttianus produced his will, which he declared was in the handwriting of Atticinus, thus proving the intimacy [closeness] of their friendship ... He [then] read a list of disgraceful offences [committed by his former friend Atticinus], which were clearly proved ... Caesar acted most nobly ... Atticinus was found guilty and banished to an island, while Bruttianus received a well-earned tribute to his integrity.

Source 1: Pliny the Younger (c. 100 CE), *Letter to Tiro*, Book 6, 22, c. 100 CE. Pliny the Younger was a Roman lawyer.

Source 2: Engraving showing Roman citizens examining the Twelve Tables for the first time

If a judge did not hold up any letter, this meant that they thought there was not enough evidence to convict the defendant or declare the defendant innocent. In this situation, the court ruled in favour of the defendant.

If a defendant was found guilty, they usually had to pay a fine, but could also be punished with loss of property, prison, loss of citizenship, exile or death. The punishment received depended not only on the law that had been broken but also on the defendant's social status. Patrician men, for example, usually received more lenient punishments.

The role of the emperor

In 27 BCE, Emperor Augustus assumed the role of emperor, replacing the Roman Republic with the Roman Empire. The emperor then took part in many types of legal proceedings, often acting as a judge when there were conflicts between Roman laws and the laws of local provinces in the empire. In addition, emperors sometimes passed laws, such as in 212 CE, when Emperor Caracalla granted Roman citizenship to all free people of the empire.

Learning ladder 6.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the event shown in this source.
2. Describe the role of jurists in ancient Rome.
3. Explain how publishing the Twelve Tables made the law fairer.
4. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why Atticinus was banished to an island.
5. Evaluate the fairness of the Roman legal system.

Continuity and change

1. Identify how Roman law is an example of continuity.
2. Describe the changes praetor's edicts made to ancient Roman laws.
3. Explain how the law changed once ancient Rome was governed by an emperor.
4. Explain why the Twelve Tables were made public.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 477

6.8

What was the religion of ancient Rome?

For most of the ancient Roman period, the Romans worshipped gods that they had adopted from ancient Greece. By the 4th century, however, Rome had adopted Christianity as its official religion.

Source 1: Some of the gods and goddesses worshipped by the ancient Romans

JUPITER
King of the gods, God of thunder and the sky

JUNO
The chief goddess; Goddess of marriage and childbirth

VENUS
Goddess of love and beauty

MARS
God of war

VULCAN
God of fire

MINERVA
Goddess of wisdom and war

APOLLO
God of the Sun

DIANA
Goddess of the Moon and hunting

The gods and goddesses worshipped by the ancient Romans

Like the ancient Greeks, the ancient Romans believed that nearly everything was controlled by the gods or goddesses. Every god and goddess had at least one job to do, such as watching over the crops, or helping soldiers in battle

The influence of the ancient Roman gods and goddesses can still be seen today. Most of the planets in our solar system are named after these supreme beings: Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Neptune, and the dwarf planet Pluto.

Worshipping the gods

Religion was a central part of everyday life for every member of ancient Roman society, from slaves to the emperor. There were hundreds of gods, and a lot of work went into making sure they all remained happy. Everyone prayed at least once a day and every home had a shrine dedicated to the gods and goddesses that were important to that family. Small statues of the deities were placed on the shrine.

Each town had a temple dedicated to a specific god or goddess. People would visit different temples, depending on what they were praying for. For example, people wanting help in their love life would visit a temple dedicated to Venus, the goddess of love.

The will of the gods

The ancient Romans believed that the gods spoke to them through animals, especially birds. Augurs were special priests who interpreted the flight of birds to determine the wishes of the gods.

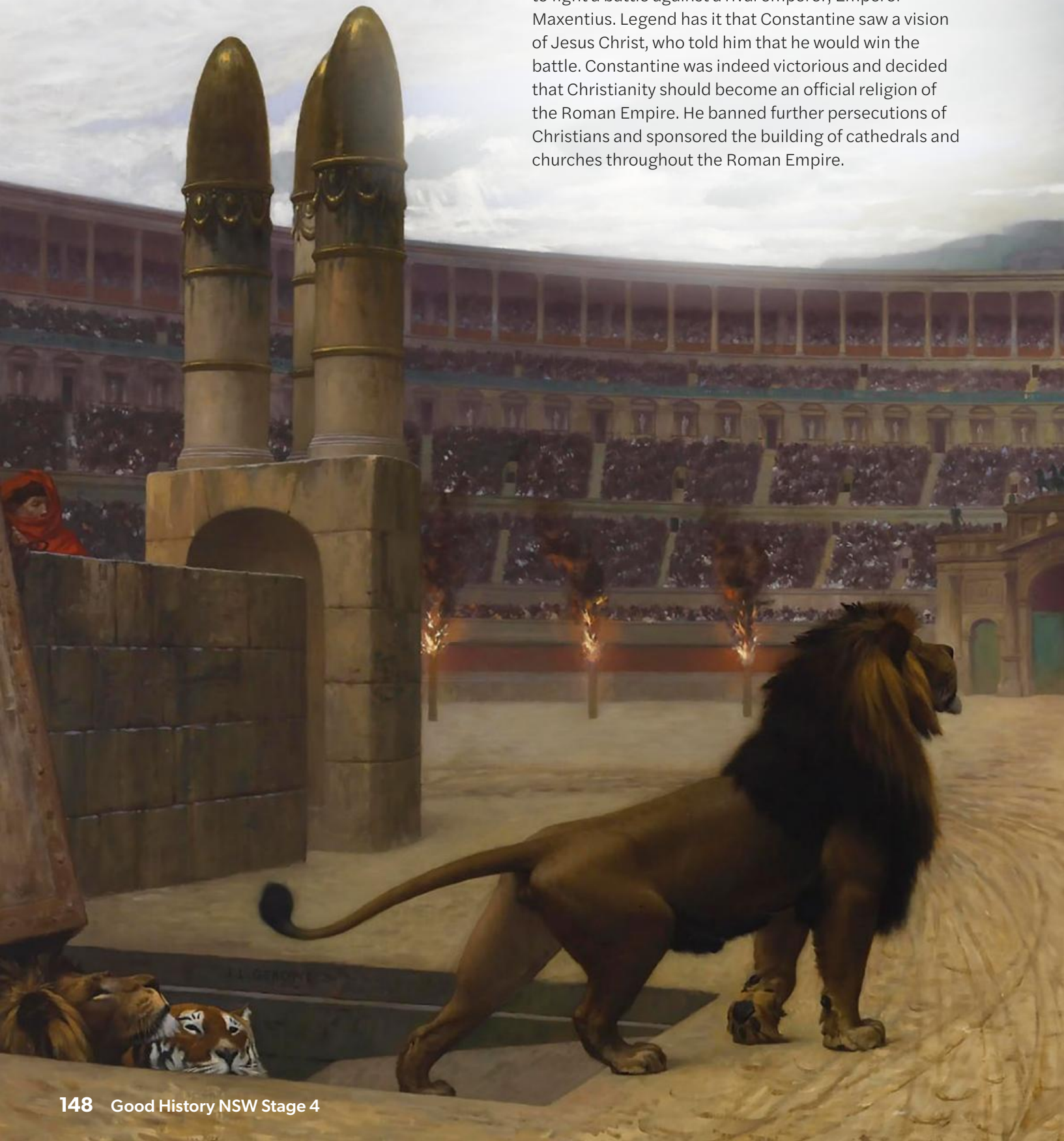
Roman military leaders also took chickens with them on campaigns to help them decide when to attack the enemy. On the day of battle, the chickens were offered grain. If they ate the grain, it was a sign that the Romans would be victorious. If the chickens refused to eat the grain, it meant that the gods did not want the Romans to fight that day.

Christianity

Christianity was born during the days of the ancient Roman empire. At that time, the emperors had assumed a godlike status and insisted that everyone in the empire pay homage to them.

Christians, however, refused to worship the emperor, arguing that there was only one God. Even when threatened with terrible punishments and death, they would not obey.

Then, in 312 CE, Emperor Constantine was due to fight a battle against a rival emperor, Emperor Maxentius. Legend has it that Constantine saw a vision of Jesus Christ, who told him that he would win the battle. Constantine was indeed victorious and decided that Christianity should become an official religion of the Roman Empire. He banned further persecutions of Christians and sponsored the building of cathedrals and churches throughout the Roman Empire.



Learning ladder 6.8

Significant people, ideas and events

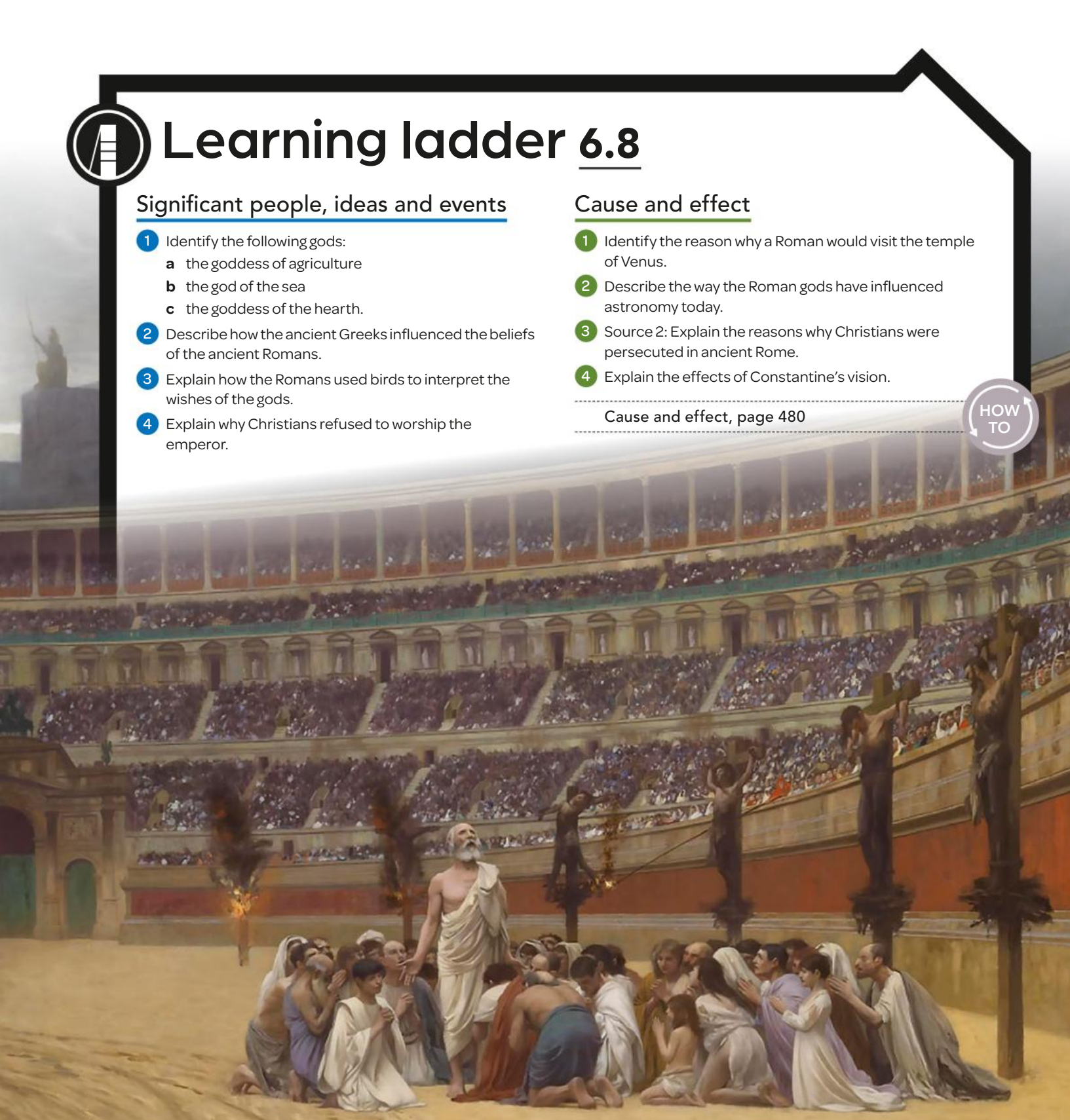
1. Identify the following gods:
   - **a** the goddess of agriculture
   - **b** the god of the sea
   - **c** the goddess of the hearth.
2. Describe how the ancient Greeks influenced the beliefs of the ancient Romans.
3. Explain how the Romans used birds to interpret the wishes of the gods.
4. Explain why Christians refused to worship the emperor.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the reason why a Roman would visit the temple of Venus.
2. Describe the way the Roman gods have influenced astronomy today.
3. Source 2: Explain the reasons why Christians were persecuted in ancient Rome.
4. Explain the effects of Constantine's vision.

Cause and effect, page 480

HOW TO



Source 2: Christians refused to make sacrifices to past Roman leaders or for the good of the empire. Defying Roman expectations went against the social order and led to Christians being violently punished. They were beheaded, nailed to crosses and burnt, and torn apart by animals for entertainment. [Jean-Léon Gérôme (1883 CE), *The Christian Martyrs' Last Prayer*]

6.9

Key individual

How did Julius Caesar rise to power?

Julius Caesar was a powerful politician and military commander. With the support of the people and the army, Caesar swept to power in 46 BCE and laid the foundations for the Roman Empire.

The early years

Julius Caesar was born in Rome into a wealthy patrician family around 100 BCE. He received a good education and followed his father into a career in politics. When his father died, Caesar became the head of his family, aged just 16. In 84 BCE, he married Cornelia, the daughter of the powerful patrician Lucius Cornelius Cinna.

Caesar and his family fled Rome soon after Sulla, a general, returned to the city, initiated **civil war** and took over Rome as a dictator. After leaving Rome, Caesar joined the army, where he showed he was a very capable soldier.

Caesar's rise to the top

Caesar returned to Rome after the death of Sulla in 78 BCE. He quickly gained popularity and power through his excellent leadership and successful military campaigns. Caesar's political career advanced quickly. In 69 BCE, he was elected a ***quaestor*** (financial officer); in 63 BCE he became *pontifex maximus* (chief priest); and then he was chosen to be a *praetor* (assistant to the consuls) for the year 62 BCE. In 61–60 BCE, Caesar was the governor of the province of Spain.

Caesar returned to Rome from Spain in 60 BCE. He made a deal with two key politicians, Pompey and Crassus, whose wealth and influence enabled Caesar to be elected consul in 59 BCE. Caesar also became governor of the Roman province of Cisalpine Gaul (located in southern France).

As governor and military commander of Cisalpine Gaul, Caesar seized new lands in Gaul (France) and extended Roman territory. He was a brilliant military strategist and very popular with his men.

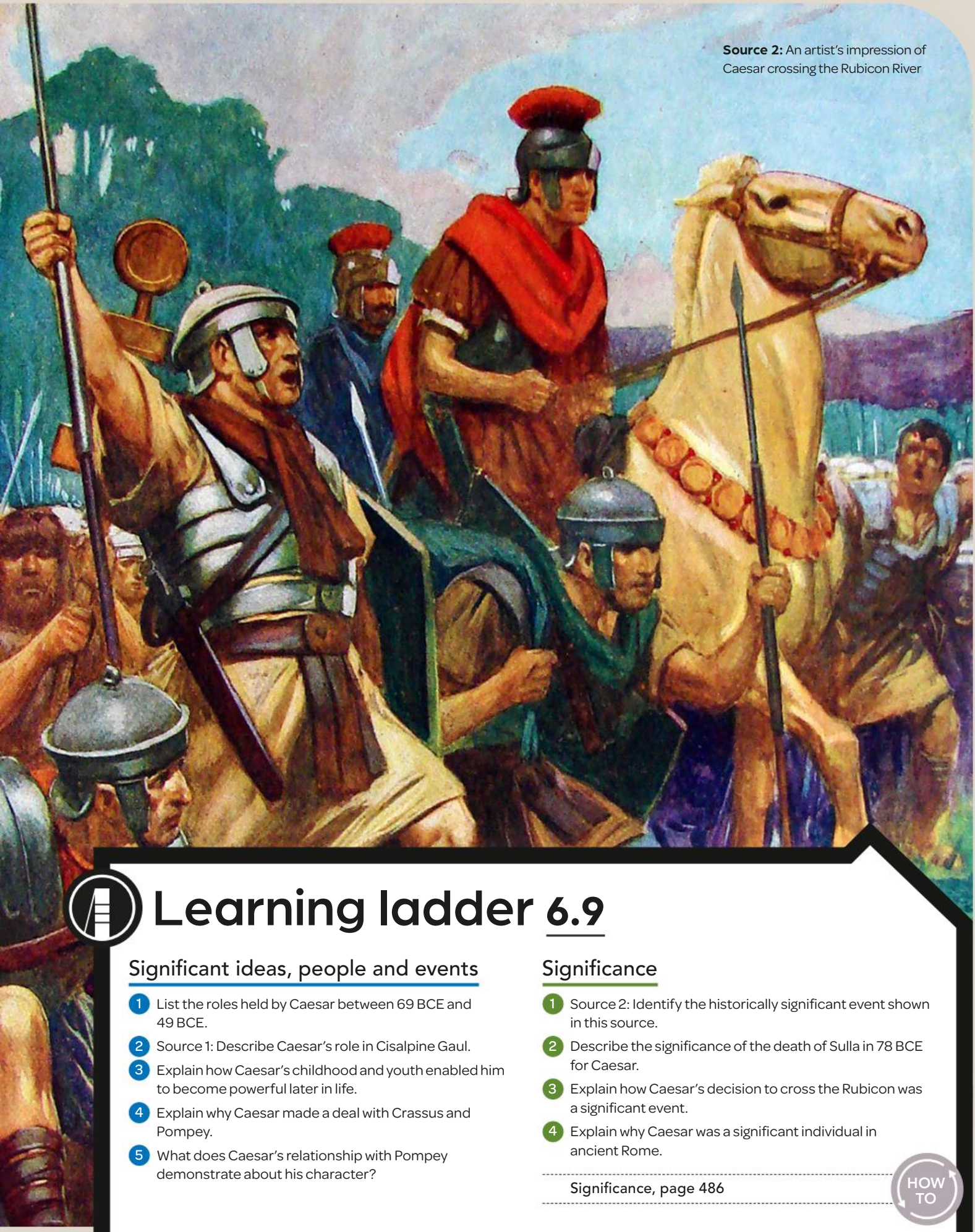
However, back in Rome, Pompey – who was now the leader of the Senate – was worried. Caesar had embarked on his campaigns in Gaul without consulting the Senate. In 49 BCE, the Senate ordered Caesar to give up his governorship of Gaul.

Instead, Caesar decided to disobey the Senate. He ordered his troops to cross the Rubicon River and proceed into Rome.

It was illegal to bring armies across the Rubicon River. This was seen as an act of war. But Caesar had chosen his path. Indeed, the phrase 'to cross the Rubicon' means to pass a point of no return.

In the civil war that followed, Caesar won control of Rome. He became dictator in 49 BCE.

Source 1: Scene from the Roman Triumphal Arch in Orange, France. It was built c. 20 BCE, following the Romans' conquest of the Gauls.



Source 2: An artist's impression of Caesar crossing the Rubicon River

Learning ladder 6.9

Significant ideas, people and events

1. List the roles held by Caesar between 69 BCE and 49 BCE.
2. Source 1: Describe Caesar's role in Cisalpine Gaul.
3. Explain how Caesar's childhood and youth enabled him to become powerful later in life.
4. Explain why Caesar made a deal with Crassus and Pompey.
5. What does Caesar's relationship with Pompey demonstrate about his character?

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify the historically significant event shown in this source.
2. Describe the significance of the death of Sulla in 78 BCE for Caesar.
3. Explain how Caesar's decision to cross the Rubicon was a significant event.
4. Explain why Caesar was a significant individual in ancient Rome.

Significance, page 486

HOW TO

6.10

Why was Caesar assassinated?

Julius Caesar was stabbed to death by 29 senators on 15 March 44 BCE. Why did the senators hate Caesar so much?

Caesar's reforms

Caesar's victory had secured his rule of Rome, but years of civil war had left the republic in disarray. Many people had died or lost their businesses and homes, and poverty was widespread. So Caesar decided to make a series of reforms.

He gave land to soldiers who had fought for him during the war and also to some of the poorest plebeians in Rome. This led to an increase in food being grown and ensured that soldiers and plebeians supported Caesar. He also embarked on a huge public works program to rebuild and improve the city. This provided work for poor plebeians and freedmen. Furthermore, Caesar increased the number of senators from 600 to 900 and expanded the number of jobs in the civil service. This was welcomed by the patricians and equites, who now had more opportunities to pursue political careers.

Caesar becomes dictator for life

Caesar used his position as dictator to ensure he was elected consul. Usually, a dictator was appointed by the consuls in a time of crisis. It was a temporary position intended to last no longer than six months. But in 48 BCE, after Caesar won a great victory at the Battle of Pharsalus, the Senate declared him dictator for a year. Then, in 46 BCE, the Senate decided to make him dictator for 10 years. But before this time was up, the Senate declared him 'dictator in perpetuum' (dictator for life) in 44 BCE.

In addition, the Senate heaped further honours on Caesar. He was declared 'sacrosanct' (which made his body holy); he was allowed to wear a laurel crown on religious occasions; and coins were stamped with his face on them. Caesar appeared to be more like a king than a leader of the republic.

Source 1: An artist's impression of the death of Julius Caesar. [Vincenzo Camuccini (1805 CE), *The Death of Julius Caesar*]

Caesar's assassination

In early 44 BCE, a group of senators decided to **assassinate** Caesar. The leaders of the conspiracy included Gaius Cassius Longinus and Marcus Junius Brutus, both long-time enemies of Caesar who had fought against him in the civil war, and Decimus Brutus, a member of Caesar's inner circle. On 15 March, the conspirators called a meeting with Caesar at the Theatre of Pompey. When Caesar arrived, the senators approached him, pretending to greet him. But then they began to stab him! Caesar died aged 56.

Source 2: Coin minted in 43 BCE. It shows Julius Caesar's portrait and the words 'CAESAR DICT PERP PONT MAX' (Caesar, dictator forever and chief priest) on the obverse side. The image of a living person had never been featured on Roman coins before. The obverse side was usually reserved for images of gods or former kings.

Why did the senators decide to kill Caesar?

Historians are divided over why the senators assassinated Caesar. After all, the Senate had only just voted him dictator for life. Some historians think that the conspirators believed Caesar would abolish the republic and declare himself king. Other historians argue that the conspirators were just jealous of Caesar's power and wanted to rule themselves.

> [Caesar] abused his power and was justly cut off … [He] obtained excessive honours, such as the consulship every year, the dictatorship for life, and the censorship, but also the title of emperor and the surname of 'Father of his Country', besides having his statue amongst the kings … [Furthermore], he said, 'The republic is nothing but a name, without substance or reality … Men ought to … look upon what I say as a law'.

Source 3: Excerpt from Gaius Suetonius Tranquillus (c. 121 CE), *The Lives of the Twelve Caesars*. Suetonius was an ancient Roman historian.

> At first a few men started the conspiracy, but afterwards many took part, more than are remembered to have taken part in any earlier plot against a commander … Among those who had the most influence were: Decimus Brutus, a particular friend of Caesar, Gaius Cassius, and Marcus Brutus … There were various reasons which affected each and all of them and impelled them to lay hands on the man. Some of them had hopes of becoming leaders themselves in his place if he were put out of the way; others were angered over what had happened to them in the war, embittered over the loss of their relatives, property or offices of state.

Source 4: Nicholas of Damascus (c. 14 CE), *Life of Augustus*. Nicholas of Damascus was a Greek historian who was born in Damascus, which was then part of the Roman Empire.

Learning ladder 6.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the individual shown in the source.
2. Source 1: Describe the assassination of Julius Caesar.
3. Explain how Caesar tried to rebuild Rome after the civil war.
4. Source 2: Explain what this source demonstrates about Caesar's power.
5. Evaluate Caesar's leadership during his period as dictator.

Contestability

1. Identify what it is about Caesar's death that is debated by historians.
2. Source 4: Describe the reasons given for Caesar's assassination in this source.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Explain how Source 2 could be used as evidence to support Source 3's interpretation of Caesar's death.
4. Sources 3 and 4: Compare the reasons for Caesar's assassination.

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

Site study

What was the Colosseum?

The Colosseum was built during the time of the Roman Empire to entertain the ancient Romans and to gain their support for the emperors who hosted the events.

The building

The Colosseum is a massive free-standing stone stadium located east of the Palatine Hill in the city of Rome. Work began on the immense structure sometime between 70 CE and 72 CE.

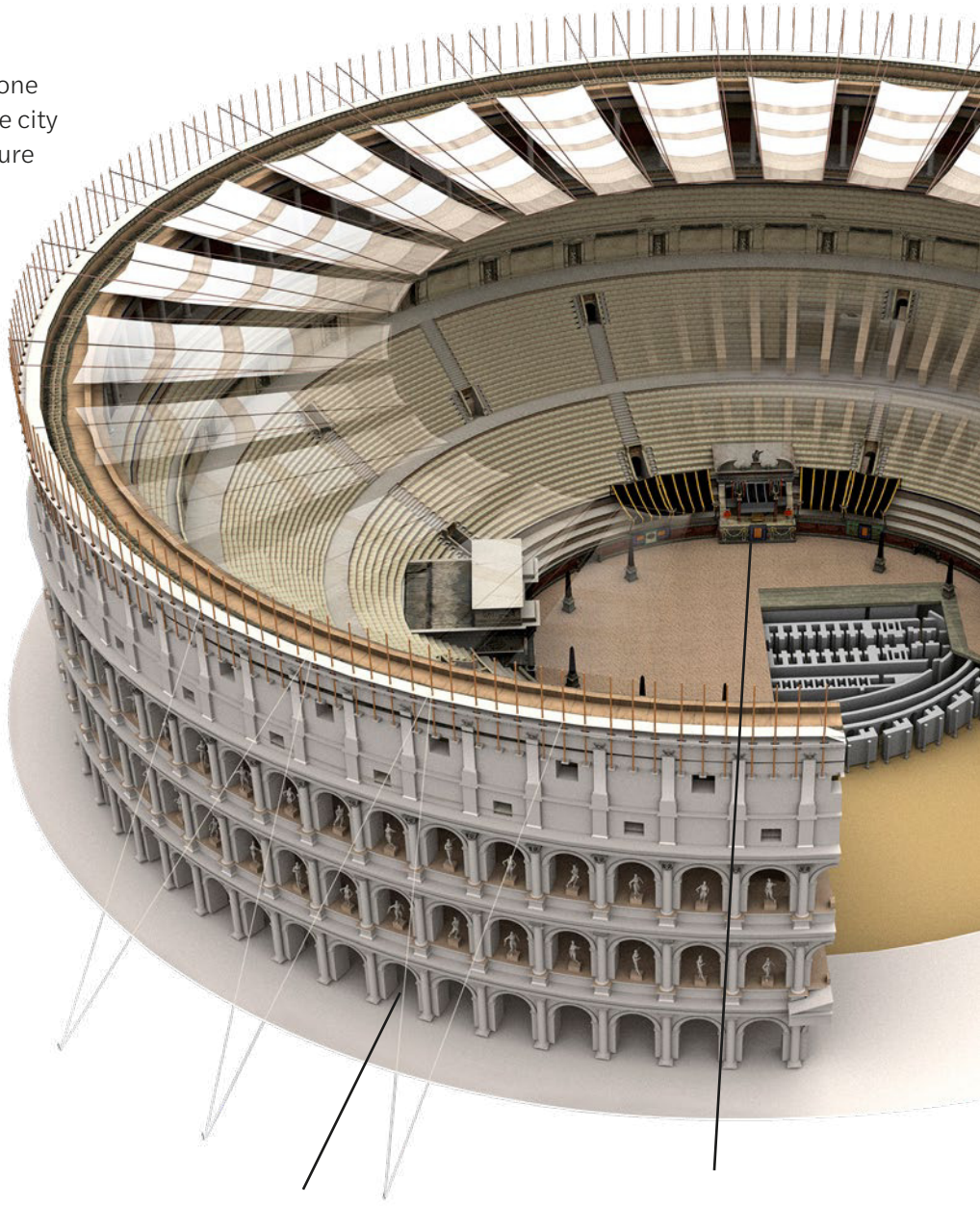
It had been commissioned by Emperor Vespasian. When the Colosseum was finally finished in 80 CE, it was opened by Vespasian's son Titus with 100 days of games for the Roman people to enjoy.

Much of the original stadium has fallen into disrepair, caused by weathering, natural disasters, theft of stone blocks and vandalism.

The events

The Colosseum hosted bloody battles between gladiators, and between gladiators and wild animals. Many gladiators were slaves or criminals, but some fighters volunteered because they wanted fame and fortune. Some emperors even showed off their own combat skills in the arena to gain the support of the people.

The arena was often elaborately decorated. Sometimes, it was made to look like a natural landscape, where the gladiators hunted animals. Other times, the arena was flooded and mock sea battles were held. Crocodiles were released to grab those who fell overboard.

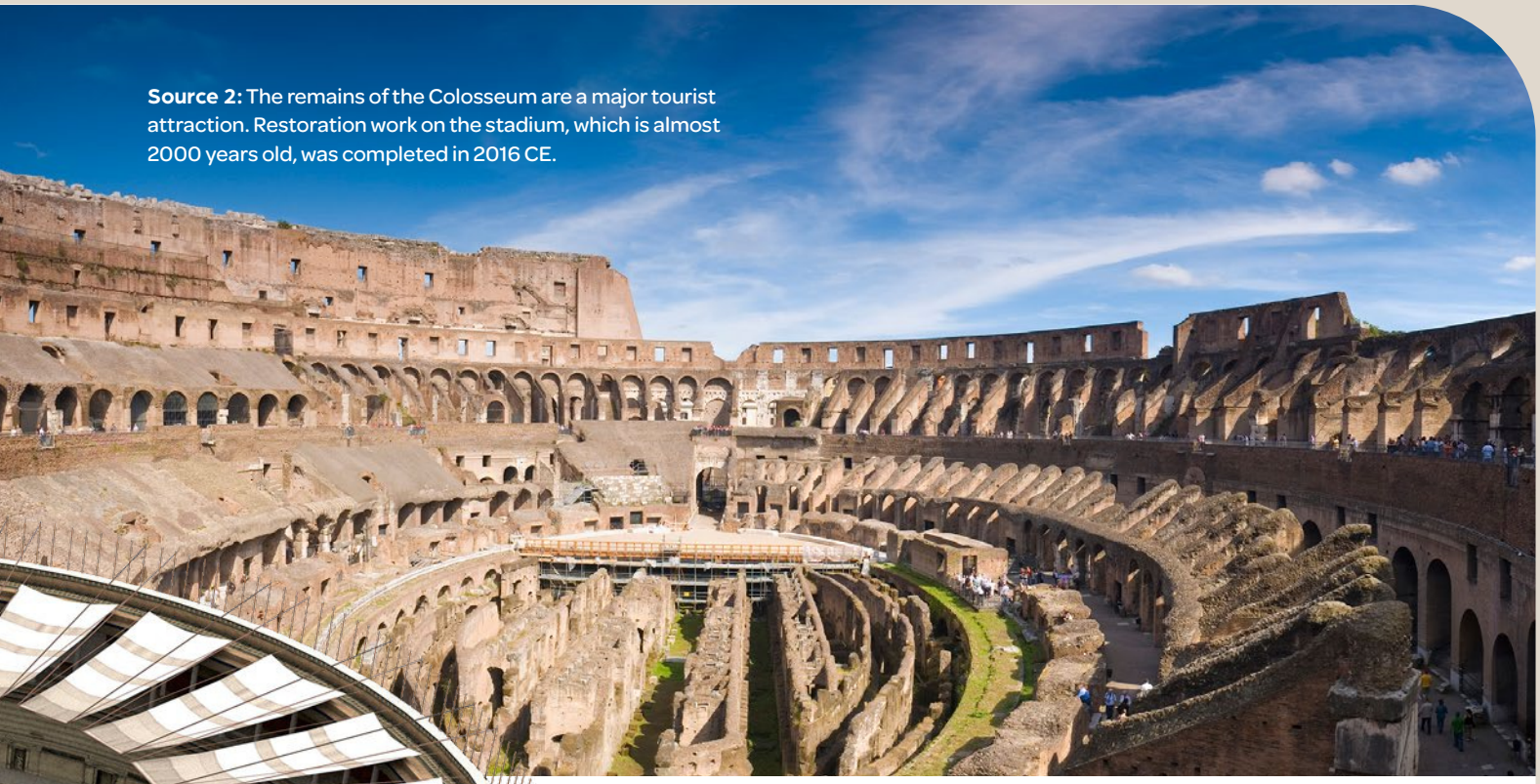


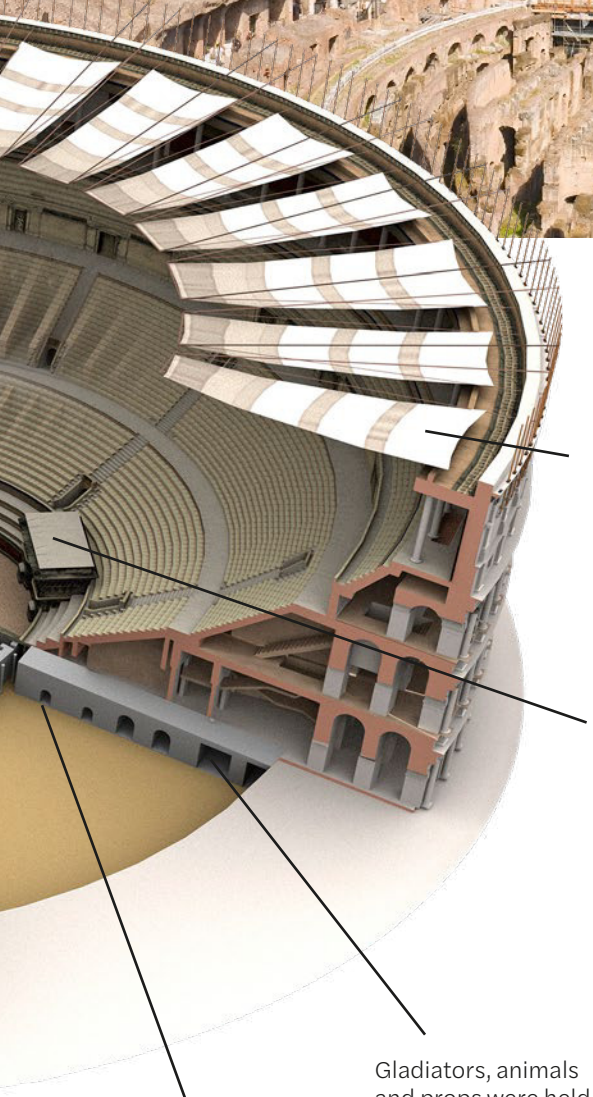
There were 76 public entrances for plebeians, and four entrances for patricians, senators and the emperor. The Colosseum could accommodate 50 000 spectators.

The emperor had his own private box. Other important people sat in the lowest tier closest to the arena. Women, poor men and slaves sat or stood in the top tier.

Source 1: This cutaway illustration shows how spectators accessed the Colosseum via 80 entrances. Gladiators, soldiers and animals were housed in rooms, cells and corridors beneath the arena.

Source 2: The remains of the Colosseum are a major tourist attraction. Restoration work on the stadium, which is almost 2000 years old, was completed in 2016 CE.





Awnings were pulled out from the top storey to protect the audience from the sunlight.

Gladiators entered the stadium through gates at the arena level.

Gladiators, animals and props were held in cells and rooms beneath the arena.

Animals were kept in cages under the arena and were hoisted up to ground level using a pulley system. Animals entered the arena through trapdoors.

Learning ladder 6.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the emperor who began building the Colosseum.
2. Describe the events that were held at the Colosseum.
3. Source 1: Explain how animals were brought into the arena.
4. Explain why there were separate entrances and seats in the Colosseum for different classes of Romans.
5. Source 1: Why do you think it was important for the emperor to be seen during events at the Colosseum?

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify a reason why this site is considered historically significant today.
2. Sources 1 and 2: Describe the differences between the two sources.
3. Source 1: Explain how the Colosseum was a significant venue in ancient Rome.
4. Source 2: Explain why the Colosseum is a significant site today.
5. Source 2: Discuss whether the Colosseum should be a tourist site or a protected archaeological site.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

Who were the gladiators?

The gladiators were slaves, criminals or prisoners specially trained to fight for the entertainment of ancient Roman spectators.

Gladiators

A very popular form of public entertainment in ancient Rome was watching gladiators fight to the death in huge arenas such as the Colosseum. Gladiators were first introduced to Rome in 264 BCE. They were generally slaves, criminals or prisoners.

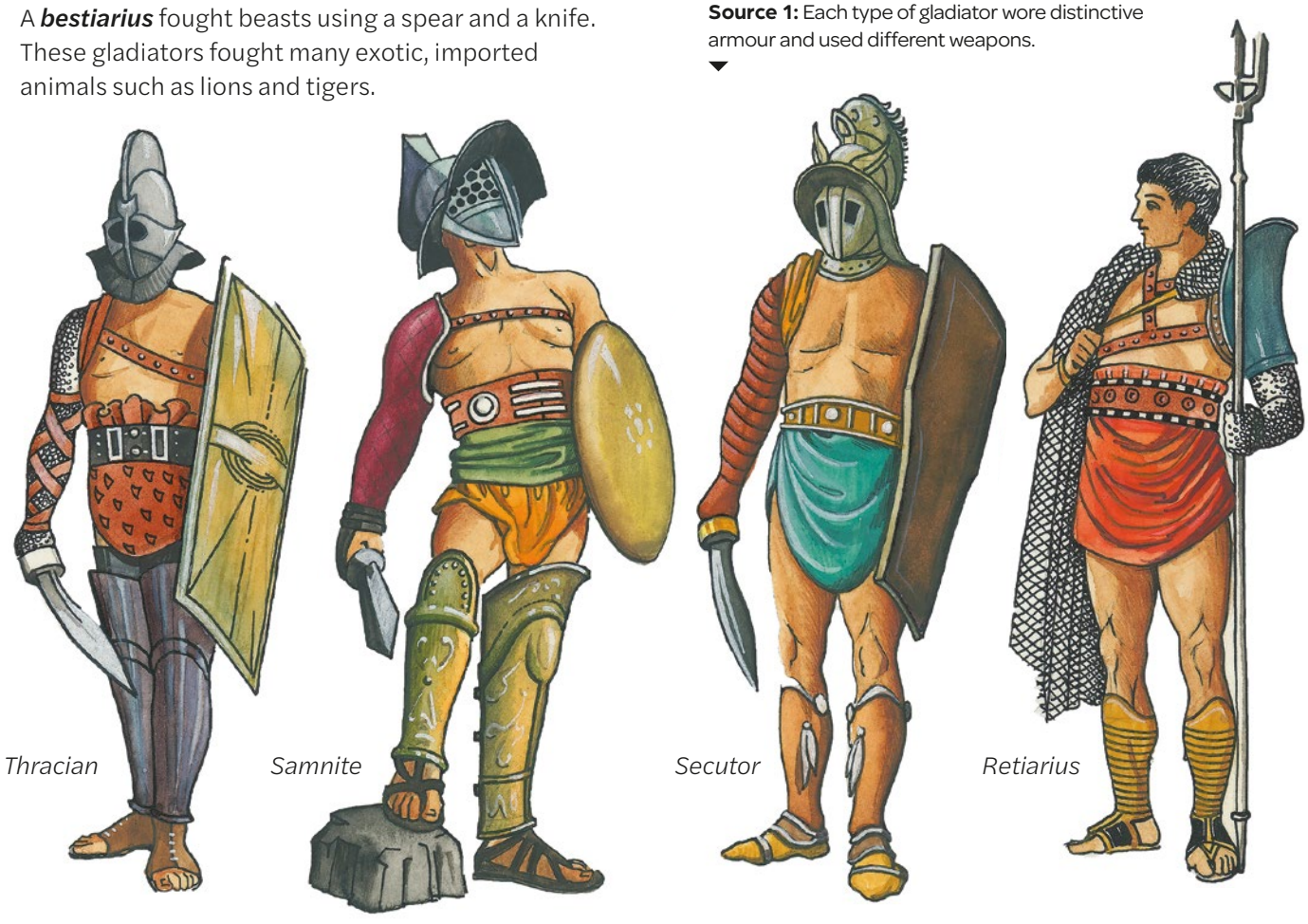
Tens of thousands of Romans went to the Colosseum to watch gladiators fight and kill each other. Successful gladiators were admired like sporting stars are today and, if they were lucky, they were granted their freedom.

Types of gladiators

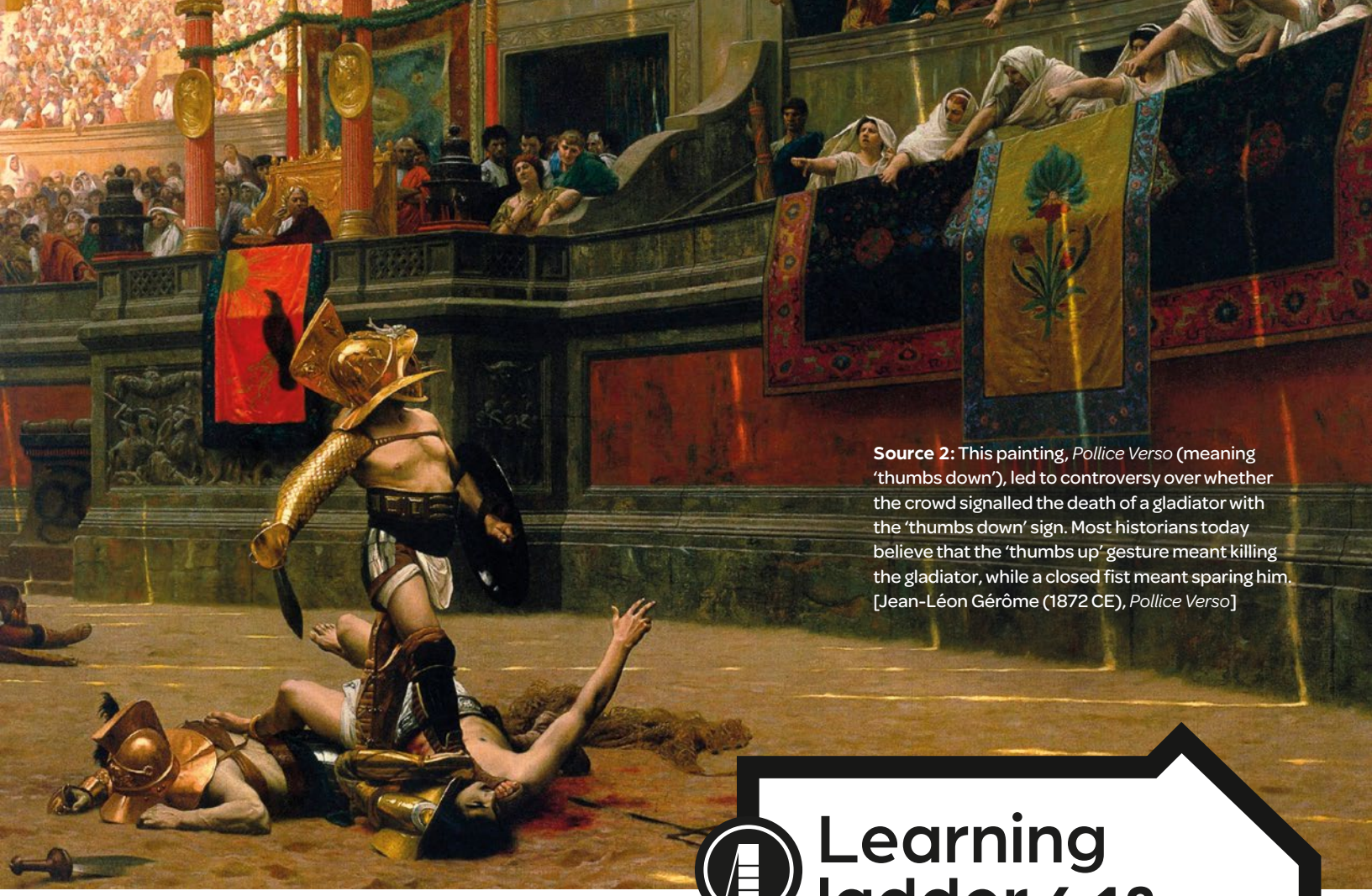
To add interest to fights, there were many different types of gladiators:

- An ***andabata*** wore a helmet without eyeholes. They charged blindly at each other for the crowd's amusement.
- A ***bestiarius*** fought beasts using a spear and a knife. These gladiators fought many exotic, imported animals such as lions and tigers.
- A ***murmillo*** wore a helmet and armguards, and carried a short sword and shield. Murmillos often fought *thracians*.
- A ***retiarius*** wore only an armguard for protection and carried a trident (a spear with three prongs), a dagger and a net to trap their opponent.
- A ***samnite*** wore a high-crested helmet and used a short sword and an oblong shield. Their right arm and left leg were protected with leather strapping, and a greave (leg armour) was worn on the left leg.
- A ***secutor*** used the same armour and weapons as a murmillo. A secutor's helmet had only two small eyeholes to prevent a retiarius's trident from piercing their face.
- A ***thracian*** used a shield and a curved sword known as a *sica*.

Source 1: Each type of gladiator wore distinctive armour and used different weapons.



Thracian *Samnite* *Secutor* *Retiarius*



Source 2: This painting, *Pollice Verso* (meaning 'thumbs down'), led to controversy over whether the crowd signalled the death of a gladiator with the 'thumbs down' sign. Most historians today believe that the 'thumbs up' gesture meant killing the gladiator, while a closed fist meant sparing him. [Jean-Léon Gérôme (1872 CE), *Pollice Verso*]

The other day, I chanced to drop in at the midday games, expecting sport and wit ... Just the opposite was the case. Any fighting before that was as nothing; all trifles were now put aside – it was plain butchery. The men had nothing with which to protect themselves ... The crowd cries for the killers to be paired with those who will kill them, and reserves the victor for yet another death. This is the only release the gladiators have ... The slayer was kept fighting until he could be slain. 'Kill him! Flog him! Burn him alive!' (the spectators roared) 'Why is he such a coward? Why won't he rush on the steel? Why does he fall so meekly? Why won't he die willingly?' ... Do not, my Lucilius, attend the games, I pray you. Either you will be corrupted by the multitude, or, if you show disgust, be hated by them. So stay away.

Source 3: Seneca (c. 65 CE), *Epistles VII*. In this letter to his friend Lucilius, Seneca offers his opinion of the gladiatorial games. Seneca was a Roman philosopher and statesman.

Learning ladder 6.12

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the four types of gladiators shown in this source.
2. Describe the role of the gladiators in ancient Rome.
3. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the difference between a retiarius and a samnite.
4. Source 2: Explain why this source has led to confusion over the signal for the death of gladiators in the arena.

Perspectives

1. Source 3: Does the author of the source enjoy gladiatorial games or not?
2. Source 3: Using a quote from the source, describe the author's perspective on gladiatorial games.
3. Source 3: Explain the crowd's perspective of the gladiatorial games.
4. Source 3: Explain why the author advises his friend Lucilius to 'stay away'.
5. Source 3: Contrast the perspectives of the creator of the source and the crowd depicted in this source.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

6.13

Who did the ancient Romans trade with?

As the Roman Empire grew, it needed more food for its population and more metals to make coins and provide weapons for its army. To meet these needs, the Romans set up a vast trading network across the ancient world.

The ancient Romans traded a variety of goods with people who lived inside and outside the Roman Empire (see Source 2). Through trade, the Romans came into contact with people from many different societies.

Ancient Rome's growing population required an increasing amount of food. Food products – grain, olive oil, wine, salt, fish, meat – were traded in huge quantities. For example, in the 1st century BCE, Rome imported grain from Egypt and northern Africa.

The growing empire also needed metals, such as gold, silver and copper, to make coins and weapons. Gold and silver were imported from Spain and Greece, and copper was shipped from Spain and Cyprus.

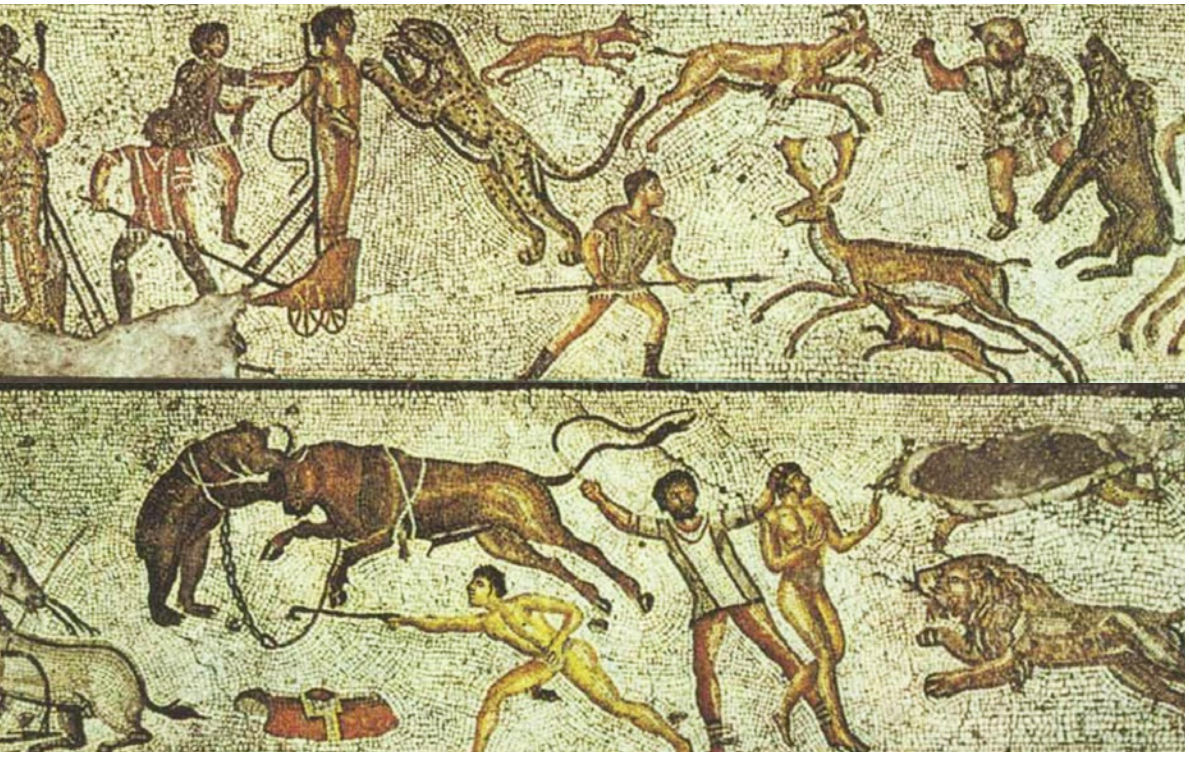
Marble was a popular material in ancient Rome and it adorned private homes and public buildings, including temples. This coveted stone was imported from Greece and northern Africa.

Exotic goods

At its height, in the 2nd century CE, the Roman Empire included parts of northern Africa , Western Europe and the Middle East. Goods from these areas, including exotic animals and slaves, were traded all over the empire. Elephants, tigers, bears and lions became features in gladiatorial battles, while slaves became the gladiators. Elephants were also used by the Roman army to carry soldiers and to charge and trample opposing soldiers.

The most sought-after import was silk from China, which was traded along the Silk Road. Chinese people were known as the Seres or 'silk people'. Ancient Romans did not know how silk was made and assumed it grew on trees.

Pepper and other spices from India were also highly valued exotic products, along with peacocks, jewels and textiles.



Source 1: Thousands of exotic wild animals, such as elephants, lions, bears, panthers and leopards, were imported to the city of Rome so these animals could fight gladiators in the Colosseum. [Panel from the *Zlitern Mosaic*, (c. 150 CE), Libya]

The Roman Empire

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 2:** There was a vast network of trade routes across the Roman Empire aided by Rome's control of the Mediterranean Sea.

All nations in the west and south being subdued, and all to the north between the Rhine and Danube, as well as all to the east between the Cyrus and Euphrates [Rivers], the other countries, which had not fallen under the authority of Rome, reverenced a people who had conquered so many nations. The Scythians and Sarmatians [Central Asians] sent ambassadors to us, desiring our friendship. The Seres, too, and the Indians who live under the very Sun, coming with jewels and pearls, and bringing also elephants among their presents, thought they proved their respect to [Emperor] Augustus by nothing so much as the length of their journey, which they had taken four years to complete.

Source 3: Excerpt written by Publius Annius Florus, a Roman historian [Publius Annius Florus (c. 130 CE), *The Epitome of the Histories of Titus Livy*]

Learning ladder 6.13

Impacts and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify three exotic animals in this source.
2. Source 2: Describe where the Romans got their exotic animals from.
3. Explain how trade took place between Rome and China.
4. Source 2: Explain why the Romans were able to conduct trade over such vast distances.

Cause and effect

1. Why did Rome need to import food?
2. Describe what happened to trade as the Roman Empire stretched into new regions.
3. Source 2: Explain the effect of the empire's expansion on the slave trade.
4. Source 3: Explain why people outside the empire travelled to Rome bearing gifts.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

6.14

How did the ancient Romans fight?

Disciplined training and clever military tactics enabled the Roman army to conquer a vast amount of territory throughout the ancient world.

The importance of the military

Military power, brutality and violence were hallmarks of Roman society. Roman leaders were admired more for their military conquests than for their wise rule. If a Roman general won a battle, he received a triumph, and all the people of Rome would turn out to watch and applaud him. Great stone arches were erected to celebrate victories all over the empire.

Violence and cruelty were encouraged and Roman armies wreaked terror wherever they went. It was not enough for the Romans to subdue their enemies. They made sure that enemy forces suffered immensely and that no one – man, woman, child or even animals – was spared.

Source 1: Legionaries in battle. The reserves wait at the back while the cavalry attacks from the side.

1. Leaders wore tall plumes on their helmets to show their rank, and so their soldiers could see them.
2. Upper-body armour protected soldiers' chests. Leather belts held their sword and dagger. The short sword was used in close battle for stabbing the enemy.
3. About 120 cavalry soldiers were part of a **legion**. They were often landowners who were wealthy enough to own a horse. Cavalry soldiers held a long spear for thrusting and carried smaller javelins for throwing.
4. The signifer held the **century**'s **standard** or *signum* as they marched into battle. The role of signifier was a dangerous job; he had no weapon and only a small shield known as a buckler to defend himself.

Source 2: Soldiers stood side by side and overlapped their shields, forming a protective barrier. This is called the *testudo* formation: testudo is the Latin word for 'tortoise'.

> When Scipio [a Roman general] thought that a sufficient number of troops had entered he sent most of them, as is the Roman custom, against the inhabitants of the city with orders to kill all they encountered and to spare no one, and not to start pillaging until the signal was given. They do this, I think, to inspire terror, so that when towns are taken by the Romans one may often see not only the corpses of human beings, but dogs cut in half, and the dismembered limbs of other animals ...

Source 3: Polybius (c. 146 BCE), *Histories 10.15*. Polybius was a Greek historian and an eyewitness to the destruction of Carthage, a city in North Africa conquered by the Romans during the Punic Wars.

The Roman army

The Roman army was a disciplined organisation and Roman soldiers (called **legionaries**) used innovative weaponry and tactics. The army allowed Rome to build and defend a huge empire.

In the early days of the Roman Republic, only landowners could join the army. Those landowners who were wealthy enough to own a horse became part of the **cavalry**.

As the Roman Republic grew, a permanent and professional army was needed. In about 406 BCE, Roman soldiers began to be paid, with the cost of their food and equipment taken from their wages. Around 107 BCE, the requirement that men had to own land to join the army was removed, and thousands of young men aged 17 to 22 enlisted.

The Roman army was one of the most disciplined and well-organised of all time. Soldiers were put through harsh training regimes and were severely punished for refusing to obey orders.

When they were not fighting or training, Roman soldiers built military camps, walls, roads and aqueducts. Camps were always laid out the same way so that soldiers could find their way around.

Soldiers were given incentives to remain loyal to their leaders. They could often keep the plunder from battles and were given land when they retired from the army.

Learning ladder 6.14

Impact and legacies

1. Source 2: Identify the tactic shown in the source.
2. Source 1: Describe how the Roman army fought battles.
3. Explain how the Roman army had changed by 107 BCE.
4. Explain why the Roman army was so formidable.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 1: Describe the role of the signifier.
3. Source 3: Explain how the Romans destroyed the city of Carthage.
4. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the Romans destroyed the city of Carthage.
5. Evaluate the importance of violence in Roman society.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

6.15

What are the legacies of the ancient Romans?

The ancient Romans left an impressive legacy in many areas, including languages, writing, government, law, engineering and architecture.

Language and writing

The language of ancient Rome, Latin, forms the basis of the French, Italian and Spanish languages spoken today. The English language also borrows many Latin words, with about 30 per cent of our words having Latin roots, such as *aqua* (water), *aud* (to hear) and *bene* (good).

The English alphabet is based on the Latin alphabet and our months are based on the Julian calendar implemented by Julius Caesar in 45 BCE. July is named after Julius Caesar and August is named after the first emperor of Rome, Augustus. The planets in our solar system are named after ancient Roman gods.

Master builders

The ancient Romans revolutionised the construction of buildings and roads with the invention of concrete, which they made by mixing volcanic dust with lime and water.

Architects and engineers have learned a great deal from the engineering and construction methods of the ancient Romans. Their buildings were so sturdy that many are still in use today. The ancient Romans were also the first to extensively use domes and arches.

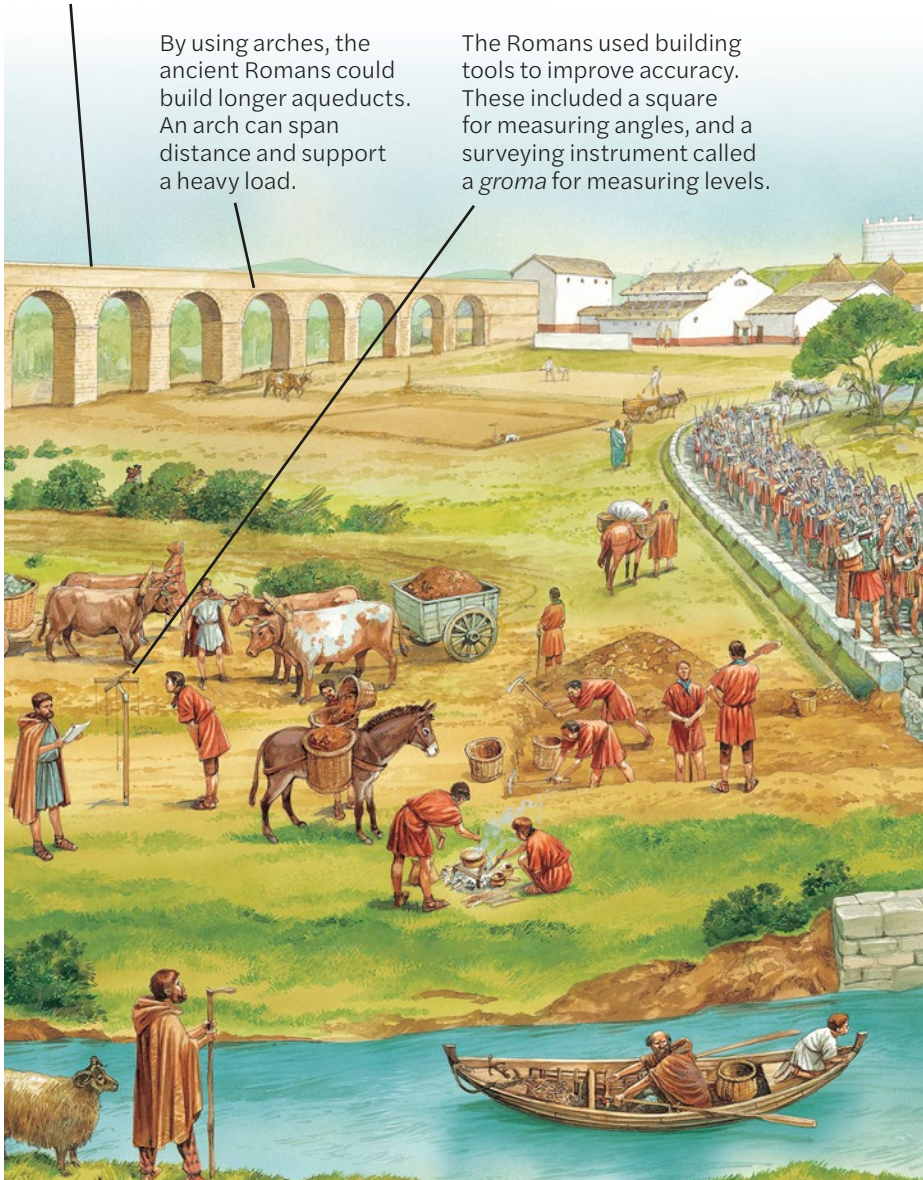
Water supply

The ancient Romans built reservoirs to store water required for daily needs and public baths. Water from rivers was pumped into settling ponds, where any dirt would settle before being pumped into the reservoirs. Pure mountain water was directed to the reservoirs via aqueducts that could run for up to 100 kilometres.

The ancient Romans used pipes to connect the reservoirs to public baths, fountains and toilets, and to the homes of the wealthy. The advanced plumbing systems of the ancient Romans also carried away wastewater and sewage.

Public baths were very popular in ancient Rome; people went to the baths to wash and socialise. The water was heated by large fires tended by slaves in a boiler room. Hot air was fed under the floors through a series of tunnels to heat the pools.

Source 1: Roads and bridges were vital technology in ancient Rome.



Source 2: The ancient Romans developed different ways of using arches, and eventually invented the dome. Domes became a feature of many public buildings. The most spectacular Roman dome is that of the Pantheon, a temple rebuilt around 120 CE. The dome has a 43-metre diameter; it is still the second-largest dome in the world.

The road network stretched all over the Roman empire. The roads in ancient Rome were usually long and straight. They had a base of crushed rock that was covered in gravel or concrete. Sometimes stone slabs were placed on top. Many roadways built by the ancient Romans are still in use today.

Learning ladder 6.15

Impacts and legacies

1. What does the Latin word aqua mean? List three English words that use aqua as the root word.
2. Describe how ancient Rome has influenced writing.
3. Source 1: Explain how roads were constructed in ancient Rome.
4. Explain why the ancient Romans constructed aqueducts.

Significance

1. List three reasons why ancient Rome is historically significant.
2. Describe the significance of the ancient Romans' invention of concrete.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Explain how the use of arches was a significant achievement.
4. Explain why ancient Roman road building was significant to the growth of the empire.
5. Evaluate the legacies of the Roman Empire.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

6.16

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on ancient Rome. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of ancient Rome. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice.

The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of ancient Rome in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The city of Rome, pages 134, 135
- The Punic Wars, page 132
- The gladiators, page 156
- The spread of Christianity in ancient Rome, page 148
- The role of women in ancient Rome, page 142

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas.

Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry. Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?

Wonder

What does it make you wonder?
What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Historical context 2 (core)

The medieval world (c. 500–1600)

7

7.0

How can I understand the medieval world?

During the medieval period, the world was a vast network of regions bound together by trade, religion, pilgrimage, war and pandemics. There were significant advances in agriculture and mining, and new cultural ideas emerged that changed societies.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: Himeji Castle was built on Mount Himeyama in Japan in the 14th century CE and reconstructed in 1577 CE. Castles in medieval Japan were fortresses for military defence that were built at strategic locations, such as on mountains and next to rivers and trade routes.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What can we learn from the medieval period?

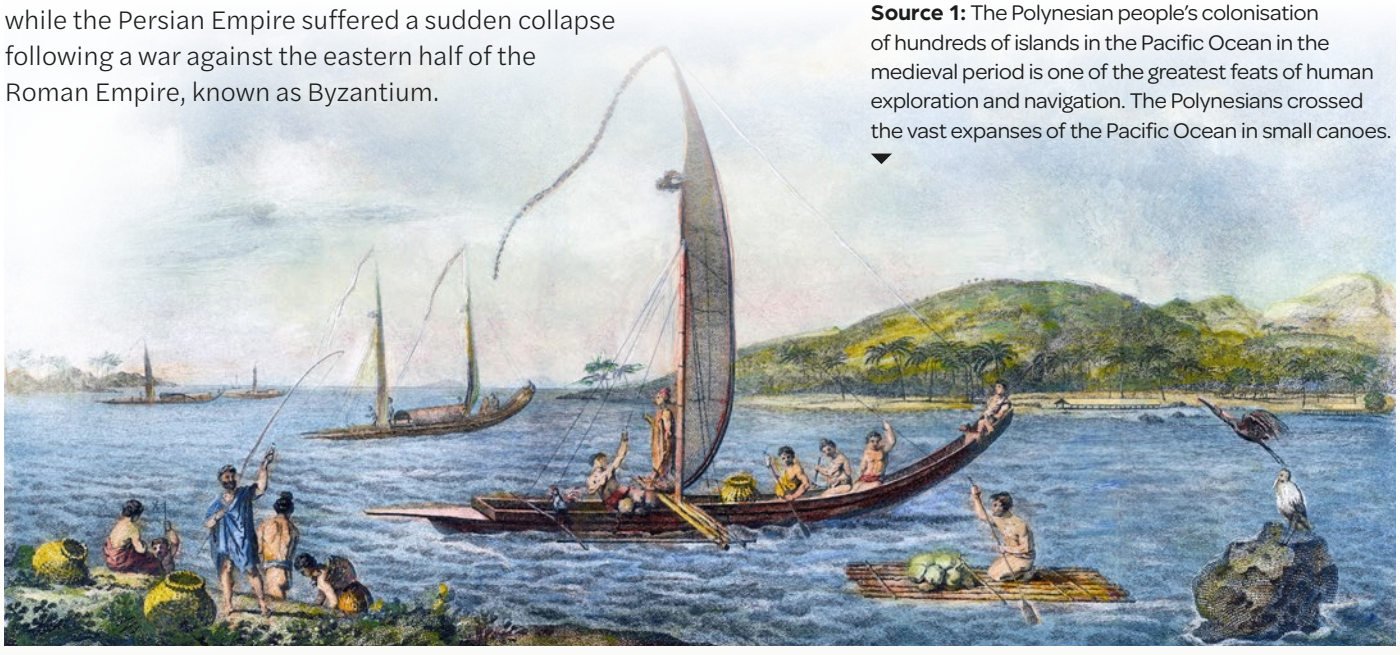
The medieval period began after the collapse of the great ancient empires in the 5th century CE.

The collapse of the ancient world

After centuries of power, the great empires of the world suffered decline and disintegration. Beyond the borders of the great empires, tribal peoples began to invade, seeking the wealth and fertile lands of the empires. The Western Roman Empire was overrun by tribes such as the Goths and the Vandals. China's Han Empire split into three rival kingdoms in 220 CE, due to internal discontent and repeated tribal invasions in the north. The Gupta Empire of India fell to the Huns in 550 CE, while the Persian Empire suffered a sudden collapse following a war against the eastern half of the Roman Empire, known as Byzantium.

The medieval period

From the ashes of the ancient empires arose new, vibrant societies. The medieval period was characterised by a vast network of powerful city-states, kingdoms and empires. Extensive trade networks and pilgrimage routes resulted in people exchanging goods and ideas from across the world, boosting economic activity and ushering in the development of new technology and cultural change.



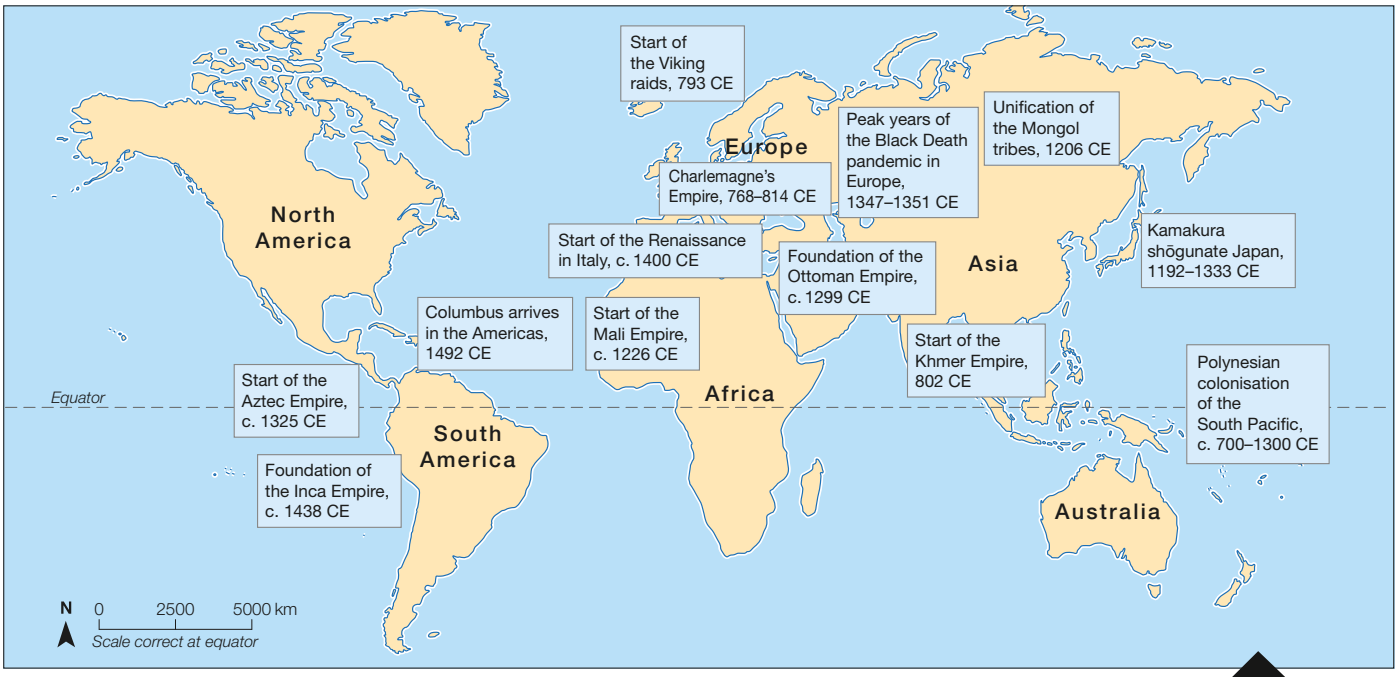
Source 1: The Polynesian people's colonisation of hundreds of islands in the Pacific Ocean in the medieval period is one of the greatest feats of human exploration and navigation. The Polynesians crossed the vast expanses of the Pacific Ocean in small canoes.

Source 2: Medieval period timeline

Key ideas timeline

- 220 CE — End of the Han Dynasty in China
- 476 CE — Fall of the Western Roman Empire
- 550 CE — End of the Gupta Empire in India
- c. 700 CE — Start of the Polynesian people's colonisation of the South Pacific
- 651 CE — Fall of the Sasanian Empire in Persia
- 768 CE — Charlemagne becomes king of the Franks
- 793 CE — Start of the Viking raids
- 802 CE — Start of the Khmer Empire
- 1192 CE — Start of the shōgunate in Japan
- 1206 CE — The Mongol tribes are united
- c. 1226 CE — Start of the Mali Empire in western Africa

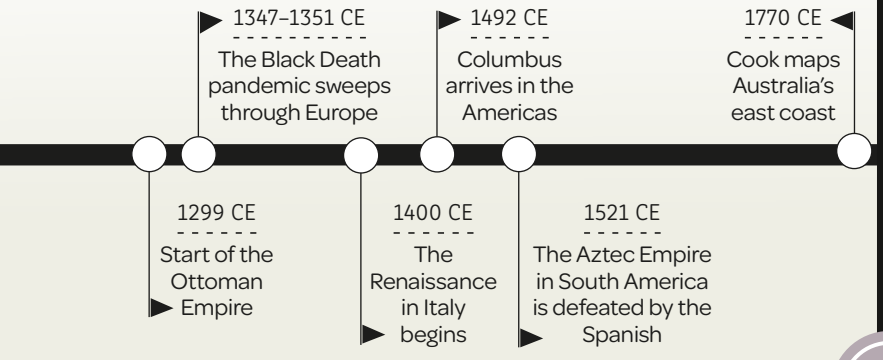
Fall of the ancient world empires 220 – 651 CE



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 3: Key dates and locations for the medieval and early modern periods

Source 4: Genghis Khan unified the Mongol tribes in 1206 CE and created a vast land empire.



Learning ladder 7.1

Background and origins

1 **a** Source 3: Identify two events that occured in Asia in the medieval period.

b Source 3: Identify two events that occured in the Americas in the medieval period.

2 Source 1: Describe how Polynesian people expanded their territory in the medieval period.

3 Explain how the ancient empires collapsed.

4 Explain why cultural change and the development of technology occurred during the medieval period.

Chronology

1 Source 2: List three events on the timeline that occurred during the 8th century CE (700s CE).

2 List the following events in order, from the oldest to the most recent:

- 1521 CE: Aztec Empire is defeated by the Spanish
- 550 CE: End of the Gupta Empire in India
- 768 CE: Charlemagne's reign begins
- 1192 CE: Start of the shōgunate in Japan.

3 Source 3: Create a timeline using the events on the map.

4 Source 2: Explain the changes that took place between 200–651 CE and 768–1299 CE.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472

What happened in Europe after the fall of the Western Roman Empire?

Following the collapse of the Western Roman Empire, Christianity played a key role in laying the political, social and cultural foundations of medieval European societies.

The fall of the Western Roman Empire

Back in 395 CE, the Roman Empire had split into two parts: the Western Roman Empire, governed from Rome, and the Eastern Roman Empire (known as Byzantium), governed from Constantinople. Due to internal weaknesses and repeated invasions, the Western Roman Empire collapsed in 476 CE when the last emperor, Romulus Augustulus, was deposed by the Gothic leader Odoacer. The Western Roman Empire was replaced by a range of new kingdoms led by the tribal invaders, such as the Kingdom of Odoacer, the Kingdom of the Visigoths and the Kingdom of the Vandals. Meanwhile, Byzantium would remain as the last remnant of the ancient Roman Empire until 1453 CE.

Christendom

The term 'Christendom' emerged after the fall of the Western Roman Empire. All lands that recognised the authority of the Christian church, including those in the old Eastern Roman Empire and the new kingdoms of Western Europe, were considered part of Christendom. In the medieval period, the Christian church had a great deal of power and authority over government, society and spiritual ideas.

The role of the pope

As the Roman Empire crumbled in the West, the church took over civil administration. The leader of the church in Rome was known as the pope. The popes became an important source of stability in medieval Europe.

Source 1: Pope Gregory I, known as 'the Great'. [This illustration appeared in a French manuscript, c. 1200 CE.]

Source 2: Giulio Cesare Arrivabene (1806–1896 CE), *The Meeting of Henry IV and Gregory VII at Canossa*. This painting shows King Henry IV, who had defied Pope Gregory VII's new ruling and been excommunicated. Barefoot and wearing a hair-shirt to show his remorse, he is begging Pope Gregory VII to end his excommunication.

Pope Gregory I (590-604 CE) was particularly active in establishing this governmental role. During his papacy, there were several invasions by the Germanic tribes and many refugees fled to Rome for safety. Pope Gregory I ensured that food, clothing and money were distributed to the poor and refugees. Gregory's efforts won the hearts and minds of the Roman people, who increasingly looked to him for leadership.

The power of the church

By the 11th century, the power of the pope and the church had increased considerably. In 1075 CE, Pope Gregory VII (1073–1085 CE) declared that the pope was the universal head of the Christian church and that he alone had the authority to depose emperors and appoint bishops. The bishops served as advisors to medieval kings and informed the pope if a king was undermining the pope's authority in any way.

Kings who defied the popes were punished with **excommunication**. If a king was excommunicated it meant that he and all the people in his kingdom were cut off from receiving the **sacraments**. People believed that if they were unable to access the sacraments, they risked going to hell when they died. During the medieval period, 16 kings were excommunicated.

Monastic communities

In addition to its political role, the church laid the cultural foundations of medieval European societies through its monastic communities. Monastic communities consisted of monks (men) or nuns (women) who had devoted themselves to a life of prayer. Medieval Christians considered prayer to be an essential activity, as they thought it appeased God and ensured them safety from war, famine and diseases.

Members of monastic communities also nursed the sick, gave lodgings to travellers and cared for the poor. They sent missionaries to the far reaches of northern Europe to convert people from local polytheistic religions to Christianity. Monks and nuns also composed new types of choral music for religious services, encouraged the development of art to beautify their religious houses, and studied and preserved the classical learning of ancient Greece.

Source 3: This 16th-century illustration shows nuns caring for the sick in the Hotel-Dieu (God's shelter) in Paris. The Hotel-Dieu was founded by the Catholic Church in 829 CE to care for the destitute, infirm and the sick.

Learning ladder 7.2

Background and origins

1. Source 3: Identify the activity shown in the source.
2. Describe the term 'Christendom'.
3. Explain the role of monastic communities in European medieval societies.
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the power of the popes to excommunicate kings shaped European medieval societies.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the important change in Western Europe that occurred in 476 CE.
2. Describe how monastic communities promoted cultural continuity and change in Europe.
3. Explain how the fall of the Western Roman Empire demonstrates continuity and change in Europe.
4. Explain why the power of the popes changed in Western Europe.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

What was medieval society like?

Most societies in the medieval period were hierarchical, with a few rich and powerful individuals at the top and a large mass of poor and powerless people at the bottom. This structure ensured order, but also meant that the rights of most people were limited.

Social groups

At the top of most medieval societies were rulers (such as popes, caliphs, kings, sultans and emperors). These rulers held both political and religious power. They claimed to be descended from the gods or that their right to rule was a 'divine right' (ordained by the gods). The rulers were supported by **nobles** (wealthy people) and religious leaders (such as bishops or high priests). **Warriors** (including knights and samurai) fought for the rulers and nobles, and sometimes for religious leaders as well.

The majority of people (over 90 per cent) in the medieval period were **peasants**. Peasants were farmers who grew crops and raised animals, often on land owned by rulers, nobles or warriors. The peasants' work was critical as they were responsible for producing food for everyone in their kingdom. But peasants' lives were very difficult, and most died by the age of 40.

By the 1200s CE, medieval towns began to grow rapidly, due to increased trade and improvements to agriculture. As towns grew wealthier, more people left the land and moved to live in towns. The growth of towns led to improved levels of education and greater freedoms.

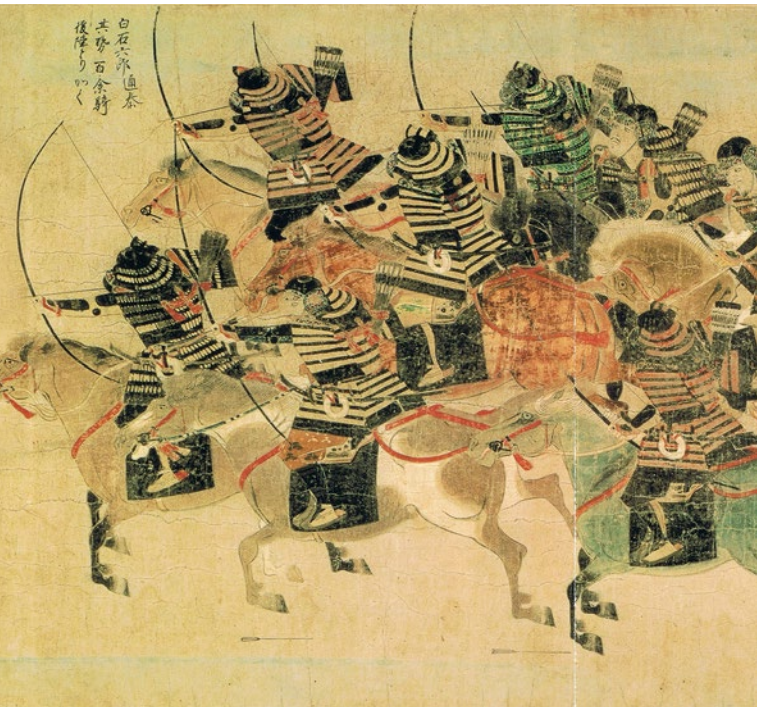
Slavery

Slavery was widespread during the medieval and early modern periods. In some parts of the medieval world, people were enslaved by those in their own society as a punishment for breaking the law or falling into debt. In other societies, people became enslaved after being captured in war.

Sources for medieval society

Numerous sources explain the lives of the wealthy and powerful, but we have far fewer sources for peasants or slaves. This is because only the ruling classes were able to read and write during the medieval period. Only they were wealthy enough to commission artworks or own precious artefacts that had been preserved through the ages. In contrast, the poor were unable to read and write, and the artefacts they owned tended to be everyday items that gradually deteriorated. Therefore, much of what we know about the lives of peasants and slaves is written from the perspective of the wealthy.

Sources about the lives of women and children, even from noble classes, are also limited compared to the number of sources available on the lives of men. Only a small number of noble women were able to receive an education and write of their own experiences. Much of their first-hand accounts of life in the medieval period survive in letters, religious writings and legal documents.



Source 1: This scene from the *Illustrated Account of the Mongol Invasion* (1293 CE) shows the Japanese cavalry riding to the rescue of one of their leaders. It was commissioned by samurai warrior Takezaki Suenaga to record his heroic deeds during the Mongol invasions of Japan.

My daughter, the perfect natural love that I have for you … recognising the imminent, sudden, and early death that I expect at any moment … gives me the desire and the determination to prepare a few little lessons for you while I am still with you, knowing well your inexperience and extreme youth and hoping that in time you will recall these lessons and that they will help you a little …

The first and main point, more important than all others, is that earnestly, and with all your faith and strength, you are careful not to do, say, or think anything that will make God angry at you.

Next, my daughter, to continue our discussion, in great humility of heart consider and recognise who you are and what you come from: a pitiful and depraved creation when it comes to the body, [but] excellent and noble when it comes to the soul …

Source 2: Extract from *Lessons for My Daughter* by Anne of France, c. 1490 CE. Anne of France (1461–1522) was the daughter of King Louis XI and one of the most powerful women in medieval France. She wrote this book for her daughter, Suzanne of Bourbon. [Sharon L. Jansen (2004), *Anne of France: Lessons for my Daughter*, D.S. Brewer, Cambridge, pp. 25–27.

Source 3: Boys attending a *maktab* (religious school). In this source, one boy recites his lesson for the teacher, while another boy works the ceiling fan. Usually, noble families paid for their son to attend a maktab, while poorer students ran errands for the teacher in exchange for their tuition. [Yahya ibn Mahmud al-Wasiti (1237 CE), *Maqamat of al-Hariri*]

Source 4: Scene from the illustrated manuscript the *Grimani Breviary* (c. 1510 CE), showing peasants working in the fields. This book was made for the enjoyment of nobles – it was owned by Cardinal Grimani, a wealthy churchman.

Learning ladder 7.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the main social groups in medieval society.
2. Describe the role played by peasants.
3. Explain how people became enslaved during the medieval period.
4. Explain why most of the sources available to historians for the medieval period are about male rulers and nobles.
5. What is the impact of the limited range of sources on our understanding of the medieval period?

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the social class of the person who commissioned this source.
2. Source 3: Describe the scene in this source.
3. Source 2: Explain Anne of France's advice to her daughter.
4. Sources 2 and 3: Explain why these sources on the lives of women and children are available.
5. Source 4: How accurate is this source's depiction of peasant life? Explain your reasoning.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

7.4

How influential was religion in the medieval world?

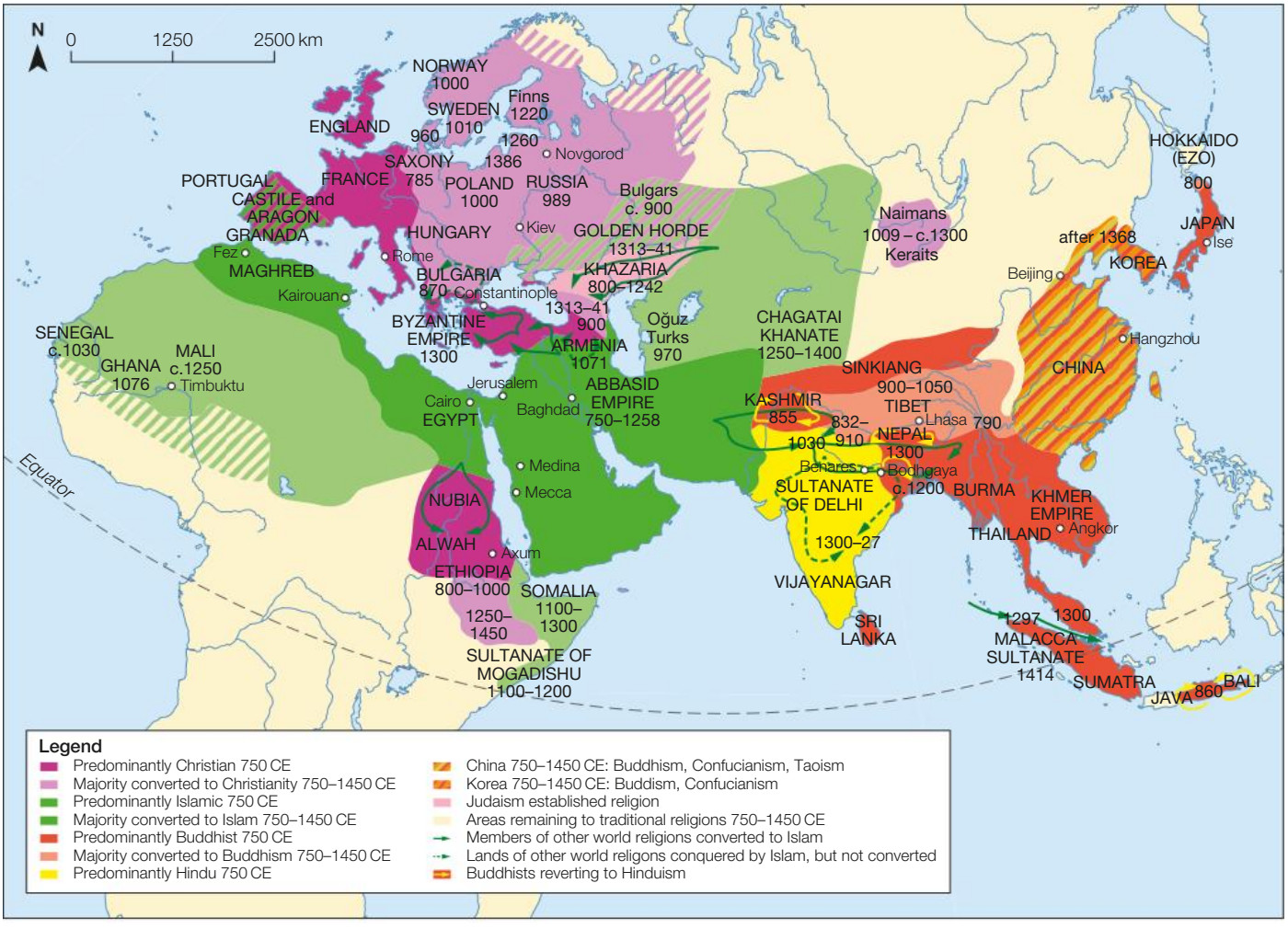
During the medieval period, the major religions of the time – especially Buddhism, Christianity and Islam – grew and spread throughout the world.

Religion

Trade, invasion, pilgrimage and missionary activity helped to spread Buddhism, Christianity and Islam across the medieval world, especially in towns and cities. While these religions grew in popularity, the number of people practising local **polytheistic religions** (the worship of more than one god) declined.

Many people were attracted to the 'universal truths' about moral behaviour that were contained in Christianity, Islam and Buddhism. They began to identify with people of the same faith, rather than with people who lived in the same area. People also began to take long journeys to holy sites. These journeys were known as **pilgrimages**, and the people who made the journeys were known as pilgrims. On the way to the holy sites, pilgrims would often meet people who shared

Religion in the medieval world



Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** Islam spread quickly across the Christian Mediterranean world, while Christian missionaries travelled to Africa, Scandinavia and Russia. Buddhism extended into Tibet, China, South-East Asia, Korea and Japan.

Source 2: Borobudur in Indonesia is the largest Buddhist temple in the world. Built in the 9th century CE, medieval pilgrims travelled for weeks and months on foot, by boat, on horseback or rode elephants to find the enlightenment that was signified by this Buddhist monument.

their religion but spoke different languages and had different ethnic backgrounds. Through religion, many people gained a sense of identity and belonging with people from other parts of the world.

Buddhism

Buddhism is based on the teachings of Siddhartha Gautama (the Buddha), who lived sometime in the 4th to 6th centuries BCE in Nepal and India. Buddhism involves learning how to achieve spiritual enlightenment. Two main forms of Buddhism emerged: Theravada, practised mainly in South-East Asia; and Mahayana, practised in East Asia. Zen Buddhism – which emphasises wisdom as a way to attain enlightenment – is a school of Mahayana Buddhism.

Christianity

Christianity was originally an offshoot of **Judaism**. Christians believe that Jesus Christ is God's messiah, sent to prepare the world for the kingdom of God. Christianity's central teaching is to love God and to treat others as you would like to be treated yourself. In the medieval period, Christianity spread from the Middle East to India, Persia (now Iran), China, Central Asia, Europe and Africa.

In 1054 CE, European Christianity began to split into two factions: Orthodox and Catholic. Orthodox Christians are led by a patriarch, while Catholic Christians are led by the pope in Rome.

Islam

Islam was founded in Arabia by the Prophet Muhammad following a divine revelation in 610 CE. People who follow the faith of Islam are called **Muslims**. Muhammad's teachings and revelations were written down in the Muslim holy book, the Quran. Islam's core teaching is submission to the will of God. Islam split into two factions – Sunni and Shiite – in the early 660s CE.

During the medieval period, Muslim warriors captured all of Arabia and then conquered the Middle East, North Africa and Spain to create an Islamic Empire.

Learning ladder 7.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the three major religions that expanded during the medieval period.
2. Source 1: Describe the religious diversity found in Asia during the medieval period.
3. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the Islamic faith spread.
4. Complete the table below to compare Buddhism, Christianity and Islam.

Religion	Leading figure	Key beliefs	Forms
Buddhism			
Christianity			
Islam			

Cause and effect

1. Identify three causes for the spread of the major religions across the medieval world.
2. Describe the effect of the spread of the major religions on polytheistic religions.
3. Explain the effect of pilgrimages.
4. Source 1: Explain why Christian pilgrimage to Jerusalem might have been a cause of tension during the medieval period.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

Site study

Why is Jerusalem an important city?

As the site of the Jewish Temple of Jerusalem, the place of Jesus's crucifixion and resurrection, and the destination of Muhammad's Night Journey, the city of Jerusalem in the Middle East is important for the religions of Judaism, Christianity and Islam.

Byzantine rule

From 313–635 CE, Jerusalem lay within the Byzantine Empire's Palestinian provinces. Christianity was widely practised and churches were constructed throughout the Holy Land. The original Church of the Holy Sepulchre was built in 335 CE on the site of Jesus's crucifixion and tomb. Monasteries were also established in the area, including the Holy Monastery of the Sacred Cross and the Monastery of Saint George.

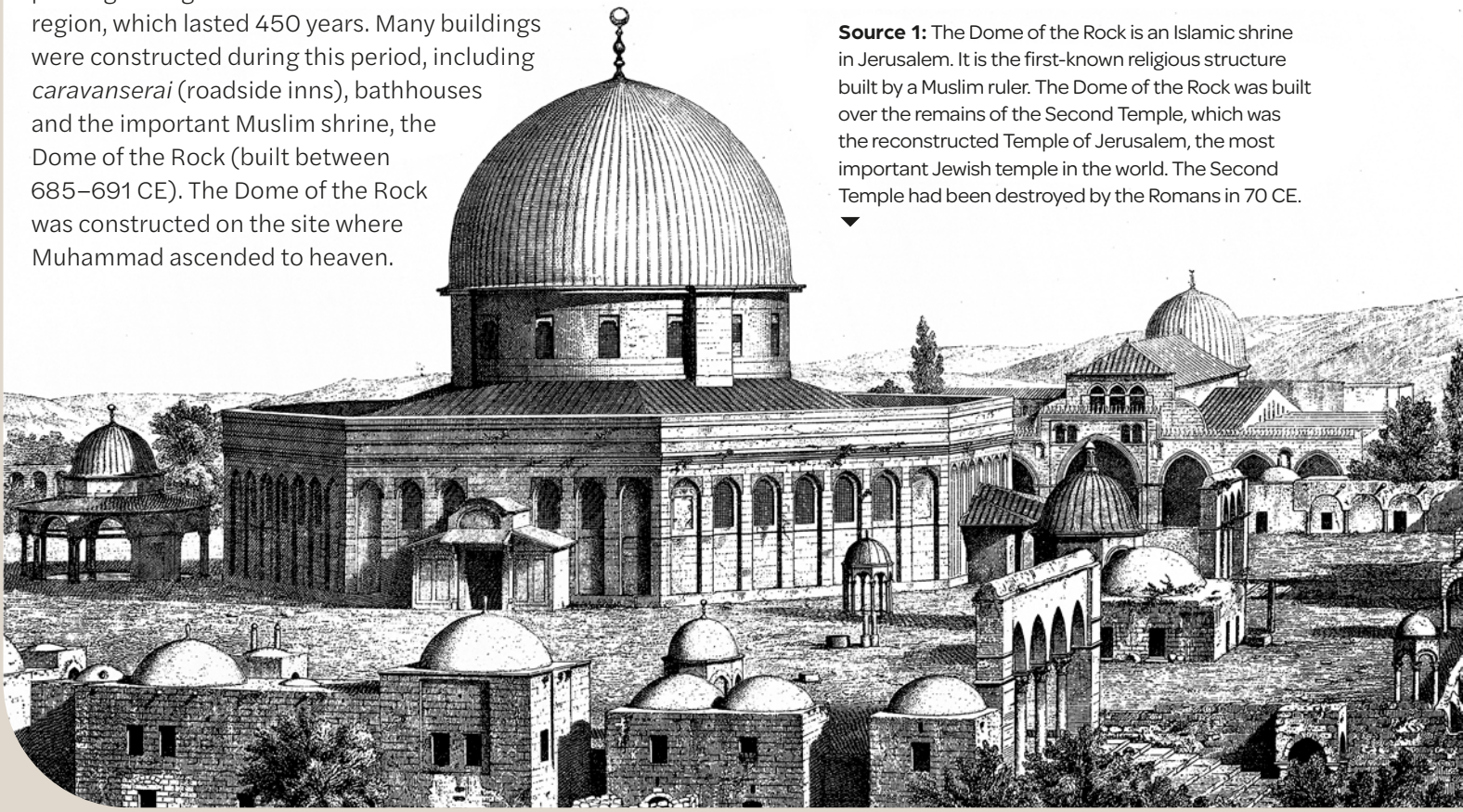
Muslim rule

In 635 CE, Caliph Umar took control of Jerusalem when the city was surrendered by its leaders after a prolonged siege. He established Muslim rule in the region, which lasted 450 years. Many buildings were constructed during this period, including *caravanserai* (roadside inns), bathhouses and the important Muslim shrine, the Dome of the Rock (built between 685–691 CE). The Dome of the Rock was constructed on the site where Muhammad ascended to heaven.

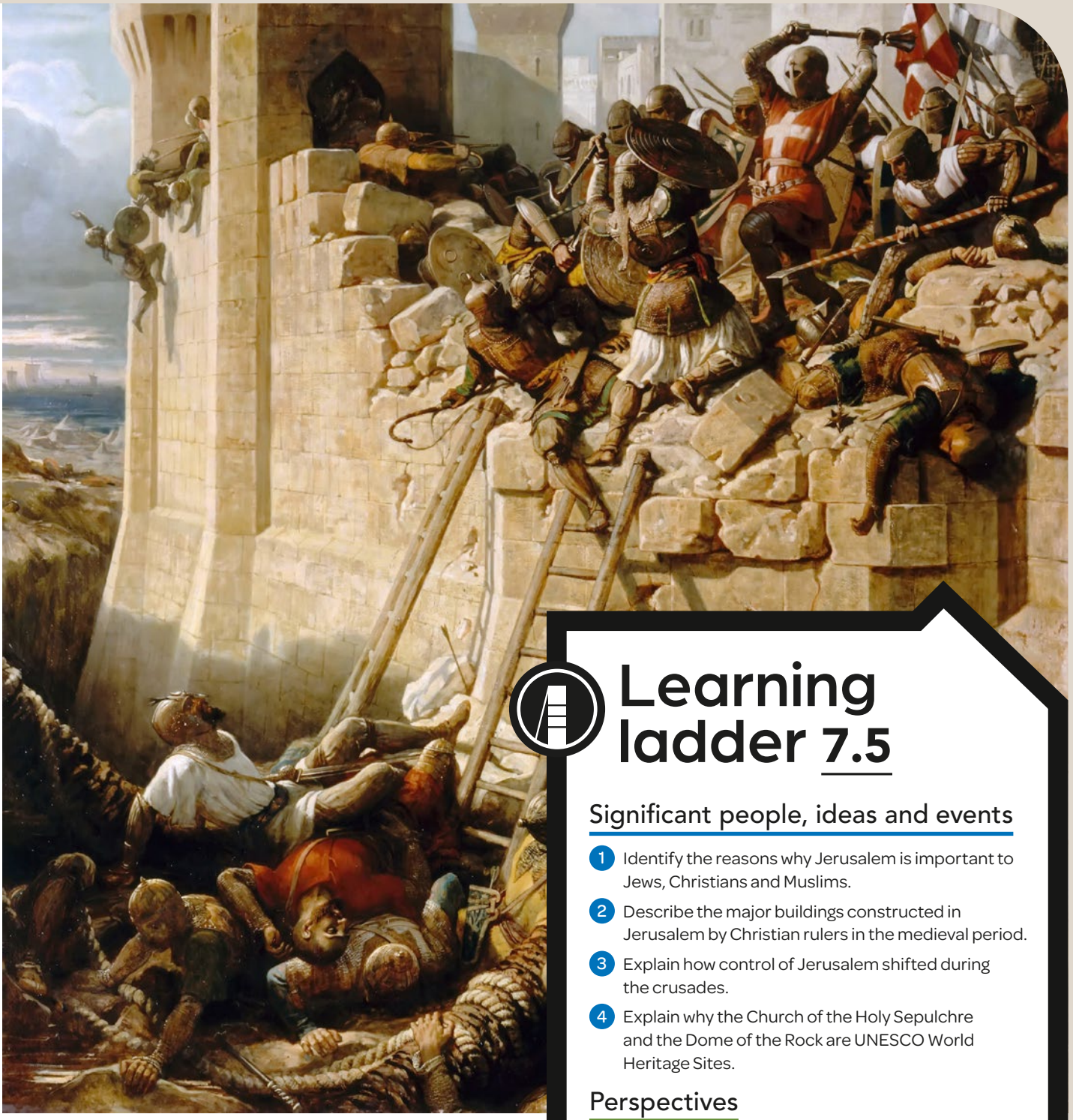
The crusader kingdoms

In 1095 CE, Pope Urban II called on Catholic Christians to undertake a holy war, known as a **crusade**. The object of the First Crusade (1096–1099 CE) was the recapture of Jerusalem. The First Crusade was successful and led to the establishment of Christian kingdoms throughout the Holy Land.

In 1187 CE, Muslim leader Saladin recaptured Jerusalem for Muslim forces. Although Christian forces launched the Third Crusade in an attempt to recapture the city, it would not return to Christian control until 1229 CE, during the Sixth Crusade.



Source 1: The Dome of the Rock is an Islamic shrine in Jerusalem. It is the first-known religious structure built by a Muslim ruler. The Dome of the Rock was built over the remains of the Second Temple, which was the reconstructed Temple of Jerusalem, the most important Jewish temple in the world. The Second Temple had been destroyed by the Romans in 70 CE.



Source 2: The siege of Acre took place in 1291 CE. Acre was the last Christian stronghold in the Kingdom of Jerusalem. The fall of Acre to the Mamluks marked the end of Christian crusades to capture the Holy Land. [Dominique Papety (1815–1849 CE), *Guillaume de Clermont Defending the Walls at the Siege of Acre, 1291.*] Dominique Papety was a French artist.

Mamluk rule

The Mamluks were originally slave warriors under the control of Muslim leaders. They established their own powerful empire in 1250 CE. The Mamluks defeated the last crusader kingdoms and ruled Jerusalem from 1291 CE to 1516 CE.

Learning ladder 7.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the reasons why Jerusalem is important to Jews, Christians and Muslims.
2. Describe the major buildings constructed in Jerusalem by Christian rulers in the medieval period.
3. Explain how control of Jerusalem shifted during the crusades.
4. Explain why the Church of the Holy Sepulchre and the Dome of the Rock are UNESCO World Heritage Sites.

Perspectives

1. Source 2: Identify the perspective of the artist. Whose side is he on?
2. Describe the significance of Jerusalem from the perspective of Christians.
3. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the differences between the Muslim and Jewish perspectives on the site where the Dome of the Rock was built.
4. Source 2: Explain why the Siege of Acre was a significant event from both the Christian and the Mamluk perspectives.

HOW TO
Perspectives, page 484

7.6

What was the Magna Carta?

The Magna Carta was a revolutionary document which established a set of rights and freedoms that limited the power of the English monarch. But were these rights for everyone?

The signing of the Magna Carta

King John of England (1199–1216 CE) was not well-liked. He went to war many times and lost almost all of England's holdings in France. He made his subjects pay very high taxes and, when his nobles could not pay, he took their sons hostage. He was also said to be very cruel, often throwing his subjects into prison and starving them to death.

In 1215 CE, nobles in England, backed by the church, called for King John to stop demanding high taxes for his unpopular and disastrous wars against France. They forced King John to sign a document, known as the **Magna Carta** (Great Charter), which outlined the rights of the nobles.

When John died in 1216 CE, his young son Henry became king. King Henry III issued new versions of the Magna Carta in 1216 CE, 1217 CE and finally in 1225 CE. The Magna Carta of 1225 CE would become the final version.

Rights and freedoms

The Magna Carta established that the king had to consult an assembly of 25 nobles if he wanted to raise taxes. In addition, 'no free man' was to be arrested or imprisoned unless he had been found guilty of a crime in a court of law. Further sections of the Magna Carta protected the freedoms of the church, the freedoms of towns and the rights of widows. Importantly, the Magna Carta also stated that the king had to obey the law like everyone else.

Freedom for all?

The vast majority of people in England at the time the Magna Carta was signed were peasants. Peasants consisted of freemen and serfs. Ten per cent of peasants were freemen who lived on the land of a noble (known as a lord) but owned their land. In contrast, serfs were farmers who lived on the land of a lord and did *not* own their own land. Unlike freemen, serfs were bound to the land of the lord.Being bound to the land meant that serfs had to work the lord's land and could not leave the lord's estate unless they had permission.

Source 1: The nobles and the bishops force King John to sign the Magna Carta, 1215 CE.

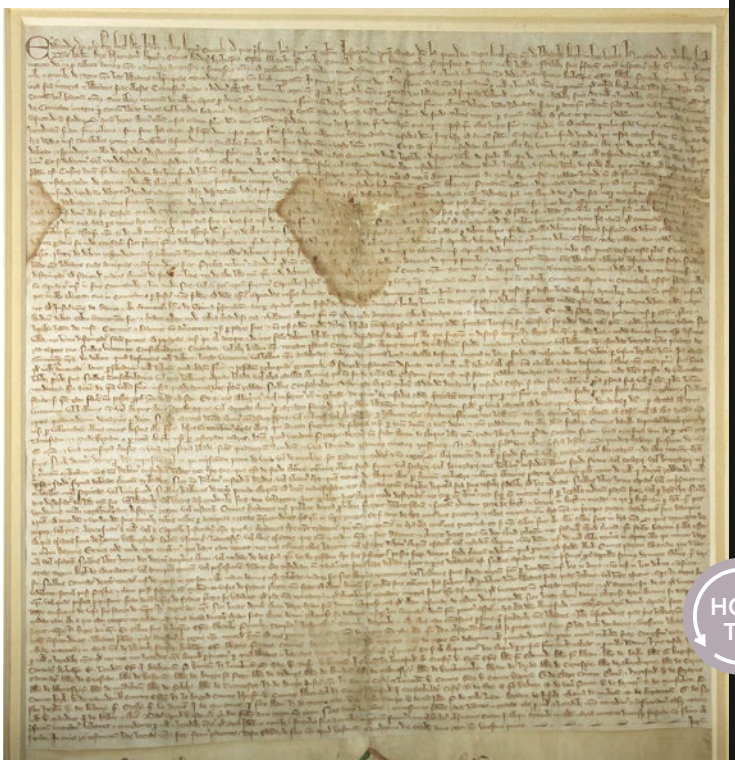
> No free man shall be taken or imprisoned, or be disseised [dispossessed] of his property, or liberties, or free customs, or be outlawed, or exiled, or in any other ways destroyed; nor will we pass judgement upon him, nor condemn him, unless he breaks the law of the land. We will sell to no man, we will not deny or defer to any man, either justice or right.
>
> **Source 2:** Chapter 29, the Magna Carta (1215 CE)

The Magna Carta really only protected the rights of a few hundred nobles. Only nobles were allowed to sit on the assembly and decide how much tax was to be paid. Knights, townsfolk, freemen and serfs had no say. Furthermore, only 'free men' were entitled to protection under the law. Women had no protection or representation, and in most cases were denied the opportunity to give evidence in court. Moreover, while 'free men' included men who were knights, townsfolk and peasants, serfs (whether male or female) were not protected under the law. They could therefore be treated unfairly by the lords on whose estates they worked.

Peasants and the Magna Carta

The Magna Carta was proclaimed throughout England, with copies sent to every county and cathedral with orders that it be read aloud to the people twice a year.

Source 3: A 1297 CE copy of the Magna Carta, on display in the Members' Hall of Parliament House, Canberra



In spite of its limitations, by the 1250s CE, many people were referring to the Magna Carta in court to protect their rights. In c.1320 CE, the peasants of Bocking, Essex, went to the manorial court to complain about one of the officials working on the lord's estate. In their petition they argued that they should be judged by their peers in accordance with 'the Great Charter' rather than suffer the official's harsh punishments, which had brought them to 'ruin and distress'.

The significance of the Magna Carta

The Magna Carta may have begun as an attempt to protect the rights of nobles, but in time it helped create a society based on the rule of law and parliamentary representation. It has had a significant impact on the Australian Constitution, which upholds the rule of law and trial by jury, and enshrines the existence of parliament.

Learning ladder 7.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 3: Identify the key document shown in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the events that led to the introduction of the Magna Carta.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the rights and freedoms established by the Magna Carta.
4. Explain why the nobles wanted the king to sign the Magna Carta.
5. Source 3: Why is the Magna Carta on display in Parliament House in Canberra?

Contestability

1. Identify the debate about the Magna Carta.
2. Describe the difference between peasants and freemen.
3. Explain how the Magna Carta protected:
   - **a** the rights of noble men
   - **b** the rights of women
   - **c** the rights of peasants.
4. Explain why the peasants of Bocking used the Magna Carta to assert their rights.
5. Analyse the extent to which the Magna Carta protected people's rights and freedoms.

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

7.7

What cross-cultural interactions took place?

Increased trade and travel led to greater wealth, new products and new ideas spreading across the world

The Silk Road

The **Silk Road** was an overland trade route that connected Asia and Europe. It was used by traders for over 1500 years: from c. 130 BCE, when the Han dynasty started trading, to c. 1453 CE, when the Ottoman Empire closed off trade with the West.

Despite the name, silk was not the only product that was traded. Spices, tea, salt, ivory, ceramics, slaves, precious gems and ideas were all transported across vast distances to and from markets in the cities of of Chang'an (now Xi'an), Baghdad, Cairo and Constantinople (now Istanbul).

The use of the Silk Road started declining in the early 800s CE, due to the growth of the Islamic empires, which disrupted trade between Asia and Europe. However, in the 13th century CE, the expansion of the Mongol Empire across Asia, the Middle East and eastern Europe allowed trade to thrive across Afro-Eurasia.

At the eastern end of the Silk Road, the trade route fanned out into South-East Asia, connecting markets in India and China to those in the Khmer Empire, Japan, the Philippines and Indonesia. Products such as rice, fish, tea, ceramics and cloth were exchanged, along with spices, medicines and swords. Buddhism and Hinduism spread into South-East Asia through these networks.

The spice trade

Spices – such as cinnamon, cardamom, nutmeg, sandalwood, ginger, turmeric and pepper – had been **exported** from Asia to the Middle East and Europe since ancient times.

The spice trade expanded greatly during the medieval period, due to advances in navigation and shipbuilding by Islamic mariners. Spices were highly prized in Europe and the Middle East. Merchants who could sell spices to these markets became extremely wealthy.

Source 1: The West Market in Chang'an in north-central China was located at the start of the great trade route known as the Silk Road. It was a vibrant hub, where gold and silver artefacts, gemstones, glassware, spices, silk, porcelain and tea were traded.

In the early medieval period, Islamic mariners' control of the spice trade enabled caliphates (Muslim states) to become rich and powerful. Merchants from the Italian city-states of Venice and Genoa signed treaties with Muslim rulers so that they could buy the spices from Muslim traders. They then sold them in European markets, becoming extremely wealthy in the process.

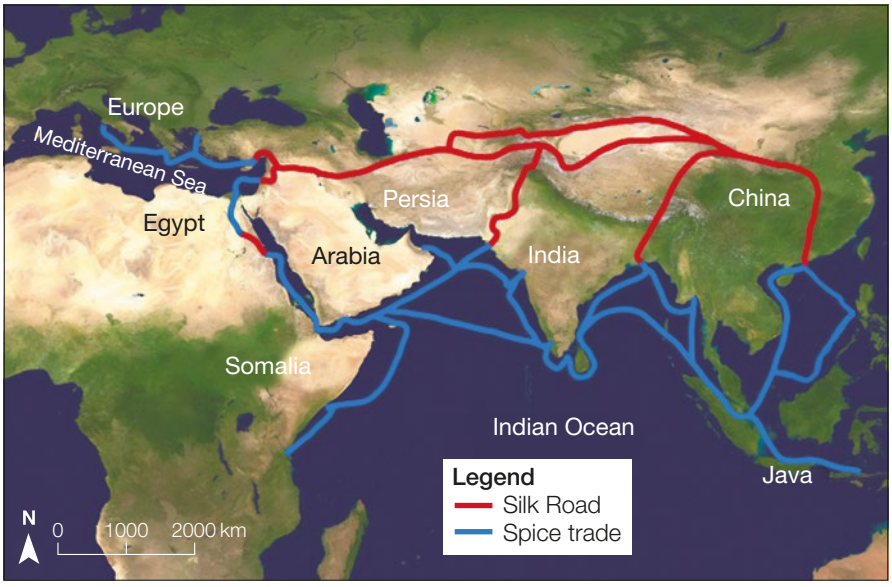
The spread of knowledge

Trade and travel led to the spread of ideas, knowledge, technologies and religious beliefs across the world. Scholars from Europe were keen to read the writings of medieval Islamic scholars to refine their understanding of medicine, botany, optics, mechanics and astronomy.

This sharing of ideas led to advances in science and medicine. For example, by building on the work of Islamic physician Ḥunayn ibn Isḥāq (9th century CE), medieval doctors in Europe, North Africa and the Middle East were were able to surgically treat cataracts and infections of the eye by the 13th century CE, effectively curing 40 per cent of patients with these conditions.

Another medieval achievement was the invention of fully mechanical clocks, which were developed in northern Europe in the late 13th century CE.

The key trade routes of the medieval world



Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 2:** This map shows the Silk Road (in red) and the routes of the spice trade (in blue).

This invention was inspired by the water clocks that had been designed by the ancient Greeks and mechanised by Islamic scholars in the 9th century CE.

Learning ladder 7.7

Impact and legacies

1. Source 2: Identify the two major trade routes in the medieval world.
2. Source 2: Using the source, describe the Silk Road.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how spices were transported and sold to markets in Europe.
4. Explain why the Silk Road declined and then expanded during the medieval period.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify three products sold at Chang'an.
2. Describe the effect of trade and travel across the medieval world.
3. Explain how new scientific ideas emerged in the medieval period.
4. Explain why the spice trade had a significant effect on the medieval world.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

Key individual

Who was the Lion King?

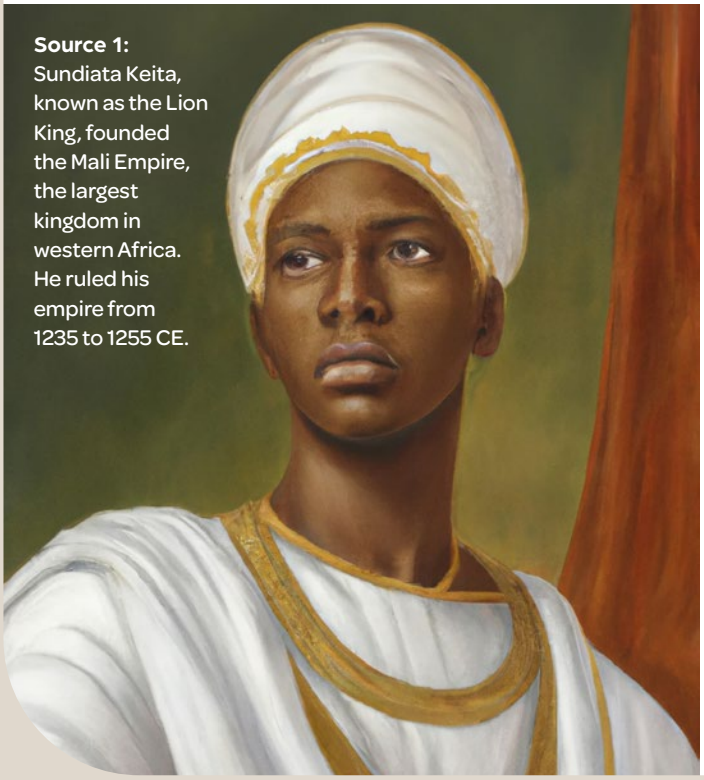
In the medieval world, the Mali Empire was a wealthy, powerful society that had been founded by Sundiata Keita, the Lion King.

The king of Mali

The name Sundiata Keita means 'lion king'. Sudiata was a west African monarch who founded the Mali Empire. He was born in the early 13th century CE to a noble family from the small kingdom of Kangaba located near the upper Niger River, near the modern-day border of Mali and Guinea. He died in 1255 CE.

The foundation of the Mali Empire

In 1235 CE, Sundiata successfully led an army against the powerful Sosso king Sumanguru at the Battle of Kirina. Sundiata then sent his army into the surrounding areas, conquering the lands of the Ghana Empire and establishing the Mali Empire. Sundiata's empire covered a large area of western Africa, including present-day Mali, Senegal, Guinea, the Ivory Coast, the north of Burkina Faso and the west of Niger. In 1240 CE, Sundiata's army seized the city of Kumbi, utterly destroying the capital of the Ghana Empire and cementing the Lion King's rule.



Source 1: Sundiata Keita, known as the Lion King, founded the Mali Empire, the largest kingdom in western Africa. He ruled his empire from 1235 to 1255 CE.

The wealth of the Mali Empire

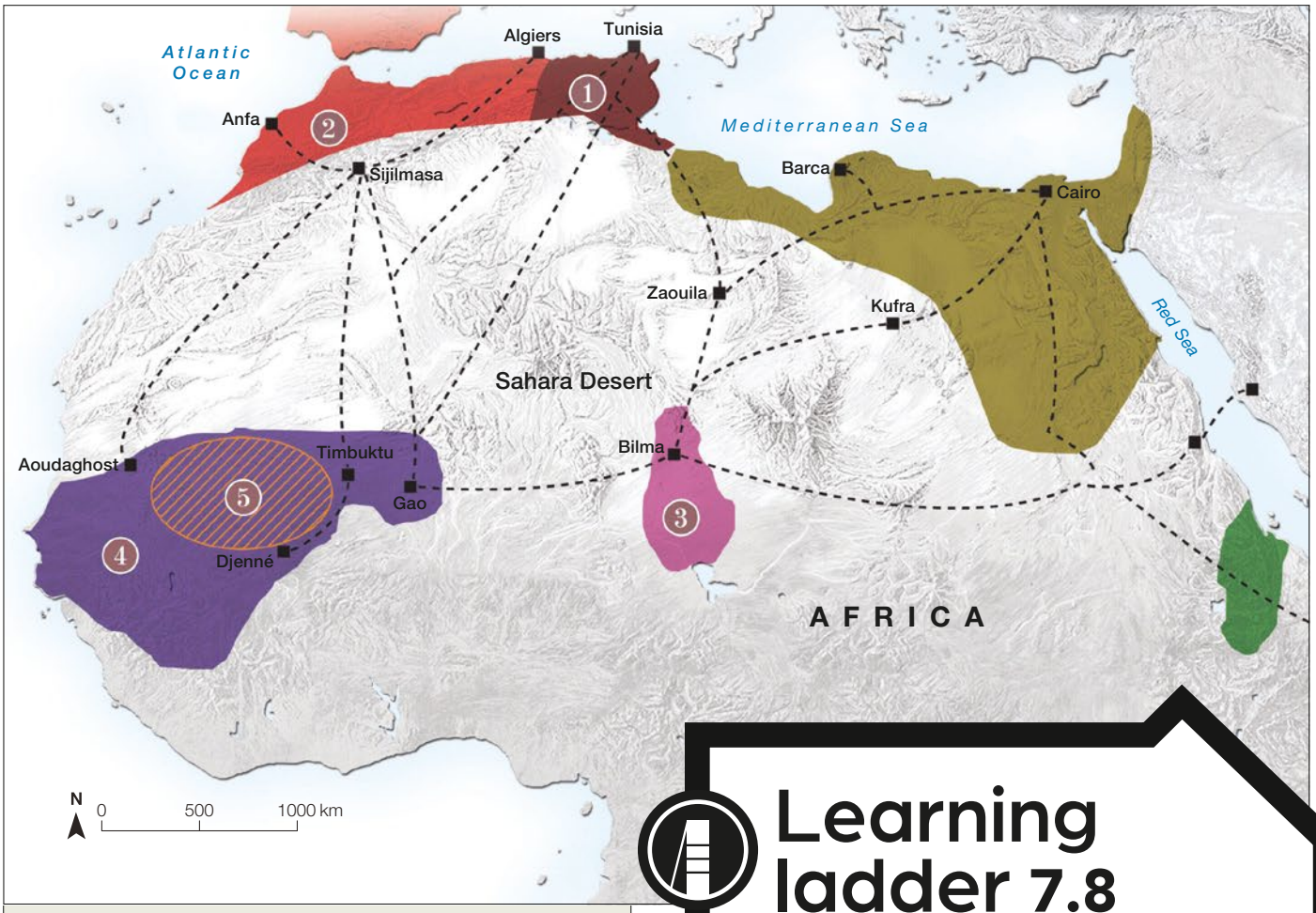
After establishing his empire, Sundiata made the city of Niani in north-east Guinea his imperial capital. Niani became one of the most important trade centres in sub-Saharan Africa. By trading valuable products, including gold and salt, the Mali Empire became rich.

Sundiata Keita's grandson (or great-nephew) Mūsā I ruled Mali from 1307 CE to 1332 CE, which was when the empire was at its peak. Under Mūsā, the Mali Empire conquered the lands of central Niger, including the major trading cities of Timbuktu and Gao.

In 1324 CE, Mūsā, a Muslim, made a pilgrimage to Mecca, the holiest of Muslim cities. Mūsā took with him 60 000 men (including 12 000 slaves) and 80 camels. He brought gold, silk and brocade, and spent lavishly. His enormous wealth made a huge impression on the rulers of northern Africa and Europe.

During his reign, Mūsā established close ties with important Muslim leaders and established Timbuktu as a key centre of Islamic scholarship. He ordered the construction of the famous Djinguereber Mosque in Timbuktu in 1327 CE.

Source: Alamy



Legend

1 Ḥafṣid dynasty
Ḥafṣid was a Muslim dynasty of the 13th to 16th centuries CE. It exported olive oil, wheat, dried fruits, leather and fabrics. It imported wine, paper, weapons and precious stones.

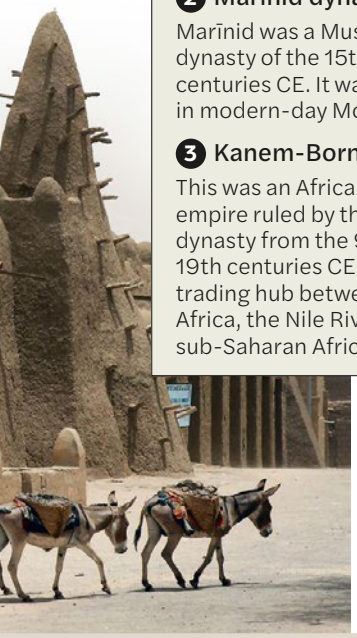
2 Marīnid dynasty
Marīnid was a Muslim dynasty of the 15th and 16th centuries CE. It was located in modern-day Morocco.

3 Kanem-Bornu Empire
This was an African trading empire ruled by the Sef dynasty from the 9th to the 19th centuries CE. It was a trading hub between North Africa, the Nile River and sub-Saharan Africa.

4 Mali Empire
The Mali Empire was in charge of sub-Saharan trade between the 8th and 11th centuries CE. It exported ivory, gold and salt.

5 Ghana Empire
The Ghana Empire exported ivory, gold and salt between the 8th and 11th centuries CE to North Africa, the Middle East and Europe.

Source 2: African empires and their trade routes in the medieval period



Source 3: Mūsā I was said to have paid his architect 200 kilograms of gold to design the Djinguereber Mosque in Timbuktu. The mosque is made almost entirely of compacted earth and wood.

Learning ladder 7.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify three empires engaged in trans-Saharan trade.
2. Source 2: Describe the goods produced in these two territories:
   a The Ḥafṣid dynasty **b** The Mali Empire.
3. Source 2: Explain how the goods produced in the Mali Empire reached Tunisia and Cairo.
4. Using the sources and your knowledge, explain why the Mali Empire was significant in the medieval period.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the 'Lion King'.
2. Source 3: Describe the significant building shown in the source.
3. Explain how Sundiata Keita became a significant leader.
4. Explain why Mūsā was a significant leader.
5. Do you think Sundiata or Mūsā was the most significant leader in medieval Mali? Justify your choice.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

7.9

How did European society change?

The expansion of trade, developments in technology and cultural exchanges led to great changes in European society.

Art and architecture

European art and architecture developed significantly during the medieval period. In the early medieval period, much of the art was based on Roman influences and included mosaics and wall paintings.

From the 11th century CE, the **Romanesque style** developed. Romanesque art features bright colours and large murals. Architecture in the Romanesque style is known for its arches and thick stone walls. Stained glass dates from this period.

The **Gothic style** was dominant from the 12th century CE. Gothic-style architecture includes flying buttress supports and ribbed, vaulted ceilings that enabled medieval builders to construct tall cathedrals. Stained glass was further developed in the 12th century CE.

While realistic sculptures were created throughout the medieval period – based on the styles pioneered in ancient Greece and Rome – most medieval artists depicted figures in two dimensions. However, by the start of the 14th century CE, medieval artists such as Giotto di Bondone (c. 1267–1337 CE), Ambrogio Lorenzetti (c. 1285–1348 CE) and Fra Angelico (c. 1400–1455 CE) began to develop new works of art that contained depth and perspective.

Although art changed greatly during the medieval period, the role of the Christian church as a patron of the arts remained. Cathedrals, churches, monasteries and other religious buildings were highly decorated, and most of the art during this period depicted religious figures and stories.

Source 1: This fresco is called *The Annunciation* and was painted by Fra Angelico around 1447 CE. This work demonstrates the developing ideas about perspective in medieval art.

Scientific development

Scientific understanding in Europe also underwent significant development in the medieval period. In collaboration with scientists from all over the world, medieval European astronomers mapped the stars and started to question the idea that the Sun revolved around the Earth. Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543 CE) – a Polish astronomer who argued that the Earth revolved around the Sun – based much of his work on the observations of 13th-century-CE Persian astronomer Nasir al-Din al-Tusi and 14th-century-CE astronomers Jean Buridan of France and Ibn al-Shatir of Syria. European scholars also studied herbs and plants to find cures for diseases, and invented eyeglasses, mechanical clocks and a 'dry' compass that worked on ships at sea. Some scientists practised 'alchemy', an early form of chemistry, in which scientists attempted to transform base metals (such as lead and copper) into pure metals (such as silver and gold). The ideas of medieval European scientists formed the basis of the new understandings about chemistry, biology, botany and zoology that emerged in the 1700s CE.

▲ **Source 2:** This mechanical astronomical clock in Prague was installed in 1410 CE. It records the location of the Sun and Moon in the sky. It is the oldest astronomical clock that still works today.

▲ **Source 3:** Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1727 CE) was an English physicist and mathematician. Through his research, he and other scientists who followed him developed theories on gravity, calculus and how light works. In this wood engraving from the 19th century CE, Newton is shown dispersing sunlight through a prism.

The printing press

Perhaps the most important invention of the medieval period was the printing press. In 1440 CE, Johannes Gutenberg invented a mechanised printing press that had moveable metal letters. He used this to print Latin textbooks and leaflets about political and religious ideas.

In 1455 CE, Gutenberg printed his most famous book: the Gutenberg Bible. Gutenberg sold the Bibles for 30 florins, which was expensive for the time, but still much cheaper than hand-copied Bibles, which were the only other type of Bible available in those days. At first, only wealthy people could afford to buy the Gutenberg Bible, but eventually buying a printed Bible would be within the means of most people.

Gutenberg's printing press significantly changed European society. It enabled scholars to read about new scientific developments sooner and to publish their own ideas more quickly, speeding up the rate of technological change. In addition, it ensured that new ideas could be accessed by a wider group of people in society than before. This enabled people to make up their own minds, rather than believing what they were told by nobles and the church. This led to profound social, religious and political changes.

The Reformation

The Protestant movement arose in the 14th century CE to challenge the power of the Catholic Church. Protestant reformers such as John Wycliffe (1328–1384 CE) and Jan Hus (1370–1415 CE) called for Christians to reject the authority of the pope and to follow the teachings of the Bible for themselves. This was strongly resisted by church leaders, as it potentially undermined their authority as the interpreters of God's will. However, over time, the ability of the printing press to produce thousands of Bibles that more people could afford would encourage the development of Protestantism. At the same time, kings such as Henry VIII of England and Gustav I of Sweden promoted Protestantism in their kingdoms to undermine the pope's power and to enhance their own authority.

Humanism

The humanist movement also emerged in the medieval period. **Humanism** is the idea that an individual is entitled to freedom and self-determination. Humanism also stated that individuals could help to progress society. Therefore, humanists placed great importance on education, especially the classical knowledge of ancient Greece and Rome. They hoped to create a society where all citizens could read and write, give voice to their ideas, and engage in the civic life of their communities.

Source 4: John Wycliffe's writings were banned by the pope in 1401 CE, who ordered that Wycliffe's body be dug up and removed from a church graveyard. This image from 1563 CE shows the bones of John Wycliffe being burned and thrown into the river.

Source 5: Johannes Gutenberg inspects the first proof-sheet of his Bible printed from moveable type in 1455 CE. Gutenberg was a German blacksmith, goldsmith, printer and publisher who invented the Gutenberg press, which made books cheaper and more accessible.

Learning ladder 7.9

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the change to European art shown in this source.
2. Describe the main changes in European art and architecture.
3. Explain how scholars around the world contributed to new advances in science.
4. Source 5: Explain why the invention of the printing press changed European society.
5. Evaluate the impact of international collaboration on the development of medieval science and technology.

Continuity and change

1. Source 5: Identify how the event depicted in this image demonstrates change and continuity.
2. Describe how the Protestant movement changed Christianity in Europe.
3. Explain how the humanist movement provided continuity with the past.
4. Source 4: Explain why the pope was opposed to the changes suggested by John Wycliffe.
5. Analyse how the concept of continuity and change was demonstrated in medieval European society.

HOW TO
Continuity and change, page 477

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the medieval world. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of the medieval world. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the medieval world in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The rise of new kingdoms, page 170
- The spread of religion, page 174
- The Magna Carta, page 178
- The spice trade, page 180
- The invention of the printing press, page 186

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

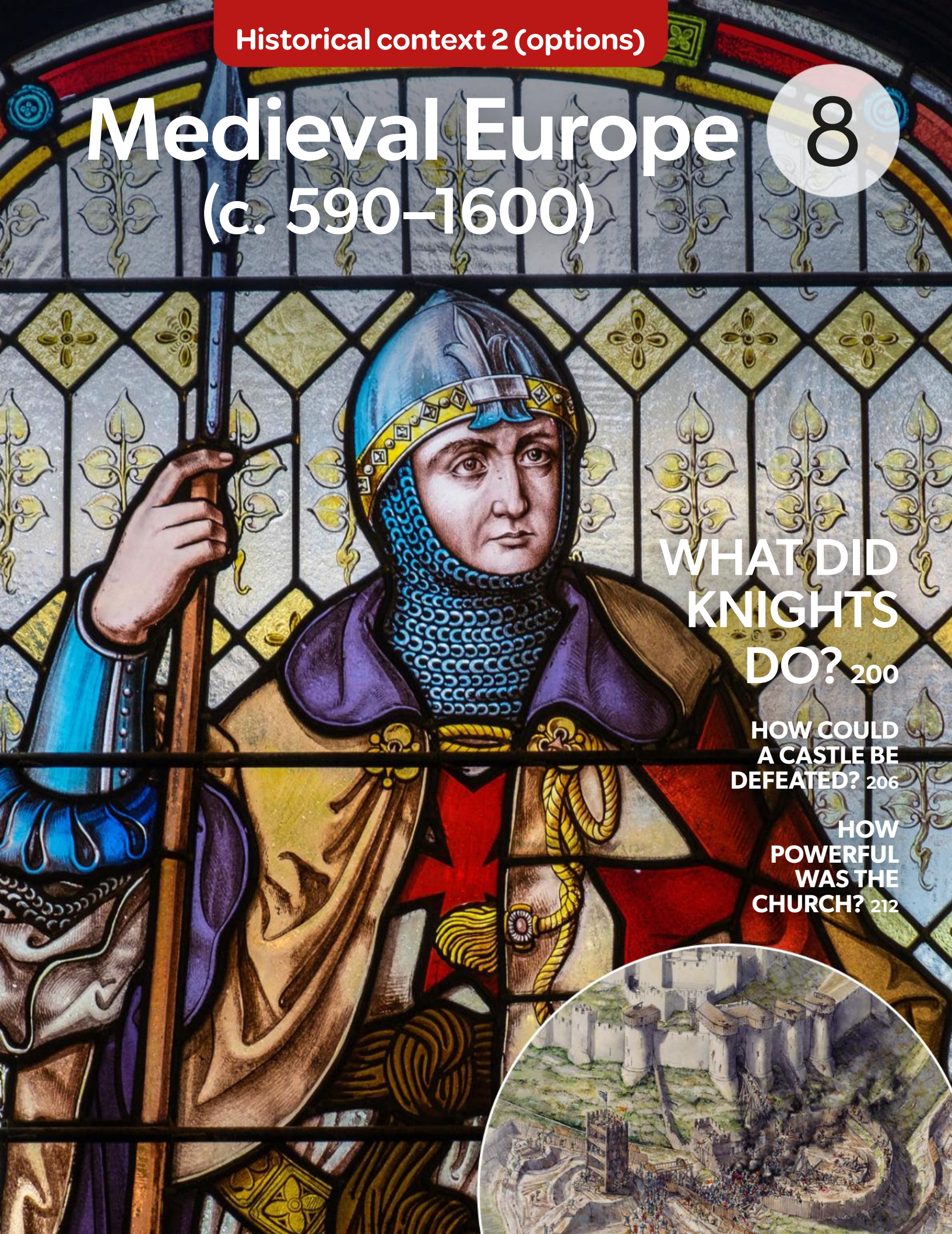
Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills. When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Historical context 2 (options)

Medieval Europe (c. 590–1600)

8



8.0

How can I understand medieval Europe?

With the growth of cities and trade and huge advances in technology, the medieval period in Europe gave birth to the modern world. This ever-changing period saw the development of universities, banking, parliament and legal protections, such as equality before the law and trial by jury.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
	Knowledge and understanding				

Source 1: The Battle of Agincourt, 1415, from *The St. Albans Chronicle* (1497 CE)

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Why learn about medieval Europe?

Since the medieval period spans almost 1000 years, historians have divided it into three parts: the early medieval period (c. 500–1000 CE), the high medieval period (1000–1250 CE) and the late medieval period (1250–c.1500 CE).

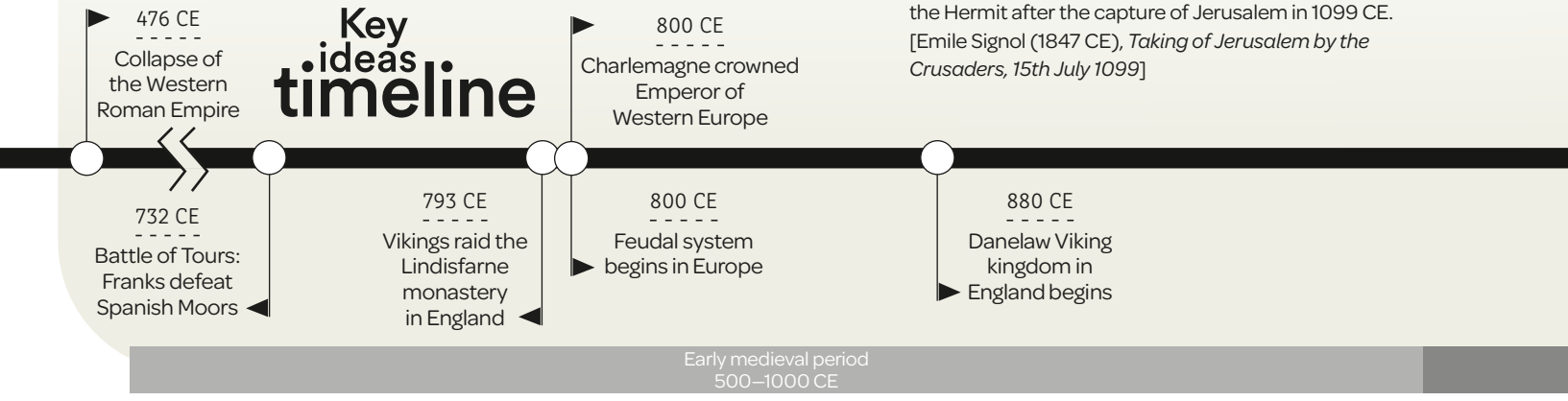
The late medieval period concluded with the the invention of the printing press (1440 CE) and the fall of the Byzantine Empire (1453 CE), which ushered in the early modern period. The invention of the printing press meant that books no longer had to be copied by hand, and could be quickly and cheaply produced, enabling a range of new ideas to spread across Europe.

Noteworthy figures of the medieval period include Charlemagne (Charles the Great), William the Conquerer, Hildegard of Bingen, Marco Polo and Joan of Arc.

▼ **Source 1:** Hildegard of Bingen (c. 1098–1179 CE), a noted medieval writer, composer, philosopher, physician and scientist

▲ **Source 3:** Godfrey of Bouillon, who led the First Crusade, giving thanks to God in the presence of the priest Peter the Hermit after the capture of Jerusalem in 1099 CE. [Emile Signol (1847 CE), *Taking of Jerusalem by the Crusaders, 15th July 1099*]

▼ **Source 2:** Medieval Europe timeline



Source 4: In 1215 CE, rebel lords in England, backed by the church, called for the protection of church rights, the introduction of legal rights and reduced taxation to the king. The lords forced the unpopular King John to sign a document called the Magna Carta. The document outlined the principle that no-one was above the law, including the king. The Magna Carta was one of the first steps in the development of legal and political rights for common people and the start of modern democracy.

Learning ladder 8.1

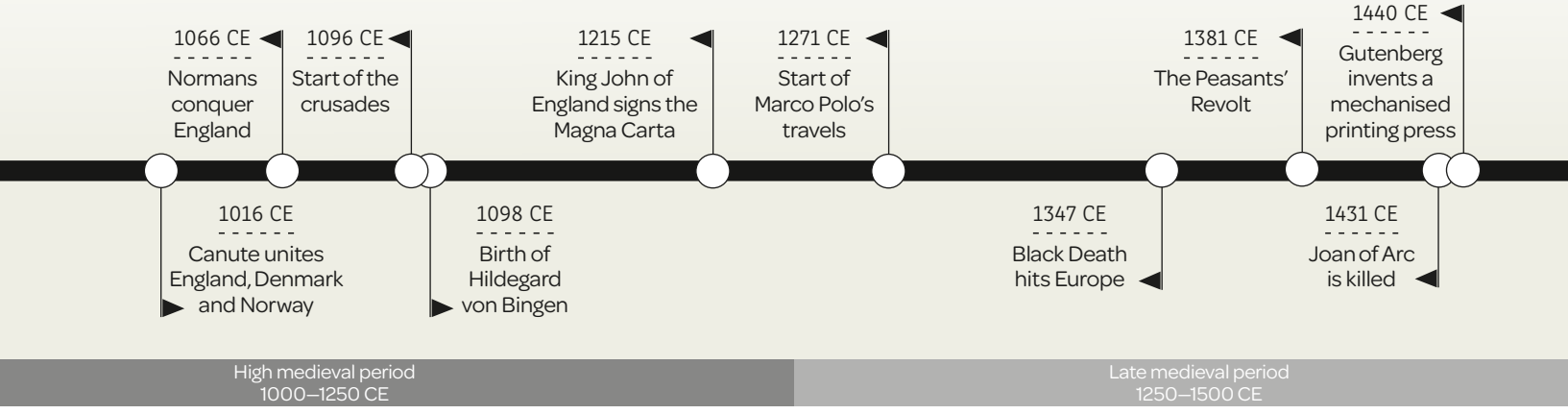
Background and origins

1. Identify the three periods in medieval history.
2. Source 3: Describe the scene depicted in this image.
3. Source 4: Explain how the Magna Carta led to long-term change.
4. Explain why the invention of the printing press in 1440 CE marked an important shift in history.

Chronology

1. Identify the events on the timeline that occurred during the late medieval period.
2. Place the following events in chronological order:
   - 1187 CE: Muslims take back Jerusalem
   - 1099 CE: Crusaders capture Jerusalem
   - 1050 CE: Seljuks control Jerusalem
   - 1096 CE: First Crusade leaves Constantinople.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Explain how the timeline demonstrates the continuity of kings' leadership in medieval Europe.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472



What were the key sites of medieval Europe?

Powerful kingdoms in medieval Europe often had significant geographical advantages, such as protective mountains, and seas and rivers for trade and travel. They also had access to a range of valuable resources, including forests, agricultural land and precious metals.

Source 1: This crown was made by Frankish artisans and was worn by the Holy Roman Emperors from c. 960 CE until 1796 CE. The crown consists of eight hinged gold plates and is decorated with pearls and 144 precious stones.

Medieval Europe, c. 1278 CE

Source 2: The boundaries of medieval Europe changed often. This map shows the boundaries in 1278 CE.

Source: Matilda Education Australia

The Viking kingdoms

During the early medieval period, the peoples of Scandinavia (also known as Vikings) became a powerful force. The Scandinavian countries contain large mountain ranges and also many lakes, rivers, fjords and flat coastal plains. Most Vikings lived close to the rivers and coasts, and developed a range of advanced ship technologies for fishing, hunting and trade. From 793 CE, their ships enabled them to raid and colonise other regions overseas to the south-west, including coastal areas in England, Scotland, Ireland and France. By around 850 CE, they had sailed across the Baltic Sea and entered the major river systems of western Russia. Viking exploration and trade extended as far as Constantinople in the Byzantine Empire and west to L'Anse aux Meadows in present-day Canada.

The Holy Roman Empire

Another key site of the early medieval period in Europe was the Holy Roman Empire. With the decline of the Western Roman Empire during the 5th century, a series of small kingdoms were established, including the Kingdom of the Ostrogoths, the Kingdom of Burgundy and the Kingdom of the Franks. In 768 CE, the Kingdom of the Franks was ruled by Charlemagne (Charles the Great). Over the next 30 years, Charlemagne significantly extended the size of his kingdom through a series of battles, to secure his empire against the invasions of Germanic tribes to the east and Muslim attacks from Spain. In 800 CE, the pope crowned Charlemagne emperor and recognised his kingdom as the Holy Roman Empire. The Holy Roman Empire would last until 1806 CE. Much of its success was due to its natural geographical features, including forests, rivers, oceans and mountains. The Alps and Pyrenees mountain ranges provided some protection from invasion, while rolling plains across the interior had fertile soils and forests, providing crops for food and wood for housing, fuel and weapons. Major river systems, such as the Rhine, provided transportation across the empire for troops and trade goods. These features enabled a wealthy and powerful empire to develop.

The Byzantine Empire

The Byzantine Empire was the eastern half of the old Roman Empire. In the 5th century CE, it covered much of the land surrounding the eastern Mediterranean Sea, including Greece and Türkiye, North Africa and the Middle East. Key to the success of the Byzantine Empire was its location between Europe and Asia and its dominant position near the Mediterranean Sea. This location made it easy for the Byzantine Empire to control trade in the region and become wealthy by charging merchants high taxes. However, the Byzantine Empire's wealth and strategic position also made it a target. It suffered continuous attacks from Arabs, Crusaders and Turks who wanted the territory for themselves. The Byzantine Empire gradually declined over a thousand-year period, finally falling to the Ottoman Turks in 1453 CE.

Viking settlements from 8th–11th century CE

Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 3:** Viking exploration between the 8th and 11th centuries CE

Learning ladder 8.2

Background and origins

1. Identify the three key sites of medieval Europe.
2. Describe the natural features of the Holy Roman Empire.
3. Explain how the geography of Scandinavia led the Vikings to develop advanced ship technologies.
4. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, write a paragraph to explain the benefits and drawbacks of the Byzantine Empire's geographical position.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 3: Describe the extent of the Viking exploration between the 8th and 11th centuries CE.
3. Source 3: Explain how the Vikings were able to undertake their extensive exploration.
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the Holy Roman Empire was influential and powerful.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

8.3

How was feudal society organised?

In medieval Europe, society was organised in a strict hierarchy under the feudal system. All people had rights and obligations, from the king and his lords to the poorest peasants.

The origins of feudalism

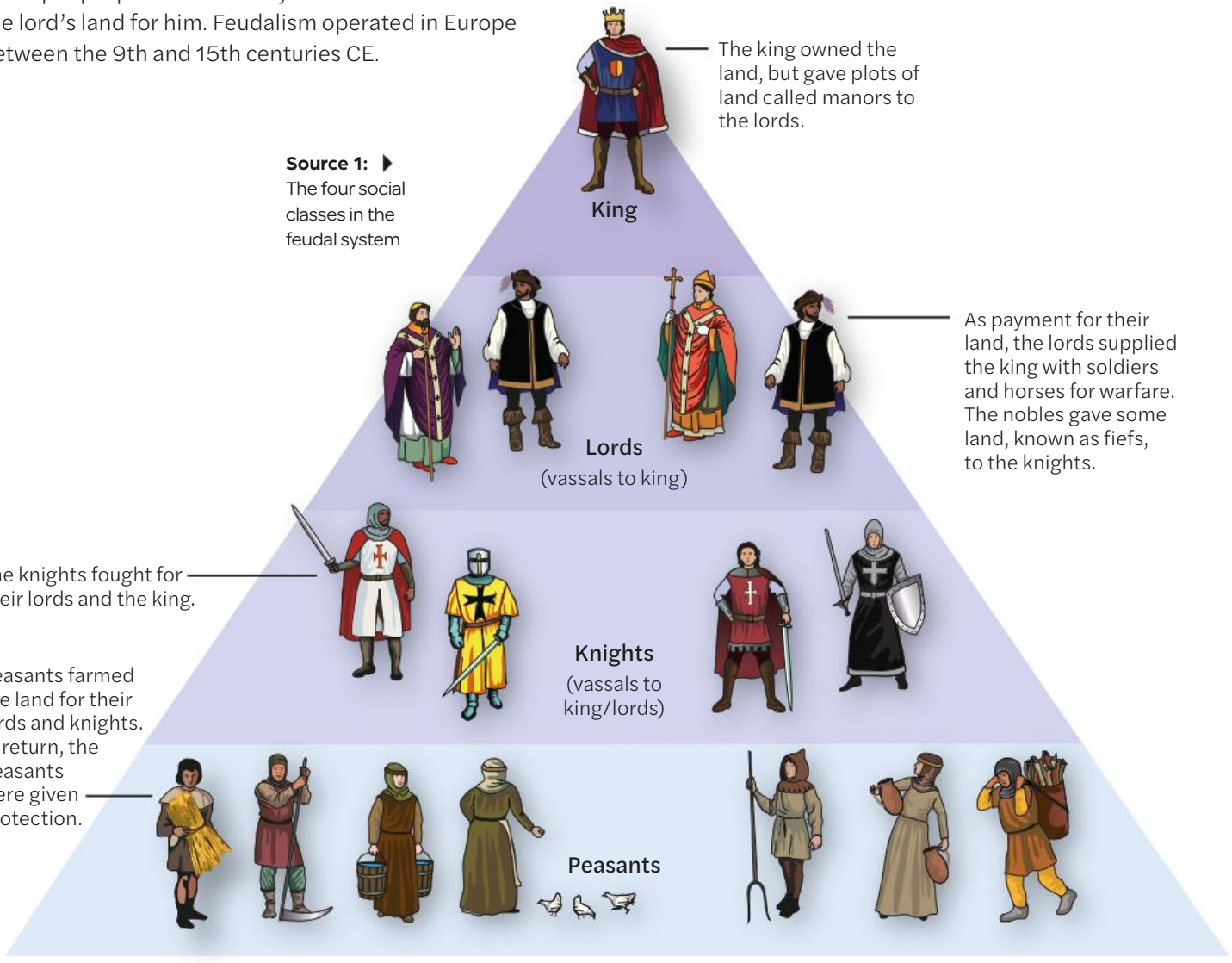
After the collapse of the Western Roman Empire, people in Western Europe no longer had the Roman army to protect them against raids from barbarians.

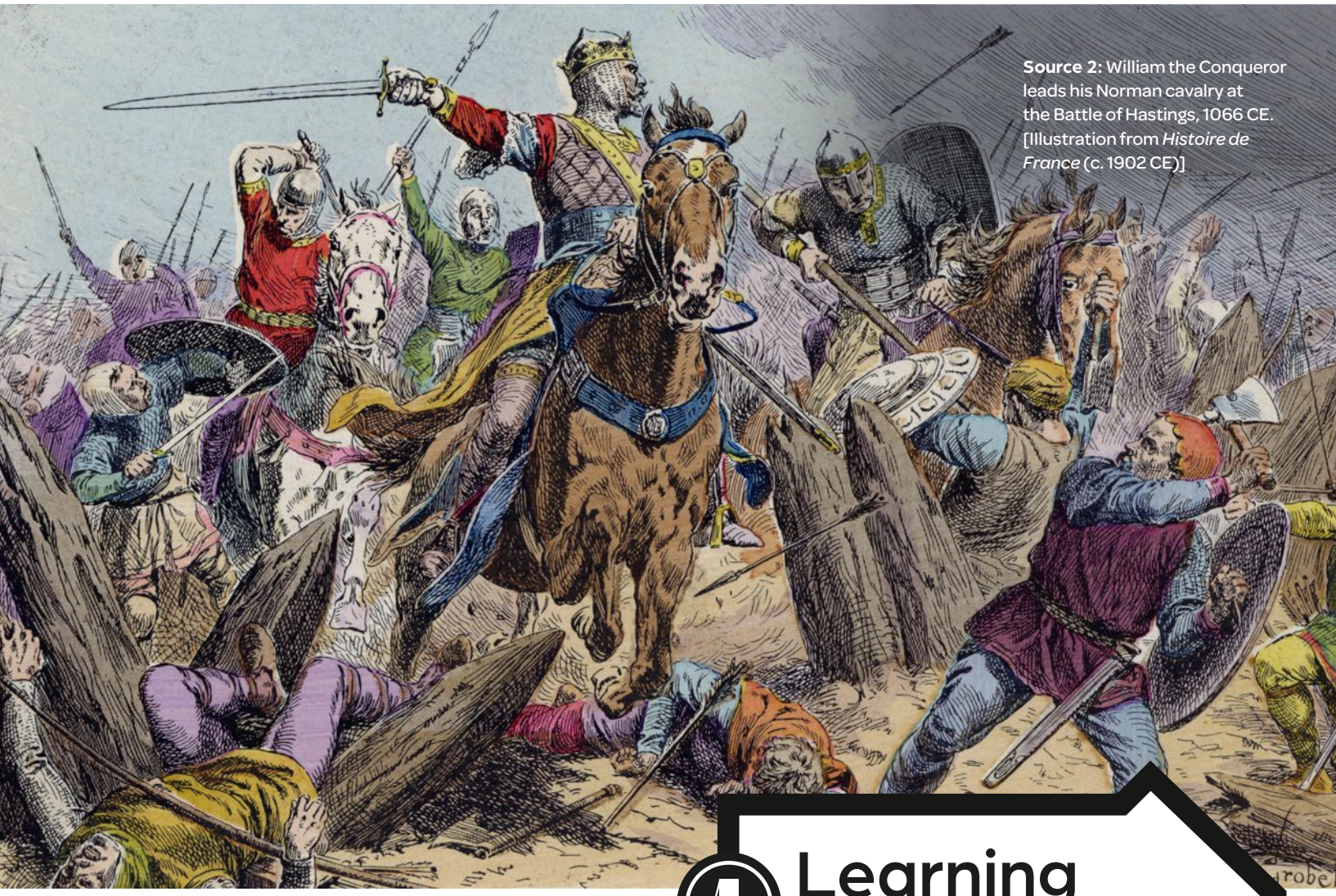
Feudalism, or the feudal system, offered a new way for people to be protected and provided for. People moved onto the land run by wealthy and powerful lords. Here they could be protected by the lord's army and take shelter in his castle during attacks. As payment, these people provided military service and worked the lord's land for him. Feudalism operated in Europe between the 9th and 15th centuries CE.

How feudalism worked

Feudalism was a system of rights and obligations throughout society. All the land in a kingdom was owned by the king. Beneath the king were lords who acted as **vassals**. A vassal was someone who received land in return for providing military service. In return for land, known as a **manor**, the lord was obliged to obey the king and provide him with soldiers for his army.

Source 1: The four social classes in the feudal system





Source 2: William the Conqueror leads his Norman cavalry at the Battle of Hastings, 1066 CE. [Illustration from *Histoire de France* (c. 1902 CE)]

In turn, the lords gave parcels of land known as **fiefs** to their vassals: the knights. The knights were obliged to fight as soldiers for the lord and demonstrate **fealty**. To show fealty, the knight would kneel before the lord and swear the Oath of Fealty: 'I promise on my faith that I will in the future be faithful to the lord, never cause him harm and will observe my homage to him completely against all persons in good faith and without deceit.'

The role of the king

In many European kingdoms, the king held the land through divine right. Divine right meant that the king's authority to rule and own the land had been given to him by God. Furthermore, it meant that a king's decisions were absolute and could not be questioned.

At the same time, the king was expected to be a great warrior and lead his troops into battle. He was also obliged to protect his people, set a good example as a Christian ruler and make fair laws in his kingdom.

Learning ladder 8.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the four social classes in medieval Europe.
2. Source 1: Describe the role of lords in the feudal system.
3. Explain how feudalism worked.
4. Explain why peasants lived on land belonging to a lord or knight.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of the feudal system.

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify the reason why the king in this image would be seen as a 'good king'.
2. Describe the reason a knight swore the Oath of Fealty.
3. Explain the effects of the 'divine right' of kings.
4. Explain why feudalism emerged in medieval Europe.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

Key individual

Who was Charlemagne?

Charlemagne was the first ruler in over three centuries to have the military power to create a stable empire in Europe. During the reign of Charlemagne from 768 to 814 CE, the Franks expanded their territory into Germany.

Charlemagne: King of the Franks

Historians believe that Charlemagne was born in 742 CE and died in 814 CE. Charlemagne became king of the Franks (a people who lived roughly in the area of modern France) in 768 CE. Charlemagne expanded the Frankish Kingdom into an empire that included much of Western and Central Europe. He united Western Europe for the first time since the Romans, and in doing so began the formation of a European identity.

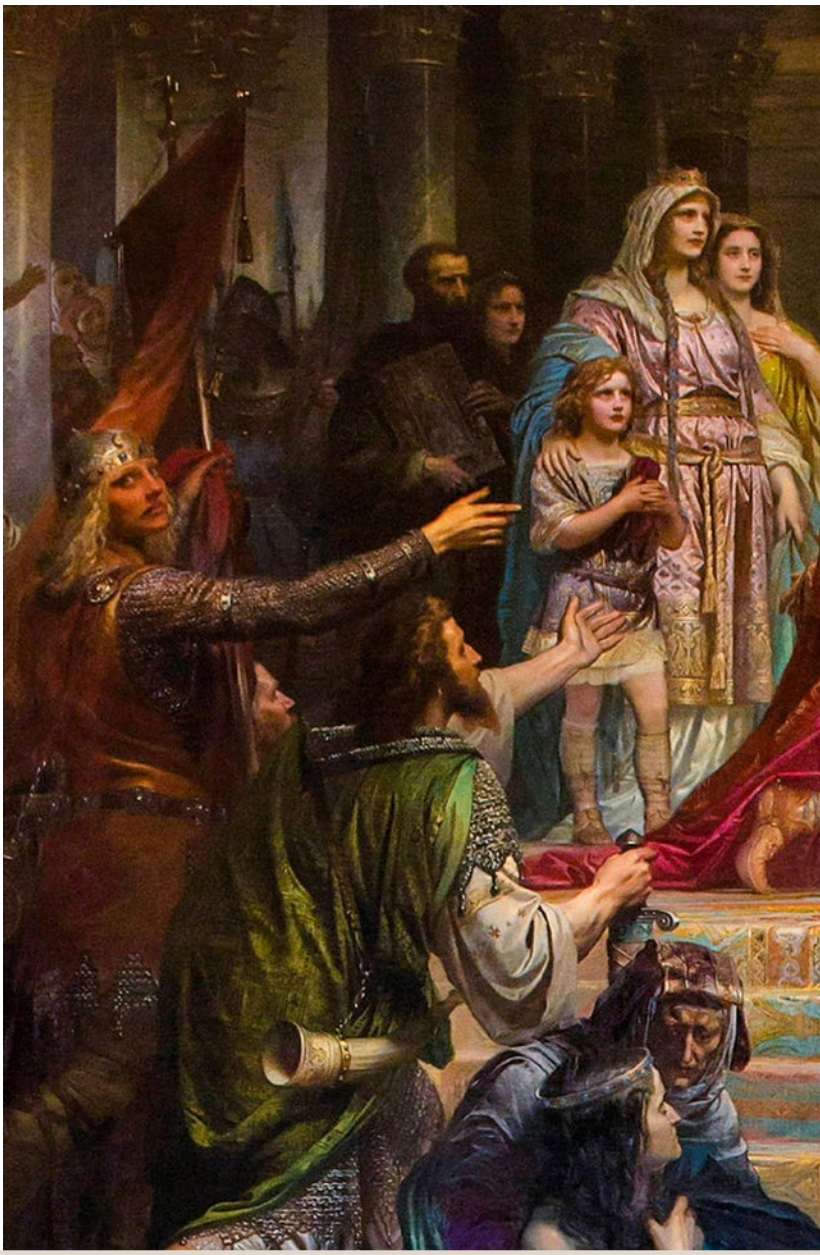
Charlemagne took over as king when he was 26 years old, after his father, Pepin the Short, died. He and his younger brother, Carloman, jointly ruled the kingdom of the Franks until 771 CE, when Carloman died and Charlemagne became sole ruler. People called Charlemagne 'Charles the Great' because he was a popular king and a good organiser, and he improved the way people were ruled. He was more than six-feet tall, which was very tall for the times.

During Charlemagne's rule, Europe underwent a cultural revival. He built churches and cathedrals, made the court system fairer by introducing a jury system, encouraged Christianity, and developed commerce and manufacturing. He also promoted education, ordering the foundation of schools in every monastery, and establishing cathedral schools for the education of clergy and nobles in Chartres, Orleans, Paris, Laon, Liege, Rheims, Rouen and Utrecht.

Charlemagne becomes Holy Roman Emperor

In 799 CE, Pope Leo III was in danger. The people of Rome accused him of immorality and threatened to gouge out his eyes and cut out his tongue. In desperation, Pope Leo III fled to Charlemagne, seeking his protection. Charlemagne agreed to protect the pope. In return, Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne 'Holy Roman Emperor' on Christmas Day, 800 CE.

Source 1: This painting depicts the crowning of Charlemange as Holy Roman Emperor by Pope Leo III (reigned 795–816 CE) on 25 December 800 CE. [Friedrich Kaulbach (1861 CE), *The Coronation of Charlemagne*]



As Holy Roman Emperor, Charlemagne supported the Catholic Church and fought to protect both the church and the pope. He won a number of battles against armies that had been a threat to the Franks and to the Catholic Church.

A biography of Charlemagne

After Charlemagne died, a man called Einhard, who worked in Charlemagne's court, wrote a biography of Charlemagne called *Vita Karoli Magni (The Life of Charlemagne)*. Historians believe *Vita Karoli Magni* was the first example of a biography written about a European king. Einhard's biography reveals aspects of Charlemagne's life and death, his character, his leadership and the impact he had on medieval Europe.

The biography presents Charlemagne in a positive light, emphasising his good deeds and his many achievements. That said, historians have found that the biography is largely accurate and presents a reliable account of the period.

> Though he was so successful in widening the boundaries of his kingdom and subduing the foreign nations, he nevertheless put on foot many works for the decoration and convenience of his kingdom and carried some to completion. The great church dedicated to Mary, the mother of God at Aix, and the bridge, five hundred feet in length, over the great river Rhine near Mainz, may be fairly regarded as the chief of his works ...

Source 2: Extract from Einhard's *The Life of Charlemagne* (*Vita Karoli Magni*), c. 817 CE

Learning ladder 8.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the name of Charlemagne's kingdom in 768 CE.
2. Describe how Charlemagne became the sole ruler of the Franks.
3. Source 1: Explain how Charlemagne became Holy Roman Emperor.
4. Explain why Charlemagne was known as 'the Great'.
5. Could Charlemagne be considered a good medieval king? Justify your response.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the historically significant event depicted in this source.
2. Source 2: Describe the significant achievements mentioned in the source.
3. Explain how Charlemagne promoted a cultural revival in Europe.
4. Explain why Einhard's biography of Charlemagne is historically significant.
5. Analyse the historical significance of Charlemagne.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

8.5

What did knights do?

At first, any skilled soldier with a horse could be a knight but by the 12th century CE, knights increasingly came from wealthy families.

A promise to serve

The feudal system depended on sworn loyalty (fealty) in return for land and protection. For a **knight**, this meant a promise to serve and protect his lord. Knights had to provide their own horse and armour, as well as a team of fighting men if they were called on by the lord to fight. The knight became the lord's vassal or tenant and in return the knight received a parcel of land known as a fief.

A knight was expected to act in accordance with the code of chivalry. He had to stand up for what was right and had a duty to defend those in trouble. If a knight broke the code, his spurs and sword were broken and he was disgraced.

Training to be a knight

At age seven, a boy who was to undertake training as a knight was sent to another lord's family as a **page**. All the page's play and sports were used as training for physical fitness, horse riding and fighting skills. Sword skills were practised using wooden swords and shields. Pages fought on piggyback to improve their balance and prepare them for fighting on horseback. Starting with small ponies, they would hone their riding skills and care for the horses in the stables.

At the age of 14, a page became a **squire**. Squires were treated as men and their training became far more dangerous. Fighting with swords and weapons and learning to control a **lance** while on horseback led to many injuries. Training also included learning military strategy such as siege warfare.

1100s: long mail armour (hauberk), conical helmet, sword, spear and large wooden shield

1200s: mail armour with visor (basinet) helmet, sword and smaller curved triangular shield with heraldry

1300s: combination of mail and plate armour, visor (basinet) helmet, sword, war hammer and small curved triangular shield

1400s: full plate armour and full-face (barbute) helmet, sword and halberd

Source 1: This image shows the evolution of a knight's armour: from chain mail in the 1100s through to full plate armour. As weapons became more powerful, armour changed to give the knight more flexibility and protection.

Source 2: Tournaments were fighting games designed to keep knights in condition for medieval warfare. Knights took part in sword fights and **jousts**, where mounted knights used a lance to try to knock their opponent off their horse.

Different knights and their families could be identified via their **coat of arms**. Creating a coat of arms is known as **heraldry**. Knights would display their family coat of arms and colours on clothing, banners and shields.

Receiving a knighthood

There were two ways a squire could become a knight:

1 *Earning the right on the battlefield*
If a squire fought bravely during a battle, he could be awarded a **knighthood** by the king, a lord or sometimes another knight.

2 *Training to be a knight*
He could earn the title through hard work and training as an apprentice to a knight. A knight had to be able to afford weapons, armour and a war horse. These items were expensive, so only the rich could pay for them.

A squire was eligible to become a knight when he turned 21. The official act of becoming a knight was a dubbing ceremony. Before the ceremony, a squire was required to spend the night alone in prayer.
At a dubbing ceremony, the squire would kneel before a king, lord or other knight, who would tap their sword on each of the squire's shoulders to 'knight' him.

▲ **Source 3:** A dubbing ceremony, where a squire became a knight

The new knight took an oath to protect and honour both his king and the Church. He was given a sword and a pair of riding spurs to mark the occasion.

Learning ladder 8.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the two stages of training a boy would undertake before he became a knight.
2. Source 3: Describe the dubbing ceremony.
3. Explain how a squire could become a knight.
4. Source 2: Explain why knights competed in jousting tournaments.
5. How important was the fealty of knights to the operation of the feudal system?

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify how shields changed between 1100 CE and 1300 CE.
2. Describe how a boy's life changed when he became a page.
3. Source 1: Use the source to answer the following questions:
   - **a** Explain how knights' armour and equipment changed over time.
   - **b** Explain how knights' armour and equipment continued over time.
4. Source 1: Explain why shields changed over time.
5. From the 13th century onwards, usually only the sons of knights could become knights themselves. Explain the advantages and disadvantages of this change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

8.6

How did peasants live?

Peasants worked a six-day week from dawn to dusk, working on the land of the lords to grow food. The poorest peasants had few rights and no protection under the law.

Who were the peasants?

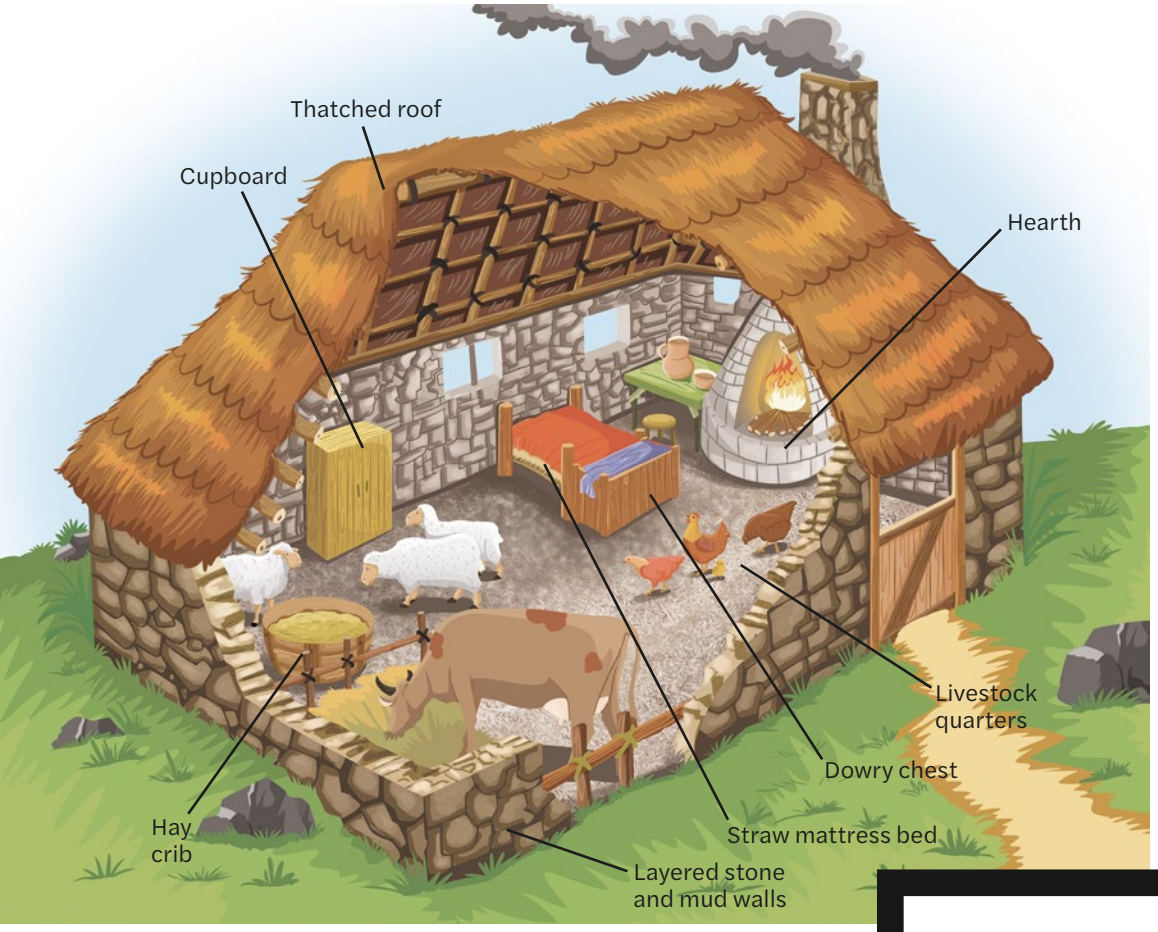
Peasants made up the majority of the population in medieval Europe and included freemen and **serfs**. Freemen (10 per cent of the peasant population) owned their own small plot of land. The poorest of the peasants were the serfs. The serfs lived on the lord's land and received his protection. They were also given a small amount of land to farm for themselves.

In return for the use of the lord's land, the serfs had to pay rent, which they usually paid in the form of food. They had to spend at least three days a week working on the lord's land, repairing fences and farm buildings, chopping wood, herding animals and planting and harvesting crops. Serfs also had to pay a tax to use the lord's flour mills, fish in nearby rivers and collect firewood from the forests of the estate. In addition, they were expected to pay for special licences to buy land, spend time away from the estate or to send children to school. Serfs were even expected to contribute to the lord's daughter's marriage or to his son's knighthood ceremony.

The rights of serfs

Serfs were not able to complain about their situation and had very few rights. Serfs had to obey their lord and could not refuse to do as he asked. If they tried to oppose the lord's authority, they were harshly beaten. In addition, serfs were considered to be 'bound' to the estate and therefore part of the lord's property. If the lord sold his estate, the serfs were sold with it.

Source 1: This illustration shows peasant farmers mowing, raking and stacking hay in June. It is from a book of prayers created for the Duke of Berry, France. The Duke could see the palace and Sainte-Chapelle (shown in the background) from the windows of his manor house. [Illustration by Paul, Herman and Johan Limbourg (1416 CE), *Les Très Riches Heures (The Highly Rich Hours)*]



Source 3: Peasants lived in small cruck houses, with dirt floors and brick walls made from mud, straw and manure. The roofs were thatched with straw or other plant material. Cruck houses were cheap and easy to build, as most materials came from a nearby forest.

Cruck houses had no running water, toilets, baths or wash basins. Windows and doors were holes in the walls, sometimes covered with a curtain. Animals were brought inside at night to ensure they did not get lost, stolen or eaten by predators.

If a serf ran away, they were considered a fugitive and could be hunted down and brought back to the estate. In contrast, a freeman was protected by the common law and could apply to the king's courts if he thought he was being unfairly treated.

> Why should we be kept in servitude? We are all from one father and one mother, Adam and Eve … The lords are clothed in velvet and silk, and we are clothed with poor cloth; they have their wines, spices and good bread, and we have only the wheat husks and drink water; they dwell in fair houses, and we have the pain and hard work, rain and wind in the fields; and whatever we produce by our labour, they keep and maintain their estates; we be called their bondmen, and unless we willingly do them service, we are beaten; and we have no sovereign to whom we may complain.

Source 2: John Ball, itinerant preacher and leader of the Peasants' Revolt of 1381 CE, cited in Jean Frossart, *Chronicles* (1395 CE)

Learning ladder 8.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the work being done by the peasants.
2. Source 3: Describe the peasants' housing.
3. Explain how serfs paid for the right to live on the lord's land.
4. Explain why serfs could be sold with the lord's estate.
5. There were some peasant rebellions during the medieval period, but not many. Why do you think it was difficult for peasants to rebel?

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Identify the social class of the person this source was created for.
2. Source 1: Summarise the perspective of this source. What impression does it give you about the lives of peasants?
3. Source 2: Explain the perspective of this source.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Compare the perspectives in the two sources.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

How did castles change?

In the medieval period, kings and lords built large castles to impose their authority on the surrounding countryside. The design of castles changed greatly throughout the medieval period.

In the medieval period, most of Europe was divided between lords and princes, who ruled the local land and its people. To demonstrate their power over the peasants and to defend themselves against invaders, they built large castles in the middle of their land. Castles offered protection against invading armies or from raiders such as the Vikings.

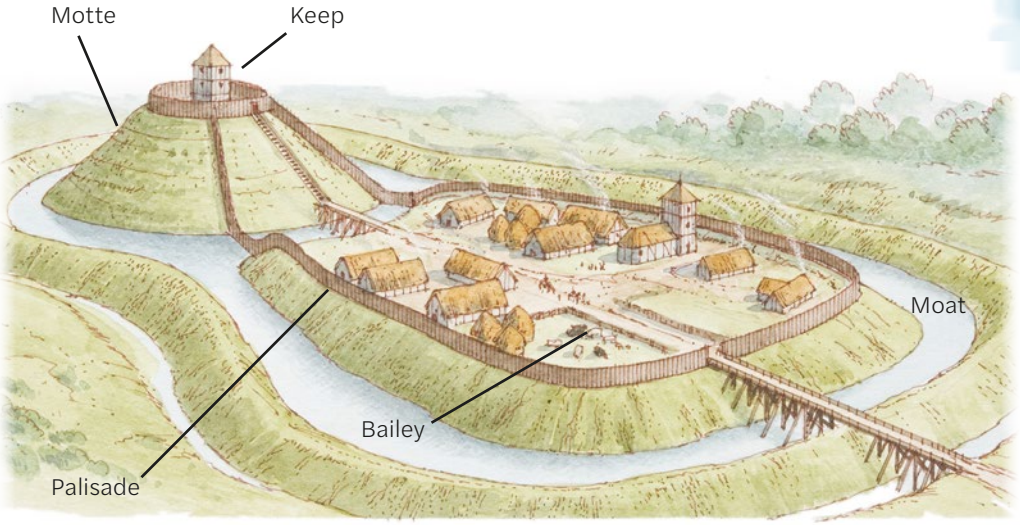
Motte-and-bailey castles

The first castles built in England in the 11th and 12th centuries CE were motte-and-bailey castles. The **motte** was a raised hill with a wooden or stone **keep** (a fortified tower) on the top. An enclosed courtyard with buildings known as the **bailey** was protected by a ditch and a wall of wooden stakes, known as a **palisade**. Motte-and-bailey castles were easy to build but were vulnerable to fire.

Stone keep castles

Motte-and-bailey castles were replaced by larger stone keep castles to provide stronger and more fire-resistant defences. Stone keep castles were often built on top of hills or next to a source of water that could be used to help with their defence. They were surrounded by a thick defensive wall.

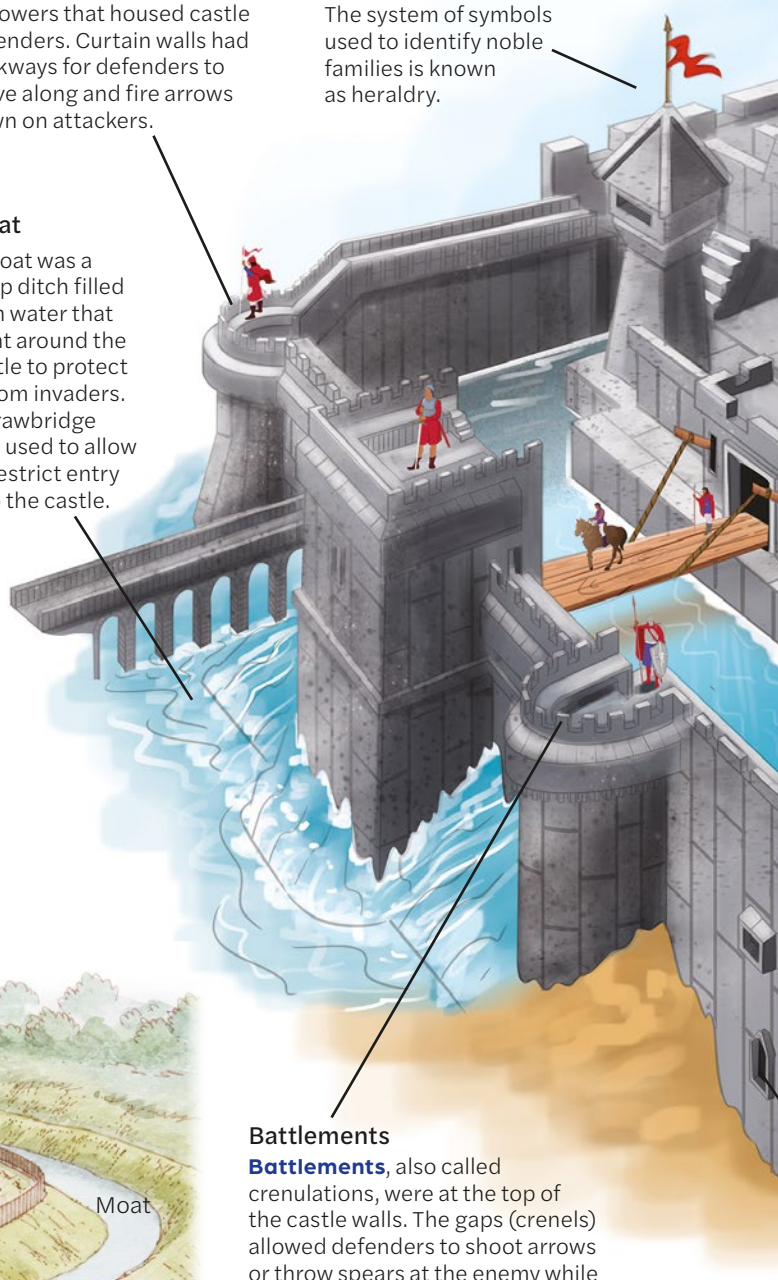
Source 1: A motte-and-bailey castle



Curtain wall and towers
The curtain wall was the outer wall surrounding the castle. The wall was often connected by towers that housed castle defenders. Curtain walls had walkways for defenders to move along and fire arrows down on attackers.

Banners
Long flags known as banners showed symbols of the lord of the castle. The system of symbols used to identify noble families is known as heraldry.

Moat
A moat was a deep ditch filled with water that went around the castle to protect it from invaders. A drawbridge was used to allow or restrict entry into the castle.



Battlements
Battlements, also called crenulations, were at the top of the castle walls. The gaps (crenels) allowed defenders to shoot arrows or throw spears at the enemy while sheltering behind the higher parts of the wall (the merlon). Merlons often contained arrow slits to allow the archer to stay behind the wall at all times.

Concentric castles

By the end of the 12th century, some castles were being built with extra curtain walls. These castles were known as concentric castles. The extra walls provided protection from missiles and battering rams. The inner walls tended to be higher than the outer walls, so that defenders could protect the outer walls more easily.

Source 2: Cross-sectional view of a medieval stone castle and its features

Learning ladder 8.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify three different types of castle that were built during the medieval period.
2. Source 1: Describe the motte-and-bailey castle.
3. Explain how concentric castles provided more protection.
4. Source 2: Explain why castles were built during the medieval period.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of a motte-and-bailey castle.

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify the effect of the castle moat.
2. Source 2: Describe the effect of curtain walls on castle protection.
3. Source 2: Explain how battlements affected the castle defences.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain why castle designs changed over time.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

8.8

How could a castle be defeated?

To conquer a kingdom, the enemy's castle had to be captured. Attacking forces used siege tactics and siege engines to capture an enemy castle.

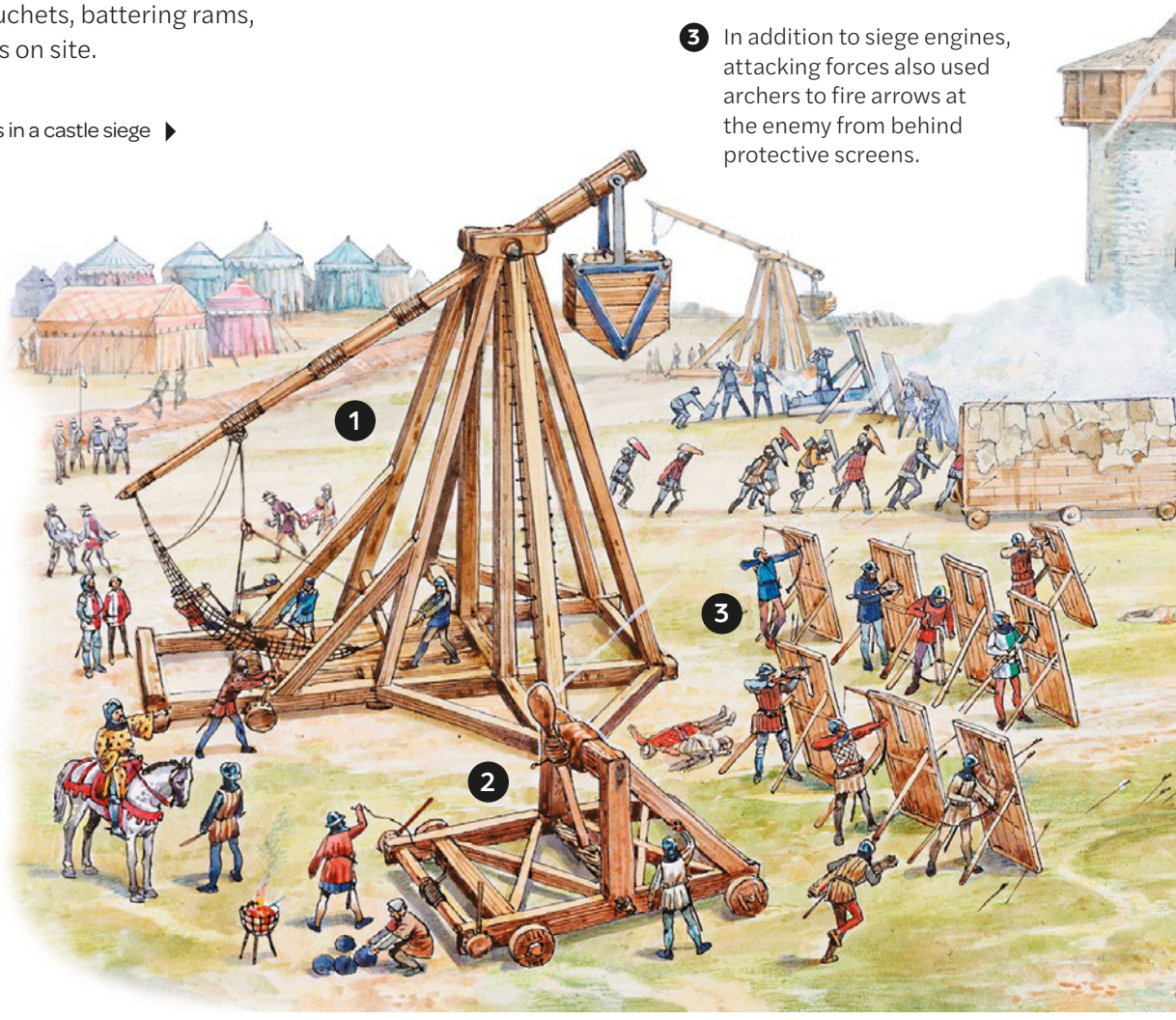
Siege tactics

To overcome castle fortifications, attacking forces used siege tactics. A **siege** is a military operation where enemy forces surround a town or building with the aim of cutting off supplies and forcing a surrender. The party conducting the siege holds a strong, stable, defensive position to stop movement in and out of the castle. Sieges can be drawn out over many months or years. The Siege of Candia in Crete lasted 21 years!

However, it was very difficult for attackers to succeed in capturing a castle. Attackers had to build **siege engines** such as trebuchets, battering rams, siege towers and mangonels on site.

Attackers also had to make sure that their own forces were kept supplied with food and weapons. This could be difficult when they were under fire from those in the castle and surrounded by enemy territory. In addition, the castle owners usually had enough supplies to last a long time. They had gardens to grow more food, farm animals, water from the moat and people who could make and repair weapons.

Source 1: The use of siege engines in a castle siege ▶



1 Trebuchets

Trebuchets were tall wooden catapults, up to 30 metres high. They were invented in the 12th century and used a counterweight to hurl projectiles high in the air at targets as far as 300 metres away. Trebuchet missiles were usually large rocks weighing up to 100 kilograms.

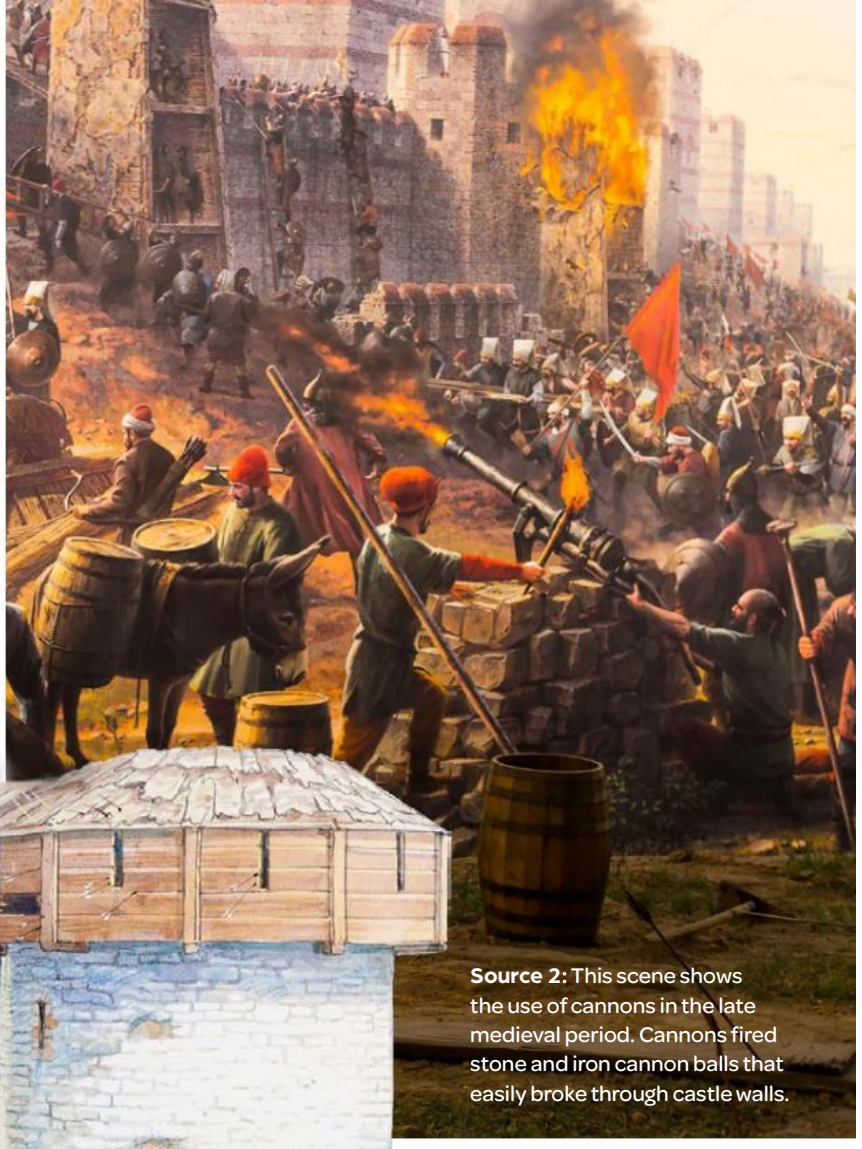
2 Mangonels

The **mangonel** was a weapon from ancient Roman times. It used the power of twisted rope to make a wooden arm spring up and hurl an object. The mangonel threw projectiles lower and faster than the trebuchet, with the intention of destroying walls.

3 In addition to siege engines, attacking forces also used archers to fire arrows at the enemy from behind protective screens.

Cannons

Wooden siege engines were replaced by cannons at the end of the medieval period. Cannons (also known as bombards) used gunpowder, which was much more effective at smashing through castle fortifications than siege engines. This led to a significant shift in castle design, with lower thicker walls and fortifications, called bastions, that jutted out from the walls. Cannons were installed on the bastions to defend the castle.



Source 2: This scene shows the use of cannons in the late medieval period. Cannons fired stone and iron cannon balls that easily broke through castle walls.

4 Siege towers

Siege towers were high wooden platforms on wheels that were pushed against castle walls. Soldiers climbed the stairs and let down the gangplank on top of the wall so the attackers could climb into the castle. Siege towers were often covered in animal hides to make them less flammable.

5 Battering rams

Originally, these were simply a large log used to break through doors or walls. Later versions were covered in fire- and arrow-resistant canopies and mounted on wheels. The log could be swung using ropes to create greater momentum.

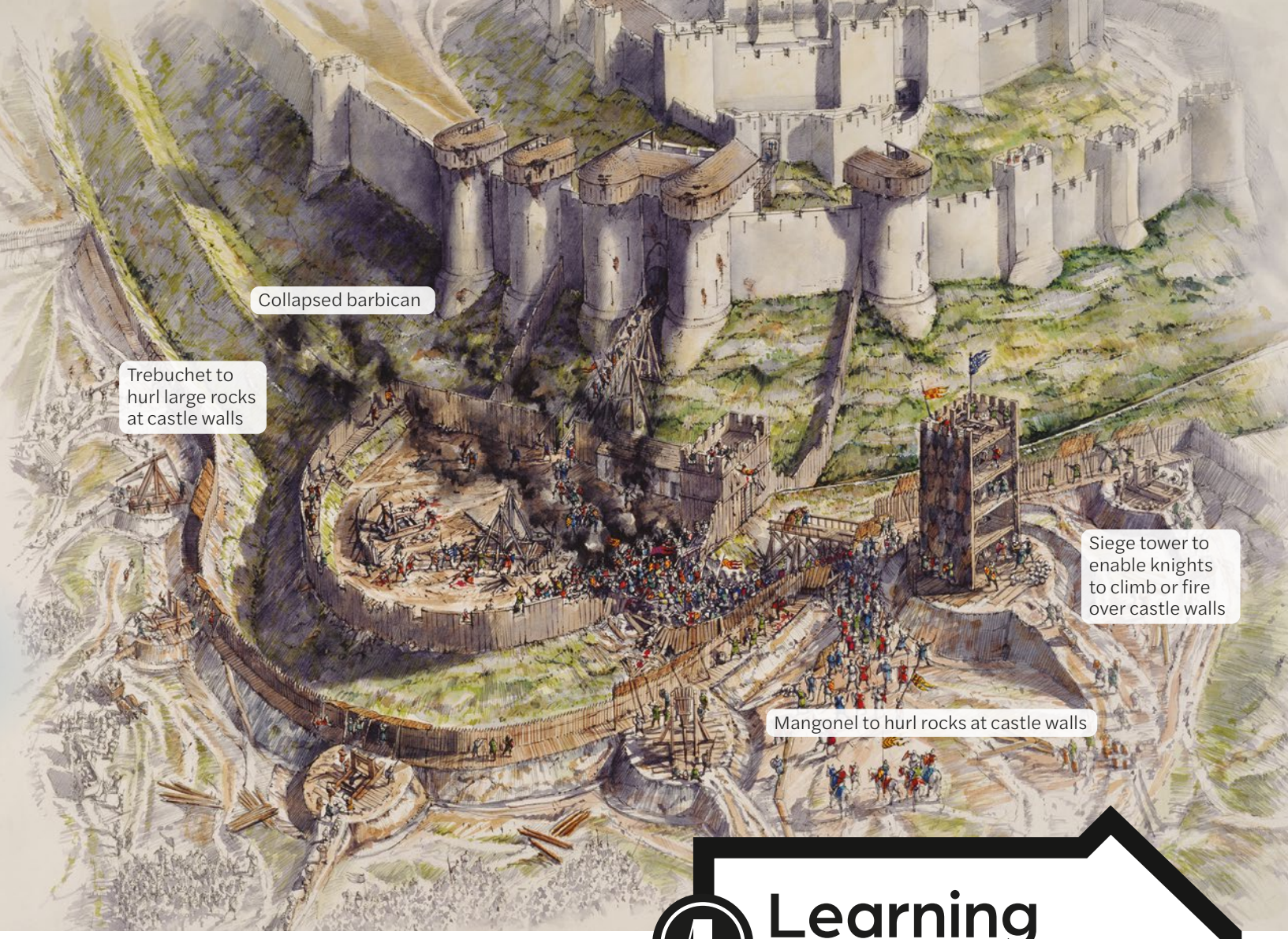
Dover Castle

Dover Castle is on England's southern coastline; it was first built in 1066 CE by William the Conqueror to prevent anyone repeating his own invasion of England from France. The medieval castle sits atop the white cliffs of Dover, guarding the shortest crossing point between England and France.

What can be seen today is the stone castle that was rebuilt in the latter half of the 12th century CE by Henry II. He transformed the castle by adding towered walls and a huge stone keep, the strong central tower, to the bailey. The keep was surrounded by two rows of towered walls, a perimeter ditch and **barbican**, which was a towered wall that protected the main gate.

Despite its defences, the castle has been under attack many times in its history. It was besieged by Prince Louis of France in 1216. He cut off supplies to Dover from both land and sea and bombarded the main gate with rocks thrown from the mangonel siege engines. Archers shot at the castle defenders from a tall siege tower. The attackers took the barbican and marched towards the main gate.

Source 3: Dover Castle today. It is located at the shortest crossing point between England and France. Nearby is a car and rail tunnel that now connects the two countries.



Source 4: Dover Castle during the siege of 1216 CE. The French invaders have collapsed the barbican and are charging towards the northern gatehouse, only to be repelled by the strong castle defences.

Louis had miners tunnel under the huge stone gatehouse. When part of the gatehouse collapsed, the French poured into the gap only to find a further barrier of boulders and heavy wooden posts. The French attackers were driven out, suffering heavy casualties.

Castle modifications

Louis of France's forces kept trying to capture Dover Castle until 1217 CE, when they finally abandoned their attacks. To fortify the castle in case the French ever returned, the new English king, Henry III, bricked up the northern gatehouse and built two new gates: one in the west (known as Constable's Gate) and another in the east (known as the Fitzwilliam Gate). He also had the barbican rebuilt and a tunnel cut under the outer wall so that castle defenders could easily reach the barbican.

Learning ladder 8.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify four types of siege engine.
2. Source 1: Describe how a mangonel was used.
3. Explain how siege tactics worked.
4. Explain why attacking a castle would be more difficult than defending a castle.

Source analysis

1. Source 4: Identify whether this is a primary or a secondary source.
2. Source 4: Describe how the French tried to attack Dover Castle.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how cannons changed medieval warfare.
4. Source 4: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why King Henry III made modifications to the castle.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

8.9

How did medieval armies battle?

For much of the medieval period, armies consisted of peasant foot-soldiers (infantry) and knights on horseback (cavalry).

Medieval battlegrounds

Medieval armies also fought one another on a battleground. Sometimes an army marched out to meet an invading force in an attempt to stop the invaders before they got too far. Famous battles in the medieval period include the Battle of Hastings, England (1066 CE), the Battle of Bannockburn, Scotland (1314 CE) and the Battle of Agincourt, France (1415 CE).

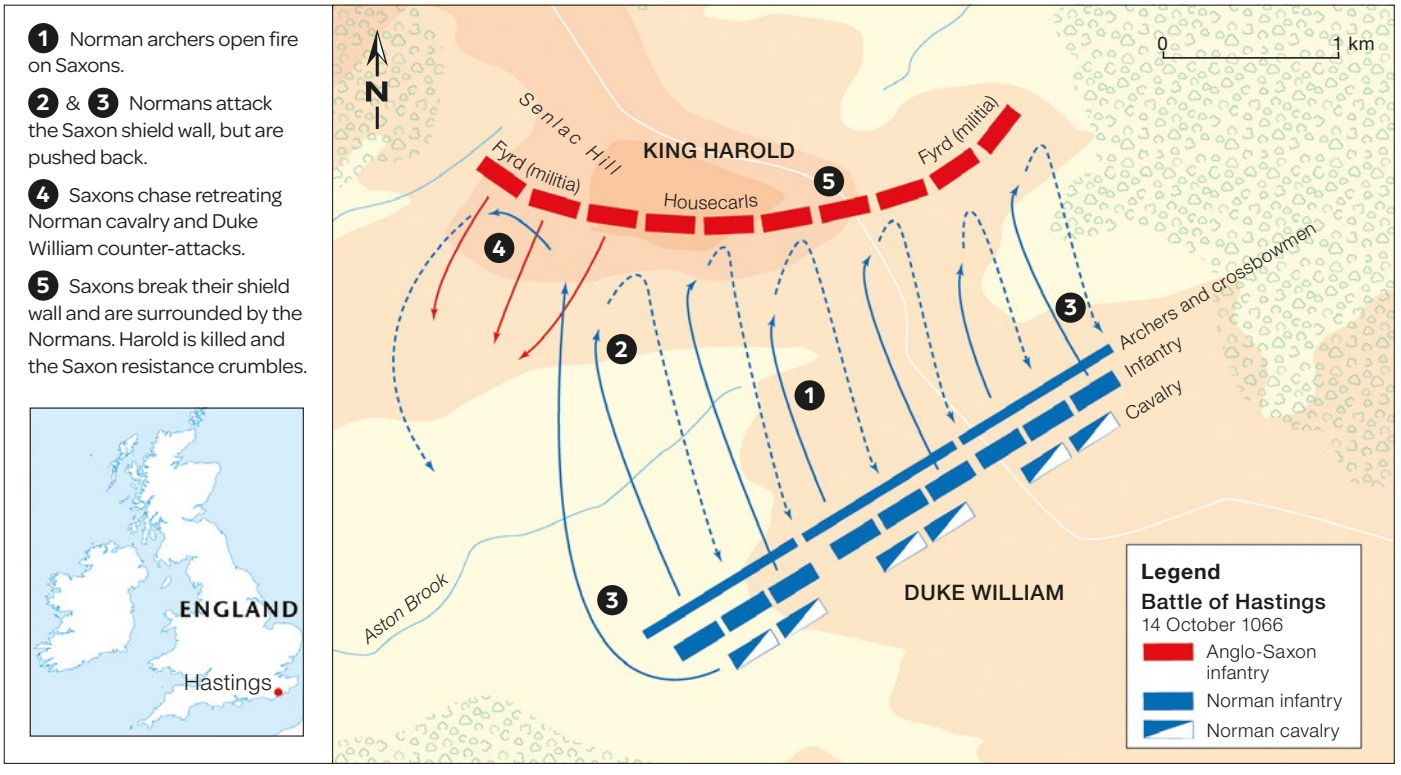
Infantry

For much of the medieval period, infantry troops consisted of peasants who owed military service to the nobles. Usually, the infantry had to bring their own weapons to the battlefield and, for many, this meant bringing a farming tool, such as an axe or a pitchfork, to use as a weapon. By the late medieval period, however, all infantry troops were required to equip themselves with a bow and arrows. Infantry were used at the start of a battle to break open the ranks of the infantry on the opposing side, so that the cavalry could ride through. At the same time, the infantry had to stop the cavalry of the opposing side from breaking through their own lines.

One of the most effective infantry weapons was the bow and arrow. Archers would fire arrows at the opposing infantry and cavalry. At the Battle of Bannockburn, Scottish archers were positioned in front of large pits, so that they could fire at the advancing English cavalry, while the cavalry was unable to reach them.

The development of the English longbow in the mid-14th century revolutionised medieval warfare. Longbows were about 1.8 metres long and fired arrows

Hastings in south-east England



▲ **Source 1:** The Battle of Hastings, 1066 CE

The armies were equally matched in numbers; however, William's troops were better trained and many were on horseback. Saxon soldiers held off the invading Normans who repeatedly charged them. The Normans then pretended to retreat and the Saxons broke their shield wall to chase them. The Normans quickly turned and surrounded the Saxons, cutting them down. This tactic helped the Normans to win the battle by the end of the day.

Source 2: English longbowmen (right) fire arrows at the French knights stuck in the mud (left) at the Battle of Agincourt. Muddy ground hampered the French cavalry, who were unable to ride their horses across it. The French knights resorted to walking across the muddy ground in their heavy plate armour, getting stuck in the process, and were easily cut down by the English lowbowmen and other infantry.

that could penetrate most armour. The longbow was put to devastating effect at the Battle of Agincourt, where, despite being vastly outnumbered, the 6000-strong English force was able to triumph over the 25 000 French soldiers, thanks in part to the skills of the longbowmen.

Cavalry

The cavalry was made up of armed knights on horseback wearing chain mail or, by the late medieval period, plate armour. Cavalry became more prevalent after the adoption of the stirrup in Europe at the end of the early medieval period. A stirrup is part of a horse's saddlery and is a ring that holds the foot of the rider. The stirrup meant that a rider could use his feet to stay on the horse, leaving his arms free to operate weapons such as lances, crossbows and swords.

The cavalry's job was to wait until the infantry had broken the lines of the opposing side's infantry, so that they could ride through and slay the opposing side's infantry and then attack the opposing cavalry.

The Battle of Hastings

In 1066 CE, William, the Duke of Normandy, defeated the **Anglo-Saxons** at the Battle of Hastings and became King of England. William prepared his troops in France and landed at Pevensey in southern England. King Harold quickly marched his **Saxon** troops (mostly untrained farmers) to meet the invading French army near Hastings.

Learning ladder 8.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the two types of troops in medieval armies.
2. Source 1: Describe the types of forces available to each side during the Battle of Hastings.
3. Explain how cavalry forces were used in medieval battles.
4. Explain the importance of infantry forces at the Battle of Bannockburn and the Battle of Agincourt.
5. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain which factor was the most important in the Normans' victory: troop numbers, tactics or weapons.

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Identify the new weapon used by the English at the Battle of Agincourt.
2. Describe how infantry forces had changed by the late medieval period.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the development of the longbow changed medieval warfare.
4. Explain why cavalry forces had become more significant by end of the medieval period.
4. How did medieval armies demonstrate the concept of continuity and change?

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 477

8.10

How powerful was the Christian church?

The spread of Christianity during the medieval period was a lasting change that has greatly influenced the world. The Catholic Church had significant political and economic power in Europe. At the same time, it provided stability and ensured the survival of society.

The political power of the Catholic Church

Christianity was a significant force in Europe during the medieval period. Nearly all people in Europe were Christian and the Catholic Church's leader, the pope, was influential and powerful.

The pope was seen as God's representative on Earth. As head of the Church, the pope had great influence over the kings of Europe and could ensure that the kings protected the Church and upheld the pope's power.

The pope sat at the top of the hierarchy of the Catholic Church. Below him were the cardinals, bishops and priests who carried out his commands.

Source 1: The Three Estates: those who pray, those who fight and those who work. All three estates were considered vital to the survival of medieval society. [Image from *Li Livres dou Sante* (The Book of Health), c. 1280 CE, by Aldebrandin of Siena]

The wealth of the Catholic Church

The Catholic Church became very wealthy during the medieval period. The Church was provided with land by the kings in return for their prayers of support.

People gave the Church one-tenth of their yearly earnings in tithes. **Tithes** could be paid in money or goods. Peasants had little money, and usually paid their tithes in grain, animals or seed.

The Church's wealth was greater than that of many kingdoms. Many high-ranking Church officials became rich and powerful, and resisted any efforts from kings and nobles to reduce the Church's wealth or political influence.

Providing stability

The local church or cathedral was the centre of town life. People attended weekly mass and were baptised, married and buried at the church. The grounds of the church were used for fairs and sporting events.

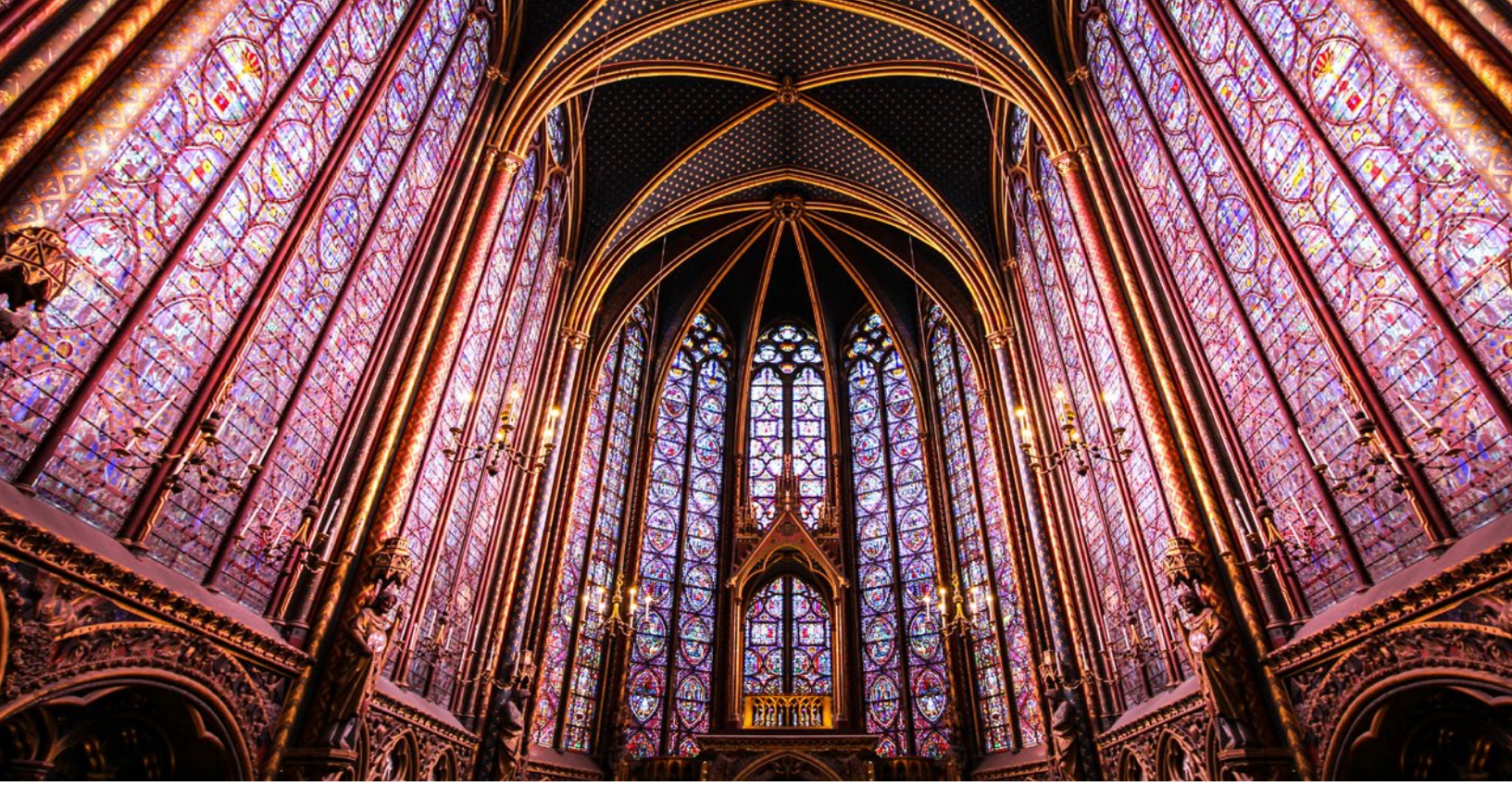
Churches were also places of sanctuary. A person accused of a crime could claim sanctuary for 40 days in a church. After that time, they had to face trial or choose exile and leave the country.

The role of monastic communities

The Church provided much needed social services for the community. Monastic communities, led by monks and nuns, ran schools and hospitals, and provided lodging for travellers. In addition, monks and nuns recited prayers for the community. Praying was considered a vital activity in medieval society, just as important as growing food and protecting the kingdom.

Child oblates

The children of nobles were often sent to monasteries or nunneries at a young age. Known as oblates, boys would study to become monks, while girls would study to become nuns. Sending a child away to a monastery



Source 2: Churches and cathedrals were the pinnacle of medieval art and architecture, designed to inspire faith in God. Sainte-Chapelle in Paris, which was built between 1238 CE and 1248 CE, contains one of the largest collections of stained glass in the world.

or nunnery might seem heartless to us today, but in the medieval period it showed that parents really loved their child. Parents believed that giving their child to a monastery or nunnery was the best thing they could do, since the child would live their life serving God and would then surely enter heaven when they died.

Source 3: Parents bringing their son to a monastery, from *Decret de Gratien* (c. 1150 CE), a book of Church laws

Learning ladder 8.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the leader of the Catholic Church.
2. Describe the hierarchy of the Catholic Church.
3. Explain how the Church provided stability in medieval society.
4. Explain why the Church was so wealthy.
5. Analyse the role played by monastic communities in medieval society.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the image in the source.
3. Source 1: Explain how the source demonstrates the importance of prayer in medieval society.
4. Source 3: Explain the context of this source.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

8.11

Site study

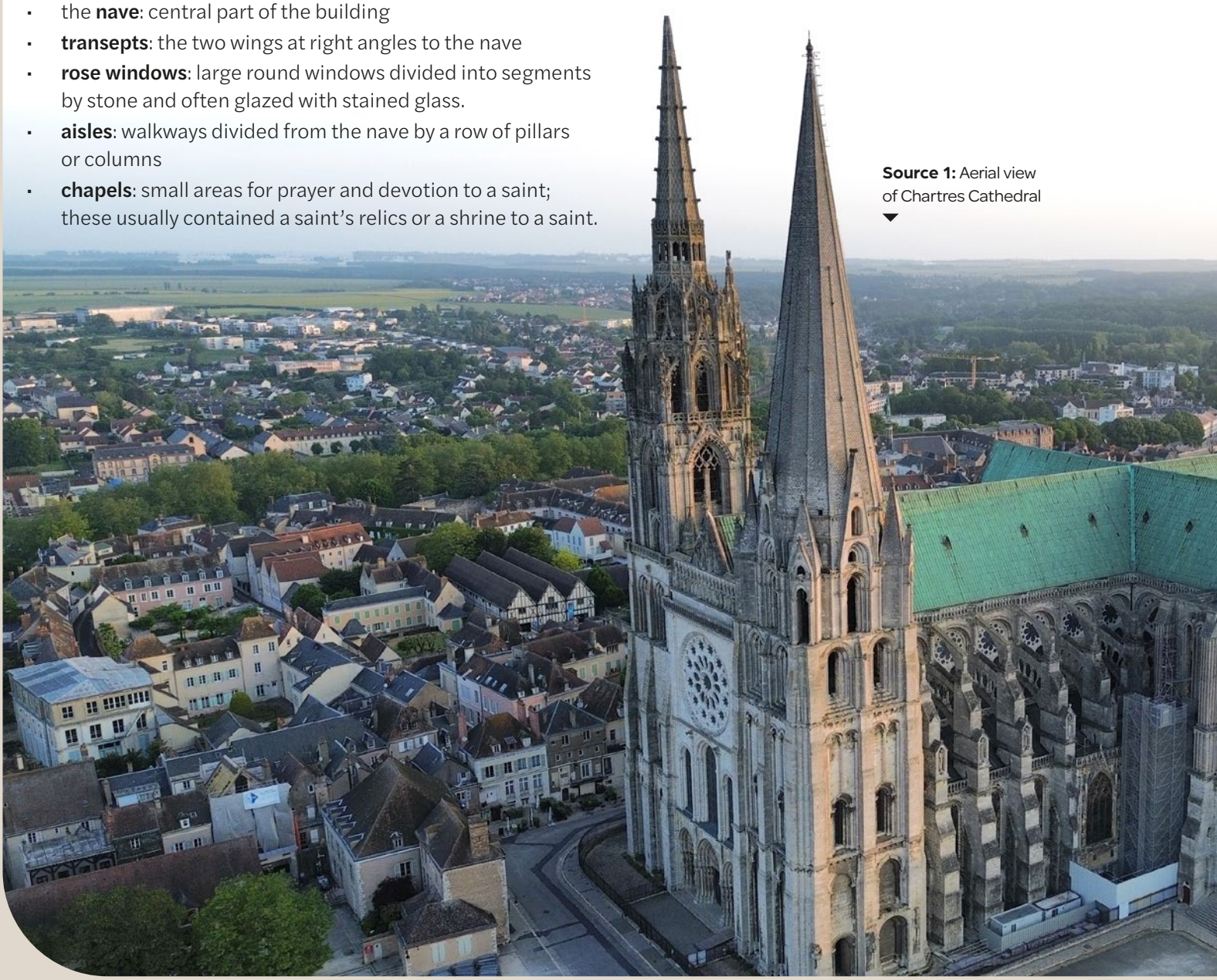
Why and how was Chartres Cathedral built?

Chartres Cathedral is a medieval Gothic Catholic cathedral built in Chartres, France (about 80 kilometres south-west of Paris) between 1194 and 1220 CE.

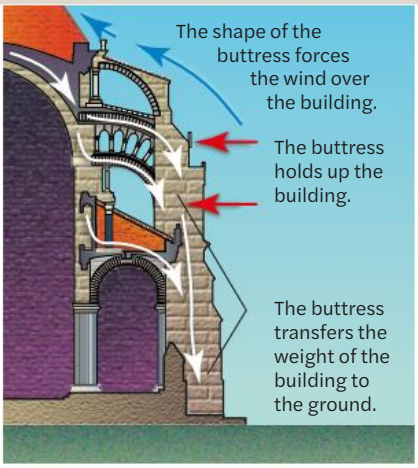
Religious architecture

Churches and cathedrals of the medieval period formed some of the most spectacular architecture of the age. Churches and cathedrals were built to a cruciform (in the shape of a cross) floorplan. The main elements of the floorplan were:

- the **nave**: central part of the building
- **transepts**: the two wings at right angles to the nave
- **rose windows**: large round windows divided into segments by stone and often glazed with stained glass.
- **aisles**: walkways divided from the nave by a row of pillars or columns
- **chapels**: small areas for prayer and devotion to a saint; these usually contained a saint's relics or a shrine to a saint.



Source 1: Aerial view of Chartres Cathedral



Source 2: Flying buttresses could support the weight of Gothic cathedrals' high roofs. They were introduced as a way of making buildings taller and allowing more windows by taking the weight of the roof away from the walls.

Chartres Cathedral

Chartres Cathedral in France is a splendid example of Gothic architecture. Its 12th-century-CE stone facade and its stained glass windows (12th and 13th centuries CE) are still in excellent condition.

A cathedral is the central church of a diocese. A diocese is a region controlled by a bishop. Chartres Cathedral was built between 1194 and 1220 CE. The 26-year construction period was unusual for the medieval period as most cathedrals took over a century to be completed. The speedy construction of Chartres has left a building that shows historians the methods of craftsmanship, materials used and architectural style specifically from the late 12th century CE. Architectural historians believe that about 300 artisans and labourers worked on the cathedral.

The cathedral became an important pilgrimage site during the medieval period. It houses a famous Christian relic known as the Sancta Camisa (Holy Tunic), said to have been worn by the Virgin Mary. Today the site still attracts Christian pilgrims as well as tourists. It was listed by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site in 1979 CE.

Learning ladder 8.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the style of architecture used in the construction of Chartres Cathedral.
2. Describe the main elements of Christian cathedrals.
3. Source 2: Explain how flying buttresses worked.
4. Explain why flying buttresses were used.

Significance

1. Identify the significant relic housed in Chartres Cathedral.
2. Describe the significance of Chartres for medieval pilgrims.
3. Source 1: Explain how the cathedral building demonstrates the significance of the Church in medieval society.
4. Explain why Chartres Cathedral is a historically significant building.

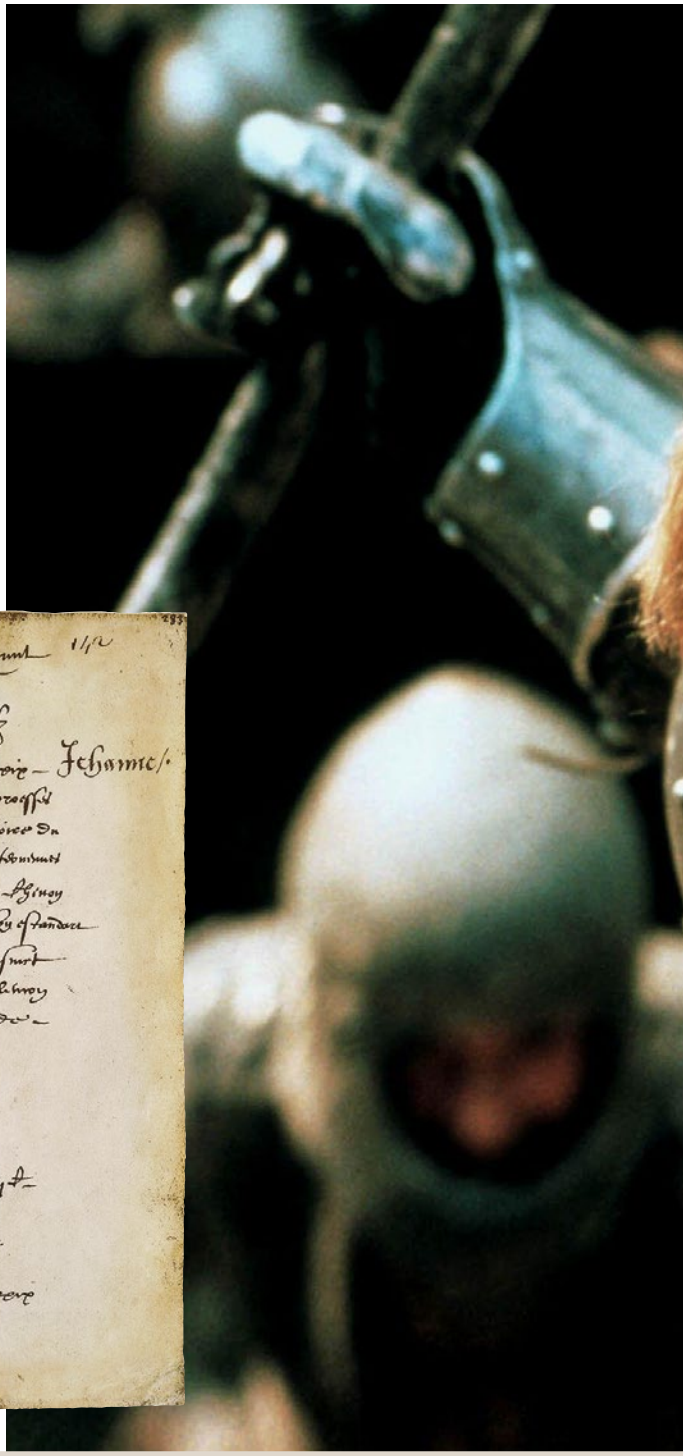
HOW TO

Significance, page 486

Key individual

Joan of Arc: Warrior, heretic or saviour?

A brave peasant girl led the French army to an improbable victory at Orléans.



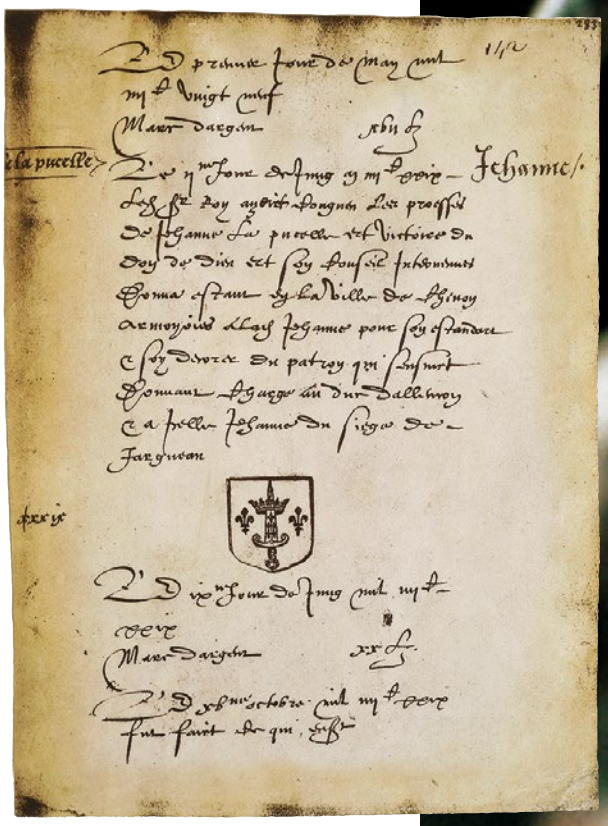
Joan of Arc was a peasant from France who believed God had selected her to lead France to victory in the Hundred Years' War against England (fought from 1337–1453 CE). With no military training, she convinced Prince Charles of Valois to allow her to lead a French army to the **besieged** city of Orléans where she inspired a key victory over the English.

Joan's army

In May 1428 CE, Joan cut her hair and dressed in men's clothes to travel across enemy territory to Prince Charles's palace at Chinon.

Joan asked him to give her an army to lead to the besieged city of Orléans, which was under attack from the English. Charles acted against the advice of his generals and advisors and granted her request.

Dressed in armour and riding a white horse, Joan joined an army convoy trying to bring supplies to Orléans in March 1429 CE. Orléans had been cut off and surrounded by English troops who planned to starve the city to force a surrender. Joan sent a letter to the English commanders at the siege, ordering them in the name of God to 'Begone, or I will make you go'. The convoy reached Orléans, and the supplies, Joan and 200 soldiers were smuggled into the city under the cover of darkness.



Source 1: This letter was written by Charles VII; it is dated 2 June 1429 CE. The letter confers the title of nobility on Joan of Arc's family.

Joan's bravery inspired the citizens of Orléans to fight the English. The French army was successful in forcing the English to retreat across the Loire River.

After the great victory at Orléans, the French saw Joan of Arc as a heroine. She and her followers escorted Charles across enemy territory to Reims where he was crowned King Charles VII in July 1429 CE.

Source 2: Milla Jovovich plays Joan of Arc in the 1999 film *The Messenger.* ©COLUMBIA/GAUMONT

Capture and execution

A year later the king ordered Joan to protect the town of Compiégne against attack. However, she was pulled from her horse and taken captive. She was then sold to the English and put on trial to face charges of heresy (religious beliefs that were against the teachings of the Catholic Church) and dressing like a man.

On 29 May 1431 CE, Joan of Arc was sentenced to death. The next day, Joan was taken to the marketplace at Rouen and burned at the stake in front of a jeering crowd.

Why was Joan condemned?

Traditionally, historians have believed that Joan of Arc was condemned to die because she had claimed to hear voices from God.

However, today historians believe that Joan was condemned for political reasons. They argue that the English were determined to get rid of Joan so that they could win the Hundred Years' War. The English believed that Joan was a popular figure who might encourage more French people to fight against them.

Furthermore, some historians have argued that Joan was mainly condemned for wearing men's clothing, rather than for her beliefs. During the medieval period it was strictly prohibited for women to wear men's clothing.

Saint Joan

For the people of Orléans, Joan was a saviour. They began holding a festival in her honour and pressured King Charles VII to clear her name. Twenty years after her death, Charles VII ordered a new trial and her condemnation as a heretic was overturned.

During the 19th century CE, Joan was celebrated as a symbol of France. Then in 1920 CE, Pope Benedict XV made her a saint, which is the highest honour in the Catholic Church. She is now the patron saint of France and immortalised in statues, paintings, literature and films.

> Joan of Arc was tried as a heretic not because she was a woman, though that factor played an important part, nor because she heard voices, but because she heard voices telling her to attack the English … Joan believed that God favoured the French: God was on her side … As long as she insisted … that her voices were saints telling her to attack the English, she was doomed.

Source 3: Extract from Daniel Hobbins (2005 CE), *The Trial of Joan of Arc*, Harvard University Press. Daniel Hobbins is a historian.

Source 4: Depiction of Joan of Arc in an illuminated manuscript [Antoine Dufour (c. 1505 CE), *Lives of Famous Women*]

Source 5: This scene from the 1999 CE film, *The Messenger*, depicts Joan riding into battle. ©COLUMBIA/GAUMONT

> As the opening of the trial record noted, 'The report has now become well known in many places that this woman, utterly disregarding what is honourable in the female sex, breaking the bounds of modesty, and forgetting all female decency, has disgracefully put on the clothing of the male sex, a striking and vile monstrosity. And what is more ... she dared to do [and] say many things beyond and contrary to the Catholic faith ...'

Source 6: Extract from Helen Castor (2015 CE), *Joan of Arc: A History*, Faber. Helen Castor is a historian.

Learning ladder 8.12

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the social class to which Joan belonged.
2. Source 4: Describe the image of Joan in this source.
3. Explain how Joan came to lead an army.
4. Explain why Joan was considered a heroine by the people of Orléans.
5. Analyse the reasons why Joan of Arc is celebrated in France today.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate about the reason why Joan was condemned.
2. Describe the traditional view of Joan's condemnaton.
3. Source 6: How has this historian come to her conclusion that Joan's condemnation was based on her clothing?
4. Sources 3 and 6: Compare the modern historians' versions of Joan's condemnation with the traditional view.

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

8.13

Why did towns and trade expand?

During the high medieval period, Europe became a more peaceful place. The Silk Road reopened and trade with Asia, the Islamic world and Africa expanded rapidly.

As new trade networks opened, medieval towns began to grow. European merchants traded with other European towns and with dealers in Asia, the Middle East and North Africa. They imported (bought) spices, ceramics and silk from Asia, ivory and gold from Africa and carpets from the Middle East. They exported (sold) wool, silver and tin. The expanded trade ensured that towns became centres of wealth.

The decline of feudalism

Another factor contributing to the growth of towns was the decline of feudalism. Huge population losses had occurred during the Black Death, such that lords struggled to find enough peasants to work their fields. This meant that peasants who survived the Black Death were in high demand and had more power. They were able to ask for higher wages.

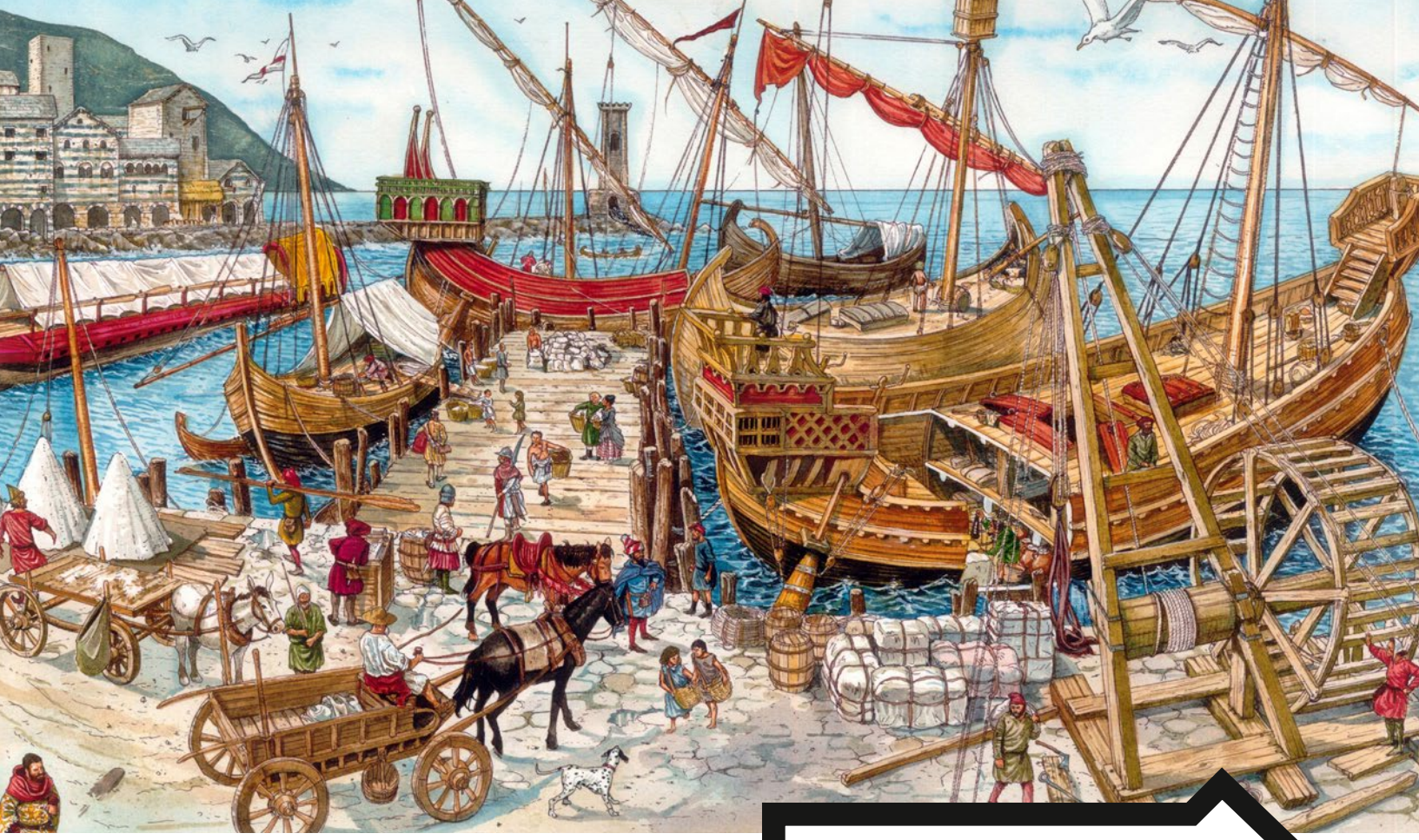
If the lord would not pay higher wages, peasants could leave their estates and move into towns. With peasants no longer dependent on the lords, the feudal system declined.

> John by the grace of God, King of England … we have granted to them that none of them shall make battle … and that all town inhabitants of Cambridge of the guild of merchants shall be [free] of toll and passage [road toll] and lastage [toll for attending a fair] and pontage [bridge toll] and stallage [fee for setting up a market stall], in fairs and without, and throughout the ports of the sea and beyond the sea … And that they may justly have their lands and pledges and be paid all debts …
>
> **Source 2:** Royal Charter of King John to the Borough of Cambridge, England (1207 CE)

Hanseatic trade routes of the late medieval period

▲ **Source 1:** The trade routes of the Hanseatic League

Source: Matilda Education Australia



▲ **Source 3:** Loading cargo ships in a medieval town in the coastal region of Liguria in Genoa, in north-west Italy, during the 14th century CE

Town charters

Towns promised independence and freedom. Sometimes a king would present the town with a charter. While the king could still collect the main taxes from the town, a charter that granted the citizens freedom from minor taxes and military service gave them a measure of self-government. Chartered towns attracted wealthy merchants who set up market stalls which helped to boost the local economy.

By the late medieval period, the new merchant class was a powerful force in medieval society. To grow their businesses, merchants formed partnerships, which led to the development of large trading companies such as the Hanseatic League. The Hanseatic League was a federation of trade towns in Northern Europe. For a fee, it organised the safe transport of manufactured goods between towns. Trade caravans were always under threat from bandits, while merchant ships were vulnerable to pirate attack. The League made sure that cloth from England and Belgium made it safely to markets in Eastern Europe; and that raw materials from Russia and Poland (such as grain, timber, wax and charcoal) were safely transported to Germany and England. Merchants were willing to pay the League to protect their goods. Consequently, the League became very wealthy and powerful.

Learning ladder 8.13

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the goods imported by European merchants.
2. Describe the decline of feudalism.
3. Explain how the Hanseatic League operated.
4. Explain why towns expanded during the medieval period.
5. Source 1: Analyse the importance of the Hanseatic League to the wealth of merchants.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 1: Describe the trade routes of the Hanseatic League.
3. Source 2: Explain the privileges granted to townspeople. Use a quote from the source to support your ideas.
4. Source 2: Explain why the privileges granted to townspeople would have helped trade to develop further.
5. Source 2: Why do you think the king granted these freedoms? What was the context?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

What were the impacts and legacies of medieval Europe?

The medieval period has often been characterised as a 'dark age', a time when people were ignorant, barbarous and cruel. Yet, this is far from the truth. Indeed, some historians argue that the medieval era should in fact be seen as a 'bright age'.

Medieval science

The scientific breakthroughs of the medieval period remain some of the most underappreciated legacies of the period. Medieval science not only led to the invention of everyday items such as eyeglasses, clocks, mirrors and papermills, but also laid the foundations of our modern understanding of astronomy, medicine, biology, optics and many other scientific fields.

Medieval art

Artistic works of the medieval period continue to inspire, most notably the art of medieval painters and stained-glass workers, and in the literature of writers such as Geoffrey Chaucer. Music notation was formalised in the medieval period, such that musicians today can play music created in the medieval period.

Source 1: Detail from a painting showing a canon holding a pair of spectacles [Salvino D'Armate (1284 CE), *Virgin and Child with Canon van der Paele*]

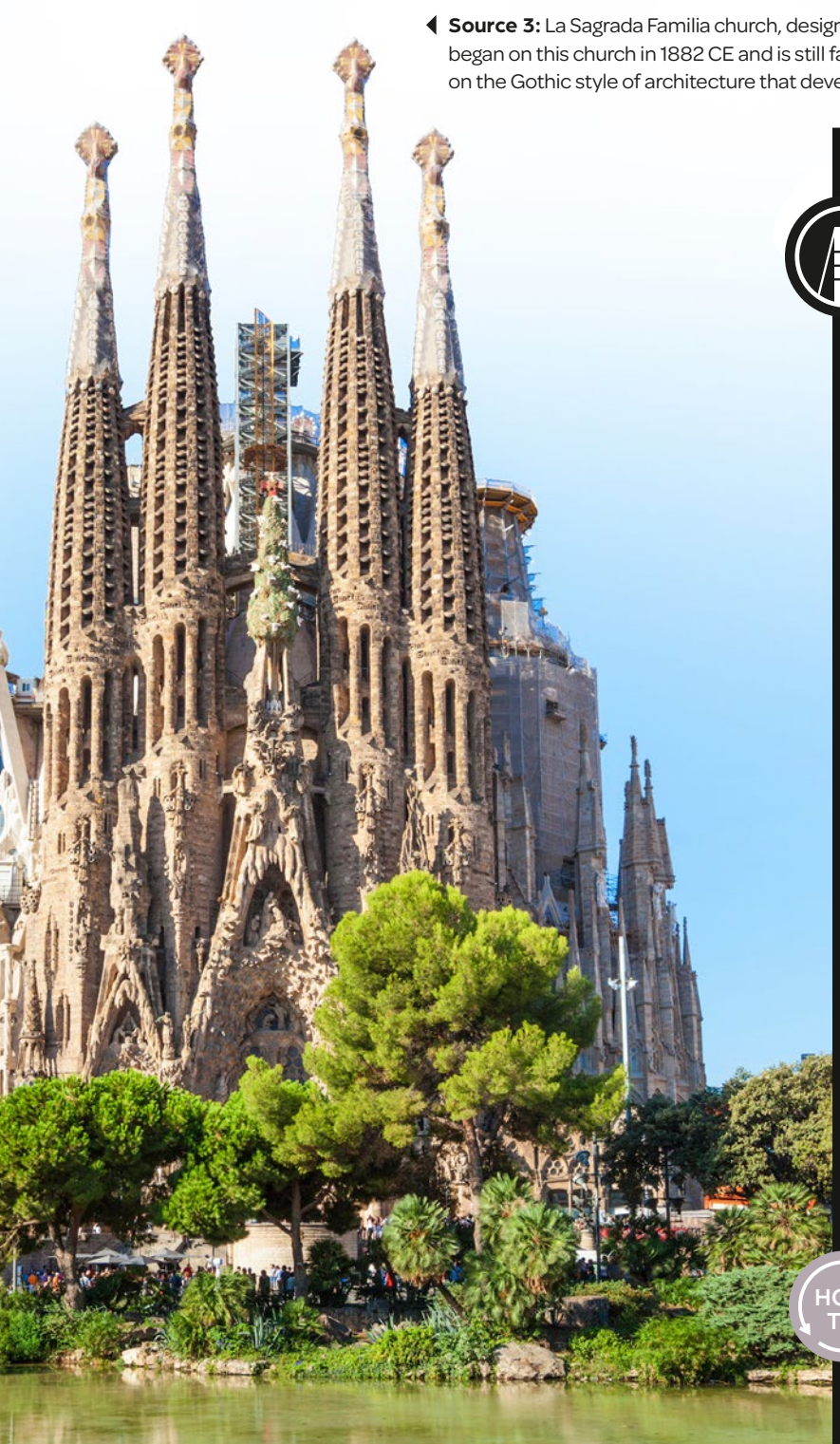
The architecture of medieval Christian cathedrals proved highly influential, with many of the major city cathedrals and public buildings in Australia and around the world built in the 'Neo-Gothic' and Romanesque styles.

Medieval reforms

The medieval period also provided some of the foundations of our modern Western society. The banking system was pioneered by the Knights Hospitallers as a way of helping pilgrims move their money safely from one city to another without having to carry all of it with them. Modern legal codes were also first developed in the medieval period, based on Roman law (used in much of Europe) or common law (used in Australia, Britain and the United States). The invention of the printing press at the end of the medieval period was one of the most revolutionary developments, because it made information and ideas available to more people and improved access to education.

The Bright Ages contain the beauty and light of stained glass in the high ceilings of the cathedral, the blood and sweat of the people who built them, the acts of charity and devotion by people of deep faith … In these Bright Ages, scientists looked to the sky and measured the stars, built the university, laid the foundations for the European contribution to the global scientific revolution … There were also, just as now, people who limited debate, prosecuted thought crimes, repressed freedom and killed people who were different from them. The Bright Ages stand out as a pivotal place and time in history because they contain all the multitudes of possibility inherent in humanity.

Source 2: Matthew Gabriele and David Perry (2021 CE), *The Bright Ages: A New History of Medieval Europe*, Harper Collins.



Source 3: La Sagrada Familia church, designed by Antoni Gaudi, in Barcelona, Spain. Construction began on this church in 1882 CE and is still far from being finished. La Sagrada Familia draws heavily on the Gothic style of architecture that developed in the medieval period.

Learning ladder 8.14

Impact and legacies

1. Identify three ways that the medieval period has had an impact on life in Australia today.
2. Describe the scientific legacies of the medieval period.
3. Source 3: Explain how medieval architecture influenced cathedral design in the 19th century CE.
4. Source 1: Explain why the invention of eyeglasses is significant in modern Australia today.
5. Which medieval invention do you think was the most important? Explain your choice.

Contestability

1. Source 2: Identify the name of the book from which this extract was taken.
2. Describe the reasons why some people called the medieval period 'the dark ages'.
3. Source 2:
   - **a** What does the source refer to as the 'bright' aspects of medieval history?
   - **b** What does the source refer to as the negative aspects of medieval history?
4. Source 2: Explain why the historians have called their book, *The Bright Ages*.
5. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain whether you think the medieval period should be known as the 'bright ages'.

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

8.15

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on medieval Europe. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of medieval Europe. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of medieval Europe in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- Medieval kings, page 196
- Castles, such as the Tower of London, page 204
- Reasons for victory in medieval battles, page 210
- Changes in armour and weapons, page 200

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

Early Islamic empires (c. 610–1258)

9

9.0

How can I understand early Islamic empires?

Islam emerged in Arabia in the 6th century CE, with Muhammad as its prophet and central figure. His followers established the Umayyad and Abbasid Empires, rapidly expanding across three continents and incorporating people of many different cultures.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: A French illustration of the Battle of the Yarmuk (636 CE) made in c. 1350 CE. Muslim forces are shown on the right carrying the star and crescent flag, while Byzantine forces (wearing armour from the 14th century CE) are shown on the left carrying the banner with the star.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Why learn about early Islamic empires?

In 610 CE, Muhammad began preaching a religion that inspired millions of people to join his cause. Very quickly, his followers founded vast empires that, by the middle of the 8th century CE, extended across Africa, Asia and Europe.

The foundation of Islam

According to the traditional account, Muhammad was an Arab merchant who lived in Mecca, Arabia, during the early medieval period. In 610 CE, Muhammad had a vision in which an angel named Gabriel told him that he was the last of God's prophets. Over the next 10 years, Muhammad began to preach that there is one god (Allah) and that complete submission to Allah (**Islam**) is the right way of life.

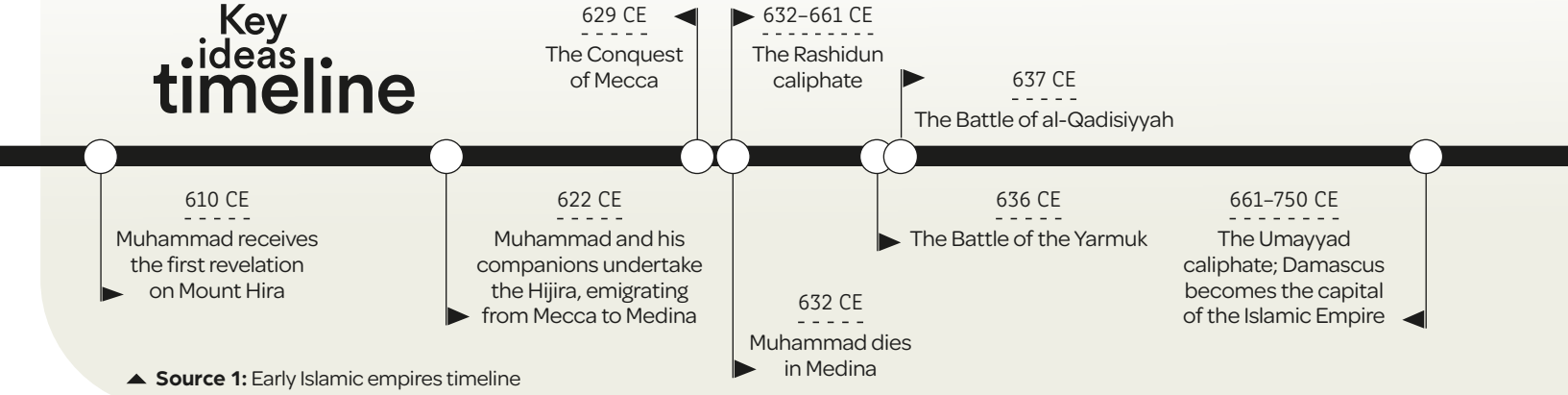
Although he gathered many followers (who became known as **Muslims**), he faced persecution from the rich and powerful leaders of Mecca, many of whom were his relatives. The Meccans were polytheists and Muhammad's message of monotheism (belief in one god) and social justice for the poor and vulnerable disrupted their control of the city.

In 622 CE, Muhammad and his followers, known as the Companions of Muhammad, left Mecca and went to Medina. This journey is known as the Hijira and marks the start of the Islamic calendar. Once in Medina, Muhammad united the Arab tribes, who banded together to protect the city from the attacking Meccans. After a series of battles, he finally returned to Mecca in 629 CE with an army of 10 000 followers. The Meccans surrendered and Muhammad and his army took the city, offering pardon to the defeated Meccans.

Muhammad then turned his attention to the Kaaba, a sacred building that housed idols dedicated to various Arab gods. Muhammad destroyed their statues and declared that the Kaaba was a holy site of Islam. According to Islamic teaching, the Biblical figures Abraham and Ishmael raised the foundations

▲ **Source 2:** The Kaaba, a stone building at the centre of Islam's most holy site, the Masjid al-Haram, in Mecca, Saudi Arabia. Muslims ceremoniously walk around the Kaaba when they visit, and face its direction (*qibla*) when they pray.

Key ideas timeline



▲ **Source 1:** Early Islamic empires timeline

Islamic empires, 622–750 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 3: The expansion of the Islamic empires from 622 to 750 CE

of the Kaaba in Mecca centuries before Muhammad. Attached to the eastern corner is the Black Stone, which tradition links back to the first human, Adam.

Death of Muhammad

Muhammad and his warriors went on to conquer and unify much of Arabia. Shortly before his death, Muhammad performed the ***hajj*** (pilgrimage) in 632 CE. He left Medina, where he had been living since 622 CE, and journeyed to Mecca. He walked around the Kaaba and touched and kissed the Black Stone. Muhammad's pilgrimage defined the rituals and rites of the hajj, which are followed by Muslims from all over the world to this day.

In the years following Muhammad's death, the Muslims became divided over the question of leadership. Some believed that Muhammad's cousin and son-in-law Ali was the legitimate successor – they became known as Shia Muslims. Most, however, followed Muhammad's close companion and father-in-law Abu Bakr. Abu Bakr became the first of the four caliphs of the Rashidun caliphate.

The Rashidun caliphs were called the 'rightly guided caliphs' because of their close personal associations with Muhammad. The four leaders of the Rashidun caliphate were Abu Bakr (632–634 CE), Umar (634–644 CE), Uthman (644–656 CE) and Ali (656–661 CE).

Learning ladder 9.1

Background and origins

1. Source 2: Identify the building in this source.
2. Outline the main beliefs of Islam, as preached by Muhammad.
3. Explain how Muhammad gained control of Mecca.
4. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why the Kaaba is an Islamic holy site.

Chronology

1. Identify the three caliphates on the timeline.
2. Place the following events in chronological order:
   - 629 CE: Muhammad returns to Mecca.
   - 622 CE: Muhammad leaves Mecca for Medina.
   - 632 CE: Muhammad dies; the Rashidun caliphate begins.
   - 570 CE: Muhammad is born in Mecca.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Sources 1 and 3: Using these sources, describe the changes that occurred between 622 CE and 1258 CE.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472

691 CE – The Dome of the Rock completed at Jerusalem

762 CE – Construction of Baghdad begins

1258 CE – Mongol armies sack Baghdad and kill the caliph

680 CE – Death of Muhammad's grandson Husayn ibn Ali at the Battle of Karbala, cementing a split among the Muslims that became Sunnism and Shiism

750 CE – The Abbasid caliphate begins the Golden Age of Islam

How did geography shape the early Islamic empires?

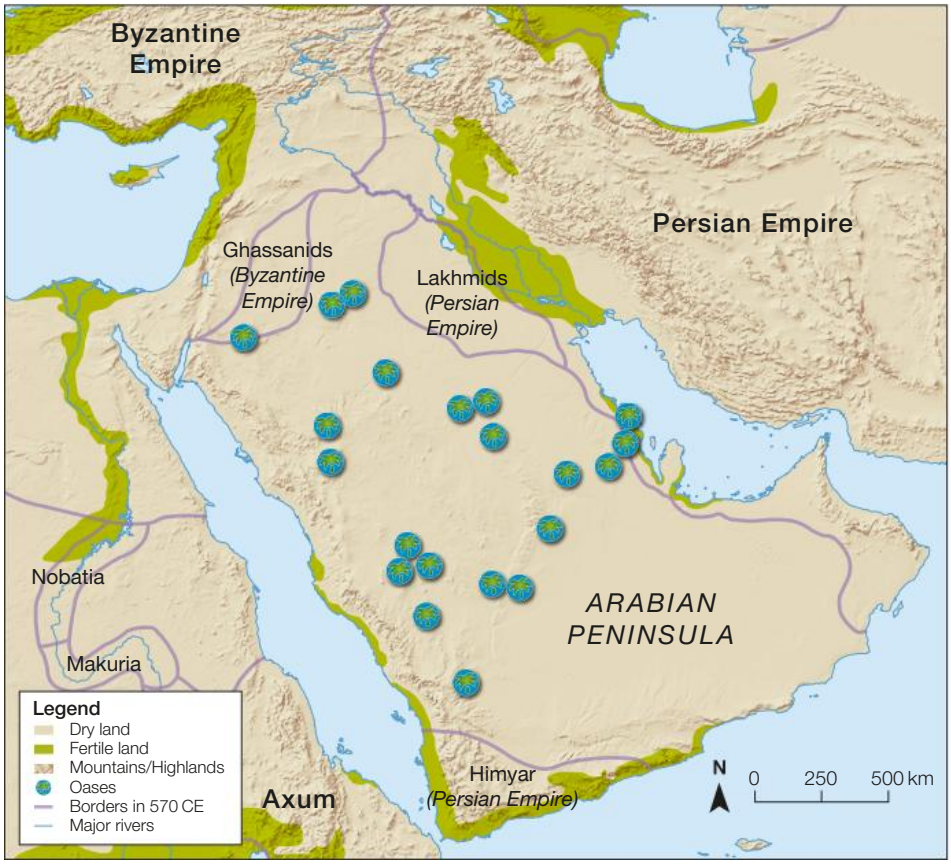
Islam developed in Arabia, a desert region in south-west Asia that is nearly completely surrounded by salt water. Arabia is very hot and receives little rainfall. These environmental factors encouraged Arabs to conquer lands in more hospitable regions.

The geography of Arabia

The Arabian Peninsula is surrounded by the Red Sea to the west, the Persian Gulf to the east, and the Arabian Sea to the south. Much of the land on the Arabian Peninsula is desert. The population of medieval Arabia was organised into tribes and clans, some of which were **nomadic** or semi-nomadic while others settled in towns and cities. Nomadic tribes took their herds of goats, sheep and camels across the desert to patches of vegetation, moving on when the animals had eaten the plants.

The desert also contained several **oases**, which are small fertile areas fed by underground water systems. Valuable agricultural products could be grown in the oases, including frankincense, myrrh, dates and fruit. The members of the settled farming tribes who controlled the oases lived in villages and were wealthier than the nomadic tribes. This meant that there was much inequality between the nomadic tribes and the oases tribes. This inequality led to conflict. The nomadic tribes frequently attacked and robbed merchants who travelled across the desert to sell farmers' goods to markets (**bazaars**) in other villages.

The Arabian Peninsula

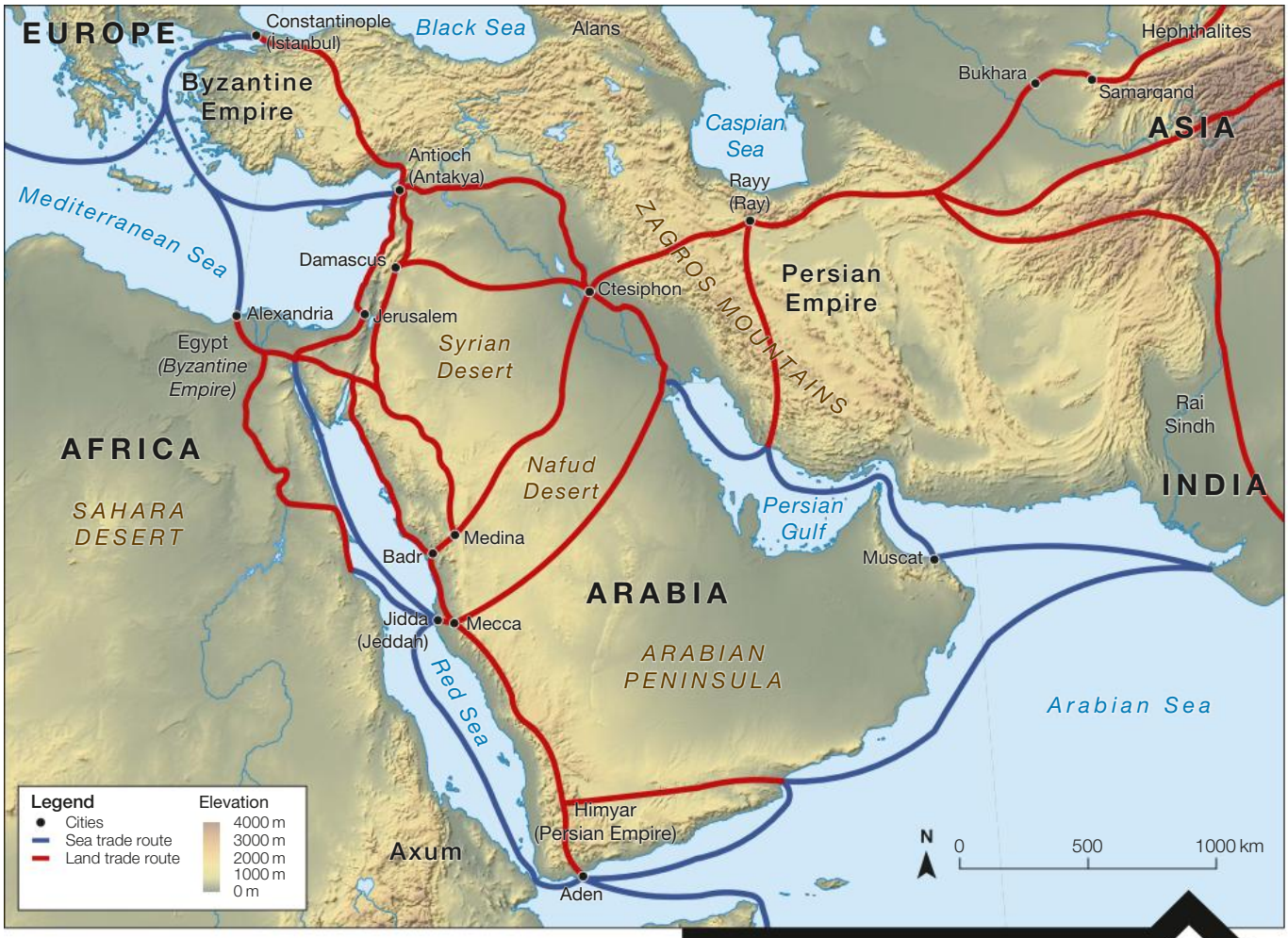


Source: Matilda Education Australia

The appeal of Islam

One of the effects of Islam's introduction was to resolve the constant tribal conflict and nomadic raiding, offering both settled and nomadic Arabs a new common identity as Muslims. In addition, Muhammad instituted a form of compulsory charity, known as the ***zakat***. This required all wealthy Muslims to give a portion of their income to the Islamic leadership. This money was given to poor Muslims, such as the nomadic tribespeople.

Source 1: The terrain of the Arabian Peninsula



Source 2: Trade routes across Arabia, c. 570 CE

Therefore, Islam appealed to the nomadic tribespeople because it gave them some certainty of survival in times of difficulty. It also appealed to the farming tribespeople because it ensured safe passage across Arabia for their trade goods.

Trade across Arabia

In the 7th century CE, the main trade routes between Africa, India and Asia crossed the Arabian Peninsula. Merchants from these regions carried a range of exotic goods, such as spices, gold, ivory, precious stones, pepper, cotton, gum resin and tortoise shells. These goods were unloaded from merchant boats at Yemen and taken north by camels through Arabian towns, such as Najran, Medina and Nawf, before reaching the large city of Damascus in Syria.

Being at the crossroads of world trade made Arabia wealthy. It directly connected Arab merchants with the rest of the world. In addition, Arab merchants who had converted to Islam spread their religion beyond Arabia.

Learning ladder 9.2

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the main geographical features of the Arabian Peninsula.
2. Describe the difference between the nomadic peoples and the farmers of Arabia.
3. Explain how inequality between the nomadic and settled peoples of Arabia led to conflict.
4. Explain why Islam appealed to the people of Arabia.

Continuity and change

1. Identify how trade changed in the 7th century CE.
2. Describe the goods that were traded during this period.
3. Explain how greater trade connections affected Arabia.
4. Source 2: Explain why Arabia's location was ideal for accessing international trade networks.

HOW TO
Continuity and change, page 477

Key individual

Who was Khadija bint Khuwaylid?

Khadija bint Khuwaylid was a successful merchant, a noble of the Quraysh tribe of Mecca and the first wife of Muhammad. She was also the first convert to Islam.

Role as a merchant

Khadija was a wealthy merchant. She had inherited her business from her parents and maintained their well-established trade connections with markets in Damascus and Yemen. Instead of travelling with her **caravans** (traders travelling together across a desert) to distant markets, Khadija employed men to trade for her. In return, they received a percentage of the profits. In 595 CE, Khadija needed a new trader to travel with a caravan to Syria. She hired a young man named Muhammad ibn Abdullah. Muhammad went to Syria with one of Khadija's servants.

Marriage to Muhammad

Muhammad proved to be a trustworthy employee. Khadija proposed marriage, even though Muhammad was several years younger than she was and had no money to support a wife and family. However, with Khadija's assurance that she could financially support herself and a husband, Muhammad's uncles agreed to the marriage and accompanied him to make a formal proposal to Khadija. Muslim accounts differ

Source 1: Arab merchants travel in a caravan past Pharaoh's Island in the Gulf of Aqaba at the northern tip of the Red Sea. These trips were made in large groups to ensure safety from bandits. [David Roberts (1839 CE), *The Bay Caravan*]

on the number of children Muhammad and Khadija had, although most believe he had at least six children, of whom four survived. Their four daughters were named Zaynab, Ruqayyah, Umm Kulthum and Fatima.

During her lifetime, Khadija was Muhammad's only wife. Following her death in 619 CE, Muhammad was encouraged to take more wives. Having multiple wives (a practice known as **polygyny**) was a common practice among the Meccans, and Muhammad contracted a number of marriages, largely for political reasons. Khadija and Muhammad's other wives are revered by Muslims as 'mothers of the believers'.

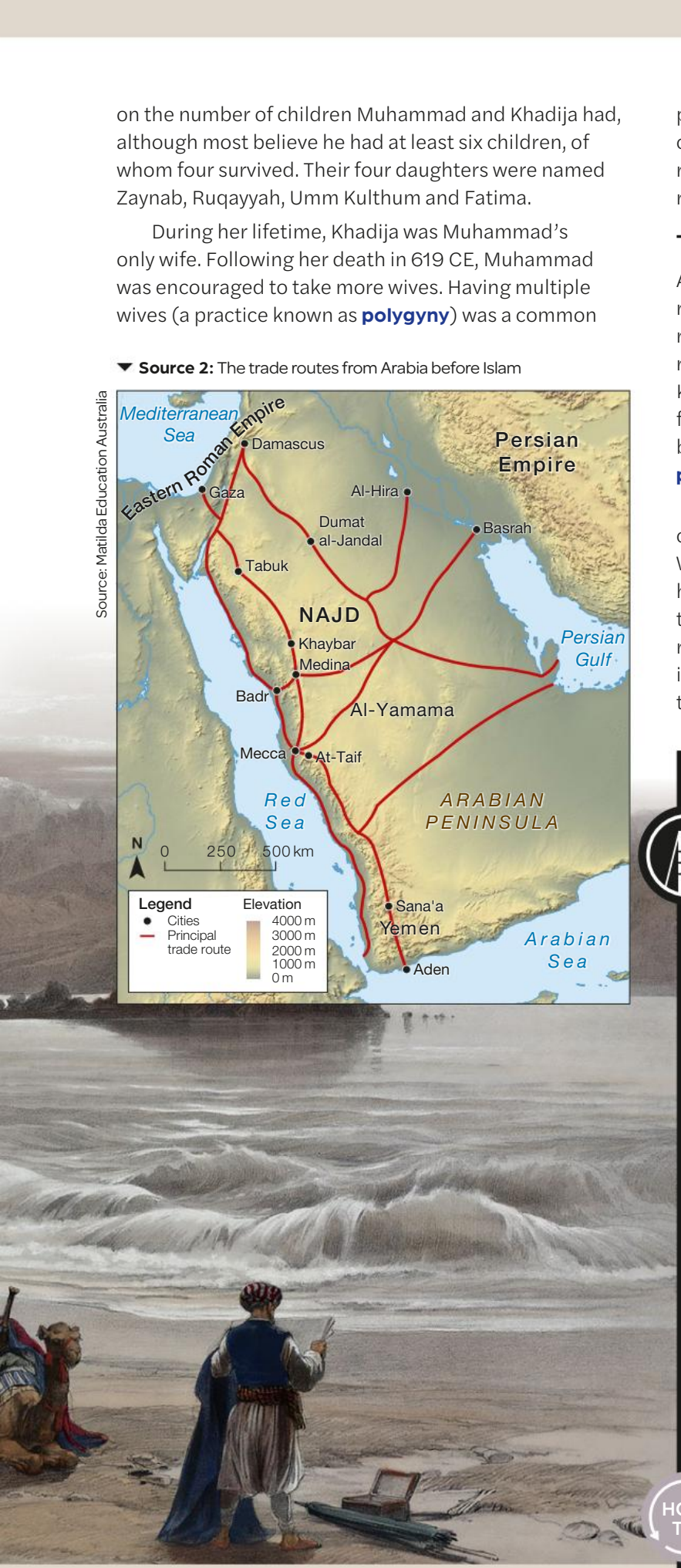
Source 2: The trade routes from Arabia before Islam

Source: Matilda Education Australia

The first convert

As the traditional account goes, after Muhammad received his first revelation from the angel Gabriel, he returned home to Khadija in a state of fear. Khadija reassured him and was the first person to accept Islam. Khadija was a great support for Muhammad during his first missions. Not only did she encourage Muhammad, but also her wealth allowed him to pursue his role as a **prophet** (one who speaks for God).

Khadija also used her wealth to support Muslim converts when they were persecuted by non-Muslims. When she died in 619 CE, Muhammad did not inherit her wealth. It is believed that she gave all her wealth to help the early Muslim community. As a wealthy, respected, mature woman, Khadija's support was highly influential, encouraging many others, especially women, to accept Islam.



Learning ladder 9.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Examine Source 2.
   - **a** Identify the towns along the trade route from Mecca to Damascus.
   - **b** Identify the towns along the trade route from Mecca to Aden.
2. Describe Muhammad's role as Khadija's employee.
3. Explain the role of traders in medieval Arabia.
4. Explain why Muhammad agreed to marry Khadija.

Significance

1. Identify three reasons why Khadija is historically significant.
2. Describe the significance of Muhammad's wives to Muslims.
3. Explain the significance of medieval trade to the rise of Islam.
4. Explain why Khadija was a significant individual in the foundation of Islam.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

What were the early Muslim conquests?

When Islam emerged, the two world superpowers of the 7th century CE – the Persian Empire and the Byzantine Empire – had been engaged in a long war that had left both empires weak and divided.

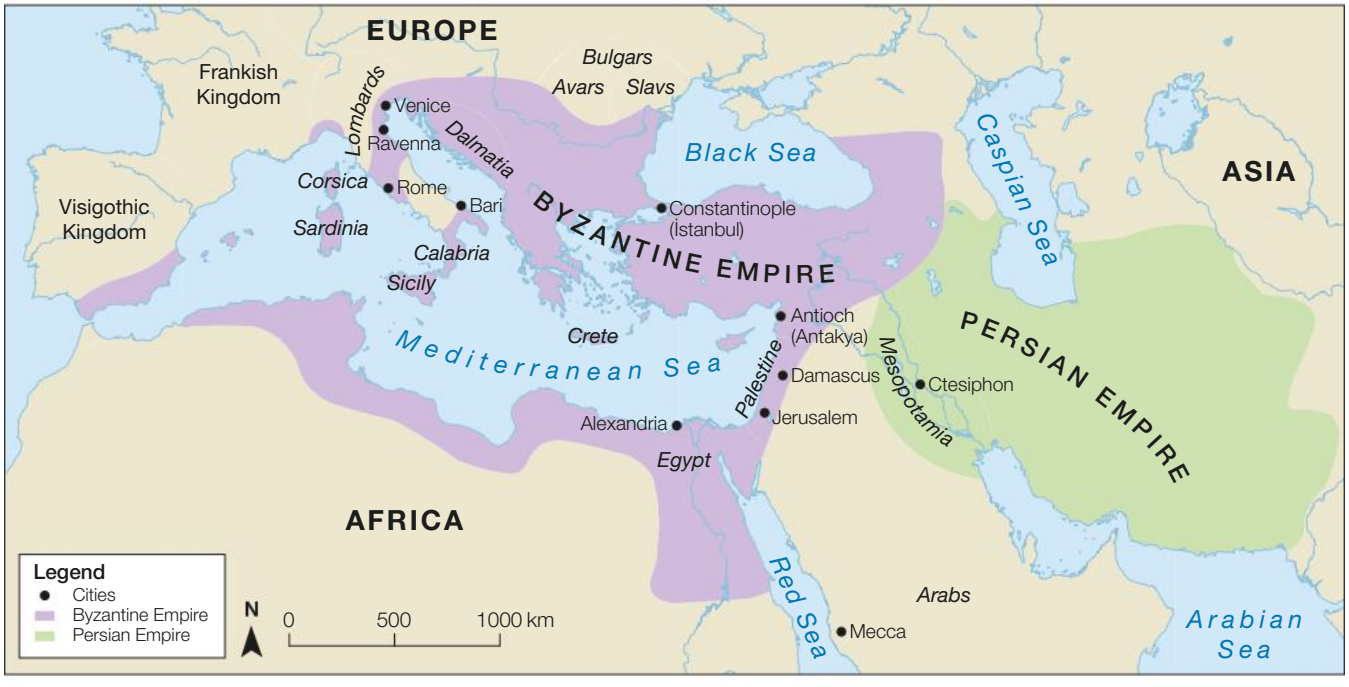
The Persian–Byzantine wars (602–627 CE)

The Persian Empire and Byzantine Empire were at war for decades. Between 602 and 622 CE, Persian forces took control of Byzantine territories in Mesopotamia (Iran and Iraq), Syria, Palestine, Egypt and Anatolia (Türkiye). In 622 CE, the Byzantine Empire – led by the **emperor** Heraclius – regained control. The Byzantine army achieved a decisive victory against the Persians at the Battle of Nineveh (627 CE), which led to the overthrow of Khosrow II (the **shah**, or king, of Persia). The new shah, Kavad II, immediately sued for peace and withdrew from all occupied Byzantine territories. By the end of the conflict, both sides had exhausted their armies and wealth, leaving them vulnerable to attack.

The conquest of the Persian Empire

By the end of the wars with the Byzantine Empire, the Persian Empire was in turmoil. Abu Bakr (reigned 632–634 CE) of the Rashidun caliphate decided to invade the crumbling Persian Empire. In 633 CE, Abu Bakr's forces had invaded Asoristan, a major city in Mesopotamia, but were unable to hold it against a Persian counterattack. However, in 636 CE, the armies of the second Rashidun caliph, Umar (634–644 CE), defeated a much larger Persian force at the Battle of al-Qadisiyyah. This victory was followed by an attack on the Persian capital city, Ctesiphon, which ended in another victory for Muslim forces in 637 CE and the capture of Persia's imperial treasury (where treasure is stored). The Battle of al-Qadisiyyah ended Persian control of Iraq. A major Persian counterattack was launched in 641 CE at the Battle of Nahavand, but it was unsuccessful. By 651 CE, the last Persian shah, Yazdegerd III, had been killed, marking the end of the Persian Empire.

The Byzantine and Persian Empires c. 600 CE



Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** The Byzantine and Persian Empires, c. 600 CE

The expansion of the Muslim Empire

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: Muslim conquests during the Rashidun caliphate (632–661 CE)

The invasion of the Byzantine Empire

Islamic forces also invaded the territories of the Byzantine Empire. In 633 CE, Muslim armies led by Khalid ibn al-Walid invaded Iraq and Syria, capturing Damascus in 634 CE. Hoping to stem the Muslim expansion, Emperor Heraclius assembled a huge army in Syria. Syria had been part of the Roman Empire since 64 BCE and was then part of the empire of its successor, the Byzantine Empire. Unable to defeat Heraclius's forces, Khalid ibn al-Walid withdrew his troops to the Yarmuk Plains. This was a strong defensive position and in the decisive battle that followed, Khalid led the Muslims to a magnificent victory. The Battle of the Yarmuk ended 700 years of Roman-Byzantine rule in Syria. By 637 CE, the city of Jerusalem had surrendered. Caliph Umar allowed the Jews to return after nearly three centuries of exile under the Romans and Byzantines and instituted a policy of religious freedom for Christians. Egypt surrendered to Muslim invaders in 642 CE.

Consequences of the early Muslim conquests

The early Muslim conquests of the 7th century CE were highly significant. They swept away Persian control of Central Asia and greatly reduced the power of the Byzantine Empire. The conquests changed the control of North Africa, Syria and Palestine. Moreover, these victories laid the foundations for Islam to become a major influence in the Middle East.

Learning ladder 9.4

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the two major empires shown on this map.
2. Describe the state of the Persian and Byzantine Empires at the end of the Persian–Byzantine wars.
3. Explain how Muslim forces defeated the Persian Empire.
4. Explain why Khalid ibn al-Walid won the Battle of Yarmuk.
5. Evaluate the reasons why the Islamic Empire expanded so rapidly.

Continuity and change

1. Identify which empire ended, which empire continued and which empire arose during the 7th century CE.
2. Sources 1 and 2: Describe the differences between these two maps. What changes had occurred?
3. Explain how the Muslim conquest changed the Middle East.
4. Explain why the early Muslim conquests demonstrate the concept of continuity and change.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 477

9.5

What was the structure of medieval Islamic society?

Islamic society was divided into social groups based on power, wealth, religious beliefs, tribal affiliation and gender.

The caliph

The **caliph** was the leader of the Muslim world. The earliest caliphs of the Rashidun caliphate (632–661 CE) were relatives and companions of Muhammad. During this time, the caliph ruled as the community's chief administrator, religious leader, military commander and judge.

State officials and leaders

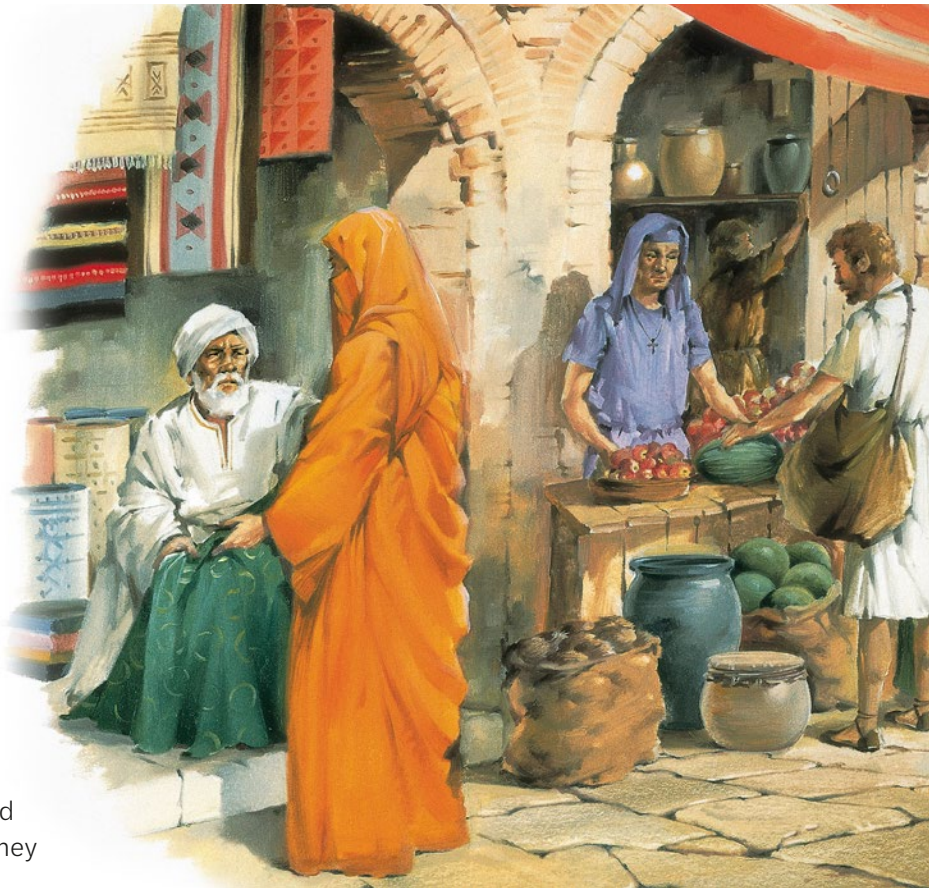
As the caliphates became larger and more complex, more people were needed to help the caliph maintain order. By the time of the Abbasid caliphate (750–1258 CE), several state officials supported the caliphs. There were three types of state official: (i) the ***wazir*** (or chief minister), who advised the caliph on matters of government and carried out his commands; (ii) the ***emirs***, military commanders who led invasions and governed newly conquered territories; and (iii) the ***qadis***, who acted as judges on behalf of the caliph. Another important group of leaders were the ***ulema***. The ulema were religious scholars and held authority over the interpretation of Islamic law, which prevented the caliph from arbitrarily making his own laws.

The nobles

The caliphs needed people with experience in administration and leadership to help them rule their expanding empire. To do this, they employed people from the newly conquered Persian and Byzantine Empires as well as Arab administrators. This group became the nobles. The nobles from Persia and Byzantium included Christians, Jews and Zoroastrians (who believed in one god called Ahura Mazda and a destructive force called Ahriman). They worked as advisors, scribes and scholars for the caliph. In return for their expertise, they were given land.

The ruled

The majority of the people in the caliphate were called 'the ruled'. Initially, the ruled were nearly all Arab people, but as the Islamic Empire grew and people converted to Islam, the ruled included Persians, Syrians, Egyptians and other ethnicities. The ruled worked in lots of different occupations, such as artisans, shopkeepers, farm labourers, midwives and servants. While some ordinary people had owned small farms during the Rashidun caliphate, by the time of the Umayyad and Abbasid dynasties, most of the ruled worked on the land of the nobles.



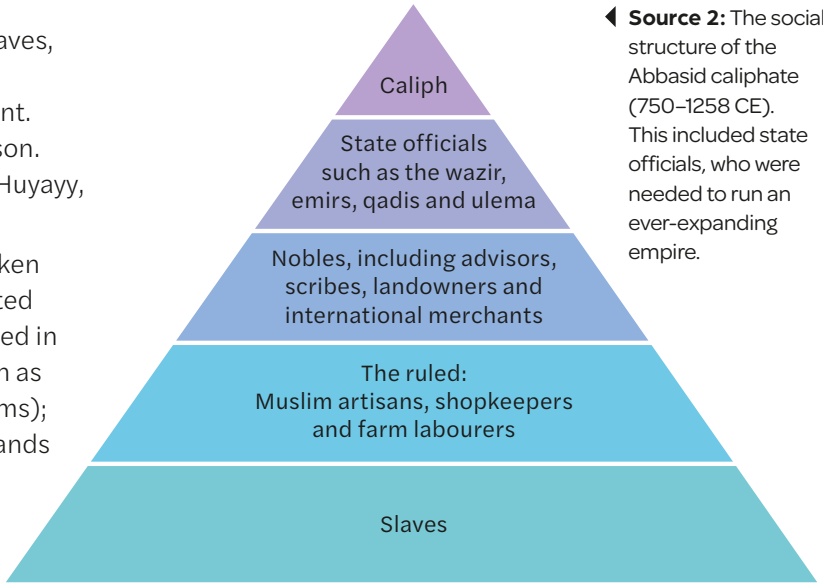
Many lived in towns and villages that had a mosque and a bazaar. Mosques were places of worship that also housed courts and schools. The bazaars were markets where locally grown foods, such as olives, almonds, apricots, figs and dates, were sold.

Slaves

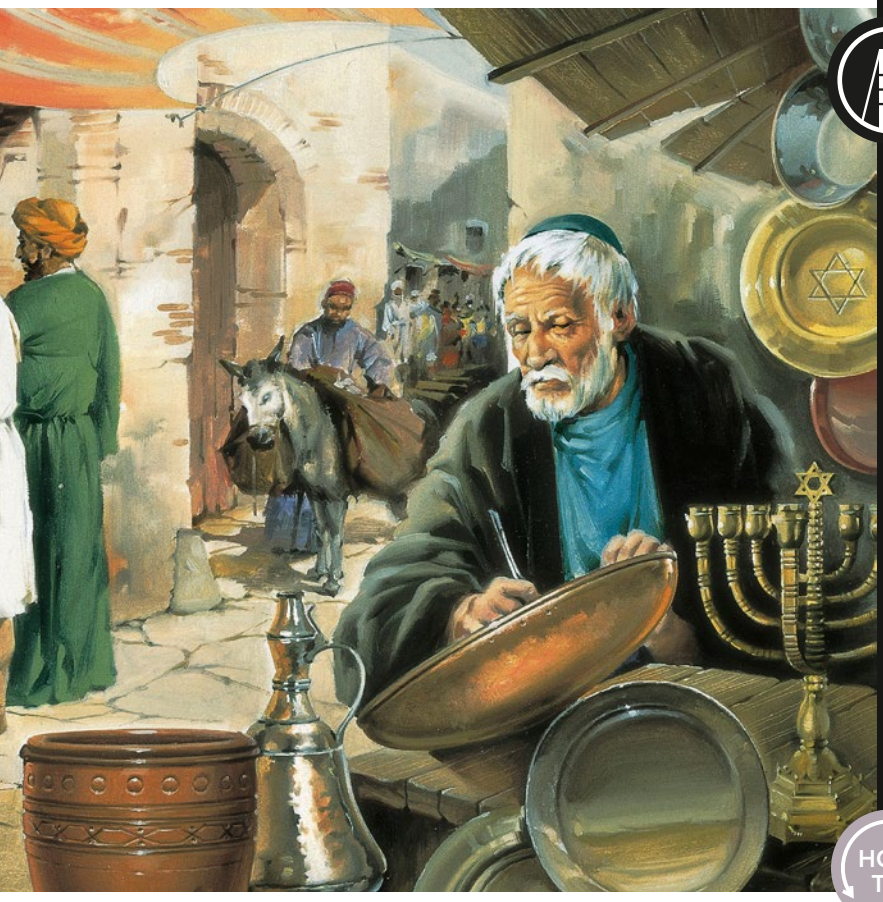
Slavery was widespread throughout the Islamic caliphates. Muhammad himself owned several slaves, including Zayd ibn Haritha, whom Muhammad's wife Khadija had given to him as a wedding present. Muhammad later freed and adopted Zayd as his son. Another of Muhammad's slaves was Safiyya bint Huyayy, whom he freed and married as his tenth wife.

There were strict rules about who could be taken into slavery. Although slavery had been unrestricted before Islam, under Islamic law, slavery was allowed in three instances: (i) enemy peoples could be taken as slaves during war (as long as they were not Muslims); (ii) slaves that had been bought beyond Islamic lands were permitted; and (iii) children born to slave parents were automatically considered slaves.

Freeing one's slaves was seen as an act of great piety, but it was not necessary for a devout Muslim to free his slaves. This meant that while the Islamic Empire was expanding, there was an abundance of slaves and most people believed that slavery was acceptable. Even most of the Abbasid caliphs themselves were sons of slave mothers.



Source 2: The social structure of the Abbasid caliphate (750–1258 CE). This included state officials, who were needed to run an ever-expanding empire.



Source 1: International merchants employed men from 'the ruled' level of society to take their goods to markets across the caliphate.

Learning ladder 9.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the role and social class of the people in this source.
2. Describe the role of the caliph.
3. Explain how state officials helped to run the empire.
4. Explain why the ruled included people of many different ethnicities.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify the effect of Islamic expansion on the types of goods available at markets across the caliphate.
2. Describe the effect the expansion of the Islamic caliphate had on slavery.
3. Explain the cause of the diverse range of people in the noble class.
4. Explain why the number of state officials expanded.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

How did the caliphs rule a multicultural empire?

As the empire grew, its new territories included people of many different religions, languages and cultures.

Jewish, Christian and Zoroastrian subjects

The non-Muslim subjects of the caliphate – including Jews, Christians and Zoroastrians – were protected by the state and were known as ***dhimmis*** (which means 'protected'). All dhimmi men had to pay a tax, called the *jizya*. The amount was usually based on their economic status (the rich paid more). Members of dhimmi communities could avoid paying the jizya if they served in the army. While dhimmis were allowed to follow their own religious rituals and laws (they even had their own courts and judges) and celebrate their own festivals, they were seen as separate from the Muslim community and were considered to be second-class citizens under the law.

Christian and Persian nobles

During the Umayyad caliphate, the majority of the population of the empire was Christian. Most of the prominent government positions in Syria were held by Christians, and the Umayyad's government organisation was based on that of the Byzantine Empire. By the time of the Abbasid caliphate, the majority of wazirs and nobles, as well as the leading scholars, were Zoroastrian Persians. The Persian Empire had used a sophisticated government system to collect taxes, organise the military, correspond with regional leaders and communicate with foreign rulers. Muslim conquerors adopted the Persian systems and employed Persian experts to run their new empire.

Intolerance and persecution

While tolerance for other religions was the norm in the Islamic Empire, during times of political instability some caliphs encouraged persecution of non-Muslims and Muslims of different factions. For example, the *Mihna* (Inquisition) was instituted by the seventh Abbasid caliph, al-Ma'mun (813–833 CE), who imprisoned even famous scholars, such as Imam Ahmad ibn Hanbal who was the founder of a major school of Sunni religious law.

> Kashmar, a village, is one of the scattered settlements in the district of Nishabur [in Persia]. In it there was a cypress tree, one of the noble straight cypresses, which was planted by Kushtasb the King. Its like in beauty, height, and size was not to be seen; and it was one of the wonders of Khurasan. Al-Mutawakkil was told about it and was anxious to see it. As it was not possible for him to make the journey to Khurasan, he wrote to Tahir ibn Abdullah, giving him orders to cut it down, load the pieces of its trunk and branches upon camels, and bring it to him personally, because he wanted to see it. His counsellors advised against this ... but their advice concerning the cypress was of no avail. When the people of the district around Kashmar were told of this they gathered together, implored, and offered money for its preservation, but without effect. The cypress was cut down. The grief of the people (assembling) around it was great; lamentations arose and tears were (shed) upon it. Wrapping it in wool, they sent it on camels to Baghdad.
>
> **Source 1:** This text was written by Qazwini, who was a Muslim scholar from Persia who lived during the 13th century CE. [Qazwini (1275 CE), *Marvels of Creation and Rarities of Existence*]

The Mihna was ended by the 10th Abbasid caliph, al-Mutawakkil (847–861 CE), who released Ibn Hanbal from prison. Al-Mutawakkil, however, was known for being harsh on non-Muslims; he destroyed churches and issed a decree requiring all Christians and Jews to wear a yellow hood and belt to distinguish them from Muslims. Under his rule, non-Muslims were forbidden from holding official government positions, even though they had played important roles before.

Source 2: A brass **astrolabe** made during the Abbasid caliphate, c. 800 CE. Astrolabes were invented in ancient Greece and used to calculate the position of stars and planets. The astrolabe was introduced to Islamic astronomers by Severus Sabokt, a Christian bishop and scholar from Syria. Sebokt wrote a text on the use of brass astrolabes in his *Description of the Astrolabe*, c. 650 CE.

In addition, al-Mutawakkil ordered the Cypress of Kashmar to be cut down and used in the construction of his new palace. The Cypress of Kashmar was an ancient cypress tree that was sacred to the Zoroastrians. They believed that the tree had been brought from Paradise. The caliph was murdered before the Cypress arrived, with legend interpreting this as divine retribution.

Non-Arab Muslims

By 750 CE, the caliphate included the former Persian Empire (Iran), the Middle East, Egypt and North Africa. Over time, many people in these regions converted to Islam. Some fully accepted the Islamic faith, while others converted to avoid paying the jizya or to avoid discrimination. Others adopted Islam so that they could advance their career in the caliphate government. By the time the Abbasid caliphate collapsed, around half of all subjects were Muslim.

However, despite their conversion to Islam, non-Arab Muslims were initially considered to be inferior to Arab Muslims. Even though many non-Arab Muslims held important positions in the caliphate, they were known as ***mawali*** (clients) and had to pay higher taxes. This created resentment among the non-Arab Muslims.

By the time of the Abbasid caliphate, the policies that distinguished Arabs and mawali had been abolished. Non-Arab Muslims and Arab Muslims were considered to be equal. As the Abbasid period went on, differences between Arab and non-Arab Muslims faded. The Islamic religion became their shared identity and Arabic became the language of the empire.

Learning ladder 9.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the members of the dhimmi.
2. What were the rights and responsibilities of the members of the dhimmi?
3. Source 1: Explain how Caliph al-Mutawakkil persecuted Zoroastrians during his rule.
4. Source 2: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain the role played by Christian scholars in the caliphates.

Perspectives

1. Identify the perspective of Muslim rulers towards the dhimmi.
2. Source 1: Describe:
   - **a** the Zoroastrians' perspective of the Cypress of Kashmar
   - **b** Caliph al-Mutawakkil's perspective of the Cypress Tree of Kashmar.
3. Source 1: Explain the perspective of Caliph al-Mutawakkil's advisors.
4. Explain why attitudes to the mawali changed.
5. Source 1: Explain the perspective of the author of this source.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

9.7

What was the role of women in the early Islamic empires?

The lives of women changed greatly between the time of Muhammad and the period of the Abbasid caliphate.

Women's roles in the early days of Islam

Women were some of the first converts to Islam and were among the companions of Muhammad who followed him from Mecca to Medina in 622 CE. Women's contributions to the establishment of Islam were greatly valued and needed at a time when the community was small and vulnerable. They also played key roles in wars fought between the Muslims and their enemies. Women such as Umm Umara fought in many of Muhammad's battles to defend Islam such as the Battle of Uhud (625 CE) and the Battle of Hunayn (630 CE). In addition, women provided medical support by attending to wounded soldiers and carrying the dead and wounded from the battlefield.

Women also fought in battles led by the first and second caliphs. Umm Hakim single-handedly killed seven Byzantine soldiers at the Battle of Marj al-Saffar (634 CE) while Khawlah bint al-Azwar was a legendary fearsome warrior who played a major role in the conquest of the Levant. Aisha – Muhammad's youngest wife – led the Battle of the Camel (656 CE) against the forces of Ali when he was the caliph, during a period of civil strife.

Women's lives in the early days of Islam

Generally, Muslim women were expected to marry and have children. Most women married between the ages of 12 and 16. While the majority of marriages were between one man and one woman, men among the ruling classes usually practised polygyny, meaning they had two or more wives at once.

Marriage provided financial security for women and ensured they could work in the home as healers, weavers and caretakers of children. Women usually remarried if they divorced or their husband died. Widows who had no sons or male relatives to look after them faced extreme poverty.

> Heraclius gathered large bodies of Greeks, Syrians, Mesopotamians and Armenians numbering about 200 000 … The Muslims gathered together and the Greek army marched against them. The battle they fought at al-Yarmuk was of the fiercest and bloodiest kind … In this battle 24 000 Muslims took part. The Greeks and their followers in this battle tied themselves to each other by chains, so that no one might set his hope on flight. By Allah's help, some 70 000 of them were put to death, and their remnants took to flight, reaching as far as Palestine, Antioch, Aleppo, Mesopotamia and Armenia. In the battle of al-Yarmuk certain Muslim women took part and fought violently … Among them was Hind, daughter of Utbah and mother of Muawivah ibn-abi-Sufyan, who repeatedly exclaimed, 'Cut the arms of these … with your swords!' Her husband abu-Sufvan had come to Syria as a volunteer desiring to see his sons, and so he brought his wife with him.
>
> **Source 1:** This text is an account of women warriors at the Battle of the Yarmuk (636 CE). [Extract from Ahmad ibn-Jabir al-Baladhuri (c. 860 CE), *The Origins of the Islamic State (Kitab Futuh al-Buldhan)*]

Although women had initially been able to participate in numerous ways during the early days of Islam, the old attitudes about women's subservience to men quickly re-established themselves in how Islam was interpreted in succeeding centuries. Unlike in pre-Islamic times, however, women were considered spiritually equal to men and entitled to fair treatment under the law.

Source 2: Women fought and encouraged their husbands to fight at the Battle of the Yarmuk (636 CE).

Unlike women in most other societies at this time, Muslim women had the right to inherit property; however, they were only entitled to half a man's share as men were expected to carry the burden of financially supporting the women in their families. Nevertheless, women could hold their own wealth separate to their husbands, and women in the upper classes often owned property and businesses, such as those connected with the spice trade.

Women's lives in the Abbasid caliphate

As the Islamic Empire expanded, women's lives became far more restricted. In contrast to the earlier period of the Islamic Empire, women played a limited role in the leadership of Abbasid society; only a few of the wives of the caliphs were able to exert much influence. In addition, women from all classes were kept secluded in their homes and had to wear a veil to show that they were virtuous. Women were also less likely to have economic power in the Abbasid period and were entirely dependent on their husbands for support. The legal rights of women also declined. While Islamic law granted them the right to own property and to divorce, these rights were often not upheld during the Abbasid caliphate.

However, in spite of these restrictions, there were still a few women in the Abbasid caliphate who became prominent in Islamic society. They wrote poetry and were renowned spiritual teachers. For example, Raabia al-Adwiyya (714–801 CE) was a well-known poet, spiritual leader and teacher during the Abbasid caliphate. Sayyida Nafisa (762–830 CE) was also a famous spiritual leader, while Ulayya bint al-Mahdi (777–825 CE), princess and daughter of the third Abbasid caliph, was a great poet and a talented musician.

Learning ladder 9.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the role of women at the Battle of the Yarmuk.
2. Describe the importance of marriage for Muslim women.
3. Explain the rights of women during the early Islamic empires.
4. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the role of women in expanding the Islamic empires.

Continuity and change

1. Identify three important women in Islamic history.
2. Describe the lives of women at the time of the Abbasid caliphate.
3. Outline the differences between the roles of famous women in the early Islamic period and the roles of famous women during the Abbasid caliphate.
4. Explain why women had more influence in the early Islamic period.

Continuity and change, page 477

HOW TO

9.8

How did the Umayyad caliphate rise to power?

During the Umayyad caliphate, the Muslims ruled over one of the largest empires in history. A major split in the Islamic religion also occurred at this time.

The origins of the Umayyads

Before the coming of Islam, the Umayyads were members of the Quraysh tribe of Mecca. They had come to dominate the trade networks between Mecca and Syria by the late 6th century CE. The Umayyads were initially opposed to Muhammad's message; however, after Muhammad captured Mecca in 630 CE, the Umayyads declared their support for Islam.

The First Fitna (656–661CE)

In 656 CE, Ali became the fourth caliph of the Rashidun caliphate. The Umayyads, however, were opposed to the rule of Ali. They were not alone in their opposition. In what became the First ***Fitna*** (Muslim **civil war**), a rebel army led by Aisha (one of Muhammad's widows), Talha and Zubayr (companions of Muhammad) revolted against Ali and deposed him. The two armies fought the Battle of the Camel (656 CE), which Ali's forces won. Then in 657 CE, Umayyad leader Muawiya led another army against Ali at the Battle of Siffin, which resulted in a stalemate.

However, following the assassination of Ali in 661 CE, Muawiya was acknowledged as caliph. Shia Muslims, who had long believed that Ali was the legitimate leader of Islam, were angry about Ali's assassination and opposed Muawiya's rule.

The Second Fitna (680–692 CE)

Muawiya I nominated his son, Yazid, as his successor. Passing the crown from father to son was unheard of among the Arabs at the time. Many Muslim leaders were opposed to Yazid's succession because they believed that they should decide who was the best person to become caliph, and because Yazid was widely reviled as a corrupt and dishonourable figure. Ultimately, most Muslims accepted Yazid as their new caliph, but the Shia remained opposed to Yazid's rule.

When Yazid came to the throne in 680 CE, the Shia formed an army against the Umayyads. The army was led by Muhammad's grandson, Husayn. At the Battle of Karbala (680 CE), Husayn, along with nearly all his relatives and supporters, was killed. While all Muslims, whether Sunni or Shia, considered Husayn's death to be a great tragedy, for Shia Muslims it led them to adopt a distinct understanding of Islam. They rejected the authority of the caliphs and decided that only the descendants of Ali (known as imams) were the legitimate leaders of Muslims. Strong resistance to the rule of Yazid I and his successor, Muawiya II, lasted for the next 12 years. However, by 692 CE, the Umayyads had reasserted their control over the caliphate.

Source 1: Abbas Al-Musavi (c. 1900 CE), *The Battle of Karbala (680 CE)*. This painting illustrates the divide between the Sunni and Shia branches of Islam. Muhammad's grandson, Husayn, led a Shia resistance against what they thought was the Umayyads' illegitimate rule.

The rule of Abd al-Malik

The fifth Umayyad caliph, Abd al-Malik (685–705 CE), made several important changes to secure his power. These were so successful that Abd al-Malik and his descendants ruled for another 58 years. He increased his control as caliph and strengthened the practice of hereditary rule. Abd al-Malik also restructured the army, placing loyal Arab troops from Syria in positions of power in the provinces.

In addition, Abd al-Malik put reforms in place to unify his empire. He made Arabic the first language of the government and ensured that key government positions were only held by his relatives. He also introduced a single new currency throughout the empire, replacing Byzantine and Persian coins. At first, his coins featured an image of himself and his title, 'Commander of the Faithful', but later they contained religious inscriptions.

Abd al-Malik appointed al-Hajjaj as governor of Iraq in this year [694 CE], writing him a letter in his own hand: 'Hajjaj! For your loyalty to me, I have appointed you over Basra and Kufa. When you arrive in Kufa, give it a trampling from which Basrans will shrink! ... I have aimed at the furthest target – throw yourself at it and seek that which I seek through you! Peace.' When al-Hajjaj arrived in Kufa, he mounted the pulpit, his head wrapped in his turban, and wielding his bow and quiver. He seated himself on the pulpit and remained silent for so long that the townspeople thought of pelting him with stones. Then he spoke: 'People of Kufa ... The Commander of the Faithful, having emptied his quiver and checked shaft after shaft, has found me to be one of the sharpest and strongest of all, and has loosed me against you. He has appointed me as a whip and a sword to rule you: the whip has been dropped and the sword now remains.' He spoke at length, threatening and terrifying the Kufans ...

Source 2: An account of al-Hajjaj by Ibn Wadih Al Yaqubi in his book, *The History (Ta'rikh)* (c. 870 CE). [Cited in Matthew S. Gordon et. al., eds (2018 CE), *The Works of Ibn Wadih al-Yaqubi: An English Translation*, vol. 3]

Source 3: A gold dinar minted in Damascus in c. 697 CE. The central inscription on the left reads, 'There is no God but God, He is alone, He has no associate.' The central inscription on the right is taken from the Quran and reads: 'God is one, God is the eternal, He did not beget [have children] and He was not begotten [conceived]'.

Al-Hajjaj ibn Yusuf was one of Abd al-Malik's most trusted commanders. Al-Hajjaj was placed in charge of Iraq, including Basra and Kufa. Al-Hajjaj vigorously enforced Abd al-Malik's rulings, introducing new silver *dirhams* and changing the language of the tax registers to Arabic. He also expelled all non-Arab Muslims from the towns of Kufa and Basra, forcing them to pay the jizya and return to their villages to work on farms.

Learning ladder 9.8

Background and origins

1. Identify the original Arab tribe of the Umayyads.
2. Describe the difference between the Sunni and Shia views on who should have become Muhammad's successor.
3. Explain the outcome of the First Fitna.
4. Explain why Yazid's rule was controversial.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 3: Describe the source.
3. Source 2: Explain how Al-Hajjaj ibn Yusuf controlled the people of Kufa.
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why Caliph Abd al-Malik decided to appoint al-Hajjaj ibn Yusuf as governor of Basra and Kufa.
5. Source 3: Evaluate the effect of the new coinage on Abd al-Malik's subjects.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

What did the Umayyad caliphate achieve?

The Umayyads expanded their Islamic Empire across Asia, Africa and Europe, ushering in a new era for Islam as a global religion.

Expansion of the caliphate

The Umayyads continued to expand their empire, even as they battled to secure their own power. They conquered Ifriqiya and the Maghreb (Libya, Tunisia and Algeria) (665–742 CE), Transoxiana (northeast Iran) (673–751 CE), Sindh (Pakistan) (711–719 CE) and Hispania (Spain) (711–721 CE). In taking over these regions, the Umayyads also gained control of some key medieval trade cities, including Bukhara, Tashkent and Samarkand. Trade brought tremendous wealth, power and influence to the Umayyads. It also enabled the religion of Islam to spread far beyond Arabia. Islam, no longer confined to Arabia, became a major world religion.

In spite of their rapid and extensive expansion, the Umayyads maintained control over their vast territory. In addition to Caliph al-Malik's restructure of the army, the Umayyads also created a postal system (the ***barid***). This system, operated by the caliphate, ensured that official correspondence was delivered across the empire. Based on the systems they inherited from the Persians and the Byzantines, the Umayyad barid relied on messengers travelling on horses, camels or on foot from the postal centre in Damascus to the provinces.

> With matters safely in his hands and the provinces at peace, with not a single district requiring pacification, nor indeed his attention, Abd al-Malik set out to make the pilgrimage in year 75 [694 CE]. He arrived in Medina, donned pilgrim's garments at Dhu al-Hulayfa and entered Mecca and later the mosque, uttering the invocation, 'Here we are, O God! Here we are!' all the while. He delivered a sermon each day for four straight days, and led the sunset prayer ...
>
> **Source 1:** This is an account of al-Malik's hajj , which was written by Ibn Wadih Al Yaqubi. [Ibn Wadih Al Yaqubi (c. 870 CE), *The History (Ta'rikh)*]

The Umayyads also developed a system of banking to help expand their empire. The Umayyad finance houses helped individuals who needed money to pay for marriage expenses or to develop their farms. They also established banks as safe places for individuals to keep their money, on the understanding that the banks could lend this money to others in the short term.

Umayyad architecture

The Umayyads made their capital in Damascus, Syria. In addition to its importance as a centre of trade, Damascus was a very beautiful city, full of stunning Byzantine buildings. The Umayyads added to this

Source 2: The Umayyad Mosque, one of the earliest surviving stone mosques, built in Damascus between 706 and 715 CE by the Umayyad Caliph Walid I

Muslim conquests during the 7th and 8th centuries

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 3:** The conquests of the Rashidun and Umayyad caliphates

splendour, blending Byzantine and Persian styles to create unique designs. One of their most famous buildings is the Umayyad Mosque, built by Caliph Walid I in 706–715 CE. Originally, the Christian Cathedral of St John had stood on the site, itself built over the remains of a pagan temple; the Muslims also dedicated their new building to John the Baptist.

Another important Umayyad-era building was the Dome of the Rock, built in Jerusalem by Caliph al-Malik I in 691–692 CE. It was built on the site of the Second Jewish Temple (originally built in 515 BCE and destroyed by the Romans in 70 CE). The Dome of the Rock was modelled on Byzantine churches.

Consolidating Islam

During the Umayyad period, there were several significant developments that formalised the nature of the Islamic religion. The writing and recitation of the **Quran** (the central religious text for Muslims) was standardised throughout the caliphate. The **hadith** (oral reports of what Muhammad said and did during his lifetime that had been passed down as oral history for over 100 years after Muhammad's death) were written down by Islamic scholars. Attendance at Friday prayers became an important way to show not only piety but also support for the government during the Umayyad caliphate.

Administration of the hajj (pilgrimage) to Mecca was another aspect of Islam that grew in prominence during the Umayyad period. Several Umayyad caliphs led a hajj, demonstrating and legitimising their role as leader of the Muslim community. Several important hajj routes into the Arabian Peninsula date from the Umayyad period.

Learning ladder 9.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 3: Identify the regions conquered by the Umayyads.
2. Describe the influences on Umayyad architecture.
3. Explain how Islamic practices were consolidated during the Umayyad period.
4. Explain why the barid was beneficial to the expansion of the Umayyad Empire.

Chronology

1. Source 2: Identify the date when this building was completed.
2. Put the following events in chronological order:
   - 710 CE: Umayyads capture Samarkand (in Central Asia)
   - 661 CE: Umayyads establish Damascus, Syria, as the capital of their empire
   - 712 CE: Umayyads capture Cordoba (in Al-Andalus)
   - 710 CE: Umayyads capture Bukhara (in Central Asia).
3. Using the dates in Question 2, construct a timeline.
4. Source 3: How does the timeline help explain the Islamic empire's increasing control over medieval trade?

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

Site study

Why is the Dome of the Rock important?

The Dome of the Rock has been designated a World Heritage site for its architectural and religious significance. It is also significant as a site for Muslim pilgrims today because it is built on the site where Muslims believe the Prophet Muhammad ascended to heaven.

A site of many faiths

Built by Umayyad Caliph Abd al-Malik between 691 and 692 CE, the Dome of the Rock is one of the oldest remaining Islamic buildings in the world. It was constructed in Jerusalem as a Muslim shrine on an elevated site known as the Noble Sanctuary to Muslims (and as the Temple Mount to Jews). The Foundation Stone inside the shrine marks the site where Muhammad is believed to have ascended to Heaven to speak with God. The Foundation Stone is also considered a sacred site in Judaism and Christianity.

When Jerusalem was captured during the First Crusade in 1099 CE, the Dome of the Rock was transformed into a Christian church and remained so for nearly 90 years. In 1187 CE, Jerusalem was recaptured by Saladin and the Dome of the Rock was again turned into a Muslim shrine, and has remained so throughout the rest of its history.

Architectural design

The Dome of the Rock has an octagonal base with a large wooden dome on top. Its original structure and design are modelled on Byzantine churches and palaces. Both the interior and exterior are decorated with marble, mosaic tiles and stained-glass windows. Unlike Byzantine buildings, the Dome of the Rock contains no representations of human or animal forms.

The outside of the building has changed over the centuries, including the recent addition of an aluminium and gold-leaf roof. Arabic religious inscriptions are found around the octagonal arcade. They contain some of the earliest known proclamations of Islam from the Prophet Muhammad.

The dome

The wooden dome is 25 metres high and 20 metres wide and is covered in gold-coated aluminium. The inside of the dome is decorated with marble and mosaic tiles featuring verses from the Qur'ān.

Inside decoration

Mosaic tiles inside the dome reflect Byzantine designs with the exception of the depiction of living beings because Muslims believe that the use of images of living beings for worship is idolatrous. The mosaics feature abstracted patterns based on plants, jewels and crowns as well as inscriptions in Arabic.

Outside decoration

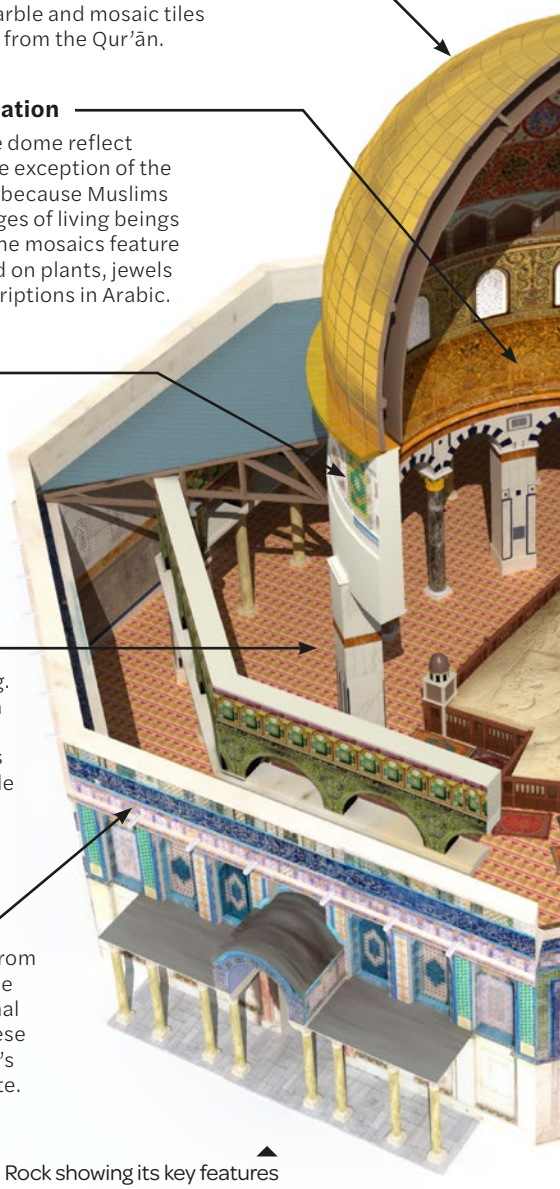
Mosaic tiles on the outside of the building were replaced with Persian faience tiles when the building was restored by the Ottoman sultan Suleiman the Magnificent in the 16th century CE. Many of these tiles were replaced with copies in the 1960s CE.

The ambulatories

An ambulatory is an aisle for walking. The two concentric ambulatories in the Dome of the Rock surround the Foundation Stone, to allow pilgrims to walk around the sacred stone while reading scripture from the Quran inscribed on the walls.

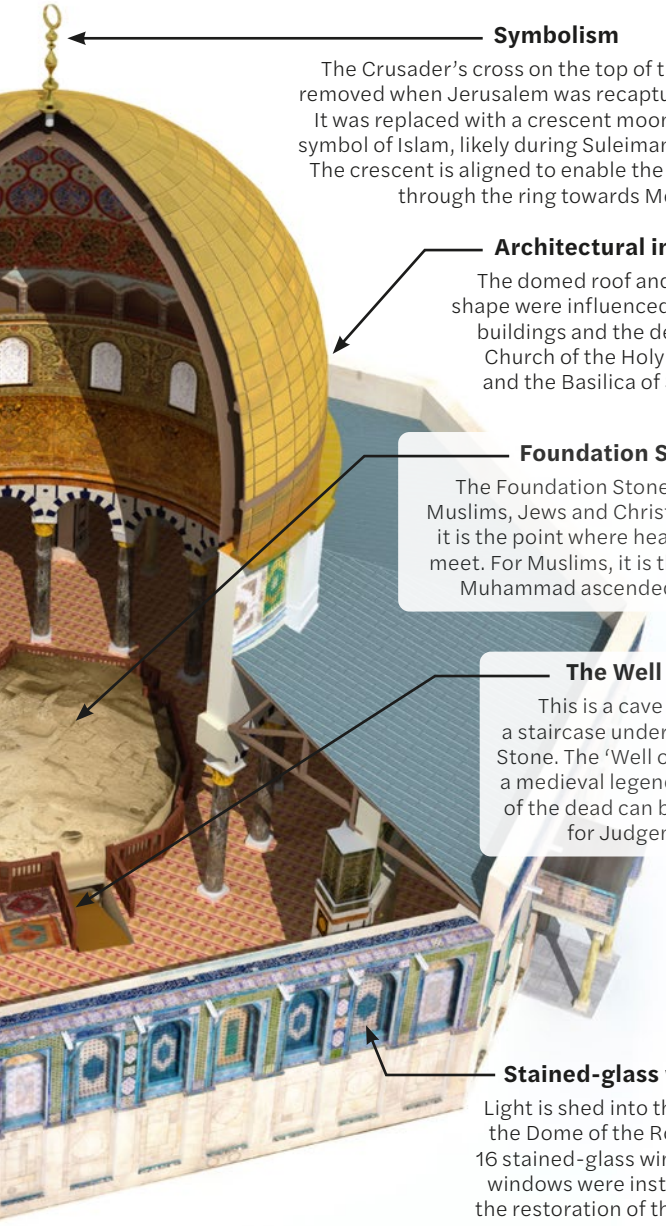
Inscriptions

Early Arabic religious inscriptions from the Quran are located on both the inside and outside of the octagonal walls of the Dome of the Rock. These inscriptions cement the building's importance as a sacred Islamic site.



Source 1: A cross-section of the Dome of the Rock showing its key features

Source 2: The Dome of the Rock today. Security restrictions do not allow non-Muslims to enter the interior of the Dome of the Rock, but they can visit the Noble Sanctuary.



Symbolism

The Crusader's cross on the top of the dome was removed when Jerusalem was recaptured by Saladin. It was replaced with a crescent moon, an Ottoman symbol of Islam, likely during Suleiman's renovations. The crescent is aligned to enable the viewer to look through the ring towards Mecca.

Architectural influence

The domed roof and octagonal shape were influenced by Byzantine buildings and the design of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre and the Basilica of San Vitale.

Foundation Stone

The Foundation Stone is sacred to Muslims, Jews and Christians. For Jews, it is the point where heaven and Earth meet. For Muslims, it is the place where Muhammad ascended to heaven.

The Well of Souls

This is a cave accessed by a staircase under the Foundation Stone. The 'Well of Souls' refers to a medieval legend that the spirits of the dead can be heard waiting for Judgement Day.

Stained-glass windows

Light is shed into the interior of the Dome of the Rock through 16 stained-glass windows. These windows were installed during the restoration of the building by Suleiman the Magnificent during the 16th century CE.

Learning ladder 9.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the person who ordered the building of the Dome of the Rock.
2. Source 1: Describe how ambulatories work.
3. Source 1: Explain how the Dome of the Rock includes Persian and Byzantine features.
4. Explain why there are no images of people or animals in the Dome of the Rock.
5. Source 1: Analyse how the Dome of the Rock has changed since it was first built.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the feature of the Dome of the Rock that is significant to Muslims, Jews and Christians.
2. Source 1: Describe the significance of the crescent on the roof of the Dome of the Rock.
3. Source 1: Explain the significance of the Well of Souls.
4. Explain why the Dome of the Rock is a significant building.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

How did the Abbasid caliphate rise to power?

The Abbasid caliphate took control from the Umayyads and ruled from the splendid capital city of Baghdad for over three centuries.

The rise of the Abbasids

During the 740s CE, the Umayyad caliphate faced several challenges. The Third Fitna erupted in 744 and lasted until 746 CE. Some of those opposing the Umayyads were mawali, non-Arab Muslims, who resented being treated as second-class citizens. In addition, Shia Muslims had long been opposed to the Umayyads because they believed Umayyad rule was illegitimate. Non-Muslim subjects were also unhappy with Umayyad rule because in 741 CE, the Umayyads had ruled that non-Muslims could not hold government positions.

These groups rallied behind the Abbasids. The Abbasid family traced its ancestry from Abbas ibn al-Muttalib, the youngest uncle of Muhammad. They laid claim to the leadership of the Muslim world based on their connection to the family of Muhammad. The Abbasids promised to end the 'bad governance' of the Umayyads and lead the Muslims to greater glory. Led by a Persian general named Abu Muslim, the Abbasid army overthrew the Umayyads in 750 CE. The new caliph, al-Saffah, had almost all of the remaining members of the Umayyad family killed. Only one escaped, Abd al-Rahman ibn Muawiya, who fled to al-Andalus (Spain) where he established the Emirate of Córdoba in 756 CE.

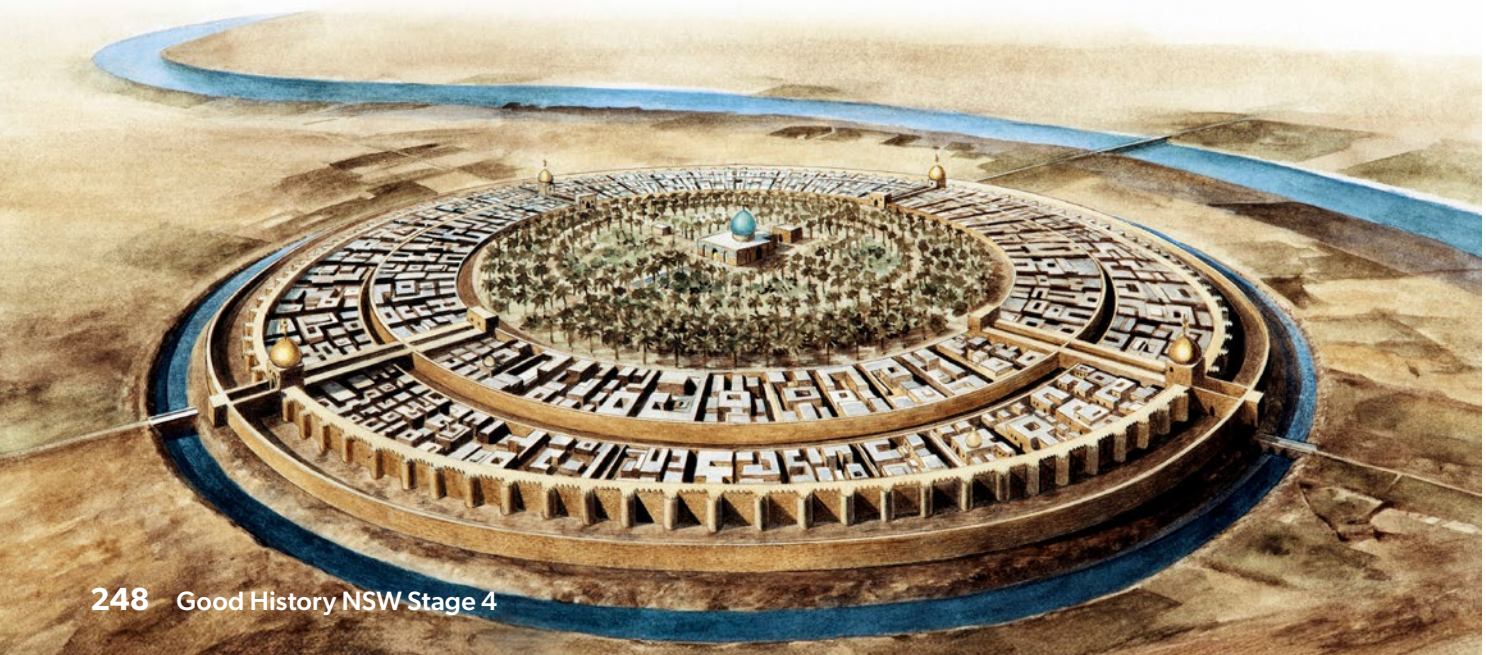
During the Abbasid caliphate, non-Arab Muslims were considered to be full citizens and the mawali restrictions were removed. Also, non-Muslims were welcomed into the army, under the command of Abu Muslim.

The construction of Baghdad

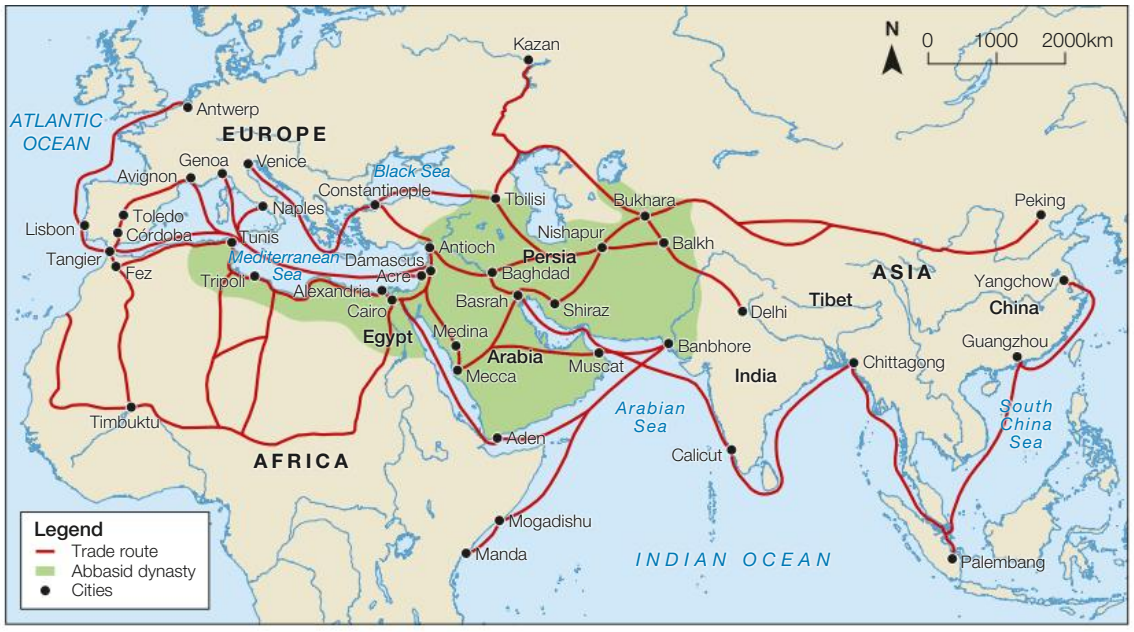
In 762 CE, the Abbasid caliph, al-Mansur, founded a new capital city: Baghdad. Al-Mansur employed experts in architecture, construction and engineering from Asia, North Africa and Europe to build the city. Known as the Round City, the central part of Baghdad contained the caliph's Golden Gate Palace, the mosque, the main government buildings, gardens, fountains and public baths. Its circular design was based on the Persian city of Gur, built in 250 CE. For much of the Abbasid period, Baghdad was the largest city in the world. Its population peaked at more than one million people.

In addition to being a large and well-designed city, Baghdad became a leading cultural, commercial and intellectual centre. It contained libraries and centres of learning; the most important of these was the House of Wisdom. The House of Wisdom was staffed

Source 1: Baghdad, a city of four kilometres in diameter in the 10th century CE. Its design was based on the ancient Persian city of Gur.



Trade routes during the period of Abbasid rule



Source 2: Trade routes during the Abbasid caliphate

Source: Matilda Education Australia

by scholars from Arabia, Persia, Syria and people from many other ethnic and religious groups. By the middle of the 9th century CE, the House of Wisdom had the largest collection of books in the world.

Another advantage of establishing Baghdad as the caliphate's capital was its location. Not only was Baghdad close to the Tigris and Euphrates rivers but also it was on the Silk Road. This placed Baghdad at the heart of world trade, making it an immensely wealthy city.

Persian influences

Since much support for the Abbasids had come from Persian Muslims, the Abbasids employed Persians as administrators, drawing on their expertise and knowledge of empire management. One of the most important developments was the establishment of the role of wazir, which the Abbasids borrowed from the Persians.

The Abbasids also adopted the Persian idea that their caliphs were divine rulers. The caliphs began to have their names inscribed on the coinage and on the deeds. No governor could be recognised as a legally constituted ruler unless he had obtained a deed with the caliph's insignia.

Due to their importance to the Abbasid Empire, Persian administrators were able to influence the Abbasids culturally and encourage the caliphs to support scholarship and learning. Persian artists and scholars would make a substantial contribution to the culture of the Abbasid caliphate. Most of the leading figures of the Abbasid caliphate came from Persia, including al-Khwarizmi (780–847 CE), a mathematician, astronomer and discoverer of algebra; Ibn Sina (known to Europeans as Avicenna, 980–1037 CE), a physician and philosopher; and Ibn Khordadhbeh (820–913 CE), a geographer.

Learning ladder 9.11

Background and origins

1. List the groups that were unhappy with Umayyad rule.
2. Describe how the Abbasids came to power.
3. Explain how the Abbasids changed Islamic society.
4. Explain why so many groups had been unhappy with Umayyad rule.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify the cause of Baghdad's circular design.
2. Describe the cause of Baghdad's reputation as a world-leading centre of learning.
3. Explain how Persian administrators affected the culture of the Abbasid caliphate.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Using these sources and your knowledge, explain the causes and effects of Baghdad's location.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

9.12

What was the golden age of Islam?

During the Abbasid caliphate, scholarship was strongly promoted, which led to the development of what became known as the 'golden age' of Islam.

The translation movement

The Abbasids were not only tolerant of non-Arab Muslims and non-Muslims, they were also willing to study and learn about other cultures.

The Abbasids encouraged a 'translation movement', which saw the translation of the works of famous Greek, Roman, Persian, North African and Indian scholars into Arabic. These were later translated into Latin and Hebrew. Once a translation had been completed, books were copied and bound, catalogued and placed in the library. Multiple copies of a book were then made and distributed across the empire and to libraries in Asia, Africa and Europe.

In Europe, the translations of the works of Aristotle by Ibn Rushd (known as Averroes in Europe) created interest in Greek philosophy and ethics during the 1200s CE. Similarly, the translations and corrections to works by the Greek mathematician Ptolemy led to the discoveries that Copernicus made in the 1500s CE.

Source 1: Painting depicting 11th-century physician Al-Zahrawi with a patient in the hospital at Córdoba in Spain. His comprehensive medical text *Al-Tasrif (The Method of Medicine)* combined original observations with Middle Eastern, Greek and Roman teachings. It was adopted as the key textbook on surgery in Europe until at least the 16th century CE.

Source 2: This page is from Ibn al-Haytham's book, *The Book of Optics* (1021 CE).

Science and technology

Scientific knowledge was greatly advanced under the Abbasids. The mathematician al-Khwarizmi pioneered the branch of mathematics known as algebra and introduced the use of Arabic numerals (based on a system developed in India).

Ibn al-Haytham was another important mathematician and scientist; he proved that light rays enter the eye. His *Book of Optics* (1021 CE) had a significant influence on the development of optics and physics in Europe from the 13th century CE onward.

Medical knowledge also improved during the Abbasid caliphate. Ibn Sina compiled all the available information about anatomy, diseases and treatments in his encyclopaedic *Canon of Medicine*. Al-Zahrawi (c. 936–1013 CE) was the court physician to the caliph in Spain. His book on surgical procedures was translated into Latin and was the leading textbook on surgery in Europe for 500 years.

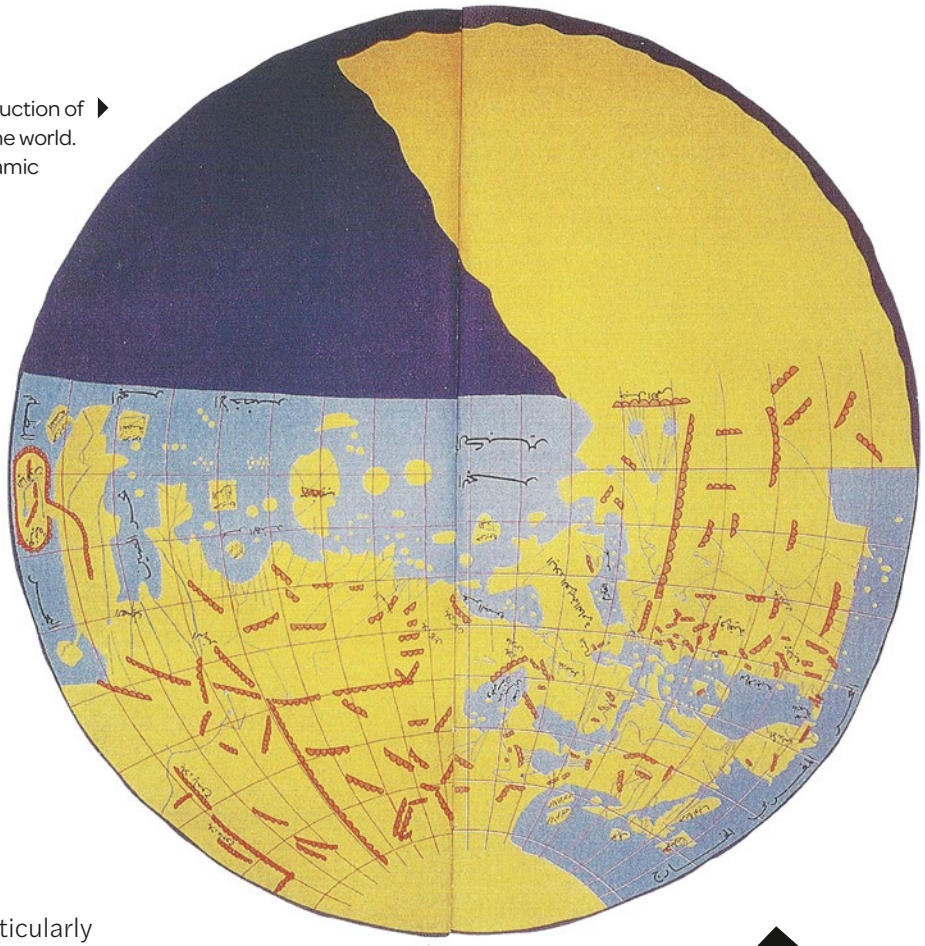
Baghdad's position on the Silk Road put the Abbasids in the ideal position to learn from China. The Abbasids adapted Chinese papermaking and made paper from linen instead of mulberry fibres and hemp, which enabled them to produce hand-copied books at a greater rate than Europeans. Abbasid scholars also learned about Chinese gunpowder and developed a more explosive form of gunpowder.

Source 3: A statue of al-Khwarizmi, ▶ who is considered the 'father of algebra'

Literature and music

The Abbasid court fostered many great poets. Prominent among the poets and songwriters were the qiyan, who were women who had been captured as slaves and taught music and singing. One of the most famous *qiyan* was Arib al-Mamuniya (797–890 CE). Arib al-Mamunyia was captured as a slave when she was a small child and was taught poetry, song composition, chess, backgammon and music. She was said to have written over 1000 songs and was considered to be among the best singers of the Abbasid period. She was in such high demand that the caliph at the time, al-Mutasim, bought her for 100 000 dinars, which was a huge sum.

Source 4: The Grand Library of Baghdad was known as the House of Wisdom. It became a key site for the translation of important works into Arabic and attracted many scholars to share and develop their ideas.



Source 5: A reconstruction of al-Mamun's map of the world. [History of Arabic-Islamic Sciences, Frankfurt]

The caliphate also witnessed the development of Arabic music. The scales used in Arabic music were formalised by the philosopher al-Farabi at the end of the 9th century CE. Al-Farabi used his knowledge of mathematics to create specific notes and scales on stringed instruments. One of the more famous musicians at the time, Ziryab, moved from Baghdad to al-Andalus where he founded a school of music. Ziryab was one of the first people to add a fifth pair of strings to the Arabic form of the lute (known as the *oud*).

Geography and mapmaking

Caliph al-Mamun (813–833 CE) was particularly interested in expanding Muslim knowledge of geography. He assembled a team of several dozen scholars and tasked them with making a map of the entire world, which included 'the universe with its spheres and stars, the land and the sea, inhabited and uninhabited parts, the populated areas of the peoples, cities and similar aspects'. He also asked the geographers to measure the circumference of Earth and to correct Ptolemy's calculations.

Al-Mamun's efforts led to further advances. In 870 CE, Ibn Khordadbeh compiled a survey of all known information about roads, oceans and towns in his work, *The Book of Roads and Kingdoms*. This book included lands beyond the realm of the caliphate such as China, Malaysia and Japan. The book also featured information about major sea routes to Cambodia, the Malay Peninsula and China.

Abbasid scholars also learned to navigate the seas and developed an early form of the sextant to help them determine distance. This allowed Muslims to dominate the sea routes between Arabia, North Africa and India until the 16th century CE. Major new port facilities were constructed at Basra. From here, merchants could sail to Oman and Yemen, and then either west to East Africa or east to India and China.

Learning ladder 9.12

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 5: Identify the image in the source.
2. Describe the translation movement.
3. Explain how Islamic music developed during the 9th century CE.
4. Explain why the Abbasids were able to benefit from Chinese knowledge.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the historically significant individual in this source.
2. Source 2: Describe the significant advances in science made by Ibn al-Haytham.
3. Source 5: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the significance of Muslim knowledge of geography and mapmaking.
4. Source 4: Explain why the House of Wisdom was a significant institution.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

9.13

How did the Abbasid caliphate decline?

By the 9th century CE, the Abbasid caliphate was facing many problems. But did the break-up of the empire really spell the end of the Abbasids?

Problems with the succession

Caliph Harun al-Rashid (786–809 CE) was a successful ruler of the Abbasid dynasty. He founded the House of Wisdom, defeated Byzantine attempts to invade his realm and established a well-organised government structure.

However, Harun's plans for who would succeed him led to much discontent. He wanted his throne to pass to his eldest son, al-Amin, but also to divide his realm between al-Amin and his second son, al-Mamun. Al-Mamun would govern his territories on behalf of his brother. This plan was doomed to failure, as al-Mamun wanted the caliphate for himself. After Harun's death, al-Amin became caliph and al-Mamun challenged him for the throne. The fight between the two brothers led to the outbreak of the Fourth Fitna (811–819 CE). Al-Mamun's forces laid siege to Baghdad and al-Amin surrendered. Even though the Fourth Fitna ended in 819 CE, instability and discontent continued.

The Turkish Guard

Al-Mamun's successors caused more problems. Caliph Abu Ishaq al-Mutasim (833–842 CE) created a private army, known as the **Turkish Guard**, that was loyal only to him. This army consisted of 4000 slave-soldiers who had been captured as prisoners of war. Al-Mutasim used his Turkish Guard to put down domestic rebellions. However, this created further division between the caliph and the people he claimed to rule.

Nevertheless, the caliphs who came after al-Mutasim also had their own Turkish Guards. They believed that these personal armies would never turn against them, but in 861 CE, Caliph al-Mutawakkil (847–861 CE) was assassinated by one of his Guards. Between 861 and 870 CE, another four caliphs came and went, assassinated whenever they displeased the Turkish Guard.

By the time al-Mutamid became caliph in 870 CE, the Turkish Guard was very powerful. The soldiers could force the caliph to do whatever they wanted.

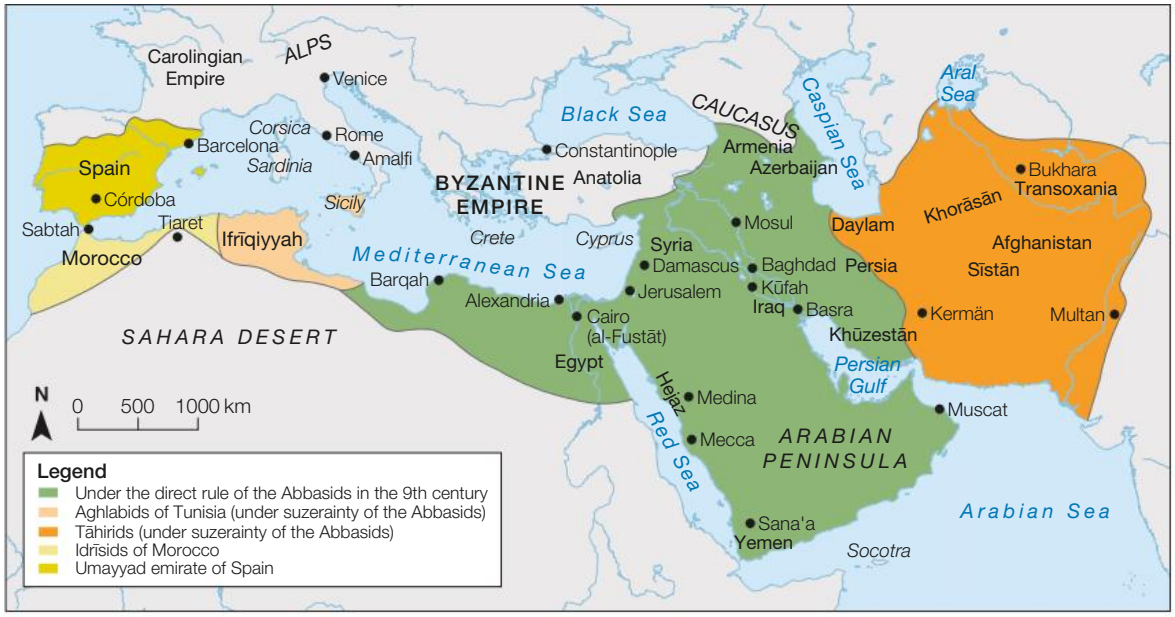
Although the Abbasid caliphate recovered in the following decades, the Turkish Guard inflicted lasting damage on the power of the Abbasids.

Fragmentation of the caliphate

Another factor in the decline of the Abbasids was the disintegration of the empire. Stretching from India in the east to Spain in the west, it was proving increasingly difficult to maintain control over such a vast territory. During al-Harun's reign, in 793 CE, a Shia dynasty, known as the Idrisids, gained control over Fez in Morocco. In 795 CE, the governor of a minor province in North Africa, Ibrahim ibn Aghla, helped suppress a revolt against Abbasid rule. As a reward, Caliph al-Harun made him Emir of Ifriqiya and allowed him to rule as he liked. Then in 821 CE, another caliph, al-Mamun, placed the Tahirid dynasty in control of a region called Khorasan.

▲ **Source 1:** This illustration is called 'The Victory of Mamun over Amin' (819 CE). [Illustration published in Ahmad bin Muhammad Ghaffari's (1551 CE), *Kitab-i Nigaristan*]

The Abbasid caliphate's decline during the 9th century



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: The break-up of the Abbasid caliphate during the 9th century CE

While the Tahirids remained loyal to the Abbasid caliphs, they effectively governed Khorasan as an independent state. Without realising it, the Abbasid caliphate had started on a long course of disintegration.

Rival caliphates

With the caliphate growing weaker, opponents to Abbasid rule took the opportunity to establish rival caliphates. Egypt was lost to the rival Shii Fatimid dynasty in 909 CE. Meanwhile in Spain (al-Andalus), the Umayyad emirs who had fled there after the fall of the Umayyad caliphate in 750 CE decided to establish themselves as a rival caliphate in 929 CE.

> The Abbasid caliphate did not come to an end with the great civil war between the brothers, nor with the military upheavals [of the caliphate]. The earlier patterns of social, economic and cultural interaction continued uninterrupted, and one may argue that they in fact flourished further with the rise of new provincial political centres that competed with Baghdad in attracting talent and skill.
>
> The institution of the caliphate itself was to survive for another four centuries. Caliphs never again were to rule as extensive a domain as did Harun al-Rashid, nor would they wield a fraction of his political or military control, but they knew that they remained an important religious and cultural focal point across the Islamic world.

Source 3: An extract from Tayeb El-Hibri (1999 CE), *Reinterpreting Islamic Historiography*, Cambridge University Press.

Learning ladder 9.13

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the event depicted in this source.
2. Describe the difference between the intended role of the Turkish Guard and their actual role.
3. Source 2: Explain how the caliphate fragmented.
4. Explain why the caliphs began to split up their empire.
5. Evaluate the caliphs' decisions to split up their empire.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate about the decline of the Abbasid caliphate.
2. Describe the reasons why the Abbasid caliphate declined.
3. Source 3: Explain historian Tayeb El-Hibri's argument about the ongoing influence of the Abbasid caliphate.
4. Source 3: Explain why the decline of the Abbasids is contested.

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

How was the Abbasid caliphate destroyed?

The Mongols conquered Baghdad in 1259 CE, finally ending the Abbasid caliphate.

The rise of the Mongols

In 1206 CE, a man named Temujin (later known as Genghis Khan) united the tribes of Mongolia and founded the Mongol Empire. The empire grew rapidly and by the 14th century CE, it stretched from China to eastern Europe, making it the largest empire in the medieval world.

Hulegu's march west

To assert Mongol rule over Eastern Europe, Central Asia and Mesopotamia, the fourth Khan of the Mongol Empire, Möngke (ruled 1251–1259 CE), decided to send his younger brothers, Kublai and Hulegu, on military expeditions to subdue their enemies. Kublai was sent east and Hulegu was sent west to destroy the Nizari Ismaili (the Assassins) state and force the Abbasid caliphate to submit to Mongol rule.

Hulegu's massive army of over 138 000 men took many years to travel to Baghdad. On the way, he and his troops defeated many other groups, including the Assassins. When he finally arrived at Baghdad, Hulegu sent a message to Caliph Abd Allah al-Mutasim demanding control of the city and threatening to destroy everything if he not receive it. But the caliph scoffed at the letter, and declared he would summon 'thousands of troops' from all of Islam if Hulegu dared to attack.

The siege of Baghdad (1258 CE)

When the inevitable attack came, al-Mutasim did little to defend the city. He did not summon thousands of troops, as he had threatened, and did not reinforce the city walls. Instead, he sent only 20 000 cavalry against the Mongols when he could have easily summoned 50 000 soldiers. Many of these cavalry troops were poorly equipped and lacked discipline. The Abbasid army was no match for their powerful foes.

The Mongols' siege engines and catapults broke down the fortifications of Baghdad within a few days. The caliph surrendered the city on 10 February. Thousands of people were slaughtered and the great libraries, palaces, mosques and houses were set on fire.

> The inhabitants of Baghdad were put under the sword on Monday and were subjected to 40 days of continuous killing, pillaging, enslavement … They killed men, women, youth and children … A great part of the city, including the caliph's mosque and its surrounding were burnt, and the city was laid in ruins. The dead lay as mounds in the streets and the markets. Rain fell on them, horses trampled down upon them, their faces were disfigured, and they became an example to anyone who saw them.
>
> **Source 1:** An eyewitness account of the Mongol conquest of Baghdad from a Persian chronicle, *Al-Awadi al-Gamia* (c. 1258 CE)

Source 2: This modern image depicts the Mongol army's attack of Baghdad in 1258 CE.

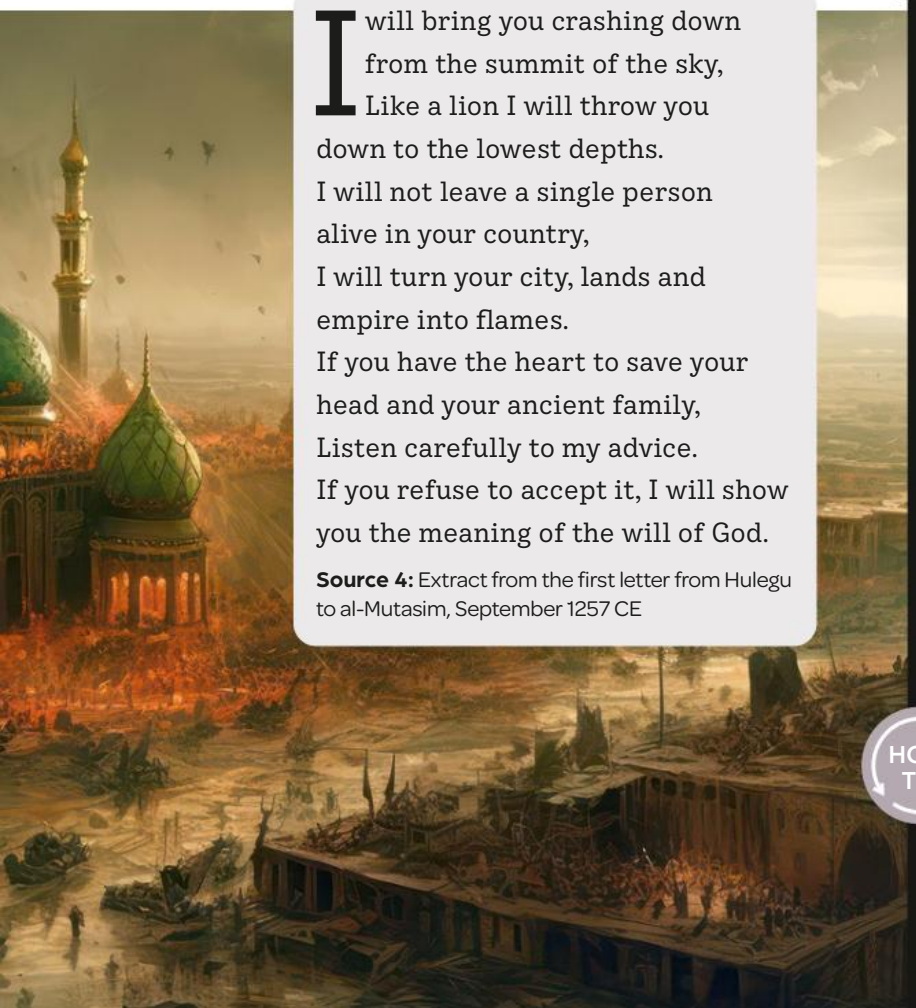
The exact number of people who died is unknown, but Hulegu later estimated the total at around 200 000. After calling an end to the pillaging on 20 February, Hulegu executed al-Mutasim.

Later accounts of the destruction of Baghdad state that all the books were destroyed and that the Tigris River ran black with ink. However, recent historians have shown that this was an exaggeration. After the capture of the city, Hulegu had appointed a Persian scholar named Nasir al-Din al-Tusi to collect the books from libraries throughout Baghdad and take them to Maragheh, a city in north-western Iran, which became an administrative centre of Mongol rule. Hulegu left 3000 Mongol soldiers behind to rebuild Baghdad. The city was returned to its position as an important economic and cultural hub in the region.

The Mongol Empire, c. 1259 CE

Source: Alamy

Source 3: The Mongol Empire at its greatest extent in 1259 CE



> I will bring you crashing down
> from the summit of the sky,
> Like a lion I will throw you
> down to the lowest depths.
> I will not leave a single person
> alive in your country,
> I will turn your city, lands and
> empire into flames.
> If you have the heart to save your
> head and your ancient family,
> Listen carefully to my advice.
> If you refuse to accept it, I will show
> you the meaning of the will of God.

Source 4: Extract from the first letter from Hulegu to al-Mutasim, September 1257 CE

Learning ladder 9.14

Impact and legacies

1. Identify who the Mongols were.
2. Describe Hulegu's mission in 1251 CE.
3. Source 3: Explain the extent of the Mongol Empire in 1259 CE.
4. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Hulegu was able to conquer Baghdad.
5. Evaluate the actions of the caliph. What should he have done to save the city?

Source analysis

1. Source 4: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 2: Describe in detail the scene in this source.
3. Sources 1 and 4: Explain how these sources are similar.
4. Sources 1 and 4: Explain the historical context of these sources.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

9.15

How has the legacy of the Islamic caliphates changed?

Today, the achievements of the Umayyad and Abbasid caliphates are widely recognised. However, for a long time the Umayyad period was portrayed as a period of illegitimate rule, while the legacy of the Abbasid caliphate was limited to its 'golden age'.

What is the legacy of the Umayyads?

The main legacy of the Umayyad caliphate is its expansion of an Islamic empire that stretched over the three continents of Europe, Africa and Asia – from India in the east to Spain in the west. The Umayyads constructed numerous impressive buildings, such as the Dome of the Rock in Jerusalem and Umayyad Mosque in Damascus, and also institutionalised the practice of Islam.

What is the legacy of the Abbasids?

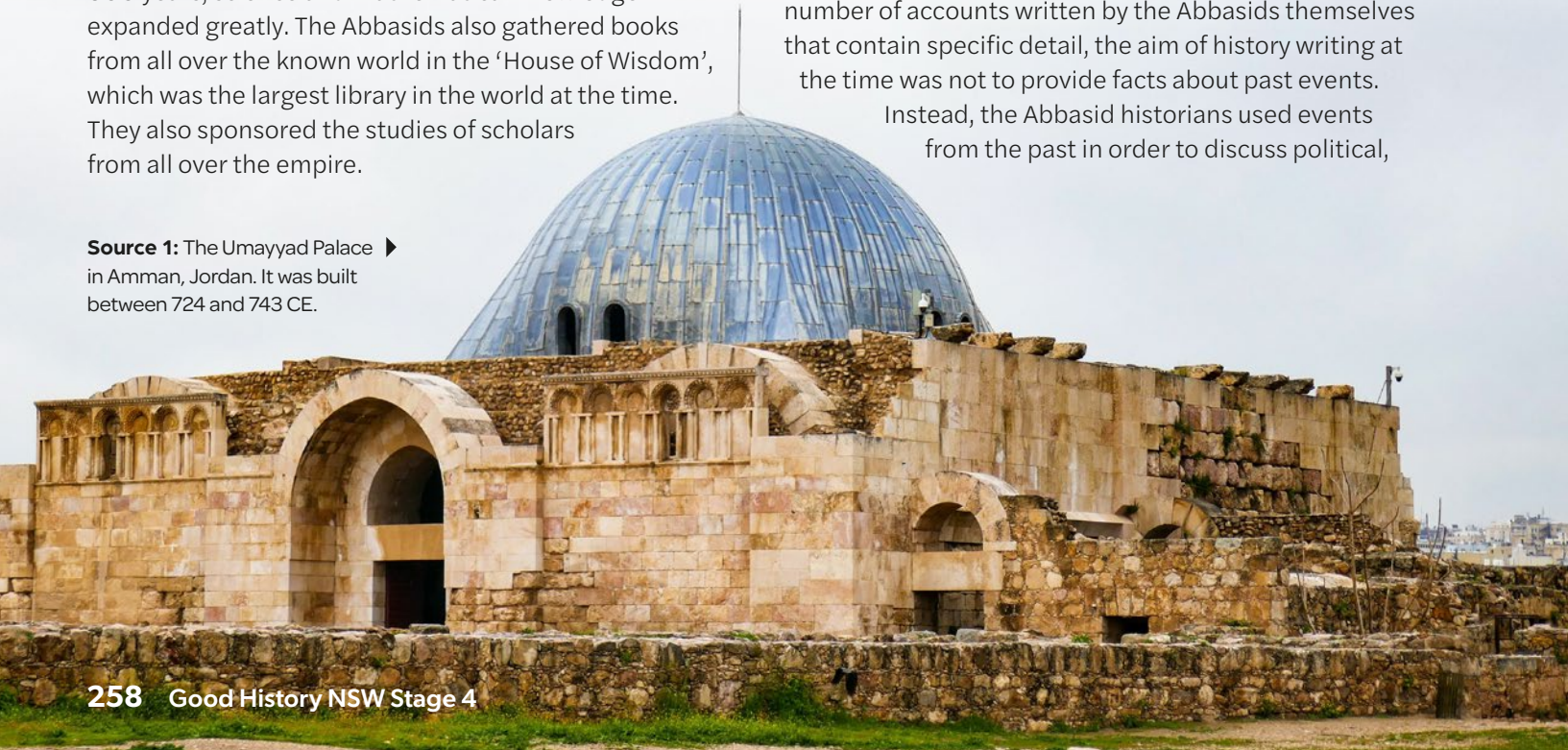
The Abbasids inherited their empire from the Umayyads. They consolidated Islamic rule and encouraged the development of Islamic learning and culture. The city of Baghdad, one of the largest in the medieval world, became the centre of this golden age of Islam. During the Abbasid period, which lasted for over 500 years, science and mathematical knowledge expanded greatly. The Abbasids also gathered books from all over the known world in the 'House of Wisdom', which was the largest library in the world at the time. They also sponsored the studies of scholars from all over the empire.

How have interpretations of these legacies changed over time?

Over the centuries, the historical interpretations of the Umayyad legacy have been problematic. The first Arabic historical accounts of the Umayyads were composed over 100 years after the end of the caliphate, with others written during the 9th century or later. These accounts therefore contain very little specific detail and no eyewitness evidence.

In addition, the accounts were written by Abbasid court historians who wanted to promote the legitimacy and importance of the Abbasid dynasty. They were highly critical of the former Umayyad rulers, accusing the Umayyads of promoting themselves as tyrannical kings rather than as 'true caliphs'.

Interpretations of the Abbasid legacy have also posed problems for modern historians. While there are a number of accounts written by the Abbasids themselves that contain specific detail, the aim of history writing at the time was not to provide facts about past events. Instead, the Abbasid historians used events from the past in order to discuss political,



Source 1: The Umayyad Palace in Amman, Jordan. It was built between 724 and 743 CE.

▲ **Source 2:** Islamic scholar al-Farabi, a philosopher and music theorist who lived during the Abbasid period

religious and social issues from their own time. In addition, before the 1980s CE, Western historians of the Abbasid period focused on the reign of Caliph Harun al-Rashid and portrayed the time after his death as an era of decline.

In recent times, a more accurate picture of the Umayyad and Abbasid caliphates has emerged. There are now many scholars researching the Umayyad and Abbasid periods. They use many types of sources, including artefacts such as coins, inscriptions, art, architecture and manuscripts in Arabic, Persian, Greek and other languages to interpret the period.

> [The Abbasid histories of the Umayyad caliphate contain] layers of information about people, their kin relations and their positions within the governing apparatus of the Umayyad empire. Where they can be cross-checked with the surviving documentary materials such as coins and administrative documents, the [Abbasid histories of the Umayyad caliphate] can be shown to be fairly accurate about people and their roles (but very far from complete, or completely accurate).

Source 3: Andrew Marsham (2024 CE), *The Umayyad Empire*, Edinburgh University Press, p. 18. Andrew Marsham is a historian.

> Coverage of the Abbasids has tended to focus excessively on the reign of Harun al-Rashid, and mostly for a fairy-tale image coloured more by *The Thousand and One Nights*, than actual history. The focus on a period considered a golden age of the caliphate has made the first century of Abbasid rule, with names such as al-Mansur and al-Ma'mun, well known, but those of other caliphs from later centuries … remain obscure …

Source 4: Tayeb El-Hibri (2021 CE), *The Abbasid Caliphate*, Cambridge University Press. *The One Thousand and One Nights* is a book of Middle Eastern folktales that was compiled during the Abbasid period. It became popular in Europe and the United States from the 18th century onwards.

Learning ladder 9.15

Impact and legacies

1 **a** Source 1: Identify one of the legacies of the Umayyad caliphate.
b Source 2: Identify one of the legacies of the Abbasid caliphate.
2 Describe the legacy of the Umayyad caliphate.
3 Explain how the legacy of the Abbasid caliphate was represented before the 1980s CE.
4 Explain why the legacy of the Umayyad caliphate was represented negatively by Abbasid historians.

Contestability

1 Identify the debate over the legacy of the Umayyads.
2 Source 4: Using the source, describe one of the problems with the history writing about the Abbasids.
3 Source 3: Explain how the author of the source has checked the information about the Umayyad caliphate in the Abbasid historical accounts.
4 Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, expain why the Abbasid sources on the Umayyad caliphate are only somewhat trustworthy.

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on early Islamic empires. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of early Islamic empires. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of early Islamic empires in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The fall of the Persian Empire, page 234
- The Rashidun caliphate, page 229
- The role of Aisha, page 240
- The legacies of the Umayyad Empire, page 258
- The House of Wisdom, page 248

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

10 Polynesian expansion across the Pacific (c. 700–1756)

HOW DID POLYNESIANS COLONISE THE PACIFIC? 266

WHAT IS THE CULTURE OF THE POLYNESIAN PEOPLE? 270

HOW WERE THE GIANT STATUES ON RAPA NUI BUILT? 280

HOW DID THE RAPA NUI SOCIETY COLLAPSE? 284

10.0

How can I understand the Polynesians' expansion across the Pacific Ocean?

The settlement of the remote islands in the Pacific Ocean by Polynesians is one of the most remarkable stories of exploration and colonisation in world history.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: Surfing began in Polynesia. It was originally a spiritual practice that allowed people to interact with the ocean. Surfing became paricularly important to Hawaiians, who developed it as a sport. Cave paintings dating to the 12th century CE show people riding waves.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

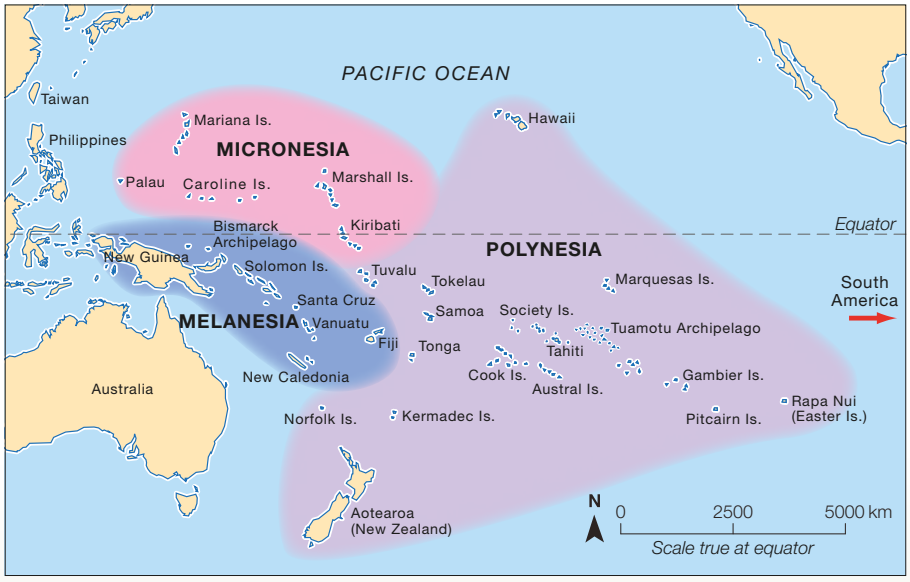
How did the Polynesians migrate across the Pacific Ocean?

Polynesians migrated across the vast expanses of the Pacific Ocean to settle hundreds of tiny islands. This is one of the greatest feats of human exploration and navigation.

Location of Polynesia

Polynesia is a region of the Pacific Ocean that comprises many islands (see Source 1). The name 'Polynesia' comes from two ancient Greek words: *poly*, which means 'many', and *nēsoi*, which means 'islands'. Polynesia shares the Pacific Ocean with two other regions: Micronesia, which means 'small islands', and Melanesia, which means 'black islands'.

The Micronesia, Melanesia and Polynesia regions of the Pacific Ocean



The term 'Polynesia' was first used in 1756 CE by Charles de Brosses, a French scientist and writer. He used this term to describe all the islands of the Pacific Ocean. Later, in 1831 CE, Jules Dumont d'Urville, a French explorer and naval officer, proposed that the term 'Polynesia' be used to describe the islands within a large triangle, with its extreme points located at Aotearoa (New Zealand), Hawaii and Rapa Nui (Easter Island). D'Urville's definition was based on the language and cultural differences between the people who lived on the islands within that triangle and the inhabitants of the other islands in the Pacific Ocean.

Polynesia covers an enormous area of the Pacific Ocean. The distance between Hawaii and New Zealand is 7413 kilometres; 6930 kilometres separates New Zealand and Rapa Nui; and the distance from Rapa Nui to Hawaii is 7221 kilometres.

Source 1: Jules d'Urville proposed the islands of the Pacific Ocean be grouped into three regions: Polynesia, Melanesia and Micronesia.

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: Polynesian expansion timeline

Key ideas timeline

- **c. 1000 BCE** – Lapita culture spreads from the Bismarck Archipelago in Melanesia to Samoa and Tonga in Polynesia
- **c. 700 CE** – Beginning of the Polynesian expansion
- **c. 1000 CE** – Settlement of the Cook Islands and the Society Islands
- **c. 1100–1300 CE** – Settlement of Hawaii, Rapa Nui and Aotearoa
- **c. 1300 CE** – Start of monument building on Rapa Nui c. 1300–1400 CE

Origin of the Polynesian people

The east–west theory

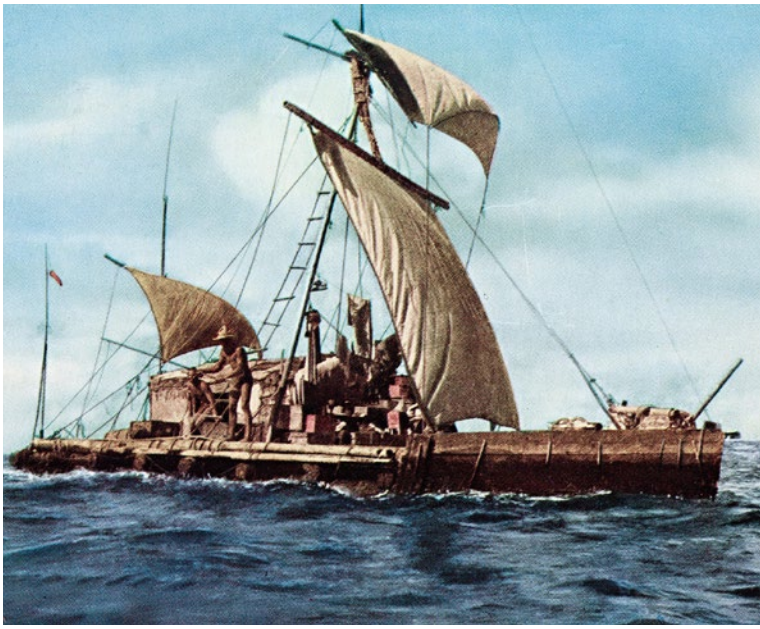
Prevailing winds and ocean currents move from east to west across the Pacific Ocean. Thor Heyerdahl, a Norwegian scientist, thought that people from Peru in South America had sailed west across the Pacific Ocean and settled the islands they found there. The similarities between stone monuments in Peru and the statues on some Polynesian islands support Heyerdahl's theory.

In 1947 CE, Heyerdahl built a balsawood raft called the *Kon-Tiki*. With five companions, he departed from Peru and, 101 days later, the *Kon-Tiki* struck a reef off the Tuamotu Archipelago. They had travelled nearly 7000 kilometres. However, this experiment only proved that people could sail from Peru to Polynesia in simple wooden rafts. Heyerdahl did not prove that this was how the ancestors of modern-day Polynesian people had reached Polynesia.

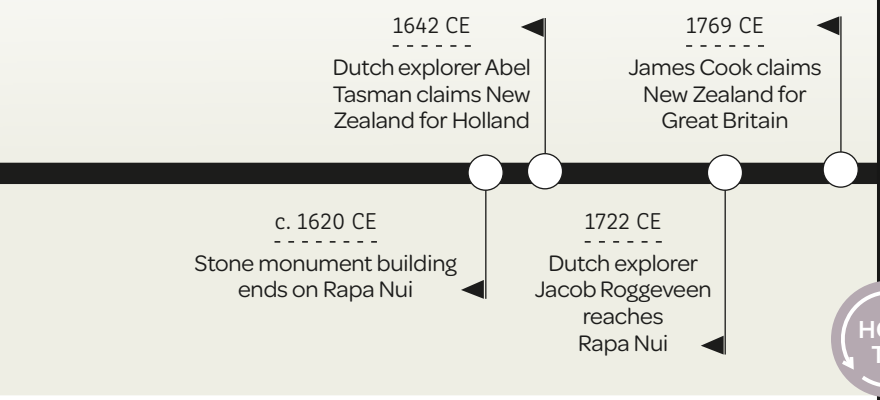
The west–east theory

A more widely held theory is that Polynesians originated in Asia or the west Pacific region and travelled east towards the more remote islands. Several pieces of strong evidence support this theory:

- **Language**: Polynesian people speak distinct but clearly related languages. Today, 40 different Polynesian languages are part of the Austronesian language family, spoken in South-East Asia and the Pacific region.
- **Tools and implements**: The tools used by Polynesians are similar to those used in South-East Asia and New Guinea.
- **Belief systems and social structures**: Polynesian religions and societies are similar to those in Melanesia.
- **DNA analysis**: Recent DNA analysis of Polynesians from many islands shows that they share characteristics with DNA samples taken from people in Asia.



Source 3: In 1947 CE, Thor Heyerdahl set out to prove the east–west theory of the origins of the Polynesian people. He drifted on the Pacific Ocean's east–west current on this balsawood raft – called the *Kon-Tiki* – for nearly 7000 kilometres.



Learning ladder 10.1

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the three island groups of the Pacific Ocean.
2. Outline the meaning of the word 'Polynesia'.
3. Explain how the islands of Polynesia were defined by Jules Dumont d'Urville.
4. Explain why Jules Dumont d'Urville decided that the islands of Polynesia were separate from the islands elsewhere in the Pacific.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate about the origin of the Polynesian people.
2. Source 3: Describe Thor Heyerdahl's experiment.
3. Source 3: Explain how Thor Heyerdahl's experiment failed to prove the east–west theory.
4. Explain why the west–east theory is more likely.
5. Analyse the reasons why the west–east theory has become more accepted in recent years.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

10.2

When were the Pacific islands colonised?

Polynesian culture began in Tonga and Samoa around 800 BCE. Polynesian people only started migrating to islands in other areas of the Pacific Ocean around 1025 CE, more than 1800 years later.

Colonisation of the Pacific islands

Another puzzle that historians, archaeologists and anthropologists have tried to piece together is exactly when the different islands of the Pacific Ocean were settled. As no written records from the time exist, we must study archaeological evidence and use radiocarbon dating to determine when the islands were colonised.

Colonisation of Melanesia

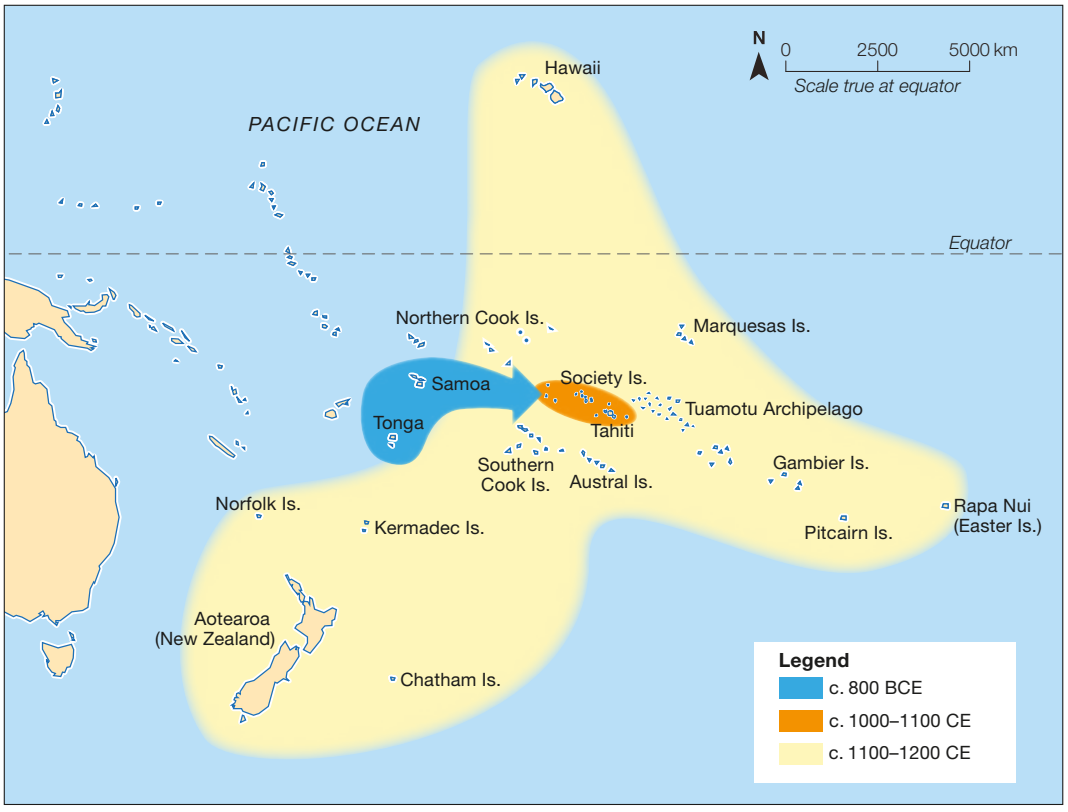
Archaeologists think that Austronesian peoples migrated from Taiwan and other regions of East Asia to the islands of Melanesia sometime between 3000 BCE and 1000 BCE. These people developed a distinctive culture called Lapita. They established themselves in the Bismarck Archipelago in Melanesia by 2000 BCE and, by 1600 BCE, were living on the Solomon Islands.

The main evidence for the existence of the Lapita culture comes from the shards of pottery the Lapita people left behind (see Source 3). Lapita pottery was made from clay and baked hard in low-temperature ovens. People decorated the pottery with simple designs and human figures, using bark or seashells. Archaeologists have dated pottery found in the Bismarck Archipelago and the Solomon Islands to around 1350 BCE.

Colonisation of Tonga and Samoa

Archaeologists have also found Lapita pottery on the Polynesian islands of Samoa and Tonga. Seashell fragments lodged in the pottery from these island groups have been carbon-dated to c. 800 BCE. This supports the theory that the Lapita people had reached and colonised parts of west Polynesia by c. 1000 BCE.

The Polynesian region of the Pacific Ocean



Source: Matilda Education Australia

A distinctive Polynesian culture emerged on Tonga and Samoa from c. 800 BCE, which eventually spread to the rest of the Pacific region.

Source 1: The spread of Polynesian culture in the Pacific region

Source 2: This is the island of Bora Bora, which is one of the nine islands in the Society Islands, an archipelago in the Pacific Ocean. The other islands in the archipelago are Tahiti, Moorea, Raiatea and Huahine.

Source 3: These pieces of Lapita pottery were found at Nenumbo in the Solomon Islands in Melanesia. Together, the pieces measure 7.6 centimetres across and are thought to date from 1000 BCE.

Colonisation of central Polynesia

However, only after a 'long pause' of several centuries did the Polynesians settle other islands in the Pacific Ocean.

Archaeologists and historians are not sure why this long pause took place. Computer modelling of wind direction and ocean currents has shown that changes in the wind and oceans may have affected the Polynesians' ability to explore further. Another theory for the long pause is that it took time for Polynesians to develop sophisticated navigational techniques and boat-building technology.

Carbon dating now shows that the Society Islands and Tahiti were settled between 1000 and 1100 CE, while the far reaches of Polynesia were settled between 1100 and 1200 CE.

Learning ladder 10.2

Background and origins

1. Identify the dating method used by archaeologists to accurately date the settlement of Polynesia.
2. Source 3: Describe the main evidence for the existence of the Lapita culture.
3. Source 3: Explain how archaeologists have used Lapita pottery to date the colonisation of Melanesia, Tonga and Samoa.
4. Explain the theories for the 'long pause'.

Chronology

1. Source 1: Identify when the Society Islands were settled.
2. Source 1: Find the approximate date of settlement for each of the following:
   - Rapa Nui (Easter Island)
   - Tahiti
   - Tonga
   - Norfolk Island.
3. Using the dates you found for Question 2, create a timeline of the spread of Polynesian culture from c. 800 BCE to c. 1290 CE.
4. Explain what is meant by the term 'long pause'.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472

10.3

How was Polynesia colonised?

The Polynesian peoples' migration throughout the Pacific region was an extraordinary feat of daring, skill and navigation that used innovative technology.

Transportation

Perhaps the most incredible aspect of the Polynesian people's migration to the islands throughout the Pacific region is how they were able to travel between the islands. Polynesia is vast and some of the islands are thousands of kilometres apart.

The Polynesians made their long ocean voyages in **outrigger canoes** (see Source 2) or in double-hulled rafts (see Source 1). They made canoes from trees that were hollowed out so people and supplies could be carried in them. The ends of the canoes were streamlined so they could move easily through the water. The Polynesians ensured their canoes remained stable by attaching outriggers to their canoes. An outrigger is a long beam or structure that projects over the side of a boat to prevent it from rolling over.

A safer mode of transport was the double-hulled raft. These boats consisted of two canoes connected by a wooden platform. A covered compartment was used for storing tools, animals and plants. The explorers could also shelter in the compartment during rough weather. Rafts were steered using moveable square or triangular sails that caught the wind and propelled the craft forward.

All the parts of a watercraft were held together with rope made from tree bark or coconut fibres. The largest rafts – built for sailing across the ocean or raiding other islands – were up to 30 metres long and could carry 200 people.

Navigation

Navigating the vast expanses of the Pacific Ocean without a compass or map required considerable skill and experience. Polynesian navigators devised several methods to find the tiny islands dotted throughout the ocean.

One of these methods used the stars. Navigators memorised the movement of the stars across the sky, particularly as they passed over certain islands. The navigator could then sail to that island by following the correct star.

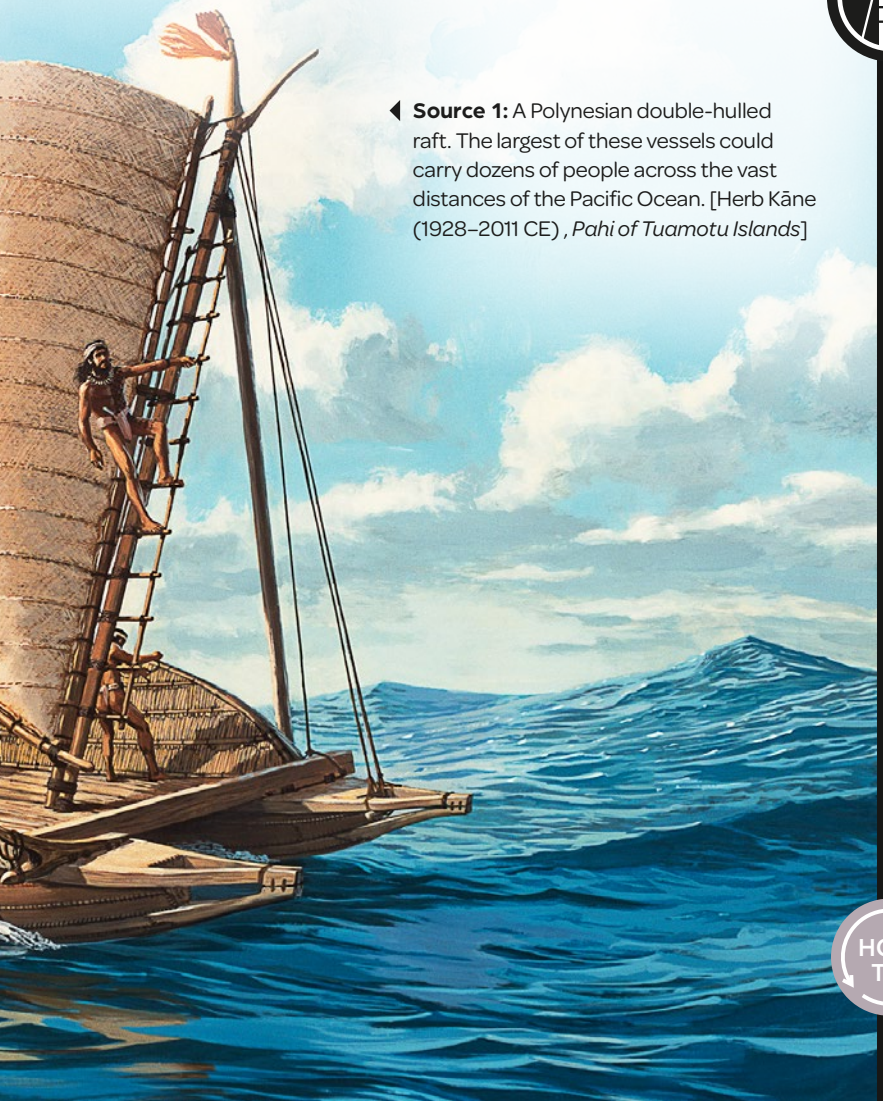
Polynesians also used waves and ocean currents to navigate. The island chains in the Pacific Ocean influence the movement of ocean currents. When they were looking for new islands, navigators would recognise how a distant island chain was influencing the ocean currents. They could then locate the island by following the current and wave direction.

Clouds and birds are other good indicators of the location of land. Clouds are more likely to form over islands. Also, the shallow waters around islands cast distinctive shadows on the underside of clouds. Birds can typically fly about 150 kilometres from their home island. This means that, if a navigator sees birds flying over the ocean, they know that an island is no more than around 150 kilometres away in any direction.

Accurate navigation was vital to the survival of Polynesian societies. Therefore, navigators were highly respected. They passed their knowledge orally to apprentices. In spite of European contact, this traditional knowledge was retained in many parts of Polynesia and Melanesia.

European colonisation in the 19th century had suppressed Polynesian culture, and for a long time it was widely believed that Polynesians had expanded from Tonga and Samoa to other islands by chance. In 1967 CE, however, British anthropologist David Lewis sought out traditional Polynesian navigators to learn their skills. Using their help, Lewis was able to sail a modern sailboat from Tahiti to Aotearoa (New Zealand), showing that traditional Polynesian navigational skills were accurate and effective. Lewis published an account of his journey in a book called *We, the Navigators* (1972 CE), which helped to inspire new research into traditional voyaging methods in the Pacific.

Source 2: Two Polynesian outrigger canoes. The larger vessel on the right could sail across the ocean while the smaller one on the left was only used for fishing near the coast. [Herb Kāne (1928–2011 CE), *Baurua Kiribati*]



Source 1: A Polynesian double-hulled raft. The largest of these vessels could carry dozens of people across the vast distances of the Pacific Ocean. [Herb Kāne (1928–2011 CE) , *Pahi of Tuamotu Islands*]

Learning ladder 10.3

Background and origins

1. Sources 1 and 2: Identify the types of boats the Polynesians used.
2. Source 1: Describe the Polynesian double-hulled raft.
3. Explain how Polynesian explorers navigated the Pacific Ocean using the stars.
4. Explain why the double-hulled raft was a safer mode of transport than the outrigger canoe.
5. Analyse the reasons why Polynesians were able to maintain their navigational knowledge for hundreds of years.

Cause and effect

1. Identify a cause of Polynesian expansion.
2. Describe the effect of the outrigger.
3. Explain how David Lewis's research affected people's understanding of Polynesia.
4. Explain the effects of water currents, cloud formation and bird behaviour on navigation.
5. Evaluate whether Polynesian technology or navigational skills was more important in their expansion.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

10.4

How are Polynesian societies similar?

As Polynesians migrated throughout the Pacific region, they took their culture with them. Over time, new traditions developed in the different environments colonised by the Polynesians, but similarities remained in the languages, social structures, beliefs and practices.

Polynesian societies

Given their common ancestry and similar lifestyles, it is not surprising that the Polynesian societies that developed across the Pacific region – including those of Tonga, Hawaii, Samoa, Rapa Nui (Easter Island) and Aotearoa (New Zealand) – have many broad similarities, particularly in the areas of language , culture and social organisation.

One key similarity is that all Polynesian societies were ruled by a chief. Chiefs were thought to be related to the gods and were believed to possess a sacred power, called ***mana***, with which they could control the natural world. Chiefs could also declare any place, object, food, animal or name to be taboo (***tapu***), meaning it was forbidden or restricted, or sacred.

Māori society

According to legend, the Māori came to Aotearoa (New Zealand) in 12 large canoes. Each canoe carried a different tribe (***iwi***).

The tribes are divided into ***hapu*** (clans) of several hundred people. Each hapu contains several hundred large family groups and is centred on a village. The hapu was governed by members of the ***rangatira***. The rangatira were people in the clan who could trace their ancestry directly to an important ancestor.

Source 1: This is a Māori chief of the Ngāpuhi iwi. Rule by a chief was a common feature of Polynesian societies. [Gottfried Lindauer (1890 CE), *Tamati Waka Nene*]

Source 2: A *hei-tiki* pendant from New Zealand (c. 1700–1850 CE). Different forms of *tiki* are found throughout Polynesia. The tiki is a representation of ancestors and gods. Perhaps this female tiki had links to an ancestor or a god linked to fertility or childbirth.

Source 3: A Māori woman with a traditional female chin tattoo, called a *moko kauae*. Traditionally, women received a moko kauae to recognise their high status or their experience and achievement. Each moko kauae was unique and told the story of the wearer's ancestry and history. In more recent times, Māori women acquire a moko kauae to celebrate their Māori identity.

There was also another important class called the ***tohunga***. Priests and skilled artisans were members of the tohunga. Below the tohunga were the commoners who grew food, farmed, hunted and raised children. At the bottom of the social structure were slaves. Slaves were people who had been captured in battle.

Tattoo art

The English word 'tattoo' comes from the Samoan word *tatau*. The word tatau comes from the tapping sounds of the sharpened bone tool used by Polynesians in the tattooing process.

In traditional Polynesian societies, a person's body was tattooed with symbols and designs that indicated their social rank, links to communities, important milestones and their local environment.

Tribal chiefs and warriors generally had the most elaborate tattoos to indicate their status, including whole-face tattoos. Some people, however, were not tattooed, due to their high status or role as a tohunga.

Traditional Polynesian tattooing techniques were almost lost. In New Zealand, the government outlawed the practice of tattooing (***tā moko***) in 1907 CE. However, in the 1980s CE, Māori tattooing was revived. Older Māori with tattoos were able to share their knowledge of the process of tā moko and enable a revival of the art.

Learning ladder 10.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the role of the man in this image.
2. Describe the powers of chiefs in Polynesian societies.
3. Explain how Māori societies were organised.
4. Explain why social structures and tattooing practices are similar across Polynesia.

Continuity and change

1. Identify two similarities among different Polynesian societies.
2. Source 3: Describe how traditional Polynesian tattooing represents continuity with the wearer's past.
3. Source 3: Explain how the practice of moko kauae represents continuity and change.
4. Explain why the revival of tattooing among the Māori represents continuity and change.
5. With reference to the concept of continuity and change, analyse the importance of family and community in Polynesian societies.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

10.5

How sustainable was the Polynesians' use of resources?

While the Polynesians had a highly developed understanding of marine conservation, other environmental resources were overexploited, resulting in extinctions and devastation to the environment.

Polynesian people's use of environmental resources

The Polynesians sourced their food from the sea or from farms and vegetable gardens. Houses were made from the stone, wood, palm leaves and grasses that were found locally. Tools were fashioned from shells, whale and fish bones, human bones, stone and wood. Coconut trees provided food, and palm leaves and palm fibres were used to make rope. Flax fibres, palm leaves and grasses were woven into clothing, baskets, rope and mats. Jewellery was created from shells and bone.

Sustainable practices

Since much of what the Polynesians ate was from the sea, they had a highly developed appreciation of the importance of marine conservation. Living close to nature also gave them an intimate understanding of the seasonal cycles of their environment. They knew how food abundance was affected by the position of the Moon and stars, the direction of the wind and the level of the tides. They took note of when fish migrated and spawned. With this knowledge, Polynesians were able to control their harvests, so they did not take too much from the ocean. In addition, chiefs placed restrictions on where, when and what species fishing parties could hunt, to promote a sustainable marine environment. Each village had its own reserved fishing areas, and people who trespassed from other villages were punished.

Religion played a key role in protecting marine resources. Some fishing areas could only be accessed by the chiefs, and certain types of seafood, such as sea turtles, could only be eaten by chiefs and priests. Chiefs also made rules about what foods could be eaten at what times of the year, such as during religious ceremonies or following the death of an important person.

To ensure these rules were followed, tapu and threats were used. People were encouraged to believe that if they ate the wrong foods, a god would inhabit the body of an animal, which would then kill or wound them. The chief would also administer severe punishments, including expulsion from the community or death.

Source 1: The green turtle is considered *tapu* in many Polynesian societies.

Plant and animal extinctions

Extinction of the moa

The moa were large flightless birds that were native to Aotearoa (New Zealand) (see Source 2). The largest moa were over three metres tall and weighed about 250 kilograms. Archaeologists think these birds were covered in reddish-brown feathers, from the base of the beak to the feet.

Before Polynesian settlers arrived in New Zealand sometime between 1100 and 1200 CE, the country may have been home to 12 species of moa. At this time, the moa were abundant and easy to hunt. No specialised hunting tools have been found and the moa, being unused to humans, were probably docile and unafraid.

Māori cooking sites that date back to the 14th century CE contain thousands of pieces of moa remains. In Kaupokonui and Waitaki River Mouth, the remains of piles of uncooked birds have been found around Māori cooking sites – some still in the ovens – suggesting an enormous abundance (and wastage) of meat. Carbon dating has shown that most of the moa were killed within 100 years of the arrival of the Māori and that the moa were extinct within 300 years.

> To ascertain the number of moas in each heap we paired the ... broken tibiae [bone of a bird's leg from the knee to the ankle]. From one heap we had sixteen pairs, from a second heap eighteen pairs, from a third heap fourteen pairs, and from other parts of the area twenty pairs, thus accounting for sixty-eight moas; but judging by the area covered by burnt bones, this would be only a small fraction of the birds dealt with here. The three heaps would be about twelve yards [11 metres] apart from each other suggesting the number of birds brought in and killed at one time ... We found several moa skulls, the beaks of which were missing but the skull was intact, showing the birds were not clubbed to death.

Source 3: Extract from an archaeologist's report [David Teviotdale (1939 CE), 'Excavation of a moa-hunters' camp near the mouth of the Waitaki River', *The Journal of the Polynesian Society*, vol. 48, pp. 167–85.]

Other extinctions

The Māori were not the only Polynesians to cause extinctions. Archaeologists have found evidence of plant and animal extinctions caused by Polynesians across the Pacific region, including in Tahiti, Hawaii, Tonga, Fiji, Rapa Nui (Easter Island) and the Cook Islands. In some cases, the extinctions were caused by overhunting; in others, they were caused by deforestation or by the introduction of the Polynesian rat, which ate sea birds' eggs.

Source 2: The comparative heights of the extinct South Island giant moa (3.6 metres) and the ostrich (2.7 metres). The South Island giant moa is the largest bird ever to have existed.

Learning ladder 10.5

Impact and legacies

1. Create a two-column table.
   - **a** In the left-hand column, list the environmental resources available in Polynesia.
   - **b** In the right-hand column, identify how the Polynesians used each resource.
2. Describe the sustainable practices used by Polynesians to conserve and manage fish stocks.
3. Explain how the chiefs controlled food stocks.
4. Explain why Polynesian societies were successful in managing resources.
5. Evaluate the significance of the extinctions caused by Polynesians for the world today.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Sources 1 and 2: Describe the ways these two food sources were managed by Polynesian settlers.
3. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the Māori hunted and cooked moa.
4. Source 3: Explain the context of the source in relation to the extinction of the moa. What further evidence would help us understand the extinction of the moa?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

How was the society of Rapa Nui (Easter Island) structured?

Rapa Nui (Easter Island) is the most easterly island of Polynesia. Society was organised in a similar way to other Polynesian cultures, with a noble class of chiefs (*ariki*) who controlled the common people (*kio*).

Social classes

Like most Polynesian societies, the society of Rapa Nui was arranged into a strict hierarchy, with a clear distinction between those who were rich and powerful and those who were not. There were four distinct social classes on Rapa Nui: noblemen (*ariki*), priests (*ivi-atua*), warriors (*matatoa*) and servants and farmers (*kio*).

The *ariki*

The upper class of Rapa Nui society was called the ariki. This term applied to clan chiefs and high-ranking nobles. This status was usually hereditary; this means it was passed on from parents to their children. However, occcasionally, skilled members of the lower classes – such as hunters, canoe-builders and navigators – were welcomed into the ariki as a reward for their accomplishments.

The ariki had the power of being able to declare something tapu, a power they drew from their exclusive control of mana. This was a life force that permeated all living things and helped people perform great deeds. By claiming to control mana, the ariki could control all the people in their society.

Source 1: Hotu Matu'a was the legendary first *ariki mau* or king of Rapa Nui. Subsequent ariki mau are believed to be his descendants.

The foundation of Rapa Nui

In the 1860s CE, Christian missionaries recorded the foundation myth of the people of Rapa Nui. They believed that the leader of the first expedition to settle their island was a chief named Hotu Matu'a ('the great parent'). He is also called *ariki mau* (supreme chief or king). Hotu Matu'a sailed to Rapa Nui from a place called Hiva, a mythical island, in one or two large canoes with his wife, six sons and extended family. They landed on Rapa Nui and each son was given a portion of the island for himself and his family. Their descendants became the hereditary tribal chiefs of the different clans of Rapa Nui.

Source 2: An artist's conception of a partially reconstructed *hare paenga*. A wooden frame was built on a basalt foundation, and then thatch was placed over the wooden frame.

Houses

The easiest way to determine a person's status on Rapa Nui was to look at their house. People lived in two types of houses.

Houses of the ariki

The ariki lived in houses called *hare paenga*, which were long, narrow and canoe-shaped (see Source 2). Hare paenga were usually about 12 metres long and three metres wide; however, archaeologists have found a hare paenga that was nearly 100 metres long. The ends of hare paenga were streamlined just like a canoe. The walls and roof were made from layers of thatch. The base was outlined neatly with basalt rocks, with a stone-paved terrace. The ariki houses were built within 200 metres of the coast and were clustered together in groups of 6 to 10.

Houses of the kio

The common people of Rapa Nui did not live in elaborate houses; their houses were much smaller than those of the ariki. The common people's houses had the same wooden frame and thatch covering as hare paenga, but not the basalt foundation stones. Each kio house had an oven, a circular stone garden for growing crops and a garbage pit. Next to each kio house was a hare moa, or chicken house. These small, rectagular stone structures were tapu for the ariki, possibly because they were considered to be unclean or unhygienic. This meant that the ordinary people of Rapa Nui had to build their houses inland, far from the coast and the hare paenga. This way, the ariki would not be at risk of breaking tapu.

Learning ladder 10.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the four social classes of Rapa Nui.
2. Describe the concept of *mana*.
3. Explain how the houses of the ariki were different from those of the kio.
4. Explain why allowing skilled matatoa and kio to enter the ariki class would have been beneficial for the society.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the leader of the expedition to settle Rapa Nui.
2. Source 2: Describe the significance of the shape of the hare paenga.
3. Explain the significance of the six sons of Hotu Matu'a.
4. Explain why the foundation myth of Rapa Nui was significant for the authority of the chiefs.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

What was daily life like on Rapa Nui (Easter Island)?

Living in one of the most remote locations on Earth, the Rapa Nui people needed to be self-sufficient. They fished, raised chickens and grew crops. They drew the fresh water that pooled in volcanic craters and drank sugar cane juice.

An isolated settlement

Rapa Nui (Easter Island) is one of the most isolated inhabited places in the world. Its nearest neighbour, Pitcairn Island, is 1921 kilometres to the west. Chile, in South America, is 3540 kilometres to the east.

Polynesians arrived and settled on Rapa Nui around 1200 CE. While the traditions and practices throughout the rest of Polynesia were remarkably similar, Rapa Nui also developed a unique culture because of its remoteness.

Source 1: Traditional Polynesian clothing worn by people on Rapa Nui

Clothing

The clothing worn by the people of Rapa Nui was determined by the climate and the available resources. Rapa Nui has a subtropical maritime climate, which means it is warm throughout the year. The temperature reaches a high of 28 degrees Celsius in February and a low of 18 degrees Celsius in July. Because of this temperature range, the islanders did not need to wear lots of clothes to keep warm.

Like other Polynesians, the people of Rapa Nui wore skirts made of woven grass. Jacob Roggeveen – a Dutch explorer who visited Rapa Nui in 1722 CE – described the islanders' clothing in the official log of his ship (see Source 2).

> The wraps worn on their bodies were composed of some field-product, sewn three or four ply in thickness, yet neat and trim … The ear-plates imagined to be of silver were made out of the root of some vegetable. This ear-ornament is roundish, or oval, having a diameter of about two inches [five centimetres].

Source 2: This is an extract from a ship's log, written by Jacob Roggeveen, who was the first European to visit Rapa Nui.

Food and water

The rainfall on Rapa Nui is abundant and evenly spread across the seasons. The rainwater could be collected from where it pooled in the craters of extinct volcanoes. Apart from the rain, there are very few sources of fresh water on Rapa Nui. To compensate for this, the Rapa Nui people drank the juice squeezed from sugar cane. This was very sweet and tasty but rotted their teeth.

While Rapa Nui does not have the warm-water corals that allow shallow-water fishing that other Polynesian islands enjoy, excavations of **middens** show that seals, porpoises and tuna were all harvested from the ocean around the island.

However, evidence suggests that by the 18th century CE, the Rapa Nui people were not eating much fish or many seabirds. When James Cook visited in 1774 CE, he noted that Rapa Nui provided little in the way of natural food resources and that the people grew much of the food they ate (see Source 3).

Yam	A large orange or yellow vegetable that is similar to sweet potato	
Taro or edoy	A starchy plant root; the leaves of the plant can also be eaten	
Plantain	A fruit that is similar to a banana	
Gourd	A large, fleshy vegetable; the hollowed-out shell can be used as a cup	

▲ **Source 4:** Some of the food James Cook mentions in his diary

> The produce is potatoes, yams, taro or the edoy root, plantains and sugar cane, all excellent in its kind, the potatoes are the best of the sort I ever tasted; they have also gourds and the same sort of cloth plant as at the other isles but not much, [chickens] like ours which are small and but few of them and these are the only domestic animals we saw among them, nor did we see any quadrupeds [four-legged animals], but rats which I believe they eat as I saw a man with some in his hand which he seemed unwilling to part with. The sea seems as barren of fish for we could not catch any although we tried in several places with hook and line and it was very little we saw among the natives. Such is the produce of Easter Island ...

Source 3: This is an extract from a diary entry written by James Cook in 1774 CE. Cook visited Rapa Nui during his second voyage to the Pacific (1772–1775 CE). The purpose of his voyage was to prove that the fabled Great South Land known as *Terra Australis Incognito* did not exist.

Learning ladder 10.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 4: Identify the foods farmed by the people of Rapa Nui.
2. Sources 1 and 2: Describe the clothing worn by the people of Rapa Nui.
3. Explain how the people of Rapa Nui sourced fresh water.
4. Explain why the people of Rapa Nui did not engage in shallow-water fishing.
5. Analyse the similarities and differences between the environment of Rapa Nui and other Polynesian islands.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the effects of isolation on the culture of Rapa Nui.
2. Describe the effects of the limited availability of fresh water.
3. Source 3: Explain how the limited food resources on Rapa Nui affected the diet of people living there.
4. Source 3: Explain the cause of James Cook's visit to Rapa Nui.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

10.8

What are the cultural achievements of the people of Rapa Nui (Easter Island)?

The Rapa Nui people developed their traditions and beliefs in isolation from other influences. They built huge stone statues called *moai*, created a new writing system and developed traditions, such as the Birdman contest.

Cultural achievements

The people who settled Rapa Nui (Easter Island) brought their Polynesian customs and traditions with them. However, the isolation and remoteness of the island meant that they developed a unique culture, shaped by the environment of Rapa Nui.

The cultural practices and achievements of the Rapa Nui people have attracted a great deal of attention from archaeologists and tourists. In particular, the famous stone statues on the island continue to generate debate about their origin and purpose.

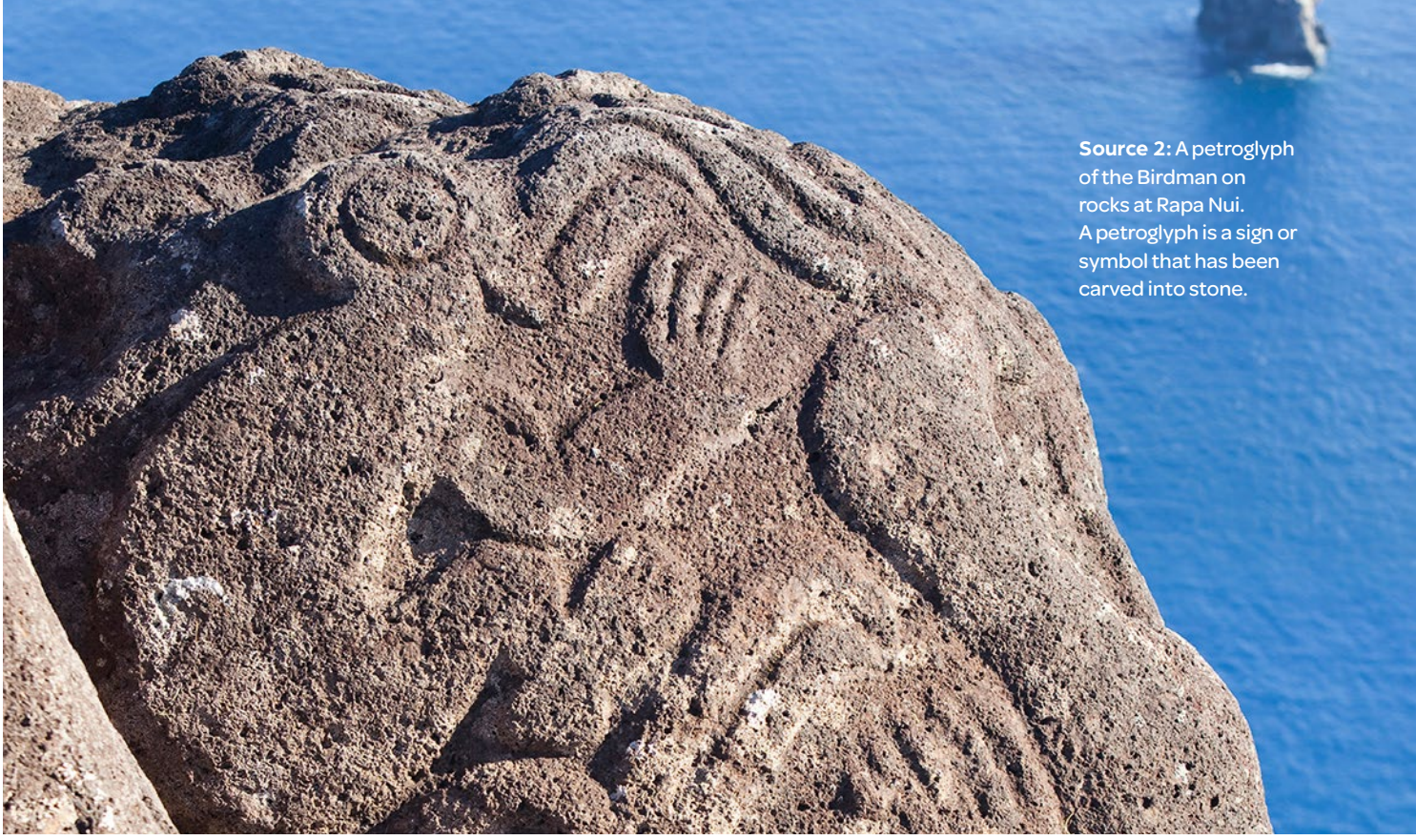
The Rongorongo script

In the entire span of human history, there are very few instances of a writing system being created without the influence of other cultures. The Rongorongo script – a simple writing system developed on Rapa Nui – is one of these. It is the only known system of writing to have emerged independently in Polynesia. The symbols of the Rongorongo script (known as glyphs) are the outlines of humans, animals, plants and geometric forms (see Source 1).

The existence of the script was first recorded by a French Catholic priest named Eugène Eyraud in 1864 CE; Eyraud was the first foreigner to settle on Rapa Nui. He noted in his diary that pieces of wood inscribed with small symbols were found inside every house on the island. At this time, possibly hundreds of these pieces of wood existed. However, four years later, another French priest named Hippolyte Roussel could find only two dozen pieces. No-one knows what happened to the rest.

However, the inhabitants of Rapa Nui in 1864 CE could not understand the text. Perhaps many years earlier, the last people who could read the language died before they could pass on their knowledge. Some anthropologists think the Rongorongo script was used to record the names of chiefs or revered ancestors. Another explanation is that the symbols are chants to be recited during special ceremonies. These, however, are just theories.

Source 1: Some of the symbols, or glyphs, that make up the Rongorongo script and some suggested meanings



Source 2: A petroglyph of the Birdman on rocks at Rapa Nui. A petroglyph is a sign or symbol that has been carved into stone.

The Birdman contest

Something else that amazed the Europeans who visited Rapa Nui in the 19th century CE was the Birdman contest. This contest started around 1500 CE. Every year, each chief on the island selected one young man from his clan to compete. The contestants, called *hopu*, climbed down the 300-metre cliffs that form the lip of the crater of Rano Kau, an extinct volcano. From the base of the cliffs, the hopu swam to the islet of Motu Nui to collect the first eggs of the season laid by the *manu tara*, or sooty tern (a type of seabird). This is a distance of about 1.5 kilometres and the water can be rough.

Seabird eggs were precious to the people of Rapa Nui. The first settlers hunted the various species of seabird almost to extinction. The birds that survived were those that made their nests on three islets off the south-west point of the island.

After collecting the eggs, the hopu swam back to the cliffs of Rano Kau and climbed to the top. Many hopu died trying to climb up and down the cliffs. Some drowned in the ocean, while others were eaten by sharks. The winner was the hopu who first climbed to the top of the Rano Kau cliffs with an egg intact.

The winning hopu gave his egg to his clan chief and was then declared Tangata-Manu or Birdman. The Tangata-Manu was entitled to gifts of food and other forms of tribute. Most importantly, the Tangata-Manu's clan was the only one allowed to harvest the sooty terns' eggs from Motu Nui for the rest of the season. The Birdman contest was suppressed by Christian missionaries in the 1860s CE.

Learning ladder 10.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: What does this source show?
2. Source 1: Describe the four main types of symbols in Rongorongo script.
3. Source 1: Explain how the Rongorongo script has been interpreted.
4. Explain why the Rongorongo script is significant.

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify the significant image in this source.
2. Describe the Birdman contest.
3. Explain how the eggs of the sooty tern became valuable to the Rapa Nui people.
4. Explain why becoming the Tangata-Manu was significant in Rapa Nui society.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

Why were the statues on Rapa Nui (Easter Island) built?

More than 50 000 people visit Rapa Nui (Easter Island) every year to see the legacy of the Rapa Nui people – mysterious statues.

Moai

The statues on Rapa Nui are called ***moai*** (pronounced mow-eye). Historians estimate that the Rapa Nui people had built more than 1000 moai by the time Dutch explorer Jacob Roggeveen visited the island in 1722 CE.

Today, only 833 moai are left and only 50 of those are still standing (see Source 2). Most of the other statues are in various stages of completion in a quarry at Rano Raraku (a large volcanic crater in the eastern part of the island), including a huge moai estimated to be about 21 metres long and weighing more than 270 000 kilograms. Abandoned basalt picks and axes have also been found at the quarry.

The average height of a moai is four metres. The average weight is 10 000 kilograms. The tallest moai ever successfully erected, called Paro, is just under 10 metres tall and weighs 75 000 kilograms. A slightly shorter but much bulkier moai at the coastal village of Ahu Tongariki weighs 87 000 kilograms.

Almost all the moai are male and probably represent ancestral chiefs or important nobles. Some moai are buried up to their chest or chin. This was not deliberate; it is the effect of erosion over the centuries since they were built.

Most of the moai were carved from a material called tuff. This stone is easy to work with and is formed from the compressed volcanic ash that was readily available at Rano Raraku. When statues were completed, they were rubbed smooth with pumice. A small number of statues were carved from other types of rock such as basalt and trachyte.

Decorations on the moai

Perhaps the most striking aspect of the moai is the cold stare from the hollowed-out eyes under heavy eyebrow ridges (see Source 1). In 1979 CE, a team of archaeologists argued that the empty eye-sockets had a purpose: they might have been designed to hold eyes made out of coral with obsidian or scoria pupils.

Source 1: A line of moai sit on their *ahu* platform on Rapa Nui.

Rapa Nui (Easter Island)

Source 2: This map of Rapa Nui shows the locations of the moai and other significant sites.

Source: Matilda Education Australia

These two substances are types of volcanic rock. Obsidian is black and glassy while scoria is reddish-brown.

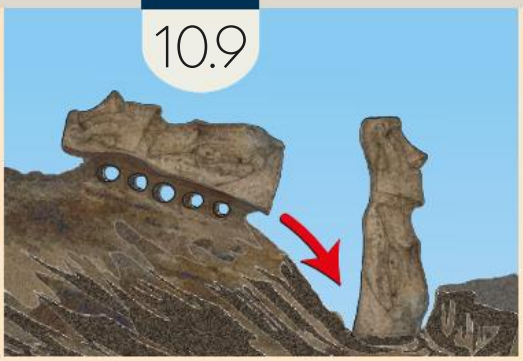
Some of the statues wear red *pukao* (topknots) on their heads. These were carved from scoria that was quarried at Puna Pau, a volcanic crater in the south-west corner of Rapa Nui. The pukao are cylindrical and can be up to about 2.4 metres high. It would have been extremely difficult to place a pukao on top of a standing moai. They were probably slotted on the top of a moai before the statue was hoisted into position. Archaeologists have located about 100 pukao on the island. Some sit on top of the moai while others lie in pieces at the feet of the statues. Others are still in the crater of Puna Pau.

The *ahu*

The finished moai were transported to platforms all over the island. The platforms are called *ahu* and each one held between one and 15 moai. The ahu, though less spectacular than the moai, are no less impressive. Almost all the ahu are situated near the coast. Of the 300 ahu on Rapa Nui, 113 hold moai. The ahu are made of rubble held in place by four stone retaining walls made of grey basalt.

Step 1

The moai were carved directly out of the volcanic rock at Rano Raraku using basalt tools. The front and sides were carved first. A 'spine' of rock held the moai in place. It is estimated that carving a single moai took 30 men one year.



Step 2

Workers reduced the stone 'spine' until the moai slid down into a man-made ditch. The back was completed and the entire statue was smoothed with pumice.

Step 3

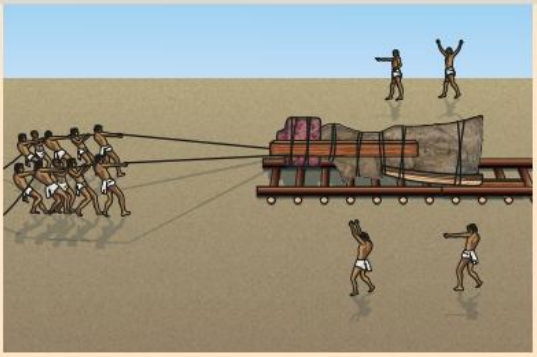
A wooden sled was tied to the upright moai, which was then lowered to the ground using strong rope made from tree bark.

Source 3: A depiction of how the moai were constructed, transported and erected, based on drawings by Jo Anne Van Tilberg (1998 CE)

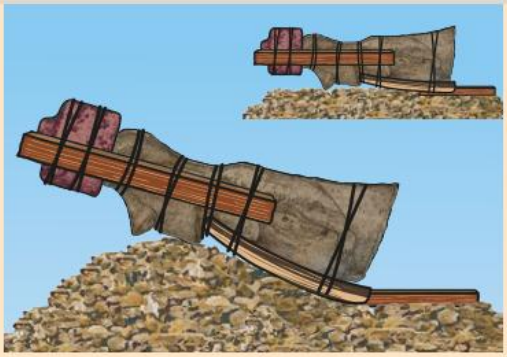
Source 4: Once a statue had reached its ahu, it was raised using long poles as levers. Stones were placed behind the moai to hold it in its new position. This process was repeated a number of times until the moai was standing on its own. The next step was to carve eye sockets into which coral and stone eyes were placed to activate the *mana* (power) of the moai.

Why were the moai built?

European explorers were amazed by the moai and tried to determine their purpose. Jacob Roggeveen witnessed the Rapa Nui people burning fires at the base of the moai and sitting in what he assumed was prayer. James Cook believed that the moai did not represent gods or places of worship; rather, he thought they marked the burial places for tribes or families.



Step 4
The moai was dragged to an ahu, which could be as far as 12 kilometres away. This task might have taken 90 men two months to complete. The pukao (topknot) was probably added at this time.



Step 5
At the ahu, a mound of rocks was gradually built up under the moai so that, eventually, it stood upright. Ropes were used to haul up the moai and to ensure it did not topple backwards.

Step 6
Once the moai was in place on its ahu, the mound of rocks was removed and the wooden beams taken away. The raising stage is estimated to have taken 90 men about three months. The coral eyes were inserted at this point.

Oral accounts of the Rapa Nui people, recorded by Christian missionaries, suggest that the moai represented ancestral chiefs or high-ranking nobles. The moai may have been built as part of a clan rivalry that developed on the island. Each of the clans on Rapa Nui had its own territory. The chiefs and ariki of each clan competed for prestige. Building and erecting large moai was one way the chiefs could demonstrate their power to the other clans and to their own people.

How were the moai constucted, transported and erected?

There are many theories about how the massive moai were constructed and moved into position. Roggeveen thought the moai were made of clay or clumps of earth covered in a thin layer of rock; hence, they would have been relatively easy to move. But the moai are solid stone.

So how did the Rapa Nui people, without modern technology, build and move such heavy objects? By combining archaeological evidence with oral accounts that were written down by Europeans in the mid-1800s CE, and some experimentation, we can make a reasonable guess about how these fascinating and mysterious statues were carved, transported and erected (see Source 3).

In 1998 CE, archaeologist Jo Anne Van Tilburg and her team of about 60 people dragged an average-sized, 12 000-kilogram statue mounted on a wooden sled almost 15 kilometres. In another experiment, Rapa Nui people demonstrated how to erect a statue using the method described in Source 4; that is, by lifting the statue a couple of feet, piling rocks under it, then letting the statue rest.

Learning ladder 10.9

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1:
   - **a** What is a moai?
   - **b** What are most of the moai made of?
2. Describe how a moai was made and decorated.
3. How did European explorers explain the purpose of the moai?
4. Explain why the moai were built.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the location of the moai and the key geographical features of Rapa Nui.
3. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the moai were moved into place.
4. Source 3: Explain why the source is currently believed to be accurate.

Source analysis, page 475

HOW TO

Why did the Rapa Nui (Easter Island) society collapse?

Historians believe that the reasons for the collapse of the Rapa Nui (Easter Island) society include deforestation, overpopulation and colonisation.

In 1722 CE, Jacob Roggeveen visited Rapa Nui and wrote in his ship's log that the island was 'devoid of trees'. Fifty-two years later, James Cook visited the island and noted that only 600 or 700 people lived there, and only a few of them were women. This is very strange. Building, transporting and erecting hundreds of moai required lots of trees and lots of people; so at some point, Rapa Nui must have had many trees and a much larger population than observed by the European visitors.

Deforestation

Before humans settled there, it is likely that Rapa Nui was almost totally covered in a type of tree called the Rapa Nui palm. These trees have thick trunks and are very tall; a fully grown palm can be up to 30 metres tall.

The Rapa Nui people used the timber from the palms to make many things, including houses and canoes. The timber was also used in the process of transporting and erecting moai. The trees would also have been cleared so the land could be planted with crops of taro, yams and plantains.

As the people cleared more land and produced more food, inevitably the population grew. More people meant more land-clearing for farms.

Polynesian rats

Another key reason for the loss of trees on Rapa Nui was the Polynesian rat. Rats were brought to Rapa Nui with the settlers. Rapa Nui was a rat's paradise – it had an almost unlimited supply of food and no predators. Rat populations would have reached over 1.5 million within three years of the settlers arriving. One of the main foods the rats loved was the palm seeds of the Rapa Nui palm. Almost all of the palm seed shells found on the island show signs of having been gnawed on by rats.

The impact of deforestation

The deforestation of Rapa Nui led to a crisis that almost totally destroyed the island's society. The root systems of the giant palms held the soil together, so the fertile soil blew away in the strong winds. This meant that there was less soil in which to grow food.

Civil war?

As food supplies dwindled it is possible that a civil war broke out. When Jacob Roggeveen arrived in 1722 CE, he recorded that a few moai had been knocked over; but when James Cook arrived in 1774 CE, he noted that many more had been toppled.

Source 1: This wooden statue with bone eye sockets – called a *moai kavakava* – was found on Rapa Nui; it was carved by local inhabitants in the 19th century CE. The figure is believed to represent the body of an ancestor.

Source 2: The Polynesian rat and some gnawed palm seed shells

The moai may also have been knocked over as each clan tried to destroy each other's link with their sacred ancestors, or simply to destroy the prestige represented by the moai.

In 1887 CE, Rapa Nui was made part of Chile. The Rapa Nui chiefs gave up their land, but retained their titles as chiefs and their culture. Over the next decades, the remaining Rapa Nui population were forced to work for foreign farming companies.

The tragedy of outside contact

In 1862 and 1863 CE, the Peruvian Government took between 1000 and 2000 men and women from Rapa Nui (about half the population at that time) to other islands in the Pacific region to work as slaves. In 1865 CE, the 15 survivors were returned to the island.

Unfortunately, the survivors carried smallpox, which is a highly contagious virus that causes terrible blisters all over the body. The Rapa Nui people had never been exposed to smallpox before, so they had no immunity to the virus. Smallpox rapidly spread and almost wiped out the island's population. By 1872 CE, only 111 Rapa Nui people were left.

Today, approximately 5000 people live on Rapa Nui, 60 per cent of whom are the descendants of the Rapa Nui people. There have been efforts made to protect Rapa Nui culture and restore the rights of the Indigenous Rapa Nui people.

Learning ladder 10.10

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the legacy of Rapa Nui.
2. Source 1: Describe the moai kavakava figure shown in the source.
3. Explain how Rapa Nui had changed between 1722 CE and 1774 CE.
4. Explain why the Rapa Nui population declined dramatically between 1862 and 1872 CE.
5. Analyse the Rapa Nui people's options. What solutions existed for the problems they faced?

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify the effect of Polynesian rats on the palm trees of Rapa Nui.
2. Describe the effects of deforestation on Rapa Nui.
3. Explain how civil war may have led to the toppling of the moai.
4. Explain why deforestation occurred on Rapa Nui.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

How have Polynesian societies been depicted?

Europeans have visited Polynesia since the 18th century and have long been fascinated by its culture and heritage, but they have often misunderstood it. However, Polynesian historians and artists have provided more accurate representations of Polynesia's past and present.

The Art of Paul Gauguin

In 1890 CE, French artist Paul Gauguin travelled to the island of Tahiti in Polynesia. He wanted to paint images of a land and people that were 'unspoilt' by modern life. His paintings featured bright colours and vibrant images of Tahitian society. However, they also depicted Tahitians in a way that was disrespectful, showing Tahitian people as 'primitive', submissive and docile. Gauguin's paintings were popular in Europe and the United States and contributed to the belief that Polynesian society was primitive, lacking sophisticated technology and knowledge.

Children's films

The children's films *Lilo and Stitch* (2002 CE) and *Moana* (2016 CE) are both set in Polynesia. On the one hand, these films present positive images of Polynesian people and culture. In *Lilo and Stitch*, Lilo is shown to be a fun-loving orphaned girl, while her sister, Nani is depicted as caring, responsible and strong, working hard to preserve their family. In *Moana*, the lead character is a skilful navigator who restores the heart of the ocean.

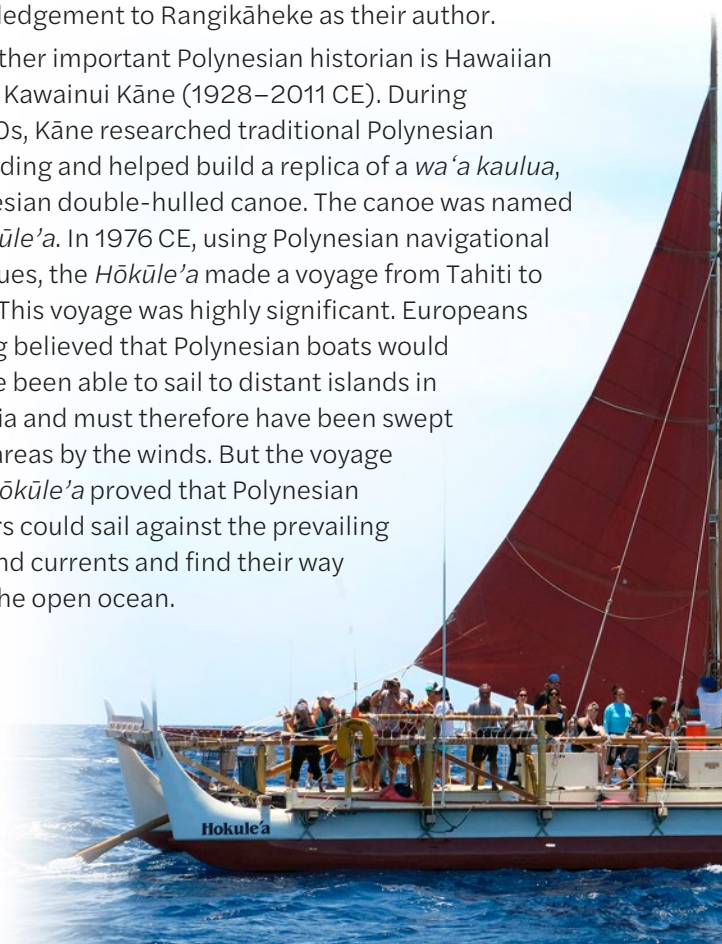
However, these films make a number of cultural misrepresentations. For example, in *Moana*, the god Maui is presented as a large man who is somewhat foolish. In Polynesian mythology, however, Maui is a young, heroic god. He is accompanied by the goddess Hina, who helps him achieve amazing feats to help humanity, such as stealing fire from the underworld and bringing islands up from the bottom of the sea with his magical hook.

Furthermore, the film *Moana* shows Polynesian villagers living a pre-modern lifestyle, happily gathering coconuts. This not only misrepresents Polynesian culture but also ignores the fact that traditional culture was destroyed by European colonisation.

Polynesian historians

Polynesian historians, who have deep cultural understanding, have been able to present a far richer story of Polynesia's past. In Aotearoa (New Zealand), Māori historian Te Rangikāheke wrote the first accounts of Māori history in the late 1840s CE, during the early period of New Zealand's colonisation by the British. He created over 800 pages of manuscript that provided detailed descriptions of Māori mythology, customs, history and social structures. His writings appeared in the appendices of New Zealand governor Sir George Grey's book *Polynesian Mythology* (1855 CE). Since 1949 CE, Rangikāheke's writings have been re-published, including as *Māori Religious Beliefs and Observances* (1949) and *The Story of Māui* (1992), with proper acknowledgement to Rangikāheke as their author.

Another important Polynesian historian is Hawaiian Herbert Kawainui Kāne (1928–2011 CE). During the 1970s, Kāne researched traditional Polynesian shipbuilding and helped build a replica of a *wa'a kaulua*, a Polynesian double-hulled canoe. The canoe was named the *Hōkūle'a*. In 1976 CE, using Polynesian navigational techniques, the *Hōkūle'a* made a voyage from Tahiti to Hawaii. This voyage was highly significant. Europeans had long believed that Polynesian boats would not have been able to sail to distant islands in Polynesia and must therefore have been swept to new areas by the winds. But the voyage of the *Hōkūle'a* proved that Polynesian seafarers could sail against the prevailing winds and currents and find their way across the open ocean.



Source 1: Maui and Moana from the film *Moana* (2016 CE), made by the United States' film production company, the Walt Disney Company

Source 2: The *Hōkūle'a* sailing canoe is seen off Honolulu. The Polynesian voyaging canoe is returning to Hawaii after a three-year journey around the world guided only by nature, with navigators using no modern navigation to guide *Hōkūle'a* across 40 000 nautical miles to 19 countries. Thousands welcomed the double-hulled canoe to Oahu, Hawaii, on Saturday, 17 June 2017.

Learning ladder 10.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the ship shown in this source.
2. Describe how Gauguin depicted Tahitian people.
3. Explain how Kāne was able to prove that Polynesians had been able to navigate across the ocean without instruments.
4. Explain why the work of Te Rangikāheke is significant.
5. Analyse the significance of the *Hōkūle'a*'s voyage.

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Identify how Moana is depicted in the source.
2. Describe the perspectives of Polynesian culture in the Disney films *Lilo and Stitch* and *Moana*.
3. Source 1: Explain how the depiction of Maui does not reflect a Polynesian perspective.
4. Explain why an understanding of Polynesian sources provides a more accurate perspective.
5. Analyse the accuracy of *Lilo and Stitch* and *Moana's* portrayal of Polynesian culture.

HOW TO Pespectives, page 484

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the Polynesian expansion across the Pacific. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of Polynesian expansion across the Pacific. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the Polynesians in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- How the Polynesians travelled across the Pacific Ocean, page 264
- The role of chiefs in Polynesian societies, page 270
- What life was like on Rapa Nui (Easter Island), page 276
- The moai statues, pages 280 to 283
- The Rongorongo script, page 278

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas.

Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry. Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

The Vikings (c. 790–1066)

11

WHY DID THE VIKINGS BECOME EXPLORERS? 295

WHO WAS THE GOD OF THUNDER? 300

WERE VIKINGS BLOODTHIRSTY PILLAGERS? 310

11.0

How can I understand the Vikings?

The Vikings pillaged, raided and terrorised Europe from c. 789 CE. However, by the start of the 11th century CE, they had become a cultured, settled society of traders and explorers.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
	Knowledge and understanding				

Source 1: Viking warriors terrorised people in villages and monasteries in European countries. [Panel painted by Danish artist Lorenz Frolich (1883 CE), *Vikings Plundering a Monastery*]

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

Who were the Vikings?

The Vikings have a reputation for being violent barbarians. But is this true? Were they terrifying raiders, great inventors, astute traders, epic poets? Or all of these?

The Viking terror

Towards the end of the 8th century CE, bands of fierce warriors emerged from Scandinavia in north-west Europe and began raiding the coast of England. Within a few decades, they were also raiding the coastal towns of France, Spain and Italy. Known as the Norse, the raiders continued looting and pillaging locations in Europe for 300 years. The horror of those times and the long period of continued raids created a widespread belief that remains with us today: Norse were cruel plundering barbarians.

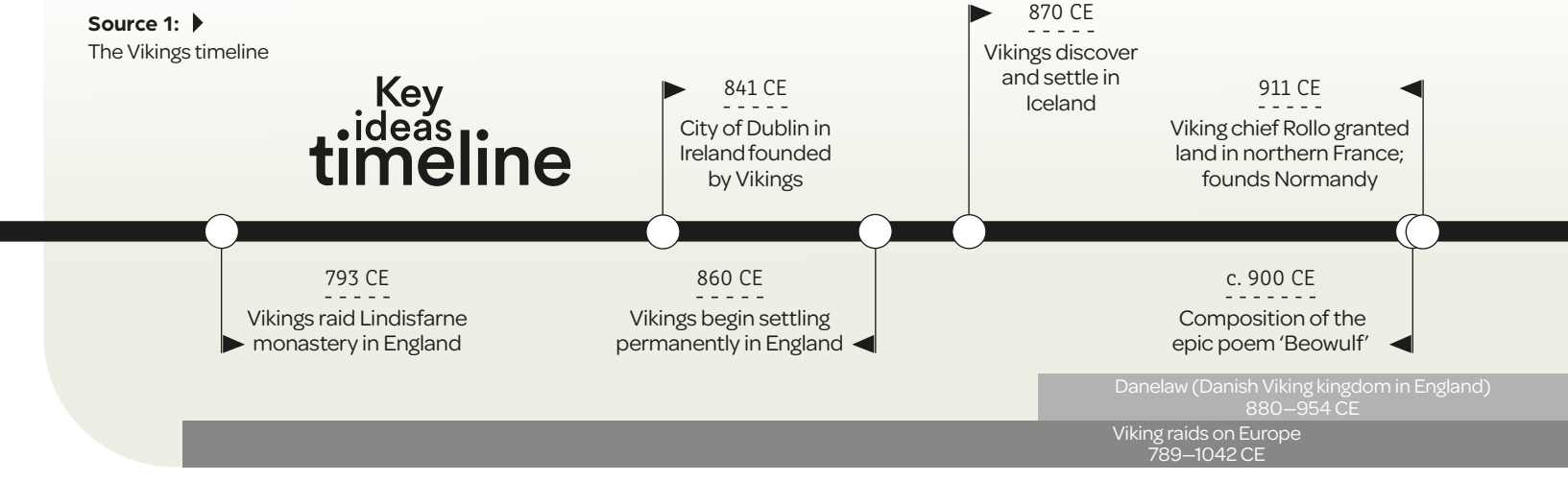
Explorers and traders

However, another story lies behind the barbaric legend. Archaeologists and historians have learned that the Vikings were also great explorers, settlers and traders. Indeed, the word 'Viking' comes from the Norse word *vikingr*, meaning explorer or traveller.

By the beginning of the 11th century CE, the Vikings dominated much of northern Europe. They had ventured deep into Russia, and opened trade routes to Persia (now Iran) and China. They had sailed over almost half the known world, travelling further north and west than Europeans had ever been before. They founded new colonies in Ireland, England, France, Iceland, Greenland, Russia and North America, and established cities including Novgorod (Russia) and Kyiv (modern-day Ukraine).

Source 2: **Beserkers** acted as shock troops for the Vikings to terrify and destroy the forward ranks of the enemy. They would howl like wild beasts, foam at the mouth and bite the rims of their shields. According to Viking legend, berserkers were immune to steel and fire.

Source 1: ▶
The Vikings timeline

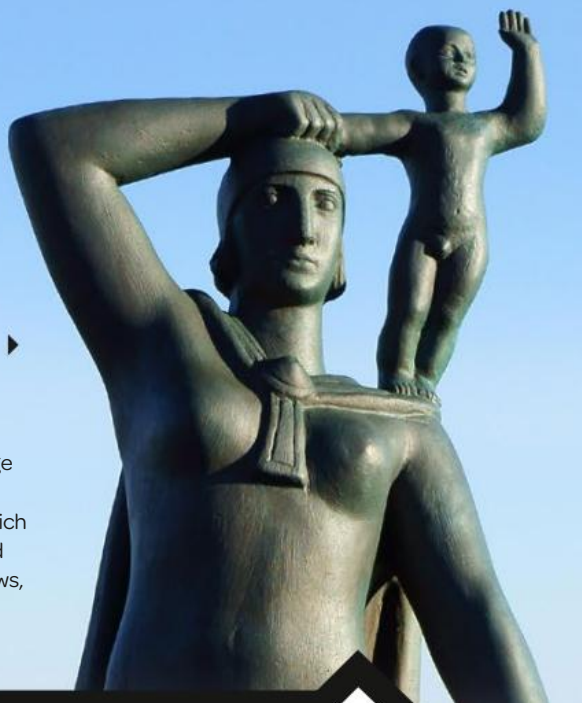


Viking innovation

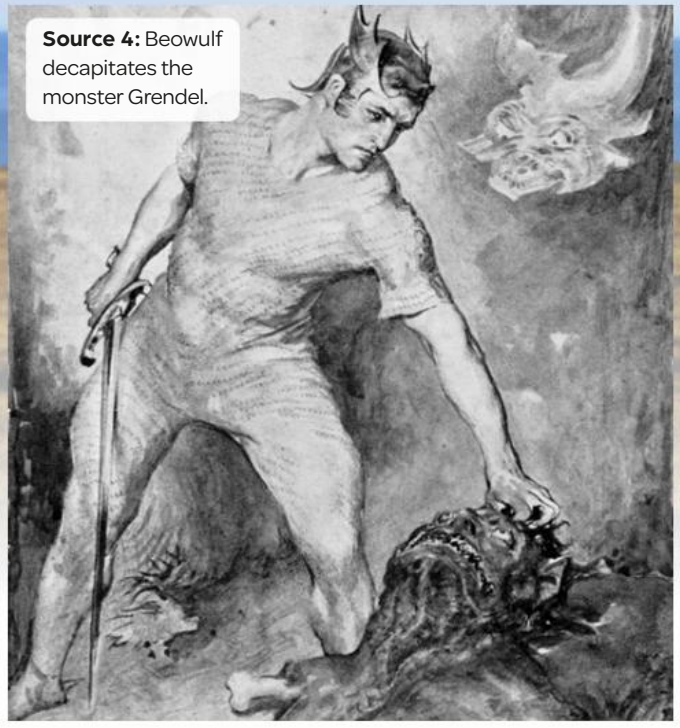
The Vikings also invented new ship and sail designs, which gave them a competitive edge when it came to transporting armies, colonists and merchandise across the Atlantic Ocean and Baltic Sea and along major rivers.

In addition to their technological innovation, the Vikings pioneered one of the earliest forms of democracy through their institution known as the *Thing*. The Thing gave all Viking citizens a voice in how their society was run.

The Vikings were also epic storytellers and poets. They composed long tales (known as sagas), which were later written down by Christian missionaries. Their poems tell great mythological tales. One such poem is Beowulf, the story of a hero who defeats the monster Grendel.



Source 3: Gudrid Thorbjarnardóttir (c. 980–1019) was a Viking explorer who made a voyage to a territory she called Vinland (which may have included L'Anse aux Meadows, in Newfoundland, Canada).



Source 4: Beowulf decapitates the monster Grendel.

1000 CE
A Viking explorer, Leif Eriksson, reaches North America

982 CE
Erik the Red discovers Greenland

1015 CE
Vikings abandon their settlement ('Vinland') in North America

1028
King Cnut is the ruler of England, Denmark and Norway

1066 CE
Death of Harald III Sigurdsson ('Hardrada'), marking the decline of the Viking era

Learning ladder 11.1

Background and origins

1. Sources 2, 3 and 4: Identify three Viking achievements.
2. Source 2: Describe the role of Viking berserkers.
3. Explain how Vikings earned their reputation as cruel plundering barbarians.
4. Explain why the VIkings could be considered innovative and creative.
5. Analyse the Vikings' reputation. Should their violent reputation outweigh their other achievements?

Chronology

1. Source 1: How many years were there between the Viking discoveries of Greenland and North America?
2. Place the following events in chronological order:
   - 799 CE: Vikings began to raid France
   - 795 CE: Vikings first raided Ireland
   - 789 CE: Vikings first raid England in Portland, Dorset
   - 794 CE: Vikings raid the island of Iona, Scotland.
3. Use the events in Question 2 to create a timeline.
4. Explain how the timeline demonstrates the Vikings' expansion.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

11.2

How did geography influence Viking society?

The location and climate of Scandinavia had a significant impact on Viking society and also influenced the Vikings' eagerness to explore.

Living in Scandinavia

In Scandinavia, the winters are long, dark and cold, and the summers are mild and brief. In the northern parts of Scandinavia, the land is mountainous and covered in dense forests and snow. The southern parts of Scandinavia are flatter and the climate is mild. Scandinavia's terrain influenced where the Vikings lived and the types of work they did. Most Viking people lived in the southern coastal areas, near lakes, rivers and narrow inlets (known as **fjords**), where the soil was fertile. They were mainly farmers, living in buildings known as longhouses. Longhouses were up to 25 metres long and could house several generations of the one family.

The seasons dictated the rhythm of farm life. Crops would be tended during the spring and summer and then harvested in the autumn. Sheep, goats and cattle were taken to the rich mountain pastures in summer, where they grazed. At the end of autumn, the animals would be returned to the farm. The stronger, younger animals were kept inside the Vikings' longhouses during the long winter while the weaker ones were slaughtered for their meat. Since the Vikings had no refrigeration, meat had to be preserved to stop it from rotting. The meat was preserved by drying and salting, or smoking. The skins from slaughtered cattle and sheep were tanned into leather for clothing and other household goods.

Source 1: Many Viking families lived in longhouses. These had a fire in the middle of the building for light, warmth and cooking. Many also had a loom for weaving cloth.

Scandinavia (Norway, Sweden and Denmark) in north-west Europe

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 2:** Viking settlements in Scandinavia before 838 CE

Shipbuilding

As the Vikings lived close to waterways, knowledge of shipbuilding and navigation was vital to their way of life. The Vikings were widely recognised as the most skilled shipbuilders of their day. Fishing boats and canoes sailed in the waters around farms and towns. Viking merchants used wide, deep cargo ships called *knarrs*, while Viking warriors travelled in longships to raid foreign lands.

Source 3: The *knarr* was a type of cargo ship developed by the Vikings. It had a wide, deep hull (main body of the ship), which enabled it to carry lots of cargo.

Viking towns and trade

While most Vikings lived in small farming communities, others, such as artisans and merchants, lived in towns. Artisans made all sorts of goods, including shoes, pots, jewellery, weapons and leather. Viking merchants brought food, walrus ivory (from walrus tusks), furs and pottery from farming communities to sell in the towns.

The cold weather and mountainous terrain meant that the types of natural resources found in Scandinavia were fairly limited – mainly timber, iron, amber, walrus tusks and furs. This meant that Viking merchants could make huge profits by purchasing exotic goods from faraway lands and selling them in local markets. Using their deep-hulled knarrs, the Viking merchants sailed across the seas and along the rivers to the great cities of Constantinople and Baghdad, west to France, Spain and the Mediterranean Sea and east to the Baltic Sea. They brought back a wide range of luxury goods, including silk, jewels, glass, precious stones, gold, wine, spices and weapons.

Learning ladder 11.2

Background and origins

1. Source 2: Identify three Viking settlements in Scandinavia.
2. Source 1: Describe Viking longhouses.
3. Explain how exotic goods were brought to Viking markets.
4. Explain why merchants were motivated to travel long distances.
5. Analyse the relationship between shipbuilding, merchants and exploration.

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: Identify the reason why the Vikings designed the knarr with a large hull.
2. Describe the effects of the seasons on how farm animals were managed.
3. Source 3: Explain how living near waterways affected the development of Viking culture.
4. Source 2: Explain the reason why Viking settlements were located in southern coastal regions.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

11.3

How large was the Viking world?

The Vikings were great, fearless explorers. They made the first known voyages to Iceland, Greenland and North America and established settlements across northern Europe.

Fearless explorers

By the middle of the 9th century CE, the Vikings had established settlements in Britain and Ireland, and started to explore the north Atlantic. The Vikings had to rely on their skills as navigators and sailors to reach these lands across the Atlantic Ocean.

Many ships and their crews were lost in the icy waters of the north Atlantic, but the Vikings persevered to become the first people to create permanent ongoing settlements in Iceland. Free land was given to the new settlers, with controls on how much could be claimed. For example, a woman could claim the land she could walk a cow around in a day. By 900 CE, 50 000 Vikings lived in Iceland.

In addition to their settlements in the British Isles and Iceland, the Vikings also established settlements in Greenland, North America, France and Russia.

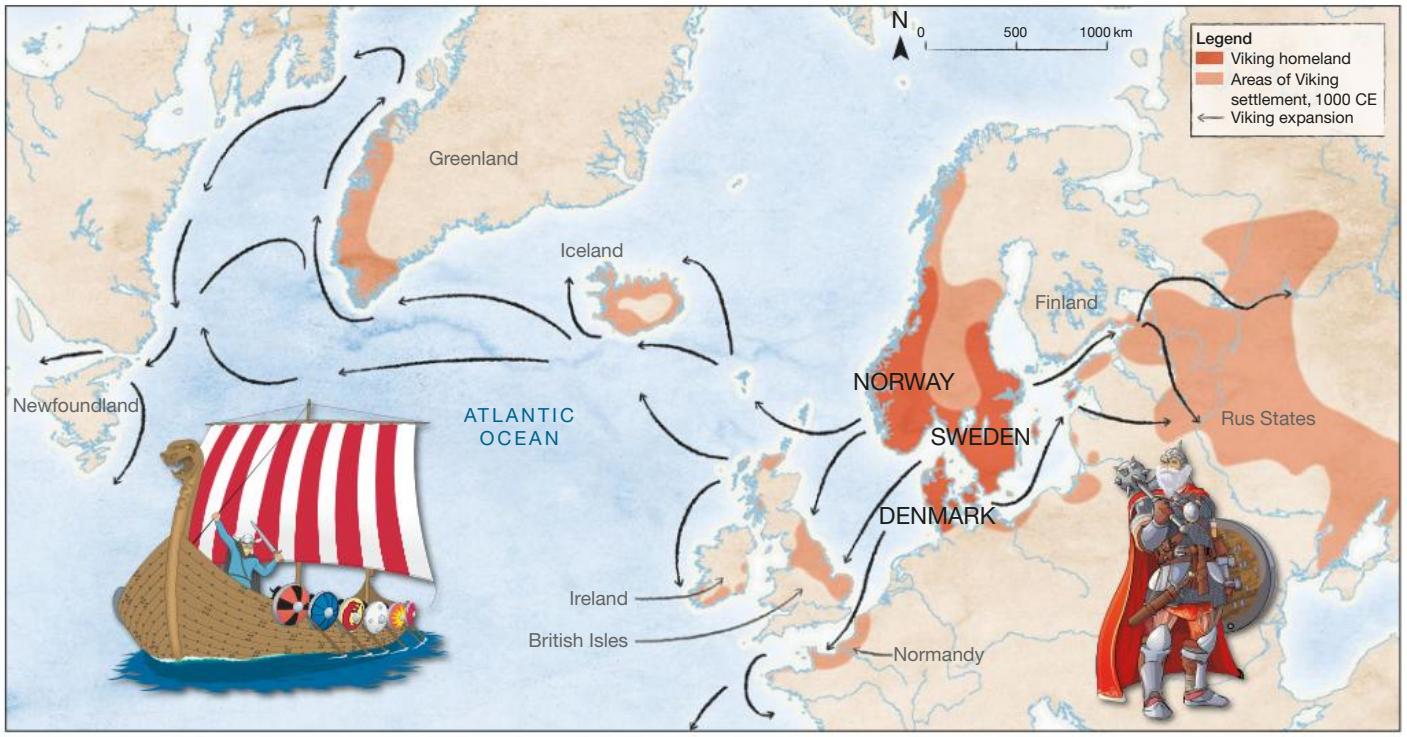
The Rus states

From the middle of the 8th century CE, the Vikings were sailing west across the Baltic Sea and into the Volga and Dnieper Rivers, where they founded the cities of Novgorod and Kyiv. The area around the cities was known as the 'Rus states' – the origin of the name of the country Russia. From the Volga River, the Vikings could sail into the Caspian Sea and travel to Baghdad, while down the Dnieper River lay the Black Sea. Across the Black Sea was Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire.

Constantinople was an enormously wealthy city situated on the Bosporus Strait. Its position made it a trading centre for goods from Europe, North Africa, Asia and the Middle East.

Source 1: This image depicts Viking explorer Leif Eriksson sighting land in North America, c. 1000 CE. [Christian Krohg (1893 CE), *Leif Eriksson Discovering America*]

Viking exploration and settlement, 8th to 11th centuries CE



Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 2:** Between the 8th and 11th centuries CE, many Vikings left their Scandinavian homes and ventured to distant lands.

The Vikings called Constantinople *Miklagard* which means 'the great city'. They were keen to have Constantinople for themselves and laid siege to it in 860 CE and again in 941 CE. However, the Vikings were unable to conquer Constantinople and had to content themselves with trading their honey and furs for the great city's silk and gold.

Learning ladder 11.3

Background and origins

1. Identify the Viking homelands.
2. Source 2: Describe the areas of Viking settlement.
3. Explain how the Vikings were able to reach the city of Constantinople from their homeland.
4. Explain why the Vikings could be considered fearless explorers.
5. Source 1: What legacy have the Vikings left for the world today?

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify the area of Viking settlement that became Russia.
2. Source 1: Describe the historical significance of Leif Eriksson's exploration.
3. Explain how the city of Constantinople was significant in the medieval period.
4. Explain why Viking exploration in Russia was significant.
5. Source 2: Assess the historical significance of the Viking world.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

11.4

How was Viking society organised?

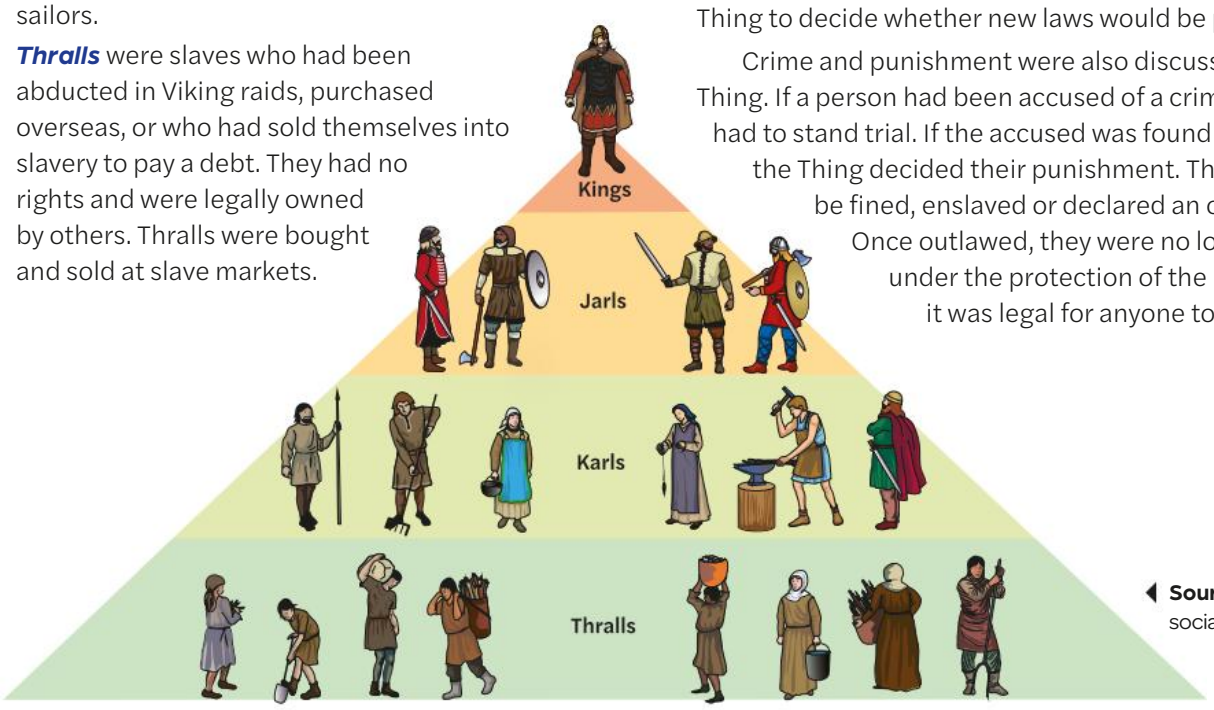
Unlike most medieval societies, the Vikings allowed people to change their social rank if they demonstrated bravery, leadership or skill. The Vikings also established a system of democracy to promote fairness and justice.

Levels of society

Viking society was hierarchical, with each level of society more influential than the one below it.

There were four social classes in Viking society:

1. The Vikings were ruled by kings. At first, there were a number of kings who ruled a series of small kingdoms, but from c. 800 CE, the smaller kingdoms were consolidated into larger realms ruled by a single king. Kings were expected to perform religious rituals and protect their people against invaders. Famous Viking kings include Harald Fairhair (860–940 CE), Ragnar Lothbrok (800–845 CE) and Harald Bluetooth (911–985 CE).
2. ***Jarls*** were the wealthy nobles who owned large areas of land. They employed a small army and owned many slaves.
3. ***Karls*** were the middle class of free men and free women and their families. Karls worked as farmers, tradespeople, craftspeople, warriors and sailors.
4. ***Thralls*** were slaves who had been abducted in Viking raids, purchased overseas, or who had sold themselves into slavery to pay a debt. They had no rights and were legally owned by others. Thralls were bought and sold at slave markets.



Source 1: Viking social hierarchy

Room to move

Unlike other medieval societies, the social hierarchy of the Vikings allowed people to move up or down in social rank.

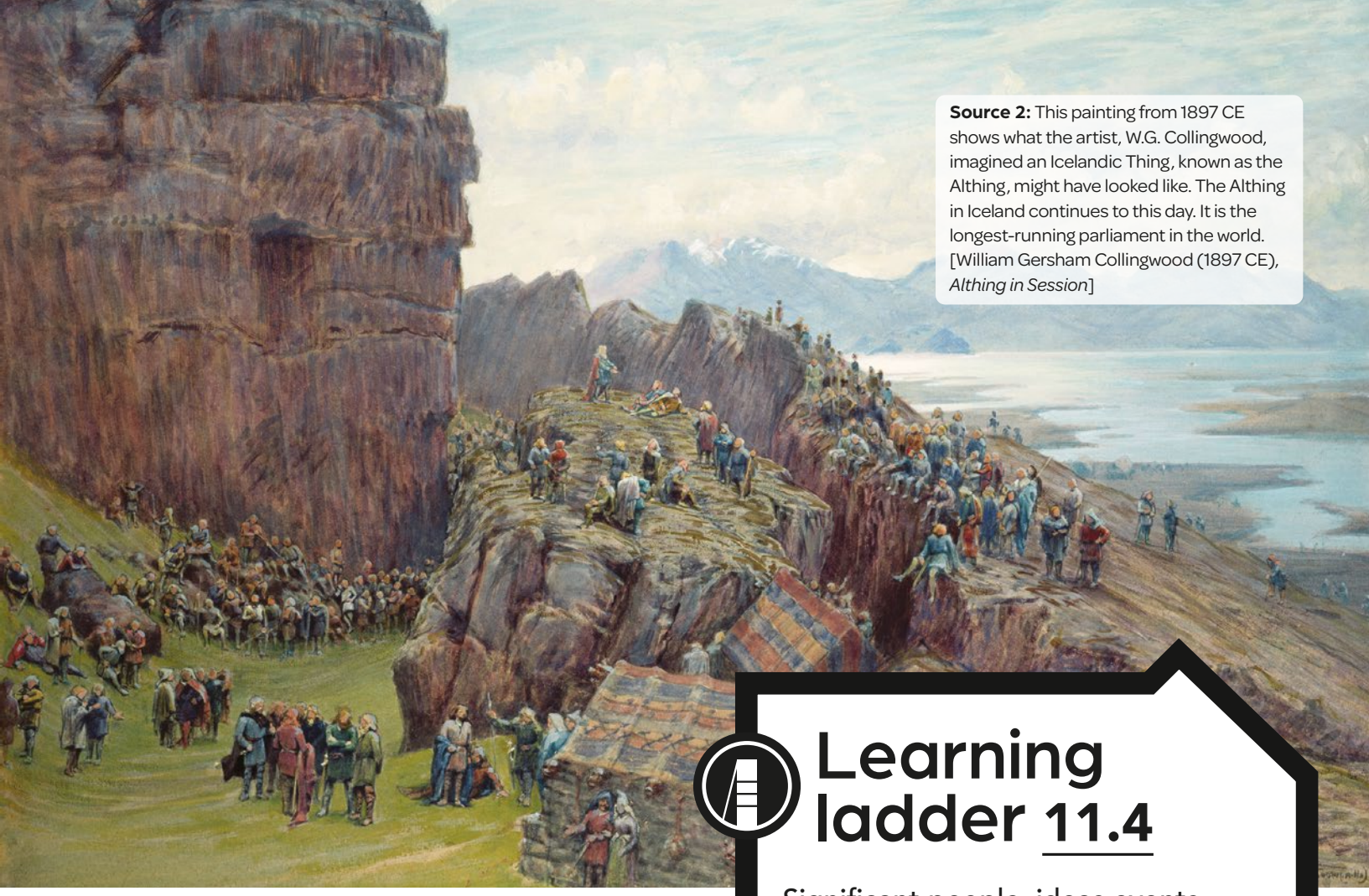
Jarls could become rich and powerful enough to become a king. Alternatively, they could lose their wealth and power and move down a social rank to become a karl. Similarly, a thrall was allowed to sell crafts they had made to earn money to buy their freedom and become a karl.

Even the son of a king was not immune to a change in his social status. Kings did not automatically inherit their titles. They had to earn their role by showing strength, bravery, wisdom and generosity.

The Viking *Thing*

A ***Thing*** was a Viking assembly of free men. At the Thing, disputes over property and matters of family honour were resolved. All free men were able to vote at the Thing to decide whether new laws would be passed.

Crime and punishment were also discussed at the Thing. If a person had been accused of a crime, they had to stand trial. If the accused was found guilty, the Thing decided their punishment. They could be fined, enslaved or declared an outlaw. Once outlawed, they were no longer under the protection of the law and it was legal for anyone to kill them.



Source 2: This painting from 1897 CE shows what the artist, W.G. Collingwood, imagined an Icelandic Thing, known as the Althing, might have looked like. The Althing in Iceland continues to this day. It is the longest-running parliament in the world. [William Gersham Collingwood (1897 CE), *Althing in Session*]

The lawspeaker

The lawspeaker was responsible for making sure that the decisions made at the Thing were carried out. Even the king had to obey the decisions made at the Thing. The lawspeaker was elected from one of the jarl families.

> Then Thorgnyr the lawspeaker said, 'King Olaf of Sweden wants to have Norway for himself, which no Swedish king before him has ever desired, and as a result, brings war and distress on many a man. Now it is out, will you, King Olaf, make peace with the Norway king, Olaf the Thick? ... if you will not do as we desire, we will now attack you, and put you to death, for we will no longer suffer law and peace to be disturbed' ... Then the whole public approved, with clash of arms and shouts, the lawman's speech.

Source 3: Extract from Snorri Sturluson (c. 1230 CE), *Chronicles of the Kings of Norway*

Learning ladder 11.4

Significant people, ideas events

1. Source 1: Identify the four social classes in Viking society.
2. Describe the role of:
   - **a** jarls
   - **b** karls.
3. Explain how the Thing ensured stability in Viking society.
4. Explain why the role of the lawspeaker was important in Viking society.
5. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, analyse how democratic Viking society was.

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Identify how the Althing is an example of continuity.
2. Describe how becoming an 'outlaw' changed a person's legal rights.
3. Explain how jarls and thralls could change social class.
4. Explain why Viking kingship demonstrates the concept of continuity and change in Viking society.
5. Evaluate the benefits of class mobility for Viking society.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Who were the Viking gods?

The Vikings worshipped a group of warrior gods and goddesses who lived in a land in the sky called Asgard. They told great tales of the gods' battles with giants and other monsters.

The Viking religion was polytheistic, meaning that it had many gods. The gods were believed to control every aspect of life. They inhabited a realm known as Asgard, while the humans lived in a separate realm known as Midgard. A rainbow bridge called Bifrost connected Asgard to Midgard, so that the gods could intervene in the lives of humans.

A giant serpent called Jörmungandr was thought to encircle Midgard, waiting for the End of the World (Ragnarok). At this time, Jörmungandr would join the forces of Chaos and fight a huge battle against the gods. The world would be destroyed in this last battle, but order would nonetheless be restored and a new world would be reborn.

The Viking gods

The gods and goddesses in Norse mythology include:

- **Odin:** The ruler of Asgard. Odin traded one of his eyes for all the wisdom in the world and became the god of knowledge. He had two ravens that sat on each of his shoulders. Each day they flew around spying on humans, monsters and gods, and returned to Odin each evening to report on what they had seen. Odin commanded winged spirits, known as the Valkyries, to take half of those who had died bravely in battle to his realm, Valhalla.
- **Freyja:** The second most important deity. She was the goddess of love, birth, death and war. As the goddess who oversaw the beginning and end of life, she played an important role in Viking religion. In addition, Freyja was entitled to take half the dead into her realm, Folkvangr. Her realm was considered the reward for women who had lived an exemplary life and for men killed in battle.

Source 1: Australian actor Chris Hemsworth portrays Thor, the god of thunder, in the Marvel superhero movies.

- **Thor:** Odin's son and the god of thunder, storms and strength. He could level mountains with his mighty hammer. Thor caused thunder and lightning as he rode across the sky. Thor was the most popular of the Norse gods, with a cult following throughout Scandinavia.
- **Loki:** Odin's adopted son. He was a mischief-maker and a shape-shifter who could turn himself into any shape (a fly, a horse or an old woman).
- **Heimdall:** Heimdall guarded the rainbow bridge so that no uninvited guest could enter Asgard. He could see for over 150 kilometres in the night or day and could hear grass grow.

Source 2: Freyja, the goddess of love and war, shown here wearing the Brisingamen necklace, a magical golden necklace

Source 3: The Vikings wore miniature silver hammer pendants to invoke the protection of Thor. This pendant was made in Sweden in the 10th century CE.

Day	God	Original name
Sunday	Sól, goddess of the Sun	Sól's day
Monday	Máni, goddess of the Moon	Máni's day
Tuesday	Týr, god of war	Týr's day
Wednesday	Odin, also called Woden, ruler of Asgard	Woden's day
Thursday	Thor, god of thunder, storms and strength	Thor's day
Friday	Frigg, goddess of marriage	Frigg's day
Saturday	From the ancient Roman god, Saturn	Saturn's day

Source 4: The impact of Viking mythology can be seen in the names of the days of the week, which are all named after Viking gods.

How did the Vikings worship their gods?

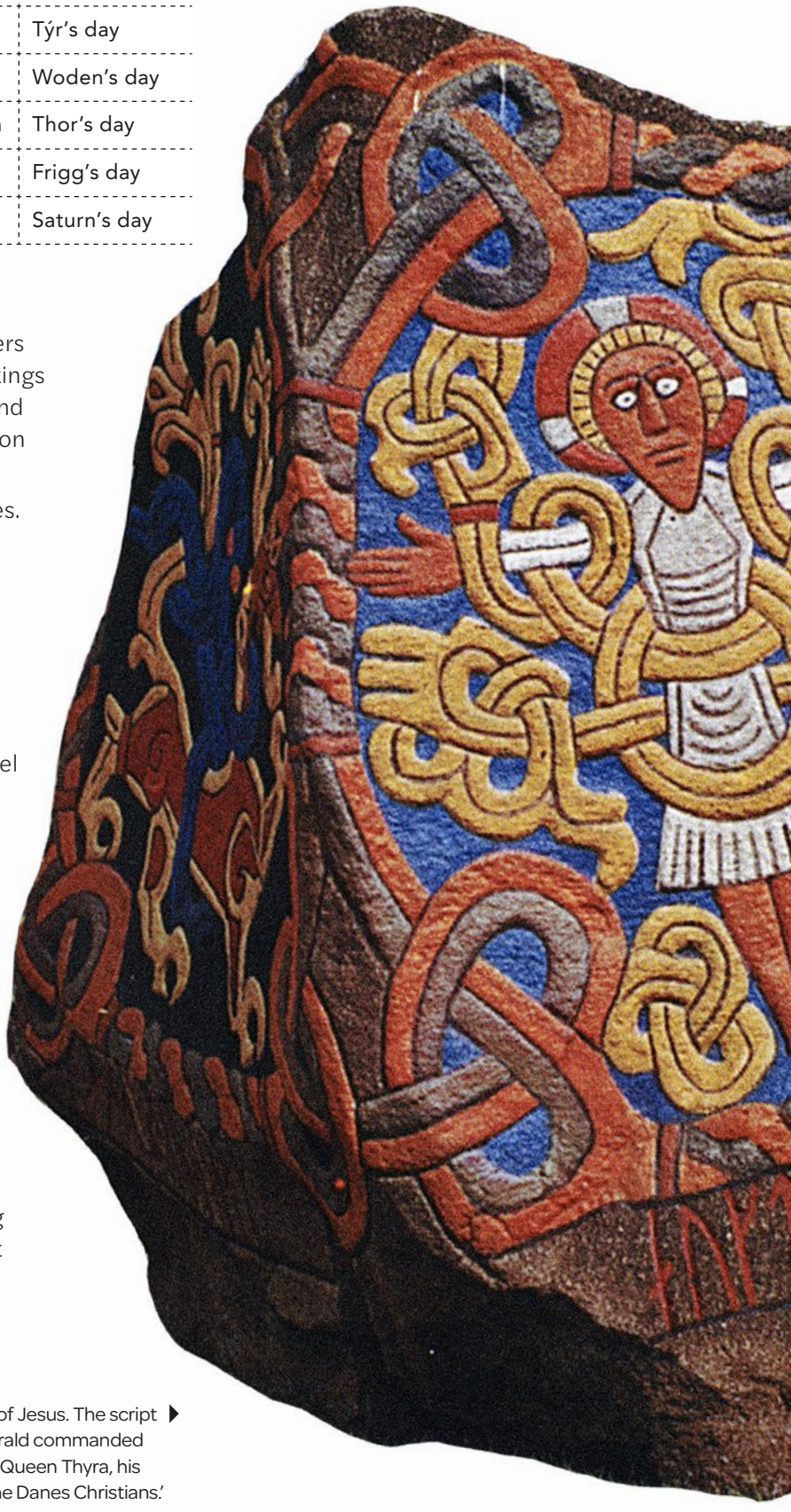
Unlike other religions, the Vikings had no religious leaders or temples. To stay on good terms with the gods, the Vikings made sacrifices to them at an event called a ***blót***. Pigs and horses were usually sacrificed. The blood was sprinkled on statues of the gods and on the participants themselves.

The Vikings also worshipped their gods in tree groves. Since Thor was considered to be strong and mighty, he was often associated with the oak tree. Worshippers of Thor would visit sacred oak groves to ask him for protection.

The arrival of Christianity

During the 900s CE, Christian missionaries from Rome, Constantinople and other cities in Europe began to travel into Northern and Eastern Europe with the aim of converting people from their ethnic religions to Christianity. Some Vikings had already converted to Christianity before this time – for example, Viking traders who had come into contact with Christians on their travels and Vikings who settled in Christian lands such as England, France and Ireland. The most important reason for the mass conversions of Vikings to Christianity, however, was because the kings wanted their kingdoms to be Christian.

The Scandinavian kings saw Christianity as a religion that would enable them to promote order in their kingdoms and create powerful alliances with other kings in Europe. In 965 CE, Harald Bluetooth, King of Denmark, converted to Christianity and declared that his entire kingdom was to be Christian. He also had his non-Christian parents' graves dug up so they could be reburied beneath the floor of a church in Jelling.



Source 5: A copy of the Jelling Stone (c. 965 CE), featuring an image of Jesus. The script on the stone is written in Viking letters, called **runes**. It reads: 'King Harald commanded that stone to be erected to commemorate King Gorm, his father, and Queen Thyra, his mother. King Harald conquered all Denmark and Norway and made the Danes Christians.'

In Norway, King Olaf Tryggvason used threats and violence to make his people convert to Christianity, forcing them to accept baptism at spear-point. He also threatened to kill any Icelander visiting Norway who was not a Christian. King Olof Skötkonung of Sweden converted to Christianity in 1008 CE. He ordered his men to cut down the sacred groves and take down the statues of Viking gods in an effort to stamp out the old religion.

However, in spite of the efforts of the Viking kings to force people to adopt Christianity, the old festivals, songs and practices of the Norse religion were hard to break away from. Missionaries despaired when they found that people who had seemingly converted to Christianity some years earlier had, in fact, gone back to their old religion and the missionaries had to start all over again.

> It is customary in Uppsala [in Sweden], to hold a general feast ... every nine years. All must attend this festival. Kings and people all send their offerings to Uppsala ... What is more distressing is that those who have already adopted Christianity reconvert back to their [Viking] religion through these ceremonies.
>
> The sacrifice is of this nature: of every living thing that is male, they offer nine heads to the gods ... The bodies they hang in the sacred grove that adjoins the temple. Now this grove is so sacred in the eyes of the heathen that each and every tree in it is believed divine because of the death of the victims ...

Source 6: Excerpt from *Description of the Northern Islands* (1075 CE), which contains descriptions of Christian missionary work in Sweden. It was written by Adam of Bremen, a Christian missionary from Germany.

Learning ladder 11.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Sources 1 and 2: Identify the two Viking gods shown in these images.
2. Describe the roles of Odin and Thor.
3. Source 5: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the Viking kings promoted Christianity.
4. Explain why Freyja was a significant goddess in the Viking religion.
5. Analyse the idea that the serpent Jörmungandr was a symbol of rebirth.

Perspectives

1. Source 6: Identify the religion of the author of this source.
2. Source 3: Describe the perspective of a person who might have worn this.
3. Explain why the kings had a favourable perspective on Christianity.
4. Source 6: Compare the perspectives of the Vikings and the author towards religion.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

11.6

How did the Vikings bury their dead?

The Vikings believed in life after death. They buried their dead with grave goods, trusting that the dead would need these items in the afterlife.

Viking grave goods

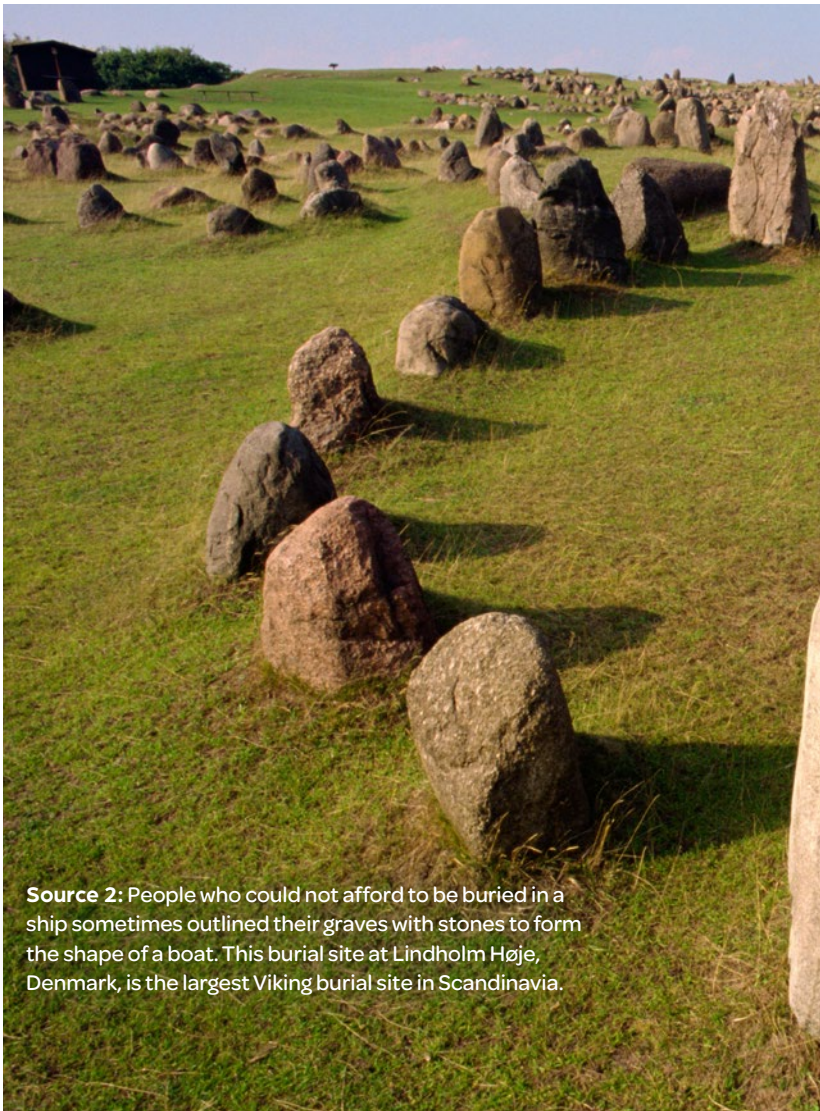
A Viking's wealth determined the types of grave goods that might be buried with them. A thrall's body was placed in a simple wooden box along with some personal items, such as a comb or sewing tools. Karls' bodies were placed in large graves lined with wood. Their tools (such as ploughs, weighing scales, hammers, nails, needles, whorls, thread and cooking pots) were buried with them, along with silver coins and weapons.

Source 1: A Viking ship in flames, demonstrating a Viking king's ship burial as part of a modern-day annual Viking festival held in Lerwick, Shetland Islands, Scotland

Dogs and horses were sometimes sacrificed and buried with their karl master. The nature of Viking burials for each social class not only shows that the Vikings believed in an afterlife, but also that they believed that a person's social status and role in life would be continued after their death.

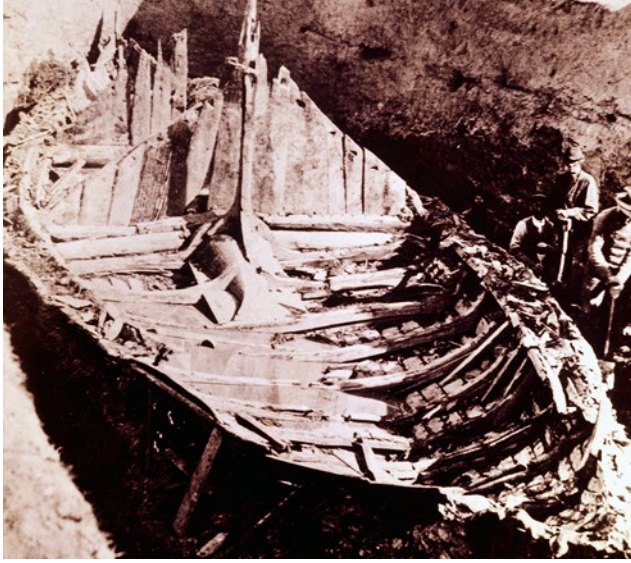
Ship burials

In Viking mythology, boats were symbols of safe passage into the afterlife and therefore played a key role in Viking funerals and burials. For ordinary Vikings, grave mounds were often built to resemble ships, with stones used to outline the vessel's shape.



Source 2: People who could not afford to be buried in a ship sometimes outlined their graves with stones to form the shape of a boat. This burial site at Lindholm Høje, Denmark, is the largest Viking burial site in Scandinavia.

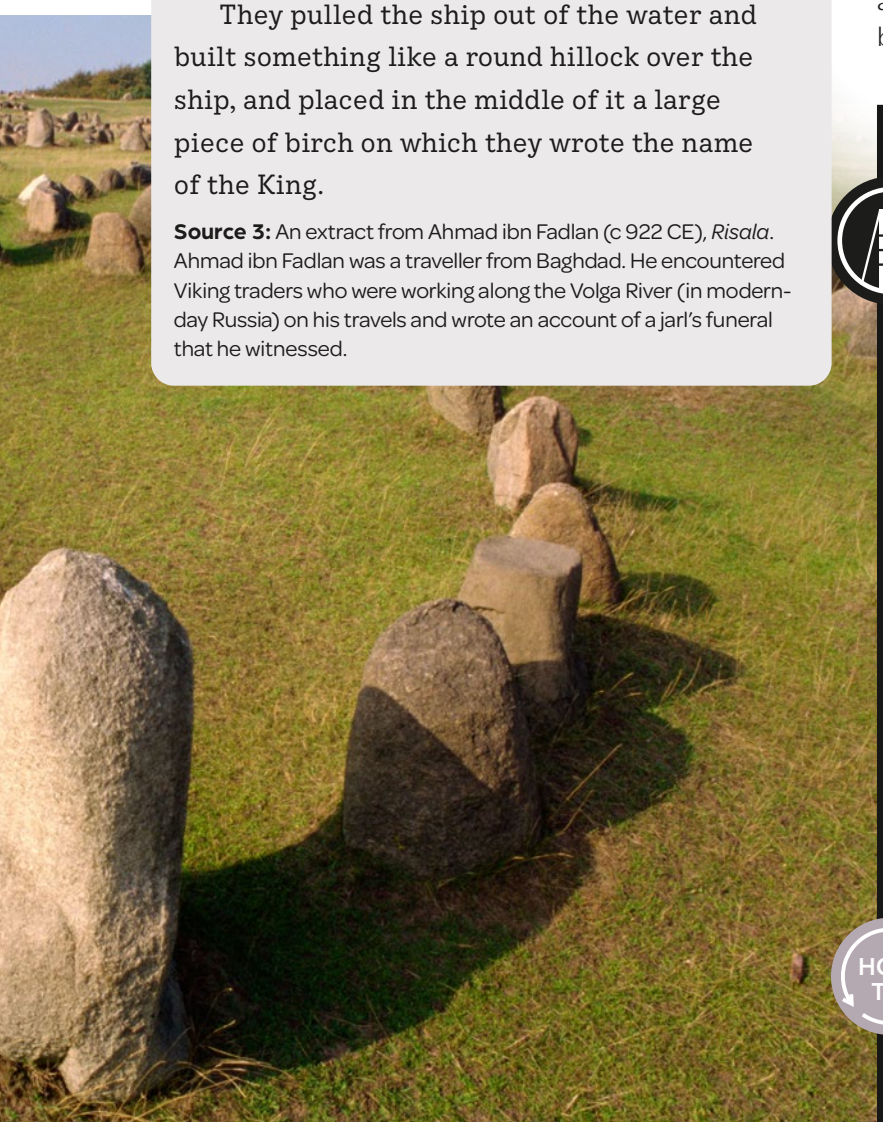
The bodies and grave goods of jarl chieftains and Viking royalty were sometimes placed in an actual longship, as if to transport them to the next world. The longship was then buried or burned. Grave goods for kings or wealthy jarls might include jewellery, chests of silver coins, furniture, sleighs, carts, tools, sacrificed horses, fine clothing, ornaments and other precious objects. Weapons were also buried with Viking leaders, so that they could continue to lead armies in Valhalla or Folkvangr. Slaves were sometimes sacrificed with their masters so that they too could accompany them to the next world.



▲ **Source 4:** Excavation of the Goksted ship, 1880 CE

> The deceased's next of kin approached and took hold of a piece of wood and set fire to it ... Then the people came forward with sticks and firewood. Each one carried a stick, the end of which he had set fire to and which he threw on top of the wood. The wood caught fire, and then the ship ... and all it contained. A dreadful wind arose and the flames leapt higher and blazed fiercely ... it took scarcely an hour for the ship to be burnt to a fine ash.
>
> They pulled the ship out of the water and built something like a round hillock over the ship, and placed in the middle of it a large piece of birch on which they wrote the name of the King.

Source 3: An extract from Ahmad ibn Fadlan (c 922 CE), *Risala*. Ahmad ibn Fadlan was a traveller from Baghdad. He encountered Viking traders who were working along the Volga River (in modern-day Russia) on his travels and wrote an account of a jarl's funeral that he witnessed.



The Goksted ship

In 1880 CE, a large burial mound was excavated in Norway, revealing a huge ship burial. It contained grave goods including three small boats, a tent, a sledge and riding equipment. However, there was no gold or silver and no sword in the grave, which was very unusual. This led researchers to conclude that these goods had probably been stolen in the past. The bones of 12 horses, 6 dogs and a peacock were also found, along with the skeleton of a powerfully built man, aged about 40 years old.

Learning ladder 11.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the type of burial shown in the source.
2. Source 1: Describe how kings were buried.
3. Source 4: Determine the social status of the person buried at Goksted.
4. Compare the burials of thralls, karls and kings.
5. Analyse the Vikings' beliefs about the afterlife.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the burial shown in this source.
3. Source 3: Explain what happened at a jarl's funeral.
4. Source 3: Explain why Ahmad ibn Fadlan wrote about this scene.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

11.7

What was found in the Birka grave?

Archaeologists are currently debating the identity of the person buried in the Birka grave.

The discovery of the grave

In 1878 CE, an archaeologist named Hjalmar Stolpe uncovered a Viking grave at Birka in Sweden. He called the find Bj581. The grave contained a wooden chamber that was 3.45 metres long and 1.75 metres wide. In the chamber was a body seated on a throne, clothed in silk.

Among the many grave goods were a high-quality sword, a battleaxe, a spear, a fighting knife, arrows, two shields, a gaming board, gold coins, a comb, a bronze bowl and two horses. The gaming board was particularly interesting, as these were usually found buried with military leaders. The presence of the weapons, gaming board and the richness of the grave goods led researchers to decide that the grave must have belonged to a high-status male Viking warrior.

The examination of the bones

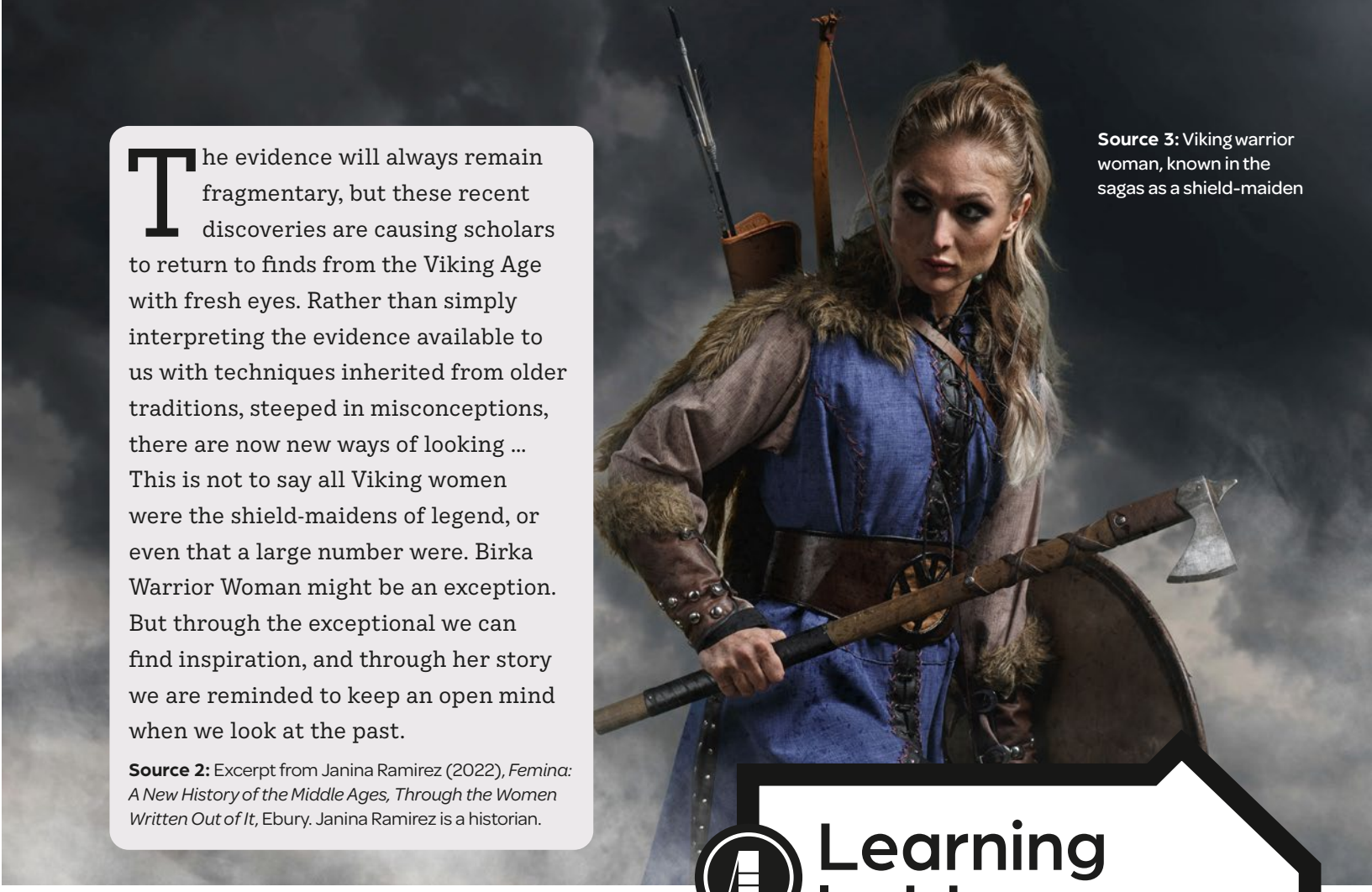
In 2016 CE, bioarchaeologist Anna Kjellström examined the pelvic bone and jawbone of the skeleton from Bj581. Her analysis indicated that the bones belonged to a female skeleton, due to their shape. A further study conducted in 2017 CE by Charlotte Hedenstierna-Jonson extracted DNA from a tooth and an arm bone belonging to the person buried in Bj581. The DNA analysis revealed that the skeleton had two X chromosomes. Since females have two X chromosomes and men have one X chromosome and one Y chromosome, Hedenstierna-Jonson's research proved that the skeleton was indeed that of a woman.

Women warriors in Viking mythology and history

Viking warrior women were not common, but they certainly existed. They were mentioned in the sagas and in early Viking histories, such as the shield-maiden Lathgertha, who appears in the history *Gesta Danorum* (Deeds of the Danes) (1186–1208 CE). The Irish chronicle *Cogadh Gaedhel re Gallaibh* (The War of the Irish with the Foreigners) (1111 CE) recorded a red-haired Viking woman leading an invading force during a war fought between 967 and 1014 CE. Byzantine historian John Skylitzes recorded that Viking women fought in a battle against Bulgarians in 971 CE.

Moreover, other female skeletons have been found buried with weapons. In 2005 CE, a grave belonging to a 20-year-old woman was found in Aunvollen in Nord Trøndelag, Norway, containing a sword, gaming pieces, scissors, a comb and a small box. An older find excavated near the Nordre Kjølen farm in Solør, Norway, in 1900 CE, was re-examined in 2019 CE. The skeleton was shown to be that of a 19-year-old Viking woman. Her grave goods had included a spear, sword, battleaxe, arrows, shield and horse. The skeleton indicated that the woman had suffered a sword wound that had healed sometime before her death.

Source 1: Hjalmar Stolpe's sketch of the grave Bj581, published in 1889 CE



Source 3: Viking warrior woman, known in the sagas as a shield-maiden

The evidence will always remain fragmentary, but these recent discoveries are causing scholars to return to finds from the Viking Age with fresh eyes. Rather than simply interpreting the evidence available to us with techniques inherited from older traditions, steeped in misconceptions, there are now new ways of looking … This is not to say all Viking women were the shield-maidens of legend, or even that a large number were. Birka Warrior Woman might be an exception. But through the exceptional we can find inspiration, and through her story we are reminded to keep an open mind when we look at the past.

Source 2: Excerpt from Janina Ramirez (2022), *Femina: A New History of the Middle Ages, Through the Women Written Out of It*, Ebury. Janina Ramirez is a historian.

Was the woman buried in Bj581 really a warrior?

In spite of this evidence, some researchers have been reluctant to believe that the woman in the Bj581 grave was actually a Viking warrior. They argue that it is possible that the objects in the grave actually belonged to a male family member, whose body was now missing. They also contend that since Viking warrior women were rare, a female military leader seems unlikely. Other historians argue that because we have long assumed that all warriors are male, perhaps we have misinterpreted Viking culture and the true presence of Viking women has been missed.

Source 4: The Valkyrie from Hårby, c. 800 CE. This silver figure, measuring 3.4 cm, was found in 2012 CE near the village of Hårby, Denmark. It has been interpreted as either a Valkyrie figure, a shield-maiden or the goddess Freyja.

Learning ladder 11.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 3: Identify the name given to Viking warrior women in the sagas.
2. Source 1: Describe the grave (Bj581) found in 1878 CE.
3. Explain how the skeleton was initially described.
4. Explain why the skeleton was later identified as female.
5. Analyse the significance of the Bj581 find.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate about the body in Bj581.
2. Describe the two points made by those who think the body in Bj581 did not belong to a female Viking military leader.
3. Explain the evidence for female warriors in Viking history.
4. Source 2: Explain the author's argument about the body found in Bj581.
5. Sources 2 and 4: Why do you think there is debate about the role and status of the woman in Bj581?

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

11.8

How did Viking technology provide a competitive advantage?

Viking ships were bigger, lighter and faster than those of other groups, which gave the Norse a huge advantage when they were raiding, trading and settling in far-away lands.

Ship technology

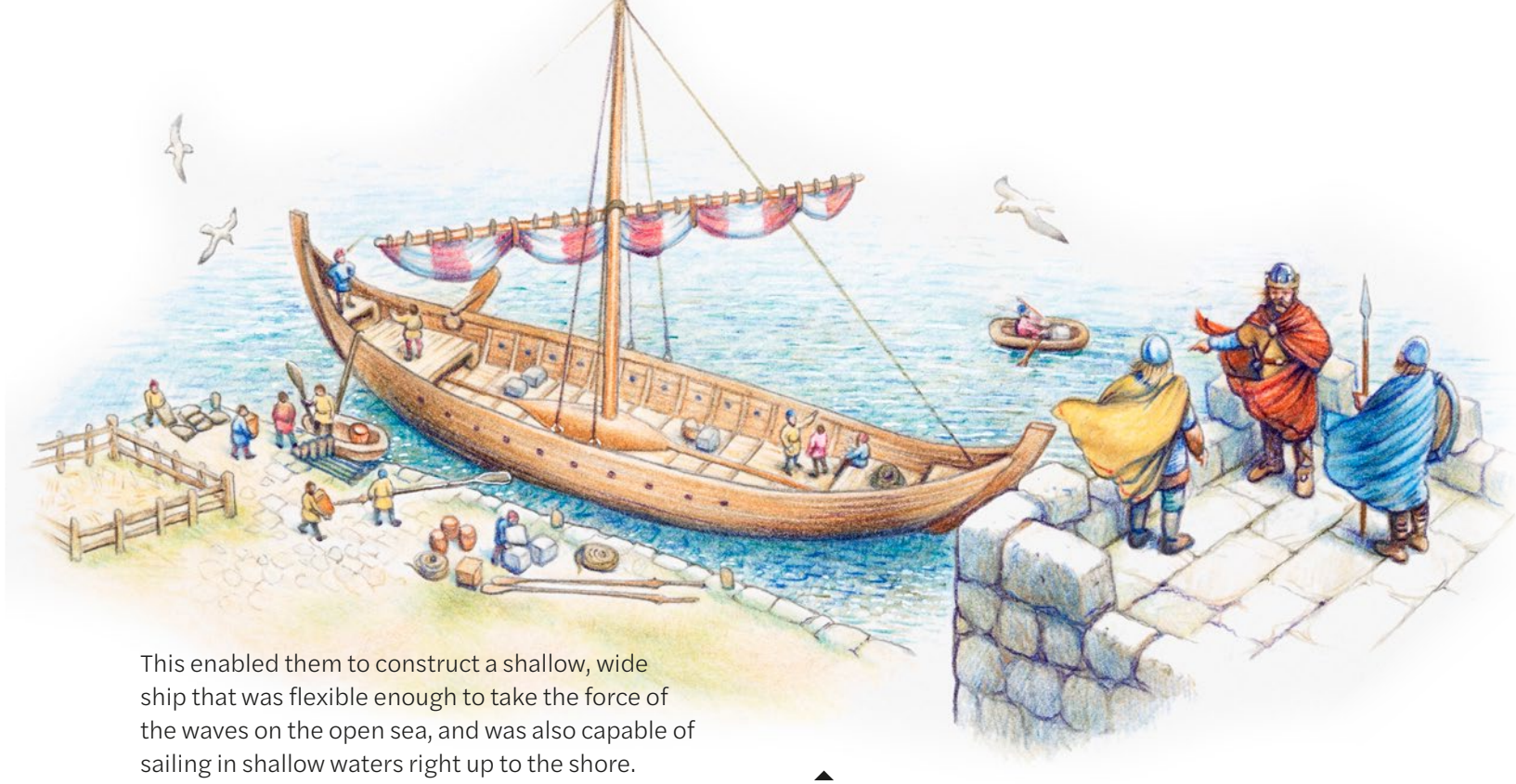
As most Vikings lived alongside waterways, they depended on their ships to fish for food and to trade and travel. The Vikings became skilled shipbuilders who designed and built different types of ships for their purposes.

Viking ships

Viking ships were built on a keel, which was a long beam of wood that ran down the length of the ship and acted as a 'backbone'. The Vikings built up the sides of the ship from the keel, using overlapping planks of wood; this is known as clinker construction.

Source 1: The Oseberg ship is one of the best preserved artefacts from the Viking era. The ship is on display at the Viking Ship Museum in Oslo, Norway. The ship and two skeletons were excavated in 1904 CE in Oseburg. Parts of the ship have been dated to 800 CE.

The ship is a ***karve***: a broad ship with up to 16 pairs of oars that could operate in very shallow water. Karves were the smallest longships, used for warfare as well as for transporting people and cargo.



Source 2: The type of Viking ship shown in this illustration is called a knarr, which was used by Viking merchants for trade.

This enabled them to construct a shallow, wide ship that was flexible enough to take the force of the waves on the open sea, and was also capable of sailing in shallow waters right up to the shore.

The most famous type of Viking ship was the **longship**. This vessel was capable of sailing across oceans, inland rivers and on shallow waterways. It was light enough to carry overland if necessary. The longship was mainly used for raiding expeditions. It was extremely useful for raiding coastal and riverside towns.

Sail technology

Sails were made of wool and coated with animal fat to keep them waterproof. The sails were fixed to a mast and could be pivoted to face the direction of the wind. If the wind was not blowing in the desired direction, the Vikings could lower the sail and row their ship instead. The combination of sail and oar power allowed the Vikings to come to shore, **loot** and plunder a town, then make a quick getaway.

The sails were woven by Viking women on a loom. It took one woman hundreds of hours to spin the wool into yarn, and then at least another three years to weave a sail. The Viking raids would have been impossible without the work done by women. Women also wove the fabric exported by Viking merchants. Wool fabric was one of the Vikings' main exports.

The dangers of sea travel

It took determination and bravery to undertake risky, long journeys across rough seas. With no cover in the longships, the sailors sheltered under wet blankets and animal skins. They ate salted meat and drank water, beer or sour milk. Many ships sank on these long journeys. When Erik the Red led an expedition to Greenland, only 14 of the original 25 ships arrived safely.

Learning ladder 11.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the purpose of knarr ships.
2. Source 1: Describe the features of the Oseberg ship.
3. Explain how Viking ships were constructed.
4. Explain why Viking raiding expeditions were dangerous.
5. Evaluate the significance of women weavers to the success of Viking society.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify the cause of the holes made along the sides of the Oseberg ship.
2. Describe the effect of coating sails with animal fat.
3. Explain the effects of clinker construction on Viking ship design.
4. Explain why the design of longships enabled the Vikings to conduct raids.
5. Evaluate the importance of Viking ship technology as a cause for the success of their society.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

Were the Vikings bloodthirsty pillagers?

Vikings have a fearsome reputation as vicious killers who raided and stole from innocent people. But is this the whole story?

Viking raids

Much disagreement exists among historians as to why the Vikings began raiding communities throughout Europe. Was it because their superior, fast ships allowed them to quickly and quietly reach their destinations and then get away rapidly after raiding and pillaging villages? Were they after silver and slaves? Did they want to expand their territory? Or did they want to find a place to settle and lead a peaceful life?

For whatever reason, Viking raids increased throughout the late 8th and early 9th centuries CE. These raids took place during the summer months when the seas were calm and the winds were favourable. The Viking raiders travelled in small fleets of no more than three ships. Archaeological evidence suggests that the ships the Vikings used for raiding in this early period carried between 25 and 70 people each, so the raids would have been conducted by anywhere between 25 warriors (in the case of one small ship) and 210 warriors (in the case of three large ships).

Attacks on monasteries

The main targets for Viking raids during the late 8th and early 9th centuries CE were monasteries situated on coasts and next to rivers, such as Lindisfarne in England and Clonmacnoise in Ireland. Monasteries were poorly defended and contained precious objects such as silver coins, jewellery, and religious items made from gold and silver.

The attack on Lindisfarne

In 793 CE, Viking raiders attacked the monastery of St Cuthbert on the holy island of Lindisfarne, which is located off the north-east coast of England.

Source 1: This painting depicts the Vikings raiding the monastery of Clonmacnoise in Ireland. Images like this one stoked the **stereotypical** image of the Vikings as vicious raiders who launched furious attacks on their unsuspecting victims, killing them, **pillaging** their possessions and burning their churches and homes to the ground. [Tom Lovell (20th century CE), *Norse Marauders Wreak Mayhem at Clonmacnoise, Ireland*]

They destroyed the monastery buildings, killed the monks and other inhabitants and stole precious religious items made of gold, silver and ivory.

The first attack on Clonmacnoise came in 795 CE. Clonmacnoise would be attacked another six times by the Vikings in the decades that followed.

> Lo, it is nearly 350 years that our first missionaries have inhabited this most lovely land, and never before has such terror appeared in Britain as we have now suffered from a **pagan** race, nor was it thought that such an inroad from the sea could be made. Behold, the church of St Cuthbert spattered with the blood of the priests of God, despoiled of all its ornaments; a place more holy than all in Britain is given as a prey to pagan peoples.

Source 2: This text is part of a letter written by a monk and scholar, Alcuin, to the King of Northumbria in 793 CE following the Viking attack on Lindisfarne.

Viking settlements

From c. 860 CE, the Viking raids began to decline. Instead, many Vikings established settlements in England, embraced Christianity and married locals.

The Vikings also established new trade networks and founded towns. In Ireland, the Vikings established the towns of Dublin and Limerick, while in England, they took over Lincoln, Stamford and Norwich, transforming them into recognisably Viking towns.

The violence of the earlier raids had been written up in lurid detail by terrified monks, who saw the Viking raids as an attack on Christianity. This greatly contributed to the idea that the Vikings were just fearsome plunderers, but it was not the whole story. Vikings were not the only ones raiding monasteries. For example, Clonmacnoise was raided over 80 times in the medieval period, but only seven of these raids were made by the Vikings; the rest were made by the English (40 raids), local Irish clans (27 raids) and others.

Britain and Ireland, c. 700 to 867 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 3:** Viking raids and settlements in Britain and Ireland (c. 700–867 CE)

Learning ladder 11.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the location of this Viking attack.
2. Source 1: Describe what is shown in this source.
3. Explain how the Vikings conducted their coastal raids.
4. Explain why monasteries were targeted by the Vikings.
5. Source 3: Analyse the impact of the Vikings in England between 793 and 841 CE.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the attack on Lindisfarne.
3. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the Vikings established settlements in England and Ireland.
4. Source 2: Explain why the source repeatedly refers to the Vikings as 'pagans'.
5. Sources 2 and 3: Analyse the reasons why Vikings have a reputation as raiders rather than settlers.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

How did the Vikings bring change to England?

In 865 CE, a major Viking raid was undertaken by a fleet known as 'the Great Heathen Army'.

The Great Heathen Army

According to the Norse legends, the king of Northumbria, Ælla, captured the great Viking leader and Danish king, Ragnar Lothbrok (also known as 'Hairy Breeches'). According to *The Saga of Ragnar Lothbrok*, King Ælla had Ragnar thrown into a pit of poisonous snakes, where he died painfully.

While it is uncertain whether the invasion was motivated by revenge, in 865 CE a huge Viking fleet – known as the Great Heathen Army – left Denmark and headed for England. The fleet was led by Ragnar Lothbrok's three sons (Halfdan, Inwaer and Guthrum). The Viking fleet landed in East Anglia, on the east coast of England, in 865 CE.

The king of East Anglia , Æthelred II, gave the Vikings horses in return for leaving his kingdom alone. The Great Heathen Army then rode to Northumbria and began looting and murdering the people. By 874 CE, the Great Heathen Army had conquered the kingdoms of Northumbria, East Anglia and Mercia. Only the king of Wessex, known as Alfred the Great, was able to stop the Vikings.

Source 1: Illuminated manuscript from *The Life of Edmund* (c. 1130) by an unknown artist. The image shows the Great Heathen Army attacking the town of Thetford, England, in 866 CE. Viking pikemen scale the ramparts of the town (top), while swordsmen break through an archway and begin to slaughter the town's inhabitants (below).

The Danelaw

In May 878 CE, Alfred the Great's army defeated the Vikings at the Battle of Edington. The Vikings' leader Guthrum (son of Ragnar Lothbrok), then signed a peace treaty with Alfred. Under the terms of the treaty, Guthrum agreed to be baptised as a Christian and to leave Wessex with his army.

Alfred and Guthrum then signed a second treaty, known as The Treaty of Alfred and Guthrum (c. 879 CE), which established the boundaries of their two kingdoms and agreements on trade. Alfred then ruled over Wessex, while Guthrum ruled over the Danelaw.

Guthrum's Christian baptism was not simply an outcome of Alfred's victory. It ensured peaceful relations between Wessex and the Danelaw, and that Christian peoples living in the Danelaw would accept Guthrum's rule.

Having neutralised Guthrum as a threat, Alfred recaptured and rebuilt London, strengthened the defences of his kingdom and revived learning. Alfred's leadership in battle and wise rule secured relative peace for the next 20 years.

In the Danelaw, people lived as they had in Scandinavia, speaking Norse languages and following Norse laws. The Danelaw was a prosperous and flourishing kingdom, at least for a while. However, by 954 CE, the English had managed to drive out the Danelaw's ruler, King Erik I (known as Erik Bloodaxe), marking the end of the Danelaw.

England, c. 878–954 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 3: The position of the Vikings' Danelaw territory in England

Source 2: This stained-glass window depicts Guthrum's Christian baptism; Alfred the Great is depicted in the background. [Stained-glass window, church in Blakeney, Norfolk, England]

Learning ladder 11.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the event shown in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the methods used by the Vikings to attack the town of Thetford.
3. Explain how Ragnar Lothbrok died.
4. Explain why Alfred was known as 'the Great'.

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Identify the change depicted in the source.
2. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, describe how control of England changed in 878 CE.
3. Explain how the Danelaw demonstrated the concept of continuity and change.
4. Source 2: Explain why Guthrum adopted Christianity.
5. Analyse the extent of change that the Danelaw brought to England.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

How did the Vikings return to England?

The end of the Danelaw did not see the last of the Vikings. They would return and put an end to the Anglo-Saxon kings.

The Viking kings of England

Viking attacks on England did not stop with the end of the Danelaw. In 1013 CE, King Sweyn of Denmark (known as 'Sweyn Forkbeard') launched another invasion of England and conquered the entire country, becoming King of England. The reign of King Sweyn was followed by that of his son Cnut in 1016 CE, and then by Cnut's sons Harald (1035–1040 CE) and Harthacnut (1040–1042 CE). Harthacnut died without an heir, so an Anglo-Saxon prince, Edward the Confessor, was crowned king.

The Battle of Stamford Bridge

In January 1066 CE, Edward the Confessor died without an heir. Three men claimed the throne of England: the King of Norway, Harald Sigurdsson (also known as Harald Hardrada); the Anglo-Saxon Earl of Essex, Harold Godwinson; and the Duke of Normandy (France), William. The **Witan** decided to give the crown to Harold Godwinson.

Source 1: This is a photo of the *Bayeux Tapestry* (c. 1077 CE), which is a long embroidered cloth, about 70 metres long and 0.5 metres wide. This scene shows the **Normans**, on horseback, fighting the Anglo-Saxons at the Battle of Hastings. The tapestry was made by Anglo-Saxon women, on the orders of King William, to show that God had ordained his victory.

In response, Harald Hardrada tried to take the crown by force and invaded England with a fleet of 300 ships. King Harold Godwinson took the English army north to meet Hardrada, and Godwinson killed Hardrada at the Battle of Stamford Bridge on 25 September 1066 CE.

The Battle of Hastings

Meanwhile, William, Duke of Normandy, also prepared to invade and claim the English crown. William was descended from the Vikings who had raided Normandy in the late 8th century CE and established a settlement there in c. 900 CE. William claimed he had a right to the English throne because he was a distant cousin of Edward the Confessor. He also claimed that Harold Godwinson had once promised to support his claim to the throne. William therefore sailed from France to England and set up his camp at Hastings on the south coast of England.

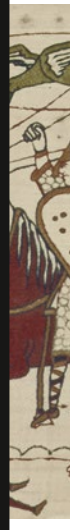
Having defeated Hardrada, King Harold Godwinson marched his army south to Hastings to meet William. A terrible battle was fought, lasting the entire day. By sunset, Harold Godwinson was dead and William had won. William was crowned King of England on Christmas Day 1066 CE.

Source 3: A scene from the Bayeux Tapestry that shows Harold Godwinson making a sacred promise on holy relics (bones of saints) that he will ensure William becomes king of England

After William's victory, the countryside erupted in rebellion, refusing to accept the rule of their new king. William took swift action to crush this rebellion, killing around 100 000 people in the process. He also had the Bayeux Tapestry made to show the people that he had a right to be their king.

> King Edward died on the eve of **Twelfth-day**; and he was buried on Twelfth-day within the newly consecrated church at Westminster. And Harold the earl succeeded to the kingdom of England, as the king had granted it to him, and men also had chosen him ...

Source 2: Entry for 1066 CE, *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, c. 880–1154 CE. The chronicle was written by Anglo-Saxon monks and recorded the history of Britain from 60 BCE.



Learning ladder 11.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the groups shown in the source.
2. Source 1: Describe the armour and weapons used by both sides at the Battle of Hastings.
3. Explain how England fell under Viking control between 1013 and 1042 CE.
4. Explain why the death of Edward the Confessor led to the Battle of Stamford Bridge and the Battle of Hastings.
5. Evaluate the influence of the Vikings on England's history.

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Identify whose perspective of the Battle of Hastings is shown in the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the perspective of this source.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Explain how the perspectives of the two sources are different.
4. Source 3: Explain why William wanted to present this perspective of King Harold Godwinson.
5. Evaluate the perspective depicted in the Bayeux Tapestry.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

Key individual

Who was Erik the Red?

The Vikings were not only raiders and settlers. They were also great explorers. One of the most famous Viking explorers was Erik the Red.

Erik the Red

Erik Thorvaldsson (c. 950–1003 CE) is remembered in many different ways: as an explorer, a settler, a murderer and outlaw. Known as 'Erik the Red' – probably in reference to his red hair and beard – he left his native Norway with his father, Thorvald, who had been sent to the Viking colony in Iceland as a punishment for murder.

A few years later in c. 980 CE, Erik himself was also exiled for murder. At the Thorsnes Thing, Erik and the small group of men who sided with him were banished from Iceland for three years.

The Vikings' Greenland colony

In 982 CE, Erik and his band of accomplices set sail from the west coast of Iceland to try to find a land to the west they had heard about. Almost 100 years earlier, a Norwegian settler of Iceland, Gunnbjörn Ulfsson, had claimed to have seen this land when fierce winds had driven his ship west across what today is called the Denmark Strait.

Sure enough, Erik and his men found the land that Gunnbjörn Ulfsson had seen. Erik called the country Greenland. After three years of exploring the new land, Erik returned to Iceland.

Erik wanted to set up a Viking colony in Greenland. He described the new land to people in Iceland as a 'green land', which persuaded them to follow Erik and help him build a new Viking settlement. Of the 25 ships that set off for Greenland, only 14 ships and around 400 to 500 people arrived; the rest turned back or were lost at sea.

Erik and the surviving settlers founded a colony known as the Eastern Settlement on the south-west coast. Later, another colony called the Western Settlement was founded 320 kilometres north-west of Erik's colony.

> Erik was declared outlawed [from Iceland for three years] by the Thornesthing, and he then made ready his ship in Erik's creek, and when he was ready, Styr and the others followed him out past the islands. Erik told them that he intended to go in search of the land, which Ulf Krages's son Gunnbjörn saw, when he was driven out to the westward in the sea ...

Source 1: This text is from *The Saga of the Greenlanders* (c. 1250 CE). Along with *The Saga of Erik the Red* it is one of the two main sources on the Vikings' colonisation of Greenland in 982 CE.

In spite of difficult beginnings, the settlement survived for several hundred years. Erik settled Greenland during the 'medieval warm period' (950–1250 CE), so the climate was milder than it is today. The settlers grew crops such as barley, and raised sheep and cattle. They also hunted seals, walrus and whales at sea, and polar bears and arctic foxes on land.

Erik enjoyed a position of high status in Greenland. He held the title of 'paramount jarl' and became very wealthy.

Source 2: Erik the Red and his fleet of longships left Iceland in 982 CE to find and explore Greenland.

Source 3: This is a modern-day photo of the remains of Erik the Red's farm, Brattahlid, located in the Vikings' Eastern Settlement in Greenland. It is estimated that the Eastern Settlement consisted of around 200 farms. It is thought that the population never grew to more than around 3000 people. This Viking settlement existed for around 500 years.

Learning ladder 11.12

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the land discovered by Erik the Red.
2. Describe the outcome of the Thorsnes Thing.
3. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how Erik the Red found Greenland.
4. Explain why some Icelandic Vikings were willing to settle on Greenland.
5. Analyse Erik the Red's leadership.

Significance

1. Source 3: Identify why this site is historically significant.
2. Source 1: Describe the historical significance of this source.
3. Explain how the settlement of Greenland was a significant event.
4. Explain why Erik the Red is a significant individual in Viking history.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

Site study

How did the Vikings discover North America?

We know about Viking exploration from the sagas, and from archaeological finds such as at L'Anse aux Meadows.

Discovery of North America

Around 1000 CE, Leif Eriksson, son of Erik the Red, landed on the North American continent and explored a region he called Vinland. He came into contact with the inhabitants of North America, whom the Vikings referred to as the *skræling*. Leif Eriksson reached the Americas nearly 500 years before Christopher Columbus, who arrived in 1492 CE. *The Saga of the Greenlanders* relates this discovery.

> Nature was so generous here that it seemed to them no cattle would need any winter fodder, but could graze outdoors. There was no frost in winter, and the grass hardly withered. The days and nights were more nearly equal than in Greenland or Iceland … Leif told his crew, 'From now on we have two jobs on our hands. On one day we shall gather grapes, and on the next we shall cut grape vines and chop down the trees to make a cargo for my ship …'. Leif gave this country a name to suit its resources: he called it Vinland [wine land].

Source 2: Excerpt from *The Saga of the Greenlanders* (c. 1250 CE). It describes the enthusiasm the Viking explorers had for the newly discovered land, which they named Vinland after the wild grapes that grew there.

Source 1: This is a reconstruction of the L'Anse aux Meadows site, which was uncovered by archaeologists between 1961 and 1968 CE in Newfoundland, Canada. So far, it is the only evidence of a Viking settlement in North America.

Source 3: Some historians have suggested that Leif Eriksson sailed off course on his way back to Greenland and landed on the North American continent. Others say he may have heard about the land from information passed on by an Icelandic trader. [Hans Dahl (late 1800s CE), *Leif Eriksson Discovers America*]

The search for evidence: L'Anse aux Meadows, Canada

The Viking **sagas** provide clues that **archaeologists** could use to find physical evidence of Viking settlements.

In 1960 CE, the Norwegian explorer Helge Ingstad came upon strange bumps and ridges in the land at L'Anse aux Meadows in Newfoundland, Canada. Excavation of the site revealed that these ridges were the remains of eight Viking buildings.

Hundreds of Viking **artefacts** were found at L'Anse aux Meadows, including a bronze pin used to fasten a cloak; many iron boat nails; and knitting needles and a spindle whorl used for spinning thread, showing that women lived at the settlement.

Historians think the Vikings made the buildings at this site from **sod** (soil and grass), which was built up over a wooden frame. The largest building found at L'Anse aux Meadows was a Viking **longhouse**, where families lived and kept livestock. One of the smaller buildings contained a forge for heating iron.

Carbon dating of the evidence found at L'Anse aux Meadows suggests that Vikings lived in the settlement between 990 and 1050 CE. The artefacts found at this site are the earliest evidence of Europeans living in North America.

Learning ladder 11.13

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the Viking site found in North America.
2. Describe the evidence available that confirms the Vikings' exploration of North America.
3. Explain how the artefacts found at L'Anse aux Meadows influenced our understanding of Viking life in North America.
4. Explain why the L'Anse aux Meadows site is an important Viking legacy.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Idenitify the origin of the source.
2. Sources 2 and 3: Describe the arrival of the Vikings in North America.
3. Source 1: Explain how historians might have built this replica site.
4. Source 2: Explain why this source is useful for historians studying Viking exploration.
5. Source 1: Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of this replica site for historians studying the Vikings.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

Key individual

Who was Gudrid the Far-travelled?

In her lifetime, Gudrid went on eight sea voyages and travelled across the whole of Europe. She is believed to have been the most widely travelled woman of the medieval period.

Gudrid's early life

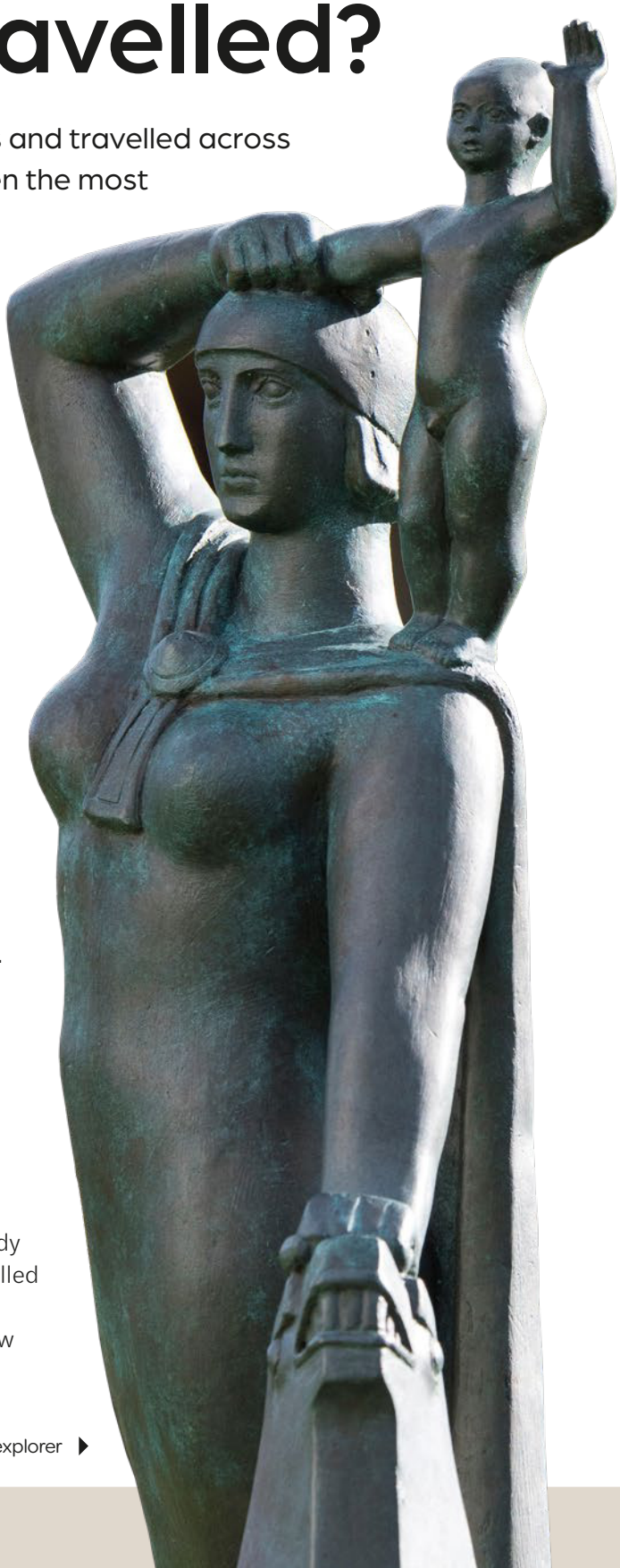
Stories of Gudrid Thorbjornardóttir appear in two Viking sagas: *The Saga of Erik the Red* and *The Saga of the Greenlanders*. She is featured prominently in *The Saga of Erik the Red* – so much so it has been suggested that the saga should be called Gudrid's Saga.

Gudrid was born in c. 985 CE at Laugarbrekka farmstead at Hellnar, Iceland. When she was almost 15 years old, Gudrid travelled from Iceland to Greenland to join Erik the Red's new settlement. At the time when Gudrid arrived with her family, Greenland was experiencing crop failures and the Viking settlers were facing the prospect of famine.

According to the sagas, a **seeress** named Thorbjörg lived in Greenland. Seeresses were revered in the Viking religion for their ability to predict the future. The Greenlanders asked her to foretell when the hardship would end, so Thorbjörg called for a woman who could sing the traditional Viking enchantments to help her. Gudrid answered that, although she knew the old songs, she would not sing them because, like many other Vikings at that time, she had recently converted to Christianity. But everyone begged her to sing the songs anyway. Gudrid finally agreed. The seeress then foretold that the famine would end the following spring. She also predicted that Gudrid would have a long line of descendants and that 'a bright ray' would shine over them.

Gudrid's journey to Vinland

Gudrid married a man named Thorsteinn, the son of Erik the Red and the brother of Leif Eriksson. In c. 1000 CE, Gudrid and Thorsteinn sailed to Vinland. Thorsteinn wanted to fetch the body of his brother Thorvaldur, who had sailed to Vinland and been killed there. But they never reached Vinland, as a storm blew them off course. Then Thorsteinn fell ill and died, and Gudrid and the crew returned to Greenland.



Source 1: Gudrid Thorbjornardóttir, Viking explorer

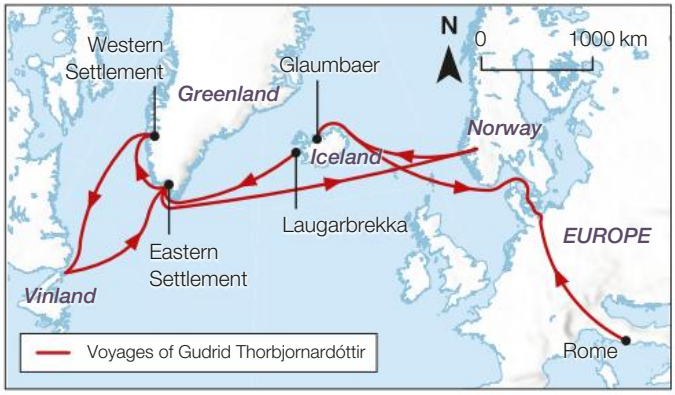
Source 2: Glaumbaer Viking settlement, Iceland. While the location of Leifsbudir remains uncertain, the place of Gudrid's birth, Laugarbrekka, and her son Snorri's house at Glaumbaer have both been found. The Glaumbaer farm site was discovered in 2002 CE. It has been reconstructed as a museum.

Gudrid was married again, this time to a merchant named Thorfinn Karlsefni. Together in c.1009 CE they sailed to Vinland with 60 men, 5 women and livestock. They set up their home in a place called Leifsbudir. According to the sagas, Leifsbudir had been built by Leif Eriksson years before. The actual location of Leifsbudir has never been found, though some archaeologists believe that it may be near L' Anse aux Meadows, if not L' Anse aux Meadows itself. If the sagas are correct, Gudrid and Thorfinn's son Snorri was born at Leifsbudir.

Return to Iceland

The Vikings at Leifsbudir had several encounters with a group of Indigenous American people, known as the Beothuk. Although at first relations between the two groups were friendly, the killing of a Beothuk man by one of the Vikings led to increasing violence.

So Gudrid and the rest of the settlers returned to Greenland. From Greenland, they sailed to Norway, where Thorfinn sold the goods they had acquired in Vinland, including furs and grapes. The sales made him relatively rich, and he and Gudrid finally settled in Iceland where they built a farm.



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 3: The voyages and travels of Gudrid Thorbjornardóttir

Gudrid's pilgrimage to Rome

After the death of Thorfinn and the marriage of her son Snorri, Gudrid travelled to Rome on a pilgrimage. Rome was an important Christian site where many of the saints were buried. People in the medieval period believed that by visiting the tombs of the saints, they could be closer to God. After this journey she returned to Iceland and lived the rest of her life as a nun at Glaumbaer.

Learning ladder 11.14

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify why Gudrid is significant.
2. Source 3: Describe Gudrid's travels.
3. Explain how Gudrid travelled to Vinland.
4. Explain why Gudrid made a pilgrimage to Rome.
5. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using the sources and your knowledge, evaluate Gudrid's significance to Viking history.

Continuity and change

1. Source 3: Identify the different places Gudrid lived during her lifetime.
2. Describe the changes in Gudrid's life that occurred after she returned from Vinland.
3. Explain how Gudrid's life demonstrates religious continuity and change in Viking society.
4. Explain why the context of Gudrid's life meant that she experienced great change.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 477

11.15

What were the impacts and legacies of the Vikings?

The Vikings certainly brought chaos and destruction, but they also expanded trade, explored new areas of the world and influenced cultural change.

What were the effects of Viking expansion?

The effects of Viking expansion changed over time.

Violence

At first, the Viking expansion across northern Europe led to conflict and violence with the peoples they encountered or invaded. For example, in Britain and Ireland, Viking raids and invasions led to thousands of deaths and ongoing violence between the Vikings and the Anglo-Saxons.

In North America too, initial contact with the local Indigenous people also involved violence. On arrival, Leif Eriksson and his crewmen attacked the Indigenous people, while violence also erupted between the Vikings and the Beothuk.

Trade

The Vikings also had a significant effect on trade. New trade networks were established between the British Isles and Scandinavia, and along the Dnieper and Volga rivers, linking northern Europe with the great cities of Baghdad and Constantinople. New goods flooded into Scandinavia, including Indian spices and animals, silver Arab coins and Chinese silks. The Vikings also established the use of weighted silver to pay for goods, rather than relying on barter. This led to new prosperity in Europe. In addition, the large Viking cargo ships (knarrs) enabled the transportation of bulk cargoes across long distances.

Another, more disturbing, effect of the Viking exploration was the expansion of the slave trade. The Vikings bought and sold tens of thousands of slaves. People were taken captive during Viking raids in Europe and were transported to Dublin, a major centre of the slave trade. From there, they were sold to slaveholders in Spain, Persia, Arabia and Scandinavia.

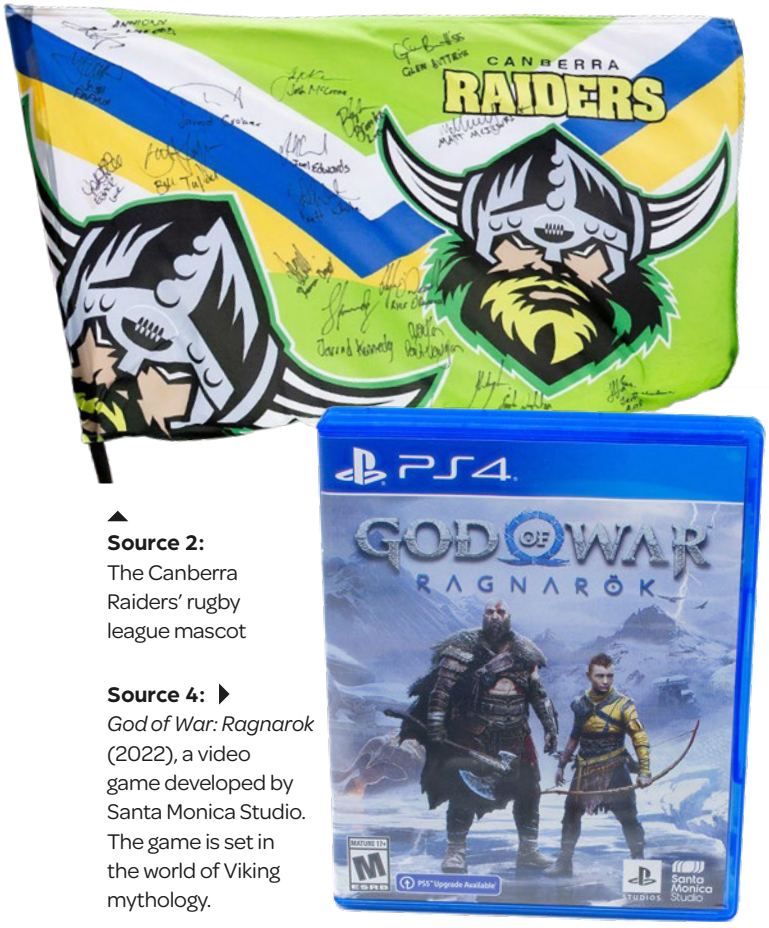
> Although many medieval writers followed the common view of Viking invasion … [was] that the Vikings were motivated by love of violence and greedy desire for plunder but there were also more complex stories about why Scandinavian invaders and settlers decided to come to England. In these narratives, the Vikings come not just to raid but to resolve personal feuds, to intervene in English politics, to search for adventure, or to find a safe and peaceful home. … their legacy can be traced in the landscape, in place names and in local history.

Source 1: An extract from historian Eleanor Parker (2018 CE), *Dragon Lords: The History and Legends of Viking England,* I.B. Tauris.

Culture

The Viking expansion also led to cultural change. One of the most enduring remnants of the Viking era is the English language, spoken by 1.35 billion people in the world today. English words such as 'sister', 'cake', 'smile', 'happy', 'law', 'sky', 'freckle' and 'skill' come from the Old Norse language. Many of the place names in England and Australia also come from Old Norse. The ending '– by' means town or farm in Old Norse – for example, 'Somersby' in New South Wales. The ending – thorpe means village – for example, 'Millthorpe' in New South Wales and 'Stanthorpe' in Queensland.

In addition, democracy was an important ideal of the Viking era, as exercised through the Thing, at which all free men could vote. Today, the word 'Thing' (or 'Ting') is present in the names of the national parliaments in Iceland (the Althing), Denmark (the Folketing) and Norway (the Storting).



Source 2: The Canberra Raiders' rugby league mascot

Source 4: *God of War: Ragnarok* (2022), a video game developed by Santa Monica Studio. The game is set in the world of Viking mythology.

Source 3: Eowyn, a shield-maiden, from J.R.R. Tolkein's *Lord of the Rings* trilogy

How has the legacy of the Vikings changed?

The image of the Vikings as brutal, violent raiders, as depicted in Anglo-Saxon manuscripts, such as the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, remains today. For example, the Canberra Raiders rugby league team adopted the Viking raider as their mascot and portray him as a tough, marauding warrior (incorrectly) wearing a horned helmet. Even though historians have emphasised the Vikings' expertise in shipbuilding, trade, exploration and culture since the beginning of the 20th century, the image of the barbarian remains prominent.

At the same time, the Viking sagas have had a strong influence on writers, artists, filmmakers, musicians and video game developers over the last 700 years. In recent times, J.R.R. Tolkien's *Lord of the Rings* trilogy and J.K. Rowling's *Harry Potter* series have drawn heavily on stories, images and ideas contained in the Viking sagas. Films series such as *Thor* (2011) and *The Avengers* (2012) feature the Viking gods and characters based on Heimdall, Frigg, Loki and Odin. Video games such as *God of War* (2018) also reference Viking mythology.

Learning ladder 11.15

Impacts and legacies

1. Source 2: Identify how the Vikings have been portrayed in the source.
2. Source 3: Describe the influence of the Viking sagas in this source.
3. Sources 2, 3 and 4: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain how the Vikings have influenced modern popular culture.
4. Source 1: Using the source, explain why the legacy of the Vikings is more than 'the greedy desire for plunder'.
5. Evaluate the legacy of the Vikings on modern society.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the causes of Viking expansion.
2. Describe the initial effects of Viking expansion on the people of Britain.
3. Explain how the Vikings affected trade in the medieval period.
4. Explain why the Vikings' effects on culture have been significant.
5. Evaluate the effect of the Vikings on medieval society.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the Vikings. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of the Vikings. Background knowledge is important because it helps you to make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the Vikings in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The gods that the Vikings worshipped, page 300
- The role of Viking women, page 306
- The life of Gudrid the far-travelled, page 320
- The Great Heathen Army, page 312
- Viking archaeology, pages 306, 318, 319

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas.

Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry. Refer to page 492 of the How-to for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

12

The Angkor/ Khmer Empire (c. 802–1431)

WHAT DID THE KHMER BUILD?

WHAT WERE THE BELIEFS OF THE KHMER PEOPLE?

WHY DID THE KHMER EMPIRE DECLINE?

How can I understand the Khmer Empire?

The Khmer Empire, which began in 802 CE, was one of the world's most powerful, wealthy and populous civilisations before its decline from the middle of the 14th century CE. The structure of its society and culture was greatly influenced by India.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: Angkor Wat in Cambodia is the largest religious monument in the world. It was built in the early 12th century CE as a monument to the powerful Khmer king Suryavarman II.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

How did geography influence the Khmer Empire?

What was the Khmer Empire?

The Khmer Empire dominated mainland South-East Asia for approximately 500 years, from the beginning of the 9th century CE to the early 14th century CE. It was one of history's most powerful, wealthy and populous civilisations, excelling in the fields of art and architecture, agriculture, warfare and government. The country of Cambodia was the geographic and political heart of the Khmer Empire.

Cambodia's geography

Most of Cambodia consists of flat, low-lying plains that are drained by the Tonlé Sap Lake and the Mekong River. The source of the Mekong River is melting snow in the Himalayas. The heavy monsoonal rains that fall annually across South-East Asia also add to the volume of water in the Mekong River.

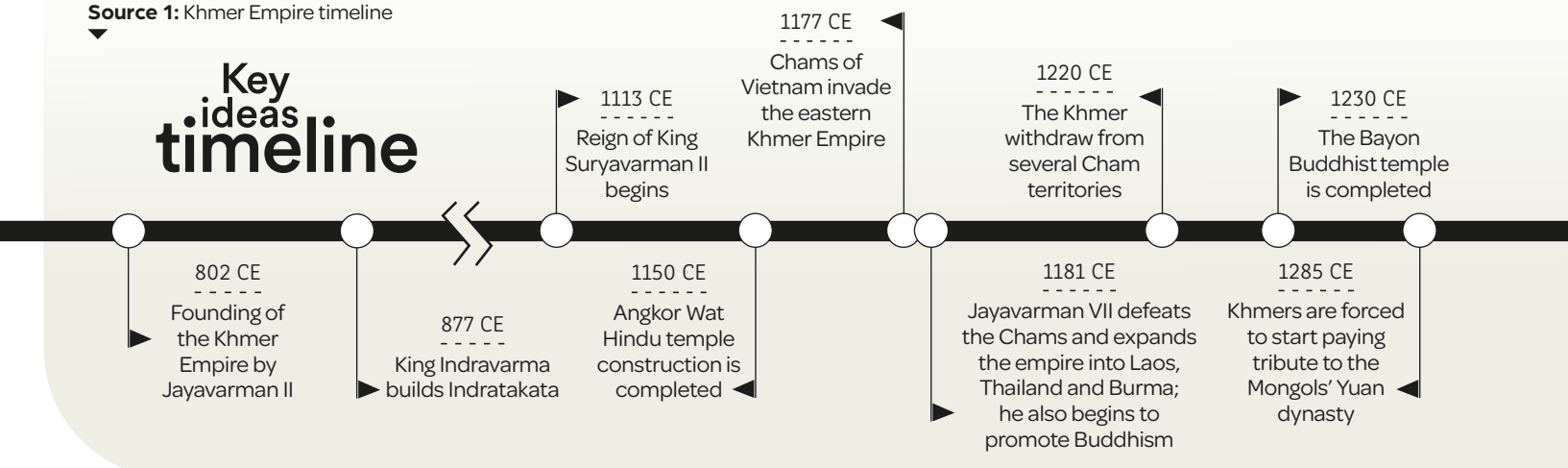
The Mekong Delta acts as a brake on this flow of water. Every year, as the floodwaters build from the delta, the Tonlé Sap River, which flows into the Mekong River from the Tonlé Sap Lake, reverses its flow and creates an inland sea known as the Great Lake. When this inland sea drains away after the flood season, it leaves behind fertile soil that can support intensive rice cultivation.

The Khmer Empire in South-East Asia, c. 1130 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

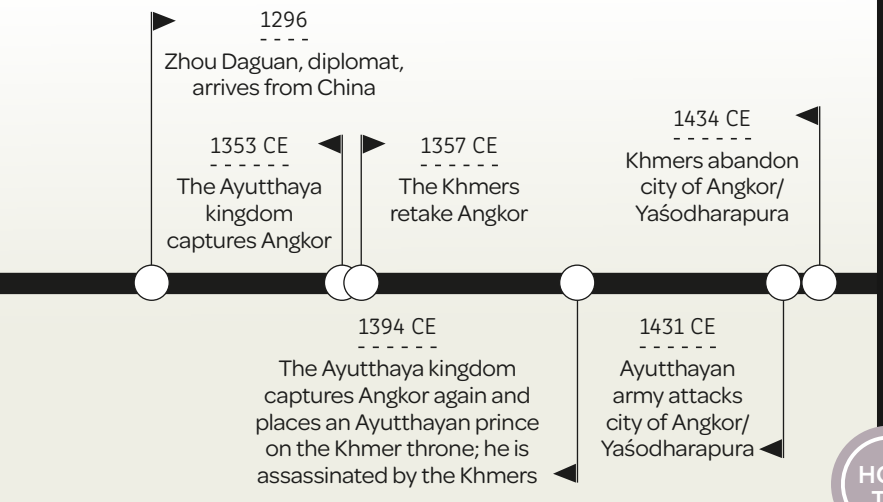
▲ **Source 2:** The extent of the Khmer Empire in c. 1130 CE

Source 1: Khmer Empire timeline



Source 3: The Mekong River flows through the centre of Cambodia. It is an important source of fish and water for the irrigation of rice crops.

The centre of the Khmer Empire in the Angkor region was close to important sources of water – the Tonlé Sap Lake and the Siem Reap River – and to the farming land supported by these water sources. The sandstone used to build the Khmer's amazing temples was quarried from nearby Mount Kulen.



Learning ladder 12.1

Background and origins

1. Source 2: Identify the two major rivers running through the Khmer Empire.
2. Describe the role of the Mekong Delta.
3. Explain how the draining of the Great Lake enables rice cultivation.
4. Source 2: Explain why the location of the Khmer Empire was advantageous.

Chronology

1. Source 1: Identify the date when the Angkor Wat temple was completed.
2. List these events in order, from the oldest to the most recent:
   - 1006–1050 CE: reign of Suryavarman I
   - 877–889 CE: reign of Indravarman I
   - 802–835 CE: reign of Jayavarman II
   - 1113–1150 CE: reign of Suryavarman II
   - 889–910 CE: reign of Yasovarman I.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Source 1: Summarise the events that led to the decline of the Khmer Empire, from 1353 to 1434 CE.
5. Source 1: Explain how the timeline demonstrates the concept of cause and effect.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

What was the origin of the Khmer Empire?

The medieval Khmer Empire emerged from the ancient Khmer kingdoms in South-East Asia. The ancient Khmers were significantly influenced by the beliefs, ideas and social practices of ancient India, which spread through trade links.

Early Khmer kingdoms

Ancient Chinese chronicles record that the first known Khmer state was called Chenla. Chenla was located near the Mekong and Bassac rivers from the 1st to 6th century CE and was a **vassal state** of the larger Kingdom of Funan in South-East Asia. While some historians have suggested that Funan was also a Khmer state, the evidence is inconclusive. Later records suggest that the Kingdom of Chenla conquered Funan.

Chenla was ruled by a series of kings and queens. The chronicles record that during the reign of King Jayavarman I (657–681 CE), Chenla was a highly organised and centralised state with its own army. Jayavarman I's daughter Jayadevi succeeded him and ruled as queen of Chenla until 720 CE.

Trade routes from India

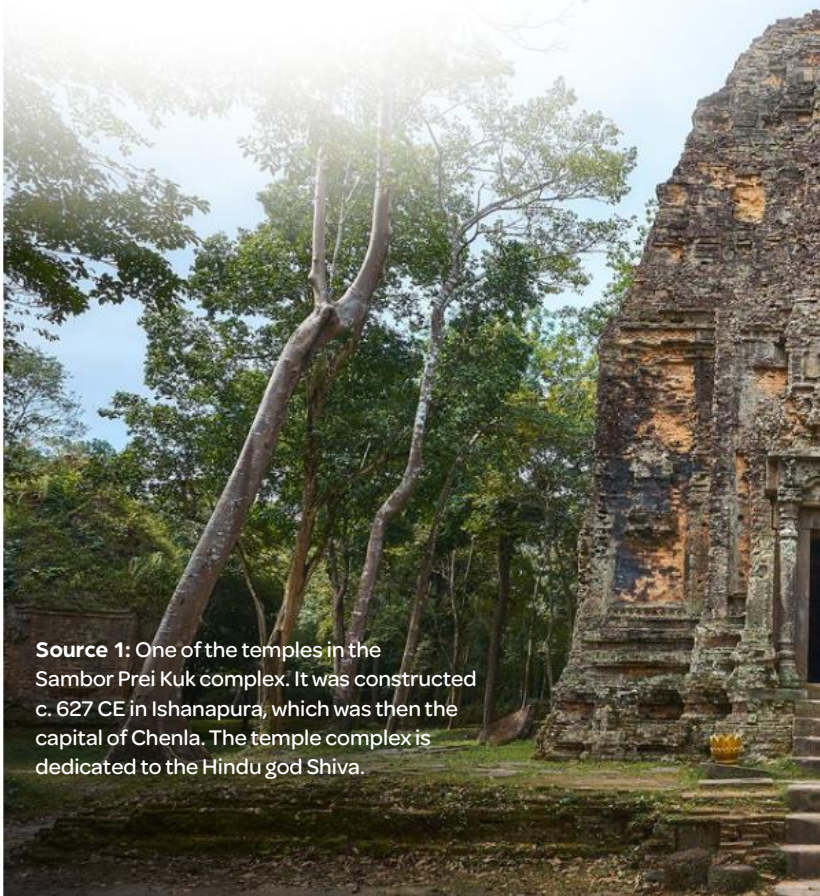
Throughout the ancient period, Indian merchants from the Gupta Empire (320–550 CE) in the north and the Pallava Empire (275–897 CE) in the south travelled to South-East Asia, bringing luxury goods such as cotton, spices, ivory, precious stones and pepper. The kings of Chenla profited greatly from Indian trade and quickly adopted the Indian Hindu religion as a way of cementing the trade relationship. The Hindu temples of Sambor Prei Kuk, the first of which were built by King Isanvarman I (616–637 CE), are the oldest known examples of Indian culture and religion in Cambodia.

The elites of Chenla society also embraced Indian ideas that helped them to cement their power. For example, the Khmer kings adopted the Hindu concepts of the *chakravatin* and *devaraja*. A chakravatin was an 'ideal' universal king. Devaraja was a cult that established the king as a divine ruler, the living embodiment of the Hindu gods Vishnu and Shiva. Khmer kings deliberately promoted themselves as universal and god-like rulers.

The Khmer language

Ancient India also greatly influenced the Khmer language and written script. Many words from the ancient Indian languages of Sanskrit and Pali can be found in Khmer. These languages were also used during the time of the Khmer Empire. Sanskrit was spoken exclusively by Khmer royalty and used to record the deeds of kings on Khmer monuments. Pali was used to write sacred Buddhist scripts.

Khmer script is based on the ancient Pallava script, a form of writing that developed in the Pallava Empire in South India. The oldest inscription in the Khmer script that has been found in Cambodia dates back to 611 CE. **Stelae** (upright stones or columns) featuring the Khmer script have been found throughout Cambodia and other areas of the former Khmer Empire, including in Laos and Thailand.



Source 1: One of the temples in the Sambor Prei Kuk complex. It was constructed c. 627 CE in Ishanapura, which was then the capital of Chenla. The temple complex is dedicated to the Hindu god Shiva.

Source 2: The Sdok Kak Thom stele (c. 1053–1300 CE). A stele (pronounced 'steel-ee') is a tall stone slab that bears inscriptions. The Sdok Kak Thom stele was constructed to record the temple owners' royal service to the Khmer court and the great deeds of the Khmer kings. The inscription written in Khmer script consists of two parts: 194 lines in Sanskrit and 146 lines in Khmer.

Ancient cities of India and South-East Asia

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 3: Trade routes between ancient India and South-East Asia

Learning ladder 12.2

Background and origins

1. Source 3: Identify two cities in India from where goods were exported to South-East Asia.
2. Describe the ancient Khmer Kingdom of Chenla.
3. Explain how Indian languages were used in the Khmer kingdoms.
4. Source 3: Explain why the Pallava script became influential in the Khmer kingdoms.

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify the cause of the construction of the Sdok Kak Thom stele.
2. Source 1: Describe the effect of Indian religious influence on the Kingdom of Chenla.
3. Explain the effect of Indian culture on the Kingdom of Chenla.
4. Explain why the Khmer elites adopted certain aspects of Indian culture.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

Key individual

How did Jayavarman II establish an empire?

Historical information about the life of Jayavarman II is scarce and much of the evidence about him has been found in insciptions written centuries after his death. He is traditionally regarded as the founder of the Khmer Empire.

The queens of Jayavarman

Sometime after Queen Jayadevi's reign, Chenla had collapsed into small rival kingdoms that fought each other for power. The Khmer states were also subject to invasions by the nearby Cham kingdom and were dominated by the Kingdom of Java.

In c. 780 CE, a Khmer prince named Jayavarman was crowned king of the small Chenla state of Indrapura. As king, Jayavarman II married Jayendrabha, the queen of the Sambhupura Chenla state, to unite the two Chenla kingdoms. He also married another six queens. Marriages to these women were important because royal power was **matrilineal** in Khmer culture. This meant that a king claimed his right to the throne through his mother's royal line. His mother's royalty was much more important than whether his father was the king.

Having united the Khmer kingdoms through his marriages, Jayavarman II then undertook a series of military campaigns to conquer several small neighbouring states and force the Javanese out of the region. He established the Khmer Empire in 802 CE.

The god–king

Jayavarman II had himself crowned as chakravartin, by partaking in a ritual conducted by a Brahman (Hindu) priest. He then promoted the devaraja concept (cult) by conducting a ceremony that linked him with the Hindu supreme god Shiva and proclaiming himself to be a divine universal ruler. Jayavarman II and his successors ruled the Khmer Empire as god-kings with absolute power over the people.

Source 1: This is a photo of the remains of Prasat Rong Chen (c. 802 CE), the temple in the ancient city of Mahendraparvata where Jayavarman II was crowned as chakravartin.

Source 2: The Temple Ruins of Sdok Kak Thom in Thailand contains an inscription in Sanskrit and ancient Khmer recounting the conquests and spiritual power of previous kings, including Jayavarman II. Sdok Kak Thom was built in the 11th century CE.

> Then [Jayavarman II] went to reign at Mahendraparvata ... Then a Brahmin named Hisanyadarma, wise in magic science, came from Janapada, for [Jayavarman II] had invited him to conduct a ritual so that [Cambodia] would not be dependent any more on Java and that he would be a sovereign chakravartin.

Source 3: This text is a translation of some of the Sanskrit text on the Sdok Kak Thom inscription (c. 1063–1300 CE), which describes Jayavarman II's ascension to become chakravartin in 802 CE.

The first capital cities

Jayavarman II initially ruled from the city of Mahendraparvata in the north-east of the Khmer Empire. Sometime before his death in 835 CE, Jayavarman II moved south to establish a new capital city, Hariharalaya, north of the Great Lake. Hariharalaya is named after the god Harihara, who is a combination of the Hindu gods Vishnu and Shiva.

Jayavarman II was succeeded by his son, Jayavarman III, and then by his nephew, Indravarman I, who were responsible for completing the royal temple mountain known as the Bakong at Hariharalaya.

Learning ladder 12.3

Background and origins

1. Identify the king who founded the Khmer Empire.
2. Describe the kingdom of Chenla before Jayavarman II's reign.
3. Explain how Jayavarman II united the small rival Khmer states.
4. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Jayavarman had himself declared a chakravartin and a god-king.

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify the historically significant site shown in this source.
2. Describe the significant city established by Jayavarman II.
3. Explain how the Khmer queens played a significant role in the establishment of the Khmer Empire.
4. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using these sources and your knowledge, explain why Jayavarman II is a historically significant individual.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

How did the Khmer Empire grow?

By the end of the 9th century CE, the Khmer kings had established key engineering principles that would be used by his successors to build a vast empire. The supply of a reliable source of water in barays helped the Khmer Empire grow rice for food and trade.

Building an empire

Jayavarman II was succeeded by his son Jayavarman III (who reigned from 835 to 877 CE). He continued to build temples at the Khmer capital city of Hariharalaya. However, it was the next king, Indravarman I (reigning from 877 to 889 CE), who established key features that would transform the cities and temple complexes of the Khmer Empire.

The barays

The first key feature was the building of massive reservoirs of water known as **barays** (or *tataka* in the Khmer language). The Indratataka was the first large reservoir built by Indravarman I; it was constructed in 877 CE to provide a reliable water supply to Hariharalaya. The Indratataka was 3.8 kilometres long and 800 metres wide, and could hold up to 7.5 million cubic litres of water, which is approximately the volume of 2270 Olympic-sized swimming pools.

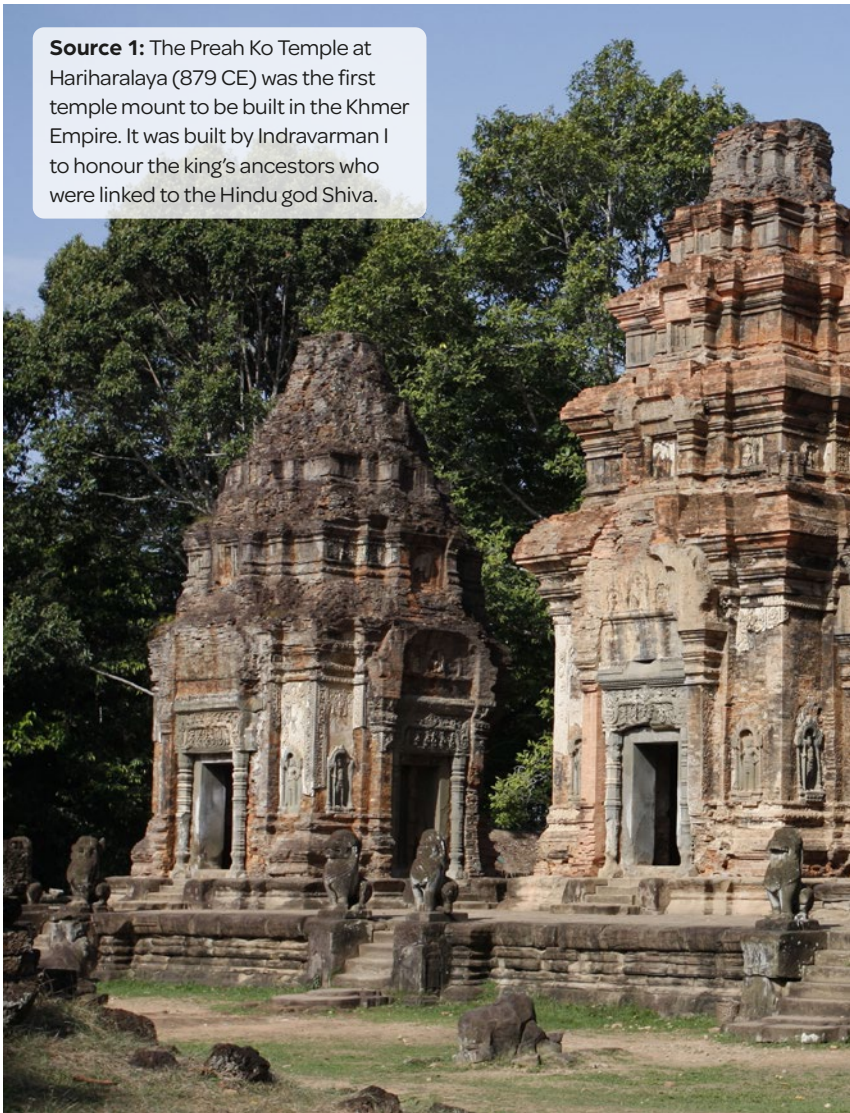
Historians believe that the Khmer kings carried out these irrigation works for several reasons. One was that through providing a water source in the form of the barays, the kings were able to honour both their subjects and the local water divinities. Another was that by building these enormous reservoirs, the kings were demonstrating their power and their closeness to the gods by creating earthly representations of the lakes that surrounded Mount Meru, the home of the Hindu gods.

Temple complexes

The second feature Indravarman I established was the ancestral and state temples within the capital city. The ancestral temple featured statues of Hindu gods that represented the king's ancestors, making it clear that the king was god-like.

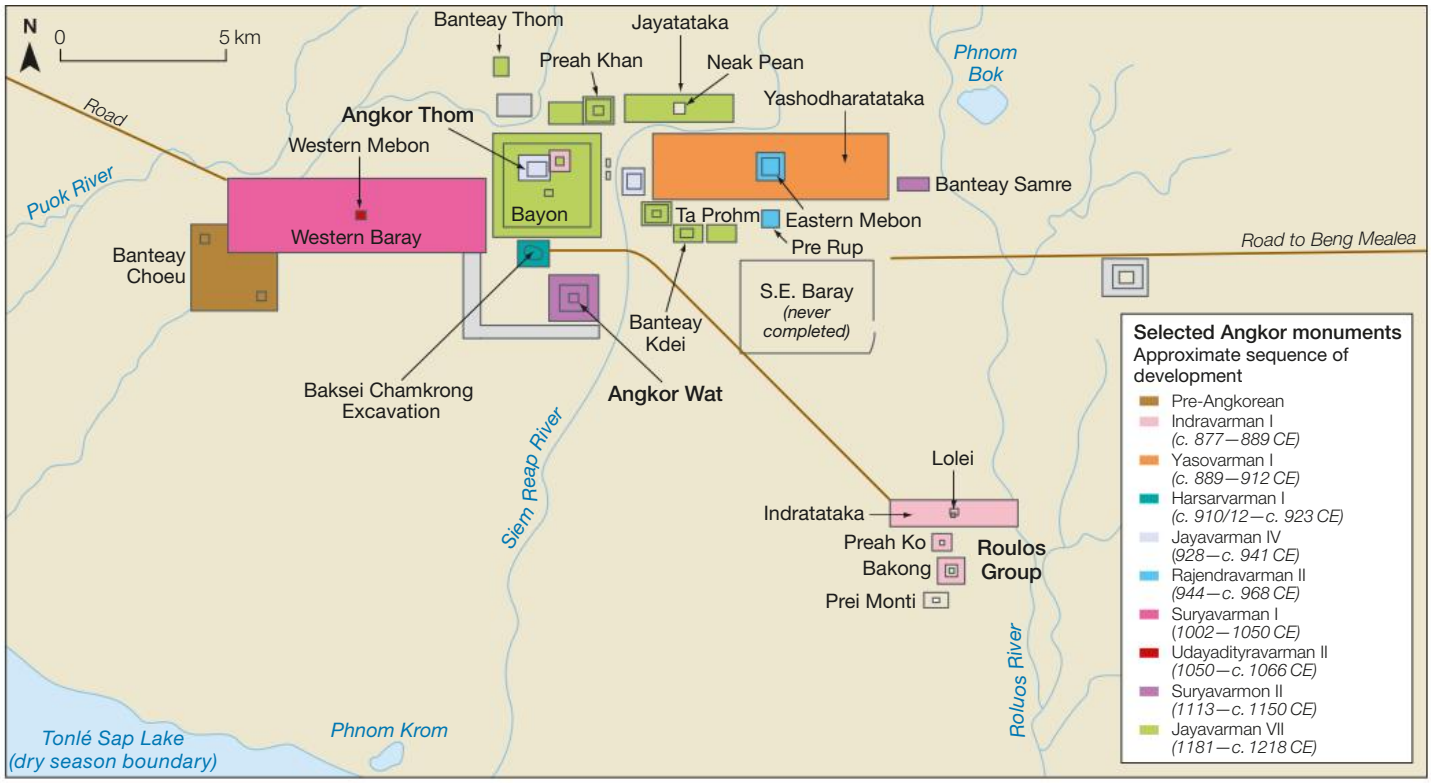
The state temple was an earthly representation of Mount Meru and as such was a 'temple mount'. State temples had five towers representing the peaks of the Himalayan Mountains and were surrounded by a moat.

Temple mounts and barays used large amounts of water and required the construction of canals and dykes. These engineering features displayed the king's power and success as a ruler, because extraordinary resources of labour were required to build them.



Source 1: The Preah Ko Temple at Hariharalaya (879 CE) was the first temple mount to be built in the Khmer Empire. It was built by Indravarman I to honour the king's ancestors who were linked to the Hindu god Shiva.

The city of Angkor/Yaśodharapura in Cambodia



▲ **Source 2:** The development of the city of Angkor/Yaśodharapura over time

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Learning ladder 12.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify two barays (tatakas) in this source.
2. Describe the Indratataka.
3. Explain how the temple complexes made the kings appear god-like and powerful.
4. Explain why the Khmer kings built barays.

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify the site that provides continuity with the king's ancestors.
2. Source 1: Describe how Indravarman I changed the design of temples.
3. Source 2: Explain how this source demonstrates continuity between the time of Indravarman I to Jayavarman VII.
4. Source 1: Explain why Indravarman I changed the design of temples.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

What was the nature of kingship in the Khmer Empire?

Khmer kings ruled as universal god-kings. The king's right to rule was based on his mother's or aunt's family line.

The matrilineal line

At the head of the Khmer state was the king. In the history of Western society, royal succession usually went through the oldest male heir. In classical Cambodia, however, royal succession was matrilineal. Potential kings had to demonstrate that their mother or aunt was 'more royal' than the female ancestors of a rival king.

Kings had temples built to honour their female ancestors to legitimise their claim to the throne. For example, King Indravarman I claimed his right to the throne through his mother Prthivindradevi and aunt Dharanindradevi, who were Khmer queens and descendents of Jayadevi, rather than through his uncle Jayavarman II. He erected six temples at Preah Ko: two to his parents, two to his mother's parents and two to his aunt and her husband (Jayavarman II). The dedication of temples to his mother, his aunt and his mother's parents (rather than his father's parents) emphasised Indravarman I's line of descent from the royal women in his family, justifying his right to rule.

Once a king's right to rule had been established, he was recognised as a chakravatin and as a god-king through the cult of devaraja. As king, a Khmer ruler was expected to build barays, uphold religious values and lead the army into battle.

Source 1: The Bayon was the state temple of King Jayavarman VII. It was built in c. 1200 CE in the Khmer Empire's capital city of Angkor/ Yaśodharapura. The temple has 216 smiling faces of the Buddha, which were likely modelled on the face of Jayavarman VII.

The customs of Cambodia

Chinese diplomat Zhou Daguan travelled to the Khmer Empire in 1296 CE and remained there for 11 months. His book *The Customs of Cambodia* is the only written eyewitness account of the Khmer Empire. In addition to its account of everyday life, it provides detailed observations of King Indravarman III's court and of King Indravarman III himself. The book discusses Indravarman III's gold crown, pearl and gold jewellery and his rule of the Khmer Empire.

Twice each day the king holds audience for the affairs of government. There is no fixed agenda. Those officials or commoners who wish to see the sovereign sit on the ground to wait for him. After some time, one hears distant music in the palace, and, outside, conches are blown in welcome to the king. I have heard it said that he uses only a gold palanquin. He does not have to go far. An instant later you see two girls of the palace raise the curtain with their tiny fingers, and the king, holding the sword in his hand, appears at the golden window. Ministers and common people clasp their hands and strike the ground in front of them; when the sound of the conches stops, they can raise their heads again. Immediately thereafter the king sits down. In the place where he sits there is a lion skin, which is a hereditary royal treasure. When business is concluded, the prince returns; the two girls let the curtain fall, and everyone rises. We see from this that, even though this is a barbarous kingdom, these people know what a prince is.

Source 2: This description of King Indravarman III was written by Zhou Daguan in his book *The Customs of Cambodia* (c. 1312 CE).

Source 3: Figure of Dharanindradevi, aunt of Indravarman I, at her temple, Preah Ko, 879 CE

Learning ladder 12.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the Khmer king depicted in this source.
2. Describe Zhou Daguan's role in documenting Khmer history.
3. Sources 1 and 3: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain the basis of the king's power in the Khmer Empire.
4. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why Indravarman I honoured his female relatives.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

Perspectives

1. Source 2: Identify from whose perspective this source is written.
2. Source 1: Describe the perspective of Jayavarman VII shown in this source.
3. Source 2: Explain the perspective of the author of this source.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Compare the perspectives of these sources.
4. Source 2: Evaluate the usefulness of the perspective of this source for a historian studying Khmer kings.

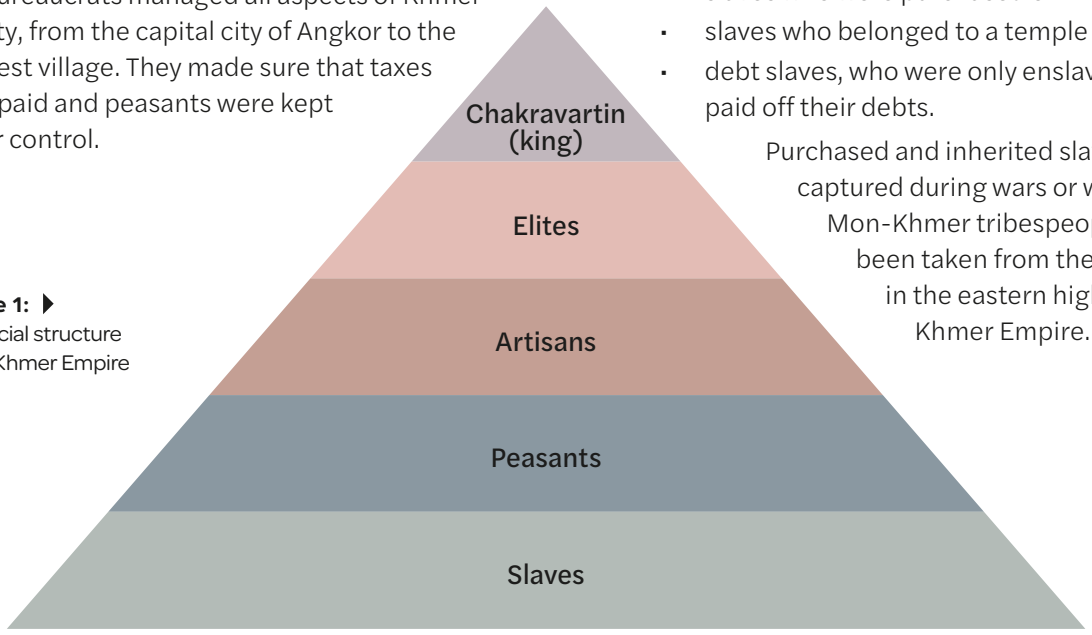
How was Khmer society organised?

The Khmer social structure was based on the Hindu caste system, but was modified to better suit their society.

Elites

The Khmer elite class combined the Hindu Brahman and Kshatriya castes. It included priests, scholars and royal bureaucrats (Brahman) as well as military leaders (Kshatriya).

Bureaucrats managed all aspects of Khmer society, from the capital city of Angkor to the smallest village. They made sure that taxes were paid and peasants were kept under control.



Source 1: The social structure of the Khmer Empire

Slaves

A large number of people in the Khmer Empire were **slaves**. Unlike in the Hindu caste system, slaves were not outcasts in Khmer society. There were many different types of slaves in the Khmer Empire, including:

- slaves who were purchased or inherited
- slaves who belonged to a temple complex
- debt slaves, who were only enslaved until they paid off their debts.

Purchased and inherited slaves were people captured during wars or were indigenous Mon-Khmer tribespeople who had been taken from their homelands in the eastern highlands of the Khmer Empire.

Artisans

The Hindu caste system did not have a separate class for **artisans**, but in Khmer society artisans were highly prized. Artisans included architects, sculptors, goldsmiths, potters, blacksmiths, weavers, miners and merchants. The king's wealth, prestige and power depended on artisans' skill and expertise.

Peasants

Like the Hindu caste system, there was a large peasant (or Shudra) class in Khmer society. Most people in the Khmer Empire were peasants. While some owned land, the majority worked on the estates of the elites or on temple estates. Peasants were also required to provide **corvée labour**, meaning they had to work on public projects such as roads, irrigation and temples.

Source 2: This drawing shows a sculptor creating a bas-relief, which is a stone sculpture that projects slightly from a flat surface. Sculptors were part of the artisan social class in the Khmer Empire.

Source 3: This bas-relief from Angkor Wat shows the Khmer army returning from campaign.

Family slaves are all savages purchased to work as servants. Most families have a hundred or more of them; a few have ten or twenty; only the very poor have none at all ... A strong young slave is worth perhaps a hundred pieces of cloth; a weak old one can only fetch thirty or forty ... If they do something wrong they are beaten and take their caning with their heads bowed. Sometimes slaves run away. Those that are caught and taken back must carry a dark blue tattoo on their face ...

Source 4: Zhou Daguan (c. 1312 CE), *The Customs of Cambodia*

Learning ladder 12.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the five social groups in the diagram.
2. Describe the role of peasants in the Khmer Empire.
3. Explain the differences between the Hindu caste system and the Khmer social system.
4. Explain why artisans were highly prized in the Khmer Empire.
5. Assess the advantages of including military leaders in the elite class.

Source analysis

1. Source 4: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 3: Describe the image in the source.
3. Source 4: Explain how slaves were treated by their masters.
4. Sources 3 and 4: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain why slavery was widespread in the Khmer Empire.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

What role did women play in the Khmer Empire?

Kings and queens could rule independently in the Chenla kingdoms, but after the establishment of the Khmer Empire only kings ruled. However, Khmer queens still wielded substantial spiritual power. In addition, ordinary women retained the same rights as men in many respects.

Elite women and power

Queens and princesses were seen as representatives of their family's land. A king or prince had to marry a queen in order to gain control of land. Even in the non-elite classes, the association between women and land was strong. Families who wished to show their loyalty to the king would often send their daughter to the king's household. The daughter represented the family's land. She served in the king's court as a handmaiden, diplomat or an administrator. In return, her family members were given special privileges for pledging their land to the king.

▲ **Source 1:** Women at the royal court, bas-relief, Bayon Temple, Angkor Thom, c. 1200 CE

▲ **Source 2:** Queen Jayarajadevi, Bayon Temple, Angkor Thom, c. 1200 CE

Rights and freedoms

Unlike other regions of the medieval world, Khmer women kept many of the rights they had enjoyed during the time of the Chenla kingdom. For example, Khmer women kept control of their property. Records indicate that elite and peasant women owned land in their own right and made donations of land, goods and slaves to religious communities and family members. Women were able to choose who would inherit their property and usually bequeathed it to their daughters.

Ordinary women enjoyed similar rights to men in Khmer society. Under the law, men and women were treated the same, with punishments for men and women usually consisting of fines or, in serious cases, the amputation of hands, feet or nose.

Source 3: Women merchants at the marketplace, bas-relief at Bayon Temple, Angkor Thom, c. 1200 CE

Men and women were both eligible to serve as temple officials. While men were given priority to conduct temple ceremonies for their families, if there were no male heirs, women were allowed to officiate.

Education

Many women in the elite class received an education, usually in the important aspects of religion. Women who were sent by their families to serve in the royal palace were also educated.

Sometimes other women received an education. During the reign of Jayavarman VII (1181–1218 CE), his queen, Jayarajadevi, set up a school to teach Buddhism to girls living in poverty, thereby changing their life opportunities. When Jayarajadevi died, her sister Indradevi married Jayavarman VII and was appointed head of Nagendratunge, Tilakottare and Narendraśrama – three schools that taught Buddhism and literature to women.

Merchants

Women merchants also seem to have been especially prominent. Zhou Daguan related that the women of Cambodia were the merchants, adding that 'for this reason a Chinese man, arriving in the country, loses no time in getting himself a [Khmer] wife, for he will find her commercial instincts a great asset'.

Learning ladder 12.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the person shown in this image.
2. Source 3: Describe the role of the women in this scene.
3. Explain how the rights of women were similar to those of men in the Khmer Empire.
4. Explain why queens were able to wield power in the Khmer Empire.
5. Evaluate the power of women in the Khmer Empire.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the change in leadership between the time of the Chenla kingdom and the Khmer Empire.
2. Describe the continuity of women's property rights.
3. Source 2: Explain how Queen Jayarajadevi and her sister changed the lives of women in their community.
4. Explain why the rights of women during the period of the Khmer Empire demonstrates the concept of continuity.
5. Evaulate the extent of change in women's lives between the time of the Chenla kingdom and the Khmer Empire.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

What were the key economic features of the Khmer Empire?

The Khmer Empire amassed great wealth by growing huge quantities of rice and by having access to valuable raw materials. At the height of the Khmer Empire in the 13th century CE, the Chinese refered to it as 'Cambodia the rich'.

The importance of rice

Money or coinage was not used in the Khmer Empire; instead, the Khmers used systems of trade and barter. The Khmers excelled at producing an abundance of rice and this formed the basis of their economic system.

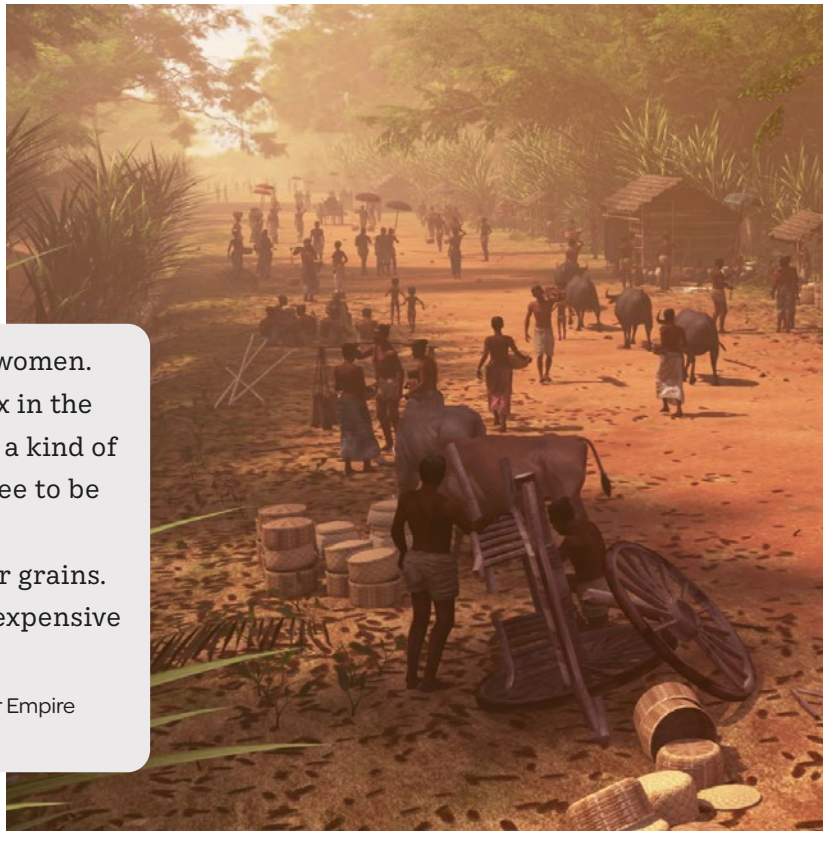
Historians estimate that approximately 80 per cent of the population was involved in growing rice. Zhou Daguan believed that three or four crops occurred per year in the medieval period; in the region today, there are only one or two crops per year.

What did the Khmer Empire trade?

Trading products other than rice was also important to the Khmer economy. International trade was dominated by China, but evidence exists of trade with neighbouring Champa, the Srivijaya Empire (western Indonesia) and Java (eastern Indonesia), as well as India, which had long-held trade relations with the region.

The Khmer Empire's main trade goods were raw materials, collected by hunters and foragers in the Khmer forests. Forest products traded from the Khmer Empire included blue kingfisher feathers, elephant tusks, rhinoceros horns, beeswax, rosewood and cardamom. These goods were highly valued and were in great demand. For example, Chinese nobles used blue kingfisher feathers in their ceremonial headdresses. In addition, these goods required no investment in industry and manufacture. Zhou Daguan reported that the hunters of elephants and rhinoceros were the Indigenous peoples of the Khmer Empire, many of whom were slaves. Hence, the Khmer Empire sourced trade goods for little cost and sold these goods for high prices.

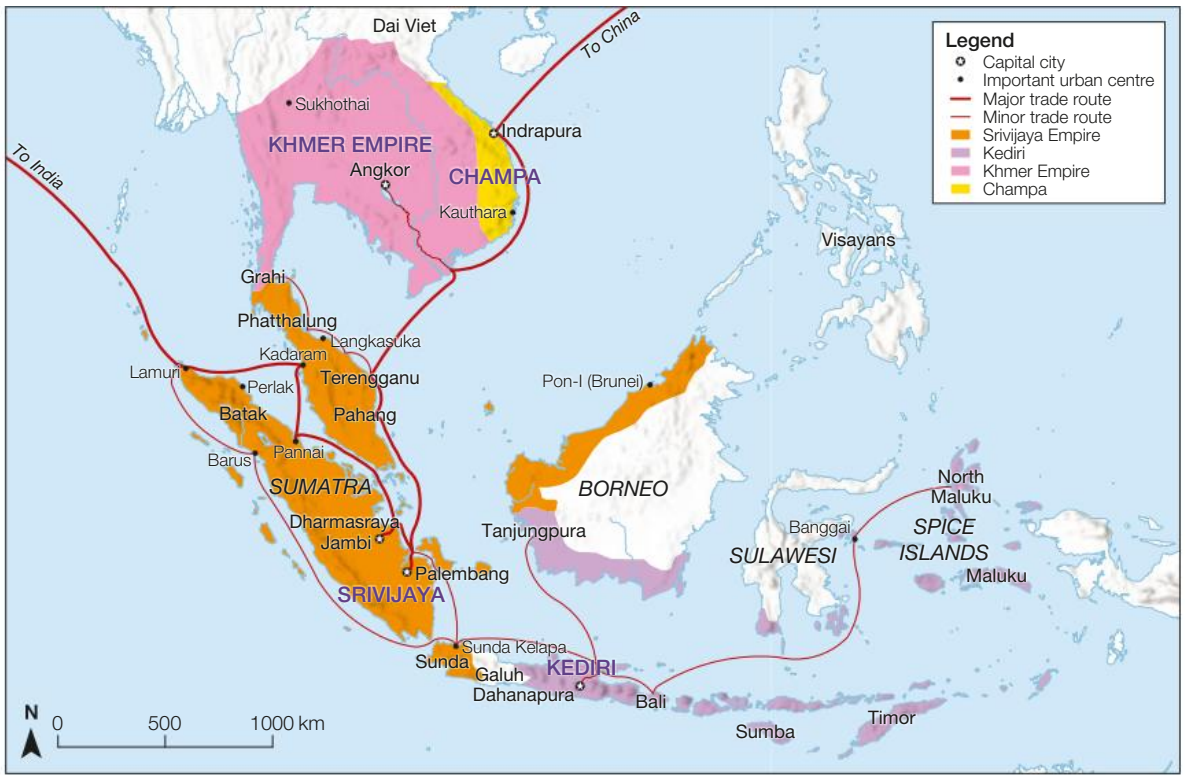
Another important trade product was Cambodian beeswax. Beeswax came from honeycombs gathered from the forest, with each one weighing up to 25 kilograms. Beeswax was highly valued in China,



> The local people who know how to trade are all women. There is a market every day from around six in the morning until midday. There are no stalls, only a kind of mat laid out on the ground. I gather there is a rental fee to be paid to officials.
>
> Goods of small value are paid for with rice or other grains. Higher value goods are paid for with cloth. The most expensive goods are paid for with gold and silver.

Source 1: This text was written by Zhou Daguan after he visited the Khmer Empire 1296–1297. [Zhou Daguan (c. 1312 CE), *The Customs of Cambodia*]

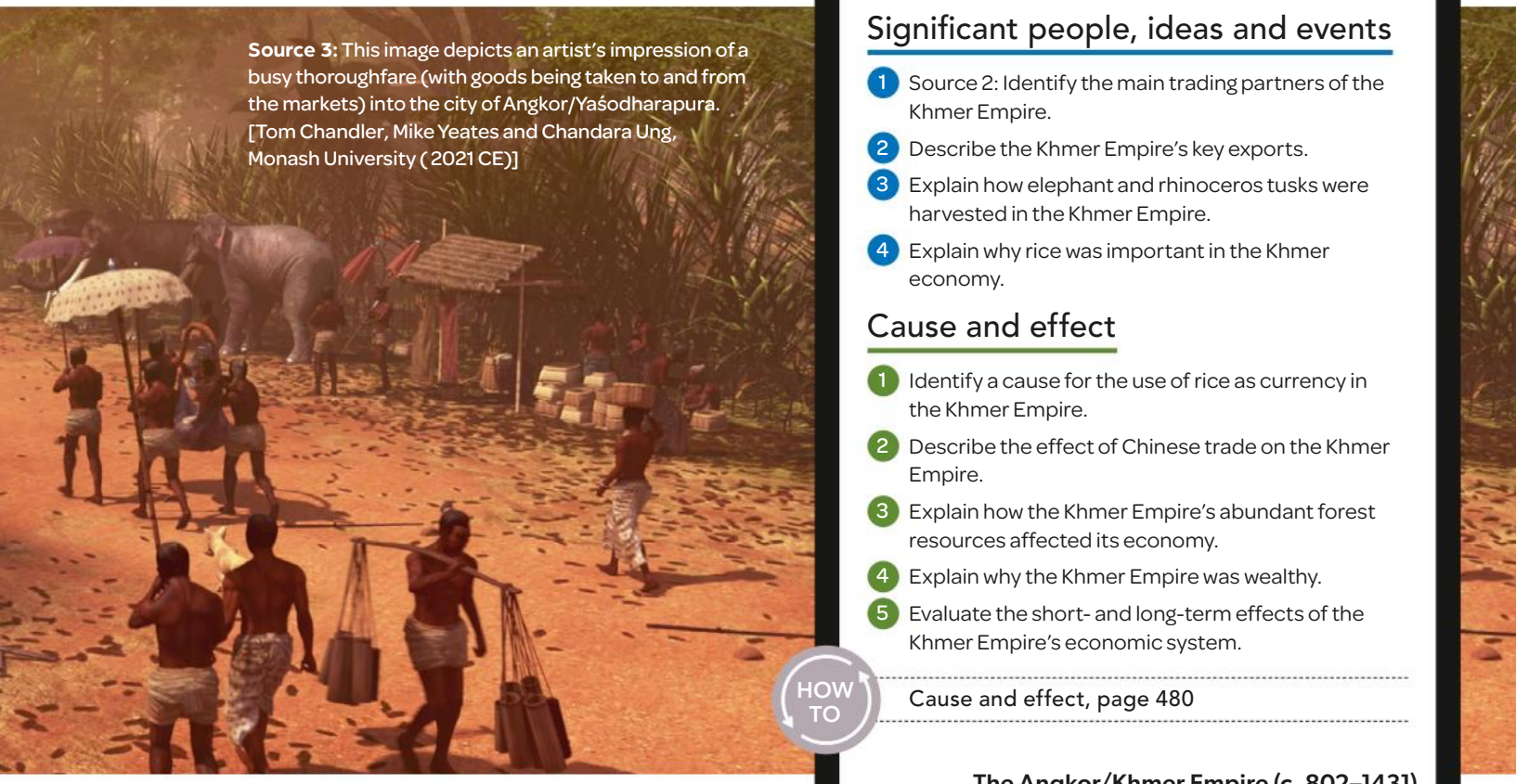
Medieval South-East Asian trade routes



Source 2: Map showing the main sea trade routes in South-East Asia during the medieval period

Source: Matilda Education Australia

where it was used for medicine, candles, cosmetics and as a type of glue. Chinese ships, known as junks, could carry 2000 to 3000 honeycombs. In return, the Khmers bought gold, silver and sandalwood, and Chinese-manufactured products such as silks, pewter, writing paper, iron pots, copper dishes and umbrellas.



Source 3: This image depicts an artist's impression of a busy thoroughfare (with goods being taken to and from the markets) into the city of Angkor/Yaśodharapura. [Tom Chandler, Mike Yeates and Chandara Ung, Monash University (2021 CE)]

Learning ladder 12.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the main trading partners of the Khmer Empire.
2. Describe the Khmer Empire's key exports.
3. Explain how elephant and rhinoceros tusks were harvested in the Khmer Empire.
4. Explain why rice was important in the Khmer economy.

Cause and effect

1. Identify a cause for the use of rice as currency in the Khmer Empire.
2. Describe the effect of Chinese trade on the Khmer Empire.
3. Explain how the Khmer Empire's abundant forest resources affected its economy.
4. Explain why the Khmer Empire was wealthy.
5. Evaluate the short- and long-term effects of the Khmer Empire's economic system.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

What were the key beliefs of the Khmer people?

The main religions of the Khmer people – Hinduism and Buddhism – originated in India.

Hinduism

Hinduism arrived in the Khmer Chenla kingdom during the 6th century. It included a range of Indian spiritual traditions that centred around the concept of ***dharma***. Dharma is the idea that if people follow rituals and live in the right way, the order of the world will be maintained. Important beliefs in Hinduism include the cycle of birth and rebirth (known as *samsara*) and *karma* (the consequences for one's actions and intentions).

There are numerous Hindu gods and goddesses who control various aspects of people's lives. During the Khmer Empire, the most important gods were Vishnu (the god of creation and protection) and Shiva (the god of destruction).

Buddhism

Buddhism was present in the early days of the Khmer Empire, but was a minority religion. Buddhism slowly became more influential in the 10th century CE.

In 1181 CE, King Jayavarman VII ascended the throne. Encouraged by his queens Jayarajadevi and Indradevi, Jayavarman VII established Buddhism as the official Khmer religion. Many Hindu temples, such as Angkor Wat (built 1150 CE), were gradually changed to Buddhist temples by the end of the 13th century. Jayavarman VII also built the Bayon temple as a monument to Buddhism.

Source 1: *Apsaras*, bas-relief, Angkor Wat temple, 1150 CE. Apsaras were water-nymph or angel-like beings in Hindu and Buddhist culture that could change shape at will and move between the sacred and everyday worlds.

Source 2: Banteay Srei, a Hindu temple in Angkor, 967 CE. Banteay Srei is surrounded by a moat and has three central shrines: two dedicated to Shiva and one to Vishnu. The temple also features numerous apsaras, *devatas* (guardian spirits), *gandharvas* (musician or dancer spirits), and Hindu gods and goddesses.

After a brief return to Hinduism under the reign of Jayavarman VIII (1254–1295 CE), Buddhism was reinstated as the official religion by King Indravarman III (1295–1308 CE). Buddhism was readily adopted by the Khmer people because it was more inclusive. In contrast, Hinduism was more closely associated with the power of the royal family.

Temples

Temples were an important way of distributing power and protection in the Khmer Empire.

When a king established a temple, all the people in its surrounding area came under the king's protection. In return for the king's protection, the people supplied labour, slaves and agricultural surplus to the temple. Temples were often decorated with carvings that emphasised the greatness of the king.

Since temples did not have to pay tax, they became very wealthy. The records from one temple show that it was rich enough to support 18 high priests, 2740 administrators, 2202 assistants and 615 dancers. In addition, it held 500 kilograms of gold dishes, 500 kilograms of silver dishes, 35 diamonds, 40 260 pearls, 4540 precious stones, 523 parasols and 512 sets of silk bedding.

Learning ladder 12.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. **a** Identify the two main religions of the Khmer Empire.
   b Sources 1 and 2: Identify the Hindu and Buddhist concepts shown in these sources.
2. Describe the main Hindu gods of the Khmer Empire.
3. Explain how temples functioned during the Khmer Empire.
4. Explain why Buddhism became prominent during the Khmer Empire.

Chronology

1. Identify when Hinduism first arrived in the Chenla kingdom.
2. Put the following dates in chronological order:
   - 967 CE: Banteay Srei temple was constructed
   - 1295 CE: Indravarman III changes the Khmer religion to Buddhism
   - c. 500 CE: Hinduism arrives in the Chenla kingdom via Indian trade routes
   - c. 1290 CE: Angkor Wat becomes a Buddhist temple
   - c. 1200 CE: The Bayon Temple was constructed
   - 1254 CE: Jayavarman VIII changes the Khmer religion to Hinduism
   - 1181 CE: Jayavarman VII changes the Khmer religion to Buddhism.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Explain how your timeline demonstrates the concept of continuity and change.

HOW TO
Chronology, page 472

Site study

What was the purpose of Angkor Wat?

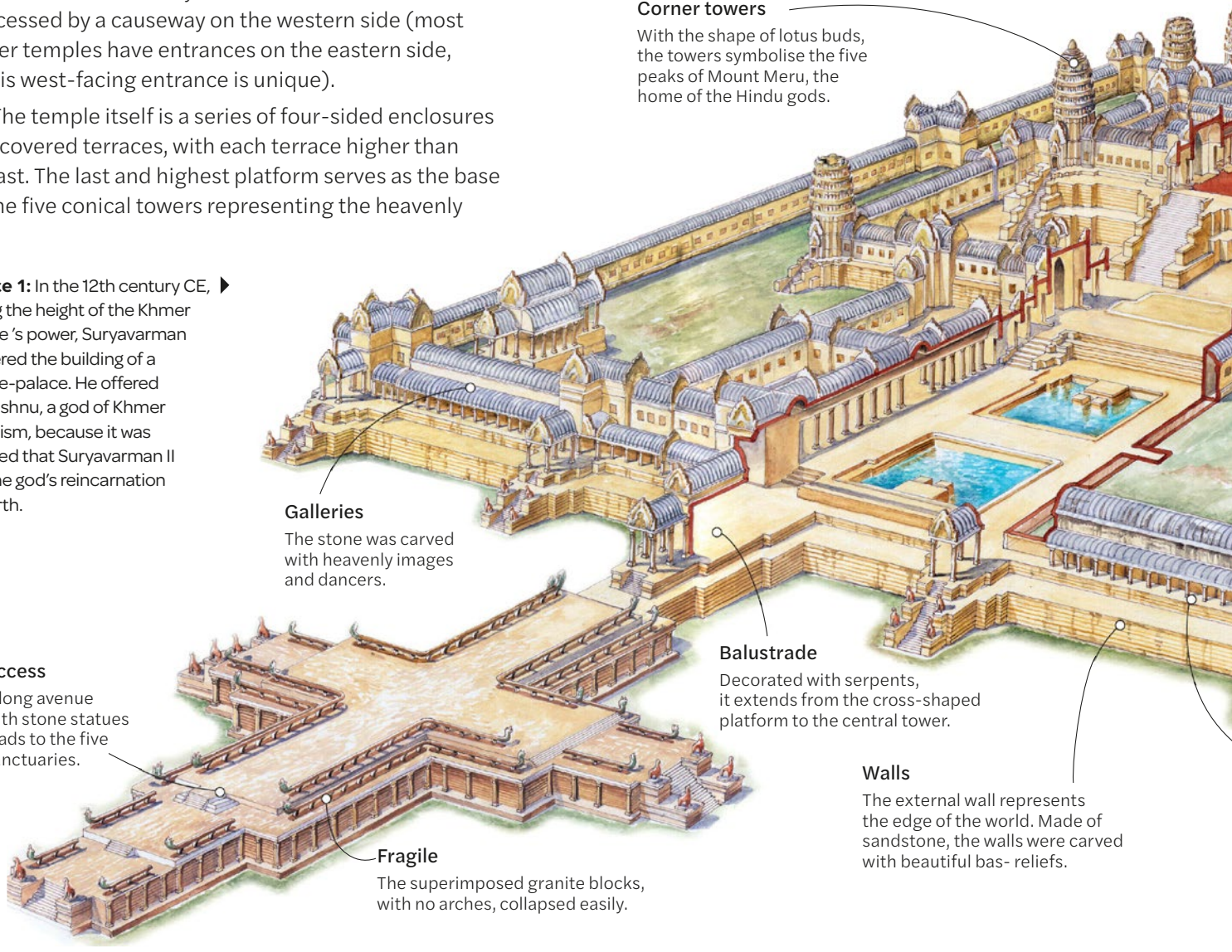
Of all the temples built during the Khmer Empire, Angkor Wat is in a class of its own.

World's largest religious structure

During Suryavarman II's reign (1113–1150 CE) the Khmers began to construct one of the world's most remarkable buildings: Angkor Wat, the largest religious structure ever built. It covers an area of two square kilometres and stands 65 metres high at its highest point. It is surrounded by a 200-metre-wide moat and is accessed by a causeway on the western side (most Khmer temples have entrances on the eastern side, so this west-facing entrance is unique).

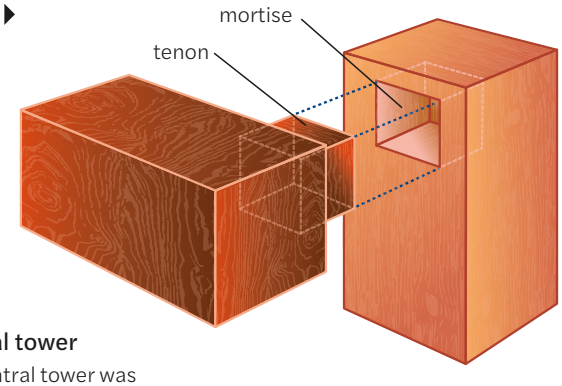
The temple itself is a series of four-sided enclosures with covered terraces, with each terrace higher than the last. The last and highest platform serves as the base for the five conical towers representing the heavenly peaks of Mount Meru. Originally, the shrine in the central tower had a statue of Vishnu, but when the Khmer Empire converted to Theravada Buddhism, the shrine was walled in and the new walls featured images of standing Buddhas.

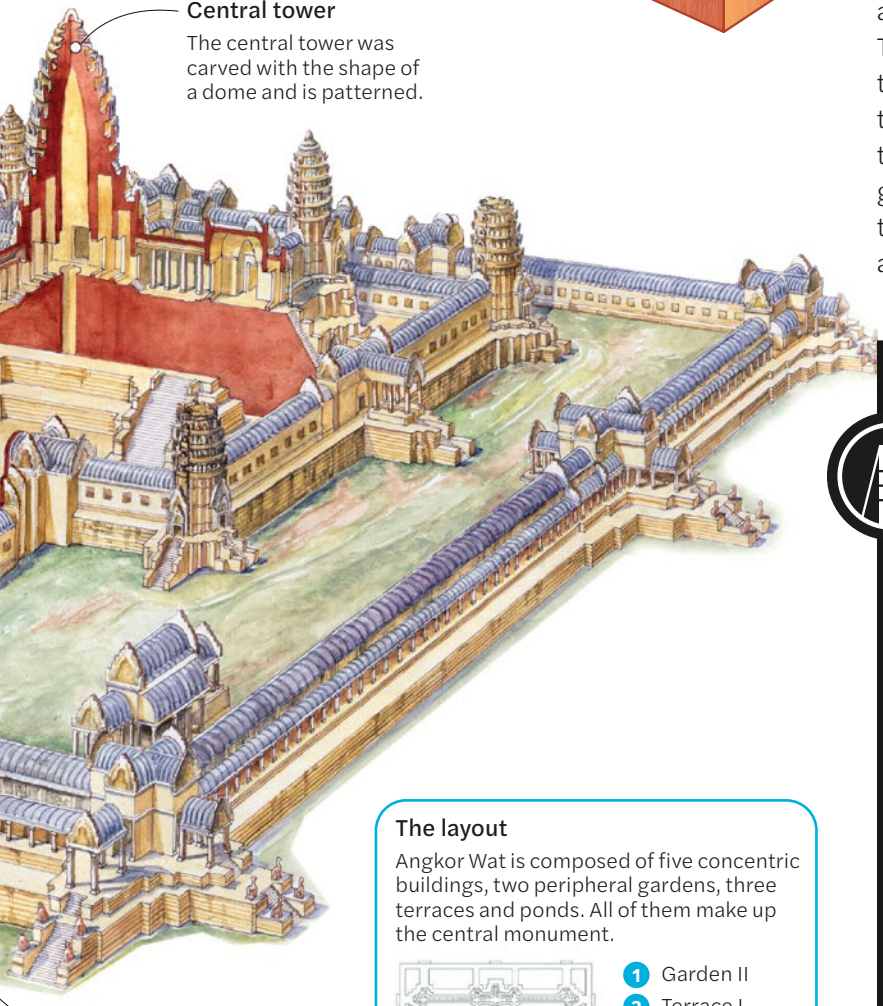
Source 1: In the 12th century CE, during the height of the Khmer Empire 's power, Suryavarman II ordered the building of a temple-palace. He offered it to Vishnu, a god of Khmer Hinduism, because it was believed that Suryavarman II was the god's reincarnation on Earth.



Like all religious monuments from the Khmer period, the temple is built of stone. The huge sandstone blocks are held together by mortise and tenon joints and also by interlocking joints, known as dovetailing. Thousands of builders and stone masons would have been needed to build the temple.

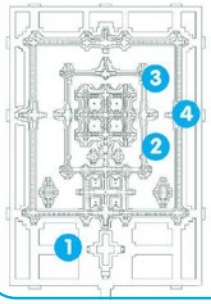
Source 2: ▶
A mortise and tenon joint





The layout

Angkor Wat is composed of five concentric buildings, two peripheral gardens, three terraces and ponds. All of them make up the central monument.



1. Garden II
2. Terrace I
3. Terrace II
4. Terrace III

The legacy of Angkor Wat

Angkor Wat is a valuable site for historians and archaeologists. Almost all the surfaces of the temple are covered in carvings. Bas-reliefs on the wall of the terraces depict scenes from Indian mythology and scenes of King Suryavarman II's court and military deeds.

Each bas-relief is approximately two metres high; together they add up to about 700 metres, which is the longest continuous bas-relief in the world. Bronze sheets may once have decorated the walls too. These bas-reliefs provide historians with a range of useful information, showing the clothing, weapons, army units, beliefs and practices of the Khmer period.

Angkor Wat was completed 800 years ago. Even though gigantic trees now grow all over the temple, its grandeur is still plain to see. What are no longer visible are the colours that once featured on these monuments. Thanks to the work of archaeologists, we know that the towers of Angkor Wat were covered in gold. It is also likely that many of the stone and bronze statues scattered throughout the Angkor Wat complex were covered in gold. Archaeologists have been able to determine how the temples were constructed, what resources were available at the time and what technologies were used.

Learning ladder 12.10

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the name of the king who built Angkor Wat.
2. Describe the layout of the Angkor Wat temple complex.
3. Source 2: Explain how the stones were held together.
4. Explain why the Angkor Wat bas-reliefs are useful for historians.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the main features of Angkor Wat.
2. Source 1: Describe the significance of the corner towers.
3. Explain how Angkor Wat demonstrates the power of King Suryavarman II.
4. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why Angkor Wat is a historically significant site.

HOW TO

Signficance, page 486

How did the Khmer Empire defend itself?

Hundreds of bas-relief carvings across Angkor/Yaśodharapura record great battles won by the Khmer army and navy. The Khmer Empire was a war-like society that often clashed with the neighbouring kingdom of Champa.

War and warfare

While relations with China were good during the Khmer Empire, Khmer armies were often engaged in military campaigns against other neighbours, particularly the Chams and Viets. Through conquest, the Khmers subdued and ruled much of mainland South-East Asia for 500 years.

The Khmer armies are well documented on the bas-reliefs on the temples of the empire. Historians have studied these and have learned many of the aspects of Khmer warcraft. For the most part, the Khmers were very successful in warfare.

Military organisation

It is likely that the Khmers were aware of the important ancient Indian texts on warfare, such as the *Arthashastra*, and the models suggested in the Indian epics the 'Ramayana' and the 'Mahabharata'.

The Indian military was based on four corps: infantry, cavalry, chariots and elephants. However, because of the conditions in Cambodia not all of these corps were practical. Cavalry and chariots were used by the Khmers in the early days of the empire but evidence suggests their use was later abandoned. This was probably because Cambodia is waterlogged for at least half of the year and chariots could become bogged. Unlike horses, elephants were available locally, and for a time they were used by the Khmers as a type of war machine with arrow- and spear-firing mechanisms strapped to their backs.

The backbone of the Khmer armies was its infantry. Trained from a young age, the infantry could be depended on to march long distances and win battles, and their ranks were enlarged from time to time with mercenaries from neighbouring states.

Another area of the military that differed from Indian models was the Khmer navy. We know from temple carvings that the Khmers constructed large open boats that were propelled by oarsmen as they did battle on Tonlé Sap Lake. These boats were probably about 20 metres long and were likely constructed from huge rainforest trees that had been hollowed out. Since no actual boats survive, these lengths and materials have been estimated from the bas-relief carvings.

Khmer Empire and surrounding states

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** The Khmer Empire, c. 900 CE

Source 2: This bas-relief carving depicts a battle scene with an elephant at the Banyon, the state temple of Jayavarman VII in the city of Angkor/Yaśodharapura.

At the raised prow and stern (front and back) the boats had carvings of mythical beings such as Garudas, Apsaras, Nagas, Kalas and Makaras. These carvings were probably used to scare enemies and as morale boosters. Some boats, probably those of the king or admiral, also had elephant tusks at the front that may have been used to ram enemy ships.

▼ **Source 3:** A naval battle between the Khmers and the Chams, Bayon Temple, Angkor Thom, c. 1200 CE

Learning ladder 12.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the Khmers' main enemies.
2. What were the main corps of the Khmer military?
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how the Khmers used elephants in their armies.
4. Sources 2 and 3: Explain how historians know about the structure of the Khmer army and the nature of Khmer war ships.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the effect of the Khmers' warfare on the Chams and Viets.
2. Outline the reason why the Khmers changed the organisation of their military.
3. Source 3: Explain why the Khmers carved mythical beings onto the prow and stern of their war ships.
4. Explain the causes of the Khmers' success in warfare.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

Why did the Khmer Empire decline?

In the 15th century, the Khmers abandoned their capital at Angkor and moved to Phnom Penh in the south. Modern-day historians point to several reasons for this change. These include the growth of the empire's neighbours, changes in the environment, and economic decline.

The lost city

In 1859 CE, the French explorer Henri Mouhot was led by Cambodian guides to the temples in the city of Angkor/Yaśodharapura. Mouhot's writings popularised the view among Europeans that he had found a lost city abandoned long ago by an ancient society. As it turns out, none of these notions was correct. More accurately, the empire slowly lost influence and importance over an extended period of time.

Rise of the Tai

For much of the history of the Khmer Empire, the Chams to the east were the main threat. However, after the ultimate defeat of the Chams by Jayavarman VII in 1181 CE, a new enemy, the Tai kingdom of Ayutthaya (in a region of present-day Thailand not under Khmer rule), began conducting raids on Khmer cities. The Ayutthaya kingdom repeatedly attacked the Khmer capital during the 14th and 15th centuries. In 1394 CE, they had even managed to briefly place an Ayutthayan prince on the Khmer throne, but the Khmers assassinated him and recaptured Angkor.

In 1431 CE, however, the Ayutthaya kingdom attacked Angkor again. This time they wreaked such devastation on the city that more than half the population was killed. The Khmers decided to abandon the city and move their capital south to Phnom Penh.

Did the Khmer Empire collapse in 1431 CE?

Certainly after 1431 CE the Khmer Empire was no longer the dominant regional power it had been, but neither did it suddenly collapse. Khmer kings came back to the region to rule on several occasions in the 16th century CE. In addition, the region around the temple was still inhabited in the 18th century CE, indicating that Angkor/Yaśodharapura was not quite the 'lost city' that it was later believed to be.

Climate change

The Khmer Empire was established in one of the region's food bowls, which was abundant in rice and fish. This was probably assisted by a stable climate of above-average rainfall between the 9th and 13th centuries CE, during what is known as the medieval warm period.

Immediately after this period, the environment was affected by what is known as the medieval climate anomaly, which was a much drier period with less rainfall. This may have altered conditions so that rice was not as easy to grow and fish not as plentiful. This drier period was responsible for a succession of droughts that may have damaged

Source 1: The fall of Angkor/ Yaśodharapura in 1431 CE was a three-year siege by the kingdom of Ayutthaya. The city was sacked for its wealth. The Khmers moved their capital south to Phnom Penh in 1434 CE.

Source 2: Ta Prohm is a temple located one kilometre east of Angkor Thom. It was built in the late 12th century CE by King Jayavarman VII as a Buddhist monastery. After it was abandoned, the jungle reclaimed the area.

the system of reservoirs and canals that made up the Khmer Empire's irrigation system.

Historians and archaeologists have suggested that the large barays became clogged with silt, as did many of the canals that linked the barays to the rice fields.

Changes in trade

The current capital of Cambodia, Phnom Penh, has been occupied since before the time of the Khmer Empire. It is located in south Cambodia at the top of the Mekong Delta, where the Tonlé Sap River branches off the Mekong River, which splits again into the Bassac River. In the mid-16th century CE, Phnom Penh was a thriving port city that took advantage of the increasing maritime trade in South-East Asia. This shift in trading patterns meant that people preferred the trading opportunities available in the south of Cambodia rather than the Angkor region in the north.

Resource management

Australian archaeologist Roland Fletcher has noted that by the 1200s CE, timber was scarce in the Khmer Empire. Timber was used to construct houses and the scaffolding for large building projects. With the decline of forest resources, more people were encouraged to move south to find work, resources and farming opportunities. Trade goods sourced from the forests, such as resins, sandalwood and oils, became more scarce as the forests shrunk, resulting in declining income from trade.

Legacies of the Khmer Empire

Much of what we know about the Khmer Empire has been reconstructed by archaeologists and historians over the last 150 years.

Scientists have learned a great deal from archaeologists' investigations of the Khmer Empire's water-management system. Today, the genius of this scheme, and the lessons to be learned from the role of water management in the empire's decline, are being applied in water-management schemes across South-East Asia. Angkor/Yaśodharapura is also of interest in the modern world due to the effect of **climate change** on the decline of its society.

Today, after decades of war, Cambodia is at peace with itself and its neighbours. The temples of the Angkor region attract millions of visitors every year and the region is recognised as a world heritage site.

Learning ladder 12.12

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the group who defeated the Khmers in 1431 CE.
2. Source 1: Describe the fall of Angkor in 1431 CE.
3. Explain how changing patterns of trade affected the Khmer Empire.
4. Explain why environmental issues contributed to the decline of the Khmer Empire.
5. Evaluate the legacy of the Khmer Empire.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate over the reasons for the decline of the Khmer Empire.
2. Describe the evidence that shows that the empire itself did not entirely collapse after the sack of Angkor in 1431 CE.
3. Explain Roland Fletcher's argument about the decline of the Khmer Empire.
4. Explain why there is so much debate over the cause of the Khmer Empire's decline.
5. Evaluate the evidence presented here. What is the most plausible reason for the decline of the Khmer Empire?

HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the Khmer Empire. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of the Khmer Empire. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the Khmer Empire in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The construction of the barays, 12.7, 12.4
- Angkor Thom or Banteay Srei temples, 12.9
- Angkor Wat bas-reliefs, 12.10
- Khmer battles with the Chams, 12.11
- The rise of the Ayutthaya kingdom, 12.12

Return to the relevant sections in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

13

Japan under the shōguns (c. 794–1867)

How can I understand Japan under the shōguns?

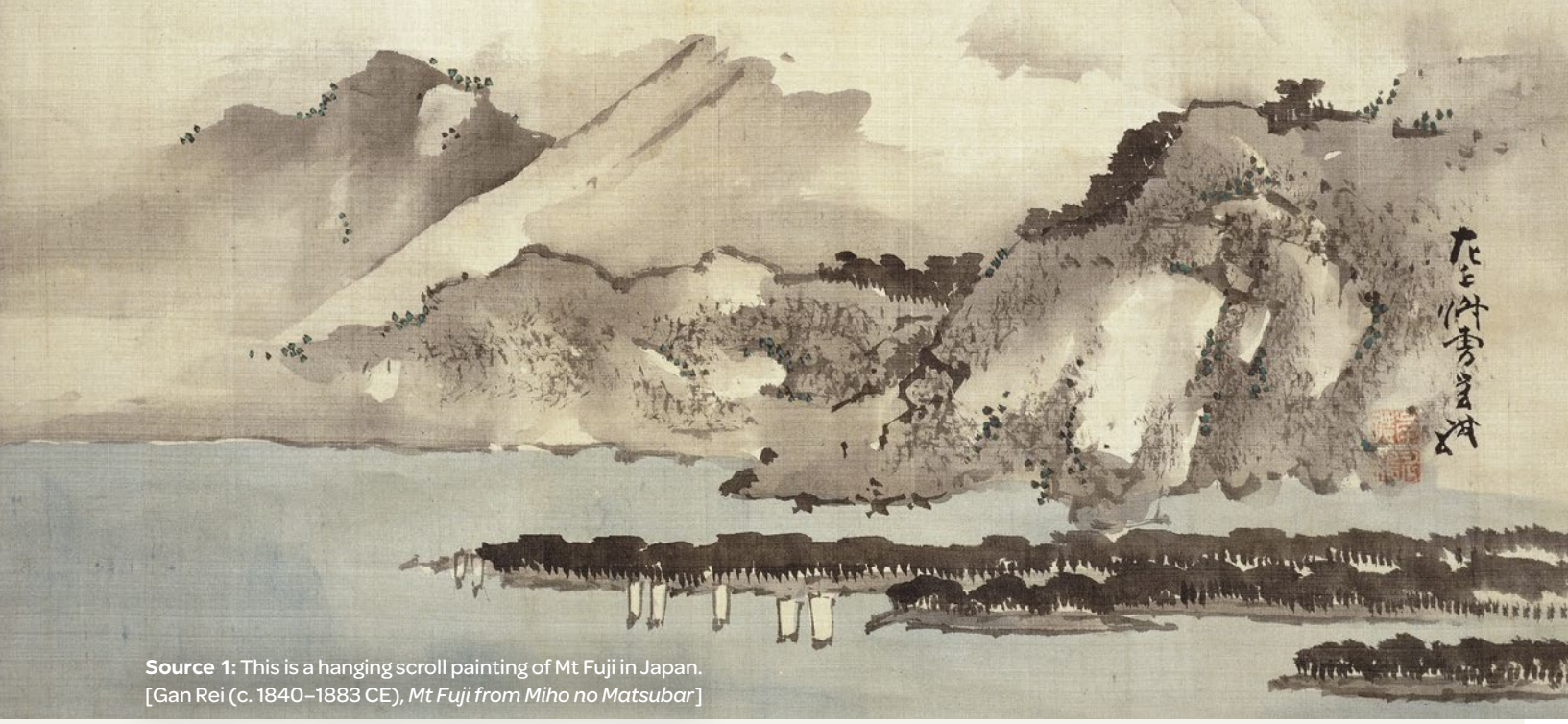
At the beginning of the medieval period, Japan was ruled by an emperor. From the end of the 12th century CE, however, warlords known as shōguns ruled Japan. The shōguns controlled Japan for the next 650 years.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: This is a hanging scroll painting of Mt Fuji in Japan.
[Gan Rei (c. 1840–1883 CE), *Mt Fuji from Miho no Matsubar*]

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

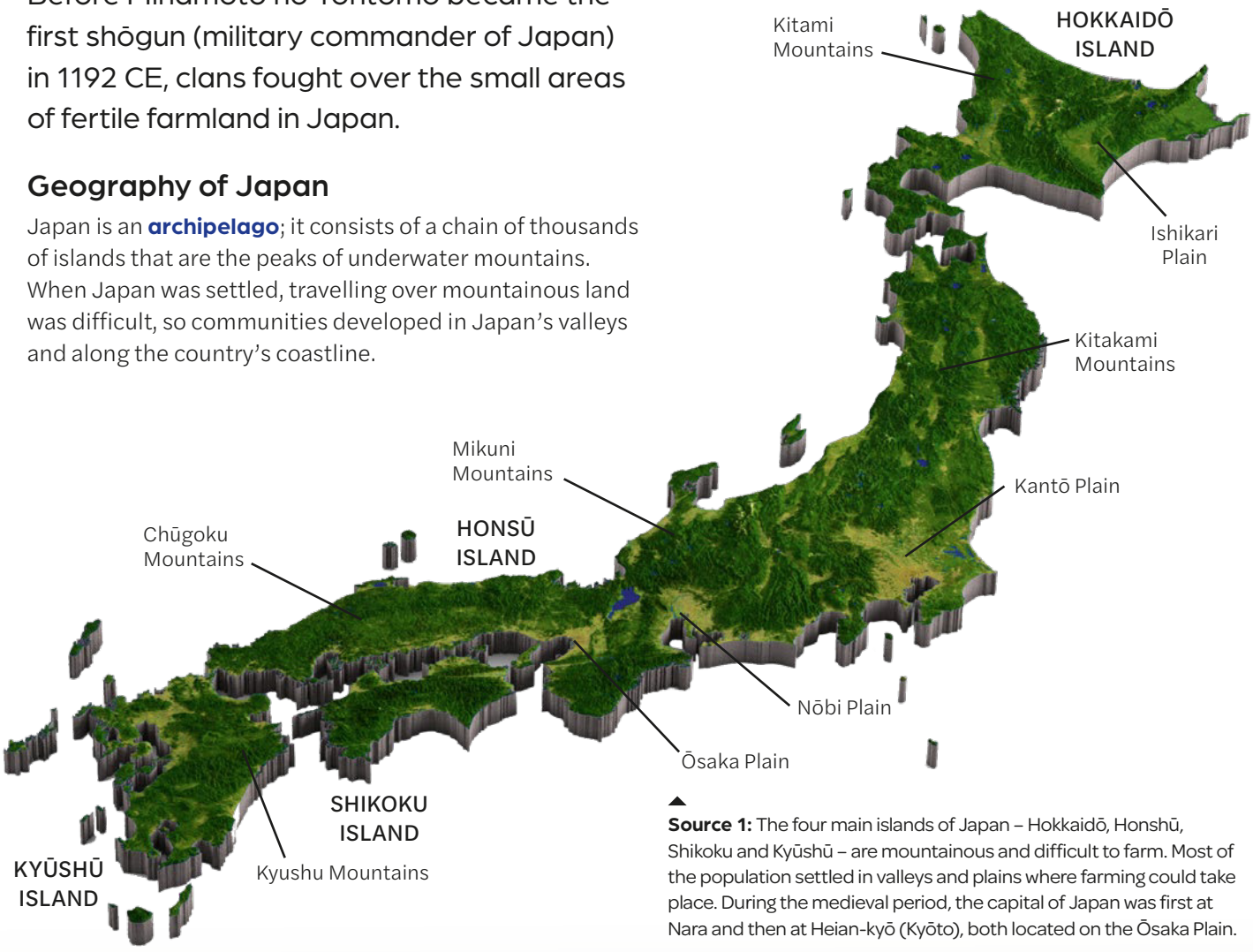
Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What was life like in Japan before the shōguns?

Before Minamoto no Yoritomo became the first shōgun (military commander of Japan) in 1192 CE, clans fought over the small areas of fertile farmland in Japan.

Geography of Japan

Japan is an **archipelago**; it consists of a chain of thousands of islands that are the peaks of underwater mountains. When Japan was settled, travelling over mountainous land was difficult, so communities developed in Japan's valleys and along the country's coastline.



Source 1: The four main islands of Japan – Hokkaidō, Honshū, Shikoku and Kyūshū – are mountainous and difficult to farm. Most of the population settled in valleys and plains where farming could take place. During the medieval period, the capital of Japan was first at Nara and then at Heian-kyō (Kyōto), both located on the Ōsaka Plain.

Key ideas timeline

525 CE – Buddhism arrives in Japan

c. 1010 CE – The first novel was written (*The Tale of Genji*)

1192 CE – Minamoto no Yoritomo becomes the first shōgun

1274 CE – First failed Mongol invasion of Japan

1281 CE – Second failed Mongol invasion of Japan

Nara period: Establishment of the capital 710–794 CE

Heian period: flourishing of art and literature 794–1185 CE

Kamakura period: Japan under military control 1192 CE–1333 CE

Source 2: Japan under the shōguns timeline

Japanese clans

From the 4th century CE, there were small, isolated, separate communities scattered across Japan. These were made up of different ***uji***. An uji was a group of people related by blood or by marriage. Each uji was led by a chief who provided protection. Wars between rival uji broke out regularly over access to Japan's scarce farmland.

Around 400 CE, the powerful Yamato clan controlled the Ōsaka Plain, which is one of the few large agricultural areas in Japan. As the Yamato's military strength grew, other clan leaders promised loyalty to the Yamato chief and recognised him as their supreme leader. The Yamato chiefs had solidified their power by the 6th century, and from 539 CE were recognised as emperors. An emperor or empress continued to rule Japan until the 8th century.

The Nara period (710–794 CE)

By the beginning of the 8th century CE, Japan was becoming a more centralised, complex state. The capital of Japan was established at Nara by Empress Genmei (707–715 CE). Modelled on the famous city of Chang'an (now X'ian) in China, Nara soon boasted a population of 200 000 people.

The Heian period (794 to 1185 CE)

In 794 CE, Emperor Kammu moved the official capital city of Japan from Nara to Heian-kyō (renamed Kyōto in the 11th century CE). This marked the start of the Heian period, which lasted for nearly 400 years.

Empresses no longer reigned in Japan. From this point, only emperors were allowed to rule. The Heian period also saw the rise of the military class, which grew steadily more powerfui.

Learning ladder 13.1

Background and origins

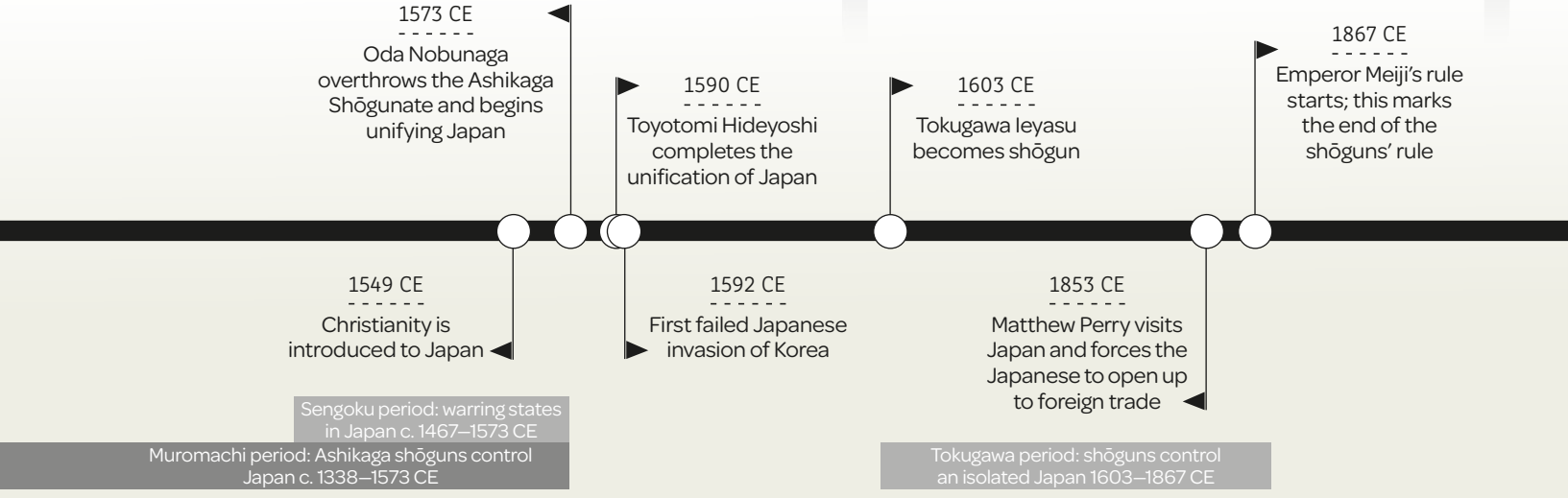
1. Source 1: Identify the four main islands of Japan.
2. Source 1: Describe Japan's physical features.
3. Explain how Japanese society was organised in the 4th century CE.
4. Source 1: Explain why control of the Ōsaka Plain was important to Japan's rulers.

Chronology

1. Source 2: Identify the dates of the two attempted Mongol invasions of Japan.
2. Put the following events into chronological order:
   - 1600 CE: Battle of Sekigahara
   - 1180–1185 CE: Genpei War
   - 1467–1573 CE: Sengoku period
   - 1336 CE: Battle of Minatogawa
   - 1331–1333 CE: Genko War.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Source 2: Explain how this timeline demonstrates continuity and change.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472



13.2

Key individual

Who was Murasaki Shikibu?

Murasaki Shikibu was a Japanese writer and lady-in-waiting during the Heian period. In c. 1010 CE, she wrote the world's first novel, called *The Tale of Genji*.

Murasaki's identity

Murasaki Shikibu was born in c. 978 CE in Heian-kyō (Kyōto) into a noble family. Many historians believe she was born into the powerful Fujiwara clan.

The name Murasaki Shikibu is a pen name. 'Murasaki' is the name of a plant that produces a purple dye, while 'Shikibu' means 'Bureau of Ceremonial' and refers to a post once held by the writer's father. Her real name is unknown.

Source 1: This image is based on a legend stating that Murasaki Shikibu was inspired to write *The Tale of Genji* on an August night while looking at the Moon, during a visit to the temple Ishiyama-dera at Lake Biwa. [Harunobu Suzuki (1767 CE), *Murasaki Shikibu at Ishiyama-dera*]

Murasaki's education

Many members of Murasaki's family were well-educated poets and scholars. As a noblewoman, Murasaki received an education. She was taught poetry, calligraphy, music and Japanese script, known as *kana*. When Murasaki was young, in the late 10th century CE, kana was only beginning to develop. It was mainly used by noblewomen to write letters and poetry. Most noblemen learned to write using Chinese script. During the early medieval period in Japan, Chinese script was used by government officials to write official documents. Noblewomen had only a limited knowledge of Chinese.

Murasaki's brother, Nobunori, was taught Chinese to prepare him for a role in government. Murasaki learned Chinese by listening to her brother recite his lessons. She proved to be so skilled at the language that her father decided to allow her to have lessons too, and she quickly excelled. However, since it was considered 'unladylike' for a Japanese woman to be fluent in Chinese, Murasaki did not flaunt her knowledge of the language.

The Tale of Genji

Murasaki married a nobleman named Fujiwara no Nobutaka, who was a much older distant cousin. In 1001 CE, only two years after their marriage, Murasaki's husband died of the disease cholera. After his death, Murasaki began her career as a writer.

She wrote *The Tale of Genji*, which is a story about the life of a Japanese prince who is removed from the line of succession by his father, the emperor, and lives his life as a commoner named Minamoto.

The Tale of Genji is considered to be one of the greatest works of Japanese literature. Not only is it recognised as the world's first novel, but it also vividly describes the customs and practices of Japanese nobles in the 11th century CE.

Murasaki gave copies of her book to her friends who passed it on to their friends. Through this practice, Murasaki became a famous author: her story became known throughout the Heian court and the noble families of the provinces.

Source 3: Murasaki Shikibu, featured on a card for a game based on the classical Japanese collection called *One Hundred Poets*, c. 1750 CE

Life in the imperial court

In 1005 CE, Murasaki was summoned to serve at the imperial Japanese court as a lady-in-waiting. In the 11th century CE, Japanese ladies-in-waiting were noblewomen who educated, entertained and organised the affairs of the ladies in the royal household. Murasaki was appointed by Fujiwara no Michinaga, a powerful official, to educate his daughter, Shōshi, the wife of Emperor Ichijō from 1000 to his death in 1011 CE.

Shōshi was very interested in Chinese art and poetry and Murasaki began teaching her Chinese script. Although these lessons were secret, Emperor Ichijō and Shōshi's father found out about them. However, they decided that Shōshi's knowledge of Chinese was valuable for the emperor and so her father had a range of Chinese texts copied for the women.

While living at the imperial court, Murasaki wrote *The Diary of Lady Murasaki*, a work that includes poems and short stories about Shōshi and her children. After five or six years at court, Murasaki retired to Lake Biwa. She died in 1014 CE.

> The Queen made me read [to her] the poetical works of Chinese poet Li T'ai Po, and as she wished to learn them, I have been teaching her since the Summer of two years ago, the second and third volumes of that collection, very secretly when none were present. Her Majesty and I tried to conceal it, but His Majesty the Emperor and her father [Fujiwara no Michinaga] found out. Her father then presented to the Queen many poetical books which he had had copied.

Source 2: This text is from *The Diary of Lady Murasaki*, which Murasaki Shikibu wrote between 1007 and 1010 CE.

Murasaki's legacy

Murasaki's poetry and her novel have lived on since her death. She was recognised as one of Japan's foremost poets in the *One Hundred Poets* collection, compiled in c. 1200 CE. Her novel was studied by Japanese scholars from the 12th century CE onwards and translated into hundreds of languages. Images based on *The Tale of Genji* have been created as woodblock prints, scroll paintings and screen paintings since 1110 CE. Along with other Heian women writers, Murasaki was also instrumental in the development of Japanese kana.

Learning ladder 13.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the person in the image.
2. Describe Murasaki Shikibu's education.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how women in Japan were prevented from accessing political power.
4. Explain why Murasaki Shikibu's education was unusual at the time.

Significance

1. Identify two of Murasaki's famous works.
2. Describe how Murasaki became a famous author.
3. Explain why *The Tale of Genji* is significant.
4. Source 3: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Murasaki Shikibu was significant.
5. Analyse the importance of Murasaki's education and class to her being a historically significant woman.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

13.3

Why did the shōguns take control of Japan?

Japan's powerful noble families – known as the *daimyō* class – had a long history of influencing the Japanese imperial family. In 1192 CE, a daimyō rose to become Japan's first shōgun.

The power behind the throne

During the Heian period from 794 to 1185 CE, Japan was ruled by an **emperor** whose seat of government was the **imperial court** in Heian-kyō (Kyōto). However, the real power was held by the powerful Fujiwara clan, headed by the Fujiwara daimyō. Members of this noble Japanese family controlled most of the key roles in the imperial court and were governors of many provinces. Many Fujiwara women married emperors.

If an emperor died before his son was old enough to rule, a member of the Fujiwara family ruled as **regent** until the child was old enough.

Wrestling for power

Towards the end of the Heian period, the struggle for power between the largest **daimyō** clans intensified. The Minamoto, Taira and Tachibana clans resented the influence of the Fujiwara clan. The four powerful clans often fought each other over land, using their powerful **samurai** armies. They also tried to undermine members of the Fujiwara clan at court.

Emperor Go-Sanjō (reigned 1068–1073 CE) also resented the Fujiwara clan's power. In an attempt to regain control of his throne, Emperor Go-Sanjō appointed members of the rival Minamoto clan to his court in order to reduce the power of the Fujiwara clan.

By the middle of the 12th century CE, the Fujiwara clan had lost most of its power over the imperial court, leaving the Taira and Minamoto clans to fight for supremacy.

The first shōgun

Rivalry between the Minamoto and Taira clans finally erupted in the Genpei War (1180–1185 CE). The Minamoto clan emerged victorious, and in 1192 CE its daimyō, Minamoto no Yoritomo, was appointed to the position of **shōgun** (supreme leader of the armed forces) by Emperor Go-Toba (reigned 1183–1198 CE).

This marked a major turning point in Japanese history. Minamoto's military power enabled him to establish a new form of government, known as a **shōgunate**. The emperor, meanwhile, would be gradually reduced to merely a ceremonial head of state. Japan was ruled by shōguns for the next 675 years.

Source 1: This drawing is of Emperor Go-Toba, who was the emperor of Japan from 1183 to 1198 CE.

Source 2: Minamoto no Yoritomo became shōgun in 1192 CE and set up his shōgunate in the city of Kamakura while the emperor stayed in Heian-kyō. [Painting by H.M. Burton from Hutchinson (1915 CE), *History of the Nations*]

The Kamakura Shōgunate

Minamoto no Yoritomo established his base of government in Kamakura. He then appointed district stewards and constables to govern the provinces of Japan on his behalf. This greatly undermined the authority and power of the emperor.

He also rewarded his daimyō supporters with land in exchange for their ongoing military support. This established a system of **feudalism** and ensured that Minamoto had military control over Japan. It also made the samurai class more prestigious.

The Kamakura Shōgunate ruled Japan for the next 141 years.

Learning ladder 13.3

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the emperor in this image.
2. Describe the role of the Fujiwara clan.
3. Explain how the Fujiwara clan lost its power.
4. Explain why the Minamoto clan rose to power.
5. Evaluate the benefits and disadvantages of powerful daimyō families in Heian Japan.

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify the significant leader in this image.
2. Describe the medieval cities of Heian-kyō and Kamakura.
3. Explain how the emperor's role in Japan changed after 1192 CE.
4. Explain why the Fujiwara clan were significant in Heian Japan.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

13.4

How was medievalJapanese society organised?

Shōgunate Japan was organised according to the feudal system, where all people had rights and obligations. Society was organised in a strict hierarchy, from the shōgun and rich daimyō down to the lowly merchants.

Feudalism in medieval Japan

Under the rule of the shōguns, feudalism in Japan was similar to the model in Europe. Feudalism required a strict hierarchy of social classes organised from the most to the least important members of society. People knew what was expected of them and there was no social mobility.

Feudalism worked on a system of rights and responsibilities for each class in society.

Source 1: This is a modern-day photo of Himeji Castle in Japan. In the battles for control of Japan, emperors and shōguns rewarded their samurai and daimyō supporters with land to build castles. In 1333 CE, Emperor Go-Daigo gave land for a castle to samurai Akamatsu Norimura. Then, in 1601 CE, shōgun Tokugawa Ieyasu awarded the site to daimyō Ikeda Terumasa, who built the present castle between 1601 and 1609 CE.

Emperor

The emperor was at the highest level of Japanese society. He lived in the Imperial Palace in Heian-kyō (Kyōto). The emperor was the spiritual head of the country, but after 1192 CE his role was mainly ceremonial. As a descendant of Amaterasu, he provided a living connection with the gods and brought a sense of continuity and legitimacy to the shōgun's government.

Shōgun

The shōgun was the actual leader of Japan, and owned one-quarter of the land in the country. Shōguns ruled Japan from 1192 until 1867 CE. The shōgun was formally appointed by the emperor.

Daimyō

The shōgun provided land (called a **domain**) to powerful lords known as daimyō. Each daimyō hired an army of samurai warriors to protect his property. These armies were made available to the shōgun when he needed them. The daimyō received taxes and labour from peasants living in his province.

Samurai

The samurai were Japanese warriors who swore an oath of loyalty to serve and protect their daimyō. They followed a code of conduct called *Bushidō* that highlighted honour, courage and military skill. In return, samurai were paid in rice and given a fief (land) and peasants to work their land.

A *rōnin* was a samurai who had no daimyō master, because his master had died, or because he had behaved dishonourably and been dismissed from his master's service. Rōnin had no land or income and were considered to be low-status members of society.

Peasants

Peasants were farmers or fishers. Peasants made up 80 per cent of the population of feudal Japan. Peasants were in a higher class than artisans or merchants because producing food for the community was highly valued.

Artisans

Artisans made goods, weapons and tools. Artisans had a low status in society because their products, while useful, were not regarded as being as essential for life.

Merchants

Merchants traded goods and lent money. They had a low social status because they did not make anything of value, and they profited from the hard work of others. Despite their low social status, merchants were often very wealthy.

Outcasts

There were two groups of outcasts at the bottom of feudal Japanese society: the *eta* and *hinin*.

- The eta performed tasks considered distasteful such as tanning hides, butchering animals, preparing bodies for burial and executing prisoners.
- The hinin were undesirable people, such as street cleaners, beggars, former criminals and street performers.

Source 2: The groups in feudal Japanese society

Learning ladder 13.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the main groups of people in feudal Japanese society.
2. Source 2: Describe the two types of outcasts in feudal Japanese society.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Explain the rights and responsibilities of the samurai.
4. Source 2: Explain why merchants had a lower social status than peasants in medieval Japan.
5. Evaluate the benefits and disadvantages of the feudal social structure.

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Identify how the leadership of Japan changed.
2. Describe how the presence of the emperor provided continuity in medieval Japan.
3. Explain how the life of a samurai changed if he became a rōnin.
4. Explain why the shōguns did not abolish the emperor.

Continuity and change, page 477

HOW TO

13.5

What were the roles of women in medieval Japan?

In medieval Japan, women were expected to marry and run their households. They also fought as warriors and became highly respected *geisha*.

A lifetime of service

In medieval Japan, women were expected to serve men throughout their lifetime. A girl obeyed her father; a wife obeyed her husband; and if a woman became a widow, she obeyed her son. A married woman was expected to have a son to carry on her husband's family name. Women in medieval Japan were not allowed to divorce or to remarry if they were widowed.

Women from higher social classes had less freedom than lower-status women. A noblewoman's husband was chosen by her family as a business deal to create an alliance with another family and to improve her family's social status and wealth. While women in lower social classes faced more hardships, they had more freedom to choose their partners than noblewomen.

Onna-musha (female samurai)

The men and women born into the samurai class were all trained to fight. ***Onna-musha*** used weapons called *naginata*, which were small daggers or poles with blades at the end. A famous onna-musha was the warrior Tomoe Gozen; she is described in the *Tale of Heike*, which was compiled in the 14th century CE and is based on traditional stories told by monks.

Japanese women also fought in all-female cavalry units during the Genpei War between the Taira and Minamoto clans (1180–1185 CE) and in the many battles of the Sengoku period (1467–1573 CE).

> She [Tomoe Gozen] handled unbroken horses with superb skill; she rode unscathed down perilous descents. Whenever a battle was imminent, Yoshinaka sent her out as his first captain, equipped with strong armour, an oversized sword, and a mighty bow; and she performed more deeds of valour than any of his other warriors.
>
> **Source 1:** *Tale of Heike*, compiled before 1330 CE

After the rise of the Tokugawa shōguns at the start of the 17th century CE, onna-musha were less likely to fight in battles. However, they still defended their homes and lands. With their samurai husbands away for long periods, it was up to the women to protect their homes and children and to take revenge when required. Samurai women also oversaw the crops and food supplies and managed servants.

Geisha

With white make-up, red lips and silk kimonos, ***geisha*** are still associated with Japan. Since around 600 CE, geisha have been highly trained entertainers, skilled in Japanese dance, poetry and playing musical instruments.

In medieval Japan, geisha were highly respected and were even used by members of the daimyō class to spy on or assassinate rival lords.

1 Apply white face-powder paste to your face, chest and neck.

2 Draw eyebrows with pencil and apply red eye shadow to corners of the eyes.

3 Apply red lipstick.

Source 2: Geisha are Japanese women who earn a living through entertaining mainly male audiences. They were highly regarded in medieval Japanese society. Geisha wear silk kimonos, and distinctive white and red make-up.

Before becoming a geisha, a young girl was a ***maiko***. Girls began training to become geisha around the age of six. Maiko learned how to sing, play instruments, hold witty conversations, conduct the traditional tea ceremony and perform traditional dances.

Geisha were expected to be single. They remained unmarried and were viewed as independent workers who earned their own money from entertaining clients. Any geisha who married had to leave the geisha house.

Source 3: A 19th-century-CE Japanese artist has painted a scene from the Battle of Awazu in 1184 CE: Tomoe Gozen kills her enemy while on horseback. She fought in the conflicts that led to the first shōgunate in Japan. [Yōshū Chikanobu (1899 CE), *Tomoe Gozen with Uchida Ieyoshi and Hatakeyama no Shigetada*]

Learning ladder 13.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 3: Identify the role of women shown in this source.
2. Describe the onna-musha.
3. Explain the purpose of marriage in the higher social classes in medieval Japan.
4. Compare the lives of onna-musha and geisha in medieval Japan.
5. How powerful were the geisha in medieval Japanese society?

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 2: Describe how the geisha applied their make-up.
3. Source 1: Explain how this source was created.
4. Sources 1 and 3: Using these sources and your knowledge, describe the life of Tomoe Gozen.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

How does Japanese art and culture reflect beliefs?

Japanese arts and culture, gardens and martial arts are greatly influenced by the ancient Japanese Shintō religion and by introduced religions such as Buddhism.

Shintō

Shintō is Japan's ancient religion. Followers of Shintō believe in sacred ancestral spirits known as ***kami***, who take on many natural forms such as the Sun, hills, rocks, lakes, rivers and trees. All people, animals, places and things are believed to possess kami. Japanese people go to Shintō shrines to pray for good fortune or good health. They enter the Shintō shrine through a special gateway, called a torii. The torii separates the everyday world from the spiritual world.

Buddhism

Buddhism arrived in Japan from China in 525 CE. The form of Buddhism practised in Japan is called Zen Buddhism. Zen Buddhism is a form of Buddhism that promotes mindfulness (staying focused on the present moment) through meditation. Often, Zen Buddhists meditate on *koans*. Koans are special stories or questions that are designed to help meditation, such as 'What is the sound of one hand clapping?' The object of the koan is not to find an 'answer' but to meditate on the question.

Another aid to meditation is the Zen garden. Zen gardens are specifically designed to help people reflect on the present moment. They have carefully placed rocks and moss surrounded by sand or gravel that is raked to represent ripples in water.

Martial arts

Both Zen Buddhism and Shintō are closely related to the development of Japanese martial arts, such as judo, karate, kendo, ninjutsu and ***sumō***. Samurai warriors embraced Zen Buddhism's principles of mindfulness in martial arts, which encouraged self-discipline and rising above fear. Shintō also influenced martial arts with fighters encouraged to fight for ancestral spirits.

Source 1: The main torii (gateway) at Fushimi Inari Taisha, a shrine in Kyōto, Japan

Sumō (wrestling)

Sumō is the Japanese word for 'wrestling'. Sumō is steeped in Shintō traditions and symbols. Referees dress in the style of Shintō priests and – before sumō became a professional sport during the time of the Tokugawa Shōgunate (1603—1867 CE)– it was performed in the grounds of a Shintō temple. The wrestling ring (***dohyō***) symbolises Earth and is considered to be sacred. The day before a sumō tournament, sumō judges, called ***gyōji***, perform a ring-blessing ceremony. Dressed in the white robes of Shintō priests, the gyōji purify the dohyō with salt. Sake, a traditional Japanese alcoholic drink, is poured around the ring as an offering to the kami.

Source 3: Sumō wrestlers, known as *rikishi*, need to develop strength, fast reflexes and balance.

Source 2: Zen gardens like this one are structured around seven guiding principles: austerity (not being grand), simplicity, naturalness (letting nature grow how it will), subtlety (symbolic elements), asymmetry, unconventionality and stillness.

Learning ladder 13.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the two main religions in Japan.
2. Describe the nature of Japan's ancient religion.
3. Source 2: Explain how this source demonstrates three elements of Zen garden design.
4. Explain why the samurai embraced Zen Buddhism.
5. Evaluate the importance of mindful meditation in Zen Buddhism.

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify the intended effect of Zen gardens.
2. Describe the effect of koans.
3. Explain how the Shintō religion influenced sumō.
4. Explain why people in Japan might visit a Shintō shrine.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

13.7

How did the samurai help keep the peace in feudal Japan?

During the time of the shōguns in Japan, the warrior class was a powerful force. The word 'samurai' means 'one who serves'. From around 900 to 1600 CE, these highly trained and loyal warriors enforced law and order for their daimyō and fought for the shōgun.

The mighty samurai

As part of the feudal system, the samurai gave their services as warriors to the daimyō in return for grants of land. Samurai not only kept the peace in their lord's domain, but they were also called on to protect the domain from invading forces or to attack a rival lord.

The samurai were highly skilled in martial arts. For the samurai, a battle was a matter of personal and family honour. When two opposing samurai fought, they charged at each other on horseback, slashing with their long swords called *katana*. When they dismounted, they fought hand-to-hand combat using two swords: their katana and a short sword called a wakizashi.

To be a samurai, you had to be born into a samurai family. Rigorous training began around age five. Boys learned fighting and military strategy along with reading, writing, calligraphy, poetry and Zen Buddhism. One of the key martial arts the students learned was ***kendo***, which helped them to develop fast movements and sword techniques. Archery was also practised, using bows (*yumi*) that measured over two metres in length and could inflict fatal wounds from 80 metres away. Onna-musha were also trained in martial arts so they could protect their homes.

Source 1: Samurai warriors in battle armour fight using katana, curved fighting swords. [Utagawa Kunisada III (1893 CE), *Genji Samurai in Battle*]

Bushidō

Samurai were expected to live by a strict code of conduct called ***Bushidō*** (meaning the way of the warrior). The code stressed being loyal to one's master, respecting superiors, behaving ethically and showing courage.

Bushidō also taught the samurai to choose their own death rather than to suffer any dishonour in defeat. Samurai warriors often chose ritual suicide, known as ***seppuku***, rather than face humiliation at the hands of the enemy. Bushidō required complete self-discipline, even when facing death.

> Bushidō is nothing but charging forward, without hesitation, unto death. A bushi in this state of mind is difficult to kill even if he is attacked by 20 or 30 people … In a normal state of mind, you cannot accomplish a great task. You must become like a person crazed and throw yourself into it as if there were no turning back. Moreover, in the Way of the martial arts, as soon as discriminating thoughts arise, you will have already have fallen behind.
>
> **Source 2:** Yamamoto Tsunetomo (c. 1709–1716 CE), *Hagakure: The Book of the Samurai*

Ninjas

Ninjas were recruited from the lower social classes and were not bound by Bushidō to a daimyō. Nevertheless, they were highly skilled warriors who were trained as spies, assassins and saboteurs.

Ninjas were hired by daimyō to carry out secret missions, such as sneaking into an enemy castle to spy, sabotaging castle defences or assassinating a rival daimyō.

Source 3: Samurai weapons and armour

Source 5: Panel from the Heiji scroll (c. 1250 CE) showing an attack on Sanjo Palace in 1159 CE. The scroll depicts the events of the Heiji Rebellion (1159–1160 CE) between the Taira and Minamoto clans. It was made during the Kamakura period to celebrate the victory of the ruling Minamoto clan.

Source 4: The 18 disciplines of ninjas

1 Spiritual refinement

2 Hand-to-hand combat

3 Sword fighting

4 Fighting with spears

5 Fighting with a *naginata*

6 Fighting with a staff

7 Using guns and explosives

8 Fighting with a sickle and chain

9 Using throwing stars

Ninjas devoted their lives to perfecting the art of ***ninjutsu***. The skills and traditions of the ninja were passed on from ***sensei*** (teacher) to student. Like the samurai, ninjas began training at an early age. They learned 18 disciplines (see Source 4), which included how to fight with weapons such as throwing stars.

10 Archery

11 Water crossing techniques

12 Using disguises

13 Disappearing techniques

14 Using concealed weapons

15 Climbing walls

16 Medicines and first-aid

17 Spying techniques

18 Astronomy

Ninjas were extremely fit and could run for extended periods, jump long distances, scale high walls and fight without weapons.

Learning ladder 13.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the meaning of the word 'samurai'.
2. Source 3: Describe the armour and weapons of the samurai.
3. Explain the similarities and differences between the samurai and the ninjas.
4. Source 4: Explain why the ninjas needed to learn a range of disciplines.
5. Analyse the role of the samurai in feudal Japan.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 5: Describe the image in the source.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the nature of Bushidō.
4. Source 5: Explain why this source was made.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

Site study

How was the castle town of Himeji designed?

Shōguns and powerful daimyō lived in well-protected castles designed to keep out the samurai armies of rival daimyō.

Castle fortresses

Daimyō built castles all over Japan to show their power and to protect them from their enemies. Most attacks on castles came from the samurai armies of other daimyō. Japan was embroiled in **civil wars** for hundreds of years, during which daimyō warlords fought for control.

The first castle towns were surrounded by moats and wooden fences. From the 1300s CE, the daimyō built stone walls around their wooden castles. Medieval castles in Japan looked different to those in Europe, but shared many features:

- castles were located on the top of hills
- a series of high walls protected each castle
- moats surrounding the castles stopped enemies accessing the castle by tunnelling
- castles had steep stairways to make attack difficult
- castles had a solid main gate.

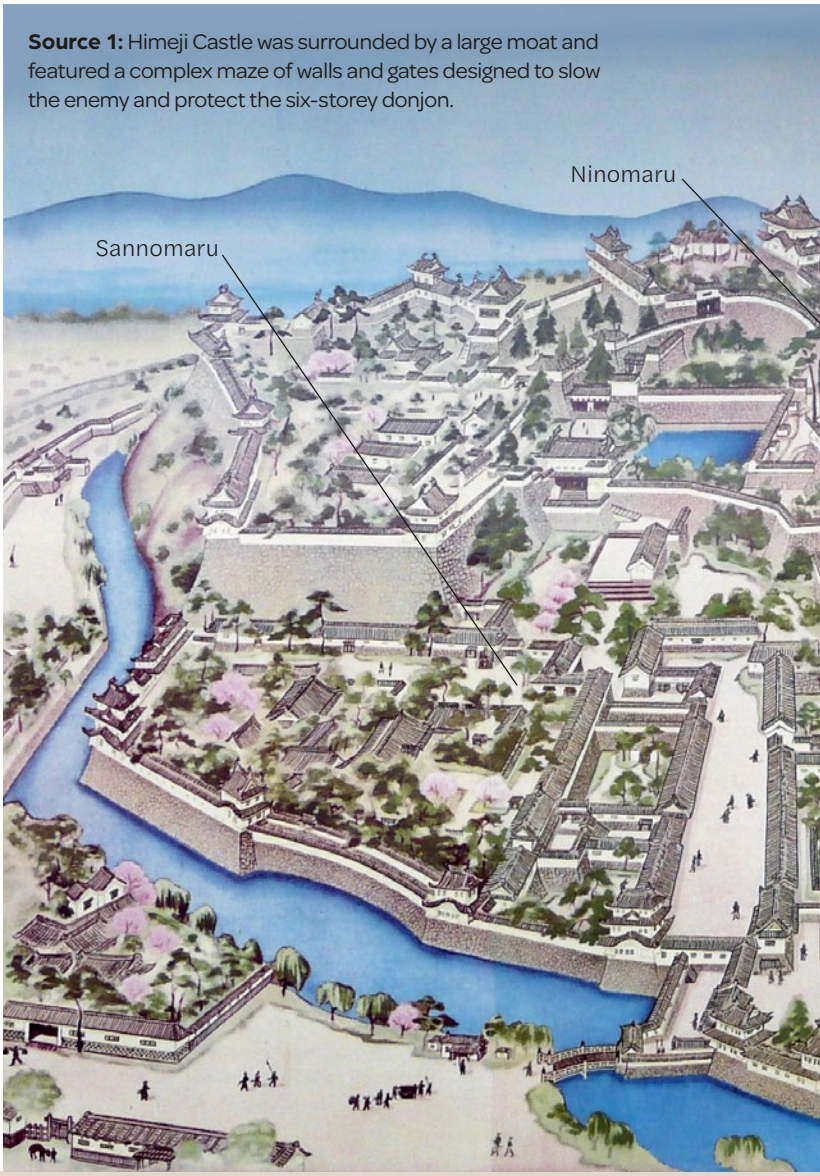
Himeji Castle

Before Himeji Castle was built between 1601 and 1609 CE, three other castles had been built on the same site. When Shōgun Tokugawa Ieyasu rose to power, he gave his son-in-law, Ikeda Terumasa, the land containing the castle. Ikeda began constructing the present castle in 1601 CE. Even though the years of war were nearing an end in Japan, the castle was built in case war resumed.

The entire town of Himeji was built with defence in mind. The town was surrounded by a moat. There were only a few entrances to the town and each entrance had a strong gate and was guarded by high-ranking samurai.

The central tower (***donjon***) was made of wood and was six storeys tall. The daimyō and his samurai could retreat to the donjon when under attack. The donjon is connected by corridors to three smaller towers that enclose the main courtyard (*honmaru*). Surrounding the honmaru is a labyrinth of twisting paths and guard towers that make up the inner compound (*ninomaru*). Outside this was the *sannomaru*, which was encircled by the moat.

Source 1: Himeji Castle was surrounded by a large moat and featured a complex maze of walls and gates designed to slow the enemy and protect the six-storey donjon.



Other castle defences

Even if enemy soldiers managed to cross the moat, scale the castle's walls and navigate the labyrinth, the castle had other ingenious defences to outwit and repel invaders. Special holes in the defensive walls (called *sama*) were built so defenders could shoot at the attackers with arrows or firearms. There were also rock chutes at the corners of buildings, through which defenders could drop rocks, hot sand or boiling water on invaders.

Source 2: This illustration shows samurai storming the gate of Hirado Castle, which was the seat of the Matsura clan. ['Storm on Gate of Hirado', *History of Japan*]

Learning ladder 13.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the castle in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the main features of Himeji castle.
3. Explain how the donjon functioned.
4. Explain why Tokugawa ordered his son-in-law to reconstruct Himeji castle.
5. Analyse the overall effectiveness of the design of Himeji castle.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify the effect of the moat.
2. Source 1: Describe the effect of the labyrinthine paths.
3. Explain the effect of the castle's construction on the town of Himeji.
4. Explain how the castle defences caused difficulties for invading forces.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

13.9

Who were the Three Unifiers?

The Sengoku period was an era of warfare between competing daimyō clans, who all wanted to control Japan. Three warriors, known as the Three Unifiers, ended the conflict.

The Sengoku period (1467–1573 CE)

During the Muromachi period (c. 1338–1573) – when the Ashikaga shōguns controlled Japan – weakness in the shōgunate encouraged nobles to begin fighting each other to decide which families would control Japan. Samurai joined the fighting, hoping they could gain larger estates for themselves.

Earthquakes and famines also occurred during this period, which provoked peasant uprisings. Peasants stormed the cities, calling for their debts to be cancelled and for taxes to be reduced. The unrest lasted for over 100 years.

The Azuchi–Momoyama period (1573–1603 CE)

The years of war and chaos that characterised the Sengoku period were slowly brought to a close by three men (known as the 'Three Unifiers') who reunified Japan. The Three Unifiers were:

- Oda Nobunaga
- Toyotomi Hideyoshi
- Tokugawa Ieyasu.

The period during which these men unified Japan is known as the Azuchi-Momoyama period (1573–1603 CE).

Oda Nobunaga

Oda Nobunaga was a daimyō from Owari, Japan. In 1560 CE, he fought in the Battle of Okehazama against a powerful warlord called Imagawa Yoshimoto. Imagawa was a supporter of the ailing Ashikaga Shōgunate. Against overwhelming odds, Oda defeated Imagawa's forces and killed Imagawa on the battlefield.

During the next 22 years, Oda's armies fought against numerous samurai clans and successfully brought a large area of Japan under his control. In the process, Oda made an alliance with the powerful Tokugawa clan.

The Ashikaga Shōgunate was destroyed in 1573 CE when Oda drove the reigning shōgun, Ashikaga Yoshiaki, out of Kyōto.

Toyotomi Hideyoshi

Oda Nobunaga died in 1582 CE. His successor, Toyotomi Hideyoshi, was appointed *kampaku* (chief counsellor to the emperor). Hideyoshi introduced several laws to bring Japan under control. In 1588 CE, Hideyoshi ordered a 'sword hunt' to find weapons owned by peasants, merchants and monks; from this point on, only samurai could carry arms.

Japan, 1560–1582 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** Oda Nobunaga's control over Japan, 1560–1582 CE

Hideyoshi also outlawed Christianity and expelled all Christian missionaries from Japan. Christianity had been brought to Japan by the Portuguese in the mid-16th century CE and was seen as a dangerous religion because many of the peasants who rebelled against HIdeyoshi's rule had adopted Christianity.

> 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 of war are kept, the collection of annual rent may become more difficult, and without provocation uprisings can be fomented ... Therefore, the heads of the provinces, samurai who receive a grant of land, and deputies, must collect all the weapons described above and submit them to Hideyoshi's government.

Source 2: This text was written by Yamamoto Tsunetomo, who was a samurai in the early 18th century CE. [Yamamoto Tsunetomo (c. 1709– 1716 CE), *Hagakure: The Book of the Samurai*]

Tokugawa Ieyasu

Hideyoshi had attempted to invade Korea in 1592 CE, but this campaign had failed, weakening his hold on power. Meanwhile, Tokugawa Ieyasu had been building alliances with daimyō from east Japan. When Hideyoshi died in 1598 CE, Tokugawa saw that his opprtunity had finally arrived. He launched a battle against Hideyoshi's forces, known as the Battle of Sekigahara (1600 CE). Tokugawa won the battle.

Over the next three years, Tokugawa worked to strengthen his hold on Japan. In 1603 CE, he was appointed shōgun by Emperor Go-Yozei, the first shōgun for 30 years. He established his new government in the city of Edo (Tokyo). The Tokugawa clan ruled Japan for over 250 years, until 1867 CE.

Oda Nobunaga:
If the bird won't sing, I'll kill it!

Toyotomi Hideyoshi:
If the bird won't sing, I'll make it sing!

Tokugawa Ieyasu:
If the bird won't sing, I'll wait for it to sing.

Source 3: The sayings of the Three Unifiers

Source 4: Tokugawa Ieyasu

Learning ladder 13.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the Three Unifiers.
2. Describe Oda Nobunaga's actions to unify Japan.
3. Source 3: Explain how each of the Three Unifiers demonstrated his saying.
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why Hideyoshi introduced new laws for the peasant class.
5. Which of the Three Unifiers was the most significant? Explain your choice.

Continuity and change

1. List three changes that occurred during the Sengoku period.
2. Source 1: Describe the changes to Oda Nobunaga's and Toyotomi Hideyoshi's control of Japan between 1560 and 1582 CE.
3. Explain how Tokugawa Ieyasu introduced change and continuity to the rule of Japan.
4. Explain why the Azuchi–Momoyama period was a time of significant change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Key individual

Who was Tokugawa Iemitsu?

Tokugawa Iemitsu was the grandson of Tokugawa Ieyasu. He ruled as shōgun between 1623 and 1651 CE. Iemitsu issued a series of strict laws to tighten his control over the daimyō, samurai and peasant classes.

Impact of laws on the daimyō

While Ieyasu's grandfather had already imposed many laws on the daimyō, Iemitsu took these laws further to make sure he had the daimyō under his control. He established the right of the shōgun to take the lands of any daimyō he considered disloyal and give them to other daimyō who supported him (known as the *fudai* daimyō). He also forced daimyō he didn't entirely trust (known as *tozama* daimyō) to move to the outer regions of Japan.

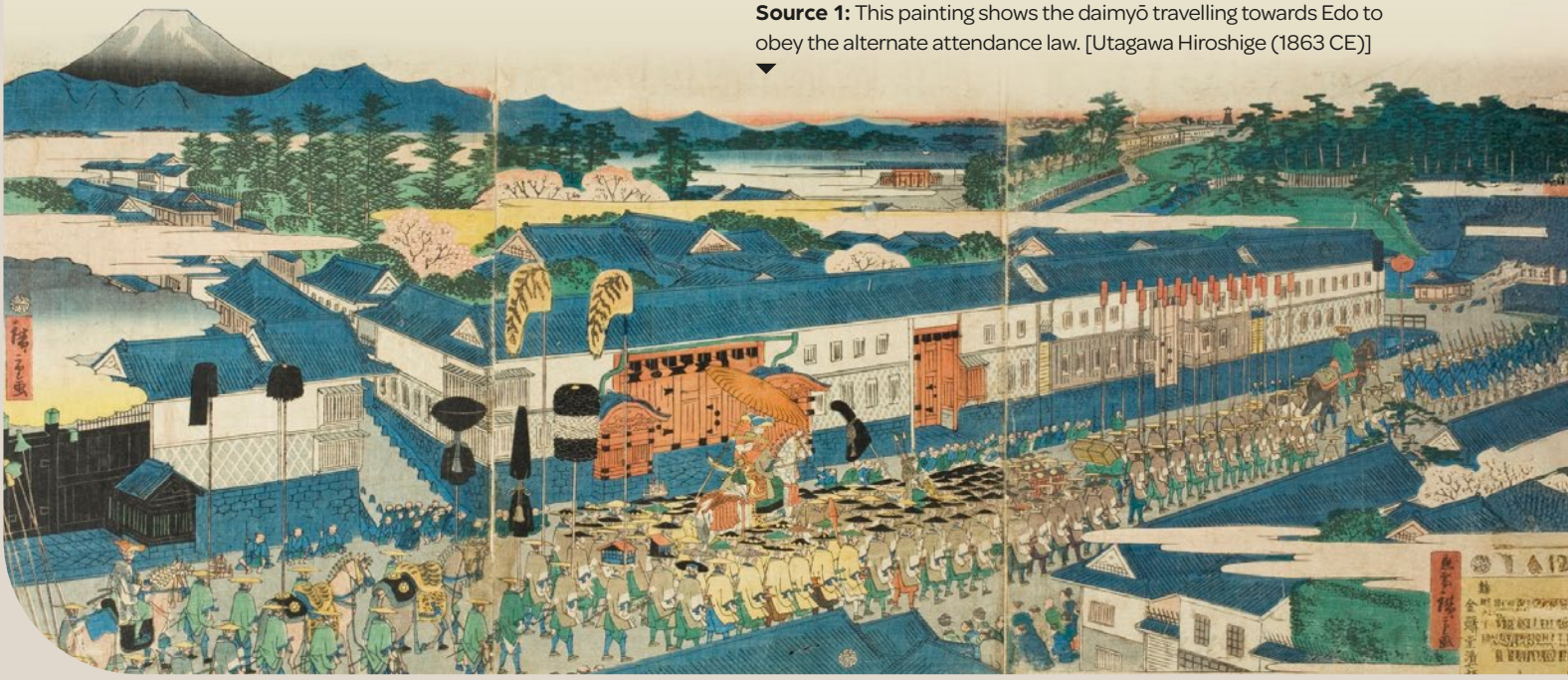
Perhaps most far-reaching was Iemitsu's system of 'alternate attendance' (*sankin kotai*) for the daimyō. Iemitsu required all daimyō to maintain residences in Edo as well as their home domain. They then had to 'attend' on the shōgun by living in Edo every second year. Their wives and children, however, had to stay in Edo permanently. Tozama daimyō such as the Satsuma and Choshu were especially affected by alternate attendance and faced long, difficult and expensive journeys to and from Edo. Many daimyō imposed heavy taxes on the peasants in order to fund their travels to Edo.

Impact of laws on the samurai

Due to the shōgun's power to take away a daimyō's land if he was disloyal, the daimyō were unable to wage war against the shōgun. Therefore, they ordered their samurai to undertake administrative jobs in the towns or to serve the daimyō's family in Edo. Life in the cities was expensive, and the samurai soon fell into debt. In addition, the samurai's fiefs were taken over by the daimyō and the shōgun, such that the samurai themselves gradually lost their connection to their land.

While the samurai were still allowed to wear their two samurai swords, their military duties were greatly reduced. These changes meant that the samurai gradually lost their military skills.

Source 1: This painting shows the daimyō travelling towards Edo to obey the alternate attendance law. [Utagawa Hiroshige (1863 CE)]



The people endured the ill-treatment of their former daimyō as long as he was present among them. But his son, the present daimyō, who resides in Edo … forces the farmers to pay far more taxes than they are able to do, in such a manner that they languish from hunger, taking only some roots and vegetables for nourishment. The people resolved not to bear this hardship any longer and to die one single death, instead of the many slow deaths to which they were subjected.

Source 2: Account by Nicholas Koeckebacker, 1637 CE. Koeckebacker was a Dutch merchant based at Nagasaki, Japan. Here he describes the reasons for a peasant rebellion at Shimabara in 1637 CE.

Impact of laws on the peasants

Tokugawa Iemitsu's grandfather had continued the older laws made by Toyotomi Hideyoshi, which prevented peasants from owning weapons. In addition, Ietmitsu ruled that peasants were not allowed to change villages or travel without permission. He also forced them to register at a Buddhist temple.

Peasant life became even more difficult when they were asked to pay higher taxes by the daimyō, leading to much hardship and hunger.

Impact of the laws on the merchants

Japanese merchants actually benefited from shōgunate rule. When the daimyō found it difficult to meet the expenses of two residences and the samurai struggled to afford a city lifestyle, the merchants lent money to them. As moneylenders, the merchants became very wealthy, so wealthy in fact that the Tokugawa shōguns passed a series of laws called 'sumptuary laws'. These sumptuary laws tried to stop the merchants from 'living above their status' by buying big houses or expensive clothing. Many merchants ignored the sumptuary laws passed by the Tokugawa shōguns and continued to flaunt their wealth.

Satsuma warriors donned full armour every year on the anniversary of Sekigahara, visiting a temple near the castle town of Kagoshima to meditate on what had been for them an epochal [huge] defeat. In Choshu, mothers told their boys … never to forget Sekigahara, even in their dreams.

Source 3: Christopher Harding (2020), *A History of Modern Japan*. Christopher Harding is a historian.

Source 4: Tokugawa Iemitsu, shōgun of Japan, 1623–1651 CE

Learning ladder 13.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the law being followed by the daimyō in this source.
2. Complete the table below.

Social class targeted	Laws that controlled military power	Laws that controlled wealth	Laws that controlled movement
Daimyō			
Samurai			
Peasants			

3. Using the table in Question 2, explain how Tokugawa Iemitsu maintained control.
4. Explain why the merchants became wealthy.
5. Sources 1, 2 and 3: What do these sources demonstrate about the extent of Tokugawa Iemitsu's control over the people of Japan?

Perspectives

1. Source 2: Identify the author, whose perspective is provided in the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the author's perspective on the peasants.
3. Source 3: Explain the perspective of the Satsuma and Choshu clans towards the Tokugawa Shōgunate.
4. Source 3: Explain why the Satsuma and Choshu clans held this perspective towards the Tokugawa Shōgunate.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

Why did the Tokugawa shōguns isolate Japan from the world?

From 1633–1639 CE, Shōgun Tokugawa Iemitsu enacted the *sakoku* policy, which closed off Japan from most of the world. This policy stayed in place for over 200 years.

The sakoku ('closed country') policy

The Tokugawa shōguns isolated Japan from most of the rest of the world for over 200 years through the government policy of ***sakoku***.

The sakoku policy was enacted through a series of edicts (orders or laws) that were implemented over several years (1633 to 1639 CE). The edict of 1635 CE, introduced by Tokugawa Iemitsu, was the most significant of these laws.

During the sakoku period, only Dutch, Korean and Chinese traders were allowed to trade with Japanese merchants. Trade in and out of Japan could only take place through the port of Nagasaki, a city controlled by the Tokugawa clan. Merchants had to pay fees and taxes for the right to take part in foreign trade.

In addition, all Japanese people were forbidden from travelling overseas. This prevented them from making alliances with foreign powers, which could help them to overthrow the Tokugawa shōguns.

Why did the Tokugawa shōguns isolate Japan?

Tokugawa Iemitsu introduced the sakoku policy to increase his control over the daimyō and the samurai. Strict laws were applied to the daimyō and the samurai, limiting the amount of trade they were allowed to conduct with foreign merchants. This meant that they could not profit from trade as much as in previous eras. Instead, most of the profits from trade went to the Tokugawa shōguns. In addition, the daimyō and samurai were unable to build strong trade relationships with foreigners, import foreign weapons or adopt foreign religions such as Christianity.

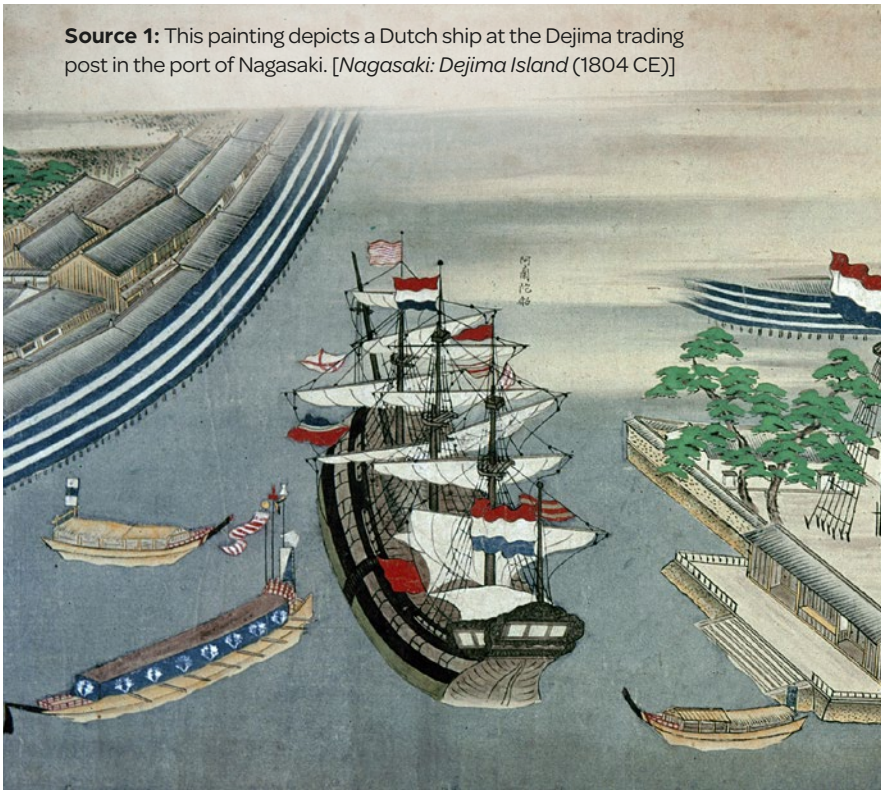
Source 2 contains excerpts from the edict of 1635 CE, which was written by Tokugawa Iemitsu.

Rangaku

In addition to maintaining trade with China, Korea and the Dutch Republic (the Netherlands) throughout the period of the sakoku policy, Japan also kept itself informed of new ideas and technology in the world.

One of the most important ways this was achieved was through Japanese contact with the Dutch. *Rangaku* (Dutch studies) introduced European ideas about anatomy, surgery, biology and mechanics to Japanese scholars.

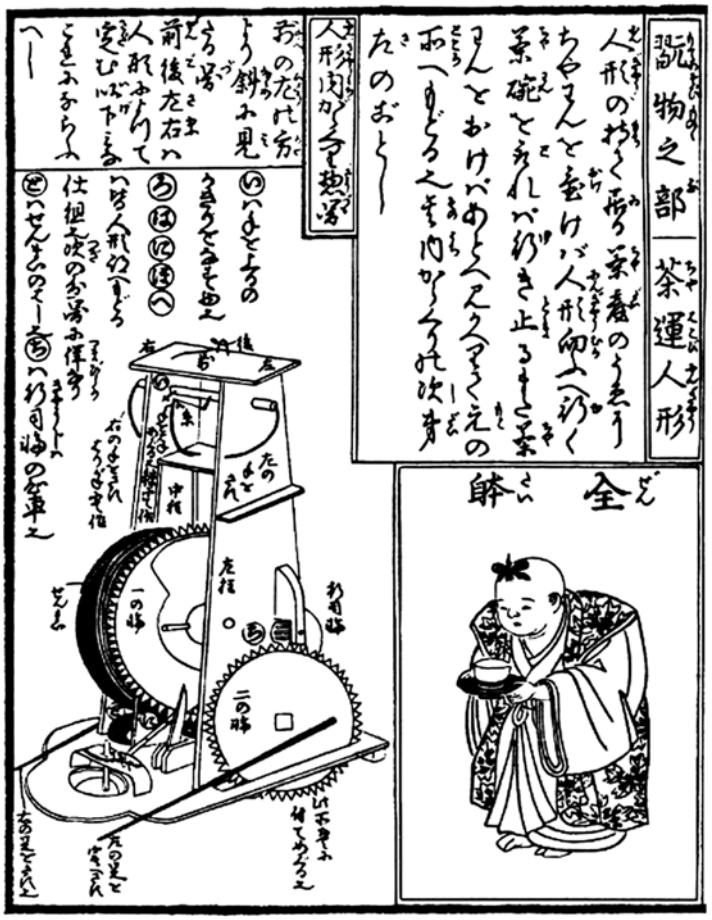
While many Japanese scholars were fascinated by Western science, rangaku provoked much debate about whether Japan should adopt 'foreign ideas' or retain its own cultural perspectives.



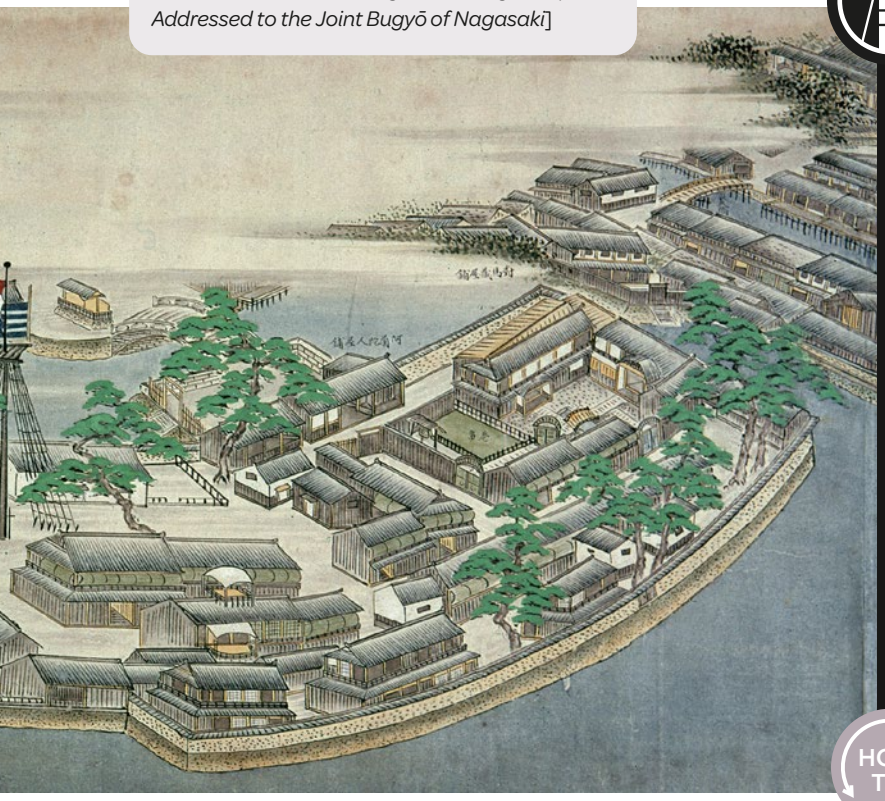
Source 1: This painting depicts a Dutch ship at the Dejima trading post in the port of Nagasaki. [*Nagasaki: Dejima Island* (1804 CE)]

1 Japanese ships are strictly forbidden to leave for foreign countries.
2 No Japanese is permitted to go abroad. If anyone attempts to do so secretly, he must be executed. The ship so involved must be impounded and its owner arrested, and the matter must be reported to the higher authority.
3 If any Japanese returns from overseas after residing there, he must be put to death.
4 If there is any place where the teachings of the [Catholic] priests is practised ... you must order a thorough investigation.
5 Any informer revealing the whereabouts of the followers of the [Catholic] priests must be rewarded accordingly.

Source 2: Some of the orders from the sakoku edict of 1635 CE. [*Shōgun* Tokugawa Iemitsu, *The Edict of 1635 Ordering the Closing of Japan: Addressed to the Joint Bugyō of Nagasaki*]



Source 3: This is a page from *The Illustrated Compendium of Clever Machines* (1796 CE) by Hosokawa Hanzo Yorinao, describing the mechanism of clocks and automata. The book is an example of rangaku ('Dutch learning').



Learning ladder 13.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1 What was the sakoku policy?
2 Source 3: Describe rangaku.
3 Source 2: Explain how the sakoku policy limited trade between Japan and the outside world.
4 Explain why the study of rangaku provoked debate.
5 Analyse the positive and negative aspects of the sakoku policy.

Cause and effect

1 Source 1: Identify the purpose of Dejima.
2 Compare the effects of sakoku on daimyō and merchants.
3 Explain why the sakoku policy was introduced.
4 Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the cause of the opposition to Christianity.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

How were Japan's resources conserved?

The daimyō and shōguns had cut down many of Japan's forests to build ships, houses and castles. By the time the Tokugawa Shōgunate gained control in the early 17th century CE, Japan faced an environmental disaster due to deforestation.

The use of natural resources in early medieval Japan

Most early societies relied heavily on nature to provide the resources needed for survival. Little thought was given to the conservation or regeneration of natural resources.

In particular, medieval people relied greatly on trees. Forests were cleared so that wood could be used for building houses, castles, monuments and ships. Families needed fire for cooking and warmth, and wood was the fuel for these fires. Also, land needed to be cleared to grow crops and to graze farm animals.

The shōguns and daimyō had become very wealthy by selling the wood harvested from the forests on their lands. Their wealth was increased by using the cleared land for agriculture, and for charging peasants taxes to work the fields.

Environmental issues in medieval Japan

Agricultural land in Japan was (and still is) extremely limited. Approximately 70 per cent of Japan is mountainous and only 20 per cent is usable for farming. This meant that the small section of usable land was used intensely.

This problem was exacerbated by population growth. Logging trees did not have a dramatic impact while the population was small. However, by midway through the 16th century CE, Japan's population had reached 10 million people.

By this time, most of Japan's forests had been subject to logging. Land degradation and deforestation were noticeable. High-quality timber was scarce, mudslides and flooding were frequent, erosion was evident and rivers were closing off as a result of the build-up of silt. All of this indicated that more control over the use of the forests was needed.

Japan

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** Areas of Japan that have been logged over time

Tokugawa Shōgunate's forestry policy

The Tokugawa shōguns realised that removing trees, especially those close to rivers, was causing flooding. In 1666 CE, the shōgunate introduced policies for communal land that:

- forbade cuttting down certain types of trees
- regulated how wood was used: government officials had to approve the use of timber in any construction
- encouraged people to replant trees so that forests could regenerate (Japan had some of the first planned forest plantations in the world)
- ensured that time and effort were given to the study of forest development and management.

In 1678 CE, the shōgun introduced laws prohibiting the cutting of branches and stripping of bark. Further laws were enacted in 1684 CE that banned uprooting grasses, burning fields, and building close to river banks.

Over time, the enforcement of these policies helped villagers and government officials to experiment with and develop successful techniques to manage forests and plant and nurture trees. Many areas of Japan were effectively reforested, ensuring ongoing wealth, resources and spiritual continuity for Japan.

This program of care for the environment also meant that Japan was at the forefront of environmental policy-making. Most other countries, including the United States and Australia, caused significant environmental damage during the 19th century. Environmental conservation did not receive serious attention in these countries until the last few decades of the 20th century CE.

Year	Population	Forest (ha)	Forest (%)
1600 CE	17 million	27 million	72%
1850 CE	32.3 million	25.5 million	68%

Source 3: Forest cover in Japan between 1600 CE and 1850 CE

Source 2: Giant Japanese cedar trees, some up to 800 years old, line the path into the Okusha shrine near Nagano. According to Shinto beliefs, trees that are over 100 years old are inhabited by tree spirits called *kodama*.

Learning ladder 13.12

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the ways timber was used in Japan during the medieval period.
2. Describe how the daimyō became wealthy from harvesting timber.
3. Explain how the shōgunate tried to limit deforestation.
4. Explain why the Tokugawa Shōgunate's environmental policy was significant.

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Which area of Japan was logged between 1550 and 1700 CE?
2. Source 3: Describe how population growth changed Japan's forests.
3. Source 2: Explain how trees provide a sense of continuity in the Shintō religion.
4. Explain why the Tokugawa Shōgunate changed Japan's approach to tree conservation.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

13.13

How did the Tokugawa Shōgunate decline?

Historians are divided over what caused the Tokugawa Shōgunate to decline. Was it due to long-term discontent with the Tokugawa shōguns? Or was the arrival of outsiders to blame?

Discontent with the Tokugawa Shōgunate

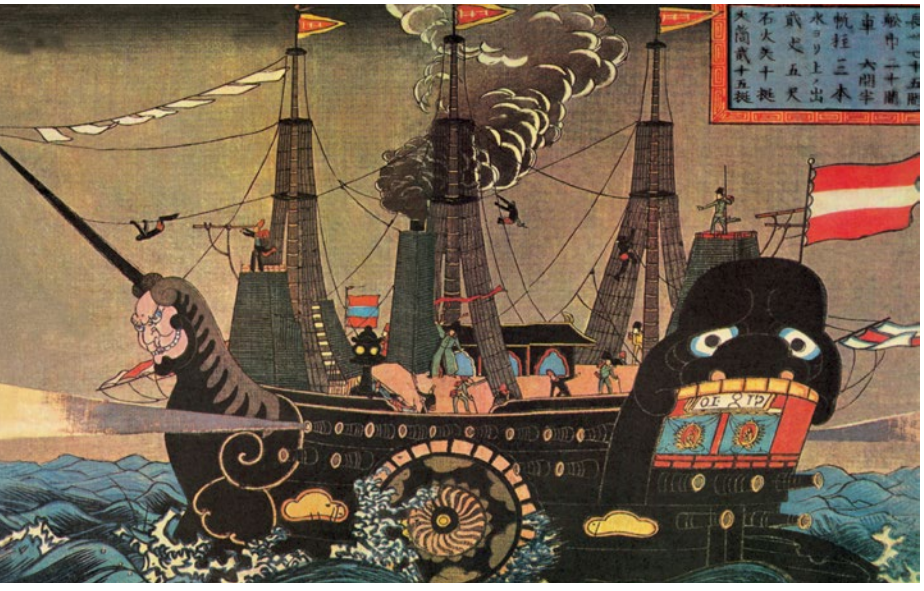
The Tokugawa Shōgunate ruled Japan from 1603 to 1867 CE. Despite the longevity of their rule, people at all levels of Japanese society were unhappy with the rule of the Tokugawa shōguns.

The daimyō and the samurai were unhappy with the shōgunate because the Tokugawa shōguns had limited the opportunities for the daimyō and the samurai to build their wealth. They had also restricted the military power of the daimyō and the samurai, and forced the daimyō to undertake alternate attendance.

The peasants were unhappy with the Tokugawa Shōgunate because under the shōgun's laws, peasants were unable to leave their villages, even when their harvests failed due to bad weather or insect infestations.

Due to the Tokugawa Shōgunate's control of the Japanese people's wealth, military power and freedoms, the people of medieval Japan were unable to rise up against the shōgunate. All they could do was wait for an opportunity to change their circumstances.

Source 1: This is a Japanese artist's impression of one of Matthew Perry's ships arriving in Tokyo Bay in 1853.



The arrival of Matthew Perry

Japan's sakoku policy helped the shōguns to control trade in Japan, but it had angered merchants in Europe and in the United States. They envied the trade relationship between the Netherlands and Japan and wanted the opportunity to trade with Japan themselves. These merchants hoped to buy Japanese goods, such as silk and lacquerware, and sell the goods in their home countries and make a substantial profit.

The Tokugawa shōguns held fast to their sakoku policy until 1853 CE, when an American naval officer named Matthew Perry arrived in Edo (Tokyo) Bay. Perry's fleet of steam ships – which belched thick black smoke into the sky – terrified many Japanese people. Perry threatened to declare war on Japan unless the shōgun, Tokugawa Iesada, agreed to trade with the United States. Japan's sword-wielding samurai were no match for Perry's gunships. Faced with an impossible situation, Iesada agreed. The United States forced the shōgun to sign a series of unfair treaties, which allowed the Americans to buy Japanese goods and to sell cheap manufactured American products in Japan, putting many Japanese artisans out of business.

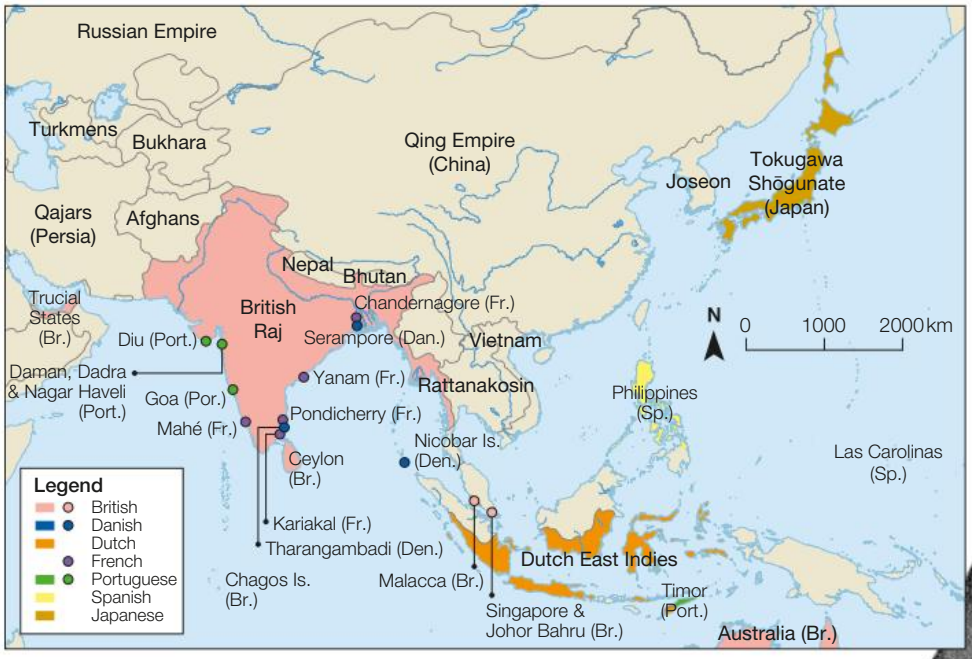
Emperor Kōmei

The signing of the unfair trade agreement made the Tokugawa shōgun look weak. Some of the daimyō began to lose faith in the shōgun and called on him to keep Japan closed to the United States. They feared that the United States might take control of Japan and turn it into an American colony, just as many Western countries had already done in other areas of Asia.

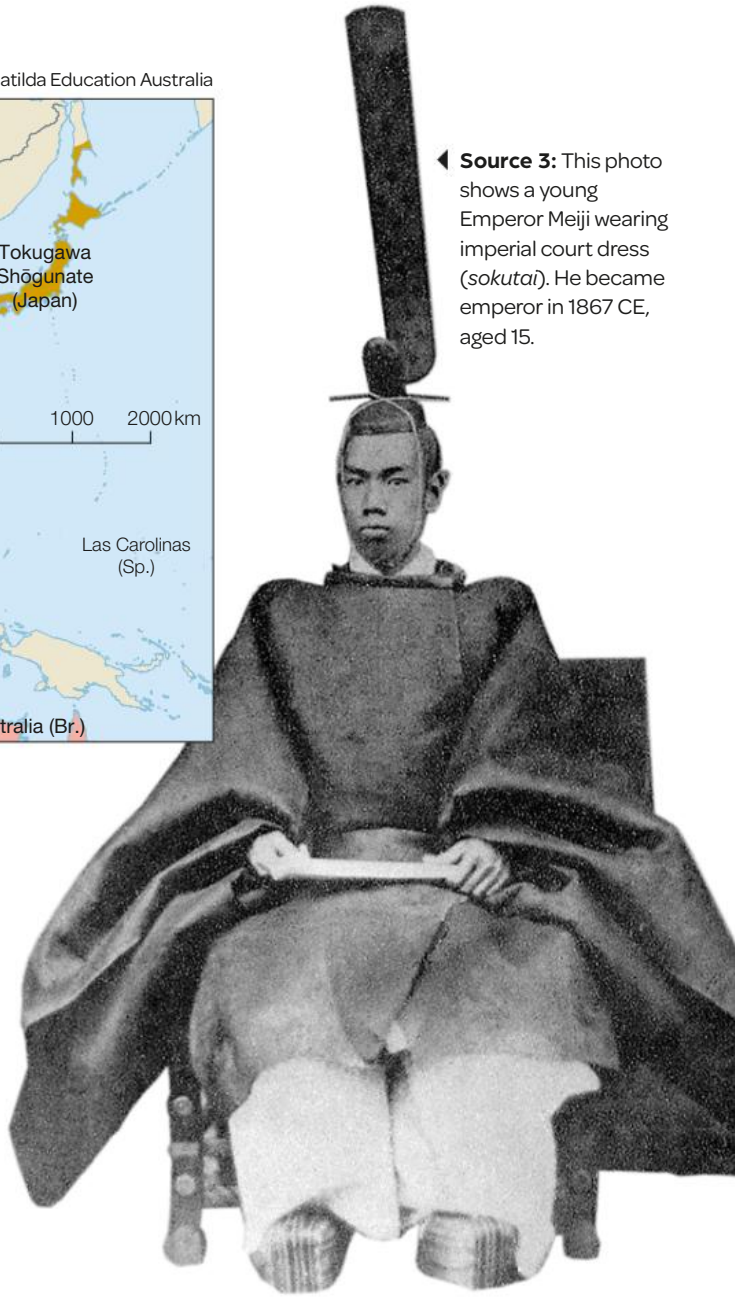
Emperor Kōmei – who had previously always supported the shōgun – now sided with the daimyō. He called on the shōgun to reject the trade agreement and to expel all foreigners from Japan. This reinforced the view that the shōgun was weak.

Asia, c. 1880 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia



▲ **Source 2:** This map shows European imperialism in Asia, c. 1880 CE.



◀ **Source 3:** This photo shows a young Emperor Meiji wearing imperial court dress (*sokutai*). He became emperor in 1867 CE, aged 15.

The downfall of the Tokugawa Shōgunate

The Tokugawa Shōgunate survived for a few more years until 1867 CE, when the opposition of the emperor and many of the daimyō and samurai became overwhelming. Two of the biggest daimyō clans – the Satsuma and the Chōshū – formed a secret alliance in 1866 CE. Together, they overthrew the last Tokugawa shōgun, Tokugawa Yoshinobu, and destroyed the Tokugawa clan in a battle called the Boshin War (1868–1869 CE). Samurai from the Satsuma and Chōshū clans then formed a new government. They installed Emperor Kōmei's son Mutsuhito, known as Emperor Meiji, as head of their government. This change in government was known as the 'Meiji restoration'.

Learning ladder 13.13

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the key event depicted in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe how the United States forced Japan to open the country to trade.
3. Explain how the arrival of Perry affected the shōgun's power.
4. Source 2: Explain why some daimyō feared opening Japan to trade with Europe and the United States.
5. Source 3: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how the samurai brought about the Meiji restoration.

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

Contestability

1. Identify the debate over what caused the fall of the Tokugawa Shōgunate.
2. Describe the reasons why the daimyō, samurai and the peasants were unhappy with the Tokugawa shōguns.
3. Compare the roles of Matthew Perry and Emperor Kōmei in making the shōgun look weak.
4. Explain whether the shōgun could have rejected Perry.
5. Analyse whether the fall of the Tokugawa shōgunate was due to problems within Japan or was caused by external factors.

13.14

How have the samurai influenced modern Japan?

The samurai lost much of their prestige and power during the Tokugawa period. During the Meiji period, the samurai class was abolished. While the samurai warriors are long gone, the Bushidō values of loyalty, honour, courage and self-discipline continue to inspire Japanese people today.

The 47 rōnin

In 1703 CE, during the Tokugawa period, a daimyō named Asano Naganori was forced to perform seppuku after he assaulted a Tokugawa court official named Kira Yoshinaka. As a result, Asano's 47 samurai became rōnin. The 47 rōnin avenged their master's death and killed Kira. The rōnin were then arrested and sentenced to be executed. However, due to public support for the 47 rōnin, the authorities changed their minds and allowed the rōnin to commit seppuku instead. Seppuku was a more honourable death than execution.

Almost immediately, the story of the 47 rōnin was retold in a play called *The Night Attack at Dawn by the Soga*. This play was quickly shut down by Tokugawa authorities, but other similar plays followed, sometimes setting the events in the 14th century CE to avoid the attention of the Tokugawa censors.

The story of the 47 rōnin became very popular. It symbolised the qualities of *Bushidō* – loyalty, honour and self-sacrifice – and deeply resonated in Japan at a time when the country was undergoing rapid change. The story inspired Japanese woodblock prints, plays and literature. The story continues to inspire culture today, through film, manga and graphic novels.

The Satsuma Rebellion (1877 CE)

After Japan started trading with European countries and the United States, Japanese rulers began to see the need to protect Japan from the modern militaries of the West. To do this, the Meiji Government decided to modernise Japan's social structure and military forces. The old feudal classes were abolished, and a modern army was formed, which consisted of conscript soldiers armed with modern weapons that had been bought from Europe.

Source 1: This artwork depicts Asano Naganori's samurai. [Kunisada Utagawa (1847 CE), *The 47 Faithful Samurai before the Night Attack*]

The Meiji Government had no need for a class of sword-wielding warriors in a modern Japanese society. The samurai class was formally abolished by the Meiji Government in 1873 CE. Some samurai successfully transitioned to the modern world and became administrators, teachers and modern military leaders, but many others bitterly resented the change.

In 1877 CE, a band of samurai, led by Satsuma leader Saigō Takamori, took a last stand against the modern world in the Satsuma Rebellion. Even though the Satsuma clan had played a key role in the demise of the Tokugawa regime, they had not envisaged that the Meiji restoration would mean the end of the samurai class. The battle was fought between the samurai and the new modern Japanese army. The rebellion lasted from 29 January until 24 September 1877 CE, when Saigō was shot and killed.

The Satsuma Rebellion has inspired many movies, television series and novels in Japan. In the West, the movie *The Last Samurai* (2003 CE) was loosely based on the Satsuma Rebellion and other samurai uprisings during the early Meiji period.

Source 3: Troops from the Japanese army prepare to leave Yokohama to fight against Saigō Takamori and his samurai in 1877 CE.

The samurai and popular culture

The samurai have become iconic figures in popular culture, often featuring in movies, manga, anime and video games as heroic figures who display the courage, valour, sacrifice and self-discipline of Bushidō. Video games such as *Ghost of Tsushima* and *Rise of the Rōnin* feature samurai protagonists, while famous movies such as *Seven Samurai* (1954 CE) and *13 Assassins* (2010 CE) have samurai heroes.

The *Star Wars* films were greatly inspired by samurai movies such as *Seven Samurai* and *The Hidden Fortress* (1958 CE), with the Jedi based on samurai warriors.

The word 'Jedi' comes from the Japanese word for samurai films, *jidaigeki*, which means 'history piece'.

Source 2: The cover of the first edition of *Demon Slayer*, featuring Nezuko and Tanjiro

The manga series *Demon Slayer* is strongly based on the sword culture, self-sacrifice and honour of the samurai. It tells the story of a boy named Tanjiro who trains to become a demon slayer so he can protect people from the demonic beings that emerge at night. He also hopes to save his sister, Nezuko, who survived an attack by demons, but has been partially transformed into a demon herself. *Demon Slayer* is a very popular manga series, having sold over 150 million copies. The associated films, anime series and video games are among the highest-grossing media franchises of all time. The huge popularity of the franchise can be partly attributed to the spectacular animation, but it is also due to its embodiment of the samurai values.

Learning ladder 13.14

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the story this source depicts.
2. Source 3: Describe the clothing and weapons used by the soldiers of the modern Japanese army who fought the samurai in the Satsuma Rebellion.
3. Explain how the Meiji regime affected the samurai.
4. Explain why the 47 rōnin became a famous story in Japan.

Significance

1. Identify an example of the influence of the samurai on popular culture.
2. Describe how the *Star Wars* films have been influenced by samurai ideas.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how the samurai are a significant influence on popular culture.
4. Explain why the samurai are significant today.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

13.15

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on Japan under the shōguns. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of Japan under the shōguns. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of Japan under the shōguns in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The lives of outcasts, page 334
- The life of Tomoe Gozen, page 336
- Sumō wrestling, page 338
- The Sengoku period, page 346
- The Battle of Sekigahara, page 347

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

Mongol expansion (c. 1206–1368)

14

HOW DID GENGHIS KHAN BUILD THE WORLD'S LARGEST EMPIRE?

WHY WAS THE MONGOL ARMY SO POWERFUL?

WHO WAS THE FIRST FOREIGNER TO RULE CHINA?

How can I understand the Mongol expansion?

Genghis Khan unified the Mongols and created the largest land empire in history through a series of violent, bloody conquests. The Mongols also fostered cultural development in the arts, ensured peace among their peoples, respected different cultures and religions, and improved trade.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
	Knowledge and understanding				

Source 1: In 1210 CE, Jin envoys from Zhongdu (later Beijing) arrived in Mongolia to demand that Genghis Khan recognise the new leader of the Jin. Genghis Khan spat on the ground and fired a volley of insults at the new leader. By 1215 CE, the Mongol army had crushed the Jin and burned Zhongdu to the ground. [Miniature created c. 1430 CE, for an edition of *Jami' al-tawarikh* (*Compendium of Chronicles*), written by Rashid-al-Din Hamadani, c. 1307 CE.]

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Why learn about Mongol expansion?

The Mongols created the largest land empire the world had ever seen, stretching from Hungary in Eastern Europe to the Sea of Japan. The Mongol Empire was significant not only for its enormous size, and the ferocity of its army, but also for its influence on history. Countries, religions and entire continents have all been affected by the impact of Mongol rule.

Source 1: The Mongols pursue Chinese forces at the Battle of Yehuling, 1211 CE. [Image created c. 1430 CE for Rashid al-Din Hamadani, *Jami' al-tawarikh*]

Source 2: Mongol Empire timeline

Key ideas timeline

- **1206 CE** – Genghis Khan is made ruler of the Mongols
- **1215 CE** – Mongols destroy Jin capital, Zhongdu
- **1242 CE** – Mongols withdraw from Europe

Life of Genghis Khan 1162–1227 CE

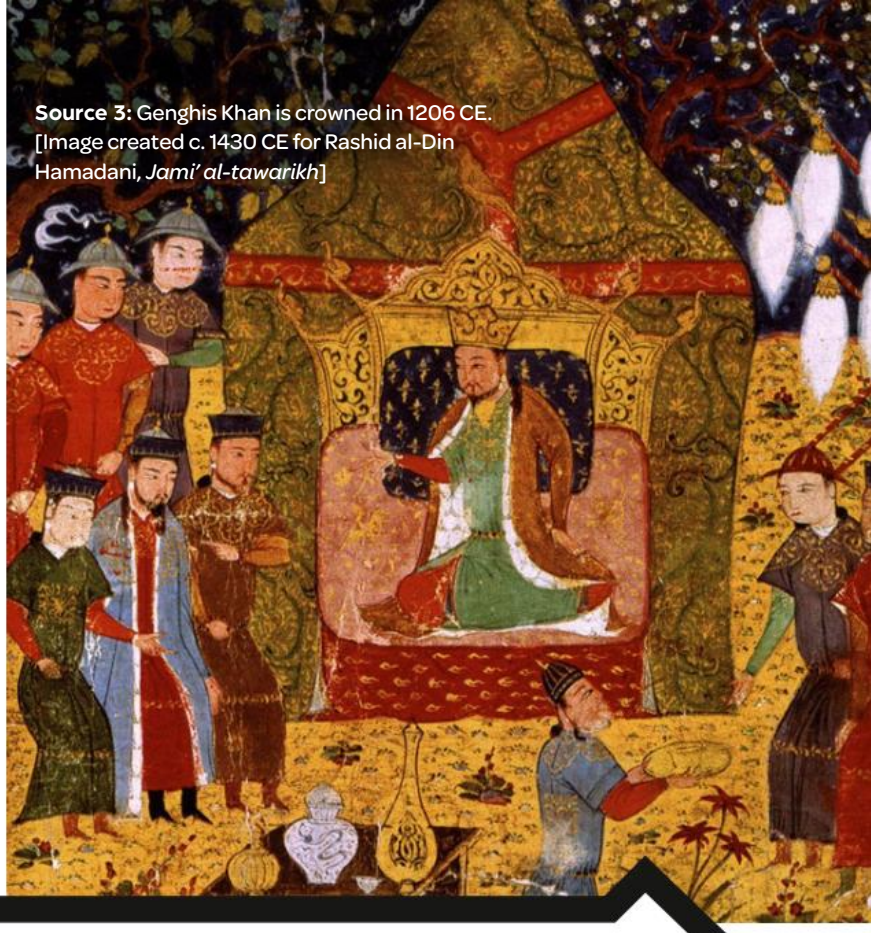
Life of Kublai Khan 1215–1294 CE

Mongols invade Europe 1223–1241 CE

The Mongols emerged when a leader named Genghis Khan managed to unite the Mongol tribes and found an empire in 1206 CE.

As the Mongols spread across Asia they caused enormous change and disruption. At the same time, however, they were greatly influenced by the peoples they conquered. They adopted Islam from their Persian subjects and sponsored history writing, art, science and city-building in Persia. They were also inspired by the Chinese model of imperial rule and adopted it as their own.

The great expanse of the Mongol Empire allowed for secure and organised trade along the Silk Road, a trade route stretching from China to Europe. This not only enabled the Mongols to become wealthy, but it also enabled the exchange of religious, scientific and cultural ideas across much of the world.



Source 3: Genghis Khan is crowned in 1206 CE. [Image created c. 1430 CE for Rashid al-Din Hamadani, *Jami' al-tawarikh*]

Learning ladder 14.1

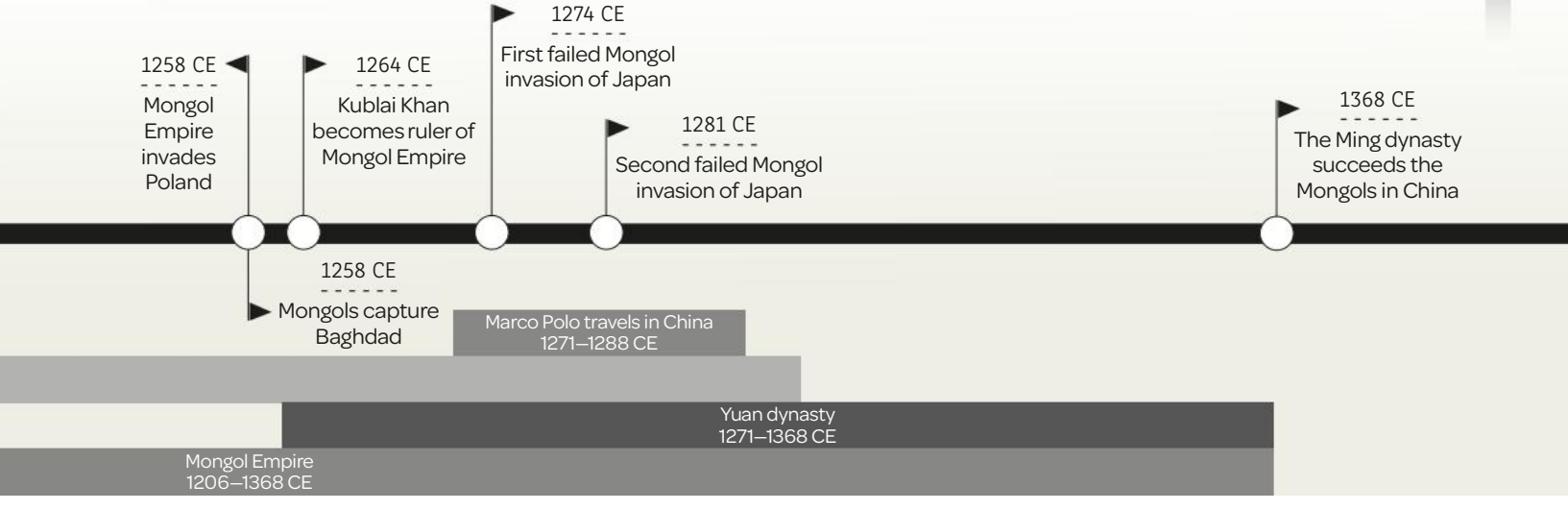
Background and origins

1. Source 3: Identify the leader depicted in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the event depicted in this source.
3. Explain how the Mongol Empire was founded.
4. Explain why the Mongol Empire became influential.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472

Chronology

1. Source 2: Identify the date when the Mongols destroyed the Jin capital, Zhongdu.
2. Source 2: Using information from this section, put these events in order from the earliest to the latest event:
   - Kublai Khan becomes Mongol ruler
   - The Ming dynasty reclaims China and the Mongol Empire ends
   - Mongol army conquers Zhongdu, capital of medieval China
   - Genghis Khan dies.
3. Create a timeline showing the events from Question 2.
4. Source 2: Explain how the timeline reflects the concepts of continuity and change.



Mongol expansion (c. 1206–1368)

What was life like in Mongolia?

Mongolia's harsh landscape and cold, windy, dry climate made life difficult. People adopted a nomadic lifestyle, herding their animals from one place to another.

Harsh life on the steppes

The amazing expansion of the Mongol Empire began with **nomadic** herders on the high, cold grasslands known as **steppes** in Mongolia. In this dry region with few trees, cold winds swept across the plains, forcing temperatures as low as –40°C in winter. In summer, temperatures reached as high as 38°C in the Gobi Desert region.

The grasslands were covered in snow and ice during the long winters and could turn to straw during the baking summers. However, the short spring season provided good pasture for horses, goats, yaks and sheep.

Source 1: Bayan-Ölgii is the westernmost and highest province of Mongolia. Even today, the Mongols herd goats in the traditional manner, moving their portable tents, called yurts, and using horses as transport. The region is famous for the traditional practice of hunting on horseback with trained eagles.

Nomadic way of life

The harsh steppe environment forced the Mongols to become nomads, as growing crops was almost impossible. They moved their herds of animals around in search of the best pasture and weather. In the spring and summer, the herds stayed on the open plains to graze, and in winter they were herded to protected valleys.

The Mongols lived in portable circular tents called **yurts**. The yurts were covered in felt and had a small felt door. A hole was left open at the top to allow air to circulate, light to come in and the chimney pipe to poke through. Heavy woollen carpets lined the walls next to where people slept on beds, which served as couches during the day. In the middle of the yurt was a small charcoal stove and a dining table and chairs.

Mongolia in north-central Asia

Source: Matilda Education Australia and Wayne Murphy

▲ **Source 2:** Mongolia's terrain and the location of its cities

Mongol horses

Horses were central to daily life in Mongolia and the Mongols had the reputation for being the best horsemen on Earth. The Mongols tamed and trained wild horses. They shot wild game with their bows and arrows while riding on horseback. These skills made them excellent warriors.

Horses were also used to transport tents and belongings. Female horses produced milk that the Mongols used to make yoghurt and cheese. This provided the main source of nutrition for the Mongols in the bleak steppe conditions. Mongols also trained eagles to find and hunt prey such as foxes and hares.

> Their habitations are round and cleverly made with wicker poles in the manner of a tent. But in the middle of the top of the tent, they have a window open to allow the light in and the smoke out, for their fire is always in the middle of the tent. The walls are covered with felt. The doors are made of felt also. Some of these tents may be quickly taken down and stowed upon carts. And wherever they go, be it to war or any other place, they transport their tents with them.

Source 3: Extract from John de Plano Carpini, who was an Italian traveller and the first European to write an account of the Mongols. [John de Plano Carpini (c. 1248 CE), *The Long and Wonderful Voyage of John de Plano Carpini*]

Learning ladder 14.2

Background and origins

1. Source 2: Identify the geographical features of Mongolia.
2. Source 1: Describe the features of the Mongolian way of life.
3. Explain how the Mongolian climate influenced the development of a nomadic lifestyle.
4. Sources 1 and 3: Explain why the yurt was a practical form of shelter.

Cause and effect

1. Match each cause to an effect:

Cause	Effect
Growing crops was difficult in Mongolia	Grass can turn to straw
Mongols could shoot arrows on horseback	Mongols became nomads
Temperatures can reach 38°C in summer	Mongols were excellent warriors

2. Describe the effects of horses on Mongol culture.
3. Source 3: Explain how information about Mongol customs first reached Europe.
4. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the Mongols were effective conquerors of vast territory.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

What was Mongol society like?

Mongol society was organised into tribes, which were led by a khan. The tribes often fought each other for dominance.

The Mongol tribes

Before the Mongols united and conquered most of the known world, the Mongols were grouped into separate tribes, including the Kiyat, Merkit, Olkonud, Borjigin, Kerait and Tatar tribes. Within each Mongol tribe, there were a number of smaller clans. Mongol clans were usually made up of several families. Each clan obeyed a leader (sometimes called a lord) who had been elected by the clan members.

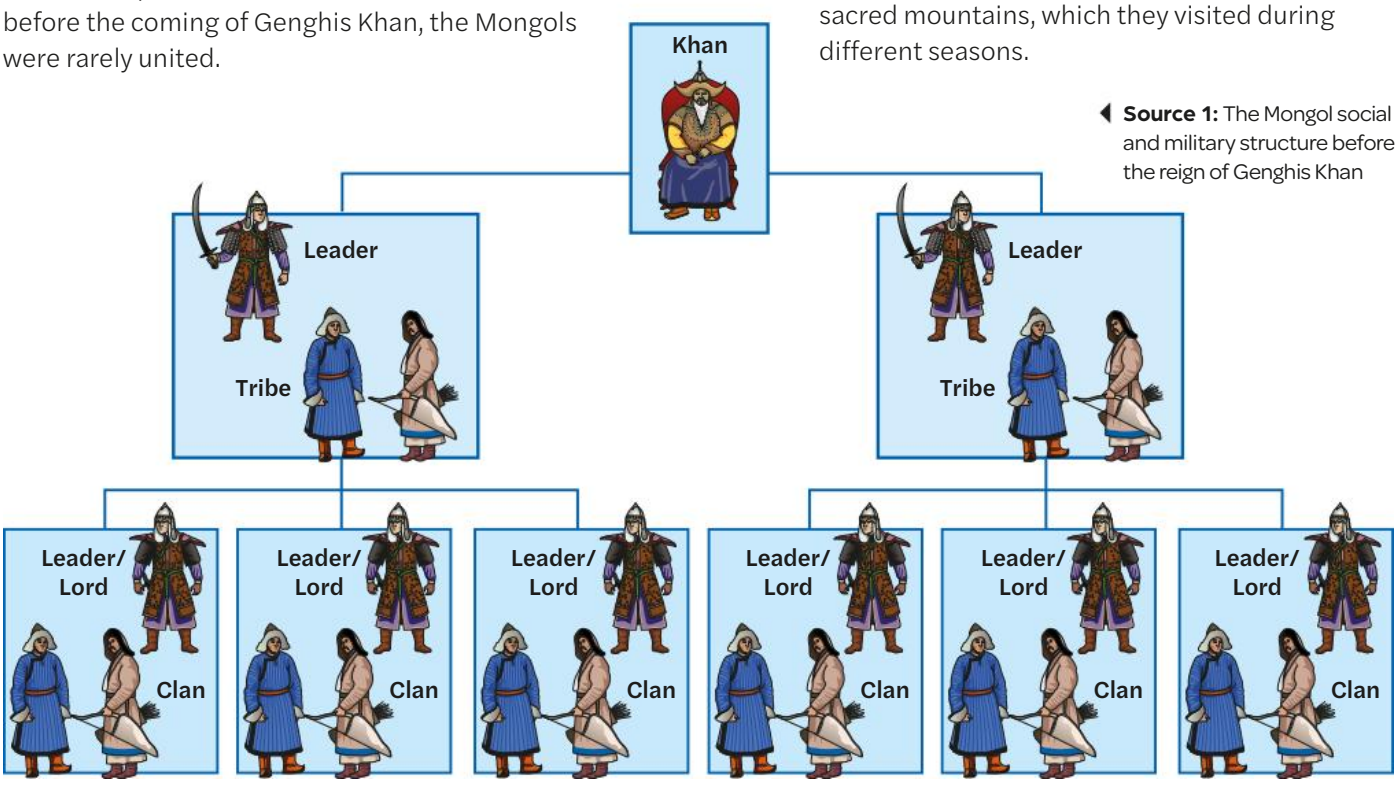
At the top of the social structure was the Great Khan: the leader of all the Mongols. The **khan** (king) was elected by the leaders of the Mongol tribes at the Mongol political council, which was known as the *kurultai*. During some periods of Mongol history, all tribes obeyed the Great Khan; during other periods, some tribes obeyed the Great Khan and others did not.

Power struggles were common. Feuds between the tribes could last for many years and involve theft, kidnap and murder. These feuds meant that before the coming of Genghis Khan, the Mongols were rarely united.

Religion

Traditional Mongolian beliefs and religious practices can best be described as shamanism. They believed in many different nature gods (including gods of water, weather, land and sky) who had the power to control various aspects of their lives. The Mongols also believed that dreams foretold the future, that a baby born holding a clot of blood in their hand was destined for greatness, and that the spirits worked through animals to guide humans in their life. Dogs were especially prized by the Mongols, as they were believed to have the same sort of spirit as humans. Wolves, falcons, deer and horses were also important symbolic animals.

Each tribe, and sometimes each clan, had a religious priest known as a shaman. Shamans communicated with the gods through visions and dreams in which they asked the gods to heal the sick. Shamanism suited the Mongols' nomadic way of life. The Mongols did not have temples, but they had tree shrines and sacred mountains, which they visited during different seasons.



Source 1: The Mongol social and military structure before the reign of Genghis Khan

Source 2: A Mongol camp [Image created c. 1430 CE for Rashid al-Din Hanadani, *Jami' al-tawarikh*]

Before the appearance of Genghis Khan, they had no chief or ruler. Each tribe or two tribes lived separately; they were not united with one another, and there was constant fighting and hostility between them. Some of them regarded robbery and violence ... as deeds of manliness and excellence.

Source 3: This extract was written by Ata-Malik Juvayni, who was a Persian scholar and grand vizier of the Mongol's Il-Khanate of Persia. [Ata-Malik Juvayni (1260 CE), *The History of the World Conqueror*]

Mongol women

Since the Mongols were nomads, everyone had to be able to undertake a range of tasks. While Mongol women were mainly responsible for raising children, setting up camps, cooking food and tending animals, these jobs would be taken over by a husband if his wife died. In turn, women were taught to ride horses and hunt at an early age. Mongol women had a range of rights that were not enjoyed by women elsewhere. For example, Mongol women could own and inherit property and could become shamans.

The ability to quickly and efficiently set up and pack up camps was an important aspect of the Mongol expansion. During military campaigns, women followed the male warriors into battle with the supplies and horses. The women ensured that the Mongol warriors were fed and rested and were ready to continue fighting.

Learning ladder 14.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the different social groups in Mongol society.
2. Describe the nature of the Mongol religion.
3. Explain how the kurultai functioned.
4. Explain why it was important for men and women to possess a variety of skills.
5. Evaluate the benefits and disadvantages of traditional Mongol society.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the content of the source.
3. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the arrival of Genghis Khan transformed Mongol society.
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the role of Mongolian women was crucial to the empire's expansion.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

Key individual

Who was Genghis Khan?

Genghis Khan, or Temüjin as he was first named, was born in 1162 CE on the freezing plains of Mongolia. The son of a tribal chief, he would unite the warring Mongolian tribes and establish the second-largest land empire in history.

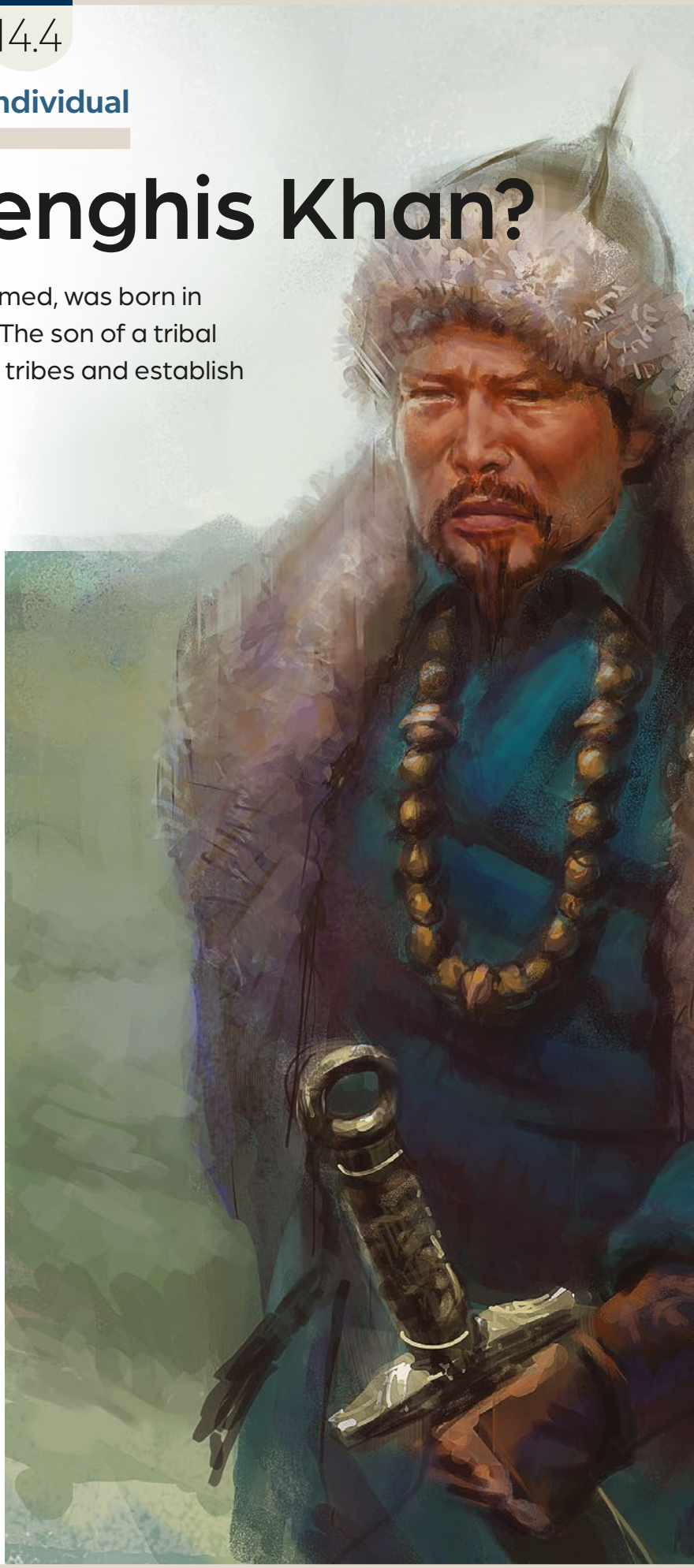
Rivalry and fighting between the Mongol tribes was a feature of Temüjin's early life. When he was nine years old, his father promised him in marriage to Börte, the daughter of a leader of the Olkonud tribe. But when his father was killed shortly afterwards by a member of the rival Tatar tribe, nine-year-old Temüjin tried to claim his rightful position as chief of his clan. The clan rejected him and cast his family out into the bleak Mongolian plains to live on berries, rats and birds.

At the age of 16, Temüjin married Börte, but she was kidnapped by the powerful Merkit tribe. Temüjin convinced another tribe to fight with him to free her. They overran the Merkit tribe and freed his wife.

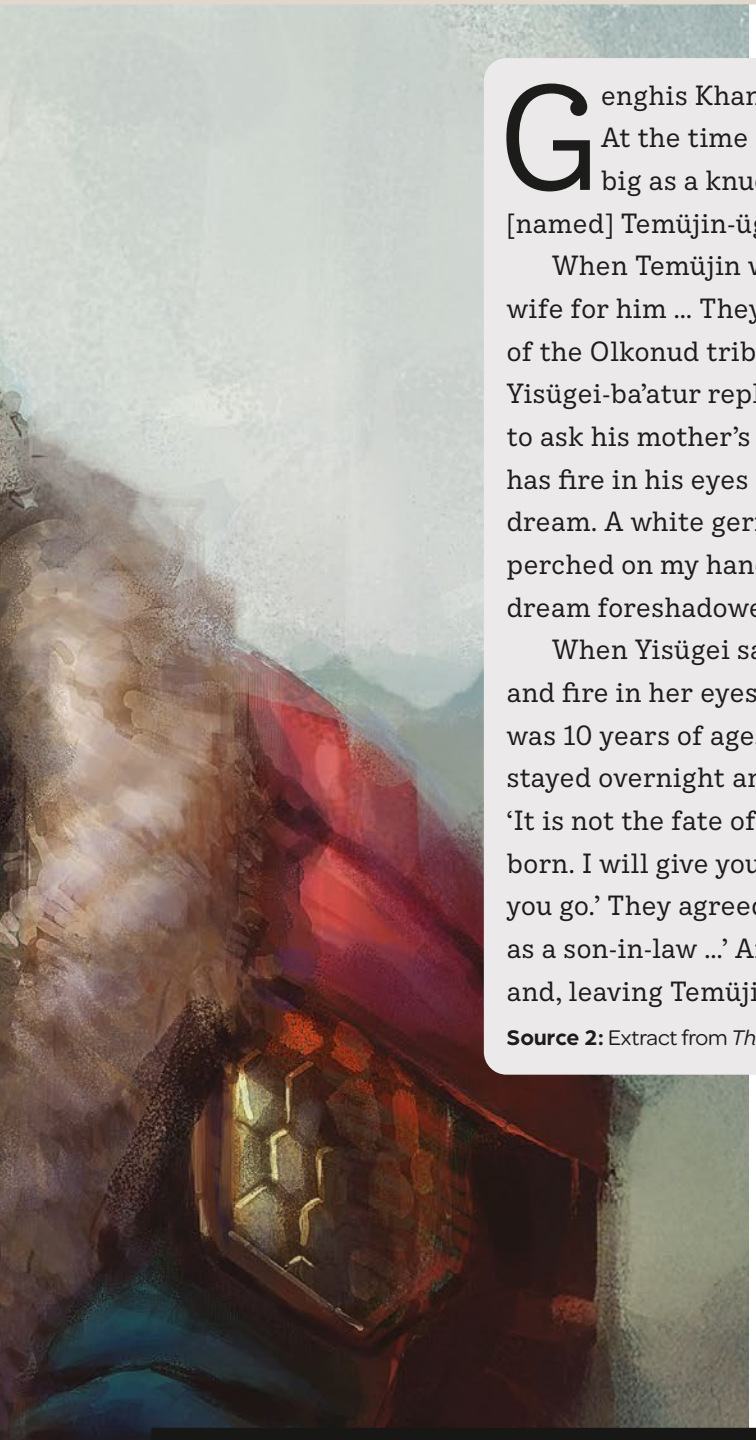
Through conflict and negotiations, Temüjin gradually gained the respect of other Mongolian tribes. He avenged his father's death by crushing the Tatar tribe, boiling the leaders alive and ordering the death of every male taller than a wagon's axle. By 1206 CE, at the age of 44, Temüjin had united the Mongolian tribes under his leadership. Temüjin was now the lord of the Mongolian tribes and given the title Genghis Khan: 'genghis' means universal and 'khan' is the Mongolian title for a ruler.

The Secret History of the Mongols

A manuscript known as *The Secret History of the Mongols* (1227 CE) is the oldest surviving Mongolian script of its kind. It was written not long after Genghis Khan's death, at the request of the Mongol royal family to commemorate his deeds of conquest and to show that his rule was ordained by the gods.



Source 1: Genghis Khan developed a fearsome reputation as a bloodthirsty leader who would not let anything get in his way. His loyal army slaughtered enemies in brutal ways, which sent a message to others to surrender to the Mongol army.



Genghis Khan was born with his destiny ordained by Heaven above. At the time of his birth, he held in his right hand a clot of blood as big as a knucklebone. Born at the time of the capture of the Tatar [named] Temüjin-üge, they thought to name him Temüjin.

When Temüjin was nine, [his father] Yisügei-ba'atur decided to find a wife for him ... They set out together. While travelling, they met Dei-sechen of the Olkonud tribe. Dei-sechen said: 'Yisügei-quda, who will you see?' Yisügei-ba'atur replied: 'I am going to the Olqunu'ut people with my son to ask his mother's brothers for a wife.' Dei-sechen said: 'This boy of yours has fire in his eyes and light in his face. Yisügei-quda, last night I had a dream. A white gerfalcon, holding both the sun and the moon, flew down and perched on my hand ... What good thing did this portend? Yisügei-quda, my dream foreshadowed your arrival, together with your son ...'

When Yisügei saw Dei-sechen's daughter, there was light in her face and fire in her eyes. After seeing the girl, he kept her in his thoughts. She was 10 years of age, a year older than Temüjin; her name was Börte. Yisügei stayed overnight and asked for the girl the next day. Dei-sechen replied: 'It is not the fate of a girl to grow old in the doorway behind which she was born. I will give you my daughter. Leave your son here as my son-in-law when you go.' They agreed to the marriage, and Yisügei-ba'atur said: 'I leave my son as a son-in-law ...' After saying these words, he gave his spare horse as a gift and, leaving Temüjin behind as a son-in-law, departed.

Source 2: Extract from *The Secret History of the Mongols* (1227 CE). The author is unknown.

Historians do not consider large portions of the manuscript to be historically accurate. Much of the information about Genghis Khan contains references to mythology and dreams. Other parts cannot be proven using other historical sources or archaeological evidence. However, *The Secret History of the Mongols* does contain valuable information about the language, writing and culture of the Mongols.

Learning ladder 14.4

Background and origins

1. Who was Temüjin?
2. Describe Mongol society during Temüjin's childhood.
3. Explain how Temüjin led an attack on the Tatar tribe.
4. Explain why Temüjin became known as 'Genghis Khan'.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 2: Describe the childhood of Genghis Khan, according to the source.
3. Source 2: Explain how the source describes marriage customs on Mongol society.
4. Source 2: Explain why this source was written.
5. Evaluate the usefulness of this source for a historian studying:
   - **a** Genghis Khan
   - **b** Mongol customs.

Why was the Mongol army so powerful?

The Mongol army consistently overpowered much larger armies thanks to their discipline, horses, innovative weaponry and superior riding skills.

Mongol cavalry

When Genghis Khan was the leader of the Mongol Empire, all Mongol men aged 15 to 70 were expected to fight. The Mongol army was made up of **cavalry**, which are soldiers who fight on horseback. The Mongols' horses, riding skills and weapons gave them the advantage against slower, less-agile enemies.

Mongols began riding and hunting at an early age and became very skilled. The tough Mongol horses made excellent warhorses. They were small, easy to mount and dismount, and foraged for their own food. They were resilient and could travel long distances in both extremely hot and cold climates.

Source 1: A mounted Mongol archer. Members of the Mongol cavalry were armed with powerful bows that could fire an arrow more than 500 metres. A lifetime of training and special wide stirrups allowed the rider to stand and turn to shoot as the horse galloped forward. [Creator unknown, *A Mongol Horseman with a Composite Bow* (c. 13th century CE)]

Source 2: Soldiers in the Mongol cavalry were perfectly equipped for battle.

Each warrior would care for a small herd of three to five horses, to ensure they always rode a fresh horse into battle. Being able to change horses also meant they could travel at high speed for days without stopping or wearing out the animals.

There were two types of cavalry troops. At the front-line was the heavy cavalry. These warriors were horsemen who brandished curved swords, spears and lances. They would charge forward on horseback towards the enemy in battle. Armour for the heavy cavalry was usually made out of small plates of iron sewn in parallel rows onto a vest of cloth or silk. They also wore an iron helmet.

Behind the heavy cavalry came the light cavalry. These were mounted archers who would fire a deadly volley of arrows towards the enemy and then pull back to allow the heavy cavalry to charge again. The light cavalry wore leather armour.

Sword

The metre-long curved scimitar was used for slashing attacks on horseback.

Arrow

Different arrows were used in different situations. Whistle arrows produced a whistling sound designed to terrify enemies. Flaming arrows were used to burn down villages.

Horses

The Mongolian horse was a breed native to Mongolia. These horses were small, fast and well balanced, allowing Mongol archers to stand and turn to fire on enemies. Mongolian horses were very hardy: they could be ridden for up to 40 kilometres each day and could withstand the extremes of the Mongolian climate.

Quiver

Soldiers carried two quivers containing more than 60 arrows.

Bow

Bows were made in layers of birch wood, deer sinew and sheep horn to give the flex needed to fire straight and long. Mongol arrows could travel over 500 metres.

Stirrups

The metal stirrup was a game-changing Mongol invention. The strong and wide metal stirrups allowed the rider to stand and fire arrows as the horse twisted and turned.

Order and discipline

Genghis Khan wanted an army that was structured effectively. So he organised his army according to the decimal system, arranging his troops in groups of 10. The largest unit was called a *tumen*. A tumen was a division of 10 000 warriors, led by officers (known as *noyan*). Within each tuman were 10 *minghan* (regiments) of 1000 warriors each, also led by noyan. Within each minghan were 10 *jaghan* (squadrons) of 100 warriors each. Each jaghan was divided into 10 *arban* (troop) of 10 soldiers. The leader of each group reported to the leader of the next level.

The *keshik*

Genghis Khan had a special unit known as the *keshik*. The members of this group were Genghis Khan's personal bodyguards and protectors. Of these, 1000 were required to follow him into battle.

Members of the keshik were trained to be future generals and governors of the Mongol Empire. Governors and generals would send their sons to the keshik to be trained in Mongol warfare and administration. This was a clever system because it ensured that Genghis Khan personally knew every general or governor in the empire and that they were loyal to him.

Training and tactics

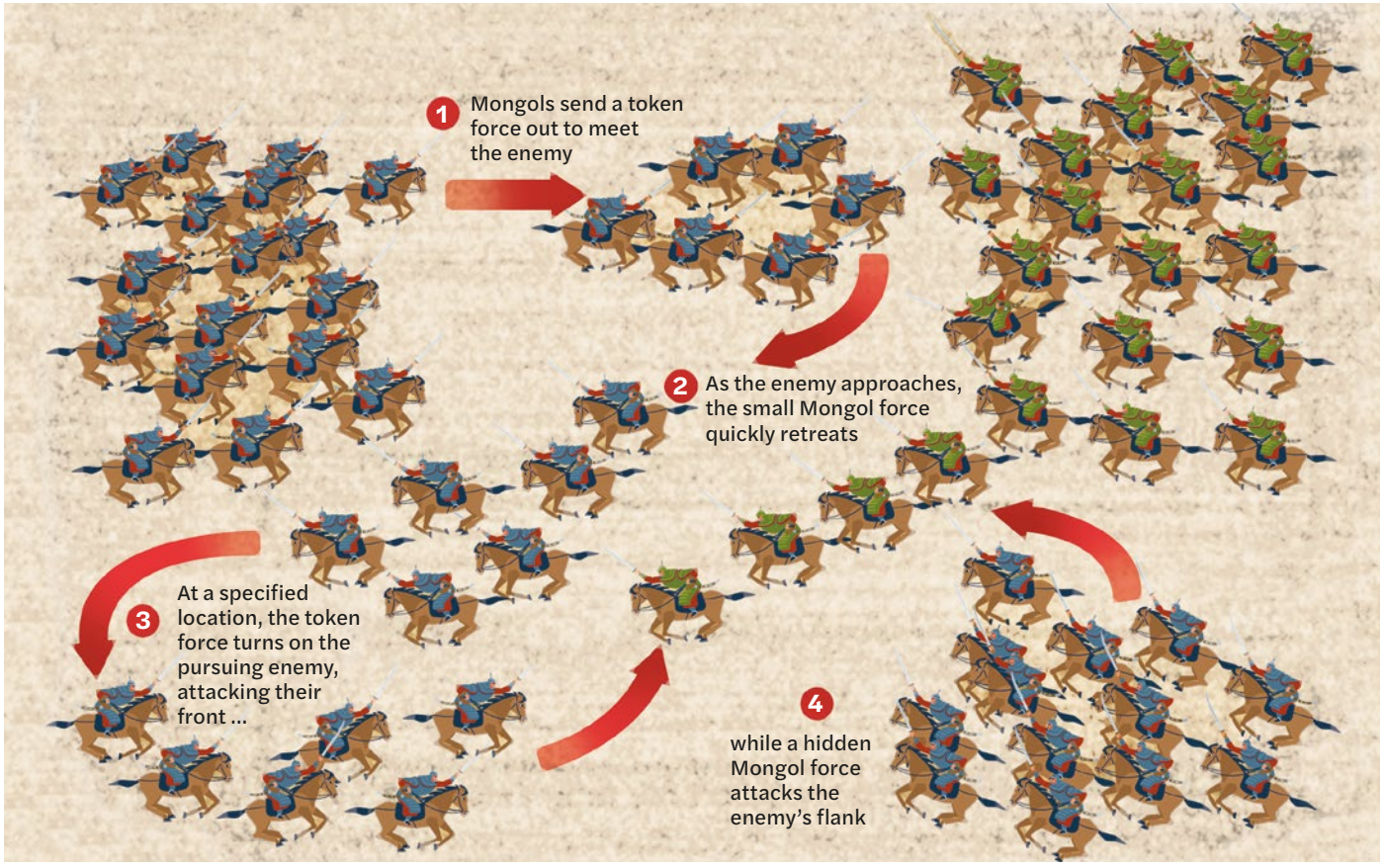
Genghis Khan maintained effective training and strict discipline in his army. His military system focused on quick, decisive manoeuvres that utilised the riding ability of the Mongol horsemen. At the same time, disobedience led to severe punishments. If a solider fled from battle, he and all the other members of his arban were executed.

The Mongol army developed many clever tactics for different situations. A favoured tactic was the fake retreat (feint), where they would charge the enemy and then retreat, to lead the enemy into an ambush. They also used encirclement, where the light cavalry would encircle the enemy from a distance and then shower them with arrows.

Psychological warfare

The most effective weapon that the Mongols had was the spread of fear. When the Mongols approached a city they intended to conquer, they gave the leaders of the city a choice: resist or surrender. If the leaders chose to resist, the full force of the Mongol army would be unleashed.

Source 3: Diagram showing the Mongols' fake retreat tactic



Genghis Khan would ensure that nearly everyone was killed. Those left alive had their ears cut off and were told to flee. The Mongols knew they would most likely run to the next city where they would tell the people of the Mongols' brutality, spreading terror and panic.

However, if a city's leaders chose to surrender, the lives and property of its citizens were spared. Genghis Khan installed a Mongol leader to take charge of the city and its wealth, and integrated all male citizens into the Mongol army. This ensured that as the Mongols expanded into new territories, their troop numbers continued to increase.

Source 4: The Mongols' heavy cavalry troops charging into battle. The heavy cavalry was followed by the light cavalry armed with bows and arrows.

Learning ladder 14.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 4: Identify the two types of cavalry forces in the Mongol army.
2. Source 3: Describe the fake retreat tactic.
3. Explain how the Mongol army was structured.
4. Explain why the Mongols' army structure was beneficial.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of surrendering to the Mongols.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify the significant Mongol invention that was used by the cavalry.
2. Describe the significance of the Mongolian horse to the Mongols' military success.
3. Source 2: Explain the significance of the invention of the stirrup.
4. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain why Genghis Khan could be considered a historically significant military leader.

How did Genghis Khan's empire expand?

Genghis Khan built a large army of ruthless soldiers who terrorised enemies throughout Asia and Europe. He also built the largest empire the world had seen. During the 13th and 14th centuries CE, almost one-quarter of the world's population lived in the Mongol Empire.

Attacks on China

Genghis Khan first looked south to China to expand his empire and obtain resources not found in Mongolia. The Mongols were dependent on China for many goods including grain, metals and manufactured items such as fabrics. Before the time of Genghis Khan, the Jin dynasty, which controlled northern China, and the western Xia dynasty from north-west China had regularly conducted raids against the Mongols. Following Genghis Khan's rise to power, a Jin official arrived at his court and ordered the Mongols to pay tribute to the Jin state. Genghis Khan refused and instead, after consulting his generals, decided to declare war on the Jin.

The battles against the Jin

In 1211 CE, the Mongols sent 90 000 troops, nearly their entire army, in a military campaign against the Jin dynasty. Khan's army launched a surprise cavalry charge through the Huan'erzui passage towards Yehuling. The Mongol army slaughtered the entire Jin army at Yehuling, leaving bodies strewn over hundreds of kilometres.

The Mongolian Empire, 1206–1279 CE

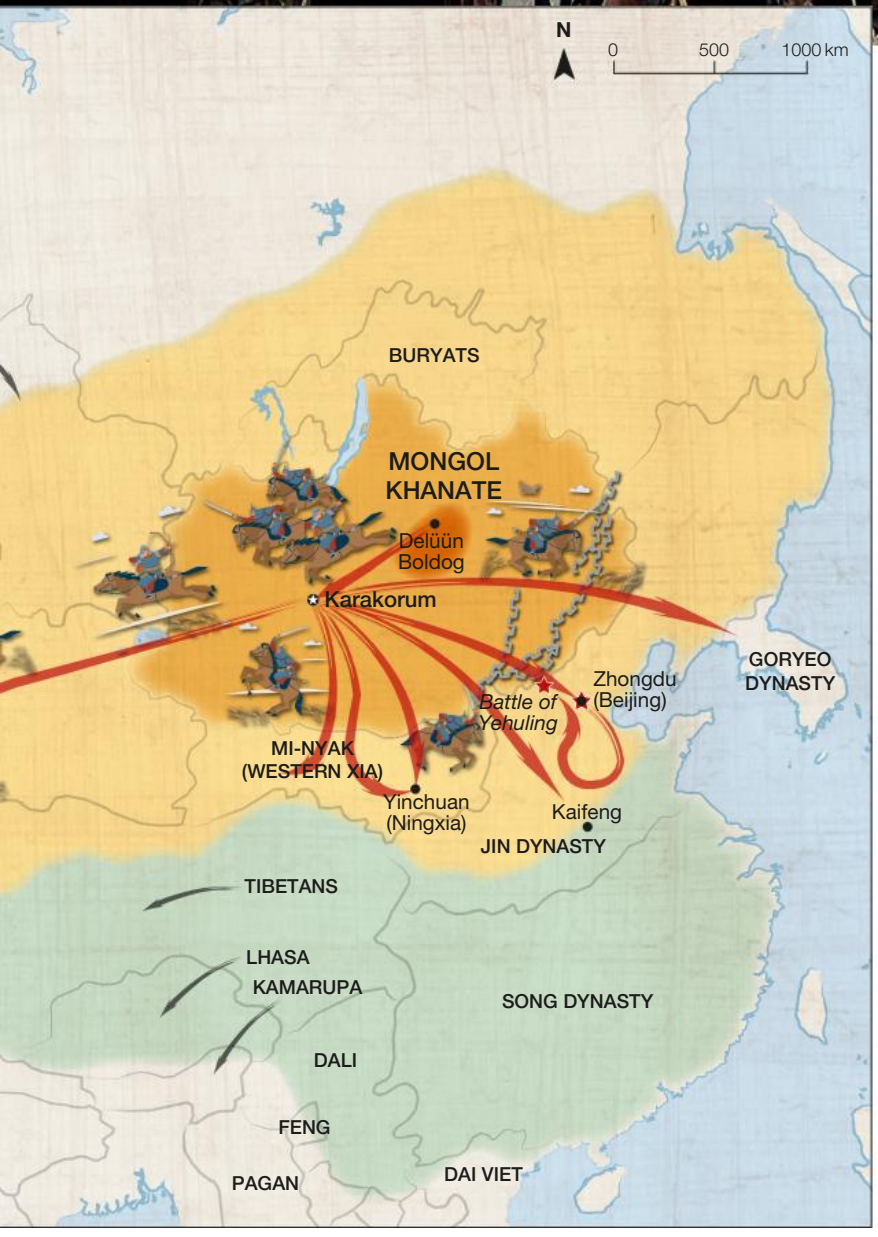
Source 1: The expansion of the Mongolian Empire from 1206 CE

Source 2: The Mongol army rides into battle in the 2007 CE movie *Mongol*. Often outnumbered, the Mongols relied on their superior tactics, skills, speed and endurance to defeat enemies.

The fall of Zhongdu

By 1213 CE, Genghis Khan's troops controlled the Jin territory up to the Great Wall of China, the ancient wall built to keep out all tribal raiders living north of the wall. Genghis Khan decided to break his invading army into three smaller armies. Each broke through the wall and reunited to attack Zhongdu (modern-day Beijing), the Jin capital. Here the Mongol army used siege tactics: it surrounded the city and cut off its supply routes. With the population starving, the Jin eventually surrendered in 1215 CE. The people were slaughtered and the city was looted and burned.

The Mongols then attacked the surrounding provinces of Shanxi, Hebei and Shandong between 1217 and 1223 CE. After the death of Genghis Khan, the Mongols continued to expand their territories in China, leading to the collapse of the Jin empire in 1234 CE. The Mongols would rule over China for almost a century.



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Mongol expansion (c. 1206–1368)

Attacks on Central Asia

Genghis Khan did not originally intend to expand into Central Asia. He sent the ruler of the Khwarezmid Empire a message asking to trade with them:

> I am master of the lands of the rising sun while you rule those of the setting sun. Let us conclude a firm treaty of friendship and peace.
>
> **Source 3:** Genghis Khan, cited in a book by the Persian scholar Ata-Malik Juvayni [Ata-Malik Juvayni (1260 CE), *The History of the World Conqueror*]

The Khwarezm ***shah*** (king), Muhammad II, sent word that he would agree to a peace treaty and trade with the Mongols. The Mongols immediately sent a trade caravan, but the traders were killed and their goods were stolen. Genghis Khan sent three officials

Source 4: Shah Jalal al-Din escaping Genghis Khan's army at the Battle of the Indus [From Mas'ud bin Osmani Kuhistani (c. 1540 CE), *History of Abul-Khayr Khan*]

Source 5: Pavel Ryzhenko (1996 CE), *The Battle of Kalka*. This image shows the capture of the Rus prince Mstislav of Kyiv at the Battle of Kalka in 1223 CE.

to protest to the shah, but the shah had their heads cut off and returned to Genghis. In 1219 CE, the Mongol army of 200 000 men rode west and raided several cities in the Khwarezmid Empire. Using captured prisoners as a human shield, Genghis Khan's army stormed the capital city of Samarkand in 1220 CE.

Battle of the Indus, 1221 CE

Shah Muhammad II died in December 1220 CE and was succeeded by his son Jalal al-Din. Jalal al-Din pulled together what was left of the Khwarezm army in Afghanistan. Genghis sent forces to hunt them down, but they were defeated. The furious Mongol leader headed to the battlefront himself and crushed the Khwarezm army in battle at the Indus River.

Jalal al-Din managed to escape Genghis Khan's forces by riding his horse off a 10-metre cliff to cross the Indus River. But his troops and his young sons were slaughtered by the Mongols.

Attacks on Europe

Following the defeat of the Khwarezmid Empire, Genghis's trusted *noyan* (general), Jebe, asked him for a chance to continue his conquests. Genghis agreed and Jebe and another general called Subutai led a force of 20 000 troops into the Caucasus (a region spanning Western Asia and Eastern Europe).

They pressed forward into Persia, Azerbaijan and Georgia, plundering and slaughtering as they went. Meanwhile, the Rus princes looked on with alarm at the Mongol advance. They decided to form an alliance to fight the Mongols. Their army would meet the Mongols at the Battle of Kalka River in 1223 CE. The Mongols were victorious, decimating the Rus army and capturing and killing the Rus leader, Mstislav of Kyiv.

Lacking the resources to conquer and hold any territory, the Mongols then headed back east for home. Their expedition had been the longest cavalry raid in history, with the Mongols travelling 8900 kilometres. Thirteen years later, in 1236 CE, Subutai and Genghis Khan's grandson, Batu, would return and conquer the Rus principalities for the empire.

Learning ladder 14.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify three groups that had been conquered by the Mongols by 1227 CE.
2. Source 1: Describe the expansion of the Mongol Empire between 1206 CE and 1227 CE.
3. Explain how the Mongol army defeated the Jin army at Zhongdu.
4. Source 4: Using the source, explain why the shah survived the Battle of the Indus.
5. Was Genghis Khan justified in attacking other empires in Asia and Central Asia? Explain your answer.

Cause and effect

1. Source 5: Identify an outcome of the Battle of Kalka (1223 CE).
2. Describe the causes of the Mongol attack on China.
3. Explain the effects of the Mongols' conquest of Zhongdu.
4. Explain why Genghis Khan conquered the Kwarezmid Empire.
5. Sources 1 and 5: Using the sources and your knowledge, assess the effects of the Mongols' attacks on Europe.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

How did Genghis Khan manage a vast empire?

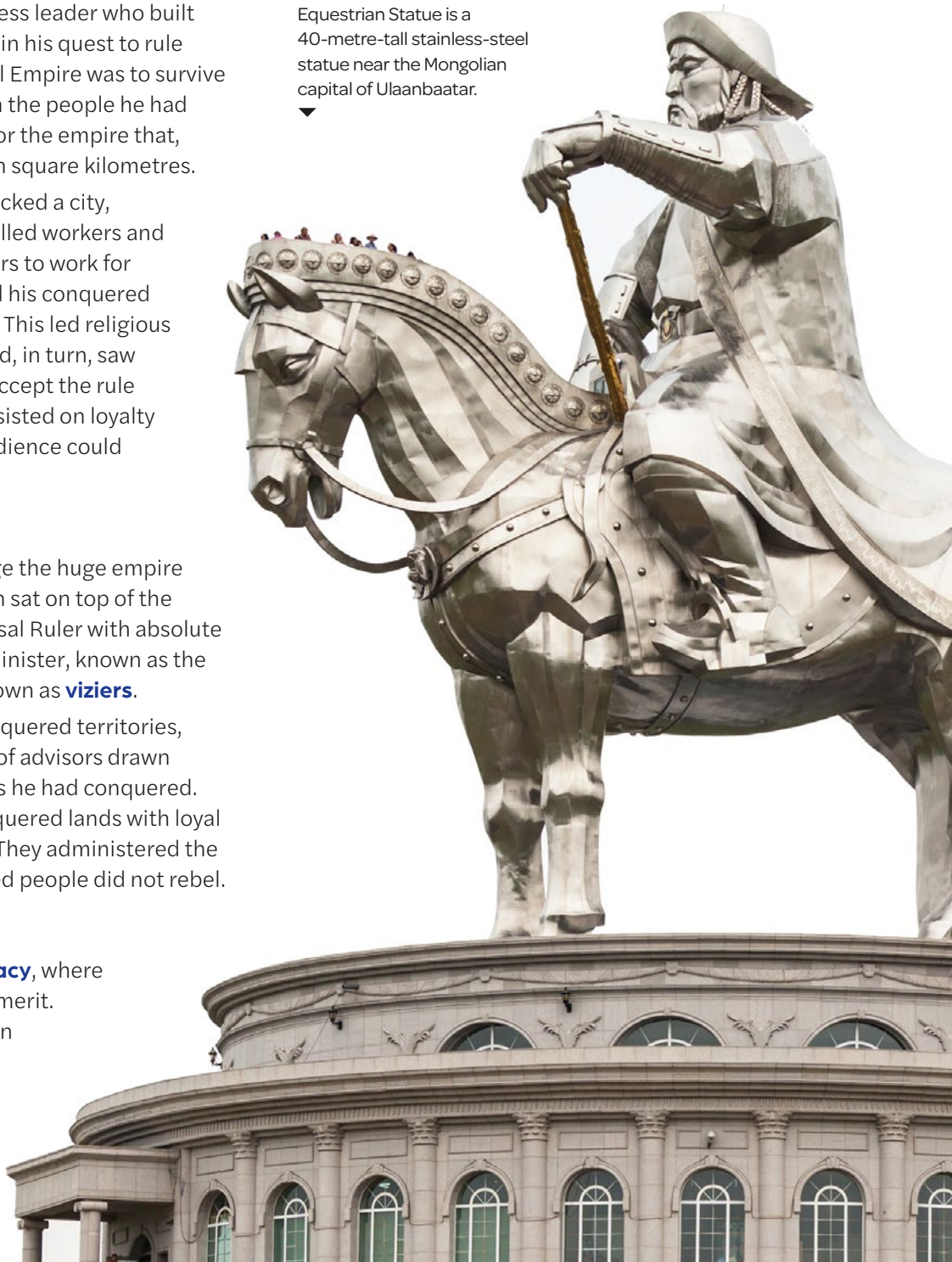
Genghis Khan managed the massive Mongol Empire with skilled administrators, strict rules, severe punishments and a relay communication system that enabled messages to travel quickly.

Genghis Khan's empire

Genghis Khan was a brilliant, merciless leader who built a vast empire, slaughtering millions in his quest to rule the world. If Genghis's great Mongol Empire was to survive and expand, he needed to work with the people he had conquered and provide structures for the empire that, in his time, stretched for 13.5 million square kilometres.

Whenever he and his forces attacked a city, Genghis Khan spared the lives of skilled workers and hand-picked talented military leaders to work for his empire. Furthermore, he allowed his conquered people to follow their own religions. This led religious leaders to support Genghis Khan and, in turn, saw them encourage their followers to accept the rule of the Mongols. However, he also insisted on loyalty to himself and no other. Any disobedience could mean death.

Source 1: The Genghis Khan Equestrian Statue is a 40-metre-tall stainless-steel statue near the Mongolian capital of Ulaanbaatar.



Governing the empire

The Mongols had to adapt to manage the huge empire they now controlled. The Great Khan sat on top of the government structure as the Universal Ruler with absolute power. He was advised by a prime minister, known as the ***beqlare–beq***, and his ministers, known as **viziers**.

To maintain control over his conquered territories, Genghis Khan established councils of advisors drawn from the different nations and tribes he had conquered. He also replaced the leaders of conquered lands with loyal military governors called ***basqaqs***. They administered the territory, collected taxes and ensured people did not rebel.

Meritocracy

The Mongol Empire was a **meritocracy**, where all positions were chosen based on merit. Positions of responsibility were given to those who showed great loyalty or bravery.

This ensured that the leaders of the empire were staunchly loyal to Genghis Khan and carried out his orders directly. It also meant that his best warriors had leadership roles in the Mongol army, making the army continually effective.

A code to live by

According to *The Secret History of the Mongols*, Genghis Khan established a set of laws, known as the ***Yassa***, for his empire in 1206 CE. While the *Secret History* does not specifically list any of these laws and no full copy has ever been found, several texts written in the 14th century nonetheless refer to fragments of Genghis Khan's Yassa.

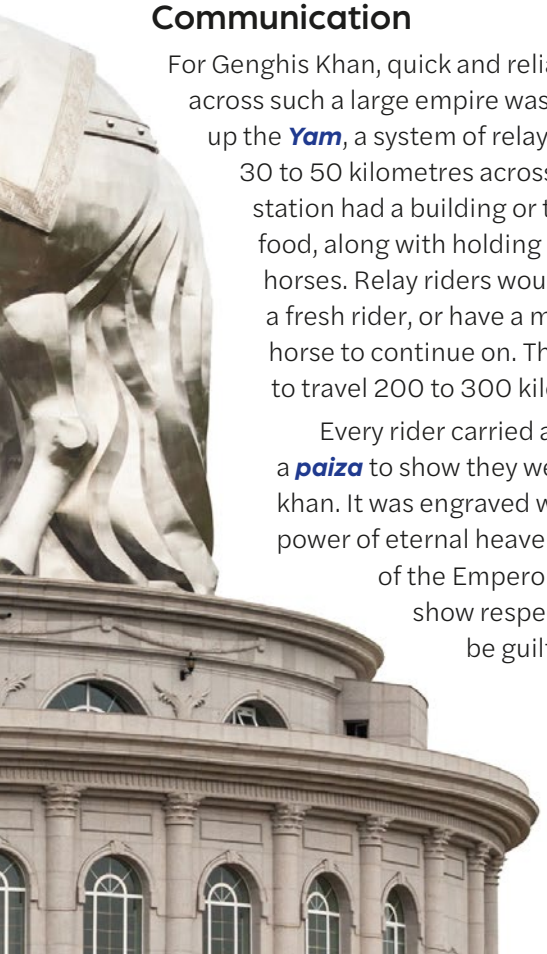
The Yassa represented a significant change from the Mongols' use of customary laws to the use of written, codified laws. It also introduced change for subject peoples. Troops were stationed across the empire to maintain control and to ensure people followed the Yassa.

The aim of the Yassa was to enforce obedience to Genghis Khan and his successors, resolve social and economic disputes and punish wrongdoers. The death penalty was applied frequently, even for minor offences. The Yassa also ensured that those loyal to the khan were treated favourably under the law and given pardons or lenient punishments.

Communication

For Genghis Khan, quick and reliable communication across such a large empire was critical. He set up the ***Yam***, a system of relay stations every 30 to 50 kilometres across the empire. Each station had a building or tent with beds and food, along with holding pens and food for horses. Relay riders would hand a message to a fresh rider, or have a meal and take a fresh horse to continue on. This enabled messages to travel 200 to 300 kilometres per day.

Every rider carried a metal pendant called a ***paiza*** to show they were messengers of the khan. It was engraved with a message: 'By the power of eternal heaven, [this is] an order of the Emperor. Whoever does not show respect [to the bearer] will be guilty of an offence.'



Source 2: Paiza were medallions carried by Yam riders and diplomats to show they were official representatives of the khan.

Learning ladder 14.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the individual shown in this source.
2. Source 2: Describe how this artefact was used in the Mongol Empire.
3. Explain how Genghis Khan governed the empire.
4. Explain why Genghis Khan established the Yam.
5. Evaluate the fairness of Genghis Khan's rule.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the name of the new law code for the Mongol Empire.
2. Describe how Genghis Khan changed the leaders of conquered lands.
3. Explain how allowing conquered people to continue their religion ensured their support for Mongol rule.
4. Explain why the Yassa represented a significant change for the Mongols and their subject peoples.
5. Analyse whether continuity or change was dominant in governing the Mongol Empire.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

What is the legacy of Genghis Khan?

By the time Genghis Khan died in 1227 CE, his empire stretched from Mongolia to Central Asia. Within 50 years it would expand even further, into Eastern Europe, China and the Middle East. Today, the legacy of Genghis Khan remains highly debated – was he a great leader, a barbarian or a maker of the modern world?

Mongolian views of Genghis Khan

In Mongolia today, Genghis Khan is seen as a great leader who laid the foundations of modern Mongolia. His establishment of a strong government, written laws and fairness towards all religions are seen as important contributions. Rather than view Genghis Khan as a violent conqueror, they instead believe that he brought peace, trade and improved communications across Europe and Asia.

The views of former conquered nations

The modern nations in Eastern Europe and the Middle East that were once part of the Mongolian Empire have very different views of Genghis Khan. Here Khan is seen negatively, as a 'barbarian savage' whose empire set in motion events that caused tremendous damage to their society and culture, from which they have barely recovered. In Russia, especially, historians have often portrayed Genghis Khan as the 'greatest disaster in Russian history' and an enemy of world peace.

Meanwhile, in China, Khan's legacy has shifted. While Khan was seen as a barbarian conqueror at different times in the past, historians in China now view Khan much more favourably. National Chinese policy, which includes Guangxi, Inner Mongolia, Tibet, Ningxia and Xinjiang as autonomous (self-governing) regions of China, sees Genghis Khan as an important founder of modern China. A wax statue of him stands in the National History Museum in Beijing next to the most prominent emperors in Chinese history, and he is praised for his conquests in Europe. In 1954–1956 CE the Chinese Government built a mausoleum to Genghis Khan in the traditional Mongol style.

Source 1: Statue of Genghis Khan at the Government Palace (parliament house), Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

Source 2: The Genghis Khan Mausoleum, Xinjie, Inner Mongolia. The mausoleum doesn't actually hold Genghis Khan's body – his tomb has never been found.

The building underwent extensive restoration in 1981–1982 CE and was expanded in 2006 CE. It is used as a centre for the worship of Genghis Khan, according to traditional Mongolian shaman practices.

Western views

For historians in Western Europe, whose lands were never conquered by the Mongols, the legacy of Genghis Khan has changed over time. During the time of the Italian merchant Marco Polo, who travelled the entire length of the Silk Road to meet with Genghis Khan's grandson, Kublai Khan, views of Genghis Khan were largely positive. He was seen as a wise ruler and a great warrior.

> Genghis Khan is [known as] as a genius conqueror and strategist; a savage barbarian and a sophisticated law giver … This multiple image and its continuous evolution is partially explained by the phenomenal scope of Genghis's career which made him remembered in each of the realms on which he had an impact – Mongolia, China, the Muslim world, Russia, and Western Europe …
>
> Moreover, Genghis did not remain only an historical figure: his life has inspired a host of epic myths, legends and literary works from Buddhist compilations to English and French plays, Hollywood movies, Chinese TV series, Muslim chronicles … and historical novels from around the world.

Source 3: Extract from Michal Biran (2007 CE), *Chinggis Khan*. Michal Biran is a historian.

However, from the 18th century, Western Europeans believed their society to be enlightened and saw Genghis Khan as an uncivilised **barbarian**. More recently, however, Western European historians have seen Genghis Khan as a pioneer of globalisation. They see Genghis Khan's vast empire as a forerunner to the expansive networks of trade, communications and cultural ideas that move across the modern world.

Learning ladder 14.8

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the location of the statue of Genghis Khan.
2. Source 1: Describe the image of Genghis Khan as portrayed in this statue.
3. Source 2: Explain the purpose of this building.
4. Explain why Western European historians link Genghis Khan's legacy to modern globalisation.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate over Genghis Khan's legacy.
2. Describe the Russian view of Genghis Khan.
3. Source 1: Explain how this source demonstrates the Mongolian view of Genghis Khan.
4. Compare the Chinese and Russian views of Genghis Khan.
5. Source 3: Using the source, evaluate the reasons why Genghis Khan's legacy is contested.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

Key individual

How did Sorghaghtani Beki solidify Mongol rule?

Women played key roles in the Mongol Empire. Perhaps the most important woman in the Mongol Empire was Sorghaghtani Beki, who ruled the central lands of the Mongol Empire and ensured its ongoing success.

Who was Sorghaghtani Beki?

Sorghaghtani Beki was born in c. 1190 CE. She was a member of the Kerait tribe and the niece of its leader, Toghrul (also known as Ong Khan). The tribe followed a form of Christianity known as the Church of the East.

In c. 1204 CE, Sorghaghtani married Genghis Khan's youngest son, Tolui. Tolui was a great military leader and led the Mongols to victory against the Jin dynasty and the Khwarazmian Empire. According to Mongol tradition, the youngest sons of the khans always inherited their father's lands and ruled until a new khan was elected. Therefore, when Genghis Khan died in 1227 CE, Tolui inherited his lands in the centre of the empire and ruled as regent until a successor could be elected at a kurultai. At the kurultai of 1229 CE, Tolui's older brother Ögedei was elected as the second Great Khan, in accordance with Genghis Khan's wishes.

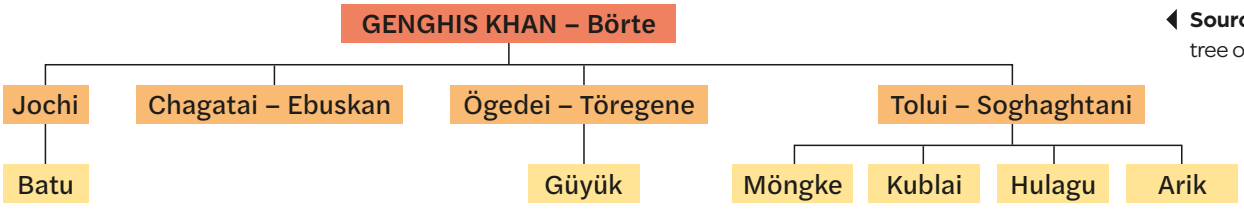
Tolui died suddenly in 1232 CE, for reasons that are not clear. Following Tolui's death, Ögedei Khan asked Sorghaghtani to marry him. He hoped to link her lands with his, given that they were located at the heart of the Mongol Empire. But Sorghaghtani refused. Ogedei then asked her to marry his son Güyük instead, but again she declined. This was unusual, as it was customary for a Mongol woman to remarry after her husband had died. However, Sorghaghtani's decision allowed her to remain in charge of Tolui's estates in eastern Mongolia, Persia (Iran) and northern China, and also to have complete control over the training of her sons as future leaders.

The sons of Sorghagtani

Sorghaghtani had four sons: Möngke, Kublai, Hulagu and Arik. She devoted herself to bringing up her sons to be young men of courage, wisdom and integrity. Sorghaghtani never learned to read but she understood the importance of education and ensured that her sons could read and write Mongolian and that they had an extensive understanding of the societies around them, including the Jurched, Uighurs and Chinese. She instructed them in Christian teachings but also encouraged them to be tolerant of all religions, founding several mosques and Muslim religious schools throughout the empire. In addition, she insisted that they always maintain upright behaviour, so they might never be under suspicion for disloyalty or misconduct.

The kurultai of 1251 CE

Ögedei Khan died in 1241 CE. By this time, all four of Genghis Khan's sons were dead and most of his empire was ruled by the women who had married his sons. Ebuskun, the widow of Genghis Khan's second son, Chagatai, ruled Central Asia or Turkestan. Sorghaghtani ruled in eastern Mongolia, Persia and northern China.



Source 1: The family tree of Genghis Khan

Töregene, the widow of Ögedei Khan, ruled the territory of her late husband in the centre of Mongol territory, and was empress over the whole empire. Only the Mongol lands in Russia (known as the Golden Horde) were under the control of a male leader, Batu Khan, the son of Genghis's oldest son Jochi.

As an aristocratic woman, Sorghaghtani had grown up at the centre of Mongol political life and knew how to influence and persuade those around her. She had built an alliance with the influential Batu Khan and with Genghis Khan's surviving brothers. In 1250 CE, Batu summoned a kurultai, which elected Sorghaghtani's son Möngke as the fourth Great Khan, but this election was opposed as it had not been held in the Mongolian homelands. Since the Mongolian homelands were part of Sorghaghtani's lands, she organised a second kurultai in 1251 CE. This kurultai confirmed Möngke's election.

The consolidation of Mongol power

Sorghaghtani died in 1252 CE, but her efforts to protect her lands, educate her children and build alliances set a strong foundation for the consolidation of Mongol power. Her son Möngke Khan sent his brother Hulagu to conquer the Middle East and his brother Kublai to conquer the rest of China. By the time Möngke died in 1259 CE, the Mongol Empire was at its greatest extent. Kublai became the fifth Great Khan in 1260 CE and founded the Yuan dynasty in China, while Hulagu ruled as khan of the Il-khanate, with control over Persia, Turkey, Georgia and Armenia.

> Now in the management and education of all her sons, in the administration of affairs of state, in the maintenance of dignity and prestige and in the execution of business, Sorghaghtani Beki … laid such a foundation that no man would have been capable of. In any business which Ögedei Khan undertook, whether with regard to the good of the empire or the use of the army, he used first to consult and confer with her and would suffer no change or alteration of whatever she recommended … For the report of her wisdom and prudence and the fame of her counsel had spread to all parts, and none would go against her word.

Source 3: Text describing Sorghaghtani Beki [Ata-Malik Juvayni (c. 1270 CE), *The History of the World Conqueror*]

Source 2: Sorghaghtani Beki and her husband Tolui [An image from Rashid al-Din Hamadani (c. 1307) CE, *Jami' al-tawarikh*]

Learning ladder 14.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the four sons of Genghis Khan.
2. Describe the outcomes of the kurultais of 1229 CE and 1251 CE.
3. Explain how Sorghaghtani equipped her sons to become Mongol leaders.
4. Explain why there was pressure for Sorghaghtani to remarry after the death of her husband.
5. Evaluate the role of noble women in Mongol society.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the sons of Sorghaghtani and Tolui.
2. Source 2: Describe how this source shows the importance of Sorghaghtani in Mongol society.
3. Explain how Sorghaghtani was able to ensure the election of her son Möngke.
4. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why Sorghaghtani was a significant individual in Mongol history.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

Key individual

How did Kublai Khan conquer China?

Kublai Khan brought the empire to its greatest height by defeating the Song dynasty in southern China to create the Yuan dynasty. He reigned for 30 years, crushing rebellions against him to ensure that all knew he was the Great Khan, ruler of the Mongol Empire.

Becoming the Great Khan

When Möngke Khan first appointed his brother Kublai as governor of the Chinese territories, only northern China was under Mongol rule, with the south ruled by the powerful Song dynasty.

In 1250 CE, Möngke asked Kublai to join him in an attack on the Song dynasty to bring all of China under Mongol control. The Mongols quickly overcame the Song defences on the Yangtze River and moved into south-west China, as far as Vietnam.

However, in 1259 CE, Möngke died during the campaign and Kublai was forced to return to the Mongol capital of Karakorum. When he arrived, he discovered that his brother Arik had claimed the title of **Great Khan**. Kublai challenged Arik, and a four-year **civil war** broke out between the brothers. In 1264 CE, Kublai's army won and he became the fifth Mongol Empire ruler called Kublai Khan.

Conquering the Song dynasty

After becoming the Great Khan, Kublai continued his conquest of the Song dynasty. Kublai Khan was greatly outnumbered. The Song dynasty had a huge population of 70 million people and an army many times the size of the Mongol force.

In 1268 CE, the Mongol forces were stalled at the city of Xiangyang on the Han River. The high walls that surrounded the city were seven metres thick and five kilometres long. Laying siege to the city was very different to fighting on horseback in an open plain. While the Song warriors emerged to fight the Mongols from time to time, they could always retreat into their city if the Mongols started to overpower them.

The Mongols tried blockading the Han River with 5000 ships to stop supplies getting into the city in an attempt to starve the Song out, but the Song had stockpiled years of supplies and could hold out for a very long time.

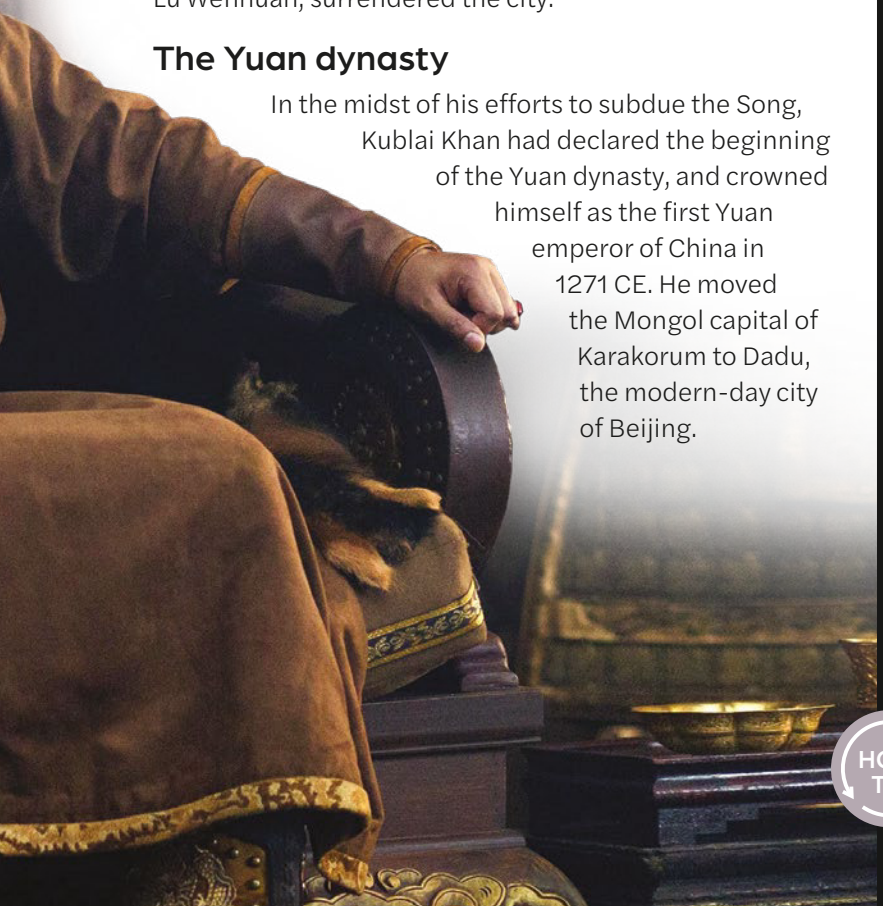
Source 1: Kublai became the Great Khan in 1264 CE. This source is an image of Kublai Khan from the television series *Marco Polo*, made in 2014 CE.

Source 2: A trebuchet attack on Zarang, in Sijistan, Persia, by the Mongol army in 1222 CE, from an illuminated manuscript by Rashid al-Din Hamadani (c. 1307 CE), 'Mahmud ibn Sebuktegin Attacks the Fortress of Zarang', *Jami' al-tawarikh*]

By 1272 CE, the Mongols tried a new approach. They brought in 20 000 extra troops and began to build a new super-weapon: the counterweight trebuchet. The counterweight trebuchet was used extensively in Europe and Persia. It had a shooting range of 500 metres and could throw projectiles weighing over 300 kilograms. Thanks to their vast empire, the Mongols had learned about Persian and European technology and could recruit Persian engineers from the Il-khanate to build a trebuchet for them. They built 20 counterweight trebuchets and used them at the siege of Xiangyang. This proved highly effective and on 14 March 1273 CE, the commander of Xiangyang, Lu Wenhuan, surrendered the city.

The Yuan dynasty

In the midst of his efforts to subdue the Song, Kublai Khan had declared the beginning of the Yuan dynasty, and crowned himself as the first Yuan emperor of China in 1271 CE. He moved the Mongol capital of Karakorum to Dadu, the modern-day city of Beijing.



Learning ladder 14.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the dynasty that was overthrown by Kublai Khan.
2. Describe how Kublai Khan became the fifth Great Khan.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the counterweight trebuchet worked.
4. Explain why Kublai Khan was able to defeat the Song forces at Xiangyang.
5. What does the Mongols' victory at Xiangyang demonstrate about their adaptability as a fighting force?

Chronology

1. Source 1: Identify the year that Kublai became the fifth Great Khan.
2. Put the following events in chronological order:
   - 1271 CE: Kublai Khan founds the Yuan dynasty
   - 1250: Möngke Khan begins the conquest of the Song dynasty
   - 1268–1273 CE: The Siege of Xiangyang
   - 1259 CE: Möngke Khan dies
   - 1264 CE: Kublai Khan becomes the fifth Great Khan.
3. Use the events from Question 2 to create a timeline.
4. Explain how the events on your timeline demonstrate continuity and change.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

How did Kublai Khan rule China?

Kublai Khan's rule in China was characterised by the integration of Chinese, Persian and Mongol cultures.

Kublai's administration

Having established the Yuan dynasty, Kublai Khan's next task was to integrate two different cultures under his rule as the Great Khan. The Great Wall of China separated two different ways of life: the nomadic Mongolian herders north of the wall and the sophisticated Chinese cities south of the wall.

The Chinese had always regarded the Mongols as barbarians, but Kublai Khan's knowledge of, and respect for, Chinese culture helped him gain their acceptance.

Kublai Khan adopted many Chinese ideas into his government structures. He included Chinese rituals at his court, retained the traditional Chinese Six Ministries (personnel, revenue, religious rites, defence, justice and public works) and appointed Chinese advisors. However, the most important government posts were only given to Mongols.

The Mongols also introduced new ideas from Persia, Central Asia and Europe to help them govern in China. The Mongols admired Persian expertise in science and invited Persian astronomer Jamal Al-Din to set up an observatory in China. Here he helped Chinese astronomers develop a more accurate calendar. Kublai Khan invited foreign physicians to China and established an Academy of Medicine to support their studies of herbal remedies. In turn, Chinese physicians travelled to other parts of the Mongol Empire and spread Chinese medical techniques such as acupuncture.

In addition, the Mongols transferred their own communication and trade practices to China. Kublai Khan greatly improved communication and trade throughout China. He expanded the Yam postal service, which was already the fastest in the world. He also forced 2.5 million workers to restore and extend China's Grand Canal all the way to Dadu (Beijing). The canal and paved highway next to it became a 1600-kilometre link between north and south.

Source 1: *Kublai Khan on the Hunt* (1280 CE). Painted by Liu Guando, who was a Chinese artist in the Yuan court.

Source 2: Cobalt exported from Persia (known as 'Islamic blue') was combined with white kaolin Chinese pottery to create blue-and-white porcelain. Pieces such as this dish (c. 1330 CE), which contains designs of bamboo, grapes and melons, were then shipped to Central Asian markets.

Art and culture

The Mongols' major construction projects – such as their new capitals at Karakorum and Dadu –required highly skilled artisans. About half of the agencies in the Yuan dynasty's Ministry of Public Works dealt with crafts, including textiles, bronzes, and gold and silver utensils. The Mongols recruited artisans from all over the world to travel to the Yuan dynasty, where they enjoyed special protections and low taxes.

Weavers from Eastern Europe and Central Asia were particularly prized by the Mongols, as they produced a special type of fabric known as 'cloth of gold'. Cloth of gold was a fabric woven with gold-wrapped yarn, which the Mongols loved.

The Mongols' attitude towards artisans not only benefited the Mongols themselves but also encouraged cultural exchange across the empire. Just as artisans from Central Asia, Persia and Europe had come to China, in turn, Chinese painters travelled to to Persia and elsewhere. Their paintings of dragons and phoenixes were especially influential in Persian art during the Mongol period.

Social hierarchy

While the Mongols were keen to borrow ideas from other cultures, they were less willing to share power. To ensure the Mongols remained in control, Kublai established a social hierarchy based on race.

The Yuan social hierarchy had four levels:

1. Mongols were the elite people in society who were given the most important government jobs. Mongols did not pay tax and were given large estates of land to be worked by Chinese peasants.
2. *Semuren* were non-Chinese allies, such as Turks or Persians. Semuren were appointed as government officials. They did not pay tax.
3. *Hanren* were the inhabitants of northern China.
4. *Nanren* were the inhabitants of southern China (the former Song dynasty).

Laws were different for each race. Mongols enjoyed lenient laws while laws for the Hanren and Nanren were harsh.

Learning ladder 14.11

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the cultures that were integrated in Kublai Khan's Yuan dynasty.
2. Describe the social hierarchy Kublai Khan implemented in the Yuan dynasty.
3. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the Mongols encouraged the work of artisans.
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the Mongol Empire led to cultural exchange across the world.
5. Evaluate the rule of Kublai Khan in China.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the two major influences on the government of the Yuan dynasty.
2. Describe how Kublai Khan continued Chinese administration practices.
3. Explain how the Mongol Empire enabled changes to scientific knowledge in China.
4. Explain why the Mongols were able to continue to control their empire in China.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Site study

Why was Xanadu built?

In 1252 CE, Kublai Khan decided to build a summer capital in Kaiping, about 350 kilometres north of Beijing. He employed Chinese architect Liu Bingzhong to design the city. Liu incorporated Mongol and Chinese cultures in his design.

Design of Xanadu

The site was oriented according to traditional Chinese feng shui principles, so that its entrances aligned with the position of important stars in the sky, the location of nearby water sources and the direction of the wind.

The city's Mongol influences included a campsite for Mongol nobles within its walls. Kublai Khan's palace was the largest building in the city, with its four walls each over 500 metres long. Originally known as Muqingge, Kublai renamed the city Xanadu (Shengdu in Chinese) in 1264 CE.

In 1272 CE, the Mongols began building Dadu (now Beijing) as the capital of their Chinese Empire. The new buildings and landmarks of Dadu were strongly influenced by those of Xanadu, in part because the cities were built by the same architect, Liu.

Xanadu remained the summer capital throughout Kublai's rule. Following Kublai Khan's death in 1294 CE the city's fortunes declined. In 1369 CE, Xanadu was torched by the Ming army. The last ruling Khan of the Yuan dynasty, Toghun Temur, fled. The city was abandoned in 1430 CE.

The archaeology of Xanadu

Chinese archaeologists began excavating the Xanadu site in 1964 CE, discovering the moat in front of the Mingde Gate and identifying the ruins of the royal palace, Muqingge. They also discovered the remains of the Yutian Gate, where officials gathered to receive their orders.

Source 1: Aerial view of the Xanadu archaeological site

Source 2: A turtle sculpture, representing the north, and a dragon sculpture, representing the east, found at the Xanadu site

> And when you have ridden three days ... you come to a city called Xanadu which was built by the Khan now reigning. There is at this place a very fine marble Palace, the rooms of which are all gilt and painted with figures of men and beasts and birds, and with a variety of trees and flowers, all executed with such exquisite art that you regard them with delight and astonishment. Round this Palace a wall is built, enclosing a [park] ... and inside the park there are fountains and rivers and brooks, and beautiful meadows, with all kinds of wild animals (excluding such as are of ferocious nature), which the Emperor has procured and placed there to supply food for his gerfalcons and hawks, which he keeps there in a mew ... The Khan himself goes every week to see his birds sitting in the mew, and sometimes he rides through the park with a leopard behind him on his horse's croup; and then if he sees any animal that takes his fancy, he slips his leopard at it, and the [animal] when taken is made over to feed the hawks in the mew. This he does for diversion.

Source 3: 'The Khan's Palace' by Marco Polo, who visited Xanadu in 1275 CE [Extract from Marco Polo (1299 CE), *The Travels of Marco Polo*]

Within the Palace City, the foundations of the Da'an Pavilion have been uncovered. The famous Venetian merchant and traveller Marco Polo met Kublai Khan at this site. In addition, the remains of the Muqing Pavilion, the inner palace where Kublai Khan lived, have also been located.

The site also includes the remains of temples, tombs, campsites, the Tiefan'gang Canal and other waterworks. In 2012 CE, Xanadu became a UNESCO World Heritage site.

Learning ladder 14.12

Impact and legacies

1. What was Xanadu?
2. Source 1: Describe what archaeologists have discovered at Xanadu.
3. Explain how Liu Bingzhong incorporated Chinese and Mongolian cultures into the design of Xanadu.
4. Explain why Xanadu is a significant site.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Sources 2: Describe these two artefacts.
3. Source 3: Using the source, explain how the city looked, according to Marco Polo.
4. Source 3: Explain why this source is useful to an archaeologist working on the Xanadu site.
5. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain what the site reveals about the life of the rulers of the Yuan dynasty.

HOW TO

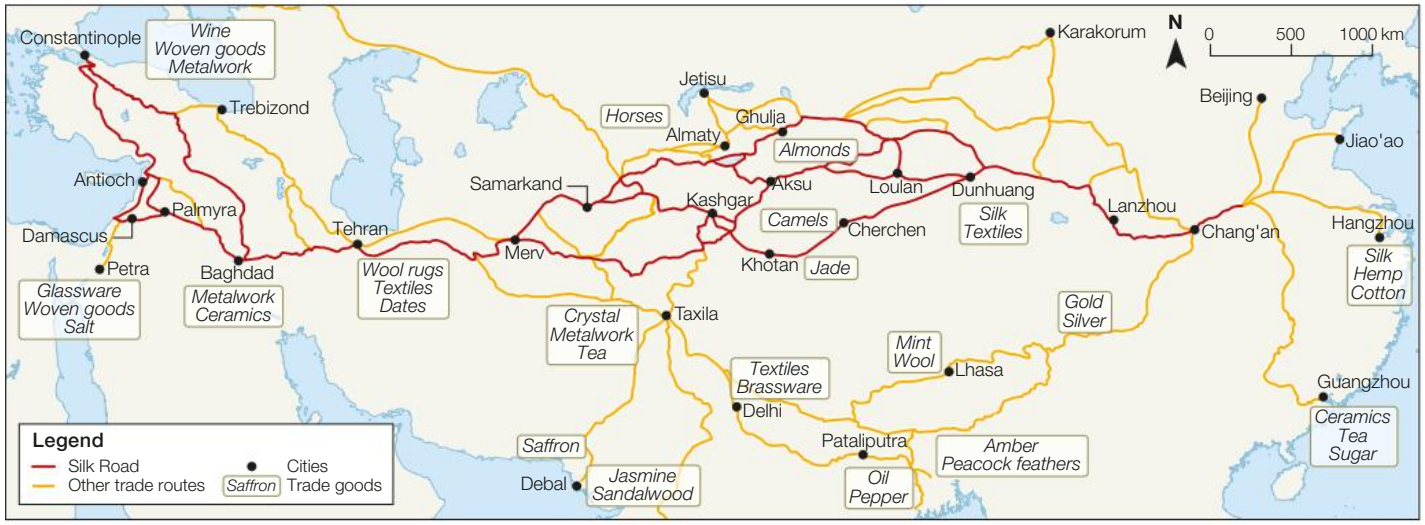
Source analysis, page 475

What were the legacies of the Mongol Empire?

The vast expanse of the Mongol Empire enabled the exchange of goods, ideas and military technology on a scale never seen before.

The Mongol Empire

Source 1: Trade routes in the Mongol Empire



Source: Matilda Education Australia

The expansion of trade

The growth of the Mongol Empire meant that much of the ancient Silk Road trade route lay within the empire. This route moved goods, religious ideas and inventions between Asia and Europe.

The Mongols greatly encouraged trade. They set up merchant associations called *ortogh* that helped merchants travelling long distances across the empire and protected their goods from theft by bandits. They also allowed merchants to rest at the Yam postal stations. In addition, they encouraged the use of paper money, which was much easier to carry than coins.

The Mongols' support of trade generated great prosperity across Asia and Europe. It also allowed people to experience new foods, fabrics and metal goods, supported a vast network of scientific and medical ideas, helped spread religious ideas to new places and encouraged the development of new technologies.

Source 2: Kublai Khan and Marco Polo from the 2014 CE television series *Marco Polo*. In 1271 CE, at only 17 years old, Marco Polo travelled along the Silk Road to China with his father and uncle. Marco Polo stayed in China for 17 years. He learned to speak Mongolian and Chinese, and soon became a special representative of Kublai Khan. He was sent on special missions to China, India, Vietnam, Burma and Sumatra.

Marco Polo

Safe passage for merchants made the long travel across Asia easier for European traders like Marco Polo. Much of what we know about the Mongol Empire in the time of Kublai Khan comes from Marco Polo. He described the palaces, customs, inventions and trade in great detail.

Marco Polo was amazed to find that paper currency had replaced metal coins. He wrote:

> With these pieces of paper, they can buy anything and pay for anything. And I can tell you that the papers that reckon as 10 bezants [gold coins] do not weigh one … all these pieces of paper are issued with as much solemnity and authority as if they were of pure gold or silver … the chief officer deputed by the Khan smears the seal entrusted to him with vermilion, and impresses it on the paper, so that the form of the seal remains imprinted upon it in red; the money is then authentic. Anyone forging it would be punished with death.

Source 3: *The Travels of Marco Polo*, Book 2, Chapter 24 (c. 1250 CE)

Source 4: A Yuan dynasty banknote, 1287 CE, from China/Mongolia

Learning ladder 14.13

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the main trade route shown in the source.
2. Source 1: Describe the main trade goods from Guangzhou, Dunhuang, Tehran, Baghdad and Constantinople.
3. Explain the legacy of the Mongols' support of trade.
4. Explain why Marco Polo has had a significant impact on our understanding of Kublai Khan.

Continuity and change

1. Source 4: Identify how this source changed trade.
2. Describe how merchants' experiences changed under the Mongols.
3. Sources 3 and 4: Explain how the use of paper money in the Mongol Empire demonstrates continuity and change.
4. Explain why the operation of the Silk Road under the Mongols demonstrates continuity and change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

What happened to the conquered people?

The huge Mongol Empire was an incredible achievement, but the cost of this was borne by millions of people.

The *pax Mongolica*?

Many historians refer to the time of the Mongol Empire as *pax Mongolica*, or Mongol Peace, arguing that it was a period of political, economic, social, religious and cultural stability. While there were positive outcomes from the expansion of the Mongol Empire – such as revived trade between Western Europe and Asia – the ferocity of the Mongols suggests that for many people, the period was anything but peaceful.

Impact on the population

The Mongols wreaked havoc and devastation wherever they went as they established their empire. In addition to battles and sieges, they conducted massacres and waged biological warfare against millions of innocent people. It is difficult to know exactly how many people were killed by the Mongols as they expanded their empire across Asia, Central Asia and into Europe, but historians believe that as many as 57 million people may have been killed between 1206 CE and 1405 CE. Many more suffered terrible injuries and lost their homes.

Destruction of culture

The Mongol conquests destroyed many cities across Asia, the Middle East and Eastern Europe, including the great cities of Baghdad, Nishapur, Merv, Samarkand and Kyiv. Some of these cities dated back to ancient times, while others were wonders of the medieval world. Much literature and many artefacts were also lost during their campaigns. Almost no written records from the Jin dynasty survive, while many of the books from the great library in the city of Baghdad, known as the House of Wisdom, were lost when the Mongols sacked the city in 1258 CE. Thousands of temples, churches and mosques were also damaged.

The Mongols also ruined important infrastructure. The irrigation systems of Persia had been built over hundreds of years to manage waterflows for farming. These were destroyed by the Mongols, leading to a loss of food and starvation.

Slavery

Traditionally, it was customary in Mongol society to enslave people captured in war, but this practice had long been relatively small in scale. However, the Mongol conquests that began in the 13th century CE created a huge number of war captives. These captives all became slaves, leading to a massive expansion of slavery in the Mongol Empire. Not only were there many hundreds of thousands of people captured during the Mongol invasions, but also the extent of the Mongol conquests, along with their encouragement of trade, saw a huge expansion of the pre-existing slave trade across Asia and eastern Europe.

Whenever they captured a city, the Mongols rounded up people with particular skills, such as metalworkers or leatherworkers, to be sold at slave markets. They also gathered unmarried men and women, as well as children, and selected some for enslavement. These people were all considered 'war captives' who could be ransomed by their relatives. If they were not ransomed, they were sold into slavery. Slaves were sent to different slave markets around the Mongol Empire to be sold. The main centres were in the Mongol capital Karakorum, Dadu (Beijing), Xanadu, Bukhara, Baghdad, Sarai and Kaffa.

> What occurrence has ever been more memorable than the birth of the dynasty of Genghis Khan … who subjugated the many kingdoms of the world, conquered and destroyed a host of unruly peoples? … He gave the world one face, and the same feelings to all hearts; he purified the territories of the Empire, in delivering them from the domination of evil usurpers and the oppression of proud tyrants.

Source 1: Extract from Rashid al-Din Hamadani (c. 1307 CE), *Jami' al-tawarikh (Compendium of Chronicles)*. Rashid al-Din Hamadani was a statesman and historian from the Il-Khanate. He was commissioned by Ilkhan Ghazan to write *Jami' al-tawarikh*.

Source 2: The Mongol siege of Suzdal in 1238 CE [Image from a Russian chronicle called *The Illustrated History of Ivan the Terrible* (c. 1550 CE)]

1238 AD: That same year foreigners called Mongols came in countless numbers, like locusts, into the land of Ryazan … And then the pagan foreigners surrounded Ryazan and fenced it in with a stockade … and the Mongols took the town on December 21, and they had advanced against [it] on the 16th of the same month. They likewise killed the leaders, and men, women, and children, monks, nuns and priests, some by fire, some by sword … And we, indeed, having seen it, were terrified and wept with sighing day and night …

Source 3: This extract is from a medieval Russian chronicle, written in Novgorod by Christian priests, and based on eyewitness accounts. [*The Novgorod Chronicle* (1016–1471 CE)]

Learning ladder 14.14

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify two negative impacts of the Mongol Empire on subject peoples.
2. Describe the concept of pax Mongolica.
3. Explain how the Mongols affected populations across Asia, the Middle East and Europe.
4. Explain why slavery became so widespread under the Mongols.
5. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, evaluate the impact the Mongols had on conquered peoples.

Perspectives

1. Source 2: Whose perspective is shown in this source?
2. Sources 1 and 3: Describe the perspective of the Mongols in each source.
3. Source 3: Explain whose perspective this source is written from.
4. Sources 1 and 3: Compare the differences between the perspectives of these sources.
5. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using the sources and your knowledge, evaluate the pax Mongolica.

Perspectives, page 484

HOW TO

Why did the Mongol Empire fall?

Family squabbles, pestilence, natural disasters and invasion led to the decline of the once mighty Mongol Empire.

The division of the Mongol Empire

The descendants of Genghis Khan's sons never fully resolved their differences. Those descended from Ögedei and Chagatai continued to secretly oppose those descended from Tolui and Jochi. They particularly resented the dominance of the Tolui clan, led by Kublai Khan.

In 1268 CE, a civil war broke out between Kublai Khan and the leaders of the Ögedei and Chagatai clans. By the time this war ended in 1301 CE, the Mongol Empire had fractured into four separate parts: the Golden Horde **khanate** in eastern Europe, the Chagatai khanate in Central Asia, the Il-Khanate in Persia, and the Yuan dynasty in east Asia. The four Mongol states followed their own agendas from then on.

The fall of the Il-Khanate

The Il-Khanate was the first Mongol state to fall. It was led by Hulegu, Kublai's brother. One of the key reasons for the demise of the Il-Khanate was the Battle of Ain-Jalut (1260 CE), when Christian and Muslim forces joined to oppose the Mongol invaders. Even though Christians and Muslims usually fought against each other in the medieval period, they both feared the Mongols and recognised them as the greater threat. Mongol forces suffered their first major defeat, and from that point on, did not take any more territory in the Middle East.

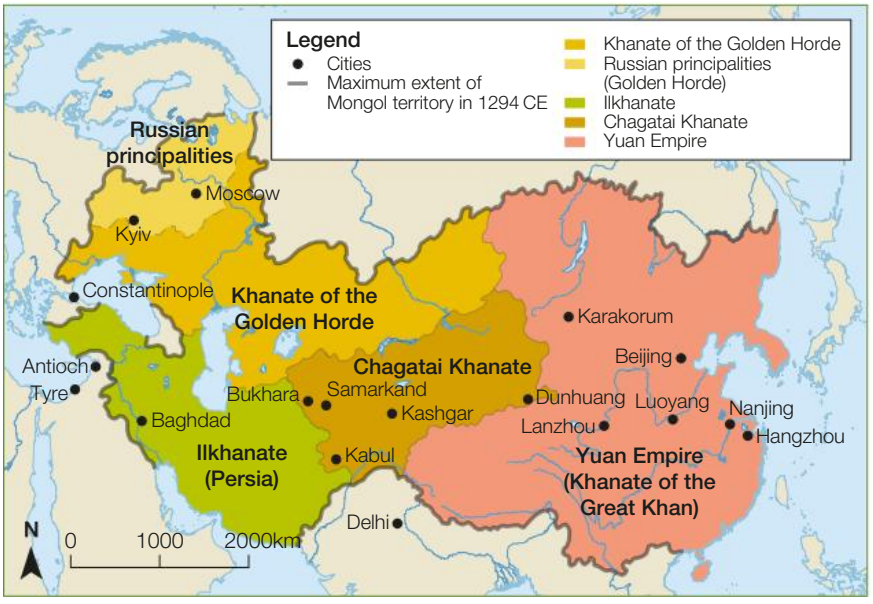
By the 1330s CE, the Il-Khanate had been ravaged by the Black Death and had collapsed by 1335 CE.

The fall of the Yuan dynasty

China was hit by a series of natural disasters and epidemics in the 1330s CE. In 1331 CE, an unidentified epidemic occurred in Hebei and spread to other parts of China, killing millions of people. Another epidemic broke out in Fujian in 1344 CE, followed by others in the 1340s CE and 1350s CE. At the same time, flooding along the Yellow River repeatedly devastated farms.

Chinese peasants channelled their anger and despair against the Yuan dynasty. A Buddhist group, known as the Red Turbans, led a series of rebellions. One of their leaders, a peasant named Zhu Yuanzhang, captured the city of Nanjing in 1356 CE. Zhu would overthrow the Yuan and become Emperor Taizu, the leader of the Ming dynasty.

The Mongol Empire



Source: Matilda Education Australia

The rise of the Timurid Empire

The Chagatai and the Golden Horde khanates were invaded by Timur, a Turko-Mongolian leader who established an empire in Central Asia during the late 14th century CE.

The Chagatai khanate suffered defeat by Timur in 1363 CE. Their much-reduced empire slowly declined until 1705 CE, when the last Chagatai khan was removed from power. The Golden Horde was invaded in 1396 CE by Timur, after which it broke into smaller khanates, which eventually collapsed.

Source 1: The Mongol Empire at its height, 1294 CE

Source 2: Image of the Ming Emperor Taizu, formerly known as Zhu Yuanzhang. Prior to becoming emperor, Zhu had led the Red Turban peasant rebellions against the Yuan dynasty, 1351–1360 CE.

Learning ladder 14.15

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the significant individual shown in the image.
2. Describe the family feud between the Jochi, Chagatai, Ögedei and Tolui clans.
3. Source 1: Explain how the Mongol Empire was divided.
4. Explain the reasons for the fall of the Il-Khanate.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the causes of the decline of the Mongol Empire.
2. Describe the reasons for the fall of the Yuan dynasty.
3. Explain how the Timurid Empire rose to power.
4. Explain whether the decline of the Mongol Empire was inevitable.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the Mongol expansion. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of the Mongol expansion. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the Mongol expansion in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The Mongolian horses, 14.2
- The Mongols' conquest of the Khwarezmid Empire, 14.6
- The role of Mongol women, 14.3, 14.9
- The Golden Horde, 14.15
- The Mongols' destruction of Baghdad, 14.14

Return to the relevant sections in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

The Ottoman Empire (c. 1299–1683)

15

HOW DID ROXELANA RISE FROM SLAVEHOOD TO POWER?

HOW DID THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE EXPAND?

WHAT IS THE LEGACY OF OTTOMAN ARCHITECTURE TODAY?

How can I understand the Ottoman Empire?

The Ottoman Empire was a Muslim Empire at its heart, but it encompassed people of many different faiths, languages and ethnic customs. Sources contain not only the perspectives of the different people who made up Ottoman society but also the European, Arabic and other observers who saw Ottoman life from their own point of view.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
	Knowledge and understanding				

Source 1: Suleymaniye Mosque in Istanbul, Türkiye, is one of the many major buildings designed by Mimar Sinan. He left his mark on the history of world architecture with his unique works as the Ottoman Empire's master architect between 1539 and 1588 CE.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Who were the Ottomans?

The Ottoman period spanned more than 600 years from the 14th to the 20th centuries CE. The Ottoman Empire was established by Turkish warriors in Anatolia (Asia Minor) and reached the peak of its power in the 15th and 16th centuries CE.

The Turks were a nomadic people from the steppes of Central Asia. For centuries they had ridden their horses across the grasslands, looking for new pastures. But in the 13th century CE, Central Asia was in chaos. From the east, bands of Mongols were wreaking havoc. In the west, the once mighty Byzantine Empire was crumbling, attracting hordes of mercenary warriors who sought to plunder the old regime.

In 1299 CE, a Turk leader named Osman came to power. Osman's people decided to rename their tribe 'the Osmanli', after their leader. It is from this name that we get the word 'Ottoman'. In 1302 CE, Osman led his forces to victory against the Byzantine army near the town of Nicea (now Iznik in Türkiye). This victory marked the beginning of a period of expansion. By 1451 CE, the Ottomans controlled most of Byzantium's former territory in north-west Anatolia. They conquered Constantinople, the last remnant of Byzantium, in 1453 CE. By the 1500s CE, they had established one of the largest empires in the history of the world, and controlled vast areas of Eastern Europe, North Africa and the Middle East.

The Ottoman Empire, c. 1683 CE

▲ **Source 2:** The expansion of the Ottoman Empire between 1300 and 1683 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 1: ▶ Ottoman Empire timeline

key ideas timeline

- **c. 1299 CE** — Foundation of the Ottoman Empire
- **1326–1361 CE** — Ottoman conquest of Bursa, Nicaea (Iznik) and Adrianople (Edirne)
- **1402 CE** — Battle of Ankara; the Ottomans lose to the Mongols, which briefly checks their expansion
- **1453 CE** — Fall of Constantinople
- **1459–1465 CE** — Construction of the Topkapi Palace
- **1463–1520 CE** — Ottoman conquest of Bosnia, the Crimea, Albania, Montenegro, Syria, Palestine, Egypt and Algeria
- **1520–1566 CE** — Reign of Suleiman the Magnificent
- **1568–1574 CE** — Construction of Selimiye Mosque, Edirne

▲ **Source 3:** An Ottoman depiction of the Battle of Ankara (1402 CE), showing the Ottomans (wearing turbans) fighting the Mongols (wearing helmets). [Image published in *The Book of Accomplishments* (1584–1589 CE)]

As it expanded, the Ottoman Empire came to govern people of many different cultural and religious backgrounds, making it multiracial and multireligious. While the Ottomans themselves were Muslims, they had a policy of tolerance towards the diverse subjects of their empire. The Ottomans allowed them to practise their religions and provided them with protection from invaders. However, 'tolerance' did not mean 'equality' and many Ottoman subjects endured slavery, oppression and injustice at the hands of their imperial masters.

The Ottoman Empire endured until the modern era. It was not until just after World War I that its 600-year existence came to an end. The Ottomans' legacy of ideas, art, literature and their societal organisation of a multicultural empire has much relevance for the world we live in today.

Learning ladder 15.1

Background and origins

1. Source 2: Using the source and the table below, identify the cities under Ottoman rule in each period.

Period of expansion	Cities under Ottoman rule
1300–1359 CE	
1359–1451 CE	
1451–1481 CE	
1512–1521 CE	
1520–1566 CE	
1566–1683 CE	

2. Describe the origins of the Ottoman Turks.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how the Ottomans built their empire between 1302 CE and 1500 CE.
4. Sources 1 and 3: Explain why this battle was significant in Ottoman history.

Chronology

1. Source 1: When did the Ottoman Empire end?
2. Put these events in order from the earliest to the most recent event:
   - 1453 CE: Mehmet II sacks Constantinople
   - 1683 CE: The Siege of Vienna
   - 1326 CE: Edirne is the capital city of the Ottoman Empire
   - 1523 CE: Suleiman I conquers Rhodes.
3. Create a timeline with the events from Question 2.
4. Summarise the key events in the decline of the Ottoman Empire.

HOW TO
Chronology, page 477

1683 CE
Failure of the siege of Vienna marks the start of the Ottoman Empire's decline

1699 CE
Treaty of Karlowitz marks the end of Ottoman control in Central Europe

1915 CE
The British Empire invades the Ottoman Empire at Gallipoli

1922 CE
Ottoman Empire is dissolved; in 1923 CE, Türkiye becomes an independent country

How did the Ottomans expand their empire?

By the 1550s CE, the Ottoman army was the most well-equipped army in the world. It would remain at the forefront of military technology until the middle of the 17th century CE.

Osman's army

In the early years, Osman's army consisted of a loose confederation of warriors on horseback, known as *gazi*. They joined Osman's forces because they were attracted to the opportunity to raid and plunder. They used hit-and-run tactics and ambushes to attack their targets, picking off villages and small towns one by one to bring a region under control. They also captured many people whom they then forced into slavery.

As the Ottoman Empire grew larger, the descendants of Osman wanted to make sure their reign was secure from rival families. Osman's grandson, Murad I (reigned 1362–1389 CE), the third Ottoman ruler, adopted the title of 'sultan' to strengthen his claim to power. He also established a new personal army. Murad's army, called The Hearth of the Porte Servants, consisted of cavalry and infantry forces. Its members were people who had been captured by the gazi. The infantry forces were known as the *Yeni Ceri* or Janissary.

The Janissaries

Murad's son, Sultan Bayezid (reigned 1389–1402 CE), decided to expand the Janissaries and introduced a new system of recruitment. This system was called the *devşirme*. Under the devşirme, the Ottomans raided Eastern European villages and took away Christian boys aged as young as seven. The boys were forced into slavery and had to convert to Islam. As slaves of the sultan, they were not allowed to marry and were never set free. A few were educated to work in the sultan's government and could potentially rise to the position of Grand Vizier, the second-highest position in the empire. However, most became Janissary troops.

The first stage in their training as Janissaries was to serve as forced labourers for Turkish farmers in Anatolia, where they learned Turkish and studied Islam. The second stage was to work on building projects or other enterprises. After this, they were 'sent out to Porte', which meant they started military training to serve the sultan in the Janissary corps. The Janissaries were taught to regard each other as their family and the sultan as their father. Training was harsh, but effective in moulding the boys into a highly disciplined and powerful military force.

Even though they had been taken as slaves, the Janissaries were among the first military troops in the world to receive a salary, paid directly from the sultan's treasury. This ensured their fervent loyalty to the sultan, whose service they could not leave. They also lived in barracks, which was unusual for the time. This was designed to reinforce the idea that fellow Janissaries were 'family'. In addition, the Janissaries were well equipped and strongly supported during campaigns. Support corps set up tents and made food for the troops, transported their weaponry and provided medical aid, ensuring they were ready to give their best on the battlefield. With their strong discipline, loyalty to the sultan and impressive fighting skills, the Janissaries were a key factor in Ottoman expansion.

> Since Sinān, the chief of my court architects, has sent a letter saying: 'Of those who are engaged in smith's work on the noble mosque, which is being built at Edirne, seven [boys] who were working on the ironwork for the windows, have completed their service.' He has requested that they should be 'sent out to the Porte'. Their names have been noted and I have commanded that … you are to 'send out to the Porte' the seven noted in the memorandum …

Source 1: Command to the Aġa of the Janissaries by Sultan Selim II, c. 1573. The Aġa was the commander of the Janissary corps.

Ottoman weapons and tactics

At first, the Janissaries made up only a small part of the Ottoman army, numbering only about 1000 troops. However, the skill and success of the Janissary troops saw their numbers increase dramatically. By 1609 CE, there were around 40 000 Janissary troops in the army, with further increases towards the end of the 17th century CE.

The key reason for the continual expansion of Janissary forces in the army was that their elite training and strong discipline enabled them to adapt to the changing nature of warfare from the late medieval period to the early modern period. Mobile cavalry forces armed with bows and arrows became obsolete, as new technological developments were better suited to infantry forces who could use gunpowder and siege weapons.

Initially, the Janissaries were skilled archers, but the introduction of gunpowder marked a turning point in Janissary weapons. The Janissaries were early adopters of hand-held firearms. They were known to be using *harquebuses* by 1465 CE and had adopted the larger musket by 1551 CE. With their firearms, the Janissaries developed a military tactic known as 'volley fire', where rows of troops fired in sequence, one after the next. They also used complex formations to make the most of their advanced weaponry. After sending in shock troops armed with conventional weapons, such as swords and daggers, they then started volley-fire tactics against the enemy.

Source 2: Janissary forces armed with muskets at the Siege of Rhodes (1522 CE) [Fethullah Celebi Arifi (1558 CE), *Süleymanname*]

In addition, the Ottomans used cannons and mortars in siege warfare. Often, the Ottomans employed specialist gunners from other societies to fire their cannons. The combination of skilled troops, clever tactics and innovative weapons enabled the Ottomans to become a formidable military force.

Learning ladder 15.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the group attacking Rhodes.
2. Describe the role of the gazi in expanding the Ottoman Empire.
3. Explain how recruits for the Janissaries were obtained.
4. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how boys were trained to be Janissaries.
5. Evaluate the benefits and disadvantages of the sultan's formation of a personal army of slaves.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the reason why Murad I formed the Janissaries.
2. Describe how the introduction of gunpowder affected the Janissaries.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the effects of incorporating Janissary troops into the Ottoman army.
4. Explain why the Janissaries were given a salary and lived in barracks.

Cause and effect, page 480

HOW TO

Why was the fall of Constantinople significant?

The Ottomans really began to expand their territory in the 15th century CE, following their conquest of Constantinople. The Ottomans' clever tactics and innovative use of cannonfire brought the old city to its knees.

The fall of Constantinople

The land of the Byzantine Empire had once stretched almost all the way around the Mediterranean Sea. By the mid-15th century CE, however, practically all that remained of the empire was the ancient city of Constantinople. Constantinople was the 1000-year-old Christian city and was the capital of the Byzantine Empire. It had been founded by Emperor Constantine in 330 CE. Due to its status as a great city of the old Roman Empire, its wealth, and its strategic location, which provided access to the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea, Sultan Mehmet II (1451–1481 CE) was determined to have Constantinople for the Ottoman Empire and for Islam. Mehmet II began his attack on the city on 6 April 1453 CE.

The Byzantines hoped that the strong walls around the city would hold, as they had done so many times before. However, the Ottomans had brought bronze cannons with them to blast down the walls. One of these was so large that it took 60 oxen to move it. This enormous cannon was used to fire cannonballs of up to 63 centimetres in diameter. Cannons were first invented in medieval China. They would have a profound effect on siege warfare by the end of the medieval period.

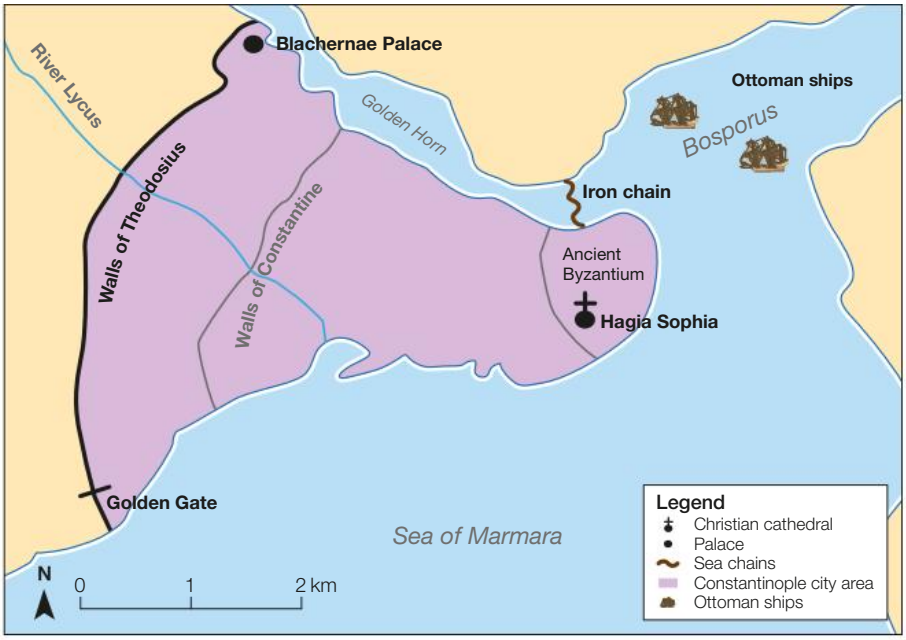
In addition to their advanced weapons, the Ottomans also used clever tactics to conquer Constantinople. When the Ottoman fleet tried to enter Constantinople's harbour from the sea, the ships were unable to get past the heavy iron chain that the Byzantines had laid across the harbour. The Ottomans instead landed in Galata, a region in western Constantinople, and constructed a 'road' of greased logs across Galata's south-eastern point. They then pulled their ships up onto the logs and rolled them across the land and into the harbour, inside the perimeter of the chain. From here the Ottoman fleet was able to stop the Byzantines and their allies bringing supplies across the Golden Horn and into the besieged city.

Source 1: After seven weeks of siege in 1453 CE, the Ottomans began their final assault on Constantinople. [*Panorama of the Final Assault and the Fall of Constantinople* (1453 CE)]

After seven weeks of siege, the Ottomans began their final assault on Constantinople. They concentrated their troops on the section of the Theodosius walls near Blachernae in the north-west of the city. The Ottomans finally managed to break through the walls and a wave of fighters charged in. The Byzantine defence collapsed. Sultan Mehmet II allowed his troops to loot the city for three days. During this time, thousands of Constantinople's citizens were massacred. Mehmet II then issued a ***firman*** (royal decree) to end the looting and violence and made Constantinople the new capital city of the Ottoman Empire.

The city of Contantinople

Source: Matilda Education Australia



▲ **Source 2:** The siege of Constantinople

Because of the great size of the city, the Greek emperor could not so quickly get enough men to occupy the walls as was necessary. Therefore, in that place where the wall had been breached, the sultan's Janissaries, by storming, killed the Greek officer to whom it had been entrusted. And when the leader was lost, then the others, being frightened, had to yield; and the Janissaries, having been reinforced, running along the walls, killed them. And all the sultan's force was turned upon the city, and there killed them in the streets, in houses, in churches.

Source 3: An eyewitness account of the fall of Constantinople. [Konstantin Mihailovic of Ostrovica (c. 1490 CE), *Memoirs of a Janissary*]

Learning ladder 15.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the Ottoman sultan at the time of the siege of Constantinople.
2. Source 1: Describe the weapons used in the siege of Constantinople.
3. Source 2: Explain how the Ottomans overcame the iron chain that protected the Golden Horn.
4. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using these sources and your knowledge, explain why the Ottomans were able to conquer Constantinople.

Significance

1. Identify the reasons why Constantinople was a significant medieval city.
2. Describe how cannons were used during the siege of Constantinople.
3. Source 3: Explain the significance of this source for historians studying the conquest of Constantinople.
4. Explain why the conquest of Constantinople was a significant event for the Ottoman Empire.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

How was the Ottoman Empire managed?

Ottoman society was ruled by the sultan, who had political, religious, social and judicial authority. The sultan was responsible only to Allah and his law, which was known as the Seriat.

Becoming a sultan

When a **sultan** died, his named heir (the crown prince) became the new sultan. If a sultan had not named an heir, his sons fought each other for the throne. A new sultan might end any further competition for his throne by having all his brothers murdered (fratricide). The reign of Sultan Mehmet III (1595–1603 CE) began with the murder of his 19 brothers.

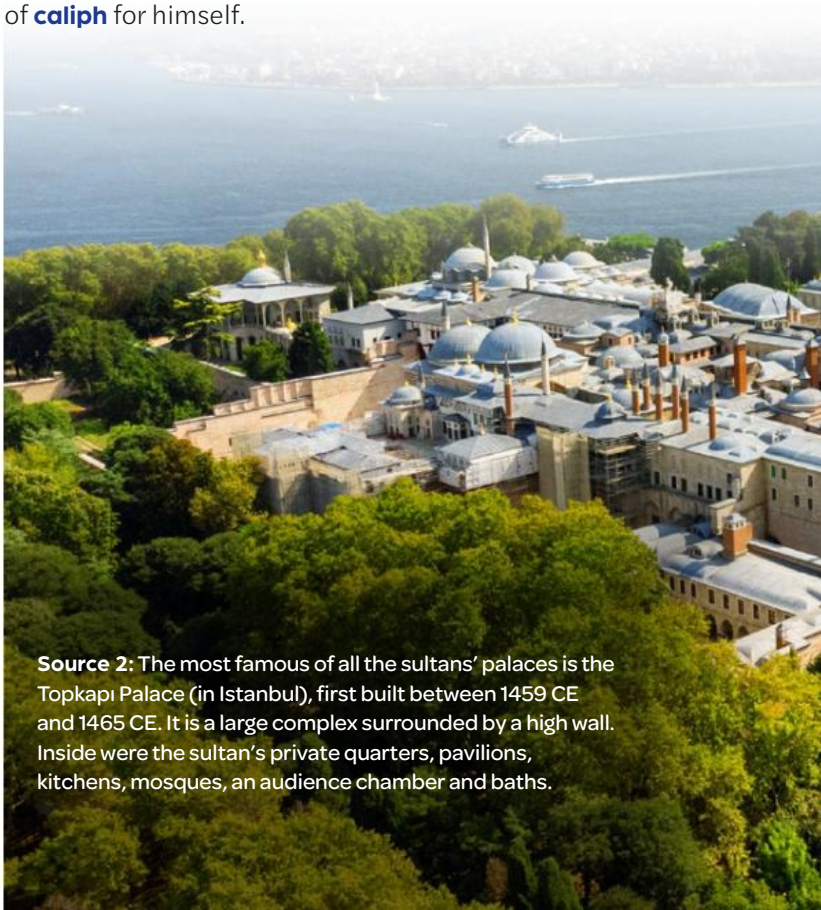
Source 1: This painting shows Mehmet II victoriously entering Constantinople on 29 May 1453 CE. [Jean-Joseph Benjamin-Constant, (1876 CE), *Entry of Mehmet II into Constantinople*]

The role of the sultan

The sultan lived in a grand palace and made the final decisions about whether or not the empire went to war, what secular laws the people had to follow and what taxes they paid. He could also decide how much money was spent on his soldiers, on grand buildings, on his clothes, on palaces and on entertainment.

At the same time, the sultan was considered to be responsible for his subjects' prosperity. He was also expected to lead his troops into battle and to show bravery and courage in warfare. In addition, as a Muslim ruler, he had to uphold Islamic law.

In 1516–1517 CE, Sultan Selim I defeated the Mamluk Sultanate of Egypt, capturing their territories in Egypt, Syria, Palestine and Arabia. The territories in Arabia included the Islamic holy cities of Mecca and Medina. Selim I subsequently adopted the title of **caliph** for himself.



Source 2: The most famous of all the sultans' palaces is the Topkapı Palace (in Istanbul), first built between 1459 CE and 1465 CE. It is a large complex surrounded by a high wall. Inside were the sultan's private quarters, pavilions, kitchens, mosques, an audience chamber and baths.

Governing the empire

The grand vizier

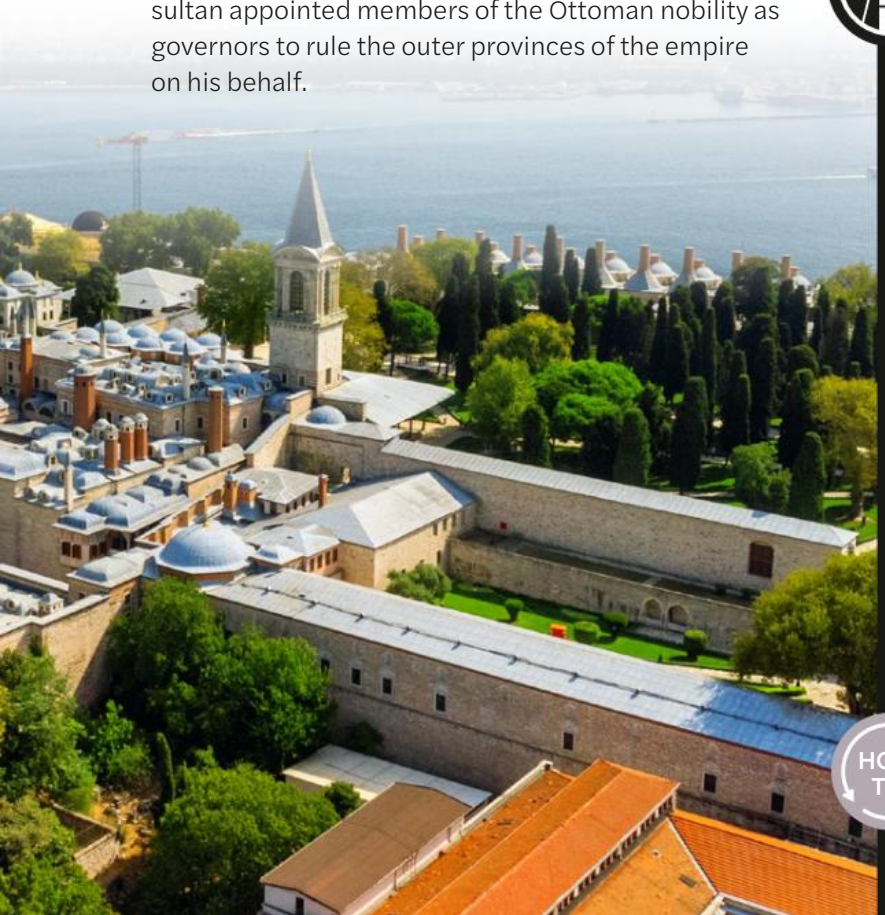
The **grand vizier** was the highest-ranking government official in the Ottoman Empire and was chosen from among the empire's top government officials. The grand vizier headed the sultan's divan (council), which met every four days to issue the sultan's latest laws.

The ulema

The ***ulema*** was a group made up of religious scholars, administrators and judges. If the sultan wanted to change the law, he first had to submit his new ruling to the ulema before the law could be passed. The members of the ulema made sure that the sultan's laws conformed to Islamic law. However, when Selim I became a caliph, he used his position to override the ulema's authority. This greatly extended the sultan's power over the empire.

The governors

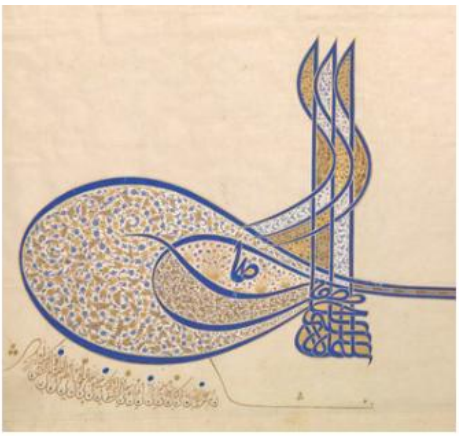
The empire became more difficult to govern as it expanded. The Ottomans did not have modern methods of communication and transport; for example, it could take several weeks for a message to reach the provinces from the capital. To solve this problem, the sultan appointed members of the Ottoman nobility as governors to rule the outer provinces of the empire on his behalf.



The role of imperial women

The mother of the reigning sultan was known as the valide sultan. The valide sultan was the most powerful woman in the empire. She was responsible for guiding her son, and could persuade him to change his mind if she thought he had made a bad decision.

From the late 16th century CE and throughout the 17th century CE, women of the sultan's household had a lot of power and influence in the empire. This period is known to historians as 'the sultanate of women'. Many sultans during this time came to the throne when they were very young, and their mothers, the valide sultans, ruled in their place.



Source 3: This is Sultan Suleiman I's *tughra*. A tughra is a type of signature that was used by the Ottoman sultans. It was first used by Orhan (1324–1361 CE), who was the second leader of the Ottoman Empire.

Learning ladder 15.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify which of the sultan's responsibilities is shown in this source.
2. Describe the role of the grand vizier.
3. Explain how the valide sultans were able to rule the empire.
4. Explain why the sultan appointed governors.

Continuity and change

1. Source 3: Why is the tughra shown in this source an example of continuity in the Ottoman Empire?
2. Describe the reasons why Sultan Selim I changed his title.
3. Explain how the ulema enabled continuity and change in the Ottoman Empire.
4. Explain why the role of valide sultan enabled continuity in the Ottoman Empire.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Key individual

How did Suleiman I lead the Ottoman Empire?

Suleiman I – dubbed 'Suleiman the Magnificent' by Europeans – was the longest-reigning sultan of the Ottoman Empire. Under Suleiman's reign, the Ottoman Empire reached the height of its military and political power.

Suleiman the Magnificent

Suleiman I came to the Ottoman throne in 1520 CE, as the tenth sultan of the Ottoman Empire. He reigned for 46 years, until his death in 1566 CE.

Europeans dubbed Sultan Suleiman I 'the Magnificent' because he was not only a formidable military campaigner but also a poet and a patron of the arts. He also commissioned the construction of great buildings throughout the empire, many of which still stand today.

Kanuni

Suleiman I's father, Selim I, had greatly extended the authority of the sultan. Suleiman I continued in his father's footsteps, establishing total control over Ottoman law. For this reason, he was known to the Ottomans as *Kanuni* (the Law-giver).

Suleiman I's laws set out the duties and rights of his subjects. His laws were seen as fairer than those of past sultans. Fines replaced beatings for less serious crimes and fewer crimes carried the death penalty. Tax laws were reformed and moneylenders were not allowed to charge more than 11 per cent interest on a loan. Suleiman I's laws would remain at the core of the Ottoman Empire for the next 300 years.

Suleiman's military success

Suleiman I led 13 military campaigns during his lifetime. His most famous European campaigns include the Ottoman attack on Belgrade (in modern-day Serbia) in 1521 CE, the Siege of Rhodes (in Greece) in 1522 CE and the Battle of Mohacs (in Hungary) in 1526 CE. Following the Battle of Mohacs, the kingdom of Hungary was greatly diminished. The remains of the Hungarian army continued to resist the Ottomans for 200 years, but the constant warfare devastated the Hungarian population.

In the east, Suleiman I fought against the Safavid Empire in Persia and captured the capital city of Baghdad in 1534 CE. By 1555 CE, Suleiman I had secured parts of the Safavid lands in Iraq, Georgia and Armenia for his empire. This gave the Ottomans access to the Persian Gulf, and greater access to the Black Sea, thereby connecting the Ottoman Empire with important sea trade routes to India and Central Asia.

The Siege of Vienna

However, Suleiman I's military campaigns were not always successful. His attempt to conquer Vienna in 1529 CE was a disastrous failure. The Ottoman advance towards Vienna had faced numerous obstacles. Heavy spring rains and flooding slowed the advance of the Ottoman troops.

Source 1: Suleiman the Magnificent. [Artist unknown, (c. 1530–1540 CE)]

The muddy roads meant that most of the Ottomans' siege weapons had to be left behind. In addition, due to inadequate food supplies, many Janissaries became sick and many died.

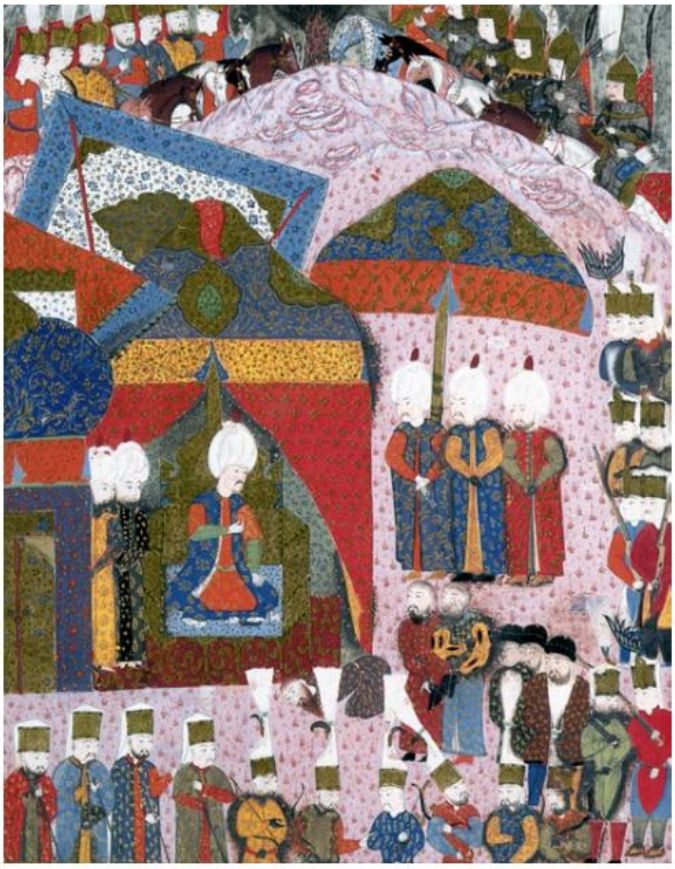
By the time the Ottoman army arrived at Vienna's city walls in the autumn, the troops were tired and unwell. The Janissaries called on Suleiman I to abandon the siege but Suleiman I was determined to press on. The attack was launched on 14 October 1529 CE but was called off the following day, with the Ottomans unable to breach the reinforced city walls or cope with the defenders' harquebus guns and pikes.

Suleiman I's failure to take Vienna marked the beginning of a bitter, long-term rivalry between the rulers of Austria (the Hapsburgs) and the Ottomans. The ongoing warfare, along with growing discontent with his rule, led Suleiman I to commission an illustrated history of his reign in 1555 CE called *Süleymanname* (1558 CE), which celebrated his earlier achievements.

The Ottoman Empire in 1566

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 3: The empire at the time of Suleiman's death, 1566 CE. The light green regions are **vassal states**, which means they paid an annual tribute to the Ottoman Empire in recognition of the Ottomans' power. They also had to provide military service to the empire.



Source 2: Suleiman I receives a French delegation sent by King Francis I at Belgrade, 1532. [Image from the *Süleymanname* (1558 CE), an illustrated history of Suleiman's reign]

Learning ladder 15.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the reasons why Suleiman I was known as 'the Magnificent'.
2. Describe Suleiman I's changes to Ottoman law.
3. Explain the significance of Suleiman I's failure to take Vienna.
4. Explain why Suleiman I was a significant individual.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 3: Describe the extent of Suleiman I's empire in 1566 CE.
3. Source 2: Explain how this image portrays Suleiman I as a powerful leader.
4. Source 2: Explain why Suleiman I had this source created.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

What was the 'sultanate of women'?

From 1520 to 1683 CE, the women of the sultan's household had a lot of power and influence over the Ottoman government. This period is known to historians as the 'sultanate of women'.

The sultan's harem

The sultans of the Ottoman Empire did not marry. Instead, they had many concubines. These women were slaves who had been captured as children and sold into the sultan's harem. The main task of a sultan's concubine was to produce a son. Once she gave birth to a son, she attained high status in the harem and did not have to have any more children. However, she was expected to devote her energies to educating her son. Each mother worked hard to persuade the sultan that her son was the most worthy of becoming his heir. It was through their sons that the women could secure power as a **valide sultan**.

Who was Roxelana?

The most famous woman of the sultanate of women period was Roxelana. Roxelana had been captured as a slave from the Ukraine and taken to Kaffa, where one of the main Ottoman slave markets was located. According to some sources, her real name was Aleksandra Lisovska, but she was called Roxelana because in those days slave girls from Ukraine were known as 'Roksolanes'. Roxelana was given to Suleiman I as a gift before he became sultan. Suleiman's mother, Valide Hafsa Sultan, brought Roxelana into the harem. In the harem, Roxelana was given the name Hürrem.

Roxelana quickly became Suleiman I's favourite. She bore six children: a daughter, Mihrimah (1524 CE) and five sons: Mehmet (1523 CE, who died in 1543 CE), Selim (1525 CE), Abdullah (1526 CE), Bayezit (1527 CE) and Jehangir (1535 CE). It was very unusual for a concubine to have five sons, as they were usually only allowed to have one son. This rule was designed to prevent a concubine from having too much influence over the sultan. But the high regard Suleiman had for Roxelana meant that she was allowed to break this rule. Roxelana and Suleiman married in 1533 CE, a testament to his great love for her. Not only did it break a 300-year tradition that sultans did not marry their concubines, but it also was the first time that a former slave had become a member of the royal household. Suleiman also gave Roxelana the title 'haseki', which means 'the sultan's favourite'.

Roxelana was not only greatly loved by Suleiman I, but she also was a woman of intelligence, hard work and political skill. Suleiman's trust in Roxelana was built on the good advice she gave him. She learned to read and write Turkish so she could report on events in the capital when Suleiman I was away on military campaigns.

Source 1: This painting is Roxelana, who was the first leader in the sultanate of women period. [Unknown artist (c. 1500–1558 CE), *Portrait of Roxelana*]

She managed the empire while Suleiman was away, ensuring his orders were carried out. She also commissioned the Ottoman royal architect, Sinan, to undertake a range of public works, including the Haseki Sultan complex, which included a women's medical centre, a school, a mosque and a soup kitchen to feed the poor.

> Throne of my lonely niche, my wealth, my love, my moonlight.
> My most sincere friend, my confidant, my very existence, my Sultan
> The most beautiful among the beautiful ...
> My springtime, my merry faced love, my daytime, my sweetheart, laughing leaf ...
> My plants, my sweet, my rose, the one only who does not distress me in this world ...
>
> **Source 2:** Poem written by Suleiman for Roxelana, c. 1535 CE

> Such love does Suleiman bear her that he has so astonished all his subjects that they say she has bewitched him; therefore they call her 'Ziadi', which means witch. For this reason, the Janissaries and the entire court hate her and her children, but because the sultan loves her, no one dares to speak. I have always heard everyone speak ill of her and of her children ...
>
> **Source 3:** Written by Luigi da Zara Bassano, a traveller from Zadar (Republic of Venice) in the 16th century CE. [Luigi da Zara Bassano (1545 CE), *Customs and the Particular Ways of Turkish Life*]

Moreover, Roxelana worked tirelessly to secure her children's futures. In 1544 CE, she persuaded Suleiman to have his grand vizier, Ibrahim Pasha, executed for disloyalty and her son-in-law, Rüstem Pasha, appointed as grand vizier in his place. She was also believed to have used her influence to have her sons appointed as Suleiman's heirs.

Suleiman's eldest son by another concubine was Mustafa. Mustafa was accused of plotting to overthrow Suleiman and in 1533 CE was executed for treason. Mustafa was much admired by the Janissaries and after his death, stories abounded that Roxelana had spread false rumours about Mustafa's disloyalty. However, it has never been proven that Roxelana played a role in Mustafa's death. Suleiman and Roxelana's son Mehmed was declared Suleiman's heir. After Mehmed's death from smallpox in 1543 CE, their second son, Selim, became heir. Selim would succeed to the throne in 1566 CE.

Notable valide sultans

Roxelana's leadership was followed by that of six valide sultans, whose sons were too young to rule when they took the throne. By taking care of the government until their sons came of age, these women played an important role in maintaining the stability of the empire. They were also instrumental in changing old practices. Kösem Sultan, the valide sultan for Ahmed I (1603–1617 CE), persuaded her son to spare the life of his brother, Mustafa, putting an end to the practice of fratricide in the Ottoman Empire. Other important valide sultans, including Mihirmah Sultan (Roxelana's daughter) and Turhan Sultan, used their own money to fund military expeditions to expand the empire, commission important public buildings and ensure that the empire's military strongholds were fortified.

Learning ladder 15.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was the sultanate of women?
2. Describe the role of the valide sultan in the harem.
3. Explain how Roxelana came to be in Suleiman I's harem.
4. Explain why the role played by the sultanate of women was important in maintaining the empire.
5. Evaluate the role played by Roxelana during Suleiman I's rule.

Perspectives

1. Source 2: From whose perspective is this source written?
2. Source 2: Describe this source's perspective on Roxelana.
3. Source 3: Explain the perspective of this source.
4. Sources 2 and 3: Compare the perspectives of these two sources.
5. Source 3: Evaluate the perspective of this source.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

15.7

How did the Ottoman Empire become wealthy?

Source 1: Travellers resting at a caravanserai. [Richard Dadd (1845 CE), *Caravanserai at Mylasa in Asia Minor*]

The Ottoman Empire's geographical position joined east and west, and it grew wealthy from the resources of conquered lands and from controlling important trade routes.

Trade

The territory of the Ottoman Empire was vast: the empire stretched around the Mediterranean Sea, from Iran in the east to Hungary in the west. On the one hand, trade within the empire itself was significant, with a wide range of climates, cultures and resources allowing for the production of a vast array of products. Agricultural products, textiles, jewellery and ceramics were the main goods traded within the empire.

At the same time, the empire's geographical location placed it at the junction of trade routes between distant empires and societies in Africa, Asia and Europe. Spices from India, ivory from Africa, furs from Russia, silk and porcelain from China, coffee from Yemen, silver from Western Europe and slaves from the Black Sea region and sub-Saharan Africa were all brought to the Ottoman Empire's markets.

Ottoman support for trade

Trade brought in considerable wealth for the Ottoman Empire. Therefore, Ottoman rulers actively supported and protected merchants. *Caravanserei* (travellers' inns) were established all over the empire as places for merchants and their pack animals to rest. Covered bazaars, such as the Grand Bazaar in Constantinople, were also built to protect merchants and their goods from bad weather.

At the same time, the Ottomans were able to profit from trading activity, by requiring all merchants to obtain a licence and limiting their profits to no more than 10 per cent.

Slaves in the Ottoman Empire

Slaves were important trade goods in the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Empire's economy did not depend on slave labour, but the slave trade greatly contributed to the empire's wealth.

There were two main types of slaves: war captives and people captured by mercenaries.

There were hundreds of thousands of Ottoman war captives who had been taken from Eastern Europe, North Africa, Central Asia and from lands to the north of the Black Sea during the empire's expansion. During one Ottoman military campaign – an attempt to take Vienna in 1683 CE – the Ottomans seized around 80 000 people and sold them into slavery.

The hugely proftable slave trade encouraged mercenaries to raid and capture people from outside (and sometimes inside) the Ottoman Empire to be sold at the Grand Bazaar in Constantinople. Between 1468 and 1694 CE, Crimean Tartar mercenaries seized approximately 1.75 million Ukrainians, Poles and Russians. Another group, the Barbary Corsairs from North Africa, raided coastal regions around the Mediterranean Sea and took people from as far away as Iceland.

Constantinople was the centre of the slave trade. The city was ideally situated at the crossroads of empires and trade routes between Europe, the Mediterranean area and Central Asia.

Source 2: This painting depicts Ottoman women buying silk at the Grand Bazaar in Constantinople. [Amadeo Preziosi (1858 CE), *The Silk Bazaar*]

> It is a sight that could touch even the cruellest of hearts, when a man is separated from his wife, a mother from her daughter, without any hope of ever being reunited, in the deplorable captivity of pagan Muslims … In the end, even the most callous of hearts would tremble among the cries and laments, tears and moans of these unfortunate Ukrainians. For while this people sings and howls in tears, these miserable folk are dispersed in different directions. Some to Constantinople, some to Crimea, others to Anatolia … This is, in a few words, how Tatars take captive of as many as 50 thousand souls in less than two weeks …

Source 3: This text was written by De Beauplan, who was a French engineer who worked in Poland and the Ukraine between 1630 and 1647 CE. [Guillaume Le Vasseur de Beauplan (1651 CE), *Description of the Ukraine*]

Learning ladder 15.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the building in this source.
2. Describe the goods that were sold at the Grand Bazaar in Constantinople.
3. Explain how merchants in the Ottoman Empire were helped by the rulers of the empire.
4. Explain why the geographical location of the Ottoman Empire was beneficial.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the function of caravanserais.
3. Source 3: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how slaves were captured for the Ottoman slave trade.
4. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using these sources and your knowledge, explain why the Ottoman Empire became wealthy.
5. Source 3: Assess the usefulness of this source for a historian studying slavery in the Ottoman Empire.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

What were the cultural features of the Ottoman Empire?

The Ottoman Empire's diverse cultures, and its central position on important trade networks, led to the development of a rich and complex society, as demonstrated by Ottoman architecture, art and design.

Architecture in the Ottoman Empire

Building design, or architecture, in the Ottoman Empire was inspired by many different cultures, especially those of Persia and Byzantium. Important features of Ottoman architecture include domed roofs, large inner spaces, columns, an emphasis on height and the use of light and shadow.

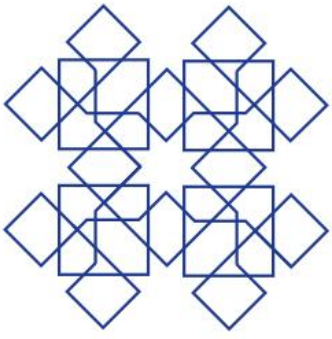
Mosques were the most important buildings. All mosques were built in a grand monumental style to emphasise their significance to the society. After they conquered Constantinople, the Ottomans began to build mosques that were similar in design to the Byzantine Hagia Sophia Church, a magnificent building with large domes and glittering mosaics inside. The Ottomans wanted to create similarly impressive buildings that demonstrated the power and glory of their Islamic empire.

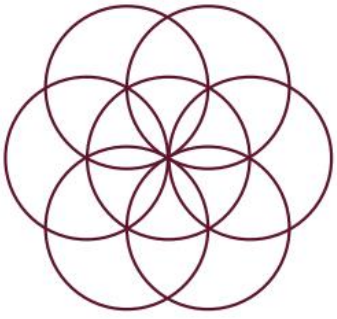
Ottoman art and design

Geometric patterns

Geometric patterns form the basis of some of the most exquisite Islamic religious art created during the Ottoman Empire. Continuous repetitive geometric patterns have a special religious meaning: they are

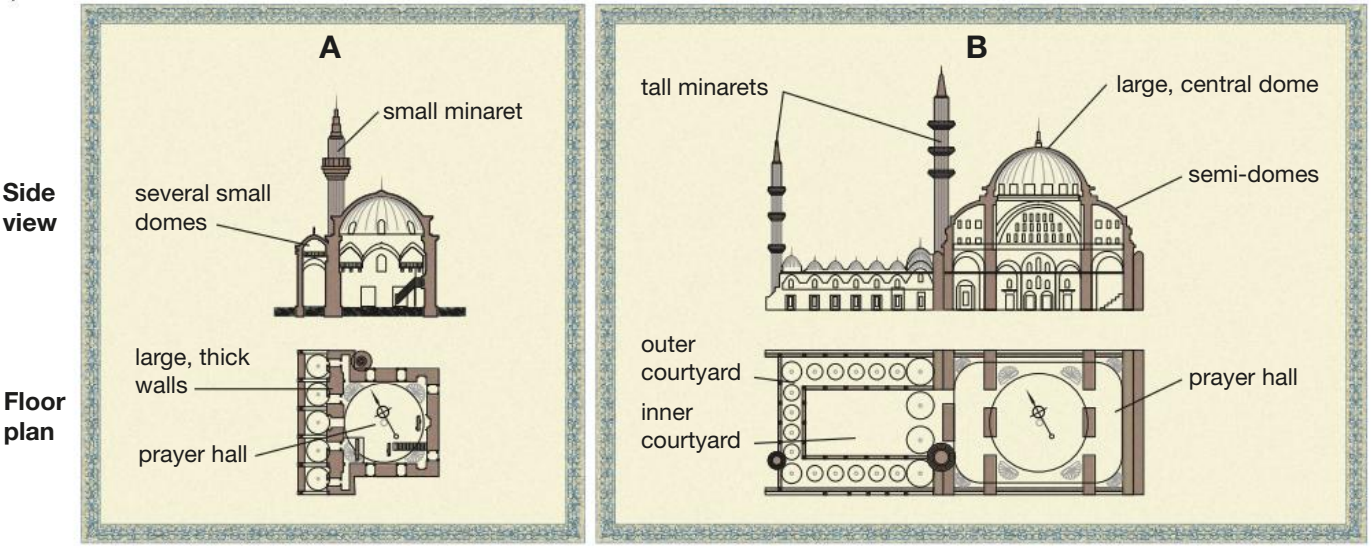
Source 2: Circle repeat units for geometric patterns

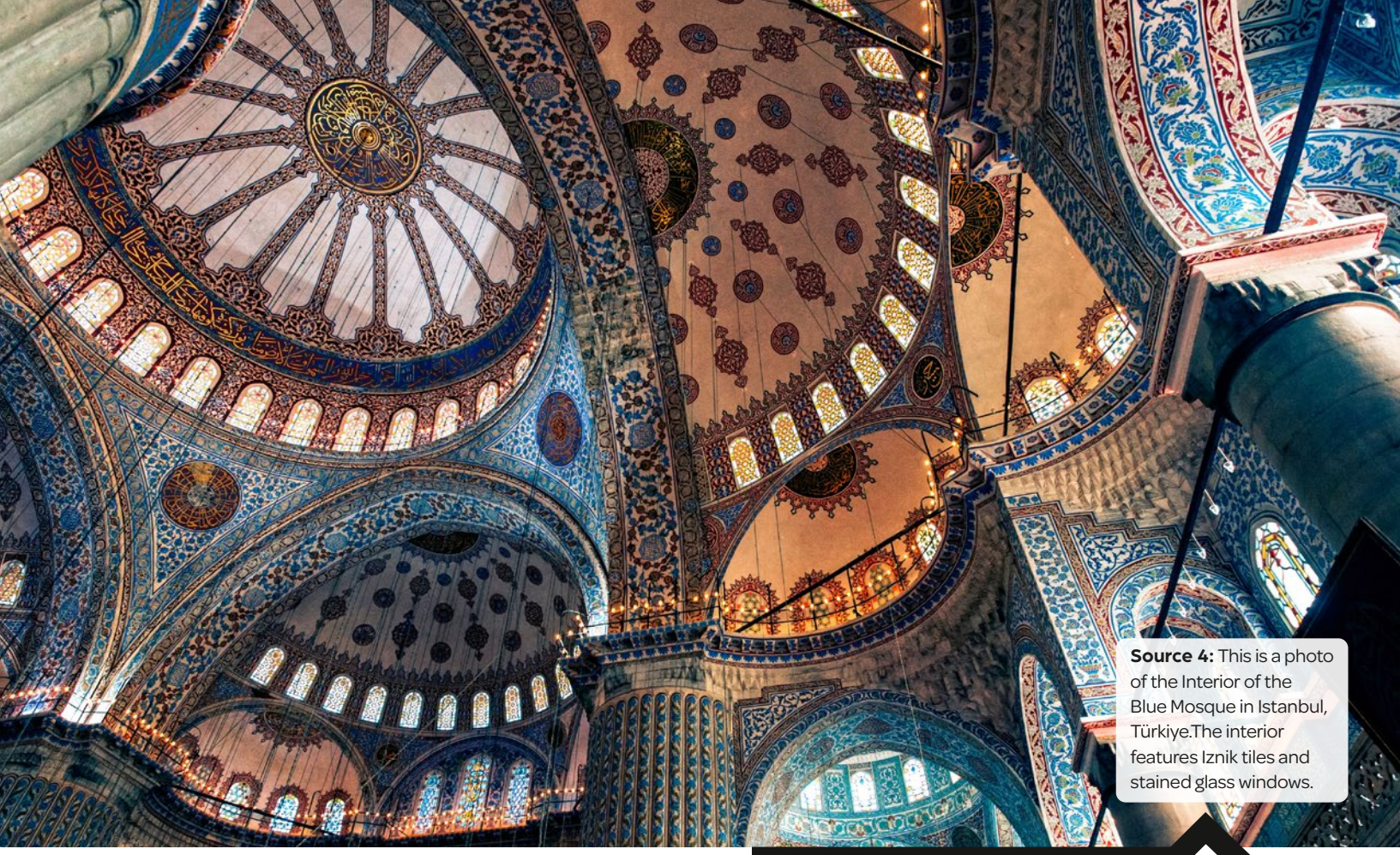




Source 3: Square and star repeat units for geometric patterns

Source 1: This drawing shows a side view and floorplan of two mosques. Mosque A is a typical plan for a mosque built in 1299–1450 CE (Bursa period). Mosque B is a typical plan for a mosque built after 1450 CE (classical Ottoman period).





Source 4: This is a photo of the Interior of the Blue Mosque in Istanbul, Türkiye.The interior features Iznik tiles and stained glass windows.

meant to represent the infinite nature of God. Four basic shapes were used, known as 'repeat units'. The four repeat units are circles and intersecting circles; squares; stars (made of squares and triangles); and polygons.

Iznik tiles

Chinese blue and white porcelain was highly valued in the Islamic world. The blue glaze is thought to have originated in Mesopotamia and arrived in China via trade routes, where pottery makers developed their own unique style. The Chinese porcelain then arrived in Persia along the trade routes during the medieval period.

In the 15th century CE, the city of Iznik was a centre for ceramic production in the Ottoman Empire. Plates, bowls, pitchers, cups, vases and other household items were all produced at Iznik, as were beautifully patterned blue and white ceramic tiles. The Ottomans used huge quantities of these patterned tiles to decorate mosques, palaces and other buildings.

At first, Iznik ceramics were closely modelled on Chinese ceramics, both in colour and decorative patterns. However, by the mid-16th century CE, the potters at Iznik had developed new, vibrant colours for their tiles, including turquoise, mauve, purple, green and red. In addition to the standard geometric patterns, new motifs began to emerge, such as flowers, fruit and trees.

Learning ladder 15.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 4: Identify the mosque shown in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the ways diagram B represents a mosque of the classical Ottoman period.
3. Explain how trade led to the development of Iznik pottery.
4. Source 2: Explain why repeat units were significant in Ottoman design.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the event that led the Ottomans to change the design of their mosques.
2. Source 1: Describe the features that changed and those that stayed the same in mosque design.
3. Explain how Iznik pottery had changed by the mid-16th century CE.
4. Sources 1 and 4: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain why Ottoman design changed over time.

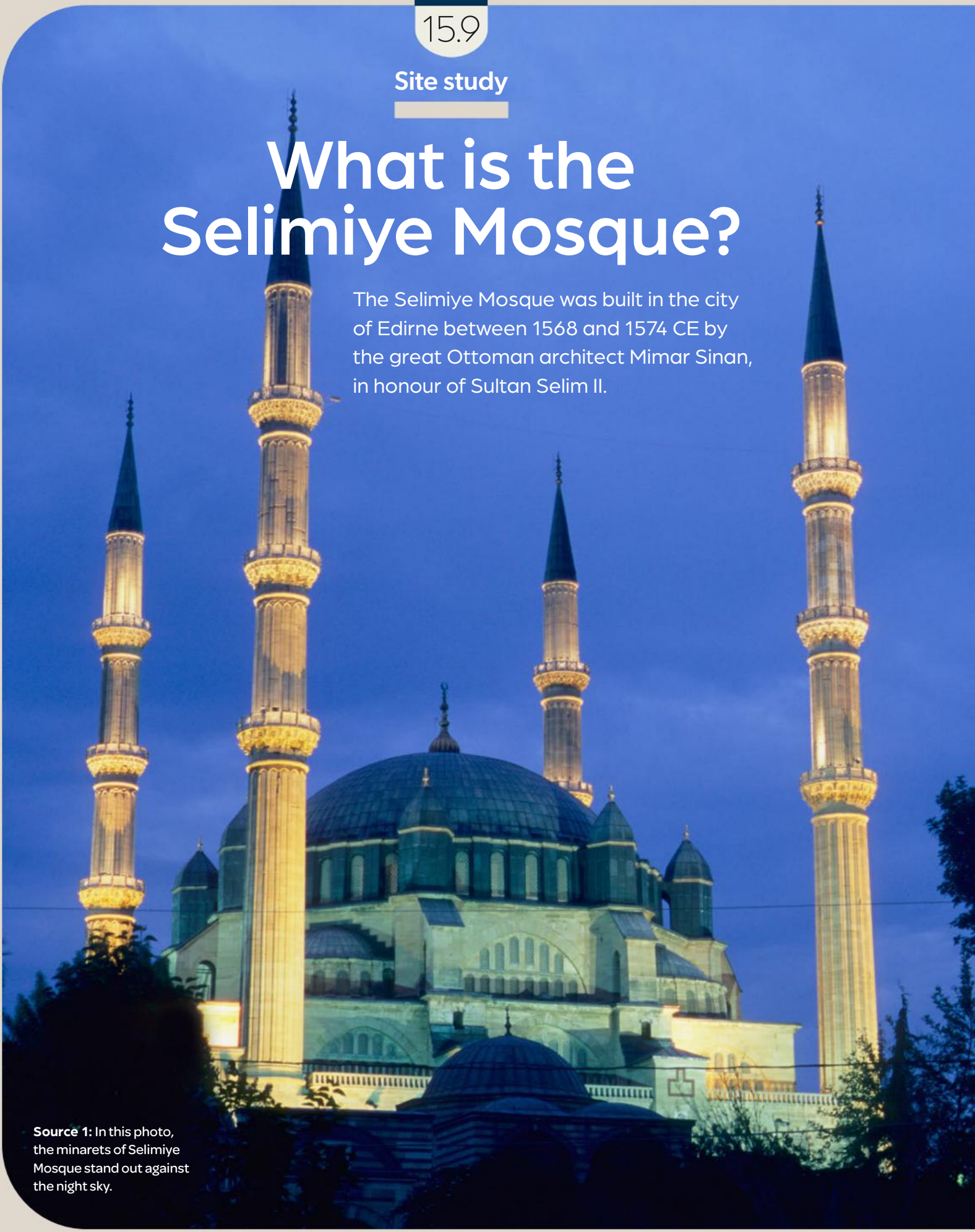
HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

15.9

Site study

What is the Selimiye Mosque?

The Selimiye Mosque was built in the city of Edirne between 1568 and 1574 CE by the great Ottoman architect Mimar Sinan, in honour of Sultan Selim II.



Source 1: In this photo, the minarets of Selimiye Mosque stand out against the night sky.

Features of the Selimiye Mosque

The most spectacular feature of the Selimiye Mosque is its large octagonal central dome, which is supported by eight columns of marble and granite. The four semi-domes surround and support the central dome, allowing for a large, airy, elegant space under the central dome. Four minarets are at the corners of the prayer hall, and these take some of the weight of the central dome. At 83 metres high, the minarets are among the tallest in the Islamic world.

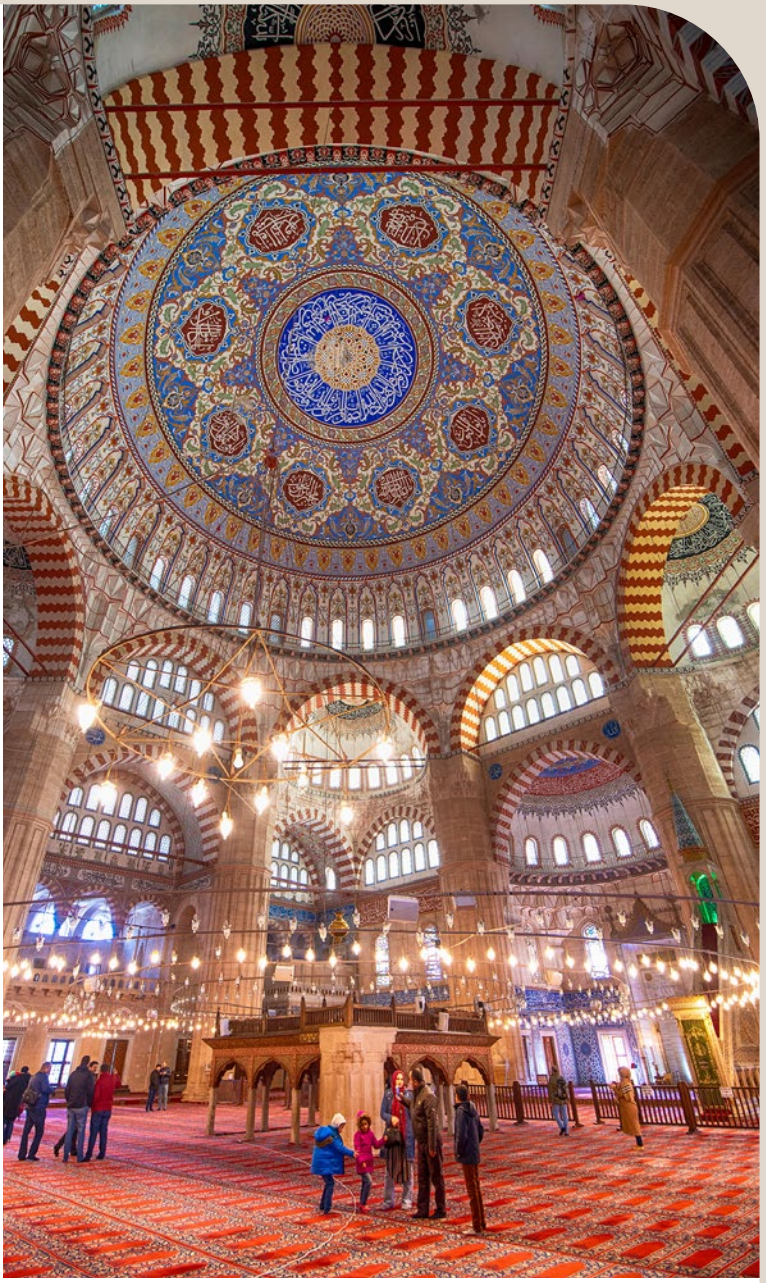
The entrance to the mosque is through a large courtyard. A marble reservoir, where worshippers wash themselves before entering the mosque, is situated in the centre of the courtyard.

Inside the mosque, the walls and arches are painted a pale red colour. Glazed blue tiles cover the prayer hall. Windows at the top of the walls allow the mosque to be flooded with light, which in turn brings out the beautiful calligraphy written along the walls.

Mimar Sinan

Mimar Sinan was the most famous architect of the Ottoman Empire. Born to a Christian family, he was captured as part of the devşirme in 1512 CE and became a Janissary. He fought for the empire at the Siege of Rhodes (1522 CE) and at the Battle of Mohacs (1526 CE).

During these and other campaigns, Sinan designed and built defences, bridges and ships to aid the Ottoman attacks. His designs were so effective that, in 1539 CE, he was promoted to the position of Architect of the Empire. Sinan built over 300 structures during his career; the Selimiye Mosque is considered to be his most important work.



Source 2: This is a photo of the interior of the Selimiye Mosque dome.

Learning ladder 15.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the four structures that stand at the corners of the Selimiye Mosque.
2. Source 2: Describe the key internal features of the Selimiye Mosque.
3. Explain how the design of the Selimiye mosque creates an impressive, spiritual space.
4. Source 1: Explain why the Selimiye Mosque is a significant building.

Significance

1. Identify the architect of the Selimiye Mosque.
2. Describe Mimar Sinan's early life.
3. Explain how Mimar Sinan became the Architect of the Empire.
4. Explain why Sinan was a significant individual in the Ottoman Empire.

Significance, page 486

HOW TO

How did the Ottomans govern subject peoples?

The Ottoman Empire was a vast multicultural realm. Its subjects included people in Central Asia, the Middle East, North Africa and Eastern Europe. While the Ottoman rulers tolerated other peoples and their cultures, they did not treat them equally.

People of the Book

In Islamic tradition, tolerance is extended towards 'People of the Book'. People of the Book are non-Muslims who belong to a religion that has a holy book, such as Christians (the Bible) and Jews (the Torah). From the 7th century CE, People of the Book living in a Muslim Empire were entitled to protection from their Muslim rulers. This protection was known as the *dhimma* and the protected people were known as the *dhimmis*. Dhimmis were allowed to practise their own religion, keep and maintain their holy places, and choose their own religious leaders. They were also protected from persecution.

In return for this protection, dhimmis were expected to pay a special tax, known as the *jizya*. Dhimmis were also forbidden from promoting their religion.

Overall, dhimmis had significantly fewer legal and social rights than Muslim subjects of the Ottoman Empire. The dhimma was a system of tolerance, rather than equality.

Governing non–Muslims

After their conquest of Constantinople in 1453 CE, the Ottomans had a large population of Orthodox Christians in their empire. To control this population, Sultan Mehmet II appointed a leader (patriarch) for each of the Greek and Armenian Orthodox Christian communities. These two patriarchs were charged with ensuring that the jizya and other taxes were collected from their communities. They were also responsible for educating the members of their communities and administering their own courts.

Source 1: An image of a Christian procession in Constantinople. [Lambert de Vos (1574 CE), *The Costume Book*]

Even though they had status as Ottoman officials, the patriarchs were controlled by the sultan. The patriarchs had to make sure that the Christians in their communities did not rebel against the sultan and behaved in accordance with their second-class dhimmi status. Patriarchs could be removed from their position or executed if they did not obey the sultan's commands.

Other smaller religious groups in the Ottoman Empire, such as Jews and Catholics, did not have an officially recognised leader. These communities appointed their own local leaders and registered their community as a *ta'ifa* (group), which could then make use of the Ottoman courts to resolve disputes.

This method of governing non-Muslims was later known as the millet system.

Source 2: This mosaic shows Mehmet II giving Gennadius Scholarius a document in 1454 CE to appoint him as the official Patriarch of the Greek Orthodox Christian community.

Learning ladder 15.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the People of the Book.
2. Describe how dhimmis were protected in the Ottoman Empire.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how the sultans controlled their Orthodox Christian subjects.
4. Explain why the dhimma was a system of tolerance rather than equality.
5. Evaluate the fairness of Ottoman rule over subject peoples.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Identify the role being given to Gennadius Scholarius.
2. Source 2: Describe how the event shown in this source demonstrates:
   - **a** change
   - **b** continuity.
3. Explain how the appointment of official patriarchs enabled continuity for Orthodox Christian subjects of the empire.
4. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the Ottomans continued to allow their subjects to practise their own religion.

How did subject peoples view Ottoman rule?

While some historians argue that Ottoman rule was an impressive example of tolerance in the early modern period, other historians have shown that the empire's rule was cruel and oppressive.

Tolerance of non–Muslims

The Ottoman policy of tolerance for subject peoples gave Jewish and Christian subjects official recognition in the empire. This seems like an enlightened way of governing an empire in the early modern period. In contrast, Catholic Spain had forcibly expelled Jewish and Muslim subjects or forced them to convert to Christianity, resulting in 200 000 Jews and 3 million Muslims being driven out of Spain between 1492 and 1610 CE.

However, the policy of tolerance was not the same as equality, and the possibility of unrest and opposition to Ottoman rule was always present.

Christian opposition to Ottoman rule

There was widespread opposition to the devşirme, which was the capture of over 200 000 Christian boys between 1400 and 1650 CE, mainly from Greece, Albania and the Balkans. While it was true that some children captured in the devşirme could rise to positions of great power in the empire, this was very rare. For most, their capture led to a harsh life of servitude and lifelong separation from their families.

Parents tried desperately to hide their children from the devşirme officers and faced execution if they were discovered. Sometimes community leaders formed lobby groups and negotiated or bribed devşirme officers not to take their children. This was so common that there were written decrees warning devşirme officers not to take bribes. There were also instances of outright rebellion.

In 1540 CE, the villagers of Alexandria (Iskenderiye) in Albania attacked the devşirme officers who had come to collect their sons. The boys themselves also rebelled by escaping, and at times were rescued by members of Christian communities. In an attempt to prevent escapes, the devşirme officers dressed the boys in red clothing and a conical red hat. They also recorded their names and described their appearance in the devşirme registers.

Unfair taxes levied on subject peoples was another cause for discontent. From 1565 to 1571 CE, Christians in Albania and Greece rebelled against a significant increase in taxes for Christian subjects. It took Ottoman forces six years to put down the revolt. Ottoman forces then committed a number of massacres, in which they executed the leaders of the rebellion and killed over 30 000 people.

Persecution of non–Sunni Muslims

Like the majority of Muslims, the Ottomans were Sunni Muslims. Initially, the Ottomans were tolerant of other types of Muslims, such as the Shia, but this changed in the early 16th century due to the rise of the Safavid Empire of Persia. By 1510 CE, the Safavid Empire had conquered huge territories in Mesopotamia, Central Asia and the Caucasus to the east of the Ottoman Empire. Shah Ismail, the ruler of the Safavid Empire, had then changed the official religion of his empire from Sunni Islam to Shia Islam and encouraged a pro-Shia uprising in Ottoman Anatolia in 1511 CE.

Sultan Selim I decided that the Shia represented a significant threat to his empire. He created a list of all Shia Muslims aged 7 to 70 in Anatolia and then had his forces round up and execute all those on the list that they could find. This massacre was one of the largest in Ottoman history, with around 40 000 people killed.

> Think of the heart-rending sorrow! … What grief these Christians experience on account of their children who are separated from them while alive and how many mothers say, 'It would have been better to see them dead and buried in our church, rather than to have them taken alive in order to become Turks …'

Source 1: Extract from a letter written in 1585 CE by Greeks Andre Argyros and John Tholoites to Martin Crucius. Crucius was a professor at the University of Tubingen, Germany, who was sympathetic to the plight of the Greek people living under Ottoman rule.

Command to the governor of Kozan:
The *yaya-başı* [Janissary officer] Dāvūd ... took seven boys from the village of Meki and brought them to the *aġa* [Janissary commander]. After initiating them [into Islam], he took them to Istanbul [Constantinople] and changed their garments [to the red clothing]. Then some dhimmis, the relatives of those boys, stole them away and brought them back to the village of Meki ... I have commanded that when my noble command arrives, you are to investigate, and if this is all true, you are to seize these boys and the infidels who led them astray and send them all to my exalted court, taking care that they do not run away again.

Source 2: Order to the governor of Kozan, c. 1564. Kozan was an administrative region in the Christian kingdom of Armenia. Western Armenia became part of the Ottoman Empire in 1555 CE.

The best example of Ottoman tolerance can be seen in the welcome extended to Jewish immigrants, who were much less numerous than the large Orthodox populations. Fleeing expulsions and persecution in Europe, they found a haven in the large cities of the Ottoman Empire, especially in Salonica, Smyrna and Constantinople.

Source 4: Extract from Denis Lacorne (2019 CE), *The Limits of Tolerance: Enlightenment Values and Religious Fanaticism*, Columbia University Press. Denis Lacorne is a historian.

Source 3: Ottoman yaya-başı (Janissary officer) and his assistant registering captured Christian boys for the devşirme. [A painting by Ali Amir Beg (1558), *Süleymanname*]

Learning ladder 15.11

Impact and legacies

1. Source 3: What does this source show?
2. Describe the devşirme.
3. Explain how Christian people opposed the devşirme.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Explain what these sources demonstrate about the impact of the devşirme.
5. How useful was the devşirme to the Ottoman sultan as a method of control?

Contestability

1. Identify the debate about Ottoman rule over their subject peoples.
2. Describe the evidence that subject peoples were unhappy with Ottoman rule.
3. Explain how Shia Muslims were persecuted in the Ottoman Empire.
4. Source 4: Explain why some historians argue that the Ottoman Empire was a tolerant empire.
5. Evaluate the nature of Ottoman tolerance of their subject peoples.

HOW TO
Contestability, page 488

What did the Ottomans contribute to science and technology?

As the Ottoman Empire grew, the sultans pursued a policy of promoting science and technology throughout their territory.

Ottoman medicine

The varied geographic regions of the empire, along with the wide range of medical treatments practised by Ottoman subjects, was a great advantage to the development of Ottoman medical science. Many different medical treatments could be compared and analysed for their effectiveness. This made the Ottoman Empire a world-class centre of medical knowledge. Many of the physicians in the Ottoman Empire were Jews, Greeks and Armenians, who helped develop new knowledge across the empire.

Ottoman hospitals

In 1463 CE, Sultan Mehmet II founded the Fatih Mosque complex in Constantinople. It was the first Ottoman institute of higher learning. The Fatih Mosque complex included a mosque, a library, a caravanserai, schools, public kitchens for the poor and a hospital.

Hospitals became an important feature of medical practice in the Ottoman Empire. Ottoman hospitals combined the best of Byzantine, Persian and Central Asian influences to produce an institution that aimed to heal the whole person: body, spirit and mind. This meant that a wide variety of staff were employed at Ottoman hospitals. Physicians and surgeons took care of a patient's body, while musicians took care of a patient's mind. A bathhouse and a garden were integral parts of the hospital design, to help patients relax and recover, while cooks and nursing staff were instructed to treat patients kindly.

Ottoman astronomy

Astronomy had a proud tradition in the Ottoman Empire. From the late 15th century CE, the sultans appointed a chief astronomer, who observed the night skies, noted the position of the stars and the Moon in the sky, the appearance of comets and meteors and the occurrence of eclipses. These celestial bodies were all thought to influence events on Earth. The chief astronomer advised the sultan on the best time for events, such as declaring war or launching ships. The astronomer would also cast a horoscope for the sultan's newborn son to predict the nature of his future rule. The study of astronomy to predict the future was common throughout the medieval and early modern world.

Source 1: This display in the Sultan Bayezid II Health Museum and Hospital in Edirne shows a music treatment room.

Then in the year 971 AH [1561 CE], I was faced with the problem of making a clock that would tell the times of prayer. So, I made a dial and marked it with the necessary times, which were the *temcid*, [pre-dawn call to prayer] dawn, mid-fasting, morning, afternoon, evening, bedtime and midnight prayers. By means of another dial, it is possible to tell the degree of the Sun and the first day of the months in the **Julian calendar**.

Source 2: Extract from Taqî al Dîn (c. 1559 CE), *The Brightest Stars for the Construction of Mechanical Clocks*

Source 3: Astronomers at work in the Constantinople Observatory. Taqî al Dîn's clock is believed to be shown on the far-right side of the table. [Ala ad-Din Mansur-Shirazi (c. 1580 CE), *Sehinsename*]

Taqî al Dîn

Perhaps the most famous of all Ottoman astronomers was Taqî al Dîn. Taqî al Dîn was born in Damascus, Syria, in 1526 CE. He studied religion, mathematics and astronomy in Damascus and Egypt, gaining a reputation as a great scholar and designer. In 1570 CE, he went to Constantinople and a year later was appointed to the position of chief astronomer by Sultan Selim II.

In addition to advising the sultan, Taqî al Dîn carried out important research, not only in astronomy but also in mathematics and medicine. His mathematical research was especially significant. He invented the sine, cosine and tangents functions to measure angles. He also used decimal fractions to express these angles. This was a major advance in mathematics and astronomy. Astronomers had long used 60th fractions to record the positions of the stars and planets, but Taqî al Dîn's decimal fractions were much more accurate.

Taqî al Dîn was also a prolific inventor. Of all his inventions, the astronomical clock was the most important. Tasked with designing a clock that would show when the Islamic call to prayer was, Taqî al Dîn studied European mechanical clocks and then designed an astronomical clock that included dials that measured the different phases of the Moon and the position of the Sun.

Learning ladder 15.12

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the form of treatment shown in this source.
2. Describe the nature of Ottoman hospitals.
3. Explain how religion affected Ottoman technology.
4. Explain why the Ottoman Empire became a world-class centre of medical knowledge.
5. Why do you think the role of astronomers has changed since the time of the Ottoman Empire?

Significance

1. Source 3: Identify the building shown in this source.
2. Describe Taqî al Dîn's two significant contributions to mathematics.
3. Explain the role of the chief astronomer in the Ottoman Empire.
4. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Taqî al Dîn was a significant individual.
5. Evaluate the significance of Ottoman contributions to medicine and science.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the Ottoman Empire. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of the Ottoman Empire. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the Ottoman Empire in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The reign of Sultan Selim I, 15.4
- The Ottoman–Safavid War (1532–1555 CE), 15.5
- The leadership of Kösem Sultan, 15.6
- Ottoman architecture, 15.8
- The inventions of Taqî al Dîn, 15.12

Return to the relevant sections in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

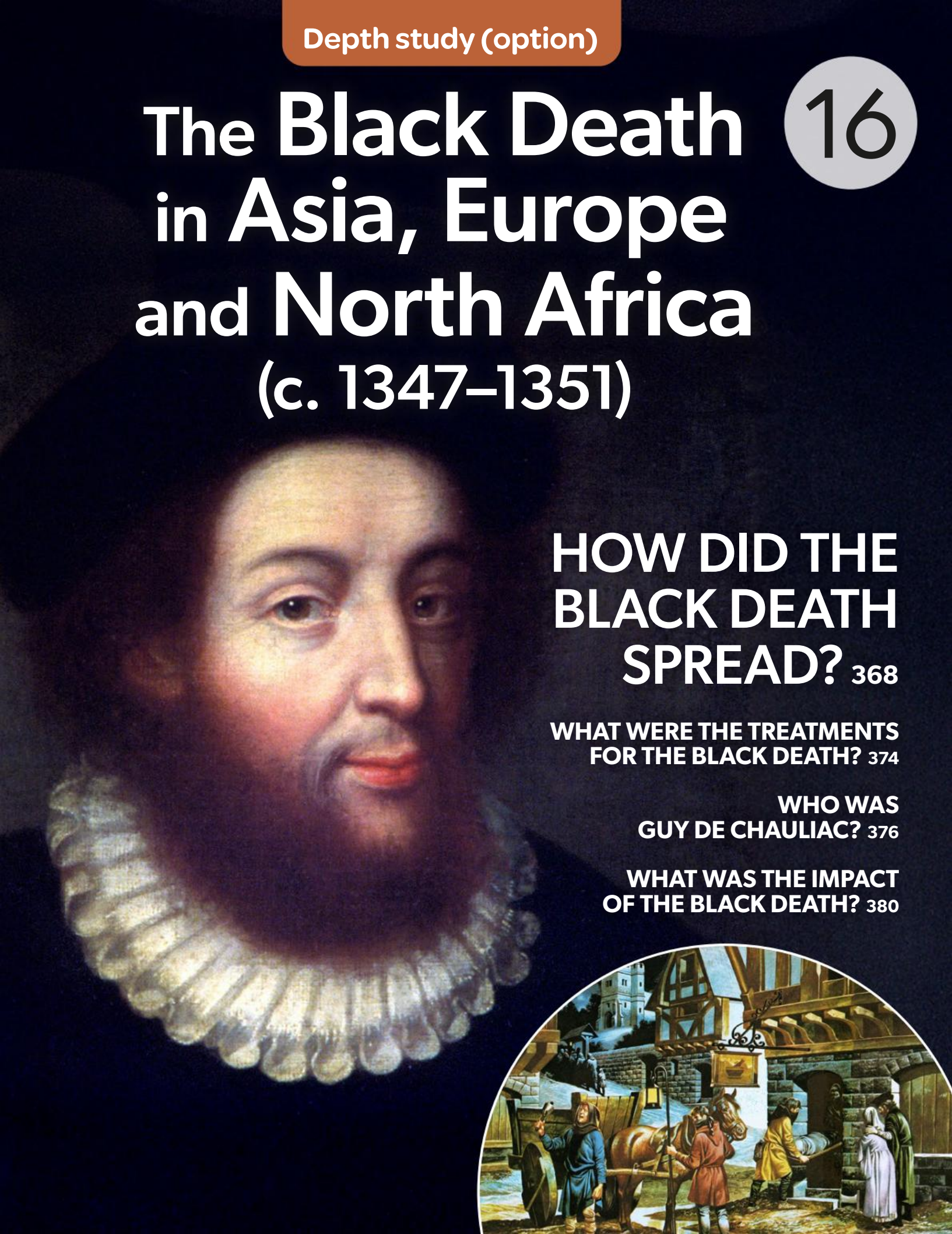
What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

16 The Black Death in Asia, Europe and North Africa (c. 1347–1351)



16.0

How can I understand the Black Death?

In the 14th century CE, a deadly plague known as the Black Death swept across Asia, Europe and North Africa. Limited medical knowledge and poor living conditions allowed the Black Death to quickly spread and devastate communities.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
	Knowledge and understanding				

Source 1: This painting depicts the Strasbourg massacre of 14 February 1349 CE, when Jews were expelled from Strasbourg or burnt to death. Some European people blamed the Black Death crisis on others, including Jews, the Romani, friars, beggars and pilgrims. [Émile Schweitzer (19th century CE), *Pogrom of Strasbourg*]

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

16.1

What was Afro-Eurasia like before the Black Death?

In the medieval period, the region known as Afro-Eurasia (Africa, Europe and Asia) was an expanse filled with people of different cultures. Yet, despite their differences, people connected through trade, technology and religion.

The prosperous high medieval period

For most people in Afro-Eurasia, the high medieval period (1000–1250 CE) was a time of prosperity. Due to agricultural advances, more food was being grown and populations increased. In Europe alone, the population grew from approximately 38.5 million to 73.5 million people between 1000 and 1340 CE, while Asia's population grew from 168 million to 202 million in the same period.

Moreover, mathematical and scientific knowledge was becoming increasingly sophisticated, resulting in new energy-saving inventions, such as the heavy plough and the spinning wheel. This is why some historians speak of a 'medieval Industrial Revolution' occurring during this period.

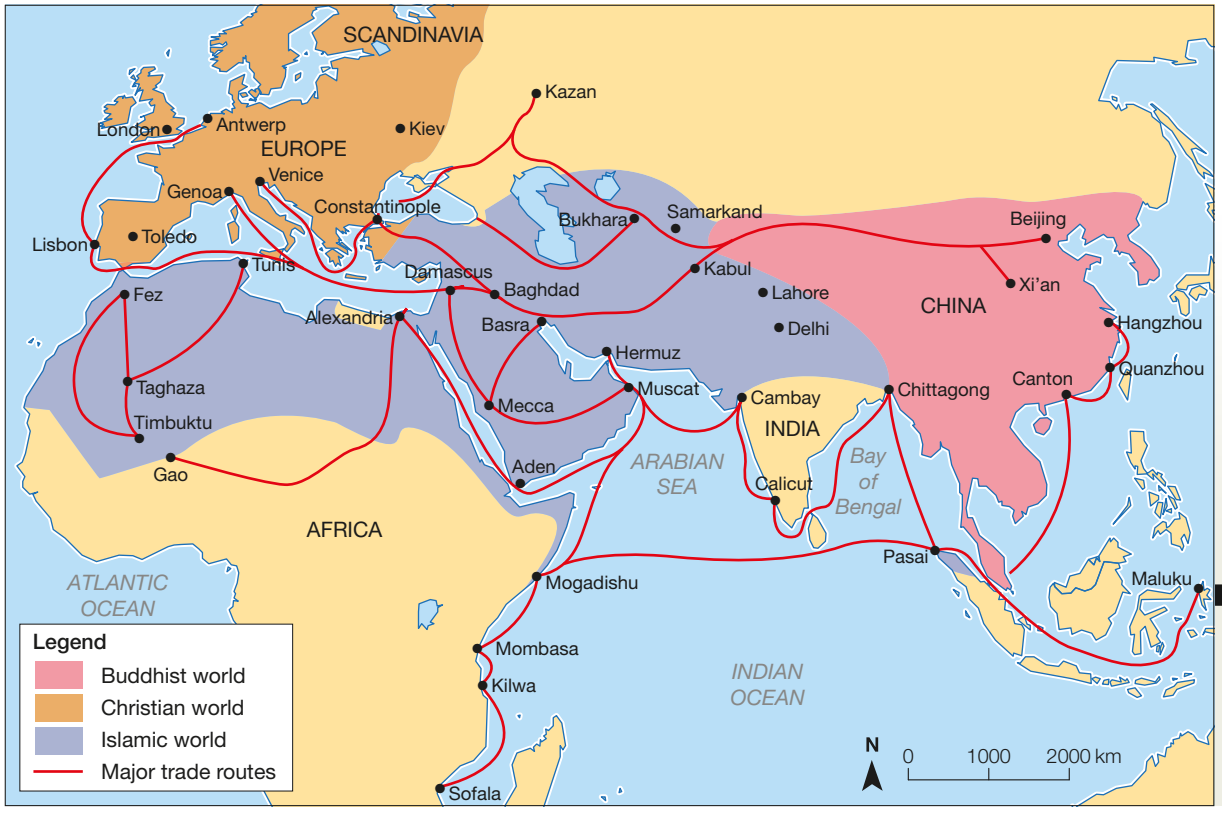
The expansion of trade

Trade was a key reason for the wealth and technological progress of the high medieval period in Afro-Eurasia.

Although the repeated invasions by Mongol forces seriously disrupted eastern Europe, Central Asia and East Asia, the vast Mongol Empire also enabled east–west trade to flourish.

Merchants travelled vast distances along the Silk Road to trade their goods between Europe and Central Asia, between India and Africa and between China and Arabia. Merchants also traded goods by sea. Arabian traders sailed from Arabia to India and South-East Asia to buy spices such as nutmeg, cinnamon and cloves. Traders from Venice and Genoa sailed across the Mediterranean Sea and into the Black Sea to trade with the peoples of Central Asia.

Afro-Eurasia, 1300s CE



Source 1: Afro-Eurasia in the 1300s CE, showing key settlements, trade routes and the spread of three main religions

Source: Matilda Education Australia

In addition to a range of exotic goods, the merchants also brought new ideas about religion and culture. Christianity and Islam travelled into East Asia, while Buddhism spread into Central Asia. The spread of these major religions gave people a sense of community that went beyond the local gods and spirits of their small village or clan, and connected them with people across the vast expanse of Afro-Eurasia.

The crises of the 14th century CE

The extraordinary period of progress in the high medieval period came to an abrupt halt at the start of the 14th century CE. It would be another 100 years before a similar period of prosperity would occur.

There are many reasons for this rupture. In China, famine and disease spread across the continent as the Mongols' Yuan dynasty declined, leading to starvation, discontent and peasant rebellions. Unrest and upheaval occurred in South-East Asia due to changes in weather patterns, internal conflicts and the rise of new kingdoms.

In Europe, a large-scale famine had a catastrophic impact on the people. The Great Famine (1315–1317 CE) was caused by crops failing repeatedly and up to 80 per cent of Europe's cattle dying from disease. Hundreds of thousands of people died during the famine, as much as 15 per cent of the population. In addition, the Hundred Years' War between England and France, which began in 1337 CE, created huge social and economic turmoil.

Meanwhile, in the Middle East, the Mongols' retreat had left chaos and instability in their wake as rival leaders emerged and fought for supremacy.

All these factors contributed to weakening the population of Euro-Asia before the the arrival of a pandemic, known as the Black Death, which would cause the deaths of millions of people.

Learning ladder 16.1

Background and origins

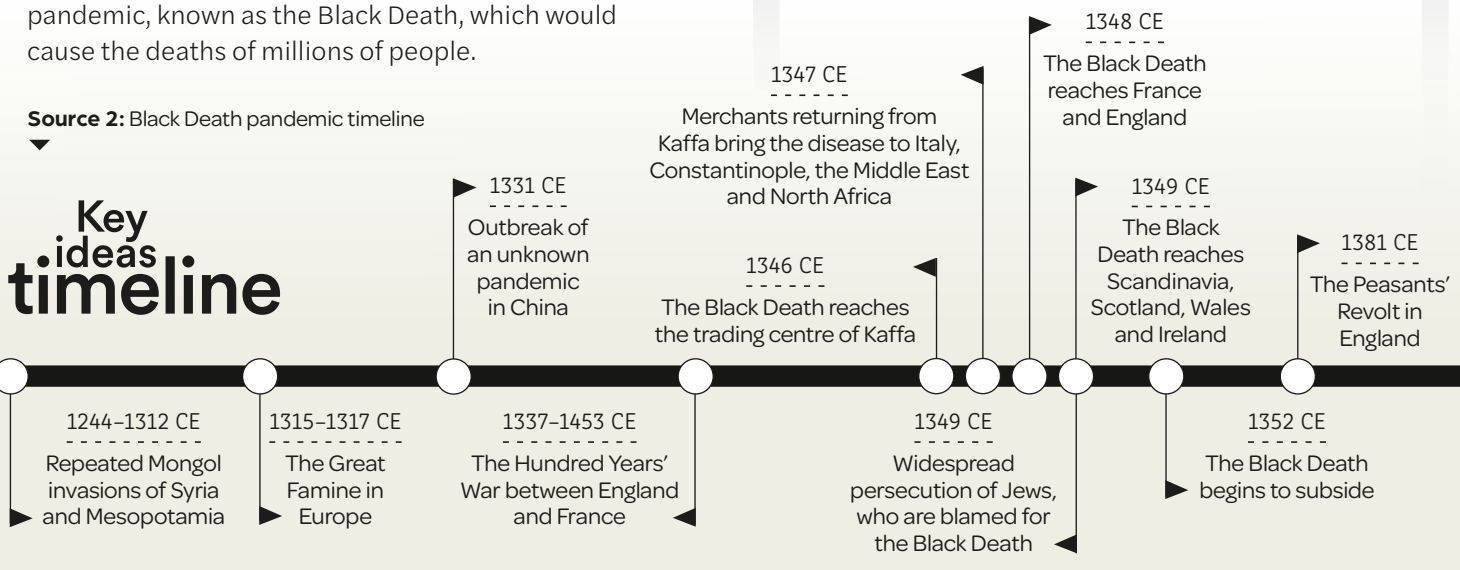
1. Source 1: Identify the three major religions of Afro-Eurasia in c. 1300 CE.
2. Source 1: Describe the trade routes in c. 1300 CE that went from:
   - **a** Constantinople
   - **b** Alexandria.
3. Explain how the high medieval period was a time of prosperity.
4. Source 1: Explain why religion created a sense of a wider community in Afro-Eurasia.

Chronology

1. Source 2: Identify the date when the Black Death first emerged.
2. Put the following events in chronological order:
   1348 CE: The Black Death reaches England
   1347 CE: The Black Death reaches Baghdad
   1348 CE: The Black Death reaches Mecca
   1346 CE: The Black Death reaches Kaffa.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Source 2: Explain how the events of 1244 to 1346 CE weakened the population of Afro-Eurasia before the Black Death struck.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472

Source 2: Black Death pandemic timeline



16.2

How did people live in the 14th century CE?

Many people who lived in Afro-Eurasia during the early 14th century CE experienced famine, disease and violence. This left them vulnerable to the Black Death.

Children in the 14th century CE

Even before the Black Death pandemic, the lives of medieval children were very uncertain. Malnutrition, infections and diseases – such as measles, whooping cough, influenza and smallpox – killed thousands of peasant children every year. It is estimated that 20 to 30 per cent of children died before they reached the age of seven. Even children born into wealthy families were vulnerable to infections and diseases. If a child lived past the age of seven, they were likely to survive into adulthood because they had developed a strong immune system and the worst dangers were past.

The majority of children were peasants, living harsh, impoverished lives working on land owned by nobles. Hardly any peasant children attended school. Instead, they were expected to help their families. From the age of five, peasant children tended farm animals or crops, and by the age of eight or 10, they might also be threshing grain and ploughing fields. Accidents were common, with children drowning in ponds or wells, falling into cauldrons, or being crushed by horses or oxen. The wars of the 14th century CE also had a devastating impact on children. In Syria, the Mongol invasions left children orphaned or crippled; many children were also captured and enslaved.

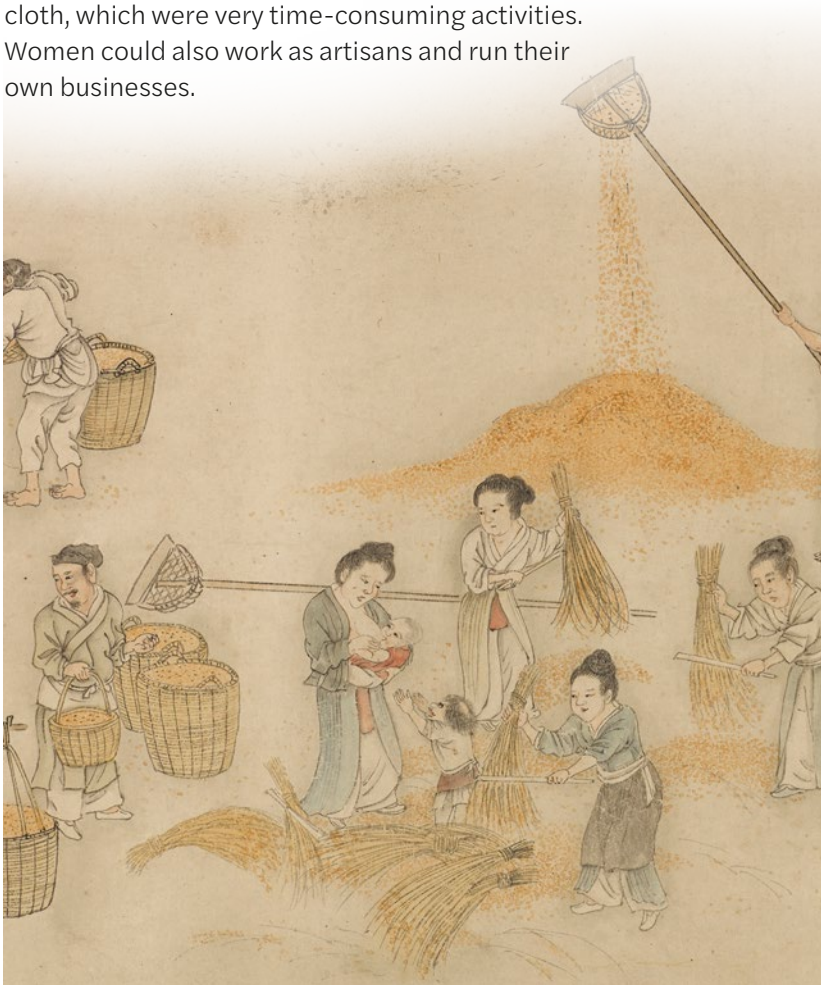
Women in the 14th century CE

Most women in Afro-Eurasia were expected to marry and have children. Childbirth was riskier in the medieval period than it is today, with between 2 and 3 per cent of women dying in childbirth. However, it was much more dangerous for the baby.

To protect themselves and their babies, pregnant women recited prayers and wore special charms. A stone known as an 'eagle stone' was worn by Christian and Muslim women as it was widely believed that this stone would help them give birth safely.

When giving birth, noble women might have consulted a physician; most peasant women were attended by midwives. In Christian lands, a midwife could also perform an emergency baptism if a baby was likely to die.

In addition to their childbearing role, medieval women were expected to look after their children and undertake agricultural work such as harvesting crops, making hay, winnowing and collecting leftover grain after the harvest (called 'gleaning'). Peasant women also had to spin thread and weave cloth, which were very time-consuming activities. Women could also work as artisans and run their own businesses.



Source 1: Cheng Qi (1290 CE), *Tilling Rice, after Lou Shou* (detail). This painting shows Chinese peasants threshing and winnowing rice (removing the husk) during the Yuan dynasty. It was created for nobles to reassure them that the empire enjoyed prosperity and stability.

But the most needy are our neighbours ...
Burdened with children and landlords' rent;
What they can put aside from what they make spinning they spend on housing,
Also on milk and meal to make porridge with
To sate their children who cry out for food
And they themselves also suffer much hunger,
And woe in wintertime, and waking up nights
To rise on the bedside to rock the cradle,
Also to card and comb wool, to patch and to wash,
To rub flax and reel yarn and to peel rushes
That it is pity to describe or show in rhyme
The woe of these women who live in huts
And of many other men who suffer much woe,
From hunger and from thirst, who to keep up appearances
Are ashamed to beg and unwilling to make known
What they need of their neighbours at noon and eve.

Source 2: This is an extract from 'Piers Plowman', a medieval poem written by William Langland in c. 1380 CE.

Men in the 14th century CE

Men dominated medieval society, regardless of whether they were peasants or rulers. Nevertheless, life for peasant men was often difficult and revolved around trying to grow enough food to feed their families. The usual jobs undertaken by peasant men included ploughing, mowing and threshing (removing grain from crops).

In Europe, the poorest peasants, known as serfs, each had a strip of land on the estate of a noble on which they could grow food. Serfs were also expected to build roads and clear forests for their lord.

Wealthier peasants could own land. Most peasant landowners were men (only 10–15 per cent of land-owning peasants were women). Land-owning peasant men could also be reeves (magistrates) or constables. Those who owned land might live to the age of 50 but the poorest peasants were lucky to reach the age of 40.

Men in the higher social classes had more rights than peasant men and played a part in governing society. They made the laws, declared wars, raised armies and levied taxes. They also held positions of religious authority, determining how members of the peasant classes should behave.

Learning ladder 16.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the work being done by the peasants in this image.
2. Describe the lives of children in the 14th century CE.
3. Explain why women wore charms during childbirth.
4. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the differences between the lives of peasant men and women in the 14th century CE.

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Identify whether the perspective shown in this source is that of a peasant or a noble.
2. Source 2: Describe how the author of this source saw the lives of peasants in the 14th century CE.
3. Source 1: Explain how the artist has depicted the peasants in this image.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Compare the perspectives of these sources and explain why they are different.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

16.3

Where did the Black Death originate?

Scientists have discovered the origin of the bacterium that caused the Black Death. Working with historians, they have identified the region known as the Golden Horde as the likely place where the Black Death first emerged.

What caused the Black Death?

In 1894 CE, a French scientist named Alexandre Yersin discovered that the infectious disease called plague was caused by a particular bacterium. This bacterium is named after him; it is known as *Yersinia pestis*.

In 2001 CE, British scientists mapped the genome of *Yersinia pestis* and found that the bacterium had originally been a harmless organism that lived in the stomachs of a type of rat called a marmot. About 5000 years ago, the bacterium mutated to a form that could enter the marmot's bloodstream. From this point, the bacterium could move from marmots to humans if a marmot was bitten by a flea that then bit a human.

In 2021 CE, scientists discovered a 5000-year-old skeleton in Latvia showing signs that death had been caused by *Yersinia pestis*. Currently, this is the oldest known victim of the plague.

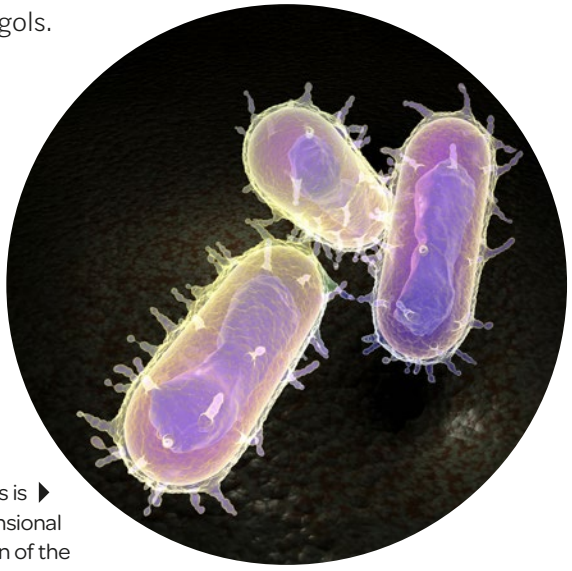
Did the Black Death pandemic start in China?

Several Arabic and European accounts of the Black Death from the medieval period claim that the disease came from 'the east', 'China' and 'India'. However, few people in the medieval period understood the world's geography. Moreover, to date, no Asian sources from that time have been found that describe people dying of symptoms associated with the Black Death. Hence, the European and Arabic accounts cannot be trusted.

Chinese records do report several outbreaks of 'pestilence' during the 1330s to 1350s CE, but the 'pestilence' is never identified as plague. This means that the 'pestilences' of the mid-14th century CE in China could have been any serious contagious disease, such as influenza, smallpox, typhus or malaria. What is certain is that many Chinese lives were lost during the middle of the 14th century CE. However, whether this was due to famine, earthquakes, floods, an unnamed disease or the Black Death is not known at this time.

Plague in the Golden Horde

Currently, historians believe that the plague probably originated in the Central Asian steppes (a large area of flat, unforested grassland) north-east of the Black Sea. This region was part of the Kipchak khanate (also called the 'Golden Horde'), which was then under the control of the Mongols.



Source 1: This is a three-dimensional representation of the *Yersinia pestis* bacterium.

> **1331**: Pestilence at Hebei [a province in northern China] accompanied by drought and locusts; afterwards by floods. Nine-tenths of the people perish.
> **1333**: Pestilence in Zhejiang [a province in eastern China] ... this pestilence, while it continued during this and the succeeding year, overspread China, causing a mortality estimated at thirteen millions of persons.

Source 2: This text is from a book called *Gujin Tushu Jicheng (Imperial Encylopedia)*, which was published in 1726 CE. The information in this encylopedia was compiled from earlier Chinese records.

The Mongol Empire, 1300s CE

Source 3: Historians and scientists have identified the area known as the 'Golden Horde' in the Kipchak khanate as the place where the Black Death is likely to have first emerged.

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Sometime during 1345 and 1346 CE, Mongols living in and around Sarai (the capital city of the Golden Horde) became infected with plague. Descriptions of the symptoms (in medieval Russian and Byzantine sources) identify the disease as the Black Death.

The historical record is supported by modern science. In 2015 CE, scientists found that changes to the climate of the steppes area north-east of the Black Sea had affected the local population of marmots, causing them to decline. This resulted in fleas leaving their marmot hosts and jumping onto humans.

Plague in Russia

Another study in 2019 CE discovered that people had been sick with the Black Death in the town of Laishevo in Russia in 1346 CE. This demonstrates that the Black Death pandemic may have originated in more than one area.

Learning ladder 16.3

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the name of the bacterium that caused the Black Death.
2. Describe how the cause of the Black Death was discovered.
3. Explain how the bacterium that caused the Black Death changed.
4. Explain why the disease spread from marmots to humans.

Contestability

1. Identify the debate over the origin of the Black Death pandemic.
2. Describe how Arabic and European accounts of the Black Death explained the origin of the disease.
3. Source 2: Explain what this Chinese source shows about outbreaks of sickness in the 1330s CE.
4. Explain why historians believe that the Golden Horde is the most likely location for where the Black Death pandemic started.
5. Source 2: Evaluate the evidence for the Black Death pandemic's origin in China. What further evidence would historians need to show that the Black Death originated in China?

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

16.4

How did the Black Death spread?

From 1346 to 1352 CE, the Black Death spread like wildfire from the city of Kaffa on the Black Sea through trade networks to Europe, North Africa and the Middle East.

Plague at the Siege of Kaffa

The Mongols of the Golden Horde had converted to Islam during the 1200s CE, but allowed Christian merchants from Genoa in Italy to control the trading port of Kaffa (now called Feodosija) on the Black Sea. In 1343 CE, tensions between the Christian merchants and the Mongols erupted into violence. The Mongols began to lay **siege** to Kaffa.

> Suddenly the infidel tribe of Tartars [Mongols], collecting from all sides, surrounded the city and besieged the Christians who were shut up there for nearly three years; when lo! a disease attacked the Tartars, and the whole of the besieging army fell into a state of weakness and disorder so that many thousands of them died daily. It seemed to the besieged Christians as if arrows were shot out of the sky to strike and humble the pride of the infidels, who rapidly died with marks on their bodies and lumps in their joints and several parts, followed by a putrid fever ...

Source 1: This text was written by an Italian chronicler, Gabriele de Mussi. Here, he describes the Mongols' siege of Kaffa, which he probably heard about from returning siege participants. De Mussi was Christian and believed that God had caused the non-Christian Mongols to sicken and die. [Gabriele de Mussi (1348 CE), *Historia de Morbo (History of the Plague)*]

Source 2: The Mongols attacking the city of Kaffa were crippled by the Black Death, and had to retreat. In a final act, they attempted to weaken their enemy by firing infected corpses over the city walls.

Afro-Eurasia, 14th century CE

Source 3: Between 1346 and 1348 CE, the Black Death spread through trade routes from the Golden Horde throughout Afro-Eurasia.

Source: Matilda Education Australia

However, in 1346 CE, after the siege had lasted three years, the Mongols started to die from a mysterious illness where **buboes** (swollen lymph nodes) appeared in their armpits, groin and neck. The surviving Mongols collected the dead bodies and catapulted them into the besieged city to try and infect the people of Kaffa with the mysterious illness.

Trade and travel routes spread the Black Death

Historians believe that trade routes played a major role in spreading the Black Death. When we map the spread of the disease, it becomes obvious that land and sea trade routes were significant in enabling its rapid spread. The overland caravan routes from the Golden Horde spread the plague south to the Middle East, while the sea routes from the Golden Horde spread the disease to the ports in the Mediterranean Sea in Europe and North Africa (see Source 3).

In addition to the role of trade, pilgrims visiting religious sites such as Jerusalem, Santiago and Mecca are also thought to have spread the Black Death.

Learning ladder 16.4

Background and origins

1. Source 2: Identify the event depicted in this source.
2. Source 1: Using this source, describe what happened to the Mongols at the Siege of Kaffa.
3. Explain how the Siege of Kaffa led to the spread of the Black Death.
4. Source 1: Explain why the author believes that 'arrows were shot out of the sky'.
5. Evaluate the evidence for the Black Death's origin in the Golden Horde.

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: Identify how and when the Black Death reached:
   - **a** Baghdad
   - **b** Genoa.
2. Describe the role of pilgrims in spreading the Black Death.
3. Source 3: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how plague travelled along trade routes.
4. Source 3: Explain why it is likely that plague entered Europe through more than one port.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

16.5

What were the causes and symptoms of the Black Death?

During the Black Death pandemic of the 14th century CE, there were three forms of plague: bubonic plague, pneumonic plague and septicemic plague.

Bubonic plague

Bubonic plague was the most common form of plague during the Black Death pandemic. People were infected with bubonic plague by being bitten by a flea or a louse that was carrying the *Yersinia pestis* bacteria.

Symptoms of bubonic plague were **buboes** (swollen lymph nodes in the armpits, groin and neck), a high fever, vomiting, pain in the back and limbs, black dots all over the body, a headache, shivering, coughing, intolerance to light, giddiness and fatigue.

By the time the buboes appeared, the victim generally had two to three days left to live. Between 30 and 70 per cent of people infected with bubonic plague died.

Professor Nils Stenseth and colleagues from the University of Oslo simulated three disease outbreaks (from rats, airborne transmission and fleas and lice living on humans) in nine cities with good data related to the spread of the Black Death. In seven of the nine cities, the data clearly showed that parasites transported by humans best matched the pattern of the outbreak.

'The conclusion was very clear,' said Professor Stenseth. 'The lice model fits best. It would be unlikely to spread as fast as it did if it was transmitted by rats.'

Source 1: Research was conducted at the University of Oslo on the cause of the spread of the Black Death. [Quote from 'Black Death spread by humans not rats', *BBC News*, 15 January 2018 CE]

▲ **Source 2:** A physician lances a bubo from a patient's armpit. [Image from Hans Folz (1482 CE), *Discussion of the Plague (Spruch von der Pest)*]

Pneumonic plague

Pneumonic plague was transmitted from human to human through droplets coughed or sneezed from the lungs of a person infected with plague. The droplets contained the *Yersinia pestis* bacteria.

Symptoms of pneumonic plague were shortness of breath, a high fever, weakness, insomnia, coughing up blood and having a headache.

Pneumonic plague was more common in the colder regions of Europe, such as Iceland. Between 90 and 95 per cent of people infected with pneumonic plague died. Once infected, victims lived two to four days.

Source 3: Josse Lieferinxe (1497 CE), *St Sebastian Interceding for the Plague Stricken*. In this painting, one of the undertakers (the man wearing the green shirt) is stricken with the plague as he is burying a victim of the disease. He has a large bubo on his neck.

> In the year then of our Lord 1348 [CE], there happened at Florence, the finest city in all Italy, a most terrible plague … there appeared certain tumours in the groin or under the armpits, some as big as a small apple, others as an egg; and afterwards purple spots in most parts of the body; in some cases large and but few in number, in others smaller and more numerous – both sorts the usual messengers of death.

Source 4: This was written by Giovanni Boccaccio, an Italian author and poet who lived during the 14th century CE (language updated to modern English) [Giovanni Boccaccio (c. 1349–1353 CE), *Decameron*]

Septicemic plague

Septicemic plague was the least common but most deadly form of plague. A victim's bloodstream was completely invaded by *Yersinia pestis*, preventing the body from forming blood clots, which led to internal bleeding and organ failure. Symptoms of septicemic plague were fever, fatigue and the victim's skin turning dark purple. Of people with septicaemic plague, 100 per cent died.

Learning ladder 16.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the three forms of the Black Death.
2. Describe the symptoms of the bubonic form of the plague.
3. Explain how the pneumonic form of the plague affected its victims.
4. Source 1: Explain why scientists and historians now believe that plague was spread by fleas and ticks, not by rats.

Source analysis

1. Source 4: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Sources 2 and 3: Describe the form of plague shown in these sources.
3. Source 3: Explain what this source demonstrates about the nature of the Black Death.
4. Source 4: Explain why this source is useful for historians studying the Black Death.
5. Source 1: Evaluate the usefulness of this source for a historian studying the Black Death.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

16.6

What was medical knowledge like in the 14th century CE?

Doctors in Europe and the Islamic world had no understanding of bacterial infection. Instead, they based their treatments on tradition, observation and faith.

Medicine in the 14th century CE

In the Islamic world in the 14th century CE, medical knowledge was based on the writings of ancient Greeks such as Hippocrates (c. 460–375 BCE) and Galen (c. 129–216 CE) and also on the writings of Islamic scholars such as Al-Rāzī (c. 854–935 CE), Avicenna (c. 980–1037 CE) and Haly Abbas who lived in the 10th century CE.

Galen's work was probably the most influential in the medieval world. Galen argued that four different types of fluid (known as **humours**) were in the body: blood, phlegm, black bile and yellow bile. These humours needed to be kept in balance to ensure good health. Humours could be balanced by ensuring a patient was not too hot or cold, and that the air surrounding a patient was not too moist or dry. Diet, herbal remedies and blood-letting were also used to balance the humours.

By the 9th century CE, Islamic scholars had made many important discoveries, including how the eye works, how blood circulates around the body and how to perform different types of surgery. They also made advances in the study and manufacture of medicines.

Medical schools were established in the Islamic world in the 9th century CE, while Europeans started to formalise medical training in the 11th century CE. Despite this, there were very few doctors in the 14th century CE. Historians have estimated that in Paris in the 1340s CE, there were only four doctors per 10 000 people. Most doctors were employed by monarchs and the nobility. Ordinary people made do with apothecaries, wise women and prayer.

Religion and illness

In Christian Europe, people believed that illness and misfortune were signs that a person had sinned against God and was being punished. Before practising medicine, a physician was required to ask a patient if they had confessed their sins.

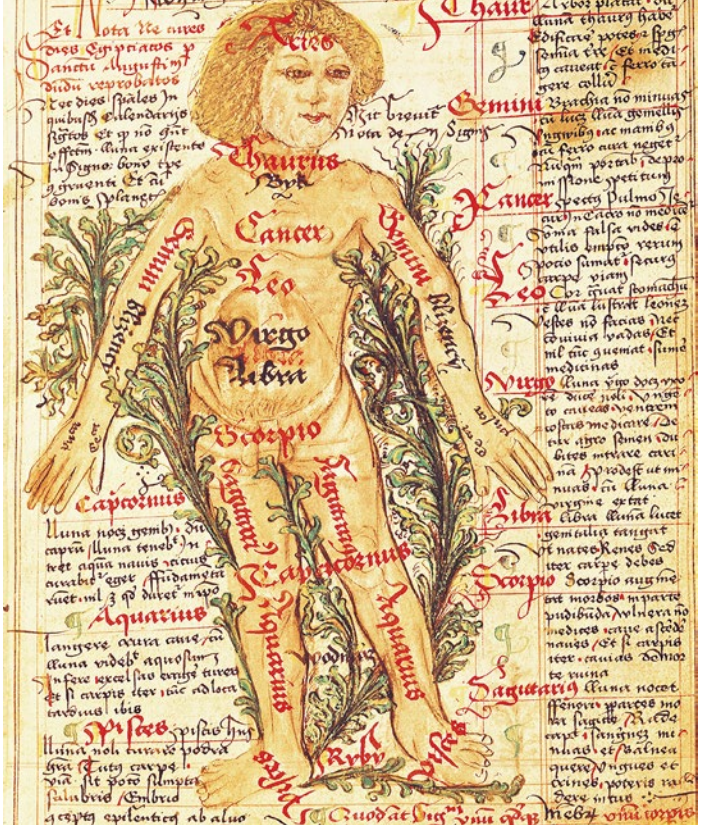
Muslims believed that illness was a test sent from God to give the person an opportunity to become more faithful in their devotion to God. The belief that God caused people to become sick encouraged people to live virtuous lives and devote themselves to prayer in order to avoid illness.

Source 1: This artwork shows the preparation of medicines for the treatment of a patient suffering from smallpox. The treating doctor is Ibn Sina (who is commonly known in the West as Avicenna), an important medieval Muslim physician who wrote *Al-Qānūn fī al-tibb (The Canon of Medicine),* which is one of the most influential books in the history of medicine.

Both Christians and Muslims also believed that cures for illnesses came from God. Christians believed that God had provided cures for illnesses when he created the world and had left special signs (known as signatures) to help people find these cures. For example, the leaves of the lungwort plant were lung shaped and spotted. It was therefore believed that lungwort was a cure for lung ailments.

Astrology and medicine

The ancient Greeks had believed that the stars and planets influenced events on Earth. Christian and Muslim physicians in the medieval period continued to follow this tradition. Both Christian and Muslim physicians thought that understanding astrology was important when making a diagnosis or prescribing treatment. Each star sign was believed to be connected with an area of the body and with a humour-restoring herbal medicine. Furthermore, the phases of the Moon and the appearance of comets and other astronomical phenomena were also considered when deciding what treatments to use and when predicting the likelihood of an individual's future health. Physicians studied astrology as part of their medical training.



▲ **Source 2:** Image from *Treatise on Pestilence* (c. 1400 CE) by Sigismund Albik, a Czech physician. It shows the relationship between the astrological signs and the body.

Learning ladder 16.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the physician in this source. Identify his significance to medieval medicine.
2. Describe the discoveries made by Islamic physicians during the medieval period.
3. Explain Galen's theory of medicine.
4. Source 2: Explain why astrology was important to medicine in the medieval period.

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify what this source was used for.
2. Describe the Christian and Islamic beliefs about the cause of illness.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how medieval physicians used astrology to diagnose patients' conditions.
4. Explain why there were limitations to the treatments provided by Christian and Islamic physicians during the medieval period.

HOW TO
Cause and effect, page 480

How was the Black Death treated in the 1300s CE?

Rich and poor people alike tried to treat the Black Death in many different ways, including with spells and charms, prayer and blood-letting.

Attempts to treat the disease

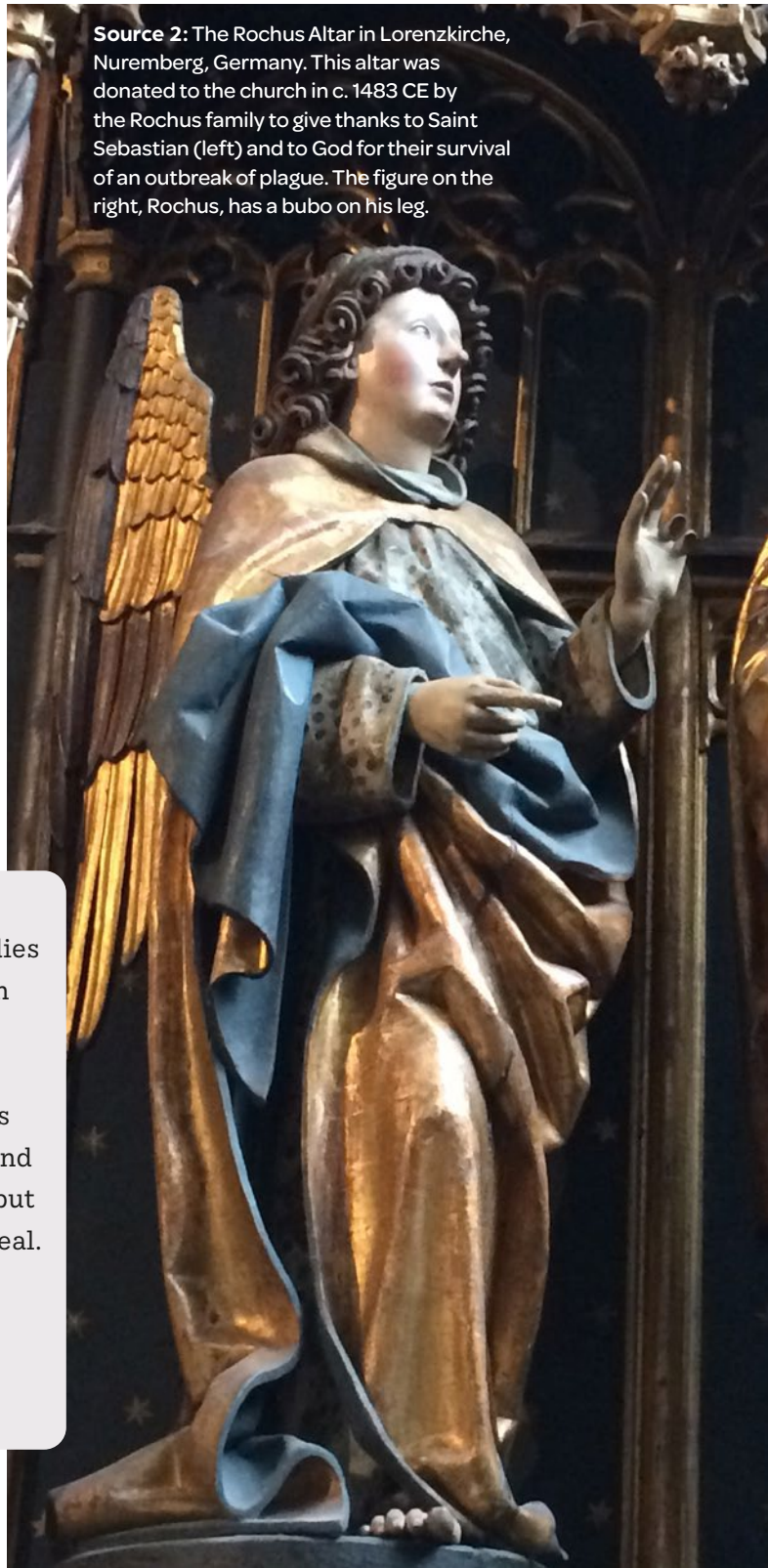
Peasants who caught the plague might have consulted an apothecary or a wise woman, who offered herbal treatments or suggested spells and charms that might heal the sick person. Apothecaries generally suggested placing raw onions or leeches on the buboes to draw out the pus.

Rich and poor alike also turned to praying, fasting and going on pilgrimages to try to appease God so he would take away the Black Death. In Christian lands, people prayed to Saint Sebastian, who was believed to be able to heal people infected with plague.

Nobles and rulers sought the advice of physicians. Physicians in Europe, the Middle East and North Africa agreed that the best way to treat plague was to balance the humours. Physicians prescribed certain diets, exercise and blood-letting to do this. The colour of a patient's urine was sometimes checked to see if the humours were balanced. Physicians also applied live chickens or various types of medicinal pastes to the buboes, and many suggested bursting the buboes and draining them of pus to aid healing. Placing heated cups on the skin to try to draw out the 'bad humours' was another treatment.

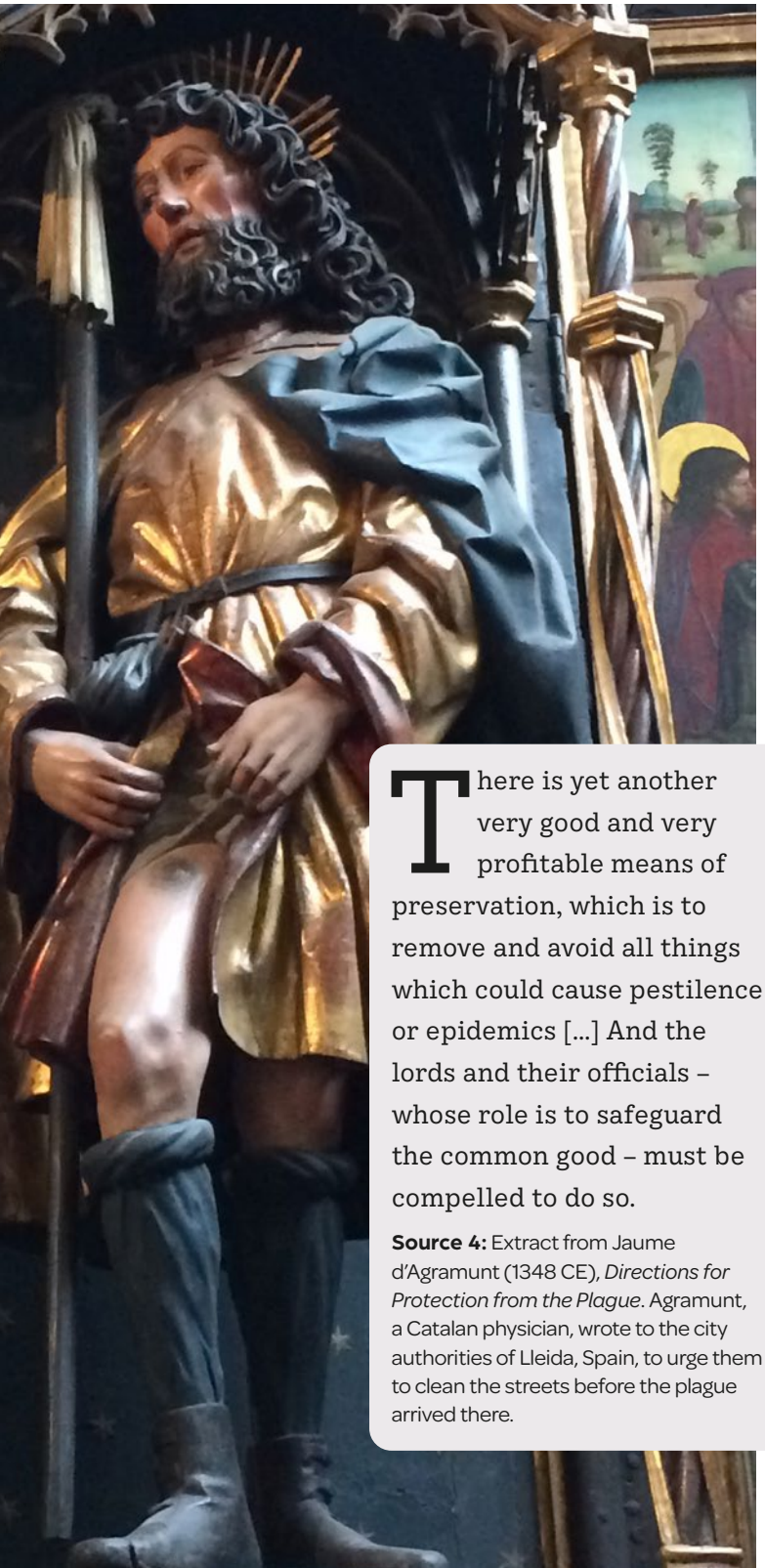
> Oh if you could see the nobles of Aleppo studying their books of medicine! They multiply its remedies by eating dried and sour foods. The buboes which disturb men's healthy lives are smeared with Armenian clay. Each man treated his humours and made life more comfortable. They perfumed their homes with ambergris [a substance created in the stomachs of sperm whales] and camphor, cypress and sandal. They wore ruby rings and put onions, vinegar and sardines together with their daily meal. They ate less broth and fruit ...

Source 1: This text was written by a medieval Syrian historian, Ibn al-Wardī (c. 1290–1349 CE). Here he notes how the nobles of Aleppo in Syria adopted the best medical practice of the day to prevent being infected, and to cure themselves of plague.



Source 2: The Rochus Altar in Lorenzkirche, Nuremberg, Germany. This altar was donated to the church in c. 1483 CE by the Rochus family to give thanks to Saint Sebastian (left) and to God for their survival of an outbreak of plague. The figure on the right, Rochus, has a bubo on his leg.

Source 3: These images are from *Treatise on Pestilence* (c. 1400 CE) by Sigismund Albik, a Czech physician. The first three images show methods used to treat plague: blood-letting, urine testing and placing heated cups on the skin; the fourth image shows the patient cured and back at work.



There is yet another very good and very profitable means of preservation, which is to remove and avoid all things which could cause pestilence or epidemics [...] And the lords and their officials – whose role is to safeguard the common good – must be compelled to do so.

Source 4: Extract from Jaume d'Agramunt (1348 CE), *Directions for Protection from the Plague*. Agramunt, a Catalan physician, wrote to the city authorities of Lleida, Spain, to urge them to clean the streets before the plague arrived there.

Physicians also recommended keeping towns and cities clean. In response, slaughterhouses were moved to the outskirts of cities, polluted water sources were drained and efforts made to keep the streets free of sewage and rotting food. This was designed to rid the air of bad smells. According to Galen, bad air was a source of disease.

Learning ladder 16.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify two treatments offered to poor people infected with plague.
2. Source 2: Identify why Saint Sebastian was important for Christians during the Black Death.
3. Explain how medieval physicians treated buboes.
4. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why physicians treated the 'humours'.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify three methods used to treat plague shown in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe how the nobles of Aleppo in Syria treated the Black Death.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how religion was involved in treating the Black Death.
4. Source 4: Explain why removing bad smells was believed to prevent the Black Death.
5. Sources 1 and 4: What conclusions can you draw about medical knowledge in Europe and the Islamic world in the 14th century CE?

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

16.8

Key individual

Who was Guy de Chauliac?

Guy de Chauliac was a French doctor from Avignon whose treatments provided a potential cure for the plague.

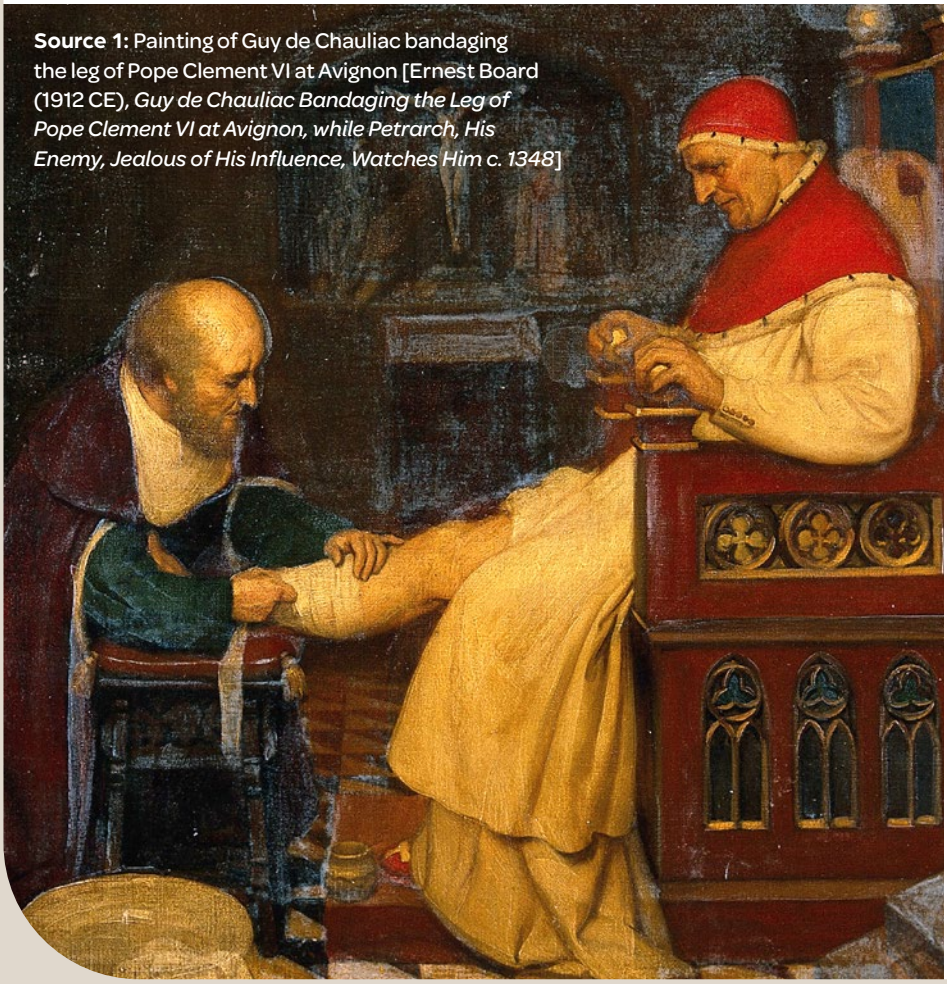
Physician to the popes

Guy de Chauliac studied medicine in Toulouse, Montpellier and Paris, becoming a Master of Medicine and Surgery in 1325 CE. He quickly gained a reputation as an excellent physician. He was the personal physician of several popes, including Pope Clement VI (reigned 1342–1352 CE), Pope Innocent VI (reigned 1352–1362 CE) and Pope Urban V (reigned 1362–1370 CE). At that time, the popes resided in Avignon, France.

When the Black Death arrived in Avignon in January 1348 CE, many nobles and physicians fled the city. Guy de Chauliac stayed, caring for patients, making notes of his observations and testing different treatments.

Guy de Chauliac's research

Guy de Chauliac noticed that there were two types of plague: a bubonic form and a pneumonic form. He also recognised that the plague was contagious. One of his key recommendations for avoiding the plague was to stay away from 'polluting miasmas' (bad air). He therefore urged Pope Clement VI to keep a fire burning continuously in his chamber to purify the air. In addition, he told him to eat a healthy diet and keep visitors away. Although the fire did nothing to protect the pope from the plague, the isolation helped the pope avoid contact with infected persons and kept him safe. Guy de Chauliac's successful preventative measures won him lasting fame.



Source 1: Painting of Guy de Chauliac bandaging the leg of Pope Clement VI at Avignon [Ernest Board (1912 CE), *Guy de Chauliac Bandaging the Leg of Pope Clement VI at Avignon, while Petrarch, His Enemy, Jealous of His Influence, Watches Him c. 1348*]

A cure for the plague?

As a result of treating his patients, Guy de Chauliac contracted the bubonic form of the plague, but thanks to his research he was able to cure it. He bled himself, applied medicinal pastes to the buboes and cut open the buboes to drain them of pus. Draining the buboes was dangerous, as it could have led to infection from other bacteria. However, in Guy de Chauliac's case, the treatment worked and gave his body a chance to overcome the *Yersinia pestis* bacterial infection and heal.

Great Book on Surgery (1363 CE)

De Chauliac wrote about his treatments for the plague in a book called *Chirurgia magna* (*Great Book on Surgery*). The book also contained a history of surgery and recommendations for how surgical procedures should be conducted.

Throughout the book, de Chauliac referred to the writings of Galen, Hippocrates, Haly Abbas, Avicenna and Al-Razi.

While de Chauliac's history of surgery relied on many of the traditional understandings of medicine, his accurate anatomical explanations and references to medical ethics greatly expanded what was taught in medical schools. He also focused on the professionalism of physicians in 14th century Europe, stating that a surgeon should be knowledgeable, treat all patients with respect and be able to adapt to new situations. The book brought him great fame and was used as a standard medical textbook for the next three centuries.

> The great death toll began in our case in the month of January [1348] ... It was of two kinds: the first lasted two months; with continuous fever and spitting of blood; and death occurred within three days. The second lasted for the whole of the remainder of the time, also with continuous fever, and with ulcers and boils in the extremities, principally under the arm-pits and in the groin; and death took place within five days. And [it] was of so great a contagion (especially when there was spitting of blood) that ... one person caught it from the other.

Source 3: Extract from Guy de Chauliac (1363 CE), *Great Book on Surgery*

> In the cure, blood-lettings were made, and cordial syrups and letuaries [medicinal pastes made with honey] were applied. And the buboes were matured [made ready to burst] with figs and with crushed onions mixed with sour dough and with butter. And after, the buboes were cut open and they were healed. Infections on toes and fingers were aired and cauterised [burnt] ... towards the end of the pestilence, I ran a continued fever ... [for] six weeks. And I was in such great peril that all my friends thought that I should be dead. And I escaped by the commandment of God, when the bubo was matured and healed as I have said.

Source 4: Extract from Guy de Chauliac (1363 CE), *Great Book on Surgery*

▲ **Source 2:** An image of a surgeon lecturing medical students from Guy de Chauliac (1363 CE), *Great Book on Surgery*

Learning ladder 16.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the reasons for Guy de Chauliac's fame.
2. Describe the preventative measures taken to protect Pope Clement VI from the Black Death.
3. Source 4: Explain how Guy de Chauliac cured his own case of the Black Death.
4. Source 4: Explain why Guy de Chauliac's treatments for the plague were effective.
5. Evaluate Guy de Chauliac's influence on the practice of medicine in medieval Europe.

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify the historically significant book written by Guy de Chauliac.
2. Source 1: Describe the significant individuals treated by Guy de Chauliac.
3. Source 3: Explain why Guy de Chauliac's research was historically significant.
4. Sources 1–4: Explain why Guy de Chauliac was a significant individual.
5. Analyse the significance of Guy de Chauliac's *Great Book on Surgery*.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

16.9

What were the responses to the Black Death?

The terrifying nature of the Black Death prompted a range of responses. While some tried desperately to appease God, others persecuted minority groups.

The response of Muslim leaders

Islamic leaders told Muslim people that it was God's will whether or not they contracted the Black Death. Therefore, Muslims were instructed not to flee from plague-stricken areas, but to remain where they were. They were encouraged to join religious processions and pray for those who had died.

While these instructions may have contributed to the spread of the disease, they also encouraged people to trust their religious leaders and to calmly accept the Black Death.

The response of Christian leaders

In contrast, Christian leaders told their people that the Black Death was God's way of punishing the community for sinning. Priests encouraged Christians to pray for forgiveness and to undertake religious processions to holy shrines.

However, at the same time, the Christian church also accepted the advice of physicians, who argued that 'bad air' caused the plague and that it could be caught from people who already had the disease. Church leaders therefore also encouraged people to stay away from plague-ridden cities and to isolate.

The advice of Christian leaders may have saved lives, but it also meant that many Christians reacted to the Black Death with guilt and fear.

> They were called flagellants because of the whips which they used in performing public penance. Each whip consisted of a stick with three knotted thongs hanging from the end … Using these whips they beat and whipped their bare skin until their bodies were bruised and swollen and blood rained down, spattering the walls nearby … when they came to cities, towns and villages they formed themselves into a procession, with hoods or hats pulled down over their foreheads singing a sweet hymn … However [being] ignorant and stupid … they annoyingly and persistently took upon themselves the job of preaching. They did not think or speak of the clergy and the sacraments of the church with proper reverence …

Source 1: Heinrich von Hervord (1355 CE), *Chronicle of Heinrich von Hervord*. Von Hervord was a German monk and eyewitness to the Black Death.

Source 2: This image shows flagellants in Tournai in 1349 CE. [*Chronica Aegidii Li Muisis (Li Muisis's Chronicle of the Plague)* (c. 1352 CE) by Gilles li Muisis, Jacques Joseph and Ignace Goethals Vercruysse, French monks of the Benedictine Abbey of St Martin de Tournai]

A deep sense of hopelessness spread throughout Christian societies because many people thought the Black Death signalled the end of the world.

The flagellants

The Christian belief that the Black Death was a punishment from God led people to join religious movements such as the **flagellants**. The flagellants held processions through towns, whipping their bodies as they walked, to show God that they were sorry for their sins and for the sins of the community (see Source 2).

The flagellants attracted a huge following of people desperate for a miracle. At first, Church leaders were supportive of the flagellants and their display of popular piety, but when the flagellants began to criticise the Church for its failure to end the plague, Pope Clement VI moved swiftly. He declared the flagellant movement **heretical** and **excommunicated** the flagellants.

Persecution of Jewish people

Jews made up only 1 per cent of the population in Europe. They were a distinct community, with tight-knit family groups and traditions that were different from those of their Christian neighbours. In the absence of any other explanations for the Black Death, rumours began to spread that the plague was caused by Jews poisoning the wells and the air.

In response to these rumours, thousands of Jews were persecuted, burnt alive and massacred all over Europe (see Source 3).

The Medical Faculty of the University of Paris, along with Catholic Church leaders were horrified by the violence. They tried to explain that Jews were not in any way responsible for the plague and, indeed, were dying of the plague as fast as everyone else, but this did not stop the persecution.

> The Jews were suddenly and violently charged with infecting the wells and water, and corrupting the air. The whole world rose up against them cruelly on this account. In Germany … they were massacred and slaughtered by Christians, and many thousands were burned everywhere, indiscriminately.

Source 3: Jean de Vanette (1368 CE), *Chronicle*. Jean de Vanette was a French monk and an eyewitness to the Black Death.

Learning ladder 16.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the group depicted in this source.
2. Source 1: Describe a flagellant procession.
3. Explain what the flagellants hoped to achieve.
4. Compare the responses of the Muslim and Christian leaders to the Black Death.

Perspectives

1. Sources 1 and 3: Identify the type of person who created these sources.
2. Source 3: Describe the perspective of Christian people towards their Jewish neighbours.
3. Explain the perspective of Church leaders and physicians towards the persecution of Jewish people.
4. Source 1: Explain why the author of this source was opposed to the flagellants.
5. Analyse the differences in the religious perspectives of Church leaders and the ordinary people.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

16.10

What was the immediate impact of the Black Death?

The Black Death killed millions of people across Afro-Eurasia. However, it is almost impossible to know the exact number of deaths.

Impact on populations

Middle East and Africa

Assessing the Black Death's impact on Middle Eastern and North African populations is difficult because no reliable sources for mortality rates exist. Historians estimate that the pre-plague population of Cairo (in Egypt) of 500 000 people was reduced by 40 per cent to 300 000 people. The city of Damascus (in modern-day Syria) may have lost over 30 000 people, leaving it with a population of 50 000 people.

One of the few sources of information about the impact of the Back Death on the populations of North Africa and the Middle East was written by Ibn Battūta. Ibn Battūta was a medieval Muslim explorer who wrote one of the most famous travel books, *Rihlah (Travels)*. However, his figures are only guesses.

> The poet Boccaccio claimed 100 000 dead in Florence, and a Paduan chronicler used the same number for Venice. Robert of Avesbury said over 200 died each day in London, Jean de Venette stated that 500 died each day in Paris … Agnolo di Tura claimed 52 000 dead in Siena; Friar John Clynn reported 14 000 dead in Dublin; and a Flemish chronicler wrote that 62 000 died in Avignon in just three months. All told, 97 of the 407 European chronicles studied by historian Samuel Cohn provide some estimate of the death toll, but none of them may be considered reliable as exact figures.
>
> **Source 1:** This text was written by Joseph Byrne, who is a historian. [Joseph P. Byrne (2004 CE), *The Black Death*]

Europe

There is far more information about the Black Death's impact on the population of Europe. Until the 1960s CE, most historians believed that 20 to 30 per cent of Europe's population died of plague. They based this figure on their studies of the Black Death in urban areas.

However, after the 1960s CE, new studies were conducted into the Black Death's impact on rural areas. Since 90 per cent of Europe's people lived in rural areas, these studies were more accurate than the ones from urban areas. The new research indicated that around 60 per cent of Europe's population – 50 million people – died from the Black Death.

I went to Homs and found that the plague had already struck there; about 300 persons died on the day of my arrival. I went to Damascus and arrived on a Thursday; the people had been fasting for three days … The number of deaths among them had risen to 2400 a day … Then we went to Gaza and found most of it deserted because of the number that had died … The qadi told me that only a quarter of the 80 notaries there were left and that the number of deaths had risen to 1100 a day … Then I went to Cairo and was told that during the plague the number of deaths rose to 21 000 a day. I found that all the sheiks I had known were dead. May God Most High have mercy upon them!

Source 2: This was written by medieval Moroccan explorer and writer Ibn Battūta. In this text, he describes his observations of the Black Death in Syria, Palestine and Egypt. [Ibn Battūta (c. 1304–1377 CE), *Rihlah (Travels)*]

Medieval chronicles

Medieval eyewitnesses to the Black Death made various claims about the death toll. A chronicler from Burgundy claimed that 90 per cent of Europe's population had died; another French chronicler, Jean Froissart, stated that half of the world's population had died.

Historians need to be careful when using these sources. Most medieval accounts were written by people who had no way of knowing how many people had really died. Furthermore, the sources were written by people who were so frightened by the disease that they tended to exaggerate its lethality.

Source 3: Image from *The Chronicles of Gilles Li Muisis* (1272–1352 CE), showing the burial of plague victims in Tournai, France, in 1349 CE

Learning ladder 16.10

Impact and legacies

1. Source 3: Identify what this source shows about the impact of the Black Death.
2. Describe the impact of the Black Death on the Middle East and North Africa.
3. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how medieval chronicles described the death toll.
4. Explain why estimates of the death toll from the Black Death have changed since the 1960s CE.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 3: Describe this image.
3. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the impact of the Black Death in the Middle East and North Africa.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Explain why medieval accounts of the death toll need to be treated carefully by historians.
5. Source 2: How useful is this source for a historian studying the impact of the Black Death in the Middle East and North Africa?

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

Site study

How is the impact of the Black Death shown at East Smithfield Cemetery?

Hundreds of victims of the Black Death were buried in a mass grave at East Smithfield Cemetery in London. The mass grave or 'plague pit' was discovered in 1986 CE.

Plague pits

In 1348 CE, a cemetery in Smithfield, London, was hurriedly opened by the Bishop of London to bury the large number of people who had died of plague. Around 2400 bodies were stacked five-deep in a mass grave known as a plague pit.

Source 1: Image of skeletons in the East Smithfield plague pit. The bodies had all been carefully placed in the pit, facing east, in accordance with Christian burial practice.

Victims of the plague needed to be buried as soon as possible. Medieval Christians believed the body was sacred and that it should be buried facing east, which was the direction from which Jesus was expected to return on Judgement Day.

Although the plague pit at East Smithfield follows this convention, some pits have been found with skeletons facing different directions or stacked one on top of another, indicating how traditional practices sometimes broke down due to the high death toll.

Excavations at the cemetery

Archaeological excavations of the East Smithfield Cemetery have discovered interesting information about the Black Death. Between 1986 and 1988 CE, a team of British archaeologists from the London Museum excavated the Smithfield site – which was then located beneath the Royal Mint. They exhumed over 600 skeletons and examined them in laboratories. They found that most of the people had been younger than 35 years old when they died.

Then in 2007 CE, a team of archaeologists from New York conducted further investigations of the skeletons from the Smithfield burial site. They found that contrary to the reports of many medieval chroniclers, the plague did not kill just anyone. Rather, those who were weak or had signs of other diseases were more likely to die of plague. They also sequenced the DNA of the bacteria found in the teeth of the skeletons and confirmed that the bacteria that caused the deaths was *Yersinia pestis*.

Source 2: This aerial photo of East Smithfield Cemetery was taken in 1986 CE. It shows a Black Death plague pit under excavation. The mass grave is between rows of individual graves. The concrete foundations that can be seen belonged to the Royal Mint, which was built over the top of the burial ground.

More recently, in 2022 CE, a further study of the Smithfield cemetery skeletons found that people in London who had survived the Black Death had a mutation in their genome that helped protect them against *Yersinia pestis*. Survivors then passed those mutations onto their descendants. This means that the immune systems of people whose ancestors survived the Black Death are stronger than those of people from areas that did not experience the Black Death.

Learning ladder 16.11

Impact and legacies

1. Define the term 'plague pit'.
2. Describe the importance of burial in Christianity.
3. Source 1: Explain how people were buried in plague pits.
4. Explain why people were buried in mass graves during the Black Death.

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify the site shown in this source.
2. Source 2: Describe the significant discovery made at Smithfield in London in 1986 CE.
3. Explain the significance of the archaeological investigations conducted in 2007 CE.
4. Explain why the Smithfield site is significant for historians studying the Black Death.
5. Evaluate the significance of the Smithfield site.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

Did peasants' lives improve after the Black Death?

For those who survived the Black Death, there were new opportunities and much social change.

Labour shortages

The drastic decline in population resulted in serious labour shortages across Europe, North Africa and the Middle East. Nobles were dismayed that there were not enough people to work their farms. Peasants began to demand higher pay, lower rent and improved living conditions. In the years after the Black Death, peasants' incomes increased by 25 to 50 per cent.

After the Black Death, more peasants were able to move to towns and start their own businesses. They set up bakeries, shoe-making businesses, blacksmiths' forges and breweries. This gave them the opportunity to earn more money and eat a healthier diet. Within 100 years, the population in the cities and towns had largely recovered.

Source 1: This medieval illustration shows English soldiers landing in France during the Hundred Years' War between England and France (1337–1453 CE). In trying to raise money to fund this war, King Richard II sparked the Peasants' Revolt of 1381 CE.

How much did peasants' lives change?

Historians disagree about how much the Black Death changed the lives of peasants. While some historians argue that peasants' lives improved after the Black Death, other historians point out rulers tried to limit the gains enjoyed by peasants and tightened their grip on the people living in their realms.

In England, King Edward III issued laws in 1349 CE (the *Ordinance of Labourers*) and 1351 CE (the *Statute of Labourers*) that forced peasants to stay on their estates and to accept the wages and working conditions that had been the norm before the Black Death. The laws also gave the king the ability to greatly increase taxes.

A further law passed in England in 1363 CE (the *Sumptuary Law*) banned peasants from wearing expensive fabric or any gold or silver jewellery. This was designed to keep them firmly in their social class.

Another negative outcome of the Black Death was that wealth inequality greatly increased. Merchant companies – such as the Merchant Adventurers of London, the Hanseatic League of northern Germany and the Medici family of Florence in Italy – did not have as much competition and were able to increase their prices. They also gained a monopoly over trade in silver, copper and spices. The large merchant companies became very wealthy and influential, while ordinary peasants found themselves unable to afford basic necessities.

Peasant uprisings

The tremendous upheaval of the Black Death, increased taxes and frustrations with the feudal system led peasants across Europe to stage a series of revolts. Uprisings occurred in north-east France (the Jacquerie rebellion, 1358 CE), Florence, Italy (the Revolt of the Ciompi, 1378 CE) and south-east England (the Peasants' Revolt, 1381 CE).

The Peasants' Revolt

In 1381 CE, English peasants rose up against King Richard II after he attempted to introduce a new 'poll tax' to raise money for an ongoing war with France (the Hundred Years' War, 1337–1453 CE). Everyone over the age of 15 had to pay the tax, regardless of their wealth.

Led by a man named Wat Tyler, peasants from Kent marched on London, demanding the poll tax be withdrawn. They also called for the abolition of serfdom (peasants being bound to a lord and his estate), the end of tithing (giving one-tenth of your income or produce to the church), and the freedom to hunt game in the forests.

The rebels burned down the buildings that held the government taxation records and started rampaging and rioting through the streets. On 14 June, King Richard II met the rebels outside of London. At this meeting, he promised to grant the peasants' demands if they returned home in peace.

However, some rebels took advantage of the king's absence from London and murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Treasurer (who were held responsible for the poll tax). Another meeting was held between the king and the rebels the following day. At this meeting, William Walworth (the Mayor of London) killed Wat Tyler. The king then withdrew all his promises and sent 7000 soldiers after the peasants. Most of the peasant leaders were captured and executed.

Source 3: This image shows two events from the Peasants' Revolt in 1381 CE in England. On the left, William Walworth (Mayor of London) kills the rebel leader, Wat Tyler, as King Richard II watches; on the right, the king addresses his troops. [Jean Froissart (1385 CE), *Chronicles*]

Because a great part of the people, and especially of workmen and servants, have died of the pestilence, many ... seeing the ... great scarcity of servants, will not serve unless they may receive excessive wages ... [we have] ordained: That every man and woman of our realm of England ... shall be bound to serve [their lord] ... and take only the wages, livery, meed, or salary, which were accustomed to be given in the places where he oweth to serve, [in] the twentieth year of our reign of England [1332 CE].

Source 2: This text is from the *Ordinance of Labourers* (1349 CE), a law issued by King Edward III.

Learning ladder 16.12

Impact and legacies

1. Source 3: Identify the events depicted in this source.
2. Describe the causes of the Peasants' Revolt.
3. Explain the aims of the Peasants' Revolt.
4. Source 3: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the outcome of the Peasants' Revolt.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the positive changes to the lives of peasants after the Black Death.
2. Describe how the *Sumptuary Law* (1363 CE) was designed to ensure the continuity of social class norms.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how the king and the nobles tried to limit change to the social order.
4. Explain why inequality worsened after the Black Death.
5. Analyse whether the lives of peasants improved after the Black Death.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

16.13

What were the long-term impacts of the Black Death?

The long-term impacts of the Black Death included the weakening of feudalism and the rise of Protestantism. While there were some improvements in medical training, treatments for the plague remained the same for the next few centuries.

Weakening of feudalism

Some historians argue that the Black Death caused the end of **feudalism**. Other historians argue that feudalism was breaking down in Western Europe long before the Black Death, because the growth of cities and towns had enabled labourers to find work outside the manorial estates since the 12th century CE. What is certain is that the Black Death sped up the decline of feudalism in Western Europe by reducing the number of serfs and peasants.

Impact on Christian monasteries and nunneries

Christian religious houses were dealt a bitter blow by the Black Death. Monks and nuns died in higher numbers than other members of the community because they looked after the sick in their hospitals, and often caught the plague.

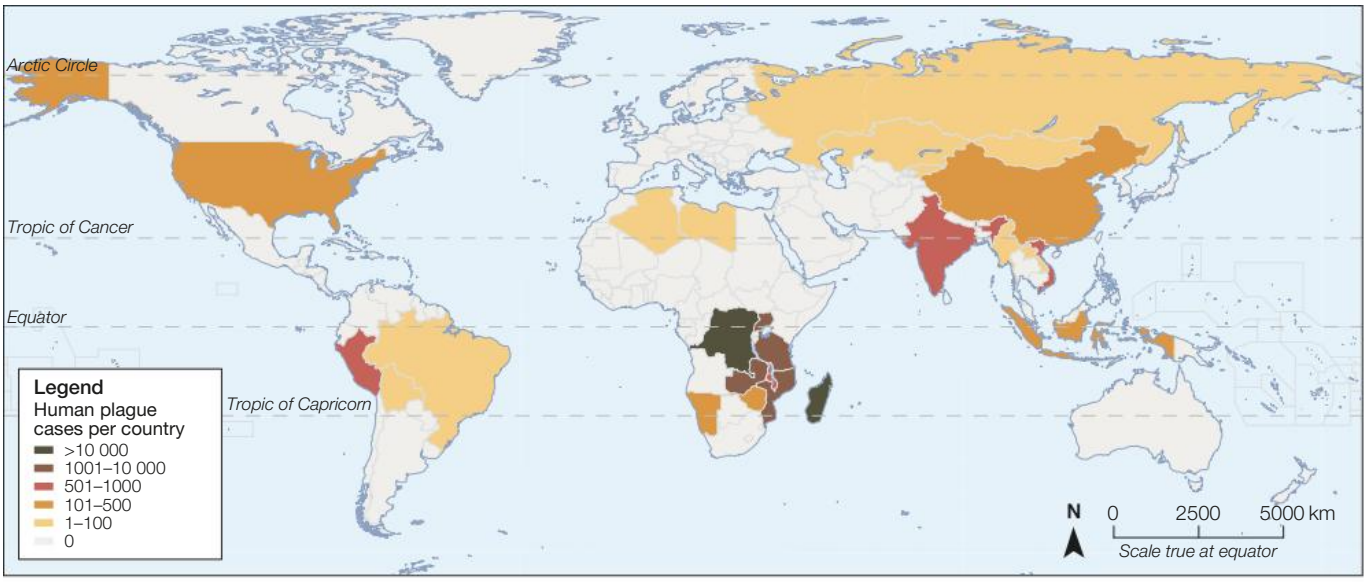
Of the 465 monks in the monastery of Montrieux in south-eastern France in 1348 CE, all but one, Gherardo Petrarch, died of the plague. In Florence, only seven of the 28 monks at the Santa Maria degli Angeli monastery survived the plague, while at the hospital known as the Hôtel-Dieu in Paris, many of the nuns there died of the plague.

The rise of Protestantism

While Muslims largely accepted the teachings of their leaders – that it was God's will if a person died from plague – many Christians became disillusioned with the Church. People began to suggest that individuals should be able to read the Bible for themselves. They also questioned the power of priests and the wealth of the Christian church.

Source 1: A monk blesses a plague victim. [Simon Vouet (1590–1649 CE), *Monk Blessing a Plague Victim*]

Plague cases throughout the world, 1994–2018 CE



Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: Map showing plague cases, 1994–2018 CE

In 1382 CE, an English philosopher named John Wycliffe translated the Bible from Latin into English, so that ordinary people could read it. He also argued that priests were often poor role models and that the church should abandon its wealth. After Wycliffe's death in 1384 CE, his ideas took hold across Europe, culminating in the Protestant Reformation in the 16th century CE.

Impact on medicine

Plague continued to appear in Europe, Africa and the Middle East, but outbreaks were less deadly than the Black Death pandemic. Treatments did not advance greatly; cures for plague in the 17th century CE were not very different (or any more effective) than those for plague in the 14th century CE. It was not until 1676 CE that bacteria and microorganisms were first observed under a microscope. In the 19th century CE, advances in chemistry, bacteriology and virology revolutionised the study and practice of medicine, with better outcomes for patients.

Modern legacies of the Black Death

The drastic decline in population had a positive impact on the environment. Since a smaller population meant less need for agricultural expansion, land clearing was discontinued and some farm lands were left to turn back into forest. Due to the Black Death, the world's population today is less than what it would have been.

The plague is still with us. The World Health Organization reports between 1000 and 3000 new cases every year but, thankfully, the disease can now be treated by antibiotics and vaccines. However, pandemics can still occur. From 2020 to 2023 CE, the coronavirus pandemic caused more than seven million deaths, ranking fifth in the deadliest pandemics in history. The Black Death ranks first.

Learning ladder 16.13

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the role played by monks and nuns during the Black Death.
2. Describe the impact of the Black Death on feudalism.
3. Explain the impact of the Black Death on the Christian church.
4. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why monasteries declined during the Black Death.

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Identify how the plague is an example of continuity.
2. Describe how the Black Death changed the environment.
3. Explain how treatments for pandemics have changed since the time of the Black Death.
4. Explain why medical treatments for the Black Death did not change for centuries.
5. Source 2: Analyse how the recurrence of plague demonstrates the concept of continuity and change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

16.14

What are the cultural legacies of the Black Death?

Plague returned repeatedly in the decades and centuries after the Black Death pandemic. While never as catastrophic as the Black Death, the regular recurrence of plague reminded people of the impermanence of life and the inevitability of death.

Daily life transformed

After the Black Death pandemic, plague struck on average every 10 years, with death tolls of 10 or 20 per cent of the population, rather than 40 to 60 per cent. Family and friends died regularly, carts piled with dead bodies were pulled along the streets by men calling, 'Bring out the dead!' and fires burned to incinerate victims' belongings and to get rid of 'bad air'.

Yet despite the presence of plague, life went on. Priests and doctors continued to tend to the sick and people continued to attend mosques, churches and synagogues. Sanitation and healthcare improved, as city officials developed health boards. Quarantining was introduced, whereby sick people were forced to isolate in plague hospitals or entire neighbourhoods were sealed off. Everywhere, governments adapted to the recurring problem of plague.

The Danse Macabre motif

The Black Death pandemic had a profound influence on art. One of the most significant examples is the *Danse Macabre* ('dance of death') motif (design). The Danse Macabre is an image of a procession or dance of living and dead figures. It usually shows popes, kings and nobles as well as peasants and children, all being led to their graves by figures representing death, such as skeletons or spectres. The idea of the Danse Macabre motif is that death is inevitable and does not discriminate between young or old, rich or poor.

The dance of death was often enacted in villages during the Christian feasts of All Saints' Eve, All Saints' Day and All Souls' Day, with people dressing up as corpses or ghosts and performing a dance. They would go from house to house collecting 'soul cakes', which were spiced, sweet bread rolls topped with a cross. The dancers carried hollowed turnips with a candle inside. The candle represented a person's soul that was trapped in purgatory (a place between heaven and hell). In return for the soul cakes, the dancers (known as 'soulers') offered prayers for the dead so their souls could go to heaven. The practice of dressing up as ghosts continues today in popular culture celebrations of Halloween.

Influence on literature and poetry

The Black Death pandemic also significantly influenced literature and poetry. One of the most famous examples of this is the *Decameron*, which is a collection of stories by an Italian poet, Giovanni Boccaccio, written between 1349 and 1353 CE. In the *Decameron*, a group of 10 people flee plague-ridden Florence for the countryside. To pass the time, each person tells a story. Due to the loss of confidence in the Church at the time, these stories boldly poked fun at the Church and at priests.

Source 1: This painting shows the impact of the Black Death on all levels of medieval society, including kings, peasants and church leaders. [Pieter Bruegel the Elder (c. 1562 CE), *The Triumph of Death*]

Source 2: This painting is called *Dance of Death*. It is a replica; the original was painted in the Church of the Holy Trinity in Slovenia in 1490 CE.

Copies of the *Decameron* were burned by Church officials in 1497 CE because of its anti-Church message, but many copies of the *Decameron* survived, and it remained hugely popular throughout Europe.

Another example of the Black Death's influence on literature is *The Canterbury Tales* by English author and poet Geoffrey Chaucer, written between 1387 and 1400 CE. *The Canterbury Tales* tells the story of a group of pilgrims making a journey to Canterbury. As they journey, each pilgrim tells a story.

The Black Death pandemic is mentioned several times throughout, along with its impact on the population and the social and economic instability it left behind. In one of the stories, called 'the Pardoner's Tale', three men decide to seek out Death and kill him (see Source 3).

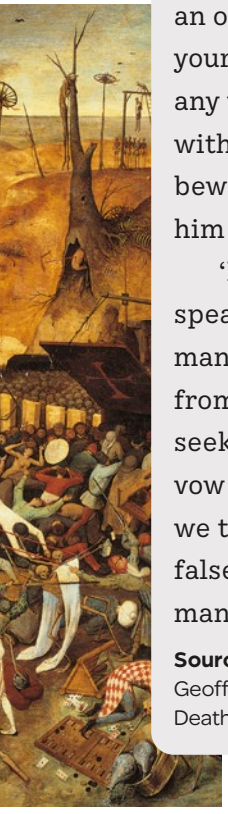
Three men ... were sitting in a tavern drinking;

And as they sat, they heard a bell and saw a corpse being carried to his grave;

Then one of the men called his servant-boy, 'Go quickly,' said he, 'and ask whose body it is that now passes by'.

'Sir,' replied the boy, 'I already know. He was an old friend of yours. Death came and took your friend. And went his way without saying any words more. He has a thousand murdered with this pestilence. And, master, be fully beware of such an adversary: Be ready to meet him at all times, evermore.'

'By Saint Mary,' said the taverner, 'The child speaks truth, for Death has taken this year, man and woman, child and worker, and page from a village near here. By God's arms, I shall seek him by way and also by street, I make a vow by God's honourable bones! Listen, fellows, we three are agreed as one. We will slay this false traitor Death; He shall be slain, he who so many slays, By God's dignity, before the night!'



Source 3: Extract from *The Canterbury Tales* (1387–1400 CE) by Geoffrey Chaucer. In this part of the story, three men plan to slay Death, but he slays them instead.

Learning ladder 16.14

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Identify the impacts of plague shown in this source.
2. Describe the ongoing impact of plague in medieval societies.
3. Source 2: Using this source, explain the Danse Macabre motif.
4. Explain the role of 'soulers' in medieval Christian societies.
5. Analyse the influence of soulers on modern-day Halloween celebrations.

Significance

1. Sources 1 and 2: Identify how the Black Death influenced art.
2. Describe the significance of the Black Death pandemic to the writing of:
   a *Decameron* **b** *The Canterbury Tales.*
3. Source 3: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how the Black Death influenced *The Canterbury Tales*.
4. Explain why the Black Death was so significant in medieval culture.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

16.15

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of the Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the Black Death in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- Eyewitness accounts of the Black Death, page 381
- Medicine during the Black Death, page 372
- The flagellant movement, pages 378, 379
- Impacts of the Black Death on religion, page 386
- The Dance of Death motif, page 388

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

Renaissance Italy (c. 1400–1600 CE)

17

WHO WAS LEONARDO DA VINCI?

WHAT IS HUMANISM?

DID THE RENAISSANCE REALLY HAPPEN?

WHY DID LUTHER TAKE ON THE CATHOLIC CHURCH?

How can I understand Renaissance Italy?

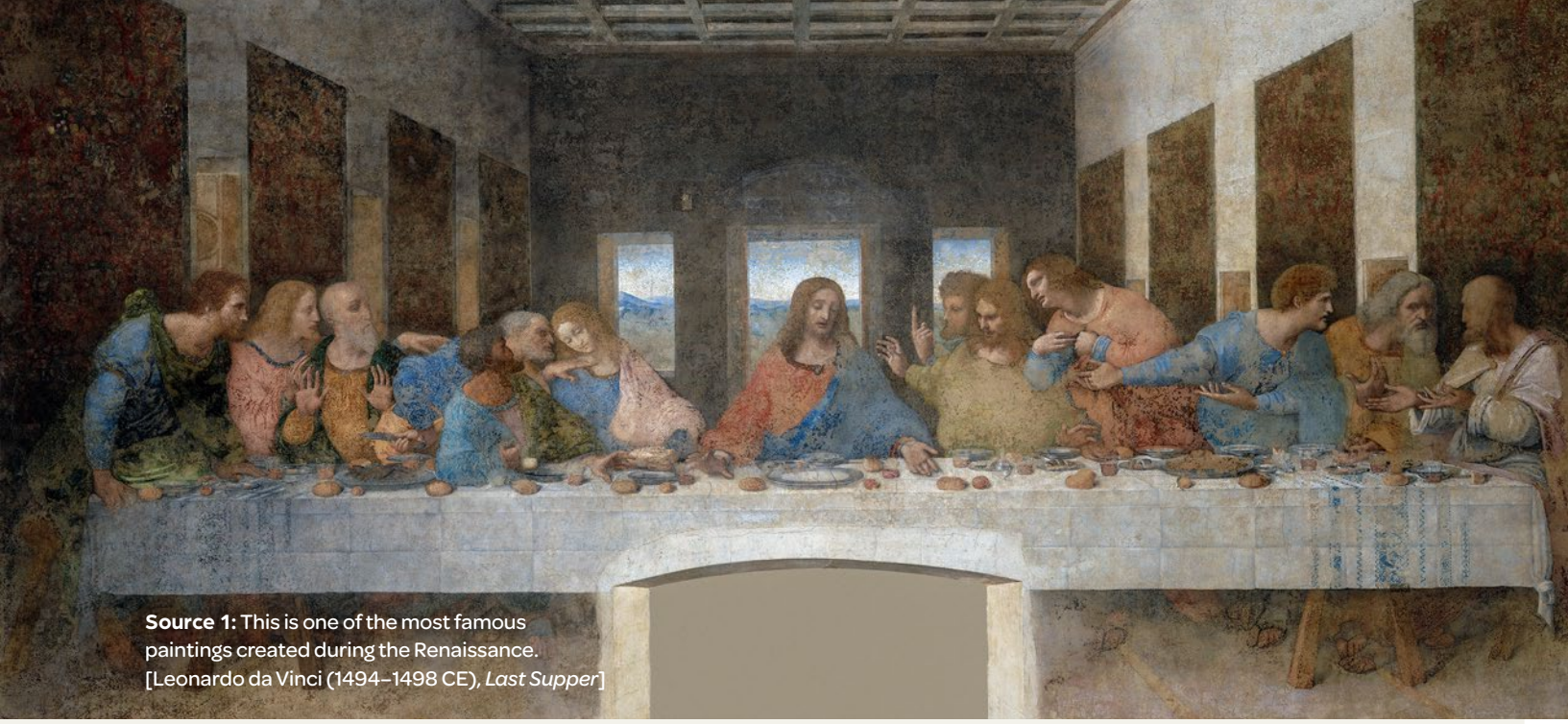
The historical period known as 'the Renaissance' took place from c. 1400 to 1600 CE. The Renaissance was a period of great cultural change. Art, architecture, literature, politics and science were transformed due to the exchange in knowledge and culture between Europe, the Middle East and Asia.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: This is one of the most famous paintings created during the Renaissance. [Leonardo da Vinci (1494–1498 CE), *Last Supper*]

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What was the Italian Renaissance?

The word 'renaissance' means 'rebirth'. The Italian Renaissance was an exciting time of great cultural development and advances in art, architecture, science, education and philosophy.

The impact of the Black Death

Between 1346 and 1352 CE, a terrible plague known as the Black Death had swept through Europe, killing between 25 and 50 million people. The deaths of so many provided significant economic opportunities for those who survived the plague. Peasants left their estates and moved into the towns where they became merchants, artisans and professionals. The noble classes began to invest in textiles manufacture, shipping, banking, art and grand architecture.

Francisco Petrarch

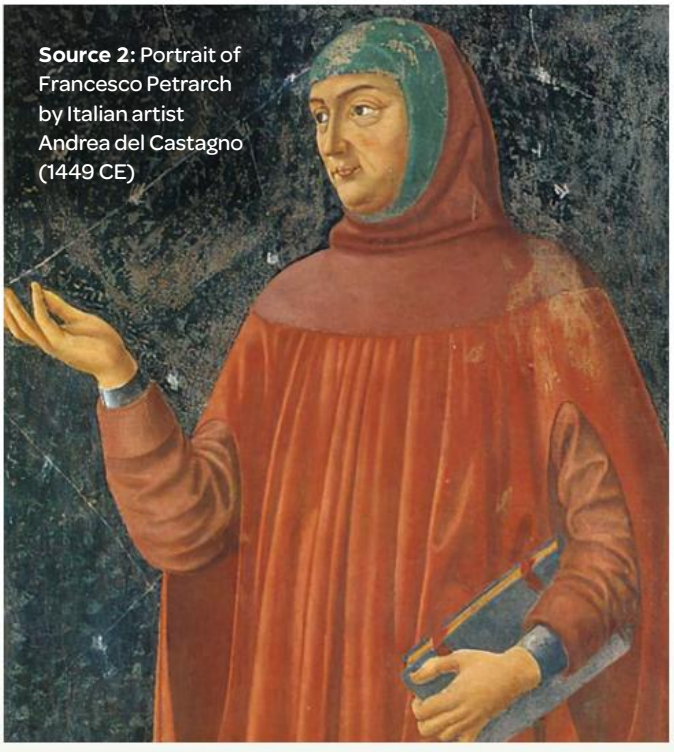
Francisco Petrarch was an Italian scholar and poet who was born in 1304 CE and survived the Black Death. Petrarch believed that his own era was a Dark Age and that a great 'rebirth' was needed. He argued that the writings of ancient Romans, such as Cicero, Seneca and Virgil, contained important moral lessons. He further argued that the lessons to be learned from the 'human thought' of the ancient Romans could be combined with the 'divine thought' of Christianity to provide guidance for humanity, so that humans could reach their potential. Petrarch's philosophy, known as 'humanism', became a significant inspiration for the Renaissance period.

The rise of the Medici family

The Medici family also survived the Black Death. The Medicis had been prominent in the wool trade and the banking industry during the 14th century.

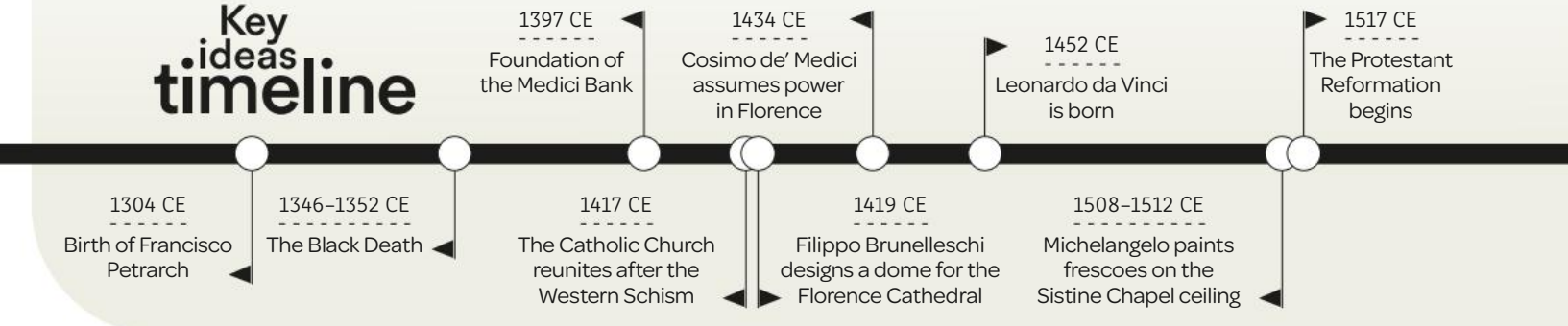
In 1397 CE Giovanni di Bicci de' Medici founded the Medici Bank in Rome and Florence, Italy.

The Medici family, in common with a number of other prominent Italian families, would become hugely wealthy during the Renaissance period. They used their wealth to wield significant political power, including over the **papacy**. They also commissioned artists and architects to produce magnificent works that promoted their power.



Source 2: Portrait of Francesco Petrarch by Italian artist Andrea del Castagno (1449 CE)

Source 1: Italian Renaissance timeline



Source 3: A section of the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, painted by Michelangelo (1508–1512 CE)

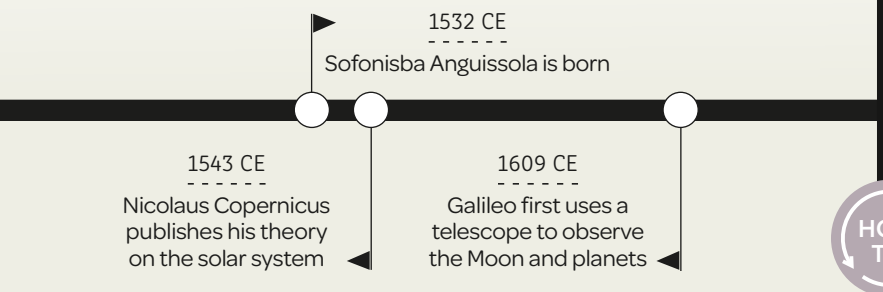
The revival of the Catholic Church

The Catholic Church, which had been plagued by crisis and division after the Black Death, finally reunited in 1417 CE. The Renaissance would see a significant development of the Church's power and the expansion of its official territories, known as the Papal States.

The Church strongly encouraged Renaissance ideas. Pope Nicholas V (reigned 1447–1455 CE) expanded the Vatican Library, called on Greek scholars to come to Rome and commissioned the translations of Greek histories into Latin.

Like the Medicis, the Church also saw the value of hiring artists and architects to produce works that would enhance their prestige. Pope Nicholas V initiated a major building program in Rome, which was continued by Pope Sixtus (reigned 1471–1484 CE). Pope Sixtus also repaired and built numerous churches, including the Sistine Chapel (1473–1481 CE). Pope Julius II (reigned 1503–1513 CE) established the Vatican Museums (which housed the art collections of the papacy) and initiated the rebuilding of St Peter's Basilica, while Pope Leo X (reigned 1513–1521 CE) sponsored the work of many artists and musicians.

The fortunes of the Church started to decline, however, following the Protestant Reformation (1517 CE), which splintered Western Christianity into Protestant and Catholic denominations.



Learning ladder 17.1

Background and origins

1. Identify the meaning of the word 'Renaissance'.
2. Describe Petrarch's idea of humanism.
3. Explain how the Medicis became powerful.
4. Explain why art and architecture flourished during the Renaissance.
5. Analyse how the Black Death contributed to the Renaissance.

Chronology

1. Source 1: Identify the dates of two key scientific events on the timeline.
2. List these events in order, from the oldest to the most recent event:
   - 1488 CE: Michelangelo begins his apprenticeship as an artist
   - 1508–1512 CE: Michelangelo paints the Sistine Chapel
   - 1564: Michelangelo dies in Rome
   - 1547: Michelangelo begins work on the dome of St. Peter's Basilica
   - 1475 CE: Michelangelo born in Caprese, near Florence
   - 1504: Michelangelo completes his statue of David.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Source 1: Select two events on the timeline to help you explain why the Renaissance period was a time of significant change.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

Where were the centres of the Renaissance?

The Renaissance emerged in Italy due to its geographical circumstances, especially its location to the trade hub of the Mediterranean Sea, which allowed wealthy, independent city-states to develop.

Geography

The Italian states used the physical features of the land to clearly define their borders:

- **mountain ranges**: the Alps in the north and the Apennine Mountains running down the middle of Italy provided protection from invaders.
- **seas**: the Tyrrhenian Sea to the west and the Adriatic Sea to the east provided access to the Mediterranean Sea, which was the centre of trade.

Italian city-states

Many northern Italian towns were not greatly affected by the slow decline of the Western Roman Empire in the 5th century CE. The mountainous landscape of northern Italy isolated and protected the towns, allowing each to govern itself. In contrast, people in other parts of Europe were subjected to continual invasions by foreigners and had to rely on the protection of a king who controlled a powerful army.

By the start of the 12th century CE, northern Italian towns had become very wealthy through trade and had formed themselves into larger areas known as **city-states**. They consisted of a main city and surrounding towns and territory. City-states were either **republics** governed by **oligarchies** (governed by a small group of people from prominent families) or **duchies** (ruled by noblemen called dukes from powerful families).

By the time of the Renaissance, northern Italy was made up of a number of city-states. The two most significant city-states during the period were the Republic of Florence and the Republic of Venice.

Florence

Florence was the main city in the Republic of Florence. Florence's wealth was founded on the production of high-quality wool cloth and its banking industry.

Its access to the Arno River was beneficial for merchants, as was the republic's location on the Ligurian Sea. Florence is surrounded by hills dotted with farms, vineyards and orchards. The government of Florence was an oligarchy, ruled by the powerful Medici family. It was a beautiful place in the early 15th century CE, with many fascinating buildings and meeting places, as well as palaces belonging to the Medici family.

Venice

Venice was the main city in the Republic of Venice, and one of the wealthiest in Europe. Unlike Florence, it was ruled by a *doge* ('duke') who was elected to his position for life. Due to its position on the Adriatic Sea, Venice was in command of a thriving merchant empire, with territories scattered across the eastern Mediterranean Sea and trade ports within powerful Islamic states on the Black Sea and on the coast of North Africa.

Italy, c. 1490 CE

Source 1: The states of Italy during the Renaissance, c. 1490 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: This painting of Florence was created in the late 15th century CE by an Italian artist. The huge Florence Cathedral, featuring the dome designed by Filippo Brunelleschi, is in the centre of the city. [Francesco di Lorenzo Rosselli (c. 1475 CE), *View of Florence*]

Learning ladder 17.2

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify three Italian city-states during the Renaissance period.
2. Describe the key geographic features of northern Italy.
3. Explain how the city-states of Venice and Florence were governed.
4. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the differences between Venice and Florence.

Cause and effect

1. Identify a cause for the emergence of the Renaissance in Italy.
2. Describe how the city-states became wealthy.
3. Explain how the geography of northern Italy enabled the development of independent city-states.
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why Florence became a significant centre of the Renaissance.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

What role did wealth play in the Renaissance?

Wealth played a substantial role in the development of banking, art and architecture. It also brought power to ruling families, whose vast wealth gave them political control over the city-states.

Wealth supports the Renaissance

The Renaissance was an era of great wealth and fortune for the upper classes. The Italian city-states were controlled by the ***grandi***, powerful families such as the Gonzaga family in Mantua and the Medici family in Florence. They competed with other wealthy families to show their power and importance by employing architects to design grand buildings in the classical style of ancient Greece and Rome and the modern styles of Damascus and Aleppo. They also employed great painters and sculptors to decorate their buildings.

Banking

Italian cities became commercial hubs through trade and that created a need for banks. Banks lent money to rulers, landowners and businessmen to fund new ventures and lavish building projects.

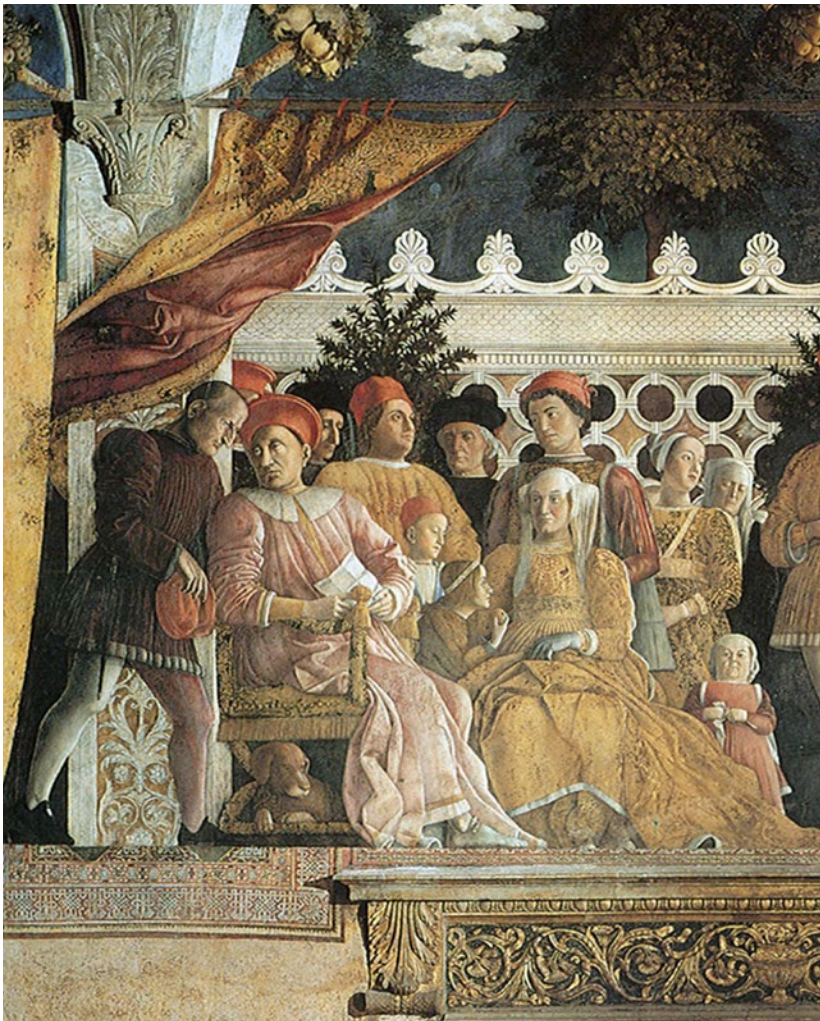
Florence had up to 80 banking companies by the late 1330s CE. Branches of key Italian banks opened in the Middle East and Europe. The largest and most successful of these was the Medici Bank, opened by the Medici family in 1397 CE. The Medici family would rule Florence for hundreds of years. They became patrons of icons of the Renaissance such as Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo Buonarroti.

Guilds

Guilds had existed in Europe for centuries. Guilds were formed to promote high standards of training and practice for professionals and artisans. They also protected the livelihoods and reputation of members.

In Florence, there had been guilds (known as Greater Guilds) for judges and lawyers, merchants, bankers, silk weavers, physicians, artists and wool manufacturers since the end of the 12th century CE. By the 13th century CE, the guild system had expanded to include 'Lesser Guilds' for artisans and small business owners such as blacksmiths, butchers, sculptors, stonemasons, shoemakers, locksmiths and innkeepers.

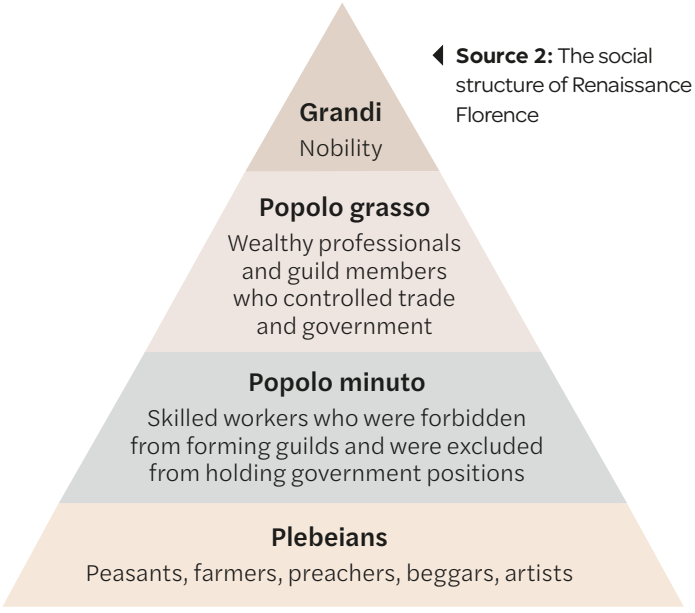
Members of these guilds were part of the wealthy middle class of society, or ***popolo grasso***, who dominated the economic and political life of the Italian city-states. They had the right to vote and to hold government positions.



Source 1: This fresco is positioned above a fireplace in an Italian palace. It portrays the wealthy and powerful Gonzaga family. The Gonzagas seized control of the **Duchy** of Mantua in northern Italy in 1328 CE and ruled until 1708 CE. The wealthy landowners became notable patrons of the arts during the 15th and 16th centuries CE. [Andrea Mantegna (1465–1475 CE), *Fresco*, Ducal Palace, Mantua, Italy]

The popolo minuto

The ***popolo minuto*** were skilled workers, such as weavers, spinners and dyers, from Florence's large wool industry. They were prohibited from forming guilds, even though they made up a large portion of the population of Florence. Since they were not guild members, the popolo minuto did not have the right to vote or to hold government positions.



Source 2: The social structure of Renaissance Florence

Source 3: Most weavers in Renaissance Florence were banned from forming guilds and excluded from holding government positions.

Learning ladder 17.3

Background and origins

1. Source 2: Identify the main social classes in Florence.
2. Describe the popolo grasso in Florence.
3. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the role of the grandi in Florence.
4. Explain why members of the popolo minuto were unable to hold positions in the government of Florence.

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify the name of the family that seized control of Mantua in 1328 CE.
2. Describe how banking during the Renaissance period is an example of continuity.
3. Explain how the guild system changed between the 12th and 13th centuries CE.
4. Explain why the rise of the Medici family is an example of change and continuity.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

What role did ruling families play in Italy?

During the Renaissance, the Italian city-states were ruled by powerful people: the pope in Rome, the Medici family in Florence, the doge in Venice, the Sforza family in Milan and the Este family in Ferrara. Among the ruling families of these city-states there was intense rivalry.

From republic to oligarchy

From 1250–1434 CE, Florence had been governed by nine wealthy guild members, known as the Signoria, who were elected to their positions in the government. At first, the election scheme was controlled to make sure that the people who were elected were not all from the same family. However, from 1434 CE, one family, the Medicis, managed to manipulate the electoral system so that more of their family members were elected to the Signoria.

The Medici rulers

Having manipulated the electoral system, Cosimo de' Medici (1389–1464 CE) (known as 'Cosimo the Elder') became Gran Maestro and ruled Florence for 30 years. His son Piero (ruled 1464–1470 CE) and grandson Lorenzo (ruled 1470–1492 CE) governed after him, but opposition to Medici rule from rival banking families and Pope Sixtus IV saw the Medicis fall from power. They were exiled in 1494 CE.

The exile did not last long. By 1512 CE, the Medicis were back in power and managed to install Giovanni de' Medici, son of Lorenzo, as Pope Leo X in 1513 CE. Another Medici pope, Pope Clement VII (1523–1534 CE), made Alessandro de' Medici the Duke of Florence in 1532 CE, thus officially ending the republic and turning Florence into a duchy. Alessandro was assassinated by his cousin in 1537 CE and was succeeded by Cosimo de' Medici (known as 'Cosimo the Great') in 1539 CE. Cosimo the Great was made Grand Duke of Tuscany in 1569 CE by Pope Pius V. The Medici family ruled as dukes of Florence and Tuscany until the family died out in 1737 CE.

Patronage of the arts

At the height of the Italian Renaissance in the 15th and 16th centuries CE, members of the Medici family were the greatest art **patrons** of their day. Patronage is when a wealthy family or person pays artists to create major works of art and architecture. Lorenzo de' Medici, ruler of Florence from 1469 to 1489 CE, was patron to both Michelangelo Buonarroti and Leonardo da Vinci.

The Medici patronage allowed artists to focus on their work without having to worry about money. The paintings, sculptures and buildings created under patronage further enhanced the Medici family's powerful position in society.

Source 1: This heroic statue of Lorenzo de' Medici was created by Michelangelo. He is shown here wearing the armour of a Roman general.

Source 2: Sandro Botticelli was an Italian artist under the patronage of the Medici family. While this painting represents an event that occurred in the 1st century CE, the artist has drawn several members of the Medici family in the painting: Cosimo de' Medici is kneeling in front of the Virgin and the baby Jesus; his sons Piero and Giovanni are kneeling in the centre (they are the man with the red cloak and the person kneeling beside him); his grandsons Guiliano and Lorenzo are also in the painting. [Sandro Botticelli (1475 CE), *The Adoration of the Magi*]

Learning ladder 17.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify two ruling families in Renaissance Italy.
2. Describe how the Medicis supported artists during the Renaissance.
3. Explain how the Medici family changed Florence from a republic into an oligarchy.
4. Explain why the Medicis were able to regain control of Florence in 1512 CE.
5. Evaluate the political power of the Medici family from 1434 to 1737 CE.

HOW TO
Perspectives, page 484

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Identify the creator of this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the perspective of Lorenzo de' Medici in this source.
3. Source 2: Explain the perspective of the Medici family in this source.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Explain why the artists of these sources have used historical and religious figures to represent members of the Medici family.
5. Sources 1 and 2: Evaluate the extent to which these sources would have helped the Medici family maintain control in Florence.

How did humanism affect the Renaissance?

Humanism was an important philosophy that emerged during the Renaissance. Humanists studied a wide range of topics – including the ideas of ancient Greece and Rome – to fully realise their potential as humans.

What was a humanist education?

As we have seen, Francisco Petrarch had pioneered humanist thought to revive Europe after the Black Death, arguing that people should look to the writings of ancient Roman authors to guide their moral development.

Petrarch and other humanists thought that people should study a wide range of topics to realise their potential. In addition to traditional areas of study – such as mathematics, astronomy and grammar – the study of history, science, Greek and poetry were also considered to be important. Today, the terms 'Renaissance man' and 'Renaissance woman' are used to describe a person who has a range of talents.

The long-term goal of humanist education was to create a new society of truly educated citizens, who could take an active part in society and encourage others to make good and moral choices.

Humanism and painting

The influence of humanist ideas can be seen in the works of Renaissance artists such as Michelangelo, Raphael and Leonardo da Vinci. These artists made innovations with the use of perspective, colour and light to depict human forms as powerful and divine.

Subject matter

In the medieval period, paintings generally showed scenes from the Bible and depicted the lives of saints. Renaissance paintings still had religious elements but artists also began to explore other themes, such as landscapes, scenes from ancient Greece and Rome, self-portraits and portraits of their wealthy patrons.

The human body

Renaissance artists sought to create a more realistic treatment of human figures. Bodies were shown with muscles and curves, wispy hair and folds of skin. In part, this reflected the widespread interest in the statues of ancient Greece and Rome. It also was a result of greater knowledge of human anatomy.

Some artists, including Leonardo da Vinci, dissected corpses to learn how muscles, bones and sinews were connected. The use of live models also became widespread during the Renaissance.

Linear perspective

During the Renaissance, artists experimented with ways to make objects painted on a flat surface look three-dimensional and more realistic (called 'linear perspective'). Renaissance artists developed techniques that are still used today, such as foreshortening (shortening lines to create the illusion of depth) and *sfumato* (blurring tones to create a three-dimensional look).

In 1435 CE, Leon Battista Alberti – an Italian artist, author and humanist – wrote a book, *De Pictura (On Painting)*, which explained how to paint a picture using linear perspective.

Sources 1 and 2:
Source 1 (on the left) is called *Madonna and Child*. It was painted by Berlinghiero during the medieval period in 1250 CE. This painting shows many of the key features of medieval painting:

- There is less depth than Source 2 (no foreground or background).
- The human figures are less realistic.
- The background is plain gold.
- The range of colours is limited.

Source 2 (on the right) is called *Madonna of the Meadow*. It was painted by Giovanni Bellini during the Renaissance in c. 1500–1505 CE. This painting shows many of the key features of Renaissance paintings influenced by humanism:

- Bellini has used perspective to make the painting look three-dimensional: there are larger features in the foreground and smaller features in the background.
- The human figures are realistic.
- There is a landscape behind the figures.
- Light and shade show depth and detail.
- Bellini has used a variety of bold colours.

Humanism and architecture

The popularity of humanist ideas resulted in Renaissance architects studying the buildings of ancient Greece and Rome. For example, the famous Renaissance architect Filippo Brunelleschi studied the ancient dome of the Pantheon in Rome to get ideas for how to construct the dome of the Cathedral of Santa Maria del Fiore in Florence.

Renaissance architects included some of the designs and decorative features of ancient Roman structures in their own buildings. For example, the symmetry, columns and arches in Renaissance buildings are all drawn from ancient Roman architecture.

Humanism and scientific inquiry

Interest in the writings of the ancient Greek philosopher Socrates led Renaissance scholars to encourage inquiry, questioning and observation.

Based on this approach, scientists such as Nicolaus Copernicus and Galileo Galilei began to notice that the long-held belief that the Sun orbited Earth did not make sense in light of their own observations and mathematical analysis.

Galileo Galilei

Galileo Galilei was a famous Italian astronomer, mathematician and philosopher. He was born in Pisa in 1564 CE and moved to Florence with his family in the 1570s. Galileo invented many mechanical instruments, including a water pump, a sector and a pendulum clock. He also developed important scientific ideas, such as the theory of motion.

One of his most famous and well-known inventions was a telescope that could magnify objects to 20 times their size, which he built in 1609 CE. With his telescope, Galileo saw that the surface of the Moon is not smooth but has craters and mountains, and that Saturn has rings. He also observed four moons revolving around Jupiter, and noticed that Venus has phases just like the Moon.

This last observation was the most important because Galileo concluded that it proved that Venus did not orbit Earth, but must orbit the Sun. Galileo subsequently supported the heliocentric theory. This theory – that the planets (including Earth) orbit the Sun and not Earth – had first been put forward by a Polish astronomer, Nicolaus Copernicus, in 1543 CE.

Source 3: The Renaissance concept of an ideal town was developed by an Italian architect, humanist and author, Leon Battista Alberti (1404–1472 CE). His books on architecture detailed the planning and building of an entire town with a building pattern ruled by perfect symmetry. [Leon Battista Alberti (c. 1450 CE), *La Città Ideale (The Ideal City)*]

Source 4: This fresco depicts Galileo and his telescope. [Giuseppe Bertini (1858 CE), *Galileo Galilei Showing the Doge of Venice How to Use the Telescope*]

Galileo published his findings in a book, *The Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems*, in 1632 CE. After the book was published, the Catholic Church immediately banned it and Galileo was summoned to Rome in 1633 CE to appear before the **Inquisition**. He was pronounced to be 'vehemently suspect of heresy' and was condemned to life imprisonment (which he served as house arrest).

The reasons for the ban and Galileo's ordeal are contested. On the one hand, the heliocentric model contradicts the teachings of the Bible, which states that Earth does not move. However, the Renaissance papacy was supportive of humanism; and Galileo and Pope Urban VIII were actually good friends. Some have suggested that Galileo was arrested and put on trial so that Pope Urban VIII could show his rivals that he was a strong pope who supported Church tradition.

Learning ladder 17.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Galileo Galilei?
2. Describe what Galileo observed using his telescope.
3. Explain how Galileo's observation of Venus confirmed the heliocentric model.
4. Explain why the heliocentric model was a groundbreaking theory.
5. Analyse the reasons why the Catholic Church banned Galileo's book.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the way of thinking that changed art, architecture and science.
2. Describe how humanism changed the way artists painted.
3. Sources 1 and 2:
   - **a** Explain how the two paintings are different.
   - **b** Explain how the two paintings are similar.
4. Source 3: Explain how this source demonstrates humanist ideas.
5. Explain why Renaissance art and architecture demonstrate the concepts of continuity and change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

Key individual

Why was Leonardo da Vinci a 'Renaissance man'?

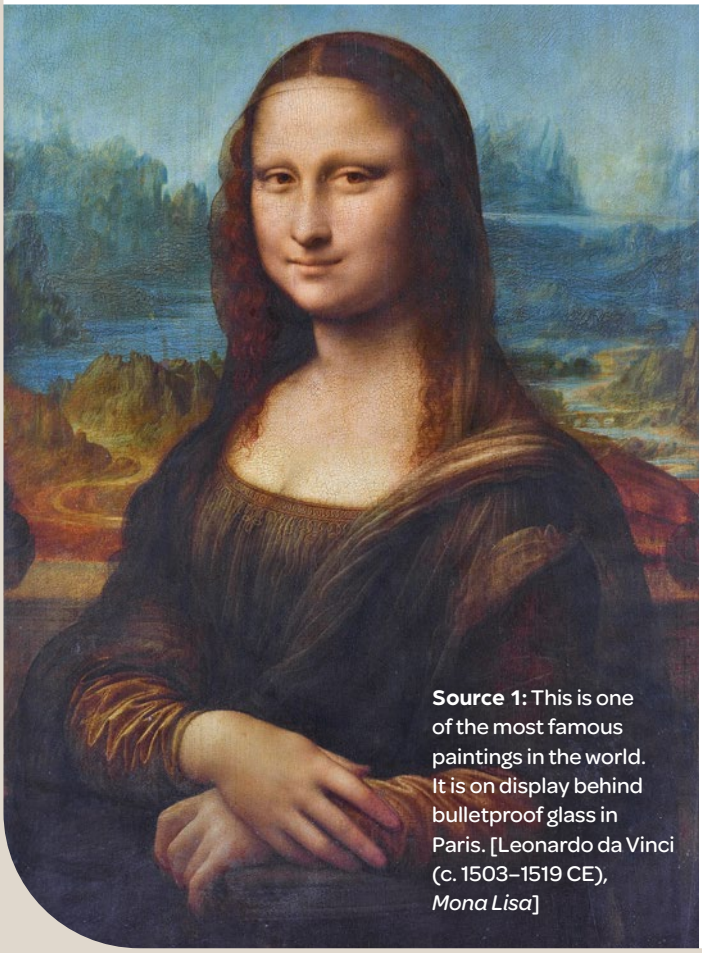
Leonardo da Vinci was one of the most important individuals who lived during the Renaissance. He was a revolutionary artist, inventor and scientist.

Leonardo the artist

Leonardo da Vinci had many talents and interests; he was one of the greatest 'Renaissance men' of his era. He was born in 1452 CE near the small town of Vinci ('da Vinci' means 'of Vinci') in the Republic of Florence.

His artistic talent was recognised at a young age and, when he was around 15 years old, Leonardo began working as an apprentice with the painter and sculptor Andrea del Verrocchio. After completing his apprenticeship in 1472 CE at the age of 20, Leonardo was accepted into the painters' guild of Florence.

Da Vinci created many famous paintings, including *Mona Lisa* (c. 1503–1519 CE) and *Last Supper* (1495–1498 CE). Many people think that these paintings contain hidden meanings. However, most art historians dismiss these theories and argue that the speculation about the paintings actually reflects the mystery surrounding Leonardo himself, about whom we know relatively little. What we do know is that he had little formal education, wrote backwards in his notebooks, and possessed a mind-boggling array of talents in painting, science, mathematics, robotic machines, irrigation, biology and anatomy.



Source 1: This is one of the most famous paintings in the world. It is on display behind bulletproof glass in Paris. [Leonardo da Vinci (c. 1503–1519 CE), *Mona Lisa*]

Leonardo the scientist and inventor

There are some 5000 pages of da Vinci's notebooks, all valuable primary documents that give us an idea about his work and wide range of interests. Leonardo was left-handed, and most of his notes are written in mirror-image, from right to left.

Da Vinci conducted many carefully planned experiments and created designs for multiple inventions, including irrigation schemes, hang gliders, robotics and solar power. He cut up and studied more than 30 corpses to produce advanced anatomical sketches of body parts, muscles, bones and even an unborn child in a womb.

> In the medical faculty he learned to dissect the cadavers of criminals under inhuman, disgusting conditions ... because he wanted [to examine and] to draw the different deflections and reflections of limbs and their dependence upon the nerves and the joints. This is why he paid attention to the forms of even very small organs, capillaries and hidden parts of the skeleton.

Source 2: This text was written by an Italian physician and historian, Paolo Giovio. He wrote the first biography of Leonardo da Vinci in c. 1527 CE, eight years after the artist's death.

▲ **Source 4:** This drawing is accepted by many art historians as being a self-portrait. [Leonardo da Vinci (1512 CE), *Portrait of a Man in Red Chalk*]

Source 3: This is one of Leonardo's most famous drawings. He is thought to be the first person in history to show the correct position of the human foetus in the uterus and to show the human uterus as one chamber. His drawings are considered to be the foundation of modern anatomical illustration in medical textbooks. [Leonard da Vinci (c. 1490 CE), *Notebook*]

Learning ladder 17.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the place where Leonardo da Vinci was born.
2. Describe da Vinci's education as an artist.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Explain how da Vinci able to paint more realistic human figures.
4. Explain why Leonardo da Vinci is considered to be a 'Renaissance man'.

Significance

1. Identify da Vinci's inventions that are in use today.
2. Source 1: Describe this image.
3. Source 3: Explain why this image is significant.
4. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using these sources and your knowledge, write a paragraph to explain why Leonardo da Vinci could be considered to be a historically significant individual.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

Key individual

Why was Michelangelo significant?

Michelangelo was a great artist who created some of the world's most famous works, such as the sculpture *David* and the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel.

Who was Michelangelo?

Michelangelo Buonarroti (1475–1564 CE) was a famous Renaissance sculptor, painter, architect and poet. Michelangelo grew up in the Republic of Florence. Early in his career as a sculptor, he was supported by Lorenzo de' Medici, the powerful ruler of Florence. From 1505 CE, Michelangelo spent much of his life in Rome, where he worked as an artist for several popes. During his lifetime, Michelangelo was considered the greatest living artist and he is still recognised as one of the greatest artists of all time. No other artist has had such a powerful influence on the development of Western art.

Michelangelo the sculptor

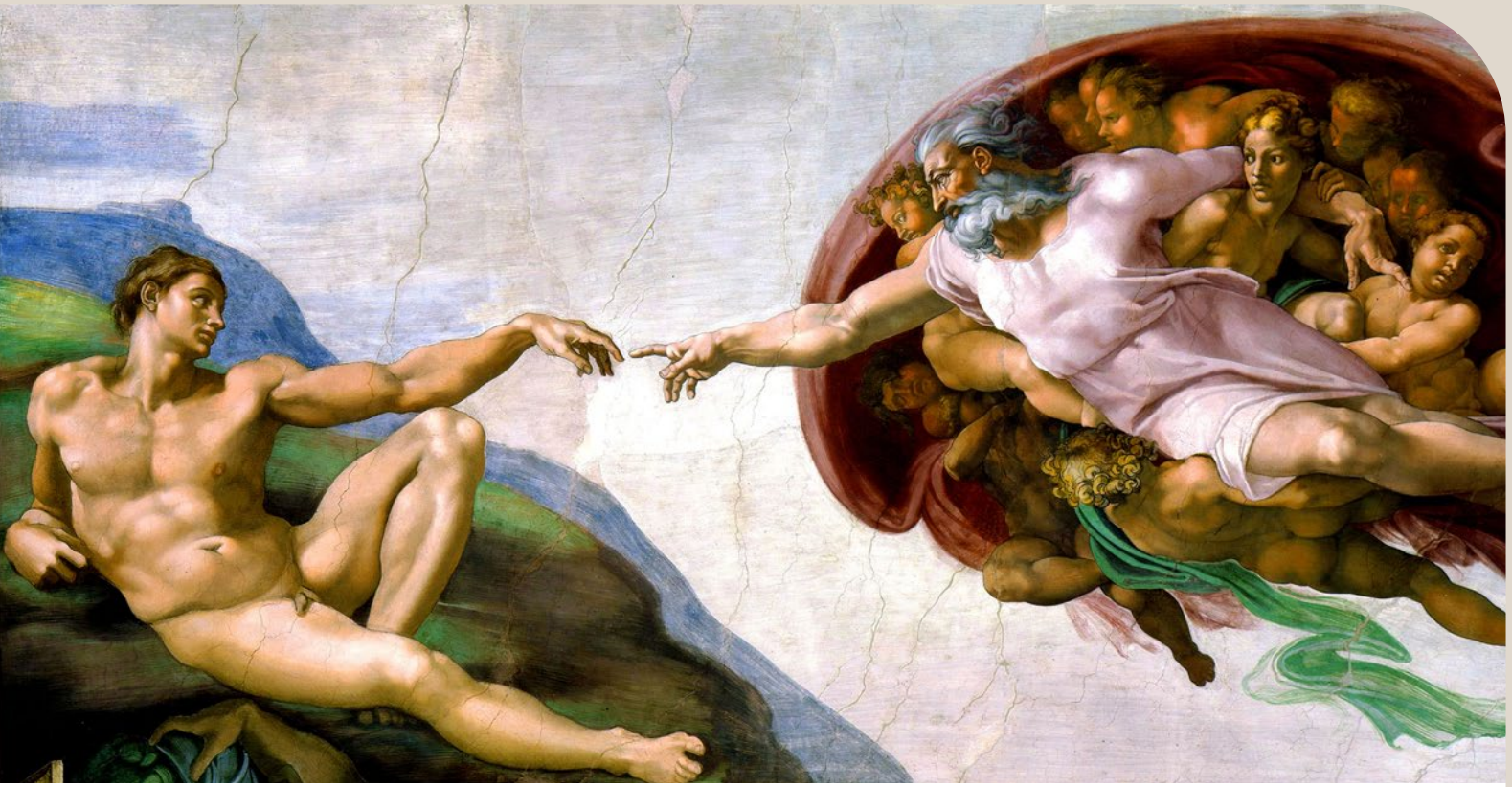
Two of Michelangelo's most famous works are the marble sculptures *Pietà* (1499 CE) and *David* (1501–1504 CE). Carving sculptures from marble – without the stone breaking – involved tremendous skill. It was also difficult because Michelangelo needed to judge, plan and imagine what the carving would look like from all angles before he began to 'free' the figure from the stone. Michelangelo drew on the methods used by ancient sculptors, using a Roman *trepano* drill to create David's hair and pupils. The physical accuracy of his sculptures encouraged other artists to incorporate realistic features into their works.

The ceiling of the Sistine Chapel

In 1508 CE, Pope Julius II asked Michelangelo to paint the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican City in Rome. This chapel is one of the most sacred places in the Vatican; it is used for important ceremonies, such as ordaining new popes.

At first, Michelangelo turned down the commission because he preferred sculpting to painting, but when the pope agreed to allow him to choose the scenes from the Bible that he would paint, Michelangelo agreed to undertake the work. He built a scaffold that he could climb and lean back on to paint the ceiling. Michelangelo spent four years painting frescoes on the chapel's ceiling. He painted over 300 Biblical scenes, including the creation, the Garden of Eden and the Great Flood, covering more than 460 square metres of ceiling.

Source 1: Michelangelo worked on this sculpture of David for over four years. David is a key figure in the Bible. This sculpture stands 5.17 metres tall and was the first colossus (giant statue) made since ancient times. [Michelangelo (1501–1504 CE), *David*]



Source 2: This is part of the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel. Michelangelo painted God and Adam (the first man) with similar-sized bodies to reflect the idea that God had created man in his own image. Michelangelo's style of painting influenced artists for the next three centuries. [Michelangelo (1508–1512 CE), *The Creation of Man* (panel), Sistine Chapel, Rome]

Pope Julius II was keen to see what Michelangelo was doing and kept visiting the artist while he was working, even climbing ladders so he could see the frescoes up close. The work was not quite complete when the pope told Michelangelo that he would have him thrown down the scaffolding if he did not finish the work quickly. The scaffolding was dismantled and the chapel opened for all to admire Michelangelo's work.

My beard turns up to heaven; my nape falls in,
Fixed on my spine: my breast bone visibly
Grows like a harp: a rich embroidery
Bedews my face from brush-drops thick and thin.
My loins into my paunch like levers grind:
My buttock like a crupper bears my weight;
My feet unguided wander to and fro;
In front my skin grows loose and long; behind,
By bending it becomes more taut and straight;
Crosswise I strain me like a Syrian bow ...

Source 3: This text is part of a poem written by Michelangelo during the time he was working on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel (1509 CE).

Learning ladder 17.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify two of Michelangelo's most famous works.
2. Describe how Michelangelo created his sculptures.
3. Explain the role of Pope Julius II in Michelangelo's career.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Using these sources and your knowledge, explain why Michelangelo was significant.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 2: Describe the image in this source.
3. Source 2: Explain what makes this source a significant example of Renaissance art.
4. Source 3: Explain why this source is valuable for historians studying Michelangelo.
5. Sources 1 and 2: Using these sources and your knowledge, evaluate the importance of the Catholic Church to Michelangelo's work.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 475

Key individual

Why was Sofonisba Anguissola significant?

Sofonisba Anguissola was a talented artist who was well known in her own time. Her works were so famous that other artists were ordered to make copies of her paintings.

Women's roles

In Renaissance Italy, women did not have political rights and they were considered to be legally subject to their fathers and husbands. Women were expected to marry in their late teens or join a convent. Once married, a woman was expected to obey her husband, manage the household, bring up the children and nurse sick members of the family.

Source 1: This painting shows three of the artist's sisters (Lucia, Europa and Minerva) playing chess. A servant watches on from the right. [Sofonisba Anguissola (1555 CE), *The Chess Game*]

Who was Sofonisba Anguissola?

Sofonisba Anguissola was part of a minority of noble Renaissance women who enjoyed more independent lives than other female members of Italian society.

Anguissola (1532–1625 CE) was born into a wealthy family in the Duchy of Milan and received an excellent education thanks to her father's humanist belief in the value of education. All the Anguissola children were encouraged to study and develop their artistic talents.

Anguissola was one of the first women to be accepted as a student of art. She was apprenticed to a local painter at age 14 and then continued her training with another artist, Bernardino Gatti.

During her early career as an artist, Anguissola painted many self-portraits and portraits of her family members. One of her paintings, *The Chess Game* (1555 CE), shows her sisters playing chess. This board game was popular during the Renaissance, as it developed skills in reasoning and logic. However, the painting was created at a time when girls were not encouraged to play games of strategy and logic.

Anguissola's talent was soon recognised. She became an art tutor to Queen Elisabeth of Spain and an official court painter to King Philip II. This was a highly advantageous position, as Philip's family (the Habsburgs) ruled most of Europe at the time. Her paintings of the Spanish royal household emphasised their attractiveness and represented them as kind and benevolent rulers. Her flattering paintings were much admired throughout Europe. Anguissola was the first female artist of the Renaissance to become internationally known in her lifetime.

Since she was a noblewoman, Anguissola did not sign her work as it was considered inappropriate for women to do so. This has led to some of her paintings being wrongly attributed to male painters, such as Titian and da Vinci.

> She has worked with deeper study and greater grace than any woman of our times at problems of design, for not only has she learned to draw, paint, and copy from nature, and reproduce most skilfully works by other artists, but she has on her own painted some most rare and beautiful paintings ...

Source 2: This text was written by Giorgio Vasari, who was a Renaissance artist and the world's first art historian. [Giorgio Vasari (1566 CE), *Lives of the Most Eminent Painters, Sculptors, and Architects*]

Source 3: Portrait painting was popular during the Renaissance due to the influence of humanism, which valued the individual. [Sofonisba Anguissola (1556 CE), *Self-portrait at the Easel*]

Learning ladder 17.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Sofonisba Anguissola?
2. Source 1: Describe the image in this source.
3. Explain how Anguissola's patrons helped establish her fame as an artist.
4. Sources 1 and 3: How do Anguissola's portraits demonstrate the philosophy of humanism?

Significance

1. Identify the reasons why Sofonisba Anguissola is a historically significant individual.
2. Describe the subject matter painted by Anguissola.
3. Explain how some of Anguissola's work has been wrongly attributed to other artists.
4. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Sofonisba Anguissola was a significant individual.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

Site study

What is Brunelleschi's dome?

Filippo Brunelleschi was an Italian architect and engineer who was one of the pioneers of a new style of architecture in the early Renaissance. He was also the genius behind a famous dome.

Who was Brunelleschi?

Filippo Brunelleschi was born in Florence in 1377 CE. Around 1402 CE, he travelled to Rome to view the ancient ruins and became interested in the way ancient architects used symmetry to construct their buildings. Brunelleschi is considered to be responsible for reviving the ancient Roman use of perspective in architecture.

Brunelleschi's dome

In 1419 CE, Brunelleschi entered an engineering competition to solve the problem of how to construct the dome for the Cathedral of Santa Maria del Fiore in Florence. Work on the cathedral was partly funded by the Medici family. The construction of the cathedral began in 1296 CE, with the intention of adding a domed roof but, at the time, no-one knew how to construct it.

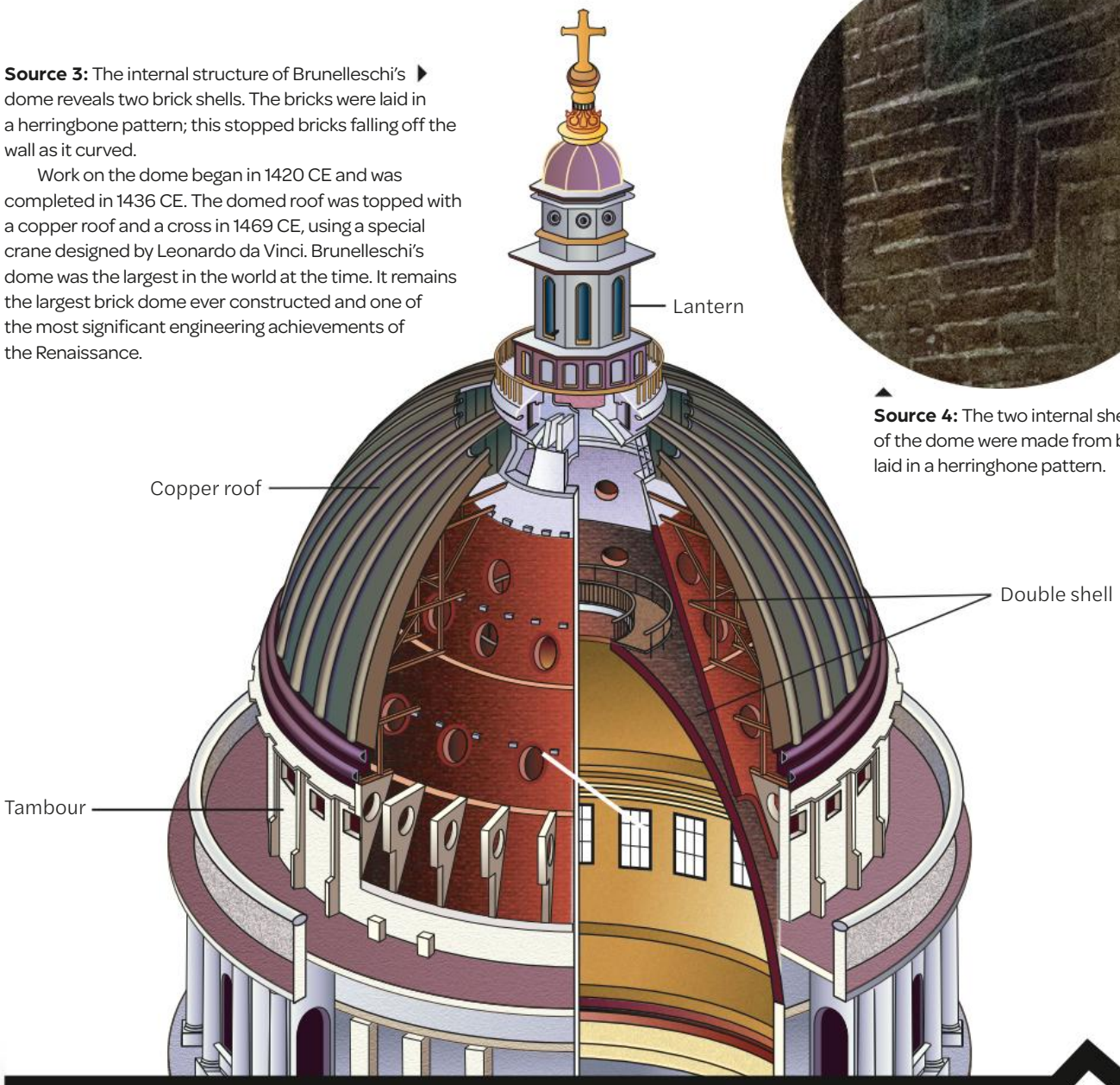
Brunelleschi worked out a method to vault the dome, invented the machinery necessary to carry it out and designed the structure's crowning lantern. The genius of Brunelleschi's design was that the structure was hidden in the double-walled shell of the dome and anchored by a 15-metre circular wall (tambour). In 1469 CE, the roof was copper-plated and a cross containing sacred relics was hoisted to the top of the dome.

Source 2: The frescoes on the ceiling inside the dome were painted by Giorgio Vasari and Federico Zuccari between 1572 and 1579 CE.

Source 1: The Cathedral of Santa Maria del Fiore in Florence at night, featuring Brunelleschi's dome. The cathedral is one of Italy's largest churches. It was consecrated in 1436 CE.

Source 3: The internal structure of Brunelleschi's dome reveals two brick shells. The bricks were laid in a herringbone pattern; this stopped bricks falling off the wall as it curved.

Work on the dome began in 1420 CE and was completed in 1436 CE. The domed roof was topped with a copper roof and a cross in 1469 CE, using a special crane designed by Leonardo da Vinci. Brunelleschi's dome was the largest in the world at the time. It remains the largest brick dome ever constructed and one of the most significant engineering achievements of the Renaissance.



Source 4: The two internal shells of the dome were made from bricks laid in a herringhone pattern.

Learning ladder 17.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Filippo Brunelleschi?
2. Describe how Brunelleschi came to work on the dome for the Cathedral of Santa Maria del Fiore.
3. Explain how Brunelleschi drew inspiration from ancient Roman architecture.
4. Explain why Brunelleschi is an important person in the history of architecture.
5. Evaluate the importance of Brunelleschi's dome for the city of Florence and for the Medici family.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the main features of the dome.
2. Source 4: Describe how the bricks were arranged inside the dome.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Explain what these sources demonstrate about the Renaissance period.
4. Sources 3 and 4: Explain how this brick pattern was used inside the dome.
5. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Compare the usefulness of these sources in helping you to understand the importance of Brunelleshi's dome. Which source is the most useful and why?

What are the legacies of the Renaissance?

The lasting influence of the Renaissance can be seen in art, architecture, education, science and religion.

Art and architecture

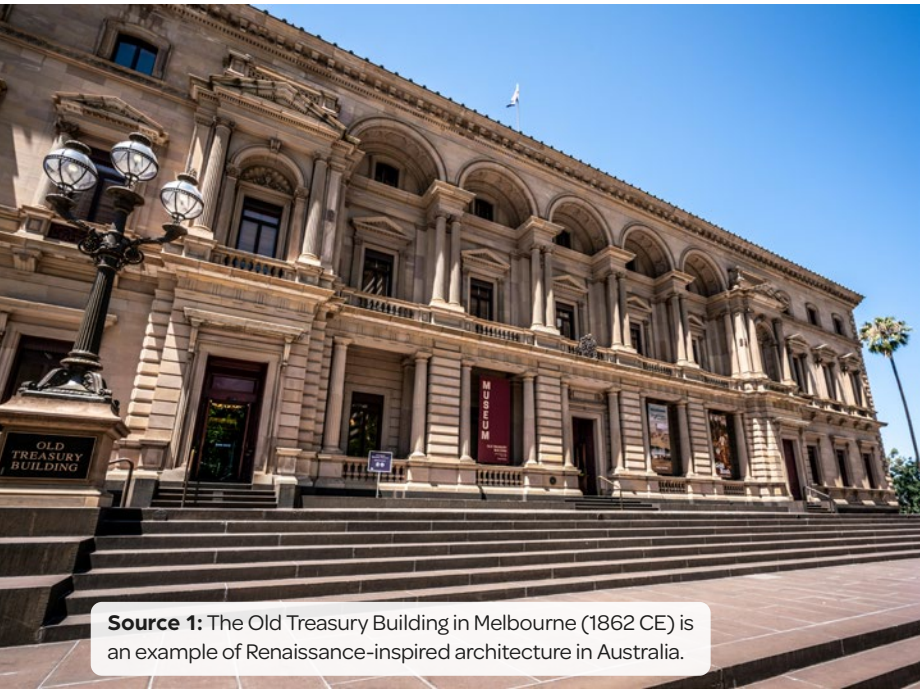
The developments in art and architecture that occurred during the Renaissance set new standards in design and realism. Some of the art movements that followed the Renaissance, such as the Baroque movement, aimed to copy the skill and techniques developed by Renaissance artists. Others drew inspiration from the Renaissance to develop entirely new ideas that deliberately rejected the Renaissance interest in perspective and proportion, such as Cubism in the early 20th century CE.

Renaissance architecture emphasised symmetry, proportion, repetition and the use of ancient Greek and Roman design elements such as columns and domes. This style of architecture has had a lasting impact on architecture. Renaissance-style buildings were popular designs for government and office buildings in the 1850s to 1940s CE, as seen in the Old Treasury building in Melbourne (1862 CE) and the Commonwealth Bank building (1913–1914 CE) in Sydney.

The influence of humanism

The humanist emphasis on classical literature and the belief that it is important to have exposure to a wide range of studies, from mathematics to art to religion, have greatly influenced education. The study of humanities, such as languages, philosophy and history, owes much to the Renaissance belief that education should help people to become ethical, knowledgeable citizens. In addition, humanism's high regard for observation, questioning and experimentation contributed to the later development of the modern scientific method.

Johannes Gutenberg's invention of the printing press in Germany in 1440 CE was essential to the growth of humanist education ideals in Europe, because it stimulated the demand for books, encouraged people to learn to read and enabled new ideas to spread quickly across Europe. By the end of the 1500s CE, printing had developed to such an extent that cities such as Venice became wealthy on the strength of their printing centres.



Source 1: The Old Treasury Building in Melbourne (1862 CE) is an example of Renaissance-inspired architecture in Australia.

Religion

During the Renaissance, people developed new ideas about religion. Many people had become critical of the Church's power and wealth. In 1517 CE, a German monk named Martin Luther nailed a document, known as the 'Ninety-five Theses', to the door of a church in Wittenberg, Germany, to protest against corrupt practices in the Catholic Church.

The printing press allowed the 'Ninety-five Theses' to be widely and quickly distributed throughout Europe. This would contribute to the establishment of a new Christian movement, known as Protestantism. Protestantism took hold in Scandinavia, England, Scotland, the Netherlands, Germany and Switzerland. The Protestant Reformation caused

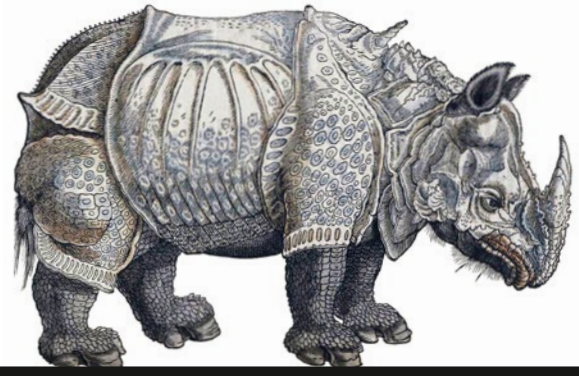
Source 2: Martin Luther nails his 'Ninety-five Theses' to a church door in Wittenberg, Germany. [Ferdinand Pauwels (1872 CE), *Luther Hammers his 95 Theses to the Door*]

numerous wars across Europe. By the time of their conclusion in 1648 CE, the pope's political power was effectively ended.

At the same time, Protestant reformers began to translate the Bible into the languages of the common people. This in turn encouraged the growth of literacy, as Protestants believed it was important for all people to learn to read so that they could read the Bible for themselves.

The Renaissance beyond Italy

Other countries in Europe experienced their own 'renaissance' which contributed to the Renaissance in Italy. One of Germany's greatest artists during the early 16th century CE was Albrect Dürer. Dürer's woodblock prints were greatly admired in Italy and influenced a number of Italian Renaissance artists, including Raphael and Titian. The English Renaissance, also known as the Elizabethan era, produced many famous poets, writers, musicians, philosophers and scientists. Foremost among English Renaissance writers was William Shakespeare (1564–1616 CE), who is known as one of the greatest writers of the English language.



Source 3: Alessandro de' Medici adopted a rhinoceros as his personal emblem in 1536 CE. His emblem was based on Dürer's design. [Albrect Dürer (1515 CE), *A Rhinoceros*]

Learning ladder 17.10

Impact and legacies

1. Identify three legacies of the Renaissance.
2. Source 1: Describe how the building in this source reflects the influence of Renaissance architecture.
3. Using your school timetable, explain how the Renaissance has influenced education in Australia today.
4. Source 3: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the impact of the Renaissance beyond Italy.
5. Evaluate the legacies of the Renaissance to determine its long-term significance.

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify the effect of the event shown in this image.
2. Describe the causes of the Protestant Reformation.
3. Explain the effect of the printing press on the expansion of Renaissance ideas.
4. Evaluate the effects of the Protestant Reformation.

Cause and effect, page 480

HOW TO

Was there really a Renaissance?

In the past, many historians thought the Renaissance was a glorious rebirth of the progressive societies of ancient Greece and Rome. Was this romanticised view of the period justified?

Conflicting views about the Renaissance

Many historians who lived during the 19th century CE thought the Renaissance was a golden age of progress that had rescued Europe from the dark ages of the medieval period and recovered the majesty of ancient Greece and Rome.

In 1855, French historian Jules Michelet first used the term 'renaissance' to describe the period between 1400 and 1600 CE. Michelet argued that the scientific ideas of Copernicus and Galileo defined the Renaissance as a 'new' era, distinct from the medieval period. Swiss historian Jacob Burckhardt agreed with Michelet and emphasised the role of artists in characterising the Renaissance as a time of individuality and freedom of the human spirit.

However, historians have questioned this view of the Renaissance, arguing that for most of the people who lived during the 15th and 16th centuries CE, it was not a golden age. Most people were peasant farmers for whom not a lot had changed since the medieval period. The impressive art and architectural achievements of the time were only important for the wealthy, educated elite. For everyone else, it was a time of wars, witch hunts, corrupt church politics and religious persecution.

The Renaissance and medieval science

Another point historians have recently made is that the Renaissance was not a 'rebirth'; rather, the achievements of the period built on medieval developments in art, science and trade. The Renaissance was not a break with the medieval past, but a continuation of it.

Source 1: Nicolaus Copernicus, shown with his theory of the heliocentric (Sun-centred) system. [Painting of Copernicus by Jan Matejko (1873 CE), *Conversations with God*]

> The Renaissance … is a new birth … the memory of ancient Rome was a great support to the national sentiment of Italy. Armed afresh with its culture, the Italian soon felt himself a citizen of the most advanced nation in the world.

Source 2: This text was written by a historian who lived in the 19th century CE. [Jacob Burckhardt (1860 CE), *The Civilisation of the Renaissance in Italy*, trans. in 1878 CE by S.G.C. Middlemore]

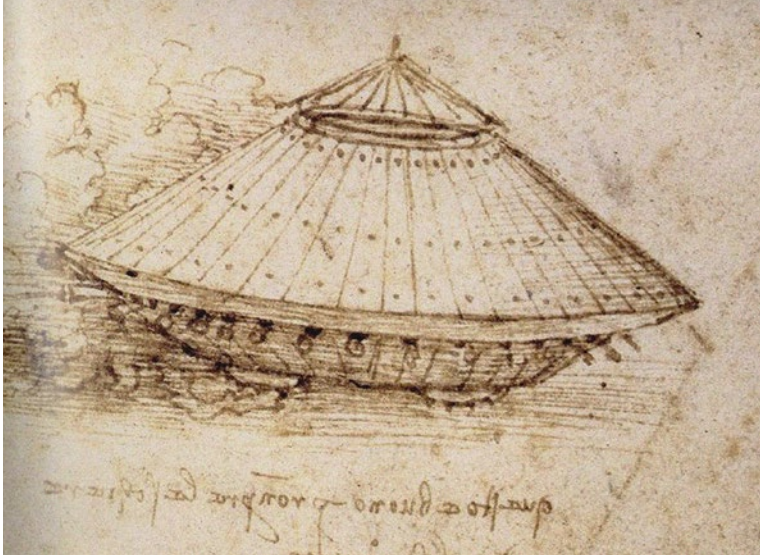
From 1494 to 1559, the Italian peninsula was the setting for a ferocious series of conflicts between the princes of Europe, known commonly as the Italian Wars: a battle between the Spanish monarchs and their great rivals at this time, the French, for supremacy in Italy … Lives and livelihoods were destroyed … If we know Leonardo da Vinci now for the *Mona Lisa*'s smile, his contemporaries knew him, too, as a designer of military maps, and of fortifications and weaponry … The popular story of the Renaissance – like many versions of modern Western history – tends to focus on the genius and glory at the expense of the atrocities.

Source 3: This text was written by a modern-day historian. [Catherine Fletcher (2020 CE), *The Beauty and the Terror: The Italian Renaissance and the Rise of the West*]

Science did not take a great leap forward in the 15th and 16th centuries CE; instead scientists further developed existing ideas from the medieval period. Nicolaus Copernicus's theories about the solar system were developed from the observations of 13th-century Persian astonomer Nasir al-Din al Tusi and 14th-century astronomers Jean Buridan of France and Ibn al-Shatir of Syria.

The Middle Ages laid the foundation for the greatest achievement of western civilisation: modern science. It is simply untrue to say that there was no science before the 'Renaissance'. Once medieval scholars got their hands on the work of the ancient Greeks, they developed systems of thought that allowed science to travel far further than it had in the ancient world. Universities, where academic freedom was guarded from royal interference, were first founded in the twelfth century …

Source 4: This text was written by a modern-day historian. [James Hannam (2009 CE), *God's Philosophers: How the Medieval World Laid the Foundations of Modern Science*]



▲ **Source 5:** This drawing is Leonardo da Vinci's design for an armoured tank.

Art and architecture?

The new styles of art and architecture associated with the Renaissance were not only inspired by the 'rediscovery' of the art of ancient Greece and Rome, but were also based on contemporary Middle Eastern influences. The beautiful Renaissance city of Venice was strongly influenced by the grandeur of the great cities of Cairo, Damascus and Aleppo.

Learning ladder 17.11

Impact and legacies

1. Identify what historians during the 19th century CE believed about the Renaissance period.
2. Describe Michelet's role in popularising the idea that there was a 'Renaissance'.
3. Explain how most people experienced the Renaissance period.
4. Explain why Renaissance science was not a break from the past.

Contestability

1. Identify two sources that have a different interpretation of the Renaissance.
2. Sources 3 and 4: Describe the authors' interpretation of the Renaissance.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Compare the authors' interpretations of the Renaissance.
4. Source 3: Evaluate the evidence Catherine Fletcher puts forward to support her key argument.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on Renaissance Italy. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of Renaissance Italy. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the Renaissance in Italy in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The life of Francisco Petrarch, 17.1
- The Republic of Venice, 17.2
- The Gonzaga family, 17.3
- The architecture of Leon Battista Alberti, 17.5
- The Renaissance beyond Italy, 17.10

Return to the relevant sections in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

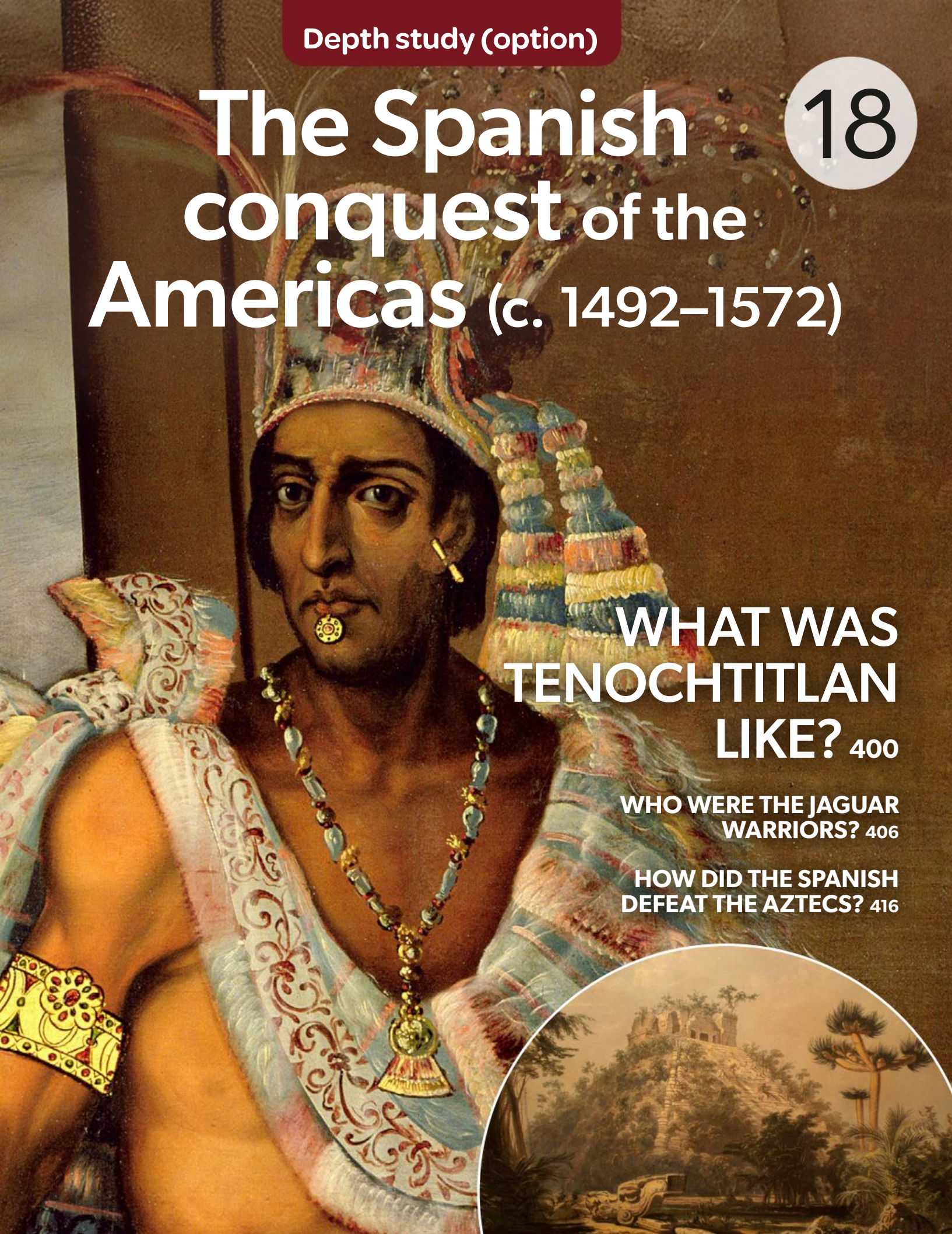
Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (option)

The Spanish conquest of the Americas (c. 1492–1572)

18



18.0

How can I understand the Spanish conquest of the Americas?

The Spanish conquest of the Americas decimated Indigenous populations and destroyed their way of life.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: An illustration of the first meeting of Cortés and King Moctezuma II

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

Where were the Mesoamerican and South American societies located?

Humans first crossed into the Americas from Asia via a land bridge during the **Ice Ages**, between 35 000 and 15 000 years ago. Early peoples settled right through the Americas, from the Great Plains of the north, all the way down to Central America and South America.

Mesoamerica

The region between modern-day Mexico and Costa Rica is known to archaeologists as Mesoamerica. Mesoamerica was home to three of the world's great societies: the Olmecs (1200–300 BCE), the Mayans (250–950 CE) and the Aztecs (1250–1521 CE). The Olmecs were known for their impressive monuments, massive stone sculptures and drinking cocoa. The Mayans built magnificent cities and stone pyramids. They are also known for their knowledge of astronomy, mathematics and architecture.

The Aztecs inherited much from the older Mesoamerican societies, including corn farming and floating gardens, known as ***chinampas***. The Aztecs were militaristic and they used their power to establish a vast empire.

The Andean region

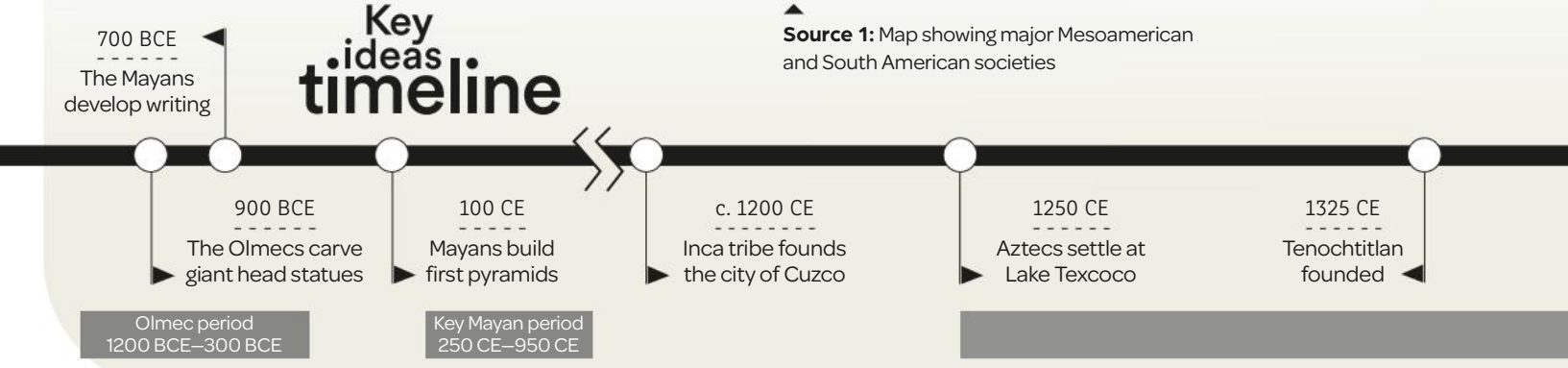
Another important society was located further south in the Andes mountains of South America. The Inca (1438–1533 CE) also established a large empire, with a sophisticated network of roads, huge monuments and terraced agriculture.

Mesoamercian and Andean societies

Source: Matilda Education Australia

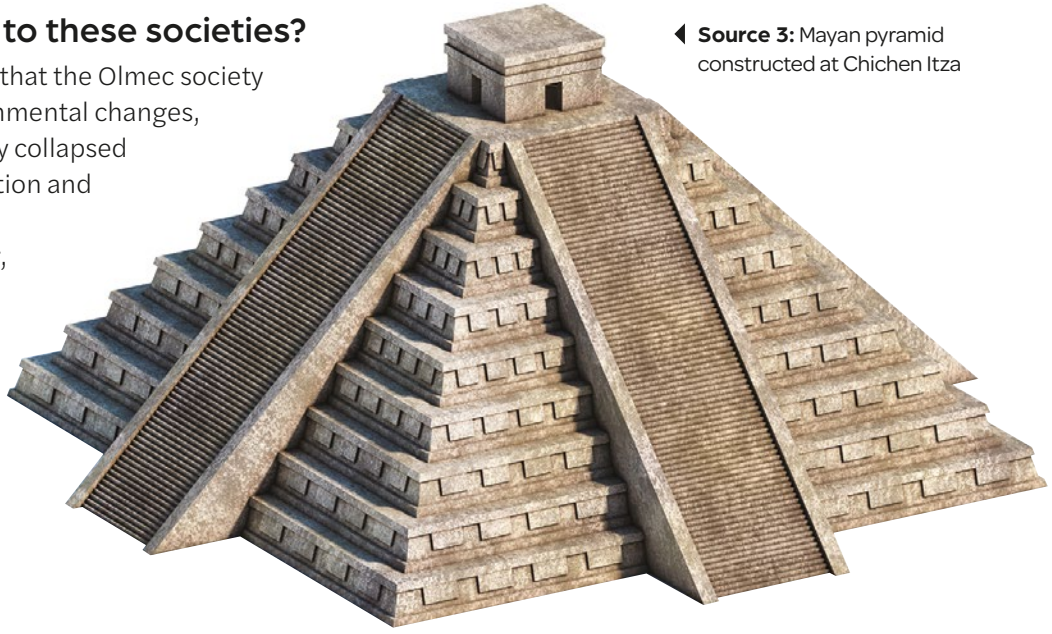
Source 1: Map showing major Mesoamerican and South American societies

Source 2: Americas timeline



What happened to these societies?

Archaeologists believe that the Olmec society declined due to environmental changes, while the Mayan society collapsed because of overpopulation and warfare. The Aztec and Inca societies, however, fell due to invasion and conquest by Spanish conquistadors.



Source 3: Mayan pyramid constructed at Chichen Itza

Learning ladder 18.1

Background and origins

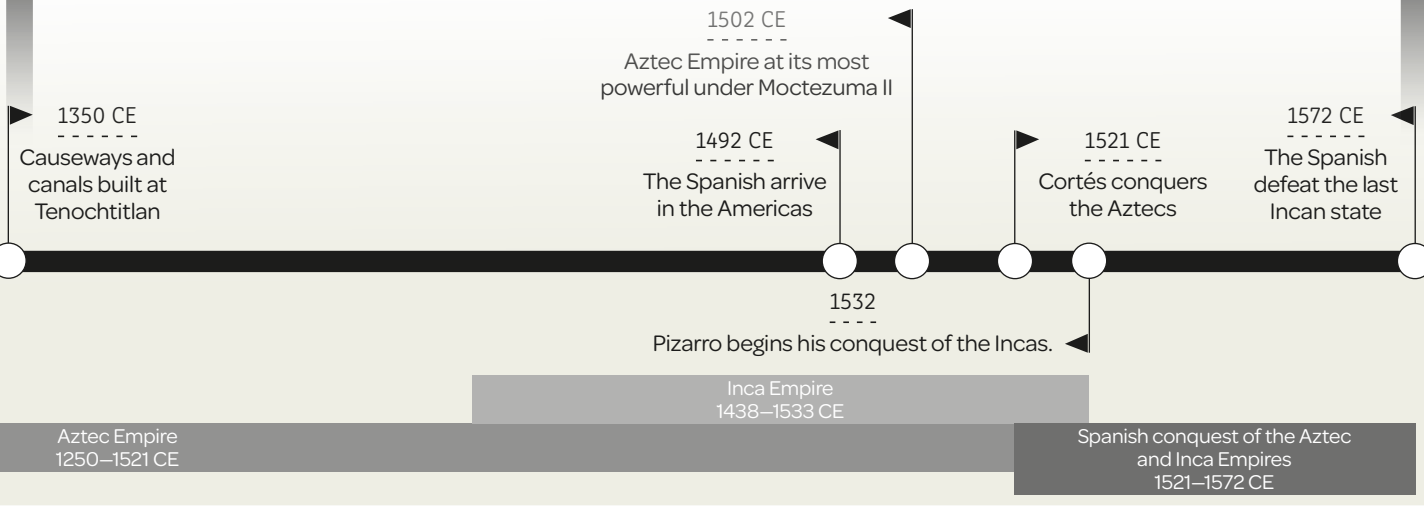
1. Source 1: Identify three major societies of the Americas.
2. Describe the characteristics of the Mayan society.
3. Explain how the Aztec society was different to the Mayan and Olmec societies.
4. Explain why the Mesoamerican and Andean societies fell.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

Chronology

1. Sources 2 and 3: Identify the date when these types of structures were first built.
2. Put these events in order from earliest to most recent:
   - May 1523: Hernán Cortés becomes the governor of the colony of New Spain (Mexico)
   - June 1520 CE: Death of the Aztecs' king, Moctezuma II
   - August 1521 CE: The Aztec capital, Tenochtitlan, falls to the Spanish
   - November 1519 CE: Spanish leader Hernán Cortés meets Moctezuma II
   - March 1519 CE: Hernán Cortés's ships arrive on the coast of Mexico.
3. Construct a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Using the timeline you created in Question 3, summarise the events leading up to the collapse of the Aztec Empire.

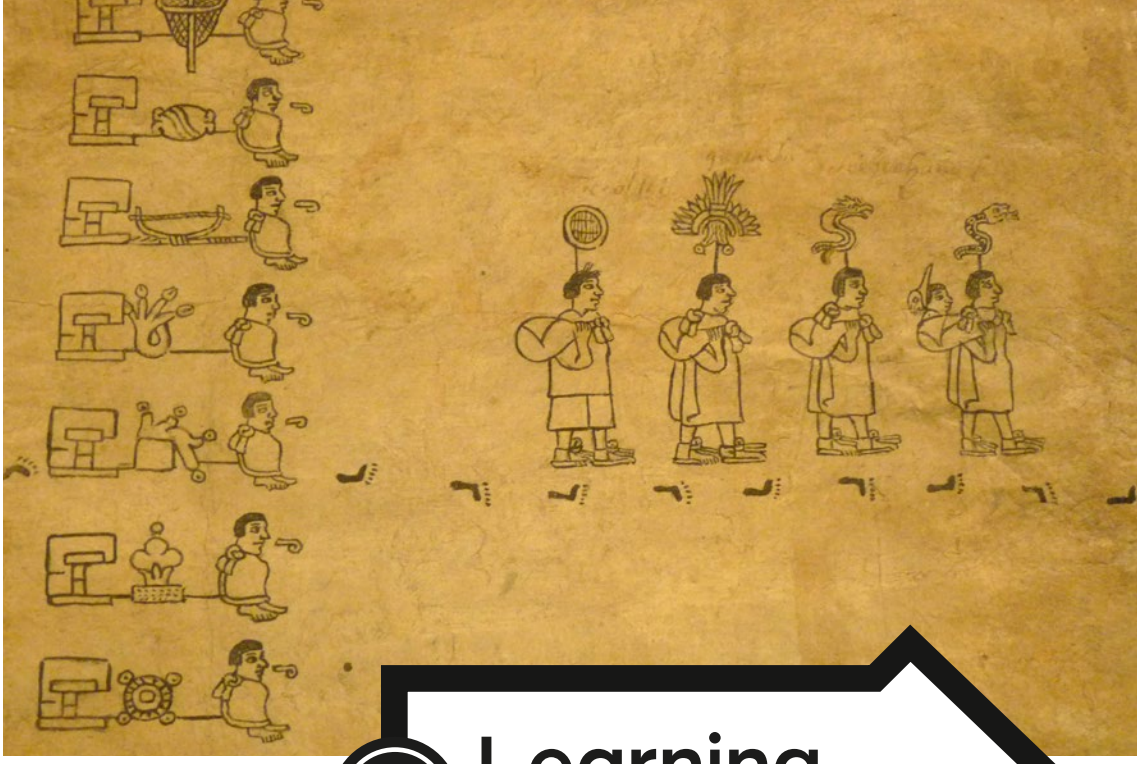


18.2

Who were the Aztecs?

The Aztecs were originally called Mexicas. According to Aztec mythology, they came from a place known as Aztlan.

▲ **Source 1:** Map showing the Aztec Empire, its main resources and the tributes paid to the city of Tenochtitlan



Source 2: The Aztecs travelling to Lake Texcoco led by the Teomama (god-bearers), who carry the gods on their backs. Tezcacoatl leads the procession, carrying the figure of Huitzilopochtli. From the *Boturini Codex* (1530–1541 CE). This source was created 10 years after the Spanish conquest of Tenochtitlan.

Aztec origins

According to Aztec legend, the Aztecs left Aztlan and spent 200 years travelling south to the Mexico Basin. When they arrived, there were already several established city-states under the control of other societies, including the Colhuacan and the Azcapotzalco.

The Aztecs were then led further south by their god of war, Huitzilopochtli. When the Aztecs arrived at Lake Texcoco, they saw a small island in the centre of the lake. On the island was an eagle perched on a cactus, holding a snake in its talons. This vision inspired them to build their city of Tenochtitlan on the site.

The foundation of the Aztec Empire

At first, the Aztec state was small and weak. In return for protection, the Aztecs supplied the larger state of Azcapotzalco with warriors.

Over time, the Aztecs built alliances with other small states, including the Texcoco state and the Tepanac state. In 1428 CE, the Triple Alliance of the Aztec, Texcoco and Tlacopan states besieged and conquered Azcapotzalco. Through this victory, the Aztecs became the dominant state in the Mexico Basin. The Aztecs then forced their conquered territories to pay taxes and **tributes** to them.

The Tlaxcalan enemies

While the Aztecs were able to subdue most of the other states, they were never able to conquer Yopitzinco, Totopec, Teotitlan and Tlaxcala. Of these, the Tlaxcalans posed the biggest nuisance to the Aztec Empire. The Tlaxcalan and Aztec states were constantly at war with one another. The complete encirclement of Tlaxcala by the Aztec Empire made it very difficult for Tlaxcala to trade with other regions. The Tlaxcalans bitterly resented the Aztecs and remained their sworn enemies.

Learning ladder 18.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the mythical place where the Aztecs originated.
2. Describe how the Aztecs found the site for their capital city.
3. Explain how the Aztec state became the dominant state in the Mexico Basin.
4. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why the Tlaxcalans were the sworn enemies of the Aztecs.
5. Analyse the problem the Tlaxcalans posed to the Aztecs.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 1: Describe the different types of goods paid as tribute to the Aztecs.
3. Source 1: Using the table below, group the Aztecs' resources that are shown in the source.

Food	Animal products	Precious metals and stones	Building resources	Other

4. Source 1: Using this source, explain the key advantage held by the states of Teotitlan, Yopitzinco and Totopec that was not held by Tlaxcala.
5. Source 2: Analyse the value of this source for a historian studying the Aztecs.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

18.3

What was Aztec society like?

Around 15 million people lived in the Aztec Empire. Aztec society was hierarchical, with power and status for those at the top and slavery for those at the bottom.

The ruling class

The ruling class consisted of two people:

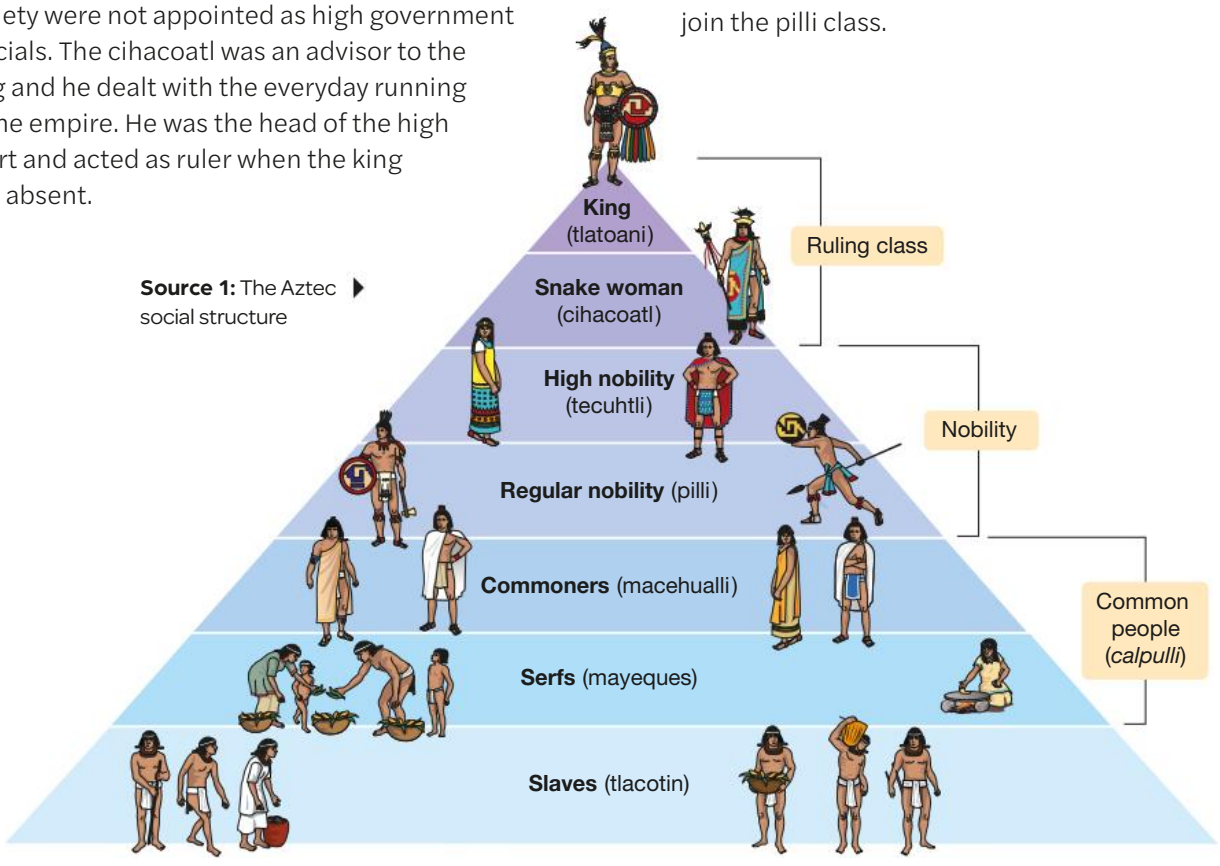
- ***Tlatoani***: The tlatoani was the king. He was the commander-in-chief of all armies and had complete control over the society. The king was chosen as the most able person among the relatives of the previous king. He was elected by important officials, priests and warriors. Acamapichtli is considered to have been the first king of the Aztecs, and he ruled during 1372–1391 CE.
- ***Cihacoatl***: The cihacoatl was the 'snake woman' who was actually a man! Aztec religion stated that the world was created with both male and female principles and, as such, the Aztecs believed that they should have a 'male' leader and 'female' deputy. The reason that the cihacoatl was not a woman probably reflected the fact that women in Aztec society were not appointed as high government officials. The cihacoatl was an advisor to the king and he dealt with the everyday running of the empire. He was the head of the high court and acted as ruler when the king was absent.

The nobles

The nobility made up five per cent of the total population. They wore richly coloured cloaks, *cactli* (sandals) and elaborate jewellery made of gold, shells, feathers and precious stones.

There were two types of nobles in Aztec society:

- ***Tecuhtli***: The tecuhtli were the high nobility, a group made up of heads of the civil service, judges, high priests and rulers of conquered cities. They owned large areas of land and had serfs (*mayeques*) to work their land. The tecuhtli were given land and serfs by the king and were expected to provide him with an army if required.
- ***Pilli***: The pilli were regular nobles who were just under the high nobles in status. They served the king and the high nobles. Famous warriors from the commoner class were sometimes invited to join the pilli class.



Source 1: The Aztec social structure

The commoners

Commoners were called ***calpulli***. Most men of this class wore a *maxtlatl* (loin cloth) and a plain white *tilmahtli* (cloak), while the women wore a *huipilli* (blouse) and a *cueitl* (skirt).

There were two types of calpulli in Aztec society:

- *Macehualli*: The macehualli lived near one another in towns governed by a single high noble lord. Warriors were usually from the macehualli class.
- *Mayeques*: The mayeques were serfs who worked the nobles' lands. They were given a small plot of land to grow their own food. They also paid most of the taxes in the empire. Sometimes, mayeques sold themselves into slavery to pay off debts.

Source 2: Aztec judges discussing how to punish two prisoners. [From Fr Bernadino de Sahagún (1590 CE), *The General History of the Things of New Spain*]

Slaves

The slaves were known as the *tlacotin*. They were usually captured from local tribes that had been subdued or defeated. Native Aztec people could not be born into slavery, but could sell themselves into slavery if they needed to pay off debts. Slaves were generally owned by the nobility but, in some cases, slaves could own other slaves. Slave owners had to feed, clothe and shelter their slaves and would set them to work in their household or else have them undertake work for the community, such as in the cacao groves or moving equipment for the army. Apart from attending to their work, slaves were free to marry, have children and even own property. Slaves could also be used for human sacrifice if they were badly behaved. If a slave's master died and the slave was considered to have been a faithful servant, the slave was freed.

Source 3: Slaves who kept trying to escape wore a collar to prevent them from running away again. [From the *Codex Mendoza* (c. 1541 CE)]

Learning ladder 18.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the main social groups in Aztec society.
2. Describe the role of the tlatoani (king).
3. Explain the role of the mayeques (serfs) in Aztec society.
4. Explain why a man was chosen to perform the role of the 'snake woman'.
5. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of being a macehualli.

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: Identify the reason why the slave is wearing the collar shown in the image.
2. Describe the reason why a slave might be set free.
3. Explain how a person might become a slave in Aztec society.
4. Explain the effects on Aztec society of being able to choose their next tlatoani (king).
5. Evaluate the causes of slave compliance in Aztec society.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

Site study

What was the great city of Tenochtitlan like?

The Aztecs built the city of Tenochtitlan in the middle of Lake Texcoco in accordance with the wishes of their gods. Tenochtitlan was one of the grandest cities in the world.

Building Tenochtitlan

The Aztec capital city of Tenochtitlan was built on two small islands in the middle of Lake Texcoco in 1325 CE, in the area known today as Mexico City. Initially, two separate cities, Tlatelolco and Tenochtitlan, were built on each island. However, as the Aztec Empire grew, the islands were enlarged so that eventually they formed one large island and the cities were merged to form one city of Tenochtitlan. The Aztecs used reclaimed land and canal systems to merge the islands. This was an amazing engineering achievement in the 14th century CE.

The city was divided into four zones and each zone was divided into 20 districts, with several causeways that led to the mainland. The districts were linked by canals that were used for transportation, with wooden bridges that were removed at night. Lake Texcoco provided good protection from attack, but its water was too salty to drink. Aztec engineers built a canal system to divert water from freshwater springs to the city. Further canals were built to supply all areas of the city with fresh water.

Source 1: The centre of Tenochtitlan, the capital city of the Aztec Empire

This great city of Tenochtitlan is built on the salt lake ... There are four artificial causeways leading to it and each is as wide as two cavalry lances. The city is as big as Seville or Cordoba. The main streets are very wide and very straight; some of these are on the land, but the smaller ones are half on land, half canals where they paddle their canoes ...

The city has many squares where trading is done and markets are held continuously. There is also one square twice as big as that of Salamanca, with arcades all around, where more than 60 000 come each day to buy and sell, and where every kind of merchandise produced in these lands is found; provisions as well as ornaments of gold and silver, lead, brass, copper, tin, stones, shells, bones and feathers.

Source 3: This text was written by Hernán Cortés, a Spanish coloniser. [Quoted in Mary Wiesner-Hanks (2005 CE), *An Age of Voyages: 1350–1600,* Oxford University Press]

▲ **Source 2:** A model of the floating gardens known as *chinampas* on Lake Texcoco in Tenochtitlan

Life in Tenochtitlan

Tenochtitlan was a hub of activity: traders, ambassadors, porters and scribes all lived and worked there. Some historians believe the population of the city may have been around 50 000 to 100 000 people in 1500 CE, which made Tenochtitlan one of the largest cities in the world at that time.

At the centre of Tenochtitlan was the sacred precinct, which contained a large pyramid-style temple (Templo Mayor) and other temples. Next to the sacred precinct were the palaces of the current and previous kings. The king in 1500 CE was Moctezuma II, who lived in a magnificent palace that was said to have had more than 100 rooms, a botanical garden, an aquarium and two zoos.

Every Aztec district had its own marketplace, and markets were usually held every five or so days. At the markets, the Aztecs purchased everything they needed for everyday life, including food, animals, artwork, pottery and textiles. The markets were also a social opportunity to meet friends and share local news. Specific markets within the empire were famous for certain goods; for example, Azcapotzalco market was famous for its birds and slaves, and Texcoco was famous for textiles and painted goods. The largest and best-known market was the Tlatelolco market, located in the area of Tenochtitlan once known as Tlatelolco.

The floating gardens of Tenochtitlan

There was little land around Tenochtitlan to farm, so the Aztecs built floating gardens called chinampas. These artificial islands were built by weaving reed platforms under the water to support layers of soil and vegetation until the top layer of soil was above the surface of the lake. Chinampas were used to grow crops of corn, beans, squash, tomatoes and chilli peppers.

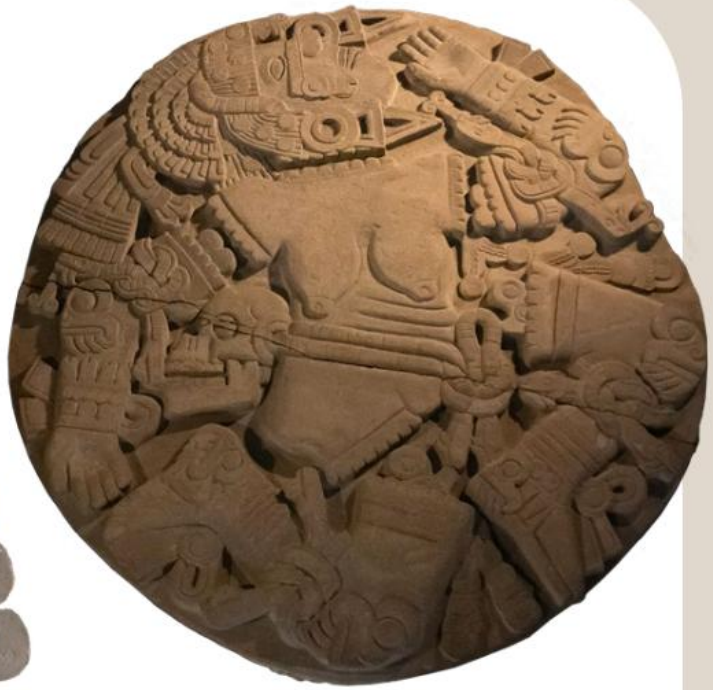
The Templo Mayor

The Aztecs began building the Templo Mayor (known to the Aztecs as Coatepec) shortly after 1325 CE. It was a large stone pyramid with wide staircases, a symbolic recreation of the 'Hill of the Serpent', a sacred place in Aztec mythology. The temple was rebuilt seven times during the Aztec period, with the sixth completed in 1487 CE and the last built in c. 1500 CE.

When the Spanish arrived in 1519 CE, it was the seventh version of the temple they saw. They destroyed the Templo Mayor in 1521 CE and used its stones to construct a church on the site. The location of the Templo Mayor was subsequently lost until 1978 CE, when a stone disk carved with an image of the Aztec goddess Coyolxauhqui (sister of Huitzilopochtli) was found during rebuilding after major earthquakes in Mexico City. An archaeological excavation was begun, which is still being carried out today. Archaeologists have unearthed thousands of Aztec artefacts at the site, including statues, carvings, masks and fossils of plants and animals native to the area. These are now on display in the Templo Mayor Museum, which stands next to the site.

Source 4: Archaeologists working on the Templo Mayor site, 2010 CE

Source 5: Eagle warrior statue (c. 1480 CE) made of clay by an unknown Aztec artisan. This figure was found in the House of Eagles structure, built as part of the fourth version of the Templo Mayor. The fourth version is richly decorated and contains most of the sculptures found so far.



Source 6: The Coyolxauhqui disk found in the fourth version of the Templo Mayor in 1978 CE. This artefact first led archaeologists to the location of the Templo Mayor.

Learning ladder 18.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the important sites in Tenochtitlan.
2. Sources 1 and 3: Describe the city of Tenochtitlan.
3. Source 2: Explain how the Aztecs farmed on Lake Texcoco.
4. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the marketplace was important.
5. Evaluate the significance of Tenochtitlan in 1500 CE.

Significance

1. Source 6: Identify this historically significant artefact.
2. Source 5: Describe this artefact.
3. Explain the significance of the pyramid shape of the Templo Mayor.
4. Sources 5 and 6: Explain why the fourth version of the Templo Mayor is of archaeological significance.
5. Evaluate the importance of religion in Aztec culture.

HOW TO

Significance, page 486

18.5

What did the Aztecs believe?

Religion played a central role in Aztec society and affected everything a person did. The Aztecs worshipped more than 200 different gods. Each god had an important function in Aztec society

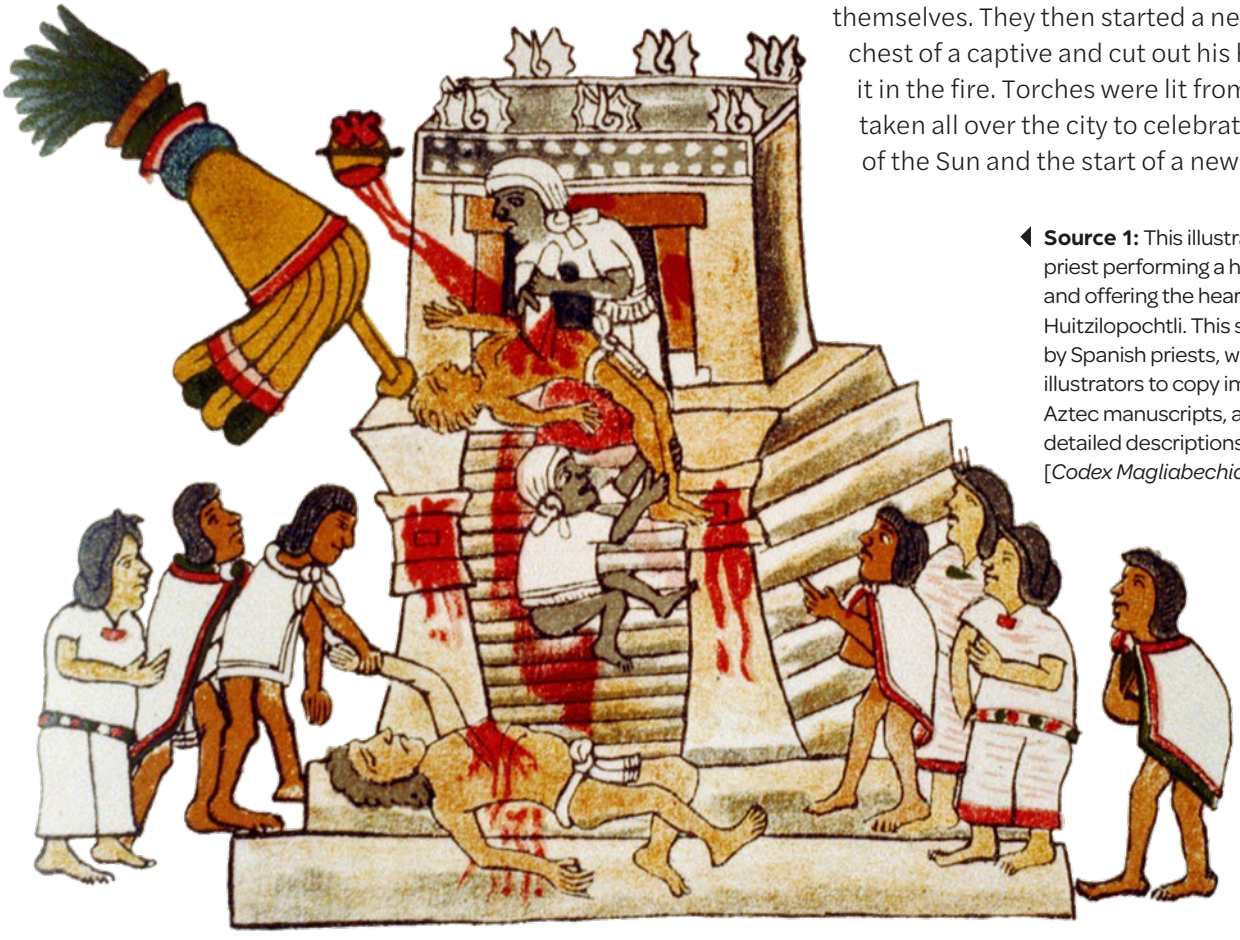
The Aztec gods

The Aztecs viewed their gods as spirits that could take on many forms. They were believed to play a role in Aztec life, controlling the outcomes of war, farming and childbirth. Many gods also had special roles as patron gods of a particular group in society.

The Aztec religious calendars

The Aztecs used three types of calendars:

- **The ritual calendar**: This calendar lasted for 260 days and was used for the purpose of tracking rituals and determining which days were lucky or unlucky for particular events.
- **The solar calendar**: This calendar lasted for 365 days. It was arranged into 18 months, each of which had 20 days. The Aztecs used this calendar for agricultural purposes, and each 20-day period marked the beginning of a new festival. Five additional unnamed days occurred at the end of each year, called the 'hollow days', which were considered to be unlucky.
- **The 52-year calendar**: This was a combination of the ritual and solar calendars. Every 52 years, the solar calendar ended at the same time as the ritual calendar. This marked the beginning of a new era, celebrated with a 'new fire ceremony'. During the new fire ceremony, the Aztecs put out all fires and threw away the hearth stones in order to purify themselves. They then started a new fire on the chest of a captive and cut out his heart and placed it in the fire. Torches were lit from this fire and taken all over the city to celebrate the return of the Sun and the start of a new era.



Source 1: This illustration shows a priest performing a human sacrifice and offering the heart to the war god Huitzilopochtli. This source was created by Spanish priests, who employed Aztec illustrators to copy images from earlier Aztec manuscripts, and then wrote detailed descriptions of the rituals. [*Codex Magliabechiano* (c. 1540 CE)]

Human sacrifice

In many Aztec myths and stories, the gods sacrificed themselves to create the Aztec world and make it a better place. In one myth, the gods spilt their blood to create people; in another myth, they threw themselves into a large fire to create the Sun. These stories were the basis of the rituals the Aztecs performed to appease their gods. The most common ritual that was used to demonstrate gratitude to the gods was human sacrifice.

Human sacrifice usually took place at the top of Templo Mayor, the largest temple in Tenochtitlan. The individual to be sacrificed would be held on a stone tablet by four priests. A fifth priest would slice the person's abdomen with a ceremonial knife. The cut was made in the abdomen but often went through the diaphragm. The fifth priest would then grab the heart and pull it out, still beating. The heart would be placed in a special bowl and the body thrown down the temple's stairs.

It is thought that the Aztecs sacrificed between 10 000 and 50 000 people each year to please their gods. While rebellious slaves and children were sometimes sacrificed, the majority of victims were enemy soldiers captured in battle.

> Another story tells how Quetzalcoatl created humans ... First, he stole corn from the ants to provide food for the new race of beings. Then, to create this race, he journeyed to the underworld. Against the wishes of the underworld ruler, Mictlantecuhtli, Quetzalcoatl took the bones of the dead and returned to the upper world. He then pierced himself and used his blood to turn the bones into humans.

Source 2: This text was written by a modern-day historian, Scott Littleton. [C. Scott Littleton (ed.) (2005 CE), *Gods, Goddesses and Mythology*]

Source 3: Some of the Aztec gods and their roles

God	Meaning of god's name	Role(s) or theme(s)
Ometeotl	Two-god	Original creator of the gods
Tezcatlipoca	Smoking mirror	Omnipotent power; patron of kings
Xiuhtecuhtli	Turquoise lord	God of fire
Centeotl	Maize god	God of maize (corn)
Ometochtli	Two rabbits	God of fertility
Teteoinnan	Mother of gods	God of Earth; patron of doctors
Xipe Totec	Our lord with the flayed skin	God of agriculture; patron of goldsmiths
Huitzilopochtli	Hummingbird of the south	God of war and sacrifice; patron of the Mexica
Mixcoatl	Cloud-serpent	God of war, sacrifice and hunting
Quetzalcoatl	Quetzal-feathered serpent	Creator god; patron of priests

Learning ladder 18.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 3: Identify the patron gods of the Aztecs.
2. Source 3: Describe the role of two of the gods.
3. Explain the difference between the ritual and solar calendars.
4. Explain why the new fire ceremony was important.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 1: Using the source and your knowledge, describe how the Aztecs sacrificed people.
3. Source 2: How does this source explain the gods' sacrifices for the Aztec people?
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the Aztecs sacrificed people to their gods.
5. Source 1: Evaluate the usefulness of this source for a historian studying Aztec religion.

Source analysis, page 475

HOW TO

Why were Aztec warriors honoured?

The successful Aztec warrior was highly respected in society. This prestige was bestowed on warriors who showed bravery in battle and, most of all, captured many enemy soldiers.

The role of warfare

While the Aztec economy depended on trade, tribute and agriculture, the real business of the empire was war. Through war, the Aztec Empire gained tribute from conquered enemies. In addition, war brought a steady supply of captives. Taking an enemy soldier captive was seen as more valuable than killing an enemy, because these captives could be used for sacrifice in their religious ceremonies. From the perspective of the Aztecs, sacrifice was necessary to please the gods and ensure the survival of their society. For this reason, the Aztec king rewarded successful warriors with great honours, including the right to wear certain garments in distinctive colours and the opportunity for commoners to become nobles.

Source 1: Ranks and rewards for Aztec warriors

Rank	Number of enemy captives	Reward
Tlamani	1	Received an undecorated obsidian-edged club and shield, two distinctive capes and a bright red loincloth
Cuextecatl	2	Received a black-and-red suit called a *tlahuiztli,* sandals and a conical hat
Papalotl	3	Received a butterfly banner to wear on his back, conferring special honour
Cuauhocelotl	4 or more	Received the high rank of eagle or jaguar warrior and a special battle costume with feathers (eagle) or jaguar pelts (jaguar); Eagle and jaguar warriors carried a *macuahuitl,* which was a wooden club with sharp obsidian blades attached to its edges

Source 2: Eagle and jaguar warriors. [From Fr. Bernadino de Sahagun (1590 CE), *General History of the Things of New Spain*]

Becoming a famous warrior

Every commoner and noble Aztec boy was expected to undertake military training. Boys of the commoner class attended school, where they learned how to use different weapons, while boys of the noble class were taught to become military leaders. Boys often fought each other in exercises that were intended to improve their fighting skills. Older teenagers accompanied the army into battle, so that they could learn about warfare firsthand. When boys were 20 years old, they joined the Aztec army.

Source 3: Three ranks in the Aztec army. [*Codex Mendoza* (c. 1541 CE)]

To move up in rank, an Aztec warrior needed to display bravery on the battlefield and capture enemy soldiers. With each rank came special clothing and weapons, which conveyed high honour. Warrior clothing, costumes and weaponry were instantly recognisable in Aztec society.

Eagle and jaguar warriors

Eagle and jaguar warriors were the two main military societies open to commoners. In addition to their special weapons and clothing, warriors who attained the eagle or jaguar rank were also awarded the status of noble along with certain privileges: they were given land, could drink alcohol (pulque), wear expensive jewellery and were invited to dine at the palace. While these two ranks were equal, the eagle knights worshipped Huitzilopochtli, the war god, and the Jaguars worshipped Tezcatlipocha, the god of obsidian and conflict.

The Otomies and the Shorn Ones

The two highest military societies were the Otomies and the Shorn Ones. They were only open to nobles. The Otomies' name meant 'fierce tribe of fighters'. A noble had to capture six enemy warriors to enter the Otomies. He was then able to carry a shield decorated with four crescents and wear his hair bound with a red ribbon. He was also granted a house in the king's palace.

The Shorn Ones was the most prestigious rank. Shorn Ones had to perform many brave deeds. They shaved their heads, except for a long braid of hair on the left side, and wore a yellow *tlahuiztli* suit. These two ranks were the shock troops of the empire and went first into battle.

Learning ladder 18.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 2: Identify the types of Aztec warriors shown in this source.
2. Sources 1 and 3: Using Source 1, identify and describe each figure shown in Source 3.
3. Explain the role of the Otomies and the Shorn Ones in the Aztec army.
4. Explain why capturing enemies was considered more valuable than killing them.
5. Evaluate the importance of the Aztec army to the society.

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify how a warrior changed his rank in the Aztec army.
2. Source 1: Describe how an ordinary warrior's life changed when he attained the Tlamani rank.
3. Explain how a commoner could change his social class through military service.
4. Explain why the Otomie and Shorn Ones societies were restricted to the nobles.
5. Evaluate the practice of admitting commoners to the eagle and jaguar societies.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

18.7

How did the Spanish find the Americas?

During the 15th century CE, Portuguese and Spanish seafarers went in search of new trade routes to Asia.

Accidental finding of the Americas

Spices from South-East Asia – such as pepper, cinnamon and nutmeg – were highly prized in Europe, North Africa and the Middle East. Merchants who braved the long sea voyages to travel to Asia and purchase the spices became very wealthy.

During the 14th century CE, most of the spice trade routes were controlled by Muslim, Genoese or Venetian merchants. The leaders of Spain and Portugal wanted to find new trade routes across the Atlantic Ocean to the Indies (southern Asia), which would allow them to have a stake in the lucrative spice trade.

To this end, King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain financed the Italian explorer Christopher Columbus to find a new route to the Indies. In 1492 CE, Columbus and his fleet arrived in the Caribbean Islands off the coast of America. During four separate trips between 1492 and 1504 CE, Columbus explored various Caribbean Islands.

Columbus believed that he had landed in Asia, but in 1501 Italian seafarer Amerigo Vespucci travelled along the coast of South America and noted that it was a separate continent, which he called 'the New World'. In 1507 CE, a mapmaker labelled the new continent 'America' in Amerigo Vespucci's honour.

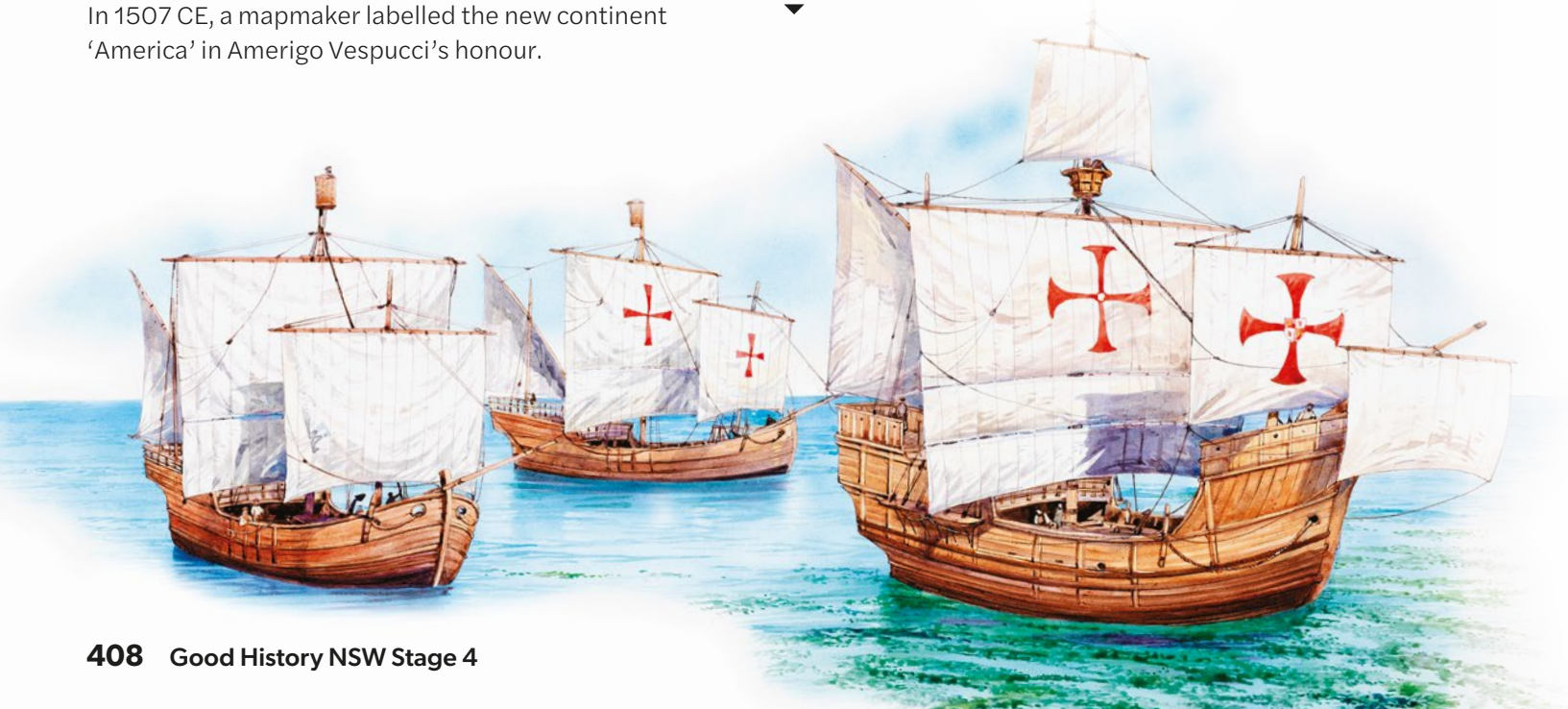
Magellan's voyage

The Spanish monarchs also funded the expedition of a Portuguese seafarer named Ferdinand Magellan. He navigated a route from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean, circumnavigating the globe between 1519 and 1522 CE. This feat paved the way to further expeditions across the Pacific and Indian Oceans, which led to the exploration of Australia, New Zealand and Antarctica.

Conquistadors

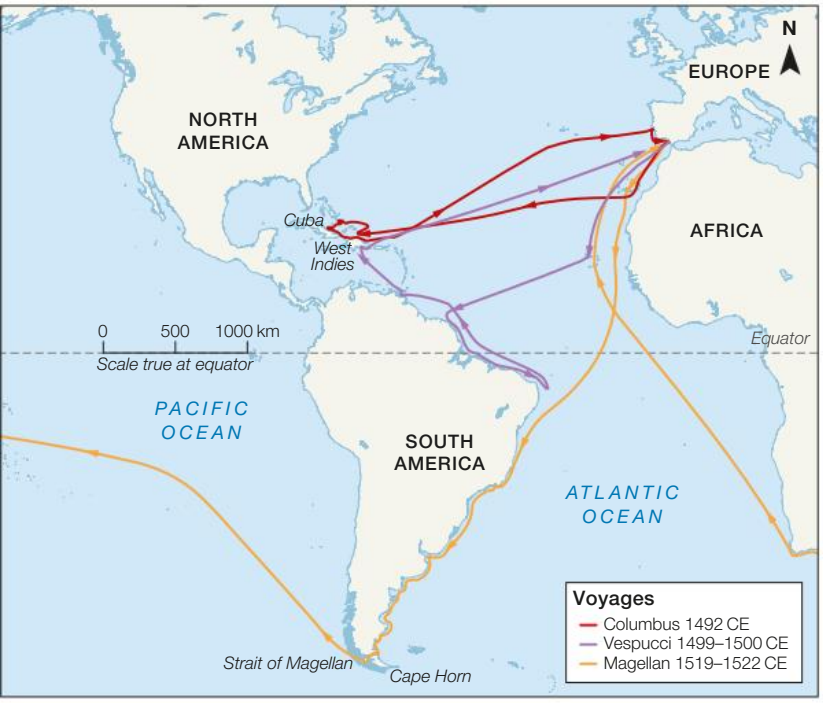
The voyages of Columbus and Magellan were followed by the establishment of the Spanish Empire. To ensure they had control over the resources of the new world, the rulers of Spain appointed ***conquistadors*** to help set up the overseas empire. Many young men willingly became conquistadors to advance themselves or to escape poverty. The conquistador who became infamous to the Aztecs was Hernán Cortes. Born in 1485 CE, Cortés set out to explore the new world and make his fortune when he was 19 years old.

Source 1: Christopher Columbus's ships, named the *Niña, Pinta* and *Santa Maria,* set sail from the Spanish port of Palos in 1492 CE in search of a trade passage to the Indies (southern Asia).



Source 2: Christopher Columbus sets foot on what he thought, based on his readings of Marco Polo, was the island of Cipango (Japan). In fact, it was Cuba, in the Caribbean.

The Americas, Africa and west Europe



Source 3: Voyages to find new trade routes

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Learning ladder 18.7

Background and origins

1. Source 2: Where did Christopher Columbus think he had landed?
2. Source 3: Describe the voyages shown in this source.
3. Explain how Spain and Portugal secured their new territories.
4. Explain why Spain and Portugal funded sea expeditions across the Atlantic Ocean.

Significance

1. Source 2: Identify the significant event in this source.
2. Describe the significance of Amerigo Vespucci.
3. Explain the significance of the spice trade in the 15th century CE.
4. Source 3: Explain why each of the voyages shown in this source are historically significant.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

18.8

Key individual

Who was Malinche?

Without Malinche, the Spanish would never have found the Aztec kingdom. Was she a traitor? Or a hero protecting the Tlaxcalan people?

The Spanish meet Malinche

In 1519 CE, the conquistador Hernán Cortés landed at the port of Veracruz with 11 ships and 450 soldiers. He set off to find the kingdom of the Aztecs, believed to be full of gold and riches.

Early in Cortés's expedition, he was attacked by the Maya at Potonchan. Cortés was able to subdue the Mayan attack and, as a peace offering, the Maya presented Cortés with food, gold and 20 slaves. One of these slaves was a woman known as Malinche. Malinche was a noblewoman from Olutla who spoke the Aztecs' Nahuatl language.

Malinche's role as a translator

Malinche's father had died when she was 10 years old and she had been captured and sold into slavery. While in captivity, she had learned to speak the Chontal Mayan and Yucatec Mayan languages of her slave owners.

After Malinche was given to Cortés, the Spanish expedition was met by a messenger of the Aztec king, Moctezuma II. The messenger spoke Nahuatl, which the Spanish could not understand. The only person who spoke a Mesoamerican language in Cortés's group was a Catholic missionary priest named Jeronimo de Aguilar, but he spoke Yucatec Mayan. Cortés realised that Malinche could understand Moctezuma's messenger. She could translate the Nahuatl message into Yucatec Mayan for Aguilar, who could then translate it into Spanish for Cortés. The ability of the Spaniards to communicate with the Mesoamericans was immensely valuable to Cortés's expedition.

Alliances with Aztec enemies

Thanks to Malinche, Cortés was able to form an alliance with the Nahautl-speaking Totonacas people. The Totonacas were a subject people of the Aztecs and wanted to free themselves from Aztec rule. They recognised Malinche as a noblewoman and saw her as an effective leader who could help them. Following a meeting in the city of Cempoala, the Totonacus agreed to lead the Spanish inland to Tenochtitlan and to provide Cortés with 1300 warriors. This alliance with the Totonacas was of great benefit to the Spanish as it gave them an ally in the region who was familiar with the mountainous terrain and with the Aztecs.

The Totonacas soon guided the Spanish towards the lands of the Tlaxcala. When Cortés arrived at Tlaxcala, he and his men were attacked by a Tlaxcalan force of 30 000 warriors. Despite the Spanish having swords, guns, horses and cannons, it took the Spanish a considerable time to win the battle. Once the Tlaxcalans were defeated, they agreed to negotiate an alliance through Malinche with the Spanish. The Tlaxcalans trusted Malinche's advice and provided the Spanish with 6000 warriors.

Source 1: Malinche translating negotiations between the Tlaxcalans and Cortés. [From a mural at the Palacio de Gobierno, Tlaxcala, Mexico by Desiderio Hernandez Xochitiotzin, 1995 CE]

Cortés's expedition in Mexico, 1519–1521 CE

▲ **Source 2:** Cortés and his small army arrived on the Mexican coast in February 1519 CE. By November 1519 CE, Cortés had fought his way inland to the Aztec capital, Tenochtitlan.

▲ **Source 3:** Spanish and Tlaxcalan forces attack enemy Cholulan forces on their way to Tenochtitlan. Malinche is shown on the far right directing the attack, while Cortés is shown on his horse. [From the *Lienzo de Tlaxcala*, a Tlaxcalan manuscript created in c. 1550 CE]

Different views of Malinche

Accounts written after Mexico gained its independence from Spain in 1821 CE argued that Malinche's cooperation with the Spanish made her a traitor. Indeed, in Mexico today, being called a 'malinchista' is an insult meaning 'traitor'. On the other hand, as a woman who had been given to the Spanish as a slave, Malinche's cooperation may be seen as her attempt to survive in a hostile world. Tlaxcalan accounts, meanwhile, paint Malinche as a hero, maintaining that her leadership and negotiating skills saved them from the Aztecs.

Learning ladder 18.8

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the role of Malinche shown in this source.
2. Source 2: Describe the route of the Spanish expedition to Tenochtitlan.
3. Explain how Malinche enabled the Spanish to communicate with the Mesoamerican peoples.
4. Explain why the alliances with Aztec enemies enabled Cortés to proceed inland.
5. Evaluate the importance of Malinche to the Spanish expedition.

Contestability

1. Identify the historical debate about Malinche.
2. Source 3: Describe how Malinche is depicted in this source.
3. Source 3: Explain why Malinche has been depicted this way.
4. Sources 1, 2 and 3: Using these sources and your knowledge, compare the arguments that Malinche was:
   - **a** a traitor to the Indigenous peoples of Mesoamerica
   - **b** a victim of circumstances beyond her control
   - **c** a powerful figure with her own agenda.
5. Evaluate the arguments in Question 4.

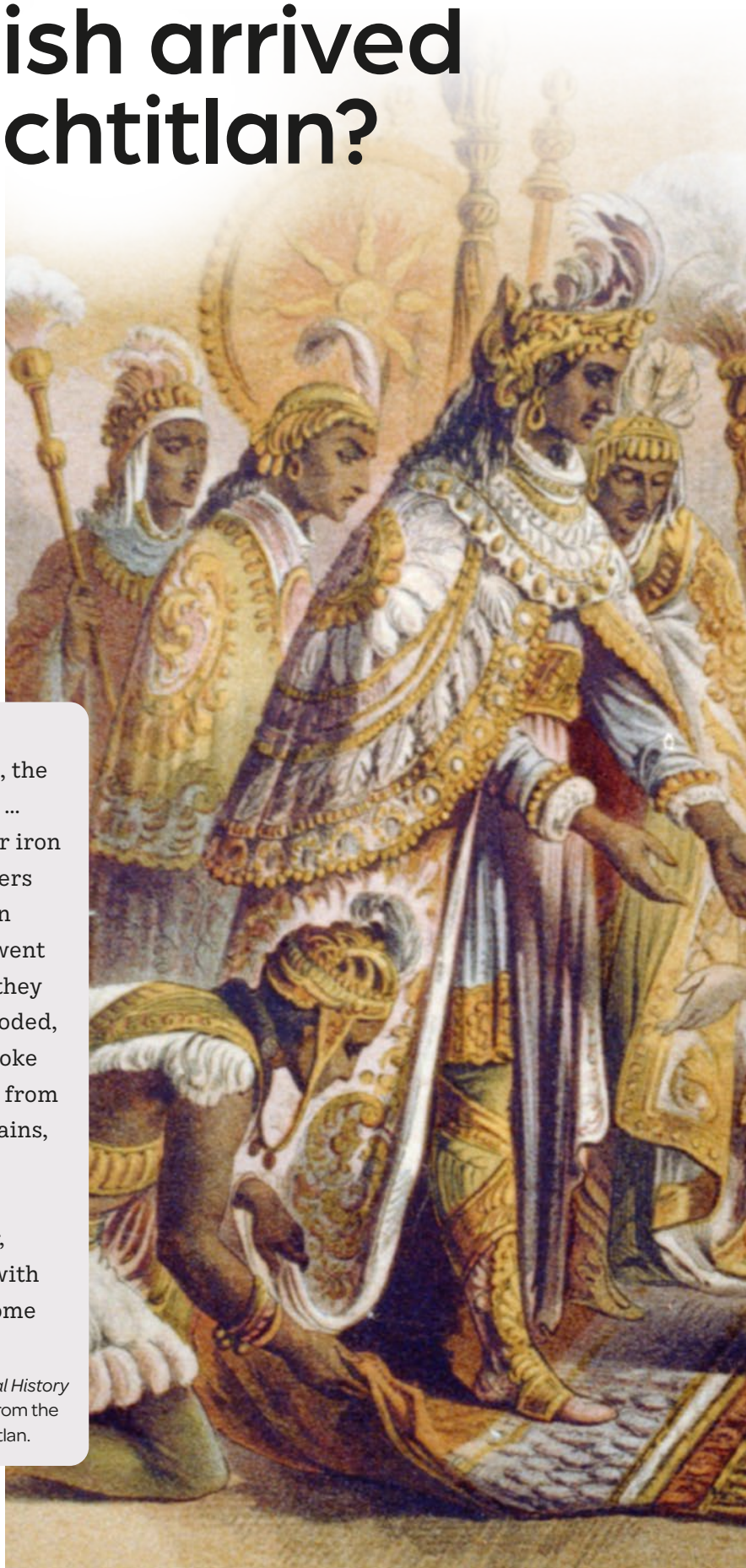
HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

18.9

What happened when the Spanish arrived in Tenochtitlan?

The arrival of the Spanish in the Aztec city of Tenochtitlan led to further mistrust on both sides.



The first meeting

On 8 November 1519 CE, the Spanish entered the Basin of Mexico and saw the Aztec's capital city of Tenochtitlan. As Hernán Cortés arrived at the great causeway that led to the city, he was greeted by a long ceremonial welcome, as each Aztec nobleman saluted him and bowed. While thousands of Aztec commoners gathered to watch from the causeway, the rooftops and their canoes, Malinche patiently translated the greetings of the noblemen.

Four horsemen came ahead going first ...
By himself came marching ahead, all alone, the one who bore the standard on his shoulder ...
Following him came those with iron swords. Their iron swords came bare and gleaming. On their shoulders they bore their shields, of wood or leather ... [then came] those with **harquebuses** ... And when they went into the great palace, the residence of the ruler, they repeatedly shot off their harquebuses. They exploded, sputtered, discharged, thundered, disgorged. Smoke spread, it grew dark with smoke ... Then all those from the various states on the other side of the mountains, the Tlaxcalans, the people of Tliliuhquitepec, of Huexotzinco, came following behind. They came outfitted for war with their cotton upper armour, shields, and bows, their quivers full and packed with feathered arrows, some barbed, some blunted, some with **obsidian** points.

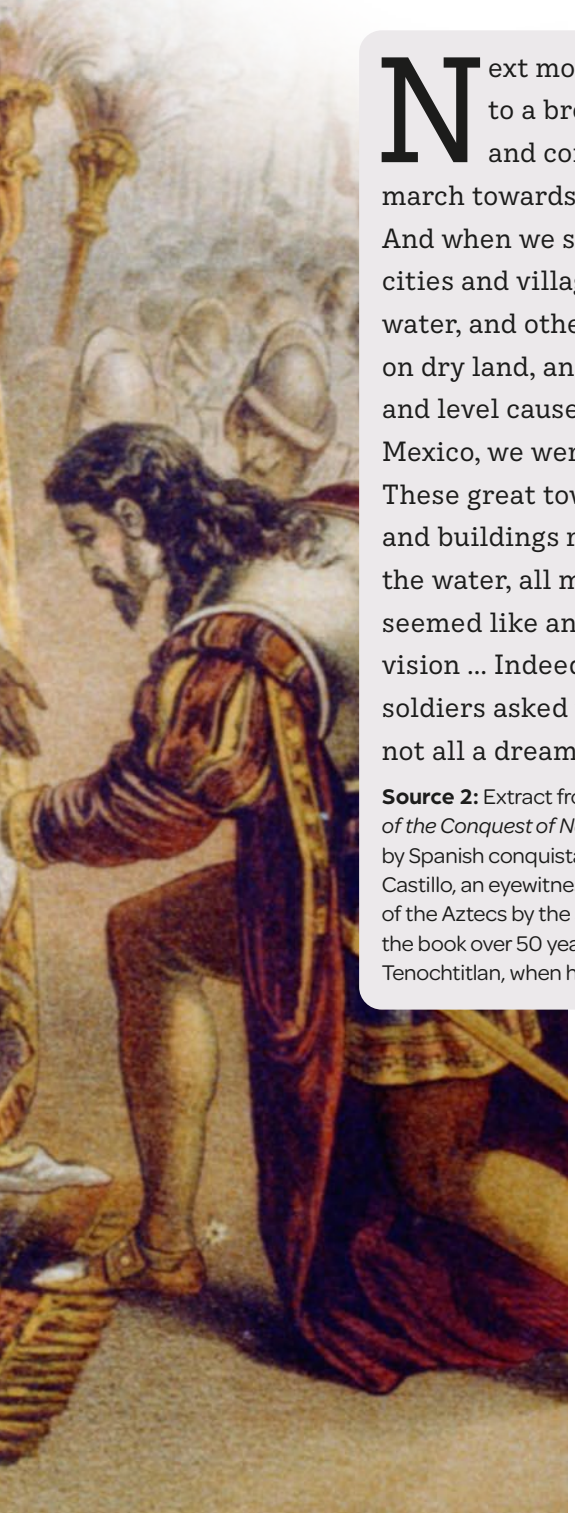
Source 1: Extract from Fr Bernadino de Sahagun (1590 CE), *General History of the Things of New Spain* (1590 CE). Fr Bernadino wrote this text from the perspective of the Aztecs, almost 70 years after the fall of Tenochtitlan.

Then, the Aztec king, Moctezuma II, appeared, carried on a grand litter decorated with green feathers, gold and jewels. He and Cortés honoured each other in their first meeting, and Moctezuma II permitted Cortés and his group to enter the city. While Moctezuma II gave the Spanish gold as a welcoming gift and allowed them into the city, he was actually hoping to learn more about their weapons and military tactics, so that he could crush them later.

Cortés was pleased with his welcome, but he did not trust the Aztecs. After learning that several Spaniards on the coast had been killed by Aztecs, he decided to imprison Moctezuma II and other high-ranking Aztec officials in the palace. Cortés believed he could use Moctezuma II to control the Aztec people.

> Next morning we came to a broad causeway and continued our march towards Tenochtitlan. And when we saw all those cities and villages built in the water, and other great towns on dry land, and that straight and level causeway leading to Mexico, we were astounded. These great towns and temples and buildings rising from the water, all made of stone seemed like an enchanted vision ... Indeed, some of our soldiers asked whether it was not all a dream.

Source 2: Extract from *The True History of the Conquest of New Spain* (1576 CE) by Spanish conquistador Bernal Diaz del Castillo, an eyewitness to the conquest of the Aztecs by the Spaniards. He wrote the book over 50 years after the fall of Tenochtitlan, when he was 84 years old.



Source 3: Hernán Cortés kneels before Moctezuma II, leader of the Aztecs in 1519 CE. [Unknown artist (1878 CE), *Reception of Hernando Cortez by the Emporer Montezuma*]

The arrival of the Spanish army

Back in Spain, Cortés's conduct in the Americas caused outcry. This outcry was not fuelled by moral outrage at Cortés's acts of violence against the peoples of Mesoamerica. Rather, the governor of Spanish Cuba, Diego Velázquez, was outraged that Cortés had taken control of Mexico without his authority. In April 1520 CE, Velázquez convinced King Charles V of Spain to send a Spanish army to Veracruz to arrest Cortés and return him to Spain.

When Cortés heard of this, he left his trusted captain, Pedro de Alvarado, and 100 soldiers in charge of Moctezuma II. He set off back to Veracruz with the rest of the army. Cortés not only managed to defeat the Spanish army but also won the Spanish soldiers over to his side by telling them stories of gold and riches to be found in Tenochtitlan. He then began his return to Tenochtitlan.

Learning ladder 18.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 3: Identify the event depicted in this source.
2. Describe how Moctezuma II welcomed Cortés.
3. Explain how Cortés gained control of the Aztec people.
4. Explain why the Spanish army was sent to Veracruz.

Perspectives

1. Sources 1 and 2: Identify the perspective of each of these sources.
2. Sources 1 and 2: Describe each author's perspective of the Spanish entry into Tenochtitlan.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Compare these two sources. How are they different?
4. Sources 1 and 2: Explain why the perspectives of these two sources are different.
5. Sources 1 and 2: How is the context of each of these sources significant?

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

How did Moctezuma die?

The death of the Aztec king Moctezuma II remains a mystery, even with three different eyewitness accounts of his death.

The massacre at the temple

While Hernán Cortés was in Veracruz dealing with the army sent to arrest him, his deputy, Pedro de Alvarado, was having serious problems in Tenochtitlan.

Moctezuma II had given permission for the annual religious festival of Toxcatl in honour of their god Tezcatlipoca. The purpose of the festival was to ask for rains, which would water the Aztec crops for another year. The festival involved dancing and human sacrifices. At the height of celebration, the bravest warriors performed a ritual known as the 'dance of the serpent', wearing ceremonial battle dress.

Alvarado, however, was convinced that the Aztec warriors were planning to attack the Spanish, so he ordered the Spanish to strike first. The Spanish consequently massacred the Aztec worshippers at the festival. This slaughter outraged the Aztecs, who began to attack the Spanish at the palace. Moctezuma II called off the attacks and his Aztec soldiers obeyed. By this time, Cortés had returned from Veracruz with new Spanish troops, and made his way into the palace.

The death of Moctezuma II

Cortés had not understood the nature of Aztec kingship. Unlike European kings, who held their position by divine right, Aztec kings were elected to their position by the nobles. A *tlatoani* could be easily replaced by another noble if he failed to rule with strength. At any sign of weakness, Aztec nobles could rebel against his kingship. While Cortés had believed that capturing Moctezuma would ensure the Spanish could control the Aztecs, Moctezuma's capture and willingness to do what Cortés told him resulted in his people withdrawing their support for his rule.

On Cortés's orders, Moctezuma had stood on the battlements and called on the Aztecs to stop fighting. Much uncertainty exists among historians about what happened next, with conflicting versions given by different eyewitnesses, Spanish and Aztec:

- *The True History of the Conquest of New Spain* (1576 CE), written by Spanish conquistador Bernal Diaz del Castillo, claimed that the Aztecs were angry that Moctezuma II had failed to protect them from the Spanish. They had attacked him, and he had been hit by an arrow and three stones from a sling, which had led to his death shortly afterwards.
- Cortés, in his Second Letter to Charles V, reported that Moctezuma had been struck on the head with a stone, which led to his death three days later.

Source 1: On 22 May 1520 the celebration of the Feast of Toxcatl was taking place at the Templo Mayor. The conquistadors attacked the unarmed Aztecs, killing all those celebrating in the temple. [Emanuel Leutze (1849 CE), *The Conquest of the Teocalli Temple by Cortés and his Troops*]

> I had him taken to the parapet on the top of the fort, intending to speak to the people who were fighting there, one of his own subjects struck him on the head with a stone, with such force that within three days he died. I then had him taken out, dead as he was, by two of the Indian prisoners, who bore him away to his people; but I do not know what they did with him ...

Source 2: Hernán Cortés (1520), 'Second Letter to Charles V'

- The main Aztec source, *General History of the Things of New Spain* (1590 CE) by Fr Bernadino de Sahagún, claimed that the Aztecs had 'started giving war cries and shooting arrows and darts' at Moctezuma, but that the Spanish soldiers had covered him with their shields and he was not harmed. Fighting between the Aztecs and the Spanish had resumed and four days later, the Spanish had strangled Moctezuma and thrown his body into the lake.

Cortés flees Tenochtitlan

Cortés was determined to continue fighting the Aztecs, but his troops met with fierce Aztec resistance, leading to the death of nearly 100 Spanish soldiers and several thousand Mesoamerican troops. Cortés had underestimated the fighting skills of the Aztecs. On 30 June 1520 CE, he decided to withdraw his forces back to Tlaxcala. The flight from Tenochtitlan was a crushing setback for Cortés and was known among the Spanish as 'La Noche Triste' (The Night of Sorrows.)

> Several of our men had covered Moctezuma with their shields while he was addressing the enemy [Aztecs] ... [but] before it could be prevented he was struck by an arrow, and three stones from a sling, by which he was wounded in the arm, leg, and in his head; so that the unhappy monarch was forced to be carried back to his apartment ... we soon heard that he had died. Upon this we handed over the corpse of Moctezuma to six other Mexican chiefs ... All these men had been present when the monarch died, and they informed Cuitlahuatzin faithfully of every circumstance connected with it; how the Mexicans themselves had caused his death by the shot of an arrow and three stones from a sling.

Source 3: Bernal Diaz del Castillo (1576 CE), *The True History of the Conquest of New Spain*

Learning ladder 18.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the event shown in this source.
2. Describe what happened at the festival of Toxcatl.
3. Explain the difference between European kingship and Aztec kingship.
4. Explain why the Spanish attacked the Aztecs at the festival of Toxcatl.
5. Evaluate the role of Cortés following the massacre at the festival of Toxcatl.

Contestability

1. Identify the three different versions of Moctezuma II's death.
2. Describe what happened to Moctezuma II's body, according to the Aztecs.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Compare the similarities and differences between these two sources.
4. What evidence would a historian need to prove any of the different?
5. Sources 2 and 3: Using these sources and your knowledge, suggest reasons why there are three different eyewitness accounts of the same event.

HOW TO Contestability, page 488

18.11

How did Tenochtitlan fall?

The Aztecs' celebrated their defeat of the Spanish and returned to their lives. Cortés, however, was not easily deterred and decided to renew his attack.

Cortés makes plans

Hernán Cortés made it back to Tlaxcala and began making new plans for the conquest of Tenochtitlan. He realised that control of the lake was essential and ordered his men to build 13 small ships (brigantines). He also decided that he needed more troops to defeat the Aztec forces. Cortés sent his forces to wage war on the armies of small Aztec tributary states, who subsequently agreed to form an alliance with the Spanish. He made alliances with the larger Mesoamerican states, promising them power, territory and wealth if they helped him defeat the Aztecs.

Smallpox

Meanwhile, the Aztecs, believing that the Spanish were gone for good, returned to their lives, electing a new king, Cuitláhuac. However, by late October 1520 CE, a new problem had emerged: **smallpox**. Smallpox is a disease that can cause a terrible rash, blindness and death. While smallpox was relatively common in Europe, Asia and the Middle East, it was unknown in the Americas and the Aztecs had no immunity to it. An infected member of the Spanish forces had likely brought the disease to Tenochtitlan in June. By early December, smallpox had killed almost 50 per cent of the Aztec population, including the new king Cuitláhuac, and left others too weak to tend and harvest the crops.

The siege of Tenochtitlan

On 26 May 1521 CE, the Spanish were ready to resume their attack on Tenochtitlan. Cortés set out with 700 Spanish soldiers and 70 000 Mesoamerican allies, carrying their brigantines over the mountains from Tlaxcala. They set their brigantines on Lake Texcoco and defeated the Aztec canoes. They also took command of the causeways and blocked supplies of food and fresh water from going into the city. Both sides experienced large numbers of casualties during the siege, but it was not long before the Aztecs were running out of food and had no fresh water.

The siege lasted until 13 August 1521 CE, when the Aztecs surrendered. The days of the Aztec Empire and the Aztec way of life were over.

Source 1: Unknown artist (c.1650), *The Conquest of Tenochtitlan*, from the book *The Conquistadors* by Hammond Innes]

Source 2: Image of the Aztecs suffering from smallpox. [From Fr Bernadino de Sahagún (1590 CE), *General History of the Things of New Spain*]

Learning ladder 18.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the event shown in this source.
2. Describe Cortés's new plans to defeat the Aztecs.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the impact of smallpox on the Aztecs.
4. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Cortés defeated the Aztecs.
5. Evaluate the reasons for Cortés's success over the Aztec Empire.

Chronology

1. Identify the date on which Tenochtitlan fell.
2. Put the following events in order:
   - October 1520: The Aztecs contract smallpox
   - 13 August 1521: The fall of Tenochtitlan
   - 29 June 1520: The death of Moctezuma
   - 30 June 1520: The Night of Sorrows
   - 8 November 1519: Arrival of Cortés in Tenochtitlan
   - 22 May 1520: Massacre at the Festival of Toxcatl
   - 26 May 1521: The Spanish resume their attack on Tenochtitlan.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Using the timeline you have created, explain how the events demonstrate the concept of cause and effect.

HOW TO Chronology, page 472

18.12

What happened to the Aztecs?

Although the Aztecs had surrendered to the Spanish in the siege of Tenochtitlan in 1521 CE, the real struggle was yet to come.

Following the conquest of Tenochtitlan, the Aztec Empire was proclaimed to be part of 'New Spain' by Charles V in 1522 CE. Hernán Cortés, back in favour with the Spanish king, was named governor and began to build a new city on top of Tenochtitlan, which became Mexico City. The values, traditions and culture of the Aztecs had no place in the new society of the Spanish. The Spanish not only replaced the laws that governed the people, but also took away the freedom of the people and wiped out the Aztec religion.

Dispossession of land

In the aftermath of the Spanish conquest, the Aztecs' land was taken from them and distributed to Spanish settlers. This was done through a system known as the ***encomienda*** system. Under the encomienda system, a Spanish settler was granted land and an Indigenous slave workforce that he could use for labour. In return, the Spanish settlers were supposed to provide the Aztecs with instruction in the Christian religion and protection.

Slavery

Slavery was not only taking place through the encomienda system but was also occurring in the cities of New Spain. Indigenous people were rounded up to work in mines, build roads and rebuild cities. Slaves were often subjected to dreadful conditions and, as a result, many died. Thousands of Indigenous people all over New Spain were enslaved by the Spanish and put to work.

Population

The smallpox virus was only the first of many diseases that swept through New Spain, having a devastating impact on the Aztec people. The Indigenous peoples of the Americas did not have a resistance to European diseases. Historians believe that the population around Tenochtitlan in the Valley of Mexico was reduced from 1.6 million to 900 000 in 1521 CE as a result of smallpox alone. By 1600 CE, more than 15 European disease epidemics had swept throughout the Americas, killing an estimated 50 million people.

Religion

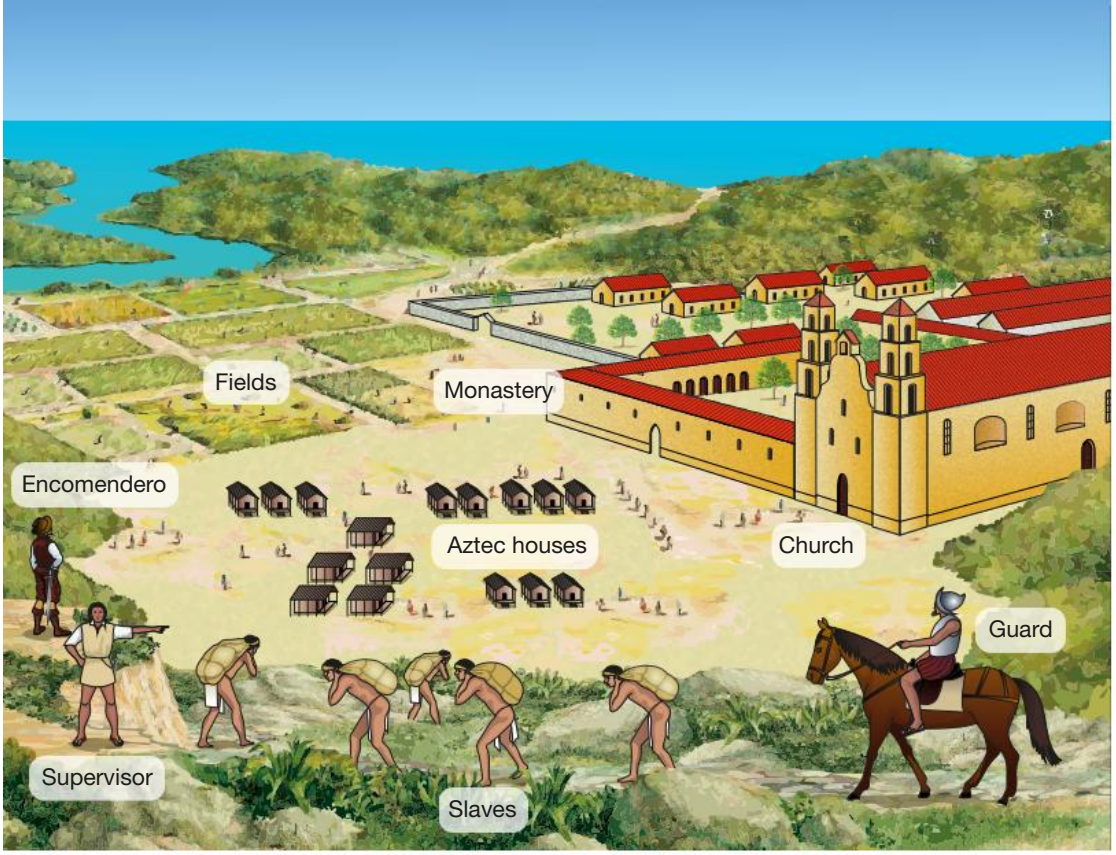
The Spanish abolished human sacrifice, smashed the statues of the Aztec gods and destroyed the temples, including the Templo Mayor. Christian churches were built in their place. However, it was the arrival of Franciscan monks in 1524 CE that accelerated the process of Christianisation. The monks developed a form of Christianity that made use of Aztec festivals, songs, dances and stories. For example, the Christian festival of the Day of the Dead, still celebrated in Mexico today, is based on an older Aztec festival. When an Aztec peasant reported that he had witnessed several visions of the Virgin Mary in 1531 CE, the Aztecs began to worship the Virgin Mary as Our Lady of Guadalupe, along with other Christian saints, in the same way that they had worshipped their own gods.

Further conquests

The Tlaxcalan alliance with the Spanish brought them great privileges after the conquest. Unlike other Indigenous Mesoamericans, they were allowed to carry guns, ride horses, rule their lands and hold noble titles. They remained loyal to Spain for the coming centuries, even during the Mexican War of Independence (1810–1821 CE), which finally won Mexico independence from Spanish rule. The Tlaxcalans also helped the Spanish defeat the peoples of Guatemala and the nomadic tribes of northern Mexico.

Long-term effects of colonisation of the Americas

After their conquests in the Americas, the Spaniards sent a fortune back to Spain in the form of vast amounts of gold and silver. The country became very wealthy. In addition, the new foods and crops growth in Mesoamerica, such as maize, beans, potatoes, tobacco and chocolate, were extracted and traded around Europe. This trade in new foods from the Americas, known as the Colombian Exchange, led to greater availability of food in Europe and significantly improved the health of Europeans. European populations doubled, leading some governments to encourage settlers to move to the Americas.



Source 1: A Spanish *encomendero* (owner) and his *encomienda*

Spanish culture also triumphed. Today, Mexico has the second-largest Catholic community in the world, and Spanish remains the recognised national language of Mexico and one of the most widely spoken languages in the world.

> After we took that great and strong city of Tenochtitlan ... it was then proposed that in [the place of] the great temple we should build a church to our patron and guide Señor Santiago [St James] ... and when they opened the foundations in order to strengthen them, they found much gold and silver and jade and pearls and seed pearls and other stones ... and the officers of His Majesty's treasury demanded them, saying that they belonged by right to His Majesty ... they sought information from the Caciques [Chiefs] and Chieftains of Mexico ... and they said that it was true that all the inhabitants of Mexico at that time cast into the foundations those jewels and all the rest of the things ... from this cause those riches were preserved for the building of the holy church of Santiago.

Source 2: This text was written by a Spanish conquistador named Bernal Diaz del Castillo. [Bernal Diaz del Castillo (1576 CE), *The True History of the Conquest of New Spain*]

Learning ladder 18.12

Impact and legacies

1. List four outcomes for the Aztecs following the fall of Tenochtitlan.
2. Source 1: Describe the scene in this source.
3. Source 1: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how the encomienda system worked.
4. Explain why European diseases took such a terrible toll on the Aztecs.
5. Evaluate the impact of the Spanish conquest on the Aztecs.

Continuity and change

1. Identify three new foods available in Spain following the conquest.
2. Describe the changes for the Tlaxcalans following the Spanish conquest.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain how Aztec religion changed after the Spanish conquest.
4. Explain why the practice of Christianity in Mexico demonstrates the concept of continuity and change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

18.13

How have interpretations of the Aztec legacy changed over time?

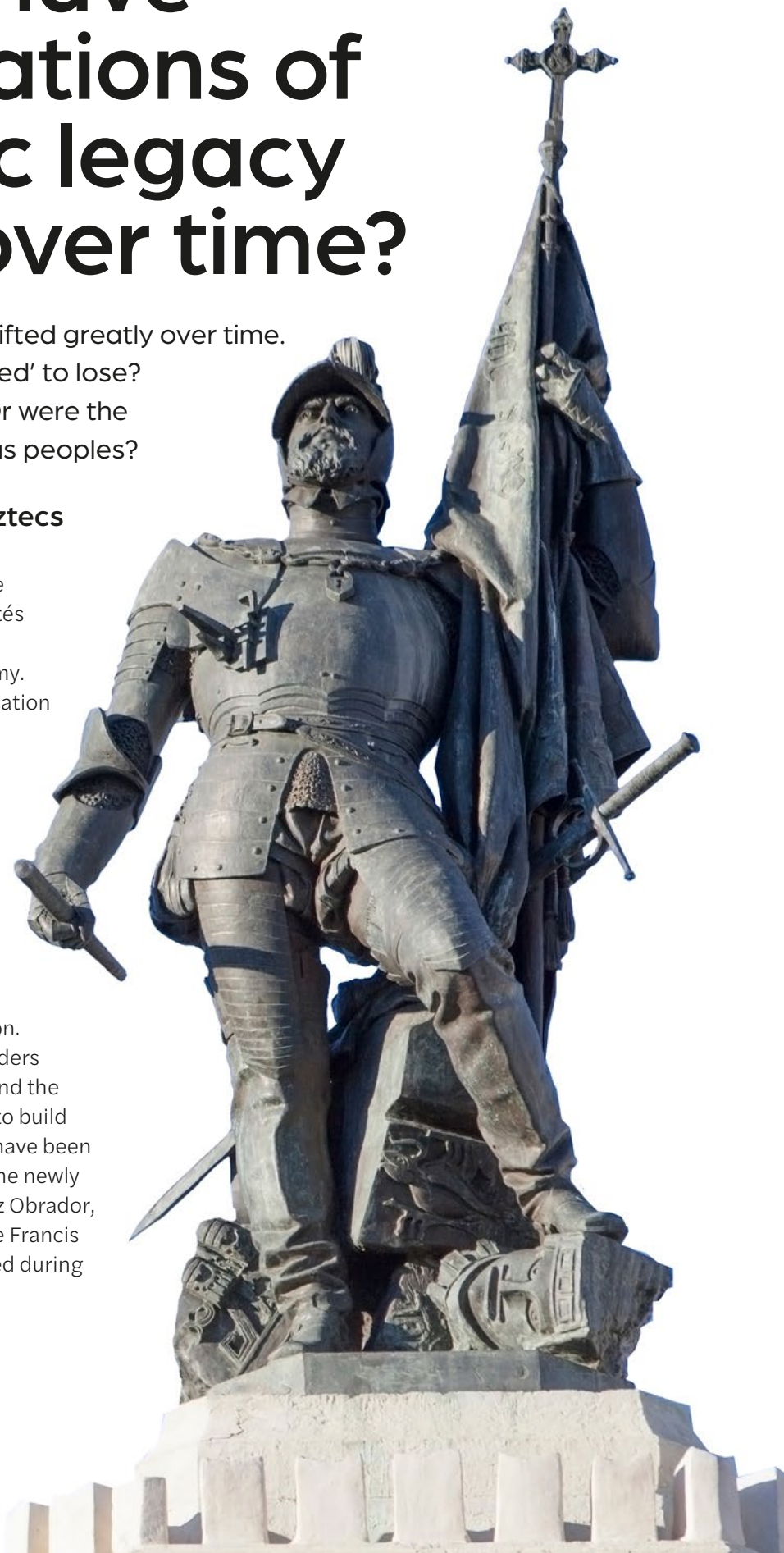
The history of the Aztec legacy has shifted greatly over time. Were the Aztecs savages who 'deserved' to lose? Were the Spanish just too powerful? Or were the Aztecs in fact conquered by Indigenous peoples?

Spain's 'glorious conquest' of the Aztecs

At first, many of the histories written about the fall of Tenochtitlan were written by the Spanish. These histories typically focused on the 'heroism' of Cortés and the brave conquistadors, who were vastly outnumbered and fighting against a 'savage' enemy. These early histories also celebrate the Christianisation of the Aztecs, which involved the Aztecs turning away from their 'primitive' religion based on human sacrifice.

Spain's inglorious destruction of the Aztecs

In 1821 CE, Mexico won a war of independence from Spain and became an independent state. In order to demonstrate their distinctiveness from Spain, Mexicans began to celebrate the Aztec past as the ancient history of their new nation. The Aztecs themselves were now seen as the founders of the nation, while Cortés became an 'antihero' and the destroyer of a great culture. Since then, attempts to build new monuments and statues of Cortés in Mexico have been repeatedly opposed and vandalised. In 2019 CE, the newly elected President of Mexico, Andrés Manuel López Obrador, sent a letter to the Spanish king Felipe VI and Pope Francis demanding an apology for the atrocities committed during the Spanish Conquest 500 years earlier.



Source 1: Statue of Hernán Cortés, (1890 CE). ▶
The statue was erected in Cortés's birthplace of Medellin, Spain, and shows him wearing armour, stepping on an Aztec god while raising the banner of Christianity.

Source 2: Image of the Tenochtitlan battle from the *Lienzo de Tlaxcala* (1550 CE). The centre panel shows Malinche directing the Spanish and Tlaxcalan forces to fight the Aztec warriors. A Spanish brigantine is shown in the panel above and Aztec canoes in the lower panel.

Was there a Spanish conquest at all?

Most accounts of the fall of Tenochtitlan are in agreement that Spanish forces were victorious because of their superior weaponry, technology and tactics. In addition, the impact of smallpox, introduced by the Spanish, allowed Cortés to overcome a 'biologically weaker' enemy. Western civilisation, therefore, had triumphed.

However, a closer reading of Aztec sources reveals a more complex story. What Spanish accounts portrayed as a glorious conquest was, in fact, a more complicated process of alliances and negotiations in which Indigenous groups, such as the Tlaxcalans, and Indigenous people, such as Malinche, played a significant role.

Some historians have argued that the role played by Indigenous groups means that there was no 'Spanish conquest'; instead, the fall of the Aztecs was mainly the result of an Indigenous uprising against their Aztec oppressors. However, although the Indigenous peoples may have played a significant role in the fall of Tenochtitlan, it was the Spanish who reaped the rewards of the conquest.

> I have sent a letter to the Spanish king and another letter to the Pope so that the abuses can be acknowledged and an apology can be made to the Indigenous peoples for the violations of what we now call human rights. There were massacres ... The so-called conquest was done with the sword and the cross. They raised churches on top of temples.

Source 3: Interview with Andrés Manuel López Obrador, BBC, 26 March 2019

Learning ladder 18.13

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the key interpretations of the Aztec legacy.
2. Describe the traditional view of the fall of Tenochtitlan as a 'Spanish conquest'.
3. Source 3: Using the source, explain how the modern state of Mexico views the fall of Tenochtitlan.
4. Source 2: Using the source, explain why some historians argue that the fall of Tenochtitlan was not a Spanish conquest.

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Identify the perspective of Cortés shown in this source.
2. Source 3: Describe the perspective of Andrés Manuel López Obrador.
3. Source 2: Explain the perspective of this source on reasons for the fall of Tenochtitlan.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Explain why the perspectives of the two sources are different.
5. Evaluate the different perspectives on the fall of Tenochtitlan.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the Spanish conquest of the Americas. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of the Spanish conquest of the Americas. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the Spanish conquest of the Americas in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The Aztec gods, page 404
- The Tlaxcalans, page 397
- The conquistadors, page 408
- Aztec warfare, page 406
- Other Mesoamerican and Andean societies, page 394

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Historical context 3 (core)

The era of colonisation

19

WHY DID SOME EUROPEAN STATES EXPLORE AND COLONISE?

428

WHAT WAS THE IMPACT OF COLONISATION ON INDIGENOUS AMERICANS?

436

How can I understand the era of colonisation?

From the beginning of the early modern period, European nations began colonising lands in Asia, Africa and the Americas. For the colonising nations of Europe, colonisation brought many benefits , but for the peoples of the lands they colonised, the arrival of Europeans resulted in violence, trauma and loss.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: French explorer René-Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, claimed the entire Mississippi basin in North America for New France in 1682 CE.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Why did Europeans explore the world in the early modern period?

Due to developments in science and technology, the Europeans who lived in the early modern period could travel much further than their predecessors.

Developments in science and technology

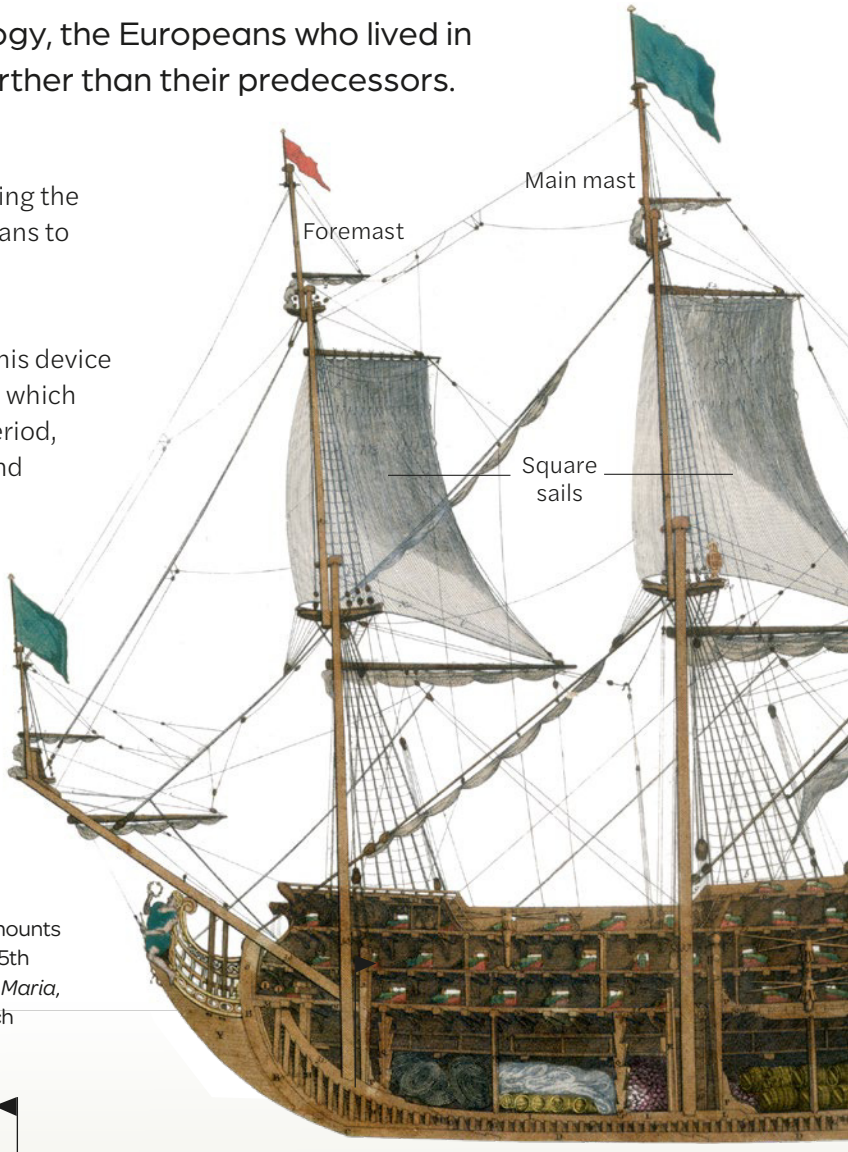
Developments in science and technology that occurred during the medieval period (5th to 15th centuries CE) enabled Europeans to navigate large ships across the vast oceans.

The mariner's astrolabe

One of these developments was the mariner's **astrolabe**. This device was based on the astrolabe invented by the ancient Greeks, which was refined by Muslim scholars throughout the medieval period, and then further developed by European scientists at the end of the 15th century CE. The mariner's astrolabe was used to determine the position of a ship at sea by measuring the position of the Sun at noon. It was used extensively by Portuguese navigators and by Christopher Columbus.

The dry mariner's compass

Another important development was the dry mariner's compass. This compass was based on earlier compasses invented in ancient China. The dry mariner's compass allowed navigators to work out which direction their ships were headed on the open oceans.



Source 1: The carrack was a type of sailing ship used during the 14th to 17th centuries CE. Carracks could withstand rough seas and carry large amounts of cargo for long distances. Carracks were used by colonial powers in the 15th and 16th centuries CE for exploration. Two famous carracks are the *Santa Maria*, sailed on by Christopher Columbus (1451–1506 CE), and the *Victoria*, which was in Magellan's fleet that set out to circumnavigate the globe in 1519 CE.

Key ideas timeline

1488 CE
Portuguese explorer Bartolomeu Dias sails around the Cape of Good Hope in Africa

1492 CE
Spanish expedition led by Christopher Columbus reaches the Americas

1498 CE
Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama finds a sea route between Europe and India

1500 CE
Portuguese colonisation of Brazil begins

1519–1522 CE
Spanish explorer Ferdinand Magellan circumnavigates the globe

1534 CE
French colonisation of the Americas begins

Source 2: European colonisation of the Americas timeline

Ship-building

At this time, European cartographers (map-makers) started to make more detailed and accurate maps, allowing longer voyages to be planned and undertaken.

Ship-building greatly improved in the late medieval period. New ships, including caravels and carracks, were built. Caravels were equipped with triangular (lateen) sails that enabled the ships to sail into the wind. This meant that Europeans could now sail down the west coast of Africa. Carracks (see Source 1) had three or four masts and large hulls that allowed them to sail across rough seas and vast oceans, with cargo space to carry provisions for longer voyages.

Trade: Spices and slaves

By the 15th century CE, Italian city-states such as Venice and Genoa controlled the Mediterranean Sea. Arab merchants controlled the Spice Route. In the east, the Ottoman Empire controlled Turkey, Greece, the Balkans, North Africa and the Middle East; the Ottomans also controlled much of the territory at the western end of the Silk Road. This left many Western European states without direct access to Asia.

In the early modern period, access to Asia was highly desirable because of the spice trade. Valuable spices such as nutmeg, cinnamon and pepper were only grown in Asia. Western European merchants were keen to have direct access to Asia so they did not have to buy spices at high prices from Italian, Ottoman or Arab merchants.

There was another valuable commodity at this time: slaves. Slavery had existed since ancient times throughout Afro-Eurasia. In the early modern period, Portuguese and Spanish merchants began sailing down the west coast of Africa in their caravel ships. They bought slaves from African merchants and sold them in Europe as domestic servants or farm labourers.

The advances of the late medieval period in ship-building and navigation enabled Western European merchants to navigate across the oceans and find new sea routes from Europe to Africa and Asia. This meant they now had first-hand access to lucrative trade goods for themselves.

1607 CE
British colonisation of the Americas begins

1609 CE
Dutch colonisation of the Americas begins

1642 CE
Abel Tasman reaches Tasmania and New Zealand

Learning ladder 19.1

Background and origins

1. Identify the key inventions that allowed Western Europeans to sail around the world.
2. Describe the function of the mariner's astrolabe.
3. Explain how the slave trade from Africa became prominent in the 1500s CE.
4. Explain why the control of trade routes by the Italian city-states, Arab merchants and the Ottomans led Europeans to explore the oceans.

Chronology

1. Source 2: Identify the dates of exploration for the following: Christopher Columbus, Vasco da Gama and Ferdinand Magellan.
2. List these events in order, from the oldest to the most recent event:
   - 1619 CE: The first African slaves arrive in the British colonies in North America
   - 1526 CE: The first Portuguese slave-ship arrives in Brazil from Africa
   - 1596 CE: Dutch slave-ships begin transporting African slaves to the Caribbean
   - 1624 CE: French slave-ships begin to transport slaves to the Caribbean.
3. Create a timeline using the events from Question 2.
4. Source 2: Summarise the key events in the colonisation of the Americas.
5. Source 2: How does the timeline demonstrate the concept of cause and effect?

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

19.2

Which European states explored and colonised?

Powerful European states competed with non–European states and with each other to control the wealth that lay across the oceans.

Portugal and Spain

In the early modern period, the first European states that engaged in exploration and colonisation were Portugal and Spain. The rulers of these states funded expeditions to discover new lands and sea routes in order to increase their power and prestige in Europe. For example, in 1492 CE King Ferdinand II and Queen Isabella of Spain funded the voyages of Christopher Columbus, which aimed to find a sea route across the Atlantic to Asia. Similarly, the voyages of Vasco da Gama in 1498 CE to find a sea route to India were sponsored by King John II of Portugal. Having discovered these routes and others, Spain and Portugal soon established colonies in the Americas, East Africa, India and South-East Asia.

The Dutch East India Company

By the 17th century CE, the Netherlands (known at the time as the Dutch Republic) had become a trading and colonising power. In 1602 CE, the Dutch Government formed the Dutch East India Company to carry out trade activities in Asia. The Dutch East India Company was the first multinational corporation, trading 2.5 million tonnes of goods that included silk, spices and slaves, making its shareholders extremely rich.

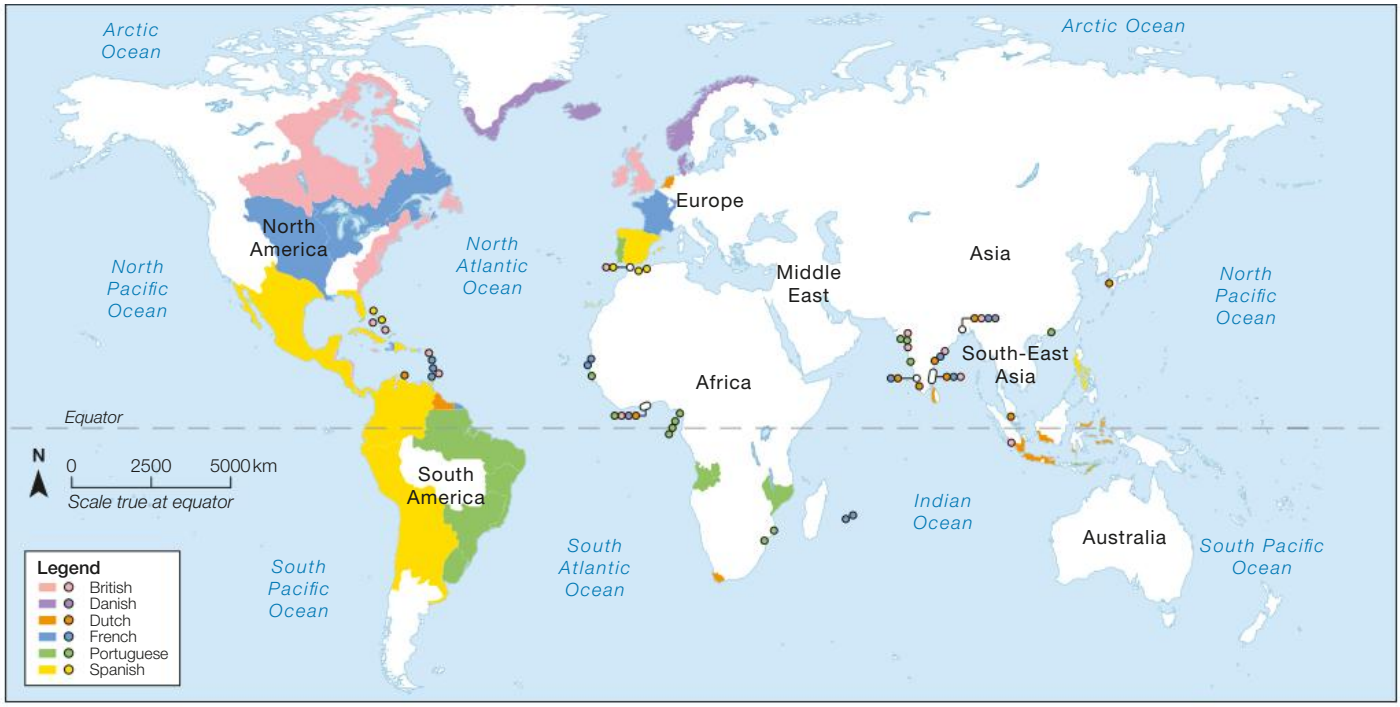
France and England

France and England joined the competition for control of sea routes and resources. In 1534 CE, a French mariner named Jacques Cartier was commissed by King Francis I of France to find a western passage to Asia. Cartier mapped and claimed much of north-east North America for France, naming the area 'New France'.

By the middle of the 17th century, France and England had colonies in North America, West Africa and India. They would overtake the Netherlands as the major colonising powers by the middle of the 18th century CE.

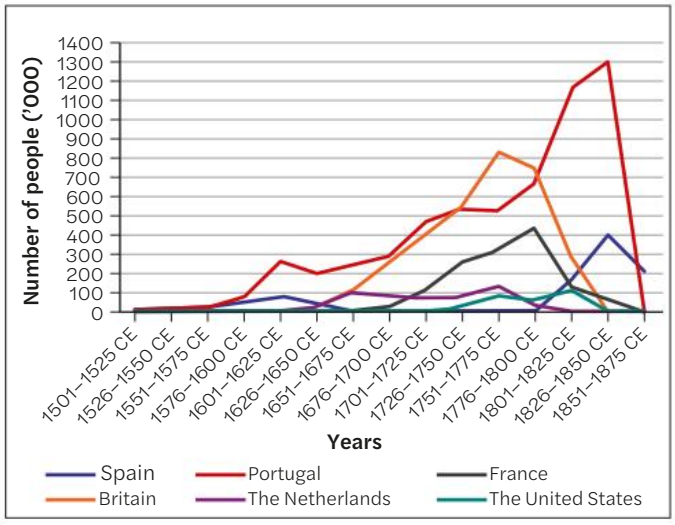
Source 1: When the Dutch colonised Indonesia in 1619 CE, they destroyed the city of Jayakarta and built Batavia on its ruins. Batavia became the capital of the Dutch East Indies. Following Indonesian independence in 1945 CE, Batavia was renamed Jakarta, reflecting its former name. [Jan van Reyne (1754 CE), *View of Island of Java and the Town of Batavia*]

The colonisation of the world by five European states by 1754 CE



Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 2:** This map shows the extent of colonisation in the world by 1754 CE.



Source: Matilda Education Australia

The expansion of slavery

A major outcome of European colonisation was an expansion of indentured labour and slavery. The new expanses of land colonised by European states allowed them to established large plantations of valuable crops such as sugar, tea, tobacco, rubber and cotton.

In the days before agricultural machinery, the large plantations created a huge demand for slave labour. Hundreds of thousands of people were taken from Africa to work on the sugar, cotton and tobacco plantations in the Americas.

◀ **Source 3:** This graph shows the number of people transported in slave ships to the Americas (by slave trading country) between 1501 and 1875 CE.

Learning ladder 19.2

Background and origins

1. Source 2: Identify which European states had colonies in North America, South America, South-East Asia and Africa.
2. Describe the Dutch East India Company.
3. Explain how part of North America was claimed by France.
4. Explain why European rulers were interested in supporting exploration and colonisation.

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify the changes to the name of the city in this source.
2. Describe the change in the leading colonising nations between the 16th and 18th centruries CE.
3. Source 3: Explain how the slave trade changed between 1501 CE and 1850 CE.
4. Explain why the slave trade expanded.

Continuity and change, page 477

HOW TO

19.3

What was the Doctrine of Discovery?

On establishing their colonies, the European powers and the Catholic Church issued a series of proclamations to justify their rights to Indigenous lands.

The Doctrine of Discovery (1493 CE)

The year after Columbus's voyage, the leader of the Catholic Church, Pope Alexander VI, issued a decree known as the Doctrine of Discovery. This document stated that any land that was not inhabited by Christians was able to be claimed by the Christian rulers of Spain. It also declared that all non-Christian inhabitants should be Christianised. The Doctrine of Discovery supported Spain's claim to take all of the lands of the New World for itself because a Spanish expedition had discovered it.

The king of Portugal, John II, was opposed to this arrangement and opened negotiations with the King of Spain, Ferdinand II. The following year, Spain and Portugal signed the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494 CE), which allowed Portugal to claim land 595 kilometres west of the Cape Verde islands. This treaty was given papal approval by Pope Julius II in 1506 CE. A further treaty, the Treaty of Saragossa (1524 CE), defined Spanish and Portuguese claims in South-East Asia.

Source 1: Pope Alexander VI (reigned 1492–1503 CE)

The response of the Netherlands, France and Britain

The leaders of the Netherlands, France and Britain decided to ignore the Doctrine of Discovery, arguing that the popes did not have the power to decide who should control the Americas. They argued that they too had a right to trade with the peoples of the New World, and to settle and farm land that was uninhabited or not being farmed. Unlike the Spanish, they were willing to acknowledge the property rights of Indigenous peoples through treaty, purchase or conquest. That said, there were still plenty of occasions when they simply occupied Indigenous land or did not honour treaties.

Source 2: Map of the world showing the lines dividing the world between Spain and Portugal. It was agreed that the Spanish crown could lay claim to lands 'discovered' to the west of the purple line and east of the green line shown on the map, while the Portuguese crown could claim lands to the east of the purple line and west of the green line shown on the map.

The United States and the Doctrine of Discovery

Shortly after the United States was founded in 1776 CE, the government decided that some of the ideas in the Doctrine of Discovery provided useful arguments that supported their control of the land that made up the United States.

In 1823 CE, the United States Supreme Court used the Doctrine of Discovery to argue that the European 'discovery' of the Americas gave title (full ownership) of the land to the United States Government because they had established a Christian society on the land. As a result, while Indigenous peoples in the United States might 'own' their land, their 'ownership' was limited, as they did not have title over the land, and therefore did not have the right to sell their land.

This meant that all treaties made between Indigenous peoples and Europeans before 1776 CE were not recognised and only the United States Government had the right to sell Indigenous land. In addition, the United States Government could decide to remove Indigenous ownership of land at any time.

Learning ladder 19.3

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the author of the Doctrine of Discovery (1493 CE).
2. Describe the Doctrine of Discovery (1493 CE).
3. Explain how British, French and Dutch leaders responded to the Doctrine of Discovery.
4. Explain why the United States Government referred to the Doctrine of Discovery in 1823 CE.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the event that led to the Doctrine of Discovery.
2. Describe the intended effect of the Doctrine of Discovery on Spanish claims to the New World.
3. Explain the cause of the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494 CE).
4. Source 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain the effect of the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494 CE).
5. Evaluate the short-term and long-term effects of the Doctrine of Discovery on the lives of Indigenous peoples.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

19.4

How did Indigenous Americans respond to colonisation?

When the Europeans first arrived in the Americas, there were over 500 Indigenous American nations. At first, much of the contact between Indigenous Americans and Europeans was based on friendly assistance and trade. However, the Europeans' desire for land led to conflict.

European colonisation of North America

Christopher Columbus's arrival in the Americas in 1492 CE sparked further European exploration of the Americas and the establishment of European colonies in the area.

By the end of the 18th century CE, European colonies were dotted up and down the east and west coasts of North America and were beginning to push into the interior. Spain had colonies along the west coast, in parts of the south-west and in Central America.

North America, 1775 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

The French established colonies in the north and along the Mississippi River; and England established 13 separate colonies along the east coast of North America. These colonies were known as 'The Thirteen Colonies'.

Indigenous American help

Indigenous Americans assisted the colonists in many ways. With British and French colonists competing with each other for power and control in the New World, both groups saw Indigenous Americans as valuable allies in their wars against each other. For example, during the Seven Years' War (1756–1763 CE) – which was fought between Britain and France in North America over the control of land and resources – the peoples of Haudenosaunee Confederacy fought with the British, while the Algonquin people fought with the French.

Indigenous Americans also gave the colonists food, and hunting and farming advice. Many of the European colonies would not have survived if Indigenous Americans had not helped them in this way.

In 1721 CE, the English colonists at Plymouth, New England (known as the Pilgrims), were saved from starvation thanks to Massasoit, the Chief of the Wampanoag federation of nations. Massasoit promised to allow the Plymouth colony to remain if the colonists agreed to help the Wampanoag fight their enemy: the Narragansett nation. The Wampanoag then helped the Pilgrims plant their gardens with vegetables. Following the successful autumn harvest, the Pilgrims invited the Wampanoag to a celebration feast, remembered today as 'Thanksgiving'.

Source 1: European colonies in North America by 1775 CE

Source 2: Jennie Augusta Brownscombe (1914 CE), *The First Thanksgiving*

Thanksgiving is a day of thanks for the descendants of the colonists, but is a bitter irony for Indigenous Americans, especially the Wampanoag, who were almost wiped out within 20 years by European disease and settler violence (see Source 3).

Trade

In the early years of colonisation, good trade relations were established between the Europeans and Indigenous Americans.

The fur trade was particularly strong. Furs were highly sought after in Europe, where wealthy people wore beaver, fox, mink and rabbit furs to keep warm. Independent French fur hunters, known as *coureur de bois*, were very successful, thanks to their close ties with Indigenous Americans, who taught them useful hunting skills.

Indigenous Americans meanwhile benefited from access to European tools: knives, pots and kettles made cooking easier, while nets, horses and guns enabled hunters to hunt and fish more quickly. However, other European trade goods, such as sugar and alcohol, had negative effects on the health of many Indigenous Americans.

Source 3: Metacom's War (1675–1676 CE) was one of the biggest wars in American history. Metacom became the leader of the Wampanoag people after the death of his father Massasoit. The war was caused by the English colonists taking more land than the Wampanaog had agreed to. The effect of this war was the death of 3000 Wampanoag people and the loss of their land.

Learning ladder 19.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the European colonising nations operating in North America in 1775 CE.
2. Source 1: Using this source and the text, describe the locations of the British colonies in North America.
3. Explain how Thanksgiving began.
4. Explain the nature of trade between Indigenous Americans and Europeans.

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: Identify the cause and the effect of Metacom's War.
2. Describe the effect of Indigenous American help for the coureur de bois.
3. Explain the effects of the Indigenous Americans' advice and assistance on European settlers.
4. Explain why Indigenous Americans fought for the European colonists in the Seven Years' War.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 480

19.5

How did Indigenous Americans respond to the War of Independence?

The War of Independence (1775–1781) was fought between colonists, Indigenous Americans and the British Government. Was the war about 'freedom' or was it really about the control of Indigenous American land?

The Proclamation of 1763

By 1763 CE, the British had won the Seven Years' War against the French. However, conflict continued between the British colonists and Indigenous Americans. This led the British King George III to attempt to conciliate the Indigenous Americans by drawing up rules for the English colonists. These rules were called the 'Royal Proclamation of 1763' and they stated that English colonists were forbidden to settle on the land west of the Appalachian Mountains. The proclamation decreed that this area was reserved for Indigenous Americans (it was called the 'Indian Reserve').

Land allocated to Indigenous Americans by King George III in 1763 CE

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** The 'Indian Reserve', as defined by the Proclamation of 1763

▲ **Source 2:** Iroquois leaders secure an alliance with British general John Burgoyne during the American War of Independence.

The Proclamation of 1763 angered many colonists, who wanted to expand west and take over more Indigenous American land. This was a key cause of the War of Independence (1775–1783 CE), where the colonists fought to become independent of Britain.

The American War of Independence

The American War of Independence broke out in 1775 CE. While some Indigenous people fought with the colonists, most sided with the British.

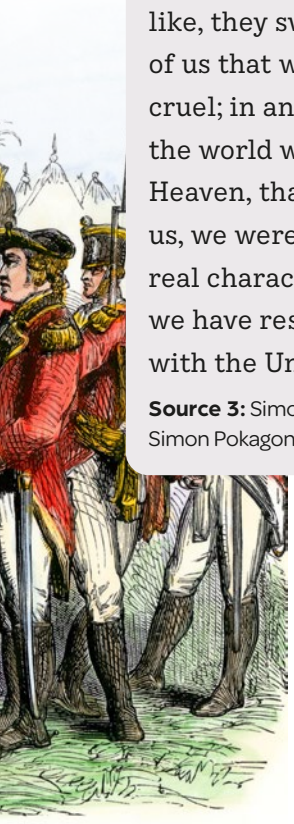
In 1776 the colonists drew up the Declaration of Independence to announce their plans for a new independent nation. These plans included the

On behalf of my people, the American Indians, I hereby declare to you, the pale-faced race that has usurped our lands and homes, that we have no spirit to celebrate with you … The pale-faces came by chance to our shores, many times very needy and hungry. We nursed and fed them – fed the ravens that were soon to pluck out our eyes, and the eyes of our children; for no sooner had the news reached the **Old World** that a new continent had been found, peopled with another race of men, than, locust-like, they swarmed on all our coasts … You say of us that we are treacherous, vindictive, and cruel; in answer to the charge, we declare to all the world with our hands uplifted before high Heaven, that before the white man came among us, we were kind, outspoken and forgiving. Our real character has been misunderstood because we have resented the breaking of treaties made with the United States …

Source 3: Simon Pokagon (1897), *The Red Man's Rebuke*. Simon Pokagon was a Powatomi author.

The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States … He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

Source 4: Excerpt from The Declaration of Independence (1776 CE). This document was written by the leaders of the American colonists who were at war with the British.



protection of the rights to Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness and condemned the British king for encouraging Indigenous Americans to oppose settler expansion.

The colonists won the war and the Thirteen Colonies became the United States of America.

Indigenous American resistance

The new United States Government abolished the Indian Reserve. Instead, an area of land west of the Mississippi River was put aside as 'Indian Territory'. At the same time, all Indigenous Americans living east of the Mississippi River were pushed out of their ancestral lands and forced to settle further west.

Even after the establishment of the 'Indian Territory', the colonists pressured the government to open that land to settlement too. Indigenous Americans fought desperately for their land in battles such as the Black Hawk War (1832 CE), Red Cloud's War (1866–1868 CE) and the Battle of the Little Bighorn (1876 CE). However, by 1900 CE, Indigenous Americans held just 311 608 square kilometres of land in the United States, a loss of over 99 per cent since colonisation began.

Learning ladder 19.5

Impact and legacies

1. Source 2: Identify the groups who formed an alliance during the American War of Independence.
2. Source 1: Describe the terms of the Proclamation of 1763 CE.
3. Explain how the American War of Independence affected Indigenous American land ownership.
4. Explain why wars broke out between the United States and Indigenous Americans.
5. Evaluate the legacy of the American War of Independence.

Perspectives

1. Identify the authors of the Declaration of Independence.
2. Source 4: Describe the perspective on Indigenous Americans in the Declaration of Independence.
3. Source 3: Explain the perspective of this source on relations between Indigenous Americans and the people of the United States.
4. Source 3: Using the source and your knowledge, explain why the author of this source holds this perspective.
5. The 4th of July celebration in the United States marks the foundation of the United States and the adoption of the Declaration of Independence. Analyse the significance of this day for Indigenous Americans.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

19.6

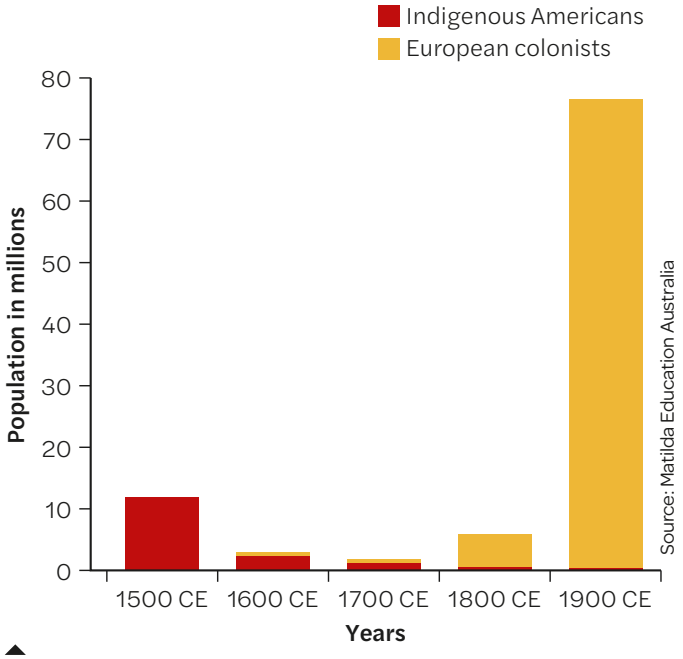
What was the impact of colonisation on Indigenous Americans?

The colonisation of the Americas by European nations had a devastating impact on Indigenous Americans.

The impact of disease

While Indigenous American warriors were able to mount strong resistance to the colonisers' invasion of their lands, they were unable to combat European diseases. Indigenous Americans' encounters with Europeans meant contact with diseases such as smallpox, influenza, dysentery, whooping cough, scarlet fever, typhoid, malaria and measles. These diseases were not known to Indigenous Americans and their immune systems had no effective way of responding to them. The introduction of European diseases was catastrophic for Indigenous American populations. We will never know how many Indigenous Americans were killed by introduced diseases, but estimates of population loss range from 25 to 90 per cent.

Population of the United States, 1500–1900 CE



Source 1: Indigenous American and European settler populations

Population

It is estimated that between 10 million and 18 million Indigenous Americans lived in North America before the European colonists arrived. By 1900 CE, war, violence, disease, malnutrition and dislocation led to a severe decline in the Indigenous American population. In the same period, the European population grew enormously, thanks to immigration and an increasing birth rate

The Age of Exploration provided opportunities for societies and cultures to interact; it brought all parts of the world into contact with each other, paving the way for the globalised economies we see today; it enabled a knowledge network to extend across the whole globe. In a sense, our modern world is built on the back of the changes introduced by the European Age of Exploration ...

Conversely, the harms were mostly experienced by the rest of the world. The slave trade was the most egregious [extremely bad] example, enriching Europe and its colonists through the suffering of Africans. Disease was largely an accidental means of conquest but was devastating in its effects, as infections endemic to the Old World ravaged populations in the Americas and Australasia.

Source 2: This text was written by Margaret Small, who is a historian specialising in early modern history. [Excerpt from Margaret Small (2019 CE), 'The age of exploration paved the way for the globalised economies we see today', *History Extra*]

Impact on culture

Colonisation had a devastating impact on Indigenous American culture. This destruction of culture was deliberate. United States' policies, such as the banning of traditional ceremonies and the extermination of buffalo herds, were designed to further separate Indigenous Americans from their land.

At the same time, the government and the churches tried to assimilate Indigenous people into European culture because they believed that Indigenous culture was of little worth. To this end, Indigenous children were taken from their families and sent to boarding schools, such as the Carlisle Indian Industrial School in Pennsylvania. Over 12 000 children were sent to the Carlisle School where they were taught Christianity and forced to speak English and wear European-style clothing.

Source 3: This source contains two group portraits of Chiricahua Apache children at the Carlisle Indian Industrial School. The top photo was taken in November 1886 CE and the bottom photo was taken in March 1887 CE. Photographer John N. Choate was commissioned by the school to take these photos in order to show how successful the school was at 'civilising' Indigenous American children.

Learning ladder 19.6

Impact and legacies

1. Identify three ways that colonisation affected Indigenous Americans.
2. Describe the impact of European diseases on Indigenous Americans.
3. Source 1: Explain how colonisation affected Indigenous and European populations between 1600 CE and 1900 CE.
4. Explain why the United States Government tried to destroy Indigenous culture.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of the source.
2. Source 3: Describe the differences between the two images.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the differences in the outcomes of colonisation for Europeans and Indigenous Americans.
4. Source 3: Explain why these two photographs were published.
5. Source 3: Assess the usefulness of these sources for a historian studying the impact of colonisation on Indigenous Americans.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on the era of colonisation. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of the era of colonisation. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of the era of colonisation in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- Carrack and caravel ships, page 426
- The Dutch East India Company, page 428
- Native American nations, page 432
- The Battle of Little Bighorn, page 435
- The Carlisle Indian Industrial School, page 437

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

Depth study (core)

First Nations Peoples' experiences of colonisation in Australia (c. 1788–1901)

20

HOW ARE FIRST NATIONS PEOPLES CONNECTED TO COUNTRY? 444

WHAT WERE THE FRONTIER WARS? 458

WHAT ARE THE CONSEQUENCES OF COLONISATION? 468

20.0

How can I understand First Nations Peoples' experiences of colonisation?

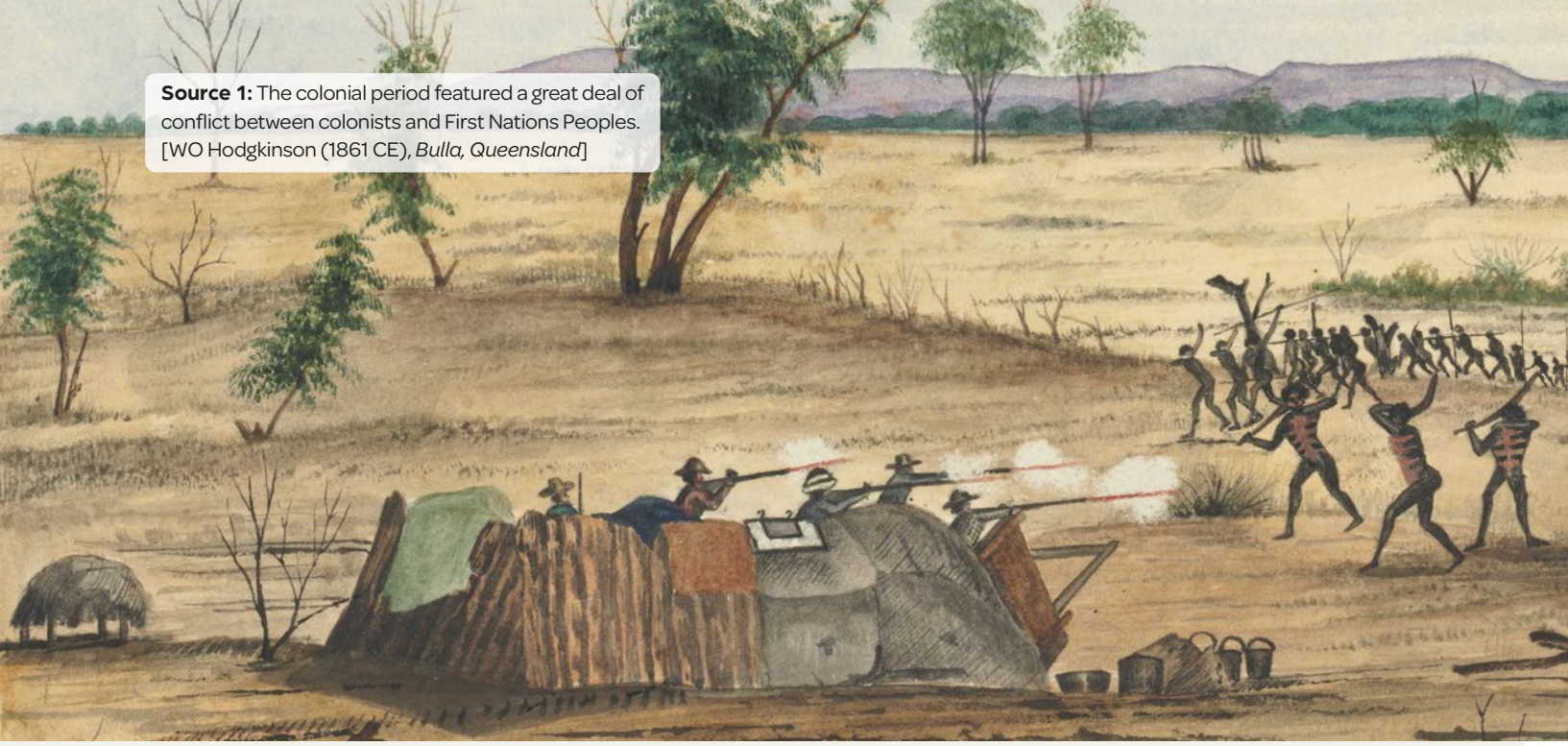
The lives of First Nations Peoples changed forever when the British colonised the Australian continent and disrupted the sacredness of Country.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the impact of the rise and fall of societies.	I can evaluate how societies were influenced by significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a society.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a society developed.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a society has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a society developed.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one society on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins of societies.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a society.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of societies.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a society.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: The colonial period featured a great deal of conflict between colonists and First Nations Peoples. [WO Hodgkinson (1861 CE), *Bulla, Queensland*]

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

Who are the First Nations Peoples of Australia?

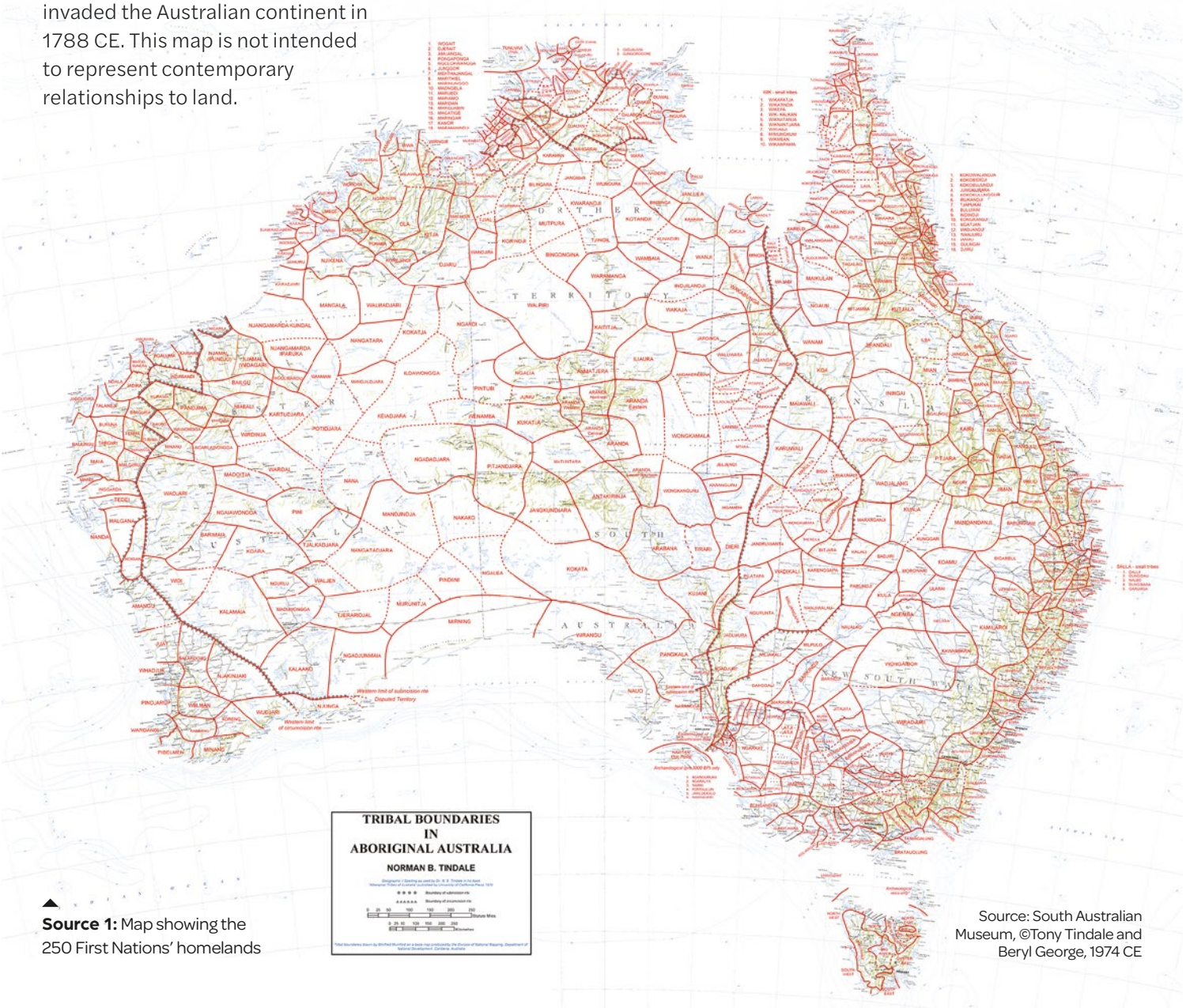
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples have lived in Australia for over 60 000 years. First Nations Peoples have developed distinct cultures in a range of diverse environments.

First Nations' homelands

There are 250 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander nations. Each nation has well-defined boundaries for their homeland. Source 1 is a reproduction of Norman Tindale's 1974 CE map of the First Nations group boundaries at the time the British colonists invaded the Australian continent in 1788 CE. This map is not intended to represent contemporary relationships to land.

Connections to Country

Country is the land, water and sky that connects First Nations Peoples to ancestors and family. It is a place and a relationship. First Nations Peoples use knowledge and skills developed over many millennia to care for Country.



Source 1: Map showing the 250 First Nations' homelands

Source: South Australian Museum, ©Tony Tindale and Beryl George, 1974 CE

Source 2: This is a photo of warriors from Saibai Island in the Torres Strait off far north Australia. Torres Strait Islanders are of Melanesian origin and have unique and rich cultures.

First Nations Peoples had permanent homes, but would occasionally move across Country to manage the landscape. There were extensive trade routes across the continent, but the unique connections to Country meant it was rare to take land from another group.

First Nations population

When the British invaded the Australian continent in 1788 CE, it is estimated there were up to one million First Nations people living across the continent and adjacent islands. Aboriginal Peoples occupied and managed the entire continent. They had adapted to a range of environments, including tropical rainforests, woodlands and dry deserts. This diversity of environments led to a range of unique cultures and a wide variety of tools, foods, customs, clothing and spirituality seen in Aboriginal **nations**.

Torres Strait Islanders

Torres Strait Islander Peoples come from the islands of the Torres Strait, which stretches between northern Queensland and Papua New Guinea. Torres Strait Islanders are distinct from the Aboriginal Peoples on the Australian mainland. Torres Strait Islanders originated in Melanesia, a region in the Pacific Ocean to the north-east of Australia.

Along with the Aboriginal inhabitants of the Australian continent, the people of Melanesia also emigrated from Africa tens of thousands of years ago. Australia and New Guinea were connected by a land bridge because of low sea levels during the Ice Age, and this is known as the continent of Sahul.

Torres Strait Islander Peoples are sea travellers, traders, fishers and gardeners. Torres Strait Islander culture is linked to the Creator spirit, Tagai. Tagai is represented in the sky by several constellations, which are used as a guide for the seasonal cultivation of crops and gardens.

Learning ladder 20.1

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify what this map shows.
2. Describe the different environments inhabited by First Nations Peoples.
3. Explain how First Nations Peoples lived on Country before the British invasion.
4. Explain why there is so much diversity in the cultures of First Nations Peoples.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the number of First Nations' homelands.
2. Source 1: Describe the significance of this source.
3. Explain how Torres Strait Islander Peoples first arrived in the Torres Strait.
4. Explain why the Creator spirit Tagai is significant to Torres Strait Islanders.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

20.2

How are First Nations Peoples connected to Country?

The deep relationship between First Nations Peoples and the land is often described as **connection to Country**. Dhanggal Gurruwiwi, a Galpu Elder, explains: 'The land and the people are one, 'cause the land is also related. In our **kinship** system, as a custodian, I'm the child of that land.'

Deep links to Country

First Nations Peoples have a deep spiritual, physical, social and cultural connection to the land.

Palyku woman Ambelin Kwaymullina explains: 'For Aboriginal Peoples, Country is much more than a place. Rock, tree, river, hill, animal, human – all were formed of the same substance by the ancestors who continue to live in land, water, sky. Country is filled with relations speaking language and following Law, no matter whether the shape of that relation is human, rock, crow, wattle. Country is loved, needed and cared for, and Country loves, needs and cares for her peoples in turn. Country is family, culture, identity. Country is self.'

Source 1: John Watson, a Traditional Custodian and Nyikina Elder, tells his grandchildren stories about his Country in the Kimberley area. Elders have the authority to share knowledge of the **Dreaming**, which establishes the rules for Aboriginal Peoples' relationships with the land and living things.

Source 2: The Manja Shelter in Victoria contains rock art of hand stencils. It is believed that the stencils record a visit to the site to renew a person's connection to it.

Uluru

One of Australia's most famous tourist attractions is the rock Uluru. However, it is more than just a rock to the Yankunytjatjara and Pitjantjatjara Peoples, who are the **Traditional Custodians** of the Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park. The spirits of their ancestors still live in sacred places at Uluru and Kata-Tjuta, making the land deeply important.

The Yankunytjatjara and Pitjantjatjara Peoples have a duty to respect and look after their Country. Bob Randall, a Yankunytjatjara **Elder** explains: 'Part of land which has been handed down to you by your ancestors, we say the granny law, has given me my responsibility now that I'm grown up to care for my Country, you know, care for my mother. Care for everything that is around me.

'You can never feel lonely in that situation, you know you just can't. How can you when all around you is family members, from this ground up, to all the trees around you to the clouds hanging up around you, the birds flying by, the animals and reptiles that are just hidden in the shrub there for now, but can come out if they want to, hunt around for their little food. And then they can become food for us as well.'

Learning ladder 20.2

Background and origins

1. Identify two meanings of the word 'Country'.
2. Describe how First Nations Peoples feel about the land.
3. Source 1: Explain how Elders help to continue their community's connection to Country.
4. Sources 1 and 2: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how First Nations Peoples demonstrate their connection to Country.

Cause and effect

1. Source 2: Identify the cause of hand stencils.
2. Write a sentence explaining the effect of each cause in the table below.

Cause	Effect
First Nations Peoples see the land as part of their family	
People wanted to record their visit to a sacred site and renew their ties to it	

3. Explain the cause of the deep importance of Uluru to the Yankunytjatjara and Pitjantjatjara Peoples.
4. Explain why Traditional Custodians banned tourists from climbing Uluru.

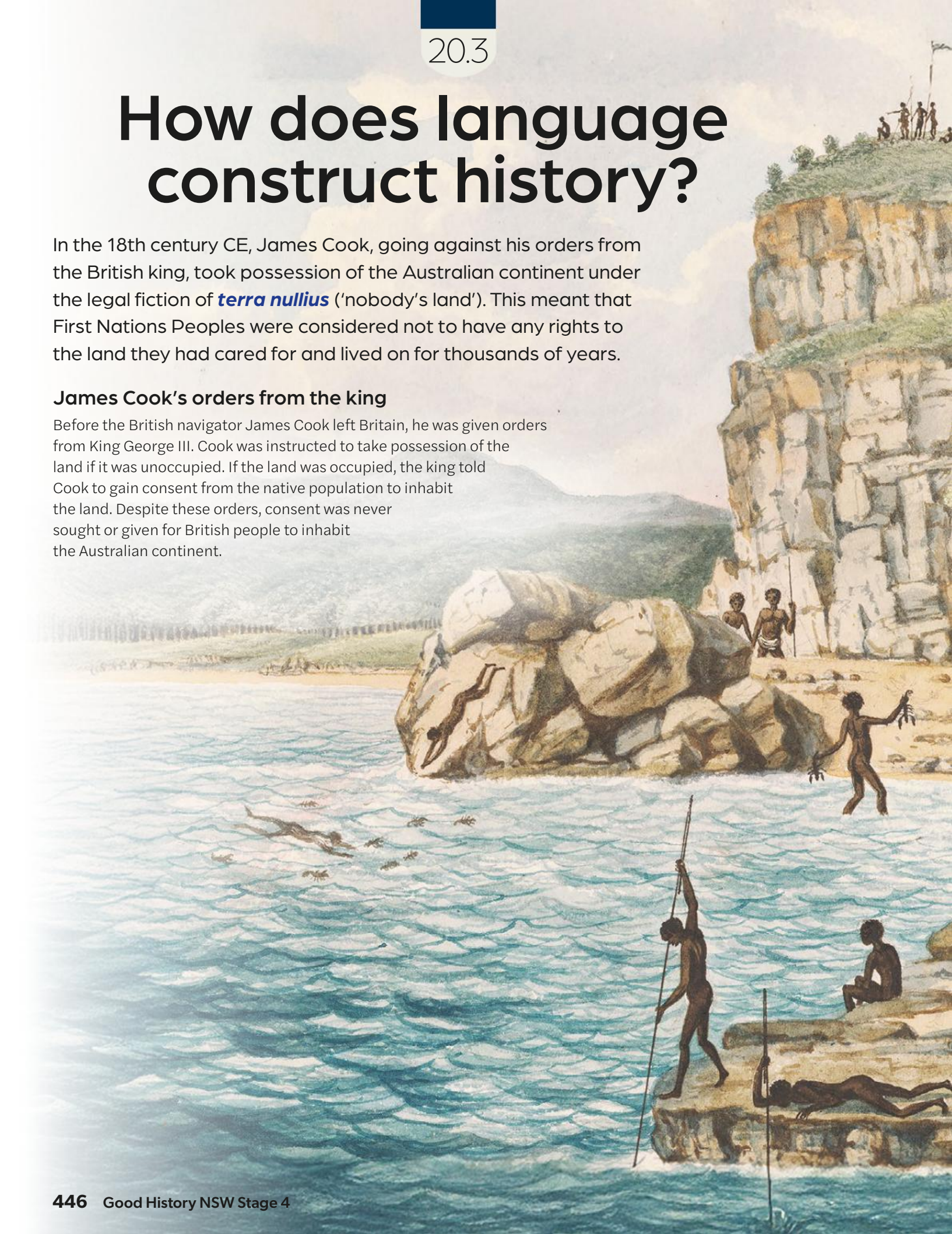
HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

How does language construct history?

In the 18th century CE, James Cook, going against his orders from the British king, took possession of the Australian continent under the legal fiction of ***terra nullius*** ('nobody's land'). This meant that First Nations Peoples were considered not to have any rights to the land they had cared for and lived on for thousands of years.

James Cook's orders from the king

Before the British navigator James Cook left Britain, he was given orders from King George III. Cook was instructed to take possession of the land if it was unoccupied. If the land was occupied, the king told Cook to gain consent from the native population to inhabit the land. Despite these orders, consent was never sought or given for British people to inhabit the Australian continent.



Source 1: This painting is a primary source created by convict artist Joseph Lycett. His paintings recorded First Nations Peoples in the early colonial period. [Joseph Lycett (c. 1817 CE), *Aborigines Spearing Fish, Others Diving for Crayfish, a Party Seated Beside a Fire Cooking Fish*]

Cook declared Australia to be *terra nullius*

When James Cook set foot on the Australian continent in 1770 CE, he declared the land to be *terra nullius* ('nobody's land'). *Terra nullius* is the legal term applied to land that is deemed to be uninhabited, unoccupied or not subject to the sovereignty of any state.

After declaring the Australian continent to be nobody's land, Cook then claimed the land on behalf of King George III and declared the Australian continent to be the property of the British Crown.

The British colonists and their descendants stuck to their story that the Australian continent was *terra nullius*. The British claimed that the lack of land cultivation and structures meant that the continent of Australia was uninhabited. They did not recognise the First Nations Peoples' agricultural practices because they were so different to their own.

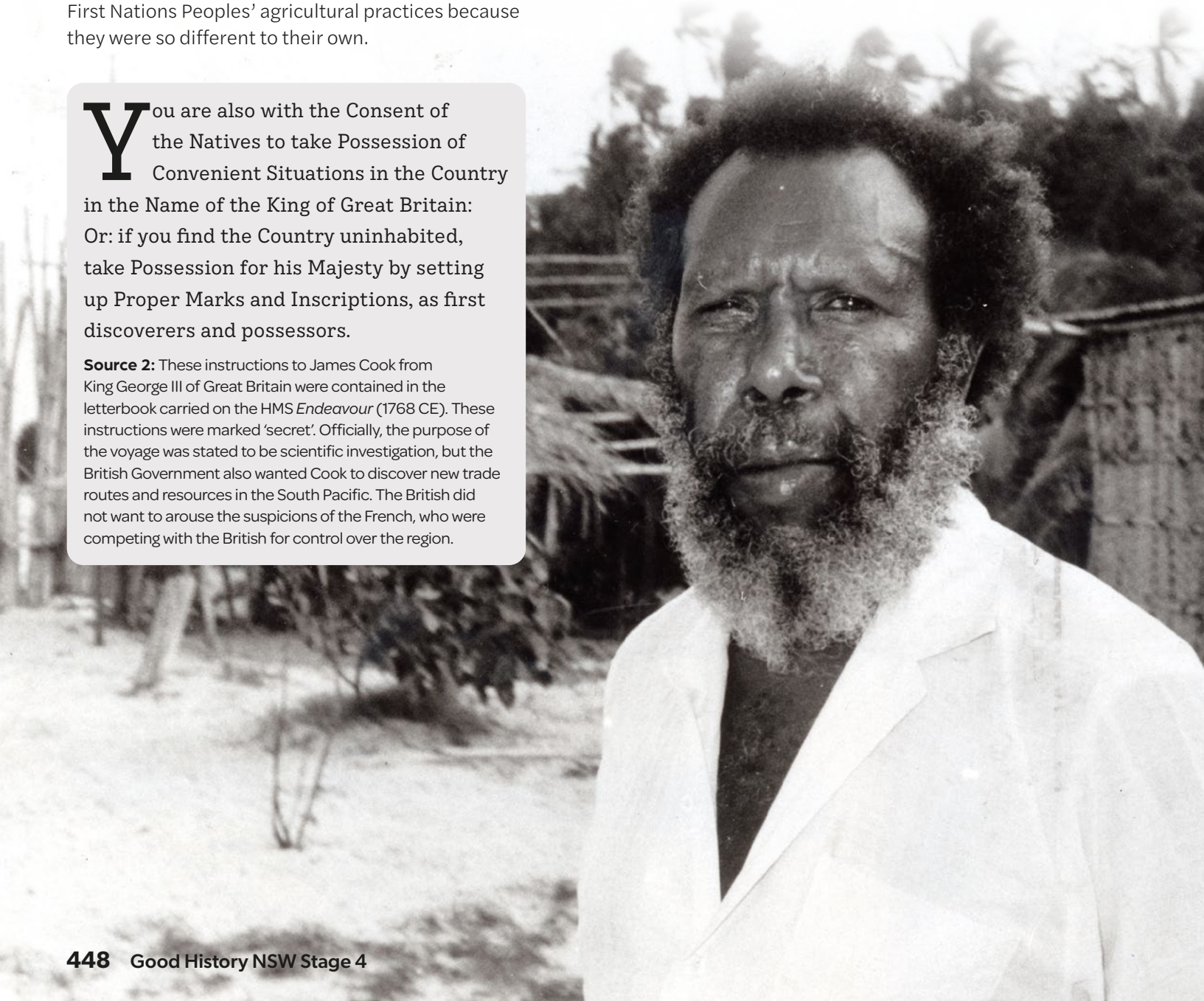
However, European explorers' records describe how First Nations Peoples managed the land to produce food, and had silos and semi-permanent villages. *Terra nullis* is also contradicted by the existence of First Nations Peoples' songlines, which defined the borders of language groups, Nations and **clan** lands, as well as complex laws about land inheritance.

Terra nullius overturned

The British application of *terra nullius* to Australia in the 18th century CE was a highly debated topic for two centuries. The High Court's *Mabo* decision finally struck out this application in 1992 CE and recognised **native title**. The Australian Parliament passed the *Native Title Act 1993* (Cth), which recognises First Nations Peoples' rights to lands and waters.

> You are also with the Consent of the Natives to take Possession of Convenient Situations in the Country in the Name of the King of Great Britain: Or: if you find the Country uninhabited, take Possession for his Majesty by setting up Proper Marks and Inscriptions, as first discoverers and possessors.

Source 2: These instructions to James Cook from King George III of Great Britain were contained in the letterbook carried on the HMS *Endeavour* (1768 CE). These instructions were marked 'secret'. Officially, the purpose of the voyage was stated to be scientific investigation, but the British Government also wanted Cook to discover new trade routes and resources in the South Pacific. The British did not want to arouse the suspicions of the French, who were competing with the British for control over the region.



Different relationships to the land

The British colonists and First Nations Peoples had very different relationships to the land. The colonists believed that individuals could own land; it belonged to them like a possession. In contrast, First Nations Peoples believe that they are custodians, not owners, of land and that there is a two-way relationship between people and Country: you belong to each other.

Settlement, occupation or invasion?

The three most common terms used to describe the European arrival to the Australian continent is invasion, colonisation and settlement. Each term has a very specific meaning and often constructs the history in specific ways.

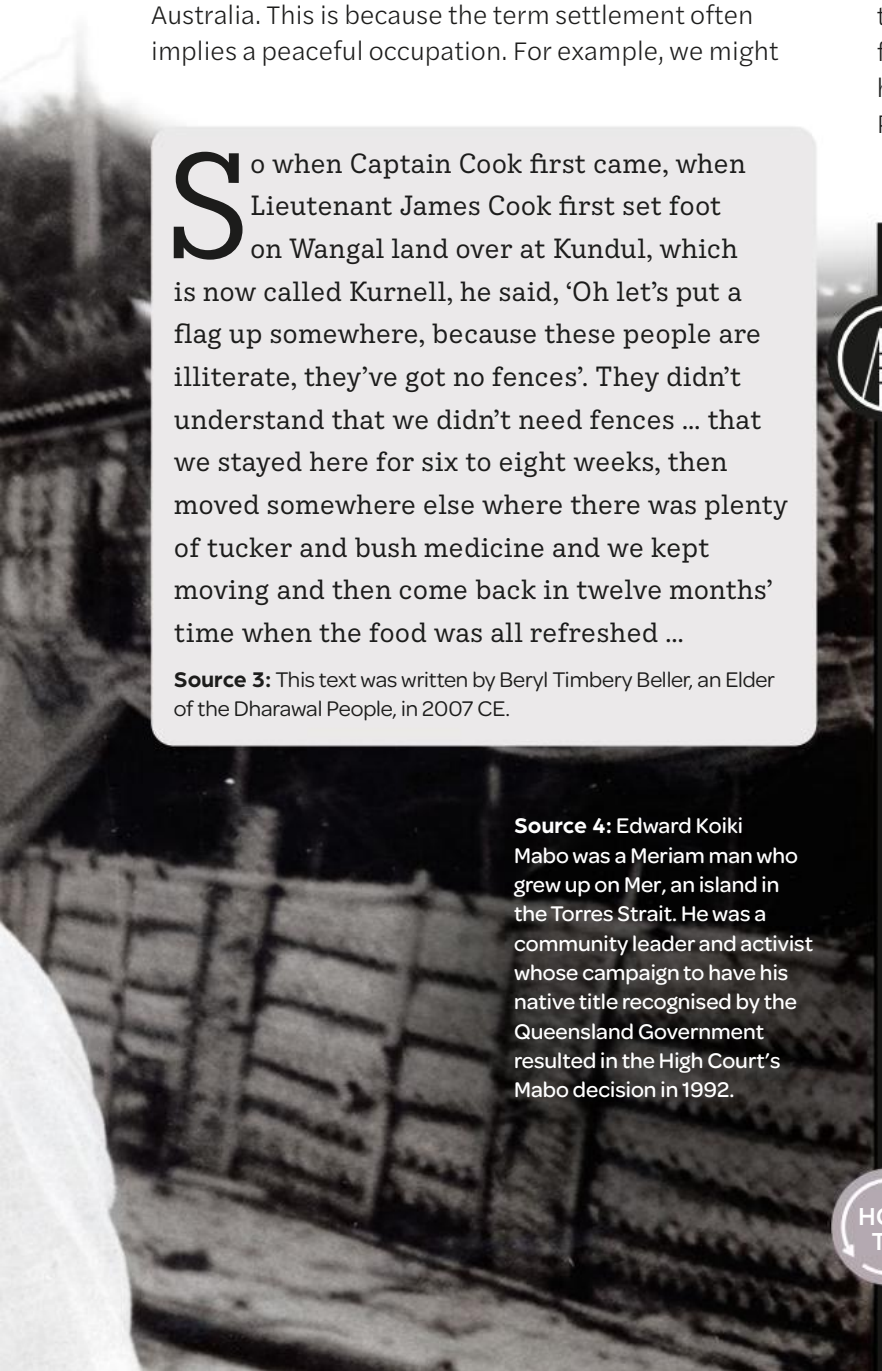
The term 'settlement' is often the most comfortable term used to describe the European occupation of Australia. This is because the term settlement often implies a peaceful occupation. For example, we might 'settle' into a place to get comfortable, such as settling onto the couch for the evening. This fails to acknowledge the violence of the European contact in Australia.

The second term often used is 'invasion'. This is a term commonly used by many First Nations people and this acknowledges the conflict and violence of the European contact in Australia. This term is also limited as invasion is often associated with a specific event that has a beginning and an end, and contact with Europeans has not ended in Australia. In many ways, the gap in key life outcomes is evidence of this ongoing impact.

The third term often used is 'colonisation'. This is a term which relates to an ongoing process where one or more groups of people move to an area and take it using force. This process also involves using power to control the lives of the people who have been forcibly removed from their rightful lands. In Australia, this term is used to highlight the ongoing struggle for rights for First Nations Peoples and ongoing impacts of colonisation.

> So when Captain Cook first came, when Lieutenant James Cook first set foot on Wangal land over at Kundul, which is now called Kurnell, he said, 'Oh let's put a flag up somewhere, because these people are illiterate, they've got no fences'. They didn't understand that we didn't need fences … that we stayed here for six to eight weeks, then moved somewhere else where there was plenty of tucker and bush medicine and we kept moving and then come back in twelve months' time when the food was all refreshed …

Source 3: This text was written by Beryl Timbery Beller, an Elder of the Dharawal People, in 2007 CE.



Source 4: Edward Koiki Mabo was a Meriam man who grew up on Mer, an island in the Torres Strait. He was a community leader and activist whose campaign to have his native title recognised by the Queensland Government resulted in the High Court's Mabo decision in 1992.

Learning ladder 20.3

Background and origins

1. What does *terra nullius* mean?
2. Describe the *Native Title Act 1993* (Cth).
3. Explain the differences in the concept of land ownership for First Nations Peoples and Europeans.
4. Explain why it was advantageous for British colonisers to claim Australia was *terra nullius*.
5. Evaluate the impact of the declaration of the Australian continent as being *terra nullius* on First Nations Peoples' experience of colonisation.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 2: Describe the king's instructions to Cook.
3. Sources 1 and 3: Using these sources, explain how First Nations people lived on their land.
4. Source 2: Explain the context of this source.
5. Source 1: Evaluate how accurate, useful and reliable this source is.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

Site study

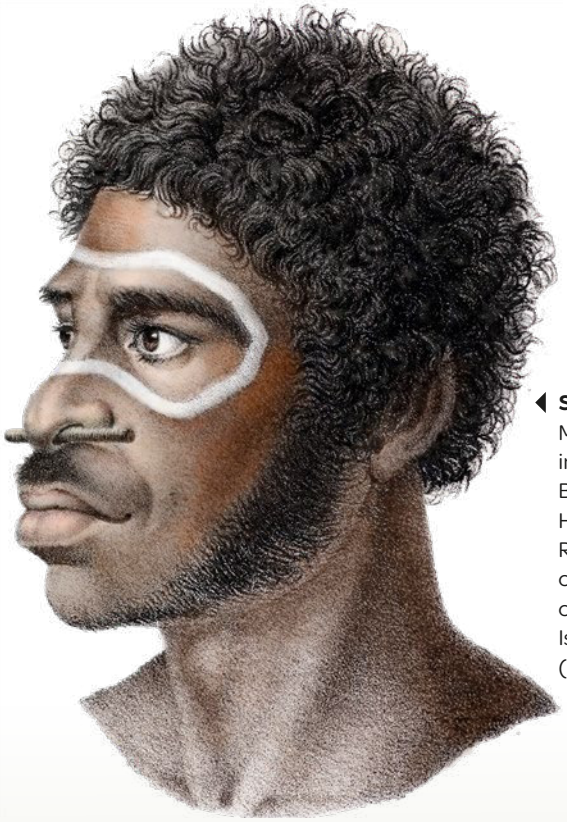
What conflicts took place around Warrane (Sydney Cove)?

Warrane is the Gadigal name for Sydney Cove. During the first 30 years of colonisation around Warrane (Sydney Cove), there was ongoing warfare as the colonists invaded the lands of First Nations Peoples.

Aboriginal resistance to colonisation

In 1788 CE, the British established a convict colony at Warrane (Sydney Cove) without the consent of the Eora Peoples. The colony was led by Governor Arthur Phillip between 1788 and 1792 CE. The soldiers, citizens and convicts of the colony of New South Wales were in constant fear of being attacked by Aboriginal warriors. In an area that stretched from Warrane (Sydney Cove) to the rivers and mountains surrounding the Sydney Basin, ongoing warfare took place between 1788 CE and 1817 CE (see Source 3) as Eora, Dharug, Gandangara, Dharawal and Darkinjung Peoples reacted to the colonists invading their lands.

Aboriginal warrriors had an initial advantage over the poorly resourced and hungry colonists. Their weapons were superior to the slow, inaccurate flintlock guns possessed by the British.



Source 2: In 1805 CE, Musquito engaged in violent raids on British colonies in the Hawkesbury and Georges Rivers district. He was captured and sent to the convict colony on Norfolk Island. [Heinrich R. Schinz (1827 CE), *Musquito*]

Source 1: Timeline of the conflict in the colony of New South Wales in the first 30 years of colonisation

Key ideas timeline

1788 CE
- Two convicts killed at Bloody Point for stealing Eora canoes
- Convict speared by Eora at Woolloomooloo
- Convicts kill an Eora person at Blackwattle Bay

1789 CE
Governor Arthur Phillip orders two Aboriginal men to be kidnapped. One man (Bennelong) is detained for five months

1794–1816 CE
The Hawkesbury and Nepean Wars: a series of conflicts between British troops and First Nations clans of the Hawkesbury River area

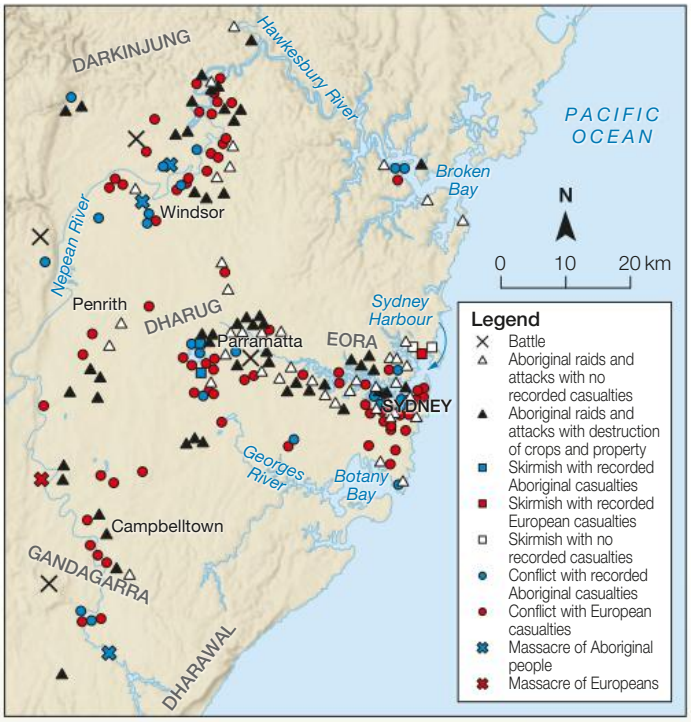
1795 CE
The Battle of Richmond Hill is the first recorded battle between British troops and First Nations people

1802 CE
Pemulwuy is shot and killed by a colonist; his son Tedbury continues the resistance

> The greatest alarm was caused by the natives, who plundered some of the settlers, robbed people upon the road, and spearing some few; and they threatened, as it was said, to set the growing wheat on fire. Strict orders were given forbidding all persons from harbouring or having any contact with them … the cause of this war began about some sheep which the stock-keepers said the natives had speared. Accordingly, war was declared without much deliberation, and by the natives finding that we were bent upon hostility it was not long before they revenged themselves by killing one of the stock-keepers.

Source 3: This is part of a letter written by George Caley – a colonist living in Warrane (Sydney Cove) – to Joseph Banks in 1801 CE.

Sydney and surrounding areas of New South Wales, c. 1817 CE



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 4: This map shows the location of conflicts between Aboriginal Peoples and colonists in the Sydney area between 1788 and 1817 CE.

In addition, the First Nations people outnumbered the colonists, who struggled to contain the Aboriginal resistance. However, the Aboriginal advantage was lost with the outbreak of smallpox in 1789 CE. It is estimated that up to 70 per cent of First Nations people living in and around the Sydney Basin died from the disease, to which they had no immunity.

The First Nations people who survived the outbreak of smallpox used **guerilla warfare** to continue resisting the colonists' invasion. It was an effective way to defend Country; it took almost 30 years for the British to secure the Sydney Basin.

1805 CE
Musquito leads raids on properties in the Hawkesbury and Georges River districts

1816 CE
14 Aboriginal people are killed following attacks on colonists' farms on the edge of Sydney

Learning ladder 20.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 4: Identify what this source shows.
2. Source 2: Describe the role of Musquito in the First Nations' resistance.
3. Explain how smallpox changed Aboriginal resistance.
4. Sources 3 and 4: Using the sources and your knowledge, explain why there was warfare between the colonists and First Nations Peoples.

Chronology

1. Source 1: Identify when the Battle of Richmond Hill occurred.
2. Put the following events in chronological order:
   - 1789 CE: A smallpox epidemic breaks out in the Warrane (Sydney) area
   - 1824 CE: Frenchmen Jules Dumont d'Urville and René Lesson observe the First Nations' ceremonial contests held in Warrane (Sydney)
   - 1806 CE: 400 First Nations warriors, led by Tedbury, attack colonists' farms west of Parramatta
   - 1800 CE: Governor Philip Gidley King allows colonists to shoot any Aboriginal person they see.
3. Create a timeline using the events in Question 2.
4. Source 1: Using this source and the timeline you created in Question 3, explain the nature of Aboriginal resistance between 1788 and 1816 CE.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 472

20.5

Key individual

How did Pemulwuy resist the colonists?

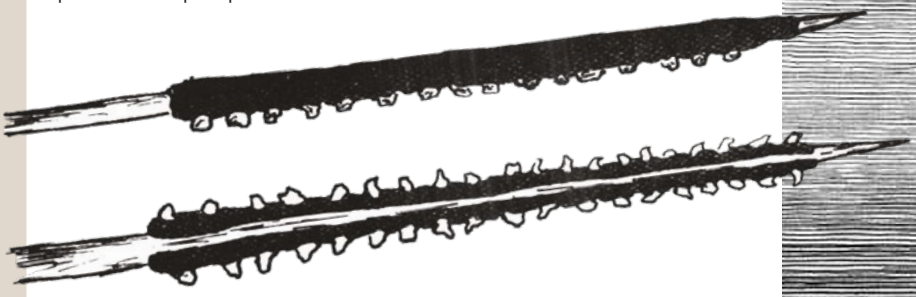
Pemulwuy was a Bidjigal warrior who used guerrila warfare tactics to fight against the invasion of his lands. The raids culminated in the Battle of Parramatta, where Pemulwuy amassed a raiding party of 100 warriors to battle British soldiers.

Pemulwuy: A First Nations warrior

Pemulwuy was a Bidjigal man of the Eora Nation. The Bidjigal People are the Traditional Custodians of the lands around Sydney Harbour. For tens of thousands of years, the Eora Peoples maintained laws that governed social connections, behaviour and respect for the land. The British colonists had little regard for the rich Eora cultures and treated the Eora Peoples as savages.

Pemulwuy was revered as a First Nations carradhy (a clever man with supernatural powers) who became famous for his guerrilla warfare against the colonists. Claiming he was immune to bullets, he was caught but escaped captivity. For over a decade, Pemulwuy resisted the colonists colonising Eora land: he set fire to crops, stole valuable tools and organised Eora warriors to attack the colonists.

In 1790 CE, Pemulwuy used a 'death spear' (see Source 1) to kill John McIntyre (Governor Arthur Phillip's gamekeeper) as payback for McIntyre's violence towards First Nations people. Until that point, Governor Phillip had been tolerant of First Nations Peoples. However, he changed his position after McIntyre's death and ordered colonial troops to either find Pemulwuy or punish his people.



Source 1: Each 'death spear' had a special blade made from chips of stone set in resin. The bladed head inflicted a long gash and left chips inside the wound.

Source 2: Pemulwuy was responsible for several payback attacks on colonists. He escaped death and incarceration on multiple occasions, and claimed to have spiritual protection from guns. This image by James Grant, created in c. 1801 CE, is the only known image of Pemulwuy.

Governor Phillip's actions and the growing infringements of First Nations Peoples' rights incited Pemulwuy to lead several raids from 1792 CE. The first of these raids took place on Bidjigal land at Prospect in May 1792 CE. A Bidjigal raiding party attacked colonists, burned down their huts and stole their crops.

Conflict between colonists and First Nations Peoples subsequently became widespread and frequent. The largest confrontation was the Battle of Parramatta in 1797 CE. Pemulwuy and about 100 Aboriginal warriors advanced into Parramatta to challenge a garrison of soldiers to fight. The soldiers opened fire on the advancing spear-wielding warriors, killing five Aboriginal men. Pemulwuy was hit in the head and body multiple times by bullets, but he survived to become even more rebellious and influential.

In 1801 CE, Governor Philip Gidley King issued an order that any First Nations people near Parramatta, Georges River and Prospect could be shot on sight. Governor King issued a separate order a few months later to bring in Pemulwuy dead or alive. Pemulwuy was shot dead in June 1802 CE. His head was cut off and sent to Sir Joseph Banks, a naturalist in England. Governor King wrote to Banks that although he thought Pemulwuy was 'a terrible pest to the colony, he was a brave and independent character'.

> Decided measures therefore became necessary to prevent the out-settlers from being robbed and plundered, and to restore the natives to a friendly intercourse. With these views (founded on the opinions of the principal officers coinciding with mine), I gave orders for every person doing their utmost to bring Pemulwuy in either dead or alive ...

Source 3: Governor King to Lord Hobart, Secretary of State for the Colonies, 30 October 1802 CE

Learning ladder 20.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the weapon used to carry out **customary law**.
2. Describe the role of Pemulwuy.
3. Explain how Pemulwuy responded to John McIntyre's violence towards First Nations people.
4. Explain why Pemulwuy led raids against the colonists.
5. Analyse the role of Governor Phillip.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 2: Describe the image in this source.
3. Source 3: Explain the content of this source.
4. Source 3: Using this source and your knowledge, explain why Governor King believed Pemulwuy needed to be captured or killed.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 475

20.6

What caused the Bathurst War?

The arrival of the British colonists had an enormous impact on the Countries of First Nations Peoples and led to conflict as First Nations Peoples fought to protect their land.

Early colonies

The British colony at Warrane (Sydney Cove) included 730 convicts and around 550 officers, crew and other colonists. Governor Phllip's aim was to make the colony self-sufficient.

The land around Warrane (Sydney Cove) was not suitable for farming, however, and few convicts had any agricultural experience. Serious food shortages resulted in Phillip sending half the colonists to Norfolk Island in March 1788 CE. The island's rich soil was perfect for agriculture and it became an important source of food for New South Wales. The Norfolk Island colony was abandoned in 1814 CE due to the dangers of landing ships there.

Colonists started looking for land that was suitable for growing crops and raising animals. They followed Aboriginal walking trails and grass highways.

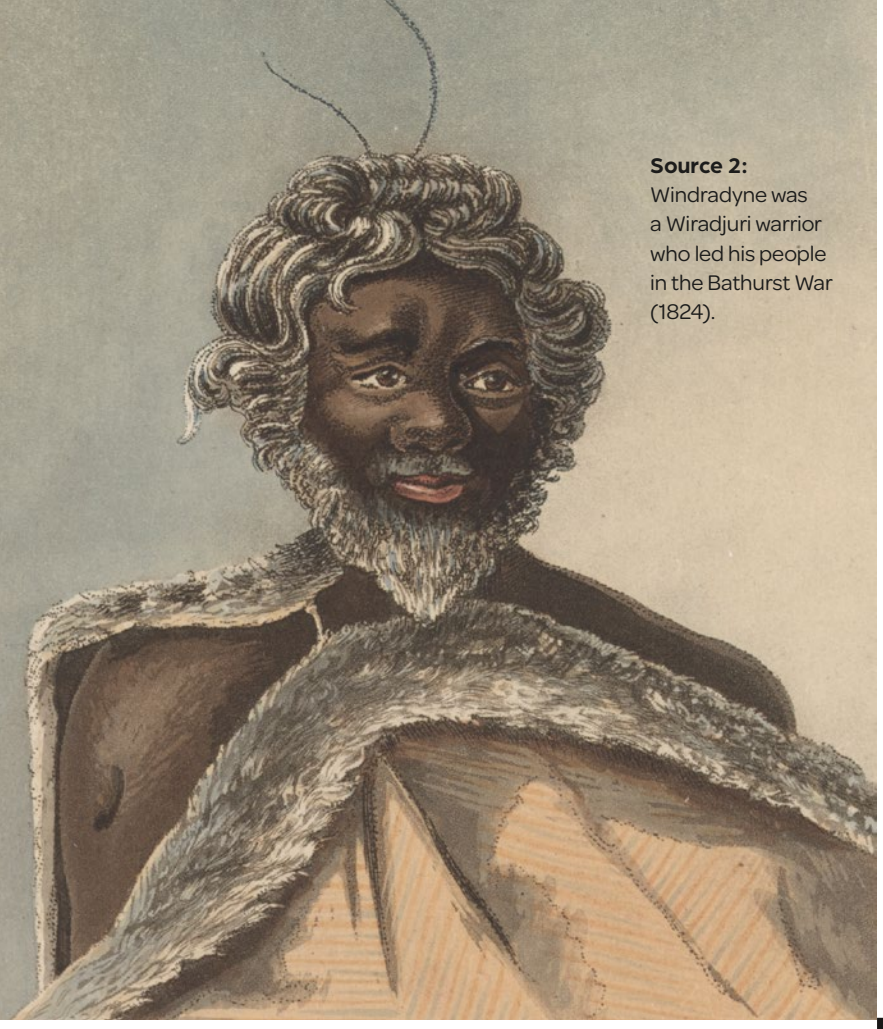
Source 1: This colonist's farm was located on the land of the Cabrogal clan of the Dharug Nation [Joseph Lycett (c. 1820 CE), *Alexander Riley's Farm 'Raby' Near Liverpool*]

This led them to places such as Parramatta, which soon became the centre of the colony. Parramatta was a great place for hunting, fishing and harvesting plants. Aboriginal Peoples had relied on this land for tens of thousands of years as a source of food. Parramatta is also an important place for the Burramattagal People's identity and spirituality.

Exploring the land

For the first two decades, the colonists concentrated on developing farms around the waterways of the Sydney basin, including the Georges, Hawkesbury, Nepean and Parramatta rivers. However, several factors made it critically important that they find more new places to farm:

- soils around Warrane (Sydney Cove) were becoming exhausted
- insect plagues were destroying crops
- there were several serious droughts and floods.



Source 2: Windradyne was a Wiradjuri warrior who led his people in the Bathurst War (1824).

In 1813 CE, three British colonists – Gregory Blaxland, William Charles Wentworth and William Lawson – went looking for farmland to the west of the Sydney basin. Using the pathways created by the Gundungurra, Dharawal, Wiradjuri, Wanaruah, Dharug and Darkinjung Peoples, they became the first Europeans to cross the Blue Mountains. The crossing of the Blue Mountains in 1813 CE saw the inland grasslands of New South Wales being used by the colonists for grazing sheep and growing wheat. It also meant that more First Nations Peoples were being driven off Country.

Windradyne's resistance

The Bathurst War was a conflict between the Europeans and the Wiradjuri Nation that lasted from 1822 to 1824 CE, led by Windradyne, a Wiradjuri warrior. As the colonists continued to spread into Wiradjuri lands, Windradyne began a campaign to push the colonists back over the Blue Mountains. This campaign involved the use of guerilla tactics, by which Windradyne and his warriors would attack outstations on the fringes of the colony.

Windradyne's campaign was mainly focused north of Bathurst, but he was also able to coordinate attacks with other groups of Wiradjuri warriors in the south.

Windradyne's campaign was so effective that the governor of New South Wales, Thomas Brisbane, declared a state of martial law on 14 August 1824. Troop numbers at Bathurst were increased to 75 and they were ordered to crush any signs of the Wiradjuri resistance. With the outstation colonists now supported by colonial troops, the violence escalated and Wiradjuri were killed in increasing numbers. It is estimated that between a quarter and a third of the Wiradjuri Peoples in the Bathurst area were killed. By the end of 1824, many Wiradjuri warriors were surrendering. Martial law ended on 11 December and Windradyne himself agreed to end the resistance on 28 December.

In spite of Windradyne's heroic efforts, the Wiradjuri had lost the battle and now suffered the further illegal seizure of their Country. Nevertheless, the effectiveness of Windradyne's campaign struck fear into the colonists. Governor Brisbane now sent mounted infantry to Wiradjuri country to patrol the frontier.

Learning ladder 20.6

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Identify the Traditional Custodians of the land featured in this source.
2. Describe the problems faced by the colonists during 1788 CE.
3. Explain how the colonists crossed the Blue Mountains.
4. Explain why the colonists wanted to expand beyond the Sydney basin.

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify how this source demonstrates continuity with European farming methods.
2. Describe how the crossing of the Blue Mountains changed the lives of the Wiradjuri People.
3. Explain how the declaration of martial law changed the Wiradjuri resistance.
4. What evidence indicates that the colonists feared a continued threat of resistance?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 477

What was the Black War?

The expansion of the British colonisation of Lutruwita (Tasmania) in the early 1800s CE resulted in a period of ongoing violence as the Palawa Peoples of Lutruwita (Tasmania) defended their Countries. These years of conflict are called the Black War.

The colony expands

The Australian island state of Lutruwita (Tasmania) was once known as Van Diemen's Land. In 1803 CE, a group of British soliders, convicts and colonists landed at Piyura Kitina (Risdon Cove) in Lutruwita (Van Dieman's Land) and started setting up the first permanent British colony on the island.

On 3 May 1804 CE, there was a violent clash between the British invaders and the Moomairremener People at Piyura Kitina (Risdon Cove). Eyewitnesses to the clash put forward varying interpretations of what happened (see Sources 1 and 2).

The Black War (c. 1824–1831 CE)

During the decade after the violent clash at Piyura Kitina (Risdon Cove), conflict between the colonists and Palawa Peoples was minimal. However, this changed after the colonists starting establishing farms on the lands of the Paredareme (Oyster Bay), Lairmairrener (Big River) and Panniher (North Midlands) Nations. These farms destroyed local ecosystems and disrupted sources of water and food. The farms also cut off Palawa Peoples from Country, where they conducted ceremonies and connected with important cultural sites.

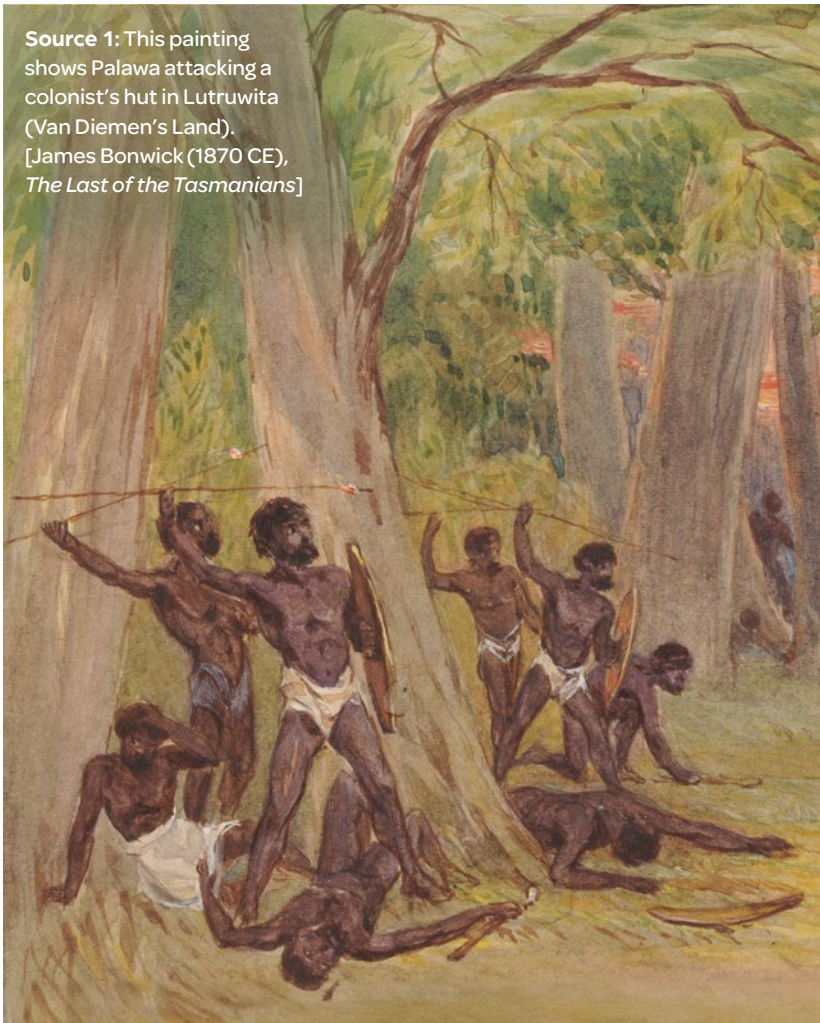
In response to the invasion of their land, First Nations Peoples fought back. They continued to retaliate even when the murders, abductions and dispossession soared as more colonists arrived in Lutruwita (Van Diemen's Land). Over 20 000 British people moved to the island between 1804 and 1830 CE.

Initially, it was the Paredareme (Oyster Bay), Lairmairrener (Big River) and Panniher (North Midlands) Nations who waged war against the colonists. Small mobile attacks on colonists escalated from 20 attacks in 1824 CE to 259 attacks in 1830 CE.

For seven years between 1824 and 1831 CE, Palawa war parties, armed with spears and clubs, killed 223 colonists and injured a similar number. They set fire to colonists' homes, crops and haystacks. They speared thousands of sheep and cattle.

In 1828 CE, the British declared martial law. This authorised the military to shoot any Palawa person found in settled areas. However, many colonist farmers believed that the proclamation of martial law gave them the right to hunt down Palawa people themselves, both within and beyond the settlements. This violence was further escalated when the governor of the Van Diemen's Land colony, George Arthur, decided to offer a bounty of £5 for every Palawa person captured, in an effort to rid the colony of Palawa resisters.

In 1830 CE George Arthur conducted a military operation called 'the Black Line' in which over 2000 colonists formed a 300-kilometre front in an attempt to force the Palawa away from the settled districts. Palawa attacks would nevertheless continue until December 1831 CE.

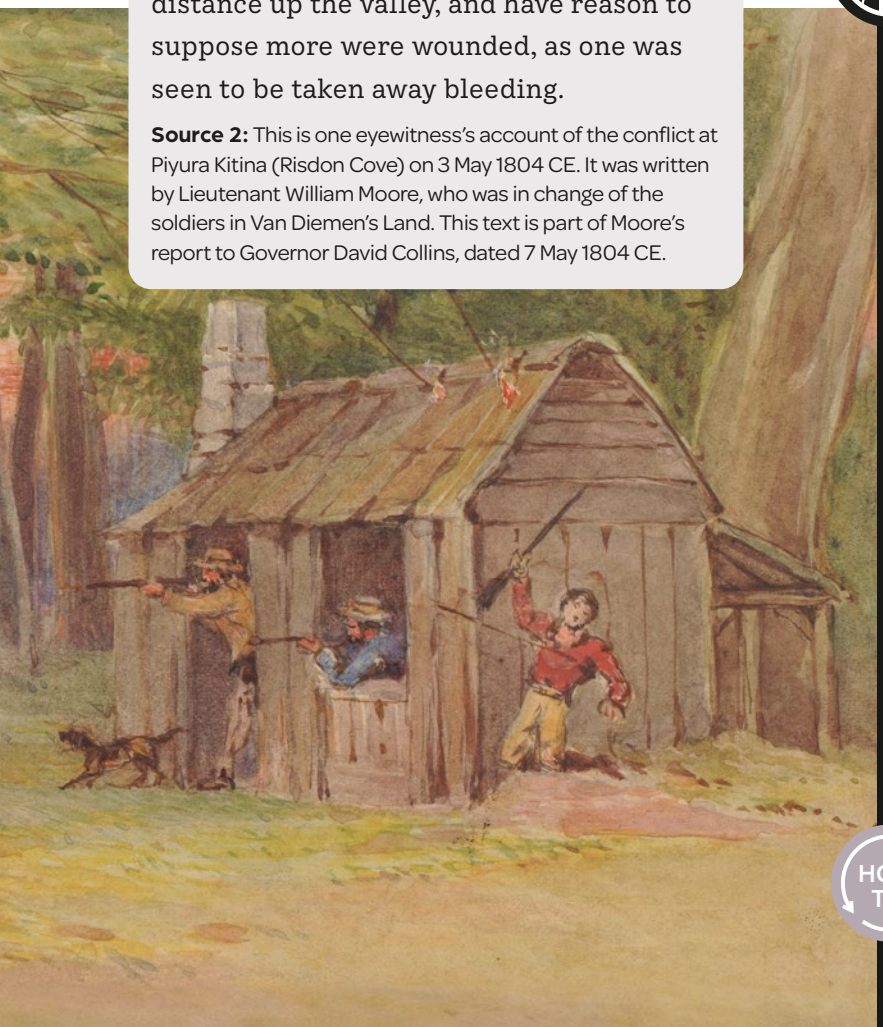


Source 1: This painting shows Palawa attacking a colonist's hut in Lutruwita (Van Diemen's Land). [James Bonwick (1870 CE), *The Last of the Tasmanians*]

Around 800 Palawa people were killed in the Black War, along with 219 colonists. The Black War was the largest conflict fought on Australian soil, yet it does not receive the recognition of other Australian military encounters.

It would appear from the numbers of them, and the spears with which they were armed, that their design was to attack us. However it was not until they had thoroughly convinced me of their intentions by using violence to a settler's wife and my own servant, who was returning into camp with some kangaroos … that they were fired upon, on their coming into camp and surrounding it … Their appearance and numbers I thought very far from friendly … on a proposal from Mr Mountgarret to fire one of the carronades [cannons] to intimidate them, they departed. Mr Mountgarret, with some soldiers and convicts, followed them some distance up the valley, and have reason to suppose more were wounded, as one was seen to be taken away bleeding.

Source 2: This is one eyewitness's account of the conflict at Piyura Kitina (Risdon Cove) on 3 May 1804 CE. It was written by Lieutenant William Moore, who was in change of the soldiers in Van Diemen's Land. This text is part of Moore's report to Governor David Collins, dated 7 May 1804 CE.



[I] was hoeing new ground near a creek [and] saw 300 of the natives come down in a circular form, [with] a flock of kangaroos hemmed in between them. There were men, women and children, they looked at me with all their eyes. I went down to the creek and reported them to some soldiers, and then went back to my work. The natives did not threaten me: I was not afraid of them … the natives were never within half a quarter of a mile [200 metres] of Burke's house. The natives did not attack the soldiers … the firing commenced about 11 o'clock. There were a great many of the natives slaughtered and wounded, I don't know how many.

Source 3: This is another eyewitness account of the conflict at Piyura Kitina (Risdon Cove). on 3 May 1804 CE. This text is part of the testimony of former convict Edward White at the Broughton Committee in 1830 CE. The Broughton Committee was set up to investigate the reasons for the hostility of the Aboriginal Tasmanians towards the colonists.

Learning ladder 20.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What event occurred in Lutruwita (Van Diemen's Land/Tasmania) on 3 May 1804 CE?
2. Describe the causes of the Black War.
3. Explain how Palawa Peoples fought the colonists in the Black War.
4. Explain why the Black War escalated after 1828 CE.

Perspectives

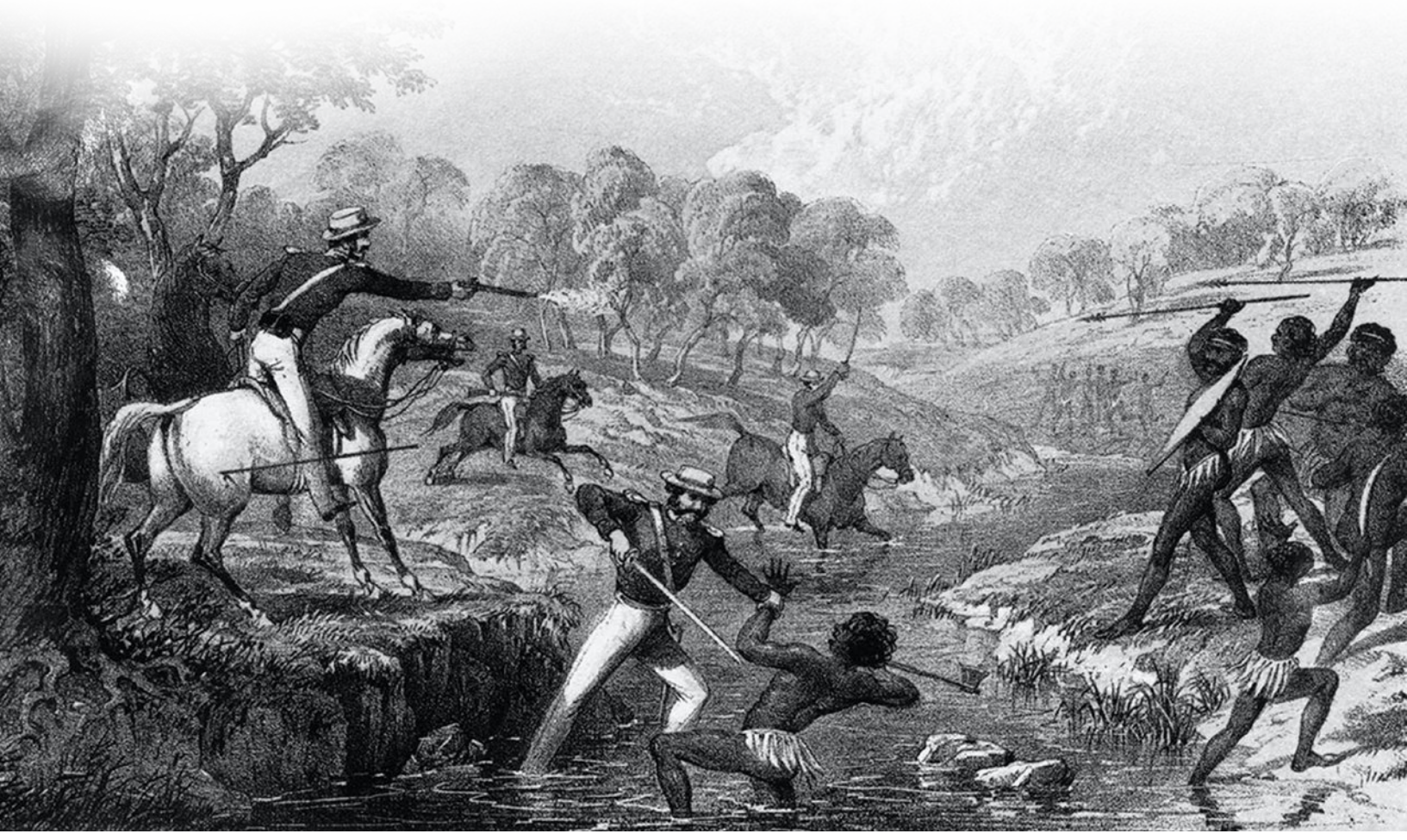
1. Sources 2 and 3: Identify the origins of these sources.
2. Sources 2 and 3: Describe the clash at Piyura Kitina (Risdon Cove) from the perspectives of Moore and White.
3. Sources 2 and 3: Identify the key differences between the perspectives of Moore and White.
4. Sources 2 and 3: Explain why the perspectives of Moore and White are different.
5. There are no surviving eyewitness accounts of the conflict at Piyura Kitina (Risdon Cove) from the Moomairremener People. What problems does this pose for historians?

HOW TO Perspectives, page 484

20.8

What happened during the Frontier Wars?

The ongoing conflict between the colonists and First Nations Peoples that took place from 1788 CE to the 1930s CE is called the Frontier Wars.



Source 1: This image depicts a scene from the Waterloo Creek massacre in 1837 and 1838 CE, where mounted police and colonists massacred at least 40 Kamilaroi people after five colonists were killed. [From a sketch by G.C. Mundy (1852 CE), lithograph, Australian War Memorial, ART50023]

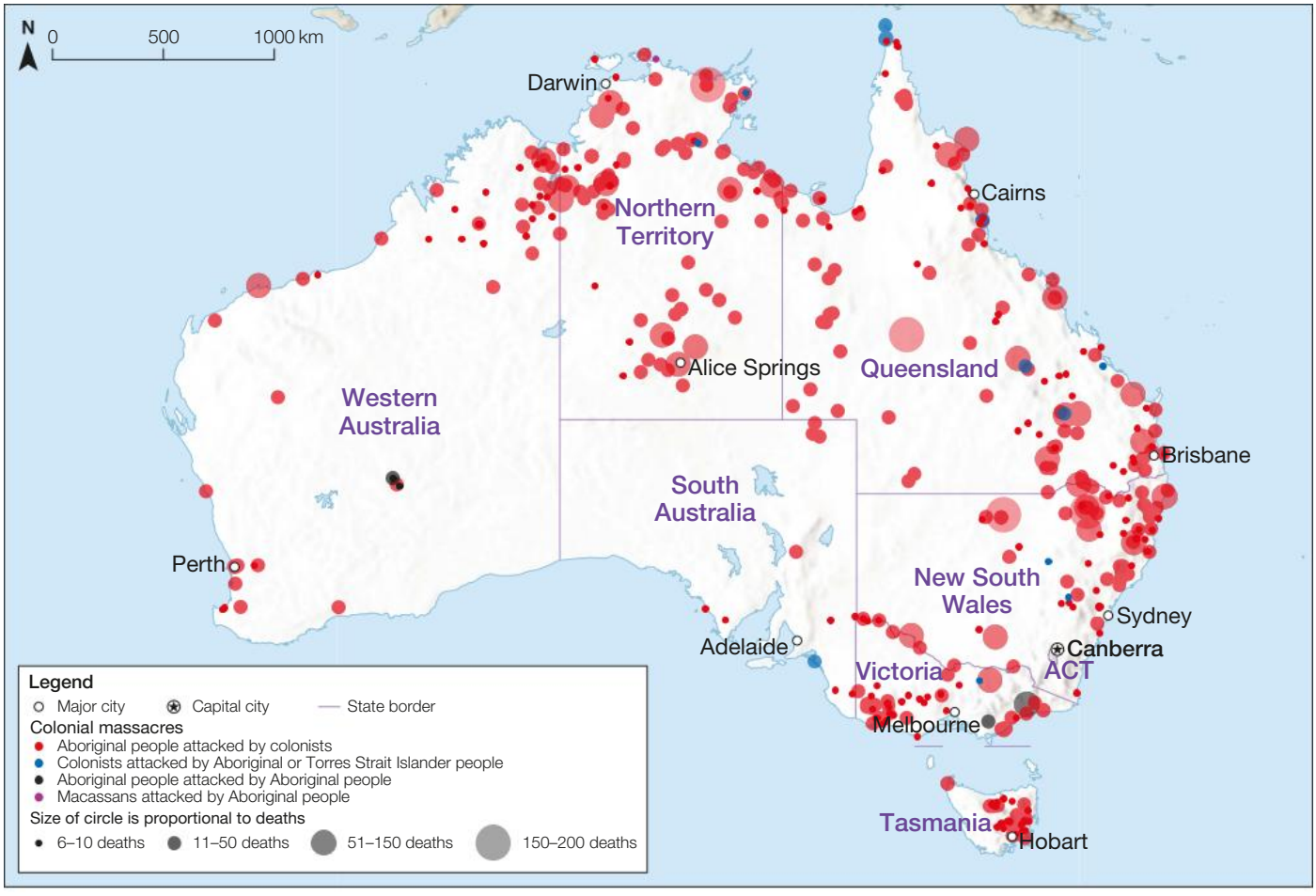
The Frontier Wars

Conflict between First Nations Peoples and British colonists continued as the colonies expanded further into Aboriginal land. The Hawkesbury and Nepean Wars (1795 CE), the Bathurst War (1822–1824 CE), and the Black War in Lutruwita (Tasmania) (1804–1830 CE) are some examples of the violence that occurred during this period.

The conflict between the two groups continued until the 1930s CE. Historians estimate that during the Frontier Wars, between 2500 and 5000 colonists died, and between 20 000 and 60 000 First Nations people perished.

This long period of ongoing violence is now referred to by many historians as the Frontier Wars, recognising that the conflict went far beyond a few isolated instances and extended throughout the long process of Aboriginal dispossession from the invasion of the British and into the 20th century.

Colonial frontier massacres, 1788–1930



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: Map showing the location of massacres in Australia (as known in 2022 CE)
Data sourced from the Newcastle Massacre Mapping Project.

Massacres

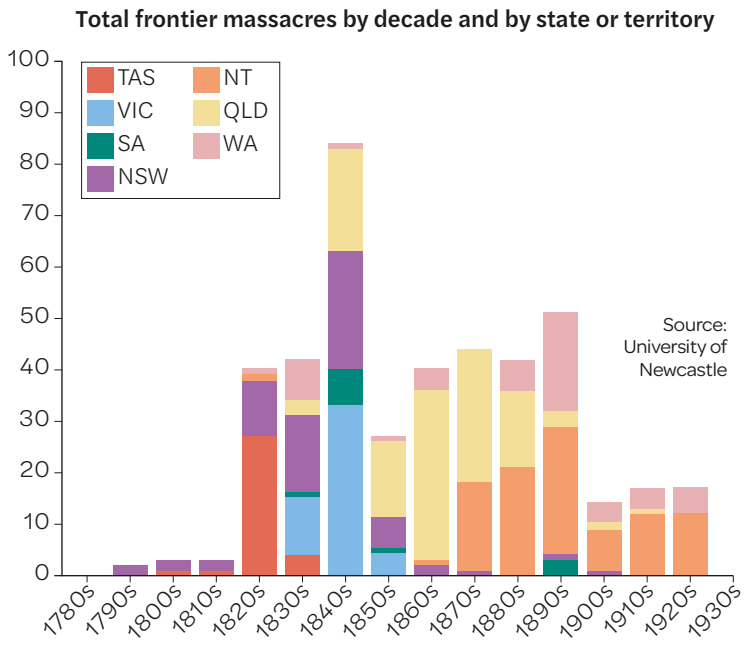
Not every Frontier War conflict was a battle fought between First Nations warriors and British soldiers or colonists. Many of the violent events were **massacres** of men, women and children, with First Nations people making up the majority of victims. Historians have identified over 400 massacre sites in Australia, where at least 10 000 First Nations people were killed between 1788 and 1930 CE.

Massacres often occurred because British soldiers or colonists could not find the specific warriors responsible for an act of resistance, so they punished any group of First Nations people they could find, even if those people had nothing to do with the original attack. Colonists also massacred First Nations people so they could take their land for themselves. These massacres were acts of genocide, as defined by the United Nations: the killing of a group because of their national, ethnic, racial or religious status.

The Myall Creek Massacre

The Myall Creek Massacre was the premeditated massacre of at least 28 unarmed Wirrayaraay people by a group of up to 12 Europeans. It began in June 1838 when a group of Europeans arrived at the cattle station where some few weeks prior the Wirrayaraay had been invited to stay for their protection from marauding gangs of stockmen in the district. When the First Nations people saw the Europeans arrive, they ran to the hut of Charles Kilmeister, the convict stockman who had originally invited them to stay.

The station hut keeper George Anderson asked the Europeans what they planned to do with the Wirrayaraay people and John Russell, one of the stockmen, replied, 'take them over the back of the range and frighten them'. The Europeans, including Charles Kilmeister, then tied the Wirrayaraay people together with rope and led them away. They were never seen alive again. The First Nations people were slaughtered with swords and their bodies were burned.



Source 3: Graph showing the number of frontier massacres by decade and state. [University of Newcastle (2017–2022 CE), 'Colonial Frontier Massacres in Australia 1788–1930' website]

The Myall Creek Massacre trial

The station manager reported the massacre to Governor George Gipps in Sydney. As a result, Police Magistrate Edward Denny Day began an investigation into the massacre. The investigation resulted in the arrest of 11 of the 12 perpetrators. The leader, John Flemming, escaped. The accused were remanded in custody until their trial in November. Despite the compelling evidence of the massacre, the first all-white jury found the accused not guilty after only deliberating for 20 minutes.

The second trial

The Attorney-General of New South Wales, John Plunkett, was appalled by the outcome of the trial. He believed that a great injustice had been done and that there was overwhelming evidence that the perpetrators were guilty. He therefore ordered a second trial.

Source 4: Memorial to the Wirrayaraay People killed at the Myall Creek Massacre, erected 2000 CE

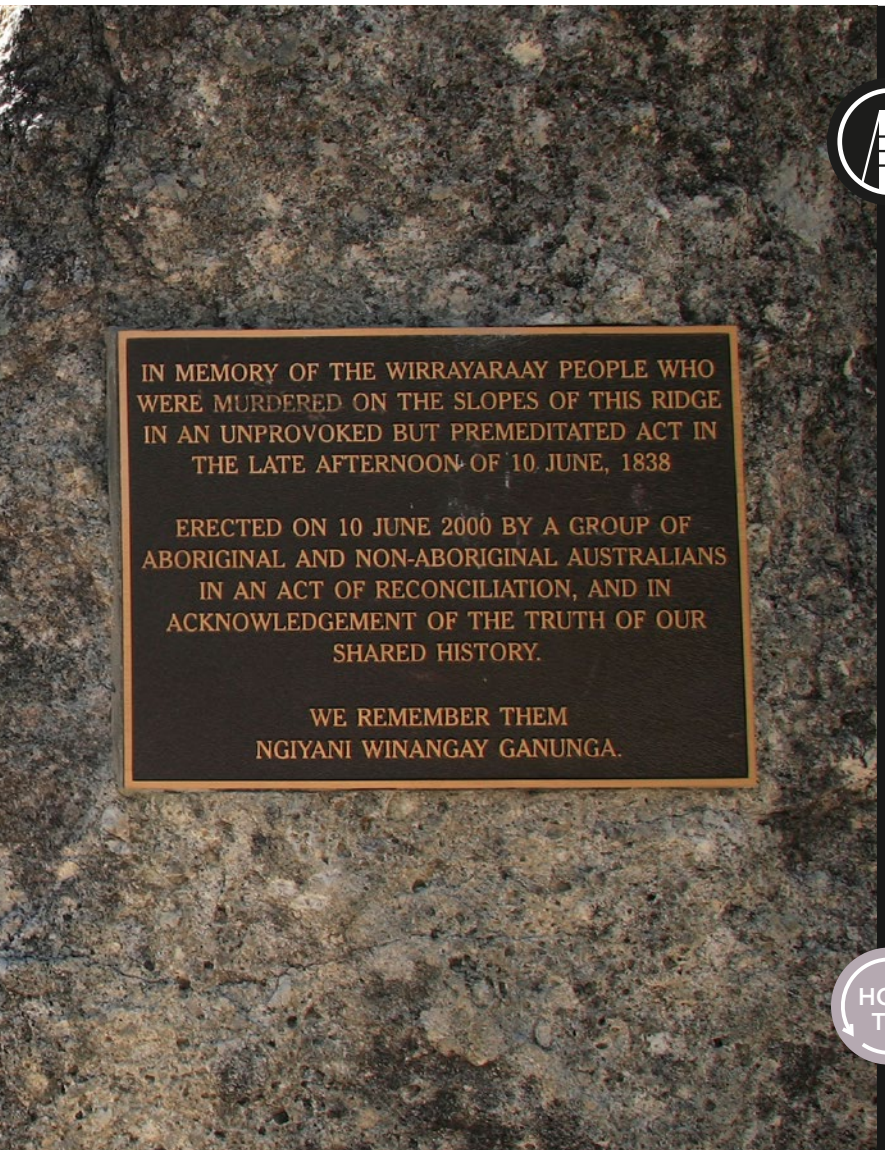
At the second trial only seven of the accused were tried; the others were eventually released due to a lack of evidence. In this trial, the seven were found guilty by an all-white jury of one count of murder against one six-year-old child whose name was unknown. They were sentenced to death by hanging and were executed on 18 December 1838.

This case marked a turning point in the relations between the colonists and the First Nations Peoples. On the one hand, it was a powerful message that First Nations people could be protected from the violence of the colonists under British law; however, this outcome stoked further tensions among colonists who viewed this as a violation of their 'right' to kill First Nations people.

Later massacres were committed using poisoned flour or water, making it harder for colonial authorities to trace the perpetrators. Some station managers chose not to report massacres to protect their fellow-stockmen. Historians have been able to find out about these events through memoirs, diaries, letters and First Nations' oral histories.

> It was enough to make one's blood run cold to listen to the stories that were told of the diabolical manner in which whole tribes had been 'rubbed out' ... No device by which the race could be exterminated had been left untried. They had been hunted and shot down like wild beasts – treacherously murdered whilst sleeping within the paddock rails, and poisoned wholesale by having arsenic or some other substance mixed with flour given to them for food. One 'lady' on the Upper Condamine River had particularly distinguished herself in the poisoning line, having, if report spoke the truth, disposed of more natives than any other person by means of arsenic alone ...

Source 5: Extract from a memoir by William Stamer, a British traveller who visited central Queensland in 1857. [William Stamer (1866 CE), *Recollections: A Life of Adventure*, Hurst and Blackett, London, pp. 98–99]



Learning ladder 20.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the event shown in this source.
2. Describe the nature of the Frontier Wars.
3. Source 2: Using this source and your knowledge, explain the impact of the Frontier Wars.
4. Source 3: Using this source, explain why the Frontier Wars occurred over such a long period.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the number of First Nations people killed in the Frontier Wars.
2. Describe the effects of the Myall Creek Massacre on:
   - **a** the Wirrayaraay People
   - **b** colonisers.
3. Source 5: Using the source and your knowledge, explain how colonisers continued to massacre First Nations people.
4. Sources 2, 3 and 5: Explain why historians now know about the extent of violence on the frontier.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 480

20.9

What policies affected First Nations Peoples?

Governments in Britain and its colonies, along with Christian institutions, introduced many policies to attempt to 'improve' and 'protect' the lives of First Nations Peoples. Questions have remained about whether this was actually protection or just another effort to illegally seize First Nations Countries.

The Native Institution

The Native Institution operated in the New South Wales colony between 1814 and 1833 CE. It was set up by Governor Lachlan Macquarie as a 'school for the education of the native children'. It was the first school for Aboriginal children in New South Wales, and its aim was to integrate the children into white society. The school's children were taken from their families and forced to abandon their languages and cultures. The Native Institution set in train a series of child-removal policies that led to the **Stolen Generations**.

The Select Committee on Aborigines

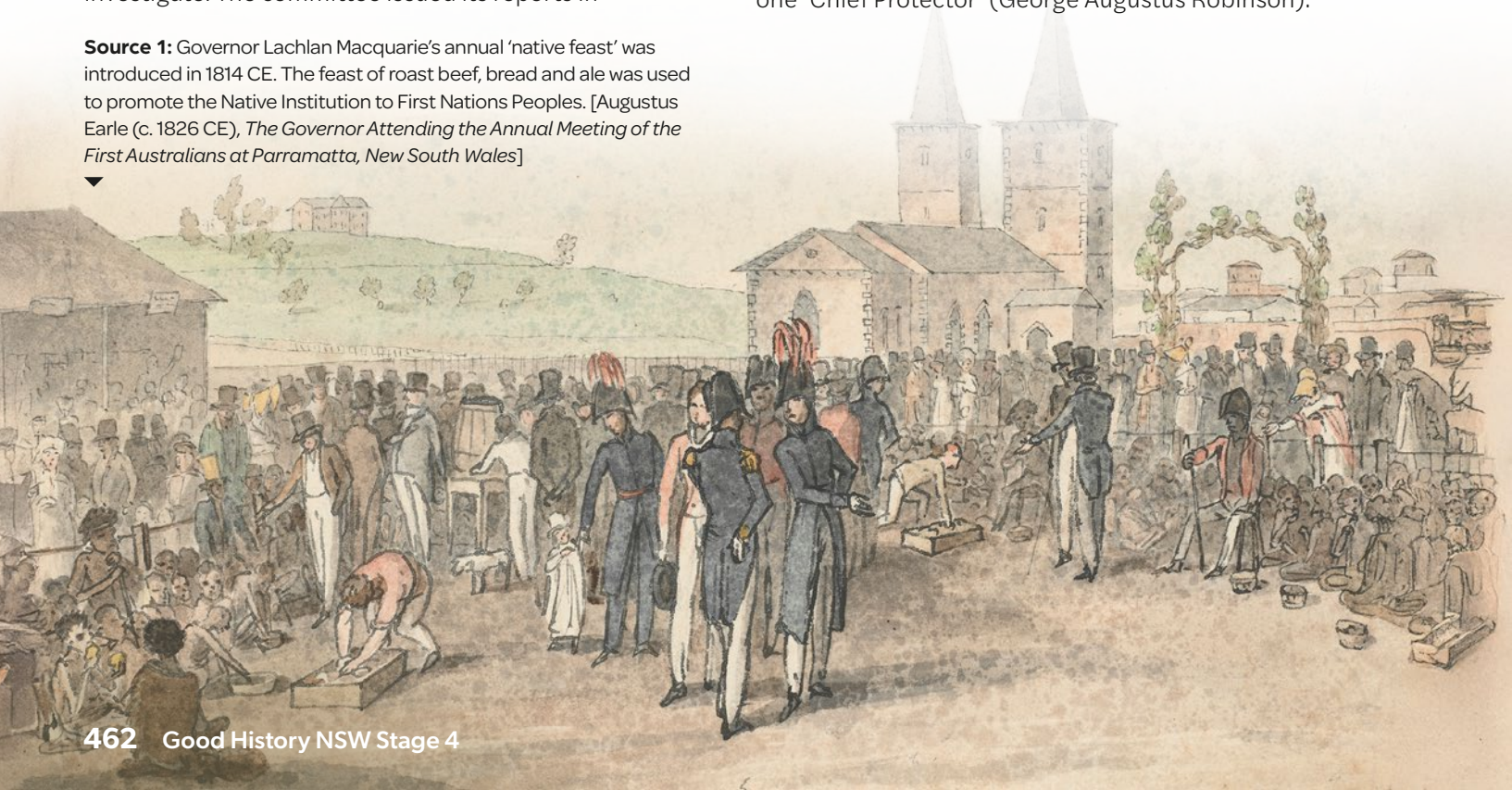
Concerns were growing among Christians in Britain and the Australian colonies about the plight of First Nations Peoples. In 1835 CE, the British Parliament appointed a Select Committee of the Legislative Council to investigate. The committee issued its reports in 1836 CE and 1837 CE. The reports found that colonists' violence and brutality had resulted in the physical and moral degradation of First Nations Peoples.

The committee recommended the establishment of protectorates, managed by a protector, to keep Aboriginal Peoples safe from colonists' violence. It also advocated the continued support of Christian missions to First Nations Peoples, believing that Christianity would help to 'civilise' Aboriginal Peoples and save them from extinction. While some of their intentions were to do good, the protectorates had a negative impact on the lives of First Nations Peoples.

Protectors of Aborigines

In 1838 CE, Governor Gipps established an Aboriginal Protectorate in the Port Phillip district. He appointed four 'Protectors of Aborigines' and one 'Chief Protector' (George Augustus Robinson).

Source 1: Governor Lachlan Macquarie's annual 'native feast' was introduced in 1814 CE. The feast of roast beef, bread and ale was used to promote the Native Institution to First Nations Peoples. [Augustus Earle (c. 1826 CE), *The Governor Attending the Annual Meeting of the First Australians at Parramatta, New South Wales*]



Source 2: This painting is by Benjamin Duterrau, an English artist who emigrated to Tasmania. This painting shows George Augustus Robinson among some of the Palawa people of Tasmania. Robinson was appointed Chief Protector of Aborigines in 1839 CE after the release of one of the Select Committee reports. [Benjamin Duterrau (1840 CE), *The Conciliation*]

The protectors were required to learn First Nations languages and protect the rights of First Nations Peoples. Protectors were given money and land to establish reserves for First Nations Peoples, where they would be taught farming and European ways. Meanwhile, their lands were taken over by the colonial government.

While the government ran some Aboriginal reserves, others were controlled by the churches, which wanted to spread Christianity to First Nations Peoples. Aboriginal people's lives were strictly controlled by the protectors. They had to go to church, only speak English and abandon their Aboriginal cultures. Children were kept apart from their parents in schools and dormitories.

The policy of protection was extended in the mid-19th century CE to further restrict Aboriginal cultures and rights. Victoria's *Aboriginal Protection Act 1869* enabled protectors to control where First Nations Peoples could live, whom they married and where they worked.

The Half-Caste Act 1886

Seventeen years later, the *Half-Caste Act 1886* was passed in Victoria. This Act allowed the government to remove Aboriginal people with a European parent or grandparent from Aboriginal reserves. **'Half-caste'** adults were expected to join the mainstream European-Australian society, while children were taken to children's homes to learn European ways. These actions did great damage to First Nations families and communities.

Learning ladder 20.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Identify the method used by Governor Macquarie to encourage First Nations Peoples to support the Native Institution.
2. Describe the role of the Native Institution.
3. Explain how the Select Committee on Aborigines aimed to 'protect' First Nations Peoples.
4. Explain the purpose of the *Half-Caste Act 1886*.
5. Evaluate the impact of Aboriginal reserves, the *Aboriginal Protection Act 1869* and the *Half-Caste Act 1886* on First Nations families and communities.

Contestability

1. Identify the aims of the Aboriginal protectorates.
2. Source 2: What is the message in this image?
3. Explain how the protectorates led to further government control of First Nations Peoples.
4. Explain why the churches wanted a role in Aboriginal protection.
5. Evaluate the role of Aboriginal reserves in 'protecting' First Nations Peoples.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 488

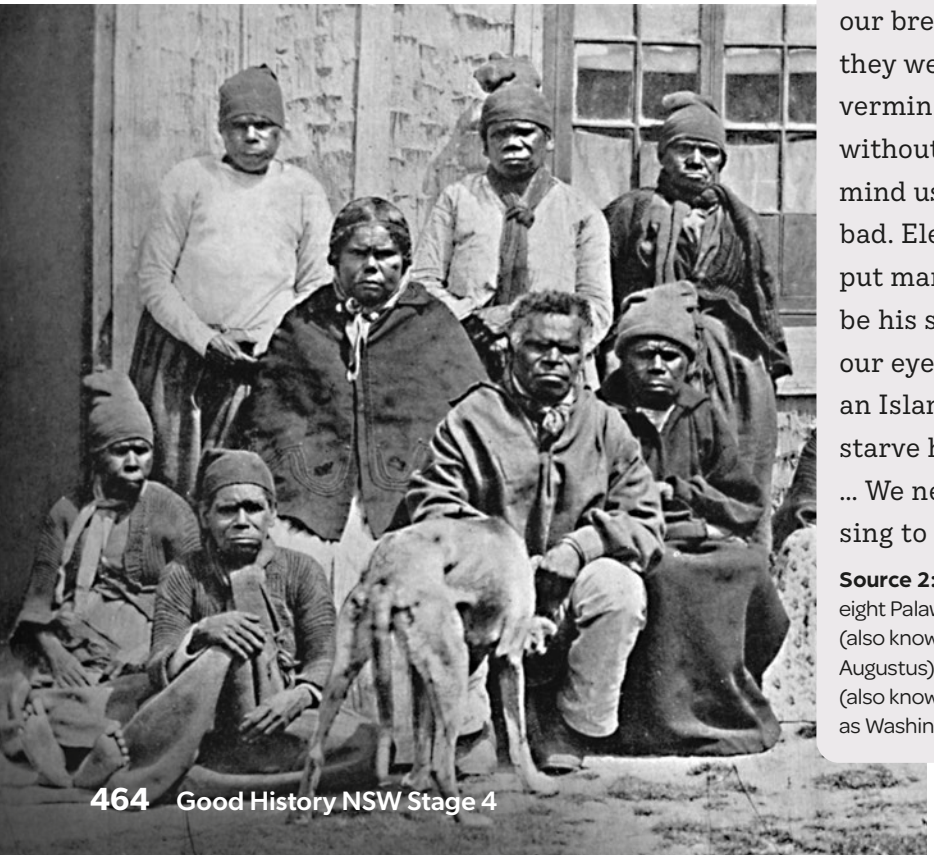
What was the role of the missions during the period of colonisation?

The missions had been created to 'civilise' and 'protect' First Nations Peoples from colonist violence. They also served to remove First Nations Peoples from their land.

The Wybalenna Mission

Before his appointment as Chief Protector of Aborigines, George Augustus Robinson had been a carpenter and British missionary in Lutruwita (Van Diemen's Land/Tasmania). In 1828, he had embarked on a mission to Christianise the Palawa Peoples at a mission station on Bruny Island. However, when he learned that Governor George Arthur was offering a £5 bounty for every Palawa person captured, he shifted his priorities. In 1831, Robinson successfully negotiated a contract with the colonial authorities for him to lead expeditions to capture all the remaining Palawa people and transfer them to islands in Bass Strait.

Source 1: First Nations people at Oyster Cove (1858 CE). When Wybalenna closed in 1847, the remaining residents were relocated to Oyster Cove.



In 1833, Robinson established the Wybalenna Aboriginal Establishment on Flinders Island for the captured and dispossessed Palawa people. At Wybalenna, Palawa people were forced to change their names, wear European clothing and speak English.

> Your Majesty's Petitioners pray that you will not allow Dr Jeanneret to come again among us as our Superintendent as we hear he is to be sent another time. For when Dr Jeanneret was with us … he used to carry pistols in his pockets and threatened very often to shoot us and make us run away in a fright. Dr Jeanneret kept plenty of pigs in our Village which used to run into our houses and eat up our bread … Our houses were let fall down and they were never cleaned but were covered with vermin and not white-washed. We were often without clothes and Dr Jeanneret did not care to mind us when we were sick until we were very bad. Eleven of us died when he was here. He put many of us into gaol because we would not be his slaves … He shot some of our dogs before our eyes and sent all the other dogs of ours to an Island and when we told him that they would starve he told us that they might eat each other … We never were taught to read or write or to sing to God by the Doctor.

Source 2: Petition to Queen Victoria, 17 February 1846, signed by eight Palawa leaders at Wybalenna: Walter G. Arthur; Moomereriner (also known as King Alexander); Thermanope (also known as Augustus); Lennimeena (also known as John Allen); Calamarowenye (also known as King Tippoo); Davey Bruney; Maccamee (also known as Washington); and Merappe (also known as Neptune).

Source 3: On his arrival at Lake Macquarie in 1826 CE, Lancelot Threlkeld was given a Dance of Welcome by the Awabakal People. [Joseph Lycett (1818 CE), *Corroboree at Newcastle*]

They were forbidden from speaking their own language and from practising their culture. The houses were poorly maintained, the food was inadequate and the Palawa people suffered violent mistreatment at the hands of cruel superintendents.

In 1846, eight Palawa men wrote a petition to Queen Victoria which outlined the terrible conditions at Wybalenna. It was the first time Aboriginal people had petitioned the British monarch. An inquiry was held that revealed shocking incidents of violence and depredation against First Nations people. Wybalenna was subsequently closed. Between Wybalenna's opening in 1833 CE and its closure in 1847 CE, 130 Palawa people had died as a result of the poor food and housing.

Lancelot Threlkeld

Other missionaries were much more protective and supportive of Aboriginal people. In 1826 CE, Lancelot Threlkeld was appointed as a missionary by the London Missionary Society to the Awabakal People at the Bahtahbah Mission, near Lake Macquarie. In the course of his work, he befriended Biraban, an Awabakal Elder. Together they established a written form of the Awabakal language and also started a translation of the Bible. Threlkeld had certainly hoped to convert the Awabakal People, but he also believed that they would never accept Christianity due to the ceaseless brutality of so-called Christian colonisers. In 1826 CE he would write 'their land is taken from them, their food destroyed and they are left to perish'.

Threlkeld used his mission's annual reports to express his opposition to the dispossession of First Nations Peoples and to report on colonial violence. Threlkeld also regularly attended police courts to support First Nations people and provide accounts from eyewitnesses of massacres and violence on the frontier to colonial leaders. His role in the courts was crucial because Aboriginal people themselves were not allowed to give evidence in court.

> I am now perfectly at a loss to describe to [the Aborigines] their position. Christian laws will hang the Aborigines [for] violence done to Christians, but Christian laws will not protect them from the aggressions of Christians, because Aborigines must give evidence only upon oath [and being considered 'unable' to take a religious oath, therefore cannot give evidence in court].

Source 4: Lancelot Threlkeld (1838 CE), 'Memoranda of Events at Lake Macquarie'. Threlkeld wrote this memorandum to the NSW Colonial Secretary, Edward Deas Thomson.

Learning ladder 20.10

Significant people, ideas, and events

1. Identify two aims of Christian missions.
2. Describe how George Augustus Robinson helped remove the Palawa from their land.
3. Explain how the Wybalenna Mission affected First Nations people.
4. Explain why the role of Lancelot Threlkeld was significant.
5. Evaluate the significance of the petition to Queen Victoria (1846 CE).

Perspectives

1. Source 2: From whose perspective is this source written?
2. Source 3: Describe the perspective of the Awabakal in this source.
3. Source 2: Explain the perspective of this source towards the superintendent Dr Jeanerret.
4. Source 4: Using the source and your knowledge, evaluate Lancelot Threlkeld's perspective on colonial violence.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 484

How did First Nations women resist colonisation?

The colonists' seizure of First Nations Countries meant that, for many, survival was hard and life was becoming desperate. During these times, many Aboriginal women demonstrated their leadership and intelligence and enabled their communities to unite to survive the unfolding genocide.

Truganini

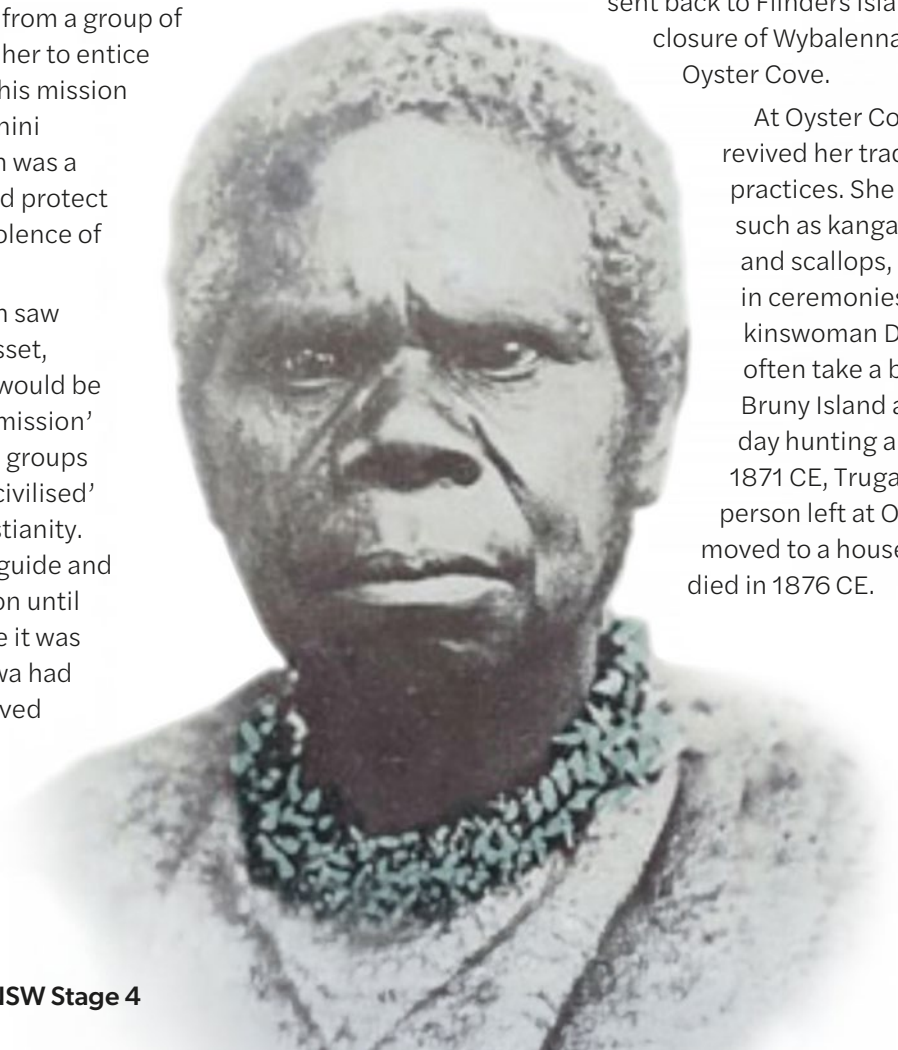
Brutal attacks by colonists and whalers as well as a program of ethnic cleansing almost annihilated the Palawa Peoples of Tasmania. Truganini was a Nuenonne chieftain's daughter from Lunawanna-alonnah (Bruny Island). When she was 18, her mother and fiancé had been murdered, her sisters abducted, and she had been raped by whalers.

In 1828 CE, George Augustus Robinson had rescued Truganini from a group of woodcutters and used her to entice her clan to relocate to his mission on Bruny Island. Truganini believed that Robinson was a good person who would protect her people from the violence of the colonisers.

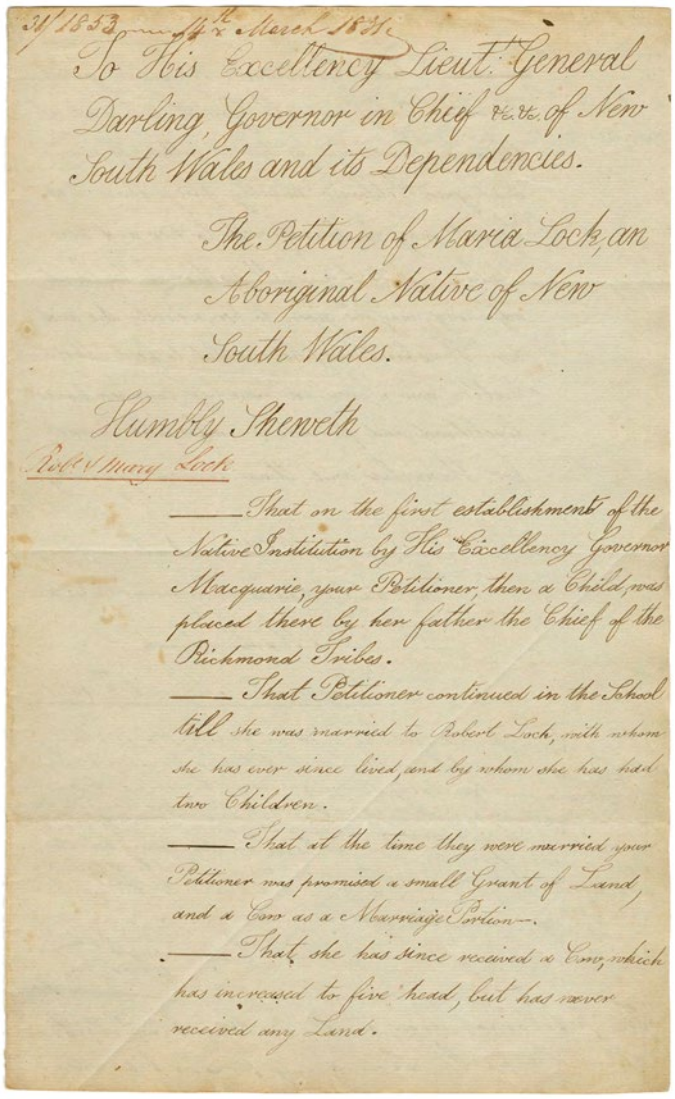
However, Robinson saw Truganini as a useful asset, whose language skills would be useful for his 'friendly mission' to gather other Palawa groups so that they could be 'civilised' and converted to Christianity. Truganini worked as a guide and interpreter for Robinson until 1834 CE, by which time it was believed that the Palawa had been completely removed from their lands.

Robinson had promised Truganini and his other guides that they could live in freedom, but in 1835 CE, she was taken to Wybalenna. In 1838 Robinson sailed to Naarm (Melbourne) to manage the recently established Port Phillip Protectorate. He took Truganini with him to help negotiate with the Kulin Nations, but she ran away to join a gang of bushrangers. She wanted to take revenge on the whalers who had harmed her and her family. By 1841 CE, however, Truganini had been sent back to Flinders Island, and with the closure of Wybalenna in 1847 CE, to Oyster Cove.

At Oyster Cove, Truganini revived her traditional cultural practices. She gathered foods such as kangaroo rats, oysters and scallops, and participated in ceremonies. She and her kinswoman Dray would often take a boat to nearby Bruny Island and spend the day hunting and feasting. By 1871 CE, Truganini was the only person left at Oyster Cove and was moved to a house in Hobart. She died in 1876 CE.



Source 1: Truganini ▶



To His Excellency Lieut. General Darling, Governor in Chief &c. &c. of New South Wales and its Dependencies.

The Petition of Maria Lock, an Aboriginal Native of New South Wales.

Humbly Sheweth

Pet'r Maria Lock

——That on the first establishment of the Native Institution by His Excellency Governor Macquarie, your Petitioner then a Child, was placed there by her father the Chief of the Richmond Tribes.

——That Petitioner continued in the School till she was married to Robert Lock, with whom she has ever since lived, and by whom she has had two Children.

——That at the time they were married your Petitioner was promised a small Grant of Land and a Cow as a Marriage Portion.

——That she has since received a Cow which has increased to five head, but has never received any Land.

Source 2: Maria Lock's petition to Lieutenant General Ralph Darling, Governor of New South Wales, asking him to grant her a portion of land, which had been promised to her when she married a European

Truganini had immense wisdom and knew when to compromise and when to resist. A symbol of her strong resolve and spirit can be seen in Source 1. This image shows her wearing her distinctive mariner shell necklace, a key part of her cultural heritage that she fought hard to protect and pass on to the next generations of Palawa people.

Maria Lock

Maria was the daughter of Yarramundi, the 'Chief of the Richmond tribes', and belonged to the Booroberongal clan of the Dharug People. She was born around 1805 and in 1814 she became one of the original First Nations students enrolled in the Native Institution in Paramatta. The purpose of this institution was to educate First Nations children who had been forcibly removed from their families. While at the school, Maria outperformed over 100 First Nations and non-Indigenous students in the examinations.

In 1824, she married Robert Lock, a European convict. This was the first state-approved marriage between a First Nations person and a European. She was also one of the first First Nations people to be awarded a land grant by the colonial government upon her marriage to Robert. However, six years after her marriage she was yet to receive this land. In 1831, Maria decided to write to Governor Ralph Darling requesting she be given the land that was promised to her. She also asked that she be given the land that was promised to her brother Colebee by Governor Macquarie. (Colebee was deceased by this time.) Maria was successful in her petition for both requests, receiving 40 acres at Liverpool and Colebee's 30 acres at Blacktown.

Over her life, she challenged the stereotypes about First Nations Peoples and pursued the colonial government to ensure that she received what she was promised. Today many Dharug people are proud descendants of Maria Lock and continue to honour her memory with their own success.

Learning ladder 20.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify Truganini's clan.
2. Describe one of Maria Lock's achievements.
3. Explain how Truganini maintained her culture at Oyster Bay.
4. Explain why Truganini agreed to help Robinson.
5. Evaluate the significance of Truganini.

Significance

1. Source 1: Identify the signficance of Truganini's necklace.
2. Describe Truganini's act of resistance when she got to Naarm (Melbourne).
3. Explain the significance of Maria Lock's marriage to Robert.
4. Source 2: Explain why Maria Lock's petition to Governor Darling was historically significant.
5. Evaluate Maria Lock's significance to the Dharug People.

HOW TO Significance, page 486

20.12

What were the impacts of contact and colonisation on First Nations Peoples?

Source 1: W.A. Cawthorne (1845), *Natives Driven to The Police Court by the Police for Trespassing, 1845*

The impact of colonisation on First Nations Peoples was catastrophic: people lost their homes, families, communities and cultures. Thousands of people lost their lives. The actions and policies of colonists continue to have consequences today.

Impact of diseases

First Nations Peoples had no immunity to European diseases. Contact with the British colonists resulted in First Nations Peoples becoming sick with influenza, measles, tuberculosis and smallpox, which devastated Aboriginal communities. Historians estimate that these diseases killed a large percentage of the Aboriginal population. Smallpox was one of the main killers, with up to 70 per cent of the Eora people killed during the smallpox epidemic of 1789 CE. Historians are unsure about how smallpox arrived in Australia; however, records show that a First Fleet surgeon carried vials of pus, known as variolous matter, from a recovering smallpox survivor. This may have been the source of the smallpox epidemic that spread among the Eora population.

Impact on the environment of European agricultural practices

The British colonists needed land for farming in order to feed themselves. As European-style farms expanded, increasingly large tracts of land were used for crops and grazing. This had a severe, negative impact on the precolonial Australian environment and First Nations Peoples' own agricultural practices. When First Nations people tried to hunt, gather bush foods or access water on land that was now part of colonists' farms, they were often attacked, poisoned or rounded up by colonial troops.

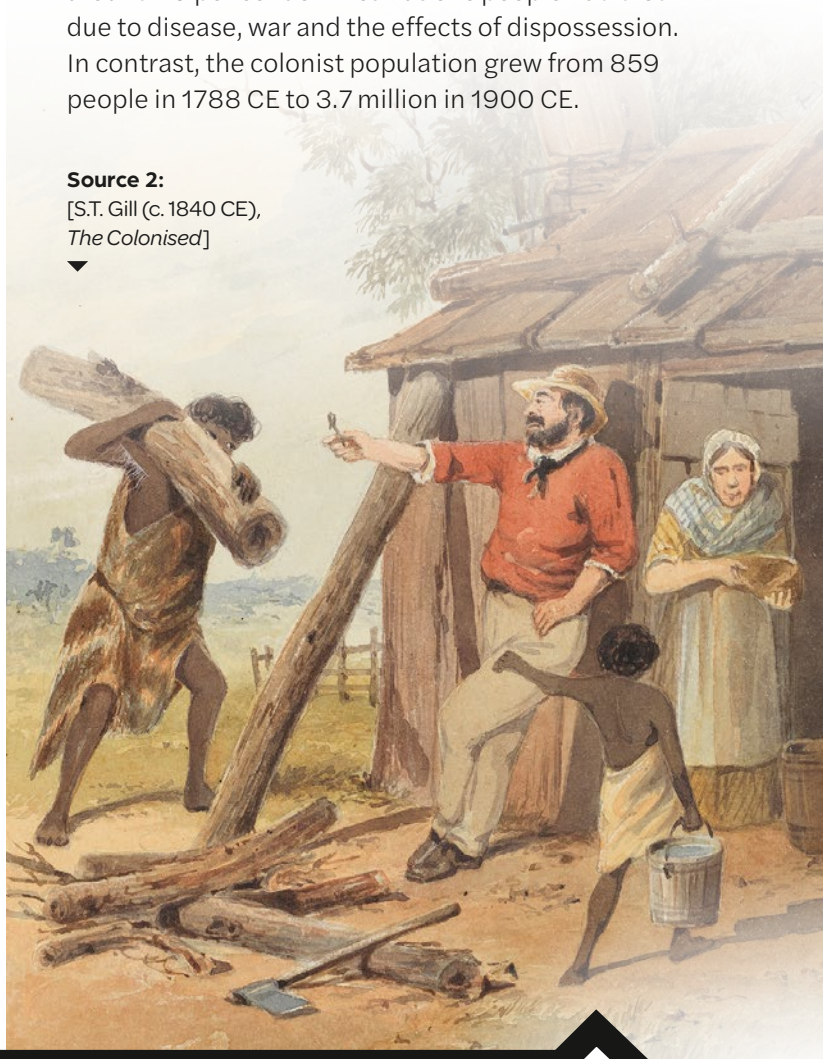
The European farm animals the colonists had brought with them – sheep and other hard-hooved cattle – compacted the ground, which resulted in increased flooding and erosion. The introduction of these animals also disrupted First Nations people's ability to farm plants such as the murnong (yam daisy). In addition, the structure of a sheep's jaw enables it to bite grasses near their roots, often killing the plant. As grasslands became unworkable, the sheep graziers moved further inland, resulting in the degradation of more and more land.

The natural environment also suffered from colonists introducting European animals and plants into the Australian environment. Rabbits, cats and foxes have no natural predators in Australia and their numbers exploded. This led to the demise of native plants and animals and widespread erosion caused by rabbits' burrows.

Loss of people

The First Nations population before 1788 CE is thought to have been around one million. Historians estimate that in 1900 CE, only 93 333 First Nations people were left due to violence and disease. In just over 100 years, around 70 per cent of First Nations people had died due to disease, war and the effects of dispossession. In contrast, the colonist population grew from 859 people in 1788 CE to 3.7 million in 1900 CE.

Source 2:
[S.T. Gill (c. 1840 CE), *The Colonised*]



Learning ladder 20.12

Impacts and legacies

1. Identify two impacts of colonisation.
2. Describe the impact of the introduction of European animals on the Australian landscape.
3. Source 2: Explain how this source shows the impacts of colonisation.
4. Explain why European farming practices were damaging to the Australian environment.

Cause and effect

1. Identify the effect of European diseases on First Nations communities.
2. Describe the possible cause of the 1789 CE smallpox epidemic.
3. Source 1: Explain the causes of Aboriginal 'trespassing' on colonists' farms.
4. Explain why colonisation proved so devastating to First Nations populations.

Cause and effect, page 480

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

Now that you've finished the chapter, it's time to conduct your own historical inquiry on First Nations Peoples' experiences of colonisation. Throughout the chapter you have developed knowledge and understanding of First Nations Peoples' experiences of colonisation. Background knowledge is important because it helps you make connections to new information, ask better questions and consider different perspectives. As you progressed through the chapter, you have gathered information through classroom discussion, highlighting, note taking and answering questions. Now you are ready to start planning your own historical inquiry!

A historical inquiry gives you the opportunity to be an active historian: forming questions, interrogating sources and communicating insights about the past on a topic of your choice. The chapter has covered the origins and legacies of First Nations Peoples' experiences of colonisation in addition to significant people, events, ideas and beliefs. What would you like to know more about?

- The importance of connecting to Country, page 444
- *Terra nullius*, page 446
- The Bathurst War, page 454
- The life of Truganini, page 466
- Legislation that affected First Nations Peoples, page 463

Return to the relevant pages in the chapter and read them again.

Next, complete the 'see, think, wonder' process to help develop ideas you might cover in your inquiry.

Jot down your answers to these questions. Your answers will help you to formulate your own research ideas. Once you have worked through this process, you are ready to start the historical inquiry.

Refer to page 492 of the How-to chapter for a step-by-step guide to this process.

See

What do you see?
Who is involved?
What are the key features?
When and where was this happening?

Think

What do you think about that?
How do you think people were affected at the time?
How is this similar to or different from today?
How do we know?

Wonder

What did different groups think about this?
Why is this important to know?
What does it make you wonder?

Level up!

Throughout the chapter, you have been working to move up the Learning ladder. An inquiry investigation is a great opportunity to expand your knowledge and attempt new skills.
When planning your inquiry, consider how the experiences and perspectives of individuals and groups shaped societies, beliefs and events in the past. Think about how the past has had an impact on the present. Use the How-to chapter to support your planning and research.

History How-to 21

Historians use particular skills to analyse and understand societies of the past. Historical skills are based on interpreting sources of evidence from the past, promoting inquiry and encouraging investigation.

How to develop history skills

The skills described in this How-to are important skills that historians use to understand the past. There are five levels of difficulty for each skill. Each skill is described and a model provided that demonstrates how to master the skill at each level. Learning skills at the lowest level of difficulty will help you to master the skills at the highest level.

Chronology

Chronology is the arrangement of events into the order in which they happened. Historians put events in order, from the oldest or earliest event to the most recent event.

Here are some key terms relating to chronology:

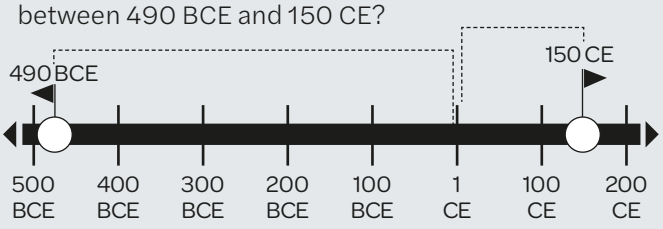
- **ancient:** relating to the time between c. 3000 BCE and c. 500 CE
- **Anno Domini (AD):** a Latin term meaning 'in the year of our Lord'; modern historians do not use this term but many other people do
- **Before Christ (BC):** the years before the birth of Jesus Christ; modern historians do not use this term but many other people do
- **BCE (Before Common Era):** the years before the common era (BC)
- **CE (Common Era):** the years after the common era (AD)
- **century:** 100 years
- **decade:** 10 years
- **era:** a distinct period with significant historical characteristics
- **medieval:** the 5th to 15th centuries CE
- **millennium:** 1000 years
- **modern:** the years from c. 1789 CE to the present
- **prehistoric:** the time before written records.

1 I can read a timeline

Timelines list key events and the years those events happened in the order they occurred. A one-off event is shown as a vertical line. A period of time is shown as a horizontal line, with the ends of the line showing the start and end of the period.

When answering questions about chronology, include part of the question in your answer. For example, if a question asks, 'When was the city of Rome founded?' you should answer with, 'The city of Rome was founded in 753 BCE', rather than just '753 BCE'.

For example, how many years were there between 490 BCE and 150 CE?

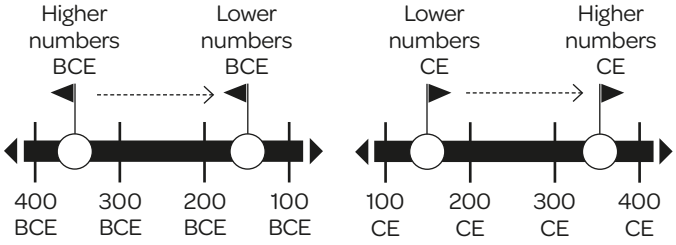


The difference in years between 490 BCE and 150 CE is:

490 + 150 = 640 years

2 I can place events on a timeline chronologically

Placing events on a timeline involves putting them in chronological order, from the earliest event to the most recent event. The order goes like this:



Source 1: The Arch of Titus was constructed in 81 CE, during the Roman Empire.

Source 2: This source is an artist's impression of a battle at Syracuse. [*Peloponnesian War: The Naval Battle in the Harbor of Syracuse* (19th century CE), wood engraving, Granger Historical Picture Archive]

It is similar to positive and negative numbers used in mathematics. A period of time that lasts 10 years in BCE starts with a higher number and goes *down*. A period of time that lasted 10 years in CE starts with a lower number and goes *up*.

For example:

700–690 BCE: an event taking 10 years

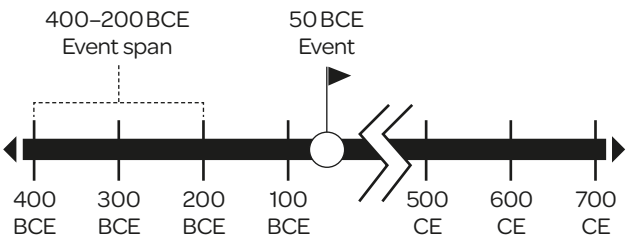
700–710 CE: an event taking 10 years

3 I can follow timeline conventions

Follow these steps to make a timeline:

1. Select events to include on your timeline.
2. Put the events in chronological order: from the earliest event to the latest event.
3. Work out the earliest and latest dates you want to include on your timeline.
4. Pick a span of years that your timeline will cover; this span should include the earliest and most recent dates.
5. Choose the unit of time you want to use: years, decades or centuries.
6. Work out how many segments your timeline needs.
7. Draw a straight line and divide it into segments. Figure out the size of each segment based on how much space you have on your sheet of paper.
8. Number the segments into the units you selected in Step 5.
9. Add the events to your timeline.

If an event goes over many years, add it as a span rather than a line. If there is a large gap between the events on your timeline, add a zigzag line to show there has been a jump in time. For example:

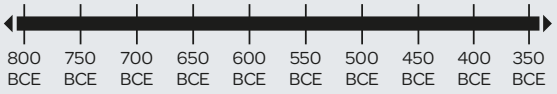


Example of creating a timeline

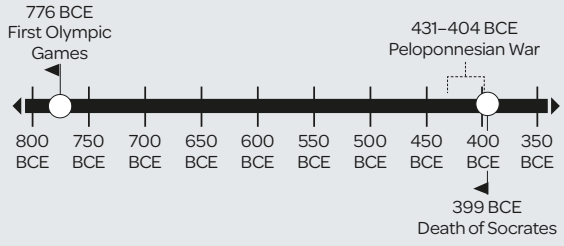
1. Select events to include on your timeline.
   First Olympic Games (776 BCE); Death of Socrates (399 BCE); Peloponnesian War (431–404 BCE)
2. Put the events in chronological order.
   First Olympic Games (776 BCE); Peloponnesian War (431–404 BCE); Death of Socrates (399 BCE)
3. Work out the earliest and latest dates you want to include on your timeline.
   776 BCE is the earliest date and 399 BCE is the latest
4. Pick a span of years that your timeline will cover; this span should include the earliest and most recent dates.
   800 BCE–350 BCE (450 years)
5. Choose the unit of time you want to use: years, decades or centuries.
   Segments of 50 years
6. Work out how many segments your timeline needs.
   Nine blocks of 50 years
7. Draw a straight line and divide it into segments. Figure out the size of each segment based on how much space you have on your sheet of paper.

I am using an A4 exercise book. I have about 20 cm to draw in. Nine blocks at 2 cm per block gives me 18 cm.

8. Number the segments into the units you selected in Step 5.



9. Add the events to your timeline.



4 I can summarise the events on a timeline

Summarising information from a timeline involves condensing the key events into a brief, focused overview. This requires looking critically at the timeline to determine which points are most important and how they fit together. To summarise effectively, follow these steps:

- **Identify the most significant events:** Not all events on a timeline are of equal importance. Focus on the events that represent major turning points or milestones in history. These are often the moments that led to significant change or shaped future developments.
- **Look for patterns or connections:** Summarising is not just about listing events. Instead, try to understand how the events relate to one another. Are they part of a broader trend, such as the rise of empires? Grouping related events can help you to find patterns and connections between events.
- **Determine the overall theme or progression:** Timelines often illustrate change over time. In your summary, aim to describe this progression, whether it's a series of conflicts, the spread of ideas or periods of stability followed by upheaval. Think about what story the timeline is telling and convey this in your summary.

5 I can explain change or causality from a timeline

Explaining change or causality using a timeline means understanding how events are connected and how one event leads to another. To do this, follow these steps:

- **Find important events:** Look for key events on the timeline that caused big changes or had lasting effects. Focus on events that seemed to trigger shifts in areas such as politics, society or the economy.
- **Understand how events are connected:** To explain causality, think about how one event might lead to another. For example, a war could result in a change of government, or a new invention could change the way people live. Finding these connections helps you to understand why things changed.
- **Identify the type of change:** Consider how the change happened. Was it a sudden, major change or did it happen slowly over time? Changes in history can be quick, like revolutions, or gradual, like technological developments.
- **Look for multiple causes:** Changes in history often have more than one **cause**. For example, a revolution could be caused by a mix of economic problems, political issues and social unrest. Explaining change means thinking about all these reasons, not just one.
- **Compare with later times:** To better explain the change, you can compare the events on the timeline to a later period, such as today, to show how the changes continued to shape history.

Source 3: This is an artist's recreation of the Great Sphinx and the Great Pyramid of Giza as they might have appeared when they were built during the 4th dynasty of ancient Egypt. The Great Pyramid of Giza is the last of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World still standing, representing continuity from ancient times to the present day.

Source analysis

Detectives use clues to solve mysteries. Historians use sources to understand the past. Source analysis involves looking at **evidence** and asking, 'How do we know what we know about the past?' A good source analysis interprets and explains the meaning of the source.

First, you need to ask good questions of a source. These questions include:

- Who created it?
- When was it created?
- What was the author's or creator's purpose? Why was it made?
- What is the historical **context** of the source?

The more sources you use, the better your understanding of the past will be.

This is a vase or jug and its purpose was probably practical, but could also have been decorative or to commemorate an event. It was probably made by a skilled artisan.

This type of headdress is similar to images I have seen of ancient Spartan warriors, so this vase could date from the 6th century BCE. It was probably made in ancient Greece or in one of the ancient Greek Empire's territories.

The vase shows men holding spears and shields and wearing helmets. They look like they are warriors engaged in battle.

▲ **Source 4:** How to describe a source

1 I can identify the origin of a source

Sometimes, if you're looking at a photo of a source in a text, there may be a caption that provides information about the origin of a source (see Source 2). This caption tells you who made the source, the name of the source and when it was made. Sometimes we don't know the creator of the source. In this case we state that the source was made by an 'unknown creator'.

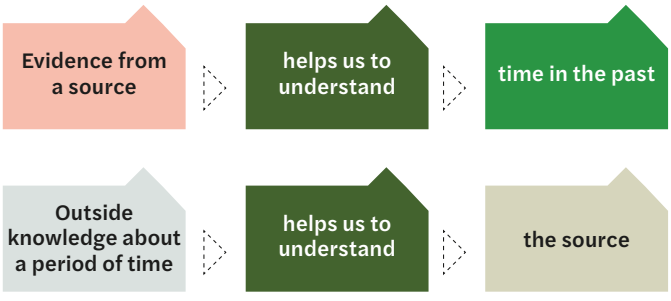
2 I can describe a source

Describing a source is when you describe its features. This involves more than listing facts about the source. Describing a visual source might involve relating what is in the image. Describing a written source might involve summarising the main things that the text states. For example:

Type of source	Source description
Visual source	This vase is very decorative. It features warriors who are engaged in a battle. They are wearing helmets and holding shields and spears. The helmet is similar to those worn by Spartan warriors.
Written source	The *Book of the Dead* was an ancient Egyptian book used to guide a dead person in the afterlife. It contained spells to help a dead person pass a series of tests, including weighing their heart, to reach the afterlife. This shows that the ancient Egyptians believed that their conduct on Earth determined their fate after death.

3 I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources

Sources can tell us a lot about a period of time in history. You can also use your knowledge of a period to explain a source. These are two different skills. They both help us to understand, but they should not be confused.



The more you know about the past, the better you will be at explaining sources. So, having lots of knowledge about the past is important for this skill.

What is in a source?	Outside knowledge that might help to understand it
Rock painting of people	Knowing how kinship systems work in First Nations cultures
Vase with fine detail	Knowing how craft technology allowed fine detail to be produced
Mummified corpse	Knowing why ancient Egyptians mummified bodies
Helmet	Knowing how common warfare was in ancient Greece
Engraved stone writing	Knowing who was the Roman emperor at the time, and what kind of ruler he was

4 I can explain the historical context of a source

Explaining the historical context of a source involves identifying and describing the important factors of the period in which a source was made. To help you think of important factors, use the acronym SHEEPT.

SHEEPT factor	Example from ancient India	How this might influence a source from the time
Social: how people lived, traditions, customs …	The caste system	A source could show **bias** against a caste
Historical: past events that influenced what was happening in that period of time …	The Maurya Empire	A source might compare the current empire with earlier, successful empires
Economic: how the economy influenced people's lives …	Trade, both local and with other regions	A source might reflect new ideas picked up from trading partners
Environmental: the impact of weather, climate, natural disasters and resources such as water …	The importance of the Ganges River to agriculture	A source might mention the importance of agriculture to the success of a society
Political: how people were governed, who had power, what the laws were …	Emperor Ashoka's focus on morality and ethics	A source might reflect the political views of the time
Technological: the influence of tools and machines; for example, wheels and computers …	Advanced urban planning and architecture	Technology from the past may itself be a historical source

5 I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability

The more sources you evaluate, the better your understanding of the past will be. Evaluating **primary** and **secondary sources** helps you judge how accurate, useful and reliable they are for understanding history.

Here is an example of an evaluation of sources. Runestones are raised stones with inscriptions, which were mainly created during the Viking Age (c. 790–1066 CE). Viking sagas are recorded stories of heroic achievements from history and folklore.

Category	Viking runestones	Viking sagas
Accuracy	More accurate: provides dates, events and names	Less accurate: includes a mix of history and folklore
Usefulness	Useful for specific facts	Useful for understanding culture and values
Reliability	Highly reliable but runestones have a limited perspective	Less reliable because sagas blend fact and fiction

To evaluate **accuracy**, check whether the source provides specific, verifiable details, such as dates, names or events, and whether it aligns with other known historical facts.

For **usefulness**, a source should help you understand history and be easy to find. For high school students, useful sources should be easy to understand and directly related to class topics. They should be available in accessible places, such as textbooks or online resources.

When evaluating **reliability**, think about who created the source, their purpose and how objective or biased they might have been. Reliable sources are trustworthy and less likely to mix fact with myth or exaggeration.

Continuity and change

On our quest to understand history, we need to grasp both **continuity** and change. Continuity refers to things that have stayed the same over time. Change refers to things that have altered over time.

Continuity and change can exist at the same time: some things stay the same, while others change. Change can be fast or slow, happen gradually or in a burst.

No change at all (e.g. human DNA)	A bit different (e.g. food)	Quite different (e.g. attitudes to race, gender and sexuality)	Completely different (e.g. transportation technology)

1 I can identify continuity and change

Identifying continuity and change involves seeing what has remained the same and what has changed. The easiest kind of continuity or change to notice is from a historical period to the present, because we know a lot about the present. This table shows examples of continuity and change from historical societies to the present.

Historical society	Continuity	Change
Vikings	Seafaring	Language (old Norse) replaced by Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish and Danish
Medieval Europe	Some countries still have a monarchy	Technology (true for most societies)
Ottoman Empire	Architectural style of mosques	Political structure (was a monarchy, is now a democratic republic)

To help you identify continuity and change, ask:

1. Did it exist in the past and did it remain throughout the period, or does it still exist now? If yes, that is continuity. You can say: 'This situation remained and shows continuity.'
2. Did it exist in the past but changed during the period, or does not exist now? If yes, that is change. You can say: 'This situation represents a change.'

Source 5: The Leshan Giant Buddha is 71 metres tall. It was carved out of a mountain in the Sichuan province of China, in the 8th century CE, and still remains today. It is an example of continuity.

2 I can describe continuity and change

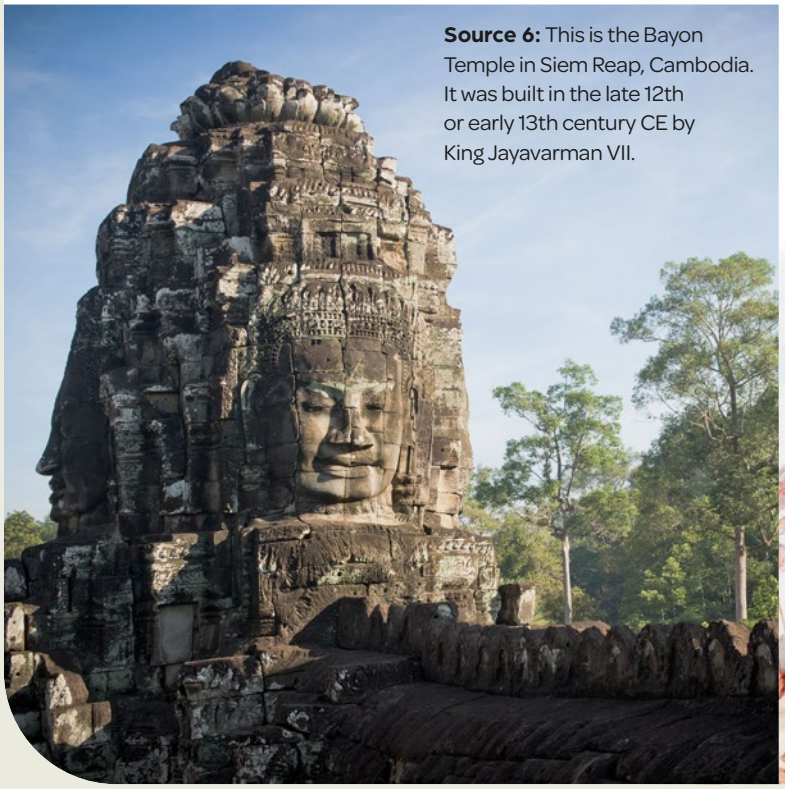
Describing continuity and change involves identifying in detail what has remained the same and what has changed, or both.

Society	Earlier time	Later time	Continuity between these times	Change between these times
Ancient Australia	65 000 BCE: A small number of First Nations Peoples lived in the north.	100 CE: First Nations Peoples had spread across the entire continent.	People lived in tribal groups.	People were spread across the whole of Australia.
Ancient Egypt	6000 BCE: Early settlers lived along the Nile River.	1450 BCE: The ancient Egyptian society was at its peak.	People relied on the Nile River for irrigation.	Powerful rulers controlled many people.

3 I can explain continuity and change

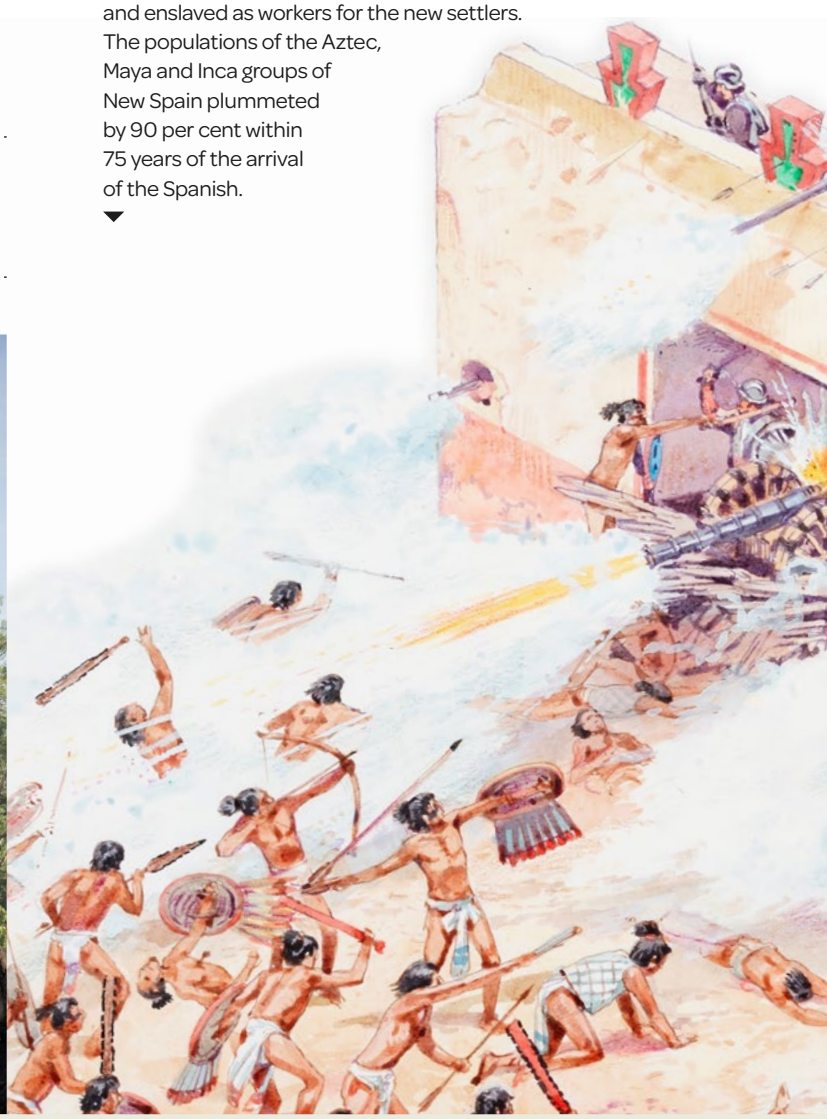
When you explain *how*, you are saying what happened to make the change. or what happened to ensure something stayed the same. Let us consider how we could explain how religion changed in the Khmer Empire and how religion stayed the same in medieval Europe:

Explaining how change occurred	More and more people changed from Hinduism to Buddhism, and many Hindu temples were changed to Buddhist temples.
Explaining how continuity occurred	Throughout the medieval period, people in Europe continued to follow Christianity and to build churches and cathedrals.



Source 6: This is the Bayon Temple in Siem Reap, Cambodia. It was built in the late 12th or early 13th century CE by King Jayavarman VII.

Source 7: In the 16th century CE, the Spaniards successfully colonised South America. The Spaniards used the latest technology, such as canons and rifles, which gave them a huge advantage over the Aztecs. The Spanish invasion of South America resulted in significant change for the Aztecs, who were introduced to European diseases, converted to the Catholic faith and enslaved as workers for the new settlers. The populations of the Aztec, Maya and Inca groups of New Spain plummeted by 90 per cent within 75 years of the arrival of the Spanish.



4 I can explain patterns of continuity and /or change

Explaining patterns of continuity and change requires you to find a trend or pattern of something that has stayed the same or has changed over time. Many patterns of continuity and change are similar across different societies and time periods.

Common examples of **patterns of continuity** include:

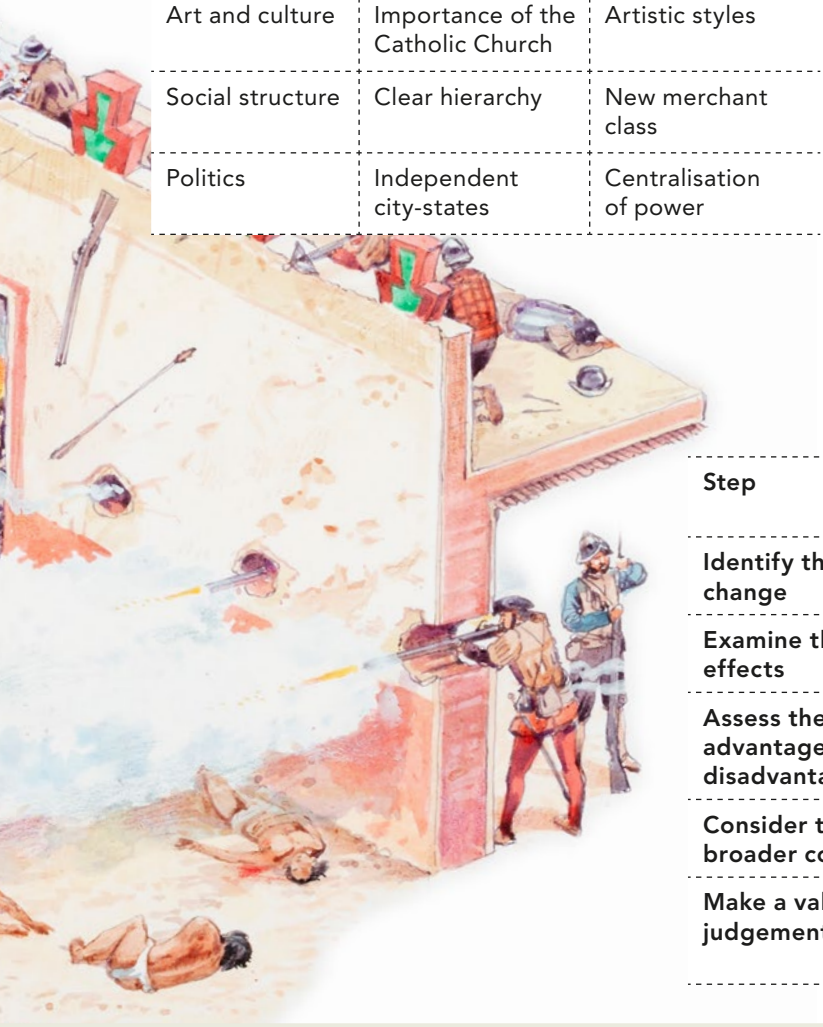
- close family bonds
- the importance of food
- the influence of religion
- trade.

Common examples of **patterns of change** include:

- the improvement in technology
- the increase in population
- the spread of new ideas
- the development of new political systems.

Here are some patterns of continuity and change from Italian history:

Aspect of society	Pattern of continuity	Pattern of change
Art and culture	Importance of the Catholic Church	Artistic styles
Social structure	Clear hierarchy	New merchant class
Politics	Independent city-states	Centralisation of power



Source 8: Pope Francis waves to large crowds at the Vatican in Rome in 2022 CE. The Catholic Church is an example of continuity as it remains an important part in the lives of millions of people today.

5 I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change

To evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change in history, you need to make a judgement about whether the change or continuity was positive or negative using evidence and logical reasoning.

Follow these steps to evaluate patterns of change:

- **Identify the change:** What changed over time?
- **Examine the effects:** Were the impacts positive or negative?
- **Assess the advantages and disadvantages:** What improved? What challenges arose?
- **Consider the broader context:** How does this change fit within the larger historical picture?
- **Make a value judgement:** Based on the evidence, decide whether the change was overall positive or negative. Remember that value judgements are not always 'right' or 'wrong' but depend on how well the evidence supports your judgement.

Here's an example of evaluating the change to iron weapons in ancient India:

Step	Example: Shift to iron weapons in warfare
Identify the change	Transition from bronze to iron weapons in warfare
Examine the effects	Improved military strength and allowed the expansion of kingdoms
Assess the advantages and disadvantages	**Advantages:** Stronger armies and more territorial control **Disadvantages:** Increased warfare and societal instability
Consider the broader context	Similar changes were happening in other ancient civilisations, leading to regional power shifts
Make a value judgement	Overall this change was positive for technological advancement, but it also contributed to increased conflict

Cause and effect

Cause and effect relationships are all around us. For instance, when you water plants, they grow taller and healthier. In this case, watering is the cause, and the effect is the plants' growth. Similarly, when you press a button, the television turns on. The cause is pressing the button, and the effect is the television turning on. Understanding cause and effect will help you to make sense of how actions lead to specific outcomes. It is essential to understanding many aspects of our world.

Source 9: One cause of the perception of Rome's power and authority was the majestic buildings of the Roman Forum, which were built as symbols of Rome's wealth and supremacy.

To understand cause and effect relationships, you need to identify which events are linked and understand why they are connected. When things are linked by cause and effect, they have a *causal link*. This means that one thing *caused* the other.

Most things that happen have multiple causes and effects, some of which are more important than others.

Two main types of causes are:

- **historical actors**: the individuals or groups involved – for example, Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar, Qin Shi Huangdi, the First Triumvirate
- **historical conditions**: the social, political, economic, cultural and environmental factors – for example, mass unemployment, drought, world religions and bad harvests.

However, just because one event occurred after another does not always mean that the first event caused the second event; for example, when the rooster crows in the morning, we do not think it makes the sun rise.

You also need to be able to provide a logical reason about why something caused an effect. Events in history are not inevitable. When we study cause and effect, it can seem like things were always going to work out in a certain way. Yet, change a few conditions and things could have happened differently. If Alexander the Great had fallen off his horse as a boy and died, would Greek society have spread so far and been so significant? It is easy, with hindsight, to think our cause-and-effect explanations are perfect, so we need to be cautious when making claims about cause and effect.

1 I can identify a cause and an effect

Recognising a cause and its effect means correctly choosing from a list of possibilities. Consider the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War (431 BCE). The Peloponnesian War was a war fought between the ancient Greek city-states of Athens and Sparta. Which of the following options is most likely to be the cause of the Peloponnesian War?

A Rome conquered Greece in 31 BCE.

B Athens and Sparta both wanted to control all of Greece.

C The Persians had better technology than the Greeks.

D Sparta is in Greece.

E Athens was founded before Sparta.

The only option that is linked to the Peloponnesian War is B. Option A refers to a time after the war, so it can't be the cause. Option C refers to Persians, not Greeks, so it is not relevant. Options D and E tell us facts that would not necessarily lead to conflict.

For events to be causally linked:

- one event must come before the other
- you must be able to provide a logical reason for why one event caused the other
- if possible, you should have evidence that one event caused the other.

2 I can describe causes and effects

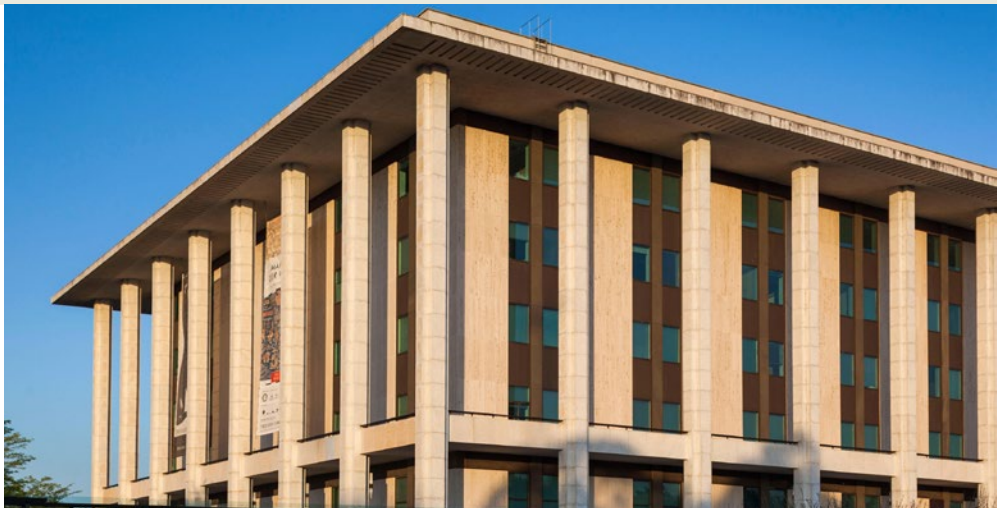
Describing a cause and its effects requires you to give detailed information. Describing involves more than identifying. For this step in the skill, you could describe the cause or the effect or both. For example:

Description of the cause	Description of the short-term effect	Description of the long-term effect
Genghis Khan's new military strategies – such as mounted archers and psychological warfare – terrorised populations.	By using new military strategies and tactics, the Mongols quickly overpowered their enemies. This meant they captured vast areas of land.	As the Mongols conquered more territory, these large areas of land were joined to form the largest continuous land empire up to that point in history, which was known as the Mongol Empire.

Source 10: Mongol warriors showing their horsemanship to the Chinese forces of Hung Wu. This was the cause of fear instilled in enemy forces, with the short-term effect of military victories and the long-term effect of the establishment of one of the largest empires the world has seen.

3 I can explain how something was caused or its effect

'Explaining how' involves writing about the process by which something was caused or its effect. This type of explanation is about the steps, the sequence or the process.



Source 11: The design of the National Library of Australia is based on the architecture of a 1st-century CE structure, the Parthenon in Athens.

Cause	Effect	Explaining how the cause led to the effect
About 180000 years ago, east Africa became overpopulated.	People migrated to the Middle East, India, Asia and Australia.	There were not enough resources in east Africa after a while. Hunting and gathering requires a lot of land so, as the population grew, there was not enough land. To avoid starvation, people were forced to find new land elsewhere. They moved north to the Middle East, then east to India, Asia and Australia.
Alexander the Great conquered the known world and spread Greek culture.	Greek culture – such as building styles, dress, religion and language – spread to the Middle East and west Asia.	Alexander the Great was a general who conquered Greece, Egypt, Persia and parts of India. He loved Greek culture. As he conquered territory, his soldiers moved into the new lands. The invaders mixed with the local people. Over time, they began to share the way they did things. This led to the existing culture being mixed with Greek culture. It created a new type of culture, known as 'Hellenistic' culture. People from areas conquered by Alexander begun to live differently, with new clothing styles, architecture and religious rituals, and language also changed.

The Middle East and parts of Asia, c. 334–323 BCE

▲ **Source 12:** The empire of the Macedonian king Alexander the Great

Source: Peter Hermes Furian

4 I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects

Explaining how focuses on the sequence of events – describing what happened and how one event led to another. Explaining *why* goes deeper by identifying the reasons an event occurred or identifying why it had a range of effects. You need to look at the intentions or circumstances that caused people or societies to act, or the circumstances that ensured a cause produced certain effects. Typical motivations for change in history include:

- **political power:** wanting to gain or maintain control
- **economic gain:** wanting wealth, trade opportunities or resources
- **social equality:** pursuing justice, human rights or societal reform
- **religious beliefs:** wanting to spread or reform a particular belief system
- **technological advancement:** needing to innovate to solve problems or gain advantages
- **military security:** needing to defend existing lands or conquer new lands for protection.

Cause (motivation)	Effect
Political power in ancient Egypt: Pharaohs sought to consolidate power.	The pharaohs ordered the construction of the pyramids and temples, which reinforced their divine authority and their control over Egyptian society.
Economic gain in ancient China: The emperors during the Han dynasty needed to control trade routes and resources.	The emperors supported the expansion of the Silk Road, which led to increased wealth, trade with other societies and cultural exchange across Asia and Europe.

5 I can analyse cause and effect

'Analysing' means breaking down something into its separate parts. If you can identify the different parts, and explain how together they make up the whole, you are analysing. If you can explain the rules or theories that show how these parts are organised, you are analysing.

The first step is being able to break down something into its parts. For example, what caused Egypt to fall to the Roman Empire? We can break down the cause into three parts:

Cause 1: Rome had superior military forces.

Cause 2: Rome needed Egypt's food resources.

Cause 3: At the time, there was civil unrest in Egypt.

Breaking down the cause is the first part of the analysis. Now we can explain how these combined causes led to Rome conquering Egypt:

Rome needed Egypt's food resources and had a more powerful army. Because Rome needed something (food) and had the ability get it (the army), it was always likely that Rome would conquer Egypt and make Egypt part of the Roman Empire.

Here, we have linked Cause 1 and Cause 2 together. Next, you need to decide how strong the causal link is.

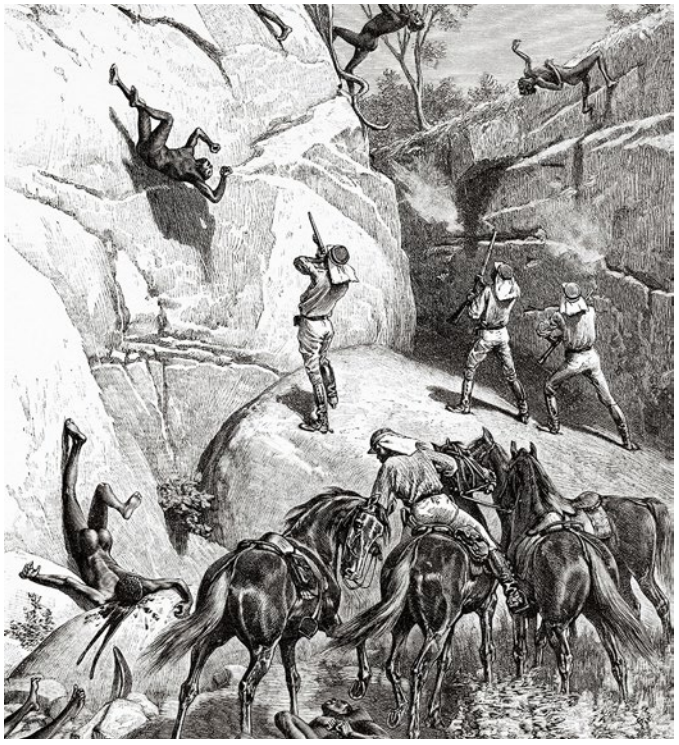
Less — **More**

Small causal link
Gradual, minor, almost no part, short-lived, partly, partial, to some extent, small extent

Large causal link
Radical, powerful, significant, important, to a great extent, considerable, main, crucial

Once you have decided how strong the causal link is, here are some words you can use to describe it:

- If something had a minor effect, you could say:
  The lives of First Nations Peoples were only affected to a small extent by the introduction of dingos.
- If something had a major effect, you could say:
  The lives of First Nations Peoples were significantly affected by European colonisation.



▲ **Source 13:** There was a large causal link between hardships faced by First Nations Peoples in Australia and the arrival of colonisers in 1788 CE. This illustration from the 19th century CE shows policemen on horseback shooting First Nations Peoples. [This illustration by Carl Lumholtz appeared in *Le Tour du Monde* in 1889 CE.]

Perspectives

Perspectives are different ways of looking at the world or different points of view. A person's **perspective** is influenced by their culture, social class, wealth, where they live and their gender. It is important for historians to understand the perspectives of people who lived in the past. This helps us to avoid 'presentism', which is when we mistakenly see the past from our own modern point of view, which can be very different from the perspectives of the people who lived at the time.

1 I can identify the perspective of a person from the past

To identify the perspective of a person who lived in a particular period in the past, imagine what that person might have thought. Try putting yourself in their shoes.

Here are some examples of the points of view of people from the past:

Example	Perspective they might have
Chinese emperor	'I have an obligation to my people to rule them wisely.'
Egyptian farmer	'The Nile River is very important to my harvests.'
Roman soldier	'I believe living in the Roman Empire is better than living outside it.'

2 I can describe perspectives

'Describing' is when you explain something in detail. Describing a perspective from the past is when you learn about a person's views and then use key details to paint a vivid picture of life from their perspective. For example, you watch a documentary about the life of an Egyptian pharaoh (ruler). You can then describe their perspective by writing, 'The pharaoh believed they were a living god. They showed this belief through their grand monuments, rituals and the way they presented themselves to their people as all-powerful and divine'.

3 I can explain a perspective

'Explaining a perspective' is when you say why a person from the past had a certain point of view. People in the past often held very different views to those held by people today. For example, people in many ancient and medieval societies believed:

- they had a right to invade other regions and take their resources
- their religion was superior to other people's religions
- royalty and nobles were more important than peasants.

In addition, like today, there were different perspectives on individuals and events:

- Some people were seen as heroes by one group and as villains by another.
- Battles could be seen as important victories by the conquerors or as shattering defeats by the victims.

Source 14: This is a wax sculpture of Suleiman the Magnificent at Madame Tussauds in Istanbul, Türkiye. During Suleiman's reign over the Ottoman Empire in the 16th century CE, the perspective of the people who lived in the empire was that Suleiman was the successor to the ancient Roman emperors.

Perspective	Historical context	Explanation
Ottoman perspective	During the reign of Suleiman the Magnificent (16th century CE), the people who lived in the Ottoman Empire believed that the sultan was the successor to the ancient Roman emperor.	The Ottoman rulers saw themselves as the successors to the ancient Roman emperors. Having conquered Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire (Eastern Roman Empire), the sultans believed they were justified in the expansion of their empire into North Africa, the Middle East and Europe.
Indian perspective	In ancient India, society was structured by the caste system. Brahmans considered themselves to be members of the highest caste. This is because, traditionally, Brahmans were priests and scholars, so they were closest to the creator god, Brahma.	The Brahmans' perspective was influenced by their religious education, which taught them that their duties were essential for upholding cosmic order. Brahmans saw their role as integral in maintaining social harmony and ensuring the spiritual wellbeing of society.

4 I can compare perspectives

'Comparing' is when you look at two things and identify what is the same and what is different. A good comparison makes an overall statement about how similar or different the two things are. Here are two examples:

Example	Similarities	Differences	Overall comparison statement
• Ancient Spartans • Ancient Athenians	• Language • Religion	• Athenians valued art. • Spartans valued the military.	While ancient Athenians and Spartans shared a language and religion, they had different views on art and the military.
Ancient Chinese: • farmer • wealthy landowner	• Depended on agriculture • Respected authority	• Landowner had power and wealth • Farmer disliked the inequality of the social system	Ancient Chinese farmers and landowners had very different levels of wealth and power, despite both relying on agriculture.

5 I can evaluate historical perspectives

To evaluate historical perspectives, you need to understand the social and cultural settings that influenced people's beliefs and actions.

Evaluating historical perspectives involves thinking about why people made the choices they did. By looking at different viewpoints, you can gain a deeper understanding of historical events and actions.

Here are some steps you could follow to evaluate a perspective:

1 **Understand the historical context:** Identify the social and cultural settings that influenced people's beliefs and actions during the period you are studying.

2 **Examine evidence:** Use primary sources from the period, such as artefacts or written historical records, to gather information about people's perspectives.

3 **Consider multiple viewpoints:** Explore the differences between the perspectives held by different groups of people (e.g. from different social classes). Use your understanding of these differences to form a more complete understanding of the historical situation.

Here is an example from ancient Egyptian history:

Perspective: The pharaoh was seen as a living god who maintained cosmic order in ancient Egypt.

Egyptians believed in *ma'at*, which was the cosmic balance in the world and the heavens. They believed it was the pharaoh's role to maintain ma'at because he was the divine ruler.

Inscriptions, temple reliefs and monumental structures, such as pyramids, depict the pharaoh's divine role in ensuring order. While the elite members of ancient Egyptian society promoted this belief, common people may have been focused more on daily survival than the pharaoh's divine status. They may have been more concerned about whether the pharaoh was providing enough food to eat than whether he was maintaining the balance between the world and the heavens.

Significance

How do we decide which events or time periods in the past are important? Not all events, people or developments hold the same weight. By understanding historical significance, you can prioritise information and make sense of the huge amount of historical evidence.

1 I can identify something historically significant

'Significant' means important – something worth noting. So 'identifying something historically significant' means deciding whether an event, person or development is important.

To identify if something is significant, ask yourself: Was it important back then? Were people deeply affected? Did it affect a lot of people for a long time? Is it still relevant to modern times? If you answer 'yes' to these questions, the event, person or development is likely to be historically significant.

2 I can describe something historically significant

'Describing historical significance' involves writing in detail about the importance of an event, person or development. For example:

Event	The Spanish conquered the Americas during the late 15th and early 16th centuries CE.
Immediate impact	The Spanish conquest of the Americas led to the fall of great societies such as the Aztecs and Incas, the deaths of many Aztecs and Incas due to diseases brought by the Europeans, and the establishment of Spanish colonies.
Long-term impact	The Spanish conquest led to the spread of European culture, language and religion (Christianity) across the Americas. It also established foundations that enabled the Atlantic slave trade and subsequent colonial conquests by other European powers.
Description of historical significance	The Spanish conquest of the Americas was a significant event in history due to its transformation of the New World's social and political landscape, decline of American societies, and its role in setting a precedent for further European colonial conquests. It also laid the foundations that enabled the establishment of the Atlantic slave trade.

3 I can explain something historically significant

Explaining historical significance means describing how or why something is important.

To help you explain why something (such as an event) was historically significant, you can ask a series of questions, such as how many people were affected and how long were they affected? The answers will help you formulate your answer. The example below uses these questions to explain the historical significance of Julius Caesar's assassination.

Question	Example: Julius Caesar's Assassination
How important was it to people at the time?	Caesar's assassination in 44 BCE shocked Rome and created immediate political chaos.
How deeply were people affected?	It deeply affected the Roman Senate and the population, leading to civil wars and the eventual rise of Augustus as emperor.
How many people were affected?	Millions across the Roman Republic were affected as it eventually led to the fall of the Republic and the rise of the Empire.
For how long were they affected?	The effects of Caesar's death shaped Roman politics and governance for centuries, as it ushered in the Roman Empire.
How does the event help us understand the modern world?	It helps us understand the dangers of political power struggles and the transition from democratic to autocratic rule.
Did the event change people's ideas or beliefs?	It changed people's beliefs about the stability of the Roman Republic and the role of leadership.
Does the event reveal any important themes or patterns in history?	The assassination highlights themes of political betrayal, the vulnerabilities of republics and how democratic rule can be replaced by authoritarian rule.

Source 15: This source shows a Spanish conquistador meeting Indigenous peoples in the Americas. The Spanish conquest of the Americas was a significant event in history.

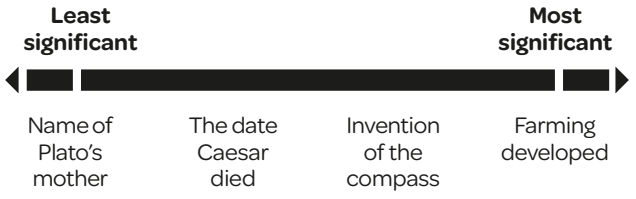
4 I can explain why something is historically significant

You can use primary and secondary sources to help you explain why something is historically significant. The steps in this process include finding sources, identifying what those sources say about an event, then using that information to determine the significance of the event. For example:

Event	The establishment of the Maurya Empire in ancient India
Relevant sources	• Primary sources, such as the book *Arthashastra* by Chanakya, and ancient scripts and coins • Secondary sources, such as history textbooks and scholarly articles about the Maurya Empire
What the sources say about the event	The sources suggest the Maurya Empire unified large parts of India, established efficient administrative systems and spread Buddhism to other parts of Asia.
Determine the historical significance of the event from the sources	The Maurya Empire's establishment in ancient India is historically significant due to its role in unifying large parts of India, introducing efficient administrative systems as described in *Arthashastra*, and spreading Buddhism, as documented in both primary and secondary sources.

5 I can evaluate historical significance

Historical significance is not black and white; it can be shown on a scale, like this one:



Question	Example of low historical significance	Example of high historical significance
Event	The construction of a small, local tomb for a minor official	The construction of the Great Pyramid of Giza
Importance at the time	Only important to the official's family and a small community	The pyramid symbolised the power of Pharaoh Khufu and was important to all of Egypt
Depth of impact	Limited to a small group of people directly involved	The Great Pyramid was a monumental achievement that required massive labour and resources
Quantity affected	Affected a handful of local workers and family members	Affected thousands of workers and the entire nation due to the resources and labour involved
Duration of impact	The tomb's significance faded after the official's death	The Great Pyramid remains a symbol of Egypt's architectural and cultural achievements
Relevance to today	Little relevance today beyond local historical interest	The Great Pyramid is still studied and admired, influencing architecture and engineering worldwide
Extent of significance	The impact was minor and localised, with no lasting influence	The Great Pyramid had a profound, long-lasting impact on Egypt and continues to be highly significant today

Contestability

History is not just a list of facts. What we think we know about the past changes all the time as we uncover more information and interpret things in different ways. Historical knowledge is always being contested, or questioned and challenged. **Contestability** refers to determining the validity of different **interpretations**.

1 I can identify a historical debate

Historians do not always agree on exactly what happened in the past.Even though they are looking at the same evidence, they might interpret this evidence differently.

One historian might interpret the fall of the Western Roman Empire as being caused by internal weaknesses, such as political corruption and economic instability. Another historian, however, might argue that external factors, such as barbarian invasions, played a larger role. Both historians use the same facts but provide different interpretations of what caused the Western Roman Empire's collapse.

Source 16: *Head of Christ* is a chalk and pastel drawing by Leonardo da Vinci. He drew this study in c. 1494 CE in preparation for his work *Last Supper*. Some suggest Renaissance art mainly showed Christian themes, while others suggest the Renaissance period focused on human experiences.

2 I can describe an interpretation of history

Describing a historical interpretation involves outlining the main ideas and arguments of a historian's viewpoint on a particular event or period. It is a good idea to use evidence from the interpretation to support your description. For example:

Topic	Historical interpretation	Describing the historical interpretation
Why was Angkor Wat abandoned?	One argument is that environmental changes led to the city being abandoned.	A decline in rainfall meant that there was not enough water to grow rice. The drier weather also damaged the Khmer Empire's sophisticated irrigation systems.

Source 17: The temple of Angkor Wat, built at the time of the Khmer Empire

3 I can explain an interpretation of history

When explaining a historical interpretation you need to think about what evidence has led to this interpretation. Use primary and secondary sources to help you explain how an interpretation has been formed.

> The imposition of forced labour (*vishti*) and several new levies and taxes from the Gupta period onwards further undermined the position of peasants … Forced labour, taxes and other dues became all the more oppressive … [and] generated much social tension, leading to peasant protest …
>
> **Source 18:** D.N. Jha (2009 CE), *Ancient India: In Historical Outline*, Manohar, pp. 155–6. D.N. Jha is a modern historian.

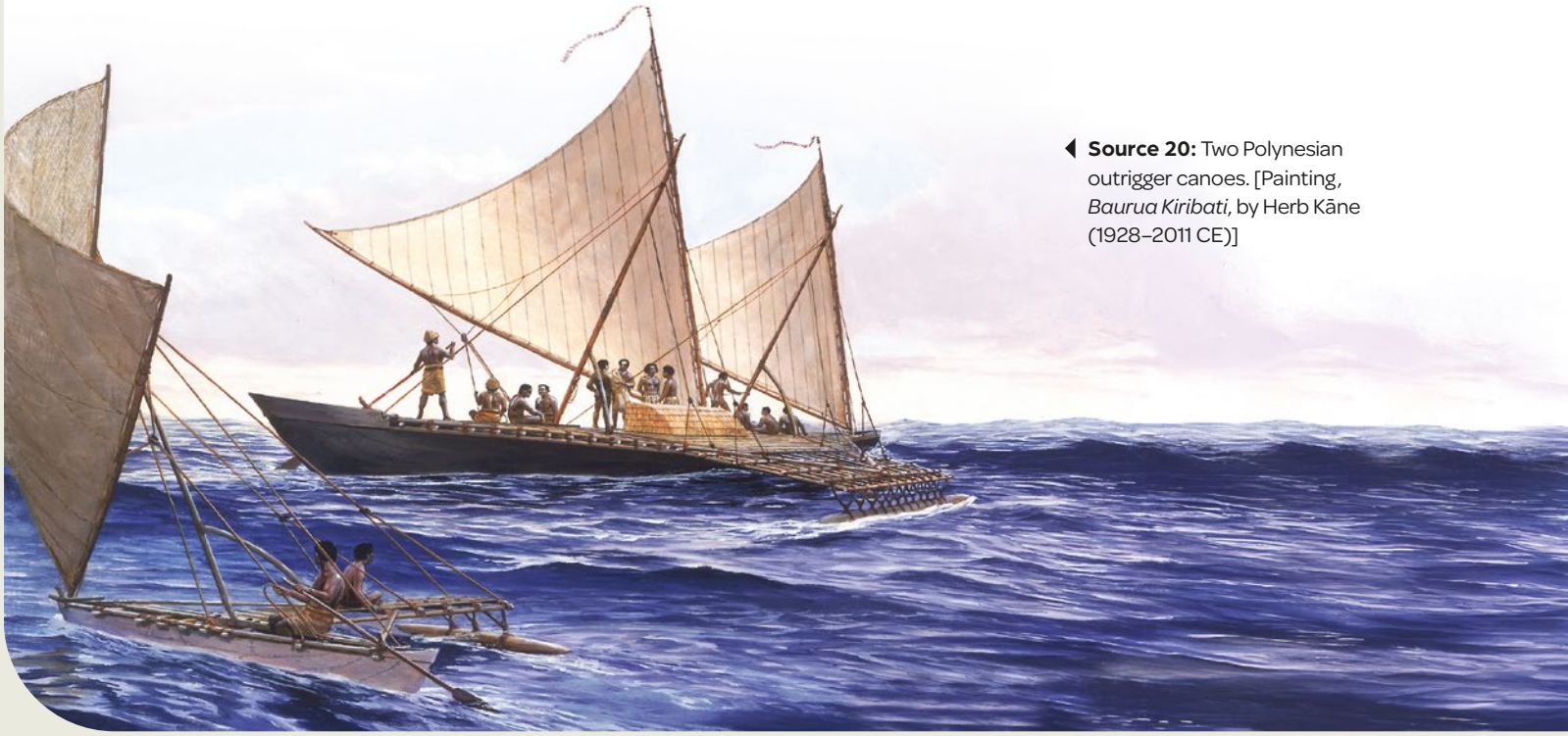
Topic	Historical interpretation	Explaining the interpretation using the source
Was the Gupta period a 'golden age'?	The Gupta period was not a golden age for most people.	Most people's lives did not improve during the Gupta period in ancient India. In fact, the period saw a worsening of economic conditions, leading to rising social tensions. As historian D.N. Jha notes in Source 18, peasants had to undertake 'forced labour (*vishti*)' and also to pay 'new levies and taxes'. These changes during the Gupta period were so harsh that 'peasant protest' erupted.

Source 19: *The Death of Julius Caesar* (1806) by Vincenzo Camuccini. In this image, the chief conspirators are attacking Caesar.

4 I can compare historical interpretations

When comparing historical interpretations, you need to explain the similarities and differences between historical interpretations. Are the interpretations completely different or are there some similarities?

Topic	Historical interpretation	Comparing the interpretations
Why was Caesar assassinated?	The assassins believed Caesar would abolish the Roman Republic.	The assassins were members of the Senate and strongly supported the Roman Republic. They believed Caesar was trying to overthrow the democratic republic and rule Rome as a king.
	The assassins were jealous of Caesar's power and wanted it for themselves.	The assassins were members of the Senate who had long opposed Caesar and believed that they would lose any chance of power and influence if Caesar installed a monarchy.



Source 20: Two Polynesian outrigger canoes. [Painting, *Baurua Kiribati*, by Herb Kāne (1928–2011 CE)]

5 I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation

Evaluating the evidence supporting a historical interpretation is the final and most complex step. This involves assessing the quality, relevance and reliability of the evidence used to support a historical interpretation. For example, let us evaluate the evidence of the rock art depicting seafaring activities and the ancient Polynesian navigation tools found on some islands in the Pacific Ocean:

Quality of the evidence	Consider the reliability of the sources. For example, are the ancient navigation tools well preserved and authentic? Has the rock art been accurately interpreted? Evaluate the credibility and expertise of the historians studying and writing about these Polynesian artefacts.
Relevance of the evidence	Does the evidence directly support the historical interpretation that Polynesian people had excellent navigation and sailing skills, which resulted in Polynesian people colonising many of the islands in the Pacific Ocean? Are there alternative explanations for the tools and rock art found on these islands?
Reliability of the evidence	Has the evidence been corroborated by multiple independent studies and archaeological findings? Are there consistent patterns across different islands and Polynesian cultures?
Evaluation	Based on your evaluation of the quality, relevance and reliability of the evidence, form your own judgement about the strength of the interpretation of Polynesian navigation and sailing skills and the successful colonisation of the islands in the Pacific Ocean.

An evaluation of the evidence supporting a historical interpretation also considers the pros and the cons and then makes an 'on balance' judgement, taking the pros and cons into account. For example:

Evidence	Pro	Con	Evaluation
Quality of the evidence	Well-preserved navigational tools provide direct insights into Polynesian navigation techniques.	Some navigation tools may be incomplete or damaged, which limits their interpretive value.	The evidence demonstrates the Polynesians' remarkable navigational skills. While some limitations exist, the overall strength of the evidence reaffirms the interpretation of skilled navigation and sailing and successful colonisation of many islands in the Pacific Ocean.
Relevance of the evidence	There is a direct link between the navigation tools and Polynesian navigation skills.	Alternative explanations for some tools might exist.	The evidence demonstrates Polynesians' remarkable navigational skills. However, alternative explanations warrant careful consideration. The overall alignment with skilled navigation remains substantial.
Reliability of the evidence	Multiple independent studies confirm the validity of navigation tools. Consistent findings across different islands and Polynesian cultures enhance reliability.	The limited availability of certain tools may affect validation. Variations in cultural practices might lead to some inconsistencies in the evidence.	The evidence is highly reliable, showing strong agreement among studies and corroborating sources. Skilled Polynesian navigation is well supported by multiple pieces of evidence, despite minor limitations.

How to develop a historical inquiry

Historians develop their knowledge of history by posing questions, finding new sources, weighing up the evidence and then forming their own interpretation. This process is known as historical inquiry.

What is a historical inquiry?

A historical inquiry allows you to research an aspect of a topic that you have studied and want to know more about. You begin by examining a range of resources, including books, websites, documentaries and films, to explore ideas relating to your specific topic area. You then start to form 'small' questions to develop your focus, such as:

- 'What conflicts arose?'
- 'What tactics were used in battles?'
- 'What forms of leadership were effective?'

Once you have started to develop the small questions, you then conduct more detailed research. You can use this to help you form a 'big' question, such as 'Why were battles won/lost?' or 'How important was warfare to the society?'

You need to have evidence from primary and secondary sources to support your view.

Conducting a historical inquiry is a bit like an archaeological dig. Follow these steps to uncover your answers:

Step 1: Survey

Just as archaeologists arrive at a site and do a visual scan of the landscape, you need to identify and describe key historical facts about the time you are studying.

Step 2: Excavation

After conducting their survey, archaeologists begin to dig a little deeper, uncovering structures and objects that reveal connections and details not visible from the surface. Likewise, you need to start gathering evidence from a range of sources to deepen your knowledge.

Step 3: Discovery

This is when archaeologists uncover the most significant finds that reveal the bigger picture. You too need to uncover your key inquiry question by weighing up the evidence and forming your response to the big question.

Step 4: Curation

Archaeologists often present their findings in a museum, documentary, book, website or lecture.

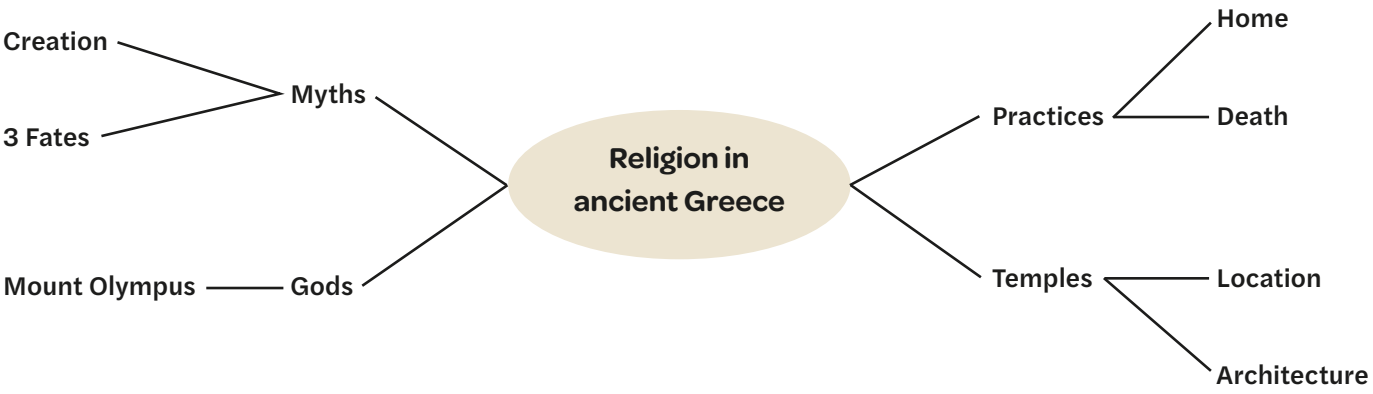
Think about how you will present your information and why it is important.

Step 1: Survey

Rationale

To begin your inquiry, think about which aspects of the ancient society have interested you the most – was it their culture, innovations, daily life or perhaps their interactions with other societies? Why is it interesting to you and why is it important to learn about this topic?

Next, draw a simple mind map or compile a list of what you already know. Then highlight the areas you would like to know more about.



Forming initial questions

Now that you have summarised the knowledge you already know, you need to devise some questions to guide your next steps. These questions should start with the words *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, *why* and *how*.

For example, suppose you are interested in the ancient Greek gods:

Who	What	When	Where	Why	How
Who were the gods?	What was the role of the gods?	When did the ancient Greeks worship their gods?	Where were the gods worshipped?	Why were the gods worshipped?	How did the ancient Greeks worship their gods?

Or in the tombs of ancient China:

Who	What	When	Where	Why	How
Who was buried in ancient Chinese tombs?	What were the tombs in ancient China like?	When did people begin constructing their tombs?	Where were the tombs located?	Why did people in ancient China build tombs?	How did people in ancient China build tombs?

Step 2: Excavation

Conducting research to find your evidence

Once you have your initial questions, you need to gather more evidence. Go back to the relevant pages in the chapter and select the information that answers your small questions.

Then begin your research. Go to the research section of this chapter (page 498) to guide your selection of research sources. These can include primary sources (from the time) and secondary sources (made after the time).

It is also important to consider perspectives (which show what different people thought at the time) and modern interpretations (what different historians have said about that time).

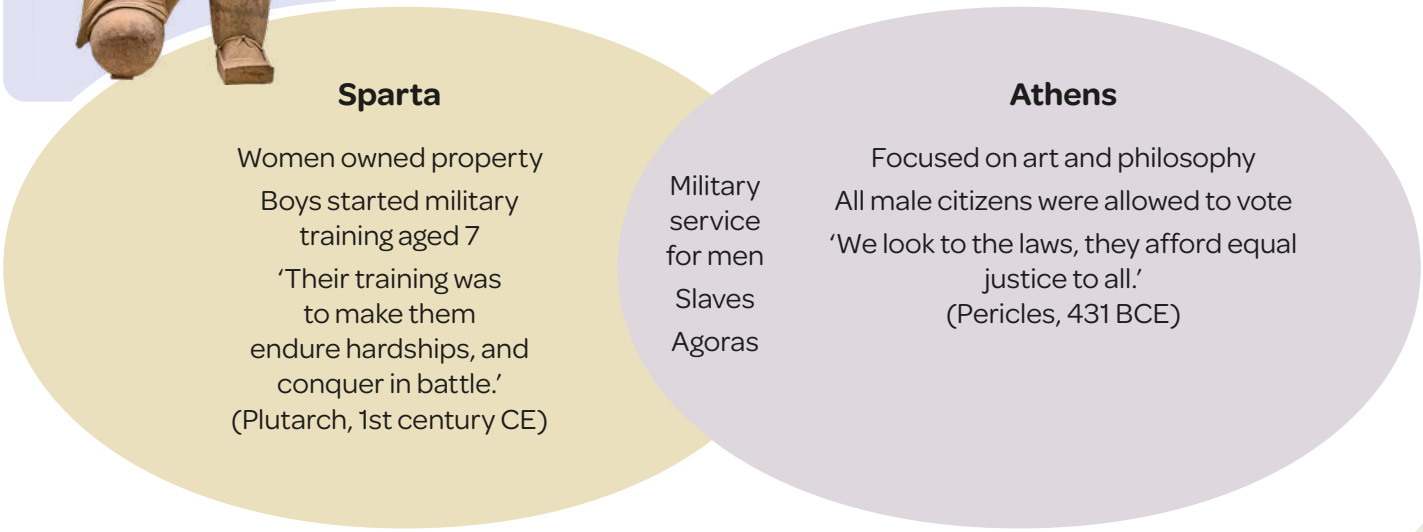
As you locate sources, organise them using the headings and/or table below. This can help determine whether the source is useful (gives you relevant information) and reliable (you can trust it).

Type of source? Primary or secondary?	Origin and purpose of source	Is this source reliable? Does it give you a perspective from the time or an interpretation of the time?	Which question(s) can it help to answer?
Example: sculpture of Terracotta Army warriors (primary source) 	**Example:** c. 221–206 BCE Used to guard the tomb of China's first emperor, Qin Shi Huangdi	**Example:** reliable – it was found by archaeologists Tells us that legacy was important to Chinese emperors and that they believed in the afterlife	**Example:** • What were the tombs in ancient China like? • Why did people in ancient China build tombs?

Sorting your evidence

Having collected the relevant information and source evidence, make notes to help you form your big question. Summarise or list the key points – this includes 'quotes' from written sources and descriptions of visual sources. You can use a graphic organiser such as a table, mind map, Venn diagram and/or colour coding to sort your evidence.

Here is an example of a Venn diagram comparing the ancient city-states of Sparta and Athens.



Here is an example of an analysis table to evaluate the impact of Ramses II's achievements on Egypt.

What were Ramses II's achievements?	Positive impacts	Negative impacts
 • Ruled for over 66 years • Architecture – he commissioned grand architectural projects, including the temples at Abu Simbel and the Ramesseum	• Provided continuity and stability in society • Name was used by future leaders • Successful in battles • 'His majesty was like Sutekh, the great in strength, smiting and slaying among them.' (Unknown Egyptian writer, 1274 BCE) • Showcased Egyptian power to others and reinforced his legacy	• His death led to instability because Egypt was seen as weak without him. • Future rulers struggled to govern and maintain his empire. • Required intensive labour, (including slave labour) to build his monuments. • Later rulers tried to continue his monument building, which contributed to Egypt's economic decline.

Step 3: Discovery

Forming and answering your 'big' question

Once you have collected and analysed your evidence, you are ready to form and answer your big question.

This can be a 'what', 'how' or 'why' question. It could also be an evaluative question that requires you to make a judgement. Have a look at the Learning ladder below to find the type of question that is right for you. Can you challenge yourself to try the next level?

	Command term	Definition	Question type	Sample question
5	Evaluate	Make a judgement based on criteria	Evaluate	How important was religion in ancient Greek life?
4	Explain	Show the relationship between things (such as cause and effect)	Why	Why were temples constructed in ancient Greece?
3	Explain	Provide an explanation of how something happened	How	How did the ancient Greeks bury their dead?
2	Describe	Provide characteristics and features	What (describe)	What was the role of mythology in ancient Greece
1	Identify	Recognise and name	What	What gods did the ancient Greeks worship?

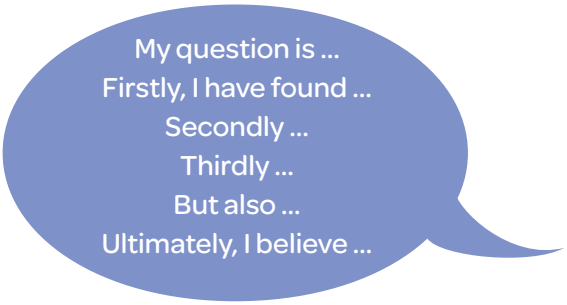
Discuss your ideas with a class member or your teacher. You may find there is more than one answer, or that your answer is different from others in your class. This is fine, as long as you have the evidence to support your view.

Step 4: Curation

Communicating your findings

It can be tempting to present every piece of evidence you have found; however, a historian has to consider what information is most useful in answering their question. You are presenting an explanation or an argument about history, so you need to make it engaging and relevant.

Use the presentation rubric below to select a suitable way to communicate your findings. Again, consider challenging yourself to try the next level.



Presentation rubric

	Museum display	Written response	Film	Podcast	Diorama
5	I can evaluate my choice of artefacts for a museum display for how significance or perspectives is communicated.	I can write an extended response to evaluate the causes or effects of an event or the motivations of a key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images, footage, music and narration to evaluate the accuracy of a historical feature film.	I can create a 5-minute podcast that evaluates the causes or effects of an event or the motivations of a key individual.	I can create a diorama using primary sources and evaluate it for its representation of significance or perspectives.
4	I can explain why I have chosen these artefacts to represent cause and effect.	I can write an extended response to explain why an event occurred or the motivations of a key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images, footage, music and narration to explain why an event occurred, or the motivations of a key individual.	I can create a 5-minute podcast that explains why an event occurred or the motivations of a key individual.	I can use primary sources to create a diorama of a key site or event and write a rationale to explain my decisions.
3	I can explain how these artefacts demonstrate significance or continuity and change.	I can write an extended response to explain how an event occurred or the role of a key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images, footage and narration to explain an event or key individual.	I can create a 3- to 4-minute podcast that explains an event or the role of a key individual.	I can use primary sources to create a diorama of a key site or event.
2	I can label and describe artefacts for a virtual museum.	I can write a TEEL paragraph to describe an event or key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images, footage and narration to describe an event or key individual.	I can create a 3-minute podcast that describes an event or key individual.	I can create a diorama of a key event using secondary source images and include descriptive labels.
1	I can identify and label artefacts for a virtual museum.	I can write descriptive sentences about an event or key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images and subtitles about an event or key individual.	I can create a 2-minute podcast about an event or key individual.	I can use secondary source images to create and label a diorama of a key event.
	Presentation format				

How to develop research skills

I can define the research topic

When researching a historical topic, a good place to start is to write a list of keywords for the subject. To do this, think of different ways of saying the topic, or search 'synonyms of ...' and insert the topic. Refer also to the section 'Developing a historical inquiry'. Pay particular attention to the 'Survey' section, which is when you form your initial questions to guide your next steps (page 494).

I know how to find the evidence and information I need

What type of evidence do you need?

Include these words in your search:

- facts, examples, definitions, quotes, artefacts, images, data, statistics
- primary sources, secondary sources
- databases, links, archives, collections, references, research, museums, journals, graphs, tables and letters.

Where is your evidence?

There are many different types of websites to look at: scholarly works, databases, archives, reference sources and information pages.

How do you decide if evidence is credible?

Ask yourself the following questions:

- Is the content relevant? Is it useful for my purpose? Does it contain links to other relevant sources? Is it at an appropriate reading level?
- Is the source believable? What type of source is it? (Published or official sources are better.) Who is the author? (Experts are better.) When was it published? (Newer is usually better.) Is the source biased?
- Is the source true? Is it backed up by other sources?
- Does the source state where its information comes from? This means it is more likely to be credible (able to be believed).

Online search strategies

Following are some search strategies:

- After you search a term, scan the first page of results. If they are not relevant, change your search term.
- Start with a wide search, then get more specific.
- Learn from your search. Change what you are searching for based on what you learn after you start searching.
- Be ready to stop a search if it is taking you in the wrong direction.

Source 21: Q-files is a great website to use when studying history and many other subjects at school.

Tips for searching using Google

- Every word matters.
- The order of the words matters.
- Capitalisation does not matter.
- Punctuation does not matter.
- Specific search terms are better.
- Use these terms to narrow your search: AND, OR, NOT.
- A search with 'filetype:' will find specific files. For example, 'Qin Shi Huangdi filetype:ppt' will find PowerPoint files about Qin Shi Huangdi.
- A search with 'site:' will find things *within* a website. For example, 'boomerang site: nma.gov.au' will find boomerang-related material from the National Museum of Australia website.
- Use the tabs along the top for different types of results such as images, news, videos, maps and books.
- Use a hyphen to exclude words and narrow your search. For example, 'Great Wall-takeaways' will find information about the Great Wall of China, not a fast-food outlet.
- Search for a range of numbers using two full stops between speech marks: '..' For example:
  - '2001..2004' searches between 2001 and 2004
  - '..2004' searches before 2004
  - '2004..' searches after 2004.
- An asterisk acts as a wildcard. For example, 'teen*' will return results with any of the words *teen, teens, teenager* in them.
- Use exact phrase searching by putting speech marks around a search phrase to find exact text.

I can extract information

This stage involves the 'Excavation' and 'Discovery' steps in the 'Developing a historical inquiry' section (see pages 495 and 496). You need to gather your evidence and then form and answer your 'big' question.

I can organise and present information

This is when you communicate your findings to your audience. Refer to the 'Curation' section on page 497 for guidance.

I can evaluate my research

You can improve every time you conduct research by asking yourself these questions after you finish:

- What worked? What did not work?
- How could I work smarter next time?
- Can I apply what I have learned to other situations?
- How could I have improved:
  - the project?
  - the way I worked on my project?
  - the way I managed my time?

Glossary

A

acropolis a fortified part of a city that is built on a high hill. The name comes from the Greek words *akro*, meaning high, and *polis*, meaning city. The most famous acropolis was built in the 5th century BCE in Athens, Greece.

afterlife the belief in life after death held by many ancient cultures, such as the ancient Egyptians who preserved bodies through mummification ready for the afterlife

agoge military training camp at Spartan army barracks for boys as young as seven years of age to learn to be brave warriors

agora the centre of activity in ancient Greek towns and cities. It was where public meetings were held, where plays were performed and a busy marketplace.

ahimsa the avoidance of harming any living creature by actions, words or thoughts

ancestors relations who lived a long time ago from whom you descended

Anglo-Saxons a cultural group who inhabited England from the 5th century CE; a merging of the Angle and Saxon peoples

aqueducts structures built to channel water to settlements in ancient Rome. They had to be built accurately as the water had to run downhill over large distances.

archaeology the study of human history through the excavation of sites and the analysis of artefacts and physical remains found there; people undertaking archaeology are known as **archaeologists**.

archipelago a group of islands

artefact an object made by a person, such as a tool or implement, usually of historical interest

artisan a skilled craftsperson who makes things by hand

asceticism the practice of living a simple life without physical pleasures

assassinate to murder a leader or important official for political reasons

assemblies branch of government in the Roman Republic where plebeians democratically elected magistrates and passed laws

astrolabe an ancient astronomical instrument, probably first used in ancient Greece; it was used to measure the height of astronomical bodies (such as the moon and stars).

B

bailey a protected courtyard within the outer castle wall of a medieval castle

baray a large water reservoir that was a common feature of the architecture of the Khmer Empire

barbarian a term used to describe different non-Latin- and Greek-speaking groups such as the Celts, Franks, Saxons, Angles, Visigoths and Huns who moved into Western Europe in the Early Middle Ages; also used to describe people in general thought to be unsophisticated

barbican a towered wall to protect the main gate of a medieval castle

barid the state-run postal service of the Umayyad and Abbasid caliphates

barter to trade goods or services directly with another person instead of using money

basqaq a Mongolian military governor put in charge of conquered territory

bas-relief a type of sculpture or carving in which the figures are raised against a flat background to give a three-dimensional effect

battlement the top of a stone castle wall that contained gaps called crenels to allow defenders to shoot arrows or throw spears at the enemy while sheltering behind the higher parts of the wall (the merlon)

bazaar a marketplace with many small shops, common in the Middle East

Before Common Era (BCE) the name of the period of time up until the birth of Jesus

beliefs a set of principles or tenets that, together, form the basis of a philosophy, moral code, religion or worldview

beqlare-beq a Mongolian prime minister and chief advisor to the Great Khan

berserker an elite Viking soldier who could enter a trance-like 'berserker' state where they charged forward with no fear, hacking at their foes; the modern term 'berserk' comes from the berserkers.

besiege to attempt to overcome by siege; Joan of Arc led an army to help the besieged city of Orléans.

bias to be for or against an idea, a person or a group, especially in a way that could be thought of as unfair

Black Death the bubonic plague, a pandemic that swept through Europe in the middle of the 14th century, killing one-third of the population

blacksmith a craftsperson who creates objects from iron or steel by heating the metal and shaping it

blót a Viking sacrifice to the gods where pigs or horses were killed, and the blood was sprinkled on statues of the gods and on the participants themselves

Bronze Age the period during which people made and used tools made of bronze, from 3000 to 1200 BCE

buboes painful swellings of the lymph nodes, particularly in the groin, armpits and neck

bubonic plague an infection caused by the *Yersinia pestis* bacterium; symptoms include fever, swollen lymph nodes, headaches. It is spread by bites from infected fleas and lice.

Buddhism a philosophy that began in India and arrived in China from via the Silk Road in the first century CE. Buddhists believe that after people die, they are reincarnated – reborn into another life. Living a proper life would stop the cycle of rebirth, and this stage, called nirvana, could be reached by leading a good life and no longer wanting things.

Bushidō the ethical code of the samurai that stressed loyalty, respect and courage at all times

C

caliph title for a leader or ruler of an Islamic political region

calpulli the Aztec commoners or ordinary people

caravan a group of traders travelling together across a desert using animals such as camels

carbon dating estimating the age of historical material (such as archaeological or palaeontological items) by calculating the item's content of carbon-14

caste a social class in Hinduism that is inherited (passed down over the generations). There are four castes in the Hindu caste system.

Catholicism the faith and practice of the Roman Catholic Church

cause a factor, such as the actions of an individual or group, or a condition that contributes to a historical development. Causes may be long- or short-term factors. Historical changes are typically attributed to multiple causes, with political, societal, economic, cultural and environmental considerations.

cavalry soldiers or warriors mounted on horseback

century a unit of 100 Roman soldiers that was led by a commander known as a centurion

chinampas floating gardens used in the Aztec city of Tenochtitlan

Christianity a religion based on the teachings of Jesus Christ; Catholic and Protestant religions both preach Christianity

chronological order the placement of events into the order they happened to bring structure and order to events in time

cihacoatl the 'snake woman' who was actually a man; he was the advisor to the Aztec king

citizen a legally recognised member of a country or society. In ancient Greece, citizens were men who had completed their military training. In ancient Rome, citizens were males born to parents who were citizens.

city-state an independent city (and surrounding lands) with its own government; it is linked to other cities by trade, language and culture, but is not under a centralised government.

civil war war between citizens in the same country

clan Aboriginal nations are broken into clan groups. Clans are larger than a family and share a common language and kinship system.

climate change the process by which the Earth's average conditions (such as temperature and rainfall) change over time

coat of arms a shield with symbols and colours that represent a family, group or organisation through the process of heraldry

Common Era (CE) the name of the period of time from the birth of Jesus (year 1) until now

Confucianism a philosophy taught by Confucius (551–479 BCE) that taught that people should be honest, brave and knowledgeable and never violent or arrogant; the path to happiness lay in obeying the law, doing one's duty and respecting older people – especially parents and grandparents.

connection to Country the deep spiritual, physical, social and cultural relationship between First Nations Peoples and the land

conquistador a fortune-hunting soldier from Spain

consequence the outcome or result of historical developments. Consequences may be intended or unintended and long or short term.

conscription compulsory military service

consuls the elected leaders of the Roman Republic (509 to 27 BCE). Each year, the citizens of Rome elected two magistrates as consuls, who ruled together for a term of one year.

contestability the interpretive nature of history. Contestability relates to the differences between historical interpretations that may result from different evidence or historical explanation.

context (sources) the social and historical time, place and conditions in which a historical source was created. The context of a historical source is considered a factor in the evaluation of that historical source.

continuity a form of historical process in which there is no change over time

corvée labour when a person is forced to work on public projects for a government

Country the physical environment that a particular Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People's group has a relationship with. Referring to this territory as 'Country', rather than land, indicates a reciprocal and deep relationship – Country both owns and is owned by the People. The concept of Country includes lands, waters and sky.

crusade a religious war to regain control of the Holy Land for Christians

customary law the laws that regulate behaviour and punishments in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander society

D

daimyō the noble class in medieval Japanese society who were granted land by the emperor in return for military protection

deben a metal unit of weight used in ancient Egypt

democracy rule by the citizens, who elect officials and leaders

dharma the idea (in Hinduism) that if people follow rituals and live in the right way, the order of the world will be maintained

dhimmi a non-Muslim living under the protection of an Islamic state

diarchy rule by two rulers who inherited the role

dohyō the sacred ring in which sumō contests take place

domain a feudal territory ruled by a daimyō in shōgunate Japan

donjon a fortified tower inside a castle wall in medieval Japan; it served as the daimyō's residence and the last place of refuge when defending the castle.

Dreaming explains how life came to be and establishes the rules for relationships between Aboriginal people, the land and all living things

duchy a territory ruled by a duke or duchess, who is not elected, but inherits their position

dynasty where one family maintains power over many years by handing on the throne to an heir, usually the oldest son

E

ecclesia political assembly of citizens in ancient Greece where citizens would come together to vote for new laws and to make important decisions

edict official order or statement. In ancient India, Ashoka inscribed his edicts about how to live a moral life on stone pillars.

Elder an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Elder is a person who has earned respect and authority in a community. It is an Elder's duty to instil a respect for the land and culture in community members by teaching young people about their natural environment and sharing knowledge about the Dreaming.

emir military commander in the early Islamic empires

emperor a ruler or monarch of an empire (e.g. In 27 BCE Octavian became the Roman Empire's first emperor and in 800 CE Charlemagne became emperor of Western Europe.)

empire a number of nations or states ruled by a single leader such as an emperor, king, queen or an oligarchy (e.g. the Roman Empire and Aztec Empire)

encomienda a grant by the Spanish king to colonists in America to give them the right to demand tributes and forced labour from the Indigenous people of an area

equites members of the Roman middle class; they were professionals who worked as bankers, merchants or civil servants

evidence the information obtained from historical sources that are used to support an interpretation of the past. Evidence can be used to help construct a historical narrative, to support a hypothesis or to prove or disprove a conclusion.

excommunicate to cut off a Christian from the Church, which would leave them with no chance of salvation after death

export where goods or services produced in one country are shipped to another country for sale or trade

F

fealty formal acknowledgement of a vassal's loyalty to a lord

feudalism a system of rights and obligations throughout society, where lords in Europe and *daimyō* in Japan were granted land in exchange for military service; peasants worked on the lord or *daimyō*'s property in return for the chance to grow their own food and receive protection from the lord's knights or the samurai.

fief a parcel of land given by a lord to a knight in exchange for military support and allegiance

firman a royal decree issued in the Ottoman Empire

Fitna Muslim civil war

fjord a long, narrow body of water with steep sides created by a glacier

flagellants groups of men who, during the Black Death in medieval Europe, travelled from town to town publicly whipping themselves in the hope that God would take pity on them and protect them from the illness

freedmen former slaves of ancient Rome who had been given their freedom. They were not allowed to vote but were protected under the law.

G

geisha an unmarried female entertainer and companion, highly trained in Japanese dance, poetry and playing musical instruments

gladiator criminals or prisoners who were forced to fight, usually to the death, in a public arena for the entertainment of ancient Romans

Gothic style an architectural style, popular from the 12th century onwards, that used vertical proportions, pointed arches and external buttressing

grand vizier the highest-ranking government official in the Ottoman Empire

grandi the nobility in Italy

guerilla warfare a form of warfare that involves small groups of people fighting against an organised army

guild a type of trade union established for each skilled craft to guarantee workmanship, oversee the training of apprentices and settle disputes between employers and skilled workers; guilds were like modern trade unions except they also included employers.

gyōji a Shintō ceremony to bless and purify the *dohyō* before a sumō contest

H

hadith oral reports of what Muhammad said and did during his lifetime

hajj an annual pilgrimage to the Kaaba in Mecca

half-caste a derogatory and outdated term used to describe people who have parents from different races; in Australia it was often used to describe First Nations people who had one First Nations parent. It is now accepted as an offensive term and no longer used.

hapu 'clan' in the Māori language; the basic unit in Māori society

harquebus a long gun that was invented in the 15th century and which was portable

helots slaves in ancient Sparta who undertook manual labour

heraldry the system by which coats of arms are created, described and regulated; used to signify different noble families

heretical a person or group following incorrect beliefs (according to the Catholic Church)

hieroglyphics a writing system using pictures and symbols, such as the system used by ancient Egyptians and Mayans

historian a person who specialises in the study of history by using evidence to answer questions about the past

historical inquiry the process of investigation undertaken to understand the past

history the study of past events, particularly relating to humans

homo sapiens scientific name for the human species, meaning 'wise man'

hoplite an ancient Greek soldier

humanism a philosophy that emerged during the Renaissance; humanists believed in studying a wide range of subjects to fully realise their potential as humans.

humours the four bodily fluids in medieval medicine believed to determine personality and health. The four humours were blood, yellow bile, black bile and phlegm.

I

Ice Age the period of time between 1.8 million and 12 000 years ago when much of the Earth's water was frozen at the northern and southern tips of the planet and the sea level was over 100 metres lower than it is today

imperial court the ruling government in Japan based in Kyoto and then Edo (Tokyo)

import a good or service brought into one country from another country; along with exports, imports are the other key element of international trade

Inquisition an organisation run by the Catholic Church from the 15th–19th century that sought to find and punish people who opposed its beliefs

inundation summer flooding of the Nile River that deposited rich silt, which fertilised the land

interpretation an explanation of the past, for example about the significance of an individual, event or development, and its relationship to continuity and change and/or causes and consequences, based on evidence from historical sources. There may be more than one interpretation of a particular aspect of the past.

Islam faith of Muslims taught by the Quran and based on the religion founded by the prophet Muhammad

iwi 'people' or nation in the Māori language

J

jarl a wealthy Viking noble who could become rich and powerful enough to eventually become a king

joust a tournament where mounted knights used a lance to try to knock their opponent off their horse

Judaism a religion based on the Torah, with origins to 5781 before the present; followers believe in one God, who is spiritual and eternal.

Julian calendar the dating system created by Julius Caesar; it was used between 45 BCE and 1582 CE, when it was replaced by the Gregorian calendar.

K

kami in the Japanese Shintō religion, sacred ancestor spirits that took on forms in nature such as the Sun or rivers

karl an everyday Viking farmer, craftsperson, warrior or sailor

karve a Viking cargo ship used to transport heavy cargo around coastlines and up rivers

keep a fortified tower inside a medieval castle wall; the keep served as the lord's residence and the last place of refuge when defending the castle

kendo a safe form of sword training for samurai using bamboo sticks

khadar a type of soil that is fertile because it sits below the flood level

khan a Mongolian tribal chief or leader

khanate a political region ruled by a khan; the large Mongol Empire split into four separate khanates after the death of Kublai Khan.

kinship extended family relationships in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander societies that are important for sharing culture and organising society. For example, a mother in the kinship system refers not only to a woman's birth mother, but also to her sisters.

knarr a broad Viking cargo ship designed for overseas trade

knight a heavily armoured soldier who rode on horseback; a member of a privileged class in medieval European society, who received a grant of land known as a fief from a lord in return for their protection

knighthood the official declaration that a person is a knight

kowtow to kneel and bow so low that your head touches the ground. In ancient China, everyone had to keep their head bowed if they were addressing the emperor.

L

lance a long spear used by a mounted warrior

legacy something handed down from one generation to the next

legion the main fighting units of the Roman army of about 6000 men. Legions were further broken up into six cohorts.

legionary ancient Roman soldier

loess a type of fertile soil found in the Yellow River in China

longhouse the largest Viking building with no windows, a thatched roof and a large fireplace in the middle for heating, lighting and cooking. One end of the longhouse could be used as a barn to shelter livestock in the winter and the other end could be used as a workshop.

longship a fast, versatile Viking ship with a very shallow draft, which was able to travel in shallow water

loot to take valuable goods in a battle, raid or attack

M

ma'at the order and balance in the Egyptian world and the heavens that also formed the basis of the principles of truth, order, balance and justice and which underpinned law in ancient Egypt

magistrate elected official of the Roman Republic charged with running the city. Once a man had served as a magistrate he could join the Senate. Consuls were the two highest magistrates.

Magna Carta a document signed in 1215 in England that outlined basic rights for all people with the principle that no-one was above the law, including the king

maiko a young geisha in training from the age of six

mana the sacred power believed to be possessed by Polynesian chiefs

Mandate of Heaven the right to rule given to a king or emperor in ancient China by the gods. If the leader was selfish or cruel, it was a sign the gods had withdrawn his mandate to rule. Natural disasters such as famines and floods were also signs of heaven's displeasure with the king.

mangonel a weapon that used the power of twisted rope to make a wooden arm spring up and hurl an object

manor a parcel of land given by a king to a lord in exchange for military support and allegiance

massacre the deliberate killing of a number of undefended people at one time

matrilineal the system of tracing descent through the mother's line; in Khmer culture a king claimed his right to the throne through his mother's royal line.

mawali a term for a non-Arab Muslim during the period of the early Islamic empires

megafauna large animals over 40 kilograms, including extinct Australian megafuna such as the marsupial lion

meritocracy a system of promoting those with talent, or rewarding those with skill, rather than those with a senior position in society

midden waste deposits from meal preparation, often containing bones and shells, which provide evidence of what the people living in a certain area ate

moai the original name for the statues of Rapa Nui

monarchy rule by a single ruler who inherited the role

motte within a medieval castle, a raised hill with a wooden or stone keep (a fortified tower) on the top

mummification preparation of a body for the afterlife in ancient Egypt. The major body organs were removed (except the heart) and the body was washed, embalmed and wrapped in bandages.

Muslim a follower of the Islam religion

N

nations tribal groups of the First Nations Peoples of Australia

native title recognition that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples have traditional rights to the land and water as set out in the *Native Title Act 1993*

ninja highly trained warriors who were specialist spies and assassins

ninjutsu the art of becoming a ninja and perfecting specialist fighting and spying skills

nirvana a place of perfect peace and happiness in Buddism; it is the highest state a person can attain.

noble a person who belongs to the aristocracy (usually wealthy)

nomad/nomadic people with no permanent home, who often herd animals from place to place to find fresh pasture

Normans Viking settlers in the French region of Normandy who adopted the French language, customs and religion

O

oasis a small fertile area in the desert that occurs where there is a natural water source

obelisk a monument made from stone with four sides and which tapers towards the top to a pyramid-shaped point

obsidian a form of igneous rock that is usually black in colour

Old World the parts of the world that were known to Europeans (including Africa, Asia and Europe) before the discovery of the Americas

oligarchy the government of a state or country by a small group of people

onna-musha female warriors in medieval Japan

ostraka sherds of broken pots re-used that were as voting 'ballots' cast by Athenians at meetings of the *ecclesia*

outrigger canoe a canoe with a log attached to one or both sides of the hull to prevent the canoe from tipping over in rough seas; the log is attached using wooden beams.

P

pagan someone who doesn't follow the major religions of the world or believes in more than one god

page the son of a lord who, at age seven, was sent to another lord's family to undertake training as a knight

paiza the official metal pendant carried by riders in the *Yam* in the Mongol Empire, to show they were messengers of the Khan

palisade in a medieval castle, a defensive wall made of wooden stakes

papacy the office of the Bishop of Rome – the pope is the leader of the Catholic Church

papyrus the first paper-like material; it was made from the papyrus plant that grew by the Nile River in Egypt.

paterfamilias the oldest male and head of the ancient Roman family who had complete control over all family matters, including the right to decide if a baby should live or die

patrician wealthy landowners in ancient Rome whose families had held influential positions in society

patron someone who gives support or money to somebody or something

peasant the lowest class in medieval European and Japanese society; peasants farmed the land for their lords or emperor in return for protection.

perioikoi traders and craftsmen in ancient Spartan society who were not considered citizens

perspective the outlook of an individual or group that is shaped by their worldview and context. It includes ideas, beliefs and attitudes, the cultural context and other factors including age, gender, social status, locality, ethnicity or national identity.

phalanx a battle formation used by ancient Greek hoplites to protect themselves in battle. They packed together tightly and overlapped their shields to provide a protective outer barrier to deflect arrows and spears. Spears in the front row were held forward to penetrate the enemy and those in the other rows were held skyward to deflect incoming missiles.

pharaoh the leader of ancient Egyptian society who was viewed as the link between the gods and the people, and therefore had both earthly and divine responsibilities

pilgrimage a spiritual journey to a place of religious importance

pillage a violent robbery where the attacker takes everything from the place and people they have conquered

pilli the regular nobles in the Aztec social system

plebeians poorer farmers and craftspeople in ancient Rome who made up the bulk of the population

pneumonic plague an infection caused by the *Yersinia pestis* bacterium that is spread human to human through infected droplets; symptoms include shortness of breath, fever and weakness.

polis because of ancient Greece's mountainous landscape, small farming villages developed independently into a polis or poleis (plural). Each polis or city-state, such as Athens or Sparta, stayed independent rather than becoming a single Greek nation.

polygyny the practice of a man having more than one wife at a time

polytheistic religion the belief in or workshop of more than one god

popolo grasso social class in Renaissance Italy that consisted of wealthy professionals and guild members

popolo minuto social class in Renaissance Italy that consisted of skilled workers

prefecture a Japanese administrative region controlled by a governor

prehistory the period of time before the invention of writing in ancient Sumer in about 3500 BCE

primary source a source that was created or existed at the time under study, such as books, letters, artefacts and buildings

prophet an individual who speaks with God

puppet emperor (generally young) emperors in medieval Japan who carried the official title while the real power lay with the shōgun

pyramid huge pyramid-shaped buildings built as tombs for royalty or to house the gods in civilisations such as ancient Egypt

Q

qadi a Muslim judge who interprets and rules on Islamic law

quaestor an important public official in ancient Rome who looked after finances and oversaw important legal cases such as murder

qigong a Chinese system of exercises, meditation and breathing control

Quran the Islamic sacred book, believed to be the word of God as told to Muhammad

R

radiocarbon dating the method by which the age of something that was once alive can be estimated by measuring the amount of radioactive carbon present in the sample. Carbon breaks down at a known rate, so the age of the sample can be estimated.

rajah a chief or ruler in ancient India

rangatira a Māori person of high rank

regent a person appointed to rule a country if the monarch is sick, or too young to rule themselves

republic a form of government in which the head of government is elected by the people

rishi a holy Hindu sage or saint

Romanesque style a European artistic and architectural style popular from the mid-11th century that was based on Roman architectural elements (architecture) and focused on religious themes (art)

rōnin a samurai without a master who could hire himself out as a warrior

ruler a person who governs

runes Viking symbols used as part of their writing system

S

sacrament an important religious ceremony in the Christian Church, such as baptism or communion

saga a medieval Viking story of achievements and historical events

sakoku a policy that shut off Japan to the outside world during the Tokugawa Shōgunate

samurai medieval Japan's warrior class; samurai worked for daimyō and were similar to knights in medieval Europe.

Saxon a member of a Germanic people who settled in England in the 5th century CE; they merged with the Angles to become the Anglo-Saxon people.

scribe a well-educated and highly regarded person in ancient Egypt who could read and write, including complex hieroglyphics

secondary source a source created after the time under study, such as textbooks, websites and documentaries

seeress a woman that Vikings believed had the ability to see the future

senate an advisory body in ancient Rome appointed by leaders to advise magistrates and leaders on proposed laws and actions, particularly involving finance and foreign policy

sensei the teacher of a martial art

seppuku ritual suicide practised by samurai rather than facing the humiliation of defeat at the hands of the enemy

septicemic plague an infection caused by the *Yersinia pestis* bacterium; it is an infection of the blood and symptoms include fever, fatigue and internal bleeding.

serf a member of the poorest of the peasant class who received food, shelter and protection from the lords and knights in return for their work on the land and rent payments

sesterce an ancient Roman coin

shah title given to the leader of Iran; the country was also known as Persia

Shintō Japan's ancient religion based on sacred ancestor sprits known as *kami*, which took on forms in nature such as the Sun or rivers

shōgun the military and administrative leader of Japan; shōguns ruled Japan for approximately 700 years from 1192.

shōgunate the government of the shōgun in medieval Japan (e.g. The Tokugawa Shōgunate was the government controlled by shōguns during the Tokugawa period.)

siege a military operation where enemy forces surround a town or building with the aim of cutting off supplies and forcing a surrender

siege engine a large weapon used to break castle doors and city walls; used in warfare during the medieval period

siege tower a high wooden platform on wheels that was pushed against castle walls so the attackers could climb into the castle

significance the importance that is assigned to a particular historical phenomenon. Establishing historical significance is an evaluative process that uses questions and criteria.

Silk Road a 6500-kilometre trading network of routes over land and sea that connected China to Asia, Europe and the Mediterranean

slave a person who is owned by another person and forced to work for nothing; in medieval society, slaves were at the lowest level of the societal hierarchy.

smallpox a contagious viral disease introduced by the Spanish that wiped out large numbers of people in Mesoamerica and South America

sod turf made of grass and soil that was used by Vikings for housing materials

squire a stage of training on the way to becoming a knight, achieved at the age of 14; squires were treated as men and their training became far more dangerous.

standard the emblem of a Roman legion carried into battle. The Roman standard used to identify each legion was a silver eagle (or *aquila*) mounted on a pole.

stele an upright stone or column bearing inscriptions; plural stelae

steppe a large area of flat unforested grassland

stereotype a widely held but generalised idea of a particular type of person or thing

Stolen Generations Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children who were forcibly removed from their families between 1910 and the 1970s

strata the different layers of rock and soil

stratigraphy the process by which the strata (layers of rock and soil) are dated. The age of artefacts found in each strata can then be estimated.

stupa a mound-like structure built to house ancient relics and used as a place of meditation for Buddhists

sultan the ruler of the Ottoman Empire

sumō a martial art practised by huge sumō wrestlers that is linked to Shintō traditions

T

Taoism a Chinese philosophy promoting humility and balance

tā moko traditional Māori tattooing

tapu something that is restricted, forbidden or sacred; we get the modern word 'taboo' from this term.

tecuhtli the high nobility in the Aztec social system; they were judges and high priests.

tlatoani the king of the Aztec people

terra nullius land that the law says that nobody owns. British colonisers regarded the Australian continent as *terra nullius* as they saw no evidence of formal buildings and fences.

Thing a local Viking meeting that took place over a few days every autumn and spring to decide guidelines for how the chief or king was to rule

thrall a Viking slave who had been abducted in a Viking raid, purchased overseas or had sold themselves into slavery to pay a debt

tithe a tax paid to the Church in medieval Europe, usually one-tenth of a person's yearly earnings paid in money or in goods (animals, seeds, grain)

tohunga a Māori class of people that included priests and skilled artisans

totem a natural object, animal or plant that represents its people's spiritual link to the land

Traditional Custodian a First Nations person who is a member of a nation or tribe that has rights and responsibilities for an area of land or sea

trebuchet a tall wooden catapult with a swinging arm that could hurl projectiles high in the air at a target as far as 300 metres away

tribute a payment of goods from one country or state to another, usually given to show respect, submission or admiration

trireme large and fast ancient Greek warships powered by 170 oarsmen. The bronze prow at the front of the trireme was used as a battering ram to smash into other ships.

Turkish Guard the caliph's private army during the period of the early Islamic empires

Twelfth-day the twelfth day after Christmas, 6 January, on which the festival of the Epiphany is celebrated – the last day of the Christmas festivities

typology the process by which archaeological artefacts are placed in categories or types based on similarities

tyranny rule by an individual who seized power illegally

U

uji Japanese clans made up of family groups related by blood or marriage

ulema a group of scholars, administrators and judges who interpreted the law and advised the sultan in the Ottoman Empire and in the early Islamic empires

V

valide sultan the title of the mother of the reigning sultan; valide sultans held significant power, particularly when the sultan was too young to rule.

varna class of men (in Hinduism)

vassal in medieval Europe, someone who received land in return for providing military service and allegiance

vassal state a country/state that is somewhat independent, but that is dominated by a more powerful state or kingdom

vizier a government official in the Mongol Empire and Muslim empires such as the Ottoman Empire

W

warrior a person who is an experienced fighter or soldier

wazir the chief minister in the early Islamic empires

Witan the council that advised the Anglo-Saxon kings of England until the 11th century; Witan means 'wise men'.

Y

Yam a system of relay stations every 30–50 kilometres across the Mongol Empire, which enabled messages to travel 200–300 kilometres per day, as riders handed their message to a fresh rider, or chose a fresh horse and rode on

Yassa the code of laws used throughout the Mongol Empire

yaya-başı 'head footman'; an officer of the Janissaries

yin and ***yang*** concept from Taoism where all living things have two sides – *yin*, the female force: dark, cool and passive and *yang*, the male force: light, hot and active

yurt a portable tent covered in felt and used by nomadic Mongolian herders

Z

zakat a form of giving to charity that is compulsory in Islam

Index

A

B

C

D

E

F

G

H

I

J

N

O

P

Q

R

S

T

U

V

W

X

Y

Z

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Studio, **192** (left) /WH_Pics, **420** /Wirestock, **258;** AKG Images, **170** (bottom left); Alamy, **354** /914 collection, **265** /Adam Eastland Art & Architecture, **25, 152, 490** (top) /Adel Newman, **175** /Ael, **22** /Album, **29, 47** (top), **108-109, 183, 202, 287** (top) /Album/British Library, **212, 421** /Alfredo Garcia Saz, **38-39** /Alpha Historica, **263** /Alpha Stock, **412-13** /ART Collection, **21** /ARTGEN, **414-15** /Atlaspix, **133** /Bayar Balgantseren/ imageBROKER, **68** (top) /Bill Allsopp, **189** (top) /Bill Bachman, **439** (top) /Bjorn Grotting, **308** /booksR, **357** (bottom) /Chronicle, **119, 259** /Cindy Hopkins, **317** (top) /Classic Image, **63, 112** (top), **333** /CM Dixon/Heritage Images, **101** /Colin Waters, **151** /Colin Weston/LatitudeStock, **289** (top) /COLUMBIA\GAUMONT, **216-17, 219** /Concordia Discors, **328** /CPA Media Pte Ltd, **16** (bottom right), **67, 251** (bottom), **330, 351** (top) /Dan Rieck, **323** (bottom left) /David Hancock, **460-61** /Derek Bayes/Lebrecht Music & Arts, **416-17** /Dimitrios Karamitros, **257** (top) /Dorling Kindersley ltd, **48-49, 127** (bottom) /Dorling Kindersley/Richard Bronson, **106-107** /DPA picture alliance, **3, 16** (top) /Erich Lessing/Album, **86** /funkyfood London – Paul Williams, **44** (top), **104-105** /Gary Perkin, **201** (top) /GL Archive, **193** (top right), **488** /gokhan dogan, **484** /GRANGER – Historical Picture Archive, **42-43, 59** (bottom), **168, 185** (bottom), **211, 289** (bottom), **325** (bottom), **350-51, 370, 407, 411 (**bottom), **417** (top), **473** (top) /Historic Collection, **24** (top), **466** /Historic Images, **158** /Historical image collection by Bildagentur-online, **250** /Historical Picture Archive, **380-81** /History and Art Collection, **18, 144-45, 452-53** /Hoberman Publishing, **153** /Holmes Garden Photos, **313** (bottom) /IanDagnall Computing, **50** (top right) /Icom Images, **399** (bottom) /imageBROKER.com GmbH & Co. KG, **61** (top) /incamerastock, **198-99, 385** /INTERFOTO, **44** (bottom), **222** (left) /IPA, **479** (top) /Jan Wlodarczyk, **31** /Jean-Léon Gérôme, 'The Christian Martyrs' Last Prayer'/Album, **148-49** /Jean-Paul Ferrero/Auscape International Pty Ltd/Alamy, **4** /John Mitchell, **391** (bottom) /John Parrot/ Stocktrek Images, **157** /Ken Gillham, **304-05** /Kumar Sriskandan, **59** (top), **112-113, 115** (top), **116-117, 201** (bottom) /LMA/AW, **284** /Loetscher Chlaus, **293** (top) /Marshall Ikonography, **194** (top) /Martin Helgemeir, **439** (bottom), **445** /Matjaz Corel, **352-51** /mauritius images, **127** (top), **482** (top) /MeijiShowa, **340-41** /Melvyn Longhurst, **251** (top) /Michael Schmeling, **134** (left) /Michele Burgess, **376** /Mike Fuchslocher, **489** /Mint Images, **337** (left) /Morten Hübbe, **68** (bottom) /Moviestore Collection Ltd, **323** (right) /National Geographic Image Collection, **55** (bottom) /Niday Picture Library, **218** /North Wind Archives, **124-25, 434** (right), **461,** /NurPhoto SRL, **24** (bottom) /Olaf Krueger/ imageBROKER, **320** /Old Books Images, **483** /Oldtime, **91** (wheelbarrow) /Penta Springs Limited, **356** /Peter Hermes Furian, **30** /Peter Horree, **110-111, 129** (top), **165** (top) /Photo Researchers/Science History Images, **404** /Pictorial Press Ltd, **242** /Pictures Now, **40** /Pocholo Calapre, **68** (centre) /Rob Skovell / Alamy Stock Photo, **9** (centre) /Robert Harding Productions, **37, 222-23** /rod ho, **90** (umbrella) /Roman Garcia Mora/ Stocktrek Images, **12** (top) /Russ Heinl/All Canada Photos, **318** /Sally Anderson, **274** /Science History Images, **39** (top), **165** (bottom), **187, 312** /Science Photo Library, **52** (bottom) /Sergey Breev, **90=91** /Smith Archive, **76** /Speed Media, **323** (top left) /Steeve-xtc, **270** (left) /Stock Montage, Inc, **423** (bottom), **433** (bottom) /TCD/Prod DB © Marvel Studios, **300** /TCD/Prod DB © Warner Bros, **102-103** /The History Collection, **186** /The Picture Art Collection, **75, 78, 79, 170** (top right), **173** (top), **357** (top), **344-45, 433** (top) /The Print Collector, **464** /Tom Lovell/National Geographic Image Collection, **310** /Travelscape Images, **13** (bottom) /UtCon Collection, **336-37** /Vaidas Bucys, **167** /Volgi archive, **35** (top), **331** /Warner Bros/A.F. ARCHIVE, **120-21** /Warner Bros/Pictorial Press Ltd, **123** /Werner Forman Archive/Heritage Image Partnership Ltd, **33** (top), **301** (left) World History Archive, **50** (bottom right) /World History Archive, **50** (left), **97, 169** (bottom), **332, 475** (left) /YA/BOT, **241** /Zev Radovan, **16** (bottom left) /Zev Radovan/ BibleLandPictures, **17** /Zhanna Tretiakova, **207** (top right) /Zoonar/ Konstantin Kalishko, **478** (left) /ZUMA Press, **51;** Australian War Memorial /ART50023, **458**; British Museum Images /©The Trustees of the British

Museum, **140**, **327;** Bridgeman Images, **213** (bottom), **261** (top), **314-15** /A. Dagli Orti/© NPL – DeA Picture Library, **143** (top) /Dover Castle: the siege of 1216, Dunn, Peter (20th Century) / Private Collection / © Historic England, **189** (bottom) /Future Publishing Ltd, **246-47, 316-17** /Giancario Costa, **305** (top) /Giorgio Albertini, **221** /Granger, **141, 302-03** /Iberfoto, **236-37** /Kenneth Garrett/GEO Image Collection, **402** /Lambeth Palace Library, **191** /Leif Eriksson Discovers America (oil on canvas), Dahl, Hans (1849-1937)/Private Collection/Photo © O. Vaering, **319** /Leonard de Selva, **463** /Look and Learn, **197, 259** (bottom), **368** /Luisa Ricciarini, **430** /Minneapolis Institute of Art/Gift of Ellen and Fred Wells, **325** (top) / NPL – DeA Picture Library, **118, 252** /Palazzo Pitti, Florence, Italy, **391** (top) /Photo Josse, **173** (bottom) /SSPL/ UIG, **239;** Courtesy of Clare Wright, **5** (right); Emilio Labrador / https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/ by/2.0/, **182** (right); ESRI World Imagery database/ Map screenshot images are the intellectual property of Esri and is used herein with permission. Copyright © 2020 Esri and its licensors. 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BUSS/De Agostini Editorial, **27** (top) /Dean Conger, **215** (top left) /Dorling Kindersley, **52-53** (top), **58, 61** (bottom), **93** (bottom), **99** (bottom), **104** (top left), **105** (top right), **126, 204** (left), **209, 309, 478-479** /Georgette Douwma, **272** /Grafissimo, **279** /Heritage Images, **177** /Heritage Images/Hulton Archive, **124** (bottom left) /Historical Picture Archive, **426-27** /Keystone-France, **23** /Matteo Colombo, **111** (top) /MediaProduction, **80-81** /MOLA, **382, 383** /Mondadori Portfolio, **388** /Nastasic, **176** /Nigel Killeen, **13** (top) /Peter Dennis, **408** /Photo Josse/Leemage, **192-93** /Photos.com, **45** (bottom) /Pictures from History, **355** (right), **372-73** /Print Collector, **115** (bottom) /Scott Barbour, **81** (top) /Scott Olson, **48** (left) /ViewStock, **88, 90** (compass) /Vincenzo Fontana, **184-85;** HAYTON, Fleur des histoires de la terre d'Orient, **227**; HERBERT K. KANE, **269, 268-69, 490** (bottom); Courtesy of the Institute for the History of Arabic-Islamic Sciences, Frankfurt, **253**; iStock /4X-image, **90** (acupuncture) /abencek, **102-103** (mountain background) /alessandro0770, **5** (left) /aphotostory, **64-65** /bwzenith, **472** (top) /Celli07, **487** /DianaHirsch, **114** /duncan1890, **171** /Ed-Ni-Photo, **267** (top) /fotoVoyager, **155** (top) /gionnixxx, **12** (bottom) /Goddard_ Photography, **271** /Kemter, **163** (top) /koya79, **395** (top) /mahroch, **19** /mura, **337** (right) /o-che, **46-47** (bottom) /Page Light Studios, **95** /PeterHermesFurian, **235** /PytyCzech, **73** /ROMAOSLO, **136** /santima_studio, **492** /sara22, **146-47** (background) /Sensvector, **493** (bottom) /Stamatoyoshi, **423** (top) /TonyBaggett, **137;** Photographer John Gollings, **12** (centre right); Mahawk / From the strategy game 'Old World' by Mahawk Games, reproduced with permission, **474**; National Museum of Denmark, Photograoher John Lee, **307** (bottom); New York Public Library / Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture, Manuscripts, Archives and Rare Books Division, The New York Public Library. 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Frappell, **374-75**; South Australian Museum /Tindale map ©Tony Tindale and Beryl George, 1974. South Australian Museum, **442**; Science Photo Library, **377** /CCI Archives, **259** (top) /DAVID GIFFORD, **9** (top) /Jean Soutif/Look at Sciences, **248** /JOSE ANTONIO PEÑAS, **154-55** /NOAA, **8** /Paul D Stewart, **450;** Shutterstock /AlexanderLS **66** /Ava Peattie **460** /delcarmat **102-103**

(gods) /fluke samed **338** /Franck Legros **496** (Ramses) /Gordine N **45** (top) /Kamira **113** (top) /Peter Hermes Furian **482** (bottom) //Pyty **477** Sammy33 **345** (top)**;** State Library of New South Wales /Dixson Galleries, State Library of New South Wales **465** /Mitchell library, State Library of New South Wales **468, 469;** Smithsonian Institution / Attributed to Cheng Qi (傳)程棨 (active mid- to late 13th century) Formerly attributed to Liu Songnian (傳)劉松年 (ca. 1150-after 1225), Tilling Rice, after Lou Shou, Yuan dynasty, mid- to late 13th century, Ink and color on paper, China, 32.7 x 1049.8 cm (Freer Gallery of Art, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC: Purchase – Charles Lang Freer Endowment, F1954.21), **364-65**; Te Ara Museum of New Zealand/University of Auckland, 267 (bottom); Te Papa / Chinampas Aztec floating gardens diorama, 2013. Photo by Michael Hall. Te Papa (52374), **401** / Hei tiki (pendant in human form), 1700-1847, New Zealand, maker unknown. Oldman Collection. Gift of the New Zealand Government, 1992. Te Papa (OL001031), **270** (right); The Map Archive / Battle of Hastings map/The Map Archive, **210**; The Metropolitan Museum of Art /Rogers Fund, 1929, **56** / Harris Brisbane Dick Fund, 1939, **225** (top); University of Auckland / D.S. Davidson, 1934, Australian Spear-traits and their Derivations, JPS, volume 43, page 72, **452** (left); Wellcome Collection, **376**; Wolfgang Sauber /Desiderio Hernandez Xochitiotzin (1995 CE), Mural, Palacio de Gobierno, Tlaxcala, Mexico, **410**.

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